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1	SCANNING ELECTRON MICROSCOPY (SEM) OBSERVATIONS OF DEFORMITIES
2	IN SMALL PENNATE DIATOMS EXPOSED TO HIGH CADMIUM
3	CONCENTRATIONS <sup>1</sup>
4	
5	Soizic Morin <sup>2</sup> , Michel Coste
6	Cemagref - Groupement de Bordeaux, Unité de recherche Réseaux Epuration et Qualité des
7	Eaux, 50 avenue de Verdun, F-33612 Cestas cedex, France
8	
9	and
10	Paul B. Hamilton
11	Research Division, Canadian Museum of Nature, PO Box 3443, Station D, Ottawa, ON,
12	Canada K1P 6P4
13	

Running title: DEFORMITIES IN SMALL DIATOMS. 

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Received \_\_\_\_\_. Accepted \_\_\_\_. <sup>2</sup> Author for correspondence: e-mail : <u>soizic.morin@bordeaux.cemagref.fr</u>

1 **Abstract:** Different types of malformations are likely to affect the morphology of diatoms 2 when exposed to particularly unstable environmental conditions, the most easily identifiable 3 being distortion of the whole frustule. In the present study, we investigated by SEM means valve abnormalities induced by a high cadmium contamination (100  $\mu$ g·L<sup>-1</sup>) in small Pennate 4 diatoms. Changes in the shape of Amphora pediculus (Kützing) Grunow and anomalous 5 6 sculpturing of the cell wall of many species like *Encyonema minutum* (Hilse in Rabenhorst) 7 D.G. Mann, Mayamaea agrestris (Hustedt) Lange-Betralot, Gomphonema parvulum 8 (Kützing) Kützing or Eolimna minima (Grunow) Lange-Bertalot were observed, which were 9 not or almost not noticeable under LM. With consideration to current knowledge of diatom 10 morphogenesis, metal uptake by the cell would induce, directly or indirectly, damages to 11 many cytoplasmic components (e.g. microtubules, cytoskeleton, Golgi-derived vesicles) 12 involved in the precisely organized silica deposition. This study confirms that many species, 13 whatever their size, are likely to exhibit morphological abnormalities under cadmium stress, 14 and that this indicator may be valuable for the biomonitoring of metal contaminations, even if 15 SEM observations are not necessary for routine studies.

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17 Key index words: Artificial streams; cadmium; diatoms; metals; morphological
18 abnormalities; SEM.

1 Malformed diatom cells have been observed in many field and laboratory studies (e.g. Yang 2 and Duthie 1993; McFarland et al. 1997; Nunes et al. 2003). Deformities can be initiated or 3 observed at many different stages throughout the life cycle, ranging from the development of 4 the initial cell to the routine activity of mitotic cell division (Pickett-Heaps et al. 1990). As the 5 silicate shell (frustule) is deposited after cellular functional changes, the success of frustule 6 formation is reflected in the physiological condition of the living cell at that time and the 7 inherent functioning of specific organelles. Abnormalities in frustule formation would 8 presumably be evidence of negative causative agents such as physicochemical stressors in the 9 habitat (pollution by toxics; silica starvation; extreme pH, temperature or light; etc.), or 10 mechanical causes like crowding, parasitation or genetic causes (cells associated with 11 minimal sizes, genetic mutations).

12 Most of our initial light microscopy observations, from a large sample set (n=745), lead us to 13 believe that diatom deformities appear to be rather universal among genera and presumably species. However it is conceivable that some taxa are more easily deformed under varying 14 15 levels of environmental stress. For example, specific types of malformations are more often 16 reported in some genera than others, e.g. elongate cells belonging to the family Fragilariaceae 17 Greville (Feldt et al. 1973; McFarland et al. 1997; Dickman 1998; Ruggiu et al. 1998; Nunes 18 et al. 2003; Cattaneo et al. 2004; Cremer and Wagner 2004; Morin et al. 2007). Taxa within 19 the family Naviculaceae Kützing also exhibit elongated cell forms (Gomez and Licursi 2003; 20 Schmitt-Jansen and Altenburger 2005), while species in the Bacillariaceae Ehrenberg have 21 entire frustules that are twisted (Subba Rao and Wohlgeschaffen 1990; Estes and Dute 1994). 22 Deformities not only refer to distorted forms, but also to abnormal valve ornamentations 23 (aberrations), which may or may not be associated with misshapen valves. Aberrations in the 24 sculpturing of the valve surface of Centrics include, the wrinkled central area (Rijstenbil et al. 1994; Morin et al. 2007) or irregularily orientated areolae (Yang and Duthie 1993). Pennate 25

diatoms can exhibit locally and globally irregular striations (Andresen and Tuchman 1991;
Dickman 1998; Gomez and Licursi 2003; Morin et al. 2007), whereas taxa within the
Fragilariaceae show a displacement or undulation of the axial area (McFarland et al. 1997;
Morin et al. 2007), Species in the Nitzschiaceae have many aberrations including breaks in
the keel structure (Barber and Carter 1981; Morin et al. 2007), fragmented raphe aberrations
(Estes and Dute 1994; Gomez and Licursi 2003), or displacement and unexpected curved
branches in the raphe (Estes and Dute 1994).

8 Heavy metals have been suspected to be a significant factor in the appearance of diatom 9 deformities (McFarland et al. 1997; Dickman 1998; Ruggiu et al. 1998). During an 10 experiment conducted in freshwater microcosms exposed to high cadmium concentrations  $(100 \ \mu g \cdot L^{-1})$ , up to 30% of the exposed diatoms had aberrant frustules, whereas deformed 11 12 valves were recorded in <10% of the valves observed in the non contaminated control 13 microcosms (Morin et al. 2008b). In this particular study, morphological deformities affected 14 21 diatom species representing 10 genera, most of them belonging to the Raphid group (the 15 genus Nitzschia in particular) and to the Araphids (Fragilaria spp. and Ulnaria spp.). 16 Abnormalities were less abundant in Monoraphids and Centrics. According to the literature, 17 very few small species were affected by deformities (Peres 2000). Based on these 18 observations, we decided to investigate by SEM means whether the smaller species were 19 affected by deformities which could not be observed under light microscopy. We also 20 examined the relationship between obvious valve deformations and the smaller more subtle 21 aberrations. 22 Microcosms were used to grow and study the diatoms under controlled conditions; they

23 consisted of experimental channels in which biofilms developed on glass slide substrates

24 (Morin et al. 2008b). The microcosms had continuous water circulation (velocity:  $0.4 \text{ cm} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$ )

and were incubated under approximately 70  $\mu$ mol·s<sup>-1</sup>·m<sup>-2</sup> illumination with a light / dark cycle

1 of 10 h / 14 h. A natural biofilm sample collected from the field in the Riou Mort River 2 (South West France, 44°N / 2°E) was inoculated into the experimental systems and allowed to 3 colonize the artificial substrates in the microcosms. In these systems, the biofilms formed are 4 plurispecific, their specific composition corresponding to those from the stream of origin. The 5 reservoir supplying the experimental channels was filled with 40 L of four-fold diluted Woods 6 Hole culture medium without EDTA and supplemented with silica, according to Gold et al. 7 (2003). Nitrate and phosphate concentrations in the system were typical nutrient levels found 8 in the Riou Mort River during 2004 and 2005 (Morin et al. 2008a). The system was 9 contaminated with a cadmium chloride solution (CdCl<sub>2</sub>, Merck, Darmstadt, Germany) to reach a nominal test concentration of 100  $\mu$ gCd·L<sup>-1</sup>, which approximately corresponds to 10 extreme values recorded in the Riou Mort watershed by the GEMA team, University 11 Bordeaux 1. We examined one sample exposed to 100  $\mu$ gCd·L<sup>-1</sup> for six weeks (treatment 1), a 12 second sample that was exposed to 100  $\mu$ gCd·L<sup>-1</sup> for the last 4 weeks of the 6 weeks study 13 14 (treatment 2), and the final sample was collected on 01 Feb, 2005 from the Riou Mort River below a former zinc ore treatment plant which created an average level of 26.2  $\mu$ gCd·L<sup>-1</sup> of 15 16 annual exposure (treatment 3). 17 During the 6-week incubation, physical and chemical variables of the water (temperature, pH, 18 electrical conductivity, dissolved oxygen concentration and saturation) were determined daily 19 at the end of the light cycle (WTW, Weilheim, Germany). Nutrient (orthophosphate, nitrate) 20 concentrations were analyzed weekly according to French and international standards (NF 21 T90-023 and NF EN ISO 13395, respectively). Cadmium concentrations were determined by 22 atomic absorption spectrophotometry (Varian AA400 - Zeeman correction, Victoria, 23 Australia) after filtration and acidification with HNO<sub>3</sub> of water samples. The detection limit was 0.1  $\mu$ gCd·L<sup>-1</sup> and the values were consistently within the certified ranges (data not 24 25 shown). Depending on the results of the analyses, additions of culture medium or cadmium

were realized as required to compensate for the decrease of nutrient or metal concentrations
 due to algal scavenging.

3 After a six-week colonization period, the glass slides were removed from the artificial 4 streams. Both faces of the glass substrates were scraped and analyzed for metal concentrations 5 and microscope observation of diatoms. Cadmium uptake was assayed following two 6 protocols: (i) one aliquot was used for the determination of total metal content in the biofilm, 7 (ii) the other aliquot was washed for 10 minutes with 4 nM EDTA at pH=8 to determine the 8 intracellular metal content of the periphyton (Behra et al. 2002). After filtration and 9 mineralization of each sample (after washing with EDTA or not), cadmium concentrations 10 were measured by atomic absorption spectrophotometry (Varian AA400 – Zeeman correction, Victoria, Australia) and by autosampler, with a 0.1  $\mu$ gCd·L<sup>-1</sup> detection limit. 11 12 The sample fraction devoted to SEM observation of diatoms was preserved in a buffered 13 formaldehyde solution and prepared according to Charles et al. (2002). After digestion of the organic content of the cells in boiling hydrogen peroxide (30% H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>) and hydrochloric acid 14 15 (35% HCl) followed by three cycles of centrifugation of the sample and pellet rinsing with 16 distilled water, the cleaned material was analyzed for cadmium determination – to ensure that 17 cadmium uptake corresponded to cadmium accumulated in the cell and not bound to or 18 associated with the frustules. Cleaned subsamples for scanning electron microscopy study 19 were either (a) dried onto aluminium foil or (b) filtered through 8 and 0.22 µm Nucleopore 20 filter paper (1 cm diameter; Whatman, Kent, ME, England), then mounted on aluminum stubs 21 using double sided carbon tape. The stubs were subsequently gold coated with ~500 Å of gold 22 and examined using an FEI XL30 tungsten filament environmental SEM (FEI Company, 23 Hillsboro, OR, USA). Samples were surveyed and photographed under high vacuum with 24 accelerating voltages ranging from 5-25 kV and a working distance of ~10 mm. Small taxa (<50 µm) were selectively chosen for study. Transect surveys were initiated and numerical 25

1 counts with photomicrographs for the common taxa were collected. Ninety specimens per 2 sample were evaluated. When necessary, samples were tilted between 10-45 degrees to 3 enhance surface structure or improve secondary electron recovery. Digital images were stored 4 under a TIFF format and the image aspect ratio was corrected from 1.1:1 ratio produced by 5 this SEM, to 1:1 using Xlstretch conversion software (M.T. Otten, FEI Company). On occasion Adobe Photoshop<sup>®</sup> (Adobe, San Jose, CA, USA) was also used to correct the aspect 6 7 ratio for individual images. The photomicrographs collected from this study are stored in the 8 Diatom image collection at the Canadian Museum of Nature (CANA-I-28047-28317). 9 Cadmium content in the biofilm as measured with both protocols revealed that living diatoms 10 were exposed to high metal concentrations: the periphyton sequestered  $\sim$ 3200 µgCd·g, dry 11 weight<sup>-1</sup>, of which more than one third was accumulated in the living cells, not in the cell 12 wall. The illustrations (Fig. 1) outline a few of the abnormalities that were recorded in this 13 study. The shape of frustules for the small species Amphora pediculus (Kützing) Grunow was 14 affected by the exposure to high cadmium concentrations: Fig. 1 A-B illustrates differences in 15 symmetry between normal and impacted valves. SEM observations also revealed unsuspected 16 abnormalities in the raphe structure of many diatoms exhibiting a normal outline of the valve. 17 Valve thickness and interruptions of the raphe were observed for many species (Encronema minutum (Hilse in Rabenhorst) D.G. Mann, Eolimna minima (Grunow) Lange-Bertalot or 18 19 Naviculadicta seminulum (Grunow) Lange-Bertalot; not shown). Fig. 1 C-D illustrates one 20 individual of *E. minutum* with one pole normal and the other formed with a break in the apical 21 raphe fissure. The ends of the raphe fissure of Gomphonema parvulum (Kützing) Kützing 22 (Fig. 1 E-F) display an unusual pattern of abnormalities. In the enlargement of the foot pole of 23 G. parvulum (Fig. 1 F), many of the poroids of the apical pore field seem to be deformed or 24 amalgamated. Local perturbations of the pore structure and arrangement of striae were also 25 observed in small species like *Eolimna minima* (Fig. 1 H), with irregular striation (for

instance, doubling in striae) as well as deformed pores probably resulting in a fusion of
 abnormal pores. These anomalous patterns of local striae abnormalities were also observed in
 individuals of other small species, such as *Achnanthidium minutissimum* (Kützing) Czarnecki
 (not shown).

5

6 To quantify differences in abnormality after Cd exposure, we compared types and numbers of 7 deformities in Cd exposed microcosms (treatments 1 & 2) and one river station (treatment 3) 8 downstream of a former Zn ore treatment plant (Table 1). The deformities in small diatoms 9 were most abundant (16%) in the highest Cd exposure (treatment 1) with the lowest number of deformities in the river site (4%) with a lower exposures to Cd (18.1  $\mu$ gCd·L<sup>-1</sup> in Feb. 10 11 2005). Morin et al. (2008b) have previously reported < 10% deformities in control 12 mesocosms. Mayamaea spp. (including M. agrestis (Hustedt) Lange-Bertalot) and Eolimna 13 minima sensu lato had the most pronounced deformities with modifications in valve form and 14 the distal raphe fissures. It was sometimes difficult to evaluate distal raphe deformities in the 15 genus Mayamaea, due to the variation in distal fissures typically observed under ephemeral 16 environmental conditions (Lange-Bertalot et al. 2003). In contrast, Nitzschia palea 17 consistently had valve deformities at one apex, although the distal fissures at these deformed 18 apices could not be observed and evaluated. Achnanthidium spp. (including A. minutissimum), 19 along with *Gomphonema parvulum* also displayed valve deformities at the apices. Although 20 the raphe was often observed to be deformed, variations in shape were the most common 21 deformity after Cd exposure.

22

Valve formation is under precise genetic control (Volcani 1981; Pickett-Heaps et al. 1990;
Schmid 1994). Both membrane-mediated morphogenetic and macromorphogenetic

25 mechanisms mould the wall features (for a review, Pickett-Heaps et al. 1990) in a selected

manner, creating a species-specific valve which constitutes the basis for diatom taxonomy.
This modelling is the result of a precisely timed sequential interaction between the
plasmalemma, cytoskeleton, endoplasmic reticulum, Golgi-derived vesicles and mitochondria
(Schmid 1994). However, silicification in diatoms is also controlled by mass action effects,
such as the amount of available soluble silicon in the environment during the time of a cell
cycle (Claquin et al. 2002) as well as other environmental factors such as the presence of
toxicants (Cohn et al. 1989; Spurck and Pickett-Heaps 1994).

8 In Pennates the initial area to develop is the sternum for araphid and raphid diatoms (Round et 9 al. 1990). Mayama and Kobayasi (1989) and Mayama and Kuriyama (2002) have studied and 10 proposed a diagrammatic representation of sequential valve formation: the deposition of the 11 primary side of the sternum is followed by the reflexing of its ends at the pole and the 12 centrifugal extension of the secondary arms from the central nodule, then raphe formation is 13 completed by the fusion of the primary rib with the second arm. These processes involve 14 microtubules running along the raphe (Pickett-Heaps et al. 1990); it is also the first area to 15 show abnormalities in the teratological forms observed here. The administration of anti-16 microtubule drugs during early valve formation has induced teratology around the raphe area 17 in some pennate diatoms, depending on the drug concentration (Schmid 1980; Cohn et al. 18 1989; van de Meene and Pickett-Heaps 2004). Oxidative stress, as a consequence of metal 19 accumulation in the cytoplasm (elevated intracellular concentrations were measured in this 20 study), has recently been shown to result in depolymerization of microtubules (Lee et al. 21 2005) and also in abnormal silica deposits within silica deposition vesicles (Safonova et al. 22 2007). This would have deleterious effects on macromorphogenesis of the forming valve 23 whose characteristic shape is absolutely dependent on the location and structure of the raphe 24 as well as on a "correct" silica supply and polymerization to quartz glass. Damage to the cytoskeleton causing malformation of the raphe might compromise the nanoscale uniformity 25

1 of the pore architecture: according to Mayama and Kuriyama (2002), deformation of areolae 2 or striae patterns as well as other abnormalities occur later in development. These later 3 forming abnormalities may be secondary effects controlled by oxidative stress-induced 4 damage to cytoplasmic components involved in macromorphogenesis (Schmid 1994). 5 The occasional appearance of abnormalities in the shape of frustules could be interpreted as 6 damage by the metal and possibly a side effect of defence mechanisms against uptake of the 7 toxicant (as shown for ultrastructural alterations by Torres et al. 2000), but these diatoms were 8 still able to sustain positive growth, which has been interpreted by Schmitt-Jansen and 9 Altenburger (2005) as a physiological adaptation of these species to the potential toxicant. 10 This leads us to reflect on the morphological variants and the plasticity of diatoms: have these 11 entities originated from a sample containing no deformed diatoms? If these are truly 12 reproductively isolated populations, then these forms may merit a specific status. Towards this perspective, it would be important to distinguish whether the cytoskeletal oxidative 13 14 damages are responsible for the abnormalities or whether a genetic effect (such as mutation) 15 is also occurring, which inhibits or alters valve formation. Cadmium genotoxicity has been 16 well documented (q.v. review in Bertin and Averbeck 2006), however it is still difficult to 17 link or infer that the deformities would be a direct consequence of mutagenic effects, nor that 18 the anomalous Cd-treated diatoms would be reproductively isolated.

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It has been suggested that diatom deformities may be used as indicators for specific types of
pollutions like metal contamination (Dickman 1998; Stevenson and Bahls 1999; Peres 2000;
Fore and Grafe 2002), however this study leads us to reflect on what should be considered, for
biomonitoring purposes, as a deformity. Adshead-Simonsen et al. (1981) observed
morphological changes in populations of *Tabellaria flocculosa* (Roth) Kützing exposed to
cadmium contaminations. More specifically, these authors observed *T. flocculosa* forming

1 straight chains instead of the common zigzag configuration. At the species level, many light 2 microscopy observations have described abnormal individuals, differing from the normal 3 forms in global shape or in rough features. The present SEM investigations outline that the 4 manifestations of cadmium toxicity via the condition of the valve (shell) can be observed at 5 various levels, from colonial population formation to individual valve morphology. Many 6 mechanisms known to play a crucial role in cell division and cell wall formation are likely to 7 be affected by high intracellular concentrations of Cd, and this work stresses that deformities 8 are not limited to any one size class, although selected taxa appear to be differentially affected 9 after exposure to differing metal concentrations. 10 Nevertheless the use of deformities for routine biomonitoring of metal contaminations 11 necessitates selecting a tool that is easily applied to routine research. From the literature and 12 results of this study, LM observations are appropriate for the evaluation of deformities created 13 by metal pollution. However, the degree of overlap between distinct deformities and subtle 14 aberrations on each valve must be considered, and SEM investigations would be required 15 when subtle valve aberrations do not correlate with the larger valve deformations. 16 17 We thank Thi Thuy Duong, GEMA team, UMR 5805 EPOC, University Bordeaux 1, for total

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Table 1. LM and SEM enumerations for three treatment exposures to Cd. Numbers presented with a separating slash display the # of observed deformities / possible # of additional deformities. Identifications of possible deformities are based on minor aberrations which could easily be considered part of the variation observed in a typical population.

	LM			SEM				
	Valves examined	# of deformed valves	# of small diatoms concerned	Valves examined	# of deformed valves	A. minutissimum complex	E. minima M. spp.	N. palea
Treatment 1	410	15	5	92	15/2	2/1	4	7/1
Treatment 2	420	14	1	90	6/2	0	6/2	0
River site	499	7	2	92	4/5	1	1/2	
Treatment 3								
Common		valve shape,	valve shape			deformed apices	valve shape,	deformed
deformity		disrupted					distal raphe	apices
		omaniciliation						

## 1 Figure captions

- 2 Figure 1. SEM microphotographs of normal (nf) and abnormal (af) forms of the diatoms
- 3 Amphora pediculus: A(nf)-B(af), Encyonema minutum: C-D(af), Gomphonema parvulum: E-
- 4 F(af) and *Eolimna minima*: G(nf)-H(af).