

1 Fecal coliform and *E. coli* in microplastic biofilms grown in
2 wastewater and inactivation by peracetic acid

3 William Boni¹, Kathleen Parrish², Shreya Patil³, N.L. Fahrenfeld^{1*}

4 1 Civil & Environmental Engineering, Rutgers, The State University of New Jersey

5 2 Biochemistry and Microbiology, Rutgers, The State University of New Jersey

6 3 Bioenvironmental Engineering, Rutgers, The State University of New Jersey

7 *500 Bartholomew Rd., Piscataway, NJ, 08854; email: nfahrenf@rutgers.edu

8 **Abstract**

9 Microplastics (MP) have been proposed as a vector for pathogenic microorganisms in the freshwater
10 environment. The objectives of this study were (1) to compare the fecal indicator growth in biofilms on
11 MP and material control microparticles incubated in different wastewater fractions and (2) to compare
12 MP biofilm, natural microparticle biofilm, and planktonic cell susceptibility to disinfection by peracetic
13 acid (PAA). Biofilms were grown on high-density polyethylene, low-density polyethylene, polypropylene
14 MP or wood chips (as a material control) and incubated in either wastewater influent or pre-disinfection
15 secondary effluent. Reactors were disinfected with PAA, biofilms were dislodged, and fecal coliform and
16 *E. coli* were cultivated. Fecal indicators were quantifiable in both MP and wood biofilms incubated in the
17 wastewater influent but only on the wood biofilms incubated in secondary wastewater effluent. More
18 fecal coliform grew in the wood biofilms than MP biofilms, and the biofilms grown on MP and
19 woodchips were more resistant to disinfection than planktonic bacteria. Thus, it may be possible to refer
20 to the disinfection literature for fecal indicators in biofilm on other particles to predict behavior on MP.
21 Treatments that remove particles in general would help reduce the potential for fecal indicator bypass of
22 disinfection.

23 **Keywords:** biofilm, peracetic acid, fecal indicators, microplastic, wastewater, disinfection

24 **Introduction**

25 Wastewater treatment plants (WWTPs) have been shown to be reasonably effective at removing
26 microplastics (MPs), with removal efficiencies in the 75%-100% range for conventional WWTPs
27 utilizing activated sludge processes and secondary clarification (Conley *et al.*, 2019; Sun *et al.*, 2019).

28 Although most MPs are removed in wastewater treatment processes, some will escape to the environment
29 in the effluent and the fate of MP captured in biosolids remains to be demonstrated. Because biofilm is well
30 known to be more resistant to disinfection than planktonic organisms (Bridier *et al.*, 2011; Kim *et al.*,
31 2008; Lee *et al.*, 2020), MP biofilms may allow for wastewater bacteria such as *E. coli* and other fecal
32 indicator organisms to bypass disinfection at a WWTP, as these organisms are known to form biofilms on
33 natural particles as well as manmade particles (Fux *et al.*, 2005; Miao *et al.*, 2019; Song *et al.*, 2020).
34 This may explain why fecal microbes were observed in MP biofilms far from wastewater effluent outfalls
35 (Rodrigues *et al.*, 2019; Silva *et al.*, 2019). Thus, there is some concern that MPs could serve as a vector
36 for pathogenic microorganisms in the freshwater environment.

37 There have been investigations into freshwater MP biofilms with a focus on using sequencing techniques
38 to describe the microbial ecology (Eckert *et al.*, 2018; Miao *et al.*, 2019; Parrish and Fahrenfeld, 2019),
39 biodegradation potential of MP or adsorbed organic compounds (Paço *et al.*, 2017; Park and Kim, 2019;
40 Porter *et al.* 2020), and the prevalence of antibiotic resistance genes and pathogens/pathogen marker
41 genes (Parrish and Fahrenfeld, 2019; Rodrigues *et al.*, 2019; Viršek *et al.*, 2017). Fecal indicators such as
42 *E. coli* have been cultivated from and pathogens such as *Vibrio* have been observed in MP biofilm found
43 in the marine environment (Kirstein *et al.*, 2016; Quilliam *et al.*, 2014). Total Coliform (TC) and *E. coli*
44 are commonly used to evaluate drinking, surface, and wastewater quality as indicators of pathogens
45 (EPA, 2012; EPA *et al.*, 2011). However, to our knowledge, whether MP biofilm behave differently from
46 other microparticle biofilms during disinfection has not received attention.

47 MPs are generally defined as anthropogenic polymer particles less than 5 mm in size and classified as
48 either primary or secondary (Kershaw and Rochman, 2015). Primary MPs are manufactured as such, and
49 secondary MPs are the result of environmental weathering of larger plastic items (Guerranti *et al.*, 2019;
50 Li *et al.*, 2018). Laboratory investigations of MP biofilms should seek to simulate environmental
51 conditions including the polymer types, size classes, morphologies, and textures of MPs observed in the
52 environment. A growing body of research into MPs observed in freshwater bodies is available (Li *et al.*,
53 2018; Meng *et al.*, 2020). Recent reviews indicated that polyethylene (PE), polypropylene (PP),
54 polyamide, polystyrene (PS), and polyester were the most commonly reported polymers in studies
55 reporting chemical identity of freshwater MP, with polyethylene being the most common (Enders *et al.*,
56 2015; Fahrenfeld *et al.*, 2019; Frère *et al.*, 2017; Kershaw and Rochman, 2015). Fragments, fibers, and
57 films were the most commonly reported MP morphologies in freshwater and the majority were secondary
58 in nature (Fahrenfeld *et al.*, 2019; Guerranti *et al.*, 2019; Li *et al.*, 2018), despite concerns over
59 microbeads previously added to personal care products, which were banned in the United States in 2015
60 and phased out by 2019 (Xanthos and Walker, 2017). These reports motivated the selection of MP
61 polymer types and morphologies selected for this study.

62 The objectives of this research were to (1) compare the prevalence of fecal indicator organisms (i.e., fecal
63 coliform and *E. coli*) in MP and natural microparticle biofilms and (2) evaluate the susceptibility of fecal
64 indicators in these biofilms to peracetic acid (PAA) disinfection compared to the planktonic fecal
65 indicator organisms. To achieve these goals, a bench-scale study was performed using high density PE
66 (HDPE), low density PE (LDPE), PP, PS, and wood chips, as a natural organic microparticle material
67 control. Particles were incubated in either municipal wastewater influent or pre-disinfection secondary
68 wastewater effluent and reactors were either disinfected with PAA or not treated. PAA is considered a
69 green disinfectant because it has not been reported to form regulated disinfectant by-products, and was
70 chosen due to its status as a disinfectant that will likely see increased use in the coming years (McFadden
71 *et al.*, 2017; Monarca *et al.*, 2002). PAA has a similar mechanism of disinfection to hypochlorite

72 (Koivunen and Heinonen-Tanski, 2005; McFadden *et al.*, 2017), as both oxidize cell membranes. The
73 biofilm and planktonic cell fecal indicator concentrations were compared across materials, wastewater
74 fractions (i.e., influent vs. pre-disinfection secondary effluent), and PAA treatment. Results presented
75 here can provide insight into the role of microparticles as carriers of fecal indicator organisms and their
76 susceptibility to disinfection.

77 **Materials and Methods**

78 MPs were either extracted from a personal care product or, to better simulate environmental MPs,
79 generated from plastic materials labeled with the polymer composition. The plastic materials chosen
80 included polymers commonly observed in freshwaters: HDPE, LDPE, PP, and PS. The polymer types
81 were confirmed by Attenuated Total Reflectance Fourier Transform Infrared Spectroscopy (ATR-FTIR),
82 as described below. MP fragments or films were created from the plastic materials by first cutting plastic
83 items into small pieces with scissors, freezing with dry ice, and grinding with a coffee grinder (Bodum
84 Inc., Triengen, Switzerland). The items cut and ground were an HDPE milk bottle to create fragments, a
85 LDPE plastic shopping bag to create films, a polypropylene microcentrifuge tube to create fragments, and
86 a polystyrene fork to create fragments. After grinding, materials were wet sieved to collect particles 500-
87 2000 μm . Precautions were taken to prevent cross-contamination between polymer types: sieves were
88 triple washed and checked for particles to ensure they were completely clean, and the grinder was
89 thoroughly washed and compressed air was used to ensure no particles remained after drying. As a
90 material control, wood chips were gathered from a Spanish Oak tree being cut on our campus and wet
91 sieved to collect particles 500-2000 μm .

92 Reactors were prepared to simulate incubation of MP in different wastewater fractions: municipal
93 wastewater influent or pre-disinfection secondary effluent. Five liters of secondary effluent were sourced
94 from a conventional activated sludge wastewater treatment plant in NJ (grab samples, collected between
95 8-10 am) on April 22, April 24, and May 22, 2019 during regular flow conditions. The influent samples

96 were sourced from the same facility on January 29, February 3, and February 5, 2020. Samples were
97 transported in a cooler back to the lab. Upon arrival in the lab, reactors were assembled and started
98 immediately (less than 1 hour hold time). Aliquots of the wastewater samples were preserved by freezing
99 at -20°C for chemical analysis, described below.

100 The biofilm experiment was performed on three different sampling dates (triplicate) for each wastewater
101 fraction with two reactors for each particle type on each date to allow for analysis of paired PAA and non-
102 PAA treated reactors. For the secondary effluent experiment, reactors (500 mL glass beakers) contained
103 200 mL of wastewater and a 0.21 mL volume of MP (LDPE, HDPE, PP) or wood chips (Fig. S1). The
104 number of microparticles in the selected volume were counted to normalize results with respect to
105 concentration. For the influent experiment, reactors were prepared with LDPE and wood in the same
106 manner. LDPE was chosen for the influent experiment as it is extremely common in environmental
107 samples (Kershaw and Rochman, 2015; Stanton *et al.*, 2020) and to reduce the size of the experimental
108 matrix. As an inoculum control, separate reactors were prepared using DI water instead of wastewater to
109 incubate MP (LDPE) and wood particles. All reactors were covered with sterile aluminum foil and
110 incubated at room temperature for 24 hours while being stirred at 120 rpm with stir bars to simulate the
111 shear expected in turbulent flow (Halász *et al.*, 2007). After 24 hours, one of the duplicate reactors for
112 each experimental condition was disinfected using PAA at a nominal concentration of 2 mg/L and a
113 contact time of 25 minutes. This nominal CT was selected based on previously reported PAA disinfection
114 studies reviewed by Kitis (Kitis, 2004). CT is the product of the concentration of disinfectant and the
115 contact time, and is used to calculate the effective dose of disinfectant. The PAA concentration was
116 measured, as described below, immediately after dosing and at the end of the 25 minute contact time to
117 allow for calculation of the actual CT value achieved. Then, the reactors were quenched with catalase
118 and 1 mL of 100 mg/L sodium thiosulfate (Fiorentino *et al.*, 2015; Formisano *et al.*, 2016) and 1 mL of
119 freshly prepared bovine catalase (Wagner *et al.*, 2002) at a concentration of 100 mg/L to remove
120 disinfectant residual. PAA concentration was measured again following the quench to confirm that no

121 disinfectant remained after quench. The other duplicate reactor for each experiment condition did not
122 receive PAA treatment.

123 To study the fecal indicator concentrations in the MP and wood microparticle biofilms separately from
124 the planktonic bacteria, the particles were collected on sterile 63 μm stainless steel mesh (TWP Inc.,
125 Berkley, CA), rinsed with PBS to remove any loosely attached microbes, and the filtrate reserved. The
126 microparticles were placed into microcentrifuge tubes with 1.5 mL of phosphate buffered saline (PBS).
127 The particles were then vortexed (Vortex-Geni 2, Scientific Industries, Inc., Bohemia, NY) on the
128 maximum speed setting of 10 for two minutes to dislodge the biofilm. This setting was chosen based
129 upon results of a preliminary experiment where MPs were incubated in wastewater, described below.
130 Serial dilutions of the dislodged cells in the PBS supernatant (10^{-2} , 10^{-3} , 10^{-4}) were used for quantification
131 of total coliform and *Escherichia coli* using EPA Method 1604 (EPA, 2002). These fecal indicators were
132 chosen because they are of regulatory interest in drinking, surface, and wastewater. Samples of the
133 reactor filtrate were diluted (10^{-2} , 10^{-3} , 10^{-4}) to quantify planktonic cells. All plates were incubated at
134 36°C for 24 hours and photographed for counting under visible light to quantify total coliform and UV
135 light to quantify *E. coli*. ImageJ software was used to assist the counting of the plates.

136 A preliminary biofilm dislodging study was performed to choose an appropriate amount of time and
137 intensity of vortexing required to remove the biofilm from the particles without reducing fecal indicator
138 cell viability. Briefly, PE from a personal care product and PS particles generated as described above
139 were incubated for 24 hours in grab samples of pre-disinfection secondary effluent collected from the
140 same WWTP on March 3rd, 2019. Particles were collected on stainless steel mesh and transferred into
141 microcentrifuge tubes with PBS, as described above. The microcentrifuge tubes were vortexed at either
142 high (speed setting 10) or low speed (speed setting 7), for a time of either one or two minutes resulting in
143 four experimental conditions for each particle type (i.e., high speed 1 min, low speed 1 min, high speed 2
144 min, low speed 2 min) (Arias-Andres *et al.*, 2018; Masangkay *et al.*, 2020). Fecal coliform were
145 quantified as described above.

146 ***Chemical analyses***

147 Aliquots of the wastewater samples were analyzed for basic water quality parameters including pH,
148 chemical oxygen demand (COD), and conductivity. pH and conductivity were measured with a field
149 meter (Orion Star A329, Thermo Scientific). COD was measured using Hach Method 8000 with Hach
150 COD vials (20–1500 mg L⁻¹ range) and a DR2700 spectrophotometer (Hach, Loveland, CO). PAA
151 residual was measured using a commercial kit (Peracetic Acid Vacu-Vials, CHEMetrics, Midland, VA).

152 MP particles were analyzed via ATR-FTIR on a Bruker ALPHA. Spectra were collected in
153 transmittance mode. Spectra were compared to the Bruker polymer library and siMPle (Primpke *et al.*,
154 2018) to confirm their polymer identity.

155 ***Statistical Analysis***

156 The fecal indicator concentration data were analyzed using PERMANOVA, via the adonis2 function in
157 the R package vegan, for the initial biofilm dislodging study to compare impact of vortex speed and
158 time and for the subsequent experiments to compare between particle type and PAA treatment for a given
159 matrix (i.e., biofilm or filtrate). Log removals of fecal indicators were compared between matrix and
160 material using PERMANOVA, as well. Results for total coliform and *E. coli* from each experiment (i.e.,
161 influent and pre-disinfection secondary effluent) were analyzed separately. The *E. coli* data were Box-
162 Cox transformed because more than 20% of samples resulted in too few colonies to count. The
163 coefficients of the transformation were obtained with the boxcofit function in R. Then the data were
164 analyzed in the same manner as the total coliform data with the adonis2 function. After confirming
165 normality of the PAA concentration data with a Shapiro test, these data were compared between reactors
166 fed with wastewater influent with different particle types (i.e., LDPE vs. wood) with a Welch two sample
167 t-test. The number of particles per reactor were compared across particle type with a Kruskal test
168 followed by a pairwise t-test with a Holm correction for multiple comparisons.

169 **Results**

170 The substrates for biofilm growth were generated for the LDPE, HDPE, and PP MP or collected for the
171 wood microparticles used as a material control in this study (Fig. 1). An equal volume of these
172 microparticles was added to each reactor but because of their differences in morphology, and therefore
173 packing, this resulted in a range of particle concentrations of each per reactor (LDPE: 132 ± 13
174 particles/reactor, HDPE: 146 ± 9 particles/reactor, PP: 326 ± 33 particles/reactor, wood: 348 ± 252
175 particles/reactor). There was a significant difference between the number of particles in the HDPE and PP
176 reactors ($p=0.037$, pairwise.t.test) and no significant difference between particle types in other reactors
177 (all $p > 0.05$, pairwise.t.test). Fecal indicators grown on these particles as biofilms are presented on a per-
178 volume of particles basis and described on a per-particle basis to control for the differences in particles
179 per reactor. The materials used to create the MPs were each labeled with their composition and confirmed
180 by FTIR. Spectra are shown as Fig. S2 and matched the expected polymers in the siMPle library with
181 69.1% match for LDPE, 96.4% for HDPE, 98.6% for PP, and 85.4% match for wood (poplar was the
182 greatest hit, although the wood used was from a Spanish Oak tree). These expected matches corresponded
183 to the highest scores for HDPE and PP, second highest for LDPE (HDPE was the highest match), and
184 third highest for the wood (other fibers had higher scores).

185 To compare the prevalence of fecal coliform and *E. coli* in microplastic biofilms and material controls,
186 the biofilms needed to be dislodged from the particle surfaces after removal from the reactors. Options
187 for vortex speed and duration were tested in the preliminary study. The resulting total coliform
188 concentrations were analyzed via PERMANOVA, which indicated that there was not a significant
189 difference in the number of viable dislodged CFUs between vortexing at high or low speed (10 or 7,
190 respectively, $p=0.16$) or between vortexing for one or two minutes ($p=0.65$, Fig. S3). Going forward, a
191 vortexing time of two minutes at high speed was chosen to dislodge the biofilms.

192 ***Fecal indicator growth on microplastics***

193 Batch reactors with either wastewater influent or pre-disinfection secondary effluent were used to grow
194 biofilm on up to four different types of 500-2000 μm particles. For reactors with wastewater influent,
195 both fecal coliform and *E. coli* were quantifiable in biofilms grown on LDPE and wood as well as in the
196 reactor filtrate (Fig. 2, 3). The biofilm total coliform concentrations grown in wastewater influent were
197 significantly higher for wood than the LDPE particles on a CFU per mL of particles basis ($p=0.002$,
198 PERMANOVA, Fig. 2a) and on a CFU per particle basis ($p=0.014$, PERMANOVA, Fig. 2c). However,
199 there was no significant difference in filtrate total coliform concentration between the reactors incubated
200 with the different particle types ($p=0.071$, PERMANOVA, Fig. 2b). Similar observations were made for
201 *E. coli*: wood biofilm had higher concentrations compared to LDPE on a CFU per mL of particles basis
202 ($p=0.005$, Fig. 3a) and on a CFU per particle basis ($p = 0.019$, Fig. 3c) and no difference in concentrations
203 between the reactors incubated with the different particle types for filtrate ($p=0.821$, Fig. 3b). The
204 wastewater influent chemical quality parameters across the three reactors were consistent for COD
205 (459 ± 96 mg/L), TSS (290 ± 86 mg/L), pH (7.3 ± 0.02), and conductivity (865 ± 48 $\mu\text{S/cm}$) (Table S1).

206 For reactors with pre-disinfection secondary effluent, both fecal indicators were quantifiable in the reactor
207 filtrate and biofilms grown on the wood chips, but too few to count (not countable, NC) for all
208 microplastic biofilm in that matrix (i.e., HDPE, LDPE, and PP). The limit of detection was 1 CFU/mL for
209 the filtrate and 4.8 CFU/mL of particles for the biofilm. While not quantifiable, fecal indicators were
210 observed in the HDPE, LDPE, and PP biofilm and filtrate. When quantifiable, wood microparticles in the
211 pre-disinfection secondary effluent had biofilm total coliform concentrations of 21000 ± 13000 CFU/mL of
212 particle and 6200 ± 1700 CFU/100 mL in the filtrate. The secondary effluent across the three sampling
213 dates was consistent in chemical composition, with COD (25 ± 4 mg/l), TSS (5 ± 1 mg/l) and pH (7.1 ± 0.05)
214 and conductivity (852 ± 25 $\mu\text{S/cm}$).

215 ***PAA disinfection***

216 To determine the susceptibility to PAA disinfection of fecal indicator organisms in particle biofilms
217 compared to the planktonic fecal indicator organisms, half of the reactors were treated with a PAA dose
218 of 2 mg/L. For the reactors with wastewater influent, the PAA concentration measured immediately after
219 dosing was 1.80 ± 0.05 mg/L and 1.70 ± 0.02 mg/L for the LDPE and wood reactors, respectively. After 25
220 min of exposure the final PAA concentrations for the LDPE reactors was 1.33 ± 0.05 mg/L and for the
221 wood reactors was 1.25 ± 0.03 mg/L. Thus, the CT for the LDPE reactors was 33.1 ± 1.3 mg/(L·min) and the
222 wood chip reactors was 31.2 ± 0.8 mg/(L·min) (Table S2). None of these values significantly differed by
223 particle type (all $p > 0.05$, Welch two sample t-test). After quenching the reactors, the residual PAA
224 concentration was below detection in all reactors. Following quenching, biofilm and filtrate samples were
225 collected for cultivation of fecal indicators.

226 For the reactors with wastewater influent, there was no significant difference in biofilm total coliform
227 concentrations between PAA treated and untreated reactors ($p = 0.34$, all by PERMANOVA) or as a
228 function of treatment and material (i.e., LDPE vs. wood, $p = 0.17$). In contrast, PAA treatment resulted in a
229 significant decrease in total coliform concentrations observed in the filtrate of treated reactors compared
230 to nontreated reactors ($p = 0.018$). Next, the log-removals of TC were compared (Fig. 2d). There was no
231 significant difference in log-removal by material ($p = 0.19$), matrix ($p = 0.58$), nor was interaction between
232 these variables observed ($p = 0.54$). The PAA treatment did not significantly reduce the *E. coli*
233 concentration for the biofilm or filtrate in untreated compared to treated reactors (both $p > 0.14$, Fig. 3d).
234 Likewise, there was also no significant difference in log-removal of *E. coli* when comparing the plastic
235 and wood reactors ($p = 0.31$) or when comparing biofilm and filtrate ($p = 0.88$).

236 For the reactors with pre-disinfection secondary effluent, total coliform and *E. coli* were not quantifiable
237 (NC) on all but 10 plates out of 24. There was an average log inactivation of 0.5 for the wood biofilm, and
238 no quantifiable results for the treated wood filtrate. The untreated wood filtrate had an average
239 concentration of 6200 ± 1700 CFU/100 mL. Based on the detection limit of 1 CFU/mL for filtrate, log
240 inactivation of the wood filtrate can be estimated at 3.8.

241 **Discussion**

242 ***Biofilm growth***

243 Fecal indicator organisms were observed in the biofilms of all of the microparticles incubated in
244 wastewater influent but only with countable concentrations for wood microparticles incubated in pre-
245 disinfection secondary effluent. Thus, PE was not a more attractive substrate for fecal coliform and *E. coli*
246 than the natural substrate when incubated in wastewater influent. In fact, the highest concentrations of
247 total coliform and *E. coli* were observed in reactors containing wood particles. Correcting for the
248 differences in particle concentration did not change this observation, which is expected due to the fact that
249 particle counts were not significantly different between MP and wood reactors. The higher *E. coli* and
250 total coliform concentrations in wood biofilm and filtrate is not surprising, as wood has several properties
251 that make it a good substrate for biofilm compared to MP. LDPE is resistant to being metabolized by
252 microorganisms due to its long chain structure (Hadad *et al.*, 2005; Mehmood *et al.*, 2016) whereas wood
253 contains carbohydrates that can serve as a nutrient source bioavailable to microorganisms (Broda and
254 Popescu, 2019; Sailer *et al.*, 2010). In addition, the wood chips have a rough and complex microstructure
255 as well as increased wettability over LDPE, which could enhance biofilm attachment (Farber *et al.*, 2019;
256 Hou *et al.*, 2011). Comparisons for biofilm formation by polymer type were explored only with the pre-
257 disinfection secondary effluent which did not show significant growth, therefore reporting conclusions
258 about the biofilm formation (and disinfection) by different MP types is not possible here. Previous
259 studies have demonstrated that biofilm microbial communities are affected by substrate morphology, size
260 class, and material (Miao *et al.*, 2019; Parrish and Fahrenfeld, 2019; Quilliam *et al.*, 2014).

261 The findings of this study are in agreement with another recent study of biofilm formation in freshwater
262 that reported *E. coli* is more likely to colonize wood than PE particles (Song *et al.*, 2020). Other recent
263 studies that have demonstrated that fecal indicator organisms prefer natural substrates such as stone,
264 wood, and seaweed to MP (Miao *et al.*, 2019; Quilliam *et al.*, 2014). Fecal indicators are used as

265 surrogates for monitoring for pathogens and there is a growing body of research to understand the
266 possibility of MPs harboring pathogenic organisms and therefore serving as vectors for harmful microbes
267 to be transported far from their sources (Silva *et al.*, 2019). Potentially pathogenic microbial species such
268 as *Vibrio* and *Pseudomonas* were identified in biofilms colonizing microplastic particles found in marine
269 waters and freshwater, respectively (Kirstein *et al.*, 2016; McCormick *et al.*, 2014; Parrish and
270 Fahrenfeld, 2019). It is worth noting that some of the studies reporting potential pathogens in microplastic
271 biofilm relied upon amplicon sequencing techniques, which may not be able to accurately identify
272 microbes at the species level nor does it capture information about viability.

273 Comparing the two wastewater fractions, as expected, particles incubated in wastewater influent grew
274 more fecal indicators in the biofilm: fecal indicators were only quantifiable on the wood microparticles
275 incubated in pre-disinfection secondary wastewater effluent. Coliform and *E. coli* were also observed in
276 biofilms dislodged from the LDPE films, but below quantification. Neither indicator organism was
277 quantifiable on the PP and HDPE fragments. This observation may be due to the low amount of available
278 nutrients in the secondary effluent. Note, the COD in secondary effluent was 5% of that in the influent,
279 indicating less carbon which the wood microparticles could potentially provide. Or, again, the difference
280 may be due to the differences in surface texture between the wood and MP particles.

281 It is important to note that the MPs created for this study by cutting and grinding virgin plastic may not
282 have the same surface texture of environmental secondary microplastic. In the environment, PE and other
283 polymers degrade primarily via UV radiation, with heat and water both accelerating the breakdown of the
284 molecular structure (Briassoulis *et al.*, 2004; Gewert *et al.*, 2015; Gulmine *et al.*, 2003). UV radiation
285 from the sun initiates chain scission and brittle failure, which causes microplastic particles to slough off
286 of larger plastic debris (Cai *et al.*, 2018; Lambert and Wagner, 2016). Microplastics that have been
287 degraded in the laboratory with UV irradiation have been reported to have increased surface roughness
288 (Cai *et al.*, 2018; Gulmine *et al.*, 2003; Hiejima *et al.*, 2018). Therefore, future studies may seek to use

289 LDPE microplastics that have been artificially weathered in a chamber similar to Brandon et al. (Brandon
290 et al., 2016) to serve as an improved representation of environmental microplastics.

291 ***Disinfection***

292 Results of the disinfection study demonstrate that biofilm microbes were more resistant to disinfection
293 than planktonic microbes, but that fecal indicators in MP biofilm did not have different log- inactivation
294 compared to wood microparticle biofilms. The first observation was expected: biofilms are generally
295 considered to be more difficult to disinfect than planktonic organisms (Bridier et al., 2011; Kim et al.,
296 2008; Lee et al., 2020), and that is due to a few important factors. First, a disinfectant will act on the
297 surface of a biofilm and may not penetrate enough to reach microbes living closer to the substrate thus
298 allowing them to escape disinfection (Bridier et al., 2011). Second, the extracellular matrix (ECM) can
299 protect biofilm organisms from direct action of disinfectant on their cell membranes (Fux et al., 2005).
300 Disinfectant consumed oxidizing the ECM will not be available to oxidize the cell membranes of the
301 target microbes. This lowers the effectiveness of a given concentration of disinfectant (Stewart, 2015).
302 The levels of PAA inactivation observed for fecal indicators in the pre-disinfection secondary effluent
303 were similar to the results from particles incubated in the wastewater influent. Following PAA
304 disinfection, fecal indicators could not be quantified for the wood filtrate, suggesting again a greater
305 susceptibility of planktonic cells to disinfection.

306 The fact that MP and wood biofilm were equally resistant to disinfection (i.e., had similar log-
307 inactivations) indicates that understanding the relative concentration of MP compared to other buoyant
308 microparticles in WW effluent would help indicate which particle type is contributing most to the
309 bypassing of disinfection by biofilm fecal indicator organisms. This is significant because it highlights the
310 importance of optimizing wastewater treatment processes for the removal of neutrally buoyant particles
311 such as MP and/or removing biofilms during disinfection. While WWTP's are not thought to be the only
312 source of MP in the freshwater environment (Fahrenfeld et al., 2019), they are not 100 percent effective at

313 removing MP, allowing a path for pathogenic organisms from wastewater to bypass disinfection
314 processes. Any differences in the fate of these different buoyant microparticles following release in
315 effluent will have an impact on the ultimate hazard or lack thereof with respect to their fecal indicator
316 loads.

317 **Conclusion**

318 Microplastic biofilms did not prove to be more resistant to disinfection than natural substrate (i.e., wood
319 chips). However, biofilms dislodged from wood microparticles grew the most fecal coliform and *E. coli*
320 of the substrates studied, likely due to surface texture and availability of nutrients. The biofilms were
321 more resistant to disinfection than planktonic bacteria, as expected. Given that the MP biofilms behaved
322 similarly to other microparticles with regard to disinfection, one may rely on the literature for disinfection
323 of biofilm fecal indicators on other particles when predicting MP behavior. While it has been suggested
324 that MP is potentially more difficult to remove than naturally occurring particles due to the neutral
325 buoyancy of MP in contrast to the positive buoyancy of wood and negative buoyancy of sediment
326 particles. (Ngo *et al.*, 2019), WWTPs have been found to be 70-100% effective at removing MP from
327 wastewater.(Conley *et al.*, 2019; Sun *et al.*, 2019). Nonetheless, wastewater treatment processes that in
328 general remove particulates that carry harder to disinfect biofilms will reduce the loading of fecal
329 microbes to effluent receiving water bodies.

330 **Acknowledgements**

331 Funding for this project came from a Pootje Douglass Residential College Microbiology Fellowship to
332 Kathleen Parrish, a School of Engineering Fellowship to William Boni, and NSF Grant # 1917676. The
333 authors wish to thank our utility partners for providing access to the wastewater influent and Georgia
334 Arbuckle-Keil for access to the FTIR.

335 The data that support the findings of this study are available from the corresponding author upon
336 reasonable request

337 **Figure Captions**

338

339 **Fig. 1** Images of the 500-2000 μ m particles used in the reactors. (A) LDPE, (B) HDPE, (C) PP, (D) wood.

340 **Fig. 2** a. Log total coliform (TC) CFU for the dilodged biofilm (TC/mL of particles) and b. filtrate
341 (TC/100 mL filtrate) grown in wastewater influent. c. Log total coliform (TC) CFU for the dilodged
342 biofilm on a per-particle basis (TC/100 particles). Results are shown for reactors with microplastic
343 (LDPE) or control microparticles (wood chips) with peracetic acid (PAA) disinfection and without (no).d.
344 Log removal of TC for both matrices (biofilm and filtrate) and particle types (LDPE or wood). N=3. In
345 the box and whisker plots, the boxes represent the 25%, median, and 75% of data and the dots represent
346 outliers.

347 **Fig. 3** a. Log *E. coli* CFU for the dilodged biofilm (EC/mL of particles) and b. filtrate (EC/100 mL
348 filtrate) grown in wastewater influent. c. Log *E. coli* CFU for the dilodged biofilm on a per-particle basis
349 (EC/100 particles). Results are shown for reactors with microplastic (LDPE) or control microparticles
350 (wood chips) with peracetic acid (PAA) disinfection and without (no).d. Log removal of *E. coli* for both
351 matrices (biofilm and filtrate) and particle types (LDPE or wood). N=3. In the box and whisker plots, the
352 boxes represent the 25%, median, and 75% of data and the dots represent outliers.

353

354 **References**

- 355 Arias-Andres, M.; Klümper, U.; Rojas-Jimenez, K.; Grossart, H.-P. (2018) Microplastic pollution
356 increases gene exchange in aquatic ecosystems. *Environmental Pollution*, 237, 253-261.
- 357 Brandon, J.; Goldstein, M.; Ohman, M. D. (2016) Long-term aging and degradation of microplastic
358 particles: Comparing in situ oceanic and experimental weathering patterns. *Marine Pollution*
359 *Bulletin*, 110, 299-308.
- 360 Briassoulis, D.; Aristopoulou, A.; Bonora, M.; Verlodt, I. (2004) Degradation Characterisation of
361 Agricultural Low-density Polyethylene Films. *Biosystems Engineering*, 88, 131-143.
- 362 Bridier, A.; Briandet, R.; Thomas, V.; Dubois-Brissonnet, F. (2011) Resistance of bacterial biofilms to
363 disinfectants: a review. *Biofouling*, 27, 1017-1032.
- 364 Broda, M.; Popescu, C.-M. (2019) Natural decay of archaeological oak wood versus artificial
365 degradation processes — An FT-IR spectroscopy and X-ray diffraction study. *Spectrochimica Acta*
366 *Part A: Molecular and Biomolecular Spectroscopy*, 209, 280-287.
- 367 Cai, L.; Wang, J.; Peng, J.; Wu, Z.; Tan, X. (2018) Observation of the degradation of three types of
368 plastic pellets exposed to UV irradiation in three different environments. *Science of The Total*
369 *Environment*, 628-629, 740-747.
- 370 Conley, K.; Clum, A.; Deepe, J.; Lane, H.; Beckingham, B. (2019) Wastewater treatment plants as a
371 source of microplastics to an urban estuary: Removal efficiencies and loading per capita over one
372 year. *Water Research X*, 3, 100030.
- 373 Eckert, E. M.; Di Cesare, A.; Kettner, M. T.; Arias-Andres, M.; Fontaneto, D.; Grossart, H.-P.; Corno,
374 G. (2018) Microplastics increase impact of treated wastewater on freshwater microbial community.
375 *Environmental Pollution*, 234, 495-502.
- 376 Enders, K.; Lenz, R.; Stedmon, C. A.; Nielsen, T. G. (2015) Abundance, size and polymer composition
377 of marine microplastics $\geq 10 \mu\text{m}$ in the Atlantic Ocean and their modelled vertical distribution.
378 *Marine Pollution Bulletin*, 100, 70-81.
- 379 EPA, U. S. (2002) Method 1604: total coliforms and *Escherichia coli* in water by membrane filtration
380 using a simultaneous detection technique (MI Medium), EPA-821-R-02-024 ed. EPA Office of Water.
- 381 EPA, U. S. (2012) Recreational water quality criteria, 820-F-12-058 ed. EPA Office of Water.
- 382 EPA, U. S.; Tetra Tech, I.; Consultants, H. E. (2011) Using microbial source tracking to support TMDL
383 development and implementation. U.S. EPA Region 10 Watersheds Unit.
- 384 Fahrenfeld, N. L.; Arbuckle-Keil, G.; Naderi, N.; Bartelt-Hunt, S. (2019) Source tracking microplastics
385 in the freshwater environment. *TrAC Trends in Analytical Chemistry*, 112, 248-254.

- 386 Farber, R.; Dabush-Busheri, I.; Chaniel, G.; Rozenfeld, S.; Bormashenko, E.; Multanen, V.; Cahan, R.
387 (2019) Biofilm grown on wood waste pretreated with cold low-pressure nitrogen plasma: Utilization
388 for toluene remediation. *International Biodeterioration & Biodegradation*, 139, 62-69.
- 389 Fiorentino, A.; Ferro, G.; Alferez, M. C.; Polo-López, M. I.; Fernández-Ibañez, P.; Rizzo, L. (2015)
390 Inactivation and regrowth of multidrug resistant bacteria in urban wastewater after disinfection by
391 solar-driven and chlorination processes. *Journal of Photochemistry and Photobiology B: Biology*, 148,
392 43-50.
- 393 Formisano, F.; Fiorentino, A.; Rizzo, L.; Carotenuto, M.; Pucci, L.; Giugni, M.; Lofrano, G. (2016)
394 Inactivation of *Escherichia coli* and Enterococci in urban wastewater by sunlight/PAA and
395 sunlight/H₂O₂ processes. *Process Safety and Environmental Protection*, 104, 178-184.
- 396 Frère, L.; Paul-Pont, I.; Rinnert, E.; Petton, S.; Jaffré, J.; Bihannic, I.; Soudant, P.; Lambert, C.; Huvet,
397 A. (2017) Influence of environmental and anthropogenic factors on the composition, concentration
398 and spatial distribution of microplastics: A case study of the Bay of Brest (Brittany, France).
399 *Environmental Pollution*, 225, 211-222.
- 400 Fux, C. A.; Costerton, J. W.; Stewart, P. S.; Stoodley, P. (2005) Survival strategies of infectious
401 biofilms. *Trends in Microbiology*, 13, 34-40.
- 402 Gewert, B.; Plassmann, M. M.; MacLeod, M. (2015) Pathways for degradation of plastic polymers
403 floating in the marine environment. *Environmental Science: Processes & Impacts*, 17, 1513-1521.
- 404 Guerranti, C.; Martellini, T.; Perra, G.; Scopetani, C.; Cincinelli, A. (2019) Microplastics in cosmetics:
405 Environmental issues and needs for global bans. *Environmental Toxicology and Pharmacology*, 68,
406 75-79.
- 407 Gulmine, J. V.; Janissek, P. R.; Heise, H. M.; Akcelrud, L. (2003) Degradation profile of polyethylene
408 after artificial accelerated weathering. *Polymer Degradation and Stability*, 79, 385-397.
- 409 Hadad, D.; Geresh, S.; Sivan, A. (2005) Biodegradation of polyethylene by the thermophilic bacterium
410 *Brevibacillus borstelensis*. *Journal of Applied Microbiology*, 98, 1093-1100.
- 411 Halász, G.; Gyüre, B.; Jánosi, I. M.; Szabó, K. G.; Tél, T. (2007) Vortex flow generated by a magnetic
412 stirrer. *American Journal of Physics*, 75, 1092-1098.
- 413 Hiejima, Y.; Kida, T.; Takeda, K.; Igarashi, T.; Nitta, K.-h. (2018) Microscopic structural changes
414 during photodegradation of low-density polyethylene detected by Raman spectroscopy. *Polymer*
415 *Degradation and Stability*, 150, 67-72.
- 416 Hou, W.; Zhang, L.; Long, Y. (2011) Study on the wettability of polyethylene film fabricated at lower
417 temperature. *Journal of Colloid and Interface Science*, 362, 629-632.
- 418 Kershaw, P.; Rochman, C. (2015) Sources, fate and effects of microplastics in the marine
419 environment: part 2 of a global assessment. *Reports and studies-IMO/FAO/Unesco-*

420 *IOC/WMO/IAEA/UN/UNEP Joint Group of Experts on the Scientific Aspects of Marine*
421 *Environmental Protection (GESAMP) eng no. 93.*

422 Kim, J.; Pitts, B.; Stewart, P. S.; Camper, A.; Yoon, J. (2008) Comparison of the antimicrobial effects of
423 chlorine, silver ion, and tobramycin on biofilm. *Antimicrobial Agents and Chemotherapy*, 52, 1446.

424 Kirstein, I. V.; Kirmizi, S.; Wichels, A.; Garin-Fernandez, A.; Erler, R.; Löder, M.; Gerds, G. (2016)
425 Dangerous hitchhikers? Evidence for potentially pathogenic *Vibrio spp.* on microplastic particles.
426 *Marine Environmental Research*, 120, 1-8.

427 Kitis, M. (2004) Disinfection of wastewater with peracetic acid: a review. *Environment International*,
428 30, 47-55.

429 Koivunen, J.; Heinonen-Tanski, H. (2005) Peracetic acid (PAA) disinfection of primary, secondary
430 and tertiary treated municipal wastewaters. *Water Research*, 39, 4445-4453.

431 Lambert, S.; Wagner, M. (2016) Formation of microscopic particles during the degradation of
432 different polymers. *Chemosphere*, 161, 510-517.

433 Lee, H.-J.; Kim, H.-E.; Kim, M. S.; de Lannoy, C.-F.; Lee, C. (2020) Inactivation of bacterial planktonic
434 cells and biofilms by Cu(II)-activated peroxydisulfate in the presence of chloride ion. *Chemical*
435 *Engineering Journal*, 380, 122468.

436 Li, J.; Liu, H.; Paul Chen, J. (2018) Microplastics in freshwater systems: A review on occurrence,
437 environmental effects, and methods for microplastics detection. *Water Research*, 137, 362-374.

438 Masangkay, F. R.; Milanez, G. D.; Tsiami, A.; Hapan, F. Z.; Somsak, V.; Kotepui, M.; Tangpong, J.;
439 Karanis, P. (2020) Waterborne protozoan pathogens in environmental aquatic biofilms: Implications
440 for water quality assessment strategies. *Environmental Pollution*, 259, 113903.

441 McCormick, A.; Hoellein, T. J.; Mason, S. A.; Schluep, J.; Kelly, J. J. (2014) Microplastic is an
442 Abundant and Distinct Microbial Habitat in an Urban River. *Environmental Science & Technology*,
443 48, 11863-11871.

444 McFadden, M.; Loconsole, J.; Schockling, A. J.; Nerenberg, R.; Pavissich, J. P. (2017) Comparing
445 peracetic acid and hypochlorite for disinfection of combined sewer overflows: Effects of suspended-
446 solids and pH. *Science of The Total Environment*, 599-600, 533-539.

447 Mehmood, C. T.; Qazi, I. A.; Hashmi, I.; Bhargava, S.; Deepa, S. (2016) Biodegradation of low density
448 polyethylene (LDPE) modified with dye sensitized titania and starch blend using *Stenotrophomonas*
449 *pavanii*. *International Biodeterioration & Biodegradation*, 113, 276-286.

450 Meng, Y.; Kelly, F. J.; Wright, S. L. (2020) Advances and challenges of microplastic pollution in
451 freshwater ecosystems: A UK perspective. *Environmental Pollution*, 256, 113445.

- 452 Miao, L.; Wang, P.; Hou, J.; Yao, Y.; Liu, Z.; Liu, S.; Li, T. (2019) Distinct community structure and
453 microbial functions of biofilms colonizing microplastics. *Science of The Total Environment*, 650,
454 2395-2402.
- 455 Monarca, S.; Richardso, S. D.; Feretti, D.; Grottolo, M.; Thruston Jr, A. D.; Zani, C.; Navazio, G.;
456 Ragazzo, P.; Zerbini, I.; Alberti, A. (2002) Mutagenicity and disinfection by-products in surface
457 drinking water disinfected with peracetic acid. *Environmental Toxicology and Chemistry*, 21, 309-
458 318.
- 459 Ngo, P. L.; Pramanik, B. K.; Shah, K.; Roychand, R. (2019) Pathway, classification and removal
460 efficiency of microplastics in wastewater treatment plants. *Environmental Pollution*, 255, 113326.
- 461 Paço, A.; Duarte, K.; da Costa, J. P.; Santos, P. S. M.; Pereira, R.; Pereira, M. E.; Freitas, A. C.; Duarte,
462 A. C.; Rocha-Santos, T. A. P. (2017) Biodegradation of polyethylene microplastics by the marine
463 fungus *Zalerion maritimum*. *Science of The Total Environment*, 586, 10-15.
- 464 Park, S. Y.; Kim, C. G. (2019) Biodegradation of micro-polyethylene particles by bacterial
465 colonization of a mixed microbial consortium isolated from a landfill site. *Chemosphere*, 222, 527-
466 533.
- 467 Parrish, K.; Fahrenfeld, N. L. (2019) Microplastic biofilm in fresh- and wastewater as a function of
468 microparticle type and size class. *Environmental Science: Water Research & Technology*, 5, 495-505.
- 469 Porter, A. W., Wolfson, S. J., & Young, L. (2020). Pharmaceutical transforming microbes from
470 wastewater and natural environments can colonize microplastics. *AIMS Environmental Science*, 7(1),
471 99.
- 472 Pimpke, S.; Wirth, M.; Lorenz, C.; Gerdt, G. (2018) Reference database design for the automated
473 analysis of microplastic samples based on Fourier transform infrared (FTIR) spectroscopy. *Analytical
474 and Bioanalytical Chemistry*, 410, 5131-5141.
- 475 Quilliam, R. S.; Jamieson, J.; Oliver, D. M. (2014) Seaweeds and plastic debris can influence the
476 survival of faecal indicator organisms in beach environments. *Marine Pollution Bulletin*, 84, 201-207.
- 477 Rodrigues, A.; Oliver, D. M.; McCarron, A.; Quilliam, R. S. (2019) Colonisation of plastic pellets
478 (nurdles) by *E. coli* at public bathing beaches. *Marine Pollution Bulletin*, 139, 376-380.
- 479 Sailer, M. F.; van Nieuwenhuijzen, E. J.; Knol, W. (2010) Forming of a functional biofilm on wood
480 surfaces. *Ecological Engineering*, 36, 163-167.
- 481 Silva, M. M.; Maldonado, G. C.; Castro, R. O.; de Sá Felizardo, J.; Cardoso, R. P.; Anjos, R. M. d.;
482 Araújo, F. V. d. (2019) Dispersal of potentially pathogenic bacteria by plastic debris in Guanabara Bay,
483 RJ, Brazil. *Marine Pollution Bulletin*, 141, 561-568.

- 484 Song, J.; Jongmans-Hochschulz, E.; Mauder, N.; Imirzalioglu, C.; Wichels, A.; Gerdts, G. (2020) The
485 Travelling Particles: Investigating microplastics as possible transport vectors for multidrug resistant *E.*
486 *coli* in the Weser estuary (Germany). *Science of The Total Environment*, 720, 137603.
- 487 Stanton, T.; Johnson, M.; Nathanail, P.; MacNaughtan, W.; Gomes, R. L. (2020) Freshwater
488 microplastic concentrations vary through both space and time. *Environmental Pollution*, 263,
489 114481.
- 490 Stewart, P. S. (2015) Antimicrobial Tolerance in Biofilms. *Microbiology spectrum*, 3,
491 10.1128/microbiolspec.MB-0010-2014.
- 492 Sun, J.; Dai, X.; Wang, Q.; van Loosdrecht, M. C. M.; Ni, B.-J. (2019) Microplastics in wastewater
493 treatment plants: Detection, occurrence and removal. *Water Research*, 152, 21-37.
- 494 Viršek, M. K.; Lovšin, M. N.; Koren, Š.; Kržan, A.; Peterlin, M. (2017) Microplastics as a vector for the
495 transport of the bacterial fish pathogen species *Aeromonas salmonicida*. *Marine Pollution Bulletin*,
496 125, 301-309.
- 497 Wagner, M.; Brumelis, D.; Gehr, R. (2002) Disinfection of wastewater by hydrogen peroxide or
498 peracetic acid: development of procedures for measurement of residual disinfectant and application to
499 a physicochemically treated municipal effluent. *Water Environment Research*, 74, 33-50.
- 500 Xanthos, D.; Walker, T. R. (2017) International policies to reduce plastic marine pollution from
501 single-use plastics (plastic bags and microbeads): A review. *Marine Pollution Bulletin*, 118, 17-26.
- 502