

1 Microplastic-specific biofilm growth determines the vertical transport  
2 of plastics in freshwater

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**ABBREVIATIONS:** ATR, Attenuated total reflectance; FTIR, Fourier-transform infrared spectroscopy; MP, Microplastics; SD, Standard deviation; SOT, Settling onset time; SV, Sinking velocity; LDPE, Low-Density Polyethylene; PP, Polypropylene; PS, Polystyrene; PET, Polyethylene terephthalate; PVC, Polyvinyl chloride.

11 **ABSTRACT:** Understanding the sinking behavior of microplastics in freshwater is essential for assessing their  
12 environmental impact, guiding research efforts, and formulating effective policies to mitigate plastic pollution.  
13 Sinking behavior is a complex process driven by plastic density, environmental factors and particle characteristics.  
14 Moreover, the growth of biological entities on the plastic surface can affect the total density of the microplastics  
15 and thus influence the sinking behavior. Yet, our understanding of these processes in freshwater is still limited.  
16 Our research thus focused on studying biofilm growth on microplastics in freshwater. Therefore, we evaluated  
17 biofilm growth on five different polymer types (both microplastic particles and plates) which were incubated in  
18 freshwater for 63 days in a controlled laboratory setting. Biofilm growth (mass-based) was used to compare biofilm  
19 growth between polymer types, surface roughness and study the changes over time. Understanding the temporal  
20 aspect of biofilm growth enabled us to refine calculations on the predicted effect of biofilm growth on the settling  
21 behavior in freshwater. The results showed that biofilm formation is polymer-specific but also affected by surface  
22 roughness, with a rougher surface promoting biofilm growth. For PET and PS, biofilm tended to grow exponentially  
23 during 63 days of incubation. Based on our calculations, biofilm growth did affect the sinking behavior differently  
24 based on the polymer type, size and density. Rivers can function as sinks for some particles such as large PET  
25 particles. Nevertheless, for others, the likelihood of settling within river systems appears limited, thereby  
26 increasing the probability of their transit to estuarine or oceanic environments under hydrometeorological  
27 influences. While the complexity of biofilm dynamics on plastic surfaces is not fully understood, our findings help  
28 to elucidate the effect of biofilms on the vertical behavior of microplastics in freshwater systems hereby offering  
29 knowledge to interpret observed patterns in environmental plastic concentrations.

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31 **KEYWORDS:** Biofilm, sinking velocity, microplastics, settling onset time, freshwater.

32

## 33 **1. Introduction**

34 Currently, microplastic (MP) pollution is a major environmental concern due to their omnipresence, persistence,  
35 and possible adverse effects on the environment and human health (Trainic et al., 2020). While an increasing  
36 number of effect studies are reported in literature, exposure assessments and insights into environmental  
37 concentrations lag behind. One of the knowledge gaps is named the “missing plastic paradox”, referring to the  
38 discrepancy between estimated ocean plastic input and the concentrations found in the ocean surface layers  
39 (Isobe & Iwasaki, 2022; Koelmans et al., 2017). Different arguments to explain this paradox have been put forward,  
40 but the argument of the rivers being a large sink for plastics seems to largely explain the missing plastic paradox.  
41 Models predicted large amounts of plastics being retained in rivers and river sediments (Drummond et al., 2022;  
42 Newbould et al., 2021; Ryan & Perold, 2021; Tramoy et al., 2020; van Emmerik et al., 2022). Yet, the exact mass  
43 balances and the role of the rivers remain to be established.

44 One of the key processes vital to establishing the role of rivers in the missing plastic paradox is the sinking behavior  
45 of microplastic in freshwater. This is a complex process driven by plastic density but also dependent on both  
46 environmental characteristics (such as temperature and light intensity) and particle characteristics (such as size,  
47 shape and surface properties) (Chen et al., 2019; Kooi et al., 2017; Kowalski et al., 2016). Moreover, the growth of  
48 biological entities on the plastic surface, referred to as biofilm formation, can affect the total density of the  
49 microplastics and thus influence the sinking behavior (Kooi et al., 2017; Semcesen & Wells, 2021; Van Melkebeke  
50 et al., 2020). Although a number of studies have already documented the effect of biofilm growth on microplastic  
51 sinking (Onda & Sharief, 2021), quantification and temporal changes in biofilm have not often been studied for  
52 microplastics in freshwater environment. Biofilm growth is expected to be dependent on both microplastic and  
53 environmental parameters (Onda & Sharief, 2021). The main driver for biofilm growth on microplastics is the  
54 surface area of the particle. Furthermore, environmental factors such as algae presence and growth, temperature  
55 and light intensity do also affect the growth rate of the biofilm (Kooi et al., 2017). Plastic surface characteristics,  
56 possibly changed by weathering processes (Fotopoulou & Karapanagioti, 2015), influence the interaction between  
57 micro-organisms and microplastics and thus also determine the biofilm growth (Carson 2013; Fu2019).

58 The process of biofilm growth over time and its subsequent effect on sinking behavior of microplastics have been  
59 limitedly studied. Based on a theoretical model developed by Kooi et al. (2017), all buoyant polymer types would  
60 show oscillating behavior (floating and sinking) in a marine environment due to algal biofilm growth and  
61 subsequent mortality (Kooi et al., 2017). Most microplastic research has focused on the marine environment until  
62 now, yet a comprehensive understanding of the vertical behavior of plastics in rivers is crucial considering their  
63 presumed role as sink in the missing plastic paradox. The study of Semcesen and Wells (2021) investigated the  
64 sinking behavior of various sizes of polypropylene (PP) microplastics after incubation in freshwater. And although  
65 both the study of Kooi (2017) and Semcesen and Wells (2021) provide valuable insights into the biofilm formation  
66 of microplastics and its effects on sinking behavior, they do not yet fully grasp the complexity of biofilm formation  
67 with possible differences in polymer types, surface characteristics and growth phases of the biofilm. Nonetheless,  
68 based on limited available information, such differences can be expected (Carson et al., 2013; Fu et al., 2019; Miao  
69 et al., 2021).

70 The goal of our current research was to study the biofilm formation on microplastics over time in freshwater  
71 environments, specifically in relation to the polymer type and surface characteristics. This information provides  
72 valuable insights on the fate and transport of microplastics in the freshwater environment. A mesocosm  
73 experiment simulating a freshwater environment was set up, to study the difference in biofilm growth on plastic  
74 plates and microplastic particles of different (both naturally buoyant and more denser) polymer types and with  
75 different surface roughness. Plastics were incubated for 63 days (nine weeks), and the microplastics were sampled  
76 weekly to study biofilm growth over time. These results allowed for a refined estimation of the effect of biofilm  
77 growth on the settling onset time (for naturally buoyant polymer types) and the sinking velocity (for denser  
78 polymer types) for varied sizes of microplastics. The elucidated effect of biofilm on the vertical behavior can  
79 provide valuable information for future studies and data that can be implemented in future modelling efforts,  
80 which can eventually help to identify hotspots, cold spots, transport routes, sources, and sinks of microplastics  
81 (Browne et al., 2011; Chubarenko et al., 2018). Increased understanding of the sinking behavior of microplastics  
82 in freshwater is essential for assessing their environmental impact, protecting ecosystems, maintaining water

83 quality, safeguarding human health, guiding research efforts, and formulating effective policies to mitigate plastic  
84 pollution.

## 85 **2. Materials and methods**

### 86 **2.1 Plastics**

87 The experiments included five polymer types: LDPE, PP, PS, PET and PVC. For all tested polymer types, we obtained  
88 commercial microplastic particles ( $\pm 3$  mm diameter) and plastic plates (57 x 28.5 x 2 mm) from Carat GmbH  
89 (Germany), except for the PVC plates that we bought in a local hardware store. Attenuated Total Reflectance –  
90 Fourier Transformation infrared spectroscopy (ATR-FTIR) confirmed the plastic polymer types. The PVC plates,  
91 although identified as PVC (using ATR-FTIR analysis), had a very low density of 0.630 g cm<sup>-3</sup>, which is not  
92 comparable to the PVC particles acquired via Carat (density 1.199 g cm<sup>-3</sup>). The plastics used were thoroughly  
93 characterized (FTIR-identification and size measurements) (Supplementary file 1).

### 94 **2.2 Biofilm growth**

95 For biofilm growth, the incubation in freshwater of the plastic plates and particles lasted for 63 days (nine weeks)  
96 (Figure 1). We weekly retrieved freshwater from the urban river Coupure located in Ghent, Belgium, to renew one  
97 third of the water in the experimental units. The experiment took place in spring (March to May 2022). Chlorophyll  
98 a (1.60 +/- 1.74 mg/L), pH (8.19 +/- 0.17), and conductivity (904.33 +/- 48.31  $\mu$ S/cm) of the Coupure water  
99 (measured weekly before every renewal) remained stable over the experimental period, except for the Chlorophyll  
100 a concentration which increased over time (Supplementary file 2).

101 Before incubation, we weighted the MP particles and plates individually on an analytical balance (accuracy 0.01  
102 mg; repeatability 0.015 mg) using pre-dried aluminum dishes (1 h, 60 °C). In addition, we collected images of the  
103 MP particles using a light microscope (Olympus SZX10, CellSens software) to estimate the surface area available  
104 per particle. We determined the two main dimensions (length and width) using ImageJ software, and estimated  
105 the third dimension based on 3D measurements of 25 separate particles of each polymer type and the ratio  
106 between length and width (Supplementary file 3).

107 The experimental setup of the incubation of the plates (n= 30; 6 replicates per polymer type) consisted of a glass  
108 aquarium (100 L) filled with freshwater from the river Coupure (Ghent, Belgium). Before incubation, we roughened  
109 the plates to increase the surface roughness. The plates were fully submerged (by weighing them down) to reduce  
110 the effect of buoyancy for the low density polymer types. The incubation of similar polymer types took place  
111 simultaneously. We incubated the particles (n = 720; 16 particles pooled per polymer type and per sampling point)  
112 individually (to increase the contact between particle and water) in freshwater (2 mL) retrieved from the urban  
113 river Coupure (Ghent, Belgium). The incubation was performed in standard laboratory well plates made of  
114 polystyrene plastic.

115 The incubation conditions were a 12 h:12 h dark : light cycle and the plastics were kept in a temperature-controlled  
116 room (T: 15 °C). We renewed the water (1/2 to 1/3 of the volume) every week.

117 For the microplastic particles, we gathered the samples every week to follow the biofilm growth over time (Figure  
118 1). At every sampling point, we collected 16 particles per polymer type from the wells, gently dabbed them off  
119 with tissue paper to remove most of the water and placed them in one pre-dried aluminum dish (1 h, 60 °C). To  
120 determine the plate and biofilm's fresh weight, we weighted the dishes containing the plates on an analytical  
121 balance. Subsequently, the aluminum dishes dried in the oven (60 °C) for 24 hours. After that, the dishes reached  
122 room temperature in an exicator and we weighed them again on an analytical balance for the determination of  
123 the dry weight of the plates with biofilm, according to Wilson et al (2017). After 63 days of incubation, we collected  
124 the final set of particles and removed all plates from the aquaria and weighted them as described before. The  
125 mass of biofilm was normalized for the surface area and expressed as fresh weight per surface area.

### 126 **2.3 Surface roughness of plastics**

127 Scanning electron microscopy images were collected from the used materials (sanded plates, virgin particles). Of  
128 each sample, we collected three SEM images. We analyzed surface roughness in triplicate per image using ImageJ2  
129 software and the SurfCharJ plugin. The measure for surface roughness is the root mean square deviation (Rq)  
130 calculated from the surface plot as described by Chinga et al. (2007).

### 131 **2.4 Data processing**

#### 132 **2.4.1 Biofilm growth**

133 To measure the effect of polymer type and surface roughness on biofilm growth, we calculated the fresh biofilm  
134 mass per surface area for all plates and pellets, based on the assumption of a 90 % water content of the biofilm.  
135 After normality and homogeneity evaluation, we performed a non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis test to study  
136 differences in biofilm mass between polymer types and different surface roughness. The post-hoc analyses  
137 consisted of a pairwise Wilcox test.

138 To study the evolution of biofilm growth over time ( $t$ , days), we fitted a log-linear model to the biofilm masses of  
139 all sampling time points to study exponential growth. When the exponential growth model showed a good fit, the  
140 growth function was extracted.

$$141 \text{mass}_{bf} = C_1 e^{(C_2 t)} \text{ (Eq. 1)}$$

142 with  $C_1$  and  $C_2$  as the coefficients of the polymer-specific exponential growth curve of the biofilm which are used  
143 in further predictions on the effect of biofilm formation on the vertical behavior of microplastics (section 2.5).

#### 144 **2.5 Estimated effect of biofilm formation on vertical behavior**

145 Based on the data of the two experiments (plates and particles) on the growth of the biofilm, we extrapolated the  
146 effect of the biofilm growth on the vertical behavior for varied sizes of plastics, considering the importance of the  
147 available surface area for biofilm growth. The effect of increased roughness on the increased available surface  
148 area was not taken into account.

149 For this extrapolation, some assumptions were made. First, in the biofilm, a 90% water content is assumed  
150 (Schmitt & Flemming, 1999). Second, since no biofilm density for freshwater algae species was found, a default  
151 biofilm density for marine species of 1388 kg/m<sup>3</sup> was used (Kooi et al., 2017). Importantly, reported densities are  
152 very variable ranging between 1030 to 4350 mg/mL, as mentioned by Amaral-Zettler et al. (Amaral-Zettler et al.,  
153 2021). It might be that the actual density is lower ranging between 1100 and 1180 kg/m<sup>3</sup> (Amaral-Zettler et al.,  
154 2021; Van Melkebeke et al., 2020) which could have a minor impact on the calculations performed in this paper.  
155 The third assumption is that the biofilm is assumed to be homogeneously distributed across the total particle's

156 surface with a uniform thickness. Fourth, the average plastic particle is assumed to be spherical (Kooi et al., 2017).  
 157 Finally, the exponential growth is assumed to start at seven days (based on experimental data), the growth  
 158 between 0 and 7 days is unknown. Biofilm mass at the start ( $T_0$ ) is set to zero.

159 For the naturally buoyant polymers (LDPE, PP), we calculated the effect of the biofilm formation on the settling  
 160 onset time for various sizes of microplastics. The settling onset time (SOT) is the time needed for the density of  
 161 the particles (and attached biofilm) to be equal to the density of the water, which equals the timepoint when a  
 162 particle can start sinking (Kooi et al., 2017). The formula used to calculate the SOT was:

$$163 \quad SOT = \frac{\ln\left(\frac{\rho_{bf} V_{pl}}{C_1 \times 4 \times \pi \times r_{pl}^2} \times \frac{\rho_{pl} - \rho_{wat}}{\rho_{wat} - \rho_{bf}} + 1\right)}{C_2} \quad (\text{Eq. 2})$$

164 In which  $\rho_{bf}$ ,  $\rho_{wat}$  and  $\rho_{pl}$  are the densities of the biofilm (1388 kg/m<sup>3</sup>), water (999.19 kg/m<sup>3</sup>), and plastic  
 165 (Supplementary file 1), respectively.  $V_{pl}$  is the volume of the plastic particle and  $r_{pl}$  is the corresponding radius.  
 166 The SOT was calculated for several sizes of plastics with  $r_{pl}$  ranging between 10 and 0.00001 mm.  $C_1$  and  $C_2$  are  
 167 the coefficients of the polymer-specific exponential growth curve of the biofilm (derived from equation 1).

168 For the denser polymers (PET and PS), we calculated the effect of the biofilm formation on the sinking velocity  
 169 (SV) using Equation 3 (Kooi et al., 2017). For the calculations, we calculated a water density ( $\rho_{wat}$ ) of 999.19 kg/m<sup>3</sup>  
 170 and a dynamic viscosity ( $\nu_{wat}$ ) of 0.0012 kg/m\*s based on the experimental temperature (13.4°C) and the  
 171 measured conductivity of the Coupure water (904 ± 48.31 µS/cm) (Kooi et al., 2017; Sharqawy et al., 2010). The  
 172 kinematic viscosity ( $\mu_{wat}$ ) was subsequently calculated as the ratio of the dynamic viscosity and the density of the  
 173 water resulting in a  $\mu_{wat}$  of 1.19 x 10<sup>-6</sup> m<sup>2</sup>/s.  $g$  was set at 9.8 m/s<sup>2</sup>, and the dimensionless settling velocity  $\omega_*$   
 174 was calculated as described in Kooi et al. (2017).

$$175 \quad SV = - \sqrt[3]{\frac{\rho_{tot} - \rho_{wat}}{\rho_{wat}} \times g \times \omega_* \times \mu_{wat}} \quad (\text{Eq. 3})$$

176 To calculate the total density of the biofouled plastic ( $\rho_{tot}$ ), equation 4 was used (Kooi et al., 2017), in which the  
 177  $mass_{tot}$  was measured, and the density of the biofilm ( $\rho_{bf}$ ) was set at 1388 kg/m<sup>3</sup>, according to Kooi et al. (2017).  
 178 The volume of the virgin plastic ( $V_{pl}$ ) was calculated from the density of the plastic (Supplementary file 1) and the  
 179 measured mass of the virgin plastic ( $mass_{pl}$ ).

180 
$$\rho_{tot} = \frac{mass_{tot}}{V_{tot}} = \frac{mass_{tot}}{\frac{mass_{tot} - mass_{pl}}{\rho_{bf}} + V_{pl}} \text{ (Eq. 4)}$$

181 We calculated the SV for three sizes of plastics with  $r_{pl}$  set at 10, 1 and 0.1 mm. In the calculations, changing  
182 particle (plastic and biofilm) diameter due to the biofilm was considered by including the thickness of the biofilm  
183 according to Kooi et al. (2017):

184 
$$Thickness_{bf} = \sqrt[3]{V_{tot} \frac{3}{4\pi}} - r_{pl} \text{ (Eq. 5)}$$

### 185 **3. Results and discussion**

186 Our study dives into microplastic sinking behavior, focusing specifically on (1) biofilm growth and its influencing  
187 characteristics, and (2) the temporal evolution of biofilm development. Our observations highlight an interplay  
188 between these factors and the sinking behavior of microplastics. Biofilm growth, a dynamic process, profoundly  
189 affects the sinking behavior of microplastics in freshwater environments. Moreover, understanding the temporal  
190 aspects of biofilm growth refines predictive models, enabling more accurate assessments of microplastic behavior  
191 in freshwater ecosystems. Including these multifaceted influences on microplastic sinking, our study advances the  
192 understanding of microplastic fate and provides invaluable insights into their ultimate deposition and  
193 accumulation in sediments in aquatic freshwater systems. This knowledge can contribute to the formulation of a  
194 more comprehensive and effective approach targeting mitigation strategies and regulatory measures.

#### 195 **3.1 Characteristics that can affect biofilm growth**

196 After 63 days of incubation in freshwater, biofilm had formed on the surfaces of the plates (n=30), with an average  
197 of  $8.37 \pm 7.22 \mu\text{g}$  per  $\text{mm}^2$ . Notably, differences on the plates (Figure 2) revealed polymer-dependent biofilm  
198 masses, ranging from lowest masses found on PS ( $2.96 \pm 1.91 \mu\text{g}/\text{mm}^2$ ) to highest biofilm mass on PVC ( $18.37 \pm$   
199  $10.08 \mu\text{g}/\text{mm}^2$ ). PS exhibited a significantly lower biofilm mass than PVC ( $p=0.0065$ ) and PET ( $p=0.0433$ ). Trends  
200 were evident between PS and LDPE or PP ( $p=0.0812$ ;  $p=0.0617$ ), though not statistically significant. PVC displayed  
201 the highest biofilm content, significantly surpassing PS, PET ( $p=0.0093$ ), and LDPE ( $p=0.0065$ ).

202 Regarding microplastic particles ( $n = 80$ , groups of 16 particles), an average biofilm of  $0.97 \pm 0.67 \mu\text{g}$  per  $\text{mm}^2$  was  
203 recorded after a 63-day incubation. Polymer-specific biofilm growth was again observed (Figure 2), highlighted  
204 PET particles exhibiting the highest growth with  $1.83 \pm 0.14 \mu\text{g}/\text{mm}^2$ , while LDPE particles showed the lowest at  
205  $0.24 \pm 0.02 \mu\text{g}/\text{mm}^2$ . The biofilm masses were significantly different between the polymer types ( $p < 0.001$ ).

206 Importantly, the results of the PVC particles were excluded for further analysis due to measured negative biofilm  
207 mass values ( $-2.68 \pm 0.45 \mu\text{g}$  per  $\text{mm}^2$ ). This anomaly is expected to be attributed to the drying process, affecting  
208 the mass of the particles and hindering relevant insights on biofilm growth rates.

209 Based on the results of the biofilm growth after a 63-day incubation of both pellets and plates, some interesting  
210 observations can be made to explain the observed differences in biofilm growth. First, the polymer-specific biofilm  
211 growth is apparent in results of biofilm masses observed on the plates and is comparable to conclusions of  
212 previous research (Kaiser et al., 2017). More specifically, the study of Miao et al. (2021) on biofilm colonization on  
213 plastics in freshwater environments, also showed generally higher biofilm growth on PVC compared to PP and PET,  
214 although some location-specific effects were observed. The polymer-specific growth of biofilm has also been  
215 described earlier in the marine environment, whereas in contrast to our results, PS seemed to be the most  
216 susceptible to biofilm growth (Li et al., 2019). However, as different microbial communities and differences in  
217 salinity gradients can lead to differences in biofilm growth (Li et al., 2019). Polymer-dependency was also observed  
218 in the microplastic particles, although in a different matter. For example, PS showed the lowest biofilm growth on  
219 the plates, the PS particles showed the second highest biofilm mass after the 63 days of incubation, which is more  
220 in line with previous observations in the marine environment (Li et al., 2019). A possible explanation for this  
221 difference could be the buoyant behavior of the LDPE and PP polymers due to their low density and the  
222 experimental setup. The experiment using the particles was performed by incubating the particles individually in  
223 wells. In contrast to the experiments using the plates, the particles were not forced to be submerged by weighing  
224 them down. Due to the buoyant behavior, it could be assumed that the particles were not fully exposed to the  
225 incubating water all the time and the biofilm would grow at the air-water interface. Moreover, during the weekly  
226 change of the water, the particles can be turned, and therefore, the growth of a biofilm might be slowed down or  
227 even reversed by exposure to air. Although this might have hampered the growth of a biofilm, it can be argued

228 that this is, nonetheless, a relevant situation resembling field conditions. This is supported by field data which  
229 generally report a biofilm coverage of less than 50% of the particle (Amaral-Zettler et al., 2021; Fazey & Ryan,  
230 2016). Secondly, when comparing the biofilm growth on the particles to that of the plates (of the same polymer  
231 composition), it is noticeable that the amount of biofilm on the particles (normalized for surface area) is lower  
232 compared to that of the plastic plates (Table 1). As an example, biofilm growth of PET particles was  $1.83 \pm 0.14$   
233  $\mu\text{g}/\text{mm}^2$  and that of PET plates was  $6.21 \pm 1.70 \mu\text{g}/\text{mm}^2$ . These results suggest that both polymer type and surface  
234 roughness could impact biofilm growth. The plates were sanded before incubation resulting in a higher surface  
235 roughness compared to the microplastic particles (Supplementary file 4), which could explain the differences in  
236 biofilm masses observed between particles and plates (Table 1). Increased irregularities on the surface of plastics  
237 could increase the attachment of microorganisms and thus promote biofilm formation, definitely in the first stages  
238 of biofilm formation (Carson et al., 2013; Fu et al., 2019). If surface roughness is analyzed between the different  
239 polymer types, no significant difference is observed between the different polymers ( $p > 0.05$ , Supplementary file  
240 4) therefore, surface roughness cannot explain all observed differences in biofilm growth.

241 In summary, based on the results, it is clear that the observed differences can be explained by a combination of  
242 polymer-specific characteristics (e.g. crystallinity, hydrophobicity, surface charge), surface roughness and  
243 buoyance of the pristine particle in freshwater.

### 244 **3.2 Biofilm growth over time**

245 The growth of biofilm on the particles was followed over time by weekly sampling. During the 63-day incubation,  
246 the amount of biofilm grew exponentially on the PET and PS particles while the LDPE and PP particles showed an  
247 oscillating biofilm mass (Figure 3). For both PET and PS, the log-linear model fit was significant ( $p_{\text{PET}} = 0.003994$ ;  
248  $p_{\text{PS}} = 0.05099$ ) while for LDPE and PP no exponential growth could be confirmed ( $p_{\text{LDPE}} = 0.1854$ ;  $p_{\text{PP}} = 0.4124$ )  
249 (Supplementary file 5). The exponential growth phase of PET and PS started around 34 days (five weeks) of  
250 incubation.

251 Based on the biofilm growth on the polymer plates, we would, however, expect similar growth of biofilm for LDPE  
252 and PP compared to PET (Figure 2). This unexpected biofilm growth on the LDPE and PP particles could be again

253 explained by the buoyant behavior of both polymers resulting in fragmentary biofilm growth. As this is expected  
254 to happen in the environment as well with buoyant particles, it was hypothesized that the biofilm on buoyant  
255 polymer particles will not follow exponential growth and might be extremely challenging to model. In contrast,  
256 the results of the study of Rozman et al. (2023) showed an exponential growth of biofilm on small PE microplastics  
257 at the air-water interface. The discrepancy between both studies cannot be explained and more research is thus  
258 warranted.

### 259 **3.4 Effect of biofilm growth on vertical behavior**

260 Having conducted a thorough analysis of biofilm growth, tracking its progression over time, and assessing the  
261 influencing parameters, it is relevant to use this information when predicting the behavior of particles in the  
262 freshwater environment. Our approach involves considering various polymers, taking into account observed  
263 discrepancies in biofilm growth on different polymer surfaces. Additionally, we factor in the size of particles,  
264 recognizing its role in determining the available surface area for plastic and subsequent biofilm growth. Notably,  
265 we cannot consider surface roughness due to a lack of available information on the expected roughness of  
266 particles in the freshwater environment. Fotopoulou and Karapanagioti (Fotopoulou & Karapanagioti, 2015) did  
267 observe an increased surface roughness in pellets in the coastal environment compared to virgin macroplastics  
268 from local manufacturers, however, the roughness was not quantified and could not be linked to the age of the  
269 particles. In the absence of specific data on surface roughness in the freshwater environment, we extrapolate  
270 insights from the data gathered on biofilm formation on microplastic particles, assuming a smooth surface and  
271 linked poorer attachment of microorganisms (Carson et al., 2013), potentially resulting in an underestimation of  
272 biofilm formation.

273 In the following calculations, we also considered the distinct behaviors of plastics, acknowledging that buoyant  
274 plastics may exhibit different effects compared to denser polymers that tend to sink. For buoyant microplastics,  
275 the growth of a biofilm could increase the total density of the particles and thus induce sinking behavior, therefore  
276 the effect of biofilm growth on the settling onset time (SOT) was calculated. For sinking polymer types, the growth  
277 of a biofilm is believed to affect the terminal sinking velocity (SV) of a particle.

#### 278 **3.4.1 Estimated effect on sinking behavior for buoyant polymers**

279 The results of these calculations indicate that the SOT is dependent on both the size and the density of the polymer  
280 particle. Importantly, due to insufficient data on smaller particles, predicting their behavior introduces more  
281 uncertainty compared to larger particles (1mm). Smaller microplastics exhibit a quicker initiation of settling  
282 compared to larger microplastics, a finding consistent with reported literature (Amaral-Zettler et al., 2021; Fazey  
283 & Ryan, 2016). Previous measurements showed that only a 10 $\mu$ m thick biofilm would already be able to cause  
284 sinking of PE sphere of 100  $\mu$ m, assuming a biofilm density of 1.1 g/cm<sup>3</sup> (Amaral-Zettler et al., 2021). For larger  
285 particles, the settling process, based on microorganisms, can encompass two or three months. The settling of  
286 larger particles is expected to be impacted more by attachment of larger organisms such as bryozoa (Amaral-  
287 Zettler et al., 2021), which were not introduced in the current experimental setup. In the marine environment, a  
288 biofilm based on microorganism attachment has been reported not to be sufficient for the larger particles to cause  
289 sinking (Amaral-Zettler et al., 2021), however, based differences in density of freshwater, this could happen in  
290 freshwater. The data of the current experiment does question the settlement of the larger particles in an  
291 environmentally relevant time frame (taking into account the transport of the particles). Higher chances are that  
292 they will be transported in the upper water layers to the estuaries influenced by hydrometeorological influences  
293 (van Emmerik et al., 2022). When they arrive there, the attached microbial biofilm could reduce the  
294 hydrophobicity and provide chemical signals that enhance invertebrate settlement and induce sinking in estuaria  
295 or coastal regions (Amaral-Zettler et al., 2021; Lobelle & Cunliffe, 2011).

296 Additionally, denser polymer types tend to start settling sooner compared to less dense polymer types, although  
297 differences are small. A denser particle requires less biofilm mass to surpass water density, aligning with the  
298 conclusions drawn by Kooi et al. (2017). For instance, LDPE (920 kg/m<sup>3</sup>), denser compared to PP (906 kg/m<sup>3</sup>),  
299 appears to settle slightly earlier compared to PP, while assuming equal sizes (and thus the same surface) (Figure  
300 4). Importantly, as we were not able to fit an exponential growth model to the biofilm growth on LDPE and PP  
301 particles, an exponential biofilm growth was nonetheless assumed for LDPE and PP based on the similarities with  
302 PET in biofilm growth on the plates (Figure 2). However, it must be kept in mind that it is possible that the growth

303 of biofilm on buoyant polymers does not follow an exponential growth curve, resulting in challenges to predict  
304 the SOT and increasing uncertainty in the subsequent results.

305 In contrast to the results of the theoretical model of Kooi et al. (2017), we do not observe a plateau in SOT for  
306 larger particles. This plateau was explained by the authors to be a contribution of the radius and surface-to-volume  
307 ratio and linked to collision frequency between particles and algae. The experimental results of Fazey and Ryan  
308 (2016) also do not indicate the presence of such a plateau phase. The predicted SOT is higher compared to the  
309 experimental data gathered by Fazey and Ryan (2016) (Figure 4), although the main trend is followed. It is  
310 noteworthy that the data by Favez and Ryan (2016) originates from a marine environment, potentially accounting  
311 for variations in SOT when compared to the freshwater environment in our study, as suggested in Supplementary  
312 file 6 (Li et al., 2019). Further validation of our calculations through comparison with additional experimental data  
313 would be valuable in reinforcing the robustness of our findings.

#### 314 **3.4.2 Estimated effect on sinking behavior for sinking polymers**

315 Based on the calculated SV, a difference can be observed between the effect of biofilm on PET and PS on the longer  
316 term. In the case of PET, the SV shows a small decrease over 100 days due to biofilm growth (Figure 5). This aligns  
317 with the calculated density changes based on the experimental data (Supplementary file 7). In contrast, for PS, a  
318 polymer type with a lower density than PET, the biofilm formation appears to exert a more pronounced effect on  
319 SV over time, linked to the exponential growth of the biofilm (Figure 5). Unfortunately, no information is available  
320 on the growth rate of the biofilm on PVC (see section 3.2), therefore, the effect of biofilm growth on the SV of PVC  
321 is cannot be calculated.

322 As not much research has been done so far on the impact of biofilm formation on the settlement of different  
323 polymer types in freshwater, it is challenging to compare our results. Lee et al. (2022) studied the effect of biofilm  
324 formation and the settling behavior in wastewater treatment plants. Here it was also shown that the biofilm  
325 formation had a higher impact on the settling velocity of PS compared to that of PET, corroborating our results  
326 albeit in a different environment. Notably, the limited effect of biofilm formation on SV for PET contradicts the  
327 findings of Miao et al. (2021). However, it's crucial to note that Miao et al.'s study involved biofilm growth in the

328 field under diverse environmental conditions and at different locations, potentially influencing biofilm attachment  
329 and subsequent growth, thus resulting in varying impacts on sinking behavior compared to controlled laboratory  
330 environments. Moreover, incubation in the field would allow for attachment of multicellular organisms which are  
331 more likely to change the density of PET profoundly and affect its sinking velocity (Amaral-Zettler et al., 2021;  
332 Kaiser et al., 2017; Onda & Sharief, 2021). This urges for more research and stresses the importance of  
333 environmental factors (Miao et al., 2021).

### 334 **3.5 Environmental implications and future research needs**

335 Our results shed a light on fate of microplastics in a river considering the multitude of different plastic particles  
336 present in the environment. These results underscore the need to focus more on the heterogeneity of plastic  
337 pollution instead of treating plastics as one group of pollutants (Hartmann et al., 2019). According to our findings  
338 coupled with existing knowledge, the tested polymers can primarily be categorized in three groups based on their  
339 assumed sinking behavior in freshwater.

340 The first group are the particles that will remain buoyant, unaffected by biofilm growth in an environmental  
341 relevant time frame (before reaching estuaria). The behavior of these particles is expected to be mainly dictated  
342 by hydrometeorological influences such as water flow, wind and rain. Consequently, they have a higher likelihood  
343 of being transported towards estuarine or oceanic environments, unless trapped by vegetation on the river banks  
344 (Ghinassi et al., 2023; van Emmerik et al., 2022). Examples of particles in this group are larger LDPE and PP particles  
345 where, based on our results, the settling onset time is assumed to be prolonged, possibly allowing these particles  
346 to reach estuaries before significant settling occurs unless they are retained within river compartments (e.g.  
347 riverbanks, vegetation; Ghinassi et al., 2023; van Emmerik et al., 2022). As mentioned before, decreased  
348 hydrophobicity due to microbial biofilm formation could stimulate attachment of multicellular organisms,  
349 eventually still resulting in settling of these particles (Amaral-Zettler et al., 2021). The second group of particles  
350 contain PS particles along with smaller LDPE and PP particles. Our study suggests that their settlement along the  
351 river is influenced by biofilm formation. Notably, biofilm growth on PS has a substantial impact on their location  
352 in the water column. Larger PS particles (10 mm) will slowly settle along a river resulting in higher concentrations  
353 of PS in the sediment and lower concentrations in the surface waters. Moreover, the more slow settling could

354 increase interactions with the suspended sediment particles resulting in aggregation and increased settlement  
355 (Serra & Colomer, 2023). Our data hereby supports the observation of PS in the sediment (e.g. Bonyadi et al.,  
356 2022; Everaert et al., 2022), which could not directly be explained merely by the density of PS. The third group  
357 consists of the larger PET, of which the sinking velocity is merely influenced by density of the polymer. The impact  
358 of biofilm formation on the sinking velocity of PET is relatively minor.

359 Our works shows that rivers can serve as sinks for certain particles, while for others, the likelihood of settling  
360 within river systems appears relatively restricted, increasing the probability of their transportation to estuarine or  
361 oceanic environments through currents or entrapment by other compartments such as vegetation (van Emmerik  
362 et al., 2022). This evidently is still a very broad generalization and further mechanistic insights are needed and  
363 there are a few points that need to be considered in future research. First, biofilm growth is expected to be a  
364 dynamic and complex process which is challenging to represent using a laboratory setup. As mentioned before,  
365 the buoyant behavior of some polymer types could result in deviations from an exponential growth curve and not  
366 a full coverage of the particle (Amaral-Zettler et al., 2021; Fazey & Ryan, 2016). Moreover, the biofilm is not  
367 expected to grow indefinitely, expecting rather a logistic growth curve. A maximum possible thickness of 500  $\mu\text{m}$   
368 was reported for a biofilm in seawater (Van Melkebeke et al., 2020). Furthermore, various defouling processes are  
369 expected to happen in the environment including grazing, algae mortality due to loss of photosynthetic potential  
370 (darker environment), inter- or intra species competition or erase-and-restart scenarios (Berezina et al., 2021; De  
371 Tender et al., 2017; Fazey & Ryan, 2016; Kooi et al., 2017), which could cause resurfacing of submerged particles  
372 (Ye & Andradý, 1991). Future research should therefore focus to gather knowledge on the complexity of the biofilm  
373 process by e.g. including longer incubation times and comparing biofilm growth on floating and submerged  
374 particles.

375 Secondly, the characteristics causing the polymer-specificity, e.g. crystallinity, additives, surface hydrophobicity,  
376 remain unknown and could not be pinpointed due to low variability between the materials used in the current  
377 experiment. Additives such as plasticizers (Amobonye et al., 2021) are suggested to have an impact on biofilm  
378 growth. Additives present in the polymers were mostly unknown or not present (PE, PS, PP). For PET, catalyst  
379 leftover ( $\text{Sb}_2\text{O}_3$ ) was reported to be present. For PVC particles, softeners were added and for the PVC plates,

380 additives are unknown. Therefore, additives are in this case not expected to affect the biofilm growth and  
381 observed effects. Crystallinity and surface hydrophobicity could impact attachment of microorganisms and could  
382 explain the observed differences (Amobonye et al., 2021; Tokiwa et al., 2009). The shape of a particle can also  
383 affect biofilm attachment and subsequent effects on sinking behavior as already studied (Amaral-Zettler et al.,  
384 2021; Van Melkebeke et al., 2020)

385 Finally, the weathering status could influence the biofilm formation directly (Gewert et al., 2015) and indirectly by  
386 changing plastic characteristics (e.g. surface roughness and hydrophobicity) (Fotopoulou & Karapanagioti, 2015;  
387 Lambert & Wagner, 2016). In the future, more research should focus on the complex interaction between plastic  
388 characteristics, weathering and biofilm growth to assess their joint effects on vertical transport and predict the  
389 fate and impact of plastics in the environment.

## 390 **Conclusion**

391 In conclusion, our results highlight that both polymer density and biofilm formation can affect the settling  
392 behavior of a polymer particle. The biofilm formation itself is influenced by the polymer (e.g. based on density),  
393 surface roughness and size. By considering the temporal aspect of biofilm growth, predictive calculations enabled  
394 more accurate and polymer-specific assessments of microplastic distribution in freshwater environments. The  
395 calculations revealed that the rivers can indeed function as sinks for some particles such as large PET particles.  
396 Nevertheless, for others, the likelihood of settling within river systems appears limited, thereby increasing the  
397 probability of their transit to estuarine or oceanic environments by the currents. Although we are far from grasping  
398 the full complexity of biofilm dynamics on plastics surfaces, the knowledge gathered in this study can help to  
399 explain observed patterns in environmental concentrations of plastic pollution and increase the understanding of  
400 the sinking behavior of microplastics in freshwater.

## 401 **ASSOCIATED CONTENT**

### 402 **Supporting Information**

403 Detailed information (.docx) on the used plastic materials (S.1), characteristics of the freshwater (S.2), measured  
404 length and width and calculated length/width ratio (S.3), analysis of the surface roughness (S.4) exponential

405 growth curves (S.5), the effect of environmental conditions on sinking velocity (S.6) and the calculated differences  
406 in sinking velocity (S.7) are provided in the supporting information.

#### 407 **FIGURE CAPTIONS**

408 Figure 1: Overview of the experimental design of the incubation of plastic plates and pellets in freshwater from  
409 Coupure, a river in Belgium, for 9 weeks (63 days). Water was renewed weekly (1/3 renewal). For plastic plates,  
410 we collected the samples after 9 weeks (63 days). For microplastic pellets, we collected the samples weekly. Biofilm  
411 mass was measured. The illustration was created with BioRender.com.

412 Figure 2: Fresh biofilm mass (normalized for surface) in plates (6 replicates) and particles (16 replicates) incubated  
413 with freshwater for 63 days. Differences are observed between particles and plates and between polymer-types.  
414 The average biofilm mass per surface ( $\mu\text{g}/\text{mm}^2$ )  $\pm$  SD is indicated above each boxplot.

415 Figure 3: Growth of biofilm during 63 days of incubation in freshwater. Fresh biofilm mass per surface vs.  
416 incubation time in days is depicted. The datapoints are fitted with a smoothed curve using the loess smoothing  
417 method.

418 Figure 4. Settling onset time (days) in correspondence with the available surface of the polymer particle. The  
419 results of the sinking experiments of Fazey and Ryan (2016) are added as grey dots.

420 Figure 5. Calculated effect of biofilm growth on sinking velocity (mm/s) over time for polyethylene terephthalate  
421 (PET) and polystyrene (PS) particles with different radii (10, 1 and 0.1 mm). The model estimated the sinking  
422 velocity at different timepoints and the trends is shown with the line graphs.

#### 423 **ACKNOWLEDGMENT**

424 This paper is a result of the PLUXIN project. The PLUXIN cSBO project is financed by Flanders Innovation &  
425 Entrepreneurship (VLAIO; Grant nr. HBC.2019.2904) and supported by The Blue Cluster, a Flemish members  
426 organization for sustainable entrepreneurship in blue growth. We acknowledge the colleagues and stakeholders  
427 of the Steering Committee and Strategic Advisory Board. The research leading to results presented in this  
428 publication was partly conducted with infrastructure funded by EMBRC Belgium - FWO international research

429 infrastructure (grant nr. I001621N). The first author is funded by BOF-postdoctoral fellowship (BOF21/PDO/081).  
430 The authors received support of Thu Ha Nguyen and Federico Maggi from the University of Sydney for the  
431 calculation of the sinking velocity using MATLAB. We want to thank the lab technicians, Emmy Pequeur, Jolien  
432 Depecker and Nancy De Saeyer, for their support during the experiments.

#### 433 **FUNDING SOURCES**

434 This paper is a result of the PLUXIN project. The PLUXIN cSBO project is financed by Flanders Innovation &  
435 Entrepreneurship (VLAIO; Grant nr. HBC.2019.2904). The research leading to results presented in this publication  
436 was partly conducted with infrastructure funded by EMBRC Belgium - FWO international research infrastructure  
437 (grant nr. I001621N).

#### 438 **COMPETING INTERESTS**

439 The authors declare there are no competing interests.

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