

Phthalate pollution in an Amazonian rainforest

Alain Lenoir, Raphaël Boulay, Alain Dejean, Axel Touchard & Virginie Cuvillier-Hot

Environmental Science and Pollution Research

ISSN 0944-1344

Environ Sci Pollut Res
DOI 10.1007/s11356-016-7141-z



Your article is protected by copyright and all rights are held exclusively by Springer-Verlag Berlin Heidelberg. This e-offprint is for personal use only and shall not be self-archived in electronic repositories. If you wish to self-archive your article, please use the accepted manuscript version for posting on your own website. You may further deposit the accepted manuscript version in any repository, provided it is only made publicly available 12 months after official publication or later and provided acknowledgement is given to the original source of publication and a link is inserted to the published article on Springer's website. The link must be accompanied by the following text: "The final publication is available at link.springer.com".

Phthalate pollution in an Amazonian rainforest

Alain Lenoir¹ · Raphaël Boulay¹ · Alain Dejean^{2,3} · Axel Touchard³ ·
Virginie Cuvillier-Hot⁴

Received: 7 March 2016 / Accepted: 23 June 2016
© Springer-Verlag Berlin Heidelberg 2016

Abstract Phthalates are ubiquitous contaminants and endocrine-disrupting chemicals that can become trapped in the cuticles of insects, including ants which were recognized as good bioindicators for such pollution. Because phthalates have been noted in developed countries and because they also have been found in the Arctic, a region isolated from direct anthropogenic influence, we hypothesized that they are wide-

spread. So, we looked for their presence on the cuticle of ants gathered from isolated areas of the Amazonian rainforest and along an anthropogenic gradient of pollution (rainforest vs. road sides vs. cities in French Guiana). Phthalate pollution (mainly di(2-ethylhexyl) phthalate (DEHP)) was higher on ants gathered in cities and along road sides than on those collected in the pristine rainforest, indicating that it follows a human-mediated gradient of disturbance related to the use of plastics and many other products that contain phthalates in urban zones. Their presence varied with the ant species; the cuticle of *Solenopsis saevissima* traps higher amount of phthalates than that of compared species. However, the presence of phthalates in isolated areas of pristine rainforests suggests that they are associated both with atmospheric particles and in gaseous form and are transported over long distances by wind, resulting in a worldwide diffusion. These findings suggest that there is no such thing as a “pristine” zone.

Editorial Responsible: Constantini Samara

Electronic supplementary material The online version of this article (doi:10.1007/s11356-016-7141-z) contains supplementary material, which is available to authorized users.

✉ Alain Lenoir
alain.lenoir@univ-tours.fr

Raphaël Boulay
raphael.boulay@univ-tours.fr

Alain Dejean
Alain.dejean@wanadoo.fr

Axel Touchard
t.axel@hotmail.fr

Virginie Cuvillier-Hot
virginie.cuvillier@univ-lille1.fr

¹ IRBI, Institut de Recherche sur la Biologie de l’Insecte, CNRS UMR 7261, Université de Tours, Faculté des Sciences, Parc de Grandmont, 37200 Tours, France

² Ecolab, Université de Toulouse, CNRS, INPT, UPS, Toulouse, France

³ CNRS, UMR EcoFoG, AgroParisTech, Cirad, INRA, Université des Antilles, Université de Guyane, 97310 Kourou, France

⁴ CNRS; UMR 8198, Unité Évolution, Écologie et Paléontologie, Université de Lille, Lille, France

Keywords Phthalates · Pollution · Tropical rainforests · Ants · DEHP

Introduction

Of all of the pollutants found across the globe, phthalates (mainly di(2-ethylhexyl) phthalate (DEHP)) are some of the most widely distributed. Phthalate esters are used in many industrially made products, such as cosmetics, pesticide carriers, insect repellents, vinyl, cables, tubing, films, paints, adhesives, PVC, and inks. They are also used as plasticizers (i.e., to make plastics more flexible). Because phthalate esters do not chemically bind to plastic polymers, they migrate to the surface of the polymer matrix where they may more easily leach into the air, water, or food. They have been detected in the air (including in aerosols), water, soil, different sediments,

and animal tissue, including that of humans (Teil et al. 2006; Alves et al. 2007; Babich and Osterhout 2010; Williams et al. 2010; Gaudin et al. 2011; Salapasidou et al. 2011; Choi et al. 2012; Huang et al. 2013).

Hundreds of scientific papers and many newspaper articles have chronicled the effects of endocrine-disrupting chemicals (EDCs, mainly phthalates, and bisphenol A), which have been associated with human pathologies (e.g., negative effects on the male reproductive tract, breast and testicular cancers, disruption of the neuroendocrine system, allergies, and asthma) (Saillenfait and Laudet-Hesbert 2005a, b; Desdoits-Lethimonier et al. 2012; Manzetti et al. 2014). Moreover, we know that the toxicity of certain pollutants is greater than previously thought and frequently results in transgenerational effects (e.g., in fish; Schwindt et al. 2014). Furthermore, the impact can be exacerbated by interactions between contaminants or “cocktail effects” (e.g., pesticide combinations on bees) (Vidau et al. 2011; Gill et al. 2012) or between contaminants and natural stressors, including malnutrition, osmotic perturbations, and global warming (Rhind 2009; Holmstrup et al. 2010).

Phthalate air pollution has both acute and chronic effects ranging from minor upper respiratory irritations to chronic respiratory and heart diseases, lung cancer, acute respiratory infections in children, and chronic bronchitis in adults. In addition, short- and long-term exposure to phthalate pollution has also been linked to premature mortality and reduced life expectancy (Kampa and Castanas 2008) and transgenerational effects through epigenetic mechanisms (Doyle et al. 2013; Manikkam et al. 2013; Rissman and Adli 2014). Many reports have indicated that the phthalates found in dust in houses are associated with asthma and allergies in both children and adults (Ait Bamai et al. 2014).

Phthalates have been found on insect cuticles such as those of ants, crickets, and honey bees, something which has been taken as evidence of their ubiquity (Cavill and Houghton 1974; Kather et al. 2011; Lenoir et al. 2012); they can also become trapped in the wax of honey bee combs (Gómez-Ramos et al. 2016). DEHP and dibutyl phthalate (DBP) are toxic at high doses for *Folsomia candida* springtails, causing modifications in symmetry (Jensen et al. 2001; Kristensen et al. 2004). Phthalates deposited in large quantities on *Lasius niger* ant cuticle remained in dead, control individuals, while they were adsorbed and metabolized in less than 5 days and so returned to their basic level, in live individuals (Lenoir et al. 2014). At doses corresponding to chronic exposure levels, phthalates reduce ant queen fecundity and stimulate an immune response in workers (Cuvillier-Hot et al. 2014).

Because phthalates are transported everywhere in the atmosphere above developed countries (Choi et al. 2012; Blanchard et al. 2013) and because they have been found in the Arctic (Xie et al. 2007), a region isolated from direct anthropogenic influences, they appear to be widespread. To

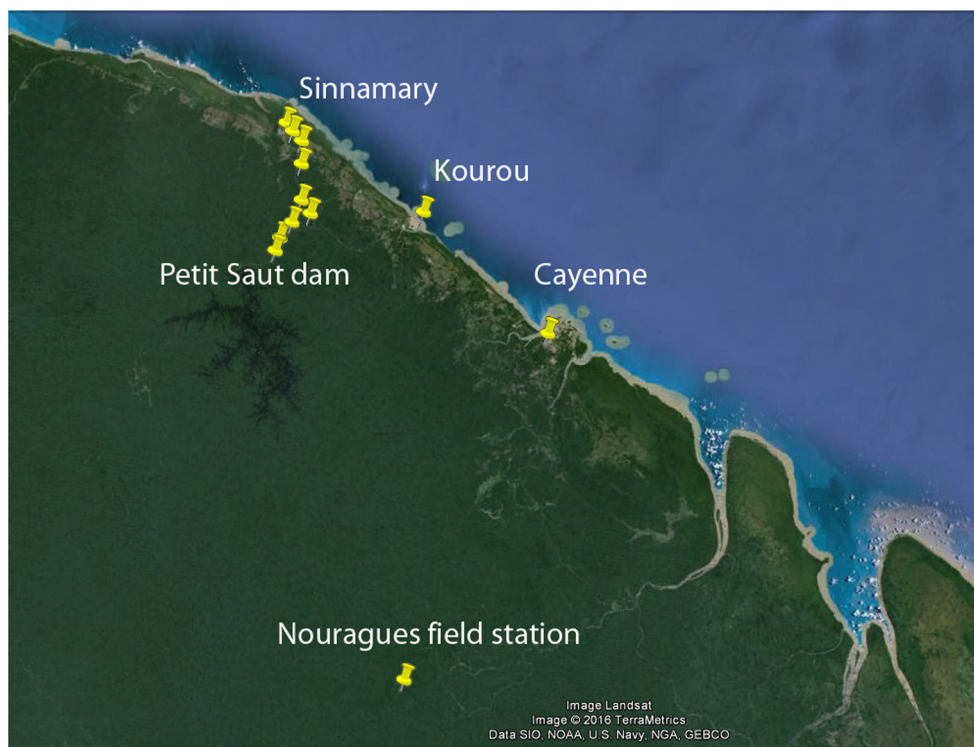
verify this, we hypothesized that their presence in isolated pristine Amazonian rainforests would provide strong evidence that the planet's atmosphere is thoroughly polluted by these compounds.

Ants are present everywhere, are found in almost every part of the food web, and constitute the most abundant animal taxon in tropical ecosystems (Longino et al. 2014; see also Basset et al. 2015 for tropical insect diversity). Consequently, ants represent important bioindicators based on the degree to which they have been contaminated by pollution. So, we compared the phthalate pollution levels of ants from isolated pristine rainforest in French Guiana, far from any human activity, with areas having increasing levels of anthropogenic perturbation, including urban areas, where plastics and many products containing phthalates (e.g., detergents, building materials, and furniture) are in constant use. However, because phthalates are rapidly degraded by microbial activity and abiotic processes (i.e., hydrolysis, photocatalytic oxidation, and photolysis) (Staples et al. 1997; Zhou et al. 2005; Yuan et al. 2010; Huang et al. 2013; Manzetti et al. 2014), the levels recorded are likely much lower than those associated with the original source of contamination. We also aimed to identify the various phthalates present because, due to concerns over their safety, the most frequently used (i.e., DBP, diisobutyl phthalate (DiBP), and DEHP) are progressively replaced by heavier molecules, which have already been found in soft plastics produced in Asia (Barušić et al. 2015; AL, personal observation).

Materials and methods

We collected ants from various sites in French Guiana in November 2013 (Fig. 1). The CNRS Nouragues research station (40° 05' N, 52° 40' W, 121 m asl) was an important sampling location in our study because it is situated in an isolated, uninhabited, and protected area ≈90 km from the coast and can be reached only by helicopter (or by pirogue then a 4-h hike). We collected ants near the station, where human activity may have served as a source of pollution (i.e., different materials have been used to construct shelters, and plastic has been brought in as a result of the provision of food and research materials—see Suppl. 1). We also collected ants in the rainforest far from the station and on the summit (397 m) of the inselberg near the station (see Suppl. 2). Exposed to the elements, it harbors sparse vegetation. We also sampled ants near the Petit-Saut hydroelectric dam (4° 59' N, 53° 08' W) as well as in the forest of *Crique Plomb*, including the dirt road which crisscrosses the forest over 10 km from the road leading to the dam from Route N° 1, and in other forested areas along this road. We also collected ants in and near the cities of Sinnamary (5° 22' N; 52° 57' W), Kourou (5° 09' N; 52° 38' W), and Cayenne (4° 56' N; 52° 20' W).

Fig. 1 Main ant sampling locations. Map created using Google Earth. A transect was established along the road between the Petit-Saut Dam and the city of Sinnamary. Other main places are Nouragues field station, Kourou, and Cayenne cities



Ants were captured with metal forceps and placed directly into glass vials containing hexane; they were never in contact with plastics and were left in the vials until the analyses were run. At that point, they were removed from the vials, and the solvent evaporated. Then, the extract was redissolved in 10 μL of hexane to which 2 μL of hexane containing 400 ng of eicosane (C20) was added as an internal standard (we verified that all the hexane used was phthalate free). We injected 2 μL of each redissolved extract into a Perkin-Meyer gas chromatograph-mass spectrometer (GC-MS) functioning at 70 eV and with a source temperature of 230 $^{\circ}\text{C}$. The GC-MS was equipped with a ZB-5HT column (30-m $L \times 0.25\text{-mm ID} \times 0.252 \mu\text{m df}$; 5 % phenyl—95 % dimethylpolysiloxane). The following temperature program was used: 2 min at 80 $^{\circ}\text{C}$, increased by 10 $^{\circ}\text{C}/\text{min}$ to reach 320 $^{\circ}\text{C}$, and a 10-min hold at 320 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ (for a total of 36 min). An external mixture of phthalates is generally used to quantify phthalate acid esters (PAEs) (Teil et al. 2006). Eicosane is frequently used as the standard in hydrocarbon analyses, so we utilized it here to compare this study with previous ones (Lenoir et al. 2012, 2014; Cuvillier-Hot et al. 2014). We used ion 149, typical of phthalates, as the basis for our analyses of the phthalate peaks (Cao 2008; Valton et al. 2014; Barušić et al. 2015). This method is less sensitive but much more effective in differentiating phthalates from other hydrocarbons, particularly DEHP from 5MeC25 (Lenoir et al. 2014). We calculated the quantity of each compound relative to the eicosane internal standard. The threshold for DEHP

quantification is 0.20 ng, so that, for small ants, we placed five workers in the extract vial. We analyzed a total of 243 samples.

Since the species ranged in size, the results were normalized and presented in terms of nanogram per milligram of dry weight (DW), as in Lenoir et al. (2014).

Data are presented as means \pm standard errors (SE), and statistical analyses were conducted using ANOVAs and the Newman-Keuls post hoc test for multiple comparisons (R software).

Results and discussion

The different phthalates recorded

Guianese ants were contaminated with the same phthalates as their European and North African counterparts (Lenoir et al. 2012), notably DEHP, DBP, diisobutyl phthalate (DiBP), and benzyl butyl phthalate (BBP). DEHP, ubiquitous and noted in 95 % of the samples (Table 1), was found in higher quantities on *Solenopsis* (19.5 ng/mg DW vs. 0.9 for other ants) and accounted for 97 and 61.5 % of the phthalates found on *Solenopsis saevissima* workers and other ants, respectively. DEHP is also the most prevalent phthalate in the atmosphere in the Paris region (Teil et al. 2016).

We also found on Guianese ant cuticles two new phthalates, di(2-ethylhexyl) terephthalate ((DEHTP) = dioctylterephthalate (DOTP)) and diisononyl phthalate 35

Table 1 Different phthalates found on ants in French Guiana for *Solenopsis* and all other ant species (mean ng/mg DW \pm SE, % of samples containing phthalates, % quantities related to the total amount of phthalates)

Phthalates (ng/mg DW)	Other species				<i>Solenopsis</i>			
	Mean	SE	% Samples	% Total	Mean	SE	% Samples	% Total
DBP	0.1	0.0	45.5	6.4	0.1	0.1	13.4	0.6
DiBP	0.04	0.0	25.5	2.9	0.01	0	12.4	0.1
BBP	0.4	0.1	39.1	27.6	0	0	0	0
DEHP	0.9	0.2	94.5	61.5	19.5	3.6	93.8	97.4
DINP	0.02	0	31.8	1.5	0.4	0.1	22.7	1.9
DEHTP	0.001	0.0	0.9	0.1	0	0	0	0
Total	1.4			100	20.0			100
<i>n</i> =	110				97			

isomers (DINP), which are recently being used instead of DEHP (Rastogi 1998; Abe et al. 2012). DEHTP can be passively transferred by simple contact between ants and fragments of plastic children's toys (A. Lenoir, unpublished results), explaining why it occurred on urban Guianese ants. DINP was detected in 22.7 % of *Solenopsis* and 31.8 % of other ants gathered around the Nouragues research station and in the cities of Cayenne (at the harbor), Kourou, and Sinnamary; it was also noted at the Petit-Saut field station and along the road to the dam. When present, DINP only represented 1 to 2 % of the phthalates. In the Nouragues research station, it was recorded in the pieces of flagging tape tied around trees to delimit parcels. DINP is found in toys, childcare products, PVC, flagging tape, and many soft plastics (Barušić et al. 2015). Its metabolites have been detected in

human urine across the globe (Saravanabhavan 2012), and although it seems to be less toxic than the more common phthalates (Babich and Osterhout 2010), it was placed on California's official list of carcinogens (Tomar et al. 2013).

The plastic tubing used to delimit parcels at the Nouragues research station contains BBP and DEHP in small quantities, likely explaining their presence on ants. However, these compounds were also noted on ants gathered far from any human activity, such as the top of the inselberg.

Anthropogenic gradient of pollution

Classically, phthalate pollution levels increased from the rainforest to the cities regardless of the ant taxa tested, showing a relationship with human activity (Fig. 2). An ANOVA using

Fig. 2 Mean phthalate levels pooled from the cuticles of the different ant genera. Comparison between individuals gathered from the rainforest, along the roads, and in the cities (mean ng/mg DW \pm SE). Statistical comparisons: ANOVA ($F = 24.31$; $df 2$; $p < 0.0001$) and Newman-Keuls post hoc test; different letters indicate significant differences at $p < 0.001$

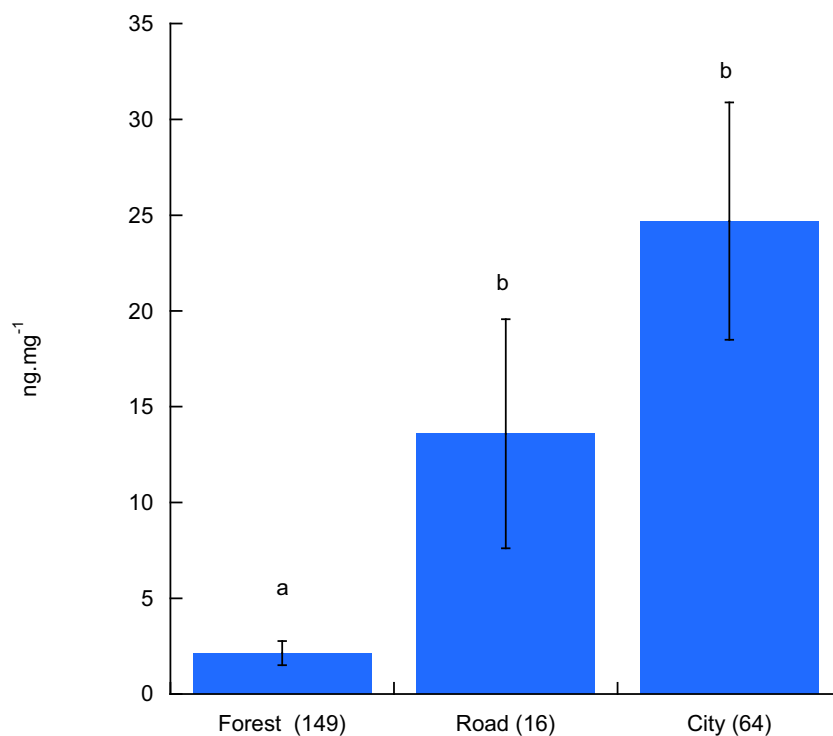


Fig. 3 Mean phthalate levels for the different ant genera in the different areas along the road from the Petit-Saut dam to the city of Sinnamary (mean ng/mg DW \pm SE). Statistical comparisons: ANOVA ($F = 45.3$; $df = 2$; $p < 0.0001$) and Newman-Keuls post hoc test; *different letters* indicate significant differences at $p < 0.001$

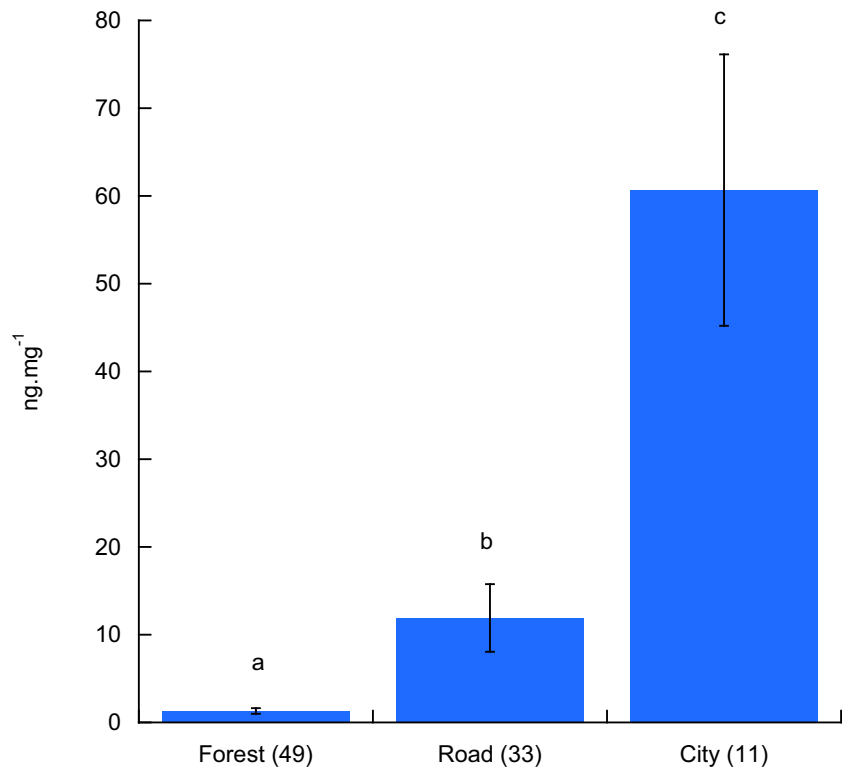
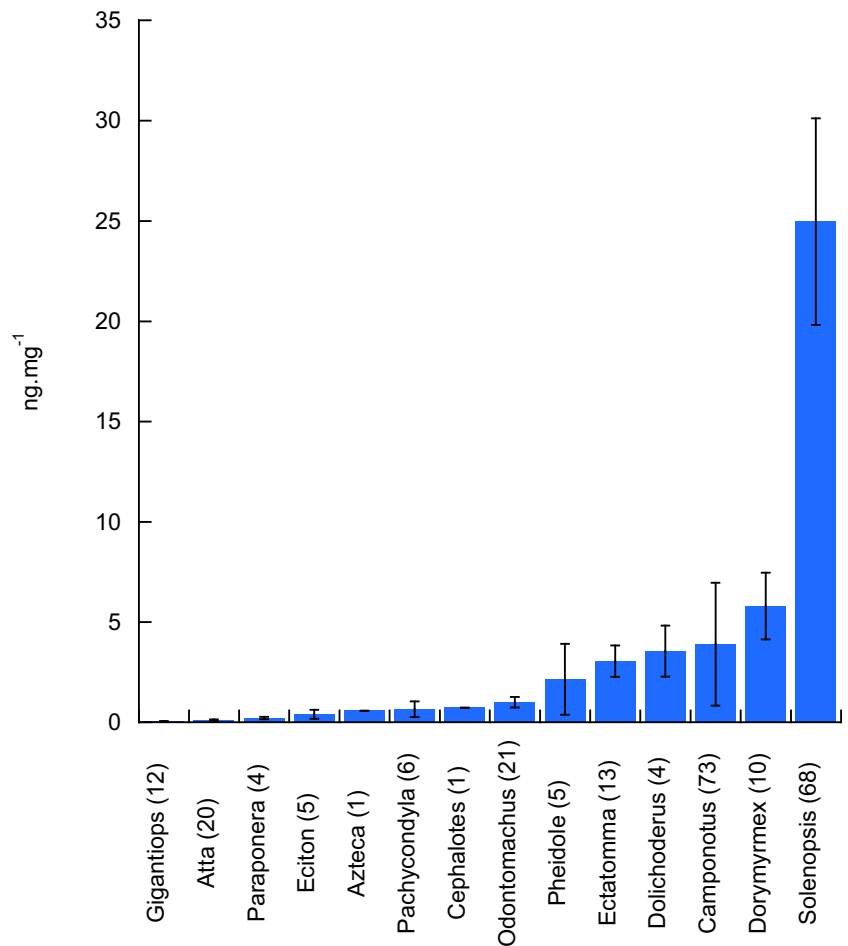


Fig. 4 Overall mean phthalate levels for the different ant genera (mean ng/mg DW \pm SE). Statistical comparisons: ANOVA ($F = 6.576$; $df = 14$; $p < 0.0001$)



the full data set revealed that phthalate levels, which ranged from 0 to 200 ng/mg DW, differed significantly across ant genus ($F = 6.57$, $df = 14$, $p < 0.001$), areas (i.e., rainforests vs. roads vs. cities, $F = 32.03$, $df = 2$, $p < 0.001$), but not with altitude ($F = 1.47$, $df = 1$, $p = 0.226$). Overall, phthalate levels were significantly higher in urban areas ($p < 0.001$) and there was an increase, albeit non-significant, from road sides to cities ($p = 0.45$; Fig. 2). The same trend was noted for the data from ants sampled in the rainforest of Petit-Saut, along the road leading to the dam, and in the city of Sinnamary (ANOVA ($F = 45.3$; $df = 2$; $p < 0.0001$); here, all of the differences between areas were significant (Fig. 3a–c).

The cuticular phthalate levels observed for urban Guianese ants are similar to those noted for the ant *L. niger* in Europe (i.e., 2 ng/ant fresh weight, corresponding to 5 ng/mg DW) (Lenoir et al. 2012). Yet, a perfect comparison would require using the same species.

Phthalates were ubiquitous around the Nouragues research station, as they were found in ants from the camp, the forest, and the top of the inselberg. The levels were low, ranging from 0.5 (the top of the inselberg) to 2 ng/mg DW, and did not differ significantly between sites ($p = 0.06$, but near significance for the top of the inselberg, $p = 0.055$), so that human activity in and around the station is not likely responsible for the phthalate pollution noted deep in the rainforest and on the top of the inselberg.

Therefore, our hypothesis that phthalate pollution is globally ubiquitous is likely confirmed as, in addition to their presence in the Arctic (Xie et al. 2007), we found them in other areas isolated from direct anthropogenic influence, including parts of the Amazonian rainforest and the top of an inselberg. These results strongly suggest that contaminants arrive from the atmosphere both with air particles and in gaseous form (see Blanchard et al. 2014; Cecinato et al. 2012; Gao and Wen 2016; Teil et al. 2016; Xie et al. 2005). For example, in the Paris region, phthalate pollution ranges from 10 to 100 ng m⁻³ of total air and 80 % in the gaseous phase. It is more concentrated in urban areas compared to forest sites (Teil et al. 2016).

Variation in phthalate levels across ant genera

The levels of phthalate contamination varied between ant genera (Fig. 4), a pattern likely due to differences in cuticle composition (Vienne et al. 1995). *S. saevissima* had the highest levels but was not found at the Nouragues research station nor the rainforest (see Dejean et al. 2015). Yet, it did occur at all of the other sites, including along the dirt road of Crique Plomb which crisscrosses the rainforest at Petit-Saut. Phthalate levels noted on workers were low in the latter case and high in the cities with values of up to 180 ng/mg DW. Consequently, with its anthills interconnected by galleries forming huge colonies extending along several kilometers (Martin et al. 2011; Lenoir

et al. 2016), *S. saevissima* appears to be a good bioindicator for gauging phthalate pollution in human-disturbed areas.

In conclusion, it appears that phthalates are universal contaminants and are probably major constituents of generalized anthropogenic pollution, which is a leading cause of human health problems. They may also be playing a role in the mass extinctions of the Anthropocene, which are affecting both vertebrate and, albeit less visibly, invertebrates (Dirzo et al. 2014). Phthalates are the major pollutants disseminated throughout the world in gaseous form and on atmosphere particles (Teil et al. 2016). Our results show that they are found in different levels on ant cuticle based on a gradient of urbanization, so ants can be considered good bioindicators due to their ubiquity and ease of sampling them. It is thus imperative to continue to study the pollution of ant populations, most particularly in tropical rainforests.

Acknowledgments Financial support for this study was provided by a CNRS/Centre d'Études de la Biodiversité Amazonienne (CEBA) project entitled "Phthalate pollution in an Amazonian rainforest" (PPAR). We are grateful to Chloé Fasilieu and Chloé Moysse (École Polytechnique, Université de Tours, France) for the analysis of the data, to Jessica Pearce-Duvet and Andrea Yockey-Dejean for proofreading the manuscript, and to Jacques H. C. Delabie (Laboratório de Mirmecologia, CRC, Ilhéus, Bahia, Brazil) for the identification of the ants. We would like to thank the staff of the CNRS Nouragues research station and the Laboratoire Environnement de Petit-Saut for furnishing logistical assistance.

Compliance with ethical standards

Conflict of interest The authors declare that they have no competing interest.

References

- Abe Y, Yamaguchi M, Mutsuga M, Hirahara Y, Kawamura Y (2012) Survey of plasticizers in polyvinyl chloride toys. Food Hyg Safe Sci 53:19–27
- Ait Bamai Y, Shibata E, Saito I, Araki A, Kanazawa A, Morimoto K, Nakayama K, Tanaka M, Takigawa T, Yoshimura T, et al. (2014) Exposure to house dust phthalates in relation to asthma and allergies in both children and adults. Sci Total Environ 485–486:153–163
- Alves C, Oliveira T, Pio C, Silvestre AJD, Fialho P, Barata F, Legrand M (2007) Characterisation of carbonaceous aerosols from the Azorean Island of Terceira. Atmos Environ 41:1359–1373
- Babich MA, Osterhout CA (2010) Toxicity review of diisononyl phthalate (DINP). Bethesda, MD, p. 154 <http://www.cpsc.gov/about/cpsia/toxicityDINP.pdf>
- Barušić L, Galić A, Bošnjir J, Baričević L, Mandić-Andačić I, Krivohlavek A, Mojsović Čuić A, Đikić D (2015) Phthalate in children's toys and childcare articles in Croatia. Curr Sci 109:1480–1486
- Basset Y, Cizek L, Cuénoud P, Didham RK, Novotny V, Ødegaard F, Roslin T, Tishechkin AK, Schmidl J, Winchester NN, et al. (2015) Arthropod distribution in a tropical rainforest: tackling a four dimensional puzzle. PLoS One 10:e0144110

- Blanchard M, Teil M-J, Dargnat C, Alliot F, Chevreuril M (2013) Assessment of adult human exposure to phthalate esters in the urban Centre of Paris (France). *Bull Environ Contam Toxicol* 90:91–96
- Blanchard O, Gloennec P, Mercier F, Bonvallot N, Chevrier C, Ramalho O, Mandin C, Le Bot B (2014) Semivolatile organic compounds in indoor air and settled dust in 30 French dwellings. *Environ Sci Technol* 48:3959–3969
- Cao X-L (2008) Determination of phthalates and adipate in bottled water by headspace solid-phase microextraction and gas chromatography/mass spectrometry. *J Chromato A* 1178:231–238
- Cavill GWK, Houghton E (1974) Volatile constituents of the Argentine ant, *Iridomyrmex humilis*. *J Insect Physiol* 20:2049–2059
- Cecinato A, Balducci C, Mastroianni D, Perilli M (2012) Sampling and analytical methods for assessing the levels of organic pollutants in the atmosphere: PAH, phthalates and psychotropic substances: a short review. *Environ Sci Pollut Res* 19:1915–1926
- Choi JK, Heo JB, Ban SJ, Yi SM, Zoh KD (2012) Chemical characteristics of PM_{2.5} aerosol in Incheon, Korea. *Atmos Environ* 60:583–592
- Cuvillier-Hot V, Salin K, Devers S, Tasiemski A, Schaffner P, Boulay R, Lenoir A (2014) Impact of ecological doses of the most widespread phthalate on a terrestrial species, the ant *Lasius niger*. *Environ Res* 131:104–110
- Dejean A, Céréghino R, Leponce M, Rossi V, Roux O, Compin A, Delabie JHC, Corbara B (2015) The fire ant *Solenopsis saevissima* and habitat disturbance alter ant communities. *Biol Conserv* 187:145–153
- Desdoits-Lethimonier C, Albert O, Le Bizet B, Perdu E, Zalko D, Courant F, Lesné L, Guillé F, Dejucq-Rainsford N, Jégou B (2012) Human testis steroidogenesis is inhibited by phthalates. *Hum Reprod* 27:1451–1459
- Dirzo R, Young HS, Galetti M, Ceballos G, Isaac NJB, Collen B (2014) Defaunation in the Anthropocene. *Science* 345:401–406
- Doyle TJ, Bowman JL, Windell VL, McLean DJ, Kim KH (2013) Transgenerational effects of di-(2-ethylhexyl) phthalate on testicular germ cell associations and spermatogonial stem cells in mice. *Biol Reprod* 88:111–115
- Gao D-W, Wen Z-D (2016) Phthalate esters in the environment: a critical review of their occurrence, biodegradation, and removal during wastewater treatment processes. *Sci Total Environ* 541:986–1001
- Gaudin R, Marsan P, Ndaw S, Robert A, Ducos P (2011) Biological monitoring of exposure to di-(2-ethylhexyl) phthalate in six French factories: a field study. *Int Arch Occup Environ Health* 84:523–531
- Gill RJ, Ramos-Rodriguez O, Raine NE (2012) Combined pesticide exposure severely affects individual- and colony-level traits in bees. *Nature* 491:105–108
- Gómez-Ramos MM, García-Valcárcel AI, Tadeo JL, Fernández-Alba AR, Hernando MD (2016) Screening of environmental contaminants in honey bee wax comb using gas chromatography–high-resolution time-of-flight mass spectrometry. *Environ Sci Pollut Res* 23:4609–4620
- Holmstrup M, Bindesbøl A-M, Oostingh GJ, Duschl A, Scheil V, Köhler H-R, Loureiro S, Soares AMVM, Ferreira ALG, Kienle C, et al. (2010) Interactions between effects of environmental chemicals and natural stressors: a review. *Sci Total Environ* 408:3746–3762
- Huang J, Nkrumah PN, Li Y, Appiah-Sefah G (2013) Chemical behavior of phthalates under abiotic conditions in landfills. *Rev Environ Contam Toxicol* 224:39–52
- Jensen J, van Langevelde J, Pritzl G, Krogh PH (2001) Effects of di-(2-ethylhexyl) phthalate and dibutyl phthalate on the collembolan *Folsomia fimetaria*. *Environ Toxicol Chem* 20:1085–1091
- Kampa M, Castanas E (2008) Human health effects of air pollution. *Environ Pollut* 151:362–367
- Kather R, Drijfhout F, Martin S (2011) Task group differences in cuticular lipids in the honey bee *Apis mellifera*. *J Chem Ecol* 37:205–212
- Kristensen TN, Pertoldi C, Pedersen LD, Andersen DH, Bach LA, Loeschcke V (2004) The increase of fluctuating asymmetry in a monoclonal strain of collembolans after chemical exposure—discussing a new method for estimating the environmental variance. *Ecol Indic* 4:73–81
- Lenoir A, Cuvillier-Hot V, Devers S, Christidès J-P, Montigny F (2012) Ant cuticles: a trap for atmospheric phthalate contaminants. *Sci Total Environ* 441:209–212
- Lenoir A, Devers S, Touchard A, Dejean A (2016) The Guianese population of the fire ant *Solenopsis saevissima* is unicolonial. *Insect Sci* doi:10.1111/1744-7917.12232
- Lenoir A, Touchard A, Devers S, Christides J-P, Boulay R, Cuvillier-Hot V (2014) Ant cuticular response to phthalate pollution. *Environ Sci Pollut Res* 21:13446–13451
- Longino JT, Branstetter MG, Colwell RK (2014) How ants drop out: ant abundance on tropical mountains. *PLoS One* 9:e104030
- Manikkam M, Tracey R, Guerrero-Bosagna C, Skinner MK (2013) Plastics derived endocrine disruptors (BPA, DEHP and DBP) induce epigenetic transgenerational inheritance of obesity, reproductive disease and sperm epimutations. *PLoS One* 8:e55387
- Manzetti S, van der Spoel ER, van der Spoel D (2014) Chemical properties, environmental fate, and degradation of seven classes of pollutants. *Chem Res Toxicol* 27:713–737
- Martin JM, Roux O, Groc S, Dejean A (2011) A type of unicoloniality within the native range of the fire ant *Solenopsis saevissima*. *C R Biol* 334:307–310
- Rastogi SC (1998) Gas chromatographic analysis of the phthalate esters in plastic toys. *Chromatographia* 47:724–726
- Rhind SM (2009) Anthropogenic pollutants: a threat to ecosystem sustainability? *Philos Trans R Soc Lond B* 364:3391–3401
- Rissman EF, Adli M (2014) Transgenerational epigenetic inheritance: focus on endocrine disrupting compounds. *Endocrinology* 155:2770–2780
- Saillenfait A-M, Laudet-Hesbert A (2005a) Phthalates. *EMC-Toxicol Pathol* 2:1–13
- Saillenfait A-M, Laudet-Hesbert A (2005b) Phthalates (II). *EMC-Toxicol Pathol* 2:137–150
- Salapapidou M, Samara C, Voutsas D (2011) Endocrine disrupting compounds in the atmosphere of the urban area of Thessaloniki, Greece. *Atmos Environ* 45:3720–3729
- Saravanabhavan, GMJ (2012) Human biological monitoring of diisononyl phthalate and diisodecyl phthalate: a review. *J Environ Pub Health* 2012:ID 810501
- Schwindt AR, Winkelman DL, Keteles K, Murphy M, Vajda AM (2014) An environmental oestrogen disrupts fish population dynamics through direct and transgenerational effects on survival and fecundity. *J Appl Ecol* 51:582–591. doi:10.1111/1365-2664.12237
- Staples CA, Peterson DR, Parkerton TF, Adams WJ (1997) The environmental fate of phthalate esters: a literature review. *Chemosphere* 35:667–749
- Teil M-J, Blanchard M, Chevreuril M (2006) Atmospheric fate of phthalate esters in an urban area (Paris, France). *Sci Total Environ* 354:212–223
- Teil M-J, Moreau-Guigon E, Blanchard M, Alliot F, Gasperi J, Cladière M, Mandin C, Moukhtar S, Chevreuril M (2016) Endocrine disrupting compounds in gaseous and particulate outdoor air phases according to environmental factors. *Chemosphere* 146:94–104
- Tomar RS, Budroe JD, Cendak R (2013) Evidence on the carcinogenicity of the diisononyl phthalate (DINP). California Environmental Protection Agency. http://oehha.ca.gov/prop65/hazard_ident/pdf_zip/DINP_HID100413.pdf
- Valton AS, Serre-Dargnat C, Blanchard M, Alliot F, Chevreuril M, Teil M (2014) Determination of phthalates and their by-products in tissues of roach (*Rutilus rutilus*) from the Orge river (France). *Environ Sci Pollut Res* 21:12723–12730

- Vidau C, Diogon M, Aufauvre J, Fontbonne R, Viguès B, Brunet J-L, Texier C, Biron DG, Blot N, El Alaoui H, et al. (2011) Exposure to sublethal doses of fipronil and thiacloprid highly increases mortality of honeybees previously infected by *Nosema ceranae*. PLoS One 6: e21550
- Vienne C, Soroker V, Hefetz A (1995) Congruency of hydrocarbon patterns in heterospecific groups of ants: transfer and/or biosynthesis? Insect Soc 42:267–277
- Williams BJ, Goldstein AH, Kreisberg NM, Hering SV (2010) In situ measurements of gas/particle-phase transitions for atmospheric semivolatile organic compounds. Proc Natl Acad Sc 107:6676–6681
- Xie ZY, Ebinghaus R, Temme C, Caba A, Ruck W (2005) Atmospheric concentrations and air–sea exchanges of phthalates in the North Sea (German bight). Atmos Environ 39:3209–3219
- Xie ZY, Ebinghaus R, Temme C, Lohmann R, Caba A, Ruck W (2007) Occurrence and air–sea exchange of phthalates in the arctic. Environ Sci Technol 41:4555–4560
- Yuan S-Y, Huang IC, Chang B-V (2010) Biodegradation of dibutyl phthalate and di-(2-ethylhexyl) phthalate and microbial community changes in mangrove sediment. J Hazard Mater 184:826–831
- Zhou QH, Wu ZB, Cheng SP, He F, Fu GP (2005) Enzymatic activities in constructed wetlands and di-n-butyl phthalate (DBP) biodegradation. Soil Biol Biochem 37:1454–1459

Photo A. Lenoir



Photo A. Lenoir

