

Evidence of coupled autotrophy and heterotrophy on plastic biofilms and its influence on surrounding seawater

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1 **Title:**

Evidence of coupled autotrophy and heterotrophy on plastic biofilmsand its influence on surrounding seawaters

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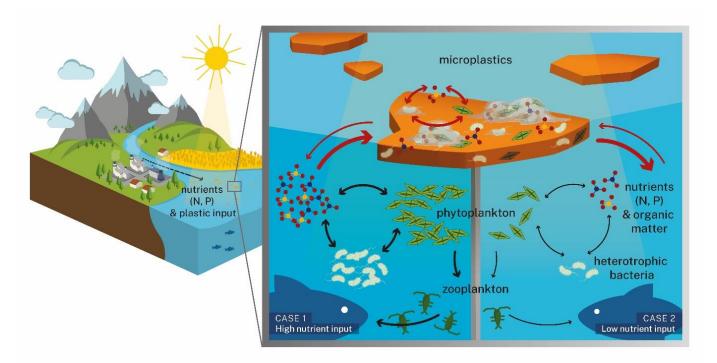
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30 Graphical Abstract



35 Abstract

36 We measured phytoplankton primary production and heterotrophic bacterial activities on 37 microplastics and seawater in the Northwestern Mediterranean sea during two 3-month spring periods over consecutive years. Microorganisms growing on a 5 mm diameter low density 38 polyethylene (LDPE) film (200 µm thick) were faced with two contrasting conditions from one 39 40 year to the next. Spring 2018 was characterized by consistent nutrient inputs and bloom 41 development. In spring 2019, nutrient inputs and bloom were low. For the first time, we 42 observed a clear coupling between primary production and heterotrophic prokaryote production 43 on microplastics during both years, but with different intensity between years that reflected the 44 crucial role of the trophic environmental conditions (nutrient supply) in shaping microbial 45 activities on plastics. Indeed, we proved that high primary production on plastics could support the whole (net autotrophy) or the majority of the bacterial carbon demand needed for 46 47 heterotrophic activities, supplemented by other carbon sources if surrounding waters are highly 48 productive. We also propose that microbial activity on plastics influence the microbial 49 community in the surrounding seawaters, especially when the environmental conditions are less 50 favorable. An illustrative image of the role of plastics in the environment could be that of an 51 electrical inverter in a circuit that allows for the attenuation of both positive and negative 52 variations. Our results highlight the potential role played by the plastisphere shaping 53 biogeochemical cycles in a context of an increasing amount of plastic particles in the marine 54 environment.

56 Introduction

57 The growing use of plastic worldwide together with waste mismanagement resulted in an estimated of 24.4 trillion plastic particles floating in the world's oceans, which majority has a 58 59 particle-size <5 mm, the so-called microplastics, discharged mainly from rivers (Isobe et al., 60 2021; Weiss et al., 2021). Indeed, the introduction of microplastics into the aquatic ecosystems 61 is mainly related to domestic runoff that contains microbeads and fragments of microplastics 62 (used in cosmetics and other consumer products) and also to the fragmentation of large plastic waste. Plastic manufacturing industries and coastal activities (fishing, aquatic tourism...) are 63 64 also sources of microplastic pollution in the marine ecosystems (Subhankar and Shivika, 2019). 65 The emissions of microplastic are estimated to increase, even under the most optimistic scenarios (Borrelle et al., 2020). This pollution is considered "poorly reversible" with potential 66 67 impacts including changes to the carbon and nutrient cycles, co-occurring biological impacts 68 on endangered or keystone species, ecotoxicity and other related societal impacts (MacLeod et 69 al., 2021).

70 Once in the marine environment, plastics are rapidly colonized by microorganisms, 71 forming the so-called plastisphere (Zettler et al., 2013), and interact with the overall ecosystem 72 depending on their size (PVC panels of 5×5 cm or 15×3.5 cm for Catão et al., 2019; Nano-73 to Micro-plastics for Ter Halle and Ghiglione, 2021). Most of the studies so far revealed a large 74 diversity and a clear niche partitioning among marine bacteria living on plastics compared to 75 the free-living (Crisafi et al., 2022; Debroas et al., 2017; Zettler et al., 2013) and organic 76 particle-attached fractions (Dussud et al., 2018b; Oberbeckmann et al., 2018). Autotrophic 77 microorganisms such as cyanobacteria and diatoms have been shown to be particularly over-78 represented in microplastics, suggesting the potentially high impact on the global pelagic 79 primary production and more generally on the carbon and nitrogen biogeochemical cycles in 80 the surface oceans (Amaral-Zettler et al., 2020; Crisafi et al., 2022; Dussud et al., 2018b; Nava

81 and Leoni, 2021). Because plastic debris offer an abundant growth matrix for microalgae while 82 limiting predation pressure by zooplankton (Kong and Koelmans, 2019), it has been proposed 83 that plastic pollution can promote significant proliferations of microalgae, with consequent 84 harmful effects for aquatic ecosystems already disturbed by eutrophication processes (Durrieu 85 de Madron et al., 2011; Zhang et al., 2020). Moreover, processes involved in the nitrogen 86 (nitrogen fixation, ammonia and nitrite oxidation, denitrification) and phosphorus cycling (P 87 accumulation, alkaline phosphatase activity) are overexpressed in the plastisphere, which can 88 modify the nutrient concentration in the surrounding seawater and thus indirectly affect primary 89 producers (Chen et al., 2020). For instance, plastics may represent net autotrophic hot spots in 90 the oligotrophic ocean, with high density of chlorophyll a and high oxygen production (Bryant 91 et al., 2016). Despite growing interest on the plastisphere influence on ecosystem functions, 92 direct measurements on microbial activities remain scarce. Some studies found also high 93 heterotrophic prokaryotic production (Dussud et al., 2018b; Odobel et al., 2021) and 94 ectoenzyme activities (Odobel et al., 2021) on plastics. It is surprising that primary production 95 in the plastisphere was never recorded in marine ecosystems. Both primary production and 96 heterotrophic activities play a key role in the carbon cycle. The former participating in about 97 half of global primary production (Behrenfeld and Falkowski, 1997), and the latter channeling 98 half of the oceanic primary production through the microbial loop (Del Giorgio and Cole, 2000). 99 A recent review underlined the need of coupling primary production and heterotrophic activities 100 to evaluate the potential role of the plastisphere on carbon cycling in the oceans (Jacquin et al., 101 2019). In oceanic systems, the supply of organic matter from autochthonous (autotrophic) or 102 allochthonous (heterotrophic) primary production is mainly dependent on nitrogen and 103 phosphorus availability and will defined the trophic status of these ecosystems, and in turn, the 104 potential coupling between phytoplankton and bacteria (Dodds and Cole, 2007). Finally, the 105 characterization of the trophic state is necessary for understanding food web linkages as well106 as biogeochemical features and subsequently water quality, including human influence.

107 Our study provides the first measurements to our knowledge of the marine plastisphere 108 primary production together with bacterial heterotrophic activities over time. We hypothesize 109 that natural environmental factors (such as temperature, salinity, nutrient availability...) play a 110 major role in plastisphere activities, thus influencing the net autotrophy vs. heterotrophy 111 budgets over time. More precisely, trophic links within the niche created by the plastisphere 112 would be strengthened when external conditions become less favorable (i.e. meso vs 113 oligotrophic). Polyethylene-based microplastics were incubated in natural seawater for two 3-114 month periods, including a classical spring phytoplanktonic bloom event that occurs every year 115 at the long-term SOLA marine observatory station (NW Mediterranean Sea, France). The 116 experiments revealed a clear link between autotrophic and heterotrophic productions of the 117 plastisphere over time, as well as a possible influence of the microbial activities on 118 microplastics in surrounding seawaters.

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121 **2. Material and methods**

122 **2.1.** Experimental conditions during 3 months in two following years

We incubated 200 circular pieces of polyethylene of 5 mm diameter and 200 μm thickness
(LD-PE, Borealis, ref. FA6224, Austria) in a 50 L aquarium with direct circulation to the sea.
The incubation was repeated twice at one year interval: the first incubation was performed from
12 February to 7 May 2018 (44th to 127th day of the year, here after D44-127¹; period of 85
days) and the second incubation was performed from 19 February to 8 May 2019 (D50-133;

¹ D1 correspond to the 1st January with this time scale

period of 91 days). Each plastic piece was first sterilized with 70% ethanol and rinsed 3-times with sterile seawater before incubation. The aquarium was placed outside with natural light conditions, and covered by a transparent screen. Seawater circulating through the aquarium was pumped from 4 m depth and 30 m from the coast in the Banyuls bay (NW Mediterranean Sea, France) and the seawater flow rate in the aquarium was ~5 L per hour.

Triplicate plastic pieces were sampled 12 times during each experiment with sterile forceps at each sampling time (*i.e.* D44, D46, D50, D53, D57, D60, D72, D79, D85, D99, D113, D127 for 2018 and D50, D57, D64, D72, D86, D93, D100, D106, D114, D120, D126, D133 for 2019). In parallel, 3 L of seawater were sampled in a sterilized glass vial at the same sampling days from the aquarium or at the SOLA marine observatory located at 0.5 nautical miles from the coast in the Banyuls Bay (42°29'300 N; 03°08'700 E).

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40 **2.2** Heterotrophic bacterial production

141 Heterotrophic bacterial production was measured in triplicate on each plastic and 142 seawater sample at each sampling time by the ³H-leucine incorporation into proteins method, 143 as previously described in Dussud et al. (2018b). Briefly, the plastic pieces were transferred 144 into 1.5 mL of sterilized seawater and a soft cell detachment pre-treatment was applied for each 145 sample consisting in 3 cycles of 1 minute vortexing followed by 3 minutes in an ultrasound 146 bath. This pre-treatment greatly improves the signal, especially in the case of mature biofilms 147 (Dussud et al., 2018b). Immediately after cell-detachment, ³H-leucine (specific activity 4.2 x 10¹² Bq.mmol⁻¹; Perkin Elmer) was added at a final concentration of 0.9975 x 10⁻⁹ mol.L⁻¹ 148 (completed with cold leucine to 1.49 x 10⁻⁷ mol.L⁻¹). A same ³H-leucine concentration of 3.97 149 x 10^{-9} mol.L⁻¹ (completed with cold leucine to 3.6 x 10^{-8} mol.L⁻¹) was used for seawater from 150 151 the aquarium and from the SOLA marine station. No cell detachment pretreatment was used for 152 seawater samples, since Dussud et al. (2018b) showed that did not influence the signal for free153 living bacteria in seawater. All samples were incubated in the dark at 18°C for 2-3 h. The 154 theoretical conversion factor of 1.55 ngC.pmol⁻¹ of incorporated leucine was used to calculate 155 heterotrophic bacterial production (Simon and Azam, 1989). Data were normalized for 156 microplastics with blank values according to Dussud et al. (2018b).

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158 **2.3 Primary production**

Primary production (PP) was measured using a modified protocol of the radioactive ¹⁴C 159 160 tracer technique (Fitzwater et al., 1982). Measurements were carried out in triplicate. One 161 plastic piece was transferred in 10 mL of sterilized seawater. The same volume was taken for 162 seawater from the aquarium and from the SOLA marine station. Each sample was inoculated with Na₂H¹⁴CO₃ (final activity of 18.5 kBq.mL⁻¹). The introduced quantity was measured by 163 164 mixing 100 µL ethanolamine to 100 µL of inoculated sample and 10 mL of scintillation cocktail 165 Ultima Gold uLLT. The samples were placed for 5 to 8 h in a thermic and light regulated incubator (14 to $18^{\circ}C - 500$ to 2000 μ E.m⁻².s⁻¹ according to the season). Plastics were isolated 166 167 and acidified with 6 N HCl and dried during 8 h at 50 °C. Seawater samples were acidified with 168 6N HCl (final pH = 2) and agitated, lid open, for at least 12 h at 130 rpm and then mixed with 169 scintillation cocktail during 4 hours before measuring radioactivity with the scintillation counter 170 300 SL Hidex.

The percentage of carbon originating from the extracellular release (ER) that is theoretically available for bacterial heterotrophic activity was calculated as previously described in Van Wambeke et al. (2002). Briefly, the theoretical ER associated to the autotrophic carbon fixation was calculated for a range of 5 and 20% of the PP to cover at least 90% of the wide range of all values found in the literature (Conan et al., 1999). It has been compared to the minimal and maximal theoretical bacterial carbon demand (BCD) ranging from 1 to 25% of the ER (review in Van Wambeke et al., 2002). Comparison between microbial activities on microplastic and in the seawater was calculated by integrating their respective dynamics over the 3 monthssampling periods in 2018 and 2019.

180

181 **2.4 Environmental parameters**

182 Temperature, salinity, nutrients and chlorophyll *a* were measured in the aquarium with 183 direct circulation to the sea and at the SOLA marine observatory station all along both 3-month 184 incubations. Temperature, salinity and fluorescence were continuously recorded with a CTD 185 probe (Seabird SBE16+) equipped with a fluorimeter (ECO FLNTU WETLab). All chemical 186 measurements were carried out following standard procedures defined by SOMLIT protocols 187 (www.somlit.fr/parametres-et-protocoles/). Briefly, ammonium was detected at nanomolar 188 concentrations by fluorimetric detection according to Holmes et al. (1999) using a Turner 189 Designs Trilogy fluorimeter. Nitrate, nitrite and phosphate concentrations were simultaneously 190 measured in 10 mL of sample, on a continuous flow Autoanalyser III Seal-Bran&Luebbe 191 (Aminot and Kérouel, 2007). For Chlorophyll a, 250 mL samples were filtered using pre-192 combusted 25 mm diameter Whatman® GFF filters (~0.4-0.7 µm porosity). Concentrations 193 were determined by fluorimetry (Lorenzen, 1966) on a turner design Trilogy fluorimeter.

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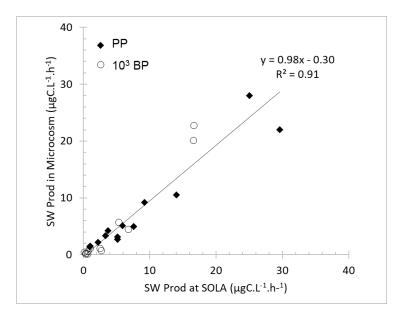
195 **2.5 Statistical analysis**

All statistical and graphical analyses as well as application condition checks wereperformed using StatEL software v3 for excel (www.adscience.fr).

3.1 Representativeness of aquarium with circulating seawater compared to *in situ* conditions

We measured the temporal evolution of several environmental parameters in order to test that the experimental setup in the 50 L aquarium with continuous circulating seawater originating from the bay of Banyuls (flow rate of ~5.0 L per hour) was representative of the *in situ* conditions classically observed at the coastal observatory marine station (SOLA located in the Banyuls bay). We found significant correlations for all parameters (R>0.78, p<0.05) between our experimental aquaria and the natural seawater in both experiments performed in 2018 and 2019.

In particular, we compared the primary production (PP) and heterotrophic bacterial production (BP) in the aquarium with continuous seawater circulation and the measurements carried out with water sampled at SOLA station (Fig. 1). Analysis of the comparison points showed a linear regression slope of 0.98 ± 0.17 (p<0.00001; n=24, slope is not significantly different from 1 and the origin is not significantly different from 0; p<0.05). The same patterns were obtained with temperature, salinity, chlorophyll *a* and nutrients thus confirming the absence of an "aquarium effect" during our 3 month-experiments.



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Figure 1: Comparison of phytoplankton primary production (PP = \blacklozenge) and heterotrophic bacterial production (BP = \bigcirc) in the aquarium with continuous seawater circulation and at the long-term observatory SOLA marine station (Banyuls bay, NW Mediterranean sea). Note that the heterotrophic bacterial production units are 1000x. The linear regression is represented by the black line and the corresponding equation is indicated (p<0.00001; n = 222 24).

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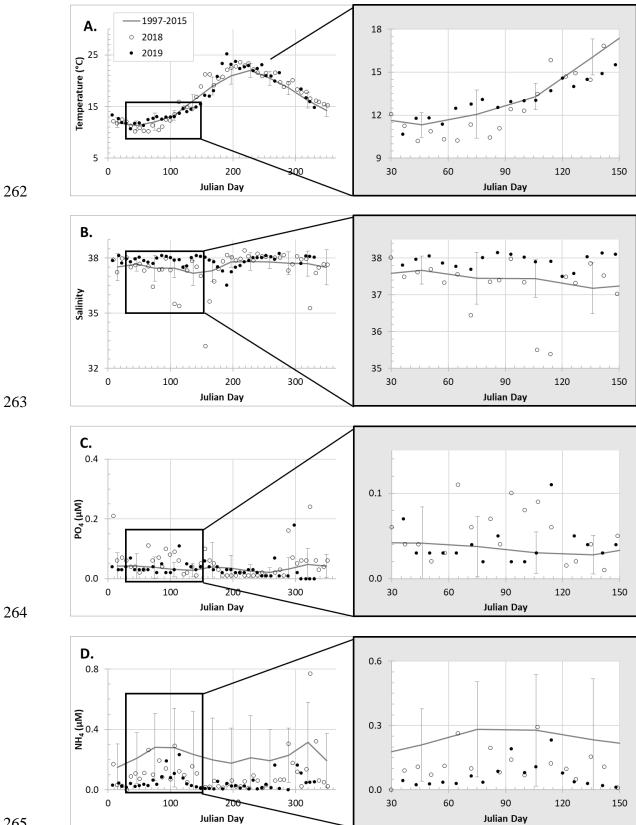
3.2 Biogeochemical conditions during 2 years experiments in a local temporal context

Our two experiments from 2018 and 2019 were done using the same 50-L aquarium with circulating seawater pumped in the Banyuls Bay, in the vicinity of the SOLA observatory station. Weekly measurements are made at SOLA since 1997 as part of the National Observation Service (SNO-SOMLIT). We compared the biogeochemical conditions of our experiments, *i.e.* from 13 February 2018 (D44) to 14 May 2019 (D133), to the nearly 24 years of observation at the SOLA station (see www.somlit.fr/mysomlit/). Very contrasted environmental conditions were observed between 2018 and 2019, with higher variations of temperature, salinity, nutrients and chlorophyll *a* concentrations during the first year (Fig. 2).
Indeed, when comparing the data of the 2 years with respect to the long-term average values
represented by the continuous line (Fig. 2A and 2B), the 2018 measurements are variable and
distributed rather below the normals, while the 2019 measurements are more stable, close to
the normals in temperature (Fig. 2A) but largely above for salinity (Fig 2B). This leads to
important differences in terms of nutrients, particularly visible on nitrates (Fig. 2E), with 2018
being rich compared to 2019 marked by minimal nutrient concentrations.

240 Then, the spring conditions in our 2018 experiment were particularly cold between D30 241 and D90 (Fig. 2A) and marked by two episodes of low salinity water at D72 (36.4) and D105 242 to D115 (35.3 and even 33 for D156; Fig. 2B). These desalted episodes caused strong variations 243 in nutrient concentrations during 2018, especially phosphate, marked by 2 peaks with nearly 244 0.1 μ M (Fig. 2C). While ammonium concentrations were rather low (~0.1 μ M) compared to 245 "usual values", we still observed 2 peaks approaching 0.3 µM each (Fig. 2D). Nitrate 246 concentrations were high throughout the period, with peaks above 3 µM (Fig. 2E). The 247 abundance of nutrients in 2018 resulted in a particularly pronounced spring bloom with chlorophyll a maximal concentrations close to 3.5 and 4.1 mgCHL.m⁻³ for D72 and D107 248 249 respectively (Fig. 2F).

250 In 2019, the temperatures remained close to the climatologic curve during the 251 experimental period, while the summer period was warmer (Fig. 2A). Throughout the 252 experiment, salinity was high, with values varying around 38 but the time series was marked by 2 weak decreases for D72 (37.7) and D120 (37.5) (Fig. 2B). As a result, all nutrient 253 254 concentrations were rather low. Phosphate concentrations were relatively stable at about 0.03 255 µM and marked by 2 maxima (0.05 µM for D86 and 0.11 µM for D114; Fig. 2C). Ammonium 256 concentrations were close to the detection limit, but again, we observed 2 peaks (0.2 µM for 257 D93 and 0.23 µM for D114; Fig. 2D). A similar pattern was observed for nitrate, with very low

concentrations throughout the period, and 2 minor peaks at D64 and D100 (Fig. 2E). The low
abundance of nutrients in 2019 resulted in a rather weak spring bloom with chlorophyll *a*maximal concentrations of 1.5 mgCHL.m⁻³ recorded between D115 and D125 (Fig. 2F).



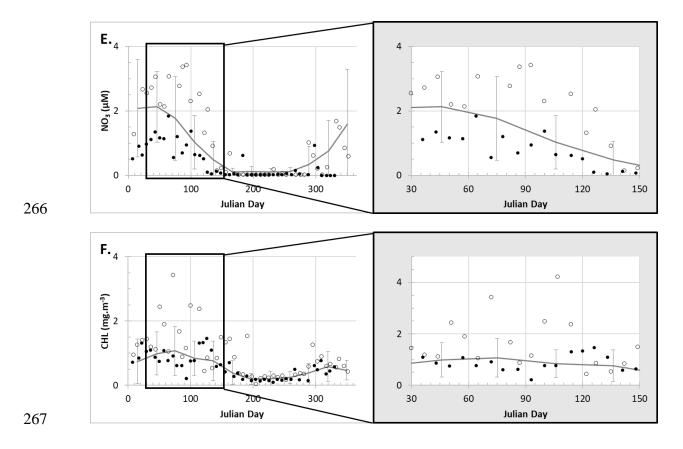


Figure 2: Seasonal evolution at SOLA observatory station for 2018 (D44-127, open dots) and 2019 (D50-133, full dots) compared to the 1997-2015 climatology (black solid line and 270 confidence interval) of A. temperature in °C, B. salinity, C. phosphate in μ M, D. ammonium 271 in μ M, E. nitrate in μ M, and F. chlorophyll a in mgCHL.m⁻³. The grey inset on the right of 272 each main graph focuses on the experimental period D30 to D150.

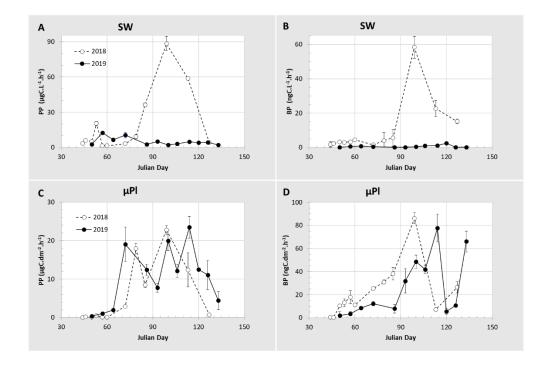
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3.3. Primary production and heterotrophic bacterial production in seawater and on microplastics

277 Significant differences were found when comparing the evolution of both primary and 278 heterotrophic bacterial productions in seawater between the experiments conducted in 2018 and 279 2019 (Fig. 3A & 3B). In 2018, primary and heterotrophic bacterial productions presented a 280 succession pattern over the 3 months spring period. Production rates varied from low activities

between D40 and D80 (on average $5.9 \pm 5.0 \ \mu \text{gC}.\text{L}^{-1}.\text{h}^{-1}$ for PP [Fig. 3A] and $3.3 \pm 1.3 \ \text{ngC}.\text{L}^{-1}$ 281 ¹.h⁻¹ for heterotrophic bacterial production [Fig. 3B]) to a high peak observed at D100 for both 282 activities (88.2 \pm 6.1 μ gC.L⁻¹.h⁻¹ and 58.3 \pm 6.4 ngC.L⁻¹.h⁻¹ for PP and heterotrophic bacterial 283 284 production, respectively) followed by a rapid decrease until the end of the incubation (~D130). 285 In 2019, the evolution of primary and heterotrophic bacterial productions were clearly different 286 compared to 2018, with no synchronicity or succession observed between the 2 types of 287 productions. Primary production varied over time with maximal values at the beginning of the 288 experiment between D50 and D90 (maximum rate at $12.5 \pm 0.1 \ \mu gC.L^{-1}.h^{-1}$) and then remained low and relatively stable until the end of incubation ($<5.1 \pm 0.1 \ \mu gC.L^{-1}.h^{-1}$; Fig. 3A). In 289 290 contrast, heterotrophic bacterial production had a similar evolution to 2018, but with lower 291 values and a low later peak (maximum for D120 with 2.5 ± 0.5 ngC.L⁻¹.h⁻¹; Fig. 3B).

292 Years 2018 and 2019 showed sharp contrasted spring conditions, reflected in the distinct 293 evolution of primary and heterotrophic bacterial productions in seawater. On the contrary, the 294 productions measured on microplastics showed a surprisingly similar evolution during the two 295 years (Fig. 3C & 3D). Primary production increased rapidly after D60 to reach maximum 296 activities of about $20 \pm 3 \ \mu \text{gC.dm}^{-2}$.h⁻¹ (Fig. 3C) and remained variable (from 8 ± 1 to 23 ± 2 µgC.dm⁻².h⁻¹) until D100 in 2018 and D115 in 2019 to finally drop rapidly until the end of the 297 298 experiment. Heterotrophic bacterial production increased during about 80 days to reach a maximum of 86 ± 5 ngC.dm⁻².h⁻¹ in 2018 at D99 and 78 ± 10 ngC.dm⁻².h⁻¹ in 2019 at D114. 299 300 During both years, peaks were followed by a rapid decrease and a second phase of increase 301 until the end of the incubation (Fig 3D).



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Figure 3: Temporal evolution during the incubation time in 2018 (D44-127, open dots and dashed line) and 2019 (D50-133, full dots and black line) of **A.** Primary production, PP (in μ gC.L⁻¹.h⁻¹), **B.** Heterotrophic bacterial production, BP (ngC.L⁻¹.h⁻¹) in aquarium seawater (SW) and of **C.** Primary production (in μ gC.dm⁻².h⁻¹), **D.** Heterotrophic bacterial production (ngC.dm⁻².h⁻¹) on microplastics (μ Pl). Whiskers represent standard deviations.

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310 **3.4.** Comparison of microbial activities on microplastics and in seawater

We calculated the percentage of carbon originating from the extracellular release (ER) that was available for bacterial heterotrophic activity, based on the theoretical ranges of ER (from 5 to 20% of the PP) and the bacterial carbon demand (BCD) considering a Bacterial Growth Efficiency (BGE) of 10 to 30%. Indeed, BGE is the amount of new bacterial biomass produced per unit of organic C substrate assimilated. The wide ranges used in our calculation are sufficient to cover about all natural and mesocosm situations for phytoplanktonic excretion (Baines and Pace, 1991; López-Sandoval et al., 2010; Moran et al., 2002), or BGE (Del Giorgio and Cole, 1998; Lemee et al., 2002) and match also with the rates found in benthic communities(Hubas et al., 2007).

During the spring sampling periods, we found that the free-living seawater bacteria might theoretically consume between 2 and 25% of the carbon excreted by autotrophs in the 2018 conditions and between 0.5 and 6% in the 2019 conditions (Tab. I). The situation was quite different on microplastics, where we found that between 14 to 167% of the extracellular release was needed to cover the BCD of the heterotrophic community in 2018 and between 8 to 101% in 2019.

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328 Table I. Comparison between microbial activities on microplastics and in the surrounding 329 seawater. On top: integrated values of primary production and bacterial heterotrophic production (BP) in seawater (in mgC.L⁻¹) and on microplastics (mgC.dm⁻²) over the 88 days 330 331 of incubation. In the middle: theoretical extracellular release (range for 5 to 20% excretion, 332 as mentioned by Conan et al., 1999) and theoretical bacterial carbon demand (with a BGE 333 of 10 to 30% as mentioned by Van Wambeke et al., 2002). At the bottom: theoretical carbon 334 from extracellular release available for (BP) bacterial heterotrophic activity (see text for 335 more explanation).

Year Nb day Integrated PP sigma Integrated BP sigma Integrated PP sigma Integrated PP sigma Integrated BP sigma 2018 88 26.7 6.0 0.0339 0.0294 7.3 3.1 0.061 0.025 2019 88 4.6 1.1 0.0013 0.0004 9.6 4.5 0.049 0.075 Line Excretion BCD Excretion BCD Excretion BCD 10% - 30% 2018 88 1.3 5.3 0.339 0.113 0.4 1.5 0.611 0.204 2019 88 0.2 0.9 0.013 0.004 0.5 1.9 0.486 0.162 Line Potential Carbon PP-source consumed for BP BP 2018 88 MIN - MAX (%) 2 25 MIN - MAX (%) 14 167										
Teal Nb day PP signa BP signa PP signa BP signa BI			SEAWATER				μPLASTIC			
2019 88 4.6 1.1 0.0013 0.0004 9.6 4.5 0.049 0.075 Image: Street in the street in t	Year	Nb day	, -	sigma	-	sigma	-	sigma	-	sigma
Excretion BCD Excretion BCD 5% - 20% 10% - 30% 5% - 20% 10% - 30% 2018 88 1.3 5.3 0.339 0.113 0.4 1.5 0.611 0.204 2019 88 0.2 0.9 0.013 0.004 0.5 1.9 0.486 0.162 Potential Carbon PP-source consumed for BP	2018	88	26.7	6.0	0.0339	0.0294	7.3	3.1	0.061	0.025
5 % - 20% 10% - 30% 5 % - 20% 10% - 30% 2018 88 1.3 5.3 0.339 0.113 0.4 1.5 0.611 0.204 2019 88 0.2 0.9 0.013 0.004 0.5 1.9 0.486 0.162 Potential Carbon PP-source consumed for BP	2019	88	4.6	1.1	0.0013	0.0004	9.6	4.5	0.049	0.075
5 % - 20% 10% - 30% 5 % - 20% 10% - 30% 2018 88 1.3 5.3 0.339 0.113 0.4 1.5 0.611 0.204 2019 88 0.2 0.9 0.013 0.004 0.5 1.9 0.486 0.162 Potential Carbon PP-source consumed for BP										
2018 88 1.3 5.3 0.339 0.113 0.4 1.5 0.611 0.204 2019 88 0.2 0.9 0.013 0.004 0.5 1.9 0.486 0.162 Potential Carbon PP-source consumed for BP			3							
Potential Carbon PP-source consumed for BP	2018	88	1.3	5.3	0.339		0.4		0.611	
	2019	88	0.2	0.9	0.013	0.004	0.5	1.9	0.486	0.162
2018 88 MIN - MAX (%) 2 25 MIN - MAX (%) 14 167			Potential Carbon PP-source consumed for BP							
	2018	88	MIN - M	AX (%)	2	25	MIN - M	AX (%)	14	167
2019 88 MIN - MAX (%) 0.5 6 MIN - MAX (%) 8 101	2019	88	MIN - M	AX (%)	0.5	6	MIN - M	AX (%)	8	101

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339 **3.5. Influence of microplastic microbial activities on the surrounding seawater**

340 In the 2018 experiment, we compared measurements of total primary production in the 341 seawater samples that were incubated with or without microplastics (Fig. 4). Primary 342 production in seawater incubated in the presence of plastic is higher than when no plastic is 343 present. The positive linear correlation between samples is estimated using a Spearman's test 344 (p<0.005), and then the regression is calculated using Pearson's regression (PP_{seawater + Plastic} = 2.73 x $PP_{seawater}$ + 3.59 ; $R^2 = 0.95$; p<0.00001). The intercept of the regression is not different 345 346 from 0 (p<0.05), and so the increase in the rate of primary production of seawater in the 347 presence of plastic is about 2.8 over the incubation period.

In order to clarify the origin of this significant increase, we separate the data into 2 subsets (Fig. 4), the first grouping the measurements during the development of the platisphere (D44 -D60), and the second including the data in the presence of the "mature platisphere" (D65 -D100). Finally, there was no significant difference between the PP of seawater incubated with 352 or without plastic during the first 26 days ($PP_{seawater + Plastic} = 0.97 \times PP_{seawater} - 0.08$; $R^2 = 0.99$; 353 p<0.00001). The slope of the regression model was not different from 1 (Ancova after a Mann-354 Whitney test, p<0.05) and the intercept was not different from 0 (p<0.05). The situation was 355 quite different for the second period (D65 - D100), when the platisphere was well developed 356 (Fig. 4). In this case, the PP in seawater incubated with plastic increased by 2.5 times compared 357 to PP in seawater that has not been in contact with plastic ($PP_{seawater + Plastic} = 2.49 \times PP_{seawater + Plastic} = 2.49 \times PP_$ 12.36; $R^2 = 0.95$; p<0.00085). The slope of this regression model is significantly different 358 359 from 1 (Ancova after a Mann-Whitney test, p<0.00067) and the intercept is significantly 360 different from 0 (p<0.00085).

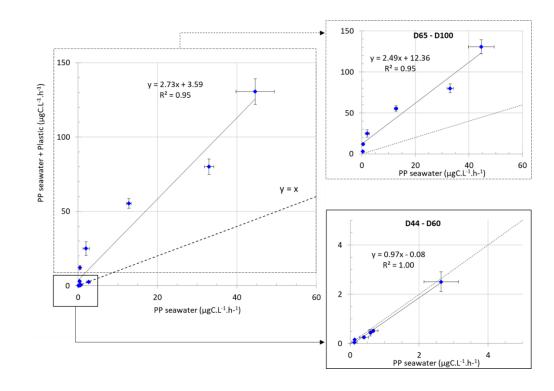


Figure 4: Comparison of primary production (PP) in seawater without (SW) or with microplastic (SW+MP) during the 2018 experiment. Linear regression are full line and significant equations are indicate (p<0.001; n = 12). Dashed line represents y = x. Pooled data are presented on the left, whereas on the right, date are separated into 2 periods as symbolized by the squares (D44 – D60 on the bottom, D65 - D100 on the top)

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368 **4. DISCUSSION**

369 The impact of plastic pollution on biogeochemical cycles can no longer be considered 370 limited today, since the amount of microplastics found at sea could soon cover more than 4.2 million km² of the sea surface (Eriksen et al., 2014; Hidalgo-Ruz et al., 2012). To date, most of 371 372 the research dealing with the plastisphere has been focused on its biodiversity (including 373 putative pathogens or harmful algae), with little documentation on how the plastisphere may 374 influence the biogeochemical cycles (Jacquin et al., 2019). Here, we present the first data of PP 375 coupled with heterotrophic bacterial production on microplastics. After a month of colonization 376 of polyethylene microplastics in seawater, we observed that the mature biofilm presented high PP levels, up to $20 \pm 3 \,\mu \text{gC.dm}^{-2}$.h⁻¹ compare to the beginning of the experiment. Consistent to 377 378 our results, phototrophs such as diatoms and cyanobacteria have been commonly described in 379 the plastisphere, at least on plastics that are exposed to sunlight (Amaral-Zettler et al., 2020; 380 Decelle et al., 2015), confirming that microplastics floating at the ocean surface provide good 381 substrates for the development of autotrophic microorganisms. For example, Crisafi et al. 382 (2022) recently studied the growth of microbial biofilms on medical masks in a coastal area 383 affected by different anthropogenic inputs. The authors observed that after one month in the 384 field, the masks were colonized by a bacterial community significantly different from that 385 detected in natural matrices in the same areas (seawater and sediments), and allowed the growth 386 and enrichment of phototrophic microorganisms such as Oxyphotobacteria, Ruminococcaceae, 387 Gracilibacteria, and Holophageae in particular.

Plastics in the environment are composed by a large variety of organic and inorganic constituents according to their surface properties and mediated by physical forces common to all molecular systems (*i.e.* van der Waals, electrostatic and others), the so-called eco-corona (Monopoli et al., 2012; Ter Halle and Ghiglione, 2021). Together with light and CO₂ availability, nutrients such as NO_3^{2-} , NH_4^+ and PO_4^{3-} are abundant in the biomolecular corona of microplastics (Galloway et al., 2017), thus potentially fueling the intense PP observed in our
experimental conditions.

395 Our results also showed a direct link between PP and heterotrophic bacterial production (BP) within the microplastic biofilms. BP reached $86 \pm 5 \text{ ngC.dm}^{-2}$.h⁻¹, which was in the same 396 397 order of magnitude than the few previous studies recording this parameter on microplastics in 398 marine waters (Dussud et al., 2018b; Odobel et al., 2021). Heterotrophic bacterial activities play 399 a key role in different biogeochemical cycles such as carbon, since it is known that half of the 400 oceanic primary production on average is re-mineralized by bacteria into the microbial loop 401 (Azam et al., 1983; Cole et al., 1988), thus transforming the particulate organic matter to 402 dissolved organic matter (Grossart et al., 2007). Here, we propose for the first time that 403 heterotrophic microbes have the ability to process considerable amounts of organic matter 404 produced on microplastics by phytoplankton activities. Here, we propose for the first time that 405 heterotrophic microbes have the capacity to process considerable amounts of organic matter 406 produced on microplastics by phytoplankton activities. Indeed, photosynthates are known to be 407 particularly labile and rapidly consumed by bacteria (Conan et al., 1999; Van Wambeke et al., 408 2002). The authors showed that the lability/quality of this material increased with its freshness 409 (age) and with trophic conditions (i.e. material produced in oligotrophic environments is 410 generally less labile than that of mesotrophic and eutrophic environments). The spatial 411 proximity of the protagonists and their greater number within the plastisphere would be a factor 412 in strengthening the trophic link, both in the autotrophic to heterotrophic direction and in the 413 other direction. Interestingly, our results also indicate that PP can theoretically support most of 414 the heterotrophic activities within the microplastic biofilm. If we assume that taking the 415 extremes, the orders of magnitude cover most values encountered in natural environments and 416 in biofilms, and considering the ranges of ER between 5 and 20% and BGE on labile material 417 between 10 and 30% (Baines and Pace, 1991; Conan et al., 1999; Del Giorgio and Cole, 1998;

Hubas et al., 2007; Lemee et al., 2002; López-Sandoval et al., 2010; Moran et al., 2002; Van
Wambeke et al., 2002), we observed that the carbon requirement of free-living heterotrophic
bacteria could be largely covered by PP for both years.

421 Similarly, ER might have theoretically covered most of the BCD in 2018 (min. 14% and 422 max. 167%, with <100% corresponding to the BCD totally covered by ER) and in 2019 (from 423 8-101%). Thus, while in 2019 the BCD appeared to be fulfilled by autotrophic production on 424 microplastics (*i.e.* when PP in surrounding seawater was low), it is possible that in 2018 an 425 additional organic carbon source was required to supplement the needs of attached 426 heterotrophic bacteria. This observation is consistent with the fact that in 2018, PP in the 427 surrounding water was particularly strong and could logically have been a supplemental source. 428 However, our results suggest that the use of such a complementary carbon source by the 429 plastisphere and the depletion of carbon and nitrogen in the surrounding seawater would rather 430 be an exception than a rule. This confirms that microplastic is an ecological niche in itself 431 (Dussud et al., 2018b), where strong phytoplankton-bacteria interactions exist that control 432 nutrient cycling and biomass production at the scale of microplastic pieces. Roughly, plastics 433 appear to be comparatively less autotrophic than surrounding seawater during our experiments.

434 Another originality of our study was to take into account two contrasted environmental 435 conditions during each of the 2 years. It is indeed very likely that biofilm composition and 436 microbial interactions within plastic surfaces are in turn influenced by environmental 437 perturbations (Crisafi et al., 2022). For example, the works of Allgaier et al. (2008) in natural 438 mesocosms were designed to test whether the predicted change in pCO_2 will affect the 439 communities of heterotrophic bacteria during a phytoplankton bloom development. The authors 440 concluded that bacterial abundance and activities were similar among the various treatments 441 but the community structure of free-living bacteria changed with pCO_2 on the contrary of that 442 of attached bacteria. These latter were tightly coupled to phytoplankton bloom development. 443 During spring 2018, we observed conditions favoring a classical phytoplankton bloom in 444 seawater triggered by nutrient inputs from coastal water intrusions (Olita et al., 2014). Less 445 favorable conditions were observed in spring 2019, where low nutrient concentrations limited 446 the phytoplankton bloom development. Such irregular nutrient supply from year to year is a 447 classical observation in the North Western Mediterranean sea (Sánchez-Pérez et al., 2020), that 448 strongly structures microbial communities by promoting planktonic blooms and by stimulating 449 the growth of certain microbes (Céa et al., 2015; Conan et al., 2007; Ghiglione et al., 2005; 450 Lambert et al., 2019). In contrast, we observed that microplastic biofilms were not influenced 451 by the irregularity of the nutrient supply in the seawater. Indeed, primary and secondary 452 productions were similar on microplastics over the two years, whereas a clear decrease in these 453 activities was observed in spring 2019 in seawater, when the environmental conditions were 454 less favorable as compared to spring 2018. It is classically admitted that sessile microorganisms 455 forming a biofilm on natural or engineered materials have greater access to nutrients and any 456 resources that accumulate and concentrate on the biofilms surface (Salgar-Chaparro et al., 457 2020), which are classically diluted in the open ocean and less accessible for planktonic 458 microorganisms (Dang and Lovell, 2016). Again, these results strengthen the vision of 459 microplastic biofilm as a niche in itself, with the presence of an eco-corona together with strong 460 phytoplankton-bacteria interactions that will control the exchange and interaction with 461 materials, minerals and other components of the surrounding seawater. We propose that biofilm 462 development on microplastics is a possible strategy for microbial survival in the marine 463 environment, especially in oligotrophic seawaters such as the Mediterranean Sea, which is one 464 of the most microplastic-polluted areas in the world ocean (Cózar et al., 2015; Dussud et al., 465 2018a).

466 Interactions between microplastic biofilms and surrounding seawater could be finally bi-467 directional, *i.e.* nutrient and organic matter inputs on microplastics support the phytoplankton 468 development together with heterotrophic activities (see above discussion), and vice versa with 469 the release of materials nutrients from the microplastic biofilm to the seawater. In our study, we 470 also incubated seawater with and without microplastics in spring 2018 and we evidenced a 2-3 471 fold increase of PP when microplastics were present together with their biofilm. As mentioned 472 earlier, a more thorough assessment of the spatial scale of the different processes reported is 473 necessary. ER and the release of other molecules produced by the microplastic biofilm or even 474 the breakdown of cells may explain the positive effect on PP in the surrounding waters (example 475 with DOC; Romera-Castillo et al., 2018). Further experiments are obviously needed to 476 investigate the molecular exchanges related to this positive effect. Comparing oxygen 477 measurements with and without microplastics, a previous study in the North Pacific gyre measured a net autotrophic production of about 30-60 µgC.L⁻¹.h⁻¹ for communities attached to 478 479 microplastics harvested by manta net, while they found zero or even net heterotrophic bacterial 480 production in the surrounding waters (Bryant et al., 2016). These authors proposed that 481 microplastic particles create net autotrophic 'hot spots' in the oligotrophic ocean. However, such 482 comparison is difficult because of the method used, as oxygen measurements in their 483 experiment integrated the activities of the microplastic biofilms and also of planktonic 484 organisms surrounding the microplastics during incubation. The use of radioactive carbon 485 incorporation removes this ambiguity and confirms the clear influence of the microplastic 486 biofilm on the increased productivity in the surrounding seawater, despite the contrasted 487 environmental conditions encountered in spring 2018 and 2019. Moreover, it is actually the 488 presence of the platisphere that is at the origin of the increase in production since it is necessary 489 to wait for the installation of the biofilm to observe the stimulation of 2 to 3 times of the PP in 490 the surrounding sea water. Our results are nevertheless limited by the size of the microplastic 491 pieces incubated in 10 mL of seawater. Further studies are needed to evaluate the volume of 492 seawater that could be impacted around the microplastic particles in more realistic conditions.

493 Interestingly, a previous study estimated that globally up to 23,600 metric tons of 494 dissolved organic compounds (from truly dissolved substances to any polymeric nanoplastic 495 that might have been also fragmented from the plastic surface) are released from the estimated 496 35,000 metric tons of all the microplastics floating in the ocean (Romera-Castillo et al., 2018). 497 These numbers consider the release of compounds from the microplastic itself, but do not take 498 into account the biofilm covering its surface. Finally, a funny and illustrative image of the role 499 of plastics in the environment could be that of an electrical inverter in a circuit that allows the 500 attenuation of both positive and negative variations. A better estimation of the carbon fluxes 501 generated by microplastic biofilm exudates may help to refine the balance between direct 502 microplastics leaching and the contribution of their associated biofilm.

503

504 **5. CONCLUSION**

505 Our study provides an essential step in understanding the importance of the coupling 506 between phytoplankton autotrophy and bacterial heterotrophic production on microplastics and 507 its relationship with surrounding seawater. The plastic waste quantity entering the oceans is 508 predicted to increase by up to one order of magnitude by 2025 (Gewert et al., 2015), with 509 potential major consequences for marine microbes and the biogeochemical cycles in the ocean. 510 Further studies considering the influence of microplastic features and water environmental 511 characteristics are needed. This will enable the development of predicting models for the impact 512 of biofilm activities on the carbon cycle in marine ecosystems.

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