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1 **Cotton-strip assays: Let's move on to eco-friendly biomonitoring!**

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6 **ABSTRACT**

7 There is increasing recognition that functional bioindicators are needed for ecosystem health
8 assessments. In this perspective, cotton strip assays are widely considered as a standard method to
9 account for organic matter decomposition in streams. However, cotton cultivation and manufacture
10 raise both environmental and societal dramatic issues that are – in our opinion – irreconcilable with the
11 objectives of bioindication. In this study, we assessed the relevance of four alternative – eco-friendly –
12 textiles (made of organic cotton, hemp and linen) by comparing their chemical composition and
13 degradation rates in six streams. Chemical composition exhibited low variations among textiles, but
14 contrasted sharply with the expectation that cotton is mostly composed of cellulose. Moreover,
15 surprisingly high nutrient (0.49% N) contents occurred in the conventional cotton strips compared
16 with the organic textiles (N < 0.12%). All textiles provided similar degradation rates across the six
17 streams, meaning that they could be interchangeably used as alternatives to conventional cotton strips.
18 We thus call for the adoption of such ethical and eco- friendly tools as ‘next-generation’ indicators for
19 the functioning of stream ecosystem.

20 *Keywords:*

21 Cotton strip assay
22 Functional indicators
23 Streams
24 Environmental friendly
25 Hemp
26 Linen

27

28 **1. Introduction**

29 The global trend of decreased water quality (Vörösmarty et al., 2010) and aquatic biodiversity
30 worldwide (Dudgeon et al. 2010) urges the development of reliable and standardized indicators of the
31 ecological status for water bodies. Historically based on the species composition of aquatic
32 communities, mounting evidence indicates that bioindication approaches could be enriched by the
33 quantification of ecosystem functions (i.e. functional indicators), as straightforward links to ecosystem
34 services. The decomposition of terrestrial leaf litter – a key process in many streams – has been
35 recommended for that purpose (Gessner & Chauvet, 2002; Chauvet et al., 2016), since it is known to
36 be largely affected by anthropogenic perturbations such as acidification (Ferreira & Guérol, 2017),
37 hydromorphological alterations (Colas et al., 2017), or contamination by nutrients (Ferreira et al.,
38 2015), pesticides (Rasmussen et al., 2012), and heavy metals (Ferreira et al., 2016). The use of litter
39 decomposition as a functional indicator, however, poses some issues of standardization, since
40 variations in litter quality (even within species) has a tremendous influence on decomposition rates
41 (Lecerf & Chauvet, 2008). This shortcoming can be overcome by the use of a standard cellulosic
42 substrate (e.g. cotton) as a surrogate for organic matter decomposition (Tiegs et al., 2007). Cotton-strip
43 assays repeatedly provided satisfactory results as an indicator of stream ecological status (Imberger et
44 al., 2010; Tiegs et al., 2013), and are on track to become a key routine indicator of aquatic ecosystem
45 health (Tiegs et al., 2019).

46 Cotton textile is produced from shrubs belonging to the genus *Gossypium* (Malvaceae). Its
47 cultivation heavily relies on fertilizers, pesticides and irrigation, which raises both environmental and
48 societal issues (Chen & Burns, 2006; Chapagain et al., 2006). A well-known example is the drying,
49 pollution and salinization of the Aral Sea that followed the exponential development of cotton
50 production during the 1960s' (Aladin & Potts, 1992; Micklin, 2007). Not only the cultivation, but also
51 the processing of fibers to fabrics leads to the abstraction and/or contamination of surface waters
52 (Chapagain et al., 2006). Other consequences of cotton production include the exposure of cotton
53 growers to pesticides, which causes health and fertility issues (e.g. Rupa et al., 1989,1991) for which
54 the only alternative seems to be the use of transgenic cotton (Hossain et al., 2004; Morse et al., 2006),

55 a remedy that is also subject to controversy (Liu et al., 1999; Dhurua & Gujar, 2011). Ironically,
56 cotton production is mostly distributed in areas where water abstraction and pollution (e.g. arid
57 climates), access to health care, and costs associated with chemicals or transgenic seeds supply (e.g.
58 developing countries) are a paramount concern for ecosystems and human populations.

59 An improvement of the cotton strip assay could thus be achieved by using a more sustainable
60 substrate derived from organic production chains, including organic cotton and/or other textile fibers
61 such as hemp (*Cannabis sativa* L.) and linen (*Linum usitatissimum* L). Hemp and flax cultivation is
62 considered environmental friendly (EEA, 2007; Piotrowski & Carus, 2011) as it requires lower
63 pesticides (particularly hemp), fertilizers (particularly flax) and irrigation than cotton. In this study, we
64 compared the degradation of ‘conventional’ cotton with various organic textiles (cotton, hemp, linen
65 and a mix of hemp and cotton) in 6 headwater streams. We aimed to determine if they would provide
66 satisfactory alternatives to ‘conventional’ cotton materials as bio-indicators, i.e. comply with the
67 following: exhibit degradation rates that are similar and equally affected by environmental conditions
68 (i.e. exhibiting similar variations across environmental contexts) than ‘conventional’ cotton. Finally,
69 we expected that differences in the degradation rates among textiles could be related to contrasting
70 chemical composition.

71 **2. Methods**

72 The different textiles included ‘conventional’ unbleached cotton (CFT E-222, Testfabrics, St
73 Gallen, Switzerland) as well as several organic textiles certified by ‘Global Organic Textile Standards’
74 label, including cotton (13/CT-001, La Cantate du Chanvre, Dole, France), hemp (POLLEN,
75 Naturellement Chanvre, Coudeyras, France) linen (Bio Tissus, Plouzané, France) and a cotton-hemp
76 mix (5TX-3000, La Cantate du Chanvre, Dole, France). All exhibited similar grammage (200-250 g.m²
77 ²). The chemical analysis of textiles was performed on ground material (Retsch MM400 ball mill).
78 Carbon and nitrogen contents were determined using a CHN analyser (Carlo Erba NA 2100),
79 phosphorus was determined spectrophotometrically after digestion in persulfate (Ebina et al., 1983),

80 and fiber content using the Goering & Van Soest method (Goering & Van Soest, 1970). Results are
81 provided in Table 1.

82 Strip assays were performed following Tiegs *et al.* (2013). Strips of 2 × 8 cm made of each textile
83 were deployed in 6 headwater streams that drain forested catchments and are located in the northern
84 Vosges regional park (Zinsel catchment area, Baerenthal town). Streams were circumneutral (pH =
85 6.1–7.6) and exhibited contrasting nutrient concentrations representative of the study area (PO_4^{2-} 0.004
86 – 0.120 mg L⁻¹; NO_3^- 1.15 – 8.89 mg L⁻¹), as assessed year-round ($n = 4$ analyses) prior to the
87 beginning of the experiment. In each stream, strips made of each different textiles were deployed and
88 retrieved after 10 and 20 days (2 sampling dates). With 5 replicates per stream × textile combination,
89 our design involved the deployment of 6 (streams) × 5 (textiles) × 2 (dates) × 5 (replicates) = 300
90 strips. After retrieval, strips were promptly and gently cleaned into 95% ethanol for 30s, transported to
91 the laboratory and dried in aluminum pans at 40°C for 30 hours. Maximal tensile strength was then
92 determined using a digital force tester (AMETEK CS 225), as well as on 5 control (non-exposed)
93 strips per textile that were cleaned and dried following the same procedure as experimental strips. For
94 each replicate, the calculation of tensile strength loss was based on the 2 sampling dates using a
95 regression between tensile strength (initial, at day 10 and day 20) and time. It was expressed as the
96 percentage of initial (i.e. control) tensile strength loss per day (% day⁻¹). Correlations were used to
97 compare the loss of tensile strength between each textile and the ‘conventional’ cotton, and to analyze
98 the relationships between tensile strength loss and textile chemical composition. Moreover, a ANOVA
99 was used to test for the effects of stream identity, textile and stream × textile interaction on the loss of
100 tensile strength. Compliance with normality and homoscedasticity assumptions was checked
101 graphically. All statistics were performed using R 3.3.1 (R core team, 2016).

102 **3. Results**

103 The average tensile strength loss across streams and textiles was 4.20 % day⁻¹ ± 2.0 (*SD*). It
104 varied among textiles ($F_{4,120} = 13.8$, $P < 0.001$), with a significantly higher loss for hemp (TukeyHSD;
105 $P < 0.001$) (Table 1). Differences also occurred between streams ($F_{5,120} = 25.9$; $P < 0.001$), but no
106 significant stream × textile interaction occurred ($F_{20,120} = 0.9$; $P = 0.535$), indicating that the tensile

107 strength losses of different textiles were similarly affected by stream characteristics. Significant
108 correlations (Fig. 1) indicate a relatively high similarity in the degradation of ‘conventional’ cotton
109 and alternative textiles, with the highest similarity found for the organic cotton (Fig. 1a), and the
110 weakest correlation for linen textile (Fig. 1c). Chemical composition exhibited limited variation across
111 textiles, though the conventional cotton exhibited the lowest cellulose and the highest nutrient content
112 (Table 1). No significant correlation was found between textile chemical contents and tensile strength
113 losses.

114 **4. Discussion**

115 Our results suggest that all organic textiles we tested could be considered as eco-friendly
116 alternatives to the conventional cotton strips for the monitoring of functional processes in streams.
117 Though slight differences occurred across textiles (higher degradation for hemp), tensile strength loss
118 of our five textiles ranged within the same order of magnitude as previously reported for
119 ‘conventional’ cotton strips (e.g. Tiegs et al 2007, 2013; Imberger et al., 2010; Clapcott et al., 2010).
120 Most importantly, patterns of tensile strength loss were similar across streams and textiles (i.e. no
121 significant interaction between stream and textile identity), which means that all textiles were affected
122 similarly by the environmental conditions covered in our experiment. This gives a first hint that they
123 could be similarly appropriate for biomonitoring purposes. The least satisfactory fabric, which should
124 probably be excluded as a potential bioindicator, was the linen textile. Its tensile strength measurement
125 was less repeatable than for other textiles, leading to high variability in the initial tensile strength
126 (Table 1) and a comparatively weak correlation with the ‘conventional’ cotton tensile strength loss
127 (Fig. 1).

128 All substrates exhibited very similar contents of lignin (almost nil) and cellulose (Table 1). The
129 ‘conventional’ cotton, though, exhibited a surprisingly high nutrient content compared with other
130 textiles. The root cause of this difference is unknown. Since conventional cotton is the only non-
131 organic fabric, we strongly suspect that they are due to chemicals or processes that are banned in eco-
132 friendly textile production (see GOTS Standard Committee, 2017). Higher nutrient content in cotton,
133 for instance, can originate from fertilizers and chemicals used for cotton cultivation (Boquet &

134 Breitenbeck, 2000; Ferrigno et al., 2017), but also from fiber processing and textile finishing (Babu et
135 al., 2007). Lower contents of cellulose than expected in all substrates – and particularly in
136 ‘conventional’ cotton – are more intriguing, and contrast sharply with the cellulose content of the raw
137 cotton fiber (88–96% cellulose; McCall & Jurgens, 1951). Surprisingly, we could not find any
138 previous analysis of cotton chemical composition despite the widespread use of the method in both
139 terrestrial and aquatic ecology (Harrison et al., 1988; Tiegs et al., 2013).

140 With this paper we are calling for the use of ethical and eco- friendly tools as ‘next-generation’
141 functional indicators. In the case of cotton strip assays as indicators of stream ecosystem functioning,
142 our results show that organic cotton could be used as an eco-friendly alternative to conventional cotton
143 fabric. Clearly, amounts of cotton used for bioindication purposes are a negligible fraction of the total
144 cotton world production. However, using ecological indicators aims to assess – and improve – the
145 ecological status of ecosystems. This goal cannot be meaningfully achieved if these tools cause any
146 societal or environmental damage – no matter how small, as far as satisfactory alternatives are
147 available. We share the idea that weighing the benefits against the environmental and societal costs of
148 the tools and methods we use is probably one of our greatest responsibility as scientific ecologists (e.g.
149 Rosen, 2017).

150 **5. Conclusions**

- 151 - Organic textiles decompose at similar rates than conventional cotton across 6 different streams.
- 152 - The relatively low cellulose and high nutrient content exhibited by the conventional cotton fabric
153 bring into question its use as a ‘pure cellulose’ standard substrate.
- 154 - Organic textiles, and in particular organic cotton, can be used as an eco-friendly alternatives to
155 conventional cotton for the cotton-strip assay in streams.

156 **Competing financial interests**

157 The authors declare no competing financial interests

158

159 **Author contributions**

160 JJ, FC and FG designed the study, JJ and FG carried out the experiment and data analysis. JJ, FC and
161 FG wrote the manuscript.

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Fig. 1. Correlations between the average ($\pm SE$) tensile strength loss of ‘conventional’ cotton strips and the tensile strength loss of each of 4 alternative textiles in the 6 streams. The regression lines (solid lines) as well as Pearson correlation coefficients and associated p-values are provided. Numbers are the ranks of the streams according to the average rates of tensile strength loss for conventional cotton strips.

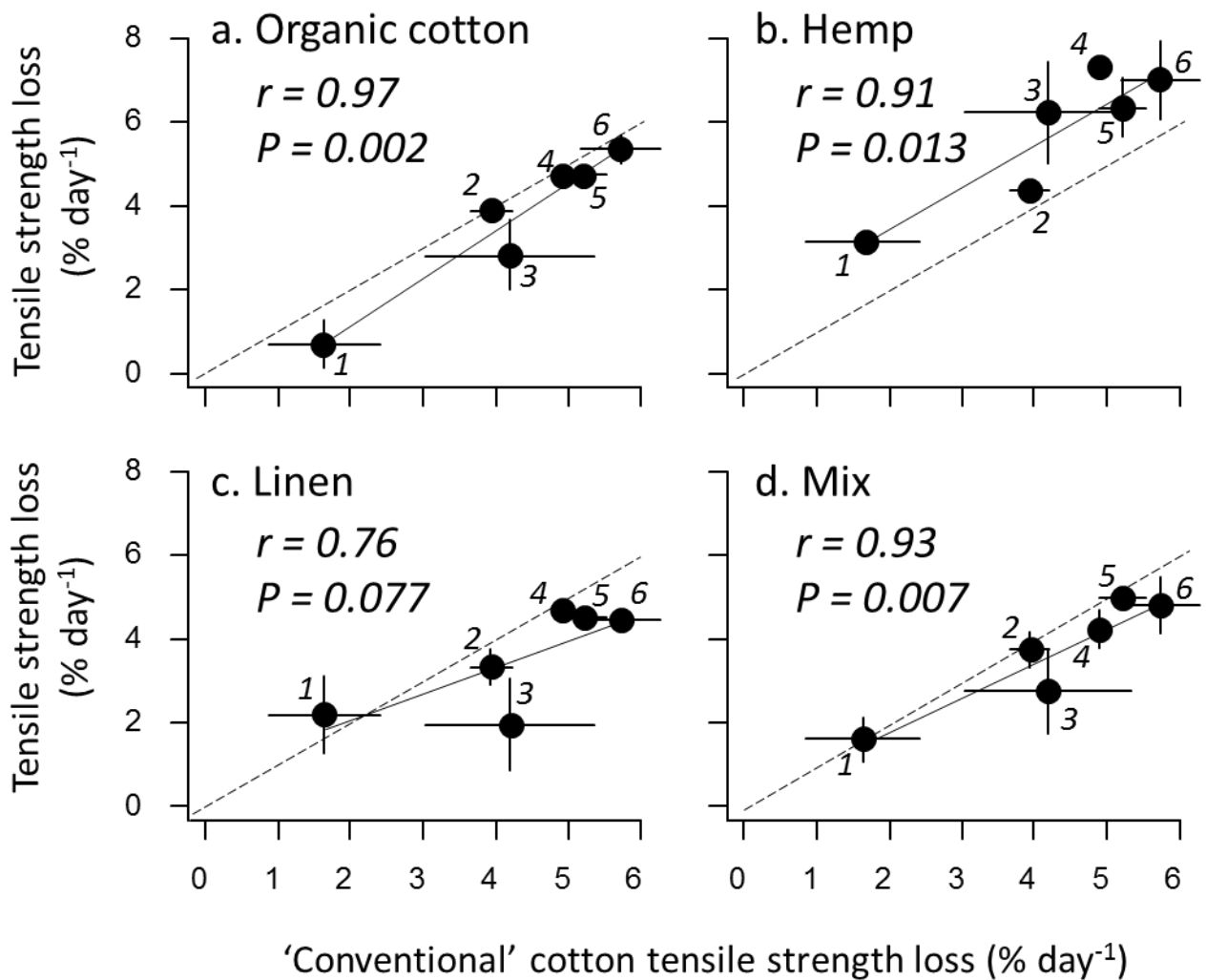


Table 1

Properties of the 5 different textiles used in the experiment (average \pm *SD*). Results are expressed in % of dry mass except tensile strength loss (% day⁻¹) and initial maximal tensile strength (N).

	Carbon <i>n</i> = 5	Nitrogen <i>n</i> = 5	Phosphorus <i>n</i> = 2	Proximate cellulose <i>n</i> = 5	Proximate lignin <i>n</i> = 5	Tensile strength loss <i>n</i> = 30	Initial max tensile strength <i>n</i> = 5
Cotton	41.92 \pm 0.04	0.486 \pm 0.013	0.032	61.92 \pm 7.29	0.00 \pm 0.00	4.27 \pm 1.87	234.3 \pm 8.1
Organic cotton	42.45 \pm 0.04	0.094 \pm 0.009	0.007	74.68 \pm 6.80	0.11 \pm 0.08	3.70 \pm 1.83	233.9 \pm 17.2
Hemp	42.49 \pm 0.13	0.098 \pm 0.008	0.015	74.50 \pm 5.49	0.50 \pm 0.03	5.75 \pm 2.06	247.9 \pm 23.2
Linen	42.59 \pm 0.06	0.120 \pm 0.010	0.012	70.91 \pm 6.05	0.53 \pm 0.16	3.53 \pm 1.70	270.5 \pm 89.9
Mix	42.28 \pm 0.09	0.066 \pm 0.006	0.011	63.75 \pm 4.58	0.23 \pm 0.29	3.69 \pm 1.71	191.5 \pm 10.0



- Hemp
- Mix cotton-hemp
- Linen
- Organic cotton

