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The tolerance of a keystone ecosystem engineer to extreme heat stress is hampered by microplastic leachates

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Abstract

Plastic pollution and ongoing climatic changes exert considerable pressure on coastal ecosystems. Unravelling the combined effects of these two threats is essential to management and conservation actions to reduce the overall environmental risks. We assessed the capacity of a coastal ecosystem engineer, the blue mussel *Mytilus edulis*, to cope with various levels of aerial heat stress (20, 25, 30 and 35°C) after an exposure to substances leached from beached and virgin low-density polyethylene pellets. Our results revealed a significant interaction between temperature and plastic leachates on mussel survival rates. Specifically, microplastic leachates had no effect on mussel survival at 20, 25 and 30°C. In turn, mussel survival rates significantly decreased at 35°C, and this decrease was even more significant following an exposure to leachates from beached pellets; these pellets had higher concentration of additives

40 compared to the virgin ones, potentially causing a bioenergetic imbalance. Our results stress
41 the importance of adopting integrated approaches combining the effects of multiple
42 environmental threats on key marine species to understand and mitigate their potential
43 synergistic effects on ecosystem dynamics and resilience in the face of the changing
44 environment.

45 **Keywords**

46 warm, global change, contaminant, emersion, keystone species

47

48 **1. Introduction**

49 Plastics and their associated chemicals have become a global concern from both scientific and
50 societal perspectives. The ever-increasing plastic production and poor waste management has
51 led to a permanent contamination of the biosphere by plastic items [1–3]. Coastal systems are
52 some of the most heavily plastic-polluted ecosystems [4,5]. Plastics may pose a serious threat
53 to organisms not only through physical damages [6,7], but also through the far less studied
54 consequences of their chemical content [8,9]. Plastic debris may noticeably act as vectors for
55 numerous chemical compounds that can be hazardous depending on the nature of the chemicals
56 and their concentrations [10,11], which can vary during plastic lifetime. Virgin plastics are
57 essentially composed of plastic polymers to which a range of additives are incorporated during
58 their manufacture in order to improve their performances [12], with *e.g.* phthalates making up
59 10 to 60% of the PVC weight [13]. Then, when released in the environment, a range of
60 environmental contaminants, potentially more toxic than additives (*e.g.* heavy metals,
61 pesticides), may be adsorbed on plastic particle surface and accumulate [14,15], at
62 concentrations up to 6 orders of magnitude higher than in the environment [16] and then be
63 desorbed [8]. These sorption/desorption phenomena noticeably increases as particle size
64 decreases [17]. As such, plastics in general and microplastics in particular (*i.e.* particles smaller

65 than 5 mm) may act both as a sink and a source of contaminants, exposing organisms to complex
66 and potentially toxic cocktails of chemical compounds [8,9,18].

67 As climate change progresses, the effects of extreme weather conditions, including the
68 increased frequency, intensity, and duration of heat stress, are expected to become more
69 pronounced [19–21]. In intertidal ecosystems, these events are particularly stressful, *e.g.* the
70 body temperature variation experienced by mussel specimens between emersion and immersion
71 can exceed 20°C (*e.g.* [22,23]), and can cause damages and mass mortality episodes, especially
72 in marine invertebrates such as mussels [22,24–26]. Noticeably, the temperature tolerance of
73 organisms is dependent on their health status, which can further be compromised by the
74 presence of contaminants in seawater [27–29]. Even though plastic pollution and heat stress *de*
75 *facto* frequently coincide, only a handful of studies have explored their combined repercussions.
76 These essentially include adverse effects on survival, physiological processes, and cellular
77 functions [30–33] though exceptions exist [34–36]. Despite the plethora of studies that assessed
78 the effects of microplastic leachates on various aspects of the biology and ecology of marine
79 organisms [8], to the best of our knowledge the combined impact of plastic leachates and heat
80 stress has not been addressed. Given the potentially high impact of these two stressors on
81 intertidal ecosystems, the objective of this study was to assess the impact of microplastic
82 leachates on the ability of a key intertidal ecosystem engineer [37], the blue mussel *Mytilus*
83 *edulis*, to survive to aerial heat stress. Leachate solutions were consistently prepared from low-
84 density polyethylene pellets that were either virgin (*i.e.* raw commercially available pellets) or
85 found stranded on the beach, and aerial heat stress was simulated at 4 different temperatures
86 (*i.e.* 20, 25, 30 or 35°C). We hypothesised that plastic leachate exposure alters the mussel ability
87 to withstand an aerial heat stress event and that leachates from beached pellets will have a more
88 deleterious impact than virgin ones because they have the potential to accumulate additional
89 toxicants when dispersed in the environment.

90

91 2. Material and Methods

92 a) *Study organisms*

93 A total of 720 specimens of the blue mussel *Mytilus edulis* (3 to 4 cm in shell length) were
94 collected in September 2022 from the intertidal rocky shore at Pointe aux Oies (Wimereux,
95 France; 50°47'08.3"N, 1°36'03.9"E) along the French coast of the eastern English Channel.
96 Prior to the experiments, mussels were acclimated in the laboratory for 24 h in 85 L tanks filled
97 with oxygen saturated natural seawater [38] representative of *in situ* conditions (T = 20°C;
98 S = 33).

99 b) *Microplastics and leachate solution preparation*

100 Microplastic leachate solutions (MPL) were prepared from either (i) commercially available
101 (Materialix Ltd., London, United Kingdom) low-density spheroidal polyethylene pellets (with
102 typical longest and shortest axes respectively 4.14 ± 0.21 mm and 1.89 ± 0.10 mm in length;
103 V-MPL treatment) or (ii) cylindrical beached pellets (typically 4.04 ± 0.56 mm in width and
104 3.03 ± 0.82 mm in height; B-MPL treatment) collected from the high-tide mark sediment
105 surface of the nearby beach (Ambleteuse, France; 50°80'61.9"N 1°60'31.34"E). Beached pellets
106 were consistently identified as low-density polyethylene using Fourier transform infrared
107 (FTIR) analysis with an Aldrich FTIR database search set at 97.5% correlation setting. GC-
108 HRMS analyses showed that virgin pellets were composed of 5 additives, including 4
109 plasticisers and 1 antioxidant. In contrast, beached pellets contained 7 additives, 4 plasticisers
110 and 3 antioxidants and in a quantity typically 2 to 4-fold higher than in virgin pellets. For more
111 details about the polymer and chemical content identification and the method used, see
112 Supplementary Material, S1.

113 Each type of pellets was mixed with natural aerated seawater for 24h [38–41] at 20°C at a

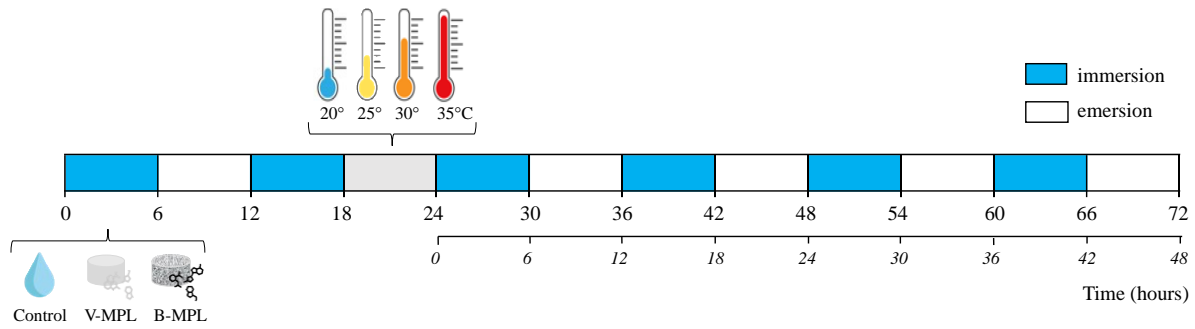
114 concentration of 10 g of pellets per litre (*ca.* 400 pellets per litre, or equivalently 20 mL of
115 pellets per litre; [39]). After 24 h, the experiment was performed using the solution alone (*i.e.*
116 without any pellets). A control solution (Control) was prepared by incubating aerated seawater
117 for 24 h at 20°C. Consistent oxygen saturation and seawater renewal were ensured for each
118 treatment during every immersion cycle.

119 *c) Experimental design*

120 The experiment was designed to mimic the temperature experienced by *M. edulis* during a
121 typical tidal cycle at the sampling site (*i.e.* 6 h immersion/emersion with a sea surface and air
122 temperature of 20°C; see SOMLIT 2022 data for Wimereux in September;
123 <https://www.somlit.fr/visualisation-des-donnees/>), with a one-off emersion heat stress event
124 representative of observed air temperature at the study site during the summer 2022 (25, 30 and
125 35°C; air temperature record = 39.6°C [42]). A previous study conducted at our study site, using
126 robomussels, revealed that mussel body temperatures occasionally exceeded 35°C, reaching a
127 maximum recorded temperature of 41.7°C, while the seawater temperature remained around
128 15°C, resulting in a delta temperature of over 20°C [22].

129 Specifically, the 72-hour experiment consisted of 6 successive immersion-emersion cycles
130 that were conducted (i) under naturally occurring seawater and air temperatures at our study
131 site in September (*i.e.* 20°C) as a control, and (ii) under a 6-hour aerial heat stress event of 25,
132 30 or 35°C after one immersion-emersion-immersion cycle at 20°C and followed by 4
133 immersion-emersion recovery events at 20°C (Fig. 1).

134



135

136 **Figure 1:** Schematic diagram of the immersion-emersion experiments. Mussels were immersed (blue rectangles)
 137 during 6 hours in Control, Virgin microplastic leachate (V-MPL) or Beached microplastic leachate (B-MPL)
 138 solutions and emerged (white rectangles) during 6 hours consistently at an aerial temperature of 20°C (control
 139 temperature) except during the second emersion (grey rectangle) where the mussels were exposed to a low (25°C),
 140 moderate (30°C) or high (35°C) aerial heat stress event. The numbers indicate the time in hours after the beginning
 141 of the microplastic leachate stress (normal font) or after the thermal stress (italic font).

142

143 For each experimental treatment (Temperature × Solution), 20 mussels were used in
 144 triplicates (*i.e.* $N = 60$ mussels for each of the 12 experimental trials). During the immersion
 145 phase, the mussels were incubated in a 1.5 L glass jar containing 1 L of Control, V-MPL, or B-
 146 MPL solutions. Immersions lasted for 6 hours at a temperature of 20 °C (Fig. 1). The emersion
 147 consisted in placing the mussels on natural seawater saturated paper towels in sealed 1.5 L glass
 148 jars to maintain around 95% relative humidity to avoid desiccation or evaporation [22]. For the
 149 aerial heat stress, the jars were placed in incubators (MIR-154, Panasonic, Japan; temperature
 150 resolution ± 0.3 °C) heated either at 20, 25, 30 or 35°C for 6 h (Fig. 1). Relative humidity and
 151 air temperature experienced by mussels inside the jars were monitored using Hygro Buttons 23
 152 (Proges-Plus, resolution 0.5°C and 1%) at 5 min interval (Supplementary Materials, S2).

153

154 *d) Endpoint and Statistical analyses*

155 After each immersion and emersion, the status of each mussel was visually checked. Opened
 156 mussels that did not respond to foot probing, *i.e.* no valve closure, were discarded and recorded

157 as dead [22,43–45].

158 To study the effects of the factors ‘Temperature’, ‘Solution’ and their interaction
159 ‘Temperature × Solution’, data were analysed using a 2-way ANOVA with Solution (Control,
160 V-MPL, B-MPL) and Temperature (20°C, 25°C, 30°C, 35°C) as fixed factors and percentage
161 of survived mussels at the end of the experiment as the dependent factor. Significant effects
162 were examined using Tukey-HSD post-hoc test. The data met the assumption required for the
163 ANOVAs; homogeneity of variances and dispersion of the residuals were checked using the
164 package ‘DHARMA’ (see Supplementary Materials, S3; [46]).

165 Lethal times at 50% of mortality (LT50; in hours) and their lower and upper fiducial
166 confidence limits (CL) for each solutions at 35°C — the only temperature where a significant
167 mortality was recorded — were estimated using a binomial generalised linear model with a
168 probit link function using the package ‘ecotox’ [47–50]. The data met the assumption required
169 for the generalised linear model; homogeneity of variances and dispersion of the residuals were
170 checked using the package ‘DHARMA’ (see Supplementary Materials, S4; [46]). To determine
171 the existence of differences between the LT50 at 35°C of each treatment, a ratio test was used
172 [49]. Exact *p* values are given in Supplementary Materials S5, S6 and S8. All statistical analyses
173 were performed using the R Core Team software (2022).

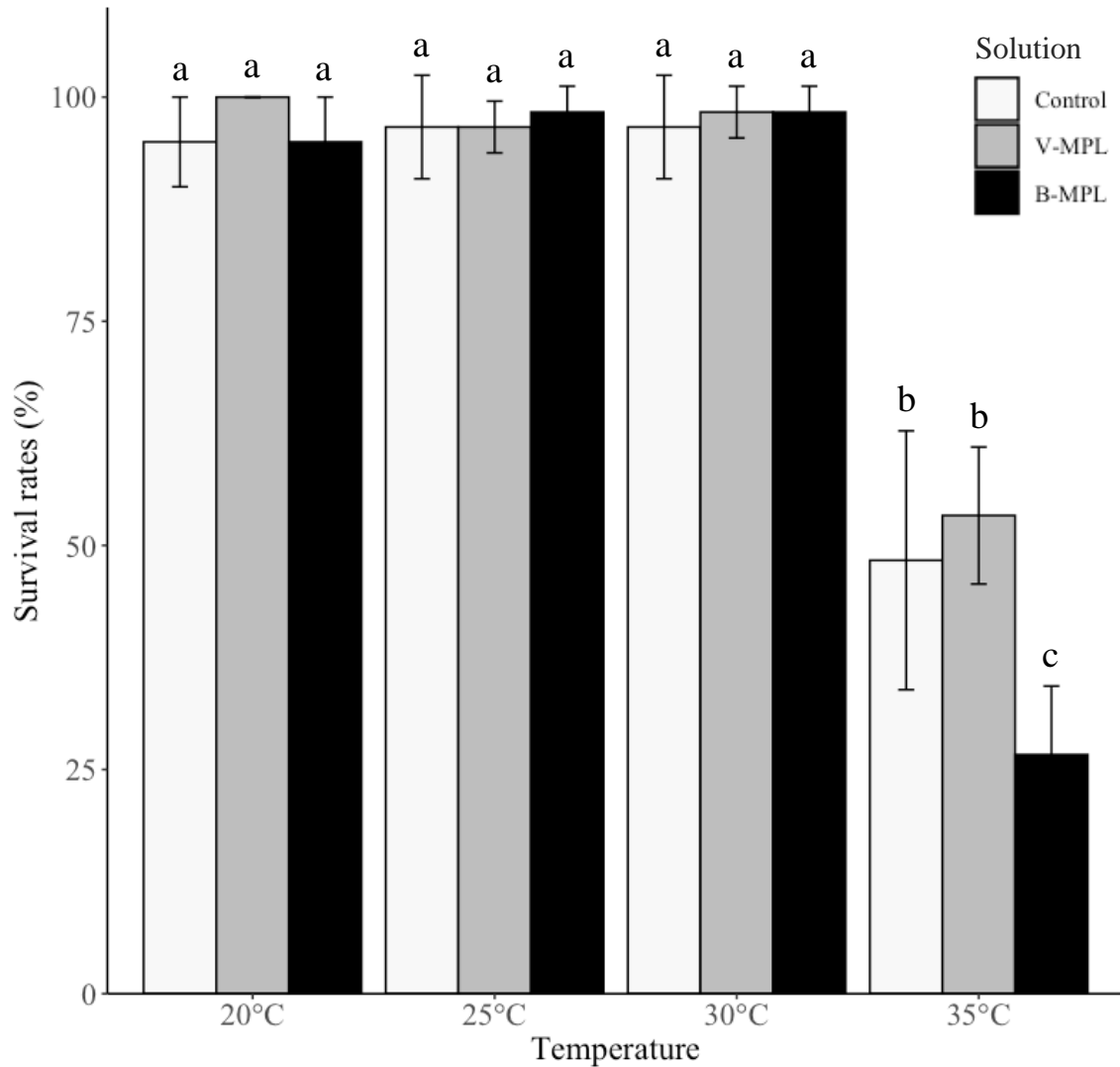
174

175 **3. Results**

176 *a) Survival rates*

177 Survival rates (mean ± SD) significantly decreased only after an aerial heat stress exposure at
178 35°C for all solutions, *i.e.* Control (48.3 ± 14.4%), V-MPL (53.3 ± 7.6 %) and B-MPL (26.7 ±
179 7.6%); Temperature × Solution, *p* < 0.01; Tukey test: *p* < 0.001; S5, S6; Fig. 2). Specifically,
180 at 35°C, significantly more mussels —5 on average— died when exposed to B-MPL compared
181 to those exposed to V-MPL and Control seawater (Temperature × Solution, *p* < 0.01; S6, Tukey

182 test: $p < 0.01$ and $p < 0.05$, respectively; Fig. 2). No significant differences in mussel mortality
 183 were found between V-MPL and Control seawater treatments at any of the aerial heat stress
 184 temperature tested (Temperature \times Solution, $p < 0.01$; S6; Tukey's test: $p > 0.05$; Fig. 2).
 185



186
 187 **Figure 2:** Survival rates (%; mean \pm Standard Deviation) of *Mytilus edulis* at the end of the 72 h experiment after
 188 an exposure to control seawater (light grey), virgin (grey) and beached (black) microplastic leachate solutions
 189 combined with an aerial heat stress event at different temperatures. Letters depict significant differences among
 190 Temperature \times Solution treatments ($p < 0.05$; Two-way ANOVA, Tukey post-hoc comparison). For details about
 191 the exact p -values, please refer to the Supplementary Materials S5, S6.

192
 193
 194 b) Lethal time after a 35°C aerial heat stress

195 When exposed to a 35°C aerial heat stress, the LT50 (CL) of mussels exposed to control
196 seawater, *i.e.* 69.5 h (64.4 – 78.0 h), was not significantly different from the LT50 recorded
197 following exposure to V-MPL, *i.e.* 71.1 h (67.3 – 77.0 h; ratio test: $p > 0.05$, S7, S8). In contrast,
198 mussels exposed to B-MPL were less resistant to a 35°C aerial heat stress, as LT50 was reached
199 in significantly less time, *i.e.* 59.4 h (57.2 – 62.0 h), than the other two treatments (ratio test: p
200 < 0.001 , S7, S8).

201 **4. Discussion**

202 We provide the first evidence of the combined effect of temperature and plastic leachates on
203 the survival rate of the keystone ecosystem engineer, *Mytilus edulis*. At temperatures ranging
204 from 20 to 30°C, the presence of leachates, either from virgin or beached microplastics, did not
205 affect the mortality rates of *M. edulis*. In sharp contrast, under conditions of high thermal stress
206 (35°C), and in agreement with previous studies [22,51], there was a significant decline in
207 survival rates for all treatments, especially when mussels were exposed to leachates from
208 beached microplastics. These results raise concern, given that thermal events with mussel body
209 temperature reaching more than 35°C during summer emersion at the study site occurred *ca.*
210 11 times over their 84-day time series [22], a scenario expected to intensify under future climate
211 projections [20]. Sub-lethal synergistic effect of temperature and contaminant, *e.g.* [52–56],
212 including plastics, *e.g.* [31,57–59], have previously been documented in mussels under
213 conditions of immersion. This present work, however, provides the first evidence of an
214 enhanced thermal mortality through an exposure to microplastic leachates.

215 The adverse synergistic effect observed here is likely due to a bioenergetic imbalance, *i.e.*
216 the energy costs exceed the available energy supply. Leachates originating from various plastics
217 such as car tire rubber, polypropylene, polyethylene terephthalate, polystyrene, polyvinyl
218 chloride, and noticeably even bioplastics are capable of harming mussel cells by interfering
219 with processes like lysosomal function, neurotransmission, oxidative stress and antioxidant

220 defences; see [60,61] for details on leachates composition. Under low and moderate thermal
221 stress conditions, the detoxification and repair cost may be low enough to supply basal
222 maintenance [29,62]. In turn, at high temperatures, the mussel heat shock response cost and cell
223 damages caused by aerial heat stress [63] are added to those of plastic leachates. In this context,
224 our results suggest that the processes used to counteract the cellular damage caused by these
225 combined stressors may become too costly and create a bioenergetic deficit, leading to high
226 mortality [29,62].

227 Noticeably, *M. edulis* survival rates following a 35°C aerial heat stress varied depending on
228 the pellet's history, with beached microplastic leachates (from pellets collected in the
229 environment and used at a locally realistic concentration [64]) being significantly more harmful
230 than virgin microplastic leachates (from commercially available pellets). The more severe
231 effect of B-MPL compared to V-MPL has previously been shown in *Perna perna* mussel
232 embryo [41] and also in a wide range of other species, *e.g.* in sea urchins (*Paracentrotus lividus*
233 [65,66]), jellyfish [65], gastropods [64] and even in dune plants [67], although exceptions exist
234 such as in zebrafish [65], copepods and another sea urchin (*Lytechinus variegatus* [68,69]).

235 The strongest effect observed for beached microplastic leachates compared to virgin ones
236 after the high aerial heat stress is likely related to the pellet chemical content. Indeed, virgin
237 pellets contained less additives, which were 2- to 4-fold less concentrated than in beached ones.
238 The additives characterised were mainly phthalate plasticisers (*i.e.* Dimethyl phthalate, DMP;
239 Diethyl phthalate, DEP; Di-n-butyl phthalate, DBP and Diisobutyl phthalate, DIBP) and
240 Bisphenol S antioxidant, which are known to have various detrimental effects on marine
241 invertebrates, for reviews see [70–72]. In addition, due to their permanence in the natural
242 environment, beached pellets are also likely to be loaded with a harmful cocktail of
243 environmental contaminants such as Persistent Organic Pollutants and heavy metals [73,74].
244 This is in sharp contrast with virgin pellets which are essentially composed of functional

245 additives (*e.g.* flame retardants, plasticisers, colorants [75]). Although mussel survival rates
246 were noticeably not affected at low temperatures when combined with either type of plastic
247 leachates, this does not rule out the existence of sublethal effects such as behaviour, growth and
248 reproduction which are likely to have longer term detrimental effects on the biology, ecology
249 and ultimately survival [62]. The resolution of these specific issues lies beyond the scope of the
250 present work, but warrants the need for further studies.

251

252 **5. Conclusion**

253 Thermal stress and plastic pollution are prominent challenges in the Anthropocene. In the
254 context of the anticipated rise in frequency, severity, and duration of extreme heat events [20],
255 coupled with the growing production of plastic and the subsequent accumulation of plastic
256 waste in the environment [76], our results raise concerns and highlight the critical need for
257 multi-stress studies to fully comprehend the impacts of these stressors on organisms. In turn,
258 increase in temperature has been shown to enhance the leaching of plastic associated chemical
259 compounds [77–79], and hence their potential toxicity, highlighting the need for further studies
260 to understand the fate of plastic-associated chemicals in warming ecosystems. Considering the
261 engineering role of the species used in this study, the combined impact of environmentally
262 realistic temperature [22], as well as the type and concentration of plastic pellet [64], could
263 pose a significant threat not only to the species itself but also to the overall ecosystem that relies
264 on these species for sustenance.

265

266

267 **Ethics**

268 Under French regulations, the present work did not require ethical approval from a human
269 subject or animal welfare committee.

270

271 **Data accessibility**

272 The data and scripts that support the findings of this study are available from the Dryad Digital

273 Repository: <https://doi.org/10.5061/dryad.gtht76hst>.

274 Supplementary material is available online.

275

276 **Declaration of competing interest**

277 The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal
278 relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

279

280 **Author contributions**

281 **Marine Uguen:** Conceptualisation, Methodology, Investigation, Data curation, Formal

282 Analysis, Writing - Original Draft, Editing. **Sylvie M Gaudron:** Supervision, Resources,

283 Methodology, Investigation, Writing - Review & Editing. **Katy R Nicastro:** Supervision,

284 Methodology, Investigation, Writing - Review & Editing. **Gerardo I Zardi:** Methodology,

285 Investigation, Writing - Review & Editing. **Nicolas Spilmont:** Methodology, Investigation,

286 Writing - Review & Editing. **Solène Henry:** Investigation, Writing – Review & Editing.

287 **Laurent Seuront:** Supervision, Resources, Methodology, Investigation, Writing - Review &

288 Editing, Funding acquisition.

289

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310

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