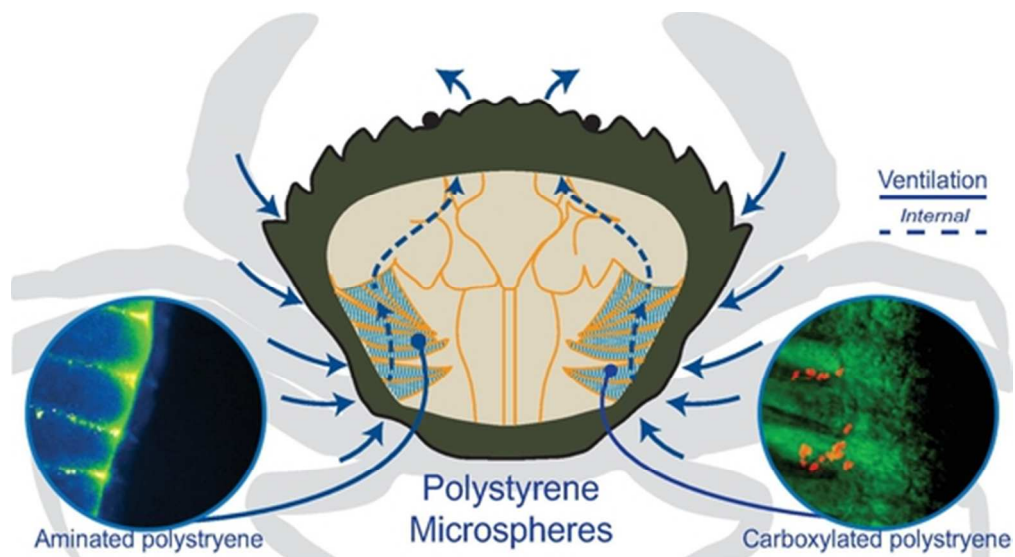


Article

Effect of microplastic on the gills of the Shore Crab *Carcinus maenas*Andrew James Russell Watts, Mauricio A Urbina, Rhys M
Goodhead, Julian Moger, Ceri Lewis, and Tamara S. Galloway*Environ. Sci. Technol.*, **Just Accepted Manuscript** • DOI: 10.1021/acs.est.6b01187 • Publication Date (Web): 12 Apr 2016Downloaded from <http://pubs.acs.org> on April 13, 2016**Just Accepted**

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TOC Artwork
46x25mm (300 x 300 DPI)

19

Abstract

20 Microscopic plastic debris (microplastics, <5mm in diameter) is ubiquitous in the marine environment.
21 Previous work has shown that microplastics may be ingested and inhaled by the shore crab *Carcinus maenas*
22 although the biological consequences are unknown. Here, we show that acute aqueous exposure to polystyrene
23 microspheres (8µm) with different surface coatings had significant but transient effects on branchial function.
24 Microspheres inhaled into the gill chamber had a small but significant dose dependent effect on oxygen
25 consumption after 1 hour of exposure, returning to normal levels after 16 h. Ion exchange was also affected,
26 with a small but significant decrease in hemolymph sodium ions and an increase in calcium ions after 24 h
27 post exposure. To further assess the effects on osmoregulation, crabs were challenged with reduced salinity
28 after microplastic exposure. Neither microspheres nor natural sediments altered the crab's response to osmotic
29 stress, regardless of plastic concentration added. Carboxylated (COOH) and aminated (NH₂) polystyrene
30 microspheres were distributed differently across the gill surface, although neither had a significant adverse
31 impact on gill function. These results illustrate the extent of the physiological effects of microplastics,
32 compared to the physiological resilience of shore crabs in maintaining osmoregulatory and respiratory
33 function after acute exposure to both anthropogenic plastics and natural particles.

34 1. Introduction

35 Microplastics (plastic particles <5 mm)¹ are an emerging environmental problem, and have been accumulating
36 in coastal habitats for at least four decades.² Microplastics come from sewage releases of microbeads added to
37 cosmetic product to give exfoliation properties, paints, coatings and industrial pellets and from the breakdown
38 of larger plastics.³ This second source is enhanced by abiotic processes such as wave action, UV degradation
39 and general heat stress, and by biological transformation. For example, the shore crab *Carcinus maenas* is able
40 to break down any microscopic rope fibres that it has ingested through the gastric mill digestive processes.⁴
41 Ingestion of microplastics has been documented in over 200 marine and aquatic species.⁵ Polystyrene
42 microspheres (0.4–30.6 µm) have been found to be consumed by numerous organisms such as zooplankton,^{6,7}
43 filter feeding molluscs⁸ and scavenging decapod crustaceans^{9,10}. Most of these studies have concentrated on
44 the uptake of microplastic by ingestion and the potential for feeding activity to then be disrupted. For example,
45 Wright et al.¹¹ showed depletion of energy reserves of up to 50% in lugworms (*Arenicola marina*) cultured for
46 up to a month in sediment spiked with polyvinylchloride (PVC), an effect attributed to reduced feeding
47 activity. Similarly, a decrease has been reported in the energy available for growth in *C. maenas* when
48 consuming plastic contaminated food.⁴

49 Shore crabs are omnivores and frequently feed on bivalves such as the common blue mussel *Mytilus edulis*.
50 Trophic transfer experiments^{9,10} have shown that crabs can ingest microplastics from contaminated mussels,
51 leading to a reduced allocation of energy for growth.⁴ Crabs can also take up microplastics by ventilation into
52 the gill chambers,¹⁰ where they may remain for up to 22 days. Most microplastics in *C. maenas* are found
53 adhered to the posterior gills, which are a known major site for ion regulation.¹² The emerging paradigm is
54 that ingestion of microplastic can reduce fitness in marine species by altering their food consumption and
55 energy allocation.¹³ The purpose of this paper is to assess whether inspiration of microplastic through the
56 ventilatory mechanism can also reduce fitness.

57 In aquatic organisms gills are the main site for gaseous and ionic exchanges, and acid-base balance.¹⁴
58 Therefore, any factor such as microbial growth¹⁵, or contaminants¹⁶ impairing gill function might have
59 detrimental consequences for the organism. Exposure to marine contaminants such as
60 dichlorodiphenyltrichloroethane (DDT), arsenite, cadmium, silver, copper, and mercury have, in fact, been
61 reported to have detrimental effects for osmoregulation and ion exchange.¹⁷ Although the uptake and retention
62 of microplastics across the gill surface have been documented,¹⁰ the potential effects on the crab's gaseous
63 exchanges and ability to ion and osmoregulate, have not been evaluated to date.

64 Since microplastics are retained on the gills of *C. maenas*, we hypothesized that acute exposure to waterborne
65 plastic microspheres could significantly impact oxygen uptake, ion exchange, and osmoregulatory capacity of
66 crabs. We tested this hypothesis by determining the impact on crabs of an acute 24 h exposure to polystyrene
67 microspheres of diameter 8 µm. We chose polystyrene because it is a frequent feature of marine debris, and
68 previous experiments have confirmed this size range to be retained within the outer surface of the gill
69 lamellae. We also tested two further types of polystyrene with different surface coatings (carboxylated

70 (COOH) and aminated (NH₂), to compare the influence of surface composition on biological accumulation
71 and effects. We measured the crab's ion regulation and respiratory processes, in the presence and absence of a
72 low salinity challenge.

73 **Methods**

74 Aquarium procedure

75 Non-ovigerous (without eggs) and intermoult female shore crabs (*Carcinus maenas*) were collected from the
76 Exe estuary, Devon, UK (50°35.2'N, 3°23.59'W), and kept for 2 weeks in full strength (33 ppt) Artificial Sea
77 Water (ASW) to acclimatise to aquarium conditions (14.5 °C, 12h:12h light: dark cycle). Crabs were fed for
78 12 days every other day with frozen mussels *Mytilus edulis*, and then starved for 2 days prior to the
79 experiments. Crabs were transferred to individual 5 L tanks filled with 2 L ASW with an air stone used to
80 keep the partial pressure of oxygen (PO₂) close to 100 % saturation. Crabs were left to acclimate to this
81 experimental set up overnight. The next morning microplastic (8 µm polystyrene microspheres, Spherotec,
82 neutral, carboxylated or aminated) or natural sediment (ca. 28 µm, concentration 10⁶ L⁻¹) was added. Plastic
83 was added at two experimental concentrations (10⁶ and 10⁷ microspheres L⁻¹) with a set of crabs held in
84 identical conditions without plastic to act as the controls. These concentrations were chosen to emulate the
85 acute exposures in Watts et al.¹⁰. Oxygen consumption was determined at 1 h, 16 h and 24 h after the addition
86 of plastics. At the end of the last oxygen consumption determination, a 500 µL haemolymph sample was
87 taken. Samples were taken from the base of the 3rd walking leg using an ice cooled 1 mL syringe.¹⁸ A
88 subsample of haemolymph was immediately transferred to a clean ice cold 1.5 mL tube, from where 10 µL
89 were taken and diluted in 4 mL of milli-Q water (<18 MΩ; Millipore Advantage 10 UV; Thermo Fisher
90 Scientific), vortexed and stored at -20 °C for later ion analysis. The remaining haemolymph was then
91 centrifuged at 8000 g for 2 minutes. Subsequently, a second subsample of 5 µL was diluted in 200 µL of
92 ultrapure water (1:40 dilution) for later haemocyanin concentration. The remainder was mixed with
93 anticoagulant (450 mM NaCl, 10 mM KCl, 10 mM HEPES, 10 mM EDTA-Na₂, pH 7.3, 850 mOsm kg⁻¹) at
94 3:1 ratio, vortexed and stored at -20 °C for later analysis. Hemolymph osmolality was determined in a vapour
95 pressure osmometer (Wescor 5520; Wescor Inc., South Logan, UT, USA).

96 For salinity challenge experiments, crabs were treated as above, but a further group was subsequently
97 transferred into clean tanks containing ASW of reduced salinity (10ppt). Oxygen consumption and water
98 samples for ammonia were taken at 1, 6 and 24h post salinity challenge. At 24 h post treatment, 500 µL
99 haemolymph was sampled and treated as above.

100 Coherent Raman Scattering Microscopy

101 Coherent Raman scattering microscopy (CRS) is a multiphoton microscopy technique that provides label-free
102 contrast of both the target sample and surrounding biological matrix, based on vibrational spectroscopy. The
103 applications of CRS range from medical research,¹⁹ to more recent usage in ecotoxicology.²⁰ Plastics have
104 previously been successfully imaged using the CRS technique, in zooplankton⁶ and in crab gills¹⁰. For a more
105 detailed explanation of the theory behind CRS imaging of biological samples see Goodhead et al²⁰. Briefly,

106 Raman scattering provides a great deal of chemical information by examining the light that is scattered by
107 molecular vibrations. Raman scattered light is emitted at a slightly shifted wavelength with respect to the
108 incident light, the shift in energy corresponding to the vibrational frequency of a molecular bond within the
109 sample. The CRS process involves two lasers where the frequency of the first laser is constant, while the
110 frequency of the second one can be tuned in a way that the frequency difference between the two lasers equals
111 the frequency of the Raman-active or vibrational mode of interest. The molecules in resonance produce a
112 larger signal than those off resonance, providing a vibrational contrast in a CRS image. Here six crabs were
113 exposed to non-labelled polystyrene spheres with different surface characteristics (three with carboxyl groups;
114 three with amino groups) at a concentration of 1×10^5 spheres L^{-1} for 19h. Posterior gills were dissected fresh
115 and analysed with CRS microscopy.

116 Oxygen consumption

117 Oxygen consumption was assessed by closed respirometry. Briefly, air was switched off and initial dissolved
118 oxygen was determined and re-measured after 1 h. The air was then switched back on. Six supplementary
119 tanks (not containing crabs) with 2 L ASW (either 10 or 33 ppt) were used as controls to measure oxygen
120 diffusion from the air water interface or bacterial oxygen consumption. The exact time the air was switched
121 off, oxygen measured and air switched back on was recorded for each tank. For full salinity experiments (33
122 ppt) oxygen was assessed in ~ 0.5 mL via a Strathkelvin oxygen electrode connected to a 781 oxygen meter.
123 The oxygen electrode was housed in a water jacket, irrigated with water at the same temperature as the crabs
124 (14.5 °C). For the salinity challenge experiments, dissolved oxygen was assessed using a needle type fiber
125 optic sensor (Firesting OXR 230) connected to a FSO2-4 optical oxygen meter. Oxygen electrodes were
126 calibrated daily with fully aerated water (100% oxygen saturation) and a saturated sodium sulphite solution
127 (0% oxygen saturation). To avoid compensatory responses associated with depleted dissolved oxygen
128 concentrations, the chamber PO_2 values were always in excess of ~ 120 mmHg (~ 15.5 kPa). Oxygen
129 consumption was calculated as the difference in water oxygen content over time and displayed in $ml O_2 g^{-1} h^{-1}$.

130 Haemocyanin and protein in the heamolymph

131 A $5 \mu L$ subsample of heamolymph was added, per triplicate, to a 96 well plate followed by addition of 200
132 μL of milli-water and mixed for 45 sec. The absorbance at 335 nm was measured with path length correction
133 on a plate reader (Tecan, NanoQuant Infinite M200 Pro). Oxy-haemocyanin concentration was determined
134 using an extinction coefficient (ϵ) of 17.26 calculated on the basis of a functional subunit of 74,000 Daltons
135 for crabs.²¹ Protein in the heamolymph was quantified via Bradford²², using a bovine serum albumin standard
136 curve.

137

138 Ions

139 Haemolymph Na^+ , K^+ and Ca^{2+} were quantified in the diluted samples ($10 \mu L$ in 4 mL) via flame photometry
140 (Sherwood Instruments). Standard curves were constructed using 1 mM solutions of NaCl, KCl and CaCl.

141 Statistics

142 To test if the microplastic treatment or the salinity challenge explained the variation observed in the
143 physiological parameters, a General Linear Model (GLM) was performed followed by a Tukey post hoc test
144 when the GLM was significant. Parametric assumptions of normality of residuals and homogeneity of
145 variances was met. The GLM and post hoc analysis was performed in MINITAB. A repeated measures
146 ANOVA (Sigma plot) was used to determine differences in oxygen consumption over time. Differences were
147 considered significant at a $p \leq 0.05$.

148

149 **Results**

150 No mortalities were found during or after any of the experimental treatments. Furthermore, no evident changes
151 in behaviour were noted in any of the plastic treatments.

152 Uptake of carboxylated and aminated polystyrene microparticles

153 All (6) crabs sampled for Coherent Raman scattering microscopy analysis had detectable microspheres on
154 their gills. In Figure 1 gill tissue taken from a crab exposed to (A) aminated (NH_2) polystyrene and (B)
155 carboxylated (COOH) polystyrene is shown.

156 Full strength salinity (33 ppt)

157 *Oxygen consumption*

158 The oxygen consumption of crabs at 1h, 16h and 24h post treatment with neutrally charged polystyrene is
159 shown in Figure 2A. After 1h post treatment crabs with the highest concentration of plastic (10^7 microspheres
160 L^{-1}) had a significantly lower oxygen consumption ($0.014 \pm 0.002 \text{ mL O}_2 \text{ g}^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$) compared to the control
161 ($0.028 \pm 0.004 \text{ mL O}_2 \text{ g}^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$) ($F_{2,29}=3.99$, $p=0.030$). However, after 16h and 24h post-treatment there was no
162 significant difference between either treatments and the control ($F_{2,29}=0.05$, $p=0.956$), ($F_{2,29}=1.17$, $p=0.325$).
163 There was no significant difference in the oxygen consumption between treatment groups in the particle study
164 with carboxyl and amino coated polystyrene or sediment at any time point.

165 *Heamolymph constituents*

166 There was a slight but significant drop in the concentration of Na^+ ions (Figure 2B) within the heamolymph
167 with increasing neutral plastic dose ($F_{2,29} = 4.75$, $p = 0.017$). Crabs held in control conditions had an average
168 of $564 \pm 6.70 \text{ mmol L}^{-1} \text{ Na}^+$, while crabs exposed to 10^6 microspheres L^{-1} presented a heamolymph Na^+
169 concentrations of $546 \pm 5.62 \text{ mmol L}^{-1}$ which was not significantly different from the controls. Crabs,
170 however, treated with 10^7 microspheres L^{-1} had significantly lower concentration of Na^+ ($522 \pm 14.31 \text{ mmol L}^{-1}$)
171 than control crabs (Tukey $p < 0.05$). There was a significant increase in the concentration of Ca^{2+} ions (Figure
172 2C) within the heamolymph with increasing plastic dose ($F_{2,29} = 31.5$, $p < 0.001$). Crabs held in control
173 conditions had an average of $61.1 \pm 0.75 \text{ mmol L}^{-1} \text{ Ca}^{2+}$, crabs treated with 10^6 microspheres L^{-1} had $62.9 \pm$
174 $0.92 \text{ mmol L}^{-1} \text{ Ca}^{2+}$, and crabs treated with 10^7 microspheres L^{-1} had $70.3 \pm 0.93 \text{ mmol L}^{-1} \text{ Ca}^{2+}$, significantly
175 higher than the controls and lower plastic concentration (Tukey $P < 0.05$). There was no significant difference
176 in the concentration of K^+ ion ($F_{2,29} = 1.05$, $p = 0.363$).

177 There was no dose dependant effect seen with haemolymph protein concentration. There was a slight but
178 significantly higher concentration of haemocyanin within the haemolymph with increasing plastic dose ($F_{2,29} =$
179 4.99 , $p = 0.014$). Crabs held in control conditions had an average haemocyanin concentration of 0.48 ± 0.03
180 mmol L^{-1} , while crabs treated with 10^6 microspheres L^{-1} presented a significantly lower concentration ($0.46 \pm$
181 0.01 mmol L^{-1}) (Tukey $p < 0.05$). Haemocyanin concentration were similar to controls at the highest
182 concentration of plastic used (10^7 microspheres L^{-1}), with a value of $0.59 \pm 0.04 \text{ mmol L}^{-1}$. Although protein
183 concentration in the haemolymph followed the same pattern as haemocyanin, there was no significant
184 differences found ($F_{2,29} = 2.72$, $p = 0.084$) (see SI.1).

185 There was no significant effect on haemocyanin ($F_{5,33} = 0.17$, $p = 0.974$), haemolymph protein ($F_{5,33} = 0.72$, $p =$
186 0.611), Na^+ ($F_{5,33} = 1.98$, $p = 0.099$), K^+ ($F_{5,33} = 1.04$, $p = 0.405$), or Ca^{2+} ($F_{5,33} = 0.42$, $p = 0.832$) ions when
187 exposed to sediment, carboxyl or amino coated plastics.

188 As there was a dose dependant effect between neutral plastics and oxygen consumption and Na^+ and Ca^{2+} ions,
189 a reduced salinity experiment was performed to see whether these effects would exaggerate or disappear
190 during an osmotic challenge.

191 Reduced Salinity

192 *Oxygen consumption*

193 The oxygen consumption of crabs at 1h, 6h and 24h post salinity challenge is shown in Figure 3A. There
194 were no significant differences between any treatments or control after 1h ($F_{4,44} = 0.40$, $P = 0.808$) or 6h ($F_{4,44} =$
195 2.05 , $p = 0.106$). However, after 24h there was a significant increase in oxygen consumption ($F_{4,44} = 5.25$, $p =$
196 0.002) with control crabs kept at 33ppt having a significantly lower oxygen consumption than crabs at reduced
197 salinity with 0, 10^5 and 10^6 microspheres per L^{-1} (Tukey $p < 0.05$). There were no significant changes in
198 oxygen consumption, within any of the treatments over time ($F_{4,46} = 1.605$, $p = 0.192$, repeated measures
199 ANOVA), nor a significant effect of plastic concentration.

200 *Haemolymph constituents*

201 There was a significant effect of salinity on all ions (Na^+ ($F_{4,43} = 30.97$, $p < 0.001$) (Figure 3B) Ca^{2+} ($F_{4,43} =$
202 56.11 , $p < 0.001$) (Figure 3C) and K^+ ($F_{4,43} = 50.17$, $p < 0.001$)) and haemolymph osmolality ($F_{4,40} = 35.83$, $p <$
203 0.001) (osmolality and K^+ seen in SI.2). Whilst all values were lower in the crabs challenged by low salinity,
204 there was no significant effect of plastic concentration (Tukey, $p > 0.05$). There was no significant difference in
205 the haemocyanin concentration ($F_{4,43} = 1.57$, $p = 0.201$) or haemolymph protein concentration ($F_{4,42} = 0.62$, $p =$
206 0.649) between salinity or plastic treatments were also found.

207 Discussion

208 In the current study we show that polystyrene microspheres with different surface coatings are readily taken
209 up onto the gills of crabs following exposure through water, but that the physiological consequences to the
210 crabs, under the short term exposure conditions of our experiments, were minimal. Transient, dose dependent

211 changes in oxygen consumption and ion regulation were found, which returned to normal levels within the
212 acute time frame of the exposures. This shows that the crabs are able to recover gas exchange for example by
213 recruiting more lamellae, increasing perfusion or water flow in the branchial chamber. Na^+ and Ca^{2+} were both
214 significantly altered by increasing concentrations of plastic with less Na^+ and more Ca^{2+} within the crab
215 lamellae at the highest concentrations of plastic. These are however minor differences; Na^+ dropped by 7.45 %
216 and Ca^{2+} rose by an average 15.1 % compared to the control. To put this into context when *Carcinus maenas*
217 was exposed to 10 mg L^{-1} of copper, Na^+ decreased from $347 \pm 14 \text{ mmol L}^{-1}$ to $269 \pm 54 \text{ mmol L}^{-1}$ a drop of
218 22 %.²³ In this study a change of salinity from 33 ppt to 10 ppt in crabs not dosed with microplastic resulted in
219 a 39.8 % drop in Na^+ plasma concentration (from $508 \pm 4.35 \text{ mmol L}^{-1}$ to $306 \pm 18.21 \text{ mmol L}^{-1}$). Evidently,
220 crabs are able to overcome these minor effects on ion exchange induced by exposure to the polystyrene
221 microspheres used here by minor physiological regulation.

222 When exposed to a low salinity challenge, crabs also showed an increase in oxygen consumption.²⁴ This is
223 thought to be associated with the increased cost of osmoregulation in the face of an osmoregulatory challenge
224 (difference between internal and external mediums). No effects of either microplastics or sediments were
225 found in the face of low salinity challenge, suggesting that no additive effect or interaction occurs between the
226 mechanisms by which plastics affects ion balance and crab ion regulation.

227 We were able to show using bio-imaging that polystyrene microspheres with different surface coatings
228 carboxylated (COOH) and aminated (NH_2) were taken up into the gill chambers. We categorised the potential
229 charge of these plastics (Supplemental Information SI.3) showing that the small positive or negative charges
230 would be masked in the external medium by the large buffering capacity of sea water. Once inside the gill
231 chamber, we did not find any effect of these particles on oxygen consumption and ion exchange although
232 there were some qualitative variations in the pattern of distribution across the surface of the gills (Figure 1). In
233 vertebrates, the *in vivo* behaviour of micro and nano polymers varies depending on numerous physico-
234 chemical properties of the particles, including size, surface charge, aspect ratio, porosity and surface corona.²⁵
235 The circulation time of particles within the body is significantly enhanced for hydrophilic and positively
236 charged particles²⁶. Positively charged particles generally show higher cytotoxicity across a range of model
237 systems than negatively charged ones, This has been attributed to the interaction of cations with the negatively
238 charged cell membrane.²⁷

239 Acrylic ester nano- and micro-polymers showed low toxicity following inhalation in rats, which may have
240 been due to their anionic surface charge.²⁸ Studies in which the surface charge of stearylamine-poly(lactic acid
241 (PLA) polymer particles were modified from positive to negative confirmed that those with a positive charge
242 showed higher toxicity in the lung and were taken up more readily into cells.²⁹ The influence of surface
243 characteristics of particles on the binding capacity within the gills of aquatic animals would be an intriguing
244 avenue for future study.

245 In conclusion, we show here that acute inhalation of polystyrene microsphere into the gill chambers of crabs
246 lead to a small but transient change in oxygen consumption and ion regulation. Neither microspheres nor

247 natural sediments altered the crab's response to osmotic stress, regardless of plastic concentration added.
248 Carboxylated (COOH) and aminated (NH₂) polystyrene microspheres were distributed differently across the
249 gill surface; likely due to their interaction with the gill surface, although neither had a significant adverse
250 impact on gill function. These results illustrate the physiological resilience of shore crabs in maintaining
251 osmoregulatory and respiratory function after acute exposure to both anthropogenic plastics and natural
252 particles.

253 **Supporting information**

254 This information is available free of charge via the Internet at <http://pubs.acs.org/>

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258 **Acknowledgment**

259 AW, CL and TG acknowledge funding from the European Union Seventh Framework Programme (FP7/2007-
260 2013) under grant agreement n° 308370. The contents of this publication are the responsibility of the
261 CleanSea project and can in no way be taken to reflect the views of the European Union. TG and CL
262 acknowledge additional support from NERC NE/L007010/1.

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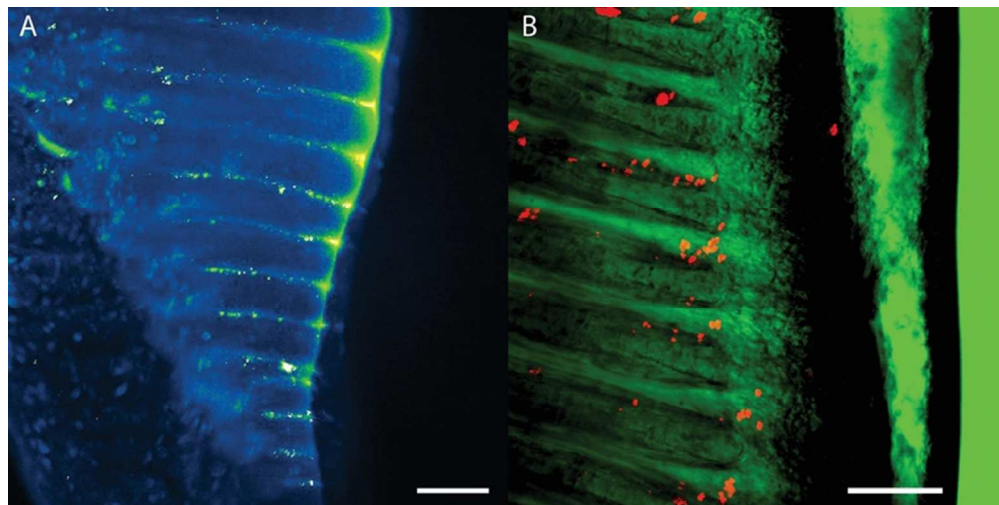


Figure 1 Coherent Raman scattering visualisation of gill lamellae, comprised of a backwards detected coherent anti-Stokes Raman image, a forwards detected stimulated Raman scattering image and a transmitted light image, merged in false colour. (A) 8 μm amino coated polystyrene (green dots) indicate amino coated polystyrene trapped between the gill lamellae (B) 8 μm carboxylated polystyrene (red dots) indicates carboxylated polystyrene distributed across and around the gill lamellae. Both images were obtained at 3050 cm^{-1} and show particles adhering to the gill surface. Scale bars are 100 μm .
70x35mm (300 x 300 DPI)

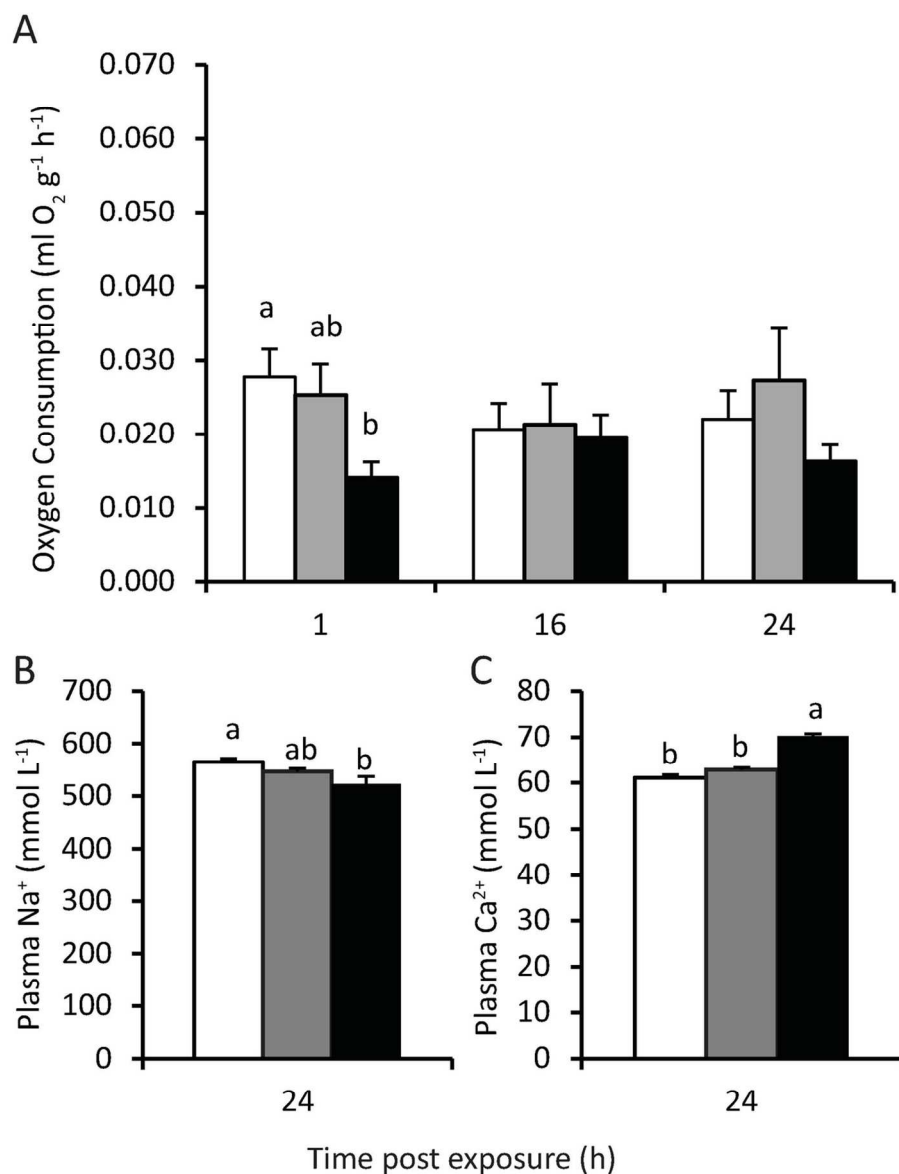


Figure 2 Results from the full salinity experiments. a) Oxygen consumption at 1, 16 and 24 h post addition of plastic, b) Plasma Na^+ ion concentration, c) Plasma Ca^{2+} ion concentration at 24 h post addition of plastic in the shore crab *Carcinus maenas* subjected to three treatments of $8 \mu m$ microplastic. White bars crabs with no plastic added to the tank ($n=10$), grey bars crabs with 10^6 microspheres L^{-1} within 2 L of water. Black bars represent crabs with 10^7 microspheres L^{-1} with 2 L water added. Error bars are one standard error. Means that do not share a letter are significantly different. Bars with no letters indicate no significant difference. Significant differences in oxygen consumption were tested at each time point independent of each other time points.

114x146mm (300 x 300 DPI)

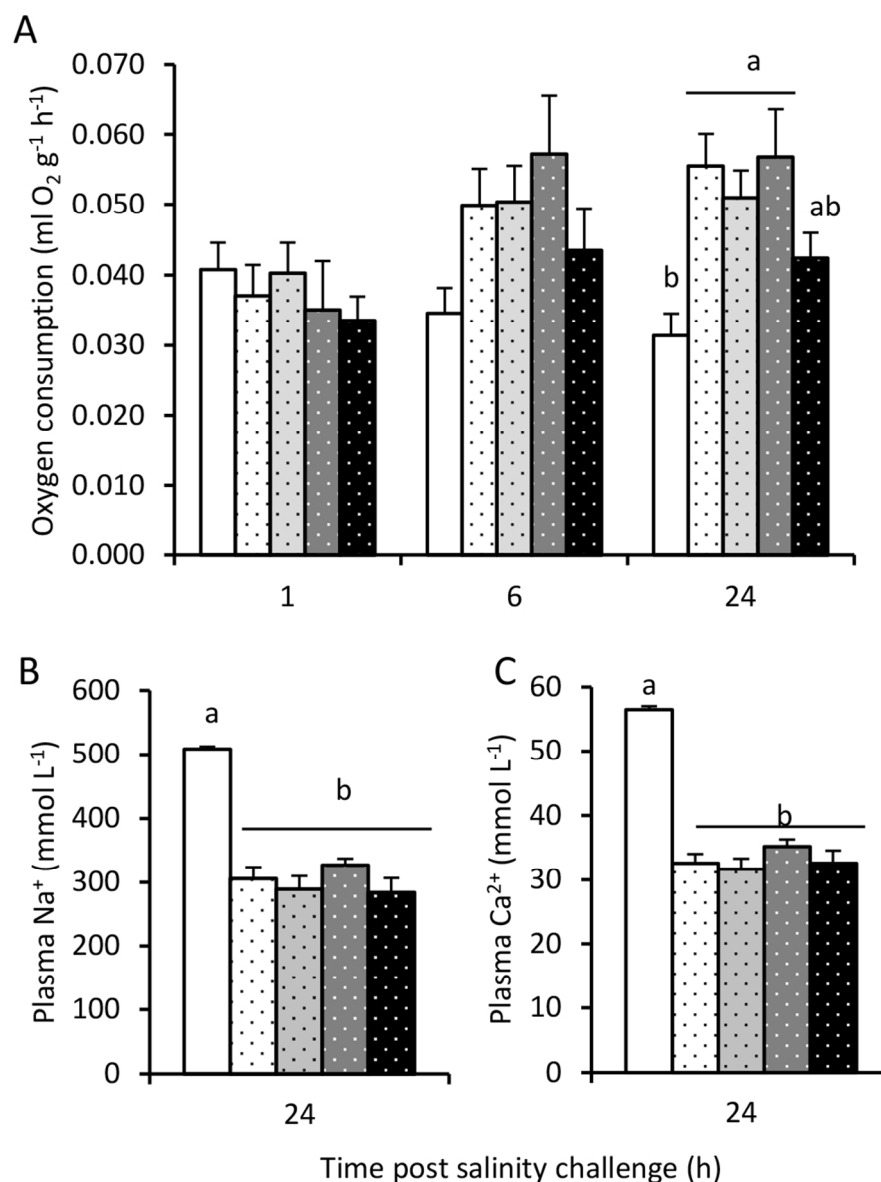


Figure 3 Results from the reduced salinity experiments. a) Oxygen consumption at 1, 6 and 24 h post salinity change, b) Plasma Na⁺ ion concentration, c) Plasma Ca²⁺ ion concentration at 24 h post salinity change in the shore crab *Carcinus maenas* subjected to four treatments of 8 μm microplastic. White bars crabs with no plastic added to the tank (n=10), light grey bars crabs with 10⁵ microspheres L⁻¹ grey bars crabs with 10⁶ microspheres L⁻¹ within 2 L of water. Black bars represent crabs with 10⁷ microspheres L⁻¹ with 2 L water added. Dots within bars represent crabs that have been added to 10 ppt artificial sea water after 16 h of plastic exposure. Clear bars represent crabs changed into clean 33 ppt ASW. Error bars are one standard error. Means that do not share a letter are significantly different. Bars with no letters indicate no significant difference. Significant differences in oxygen consumption were tested at each time point independent of each other time points.

91x119mm (300 x 300 DPI)