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1 **From rivers to marine environments: a constantly evolving microbial**

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community within the plastisphere

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- 13 Abstract

14 Plastics accumulate in the environment and the Mediterranean Sea is one of the most 15 polluted sea in the world. The plastic surface is rapidly colonized by microorganisms, forming 16 the plastisphere. Our unique sampling supplied 107 plastic pieces from 22 geographical sites 17 from four aquatic ecosystems (river, estuary, harbor and inshore) in the south of France in order 18 to better understand the parameters which influence biofilm composition. In parallel, 48 19 enrichment cultures were performed to investigate the presence of plastic degrading-bacteria in 20 the plastisphere. In this context, we showed that the most important drivers of microbial 21 community structure were the sampling site followed by the polymer chemical composition. 22 The study of pathogenic genus distribution highlighted that only 11% of our plastic samples 23 contained higher proportions of Vibrio compared to the natural environment. Finally, results of the enrichment cultures showed a selection of hydrocarbon-degrading microorganisms 24 25 suggesting their potential role in the plastic degradation.

26 Keywords

27 Hydrocarbonoclastic bacteria, pathogenic bacteria, 16S rRNA amplicon sequencing, biofilm,28 plastic debris

29 **1. Introduction**

30 European plastic demand was to 50.7 million tons in 2019, mainly for packaging and the 31 building and construction sector (Plastic Europe, 2020). The most widely used polymers in 32 Europe are polypropylene (PP), polyethylene (PE), polyvinyl chloride (PVC), polyurethane 33 (PU), polyethylene terephthalate (PET) and polystyrene (PS). Forty-two percent of plastics 34 across Europe are reported to be recycled (PlasticsEurope, 2020), while a major part of 35 discarded polymers ends up in landfills and finally in oceans causing a global environment issue 36 (Geyer et al., 2017). The five subtropical oceanic gyres have been identified as a vast 37 accumulation zones in the ocean, but the Mediterranean Sea has comparable average density of 38 plastic debris (PD), e.g., between 1,000 and 3,000 tons of floating plastics in 2013 (Cózar et 39 al., 2015). The hydrodynamics of the Mediterranean semi-enclosed basin, added to the high 40 human pressure, can explain the floating plastic accumulation (Cózar et al., 2015; Boucher and 41 Friot, 2017). The combination of mechanical abrasion, hydrolysis, photo- or thermal-oxidation 42 and the biodegradation of PD leads to the formation of three categories of size fragments: 43 macro- (25-1000 mm), meso- (5-25 mm) and microplastics (<5 mm) (Andrady, 2011; 44 GESAMP, 2019). Due to their variation in density, size and surface area, the composition and 45 the quantity observed in the different environmental compartments are different, e.g. PP and the PE are mainly found in the surface water (Debroas et al., 2017), while PET is mainly found 46 47 on sediment (Andrady et al., 2011).

48 Once entered in the aquatic environment, PD are quickly colonized by microorganisms such 49 as bacteria, fungi, algae and tiny invertebrates, forming a distinct ecological niche named the 50 "plastisphere" (Zettler *et al.*, 2013, Delacuvellerie *et al.*, 2022). Plastic bacterial biofilm

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51 structure from marine environment evolves gradually with the immersion time of the polymer: 52 Gamma- and Alphaproteobacteria constitute the primary colonizers, while Bacteroidetes 53 represent the secondary colonizers (De Tender et al., 2017a,b). Moreover, the position in the 54 water column (floating plastics vs plastics on the sediment), geographical location, chemical 55 composition of plastic polymer, or seasons can influence the bacterial community structure 56 (Delacuvellerie et al., 2019, 2021; Oberbeckmann et al., 2014, 2021, Frère et al., 2018, Zettler 57 et al., 2013, Debroas et al., 2017). Two studies have shown that the plastics' shape and size do 58 not influence the microorganism structure (Frère et al., 2018; Cheng et al., 2021), while one 59 recent study has shown the influence of the polymer colors (Wen et al., 2020). Amaral-Zettler 60 and colleagues described the "cycle life" of plastic showing that plastics originate from land 61 source and, are transported via rivers to the ocean rivers (Amaral-Zettler et al., 2020). It is 62 therefore essential to study the bacterial structure of plastics sampled across a transect that 63 includes rivers, estuary and inshore from the same geographical zone, in our case the Ligurian Sea. 64

65 Marine PD impact the ecosystem's health because species can use it as dispersion vector by 66 invasive or pathogenic species, changing the structure of natural ecosystems (De Tender et al., 67 2015; Aliani & Molcard, 2003). Harmful algae, e.g., Coolia, Ostreopsis and Alexandrium, have 68 been detected on the surface of marine PD (Garcés & Camp, 2003), and the Vibrio genus, 69 containing numerous pathogenic species, is often found in higher concentrations on plastic than 70 in the natural environment (lower than 1% in seawater; Thompson et al., 2006; Frère et al., 71 2018). Many bacteria attached to the PD surface are opportunistic microorganisms and can 72 grow on other types of support such as wood, glass or leaves (Lyons et al., 2010). Moreover, 73 bacteria specialized in complex carbon degradation are selected on plastics, such as 74 hydrocarbon-degrading bacteria (Hyphomonas, Oceaniserpentilla, etc), supporting the fact that 75 these microorganisms can play a role in plastic degradation (Oberbeckmann et al., 2016; Zettler *et al.*, 2013). Our previous study that compared plastics from the same geographical location
showed significant differences in the bacterial community structure found on floating marine
PD in respect to PD collected in sediments (Delacuvellerie *et al.*, 2019). Moreover, a
enrichment culture was used to select candidates for the plastic degradation, highlighting the
statistically significative enrichment of a hydrocarbon-degrading bacteria, *Alcanivorax* genus,
on PE (Delacuvellerie *et al.*, 2019).

82 Most publications reporting on the plastisphere structure focus on one or two parameters 83 influencing the bacterial communities in marine environment. In this present study, our 84 extensive sampling, *i.e.*, 107 pieces of plastics in 22 geographical locations, allowed us to 85 compare and contrast the impact of numerous physico-chemical parameters on the plastisphere: 86 (1) type of polymer (e.g., PP, PE, PS); (2) size (macro-, meso-, microplastic), (3) color; (4) 87 environment (seawater inshore, harbor, freshwater river) and (5) sampling site. In this way, the primary aim of this study was to determine the most important drivers controlling the 88 89 composition of bacterial communities on PD using 16S rRNA amplicon sequencing. In 90 addition, we characterized the distribution of pathogenic bacteria colonizing the polymer 91 surface and the hydrocarbon-degrading bacteria by enrichment cultures, that could constitute 92 candidates for plastic degradation.

93

2. Materials and methods

94 **2.1. Plastic sample collection**

PD were collected in the Ligurian Sea from the river Var to the Port of Saint Louis du Rhone, from July 21st, 2019 to August 9th, 2019 as part of Expedition MED 2019 Citizen Science laboratory aboard the sailing boat Free Soul, in four aquatic ecosystems: river, estuary, harbor and inshore (**Fig.S1**). Inshore plastic sampling was performed using a manta net towed by the boat for a period of 30 min at the average speed of 2 knots. From the collected samples with the manta net, the PD items of bigger dimensions and with a more evident biofilm were
selected. Additional samples of PD were collected manually in five harbors (Port of Saint
Laurent du Var, Vielle Darse de Toulon, Port Saint Louis du Rhône, Ecluse du port de Saint
Louis du Rhône, Vieux Port de Marseille) and in one river (Var). Once collected, PD were
immersed in water collected from the sampling location in sterile 50 ml falcon tubes and stored
at 4°C during transportation. A table summarizes all the PD sampled by Expédition MED
(Table 1) as well as the physico-chemical parameters of the water (Table S1).

107 **2.2. Plastic sample processing**

Microbial biofilms were removed from the PD surface and used for the bacterial community structure analysis and the enrichment culture. In this way, PD were rinsed in sterile seawater (35 g/L of Sigma Sea Salt) for marine samples or in sterile freshwater for river samples to remove microorganisms not attached to the biofilm. Biofilms were scrapped with a sterile scalpel blade to recover a maximum of the biomass. Subsequently, the plastics were rinsed with ethanol 70% (V/V) and deionized water to remove organic coatings and dried at 30°C for 1 day. After this, the PD were used for analyses of their chemical composition.

From the total 107 PD samples, only 92 had enough biofilm to carry out DNA extraction to study microbial communities. For the bacterial community analyses, the biofilm recovered from PD was used for the DNA extraction (**Table S1**; number of samples sequenced by aquatic ecosystems: 4 for estuary, 4 for freshwater river, 19 for harbors, 65 for seawater). From 11 of these 92 PD samples that had a thicker biofilm, allowed us to save a portion of the biofilm for enrichment cultures to study the ability of bacteria to degrade plastic (Delacuvellerie *et al.*, 2019) (**Table S2**).

122 **2.3. Polymer chemical composition**

The chemical composition of the plastic was analyzed using Attenuated Total Reflectance Fourier Transform Infrared (ATR-FTIR) spectroscopy (Bruker, Tensor 27) with OPUS 6.5 software. The spectra were acquired over the wavelength range of $4000 - 600 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ with 64 spectral scans (Mahoney *et al.*, 2013). The size and the color of each plastic sample was collected in order to classify the plastic samples: macroplastics (25-1000 mm), mesoplastics (5-25 mm) and microplastics (<5 mm) (GESAMP, 2019). The color code used were chosen as suggested in EMODnet (Galgani *et* al. 2017).

130 2.4. Enrichment culture to assess plastic degradation

131 The thick biofilms recovered from 11 PD (four plastics from river, three from harbors and 132 four from inshore; Table S2) were cultured in glass tubes containing 5 ml of low carbon source 133 media (0.05% (W/V) of yeast extract), as described in Delacuvellerie et al., 2019 and with 2 134 cm² of clean plastic film (all the plastics were in film except the low molecular weight 135 polyethylene (LMWPE) that which is in the pellet form). Briefly, the marine medium is 136 composed of: 0.05% yeast extract, 0.2% ammonium sulfate, 3.5% salts (W/V, Sigma Sea Salt) 137 and 1% trace elements (0.1% MgSO₄.7H₂O, 0.1% FeSO₄.7H₂O, 0.01% ZnSO₄.7H₂O 0.01% 138 CuSO₄.5H₂O and 0.01% MnSO₄.5H₂O) in 20mM (N-morpholino) propanesulfonic acid 139 (MOPS) at pH 8, adapted from Yoshida et al., 2016). Regarding the freshwater river samples, 140 the same medium without sea salt was used. Five polymers were tested for each sample: LDPE, 141 LMWPE, PET, PS and PET (Table S3). The plastics were sterilized in 70% ethanol overnight 142 and dried in petri dishes under a laminar flow hood. Enrichment cultures were shaken at 140 143 rpm at 30 °C. After 80 days of culture, formation biofilms were visible with the naked eye on 144 48 tubes (Table S2). The bacterial communities from these biofilms were analyzed by 16S 145 rRNA amplicon sequencing.

146 2.5. DNA extraction and 16S rRNA amplicon sequencing

147 DNA was extracted from the biofilm on both the PD samples collected in the field and from 148 the plastic pieces used in the enrichment cultures. The DNA extraction was performed with the 149 biofilm DNA isolation kit (NORGEN BIOTEK CORP) following the manufacturer's 150 instructions. Only samples with a minimum of 1 ng/µl of DNA concentration were sequenced 151 (**Table 1** and **Table S1**). A total of 92 samples from plastics debris collected in the field were 152 sequenced (4 from estuary, 4 from freshwater river, 19 from harbors and 65 from seawater) and 153 48 samples from the enrichment cultures (**Table S2**).

A 460 bp fragment of the hypervariable V3-V4 region of the 16S rRNA gene of bacteria and archaea was amplified by PCR using the following primers: 806R (5'-GGACTACNNGG GTATCTAAT-3') and 341F (5'-CCTAYGGGRBGCASCAG-3') (Nunes *et al.*, 2016) supplemented by overhang (adaptator illumina):

158 Forward overhang: 5' TCGTCGGCAGCGTCAGATGTGTATAAGAGACAG-[341F]

159 Reverse overhang: 5' GTCTCGTGGGGCTCGGAGATGTGTATAAGAGACAG-[806R]

160 The high-throughput sequencing by the GIGA (Liège, Belgium) was used to perform the 161 sequencing of 2x300 bp paired-end with the Illumina® MiSeq ® platform (Illumina, San Diego, 162 CA, USA) according to the manufacturer's instructions. The MG-RAST pipeline (version 4.0.3, 163 https://www.mg-rast.org/) was used for the contingency table on the mate pairs (forward and 164 reverse) at the genus level, at a sequence identification level of 97%, using Greengenes database 165 (Keegan et al., 2016). The following parameters were chosen on MG-RAST: maximum low 166 quality basepairs of 6 and minimum quality of 25 pb. Adapter sequences were removed by a 167 bit-masked k-difference matching algorithm. Sequences were filtered based on length, quality 168 values and number of ambiguous bases. Finally, contamination by host DNA and PCR artifacts were removed. 16S rRNA amplicon sequences were deposited at the SRA (Sequence Read
Archive) in NCBI under the accession number PRJNA724000.

171 **2.6. Diversity indexes**

172 The bacterial diversity of the plastic samples from the field and from enrichment cultures 173 were studied. Rarefaction curves were performed to verify the sequencing quality using the 174 PAST software (Fig.S2) (Hammer et al., 2001). The richness and equitability indices, 175 corresponding to the alpha-diversity, were calculated on the rarefied data (14,387 reads counts 176 for *in-situ* sampling and 6770 reads counts for the enrichment cultures, *Limma* RGui package). 177 One sample containing less than 6770 reads was excluded (P4-01-PET; 5,425 reads counts, 178 Fig.S2). Using OTU presence/absence, Venn diagrams were created to assess the distribution 179 of these OTUs according the sampling site or chemical composition of polymer, using 180 VennDiagram RGui package (Hanbo & Paul, 2011). Multivariate analysis PERMANOVA was 181 used to study the beta-diversity using vegan RGui package (Wang et al., 2012). The statical 182 significative variation between the conditions was calculated using the Bray-curtis dissimilarity 183 with 10, 000 permutations. Principal Component Analysis (PCA) using arrows to show the 184 influence of the taxonomy was used (Krause et al., 2020). The presence of human pathogenic 185 bacteria was investigated using the Bode Science Center database (https://www.bode-science-186 center.com/center/relevant-pathogens-from-a-z.html) and pathogenic species of marine flora 187 and fauna were investigated in literature (Kirstein et al., 2016; Viršek et al., 2017; McCormick 188 et al., 2014; Amaral-Zettler et al., 2020).

189 2.7. Heatmap and validation of response groups (RGs)

Heatmap was performed on the bacterial communities from the enrichment cultures. OTUs statistically significantly affected by the condition were identified using a negative binomial distribution and Generalized Linear Model (nbGLM). This deviance analysis revised by 1,000 resampling iterations of the residual variance (*mvabund* Rgui package; Dixon, 2003). Eightythree OTUs affected by salinity (seawater *vs* freshwater) were plotted on a heatmap. The MonteCarlo simulation, comparing the RG clustering with a null-model containing all the OTUs,
validated four response groups (Fig.S3).

197

3. Results and discussion

198 **3.1.** Chemical characterization of plastic polymer sampled across the Ligurian Sea

The present analysis was based on the sampling of 107 pieces of floating PD across the Ligurian Sea (**Fig.S1**). The chemical identification of polymer composition by ATR-FTIR showed that PE, PS and PP were the most abundant type of surface marine plastics (**Fig.S4**), with 69%, 18% and 12%, respectively. These polymers have a low density and have specific gravities of approximately 0.94 (PE), 1.05 (PS) and 0.84 (PP), which are lower than the specific gravity of seawater (approximately 1.025). Only one plastic was identified as PET, plastic mainly found on the sediment (1.37 of gravity) (Andrady *et al.*, 2011).

206 PE, PS and PP are commodity and mainly single use plastics packaging and are the most 207 common types of PD floating at sea surface in the marine environment, in accordance with their 208 worldwide production (Debroas *et al.*, 2017; PlasticsEurope, 2020). They are the most abundant 209 types of polymers in other studies of floating marine PD (Amaral-Zettler *et al.* 2021; Suaria *et* 210 *al.* 2016).

211 **3.2.** Impact of physico-chemical parameters on the plastic bacterial composition

212 3.2.1. From rivers to oceans: an evolving plastisphere

The richness and equitability indexes were approximately 150 and 0.50 for each aquatic ecosystem (*i.e.*, inshore, estuary, harbor, river), respectively (**Fig.1A**). The PERMANOVA analyses significatively highlighted the influence of different aquatic ecosystems and more precisely, the influence of the sampling site (**Table 2; Fig.S1**) on the bacterial community structure, both with a p-value of 1e-05. The result can be explained by differences in the 218 location-related properties, such as salinity, pH, and temperature (**Table S1**). In our study, 219 although a consistent number of replicates for aquatic ecosystems would have facilitated the 220 statistical analysis, we observed that the microbial structure was affected by different levels of 221 salinity (seawater, freshwater, brackish water) with a p-value of 1e-05 (**Table 2**). This is 222 accordance with previous study showing that location-related environmental parameters, such 223 as salinity, temperature and oxygen content, appeared to be correlated to the bacterial 224 community diversity (De Tender *et al.*, 2015).

225 The plastisphere in river was mainly represented by Cyanobacteria, Bacteroidetes, 226 Betaproteobacteria, Cyanobacteria and Deinococcus-Thermus with a relative abundance of 227 10.7%, 7.5%, 7.5% and 5.2%, respectively (Fig. S5 & 2). Few studies reported the biofilm 228 structure in rivers but, as in the marine environment, plastic is a distinct environmental niche 229 mainly composed of Beta-, Gammaproteobacteria and Bacteroidetes (Hoellein et al., 2014; 230 McCormick et al., 2014; Mccormick et al., 2016; Amaral-Zettler et al., 2020, Amaral-Zettler 231 et al., 2021). Cyanobacteria and diatoms were shown to inhabit the surface of PD, thus 232 contributing to the primary production (Amaral-Zettler et al., 2020; Delacuvellerie et al., 2022). 233 The most represented genera from river samples were Chamaesiphon, Deinococcus and 234 Hymenobacter with 8.3 %, 5.2% and 1.3 %, respectively (Fig. 2). Samples from estuary, inshore 235 and harbors displayed a similar bacterial structure at the phylum level (Fig.S5). In accordance 236 with the literature (Bhagwat et al., 2021; Zettler et al., 2013), the bacterial communities were Bacteroidetes 237 mainly composed of (26%), Gammaproteobacteria (10%)and 238 Alphaproteobacteria (22%). Gamma- and Alphaproteobacteria were characteristic of the 239 primary colonizers in the plastisphere in the marine environment, while Bacteroidetes are 240 known to be secondary colonizers (De Tender et al., 2015). Amaral-Zettler and colleagues 241 performed taxonomic analyses of the plastisphere in the Ligurian Sea in 2018 (Amaral-Zettler 242 et al., 2021). Although the taxonomy of the Ligurian Sea samples showed Alphaproteobacteria,

243 Gammaproteobacteria and Cyanobacteria as dominating bacterial groups (Amaral-Zettler et 244 al., 2021), we observed that Cyanobacteria were less represented in our marine PD. Exposure 245 time and season are factors influencing biofilm formation and the bacterial composition vary 246 over time (Oberbeckmann et al., 2016 and 2014). At the genus level, Cytophaga, Saprospira, 247 Tenacibaculum, unclassified from Gammaproteobacteria and from Alphaproteobacteria were 248 the most genera represented across the inshore, estuary and harbor samples with small 249 percentage variations (Fig.2). The *Tenacibaculum* genus, with most species forming biofilm, 250 contains species pathogens for several fish, e.g., T. maritimum, T. soleae, T. discolor or T. 251 gallaicum (Fernández-Álvarez et al., 2018), and has already been associated with bacteria 252 composing the plastisphere (Oberbeckmann et al., 2016). Saprospira has already been 253 associated with plastic community from PP (Zettler et al., 2013). Despite the different 254 geographical sample, there was a homogeneity in the most represented genera. However, some 255 genera were mainly represented on one site. For example, Marinobacter, bacteria degrading 256 hydrocarbon, was mainly represented on EM19-P1 (7%) (Duran, 2010). Cyclobacterium (11%) 257 and Pseudoalteromonas (9%) were most represented on EM19-01 and EM19-P5, respectively.

258 The presence of several genera such as *Cellulophaga*, *Paenibacillus* or *Brevibacillus*, 259 less represented on the PD were interesting. Indeed, Cellulophaga genus was represented on 260 average at less than 0.1% on all sampling site, except for river PD, which did not show this 261 genus. Cellulophaga, mainly found in marine alga and beach mud, also known as cellulose-262 degrading bacteria (Abt et al., 2011), synthesizing extracellular hydrolases can metabolize 263 cellulose as carbon source. Plastic oxidized by UV, or other physico-parameters leading to the 264 production of ester-link in the plastic matrix, could be altered by *Cellulophaga's* enzymes 265 (Krueger et al., 2015). Indeed, natural polymers, such as proteins, chitin or cellulose, are 266 depolymerized via the cleavage of the hydrolytic bonds, *e.g.*, ester-links. Therefore, plastics 267 containing hydrolysable backbone structures might be degraded by these enzymes (Krueger et *al.*, 2015). *Paenibacillus* genus, representing 0.1% of the river bacterial communities, contains
also cellulose-degrading bacterium (Wang *et al.*, 2008), while the *Brevibacillus* genus, found
on EM19-F1 and P3 samples at 0.4%, showed the following species, *i.e.*, *Brevibacillus borstelensis* - known to degrade PE - as well other pathogenic species of invertebrates, *e.g.*, *B. thuringiensis* and *B. laterospora* (Hadad *et al.*, 2005; Ruiu, 2013; Bravo *et al.*, 2007). Bacteria
present in the plastisphere could have a role in the plastic degradation and/or in the transfer of
pathogenic species.

275 Finally, the Venn diagram (Fig.S6) showed the genus dispersion according to the 276 aquatic ecosystems showing that 178 genera (corresponding to 48% and 24% of river and 277 inshore genera, respectively) were shared between the four ecosystems, confirming previous 278 findings, demonstrating that a "core" of bacteria was shared among all polymers (Kirstein et 279 al., 2018). Interestingly, 80 genera were shared between marine and freshwater samples and 280 could be explained by the fact that a fraction of PD was exported by rivers into the marine 281 environment, biofilm development starting in freshwater and continuing in seawater (Schmidt 282 et al., 2017; Amaral-Zettler et al., 2020). Or there might be bacteria that are generalist and can 283 live both in seawater and freshwater.

284 3.2.2 Influence of the polymer chemical composition on the plastisphere

The second studied parameter was the chemical composition of PD. The richness and equitability indexes were similar between the polymers from marine environment (PP, PET, PS, PE; **Fig.1B**). However, the bacterial community structure was affected by the polymer composition (PERMANOVA analysis, Table 2, p-value =0.00913). Results from the previous section highlighted that the bacterial communities from plastics were dependent on the environment parameters, *e.g.*, sampling site. However, the results of polymer type analysis provide an insight of the plastisphere composition expected in the aquatic environment since 292 these PD were sampled from a large study area composing by 18 sampling sites in marine water 293 (harbor and inshore samples) influenced by different environmental parameters (Table 1). As 294 shown in the Venn diagram, the overlap of bacterial genera according to the pooled plastic 295 chemical composition sampled in the seawater (Fig.3). Interestingly, the majority of genera 296 (147) were shared between the four types of plastic (PET, PP, PS and PE). However, several 297 genera were identified as specific for a given plastic, e.g., 24% of genera composing the PE 298 bacterial communities were specific to this polymer. The variation of the taxonomic 299 classification depending on the polymer chemical composition is shown on Figure 4. 300 Interestingly, Bacteroidetes was most abundant on PP than the others plastics. At the family 301 level, Cyclobacteriaceae and Cytophagaceae are most represented on PP while 302 Oceanospirillaceae and Bacillariaceae are most abundant on PET. Saprospiraceae, 303 Rhodobacteraceae, Alteromonadaceae and Flavobacteriaceae were abundant on the plastics 304 and were already found on previous study in marine environment (Oberbeckmann et al., 2016; 305 Zettler et al., 2013; Bhagwat et al., 2021). Interestingly, these families contained members 306 known for their ability in the complex carbon degradation and for their marine biofilm lifestyles 307 (Oberbeckmann et al., 2016). Finally, some genera were more present on one type of polymer 308 than the others, e.g., Marinobacter on PS or Cyclobacterium on PP.

The chemical composition of plastics can significantly influence the bacterial communities: (i) the chemical structure of the polymer, (ii) the particle shape (ropes and sheets, De Tender *et al.*, 2017a), and (iii) chemical additives (plasticizers) (De Tender *et al.*, 2015). The chemical function of the surface, the roughness, the hardness, the electric charge and the hydrophobicity all play a role and influence the biofilm formation due to the physico-chemical properties of the bacterial cell surface (Zhang *et al.*, 2015; Renner & Weibel, 2011; Ganesan *et al.*, 2022). For example, one recent study had shown that the same bacterial species (*Bacillus*) 316 subtilis and Bacillus pumilus) adhered better to PE and PVC surfaces than to PP and PET 317 surfaces due to the intrinsic surface properties of the plastic's surface (Cai et al., 2019).

318 3.2.3. Plastic debris size and color parameters not impacting the bacterial communities

319 There were no difference in alpha- and the beta-diversity of the bacterial communities 320 in relation to the size or the color of the PD (Fig.1C; Table 2). Our results were in contradiction 321 with a recent study showing that the microbial richness was higher on PE mesoplastic than 322 microplastic (Debroas et al., 2017). Other research showed that the apparent size effect can be 323 due the difference in the surface to volume ratio (named specific ratio) and not from the size 324 itself. For example, for a similar mass of polymers, a material containing an irregular surface 325 has a larger available surface than a regular one. In accordance with previous results, the 326 materials size had no effect on the bacterial diversity and composition (Cheng et al., 2021; Frère 327 et al., 2018). In agreement with the literature, the plastic's color did not influence the diversity 328 index (Wen et al., 2020).

329

3.3. Dispersion of pathogenic bacteria

330 Floating plastics are free support, known to assemble the ideal conditions for the 331 microbial development and spreading out and represent a dispersion way for microorganisms, 332 among which there might be also harmful and/or invasive microorganisms in new habitats. For 333 example, a study showed that when corals are in contact with plastic debris, the likelihood of 334 disease significantly increases, from 4% to 89% (Lamb et al., 2018). To better understand the 335 related risks for human health, aquaculture or fisheries, the distribution of genera containing 336 pathogenic species was investigated. In Figure 2, Vibrio and Tenacibaculum were genera 337 represented in marine water, which includes numerous pathogenic species, e.g., Vibrio 338 parahaemolyticus, T. maritimum, T. soleae, T. discolor or T. gallaicum (Kirstein et al., 2016; 339 Fernández-Álvarez et al., 2018). Previous studies have shown that the Vibrio genus can

340 represent up to 24% of the biofilm communities (Zettler et al., 2013) and the Vibrionaceae 341 family up to 20% of the bacterial population on floating plastics (Delacuvellerie et al., 2019). 342 Microbial pathogens optimize the exploitation of their host specializing in a surface-associated 343 lifestyle, such as aquatic aggregates (Colwell et al., 2003; Danovaro et al., 2009) and marine 344 PD (Oberbeckmann et al., 2016). Figure S8 represents the percentage of several genera 345 containing pathogenic species for humans and fishes (Bode Science Center database; Kirstein 346 et al., 2016; Viršek et al., 2017; McCormick et al., 2014; Amaral-Zettler et al., 2020), thus 347 allowing the pathogen dispersion in all the sampling sites. Eleven percent of the total plastic 348 samples had a percentage of Vibrio higher than 1% and only two PD, EM19-33-02 and EM19-349 32-05 from seawater inshore, had a percentage higher than 10% with 17% and 14%, 350 respectively. The Vibrio genus was a little more represented at three locations: EM19-33 and 351 EM19-03 (inshore); EM19-P5 (harbor) with a mean of 3.7%, 2% and 2%, respectively. EM19-352 P5 was in the harbor at Marseille and EM19-33 station was close to the harbor. The Marseille 353 Port is a commercial harbor with high boat traffic and passenger numbers, increasing the waste 354 which could explain the higher number of Vibrio. The third location, EM19-03, was in the 355 Ligurian Sea west Cannes, a well-known touristic region with numerous marinas. EM19-27-04 356 and EM19-14-02 possessed more than 40% of the populations represented by genera which 357 include pathogenic species (Tenacibaculum, Pseudomonas, Arcobacter, Aeromonas and 358 *Vibrio*). In summary, pathogenic bacteria were scattered across our sampling locations with 359 slight variations, excepted for EM19-27 and EM19-14 that contained a higher percentage of 360 pathogenic genera. Moreover, only 11% of our PD samples possessed a percentage of Vibrio 361 higher than the seawater (< 1%, Thompson & Ploz, 2006) and the proportion of potential 362 pathogen in the plastisphere remained constant across all sampling sites. In concordance with 363 recent studies, our taxonomic analysis did not indicate that the enrichment of the Vibrio genus 364 in the plastisphere of PD from the Ligurian Sea would pose an alarming risk to human health

and/or fisheries (Oberbeckmann *et al.*, 2021; Delacuvellerie *et al.*, 2022) regarding the *Vibrio*genus in the Ligurian Sea.

367 **3.4. Hydrocarbonoclastic bacteria**

368 3.4.1. Hydrocarbon-degrading bacteria present in the natural environment

369 Hydrocarbonoclastic bacteria are commonly found in the plastisphere (Delacuvellerie 370 et al., 2019; Zettler et al., 2013). In the marine environment, hydrocarbon-degrading bacteria 371 are usually found in very low abundance. Their growth is stimulated by contamination of 372 hydrocarbons. These bacteria can degrade carbon-carbon structures, similar to the chemical 373 structure of plastic, and could have a role in plastic degradation (Delacuvellerie et al., 2019). 374 Figure S9 shows an overview of the putative hydrocarbonoclastic bacteria dispersion according 375 to the sampling location. The hydrocarbon-degrading bacterial percentage was a little higher 376 when the sampling location was closed to the coast and the harbor. Many chemical compounds, 377 such as hydrocarbons, bind and accumulate on plastics (Rochman, 2015), explaining the 378 presence of hydrocarbon degraders on plastics, especially in the harbor. Even when 379 hydrocarbonoclastic bacteria were characterized, they were poorly represented, and would not 380 tend to degrade plastics (Delacuvellerie et al., 2021; Oberbeckmann et al., 2021).

381 3.4.2. Selection of putative plastic degrading candidates by enrichment culture

Previous studies showed that culture enrichment containing plastic as the main carbon source allow to select putative degrading-bacteria, *e.g.*, *Ideonella sakaiensis* and *Alcanivorax borkumensis* (Delacuvellerie *et al.*, 2019; Yoshida *et al.*, 2016). The phylum comparison of enrichment culture clearly showed a significative distinctness between the marine and freshwater samples, with a higher proportion of *Betaproteobacteria* in freshwater (**Fig.S10**). The PERMANOVA analysis confirms these results (Table 3). Moreover, the bacterial communities from the enrichment culture in freshwater contained a higher proportion of 389 Gammaproteobacteria, a primary colonizer (De Tender et al., 2017a,b). Finally, Bacteroidetes 390 was mainly found on marine environment compared to freshwater samples. A PCA also 391 confirmed the distinction of the bacterial communities from rivers at t₀ and t₈₀, with the selection 392 of genera such as *Novispirillum*, *Ensifer*, *Clostridium* or *Acinetobacter* at t_{80} (Fig.S11). The 393 enriched bacterial communities in marine medium was distinct from enrichment in freshwater 394 with the selection of, e.g., Vibrio, Sagittula, Cytophaga or Alcanivorax. Regarding the diversity 395 indexes for freshwater samples, the richness was statistically significantly higher at t₀ than t₈₀ 396 on the five plastic chemical compositions (Fig.S12), explained by the fact that a selection of 397 genera took place after the culture. Moreover, some bacteria did not survive due to the growing 398 conditions (medium containing 0.05% of yeast extract, 2% ammonium sulfate, 3.5% salts and 399 1% trace elements at pH 8 in 200 mM MOPS) being too distinct from the natural environment.

400 Eighty-three OTUs discriminated (nbGLM, p-value<0.05) the bacterial communities at 401 to and t₈₀, in marine and freshwater medium and were represented on a heatmap (Fig.5). Four 402 response groups (RGs) were defined with hierarchical clustering based on center-scaling 403 abundance. The first RG contained genera selected at t₈₀ in the marine medium, and these 404 genera were little represented in the communities at t₀, while the second RG highlighted 405 bacterial genera that were common to the bacterial communities at t₀ and t₈₀. Finally, RG 3 406 represented bacteria mainly in the communities at t_0 in freshwater and RG4, genera mainly 407 selected after the culture (t₈₀). In accordance with the result of the PCA analysis, the 408 Alcanivorax, Vibrio, Sagittula, Cytophaga genera were statistically significantly selected in 409 marine medium at t₈₀. The 10 most abundant genera significantly selected at t₈₀ are represented 410 in Figure 6 according to their distribution and the plastic chemical composition (LDPE, 411 LMWPE, PVC, PET and PS). Regarding the marine samples, several genera such as *Ruegeria*, 412 Cytophaga, Vibrio and Marinomonas, were represented homogeneously on the different plastic 413 chemical compositions (i.e., LDPE, LMWPE, PET, PS and PVC; Fig.6), while other genera

414 were mainly selected on one plastic composition, e.g., Alcanivorax, Sagittula and 415 Marinobacter. Interestingly, Alcanivorax was selected on the LDPE (75%). Alcanivorax is 416 known for its capacity to degrade hydrocarbons and several polymers (Yakimov et al., 1998; 417 Zadjelavic et al., 2020). This genus had a big affinity with the LDPE after enrichment culture 418 and represented more than 60% of the bacterial communities on the LDPE and seemed 419 implicated in the LDPE degradation with a weight loss of 3% after 80 days of culture 420 (Delacuvellerie et al., 2019). LDPE has a solid structure similar to the chemical structure of 421 alkane, both containing carbon-carbon link. In our study, Alcanivorax represented up to 15% 422 of the population on the EM19-P4-01 sample (Fig.S13A). These genera of bacteria would be 423 an excellent candidate for petroleum based plastic degradation, such as for LDPE. The Sagittula 424 genus, mainly found on polyethylene (LDPE and LMWPE), contains species able to degrade 425 lignin (Gonzalez et al., 1997). Enzymes capable of degrading lignin can also degrade certain 426 plastics including polyethylene due the structural similarity of synthetic polymers with lignin 427 (Krueger et al., 2015). The Sagittula genus could also have a role in PE degradation. Finally, 428 Marinobacter, mainly found on the PVC and representing up to 55% of the bacterial population 429 (Fig.6 and Fig.S13A), is also a hydrocarbonoclastic genus (Duran, 2010). The relative 430 abundance of these three genera on plastics indicates that they could be potential degraders of 431 plastic in the marine environment due to their selection on the plastics.

Figure 6 showing the 10 most abundant genera selected in the freshwater medium highlighted the presence of *Comamonas*, *Acinetobacter* and *Novispirillum* genera, also known in the literature for their capacity to use hydrocarbons (Guo *et al.*, 2020; Bruckberger *et al.*, 2018). Like in the marine medium, bacteria able to degrade hydrocarbons were enriched on plastics after 80 days of enrichment culture. *Comamonas* and *Acinetobacter* were homogenously selected on several plastic compositions while *Novispirillum* was more abundant on PVC. *Comamonas* represented more than 55% of the bacterial community (EM19-F1-04439 PS), and Acinetobacter and Novispirillum more than 40% (Fig.S13B). Finally, the Ensifer 440 genus was strongly selected on the PET film, on one sample: EM19-F1-04-PET (Fig.6). Once 441 again, this genus contains species able to degrade polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (Muratova 442 et al., 2014). After 80 days of enrichment culture in freshwater or marine medium containing 443 the plastic as the main carbon source, hydrocarbonoclastic bacteria were enriched. Our results 444 showed a selection of hydrocarbon degrading microorganisms on PD that suggested their 445 potential ability to hydrolyze plastic. The utilization of plastic-degraders bacteria and their 446 involved enzymes must be investigated to optimize and open new perspectives into the 447 utilization of this knowledge in plastic recycling.

448

3.5. The "forgotten" bacteria of the plastisphere

In addition to hydrocarbon-degrading and pathogenic bacteria, there were other 449 450 interesting bacteria. Recent metagenomic and proteomic analyses showed that Cyanobacteria 451 were not the most abundant microorganisms into the plastisphere but were the most active while 452 the pathogenic bacteria (i.e., Vibrio) were in dormancy, i.e., Vibrio were very abundant in the 453 communities but few proteins were detected (Oberbeckmann et al., 2021; Delacuvellerie et al., 454 2022). Taking an interest in these bacteria is therefore essential to better understand their role(s) 455 in the plastisphere. Bacterial structure of the freshwater samples contained 11% of 456 Cyanobacteria, the percentage decreased until 1%, 0.17% and 0.16% for inshore, harbor and 457 estuary samples, respectively. Chamaesiphon and Leptolyngbya were most abundant 458 Cyanobacteria genera in freshwater samples (Fig.S14). Leiser and colleagues (2021), 459 investigated the role of phototrophic sessile Cyanobacteria (Chamaesiphon spp. and 460 Leptolyngbya spp.), in their aggregation on microplastics in freshwater (Leiser et al., 2021). 461 These phototrophic bacteria, forming biofilm on microplastics in eutrophic water, precipitated 462 calcite, increasing the density of the biofilm-associated at microplastic and leading to sinking

463 of plastic particles in the water column. *Cyanobacteria* have a role in the sedimentation of
464 plastic particles (Leiser *et al.*, 2021).

In addition to *Cyanobacteria*, **Figure 2** showing the percentage of taxonomic profiles of bacterial communities highlighted the fact that a high percentage of the bacterial communities was unclassified. Indeed, around 30% of the bacterial communities from marine water is unclassified while up to 50% of the freshwater samples were unclassified revealing an important gap of knowledge considering plastic-associated bacteria.

470 **4.** <u>Conclusion</u>

471 Our study demonstrated that sampling site is the most important driver of the bacterial 472 structure, followed by the chemical composition of plastic polymer, while the colors and size 473 of plastics did not influence the bacterial biofilm structure. Spatial and seasonal factors seem to 474 be the most important driven of the plastisphere. Some genera were specific of a geographical 475 location, e.g., Saccharopolyspora exclusively characterized in PD collected from the Rhone 476 estuary. The geographical location did not influence the proportion of genera containing 477 pathogenic species and only 11% of PD showed higher proportions of Vibrio in comparison to 478 the natural environment (<1%). Cyanobacteria, e.i., Chamaesiphon and Leptolyngbya genera, 479 present in the freshwater communities can have a role in the sedimentation of plastic particles. 480 After 80 days in enrichment culture, hydrocarbon-degrading bacteria, potential candidate for 481 plastic degradation, were statistically significantly selected on the different chemical 482 composition of plastic from both seawater and freshwater samples. The utilization of potential 483 plastic-degraders bacteria and their enzymes involved in the polymer degradation must be 484 investigated to open new perspectives in plastic recycling. Moreover, supplementary studies 485 focusing on the functioning of the plastispheres by metagenomic and metaproteomic analyses 486 should be carried out to further decipher the impact of microbial communities developing on487 PD on the environment.

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6. <u>Supplementary Information</u>

500 The supplementary information associated with this article contains additional figures and501 tables.

- 502 7. Conflict of Interests
- 503 The authors declare no competing financial interest.

504 8. <u>References</u>

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Graphics



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Figure 1: Richness and equitability indexes of bacterial communities according to (A) the type of aquatic ecosystems: estuary (n=4), inshore (n=65), harbor (n=19), river (n=4); (B) the polymer chemical composition from marine water samples (inshore and harbor samples): polyethylene (PE; n=52), polystyrene (PS; n=14), polypropylene (PP, n=11), polyethylene terephthalate (PET, n=1) and (C) the plastic size from marine water samples (inshore and harbor samples): micro- (n=34), meso- (n=37), macroplastics (n=13) obtained from 16S rRNA amplicon sequencing. ANOVA showed no significant difference.

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Figure 2: Map of all the 2019 sampling from the Mediterranean Sea. Samplings by a manta net are represented as followed: first point (A) shows the beginning of the sampling and the second (B), the end; the arrow show the direction of the boat. The plastic samples in a harbor are represented in orange rectangle; the freshwater river in green; marine water inshore in white and estuary in yellow. The pie chart represented the percentage of genera based on 16S rRNA amplicon sequencing for all sampling sites. Taxa displaying a proportions < 5% were gathered into "Others" category.



Figure 3: Venn diagram showing overlap of bacterial OTUs according to the pooled plastic chemical composition (polyethylene terephthalate (PET, n=1), polypropylene (PP, n=10), polystyrene (PS, n=14) and polyethylene (PE, n=56) from all the samples excepted freshwater plastic. Shared or unique OTUs are represented by numbers inside the circles for a given sample type.



Figure 4: Most abundant taxonomic groups on different marine plastic polymers namely: Polyethylene (PE), Polyethylene terephthalate (PET), Polypropylene (PP), polystyrene (PS) (plastics from inshore and harbor). Inner circles represent phylum classification (excepted for *Alpha*- and

Gammaproteobacteria being a class), the middle circles are the family level and the outer circles show the genus classification. The group of unclassified bacteria was not presented in this figure for clarity purposes.



Figure 5: Heatmap of the 83 genera significantly affected by the culture medium: seawater *vs* freshwater and by the comparison of the initial bacterial community (t_0) and after the enrichment culture (t_{80}) on the different plastic types: low-density polyethylene (LDPE), low molecular weight polyethylene (LMWPE), polyethylene terephthalate (PET), polystyrene (PS), polyvinyl chloride (PVC). Four response groups (RGs) were defined with hierarchical clustering based on center-scaling abundance.



Figure 6: Distribution of the 10 more abundant genera significantly affected by the culture salinity after the 60 days of enrichment culture (marine or freshwater medium) that have been highlighted on the heatmap according to the 5 polymers used in the enrichment cultures (low-density polyethylene (LDPE), low molecular weight polyethylene (LMWPE), polyethylene terephthalate (PET), polystyrene (PS), polyvinyl chloride (PVC)).

Table 1: Summary of the plastic debris sampling in 22 geographical sites with the number of plastic pieces, the polymer chemical composition (polyethylene (PE), polystyrene (PS), polypropylene (PP), polyethylene terephthalate (PET), not determined (N.D.)), the size and the colors by habitat types. The size classification and the color code was as based on GESAMP, 2019 and Galgani et al. 2017, respectively.

Habitat types	Number of geographical sites	Number of plastic pieces	Polymer chemical composition	Colors	Size	
River	1	4	PE: 3	black: 1		
			PS: 1	none: 1	macropastic: 4	
				white: 2		
Fetuary	1	1	PE: 4	none: 3	microplastic: 2	
Estuary	1	4		white: 1	mesoplastic: 2	
Harbor	5	19	PE: 8	5 none	microplastic: 7	
			PS: 8	13 white	mesoplastic: 9	
			PP: 3	1 white and red	macroplastic: 3	
Inshore	13	65	N.D.: 6	black: 2	microplastic	
			PE: 44 PET : 1	blue: 8	27	
			PS:6	brown: 1	mesoplastic: 28	
			PP: 8	none: 20	-	
				red: 4 white: 30	macroplastic: 10	

Table 2: PERMANOVA analyses using Bray-Curtis dissimilarity with 10,000 permutations on the different conditions: sampling site, type of aquatic ecosystems, plastic size, plastic color and chemical composition. The salinity having an impact on the bacterial community composition, the followed factors, *i.e.*, plastic debris size, plastic debris color and plastic debris chemical composition (polyethylene (PE), polystyrene (PS), polypropylene (PP), polyethylene terephthalate (PET)), were calculated from seawater samples (Table S1). Significance: *, p < 0.05; **, p < 0.01; ***, p < 0.001.

Factors tested	p-value		r^2	Signif.
One-way PERMANOVAs (Bray-Curtis				
dissimilarity, 10,000 permutations):				
1. Sampling site	1.00E-05		0.23474	***
2. Type of aquatic ecosystems (river (n=4),	1 00E 05		0.10138	***
harbor (n=19), estuary (n=4), inshore (n=65))	1.00E-05			
3. Salinity (brackish water (n=4), seawater	1 00E 05		0.0767	***
(n=83), freshwater (n=4))	1.00L-05			
4. Plastic size (micro- (n=34)/meso-				
(n=37)/macroplastic (n=13))				
from seawater (harbor and inshore):		0.09694	0.03207	/
5. Plastic color (black (n=2), blue (n=8), brown				
(n=1), none (25), red (n=4), white (n=43))				
from seawater (harbor and inshore):	0.4349		0.06141	/
6. Plastic chemical composition (PE (n=52),				
PS (n=14), PP (n=11))				
from seawater (harbor and inshore):	0.00913		0.08334	**

Table 3: PERMANOVA analyses using Bray-Curtis dissimilarity with 10,000 permutations of enrichment cultures according the type of plastic and the salinity of enrichment cultures (low-density polyethylene (LDPE), low molecular weight polyethylene (LMWPE), polyethylene terephthalate (PET), polystyrene (PS), polyvinyl chloride (PVC)). Significance: *, p < 0.05; **, p < 0.01; ***, p < 0.001.

Factors tested	p-value	r^2	Signif.
One-way PERMANOVAs (Bray-Curtis dissimilarity, 10,000			
permutations):			
1 ,			
1 Enrichment culture salinity (seawater vs freshwater)	1e-05	0.24627	***
	10 00	0.21027	
2 Plastic chemical composition (I MWPF I DPF PFT	0.01585	0.09502	*
2. Thastic element composition (ENTWIE, EDTE, TET, DS and DVC)	0.01505	0.07502	
PS all (PVC)			
Two-way PERMANIVAs (Bray-Curtis dissimilarity, 10,000			
permutations):			
3. Enrichment culture salinity * plastic chemical	0.01149	0.09666	*
composition			