

1 The effects of polyester microfibers on functionally
2 important microphytobenthos and sediment-dwelling
3 infauna.

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8 MPB, soft sediment, ecological effects.

9 **Abstract:** Microplastics are accumulating in coastal soft sediments, the majority of which are
10 fibres. Despite this, little is known about the potential ecological effects of fibrous material on
11 functionally important benthic organisms. For instance, the microphytobenthos (MPB) and
12 deposit-feeding bivalves which are critical for soft sediment ecosystem functions such as nutrient
13 cycling. Red polyester microfibers ($1.8 \pm 0.9\text{mm}$) were added at varying concentrations (0% -
14 XX% DW sediment) to the surface 1cm of sediment in the chambers. The effects of increasing
15 microfiber concentrations on microphytobenthic (MPB) biomass (chl a) and composition (fatty
16 acid (FA) biomarkers) were evaluated after a total exposure period of XX days. Half the chambers
17 were exposed to a 12 h light/dark cycle, to allow photosynthesis to occur, while the remaining

18 chambers were exposed to extremely low light levels (XX PAR level) that would inhibit
19 photosynthesis. After an initial 35 day MPB growth period, four deposit-feeding bivalves,
20 *Macomona liliana*, were added to each chambers. *M.liliana* is a dominant and functionally
21 important bivalve in New Zealand sediments. These were added after the initial MPB growth to
22 determine whether any effects of microfibers on their food resource (the MPB) affected the
23 burrowing behavior and energy levels of these grazers. After a further XX days (total duration XX
24 days), sediment porewater nutrient concentrations (a proxy of ecosystem function) were evaluated
25 and related to changes in the MPB and *M.liliana* Results suggest that microfibers additions
26 influenced both the quantity (biomass) and quality (FA biomarkers) of the MPB. Fewer diatoms
27 and an increase in phycocyanin pigments associated with cyanobacteria, emphasized the potential
28 for shifts in the MPB community with increasing microfiber concentrations. The change in MPB
29 quality coincided with up to 75% reductions in bivalve energy reserves, and reduced *M.liliana*
30 burrowing activity. . . Under light conditions (which allowed the MPB to photosynthesise), nitrate
31 + nitrite (together as NO_x) and ammonium (NH₄⁺) concentrations were elevated at the highest
32 microfiber concentrations. When the light was blocked (dark conditions) only NH₄⁺ concentrations
33 increased. The difference in porewater nutrient stores suggests that photosynthesis in the MPB
34 together with *M.liliana* burrowing moderates the effect of microfibers on soft sediment nutrient
35 cycling. These findings demonstrate the potential for microfibers to alter soft sediment ecosystems
36 and influence ecological functions through complex feedbacks at the base of the benthic foodweb.

37 **Introduction**

38 Waste water¹, runoff² and fishing gear³ are all significant sources of microplastics (particles
39 <5mm), with this debris contributing to the accumulation of microplastics in coastal soft

40 sediments. Microplastic particles have now been detected in sediments and waters in freshwater⁴,
41 marine¹, estuarine^{5,6}, and deep-sea⁷ ecosystems and have even been detected in remote Arctic⁸ and
42 Antarctic⁹ waters, far from urban sources. The extent and ubiquity of microplastics emphasizes the
43 need to understand the ecological effects it may have, particularly in soft sediments that are a
44 potential sink for this contaminant^{7,10}.

45 Despite growing concerns about the quantity and diversity of microplastics in marine sediments,
46 we have limited information on the potential ecological effects of their accumulation. While
47 microplastics are a diverse suite of contaminants rather than a single entity, we need to better
48 characterize the effects of different morphologies, sizes and chemical compositions both in the
49 field and in controlled laboratory studies with specific classes as these properties may affect their
50 influence on organisms and ecological processes¹¹. Although microfibers often dominant marine
51 samples¹², representing up to 95% of microplastics found in marine waters^{8,13,14}, sediments^{10,15} and
52 organisms¹⁶ in some cases, the majority of uptake or exposure experiments in the laboratory have
53 used microplastic fragments or beads¹⁷⁻¹⁹. Polyester, the majority of which is composed of
54 polyethylene terephthalate (PET), is often the most prevalent fiber type detected in marine
55 systems¹⁰. However, polyester microfibers are under represented in ecological experiments. We
56 therefore know relatively little regarding the effects of microfibers on functionally important
57 sediment dwelling organisms^{20,21} and ecosystem function despite their prevalence. Similarly to
58 many microplastic fragments, different microfibers can leach toxic additives²²⁻²⁴ as well as adsorb
59 other environmental contaminants^{1,25,26}. Polyester microfibers therefore have the potential to affect
60 marine organisms through ingestion or changes to the biochemical environment,^{20,21} and deserve
61 greater attention.

62 **Functionally important benthic organisms.** Microplastic ingestion has recently been explored
63 in marine worms^{27,28} and shellfish^{17,29}, and freshwater phytoplankton³⁰. Several studies have been
64 conducted on benthic filter feeders^{19,31} and zooplankton^{32,33}, due to the potential role of these
65 organisms in filtering microplastics from the water column. However, once on the seafloor,
66 microplastics will interact with benthic organisms that have different feeding behaviours³⁴.
67 Intertidal deposit-feeding bivalves are functionally important³⁵, contributing to ecosystem
68 productivity, nutrient cycling and water quality. Deposit-feeders graze on microphytobenthos
69 (MPB) inhabiting the surface layers of sediment and as these surface layers are where sediment
70 microplastics accumulate^{36,37}, deposit feeders and the MPB may be particularly vulnerable to
71 microplastics³⁸. Nonetheless, there remains a lack of information on interactions between these
72 benthic organisms and microplastics³⁹.

73 When bivalves are exposed to contaminants or other stressors, their burial capacity⁴⁰, activity
74 levels^{41,42} and feeding behaviours^{17,19} may be affected. These behavioral changes are likely
75 associated with changes in their energy reserves, growth and weight, as documented for other
76 invertebrates^{30,43–45}. A number of mechanisms have been proposed to explain the depletion of
77 energy reserves during stress. Firstly, stressful conditions can increase the energy demands of an
78 organism, thus reducing energy reserves^{46,47}. Alternatively, a decrease in food or nutrient intake
79 may limit the synthesis of lipids, carbohydrates, proteins as the organisms redirect metabolic
80 processes to counteract toxicity effects⁴⁷. Reduced intake of energy may also result from the
81 ingestion of these comparatively low quality particles compared to food⁴⁴, as well as gut blockage
82 and irritation due to ingestion⁴³. As infaunal energy and activity levels change, grazing pressure
83 and nutrient release are altered. This feeds back to the MPB, with potential effects on MPB
84 biomass^{27,35} and composition⁴⁸. These changes may also lead to the loss of oxidized

85 microhabitats⁴⁹ further altering nutrient cycles^{27,50} with knock on effects on ecosystem
86 productivity.

87 MPB can account for up to 90% of estuarine primary productivity^{51,52} with highly nutritious
88 diatoms typically dominating soft sediment habitats^{53,54}. While other habitats may be dominated
89 by less nutritious cyanobacteria these have functionally different roles to diatoms⁵⁵ therefore a
90 shift in these taxa can alter ecosystem function. MPB such as diatoms act as an efficient nutrient
91 filter on the sediment surface, mediating the flux of dissolved inorganic nitrogen at the sediment-
92 water interface preventing eutrophication^{56,57,58}. Conversely, cyanobacteria often benefit from
93 stressors like nutrient enrichment^{59,60} and they often utilize less nutritious carbon sources such as
94 oil and microplastics⁶¹. MPB and deep-dwelling deposit feeders are vital for ecosystem function,
95 yet there is a lack of information on the effects of microplastic contamination on these organisms
96 or ecosystem functions such as nutrient cycling.

97 The effects of various microplastic on primary producers is still widely debated⁶². Decreases in
98 algal biomass and photosynthesis associated with microplastic contamination have been observed
99 with a number of planktonic primary producers^{18,62,63}. Others have detected little or no effects⁶⁴⁻⁶⁶
100 and there are just a few passing observations of the impact on MPB²⁷. These studies have been
101 critical to assess the potential effects of this emerging contaminant on marine life, however
102 variable plastic types, unrealistic concentrations, and the use of algal monocultures has contribute
103 to the divergent conclusions in the literature. Further complicating this picture, is growing evidence
104 that synthetic polymers can provide a substrate that benefits various microbes^{48,67,68}. Microplastics
105 could therefore modify interactions and feedbacks associated with the MPB that are vital for soft
106 sediment ecosystem structure and function⁶⁹.

107 **Energy reserves and fatty acid biomarkers.** Together with total lipids and glycogen reserves,
108 fatty acids are a source of metabolic energy and nutrients to all organisms^{70,71} including bivalves.
109 Fatty acid (FA) biomarkers are useful indicators of general ecosystem health⁷², sources of organic
110 matter⁷³ and can reveal trophic links⁷⁴. FAs are also valuable for assessing organisms' responses
111 to environmental stressors like changes in salinity and temperature⁷¹, heavy metal contamination⁷⁵
112 and chemical stressors⁷⁶ and therefore could be useful in assessing the potential stress of
113 microplastics in the marine environment. While individual FAs cannot be assigned to specific
114 organisms, changes in the presence and ratios of these biomarkers can reflect changes in the
115 taxonomic or functional groups in sediment communities^{77,78} as well as the dietary intake⁷⁹ or
116 metabolism⁸⁰ of MPB and bacteria in consumers. The essential fatty acids, Eicosapentaenoic acid
117 (EPA, 20:5 ω 3) and Docosahexaenoic acid (DHA, 22:6 ω 3) are synthesized by many primary
118 producers but are primarily associated with diatoms and dinoflagellates, respectively.

119 EFAs cannot be efficiently synthesized by bivalves de novo^{81,82} and the relative importance of
120 DHA or EPA can be species specific⁸³. However, variation in the ratio between EFAs can indicate
121 a shift between different taxa available to the consumer, the dietary intake of primary producers or
122 the metabolism of energy reserves due to stress⁷⁷. The 'diatom index' of Antonio & Richoux⁸⁴ is
123 one such useful indicator to determine the dominance of diatoms over other taxa. This index
124 utilizes multiple FAs to determine compositional shifts in the MPB community as well as change
125 to the dietary intake or metabolism of EFAs (Supp. table 1). The metabolism of EFAs during
126 periods of stress can also be species-specific, with one often selectively retained over another
127 depending on the organisms current requirements for growth and reproduction⁸¹.

128 **Methods**

129 **Experimental design.** We investigate the effects of long-term exposure to varying
130 concentrations of polyester microfibers, on the quality & quantity of MPB in the sediment, using
131 FA biomarker and pigment analysis. The effects on the burrowing behavior and energy reserves
132 of a functionally important deposit-feeding bivalve *Macomona liliana* were also assessed, as well
133 as the FA biomarkers present in the bivalves. We hypothesize that increasing microfiber
134 contamination could negatively influence the lipid energy reserves in deep-dwelling deposit
135 feeding bivalves and subsequently alter their burrowing capacity. We anticipate that as the
136 complex feedbacks between bivalves and MPB are altered, ecosystem functions will be modified.

137 Few studies have examined the effects of environmentally relevant micro fiber concentrations²⁰.
138 Instead, the majority of studies, to date, have exposed organisms to microplastic fragments or
139 beads at exceptionally high concentrations to assess chronic effects⁸⁵. In the present study,
140 microfibers were added at relatively low concentrations (1-50mg kg⁻¹ WW sediment), with the
141 potential effects assessed after a relatively long exposure period instead. This allowed the
142 evaluation of the benthic community changes associated with long-term exposure to increasing
143 microplastic concentrations. Sediment mesocosms containing red polyester fibers (6 levels of
144 microplastic additions, 2 light conditions, 3 replicates) were incubated for 35 days in light and dark
145 conditions to allow the MPB and biofilm to develop. Four adult *M. liliana* (20-30mm shell length)
146 were added to the sediment surface of each mesocosm at a density of 90 individual m⁻² after 35
147 days. Any bivalves remaining on the surface after the initial 12 h were replaced with fresh, healthy
148 bivalves. Only one bivalve emerged from the sediment and died during the incubation experiment,
149 which was removed within 12 h. The chambers were incubated for a further 40 days before
150 sampling.

151 **Materials & organisms used in the experiment.** Sediment ($D_{50} = 220\mu\text{m}$) was collected from
152 Waiwera harbour on 17th November 2017 and sieved to $500\mu\text{m}$ to exclude large infauna and shell
153 fragments. Red, polyester (PET) microfibers were collected by washing new polyester fleece
154 blankets multiple times in a pre-cleaned washing machine. The machine was fitted with an external
155 $25\mu\text{m}$ filter sock on the outflow pipe to collect shed fibers. Additionally fibers were also collected
156 from dry blankets using a fabric shaver. Microfibers were sieved through a 5mm sieve to exclude
157 macrofibers ($>5\text{mm}$) then air dried prior to use. A subset of the fibers were visually inspected
158 under a Leica MS5 microscope with a 40 x magnification to confirm only microfibers ($<5\text{mm}$)
159 were used. The mean length of measured fibers was $1.8 \pm 0.9\text{mm}$ ($n=40$). The chemical
160 composition of the microfibers was confirmed to be polyester (PET) by Fourier Transform Infrared
161 Spectroscopy (FTIR) with spectra compared with the database from Primpke and others⁸⁶. Full
162 details of the method are available in the supplementary material alongside an example spectra
163 match (Supp Fig 1).

164 *M. liliana* is a common tellenid bivalve found in intertidal soft sediments throughout New
165 Zealand³⁵. Their deep position in the sediment bed (5-10cm depth) and deposit feeding behavior
166 can facilitate coupled N-cycling processes by increasing the interface of oxic-anoxic sediment⁸⁷.
167 These functionally important bivalves were selected as they extract and feed on MPB and detritus
168 on the sediment surface, by extending their inhalant siphon to the sediment-water interface⁸⁸. As
169 they move around and feed, *M. liliana* rework the sediment stimulating nutrient regeneration⁸⁹ and
170 excreting inorganic nitrogen, both of which stimulate the MPB³⁵. Often this results in complex
171 interactions between the MPB and *M. liliana*, with positive effects of nutrient remineralization
172 often counteracting grazing pressure⁹⁰.

173 **Experimental set up.** Sieved and homogenized sediment was added to 36 chambers (300mm
174 (dia.) x 360mm (h)), to a total depth of 11cm. Red polyester fibers were mixed and evenly
175 distributed into individual 1kg batches of wet sieved sediment at the selected concentrations (0,
176 10, 30, 100, 300 and 500mg fibers kg⁻¹ wet weight sediment). These sediments were added as a
177 surficial layer (1cm) to each mesocosm. Controls were prepared separately, without the addition
178 of PET fibers to reduce risk of cross contamination.

179 Each chamber was carefully filled with filtered seawater (25µm) so as not to resuspend fibers
180 and the chambers allowed to overflow gently at a rate of ~0.05L sec⁻¹ throughout the experiment.
181 Slow flow velocities limited the loss of microplastics into the overlying water while preventing
182 nutrient or oxygen depletion. To evaluate the interaction between microplastic contamination and
183 MPB photosynthesis and biofilm development, and infaunal activity, half the sediments were
184 incubated under a diurnal (12 h/12 h) light regime and half in 24 h darkness (n=18). Cotton shade
185 cloth was used to reduce the incident light reaching the sediment surface in dark chambers (>90%
186 reduction). Chambers were randomly distributed under four double Aqua One Reflector Fluroglow
187 T8 (40W) units suspended 30cm above the sediment surface. Each unit was fitted with 2 x 1.2m
188 T8 sunlight fluorescent bulbs. Photosynthetically active radiation (PAR, 400-700nm) was
189 measured using a Li-Cor LI-190R quantum sensor coupled with a Li-Cor data-logger (Li-Cor,
190 USA) to ensure all light chambers received adequate light (ambient light of ~200 µmol photons m⁻²
191 s⁻¹) at the sediment surface. External sources of light and contamination were excluded from the
192 experimental area using black-out curtains.

193 **Post exposure sample collection.** Duplicate sediment core samples (2.6cm ID, 2cm depth) were
194 collected from each chamber for porewater nutrient analysis, with four small core samples (1cm
195 ID, 0-1cm depth) were pooled and frozen immediately for biochemical analysis. Sediment for

196 biochemical analysis was freeze-dried and homogenized then sub-sampled for various bio-
197 molecular analysis. To visualize the dominant MPB present across treatments, surface scrapes of
198 the sediment were collected, and fixed in 2.5% Gluteraldehyde solution.

199 After sediment core samples were extracted, individual bivalves were carefully removed, intact,
200 from each chamber by gentle sieving. One bivalve from each chamber was placed on clean control
201 sediment to measure bivalve reburial rates over a 20 h period following Cummings & Thrush⁴⁰.
202 At each time interval (0.5, 2, 4, 12 and 20 h) the number of bivalves that were fully reburied into
203 the sediment were recorded. Any remaining on the surface after 24 h were assumed to be
204 'immobile'. *M. liliana* from the mesocosms were immediately frozen in liquid nitrogen for
205 biochemical analyses and to quantify the number of ingested fibers.

206 **Biochemical and sediment property analysis.** Sediment porosity, organic matter and sediment
207 grain size were determined from homogenized and freeze dried sediments (see supplementary
208 materials). Determination of chlorophyll a followed Lorenzen⁹¹ using a 90% acetone extraction.
209 Porewater was extracted and filtered through GF/F filters and Nitrate (NO₃⁻) and nitrite (NO₂⁻)
210 together as NO_x, ammonium (NH₄⁺) and phosphate (PO₄³⁻) concentrations determined using a
211 Lachat QuickChem 8500+ FIA (Zellweger Analytics Inc. Milwaukee, Wisconsin, 53218, USA).

212 Diatom cells were sonicated, digested in 30% H₂O₂, and mounted on permanent slides using
213 naphrax. No quantitative analysis of the community was attempted, but the dominant taxa were
214 examined by light microscopy across the microplastic treatments. As permanent slides destroy
215 some MPB taxa (cyanobacteria, green algae), only diatoms were visualized. A phycocyanin assay
216 was also adopted to quantify any changes in the cyanobacteria community⁹².

217 *M. liliana* were freeze-dried, the tissue extracted from shells and homogenized for microscopic
218 analysis. One full bivalve from each chamber was digested in 10% KOH⁹³ for 48 h after an initial

219 heating of the sample to 40°C for 6 h. Samples were gently vacuum filtered through GF/F filters
220 before red microfibers were quantified and measured by light microscopy. During all steps,
221 atmospheric contamination was determined from the presence of microfibers on clean dampened
222 filter papers and procedural blanks were run with each new batch of samples⁹³. Total lipid contents
223 were extracted from bivalve tissue using a modified Bligh & Dyer method⁹⁴ and contents
224 determined using the sulfo-phospho vanillin (SPV) spectrophotometric method⁹⁵. The total fatty
225 acid (TFA) composition was determined for control and high treatments only following a one-step
226 direct transesterification method^{96,97}. Full details are in available in the supplementary methods.
227 Due to limited time and resources, and the interest in the role of photosynthesizing MPB, FAs
228 were only processed for sediments and bivalves incubated under light conditions. Subsequently,
229 bivalve total lipid contents were only assessed for those held under light conditions.

230 Identified FAs were first expressed as a percentage of the total FAs identified in each sample
231 and designated as X:Y ω Z, where X is the number of carbons, Y is the number of double bonds
232 and Z is the position of the ultimate double bond from the terminal methyl. The ratio of
233 DHA/EPA⁷⁷ and the ‘diatom index’ of Antonio & Richoux⁸⁴ were employed as diatom and food
234 quality indicators for sediment and animals to assess the effects of microplastic contamination in
235 addition to some other indicator FAs (Supp. table 1).

236 **Data analysis.** The effects of microplastic additions and light on biochemical properties and FA
237 biomarkers of the sediment and bivalves were assessed by separate two-way PERMANOVAs (v.7,
238 PRIMER-E, Ivybridge, UK) based on Euclidean distances (Table 1). Euclidean distance matrices
239 of biochemical sediment properties, nitrogen stocks and bivalve reburial rates were used to assess
240 the effects of microfiber additions and to determine if the effects were modulated by the light
241 conditions of the experiment (light/dark). Relationships between MPB quality indicators and

242 sediment properties (Supp. Table 1 and Table 1) were then explored and visualized using principal
243 components analysis (PCO,⁹⁸). All data used in PCO analyses were normalized using a fourth-root
244 transformation. No FA biomarkers were included in the multivariate analysis, as data were only
245 available for the control and highest microplastic additions (0g & 0.5g treatments).

246 **Results & discussion**

247 **Effects on sediment microbial communities.** Sediments are a known sink for microplastic^{7,10},
248 and MPB communities will undoubtedly interact with microplastics depositing on soft sediments
249 due to their position at the sediment-water interface. Nonetheless, few studies that have
250 investigated the influence of microplastics on soft sediment MPB communities, although a number
251 of studies have noted infaunal ingestion of microplastics can affect MPB biomass¹⁹. While up to
252 95% of microplastics detected in soft sediments are fibers^{8,15,16} there are only a few studies on the
253 influence of microfiber ingestion^{20,21} and none that investigate the effects of microfibers on various
254 compartments of benthic ecosystems including the MPB.

255 In the present study, microfibers were added to surface sediments and incubated the sediments
256 over a relatively long experimental period. Multivariate analysis on the Euclidean matrix of
257 biochemical traits suggested that the light conditions of the incubation experiment and the
258 microfiber additions resulted in interacting effects on MPB and sediment properties, infauna
259 behavior and condition and sediment nutrient stocks (Table 1). The observed results were
260 reinforced by principal components ordinations (Fig 1). The ordination illustrates a clear
261 separation between the microfiber treatment groups with differences modulated by the light
262 regime. Porewater NO_x (-84%), sediment organic matter content of the sediment surface (-52%)
263 and *M. liliانا* burrowing activity (-51%) were highly correlated to the first PCO axis (72%
264 variance explained).

265 Table 1: Results of univariate PERMANOVA tests for differences in sediment and biochemical
 266 properties using light regime and microplastic concentration as predictors.

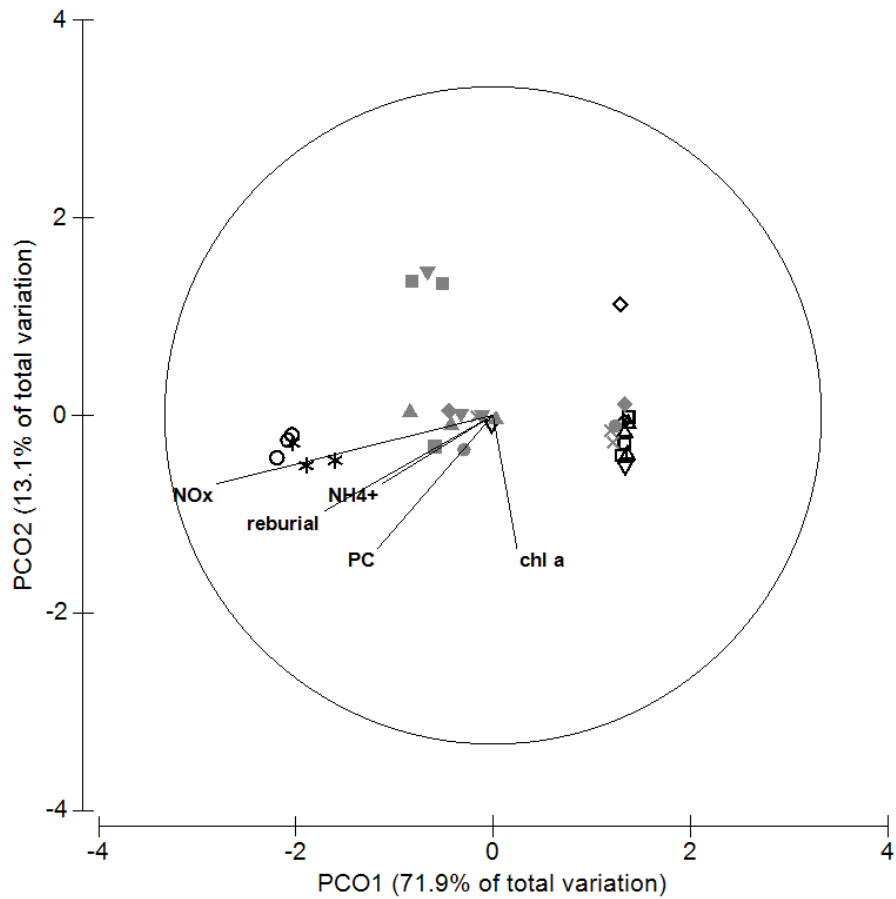
Compartment	Parameter	data	Factor	Pseudo-F	p (perm) or p (mc)
	Euclidean matrix	all	L * M	37.0	<0.001
Sediment	MPB biomass (chl a)	all	L	3.96	<0.01 +
			M	110.72	<0.001
	OM%	all	L x M	4.85	<0.05
	P (μM)	all	-	-	-
	NH ₄ ⁺ (μM)	all	M	3.56	<0.05
	NO _x (μM)	all	L x M	21.85	<0.001
	Cyano biomass (phycocyanin)	all	L	4.79	<0.05
			M	2.73	0.05
	BaFAs (C15:0+C17:0)	all	-	-	-
	Diatom index (sed)	0g & 0.5g L only	M		10.73
% EPA	0g & 0.5g L only	M		63.38	< 0.01 (mc)
EPA/DHA	0g & 0.5g L only	M		25.63	<0.01 (mc)
<i>M. liliana</i>	Reburial rate	all	M	47.1	<0.001
	Bivalve biomass	all	-	-	-
	Lipid content	L only	M	14.65	<0.001

ω 3: ω 6 ratio (quality indicator)	0g & 0.5g L only	-	-	-
Diatom index (biv)	0g & 0.5g L only	-	-	-
DHA/EPA (biv)	0g & 0.5g L only	-	-	-

267 Significant (P<0.05) main effects or interactions are displayed together with PERMANOVA
 268 Pseudo-F (number) and significance levels (p (perm) and p (mc) when monte carlo permutation
 269 tests were performed.

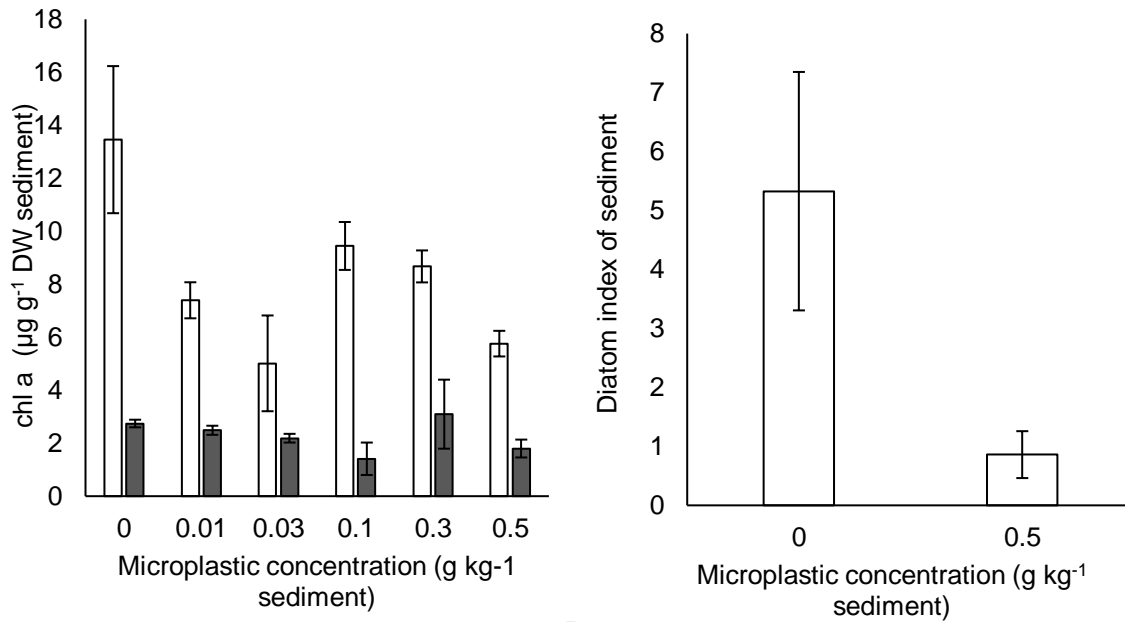
270

271 The second PCO axis (13%) was correlated to the overall MPB ($r=-0.40$) and cyanobacteria ($r=-$
 272 0.40) biomass (Fig 1), with the overall MPB biomass decreasing with microfiber additions in the
 273 light (Fig 2A). In control sediments, however, the MPB biomass increased significantly from $2\mu\text{g}$
 274 g^{-1} at the start of the experiment to $14\mu\text{g g}^{-1}$ at the end under light conditions (Fig 2A), indicating
 275 MPB growth under these conditions. Fatty acid biomarkers associated with diatoms were only
 276 processed for the extreme ends of the treatment gradient; 0g (control) and 0.5g (highest) microfiber
 277 treatments respectively. However, these indicated a reduction in the proportion of diatoms with
 278 microfibers compared to controls (Fig 2B).



279

280 Figure 1: Principal components ordination (PCO) of biochemical variables. PCO1 explained
 281 71.9% of the variation, PCO2 explained 13.1% while PCO3 (not presented) explained an
 282 additional 7.3% of the variation. Symbols: Black open symbols – light conditions; grey closed
 283 symbols – dark conditions. Shapes represent microfiber additions; triangles – 0g; inverted triangle
 284 – 0.01g; squares – 0.03g; diamonds – 0.1g; circles – 0.3g and stars – 0.5g microfiber additions.
 285 The correlation circle overlays measured variables that were influencing the dissimilarity between
 286 the samples. All data were fourth-root transformed prior to analysis. Chl_a – MPB biomass; C-
 287 phyco – Cyanobacteria biomass; NH_4^+ – porewater NH_4^+ concentration (μM). NO_x – porewater
 288 NO_x ($\text{NO}_2^- + \text{NO}_3^-$) concentration (μM). Reburial – reburial rate of *M. Liliانا*. OM – organic
 289 matter has been removed for clarity of the plot but lay in the same trajectory as NO_x .

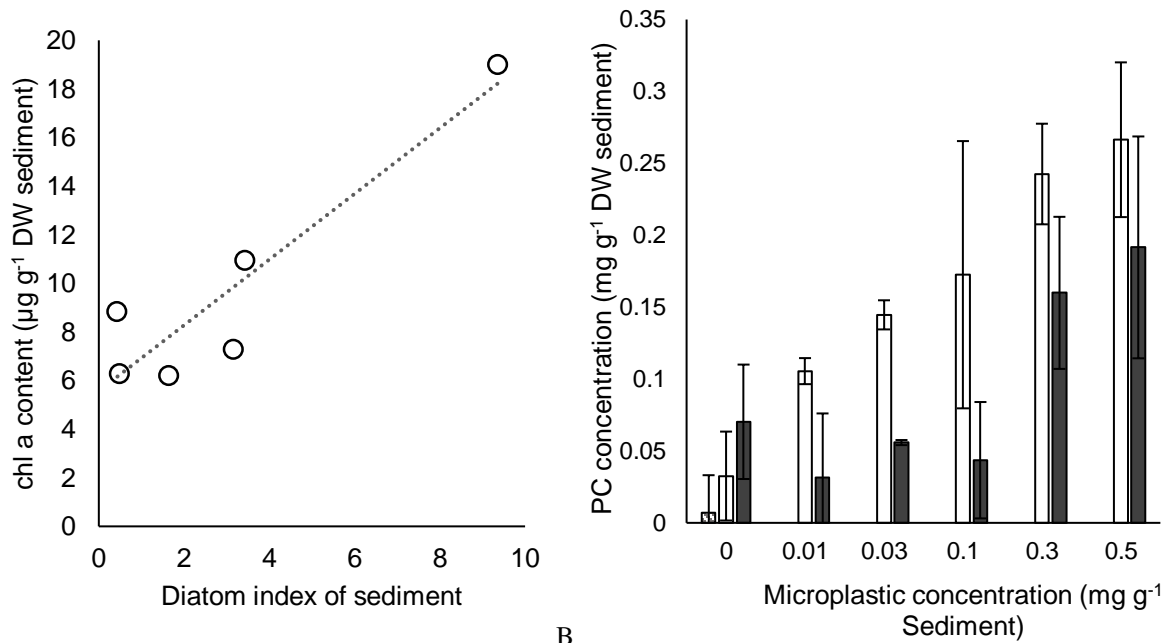


290 A

B

291 Figure 2: A) Mean (\pm SE) chlorophyll a content (MPB biomass) of the sediment surface for all
 292 microplastic treatments in light chambers (white bars) and dark chambers (grey bars). B) Mean (\pm
 293 SE) diatom index of the sediment surface for control (0g) and high (0.5g) microplastic treatments
 294 (n=3).

295 MPB biomass and the proportion of diatoms were correlated with one another, so the reduction
 296 in overall biomass was related to the reduction in the diatoms (Fig 3A). This coincided with a small
 297 increase in the pigment, phycocyanin, associated with cyanobacteria, with microfiber additions
 298 (Fig 3B). This increase was apparent under both light and dark conditions, with higher microfiber
 299 additions (Fig 3B). These results suggest that increasing microfiber contamination has the potential
 300 to alter the MPB community composition and consequently the functional role of the MPB. For
 301 example, less nutritious diatoms which are a preferred food resource for benthic fauna, and more
 302 cyanobacteria will alter the nutritional quality of the basal food resource⁵⁴ with implications for
 303 the marine foodweb.



304 A

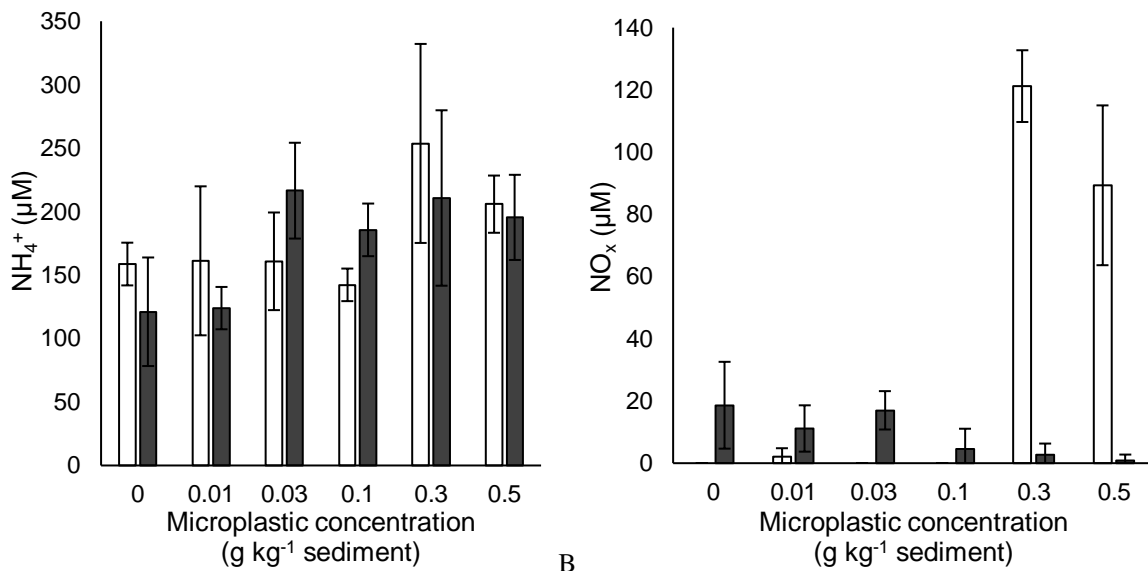
B

305 Figure 3: A) Correlation between the diatom index and chlorophyll a content of the sediment
 306 surface ($r_s^2 = 0.71$, $P < 0.05$, $n = 3$). B) Phycocyanin content (cyanobacteria biomass) of sediment as
 307 a function of microplastic additions. The concentrations are displayed for pre-incubated sediments
 308 (striped bars), and sediments incubated under light (white bars) and dark (dark bars) conditions.

309

310 Changes to sediment nitrogen stocks were detected (Fig 4A-B). Porewater NO_x was detectable
 311 in the dark, control sediments and remained close to the detection limits regardless of microfiber
 312 treatment (Fig 4B). Conversely, while porewater NO_x in light sediments were within the detection
 313 limits of the auto-analyzer at the end of the experiment in controls, NO_x was elevated with
 314 microfiber additions (Fig 4A). Furthermore, porewater NH_4^+ increased with microfiber additions
 315 regardless of the light conditions (Fig 4B). Altered nutrient uptake by the MPB can be induced by
 316 other stressors and this can shift a system towards greater heterotrophy⁹⁹, alter functional roles and
 317 restructure foodwebs¹⁰⁰. Shifts in the microbial community (phycocyanin content) were correlated
 318 with porewater DIN concentrations (Fig 1 & Supp. Fig 2). The changes to nitrogen stocks supports

319 the findings of Cluzard et al.⁵⁰, who observed elevated NH_4^+ during clam/microplastic incubations.
 320 Furthermore, shifts in the MPB community will alter their relationship with bacteria in the
 321 sediment¹⁰¹, with subsequent feedbacks to the MPB and nutrient pathways. Cluzard et al.⁴⁹
 322 proposed that the elevated NH_4^+ detected in their study was due to a reduction in denitrifying
 323 bacteria or denitrification rates in the presence of microplastics, so this warrants further
 324 investigation.



325 A
 326 Figure 4: A) Mean (\pm SE) porewater NH_4^+ (µM) with increasing microplastic contamination (n=3).
 327 White bars – light conditions; grey bars – dark conditions. B) Mean (\pm SE) porewater NO_x
 328 concentration (NO_2^- & NO_3^- , µM) with increasing microplastic contamination (n=3).

329 Both autotrophs and heterotrophs have been shown to exploit microplastics as a carbon
 330 source^{102,103}, therefore it seems plausible that cyanobacteria, and perhaps heterotrophic bacteria,
 331 were benefiting over diatoms, from the addition of microfibrers. Blue-green algae can survive and
 332 even maintain growth in darkness under anaerobic, or reduced conditions^{104,105}. In our dark
 333 conditions, over 90% of the light was blocked for several weeks. In addition, our light conditions

334 were on a 12 h light:dark cycle, resulting in a 12 h dark period. Mimicking natural light cycles
335 restricts MPB oxygen production periods, while excluding it entirely in 24 h dark conditions.
336 Cyanobacteria can turn sediments anaerobic within in minutes in the dark¹⁰⁶, therefore it is
337 plausible that cyanobacteria were benefiting both from the light regimes and the microfiber
338 additions. Our results advocate that microplastics have the potential to influence the net stocks of
339 NH_4^+ , and NO_x in sediment, with consequences for nutrient cycling in soft sediment habitats.
340 These effects may not only be isolated to coastal sediments in the photic zone, however, with
341 microplastics increasingly recorded in deep-sea sediments^{7,37,107}. The presence of microfibers were
342 influencing benthic communities that are important players for various biogeochemical
343 processes^{108–110} and altering sediment nutrient stocks in both light and dark conditions. This could
344 have profound consequences for biogeochemical processes from coastal waters to shelf sea
345 sediments. We therefore recommend further investigation of these interactions.

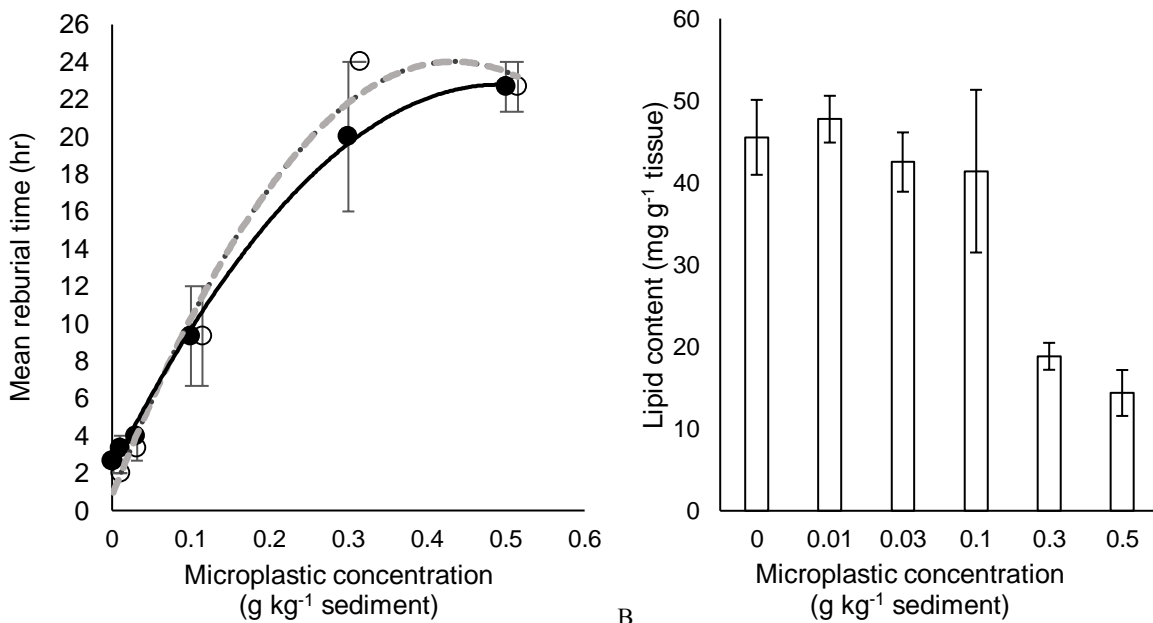
346 The results of the univariate and multivariate analyses suggest that light conditions influence the
347 interaction between photosynthesizing MPB, infaunal burrowing, nutrient pools and microfibers
348 in the sediment. UV weathering is an important mechanism by which plastics degrade in the natural
349 environment¹¹¹ and previous studies have observed oxidative stress in cell-based bioassays due to
350 the leachates from weathered polyethylene terephthalate (PET)¹¹². UV weathering of the plastic
351 fibers can result in the liberation of chemicals from the plastic into the surrounding environment¹¹².
352 Microfibers used in the present study were composed of PET, therefore the effects of fibers on
353 MPB community changes, nutrient stores could potentially be the result of chemicals leaching
354 from the fibers under UV lights.

355 While no visual quantification or identification of MPB taxa was attempted, fixed diatom slides
356 were inspected and indicated a shift towards smaller cells at higher microfiber concentrations

357 (Pers. Obs). Smaller diatom cells typically have lower nutrient requirements, turnover quicker and
358 exhibit lower net productivity than larger cells¹¹³. This was likely related to the stress of the
359 microfiber additions and/or the shift in competition between cyanobacteria, microbes and diatoms
360 for available porewater nutrients. Due to the digestion of the MPB in H₂O₂, no visual assessment
361 of cyanobacteria was possible from the slides but as noted above phycocyanin pigments associated
362 with cyanobacteria increased. Higher turnover of small MPB cells and higher degradation rates
363 would help explain the elevated sediment organic matter (OM) content observed at the highest
364 microfiber additions with OM positively correlated to porewater NH₄⁺ ($r_s^2 = 0.56$), NO_x ($r_s^2 =$
365 0.54) and cyanobacteria biomass ($r_s^2 = 0.44$). MPB are the primary source of labile organic matter
366 in soft sediment systems^{114,115}. Changes to the quality and quantity of this OM source has been
367 previously been demonstrated to shift the balance between nitrogen recycling and nitrogen release
368 processes^{116,117}. Therefore, the detected changes in the quantity and quality of MPB during the
369 present study, and the changes to nitrogen pathways that this caused was reflected in our elevated
370 sediment nitrogen stocks. Both heterotrophic bacteria and cyanobacteria are able to fix nitrogen in
371 low nitrogen systems in the absence of oxygen^{106,118} and as nitrogen fixers can utilize a wide range
372 of carbon sources including those of lower quality¹¹⁹. These organisms therefore have the potential
373 to outcompete diatoms if biogeochemical processes were altered by increasing microplastic
374 contamination. Adjustments to diatom-bacteria interactions can lead to taxonomical shifts in the
375 MPB community as well as modifying biogeochemical processes^{101,114}. Our results suggest this is
376 particularly likely if the movement of deep-dwelling infauna was reduced, and the transport of
377 nutrients to the MPB at the sediment-water interface is limited.

378 **Effects on deep dwelling deposit-feeder.** Bioturbation can influence MPB communities and
379 biogeochemical gradients by altering the transfer of sediment nutrients across the sediment-water

380 interface and stimulating biogeochemical processes^{120,121}. In the present study, the burrowing
 381 activity of *M. liliانا* was reduced, after long-term exposure to high microfiber additions regardless
 382 of the light regime (Fig 5A). The number of fibers ingested varied from 0 to 11 fibers per bivalve,
 383 with the length varying between 50 and 1400µm (Supp. Fig 3A-B). Less active bivalves from high
 384 microfiber treatments (0.3-0.5g), also exhibited reduced lipid energy reserves (up to 75% less) (Fig
 385 5B). This supports growing evidence that microplastics can decrease energy reserves in a variety
 386 of marine organisms^{21,39,44,45}. *M. liliانا* with lower energy reserves coincided with treatments
 387 containing lower quality and quantity of primary producers (Supp. Fig 4A, $r^2=0.81$, $P<0.05$). As
 388 diatoms can dominate sediments that are moderately to highly bioturbated¹²², changes to the
 389 quantity and quality of MPB and an increase cyanobacteria could also be feedbacks caused by
 390 modified bivalve behavior which would reduce the transfer of porewater nitrogen up to the MPB
 391 on the sediment surface¹²³.



392 A
 393 Figure 5: A) Mean (\pm SE) reburial time of *M. liliانا* at increasing microplastic concentrations
 394 (n=3). No significant differences were observed between light (open circles) and dark (filled

395 circles) treatments across each microplastic concentration. Time >20 h represent organisms that
396 remained on the sediment surface for the duration reburial trials. Polynomial curves were fitted to
397 the light (dashed line) ($y = 123.36x^2 + 107.02x + 0.8058$, $r^2 = 0.98$) and the dark (solid line, $y = -$
398 $84.52x^2 + 83.41x + 2.21$, $r^2 = 0.99$) treatments and illustrate the mean reburial times increased with
399 increasing microplastic contamination. B) Mean (\pm SE) of total lipid energy reserves in *M. liliana*
400 tissue across increasing microplastic concentrations.

401 FA biomarkers from bivalve tissue such as the diatom index and DHA/EPA ratio are often used
402 to assess the nutritional status of consumers^{124,125}. Despite lower bivalve energy reserves and
403 changes to the quality of the MPB community, these ratios were preserved in *M. liliana* tissues
404 (Supp. Fig 4B). This suggests that although basal food quantity and quality were altered by the
405 presence of microfibers, the quality of the bivalves was not affected over the timescale of the
406 experimental exposure (40 days). However, the selective uptake or depletion of particular FAs
407 over others may not occur over this short period. It is also likely that feeding activity of the bivalves
408 was reduced as activity levels were lower. Similar Tellenid bivalves in Europe, *Macoma balthica*,
409 modulate their dietary intake if food quality is low in order to conserve energy¹²⁶ and it is likely
410 that *M. Liliana* would conserve the essential FAs associated with diatoms over other lipids and
411 FAs over this experimental period if their feeding was reduced.

412 Adverse microplastic-effects on feeding activity has been demonstrated previously (Wegner et
413 al., 2012). Through various feedbacks, we anticipate that these potential effects on the nutritional
414 quality of the primary food resource may lead to long-term effects on the nutritional quality of the
415 bivalves for higher trophic levels. We emphasize the need to investigate this area further with
416 greater knowledge of both trophic and non-trophic interactions required to fully understand the
417 potential implications. Despite a lack of changes in the FA quality of *M. liliana*, this study has

418 illustrate a reduction in the basal food quality and quality and a depletion in the overall lipid energy
419 stores of the bivalves. Observed changes to the MPB community were related to lower overall
420 energy reserves of the bivalves as well as the behavior of this functionally important deposit-
421 feeder. Changes to bivalve behavior feeds back to the quantity and quality of MPB¹²³, which in
422 turn leads to even less nutritious food resources for the bivalves and further depleting energy
423 reserves and so forth. In addition to the influence of bioturbation on MPB, changes in grazing
424 pressure can modify the MPB¹²⁷. *M. liliana* are functionally similar to other tellenid bivalves found
425 in sediments in the northern hemisphere such as *Macoma balthica* and *Macomona arenaria*
426 (Hayward et al., 1996). We therefore stress the need to further explore the influence of
427 microplastics on functionally important benthic organisms in these complex ecological networks.

428 While the majority of studies to date have focused on the impact of microplastic ingestion in
429 marine suspension feeding bivalves^{29,128}, there is increasing evidence that deposit-feeding bivalves
430 are also susceptible to microplastics pollution^{38,39}. This is sensible given that deposit feeders graze
431 at the sediment-water interface, and sediments are the ultimate sink for marine microplastics^{7,10}.
432 Changes in MPB¹⁹ and phytoplankton biomass⁶² have previously been noted but evidence of the
433 complex feedbacks between functionally important organisms at the base of the benthic foodweb,
434 caused by microplastics contamination is lacking. The direct and indirect effects of microfiber
435 pollution and the feedbacks and interactions between functionally important organisms and
436 processes requires further exploration. This is a relatively new area of research and therefore we
437 must continue to increase the complexity of the systems we study in the laboratory in order to
438 detect potential shifts in ecosystem structure and functions that underpin ecosystem service
439 delivery.

440 Our results suggest that microfiber additions may influence the interactions between the MPB,
441 microbes and infauna with ramifications for ecosystem functions such as nutrient cycling and
442 productivity if the MPB community is altered. This suggests that over and above issues related to
443 ingestion such as gut blockage, false satiation and bioaccumulation in higher organisms, the
444 structure and function of soft sediment ecosystems and the foundation of our marine foodwebs
445 could potentially be influenced. We know that MPB and infauna play significant roles in elemental
446 cycling due to their interactions with the microbial community^{121,129} and our observations stress
447 that microplastics have the potential to alter the interactions and feedbacks that involve MPB,
448 infauna and N-cycling microbial communities^{55,120}. We suggest that future investigations quantify
449 changes to both nutrient and gas fluxes, as well as determining compositional changes to the
450 microbial community in addition to MPB, as we believe this is an attractive avenue of future
451 research.

452 Soft sediment systems around the world are under pressure from not only microplastic
453 contamination but increasing nutrient and sediment loads^{130,131}. We must comprehend the
454 potential influence of microplastic accumulation on soft sediment ecological networks. In
455 particular, the interactions between microplastics, soft sediment ecological communities and
456 ecosystem functions such as nutrient cycling in the face of multiple anthropogenic pressures.

457

458 ASSOCIATED CONTENT

459 **Supporting information.**

460 The supporting information is available free of charge on the ACS publications website at DOI:

461 Additional information as noted in the text (PDF)

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469 The manuscript was written through contributions of all authors. JAH conceived the paper and
470 produced the first draft of the manuscript. JAH carried out the experiment, collected and processed
471 samples. JAH analysed data with advice from SFT and GC. All authors contributed to the ideas
472 presented in this paper, drafts of the manuscript and gave final approval for publication. All authors
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483 Disclosures

484 The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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