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- 3

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11 **<u>1) INTRODUCTION:</u>**

Due to inadequate end-of-life management, conventional plastics have become one of the 12 most abundant sources of environmental pollution. Gever et al. (2017) estimated that almost 13 60% of all plastics ever produced, corresponding to 5 billion tons, have been discarded in the 14 environment (natural or landfills). These plastics have accumulated in the world's oceans; 15 16 where large quantities of debris represent a threat to marine species by entanglement, suffocation, or ingestion (Compa et al., 2019; Gregory, 2009). Microplastics are a threat to 17 both marine life and human beings (Ajith et al., 2020; Sarker et al., 2020). The use of 18 biodegradable plastics, will be promoted by the European directive 2018/581, which plans for 19 20 the generalization of separation at source and treatment of organic wastes. A biodegradable plastic can be defined as a plastic that undergoes a significant change in its chemical structure 21 22 under specific environmental conditions, resulting in the loss in some of its properties by the action of naturally occurring microorganisms in a given period of time. This is measured by 23 24 standard test methods appropriate to the plastic and to the application (ISO 472, 2013). The biodegradation of a biodegradable plastic depends greatly on the environment in which it 25 takes places. This is why biodegradable plastics should not be discarded directly in the 26 environment but should be preferentially treated in a controlled recycling environment 27 (composting or anaerobic digestion). 28

Anaerobic digestion (AD) is a biological process by which organic matter is converted, in an oxygen-free environment, into biogas (mainly composed of carbon dioxide and methane). The process of AD has proven to be a promising method for the valorisation of organic materials such as agricultural wastes (manure, crop residues, and winery waste products), food wastes, and sewage sludge (Da Ros et al., 2017; Hanum et al., 2019; Monlau et al., 2013; Moretti et

al., 2020). The literature recommends balancing the carbon to nitrogen (C/N) ratio of 34 feedstocks to between 20 and 30 to prevent both nutrient limitation and ammonia toxicity 35 (Esposito et al., 2012; Hawkes, 1980). Some feedstocks that are usually processed in 36 anaerobic digesters, such as food waste or sewage sludge, have a low C/N ratio (Esposito et 37 al., 2012). Plastics, on the other hand, contain very low levels of nitrogen. Co-digestion of 38 biodegradable plastics with other types of waste can help adjust the carbon-nitrogen ratio to 39 the recommended values (Benn and Zitomer, 2018). Anaerobic digesters are typically 40 operated at mesophilic (30-40 °C) or thermophilic (around 55 °C) temperatures in wet or dry 41 processes (Brown et al., 2012). The process of AD can be divided into four main steps: 42 acetogenesis and methanogenesis through acetotrophic, 43 hydrolysis, acidogenesis, hygrogenotrophic or methylotrophic pathway (Demirel and Scherer, 2008; Evans et al., 2019). 44

The microbiome involved in the process of AD has undergone intensive study in recent years 45 46 (Azizi et al., 2016; Castellano-Hinojosa et al., 2018; De Vrieze et al., 2018; Guo et al., 2015; 47 Levén et al., 2007; Li et al., 2015; Liu et al., 2018; Sundberg et al., 2013). However, little is 48 known about the microorganisms involved in the AD of biodegradable plastics. In the reviews by Shah et al. (2014, 2008) and Emadian et al. (2017), several microorganisms were reported 49 to decompose biodegradable plastics, but most of them did not come from anaerobic media. 50 Yagi and co-workers have published several studies aimed at the detection of microorganisms 51 that participate in anaerobic digestion of biodegradable plastic. They performed denaturing 52 gradient gel electrophoresis of the 16S rRNA amplicons (RT-PCR-DGGE). In their first two 53 papers they were not successful at identifying the microorganisms responsible for the 54 thermophilic digestion of poly(lactic acid) (PLA) (Yagi et al., 2011, 2010). However, they 55 highlighted that some of the microorganisms participating in the anaerobic biodegradation of 56 cellulose and PLA at 55°C differ. Subsequently, Yagi and co-workers succeeded in 57 identifying some microorganisms that participated in the degradation of PLA, poly(E-58 59 caprolactone) (PCL), and poly(3-hydroxybutyrate) (PHB) under mesophilic and thermophilic conditions (Yagi et al., 2014, 2013). Venkiteshwaran et al.(2019) have examined the 60 61 microbial community shift during anaerobic co-digestion of PHB and synthetic primary sludge (dog food and basal nutrients) by Illumina sequencing. No previously known PHB 62 63 degraders were observed in the co-digesters. Finally, Tseng et al. (2019) examined the microbial populations involved in anaerobic digestion of PLA under thermophilic conditions 64 65 by PCR-DGGE. They pointed out the importance of the genus Tepidimicrobium, which is thought to comprise key bacteria that decompose lactic acid and that supply CO_2 and H_2 to hydrogenotrophic methanogens.

The aim of this study was to evaluate the methane potential of three biodegradable plastics 68 under mesophilic and thermophilic conditions using Biochemical Methane Potential (BMP) 69 70 testing and to analyze the active microbial communities (16S rRNA) during the process. These plastics were commercially available in the form of coffee capsules and were certified 71 as being biodegradable under industrial composting conditions according to the EN 13432 72 standard. The EN 13432 standard defines the requirements for packaging recoverable through 73 74 composting and biodegradation, with test scheme and evaluation criteria for the final acceptance of packaging. 75

76

77 2) MATERIALS AND METHODS

78

2.1) Biodegradable plastic supports and inocula

Biodegradable plastics were purchased in the form of coffee capsules (Launay[®], Beanarella[®], 79 and Tintoretto®) certified as being biodegradable under industrial composting conditions (EN 80 81 13432). They were made of Vegemat[®] from Vegeplast (France), Ecovio[®] from BASF (Germany), or Mater-Bi[®] from Novamont (Italy). Mater-Bi[®] is a class of compounds based on 82 thermoplastic starch (TPS) and other polymers such as cellulose acetate, poly(vinyl alcohol), 83 PCL, and PBAT (Aldas et al., 2020). Ecovio® (BASF) is a mixture of PLA and a fossil-based and 84 biodegradable polymer commercialised as Ecoflex[®] (BASF) (Ecovio[®] BASF website, 2020). 85 Vegemat[®] (Vegeplast) is a mixture of biobased and biodegradable polymers obtained 86 through the processing of agropolymers and polyesters (Pluquet et al., 2016). The capsules 87 were separated from the coffee, and the opercula and were ground using a cutting mill (SM 88 89 100 Retsch, Haan, Germany) and a centrifugal mill (ZM 100, Retsch, Haan, Germany) to a particle size of 1 mm. In order to produce the spent coffee and to simulate a passage 90 through a coffee maker, the ground coffee (Grand'Mère®, France) was mixed with water 91 using a magnetic stirrer (200 rpm, 15 min). After a centrifugation step (5000 x g, 5 min), the 92 solid fraction was collected and dried at 60 °C until a constant mass was obtained. 93

The total solids (TS) and the volatile solids (VS) were determined using APHA standard methods (APHA, 2005). Elemental analysis (Carbon, Hydrogen, Nitrogen, and Sulphur) was 96 performed on the different samples using an Elemental Vario Macro Cube analyser 97 (Elementar, Germany). The oxygen content was estimated by the difference between the VS, 98 carbon, hydrogen, nitrogen, and sulphur content. The theoretical methane production was 99 estimated from the elemental composition using the following equation (Achinas and 100 Euverink, 2016; Boyle, 1977; Buswell and Mueller, 1952):

101 Theoretical methane production (NL(CH₄). g⁻¹(CxHyOzNnSs)) = $\frac{22.4 \times \left(\frac{x}{2} + \frac{y}{8} - \frac{z}{4} - \frac{3n}{8} - \frac{s}{4}\right)}{12x + y + 16z + 14n + 32s}$

102 Two different inocula were used in this study. They were prepared from wastewater 103 treatment plant (WWTP) sludge and acclimated for two months for anaerobic digestion at 104 38 °C (mesophilic inoculum) or 58 °C (thermophilic inoculum). The mesophilic inoculum was 105 fed with grass and WWTP sludge; the thermophilic inoculum with grass, wheat waste, and 106 WWTP sludge. The chemicophysical characteristics of the substrates and inocula used here 107 are presented in Table 1.

108

2.2) Biochemical Methane Potential (BMP) tests

109 Ground biodegradable plastic samples, spent coffee, and cellulose (positive control 110 purchased from Tembec, France) were digested in batch bottles under mesophilic (38 °C) 111 and thermophilic (58 °C) conditions according to an experimental protocol adapted from the recommendations of the European Inter-Laboratory studies in which APESA is involved 112 (Hafner et al., 2020). The BMP bottles were filled with 300 mL of inoculum, water, and test 113 material mixture at an inoculum to substrate ratio (ISR) of 2.7 g(VS).g(VS)⁻¹. The organic 114 loading of the test corresponded to 9 g(VS).L⁻¹. Previous research work has suggested an ISR 115 ≥ 2 in order to obtain reproducible constant kinetics (Chynoweth et al., 1993; Raposo et al., 116 117 2011, 2008). A blank control without test material was also carried out. Before placing an 118 airtight seal on the bottle, the gas phase was flushed out with nitrogen (Alphagaz™ Smartop, Air Liquide, France). The daily biogas production was estimated by the increase in pressure 119 120 using a manometer (2023P, Digitron, Croatia). The biogas composition was determined using a gas chromatograph (Micro GC 490, Agilent, USA) equipped with two columns. The first 121 column (M5SA 10m, Agilent, USA) was used at 80 °C and 200 kPa to separate O₂, N₂, and CH₄ 122 123 using Argon as the carrier phase; the second column (PPU 10m BF) was used at 80 °C and 150 kPa to separate the CO₂ from the other gases using Helium as the carrier phase. The 124

125 injector temperature was 110 °C. The detection of gaseous compounds was achieved using a 126 thermal conductivity detector. The biogas production of the negative control, endogenous to the inoculum, was subtracted from the production of the other bottles. The BMP tests were 127 performed in triplicate. The calibration was carried out with two standard gases composed 128 of 9.5% CO₂, 0.5% O₂, 81% N₂ and 10% CH₄ and 35% CO₂, 5% O₂, 20% N₂, and 40% CH₄ 129 (special gas, Air Liquide[®], France). All of the results are presented for normalized conditions 130 of temperature and pressure (Patm, 0 °C). The degradation yield was estimated by 131 132 comparing the observed methane production to the theoretical methane production (Table 133 1).

134 **2.3) Microbial analysis**

135 **2.3.1) Sampling**

Digestate samples were collected, in triplicate, at the start of the BMP tests (T0) in order to 136 characterise the initial state of the microbial populations, as well as at two different times 137 138 (T1 and T2) during the anaerobic digestion process. When feasible, the sampling dates were adjusted to occur during either a phase of high methane production in the case of the first 139 140 sampling (T1) or later during a phase of lower methane production in the case of the second 141 sampling time (T2). The specific days of the sampling are indicated in Figure 1. The digestate 142 samples were mixed with two volumes of RNAprotect Bacteria Reagent® (Qiagen, USA), incubated for 5 min at room temperature, and then centrifuged (5 000 x g, 5 min). The 143 144 supernatants were discarded and the pellets were stored at -20 °C for less than two weeks before their transfer to – 80 °C. 145

146 2.3.2) Nucleic acid extraction, reverse transcription of the RNA, and PCR
 147 amplification

Nucleic acid extractions were performed using a Fast RNA® Pro Soil Direct kit (Qiagen, USA), according to the manufacturer's instructions to collect a mixture of RNA and DNA. The DNA and the RNA were then separated using an AllPrep DNA/RNA kit (Qiagen, USA). The absence of DNA in the RNA extracts was verified by PCR followed by 1% agarose gel electrophoresis. RNA reverse transcription was carried out using the instructions provided with the M-MLV reverse transcriptase (Invitrogen[™], USA).

5

154 PCR of the V4-V5 region (nucleotides 515-928) of the 16S rRNA gene (from cDNA and DNA) was performed using AmpliTaq Gold[™] 360 Master Mix (Applied Biosystems, USA) with the 155 following reaction mix: AmpliTaq 1X, 515F primer 0.6 µM (GTGYCAGCMGCCGCGGTA, Wang 156 and Qian, 2009), 928R primer 0.6 µM (ACTYAAAKGAATTGRCGGGG, Wang and Qian, 2009), 157 and cDNA 10 μ L or DNA 1 μ L. The amplification was performed with an initial denaturation 158 step at 95 °C for 10 min, followed by 35 cycles of 30 s at 95 °C, 30 s at 65 °C, and 40 s at 72 159 °C. The amplification reaction ended with a 7-min extension step at 72 °C. The amplification 160 was confirmed by analysis of the reaction mix by 1% agarose gel electrophoresis. 161

162

2.3.2) Sequencing and bioinformatics analyses

163 Amplicons were sequenced by the Get-PlaGe sequencing service (INRA, Toulouse, France) using Illumina MiSeq 250 bp paired-end technology. Bioinformatics processing of the data 164 was performed using the method described by Escudié et al., 2018 on the Galaxy FROGS 165 pipeline (Afgan et al., 2018). After a pre-processing step (merging, denoising, and 166 dereplications of the reads), the sequences were clustered into Operational Taxonomic Units 167 with an aggregation distance of three bases. OTUs containing less than 0.0005% of the total 168 169 sequences were deleted, as were chimeric OTUs. Taxonomic assignments were performed 170 using the Silva database v.128 (Pruesse et al., 2007). The number of sequences per sample 171 was normalized based on the minimum number of sequences per sample found (7744 172 sequences). The sequence data have been deposited in GenBank under accession number PRJNA648017. 173

The statistical analyses were performed using R Studio version 3.2.3 software (http://www.rproject.org). Diversity indices (Richness, Chao, Exponential of Shannon, and Inverse of Simpson) were calculated using Vegan and Bat packages. The differences in the diversity index between the different samples and conditions were tested using the Kruskal-Wallis test. Non-metric distance scaling (NMDS) plots of the community data were generated using the Bray-Curtis distance measures with the Phyloseq and ggplots2 packages. Heatmaps and Venn diagrams were produced using gplots package.

181 3) RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

182 **3.1)** Performances of the anaerobic digestion processes

The methane productions during the anaerobic digestion of the three coffee capsules
(Launay[®], Beanarella[®], and Tintoretto[®]), spent coffee and cellulose, under the mesophilic
(38 °C) and the thermophilic (58 °C) conditions, are represented in Figure 1.

The methane potential of cellulose (positive control) under mesophilic and thermophilic conditions was 315 ± 5 NL (CH₄) kg⁻¹ (VS) and 337 ± 3 NL (CH₄) kg⁻¹ (VS), respectively. Similar values and kinetics have been reported elsewhere for cellulose controls (Hansen et al., 2004; Raposo et al., 2011), thus indicating that the inocula were well-suited to anaerobic digestion under both the thermophilic and the mesophilic conditions.

191 The spent coffee was readily biodegradable, under both the mesophilic and the thermophilic 192 conditions, with almost no lag phase (< 1 day) and a high level of methane production over a period of 15 to 20 days. A similar degradation behaviour was noted under the mesophilic 193 and the thermophilic conditions; the methane potentials were 294 ± 8 NL (CH₄) kg⁻¹ (VS) and 194 $301 \pm 3 \text{ NL}$ (CH₄) kg⁻¹ (VS), respectively, corresponding to a conversion into methane of 195 between 56 and 57% of the spent coffee. The methane production and kinetics from spent 196 coffee were comparable to those of cellulose. The methane potential of spent coffee has 197 198 been previously described, ranging from 240 to 340 NL (CH₄) kg⁻¹ (VS) (Lane, 1983; Neves et 199 al., 2006).

200 The digestion of the biodegradable plastics exhibited very different behaviors under the 201 mesophilic versus the thermophilic conditions. Under the mesophilic conditions, the AD of the three plastics exhibited a long lag phase (almost 25 days) and slow kinetics (Figure 1A), 202 suggesting that the hydrolysis step is limiting and underperforming. Finally, the conversion 203 of the plastics into biogas did not reach completion within the 100-day test period. The 204 methane potential of the Beanarella[®], Launay[®], and Tintoretto[®] samples at the end of the 205 test was 127 ± 1 NL (CH₄) kg⁻¹ (VS), 92 ± 0 NL (CH₄) kg⁻¹ (VS), and 67 ± 3 NL (CH₄) kg⁻¹ (VS), 206 207 respectively. The biodegradability corresponded to $24 \pm 0\%$, $18 \pm 0\%$, and $12 \pm 1\%$ for the Beanarella[®], Launay[®], and Tintoretto[®] samples, respectively. The thermophilic anaerobic 208 209 digestion seems to be more suitable to the treatment of the three biodegradable plastics selected (Figure 1B). The biodegradation kinetics were better, with a shorter lag phase 210 (almost 10 days) and an greater rate of methane production. The methane potentials were 211 reached during the 100-day test period for the three plastics samples. The methane 212 potential of the Beanarella[®], Launay[®], and Tintoretto[®] samples was 308 ± 7 NL (CH₄) kg⁻¹ 213

(VS), $355 \pm 7 \text{ NL}$ (CH₄) kg⁻¹ (VS), and $257 \pm 14 \text{ NL}$ (CH₄) kg⁻¹ (VS), respectively. Digestion of the 214 Beanarella®, Launay®, and Tintoretto® samples exhibited 58 ± 1%, 69 ± 1%, and 47 ± 1% 215 conversion of plastic to methane, respectively. Mater-Bi®, the main constituent of the 216 Tintoretto[®] capsule, has been digested previously in other studies (Calabro et al., 2019; 217 Puechner et al., 1995; Vasmara and Marchetti, 2016). In a similar period (90 days), the 218 degradation of Mater-Bi[®] resulted in 33 L (CH₄) kg⁻¹ (VS) at 35 °C, while it resulted in 267 L 219 (CH₄) kg⁻¹ (VS) at 55 °C in the study by Vasmara and Marchetti (2016); similar methane 220 221 productions were observed for Tintoretto[®] in our study. No data regarding anaerobic digestion of the two other materials (Vegemat[®] and Ecovio[®]) are available in the literature. 222 Most polymers, such as PLA, PCL, poly(butylene adipate-co-terephthalate) (PBAT), and 223 poly(butylene succinate) (PBS), are biodegraded slowly by AD under mesophilic conditions 224 225 (Abou-Zeid et al., 2004; Day et al., 1994; Nunziato et al., 2018; Vargas et al., 2009; Vasmara and Marchetti, 2016; Yagi et al., 2014). For example, in the study by Yagi et al., (2014), only 226 227 between 29 and 49% of the PLA was degraded within 277 days in mesophilic digesters, and 228 the degradation did not reach completion. However, some polymers are biodegraded rapidly 229 even under mesophilic condition, such as PHB, poly(3-hydroxybutyrate) (PHBV), and TPS (Abou-Zeid et al., 2001; Benn and Zitomer, 2018; Greene, 2018; Ryan et al., 2017; Soda et al., 230 231 2016). PHB was reported to degrade between 50 and 80% within 40 days depending on the grade used (Benn and Zitomer, 2018). A difference in efficiency between mesophilic and 232 thermophilic digestion of plastics has already been shown elsewhere (Nunziato et al., 2018; 233 234 Vargas et al., 2009; Vasmara and Marchetti, 2016; Yagi et al., 2014, 2013).

235 Higher level of plastic conversion in methane were observed in thermophilic condition 236 (between 47 and 69%) than in mesophilic condition (between 12 and 24%) in 100 days. 237 There are two possible explanation for this. Firstly, the thermophilic condition (58°C) provides more favorable environmental conditions for the degradation of plastics than the 238 mesophilic condition (38 °C). When the temperature rises and approaches the glass 239 transition temperature of a polymer, this polymer becomes more accessible to 240 microorganisms and makes it easier to degrade. (Shi and Palfery, 2010). Secondly, the 241 242 microbial composition of thermophilic and mesophilic inoculum is different. The microorganisms present in thermophilic reactors could be more efficient to degrade 243 244 biodegradable plastics than mesophilic ones.

245 During the mesophilic and the thermophilic anaerobic digestion of spent coffee and coffee capsules, the digestates were sampled at two different times for microbial analysis, as 246 described in Figure 1. For the thermophilic condition, the sampling was carried out in two 247 distinct phases. The first sampling took place during a high methane production phase; the 248 methane production rate was between 10.8 and 12.5 NL (CH₄) kg⁻¹ (VS) day⁻¹ for the coffee 249 capsules. At the second sampling time, the methane production rate was much lower 250 (between 1.2 and 3.3 NL (CH₄) kg⁻¹ (VS) day⁻¹). Due to the low efficacy of mesophilic 251 252 anaerobic digestion of plastics, both of the samplings took place during a low methane production phase. The methane production rate was between 0.8 and 2.1 NL (CH₄) kg^{-1} (VS) 253 day⁻¹ for the various plastics. 254

255

3.2) Sequence data analysis, community diversity indices, and beta diversity

The microbial community composition was evaluated by amplicon sequencing of the 16 257 rRNA transcripts and the 16S rRNA gene in order to compare the active and the total 258 259 microbial community. Samples collected in triplicate at the different sampling times (T0, T1, 260 and T2) and under both the mesophilic and the thermophilic conditions were analyzed by 261 amplicon sequencing of the 16S rRNA transcripts. The digestates sampled at the initial and 262 the final sampling time (T0 and T2) were analyzed by amplicon sequencing of the 16S rRNA gene only. A total of 650 496 sequences were collected after normalization (7 744 sequences 263 per sample). Almost 96.3% of the total sequences were assigned to the bacterial domain, 264 while the remaining 3.7% could be assigned to the archaeal domain. Similar 265 Bacterial/Archaea ratios have been reported previously in the literature (Guo et al., 2015; 266 Moset et al., 2015; Sundberg et al., 2013; Yang et al., 2014). For instance, Sundberg et al., 267 2013 reported an average bacterial abundance of 95% of the total sequences during the 268 269 examination of the microbial community composition of 21 full-scale anaerobic digesters.

A comparison of the alpha diversity indices from the analysis of the 16S rRNA gene and transcripts is shown in Table 2. The first analysis focused on the total microbial population (DNA-based analysis) while the second one shows the active microbial community (RNAbased analysis). Lower diversity was observed in the RNA-based analysis compared to the DNA-based analysis, as expected. Similarly, lower diversity indices were observed for the thermophilic samples than for the mesophilic ones, as reported previously (Azizi et al., 2016; Levén et al., 2007; Li et al., 2015; Sekiguchi et al., 1998; Sundberg et al., 2013). The low values of the composite indices (exponential of Shanon and inverse of Simpson) compared to the richness indices (number of OTU and Chao1) indicate a highly uneven distribution of the populations in the different samples. This highlights a paucity of dominant OTUs (with a high number of sequences) and a high number of rare OTUs (with a low number of sequences).

282 Non-metric distance scaling based on the Bray-Curtis index was performed to examine the 283 beta diversity of all of the samples collected from both the mesophilic and the thermophilic digesters over time, and for the digestion of the different substrates (Figure 2). The first 284 285 NMDS (Figure 2A), on the entire data set, distinguished microbial communities from the mesophilic and the thermophilic reactors. The temperature was been shown to be one of 286 287 the most important parameters driving the microbial community composition of anaerobic digesters (Azizi et al., 2016; Sundberg et al., 2013). In the same way, the microbial 288 289 communities from the DNA-based and the RNA-based analysis were clearly separated. The 290 analysis of the 16s rRNA transcripts revealed a different microbial community structure than 291 that of the 16S rRNA gene, thus showing the relevance of studying RNA (De Vrieze et al., 2018). For this reason, the RNA-based analysis will be discussed in more detail below. The 292 293 other two NMDS (Figure 2 B and C) focused on the thermophilic and the mesophilic samples based on RNA analysis. With the thermophilic condition, the microbial communities of the 294 reactors digesting plastics (Beanarella®, Launay®, and Tintoretto®) were clustered together 295 296 at the first sampling time, and they shared a similar microbial composition structure. On the 297 other hand, at the second sampling time, a number of big differences were noted between 298 the communities from the reactors digesting the different plastic samples. In particular, the communities of the Beanarella® reactors were very different from those of the Launay® and 299 the Tintoretto® reactors. The difference in activity between T1 and T2 could explain this 300 301 shift. At the first sampling time, the measured methane production was high, while it was quite low at the second sampling time (see 3.1). Thus, one could expect to find more 302 303 bacteria involved in the hydrolysis and fermentation of the substrate being active at the first 304 sampling time than at the second. Similarly, different community compositions were 305 observed for reactors with spent coffee grounds at the first and the second sampling time,

306 under either the mesophilic or the thermophilic condition. However, the digestion of the 307 plastic samples under mesophilic conditions was inefficient and no differences in methane 308 production were observed between the first and the second sampling time. This led to very 309 similar active microbial populations at the two sampling times from the mesophilic reactors 310 digesting the different plastic samples.

311

3.3) Distribution of the main phylum

Twelve major phyla (represented by more than 1% of the total sequences each in at least one sample) were observed in the mesophilic reactors (Figure 3). As described above, the thermophilic reactors were less diverse; sequences could only be assigned to eight major phyla (Figure 5).

316 **3.3.1) Archaea**

317 Methanogenesis, the final step of the anaerobic digestion resulting in the production of methane, is exclusively due to the Archaea. Euryarchaeota was the major phylum of the 318 archaeal domain, representing 99.5 and 100% of the total archaea sequences in the 319 mesophilic and the thermophilic digesters, respectively. Bathyarchaeota represented 0.5% 320 of the archaeal sequences found in the mesophilic digesters. The abundance of the 321 *Euryarchaeota* phylum in the inocula was quite low: 0.4% and 0.6% of the total sequences, in 322 the mesophilic and thermophilic inocula, respectively. The low abundance of active archaea 323 at the beginning of the BMP test (T0) could be explained by the fact that the inocula were 324 325 exhausted before their use (they were not fed) in order to lower the endogenous methane production (Figures 3 and 5). The active Euryarchaeota increased during the digestion of the 326 327 compounds (spent coffee or plastics) to between 1% and 11% of the total sequences (Figures 3 and 5). At the genus level, Methanothermobacter and Methanoculleus dominated the 328 thermophilic digesters, representing 67.5 and 27.6% of the total archaeal sequences, 329 respectively. Methanothermobacter was the most abundant archaea in the plastic-fed 330 digesters at 58 °C, while it was Methanoculleus in the coffee-fed reactors. Similarly, 331 332 Methanoculleus and Methanosaeta were dominant in the mesophilic condition, at 55.7 and 333 29.4% of the total archaeal sequences, respectively. *Methanosaeta* were predominant in the 334 digesters fed with spent coffee, and Methanoculleus in the plastic-fed reactors, at 38 °C.

335 Except for members of the Methanosarcina genus, which are able to perform all three pathways of methane production (De Vrieze et al., 2012); all the archaeal genera found here 336 could be assigned to a specific methane production pathway. Most of the archaeal 337 sequences could be attributed to hydrogenotrophic methanogens genera. Under the 338 339 thermophilic conditions, hydrogenotrophic methanogens (Methanoculleus, 340 Methanothermobacter, and Methanobacterium) represented 96.7% of the archaeal methanogens represented 341 sequences. Acetoclastic 0.1% (Methanosaeta) and 342 methylotrophic methanogens 1.6% (Methanosillicoccus). Methanosarcina accounted for 1.6% of all of the archaeal sequences. In the mesophilic reactors, the dominance of 343 hydrogenotrophic methanogens (Methanoculleus, Methanospirillium, Methanobacterium, 344 and *Methanothermobacter*) was less pronounced, at 69.4% of all of the archaeal sequences. 345 346 Acetoclastic methanogens (Methanosaeta) accounted for 29.4% of the archaeal sequences. Similarly, methylotrophic methanogens (Methanomasillicoccus) accounted for 1.1% of under 347 348 the mesophilic conditions.

349 A dominance of hydrogenotrophic methanogens is common in many thermophilic anaerobic 350 digesters (Goberna et al., 2009; Hori et al., 2006; Krakat et al., 2010; Sasaki et al., 2011; 351 Sundberg et al., 2013). A number of recent studies have shown that an increase in temperature correlated with a growing abundance of hydrogenotrophic methanogens (Liu et 352 353 al., 2018; Pap et al., 2015). Hydrogenotrophic dominance is less common in mesophilic digesters, although it has been reported in the literature (Sundberg et al., 2013; Wirth et al., 354 2012; Zhu et al., 2011). Several parameters such as temperature, a change in substrate 355 composition, and a high concentration of ammonia or volatile fatty acids have been shown 356 357 to favor the development of hydrogenotrophic microorganisms (De Vrieze et al., 2012; 358 Sasaki et al., 2011; Schnürer and Nordberg, 2008). This situation was supported by the high 359 abundance of acetate-oxidizing bacteria able to engage in a syntrophic partnership with hydrogenotrophic methanogens, such as Tepidanaerobacter, Thermacetogenium, and 360 *Tepidanaerobacter* (Hattori et al., 2000; Westerholm et al., 2011). 361

- 362 **3.3.2) Bacteria:**
- a) Mesophilic condition

364 The *Bacteroidetes* phylum was predominant in the initial inoculum, representing 61% of the 365 sample sequences, with Firmicutes (16%) and Chloroflexi (13%) being the other two major phyla. The Bacteroidetes phylum decreased during the anaerobic digestion, although it 366 remained the most abundant phylum in each reactor (between 25% and 58% of the 367 368 sequences of the samples). The digestion of the compounds (spent coffee or plastics) also 369 pointed to an increase in abundance of the *Proteobacteria* and *Synergistetes*. Interestingly, the Sprichaetae phylum was only abundant in the reactor with spent coffee grounds at the 370 first sampling time (19%), while it was found in low abundance at the second sampling time 371 372 and in the reactors with plastics (between 0.1 and 0.7%). Most of these OTU (97%) were attributed to the genus Treponema. Some Treponema species have been reported to be 373 374 homoacetogens (Graber et al., 2004; Zhang et al., 2009) while others are hydrolytic bacteria, 375 such as Treponema amylovorum, which, for example, are able to degrade starch (Wyss et al., 1997). 376

377 As seen in the NMDS representation (Figure 2), the microbial community composition of the 378 plastic-fed reactors was very close for the same sampling time. At the phylum level, a similar 379 profile was observed (Figure 3), with a dominance of *Bacteroidetes, Firmicutes, Chloroflexi*, 380 and Proteobacteria. The methane production resulting from the digestion of the biodegradable plastic was not significantly different between the first and the second 381 sampling time, which may explain the low variation of the phyla profile. As a result, the 382 microbial community compositions of T1 and T2 were very similar, with the exception of a 383 decrease in Bacteroidetes and a slight increase in Proteobacteria and other minor phyla (as 384 Fibrobacterales and Synergistetes). Similarly, no notable differences were seen in the 385 386 distribution of the 20 most abundant genera (Figure 4). Thus, these analyses did reveal OTUs specific for the degradation of plastic in anaerobic media, which may be due to the lack of 387 388 efficacy of the mesophilic process. No previously known taxa participating in the anaerobic digestion of biodegradable plastic were found in the mesophilic reactors (Venkiteshwaran et 389 390 al., 2019; Yagi et al., 2014)

391 b) Thermophilic condition

Bacteroidetes was the predominant phylum initially (accounting for 49% of the sample sequences) in the inoculum, followed by *Thermotogae* (27%) and *Firmicutes* (22%). However, during the digestion (of the various plastics and the spent coffee), *Firmicutes* became 395 predominant, representing between 55% and 84% of the sequences. The digestion was also marked by a pronounced decrease in the abundance of *Bacteroidetes*, dropping from 49% of 396 the sequences in the inoculum to less than 8% in the reactors treating the various 397 substrates. By contrast, Synergistetes increased from 1% in the inoculum to between 2 and 398 19% in the reactors. Interestingly, a high abundance of Thermotogae (37%) was found at the 399 400 first sampling time for the reactor with spent coffee (Figure 5), while they were found at low abundance (between 2 and 9%) elsewhere (in other reactors and at the second sampling 401 402 time for the reactor with coffee). All of the sequences belonging to the phylum *Thermotogae* 403 could be attributed to the genus Defluviitoga (Figure 6). Defluviitoga are well-known bacteria involved in thermophilic hydrolysis and fermentation of a large diversity of 404 monosaccharides, disaccharides, and polysaccharides including cellulose and xylan (Ben 405 406 Hania et al., 2012; Li et al., 2019; Maus et al., 2016).

407 As described above, at the first sampling time, the microbial community composition of the thermophilic reactors treating the various plastic samples was very similar (Figure 5). 408 409 Firmicutes (77-84%) and Synergistetes (5-9%) dominated the microbial community of those 410 reactors. However, a number of differences were observed at the second sampling time on 411 the NMDS and on the repartition at the phylum level (Figures 5 and 6). The digestion of Beanarella® and Tintoretto® resulted in a quite high amount of *Bacteroidetes* (8% and 5%, 412 respectively), while digestion of Launay[®] capsules led to a low degree of development of this 413 phylum (0.4%). Similarly, the digestion of Tintoretto[®] was marked by a high abundance of 414 415 sequences attributed to Proteobacteria (6.5%), while they were very low for the other two plastics (0.3-0.7%). These Proteobacteria were mostly attributed to Alpha-proteobacteria, 416 417 and more specifically to the Phyllobacteriaceae family. Most of the time, species of 418 Phyllobacteriaceae are found in aerobic plant-associated environments, although they have 419 also been identified in anaerobic digestion media (Guo et al., 2015; Willems, 2014).

At the first sampling time, the measured methane production was high, while it was quite low at the second sampling time (**see 3.1**). Thus, one could expect to find more bacteria involved in the hydrolysis of the substrate and its transformation to methane at the first sampling time than at the second sampling time. At this time point, the phylum Firmicutes dominated both reactors fed with plastics and spent coffee grounds. These Firmicutes corresponded to different genera depending on whether they came from reactors with 426 spent coffee or biodegradable plastics (Figure 6). For the digesters fed with spent coffee, 427 most of the Firmicutes sequences belonged to the genus Ruminiclostridium (14% of sample sequences) and Coprothermobacter (15% of the sample sequences). Species of the 428 Ruminiclostridium genus are often found in rumen or other anaerobic media and they 429 exhibit lignocellulolytic activity (Ravachol et al., 2015; Zhang et al., 2018). Members of the 430 431 *Coprothermobacter* genus are known to be anaerobic and thermophilic microorganisms with a proteolytic activity (Pavan et al., 2018). For the digesters fed with plastics, most of the 432 Firmicutes sequences belonged to the genus Tepidimicrobium (42% of the sample 433 434 sequences). Figure 6, representing the 20 most abundant OTU at the genus level observed in the thermophilic digesters fed with plastics, highlights the high abundance of 435 Tepidimicrobium at the first sampling time (when the biodegradation of the plastic was 436 437 active). By contrast, the *Tepidimicrobium* abundance was very low at the second sampling time (when the biodegradation of the plastic was low). This suggests that Tepidimicrobium 438 439 sp. may have a significant role during the degradation of biodegradable plastics. Only two species of this genus have been described, Tepidimicrobium ferriphilum (Slobodkin, 2006) 440 441 and Tepidimicrobium xylanilyticum (Niu et al., 2009). The first one was isolated from a freshwater hot spring and the second one from a thermophilic anaerobic digester treating 442 443 municipal solid waste and sewage. The Tepidimicrobium xylanilyticum isolated from an anaerobic digester was able to grow on a variety of carbohydrates (xylan, xylose, glucose, 444 cellobiose, etc.) and on a number of proteinaceous compounds. It has been reported that 445 446 Tepidimicrobium xylanilyticum cannot use starch as a substrate (Niu et al., 2009), which we 447 believe is one of the components of Launay® and Tintoretto® coffee capsules. Members of 448 the Tepidimicrobium genus found in the reactors fed with plastic may be involved in the degradation of polyesters, such as PLA, PBAT, or PCL. Moreover, Tepidimicrobium 449 450 xylanilyticum was identified by Tseng et al. (2019) in an anaerobic digester treating PLA or 451 lactic acid under thermophilic conditions. Subsequently, Tseng et al. (2020) isolated and 452 characterized one strain of T. xylanilyticum from this digester. Contrary to the type strain of T. xylanilyticum, that strain was able to consume lactate and could produce H₂, CO₂ and 453 454 acetate. They also found out that the accumulation of lactate inhibited the physicochemical 455 depolymerisation of PLA in lactate. More studies on Tepidimicrobium is crucial for gaining a better understanding of their involvement in the biodegradation of other biodegradable 456 457 polymers.

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460 **<u>4) CONCLUSION:</u>**

461 The digestion of the three biodegradable coffee capsules was much more efficient under the thermophilic than under the mesophilic conditions. The methane potential at 100 days, at 462 463 the mesophilic temperature, ranged between 67 and 127 NL (CH4) kg-1 (VS), while it ranged between 257 and 294 NL (CH4) kg-1 (VS) at the thermophilic temperature. 464 Hydrogenotrophic methanogens were predominant in the plastic-fed reactors, at both 465 operating temperatures. The microbial populations from the reactors fed with plastics 466 467 versus spent coffee grounds were significantly different, under both the mesophilic and the thermophilic conditions. At the level of the main OTUs, at the same sampling time and at the 468 same operational temperature, the populations coming from the reactors fed with the 469 470 different plastics were only slightly different. Most of the differences between these 471 populations were due to rare OTUs. The *Tepidimicrobium* genus was found to be dominant in the thermophilic digesters fed with biodegradable plastics during the high methane 472 473 production phase. This genus may have a significant role during the biodegradation of the biodegradable plastics under thermophilic conditions. To extend the findings of this study, 474 475 the microbial community composition and the dynamics of continuous anaerobic digestion pilot-fed with plastics and other organic wastes will be assessed in order to determine the 476 477 performance and stability of the process.

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TABLE and FIGURE CAPTIONS

Table 1: The main characteristics of the samples (inocula and substrates) used in this study.

Figure 1: The mean cumulative methane production (NL (CH₄) kg⁻¹ (VS)) in the mesophilic digesters (38 °C, **A**) and the thermophilic digesters (58 °C, **B**). The error bars represent the standard deviations of the biological replicates. The arrows indicate the times at which the samplings for the microbial community analyses were conducted. The colour of the arrows indicates whether the sampling was done on plastic-fed digesters (red arrows) or on digesters fed with spent coffee grounds (blue arrows).

Table 2: Alpha diversity indices of the mesophilic and the thermophilic samples from amplicon sequencing of the 16S rRNA gene (DNA-based) and transcripts (RNA-based) analyses (Hill numbers).

Figure 2: Non-metric distance scaling (NMDS) analysis of the Bray-Curtis distance indices for the microbial communities at the OTU level of the entire data set **(A)**, of RNA from the mesophilic digesters **(B)** and the RNA from the thermophilic digesters **(C)**. The inocula (T0) are represented as squares, the first session of sampling (T1) as dots, and the second session (T2) as triangles. The different plastics at the first session of sampling are grouped as T1 plastics because their microbial populations were very close.

Figure 3: The main bacterial and archaeal phyla (representing more than 1% of the total sequences in at least one sample) observed in the mesophilic digesters. Phyla with an abundance of less than 5% are not labelled.

Figure 4: Heatmap of the 20 most abundant genera observed in the mesophilic digesters. The legend shows the relative abundances. The sample clusterization is on the top of the heatmap and the evolutionary dendrogram of the OTU at the right of the heatmap.

Figure 5: The main bacterial and archaeal phyla (representing more than 1% of the total sequences in at least one sample) observed in the thermophilic digesters. Phyla with an abundance of less than 5% are not labelled.

Figure 6: Heatmap of the 20 most abundant genera observed in the thermophilic digesters. The legend shows the relative abundances. The sample clusterization is on the top of the heatmap and the evolutionary dendrogram of the OTU at the right of the heatmap.









Methanomicrobiaceae: Methanoculleus Methanosaetaceae; Methanosaeta Thermoanaerobacteraceae; Gelria Thermoanaerobacteraceae; Gelria Synergistaceae; Anaerobaculum Bacteria; Multi-affiliation Clostridia; MBA03; unknown family Anaerolineaceae; unknown genus Syntrophaceae; Smithella Desulfobulbaceae; Desulfobulbus Fibrobacterales; possible family 01 Spirochaetaceae; Treponema Lentimicrobiaceae: unknown genus Lentimicrobiaceae; Lentimicrobium Porphyromonadaceae; Proteiniphilum Porphyromonadaceae; Proteiniphilum Marinilabiaceae: Ruminofilibacter Sphingobacteriales; ST-12K33; unknown genus Rikenellaceae; vadinBC27 wastewater-sludge group Rikenellaceae; vadinBC27 wastewater-sludge group







Methanomicrobiaceae: Methanoculleus Methanobacteriaceae; Methanothermobacter Firmicutes; BSA1B-03; unknown order Peptococcaceae; unknown genus Clostridia; unknown order Ruminococcaceae; Ruminiclostridium Clostridiales; Family XI; Tepidimicrobium Synergistaceae; Anaerobaculum Thermoanaerobacteraceae; Syntrophaceticus Thermoanaerobacteraceae; Syntrophaceticus Clostridia; MBA03; unknown family Limnochordaceae; unknown genus Limnochordaceae; unknown genus Limnochordales; unknown family Clostridia; D8A-2; unknown family Heliobacteriaceae; Hydrogenispora Thermodesulfobiaceae; Coprothermobacter Atribacteria Incertae Sedis; unknown order Lentimicrobiaceae; unknown genus Petrotogaceae; Defluviitoga



Samples	TS (% raw mass)	VS (% raw mass)	Ash (% raw mass)	рН	C (% dry mass)	H (% dry mass)	N (% dry mass)	S (% dry mass)	O (% dry mass)	Theoretical methane potential (NL (CH4) kg ⁻¹ (VS))
Beanarella®	99.8 ± 0	70.6 ± 0.1	29.2 ± 0.1	-	37.7 ±0	4.4 ±0.3	0 ± 0	0 ± 0	28.6	531
Launay [®]	99.7 ± 0	94.1 ± 0	5.6 ± 0	-	49.7 ±0	5.8 ±0	0 ± 0	0.4 ±0.2	38.5	518
Tintoretto®	99.8 ± 0	98.4 ± 0	1.4 ± 0	-	54 ±0	6.1 ±0	0 ± 0	0.2 ±0.0	38.4	546
Spent coffee	95.3 ± 0.1	90.9 ± 0.1	4.4 ± 0.1	-	48.9 ± 0.3	6.7 ± 0.1	2.8 ± 0.1	0.3 ± 0.01	36.5	524
Mesophilic inoculum	3.9 ± 0	2.6 ± 0.2	1.3± 0.2	7.59	-	-	-	-	-	-
Thermophilic inoculum	3.7 ± 0.1	2.5 ± 0.3	1.3 ± 0.3	8.02	-	-	-	-	-	-

Methane production and active microbial communities during anaerobic digestion of three commercial biodegradable coffee capsules under mesophilic and thermophilic conditions

G. Cazaudehore, F. Monlau, C. Gassie, A. Lallement and R. Guyoneaud

Graphical abstract

