

1 **Short Communication**

2 **17 α -ethynylestradiol (EE2) limits the impact of ibuprofen upon**
3 **respiration by streambed biofilms in a sub-urban stream.**

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14 **Running Head: EE2 limits impact of ibuprofen on biofilm respiration**

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16 **Title: 17 α -Ethinylestradiol (EE2) limits the impact of ibuprofen**
17 **upon respiration by streambed biofilms in a sub-urban stream.**

18

19 **Abstract**

20 Pharmaceuticals compounds such as the non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drug
21 ibuprofen and the artificial estrogen 17 α -ethinylestradiol (EE2) are contaminants of
22 emerging concern in freshwater systems. Globally, human pharmaceutical is growing
23 by around ~3 % per year, yet we know little about how interactions between different
24 pharmaceuticals may affect aquatic ecosystems. Here we test how interactions
25 between ibuprofen and 17 α -ethinylestradiol affect the growth and respiration of
26 streambed biofilms. We used contaminant exposure experiments to quantify how
27 these compounds affected biofilm growth (biomass), respiration and gross primary
28 production, both individually and in combination. Within our study, we found no
29 effects of either ibuprofen or 17 α -ethinylestradiol on biofilm biomass (using ash free
30 dry mass as a proxy) or gross primary production. Ibuprofen significantly reduced
31 biofilm respiration. However, concomitant exposure to 17 α -ethinylestradiol
32 counteracted the depressive effects ibuprofen upon biofilm metabolism. Our study,
33 thus, demonstrates that interactions between pharmaceuticals in the environment
34 may have complex effects upon microbial contributions to aquatic ecosystem
35 functioning.

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37 **Key Words**

38 17 α -ethinylestradiol; Biofilm; EE2; Ibuprofen; Microbial Metabolism;
39 Pharmaceuticals and Personal Care products

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42 **1. Introduction**

43 Human pharmaceuticals and personal care products (PPCPS) are contaminants of
44 emerging concern within the environment (Rosi-Marshall and Royer 2012; Gaston et
45 al. 2019). Since the year 2000, pharmaceutical use has grown by approximately 3%
46 per year globally and this predicted to increase further as human populations grow
47 (Van Broeckel et al. 2014). Removal of Pharmaceuticals and personal care products
48 (PPCPs) via waste-water treatment plants (WWTPs) is inefficient leading to the
49 constant release of low doses of compounds such as non-steroidal anti-inflammatory
50 drugs (NSAIDs) (e.g. ibuprofen), antimicrobial compounds (e.g. triclosan, and
51 trimethoprim) and artificial estrogens (e.g. 17 α -ethynylestradiol) into the aquatic
52 environment (Gros et al. 2007; Álvarez-Muñoz et al. 2015; Archer et al. 2017). This
53 is potentially problematic because these compounds are specifically designed
54 specifically to produce physiological effects within an organism, at ultra-low (nano-
55 molar) concentrations (Rosi-Marshall and Royer, 2012; Van Broeckel et al. 2014;
56 Álvarez-Muñoz et al. 2015). Eco-toxicological studies reveal that PPCPs at
57 environmental concentrations can have significant physiological effects on both
58 aquatic fauna and microorganisms, with the potential to disrupt aquatic ecosystem
59 functioning altering carbon and nutrient cycling, and negatively affect water quality
60 (Jobling et al. 2003; Hernando et al. 2006; Rosi-Marshall et al. 2013; Drury et al.
61 2013; Žur et al. 2018).

62 Headwater and lower-order streams are the smallest tributaries of a river system,
63 which are typically closest to the rivers' sources. In these streams aquatic biofilms
64 attached to the streambed represent the dominant mode of microbial life Besemer et
65 al. 2012; Battin et al. 2016). Biofilms, composed of consortia of bacteria and
66 unicellular eukaryotic algae bound within a complex matrix of extracellular polymeric
67 substances (EPS), play a key role in the functioning of fluvial ecosystems, controlling
68 both the transport and degradation of organic matter within a stream (Battin et al.
69 2016). Rosi-Marshall et al. (2013) revealed that aquatic PPCPs such as caffeine,
70 cimetidine, ciprofloxacin, diphenhydramine, metformin and ranitidine and negative
71 effects upon biofilm growth, respiration, and community composition. PPCPs,
72 however, are diverse group of chemicals, which may interact with each other in a
73 multitude of different, and often-unexpected ways (Rosi-Marshall et al. 2013;
74 Gerbersdorf et al. 2015; Gaston et al. 2019). Consequently, a mechanistic

75 understanding of the interactions between different PPCPs is needed if we are to
76 fully understand their environmental impacts.

77 Within the broad spectrum of PPCPs the non-steroidal anti-inflammatories (NSAIDs),
78 such as ibuprofen, and artificial estrogens, such as 17 α -ethynylestradiol, represent
79 some of the most commonly detected compounds in aquatic systems (Álvarez-
80 Muñoz et al. 2015; Gaston et al. 2019). NSAIDs are known to have antimicrobial
81 properties, with ibuprofen exhibiting potential as a biofilm control agent (Reśliński et
82 al. 2015; Shah et al. 2018; Żur et al. 2018; Oliveira et al. 2019). Conversely, artificial
83 oestrogens and other endocrine disruptors may adsorb onto microbial biofilms
84 facilitating their biological degradation (Writer et al. 2012; Zhang et al. 2014; Adeel et
85 al. 2017). Whilst there are no known therapeutic interactions between NSAIDs and
86 artificial estrogens in animal systems, the fact that these compounds elicit different
87 microbial responses suggests that there may be potential for interactions between
88 NSAIDs and artificial estrogens to affect the growth and metabolism of aquatic
89 microorganisms. Here we present the first data on how interactions between
90 ibuprofen and 17 α -ethynylestradiol (hereafter, EE2) affect the growth and respiration
91 of streambed biofilms. We conducted *in situ* contaminant exposure experiments,
92 following Costello et al. (2015), to test how chronic exposure to ibuprofen, and EE2,
93 both individually and in combination, affected streambed biofilm growth, primary
94 production and respiration.

95 **2. Materials and Methods**

96 All experiments were carried out between the 30th November 2018 and the 22nd
97 January 2019 in the Ballysally Blagh (Latitude: 55°08'45.1"N Longitude:
98 6°40'18.0"W), a ground-water fed second-order stream. The Ballysally Blagh is a
99 tributary of the lower River Bann (Northern Ireland), draining a mixed agricultural
100 (consisting of 21.9 % arable; 55.9 % grassland; 13.7 % heathland; 1.9 % woodland)
101 and urban (7.3 %) catchment of 14.2 km². The mean volumetric rate for water flow in
102 the Ballysally Blagh is 0.21 (\pm 0.27) m³ s⁻¹, measured at a V-shaped weir (National
103 River Flow Archive. 2019) and the stream is defined as eutrophic, with dissolved
104 nitrate concentrations ranging between 1.37 and 14.15 mg.l⁻¹ and soluble reactive
105 phosphorus concentrations between 0.033 and 0.4 mg.l⁻¹. Water temperature at the
106 study site was recorded at 1-hour intervals throughout the experiment using a HOBO

107 MX2204 Bluetooth temperature logger. Temperatures ranged between 9.35 °C and
108 5.16 °C, with a mean temperature of 7.72 (\pm 0.85) °C recorded over the study period.

109 Contaminant exposure experiments were conducted following Costello et al. (2015).
110 Briefly, forty 120 ml screw cap sample pots were filled with 2 % agar impregnated,
111 of which ten were spiked a 0.5 mmol.l⁻¹ dose of ibuprofen, ten spiked with a 0.5
112 mmol.l⁻¹ dose of EE2, ten spiked with a 0.5 mmol.l⁻¹ dose of both ibuprofen and EE2,
113 and ten received no pharmaceutical treatment (control). Both ibuprofen and EE2
114 have relatively low solubility in water (21 mg.l⁻¹ and 3.6 mg.l⁻¹ respectively). As such,
115 stock solutions for each pharmaceutical treatment were made up by dissolving 159
116 mg of ibuprofen (Sigma-Aldrich, Product No. I4883), 105 mg of EE2 (Sigma-Aldrich,
117 Product No. E4876) or both in 11 ml of 70 % ethanol. 1 ml aliquots of the stock
118 solution were then used to dose each contaminant exposure experiment and the
119 control treatments receiving a 1 ml aliquot of 70 % ethanol. Pre-combusted
120 Whatman® 45 mm GF/F filters were placed onto of the solid agar and secured using
121 the screw cap, to provide a substratum for streambed biofilm colonization.

122 Contaminant exposure experiments were then secured to four L-shaped metal bars
123 (l = 1000 mm; w = 50 mm; d = 50 mm) and deployed at 10 cm depth, in an area of
124 turbulent flow (riffle) within the stream.

125 Environmental chambers were assembled from two Curry's Essentials® C61CF13
126 chest freezers, with the power source re-routed through Inkbird ITC-308 Digital
127 Temperature Controller used to override the freezers internal thermostat. A single
128 Tetra HT50 (50 Watt) aquarium heater was also attached to the Inkbird temperature
129 controller of each unit to help stabilise the internal temperature. Two NICREW
130 planted aquarium LED strip lights were attached to the lid, providing a source of
131 photosynthetically active radiation ($-106.0 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$, measured using an Apogee
132 Instruments Photosynthetically Active Radiation Meter). Environmental chambers
133 were filled with 20 l of streamwater and the internal temperatures set to 7.7 °C. The
134 contaminant exposure experiments were left *in situ* for 54 days, after which they
135 were recovered from the stream, directly placed into one of the environmental
136 chambers and allowed to acclimate over 24 hours. During the acclimation period
137 each mesocosm was aerated using a Aqualine Hailea Aco-9630.

138 After the acclimation period, biofilm respiration and gross primary production were
139 determined by changes in oxygen consumption by enclosing each contaminant

140 exposure experiment into a sealed Perspex push core (height = 30 cm, internal
141 diameter = 7 cm) chambers containing 1 litre of sterile-filtered streamwater and held
142 at 7.7 °C in one of the environmental chambers (Bott et al. 1978; Fellows et al.
143 2006). Biofilm respiration (R) were quantified by measuring the change in oxygen
144 concentrations over a one-hour period (oxygen consumption in darkness (PAR ~ 0.0
145 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$) using a Hach Sension 6 dissolved oxygen meter. Net primary
146 production (NPP) was then quantified by measuring the change in oxygen
147 concentration over a one 1-hour period, under artificial illumination (PAR ~ 106.0
148 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$). Biofilm Gross Primary Production (GPP) was calculated from NPP and
149 R as:

$$150 \quad [1] \quad \text{GPP} = \text{NPP} - \text{R}$$

151 Microbial biomass within each Contaminant Exposure Experiment was quantified as
152 Ash Free Dry Mass of the GF/F filters. These were dried for 48 hours at 65 °C and
153 then subsequently combusted at 550 °C for 2 hours. We estimated the daily dose of
154 the pharmaceuticals delivered within each treatment following Costello et al. (2015),
155 assuming that ibuprofen and EE2 doses were proportional to the agar mass lost.

156 All data are available in the supplementary information. Data analyses were
157 conducted in the R statistical computing environment using the *base* and *ggplot2*
158 packages (R Development Core Team. 2009; Wickham, 2016). We tested for
159 independent and combined effects of ibuprofen and EE2 upon in microbial biomass
160 (Ash Free Dry Weight), Respiration and Net Ecosystem Production using two-way
161 analysis of variance (ANOVA). Post-hoc testing of significant interactions was
162 conducted using Tukey's test for Honest Significant Difference. All data were visually
163 explored, to ensure they conformed to the assumptions of normality and
164 homoscedacity, following Zuur et al. (2010). Microbial biomass data were \log_{10}
165 transformed to ensure the residuals of the ANOVA model conformed to a normal
166 distribution.

167 **3. Results**

168 Based on agar mass loss throughout the experiment, we estimated that the biofilms
169 growing within our contaminant exposure experiments were exposed to a daily
170 ibuprofen dose ~ 164 (\pm 14) nmol d^{-1} ; and a daily estrogen dose ~ 115 (\pm 20) nmol.d^{-1}

171 ¹. In the combined treatment the daily dose of ibuprofen ~ 155 (\pm 13), nmol d⁻¹, whilst
172 the estrogen dose ~118 (\pm 10) nmol d⁻¹.

173 Using ash free dry mass as a proxy for microbial biomass we detected no significant
174 effects of pharmaceutical exposure upon microbial biofilm growth (Fig 1 A;
175 Table 1 a). We detected a significant interaction between ibuprofen and EE2
176 affecting microbial respiration (Fig 1 B; Table 1 b).

177 Exposure to ibuprofen alone depressed microbial oxygen consumption by ~ 38 %,
178 whilst exposure to EE2 alone resulted in a slight (non-significant) increase in oxygen
179 consumption of ~ 5 %. In combination, EE2 counteracted the depressive effect of
180 ibuprofen upon of microbial respiration, resulting in no significant change in
181 respiration relative to the control .

182 Gross Primary Production was negative in all treatments, with no significant effects
183 of either ibuprofen or EE2 detected (Fig 1 C; Table 1 c).

184 **4. Discussion**

185 Our study demonstrates that interactions between the NSAID ibuprofen and the
186 artificial estrogen EE2 have a significant effect upon the streambed biofilm
187 respiration. Specifically, concomitant exposure to both ibuprofen and EE2 reduced
188 the depressive effect of ibuprofen upon biofilm respiration. Ibuprofen is known to
189 have antimicrobial properties and has been reported to inhibit biofilm formation by
190 both *Staphylococcus aureus* and *Escherichia coli* (Reśliński et al. 2015; Shah et al.
191 2018; Oliviera et al. 2019). It is, therefore, unsurprising that ibuprofen depressed
192 microbial respiration within the streambed biofilms. EE2 has been observed to
193 adsorb to microbial biofilms (Writer et al. 2012) where it can then be used by the
194 resident microorganisms as an organic matter source Stumpe et al. 2009; Ribeiro et
195 al. 2010). Consequently, biofilms have been proposed as a tool for the removal of
196 artificial estrogens and other endocrine disruptors within wastewater treatment
197 facilities (Pieper and Rotard, 2011). Sorption of estrogens to the biofilm may protect
198 the microbial cells, by reducing the space available within the EPS matrix onto which
199 ibuprofen molecules may bind (Writer et al. 2012; Zhang et al. 2014). This
200 mechanism, however, remains speculative and would require investigation within
201 controlled laboratory experiments.

202 Given ibuprofen's potential as a biofilm control agent (Reśliński et al. 2015; Shah et
203 al. 2018; Żur et al. 2018; Oliveira et al. 2019), we were surprised to observe that it
204 had no effect upon biofilm biomass within our experiments. Ash free dry mass is,
205 however, a coarse method for estimating microbial biomass and so not suitable to
206 detect small changes in the biofilm. This is likely to be of particular concern in urban
207 and agricultural streams, where siltation may introduce a significant bias into weight-
208 based estimates of biomass. Visual methods, such as microscopic cell counts
209 (Grzegorzczuk et al. 2018), quantification of EPS polysaccharides (Fish et al. 2017;
210 Grzegorzczuk et al. 2018) or other biomarkers, such as polar lipid fatty acids
211 (Middelburg et al 2000; Frostegård et al., 2010; Hunter et al., 2012, 2013) would
212 provide a more accurate proxy for biomass. Thus, we cannot reliably infer whether
213 interactions between ibuprofen and EE2 may have altered biofilm biomass within this
214 study.

215 The negative values for GPP within the present study suggest that the biofilms were
216 net heterotrophic, relying on the supply of organic matter from the surrounding
217 environment to provide energy and nutrients for biofilm growth. This may reflect the
218 choice of agar as the carrier medium for the pharmaceuticals within the contaminant
219 exposure experiments. The agar releases a constant supply of dissolved organic
220 matter through the glass fibre filters (Rosi-Marshall et al. 2013; Costello et al. 2015),
221 which may generate favorable microhabitat heterotrophic microorganisms. As such
222 we were unable to determine whether chronic pharmaceutical exposure had any
223 effects upon photosynthetic pathways within our biofilms.

224 Within this short paper we present preliminary results which demonstrate that
225 interactions between NSAIDs and artificial estrogens could have important
226 implications for aquatic ecosystem functioning during the winter period, when lower
227 water temperatures limit microbial activity within streambed biofilms (Ylla et al.
228 2012). Whilst the doses of ibuprofen and estrogen within the CES experiments
229 appear high, the daily dose delivered to the growing biofilm was comparable with the
230 concentrations detected in many aquatic systems (Jobling et al. 2003; Hernando et
231 al. 2006; Gros et al. 2007; Rosi-Marshall and Royer, 2012; Álvarez-Muñoz et al.
232 2015; Ruhí et al. 2016; Archer et al 2017), and lower than the doses used in
233 previous contaminant exposure experiments (Rosi-Marshall et al. 2013). Our

234 experiment, thus, provides a realistic insight into of how interactions between these
235 two PPCPs affect aquatic microbial activity.

236 Overall, our study supports a growing body of evidence suggesting that PPCPs
237 represent a major threat to ecosystem functioning in many streams and rivers
238 (Jobling et al. 2003; Hernando et al. 2006; Gros et al. 2007; Rosi-Marshall and
239 Royer, 2012; Rosi-Marshall et al. 2013; Álvarez-Muñoz et al. 2015; Ruhí et al. 2016;
240 Archer et al 2017). The study, is, however, limited to a single urban stream, which
241 prevents wider interpretation of our results. Interactions between PPCPs and their
242 effects within the environment are potentially complex and mediated by changes in
243 environmental context (Rosi-Marshall et al. 2013). Future studies need to investigate
244 how the interactions between different PPCPs affect aquatic microbial communities
245 under different regimes of temperature, aquatic chemistry and ecological community
246 structure. This demands the design of field-based contaminant exposure
247 experiments to test the interactions between a range of PPCPs both within and
248 between freshwater catchments. Furthermore, this study highlights a clear need to
249 identify the underlying biochemical mechanisms which explain how interactions
250 between different PPCPs affect aquatic microbial processes.

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256 lab from Peter Devlin and Hugo McGrogan.

257 **Conflicts of Interest:** The authors declare no conflicts of interest relating to this
258 study.

259 **Data Accessibility.** All data related to this publication are available as a
260 supplementary data file alongside this paper.

261

262 **6. References**

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389 **Table**

390 Table 1. ANOVA summary tables of the effects of Ibuprofen and 17 α -ethynylestradiol
391 [EE2] upon a) biomass (ash free dry weight), b) respiration and c) Gross Primary
392 Production of cultured streambed biofilms.
393

a) Biomass (Ash Free Dry Weight)					
	Df	SS	MS	F	<i>p</i>
Ibuprofen	1	0.001	0.00086	0.008	0.931
EE2	1	0.006	0.00586	0.051	0.822
Ibuprofen : EE2	1	0.151	0.15142	1.331	0.256
Residuals	36	4.097	0.11379		

b) Respiration					
	Df	SS	MS	F	<i>p</i>
Ibuprofen	1	6482	6482	41.13	<0.001
EE2	1	5085	5085	32.26	<0.001
Ibuprofen : EE2	1	2952	2952	18.73	<0.001
Residuals	36	5674	158		

c) Gross Primary Production					
	Df	SS	MS	F	<i>p</i>
Ibuprofen	1	40	40.4	0.037	0.848
EE2	1	2612	2611.7	2.403	0.130
Ibuprofen : EE2	1	2318	2318.1	2.133	0.153
Residuals	36	39121	1086.7		

394

395 **Figures**

396 Figure 1. Effects of Ibuprofen (♂) and 17 α -ethynylestradiol (♀) upon the (A) biomass
397 (ash free dry weight), (B) respiration and (C) Gross Primary Production of cultured
398 streambed biofilms. Significance levels: *** $p < 0.001$; ** $p < 0.01$; * $p < 0.05$;
399 N/S $p > 0.05$. Where significant interactions were identified, groups labelled with the
400 same lowercase letter are not significantly different ($p > 0.05$; Tukey's tests).

