

Effects of Burkholderia thailandensis rhamnolipids on the unicellular algae Dunaliella tertiolecta

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| 1 | Effects of Burkholderia thailandensis rhamnolipids on the unicellular algae |
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| 4 | Nikolina Charalampous ¹ , Giorgos Grammatikopoulos ² , Constantina Kourmentza ³ , |
| 5 | Michael Kornaros ⁴ , Stefanos Dailianis ^{1*} |



Graphical abstract

Highlights

- The effects of *B. thailandensis* rhamnolipids on *D. tertiolecta* were investigated.
- *B. thailandensis* predominant RL congener is the di-rhamnolipid Rha-Rha-C₁₄-C₁₄
- Algal growth and photosynthetic parameters, using the JIP test, were tested.
- *B. thailandensis* rhamnolipids do not affect algal growth rate.
- RLs showed no significant effects on algae photosynthetic ability

| 3 | Effects of <i>Burkholderia thailandensis</i> rhamnolipids on the unicellular algae | | |
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| 4 | Dunaliella tertiolecta | | |
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24 Abstract

25 The effects of rhamnolipids (RLs) produced and further purified from Burkholderia 26 thailandensis, on the unicellular microalgae Dunaliella tertiolecta were investigated, 27 in terms of RLs ability to affect algal growth, photosynthetic apparatus structure and 28 energy flux, round and through photosystems II and I. Specifically, 24-48h RLs-29 treated algae (RLs at concentrations ranged from 5 to 50 mg L^{-1}) showed significantly 30 decreased levels of growth rate, while increased levels of Chl a and b were obtained 31 only in 72-96h RLs-treated algae. Similarly, although no changes were obtained in the 32 Chl a/b ratio and almost all chlorophyll fluorescence parameters over time, yields of electron transport (ϕR_0 , ϕE_0) and respective performance index (PI_{total}) were 33 34 negatively affected at 72 and 96h. Based on those findings, it seems that the inhibitory effect of RLs on the algae growth rate after 24 and 48h and the gradual attenuation of 35 36 the phenomenon (after 72h of exposure), may indicate the initial response of the 37 organism, as well as algae ability to overcome, since RLs showed no effects on algae 38 photosynthetic ability. Those findings reveal for the first time that RLs from 39 Burkholderia thailandensis are not harmful for Dunaliella tertiolecta. However, 40 further studies with the use of more aquatic species could be essential for assessing 41 the RLs-mediated effects on aquatic biota.

42

43 Keywords: Algal growth, *Burkholderia thailandensis*, *Dunaliella tertiolecta*, Energy
44 flux, Photosynthetic apparatus, Rhamnolipids.

45 1. Introduction

46 During the last decades, the production of microbial surfactants or biosurfactants by microorganisms is of great interest. Those surface-active 47 48 compounds are considered as promising alternatives to chemical surfactants, due to 49 their advantageous characteristics, such as their surface activity, pH tolerance, 50 their biodegradability, temperature, ionic strength, low toxicity and emulsifying/demulsifying ability (Elshikh et al., 2017; Vijayakumar and 51 52 Saravanan, 2015). Among the major groups of biosurfactants (i.e. low 53 molecular mass glycolipids, like trehalolipids, sophorolipids, rhamnolipids and 54 lipopeptides, as well as high molecular mass amphipathic polysaccharides, proteins, 55 lipopolysaccharides, lipoproteins etc.), rhamnolipids (RLs) are of great importance, thus finding a wide range of applications, like functional food ingredients, detergents, 56 57 fungicides and fertilizers, and also in cosmetic and pharmaceutical formulations and 58 bioremediation (Müller et al., 2012; Kourmentza et al., 2017).

59 RLs are widely produced by the opportunistic pathogen Pseudomonas 60 aeruginosa, due to its high production rates and space-time yields (Wittgens et al., 61 2011). However, the employment of such bacterial strains increases safety measures 62 and process control requirements during fermentation, thus leading to the production 63 of RLs from non-pathogenic strains belonging to Burkholderia species (Hörmann et 64 al., 2010; Costa et al., 2011; Funston et al., 2016; Kourmentza et al. 2018). The latter 65 process leads to the production of amphiphilic compounds comprising of one or two 66 rhamnose molecules (mono- and/or di-RLs, respectively), linked glycosidically to one 67 or two β -hydroxy fatty acids chains of 8 - 16 carbon atoms (Abdel-Mawgoud et al., 68 2010; Kourmentza et al., 2017). RLs, occurred as secondary metabolites in the form of mixtures of different congeners (both mono- and di- RLs), can reduce the surface 69

tension of water from 72 to 25-30 mN m⁻¹ and the interfacial tension against hydrocarbons up to 1 mN m⁻¹. Their critical micelle concentrations range between 10 -225 mg L⁻¹ and depend on the relative abundance of the congener mixtures and congener structures (Dubeau et al., 2009; Hörmann et al., 2010). They also act as emulsifiers, as they can form highly stable emulsions with various hydrocarbons and oils (Gudiña et al., 2016a), and as antibacterial, antifungal and antibiofilm agents (Borah et al., 2016; Elshikh et al., 2017).

77 The global market of RLs, and biosurfactants in general, is expected to reach 78 5.5,2 Billion USD by 2022, with the RLs segment projected to grow at the highest 79 Compound Annual Growth Rate (CAGR) during the forecast period between 2017 80 and 2022 (Markets and Markets, 2017). Moreover, the fact that the segment regarding 81 the application of agricultural chemicals is also expected to grow at the highest CAGR 82 within the same period, highlights the necessity of 'green' alternatives, such as 83 biosurfactants, used in crop control and indirect plant growth promotion. In this light, 84 the likelihood of those compounds, like RLs, to end up in aquatic environments (i.e. 85 with sewage water) as well as their potential effects is of great concern (Johann et al., 86 2016).

87 Since reports on the environmental effects of such biosurfactants are limited, 88 studies concerning their impact on aquatic producers, such as algae, that possess key 89 position in the trophic chain via the production of high amounts of oxygen and their 90 participation in nutrient cycles (DeLorenzo, 2009; Ma et al., 2010; Perreault et al., 91 2012) are needed. Among algae species, frequently used in biotests for assessing the 92 relative toxicity of various chemicals and/or waste discharges, the green microalgae 93 Dunaliella tertiolecta fulfills most of the criteria for a bioassay organism (i.e. cultivation in the laboratory, rapid growth, acute response to environmental stressors) 94

and has been proposed as a standard organism for ecotoxicological tests (US EPA, 95 1974; APHA, 1989; ASTM, 1996; OECD, 2011). In fact, studies regarding the 96 osmoregulation mechanism, 97 investigation of carotenoid production, and 98 photosynthesis under extreme conditions have been performed so far, using species of 99 the genus Dunaliella (Oren, 2005), while a lot of studies reported a battery of algal 100 growth and survival endpoints (i.e. cell density, growth rate and chlorophyll content) 101 as useful indices for assessing functional and structural effects due to environmental 102 stressors (Oren, 2005; DeLorenzo, 2009; Tsiaka et al., 2013; Tsarpali et al., 2016).

103 Given that the photosynthetic apparatus is a common target of environmental 104 stress, the determination of chlorophyll a (Chl a) fluorescence has been recognized as 105 a useful tool in sensing stress of photosynthetic organisms widely used in 106 ecotoxicological bioassays (Zhou et al., 2006; Ralph et al., 2007; Kumar et al., 2014). 107 Specifically, the impact sites can be related to simple structural characteristics such as 108 photosynthetic pigment concentrations and ratios, or to functional properties of PSII 109 and PSI such as antenna performance, electron transport efficiency etc. The most used 110 parameters are maximum and effective quantum yield (Fv/Fm and Δ F/Fm) and non-111 photochemical quenching (NPQ) (Kumar et al., 2014). Lately, the fast fluorescence induction kinetics of Chl a have been also adopted for ecotoxicology tests (Dewez et 112 al., 2008; Saison et al., 2010; Invally et al., 2017). The signal is the record of 113 114 fluorescence rise from its minimum in the dark-adapted state, to its maximum, after a saturating pulse. The analysis of polyphasic curves (JIP-test) offers many parameters, 115 116 each of them related to a step of the energy flux round and between the photosystems 117 (Strasser et al., 2000, 2004). Consequently, the sensitivity of this technique is 118 expected to be high, as the impact site of a tested substance could be related to any of 119 those steps but not to the total process. To our knowledge, despite the fact that

chlorophyll fluorescence has been widely used for two decades in ecotoxicology
studies (Ralph et al., 2007; Kumar et al., 2014 and references there-in), the JIP-test
has been sporadically used the last years (Appenroth et al., 2001; Geoffroy et al.,
2003; Xia and Tian, 2009) and only in one study regarding impact of a chemical
surfactant on wheat plants (Sharma et al., 2018).

Based on the imperative need for investigating RLs complex mixtures instead of single RLs components (Johann et al., 2016) into aquatic ecosystems, the present study aimed to investigate the potential effects of *Burkholderia thailandensis*

128 produced and further purified RLs congeners on the unicellular microalgae *Dunaliella*

129 *tertiolecta*. In this context, algal growth and/or inhibition rates were estimated in RLs-

130 treated algae, while parameters commonly related with the photosynthetic apparatus,

131 such as Chl a, Chl b, total chlorophyll, total carotenoids, as well as chlorophyll

132 fluorescence parameters of photosynthetic systems I and II (PSI & PSII) were further

133 investigated by the JIP-test for the first time.

134

135 2. Materials and Methods

136 2.1. Bacterial strain and cultivation conditions

137 The production of RLs was performed as previously described by Kourmentza 138 et al. (2018). In brief, Burkholderia thailandensis E264 was grown on nutrient broth, supplemented with 4% w/v of used cooking oil (sunflower) as the sole carbon source. 139 140 Cultivation took place in a 10L bioreactor with a working volume of 8L. pH was 141 controlled to 7.0 by the automatic addition of base (5M NaOH) or acid (2M HCl), 142 temperature was kept at 37 ± 0.1 °C, air supply was constant at 1 vvm, and DO level 143 was maintained at 20% of air saturation by automatically adjusting the stirring rate. 144 Foam formation, due to RLs production, was managed by mounting of a

polyetheretherketon (PEEK) disc to the agitator shaft that served as a mechanical
foam destroyer. An antifoam sensor was also installed, in case of excessive foaming,
that suppressed foam formation by the addition of Antifoam A agent. At the end of
the cultivation the culture broth was collected and further treated for RLs extraction
and purification.

150

151 2.2 Rhamnolipid extraction and purification

152 At the end of the cultivation the culture broth was collected, and the cell-free supernatant was obtained upon centrifugation (8000 \times g, 25 min). The cell-free 153 154 supernatant was first acidified to pH 2.0, using 4M HCl, and placed at 4°C overnight 155 in order to promote RLs precipitation. The precipitate was then collected by centrifugation (8000 \times g, 15 min) and re-dissolved in distilled water. RLs were 156 157 extracted from the aqueous solution by adding an equal volume of ethyl acetate and 158 then vortexed for 5 min. The mix was left in a separation funnel until phase separation 159 was achieved, and then the organic phase, that contained the RLs, was collected. The 160 extraction of RLs from the aqueous solution was repeated three times in total, as 161 described above. The resulting organic phase collected after each extraction was 162 concentrated by rotary evaporator. Purification was performed by re-dissolving the 163 crude RL concentrate in chloroform and was then forwarded to solid phase extraction 164 using SI-1 Silica-based sorbent. RLs were eluted using a chloroform-methanol solution (1:1 v/v), and finally concentrated under nitrogen atmosphere. 165

166

167 2.3 Rhamnolipids characterization

168 RLs characterization and relative abundance between different congeners was
169 performed as previously described by Kourmentza et al. (2018). Liquid

Chromatography (Finningan Surveyor) equipped with a C8 reverse phase column 170 (Vydac® 208TP C8, ID 2.1 \times L 150 mm, 5 µm) and a diode array detector (DAD) 171 coupled with a Thermo Finningan LCQ DECA XP MAX quadropole ion trap mass 172 173 spectrometer (MS), in negative electrospray ionization mode, was performed. RLs 174 mixtures of high purity (~95%), one dominant in the mono-RL C₁₀-C₁₀ and another 175 one dominant in the di-RL C_{10} - C_{10} , were used for the calibration curves (R95D90/ R95M90, AGAE Technologies), in the same range of concentrations, and the results 176 177 were expressed as equivalents of these standards.

178

179 2.4 Algal biotest

The green algae Dunaliella tertiolecta (strain CCAP 19/6B, from Scottish 180 Marine Institute, Oban, Argyll, Scotland) was cultivated in f/2 medium without Si (24 181 182 $\pm 1^{\circ}$ C, pH 8.3 ± 0.3 , 86 $\pm 8.6 \,\mu$ E/m²/s fluorescent lighting) (OECD, 2011). At late logarithmic phase, 1x10⁴ cells mL⁻¹ were transferred to conical sterilized flasks, 183 184 containing freshly prepared culture medium (final volume 200 mL) and further treated 185 with different concentrations of RLs (5, 10, 20 and 50 mg L⁻¹) for 96 h. Those RLs 186 concentrations tested are referred as "nominal" concentrations, since there is no data regarding RLs solubility into the culture medium, as well as RLs ability to bind to 187 188 culture medium compounds and culture flask cell walls as previously mentioned 189 (Tsarpali et al., 2016). On the other hand, the range of RLs currently tested was 190 almost like those previously reported to other species tested (see for example Sydow 191 et al., 2018; Wang et al., 2005; Gustafsson et al., 2009; Johann et al., 2016).

Every 24 h, algal cell number, growth rate (μ) and inhibition rate (%I) were
counted/determined according to well-known equations (for further details see SM

194 2.4). Two independent experiments were performed and RLs concentrations were195 tested in duplicate per experiment.

196 In parallel, parameters commonly related with the photosynthetic ability of 197 algae, such as the contents of Chl a, Chl b, total chlorophyll, total carotenoids, as well as chlorophyll fluorescence parameters indicative of the physiological status of 198 199 photosynthetic systems I and II (PSI & PSII) were also measured. 200 201 Determination of chlorophyll content and total carotenoids 2.5 202 10 mL of each culture (RLs- and RLs-free algal cultures) were transferred in 203 Falcon tubes every 24h. All samples were centrifuged at 4000 x g for 10 min and the 204 supernatant was carefully discarded. Packed cells were diluted initially with 1 mL 205 dimethyl-formamide (DMF) to a final volume of 4 ml. After an incubation period of 206 20 min, samples were centrifuged as mentioned above, and the supernatant was used for spectrophotometric analysis (Shimadzu UV-VIS 160A Spectrophotometer, 207 208 Shimadzu Corporation, Tokyo) at 480, 647, 664 and 750 nm. 209 Chl a, Chl b and total carotenoids content (µg mL⁻¹) was calculated using the 210 Lambert-Beer based equations (3-5) (Wellburn, 1994) (for further details see SM 2.5). 211 212 2.6 Chlorophyll fluorescence measurements and JIP-test 213 Fast Chl a fluorescence transient was captured by a portable fluorimeter

(Handy-PEA, Hansatech Instruments Ltd. King's Lynn Norfolk, UK). Measurements
were conducted on dark adapted samples (2 mL of RLs- and RLs-free algal culture in
each case, 15 min adaptation time) and the filtered medium for each treatment served
as the blank. A bank of three red LEDs (peak at 650 nm) providing 3000 µmol m⁻² s⁻¹,

218 was used for excitation. Fluorescence was recorded from 10 μ s to 2s with intervals of

219 10 µs, 100 µs, 1 ms, 10 ms and 100 ms between the readings, for time periods of 10-220 300 µs, 0.3-3 ms, 3-30 ms, 30-300 ms, and 0.3-2 s, respectively. Fluorescence data 221 were then transformed in a logarithmic time scale and the derived polyphasic curve, 222 was analyzed according to JIP-test (Strasser et al., 1995) as extended to analyze 223 events around PSI (Oukarroum et al., 2009; Stirbet and Govindjee, 2011). The 224 parameters which were used for the photosynthetic analysis were: maximum quantum yield of primary PSII photochemistry $\varphi P_0 = F_V/F_M$; quantum yield of the electron 225 226 transport flux from Q_A to Q_B , φE_0 ; quantum yield for reduction of end electron 227 acceptors at the PSI acceptor side φR_0 ; 1-V_I, a parameter related to the size of the 228 pools of final PSI electron acceptors and potential for energy conservation from 229 exciton to the reduction of PSI end acceptors PItotal.

230

231 2.7 Statistical analysis

The estimation of RLs concentration that cause 50% inhibition of algae growth (IC₅₀ endpoints) and their 95% confidence intervals (CI) in each case was performed with the use of Probit analysis (p<0.05, IBM SPSS 19 Inc. software package). After checking for homogeneity of variance (Levene's test of equality of error variances), the significant differences among parameters were tested with the use of Mann– Whitney u-test (p<0.05).

238

239 **3.** Results

240 3.1 RLs-mediated effects of *Dunaliella tertiolecta* growth rate

LC/MS analysis on the RLs produced (data not shown; for further details see
Kourmentza et al., 2018) revealed a narrow range of different RLs congeners,
dominant in di-RLs. Specifically, RLs consisted of four congeners; the di-RL Rha-

Rha-C₁₄-C₁₄ with the highest abundance (71.40 %), the di-RL Rha-Rha-C₁₂-C₁₄, the 244 245 di-RL Rha-Rha-C₁₄-C₁₆ (or Rha-Rha-C₁₆-C₁₄) and the mono-rhamnolipid Rha-C₁₄-C₁₄ (14.09, 7.56, and 6.94 % abundance, respectively). Based on the latter, the algal 246 247 bioassay showed that those RLs (at concentrations ranged from 5 to 50 mg L⁻¹), can alter algal growth rates, thus inhibiting their growth at least at 24 and 48h, followed 248 249 by a significant attenuation of the adverse effects over time (72 and 96h) (Fig 1, Table 250 1). The latter is more obvious taking in mind the estimated 24-96h IC_{50} values (Table 251 2) that shows a significant attenuation of RLs ability to inhibit algal growth rate over 252 time.

253

254 3.2 RLs-mediated effects on photosynthetic apparatus of *Dunaliella tertiolecta*

255 Algae treated with RLs for 96h showed significant increase of Chl a, Chl b, total 256 Chl and carotenoids levels, irrespectively of the RLs concentration (Fig 2a-b, 3-4). 257 The increase of each photosynthetic pigment content per cell was of the same 258 magnitude, therefore, Chl a/b and Car/Chl ratios did not change (SM Fig 1, 2). The 259 elevated values in the presence of RLs were not detected at 24, 48 and 72 h. In fact, pigment contents doubled their concentrations in both control and treatments at 48 h, 260 261 while at 72 h, control values were partly reduced only in control and the significant 262 differences between treatments and control revealed at 96 h.

The fluorescence measurements in the present study (Table 3), indicated that yield (φE_0) related to electron transport up to Q⁻_A as well as the pool of end electron acceptors of PSI (1-V_I) were decreased by the highest concentration of RLs at 96 h. Yield for reduction of end electron acceptors at the PSI acceptor side (φR_0) was significantly reduced by the two highest concentrations of RLs (20 and 50 mg L⁻¹).

268 The PI_{total} index showed the highest sensitivity, being reduced even at 10 mg L⁻¹ of
269 RLs (Table 3).

270 4. Discussion

271 To our knowledge, this is the first study regarding the investigation of *B*. thailandensis RLs effects on the unicellular microalgae Dunaliella tertiolecta. The 272 273 current non-pathogenic species has been reported to be an efficient producer of di-274 RLs, as revealed by the abundances of di- and mono-RLs currently determined, which 275 are composed by longer chain length fatty acid moieties, instead of the opportunistic 276 pathogen P. aeruginosa that produces RLs congeners with the most abundant being 277 the mono- RL Rha-C₁₀-C₁₀, followed by di-RL Rha-Rha-C₁₀-C₁₀ and mono-RL Rha-C₁₀ (Gudiña et al., 2016b). Those structural differences between RLs congeners are 278 279 attributed to the significant differences in the amino acid sequences of *rhlA*, *rhlB* and 280 *rlhC* genes (Funston et al., 2016). However, RLs produced by *B. thailandensis* and *P.* 281 aeruginosa can find different areas of applications due to their different composition 282 that affects their properties and therefore their behavior as biosurfactants, emulsifying 283 agents etc. (Kourmentza et al., 2017).

284

285 4.1 RLs-mediated effects on algal growth

Given that algae are considered as ideal early warning biological systems for assessing any aquatic disturbances, as well as that algal biotests are preferable for ethical and economic reasons (Bae and Park, 2014), the present study revealed the effect of *B. thailandensis* RLs congeners on the unicellular algae *Dunaliella tertiolecta*. The results showed for the first time that RLs at concentrations ranged from 5 to 50 mg L⁻¹ can cause algal growth inhibition at 24 and 48h, with a concomitant recovery over time. Those RLs concentrations currently used are lower

than those previously used for performing algal biotests, using other algal strains

294 (Wang et al., 2005; Gustafsson et al., 2009).

295 Although studies regarding the effects of *B. thailandensis* derived RLs are still 296 lacking, the results of the present study seem to be in accordance with previous studies, concerning the effects of RLs on different species. Specifically, mono-RLs 297 298 (Rha- C_{10} - C_{10}) were found to be less toxic than those occurred by chemical surfactants, like SDS, on *Daphnia magna* (24h EC₅₀ = 50 mg L⁻¹, 48h EC₅₀ = 30 mg L⁻¹; 3-100 299 mg L⁻¹ concentration tested) and Danio rerio (LC₅₀ = 60 mg L⁻¹; 2-200 mg L⁻¹ 300 301 concentration tested), (Braunbeck et al., 2005; Johann et al., 2016). Moreover, 302 Pseudomonas aeruginosa derived RLs showed significantly reduced levels of growth 303 rates on harmful algal blooms (HAB) species Alexandrium minutum and Karenia brevis (Dinophyceae) even after their exposure to RLs at concentration of 5 mg L⁻¹ for 304 305 24 h (Wang et al., 2005; Gustafsson et al., 2009), which is in accordance with the 306 results of the present study. However, according to EC Regulation 1272/2008 (OJL 307 353, 2008), B. thailandensis derived RLs currently tested showed high IC₅₀ values [i.e. 72h IC₅₀ = 44.57 mg L⁻¹ (25.466-212.882) and 96h IC₅₀ >1000 mg L⁻¹], thus 308 309 indicating low harmful effects on marine biota, at least in case of algae species. The 310 latter could be due to RLs high solubility (almost negative log Kow values) and 311 degradation (Kłosowska-Chomiczewska et al., 2017), as well as to species sensitivity 312 and acclimation with time. In fact, it is known that crude RLs are soluble in aqueous solutions at pH 7-7.5, while di-RLs are expected to be more soluble in water 313 314 compared to mono-RLs since they consist of two rhamnose molecules instead of one 315 (Abdel-Mawgoud at el., 2009). Moreover, in contrast to di-RLs, mono-RLs 316 complexes cadmium 10 times more strongly (unpublished data), is a more powerful solubilizing agent, has lower water solubility, and sorbs to surfaces more strongly 317

318 (Zhang et al., 1997). In parallel with the synergistic/antagonistic effects of RLs 319 congeners previously mentioned, the obtained results (i.e. growth rate and/or %I) 320 could be over- or under- estimated in some extent, due to the absence of data 321 regarding RLs congeners solubility into the culture medium as well as their ability to 322 bind to culture medium compounds and culture flask walls, that could decrease RLs 323 effective concentration (Kramer et al., 2012; Tsarpali et al., 2016). Additionally, 324 regarding species sensitivity and acclimation, it has been reported that the presence of 325 cell wall could be linked with low algal vulnerability, while algae with no cell wall, 326 like Dunaliella tertiolecta, could be sensitive to surfactants and other chemical 327 substances, revealing low growth rates after a short period of exposure (Gong et al., 328 2004), as well as growth rate recovery over time due to adaptation and metabolic 329 regulations, mainly related with detoxification and algal survival under stressed 330 conditions (Poremba et al., 1991; Maslin and Maier, 2000; Nikookar et al., 2005; 331 Zeng et al., 2007; Wen et al., 2009; Tsiaka et al., 2013). However, more studies are needed for elucidating the exact mode of RLs action in algae. 332

333

334 4.2 RLs-mediated effects on algal photosynthetic apparatus

335 It is known that algae can adjust their intracellular concentration of chlorophylls 336 and carotenoids in response to properties of their culture medium and to 337 environmental conditions. In addition, the light intensity and nutrient availability are the predominant factors influencing photosynthetic pigment concentration and as an 338 339 adaptive response, pigments are increasing under low light intensity or nutrient 340 transient starvation (Kana et al., 1997; Young and Beardall, 2003; da Silva Ferreira 341 and Sant'Anna, 2017). Based on the latter, the fluctuation of Chl/cell and 342 carotenoids/cell currently observed in control cells can be attributed to acclimation of 343 the algae in the new culture medium after inoculation, while the light or nutrient 344 starvation seemed to cause negligible effects, at least under such a short-term culture treatment (0-96 h). On the other hand, it is therefore most likely that RLs counteracted 345 346 temporal environmental pressure through modification of membrane any permeability, since it is known that smalls changes in RLs-treated algal surface 347 348 tension could lead to slight alterations of membrane permeability, preserving or even 349 stimulating pigment formation (Sharma et al., 2018), which in turn could stimulate the 350 growth of cell culture (Lowe et al. 1994).

351 Given that a surfactant can affect thylakoid membranes without affecting 352 pigments of the light harvesting complexes (Markwell and Thornber, 1982), the results of the present study showed that the only negative impact of RLs on 353 354 photosynthetic processes carried out on thylakoid membranes was related to electron 355 transport round and between PSII and PSI (ϕE_0 , ϕR_0) and the pool of the final 356 electron acceptors at PSI (1-V_I). The PI_{total} incorporates yields of electron transport 357 together with parameters related to flux of energy in light harvest complex and RC of 358 PSII, thus proving a sensitive tool for a variety of stresses in photosynthetic 359 autotrophs (Strasser et al. 2000; Ralph et al. 2007; Koutra et al. 2018). Actually, in the 360 present study, PI_{total} appears as the most sensitive index of the JIP-test, influenced at 361 even lower concentration of RLs, at which any effect on partial electron transport 362 processes cannot be detected.

According to previous studies, the most important effect of surfactants on algal cell is the biolytic one. Apart from plasma membrane denaturation which leads to cell lysis, they can cause partial disintegration of the membrane, changing its permeability and facilitating their entrance inside the cell, where they can affect almost every organelle, chloroplast ultrastructure, thylakoid organization, and chlorophyll 368 biosynthesis (Wang et al., 2005; Popova and Kemp, 2007; Vonlanthen et al., 2011). 369 However, the present study showed that relevant effects could be recorded only at 370 relatively high concentrations of RLs. In fact, the critical micelle concentration for RLs depends on their structure and abundant congener, and may range between 10-371 372 225 mg L⁻¹ (Dubeau et al., 2009; Sobrinho et al., 2013). For the case of RLs produced 373 by B. thailandensis, that are mainly composed by Rha-Rha-C₁₄-C₁₄, the critical micelle concentration was found to be around 225 mg L⁻¹ (Kourmentza et al., 2018). 374 375 In this context, the possibility of worsening or amelioration of impact on electron 376 transport processes later than 96h needs further experimentation, while low 377 concentrations of RLs could be even protective for some aspects of acclimation of the photosynthetic machinery. 378

379

380 Conclusions

381 The effects of RLs congeners from the bacteria Burkholderia thailandensis on 382 the growth and the photosynthetic apparatus of the green alga Dunaliella tertiolecta 383 were investigated for the first time. The 96h algal biotest currently performed using 384 different concentrations of RLs revealed a decrease in the growth rate of the 385 microalgae at 24 and 48 h, followed by a significant recovery with time (72 h and 96 386 h), thus indicating low RLs-mediated harmful effects. Additionally, the negligible 387 impact of RLs on the photosynthetic apparatus of Dunaliella tertiolecta revealed for the first time, thus serving as a useful tool for assessing the applicability and usage of 388 389 B. thailandensis RLs in a battery of processes over other environmentally harmful 390 surfactants. Moreover, the PI_{total} parameter of the JIP-test appeared as the most 391 sensitive index of any impact on photochemical process. However, more studies using 392 (a) a battery of aquatic species and (eco)toxicological tests, (b) sophisticated

- analytical methods for the determination and prediction of the transport and fate of
- 394 RLs into the aquatic media, and (c) complex mixtures of RLs and environmental
- 395 contaminants could be of great concern for elucidating RLs environmental footprint.

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619 FIGURE CAPTIONS

Figure 1. Percentage of *Dunaliella tertiolecta* inhibition rate (%I) after treatment for 24-96h with different concentrations of RLs. The results are mean \pm SDs from 2 independent experiments (each experiment was performed in duplicate). Values in each column that share the same letter significantly differ from each other (Mann-Whitney U test, p<0.05).

Figure 2. Determination of (a) Chl a and (b) Chl b in *Dunaliella tertiolecta* after treatment for 24-96h with different concentrations of RLs. The results (expressed as pg of chlorophyll per cell) are mean \pm SDs from 2 independent experiments (each experiment was performed in duplicate). Values in each column that share the same letter significantly differ from control (Mann-Whitney U test, p<0.05).

Figure 3. Total chlorophyll content in *Dunaliella tertiolecta* after treatment for 24-96h with different concentrations of RLs. The results are mean \pm SDs from 2 independent experiments (each experiment was performed in duplicate). Values in each column that share the same letter significantly differ from control (Mann-Whitney U test, p<0.05).

Figure 4. Concentration of carotenoids in *Dunaliella tertiolecta* after treatment for 24-96h with different concentrations of RLs. The results (expressed as pg of carotenoids per cell) are mean \pm SDs from 2 independent experiments (each experiment was performed in duplicate). Values in each column that share the same letter significantly differ from control (Mann-Whitney U test, p<0.05).

Table 1. Algal cell number (cells/mL x 10^4) and growth rate (μ , within the parenthesis) after treatment for 24-96h with different concentrations of RLs. The results are mean \pm SDs from 2 independent experiments (each experiment was performed in duplicate). Values in each column that share the same letter significantly differ from each other (Mann-Whitney U test, p<0.05).

| Treatment period (h) | | | | |
|------------------------------|-------------------------|---------------------------|------------------------|--------------------------|
| RLs (mg L ⁻¹) | 24 | 48 | 72 | 96 |
| _ | 2.38 ± 0.05^{abcd} | 3.29±0.23 ^{abcd} | 6.78 ± 0.38 abcd | 10.12±0.29 abcd |
| 0 | (0.87±0.02) | (0.59±0.04) | (0.64±0.02) | (0.58±0.01) |
| _ | 1.54 ± 0.24^{a} | 2.12 ± 0.30^{aefg} | 3.68±0.61ª | 5.31±1.89 ^a |
| 5 | (0.42±0.19) | (0.37±0.07) | (0.43±0.06) | (0.40±0.10) |
| | 1.29±0.32 ^b | 1.64±0.27 ^{be} | 4.06±1.11 ^b | 6.00±1.68 ^{be} |
| 10 | (0.23±0.04) | (0.24±0.08) | (0.45±0.10) | (0.44±0.07) |
| | $1.22 \pm 0.14^{\circ}$ | 1.50 ± 0.19^{cf} | 3.31±1.35° | 3.68±1.36 ^{cef} |
| 20 | 0.20±0.08) | 0.20±0.06) | (0.37±0.16) | (0.31±0.09) |
| - 0 | 1.12 ± 0.23^{d} | 1.25 ± 0.27^{dg} | 2.83 ± 1.69^{d} | 5.68 ± 1.67^{df} |
| 50 | (0.10 ± 0.14) | (0.10±0.11) | (0.30±0.19) | (0.42 ± 0.08) |

Table 2. Evaluation of 24-96hIC₅₀ values (including confidence interval values within the parenthesis)

 after treatment with different concentrations of RLs (Probit, p<0.05).</td>

| Treatment period (h) | IC ₅₀ (mg L ⁻¹) | Hazard classification (EC Regulation 1272/2008) |
|-------------------------|--|---|
| 24 | 3.011 (1.083-4.932) | |
| 48 | 8.121 (5.676-10.498) | |
| 72 | 44.574 (25.466-212.882) | Chronic Category 3 > 10 to ≤ 100 mg L ⁻¹ |
| 96 | >1000 (ne) | |

ne: not evaluated due to high variability of the algal response.

Table 3. Photosynthetic parameters in *Dunaliella tertiolecta*, after treatment for a period of 24-96h with different concentrations of RLs. The results are mean \pm SDs from 2 independent experiments (each experiment was performed in duplicate). Values in each column that share the same letter significantly differ from the respective control (Mann-Whitney U test, p<0.05).

| RLs (mg/L) | Treatment period (h) | | | |
|--------------|----------------------|--------------------|---------------------|---------------------|
| ФРо or Fv/Fm | 24 | 48 | 72 | 96 |
| 0 | 0.53 ± 0.15 | 0.65 ± 0.01 | 0.64 ± 0.02 | 0.67 ± 0.03 |
| 5 | 0.53 ± 0.16 | 0.63 ± 0.01 | 0.63 ± 0.01 | 0.63 ± 0.01 |
| 10 | 0.53 ± 0.16 | 0.64 ± 0.01 | 0.66 ± 0.01 | 0.65 ± 0.02 |
| 20 | 0.50 ± 0.17 | 0.62 ± 0.03 | 0.65 ± 0.02 | 0.64 ± 0.04 |
| 50 | 0.48 ± 0.15 | 0.62 ± 0.02 | 0.65 ± 0.01 | 0.64 ± 0.01 |
| ФЕо | | | | |
| 0 | 0.26 ± 0.12 | 0.37 ± 0.02 | 0.36 ± 0.01 | 0.36 ± 0.02 |
| 5 | 0.26 ± 0.13 | 0.34 ± 0.01 | 0.34 ± 0.01 | 0.31 ± 0.02^{a} |
| 10 | 0.26 ± 0.13 | 0.36 ± 0.01 | 0.37 ± 0.01 | 0.34 ± 0.01 |
| 20 | 0.24 ± 0.13 | 0.34 ± 0.03 | 0.35 ± 0.02 | 0.33 ± 0.05 |
| 50 | 0.24 ± 0.13 | 0.33 ± 0.03 | 0.36 ± 0.01 | 0.32 ± 0.01^{a} |
| φR0 | | | | |
| 0 | 0.10 ± 0.06 | 0.14 ± 0.02 | 0.14 ± 0.01 | 0.14 ± 0.01 |
| 5 | 0.09 ± 0.05 | 0.14 ± 0.01 | 0.13 ± 0.01 | 0.13 ± 0.01 |
| 10 | 0.09 ± 0.06 | 0.14 ± 0.01 | 0.13 ± 0.00 | 0.13 ± 0.01 |
| 20 | 0.09 ± 0.06 | 0.13 ± 0.02 | 0.12 ± 0.00^{a} | 0.11 ± 0.02^{a} |
| 50 | 0.11 ± 0.07 | 0.14 ± 0.03 | 0.12 ± 0.00^{a} | 0.11 ± 0.01^{a} |
| $1-V_I$ | | | | |
| 0 | 0.17 ± 0.06 | 0.22 ± 0.02 | 0.22 ± 0.03 | 0.21 ± 0.02 |
| 5 | 0.16 ± 0.05 | 0.23 ± 0.02 | 0.20 ± 0.01 | 0.21 ± 0.02 |
| 10 | 0.16 ± 0.06 | 0.22 ± 0.02 | 0.20 ± 0.00 | 0.20 ± 0.01 |
| 20 | 0.16 ± 0.07 | 0.21 ± 0.02 | 0.18 ± 0.00 | 0.17 ± 0.01^{a} |
| 50 | 0.20 ± 0.09 | 0.23 ± 0.04 | 0.18 ± 0.00 | 0.17 ± 0.01^{a} |
| PItotal | | | | |
| 0 | 0.26 ± 0.26 | 0.44 ± 0.15 | 0.39 ± 0.07 | 0.40 ± 0.04 |
| 5 | 0.22 ± 0.22 | 0.38 ± 0.08 | 0.31 ± 0.03^{a} | 0.29 ± 0.07 |
| 10 | 0.24 ± 0.24 | 0.39 ± 0.09 | 0.35 ± 0.04 | 0.31 ± 0.05^{a} |
| 20 | 0.22 ± 0.23 | 0.32 ± 0.14 | 0.30 ± 0.04^{a} | 0.23 ± 0.10^{a} |
| 50 | 0.29 ± 0.32 | 0.34 ± 0.14 | 0.29 ± 0.03^{a} | 0.21 ± 0.04^{a} |



Fig 1.







Fig 3.



Fig 4.

Supplementary material

Effects of *Burkholderia thailandensis* rhamnolipids on the unicellular algae *Dunaliella tertiolecta*.

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SM 2.4 Algal biotest

The algal cell number was counted, using a Neubauer hemocytometer, while the growth (μ) and the inhibition rate (%I) were determined according to equations (1) and (2).

$$\mu_n = \frac{\ln X_n - \ln X_0}{t_n - t_0}$$
(1)

 μ_n : algal growth rate (day⁻¹) after *n* days (24, 48, 72 or 96h)

 X_0 = number of cells/ml at time 0 (t₀)

 X_n = number of cells/ml at t_n

 t_0 = time of first measurement after beginning of test

 t_n = time of nth measurement after beginning of test

$$\%I = \frac{\mu_c - \mu_n}{\mu_c} \times 100 \tag{2}$$

%I: percent inhibition in average specific growth rate

 μ_c : mean value for average specific growth rate (μ) in the control group

 μ_n : average specific growth rate for the treatment replicate.

SM 2.5 Determination of chlorophyll content and total carotenoids

Chl a, Chl b and total carotenoids content ($\mu g m L^{-1}$) was calculated using the Lambert-Beer based equations (3-5) (Wellburn, 1994).

$$C_a = 11.65A_{664} - 2.69A_{647} \tag{3}$$

$$C_b = 20.81A_{647} - 4.53A_{664} \tag{4}$$

$$C_{x+c} = (1000A_{480} - 0.89C_a - 52.02C_b)/245 \quad (5)$$



SM Figure 1. Chl a/Chl b ratio in *Dunaliella tertiolecta* after treatment for 24-96h with different concentrations of RLs. The results are mean \pm SDs from 2 independent experiments (each experiment was performed in duplicate).



SM Figure 2. Carotenoids/total chlorophyll ratio in *Dunaliella tertiolecta* after treatment for 24-96h with different concentrations of RLs. The results are mean \pm SDs from 2 independent experiments (each experiment was performed in duplicate).