

# Microplastic ingestion affects hydrogen production and microbiomes in the gut of the terrestrial isopod *Porcellio scaber*

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## Funding information

Deutsche Forschungsgemeinschaft, Grant/Award Number: 391977956

## Abstract

Microplastic (MP) is an environmental burden and enters food webs via ingestion by macrofauna, including isopods (*Porcellio scaber*) in terrestrial ecosystems. Isopods represent ubiquitously abundant, ecologically important detritivores. However, MP-polymer specific effects on the host and its gut microbiota are unknown. We tested the hypothesis that biodegradable (polylactic acid [PLA]) and non-biodegradable (polyethylene terephthalate [PET]; polystyrene [PS]) MPs have contrasting effects on *P. scaber* mediated by changes of the gut microbiota. The isopod fitness after an 8-week MP-exposure was generally unaffected, although the isopods showed avoidance behaviour to PS-food. MP-polymer specific effects on gut microbes were detected, including a stimulation of microbial activity by PLA compared with MP-free controls. PLA stimulated hydrogen emission from isopod guts, while PET and PS were inhibitory. We roughly estimated  $10^7$  kg year<sup>-1</sup> hydrogen emitted from the isopods globally and identified their guts as anoxic, significant mobile sources of reductant for soil microbes despite the absence of classical obligate anaerobes, likely due to *Enterobacteriaceae*-related fermentation activities that were stimulated by lactate generated during PLA-degradation. The findings suggest negative effects of PET and PS on gut fermentation, modulation of important isopod hydrogen emissions by MP pollution and the potential of MP to affect terrestrial food webs.

## INTRODUCTION

Today's modern life without plastic is inconceivable, as plastic is highly versatile and can be applied in various sectors ranging from the packaging to the building and construction sector with a likewise wide range of lifetimes from less than a year to several decades. To date more than 8.3 billion tonnes have been produced, out of which about 60% have been discarded. A large proportion of the plastic waste is either disposed of in landfills or ends as litter in the natural environment (Geyer et al., 2017). Hence, plastic is not only advantageous

but also has become an ubiquitous man-made environmental burden. Due to weathering and fragmentation, large plastic items are gradually transformed to slowly degrading microplastic (MP) smaller than 5 mm in diameter (Andrady, 2017; Hartmann et al., 2019). Although biodegradation by specialized microorganisms originating from plastic polluted sites, landfills or animal intestines has been observed (Gambarini et al., 2021), MPs only degrade slowly in natural environments and persist over decades (Lebreton et al., 2019). While most attention so far focused on oceanic environments, the annual plastic release to

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terrestrial environments is 4–23 times higher, mostly due to agricultural practices and littering (Horton et al., 2017). Conventional plastics, such as polyethylene (PE), polyethylene terephthalate (PET), polystyrene (PS) and polyvinyl chloride (PVC), are considered to be extremely resistant to biodegradation. Biodegradable polymers such as polylactic acid (PLA) and polycaprolactone are therefore becoming popular as an alternative. However, their degradation is incomplete and slow under environmental conditions (Emadian et al., 2017).

MP may not only alter the physical and chemical soil properties, but may also affect the soil biota (Büks et al., 2020; Büks & Kaupenjohann, 2022; Ji et al., 2021). Unintentional ingestion of MP by soil-dwelling and especially soil-feeding macrofauna is likely and can have negative fitness effects on organisms like earthworms, nematodes or collembola (Büks et al., 2020; Ji et al., 2021). Subsequently, MP may be transferred to higher trophic levels, as shown for chickens that acquired MP from soil by feeding on earthworms (Huerta Lwanga et al., 2017).

Like earthworms, also terrestrial isopods (i.e., woodlice—Isopoda—Oniscidea) are widespread decomposers with a density that can exceed 1000 individuals m<sup>2</sup> (Paoletti & Hassall, 1999). These organisms are sensitive to contaminants, for example, pesticides or heavy metals, and thus are suited for soil ecotoxicity testing in laboratory and field bioindicator studies (Paoletti & Hassall, 1999; van Gestel et al., 2018). Isopods are known to be sensitive to evaporation and thus prefer moist habitats, which in turn often comes along with darkness, and they thus dwell in the upper soil and litter layers (Edney, 1954). As soil-dwellers, they mainly feed on decaying leaf litter and wood, and it has been shown that weathered feed colonized by microbes is actually favoured (Hassall et al., 1987; Ihnen & Zimmer, 2008). Along with their preferred food sources, isopods also ingest soil (Zimmer, 2002). Their presence in soil enhances soil nutrient cycling due to the fragmentation and transportation of organic material along with microorganisms (Rabatin & Stinner, 1988). Hence, it can be considered that they likewise contribute to the fragmentation and transportation of accidentally ingested MP and even distribution of pathogenic microorganisms as plastic surfaces are suitable for colonization (Gkoutselis et al., 2021; Kirstein et al., 2016; Rohrbach et al., 2022). Many studies have investigated the effects of pollutants on the isopod *Porcellio scaber* (common rough woodlouse; van Gestel et al., 2018). However, to date there are only a few studies investigating life history traits after MP ingestion: no or only minor effects on survival, feeding rate, body mass or energy reserves in the digestive glands were obtained for isopods exposed to PE particles, tire particles or polyester fibres (Jemec Kokalj et al., 2018; Selonen et al., 2020, 2021). However, this does not necessarily mean that

*P. scaber* is only marginally affected by MP ingestion. The effects are possibly less obvious after a relatively short exposure of only a few weeks and the detection of sublethal effects requires assessment of other parameters. Accordingly, immune response parameters are affected by MP (polyester fibres and tire particles) ingestion (Dolar et al., 2021, 2022). Such effects are potentially linked to effects on the gut microbiota, but the effects of MP exposure on the gut microbiota of *P. scaber* have not been investigated yet. In case of MP effects on the gut microbiota, potential consequences are alteration of the metabolites produced through microbial activity that may not only affect the host. Such altered gut communities and their metabolites are likely to be released into the soil ecosystem. This in turn may have profound downstream effects like environmental niche alterations and changes of the soil microbiota.

Generally, an intact gut microbiota is important for the development, nutrition and immunity and this also applies for isopods that possess a more dynamic microbiota compared with higher organisms, such as mammals (Bouchon et al., 2016). The nutrient content in the common diet of isopods (leaf litter and dead wood) is generally very low and it is suggested that isopods rely on microbes colonizing and degrading the decaying plant material and thereby providing nutrients for the host, or the microbes themselves are digested and serve as a nutrient-rich source (Horváthová et al., 2016; Ihnen & Zimmer, 2008; Zimmer, 2002). With a reduced microbial cell number in the anterior section of the hindgut, it is likely that the latter applies for this gut section, while microbes proliferate towards the posterior section, where mainly anaerobic conditions prevail (Drobne, 1995; Zimmer & Brune, 2005; Zimmer & Topp, 1998). The most abundant groups in *P. scaber*'s gut microbiota have been assigned to Proteobacteria, Bacteroidota and Actinobacteria commonly inhabiting insect intestines (Horváthová et al., 2016, 2019; Kostanjsek et al., 2002, 2004). All of these phyla contain members that possess a facultative or even obligate anaerobic lifestyle and therefore, fermentative microbes including hydrogen producers may play an important role as shown for other invertebrates (e.g., termites and earthworms; Ebert & Brune, 1997; Wüst et al., 2009). However, whether or not fermentation is an ongoing process in the gut of *P. scaber* remains to be determined.

The gut microbial community and hence the digestive processes can indeed be modulated by MP ingestion as shown for several soil invertebrates: In the gut of mealworms (*Tenebrio molitor* larvae), PE and PS can be degraded with a strong association of species within the *Enterobacteriaceae* (Brandon et al., 2018). Adverse effects of MP ingestion on life history traits (e.g., reduced growth and reproduction rates) appear along with alteration of the gut microbiota of springtails

(*Folsomia candida*; ingestion of PVC or PE; Zhu, Chen, et al., 2018; Ju et al., 2019) and potworms (*Enchytraeus crypticus*; ingestion of PS; Zhu, Fang, et al., 2018). The effects of biodegradable MP on invertebrate gut microbiota have not been investigated yet, and generally studies of *P. scaber*'s gut microbiota after any MP ingestion are lacking to date.

This study aims to investigate the effects of conventional non-biodegradable MP particles, PET and PS, and biodegradable PLA on *P. scaber* with respect to fitness, gut microbiota and fermentation potential in the gut, with the underlying hypothesis that biodegradable and non-biodegradable MPs have contrasting effects on *P. scaber* mediated by changes of the associated gut microbiota. This was tested in MP-feeding experiments, microsensor analyses of prevailing conditions in the gut with respect to pH, oxygen and hydrogen (as a measure for ongoing microbial fermentation) concentrations and analyses of the gut microbiota. In addition, the food microbiota was analysed to investigate its influence on the gut microbiota.

## EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES

### Food preparation and isopod collection

Food pellets consisting of withered leaves (mainly maple leaves; 42%), ground commercial rabbit food (25%) and potato powder (33%) were prepared as described in Zížek et al. (2011). For the pellets that additionally contained MP fragments, PLA, PET and PS granules were purchased from NatureWorks (Naarden, The Netherlands), Veolia (Berlin, Germany) and Ineos Styrolution (Ludwigshafen, Germany), respectively. MP was produced from granules by grinding to fragments using a cryo ball mill (Retsch, CryoMill, Germany) and followed by sieving to obtain fragments ranging from 75 to 150  $\mu\text{m}$  in diameter of irregular shape. Then, 2.5% or 5% (w/w) PLA, PET or PS was added to the food mixture.

*P. scaber* individuals (only adults; weight >30 mg) as model isopods were collected in a garden near the campus of the University of Bayreuth (Germany) or the Leibniz University of Hannover (Germany) between February and May 2020. Reproducible behaviour of isopods collected from two sampling sites was expected, as habitats, food sources and temperate climatic conditions were similar. The animals were kept in boxes (40  $\times$  30  $\times$  25 cm) filled with damp soil, leaves and tree bark prior to the performance of independent experiments assessing hydrogen and methane emission rates of whole isopods, microsensor profiles of pH, hydrogen and oxygen concentrations of isopod guts, bacterial community composition of the isopod guts and food pellets, as well as fitness effects and food

choice (for the latter see Supplementary Experimental Procedures).

### Molecular hydrogen, oxygen and pH microsensor measurements from isopod guts

Microsensor measurements were performed to identify the location and level of hydrogen production within isopods as an estimate for the fermentation potential and to assess MP effects on the conditions inside the gut of the isopods. One gram of food pellets containing no MP or 5% PLA, PET or PS were mixed with 2 mL 1% agar ( $\approx 60^\circ\text{C}$ ), spread on a petri dish and cooled to room temperature. Twelve isopods per treatment were placed on these petri dishes and kept at room temperature in the dark. The food was exchanged after 3 days and isopods were kept for three further days. Prior to gut dissection, the isopods were placed on ice for several minutes in order to lower their mobility. Each gut was embedded within a small glass chamber in 1% low-melt agarose in insect Ringer's solution. Coverslips and microscope slides (7.5  $\times$  2.5  $\times$  0.1 cm) were used for the construction of chambers similar to those in Brune et al. (1995): a coverslip at the bottom of the chamber and two microscope slides on top of each other were arranged to each side of the chamber providing the dimensions of 2.5-cm length, 1.0-cm width and 0.2-cm depth. The bottom of the chamber was filled with a layer of molten 1% low-melt agarose in insect Ringer's solution and after solidification, a freshly dissected full isopod gut was placed on top of it. Then a top agarose layer (not warmer than  $40^\circ\text{C}$ ) was cast in the chamber, which was immediately covered with a coverslip before solidification. The agarose block with a single gut embedded was placed on another 2-mm thick agarose bed in a weighing boat, which was used to prevent microsensor destruction in case the tip went too low, that is, beyond the agarose block. Insect Ringer's solution just covering the upper surface of the agarose block was applied to prevent dehydration of the agarose blocks and thus provide similar conditions for multiple microsensor measurements that were performed for a single gut.

Custom-made microsensors for oxygen, hydrogen and pH (Ebert & Brune, 1997; Revsbech, 1989; Revsbech & Jørgensen, 1986; Schramm, 2006) with tip diameters <20  $\mu\text{m}$  were used for recording radial profiles of the anterior (at a distance of 1 mm from the front end), the medial and the posterior (at a distance of 1 mm from the rear end) of isopod guts (see positions in Figure S1). Measurements were performed at room temperature. For pH measurements, a bridge consisting of a syringe barrel filled with the same agarose as the agarose bed was constructed between this bed and

using an Ag/AgCl reference electrode with Red Rod technology (Radiometer REF201). The sensors were connected to a four-channel multimeter with a built-in 16-bit A/D converter (Unisense Microsensor Multimeter, Ver 2.01; Unisense A/S, Denmark). Pre-polarized sensors were calibrated prior to gut profile measurements: a two-point calibration with a 0.7 M alkaline ascorbate solution (0  $\mu$ M oxygen) and an air-saturated Ringer's solution (265.6  $\mu$ M oxygen) for the oxygen microsensor; a three-point calibration with pH 4, 7 and 10 buffers for the pH microsensor; a calibration with multiple points ranging between 0 and 50  $\mu$ M for the hydrogen microsensor. Data acquisition and control of the micro-profiling system were enabled with the software program SensorTrace PRO (Unisense A/S). Profiling through the guts was performed with 50  $\mu$ m spatial resolution. Oxygen and pH sensors were allowed to equilibrate for 5 s prior to data acquisition. For hydrogen sensors, 10 s equilibration time were required. The measurements with the different sensors were performed with different guts. Three guts per treatment and microsensor were analysed (in total, 9 of 12 original specimens from the petri dish) at three positions each (anterior, medial and posterior).

### Determination of molecular hydrogen and methane emission from whole isopods

In order to confirm hydrogen emissions under in vivo conditions, hydrogen production rates of whole isopods were determined. In addition to hydrogen, methane is relevant in the anaerobic food chain and was also analysed. Therefore, adult isopods were freshly collected and surface sterilized with 70% ethanol. These animals were not subjected to a MP-treatment. Groups of three individuals each were placed in three 3-mL Exetainer (Labco, Lampeter, UK). The vials were sealed with airtight lids (caps with butyl septa) and overpressure was applied to all vials via injection of 2 mL air. Headspace hydrogen and methane mixing ratios were analysed for a period of 10 h with a gas chromatograph coupled to a pulsed discharge helium ionization detector (7890B, Agilent Technologies, Santa Clara, CA, USA) via a micro-packed molecular sieve column (ShinCarbon ST 80/100, 2 m, 0.5 mm ID, Part#: 19043, Restek Corporation, Bellefonte, PA, USA) and a capillary column (RT-Molecular Sieve 5A, 30 m, 0.53 mm ID, 50  $\mu$ m, Cat#: 19723, Restek Corporation) as described in Zaman et al. (2021).

### Isopod feeding experiment with assessment of fitness parameters

Groups of 10 isopods (7 females, 3 males) were kept in glass jars (diameter: 10.8 cm; volume: 370 mL) with the

bottom covered with moist filter paper in a climate chamber with a 16 h light and 8 h dark cycle at 16°C and 85% humidity. Isopod groups were exposed to food pellets without or with 2.5% or 5% PLA, PET or PS for 8 weeks. Each treatment was performed in five replicates (five glass jars per treatment containing 10 isopods each). One food pellet was placed in each jar and exchanged every other day. At the same time, the survival of isopods was checked and dead individuals were removed. Once a week, the glass jars were cleaned and the filter papers were replaced. Locomotor activity tests were performed after 2, 4 and 6 weeks (see Supplementary Experimental Procedures). After 8 weeks, the isopods were weighed and the percentage weight gain to the initial weight was calculated. Furthermore, guts were dissected from one specimen per jar and these guts as well as the food pellet of the respective treatment (one pellet per jar) were frozen in liquid nitrogen and kept at -80°C prior to microbiota analysis.

### Nucleic acid extraction, DNase treatment and reverse transcription

Prior to extraction of DNA and RNA from one whole isopod gut per replicate (jar), their weight was determined. Five extractions per treatment yielding 35 nucleic acid extractions in total were performed. The nucleic acids were also extracted from subsamples of the food pellets ( $\approx$ 50 mg; likewise 5 extractions per treatment yielding 35 extractions in total). The extraction protocol was performed according to Griffiths et al. (2000) with some modifications: (i) 2-mL screw cap tubes used during initial cell lysis were filled with  $\varnothing$ 0.1-mm and  $\varnothing$ 0.5-mm zirconium beads, 150 mg each, and one  $\varnothing$ 3-mm glass bead; (ii) cell lysis by bead beating for 30 s at 5.0 m s<sup>-1</sup> was performed twice with an intermitted cooling on ice for 30 s; (iii) nucleic acids were precipitated on ice for 2 h; (iv) air-dried nucleic acid pellets derived from gut and food samples were resuspended in 30 and 60  $\mu$ L RNase-free water, respectively. Verification of nucleic acid extracts was assessed via agarose gel electrophoresis and spectrophotometric measurements. DNase treatment was applied to a 13- $\mu$ L subsample of each extract using the TURBO DNA-free™ Kit (Invitrogen, Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Reverse transcription of 10  $\mu$ L RNA was performed using LunaScript RT Supermix Kit (New England Biolabs, Ipswich, MA, USA) according to the manufacturer's protocol. Negative controls without template RNA (water treated with DNase) and, for each sample, without reverse transcriptase were performed. Samples were kept on ice for further processing.



## Analysis of bacterial 16S rRNA genes and 16S rRNA

Bacterial 16S rRNA genes and 16S rRNA (after reverse transcription) were quantified by quantitative polymerase chain reaction (qPCR) using primers Bact\_341F and Bact\_805R (Herlemann et al., 2011). Each sample was analysed in duplicate 10- $\mu$ L reactions containing 5  $\mu$ L Luna Universal qPCR Master Mix (New England Biolabs), 2  $\mu$ M of each primer, 10  $\mu$ g bovine serum albumin and 2  $\mu$ L of 1:100 diluted template (c)DNA. Negative controls contained sterile water instead of template (c)DNA. Standards consisted of serially diluted ( $10^2$ – $10^6$  gene copies per  $\mu$ L) M13uni/rev PCR products of a pGEM-T vector with a 16S rRNA gene inserted. The amplification was performed in a CFX Connect Real-Time PCR System (Bio-Rad, Feldkirchen, Germany) with the following cycling conditions: 2 min at 95°C, 35 cycles of 30 s at 95°C, 50 s at 60°C (combined annealing and elongation) and a plate read after 10 s at 80°C. The amplification efficiencies ranged between 96% and 98%, the  $r^2$  values were  $\geq 0.99$ . The specificity of the amplification was verified by melting curve analysis (from 60 - 95°C in 0.5°C intervals for 5 s each) and agarose gel electrophoresis. Specific amplification of archaeal 16S rRNA (using primers A519F; Wang & Qian, 2009 and A1017R; Yoshida et al., 2005) and [Fe-Fe]-hydrogenase genes (encoding for enzymes that catalyse the production of hydrogen in obligate anaerobic fermenting bacteria, using primers from Schmidt et al. (2010) and Xing et al. (2008)) was tested for several gut and food samples, but consistently failed.

Bacterial 16S rRNA genes and 16S rRNA were also analysed by high-throughput amplicon sequencing. Amplicons were generated using the same primer pairs as for the qPCR, but tagged with specific adapters (Illumina, San Diego, USA). Each reaction mixture contained 12.5  $\mu$ L Kapa HiFi HotStart ReadyMix (Roche, Mannheim, Germany), 0.5  $\mu$ M of each primer, 5  $\mu$ g bovine serum albumin and 2.5  $\mu$ L of 1:10 diluted template (c)DNA. Sterile water, instead of template was applied for negative controls. The PCR was performed in a thermocycler (Biozym Scientific GmbH, Hessisch Oldendorf, Germany) with 3 min initial denaturation at 95°C, followed by 30 cycles with 20 s at 98°C, 15 s at 55°C and 15 s at 72°C and an end-elongation step at 72°C for 1 min. Specificity of the amplification was confirmed by agarose gel electrophoresis. The amplicons were purified using the GeneRead size selection kit (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany). Library preparation was performed using the Nextera XT Index Kit (Illumina) as given elsewhere (Ho et al., 2020) and the Illumina MiSeq version 3 chemistry was applied for 2  $\times$  300 bp paired-end sequencing.

After demultiplexing of the sequencing reads, the QIIME2 software package (version 2021.2; [www.qiime2.org](http://www.qiime2.org)) was used for further processing as

described previously (Weig et al., 2021). Briefly, primer specific sequences were removed from sequencing reads that were subsequently subjected to the DADA2 pipeline for quality filtering, denoising and joining of paired reads. Low-abundant amplicon sequencing variants (ASVs) with frequencies below the median frequency per ASV of seven were filtered out and the remaining ASVs were taxonomically classified using a trained classifier based on the SILVA database (version 138; [www.arb-silva.de](http://www.arb-silva.de)). ASVs shorter than 390 bp and those matching ‘chloroplast’ or ‘mitochondria’ were removed from the data set. Entirely unclassified ASVs or those assigned to unclassified bacteria were manually inspected for chimera formation via NCBI blastn search ([www.blast.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov](http://www.blast.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov)) and excluded in case of the first, and the second half of the respective reads was attributed to distanced taxa. If not stated otherwise, ASVs classified as the widespread endosymbionts *Wolbachia* or *Candidatus Hepaticola* (Bouchon et al., 2016) likely derived from the gut tissue were also eliminated. The abundance of 16S rRNA genes and 16S rRNA derived from qPCR analyses was recalculated excluding the proportion of these endosymbionts. With the exception of one sample with less than 5000 reads that was discarded (16S rRNA derived from food containing 2.5% PS), all samples contained at least 20,000 reads and were analysed further. Based on the Aitchison distance (a compositional distance metric calculated with the DEICODE plugin; Martino et al., 2019), the beta diversity of the whole data or of a subset (only food samples, only gut samples) was analysed. Visualization of the microbial community data was performed with R (version 4.1.1; R Core Team, 2020) using the packages *phyloseq* (McMurdie & Holmes, 2013) and *ggplot2* (Villanueva & Chen, 2019). Overlapping (shared) or exclusive (unique) taxa (on genus level, if applicable) in multiple (sub-)data sets was demonstrated using Venn diagrams with the R package *ggVennDiagram* (Gao et al., 2021). Only taxa that occurred in at least 30% of the respective replicates were included. An indicator species analysis on genus level (if applicable) with the *multipatt* function in the *indicspecies* package of R (1000 permutations) was conducted to assess specific associations of taxa with specific origin (isopod gut or food) using the relative of 16S rRNA gene and 16S rRNA abundances (de Cáceres & Legendre, 2009). The analyses of the associations of taxa with a particular MP-treatment were performed on absolute 16S rRNA gene and 16S rRNA abundances using the results of the total quantification (qPCR data).

## Statistical analysis

All statistical analyses were conducted using the statistical platform R version 4.1.1 (R Core Team, 2020).

Differences in weight gain, food choice and speed index of the isopods as well as maximum hydrogen concentration and minimum pH in the isopod guts assessed via microsensor profiles were analysed by fitting linear models, performing analysis of variance (ANOVA) tests and Tukey post hoc comparisons using the *multcomp* package (Hothorn et al., 2008). The survival probability of isopods and confidence intervals were calculated using the *survival* package (Therneau, 2015). Abundance data obtained from qPCR analysis were investigated by a factorial two-way ANOVA (MP-treatment and percentage as factors). If the initial model has not met normality assumptions, the data were transformed using the *transformTukey* function in the *rcompanion* package (Mangiafico & Mangiafico, 2017), and then the adjusted model met the required assumptions. Tukey post hoc tests were applied to assess significant differences in means. Whether the community compositions differed between the treatments was assessed with permutational multivariate ANOVA (PERMANOVA) tests and pairwise comparisons applied on the Aitchison distance matrix using the *adonis2* and the *adonis.pair* function in the *vegan* (Oksanen et al., 2018) and *EcoUtils* (Salazar, 2015) packages of R, respectively.

## RESULTS

### Effects of MP on isopods

When *P. scaber* had the choice between food containing no MP or 5% PLA, PET or PS, a significant avoidance of PS-food was observed (Figure S2A). However, when there was no choice given, any food was ingested. Neither the survival ( $\approx 80\%$  of individuals survived after 8 weeks; Figure S3), nor the weight gain was affected by the MP-diet ( $p = 0.556$ ; Figure S2B). The speed index for isopods exposed to 2.5% PET was significantly lower than that of those exposed to 2.5% PS; nevertheless, none of the MP-food had a significant effect compared to the control-food (Figure S2C).

### Physicochemical conditions in the gut of isopods and effects of MP ingestion

Radial oxygen micro-profiles revealed anoxic conditions at any position in the guts of isopods fed with any diet, and pH ranged from 5 to 7 (Figures S4 and S5). Minimum gut pH values were not affected by the MP-treatment nor an interaction of position and MP-treatment (ANOVA;  $p > 0.05$ ). The minimum pH was significantly more acidic in the anterior (pH 5.2) than in the medial to posterior (pH 5.8) positions (Figure S5, Table S1). Hydrogen was highest in the centre of all isopod guts at all measured positions (Figures 1 and

S6). Hydrogen concentrations of up to  $\approx 20 \mu\text{M}$  were detected in the gut centre of isopods fed with MP-free control food. Isopods fed with PLA-food showed highest and those fed with PET- or PS-food lowest gut hydrogen concentrations. At the gut medial, maximum hydrogen concentrations of  $\approx 30 \mu\text{M}$  were significantly higher in isopods fed with PLA-food than with other food (Table S2). At the posterior position of the gut, maximum hydrogen concentrations of  $\approx 5 \mu\text{M}$  were significantly lower in isopods fed with PET- and PS-food than with control- and PLA-food. It is also worth mentioning that in the guts of isopods fed with control- and PLA-food, the hydrogen formation activity was significantly higher towards the posterior than at the anterior end.

### Hydrogen emission potential of whole isopods

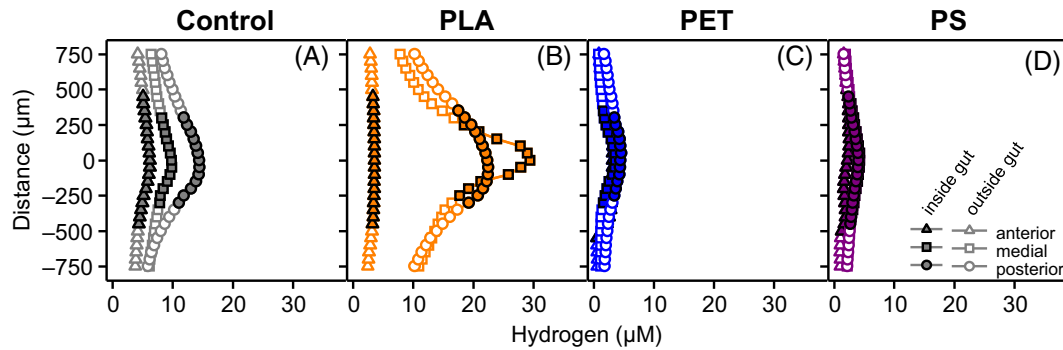
Hydrogen mixing ratios in the headspace of vials containing whole isopods (analysed directly after collection and not subjected to MP-treatments) increased linearly over time without appreciable delay (Figure 2), demonstrating that hydrogen is indeed emitted from whole isopods under in vivo conditions. The emission rates were highly variable with an average rate of  $0.83 \pm 0.51 \text{ ng hydrogen isopod}^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$  resulting in 1–24 ng hydrogen isopod<sup>-1</sup> after 10 h of incubation.

### Impact of MP on 16S rRNA gene and 16S rRNA abundance in food and guts of isopods

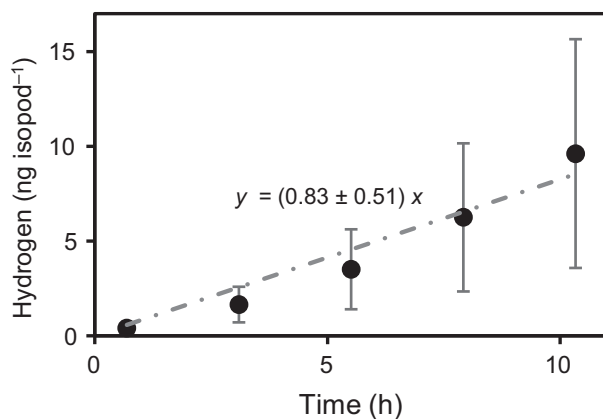
Bacterial 16S rRNA abundances were essentially one order of magnitude higher in the isopod guts than in the food pellets, while the opposite applied for 16S rRNA genes and with this, the 16S rRNA:16S rRNA gene ratios were consistently higher in the guts than in the food despite a high variability among replicates (Figure 3). 16S rRNA gene abundances obtained from the guts were significantly higher in isopods exposed to PLA-food compared to the other treatments (Figure 3A). A similar stimulation was reflected at 16S rRNA level, but the 16S rRNA:16S rRNA gene ratios were unchanged across treatments (Figure 3B,C). MP had no significant effects on the 16S rRNA gene and 16S rRNA abundances in the food pellets and ratios thereof (Figure 3D–F).

### Impact of MP on the bacterial communities

The bacterial communities in the isopod guts were highly diverse (Figure S8C,D). Highest relative gene abundances were found for taxa within the



**FIGURE 1** Representative radial hydrogen profiles of isopod guts. The isopods were fed with food containing no microplastic particles (control; A) or 5% polylactic acid (PLA) (B), polyethylene terephthalate (PET) (C) or polystyrene (PS) (D) for 6 days prior to gut extraction and subsequent embedding in agarose and microsensors measurements. For each gut, profiles were recorded from the anterior, medial and posterior. Analyses of two more guts per treatment are displayed in Figure S6. Closed and open symbols represent measured concentrations inside and outside (in agarose) the guts, respectively. The distance of 0  $\mu\text{m}$  indicates the centre of the tube-like gut as visualized in Figure S1B.



**FIGURE 2** Hydrogen accumulation in the headspace of whole isopods incubated under air for 10 h. Values represent means of triplicate vials each containing three isopods that were analysed directly after collection and not subjected to a microplastic-exposure experiment. The dot-dashed line indicates a linear regression of the hydrogen mixing ratios. Means and standard errors of three replicates are plotted. The regression equation including the standard error of the slope is shown near the regression line. The hydrogen emission rate of  $\text{H}_2$  was  $10.3 \pm 6.3 \text{ nmol H}_2 (\text{g isopod fresh weight})^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$ .

Actinobacteria (mainly *Microbacteriaceae*), Bacteroida (mainly *Flavobacteriaceae*), Gammaproteobacteria (mainly *Enterobacteriaceae* and *Vibrionaceae*) and Verrucomicrobiae (mainly *Opiritaceae*) (Figure S8C). All of these taxa, but the Actinobacteria to a minor extent, were also found at 16S rRNA level (Figure S8D).

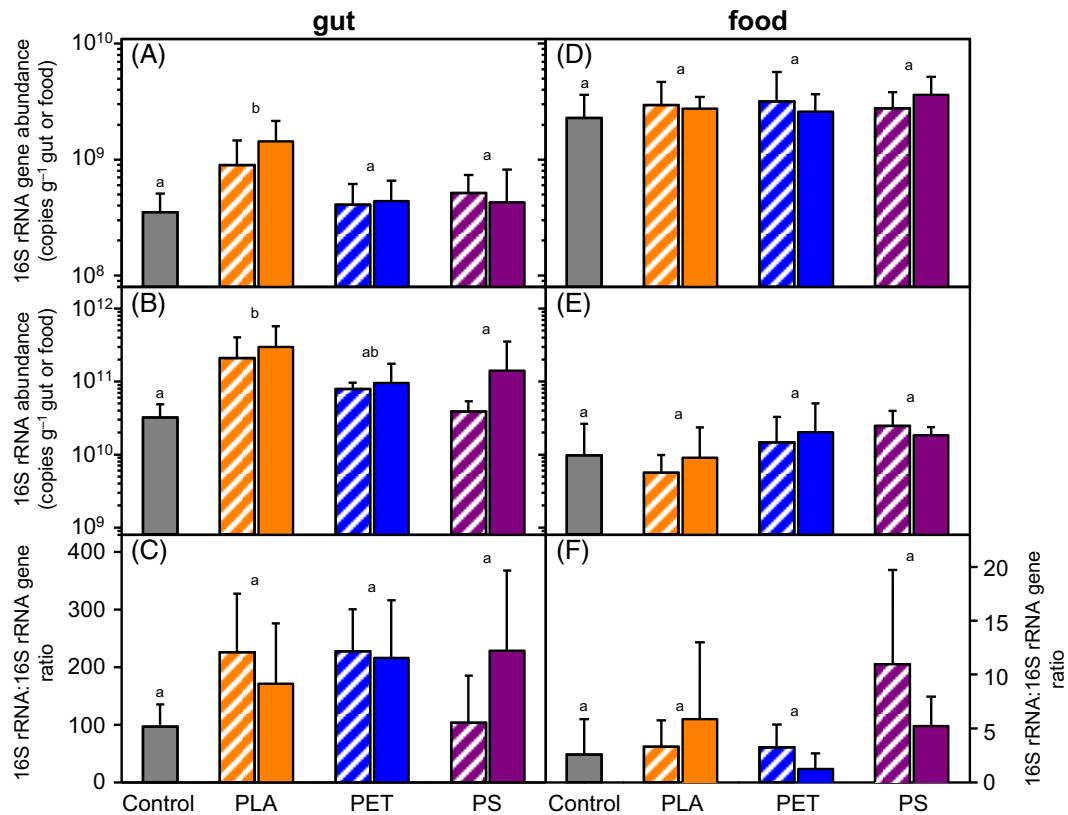
Gut communities differed from the food communities as indicated by principal coordinates analysis (PERMANOVA;  $p < 0.005$ ; Figure S9A; for further details see Supplementary Results). ASVs assigned to *Vibrio rumoiensis* correlated well with gut communities. To elucidate the effects of MP, the data sets were analysed separately for the gut and the food communities (Figures 4 and S9B). In addition to *V. rumoiensis*, the gut communities were mainly affected by

*Enterobacteriaceae* and *Microbacteriaceae* (Figure 4). PERMANOVA revealed that gut communities differed significantly due to MP-treatment. An effect of MP-treatment and dosage was obtained. For the latter, significant difference between communities exposed to 2.5% and 5% MP has been confirmed by a pairwise comparison (Table S3). Such pairwise comparisons essentially confirmed differences between gut communities of isopods fed with PLA-food and those fed with PET- or PS-food with low  $p$ -values ( $p < 0.07$ ), but failed to confirm other MP-treatment effects ( $p > 0.15$ ) (Table S4).

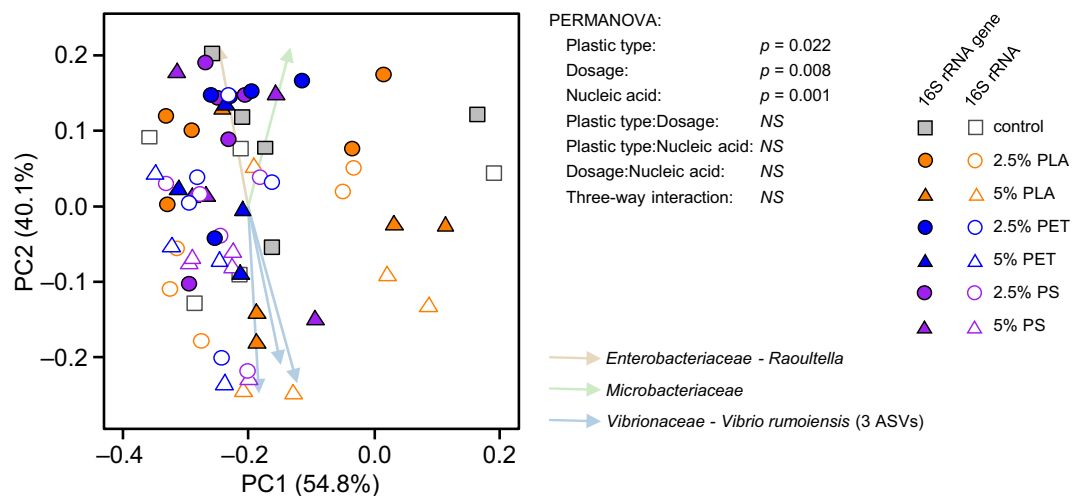
### Shared, unique and indicator taxa with respect to MP-treatments

Most genera were shared among all treatments in isopod guts (43%–49%; Figures 5 and S10A). On 16S rRNA gene and 16S rRNA level, only a few genera were uniquely found in guts of isopods fed with PET- or PS-food (2%–4%), but more in case of guts of isopods fed with control- or PLA-food (7%–13%). Moreover, more genera in the guts of isopods exposed to control-food were shared with those exposed to PLA-food (8%–13%) than with those exposed to PET- (1%) or PS-food (0%). Genera within *Alcaligenaceae* were among exclusive taxa in guts of PLA-food exposed isopods.

Some taxa were also found to be significantly indicative in these guts (Figure 6; Tables S6 and S7). The majority of indicator genera were found in guts of isopods fed with PLA-food (8 out of 14 and 13 out of 21 genera on 16S rRNA gene and 16S rRNA level, respectively) and none were found in those fed with PS-food. The communities in guts of isopods fed with control-food were more similar to those fed with PLA-food than to those fed with PET- or PS-food, as the former shared more indicator taxa. In particular, most of

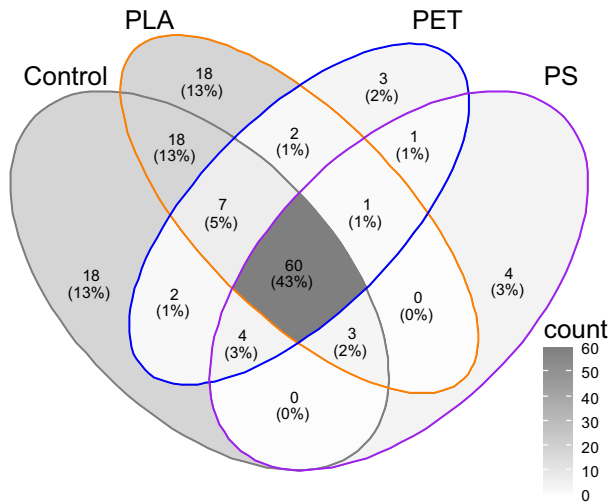


**FIGURE 3** Effects of microplastic (MP) ingestion on the abundance of bacterial 16S rRNA genes and 16S rRNA in the gut and respective food of *Porcellio scaber*. Nucleic acid extracts derived from the guts of isopods (A–C) that were exposed to control- or 2.5%-MP- (striped) or 5%-MP- (no pattern) food pellets (D–F) were directly used for quantification of genes (A, D). A subsample of each extract was subjected to DNase treatment and subsequent reverse transcription for analysis of 16S rRNA (B, E). In addition, the 16SrRNA:16S rRNA gene ratios were calculated (C, F). The data were corrected for the proportion on endosymbionts obtained from sequencing analysis (see Figure S7 for comparison of uncorrected and corrected data). Means and standard deviations of five replicates are plotted. Statistical analysis revealed no effect of the concentration of MP applied and therefore, significant differences in means indicated by different lower letters above the bars are related the MP-treatment regardless the dosage. PET, polyethylene terephthalate; PLA, polylactic acid; PS, polystyrene.



**FIGURE 4** Beta diversity of the active bacterial gut communities. Principal coordinates analysis plots are based on Aitchison distance matrixes derived from analyses of the 16S rRNA genes and 16S rRNA. Results of the PERMANOVA are given for each plot. Arrows represent amplicon sequencing variants (ASVs) assigned on family and genus/species level (if applicable) that were highly correlated with the separation of samples. PET, polyethylene terephthalate; PLA, polylactic acid; PS, polystyrene.

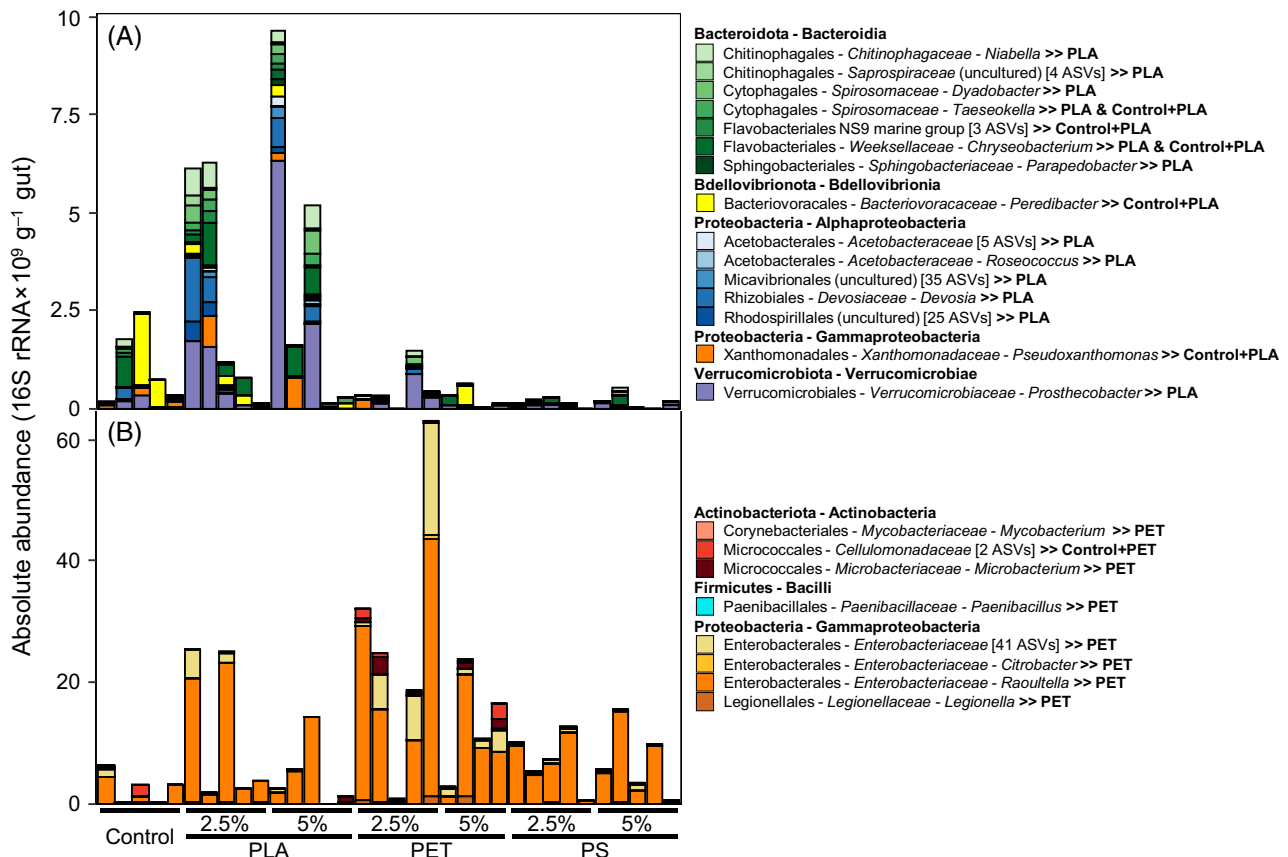




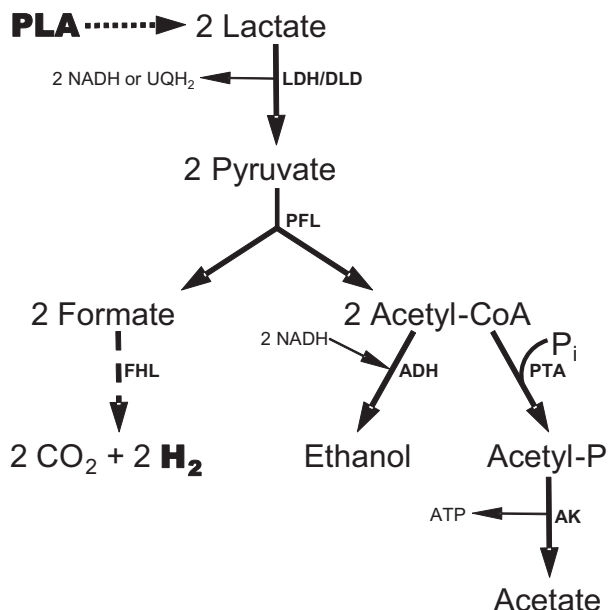
**FIGURE 5** Shared and unique numbers and proportions of taxa among guts of isopods fed with control-, poly(lactic acid) (PLA)-, poly(ethylene terephthalate) (PET)- and polystyrene (PS)-food on 16S rRNA level. Only taxa on genus level (if applicable) that occur in at least 30% of the replicates were included for the calculation of the Venn diagram. The scale indicates the count numbers of taxa in correlation with the intensity of the shading.

these genera were more abundant in guts of isopods fed with PLA-food than in those fed with control-food. *Chryseobacterium*, *Devosia*, *Niabella*, *Prostheco bacter*, *Taeseokella* and uncultured Rhodospirillales were among the indicator taxa on 16S rRNA level in guts of isopods fed with PLA-food (Figure 6A; Table S7). In guts of isopods fed with PET-food, *Legionella*, *Microbacterium*, *Mycobacterium*, *Paenibacillus* and at least three different genera within the *Enterobacteriaceae* were attributed to indicator genera on 16S rRNA level (Figure 6B, Table S7).

In addition, MP affected food communities. More exclusive genera were obtained in the PS-food than in other kind of food-pellets (Figure S10B,C). Accordingly, more indicator taxa were found in the PS-food with most of them belonging to the Rhizobiales (Tables S8 and S9). For the control- or PLA-food, no indicators were found. Notably, none of the MP-specific indicator taxa found in the guts were reflected in the respective food-pellets (Tables S7–S10). Such a finding was supported by comparing the abundance of MP-specific indicator taxa from the guts with their abundance in the food pellets (Figures 6, S11 and S12).



**FIGURE 6** Indicator taxa in isopod guts on 16S rRNA level. The relative abundances of taxa were normalized with the total 16S rRNA abundance derived from qPCR analysis. Indicator taxa for the poly(lactic acid) (PLA)- (and control-) (A) or poly(ethylene terephthalate) (PET)- (and control-) (B) treatments were identified. Each bar represents one gut. Only taxa on genus level (if applicable, otherwise lowest classification and the number of amplicon sequencing variants [ASVs] are given) that occur in at least three replicates were accepted as potential indicators. As reference, numbers of absolute abundances are also given in Table S7.



**FIGURE 7** Potential mixed acid fermentation pathway by *Enterobacteriaceae* initiated with lactate. Under conditions, at which pyruvate generated from glucose (or similar compounds) is limited and lactate (that could be derived from polylactic acid [PLA] as indicated by a dotted arrow) is available, two lactate are oxidized by lactate dehydrogenase (LDH or DLD) yielding two pyruvate and two NADH or ubiquinol, respectively. Two pyruvate react to two acetyl-CoA and two formate catalysed by pyruvate formate lyase (PFL). One acetyl-CoA is then converted to acetate via phosphotransacetylase (PTA) and acetate kinase (AK) yielding one ATP, the other acetyl-CoA is reduced to ethanol by alcohol dehydrogenase (ADH) thereby using two NADH. Formate hydrogen lyase (FHL) transforms formate to carbon dioxide and molecular hydrogen preferentially under acidic conditions (indicated by a dashed arrow).

## DISCUSSION

Isopods are globally abundant detritivores with a rarely studied gut environment and microbiota, as well as an unknown relevance for atmospheric trace gas emissions. Effects of MP pollution on model detritivores are largely unclear to date. Moreover, the effect of biodegradable MPs has not been investigated previously. Here we provide new insights into effects of biodegradable (PLA) and non-biodegradable (PS and PET) MP polymer types on the gut microbial community as well as activity of the model isopod *P. scaber*, and identify *P. scaber* as a MP-impacted mobile source of molecular hydrogen. We extend previous studies on the effect of PE, tire particles or polyester fibres on life history traits in *P. scaber* that revealed no or only marginal fitness effects (Jemec Kokalj et al., 2018; Selonen et al., 2020, 2021), which is in line with the findings of this study. *P. scaber* was not affected by the ingestion of MPs with its food as neither mortality nor weight gain or locomotor activity was altered (Figures S2 and S3). However, when given a choice between control- and MP-food, the isopods significantly avoided food

containing PS. The palatability of the food source coheres with its microbial composition (Hassall et al., 1987; Ihnen & Zimmer, 2008) and therefore it can be considered that PS-food was less attractive, as indeed, most differences of the microbial composition were found between control- and PS-food (Figure S9). Avoidance behaviour of isopods is commonly observed against metals, pesticides, pharmaceuticals or chars, and already at low concentrations, it is often a more sensitive measure for adverse effects compared with fitness parameters (Loureiro et al., 2005; Madžarić et al., 2018; Tourinho et al., 2015; Zidar et al., 2019; Žižek & Zidar, 2013). Effects of long-term exposure to MP-contaminated food sources on the isopods' fitness have not been addressed and cannot be excluded.

Despite the importance of the gut microbiota in soil invertebrates, previous studies testing MP effects on invertebrates are limited (Brandon et al., 2018; Zhu, Chen, et al., 2018; Zhu, Fang, et al., 2018) and are absent in the case of *P. scaber*. In this study, analyses were performed on 16S rRNA gene and 16S rRNA level with the former reflecting the present community and the latter the rather active part of this community, which is commonly a more sensitive response measure. Findings regarding the general gut and food microbiota (MP-treatment independent) are discussed in the Supplementary Discussion. The diversity of bacterial gut communities of isopods exposed to MPs differed with respect to exclusive and indicative taxa (Figures 5 and 6; Tables S6–S9). These differences were not related to differences within the food communities (Figures S10–S12). Generally, the gut communities of the isopods fed with MP-free control-food shared more taxa and indicators with those fed with PLA-food than with PS- or PET-food. Moreover, PLA-food increased bacterial proliferation as growth (16S rRNA gene level) and activity (16S rRNA level) were stimulated (Figure 3). This suggests that some PLA has been degraded in the isopod guts. Abiotic degradation of PLA occurs due to hydrolysis of ester linkages releasing lactic acid at pH 4–7 at low rates (Belbella et al., 1996; deJong et al., 2001; Lyu & Untereker, 2009). The moderately acidic pH inside the gut would thus allow for some abiotic, acid-catalysed PLA hydrolysis. However, such abiotic hydrolysis takes several months or even years at environmentally relevant temperatures (<30°C; Lunt, 1998). Biotic PLA degradation is enhanced by enzymatic cleavage of ester bonds and depolymerization of the polymer to oligomers, dimers and lactic acid monomers (Sander, 2019). Various taxa possess extracellular hydrolytic, PLA depolymerizing enzymes like certain lipases, carboxylesterases and proteinases (Hajighasemi et al., 2016; Zaaba & Jaafar, 2020). Many of such enzymes are active at the gut pH of greater than or equal to 5 (Hajighasemi et al., 2016; Skowron et al., 2020), suggesting microbial, enzyme-catalysed

rather than abiotic PLA hydrolysis to lactate in the gut of isopods. Subsequent fermentation of lactate in the anoxic gut environment is likely (Seeliger et al., 2002; Ohnishi et al., 2012).

Indeed, some genera within Actinobacteria, which were ubiquitous in the isopod guts and less abundant in the food pellets (Figure S8; Supplementary Discussion) are possible PLA degraders, as numerous members of this class are capable of PLA degradation (Butbunchu & Pathom-Aree, 2019). Actinobacteria include aerobes as well as anaerobes and may subsist in the mainly anoxic isopod guts (Servin et al., 2008). Members of *Alcaligenaceae* were exclusively found in the guts of isopods fed with PLA-food suggesting at least a minor activation by PLA. *Alcaligenes* sp. of the *Alcaligenaceae* are well known to produce lipases that might contribute to PLA hydrolysis (Hoshino & Isono, 2002; Oda et al., 1997). The absence of a massive stimulation of such taxa in PLA treatments in spite of a potential PLA hydrolysis activity might be due to the lack of a specialized metabolism necessary for energy conservation from lactate under anoxic conditions. *Saprospiraceae* (*Parapedobacter*), *Micavibrionaceae* and *Saccharimonadaceae* (TM7) were indicators for guts of isopods exposed to PLA-food (Table S6). *Parapedobacter luteus* of the *Saprospiraceae* is capable of Tween 80 hydrolysis, which has structural similarities to PLA (Kim et al., 2010). *Micavibrionaceae* showed affinity for PLA-blended PBAT films (Meyer-Cifuentes et al., 2020), suggesting a possible role of both taxa in PLA hydrolysis. *Saccharimonadaceae* (also known as Saccharibacteria, TM7, or clade G6) show an anaerobic lifestyle, were enriched in soil with the structurally related polymer PBAT, are proposed to scavenge small molecular weight carbon during hydrocarbon degradation and host lactate dehydrogenases, suggesting their involvement in lactic acid removal during PLA degradation (Baker, 2021; Figueroa-Gonzalez et al., 2020; Li et al., 2022; Qiu et al., 2014). Additionally, *Xanthomonadaceae* were found in an anaerobic sludge incubation supplemented with PLA (Yagi et al., 2014), suggesting that *Pseudoxanthomonas*, an active genus indicative for guts of PLA-exposed isopods, may have contributed to PLA degradation (Figure 6). Further most abundant indicators here were *Chryseobacterium*, *Devosia*, *Niabella*, *Prostheco-bacter*, *Taeseokella* and uncultured Rhodospirillales. Potential PLA degradation capabilities of these taxa are currently unknown but cannot be excluded and they may also possess enzymes capable of cleaving the ester bonds of PLA. However, they may have also taken advantage from enhanced lactic acid release during PLA degradation. A facultative lifestyle is conceivable for all of them (Hedlund et al., 1997; Imhoff et al., 2005; Kämpfer et al., 2011; McBride et al., 2014; Wu et al., 2013; Yoon et al., 2007).

A further novelty of this study was the assessment of in situ hydrogen production in the isopod guts via microsensor measurements. So far such hydrogen production has only been shown for a few other soil-dwelling invertebrates, such as earthworms (*Lumbricus terrestris*; Wüst et al., 2009), termites (*Cryptotermes secundus*, *Reticulitermes flavipes*, *Reticulitermes san-tonensis*, *Zootermopsis nevadensis*; Ebert & Brune, 1997; Pester & Brune, 2007), cockroaches (*Shelfordella lateralis*; Schauer et al., 2012) and millipedes (*Archispirostreptus gigas*, *Epibolus pulchripes*; Horváthová et al., 2021). Hydrogen production in the guts of isopods exposed to PLA-food was higher than in the other guts (Figures 1 and S6, Table S1), suggesting higher fermentative activities in the presence of PLA. Degradation of PLA generates lactate (see above), which can then be fermented to acetate, propionate, carbon dioxide and water, or hydrogen (Seeliger et al., 2002; Ohnishi et al., 2012). Obligate anaerobes like *Clostridiaceae* are capable of fermenting acetate and propionate to hydrogen and carbon dioxide, but were absent from isopod guts (Figure S8). Moreover, other hydrogen-producing fermenting gut bacteria, that are often obligate anaerobes (Schmidt et al., 2010), were not identified by the sequencing analyses (Figure S8) and [Fe-Fe]-hydrogenase genes (in the genomic repertoire of these organisms) were not PCR-amplifiable. The absence of obligate anaerobes in the gut system is somewhat surprising compared with other anoxic gut systems (Arumugam et al., 2011; Ebert & Brune, 1997; Wüst et al., 2009; Yun et al., 2014) and probably owed to the short gut passage time of  $\approx 5$  h not allowing for the proliferation of such organisms from ingested inactive forms (Clegg et al., 1994). However, the short gut passage time will suffice for the activation of fermentation by facultatives. *Enterobacteriaceae* are facultatives, well known to produce hydrogen via mixed acid fermentation. An explanation for the stimulated hydrogen production in PLA-fed isopod guts is thus a variation of the mixed acid fermentation pathway by *Enterobacteriaceae* generating ethanol, acetate and formate, and associated formate hydrogen lyase (FHL) catalysed hydrogen production (Figure 7; Clark, 1989). A 'proof of principle' experiment using *Escherichia coli* as a model organism of the *Enterobacteriaceae* has indeed revealed that hydrogen was generated from lactate (see Supplementary Experimental Procedures and Results; Figure S13). A pH of 5–6 in the medial part of the gut, where hydrogen production was high (Figures 1, S5 and S6), represents favourable conditions for FHL gene expression (which is induced at low pH and the presence of formate) and thus formate transformation (Clark, 1989). *Enterobacteriaceae* were ubiquitous as well as active in *P. scaber* guts as was hydrogen production. Energy conservation via the variation of the mixed acid fermentation pathway was likely negligible, leading to undetectable stimulation in growth

or activity and may explain why *Enterobacteriaceae* were not identified as indicators for the PLA-fed isopod guts.

In contrast, little hydrogen was produced in the guts of isopods fed with PET- and PS-food. Hydrogen consumption by obligate anaerobic methanogens was unlikely to be the reason, as amplification targeting archaeal 16S rRNA failed and methane was not produced (data not shown), when whole isopods were analysed. However, two reasons are conceivable: Either the MPs had inhibitory effects on fermentative microorganisms, or Knallgas bacteria were stimulated and consumed most of the hydrogen. Some evidence is given for the latter: *Mycobacterium*, an indicator for the gut of isopods fed with PET-food (Table S8), has been identified as a hydrogen-oxidizing bacterium with oxygen as electron acceptor (Osborne et al., 2010). Oxygen diffusing in the isopod guts from the gut wall might enable hydrogen consumption leading to immediate consumption, which is well known in termites (Brune et al., 1995). Nevertheless, the actual reason of reduced hydrogen emission remains to be determined.

Hydrogen is a valuable electron donor fuelling hydrogen-oxidizing processes either inside or outside the gut and MP contamination may have consequences for microbial food webs and global hydrogen emissions. *P. scaber* hydrogen concentrations in the centre of the gut ranged from 5 to 30  $\mu\text{M}$  and were thus in the range of those from *L. terrestris* and *R. flavipes*, demonstrating *P. scaber*'s high hydrogen emission potential (Ebert & Brune, 1997; Wüst et al., 2009). Hydrogen emissions from whole isopods were variable, on average  $0.83 \pm 0.51 \text{ ng isopod}^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$  (equivalent to  $10.3 \pm 6.3 \text{ nmol H}_2 \text{ (g isopod fresh weight)}^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$ ; Figure 2), which is likewise in the same range as hydrogen emissions from earthworms ( $6.3 \pm 4.8 \text{ nmol H}_2 \text{ (g worm fresh weight)}^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$ ; Wüst et al., 2009) and termites ( $<0.5\text{--}80 \text{ nmol H}_2 \text{ (g termite fresh weight)}^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$ ; Pester & Brune, 2007). Assuming that 20% of the Earth's terrestrial ecosystems (total surface area of  $1.5 \times 10^{14} \text{ m}^2$ ; Schlesinger, 1997) are colonized by these cosmopolitan isopods with a density of 75 isopods  $\text{m}^{-2}$  (median of distributions given in Paoletti & Hassall, 1999), the annual contribution of *P. scaber* to the global hydrogen production is approximately  $0.6\text{--}2.6 \times 10^7 \text{ kg year}^{-1}$ . This value is in the same range of what is annually emitted from paddy fields ( $1.3 \times 10^7 \text{ kg year}^{-1}$ ; Koyama, 1963). Given the experimental conditions under which the hydrogen emission potentials were obtained, the contribution of *P. scaber* to the global hydrogen production is rather underestimated. It is common knowledge that oxygen inhibits hydrogen production by anaerobic fermentation processes. The actual oxygen partial pressure during the experiment, at which the hydrogen emission rates from whole isopods were determined, were higher than naturally (0.35 bar rather than 0.21 bar, because the 3-mL

vials were pressurized by injection of 2 mL air). Thus, we provide a conservative estimate of the global importance of isopods for terrestrial hydrogen emissions.

Taken together, this study provides new insights regarding the effects of MP on soil invertebrates that are potentially affected by MP-ingestion in the longer term and highlights the hitherto unknown hydrogen emitting capacity of a widely distributed group of detritivores. We identified the moderately acidic, anoxic, medial and posterior parts of the isopod's gut as 'hot spots' for hydrogen production. Such a hydrogen production was stimulated by PLA- and inhibited by PET- and PS-ingestion, which was concomitant to changes in the composition of the gut microbiota and in agreement with our initial hypothesis that biodegradable and non-biodegradable MPs have contrasting effects. The nature of low hydrogen emissions in response to PET and PS exposure remains speculative, as are consequences of altered hydrogen metabolism inside and outside the isopod gut, opening up new avenues for future research.

## AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

**Linda Hink:** Conceptualization (equal); data curation (lead); formal analysis (lead); investigation (equal); methodology (lead); software (equal); validation (equal); visualization (equal); writing – original draft (equal); writing – review and editing (equal). **Anja Holzinger:** Conceptualization (equal); data curation (equal); formal analysis (equal); investigation (equal); methodology (equal); validation (equal); writing – review and editing (equal). **Tobias Sandfeld:** Conceptualization (supporting); formal analysis (supporting); investigation (supporting); methodology (equal); writing – review and editing (supporting). **Alfons R. Weig:** Data curation (equal); formal analysis (equal); investigation (supporting); software (equal); writing – review and editing (equal). **Andreas Schramm:** Supervision (equal); writing – review and editing (equal). **Heike Feldhaar:** Conceptualization (equal); funding acquisition (lead); project administration (equal); supervision (equal); writing – review and editing (equal). **Marcus A. Horn:** Conceptualization (lead); funding acquisition (lead); investigation (equal); project administration (lead); supervision (lead); writing – original draft (equal); writing – review and editing (lead).

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This work was funded by the Deutsche Forschungsgemeinschaft (DFG, German Research Foundation); Project Number 391977956; SFB 1357 Microplastic subproject A02. We thank Peter Strohriegl and Lisa Weber for processing polymer granules, Lars Borre-gard Pedersen for microsensor construction and assistance during measurements, and the Poul Due Jensen Foundation for funding the sensor work. Alina Bernstein



and Sabrina Kaupp helped to perform the isopod feeding experiments. We are also grateful to Anja Poehlein for library preparation and sequencing. Open Access funding enabled and organized by Projekt DEAL.

## CONFLICT OF INTEREST STATEMENT

The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

## DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT

Amplicon sequencing data have been deposited in the NCBI Sequence Read Archive (<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/sra>) under the Bioproject PRJNA832915.

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## SUPPORTING INFORMATION

Additional supporting information can be found online in the Supporting Information section at the end of this article.

**How to cite this article:** Hink, L., Holzinger, A., Sandfeld, T., Weig, A.R., Schramm, A., Feldhaar, H. et al. (2023) Microplastic ingestion affects hydrogen production and microbiomes in the gut of the terrestrial isopod *Porcellio scaber*. *Environmental Microbiology*, 1–16. Available from: <https://doi.org/10.1111/1462-2920.16386>