1 EFFECTS OF A BACTERICIDE ON THE STRUCTURE AND SURVIVAL OF BENTHIC 2 **DIATOM COMMUNITIES** Soizic Morin^{1,2}, Lorenzo Proia², Marta Ricart², Chloé Bonnineau², Anita Geiszinger², 3 Francesco Ricciardi², Helena Guasch², Anna Romani², Sergi Sabater^{2,3} 4 5 ¹ Cemagref, UR REBX, 50 avenue de Verdun, 33612 Cestas cedex, France 6 ² Institut d'Ecologia Aquàtica, Campus Montilivi, 17073 Girona, Spain 7 ³ Catalan Institute for Water Research (ICRA), Scientific and Technologic Park of the 8 9 University of Girona, 17003, Girona, Spain 10 11 Running title: Effects of a bactericide on diatom communities 12 13 **ABSTRACT** 14 We studied the adverse effects of triclosan, a widely used biocide commonly reported in 15 surface waters, on the structure and function of benthic diatom communities. Laboratory-16 grown biofilms were exposed (i) to chronic contamination by increasing concentrations of 17 triclosan and (ii) to a short-pulse of sublethal triclosan concentrations followed by a 2-week 18 recuperation period. 19 The first experiment was performed using 6 nominal concentrations ranging from 0.05 to 500 ug/L triclosan to obtain the concentration – effect relationships for benthic diatom 20 communities. Here effects at the highest triclosan concentration in the diatom community 21 22 consisted of a 63% increase in diatom mortality, with respect to control conditions. The 23 second experiment aimed at determining the long-term effects of the toxicant and biofilm 24 recuperation after addition of 60 µg/L triclosan for 48h exposure. After two weeks the sublethal pulse had caused a decrease in diatom growth rates and a significant delay in the 25

26 exponential phase of growth. The triclosan pulse provoked a decrease in diatom species 27 richness and diversity. The diatom communities were dominated by 6 species, with Achnanthidium minutissimum being highly preponderant, and variations were not large 28 29 enough to provide information about sensitivities / tolerance to triclosan in different species. 30 31 **KEYWORDS** 32 Bacillariophyceae; benthic communities; triclosan; dose-response; bioassays; live and dead 33 cells; recovery 34 35 **INTRODUCTION** Residues of pharmaceutical and personal care products (PPCPs) have been detected in 36 37 freshwater bodies for decades, but assessing their impact on the ecosystem and on the 38 biological communities inhabiting these ecosystems (especially non-target organisms) is 39 relatively new (Fent et al. 2006). The use of triclosan (TCS), a broad-spectrum bactericide, 40 disinfectant and fungicide, in PPCPs is increasing and the compound is, together with its 41 transformation products, frequently found in surface waters after biological degradation. The 42 degradation products include methyltriclosan (Balmer et al. 2004; Singer et al. 2002; Wind et 43 al. 2004) and others, originating from photolytic and abiotic degradation, such as 2,8-

47 completely unknown.
48 Triclosan has several modes of action against bacteria such as the inhibition of lipid synthesis
49 (Sivaraman *et al.* 2004) and modifications of the cell membrane permeability (Villalaín *et al.*

dichlorodibenzo-p-dioxin (Aranami & Readman 2007; Buth et al. 2009) and chlorophenols

(Canosa et al. 2005). Further degradation compounds, still not completely identified, are

produced by direct photolysis (Wong-Wah-Chung et al. 2007) and their effects are still

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2001). Though triclosan is intended for use as a bactericide, it has also been shown to have

51 deleterious effects on various other aquatic organisms. Recent reviews (Capdevielle et al. 52 2008; Sanderson & Thomsen 2009) reported a high sensitivity of algae to TCS, with growth inhibition EC₅₀ values less than 5 μg/L. However, significant differences in sensitivity were 53 54 observed among algal groups (Orvos et al. 2002) and algal life forms (Franz et al. 2008). 55 Quick recovery of algal cultures following triclosan contamination events has also been 56 reported (Orvos et al. 2002). 57 Though evidence exists that triclosan may affect algal growth, the potential sensitivity of 58 fluvial (benthic) diatom assemblages is unknown. The arrival of this pharmaceutical into 59 stream systems through sewage waters may cause relevant effects in the diversity, sensitivity 60 and recovery capacity of diatom communities (Ricciardi et al. 2009). Here, we propose to use 61 a dose-response test to determine the sensitivity of fluvial diatom assemblages to triclosan. 62 Further, using a sublethal concentration, the recuperation potential of benthic diatom 63 communities to this toxicant was assessed through functional and structural descriptors, i.e. 64 chlorophyll-a *in vivo* fluorescence, live / dead diatom cell ratio and taxonomic composition.

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MATERIALS AND METHODS

1. Experimental design

Experiment 1: Dose – response relationships

Benthic algal communities were collected from rocks in a small stream and inoculated in aerated incubators with flow-like water circulation to allow settlement of biofilms on glass slides (1 cm² each). After 3 weeks, the colonised slides were deposited in eight artificial channels supplied with micro-filtered water to which nutrients (N and P) were added continuously. The channels received a constant flow of about 1.2 L/min and a light/dark cycle of 12/12h (as described in Ricart *et al.* submitted). The biofilms were acclimated for three days to the new conditions before being exposed to an increasing range of triclosan

concentrations for 48 hours. The stock triclosan solution was prepared by dissolving triclosan powder (Irgasan DP-300) in 100% methanol and was stored in the dark to avoid photodegradation. From this, working standard solutions were prepared in the range of 0.05-500 µgTCS /L, in a solution containing 25% methanol. One of the eight artificial channels was used as a "control" *sensu stricto* (no additions to the initial culture medium), and a second one was used as the "control solvent" (culture medium + 0.05% methanol). The other six channels received triclosan at one of the nominal concentrations: 0.05, 5, 25, 125, 250 and 500 µgTCS/L. At the end of the 48-hour exposure period, 4 glass slides per channel were collected at random for chlorophyll-a *in vivo* fluorescence measurements and diatom enumerations.

Experiment 2: Long-term effects of a 48h-pulse of triclosan

Eight independent incubators equipped with bubbling systems were used to grow biofilms in as described in Experiment 1. Colonisation lasted for 4 weeks, with a 12/12h light/dark cycle. The incubators were filled with liquid medium (1.5L each, detailed composition in Table 1). The liquid was replaced in each incubator twice per week, in order to avoid nutrient depletion. Then, in 4 of the 8 incubators triclosan was added, to reach the nominal concentration of 60 µgTCS/L. In order to maintain the contamination level, water was renewed every 3 hours during illuminated periods. After the 48-hour exposure with triclosan, all the incubators were re-filled with regularly replaced unpolluted liquid medium (as described above), and the biofilms incubated for 2 weeks.

Biofilm samples were taken just before triclosan addition (called T0d), at the end of the 48-hour exposure (T2d), and then after 7 days (T9d) and 13 days (T15d) in uncontaminated medium. For each sampling, 4 glass slides were randomly taken from each incubator and

analysed for *in vivo* fluorescence, the diatoms were enumerated and live and dead cells distinguished. Then, 4 replicate slides for each incubator were pooled for taxonomic purposes, to give one integrated sample per incubator.

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2. Determination of the physicochemical characteristics

Temperature, pH, conductivity and dissolved oxygen in the channels and incubators were measured using a multiparametric probe (WTW, Weilheim, Germany). Water samples were collected and filtered (nylon membrane filters 0.2 µm, Whatman International Ltd, Maidstone, England) prior to analysis. Nutrient concentrations were determined using ion chromatography (761 Compact IC, Metrohm Ltd., Herisau, Switzerland). Soluble reactive phosphate was measured following Murphy and Riley (1962). Triclosan and methyl-triclosan standards were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (St. Louis, MO, USA). Standard solutions were prepared in pure methanol. Water samples (500 mL) were filtered through Millipore 0.45 µm membrane filters and pre-concentrated immediately at a flow rate of 5 mL/min on Waters C18 6-mL solid phase extraction cartridges (Oasis HLB, Waters, Milford, MA), previously activated and conditioned with 5 mL of acetone, methanol water (1 mL/min). Finally, the SPEs were eluted with 4 mL of methanol (1 mL/min) and the sample was directly injected. The HPLC system consisted of a Waters 717 autosampler and a Waters 1525 binary pump. HPLC separation was achieved on a 5-μm, 150 × 4 mm i.d. C18 reversed-phase column (SunFire). The injection volume was set at 50 µL, and the flow rate was 1 mL/min of 90% methanol - 10% water with isocratic flow. Detection was carried out using a UV-vis detector

3. Diatom analyses

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In vivo fluorescence measurements

An estimation of diatom-specific chlorophyll concentration was obtained by measuring the specific F0 (minimum fluorescence yield of dark-adapted cells) by means of a PhytoPAM fluorometer (Heinz Walz, Effeltrich, Germany) at 520 nm (Schmitt-Jansen & Altenburger 2007). The F0 was determined after applying a weak measuring light to the periphyton samples (directly on the colonised slides), after a 20-minute incubation in the dark to ensure that all the reaction centres were open. The photosynthetic capacity of the diatom community (Ymax) was also determined on dark-adapted samples. After being kept in the light for 20 minutes, the samples were exposed to actinic light for the determination of their photosynthetic efficiency (Yeff). PhytoPAM measurements for each parameter were repeated 5 times per slide and averaged. Quantitative estimates of diatom community structure and live / dead ratio After fluorescence measurements, the glass slides were scraped using polyethylene cell lifters (Corning Inc., NY, USA), and cells preserved with a drop of formalin solution and diluted to a final volume of 5 mL. Samples were ultrasonicated for 7 minutes to separate the aggregated cells without destroying the frustules. 125 µL of each sample were then pipetted onto a Nageotte counting chamber to count the total number of diatom cells in 10 microscope fields $(1.25 \mu L \text{ each}, 0.5 \text{ mm depth})$ selected at random, using light microscopy at a $10 \times$ magnification (photomicroscope Nikon Eclipse 80i, Nikon Co., Tokyo, Japan). Data were recorded as cells per unit area of sampled substrate (number of cells/cm²). Countings were separated into 2 types: empty cells that were considered as 'dead', and cells occupied by chloroplasts that, whatever their color (from pale yellow to green or brown), shape and number, were considered as 'alive' (Cox 1996). From live diatom counts, growth rates (as

- expressed in cell divisions/day) of the diatom community were calculated according to
- 150 Guillard (1973).
- 151 The optimal use of the live / dead cell indicator (L/D ratio) required:
- 152 1) The observations / countings to be carried out within 1 month after sampling. Chlorophyll
- 153 content has been shown to decrease very quickly in formalin-preserved samples (Dell'Anno et
- al. 1999), and a decrease in pigment content would make it harder to distinguish between live
- and dead cells. Storing the formalin-fixed samples in the dark will however delay chlorophyll
- degradation (M.-J. Chrétiennot-Dinet, pers. comm.). Additionally, we used the same dilution
- per unit substratum surface area in a single study, in order to maximize comparability
- between data. Moreover, as the difference between live and dead cells may be subjective in
- some cases (e.g. very slight coloration of the cell content), all observations were performed by
- a single operator;
- 161 2) The proportion of live vs. dead diatoms was based on counting entire cells, *i.e.* those that
- exhibit an entire frustule. This required the ultrasonication to be limited to a maximum of 7
- minutes, in order to minimise frustule damage.
- 164 Relative abundances of the diatom species
- Diatom identifications were performed only in experiment 2, after having prepared permanent
- slides following European standard NF EN 13946. About 500 frustules were counted per slide
- at 1,000× magnification and diatoms were identified to the lowest taxonomic level possible
- using standard references and recent nomenclature updates. References consisted of:
- 169 Krammer & Lange-Bertalot (1986 1991), Sala et al. (1993), Round & Bukhtiyarova (1996),
- 170 Krammer (1997), Compère (2001), Bukhtiyarova (2006) and Potapova (2006).
- Diatom life forms were separated following the guilds as defined by Passy (2007). Species
- with solitary life forms were divided into 3 groups: motile, erected and prostrate, according to

the growth forms described by Cox (1996), Hudon & Legendre (1987), Katoh (1992), and 174 Kelly et al. (2005).

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4. Processing the data

The values of chlorophyll-a *in vivo* fluorescence and L/D ratios with increasing triclosan concentrations (Experiment 1) were analysed for significant differences using 1-way ANOVA performed with Statistica v5.1 (StatSoft Inc. Tulsa, Oklahoma). The EC₅₀ of the L/D ratio was estimated from the dose / response curve, using the 3 replicates of the 2 controls and 6 measured triclosan concentrations. The variation of the same parameters with treatment and duration of the experiment (Experiment 2) were explored by means of a linear mixed-effect model (LME) for repeated measurements. For this purpose, the treatments and sampling dates were considered as fixed effects and the replicate samples (i.e. the samples taken from replicate incubators) as random effects. These statistical analyses were computed with the package nlme in the statistical modelling environment R (Ihaka & Gentleman 1996). Calculating the ratio between live and dead cells was quite independent of the number of cells counted. Indeed, relative counts allowed minimization of the influence of microhabitat factors (as shown by the reduced error in the intra-treatment L/D values compared to absolute cell density data), especially in the case of small-sized substrates as used in these experiments, where algal development is highly variable.

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RESULTS

Experiment 1: Dose – response relationships

Apart from the TCS additions, all channels were fed with the same water; its characteristics are given in Table 1. TCS concentrations measured in the channels (Table 2) differed slightly from the nominal concentrations. The highest concentration was 461.29 μ g/L. Concentrations of methyltriclosan, a degradation product of triclosan, always remained below the detection limit.

After a 48-hour exposure, chlorophyll-a *in vivo* fluorescence parameters did not display any significant trend related to triclosan addition, with mean values of $F0 = 100.2 \pm 3.0$ (n = 36),

Ymax = 0.43 ± 0.01 (n = 36) and Yeff = 0.30 ± 0.01 (n = 36).

Live diatom densities tended to decrease with increasing TCS concentrations but did not express statistically significant differences (p = 0.09). Up to $130,000 \pm 24,000$ cells/cm² occurred in the controls, while $91,000 \pm 9,000$ cells/cm² were counted in the maximum TCS concentration, representing a decrease of about 30% (Figure 1). The highest diatom densities were observed in the channel exposed to $5.41 \mu gTCS/L$, that reached ca. $170,000 \pm 37,000$ cells/cm².

The ratio between live and dead diatoms ranged from 6.2 ± 0.2 in the controls down to 3.5 ± 0.3 in the most contaminated channel. Diatom L/D ratio expressed as a percentage of the mean control values fitted the sigmoidal curve reported in Figure 2. The dose-response curve was used to evaluate the EC₅₀ of TCS for the diatom community. An EC₅₀ value of 560 μ g/L was derived from the regression equation of the curve (confidence interval: 534-584 μ g/L).

This value was taken as a criterion to use a 10-fold lower concentration (60 μ g/L) to perform

Experiment 2.

Experiment 2: Long term response after a 48h-pulse of triclosan

Among the *in vivo* parameters, the linear mixed-effect model did not show any statistical differences in F0 and Yeff values between treatments, duration of exposure, nor combined effects. Indeed, T0d values were F0 = 138.4 ± 26.0 (n = 40) and Yeff = 0.37 ± 0.03 (n = 40), with maximum variations of 29% of the control (T15d, where a slight date x treatment effect

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was observed, p \sim 0.05) and 4 % (T2d) respectively. Conversely, the photosynthetic capacity
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       (Ymax) expressed differences both due to sampling date, treatment (p < 0.0001) and date x
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       treatment (p < 0.01). Ymax increased with time (from 0.47 \pm 0.04 at T0d), with values
       slightly higher in the TCS-treated samples (0.52 \pm 0.02) than in the controls (0.48 \pm 0.02).
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       Diatom communities in the controls showed exponential growth during the 15 days of the
       experiment (R^2 = 0.93; p < 0.001, see Figure 3), from 117,000 ± 12,000 cells/cm<sup>2</sup> (T0d) to
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       690,000 \pm 88,000 \text{ cells/cm}^2 (T15d). In contrast, diatom densities in the incubators receiving
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       triclosan were quite stable throughout the 9 first days following the beginning of exposure
       (106,000 \pm 22,000 \text{ cells/cm}^2) and then reached 447,000 \pm 55,000 \text{ cells/cm}^2 at T15d. Whatever
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       the treatment, the increase in cell densities from T0d to T15d was highly significant (p <
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       0.0001), and a date x treatment effect was also observed at the last dates of the experiment (p
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       < 0.05).
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       Before TCS exposure, the ratio between live and dead diatoms averaged 10.9 \pm 0.4 in the
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       incubators. This ratio decreased down to 7.4 \pm 0.7 (more than 30% decrease) in the TCS-
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       exposed systems in comparison to the control values (treatment x date effect: p < 0.0001 at
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       T9d) and then increased at T15d but remained significantly lower than the controls (-16.6%, p
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       < 0.05).
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       A total of 32 diatom species were identified during this study, but only 6 of them accounted
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       for more than 1% in at least one of the samples (Figure 4). In all treatments, diatom
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       communities were dominated by Achnanthidium minutissimum Kützing (87.3 \pm 1.4 %),
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       followed by Gomphonema angustatum (Kützing) Rabenhorst (5.5 \pm 0.9 \%), Achnanthidium
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       pyrenaicum (Hustedt) Kobayasi (1.9 \pm 0.5 %), Gomphonema minutum (Agardh) Agardh (1.0
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       \pm 0.2 %), Ulnaria ulna (Nitzsch) Compère (0.8 \pm 0.2 %) and Fragilaria capucina
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       Desmazières var. capucina (0.6 \pm 0.3). Relative abundances of these main species remained
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       quite stable in the control incubators during the course of the experiment, and slight changes
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occurred in the TCS incubators after the 2-day exposure. Indeed, relative abundances of A. 249 minutissimum decreased by about 6%, whereas increased percentages of G. angustatum 250 (almost reaching 10 %) and F. capucina (from 0.2 to 2.7 %) were observed. Twisted valves of F. capucina, G. angustatum and U. ulna were also recorded in the TCS-exposed communities but cumulative abundances of abnormal cells did not exceed 2 ‰ (at T2d). At the end of the experiment, diatom community structure was comparable between treatments in terms of 254 dominant species (p = 0.095). Diatom species richness and Shannon diversity displayed differences between controls and 256 TCS-incubators. At T0d, Shannon index was of 0.70 ± 0.10 ; it slightly decreased in the 257 controls down to about 0.61 at T15d and was much lower (0.33) in the TCS-treated samples. 258 Species richness also suffered a significant decrease in the treated incubators (13.7 \pm 0.8 259 taxa), whereas it was constant through time in the controls (16.7 \pm 0.5 taxa). 260

261 Discussion

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262 TCS dose – response relationships

> As a bactericide, triclosan inhibits the enzyme enoyl-acyl carrier protein reductase (ENR), which is involved in the bacterial lipid biosynthesis (Levy et al. 1999; McMurry et al. 1998). However, it is also known as a broad-spectrum antimicrobial agent and as such it could generate effects on non-target components of the fluvial community (Wilson et al. 2003). The results obtained in this study reinforced this hypothesis and showed effects on non-target organisms within the biofilm community. Chlorophyll-a in vivo fluorescence parameters were expected to show significant variations among the concentrations tested (Franz et al. 2008), that were not observed in our study. However, diatom countings provided information about some possible unexpected effects of TCS towards algae. The total number of live cells enumerated per unit surface area seemed to indicate that, at quite low concentrations, diatoms

could be favoured (higher cell densities), probably reflecting a decrease in competition between bacteria and diatoms (Grover 2000) due to the bactericidal effects of TCS (Escalada et al. 2005). Indeed, bacterial mortality was significantly higher in the TCS-treated channels compared to the controls (p < 0.001, data not shown). Toxicant effects on non-target organisms are common in biofilms, where algae and bacteria interact in a small space (Ricart et al. 2009). The L/D ratio (Figure 2) confirmed the adverse effects of TCS on diatom communities, inhibiting diatom community growth and / or increasing mortality at the highest concentrations tested. In the first experiment, performed in artificial channels, we observed 50% diatom mortality at concentrations far higher than those obtained by Sanderson and Thomsen (2009), who found values for 24h-LC₅₀ of 4.5 μgTCS/L for algal growth in laboratory cultures. However, our results were consistent with the concentration effects determined by Franz et al. (2008). This variation of results between experiments underlines the relevance of abiotic factors (experimental conditions, and in particular water flow regime modifying boundary layer effects, and thus TCS bioavailability) in the assessment of the hazards of toxicants. Besides, Franz et al. (2008) compared the tolerance of monospecific diatom suspensions and seminaturally grown biofilms and reported different responses depending on biotic factors (e.g. single species tests vs. life forms and community structure). Increased resistance of a natural algal community (the object of our study) by comparison to laboratory culture could be linked to the intrinsic characteristics of the biofilms, in which the cells are embedded in a polysaccharide matrix acting as a protective barrier. The thickness of the matrix also leads to diffusion gradients within the biofilms, limiting the penetration of triclosan in the inner layers.

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Long term effects of a 48h-pulse of triclosan

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The moderate increase of the *in vivo* fluorescence parameter Ymax in the exposed samples could be attributed to a hormetic response of the community (Calabrese 2005), i.e. to the capacity of the system to initiate damage-repair processes. This adaptative response could either be linked to enhanced photosynthetic capacity of the diatoms, or to structural changes in the community favouring species with higher efficiency (Sabater et al. 2007). Previous studies (Bérard & Pelte 1999; Ricart et al. 2009; Serra et al. 2009) have already described increases in chlorophyll concentration and photosynthetic capacity under sublethal pulses of toxicants. Here the persistent hormetic response suggested that the compensation process was not totally achieved, or that exposure durably selected for species with higher photosynthetic potential, able to modify community tolerance to further exposure (Blanck et al. 1988). The two quantitative diatom estimates (cell densities, L/D ratios) indicated deleterious effects of a 60 µg/L triclosan concentration on diatoms, lasting in time. The exponential growth of diatoms (as seen in the controls) was significantly delayed by the 48-hour exposure to triclosan. Cell densities after 2 weeks were not as high in the TCS-treated incubators as they were in the controls, which could also indicate a persistence of toxicant exposure linked to TCS or methylTCS bioaccumulation within biofilms (Coogan et al. 2007). The L/D ratio also expressed an increased mortality of the communities exposed, with a 6.1 ± 0.5 % decrease in the ratio after the 48-h exposure. This value fitted the curve of Experiment 1 (R^2 =0.90; p <0.001), suggesting that the response of this endpoint was not significantly modified by the differences in flow conditions between Experiments 1 and 2. After 15 days, the communities recovered slightly, although they did not attain the L/D ratio of the controls. This was also seen in the diatom community composition, which was quite comparable between controls and treated incubators at the end of the experiment. However, when looking at the life forms (Figure 5), some differences were observed, the treated samples having a lower proportion of species forming clumps (4%, like *Ulnaria ulna* or *Gomphonema* sp.) or filaments (0.6%, e.g. *Melosira varians* and *Fragilaria* sp.), than in the controls (7.5 and 1.5% resp.). Lawrence *et al.* (2009) observed that the biofilm architecture was affected by relatively low concentrations of TCS (10 µg/L), that caused a less tightly packed structure and the disappearance of filamentous species. In the present study, TCS exposure was also followed by a decrease in colony-forming diatom species. Moreover, the control glass slides were covered by other organisms with filamentous physiognomy, which were almost absent in the TCS-treated incubators, even after the 2-week recovery period (L. Proia, unpubl. data).

Data about TCS effects on non-target organisms such as algal communities are scarce, and apparently contradictory. However, the results of this study indicate that high concentrations of pharmaceuticals occurring in sewage water may have unexpected effects on the receiving aquatic ecosystems. Given the current lack of knowledge about sensitivities to PPCPs and the multiplicity of toxic modes of action, it cannot be expected at this stage that any index of toxicity based on diatom community structure can be immediately developed but these results confirm the high sensitivity of diatoms to various environmental stressors, including pharmaceutical inputs. Diatom mortality as inferred from the L/D ratio proved to be sensitive to TCS contamination, and could be a useful tool for future biomonitoring purposes.

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Table 1. Mean values \pm standard error (number of samples analysed) of physicochemical parameters during the course of both experiments. n.c. nominal concentration.

	Experiment 1	Experiment 2
рН	$7.7 \pm 0.0 (n=8)$	$7.9 \pm 0.5 \; (n=11)$
Temperature (°C)	$15.8 \pm 0.0 (n=8)$	$17.5 \pm 1.1 \ (n=11)$
Conductivity (µS/cm)	$289.9 \pm 0.2 (n=8)$	$143.4 \pm 34.1 \; (n=11)$
Dissolved oxygen (mg/L)	$9.0 \pm 0.1 \; (n=8)$	$9.2 \pm 0.2 (n=11)$
Oxygen saturation (%)	$94.3 \pm 0.4 (n=8)$	$7.9 \pm 0.5 \; (n=11)$
NO_3 (mg/L)	$1.85 \pm 0.17 (n=16)$	0.75 (n.c.)
PO ₄ (μg/L)	$77.3 \pm 8.6 (n=16)$	$16.9 \pm 2.1 \; (n=12)$

Table 2. Nominal and effective concentrations of triclosan (μg/L) in the channels (Experiment
1). d.l.: detection limit.

4	7	6

Nominal	0 (Control)	0 (Control solvent)	0.05	5	25	125	250	500
Measured	< d.1.	< d.1.	4.8	5.4	13.9	120.7	300.0	461.3

478 Figure captions

479 Figure 1

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Densities of live diatom cells (number of cells/cm²) after a 48h-exposure, for the different

concentrations of triclosan measured in the channels.

Note the logarithmic scale on the X-axis

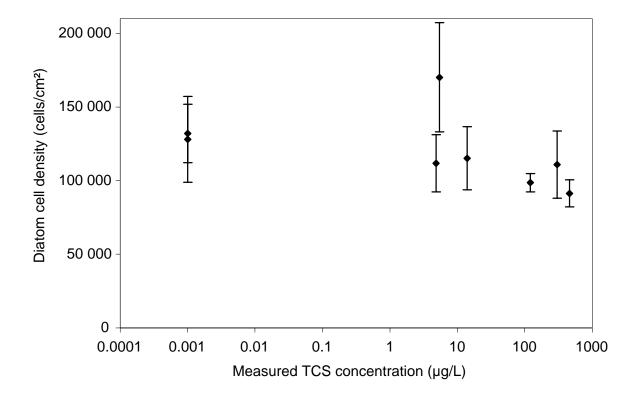


Figure 2

Triclosan dose-response curve for diatom live / dead ratio (in percentage of average control)

after a 48h-exposure (R² = 0.90; p < 0.001).

Note the logarithmic scale on the X-axis

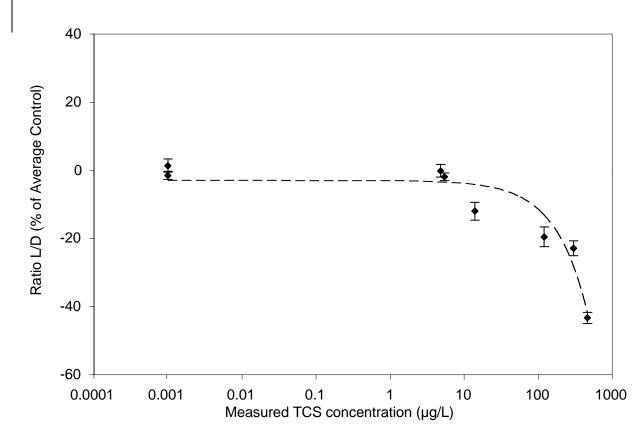


Figure 3

Diatom cell densities (in ln cells/cm²) in the control (O) and treated (▲) incubators during the course of Experiment 2.

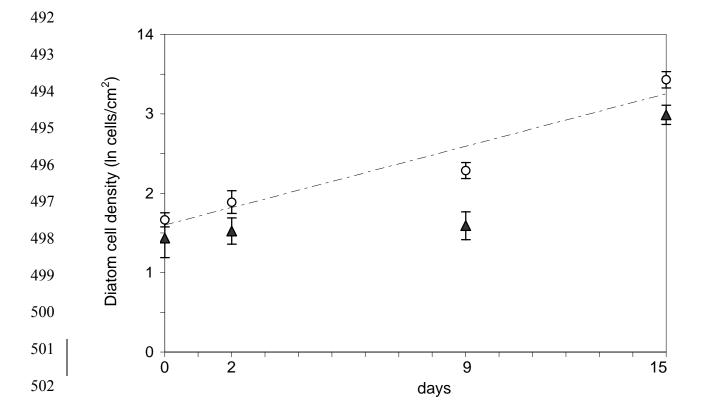


Figure 4
Changes in species relative abundances during the long-term response experiment. Species
abbreviations: ADMI: *Achnanthidium minutissimum*, ADPY: *A. pyrenaicum*, FCAP: *Fragilaria capucina* var. *capucina*, GANG: *Gomphonema angustatum*, GMIN: *G. minutum*,
UULN: *Ulnaria ulna*.

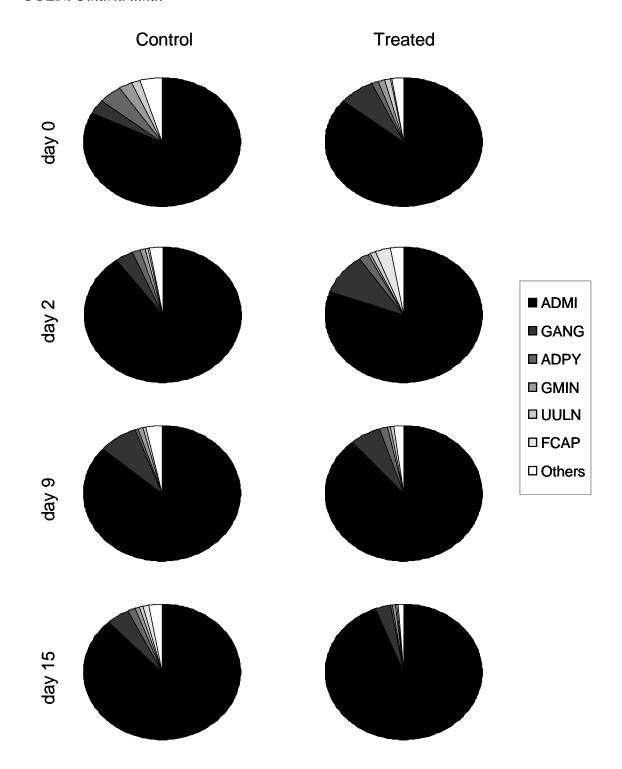


Figure 5
 Distribution of diatom life-forms with respect to taxon abundances and specific cell
 biovolume during the course of Experiment 2.

