

Mikroplastik und seine Plastisphäre

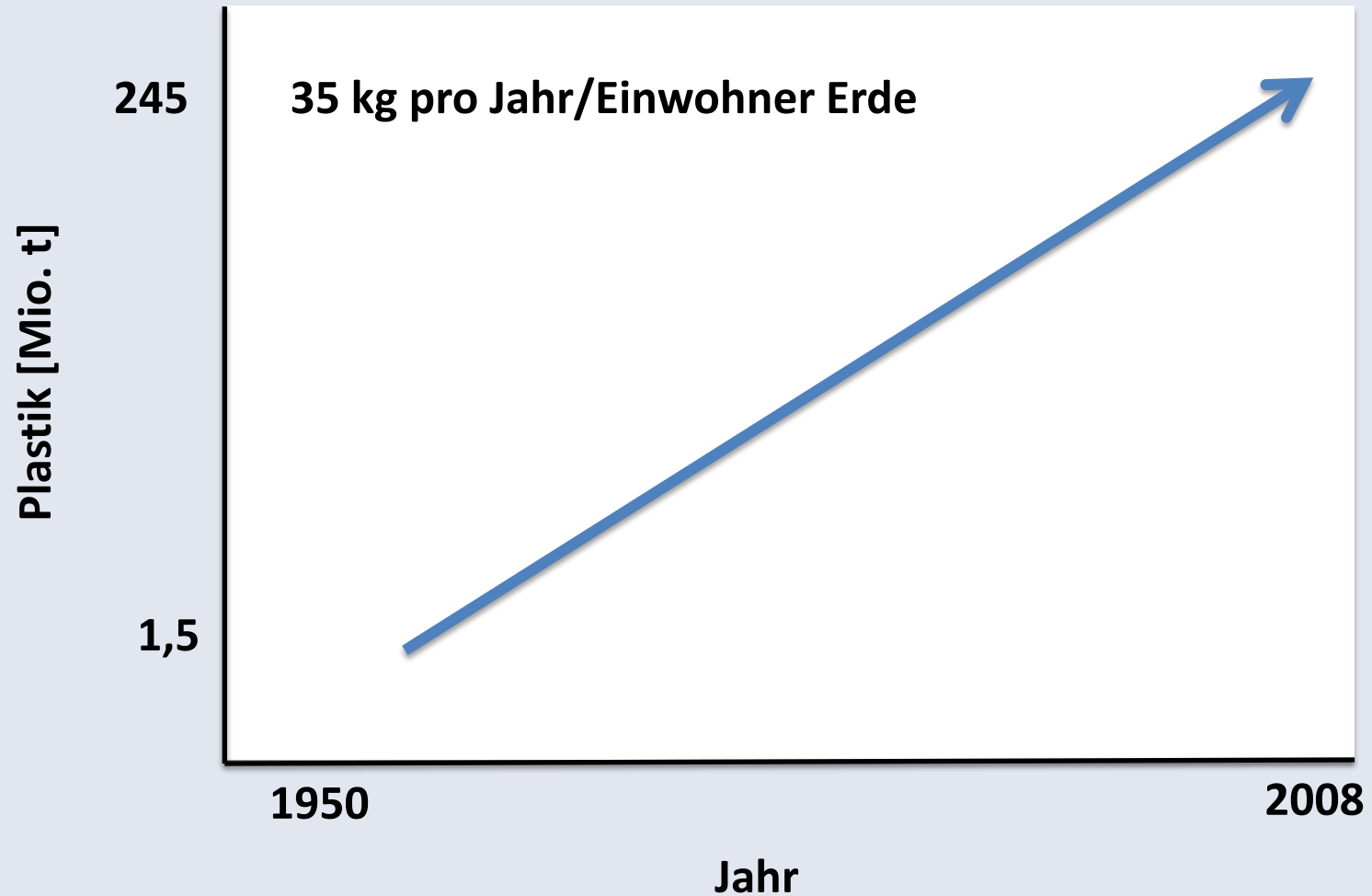
Matthias Labrenz

Umweltmikrobiologie

**Leibniz-Institut für Ostseeforschung Warnemünde
(IOW)**

Weltweite Produktion von Kunststoffen

Makroplastik pro Jahr

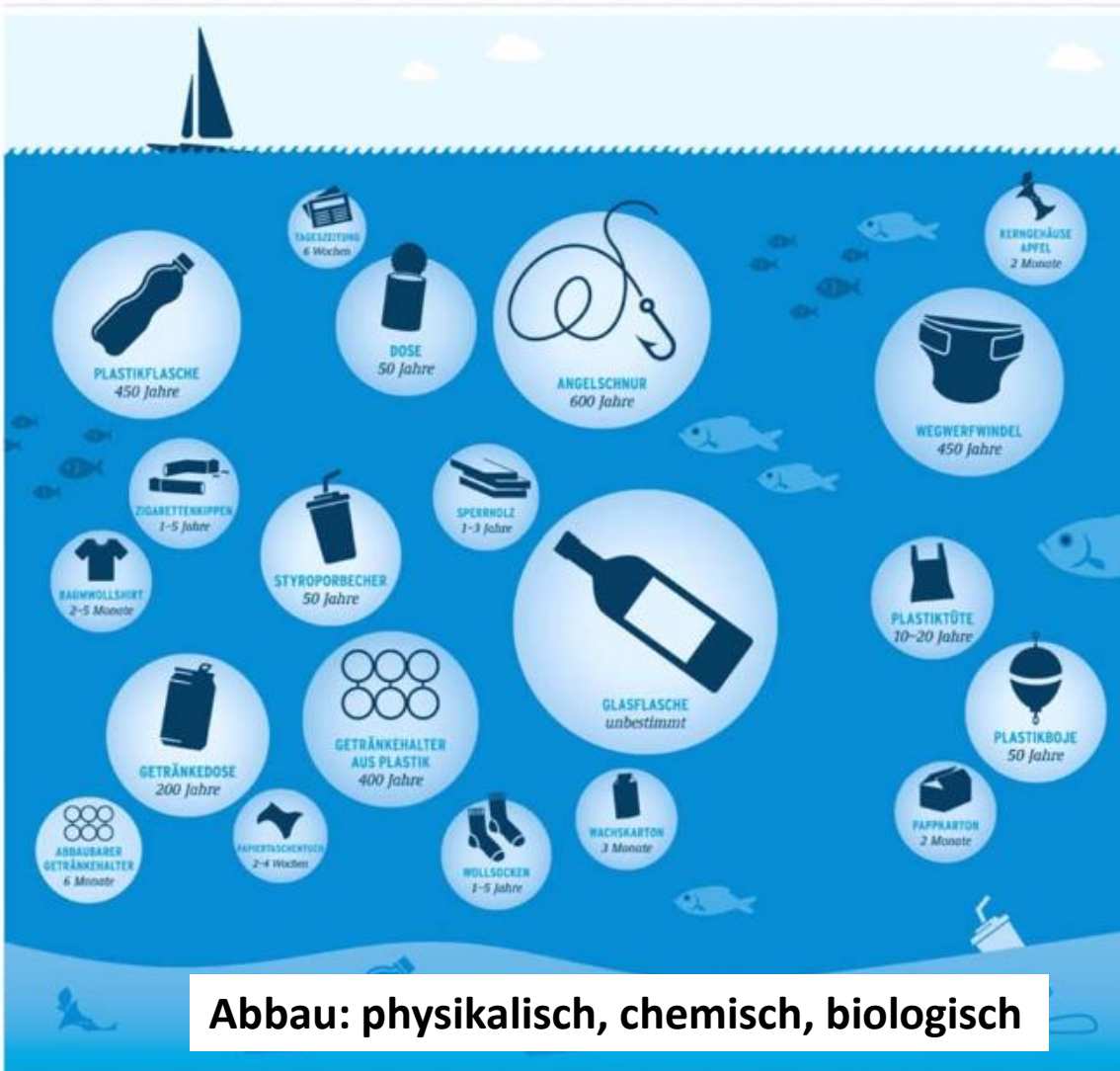


Plastik in der marinen Umwelt

Polyethylen, Polypropylen, Polystyren, Polyamid, Polyester, Poly(vinyl)chlorid

100 – 142 Mio. Tonnen in Weltmeeren (UBA, 2013)

WIE LANGE BRAUCHT DER MÜLL IM MEER UM ABGEBAUT ZU WERDEN?

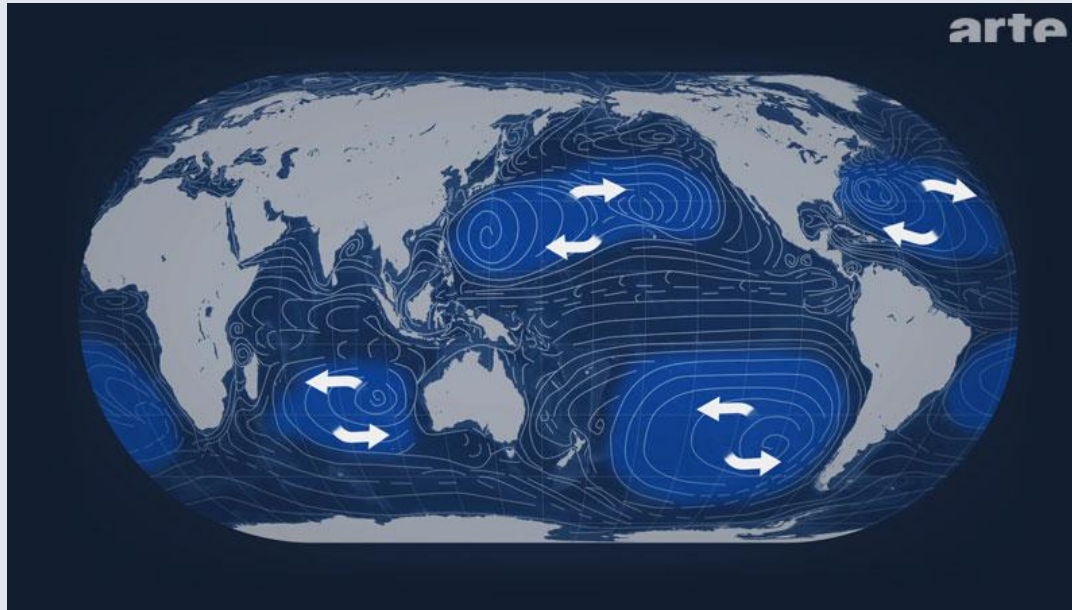


Abbau: physikalisch, chemisch, biologisch

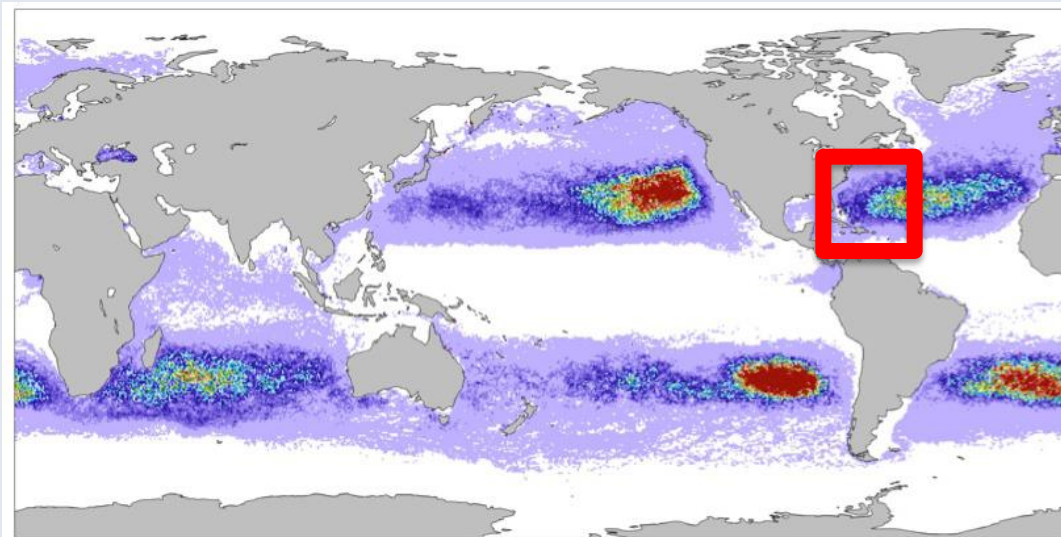
Deutsche Ostsee:

- 2 – 328 kg bzw. 4 – 181 Müllteile auf 500 m Küstenabschnitt
- Müll an der Meeresoberfläche korreliert mit Schiffsdichte und Verkehrstrennungsbereichen

Anreicherung in subtropischen Wirbeln



Subtropische Wirbel



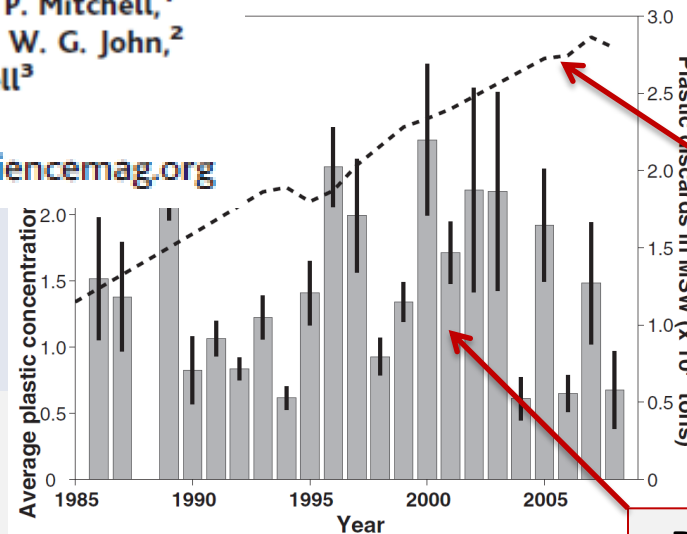
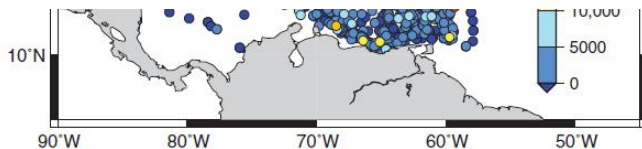
Müllinseln

BREVIA

Lost at Sea: Where Is All the Plastic?

Richard C. Thompson,^{1*} Ylva Olsen,¹ Richard P. Mitchell,¹
Anthony Davis,¹ Steven J. Rowland,¹ Anthony W. G. John,²
Daniel McGonigle,³ Andrea E. Russell³

7 MAY 2004 VOL 304 SCIENCE www.sciencemag.org



Netzgröße: 335-µm Netz, 23 Jahre

0 mm

Plastik-Eintrag

Durchschnittliche
Plastikkonzentration

Gründe für Stagnation:

- Sedimentation?
- Abbau?
- Aufnahme über marine Organismen?
- Weitere Fragmentierung < 300 µm?

Bedeutung Plastikpartikel?

Mikroplastik

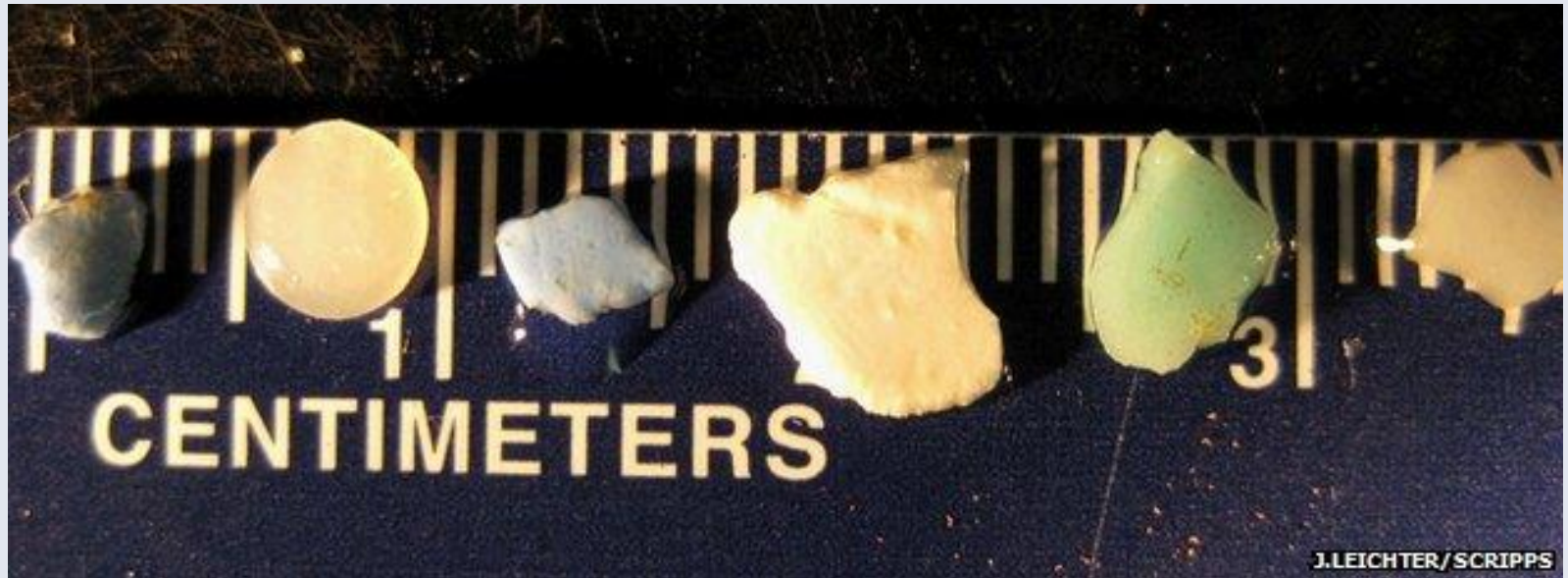
Definitionen

Mikroplastik

Plastikpartikel < 5 mm (praktisch bis in Nanometer-Bereich)

Sekundäres Mikroplastik

Fragmentiertes Makroplastik (physikalisch, chemisch, biologisch)



Mikroplastik

Definitionen

Mikroplastik

Plastikpartikel < 5 mm

Primäres Mikroplastik

- Basispellets
- Granulate in Kosmetik, Hygieneprodukten



Beispiele Partikelanzahlen primäres Mikroplastik:

1.900 Kunstfasern aus Fleece (Polyester oder Polyacryl) pro Waschmaschinenangang

Ein Transportcontainer mit Industriepellets aus Kunststoff: 50 Milliarden Pellets



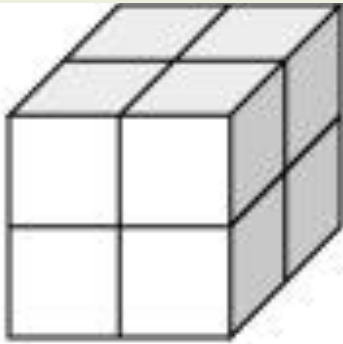
Brown et al. 2013

Mikroplastik versus Makroplastik

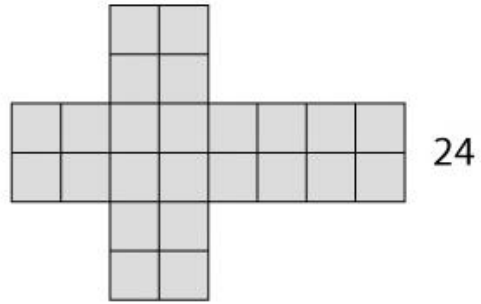
Größe hat Konsequenzen

Oberflächenvergrößerung

Volumen: 1 x 8



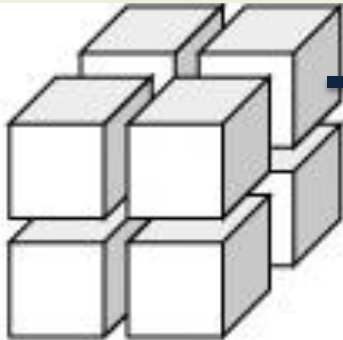
Oberfläche: 24



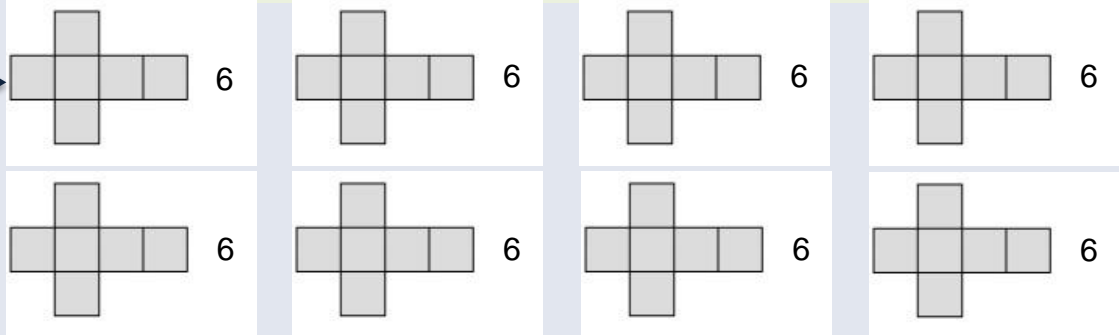
→ Anstieg Plastikoberfläche
über sekundäres
Mikroplastik

→ Anstieg hydrophober
(wasserabweisender)
Oberflächen

Volumen: 8 x 1



Oberfläche: 48



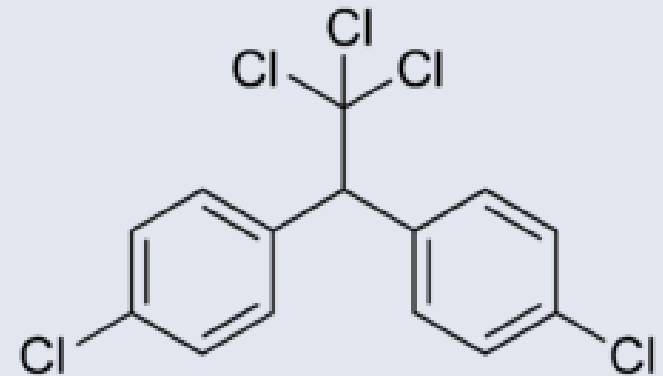
Größe (und Hydrophobie) hat Konsequenzen

Anreicherungen/Adsorption an Plastikoberflächen

Persistente toxische Schadstoffe
(Persistent Organic Pollutants , POP)



Folgen der Malariabekämpfung



Dichlordiphenyltrichlorethan (DDT)

DDT Nordpazifischer
subtropischer Wirbel:

22 - 7100 ng/g Plastik

(Rios et al., 2007)

Größe (und Hydrophobie) hat Konsequenzen

Anreicherungen/Adsorption an Plastikoberflächen

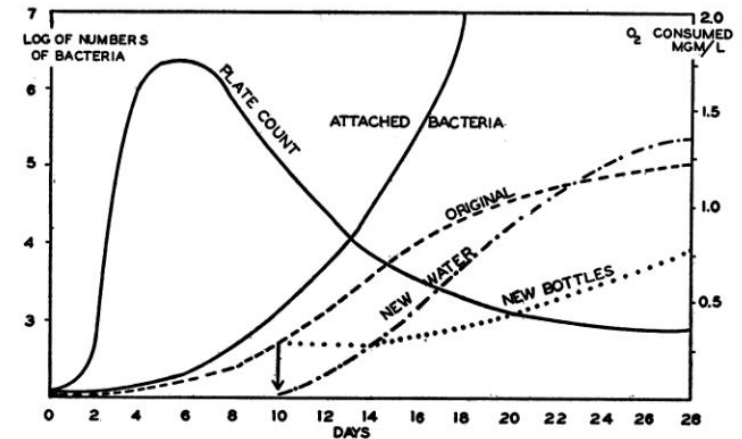
Mikro-Nährstoffe
Mikroorganismen

- Biofilm-Bildung (**Plastisphäre**)
- Erhöhte Abundanz, Aktivität

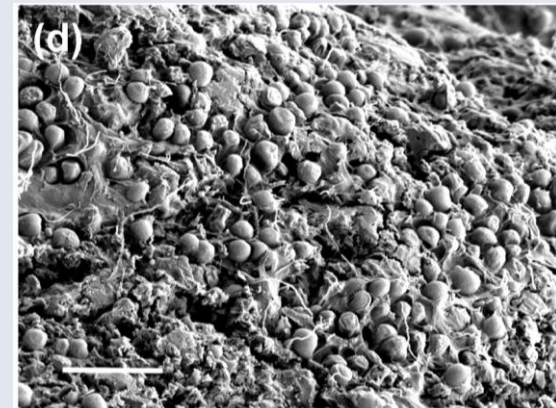
Zobell-Effekt

Änderung Schwimmeigenschaft

- Mikroplastik als Vektor für Mikroorganismen und POPs



Claude E. Zobell (1943). The effect of solid surfaces upon bacterial activity. *J Bacteriol.* 46: 39–56.



Biofilm auf Plastik (Zettler et al., 2013)

Polystyrene Spherules in Coastal Waters

Abstract. Polystyrene spherules averaging 0.5 millimeter in diameter (range 0.1 to 2 millimeters) are abundant in the coastal waters of southern New England. Two types are present, a crystalline (clear) form and a white, opaque form with pigmentation resulting from a diene rubber. The spherules have bacteria on their surfaces and contain polychlorinated biphenyls, apparently absorbed from ambient seawater, in a concentration of 5 parts per million. White, opaque spherules are selectively consumed by 8 species of fish out of 14 species examined, and a chaetognath. Ingestion of the plastic may lead to intestinal blockage in smaller fish.

Carpenter et al. (Science 1972): Bakterien, Diatomeen

APPLIED AND ENVIRONMENTAL MICROBIOLOGY, Jan. 2008, p. 52–60
0099-2240/08/\$08.00+0 doi:10.1128/AEM.01400-07
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Vol. 74, No. 1

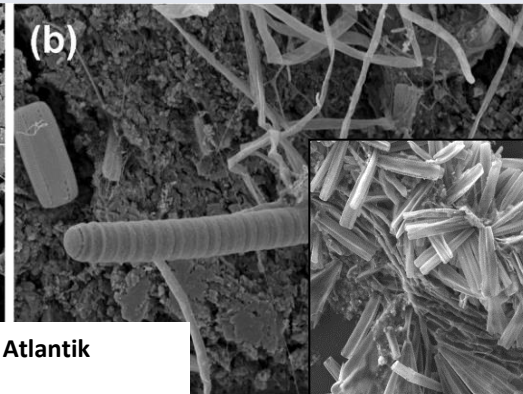
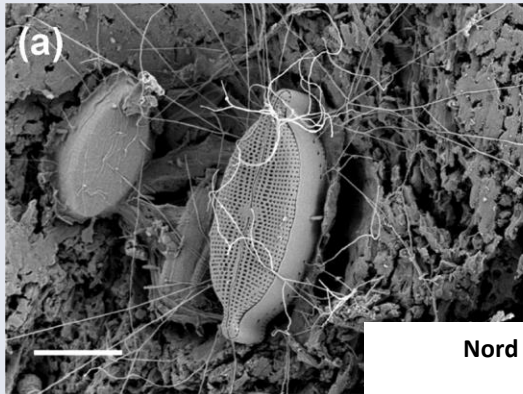
Cross-Ocean Distribution of *Rhodobacterales* Bacteria as Primary Surface Colonizers in Temperate Coastal Marine Waters^{∇†}

Hongyue Dang,^{1*} Tiegang Li,¹ Mingna Chen,¹ and Guiqiao Huang²

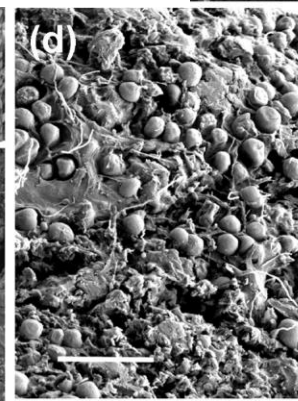
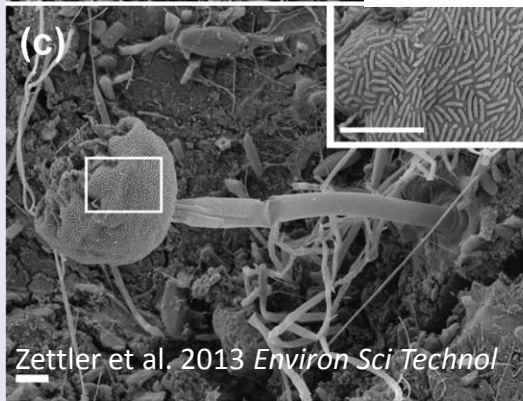
Dang et al. (AEM 2008): Rhodobacterales nach bis zu 72 h

Mikroplastik und Plastisphäre

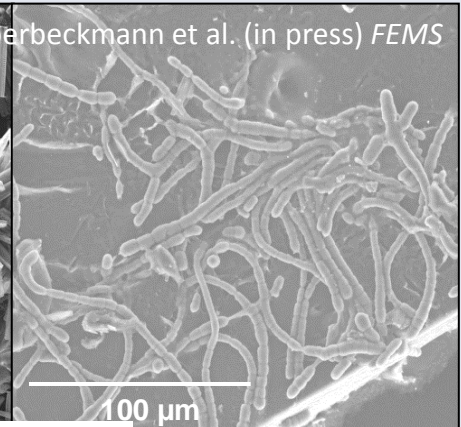
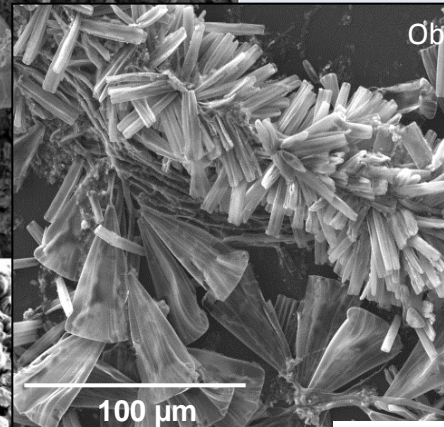
Biofilme



Nord Atlantik

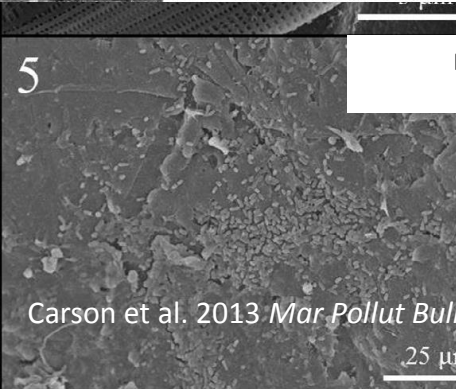
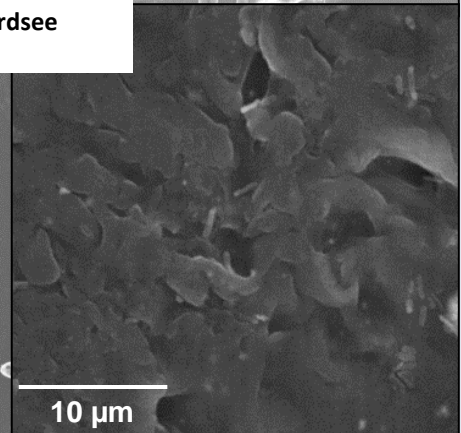
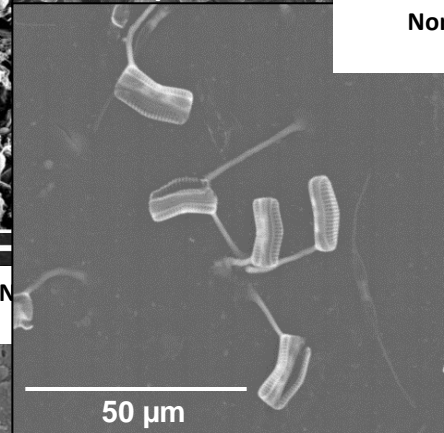


Zettler et al. 2013 *Environ Sci Technol*

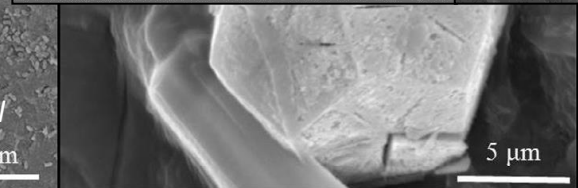


Oberbeckmann et al. (in press) *FEMS*

Nordsee

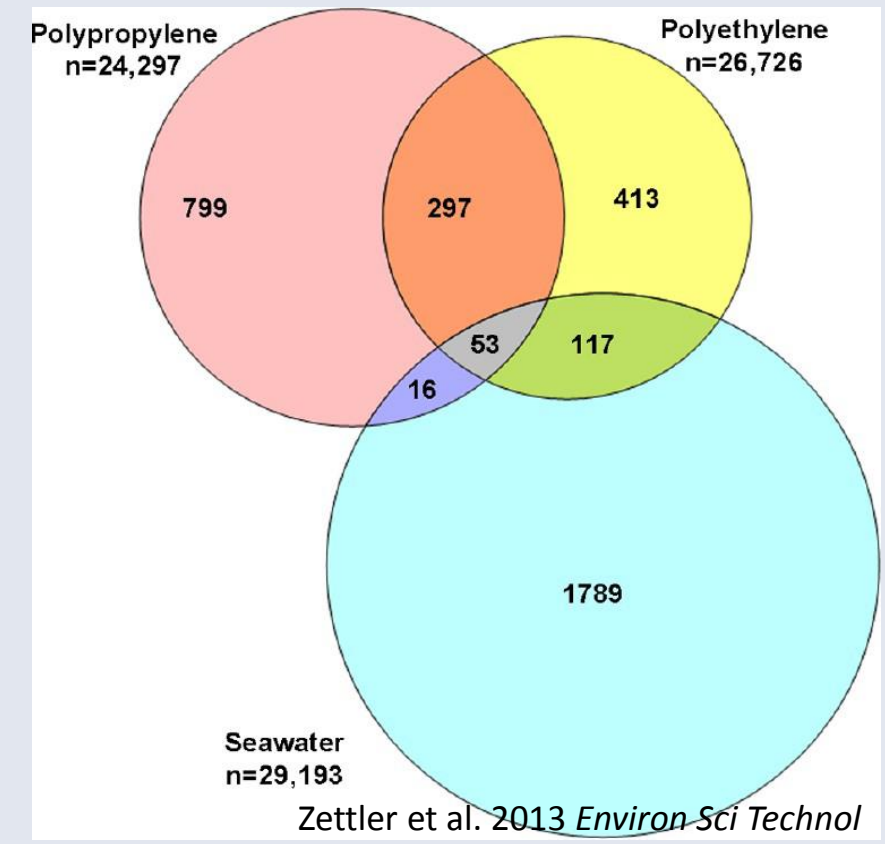
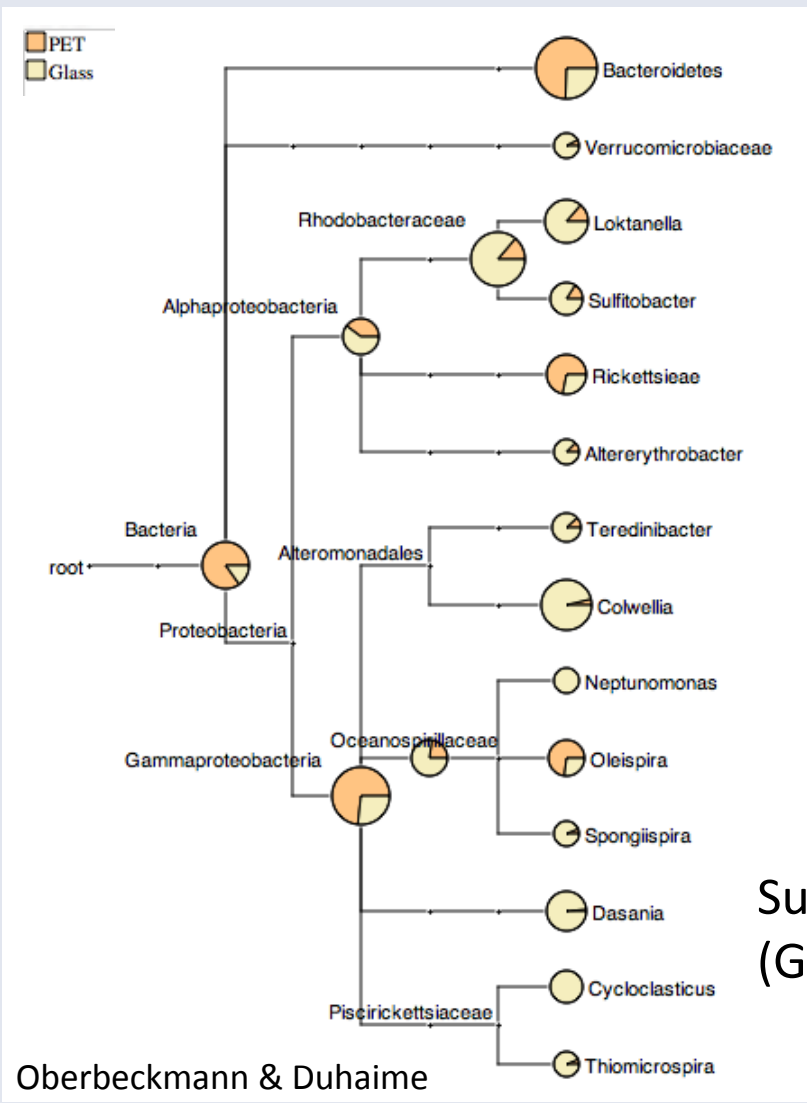


Carson et al. 2013 *Mar Pollut Bull*



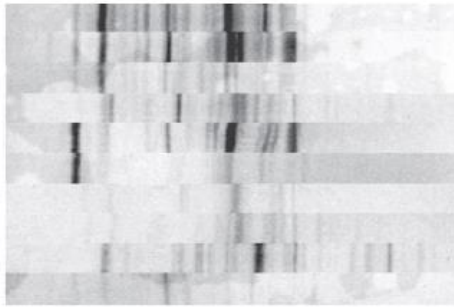
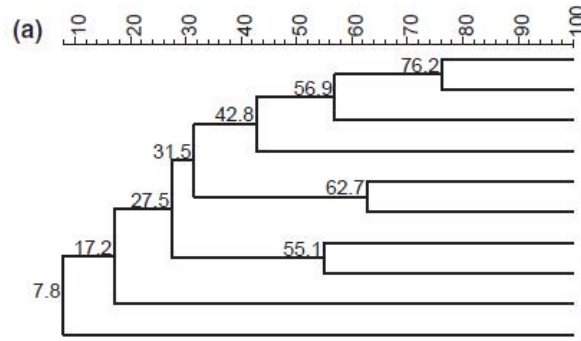
Mikroplastik und Plastisphäre

Biofilme Plastik/Substrat-spezifisch



Substrat beeinflusst Biofilm-Struktur
(Glass, verschiedene Plastikpolymere)

Häufig in Plastik-Biofilmen:
Diatomeen, Cyanobakterien, Bacteriodetes, Rhodobacterales

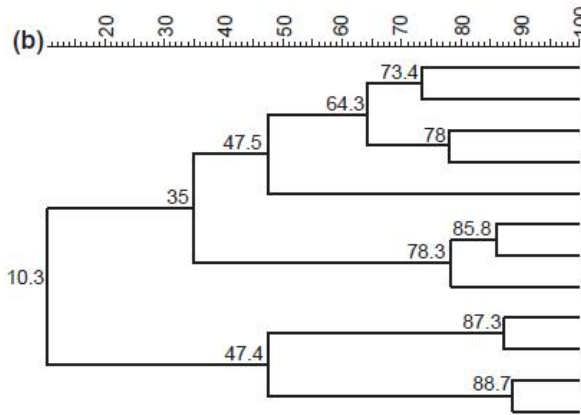


Station	Treatment
Warp	PET
Warp	PET
Warp	PET
Warp	Glass
Gabbard	PET
Gabbard	PET
Gabbard	Glass
Gabbard	Glass
Warp	Glass
Dowsing	PET

Plastisphäre verändert sich:

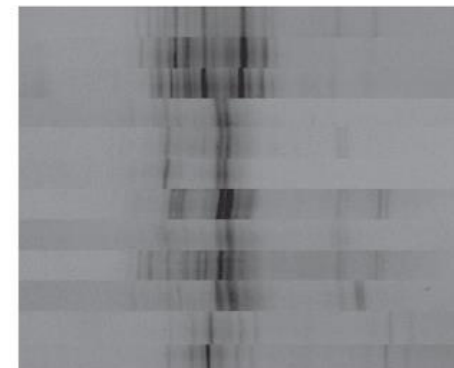
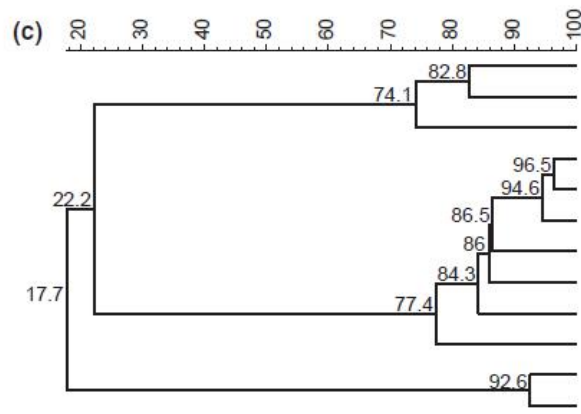
- **Saisonal**
- **Lokal**

Frühjahr



Gabbard	PET
Gabbard	PET
Warp	PET
Gabbard	PET
Warp	PET
Dowsing	PET
Dowsing	PET
Dowsing	PET
Dowsing	0.2_water
Dowsing	0.2_water
Dowsing	3_water
Dowsing	3_water

Sommer

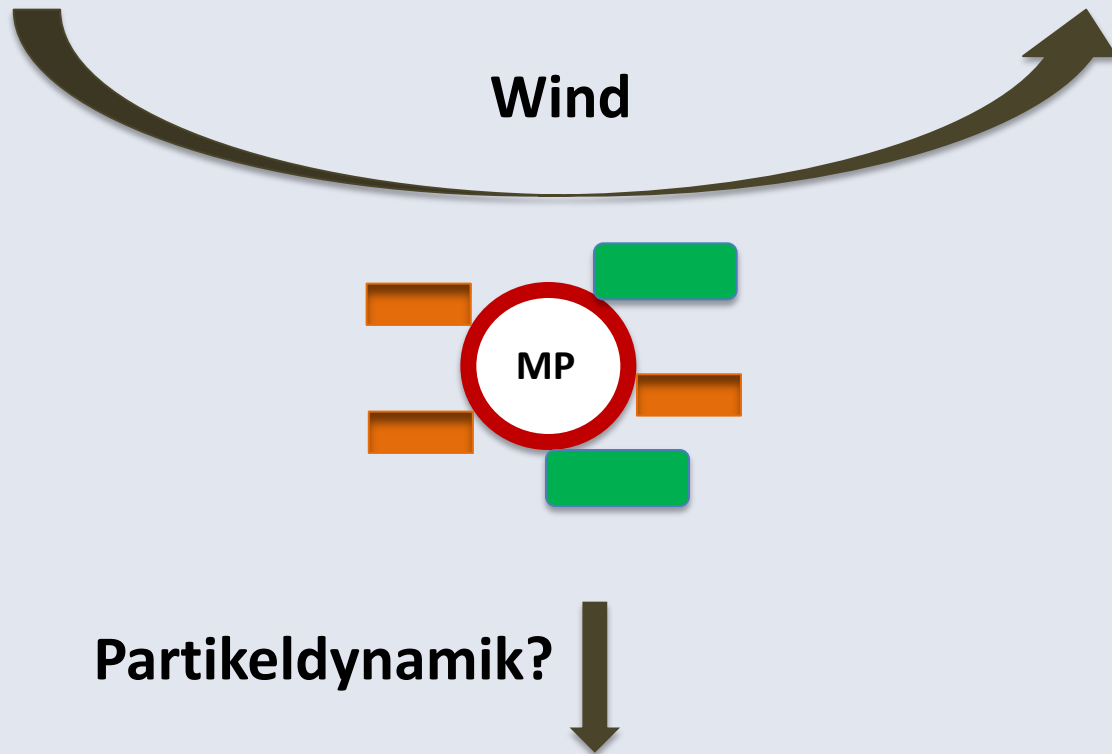


Warp	PET
Warp	PET
Warp	PET
Dowsing	PET
Dowsing	PET
Dowsing	PET
Dowsing	PET
Dowsing	PET
Dowsing	PET
Dowsing	PET
Dowsing	PET
Gabbard	PET
Gabbard	PET



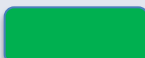
Winter

Änderung Verdriftung und Sedimentation

Veränderte Verbreitung von Toxinen, mikrobieller Funktionen



→ Invasion kontaminationsfreier Gebiete

-  POP
-  Prokaryont
-  Eukaryont

Relevanz für Küste und Gesellschaft?

Mikroplastik als Vektor pathogener Mikroorganismen?



Drifting plastic debris as a potential vector for dispersing Harmful Algal Bloom (HAB) species*

MERCEDES MASO, ISIDOR GARCES, FRANCISC PAGES and JORDI CAMP
 Institut de Ciències del Mar (ICM-CSIC), Faculty Medicine de Barcelona, 07-08105 Barcelona, Spain
 Email: maso@icm.csic.es

RESUMEN: Macroalgas: observación de flots de plástico recogidos en varias playas a lo largo de la Costa catalana (norte de España). Seleccionamos especies de algas que crecieron en flots de plástico. Se analizaron las características de estas especies y se compararon con las especies que crecieron en flots de plástico. Se analizaron las características de estas especies y se compararon con las especies que crecieron en flots de plástico. Se analizaron las características de estas especies y se compararon con las especies que crecieron en flots de plástico.

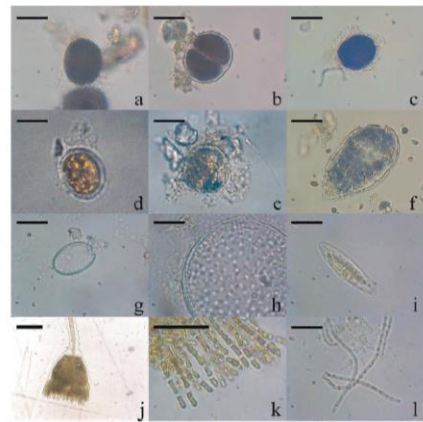


Fig. 1. - Organisms attached to plastic debris: *Amoeba* sp. (a), *Vibrio* sp. (b), *Paramecium* sp. (c), *Paramecium* sp. (d), *Paramecium* sp. (e), *Paramecium* sp. (f), *Paramecium* sp. (g), *Paramecium* sp. (h), *Paramecium* sp. (i), *Paramecium* sp. (j), *Paramecium* sp. (k), *Paramecium* sp. (l).

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Published online 28 March 2011 | Nature | doi:10.1038/news.2011.191

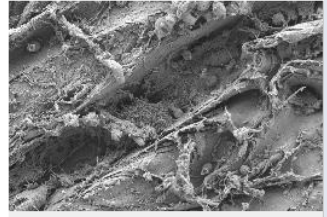
Marine microbes digest plastic

A 'little world' eating ocean garbage might be a mixed blessing.

Gwyneth Dickey Zaikab

- Stories by subject
- Ecology
 - Environmental Science
 - Microbiology
- Stories by keywords
- Great Pacific Garbage Patch
 - Sargasso
 - plastic
 - marine debris
 - ocean
 - bacteria
 - digestion
 - pollution
 - qvre

Specialist bacteria seem to be eating the plastic garbage we throw into the ocean. But whether they're cleaning up our poisons or just passing them back up the food chain remains to be seen.



Electron microscopy reveals the inhabitants of a plastic bag fished from the Sargasso Sea.
 T. Mincer/G. Proskurowski

The ocean contains vast amounts of plastic, mostly as tiny shards floating just beneath the surface. Under an electron microscope, each scrap of "plastic confetti" becomes "an oasis, a reef of biological activity," says marine microbiologist Tracy Mincer of the Woods Hole Oceanographic Institution in Massachusetts.

This article elsewhere
 Blogs linking to

Microplastik – ein komplexes Habitat: Vektor-Funktion?

INTERACTIONS BETWEEN MICROORGANISMS AND MARINE MICROPLASTICS: A CALL FOR RESEARCH

AUTHORS
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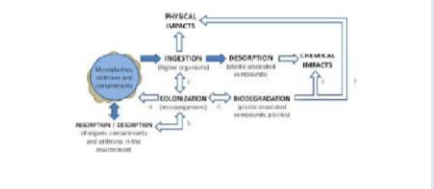
ABSTRACT
 Synthetic thermoplastics contribute the majority by percentage of anthropogenic debris entering the Earth's oceans. Microplastics (5-5mm fragments) are rapidly emerging pollutants in marine ecosystems that may transport potentially toxic chemicals into marine food webs. This commentary evaluates our knowledge concerning the interactions between marine organisms and microplastics and identifies the lack of microbial research into microplastic contamination as a significant knowledge gap. Microorganisms (bacteria, archaea, and protozoa) in coastal sediments represent a key category of life with relevance to understanding and mitigating the potential adverse effects of microplastics due to their role as drivers of the global functioning of the marine biopump and as positive mediators of the biodegradation of plastic-associated additives, contaminants, or even the plastic themselves. As such, research into the formation, structure, and activities of microplastic-associated microbial habitats is essential in order to improve management decisions aimed at curtailing the ecological integrity of our seas and coasts.

Introduction
 The 1970s in the Plastic Age, with its industrial nations now reliant on synthetic polymers in most aspects of our lives. The worldwide demand for plastics is estimated to have annually increased by 10% since the 1970s, with their total mass of production reaching 245 million tons in 2006 (Andriady and Neal, 2009). Plastics/Europe, 2009). Given this 608-fold increase in produced consumption during the past 60 years, synthetic thermoplastics (e.g. polyethylene) comprise the most abundant and rapidly growing components of anthropogenic debris entering the Earth's oceans (Dortch, 2002; Moore, 2008; Barnes et al., 2009; Law et al., 2010). The increasing significance of this debris as a disruptor of the ecological integrity of marine ecosystems is recognized in environmental treaties across the globe, including the multilateral European Marine Strategy Framework Directive (Charlton et al., 2009; Galgani et al., 2010; GESAMP, 2010).

Plastic waste is globally distributed across both surface waters and sediments within the marine environment, reflecting the widespread use of polymer products and their ability to resist physical and biological degradation for centuries (Galgani et al., 2000; Moore et al., 2001; Ramnarayanan and Ramnarayanan, 2004; Subbarao et al., 2007; Andriady and Neal, 2009). The environmental fate of this waste is controlled by human activities and biophysical factors (e.g. floating, accidental drift, and oceanic circulation), with an excess of 200,000 plastic fragments having been discovered within a square kilometre of waters in the North Atlantic Subtropical Gyre (Galgani et al., 2000; Ramnarayanan and Ramnarayanan, 2004; Mouriague et al., 2007; Law et al., 2010). Since the majority of synthetic polymer sink in oceanic sediments function as sinks for the accumulation of plastic debris (Moore, 2008; Barnes et al., 2009). For example, up to 47.4 kg/km² of anthropogenic debris have been discovered in the Eastern Mediterranean seabed, over half of which was comprised by plastic (Rostad et al., 2009). In comparison, 5.1 kg/km² of floating plastics have been described in the North Pacific Central Gyre (Moore et al., 2001; Fyfe et al., 2009).

The ubiquity and persistence of synthetic polymers are prompting global public concern about the impacts of plastic pollution on marine wildlife. These impacts are most apparent when considering the risks of entanglement and ingestion of readily visible (5 mm) fragments of plastic by higher organisms such as birds and fish (Latt, 1987; Dortch, 2002; Moore, 2008; Gargay, 2009; Osburn et al., 2010).

FIGURE 2
 A schematic illustrating potential interactions between marine microorganisms (bacteria, archaea, and picoeukaryotes) and synthetic microplastics in relation to the wider environmental impacts of the debris. The filled arrows indicate interactions for which experimental evidence exists, and the white arrows correspond to interactions that have not been explored within marine sediments. The colonization of microplastics by microbial assemblages may (a) occur directly, (b) depend on the presence of plastic-associated organic compounds, (c) occur following ingestion by higher organisms and/or become influenced by the gut microflora, (d) mediate activities contributing to the biodegradation of plastic-associated chemicals or the plastics themselves, potentially influencing the extent and severity of the (e) chemical and (f) physical impacts of microplastics on higher organisms.



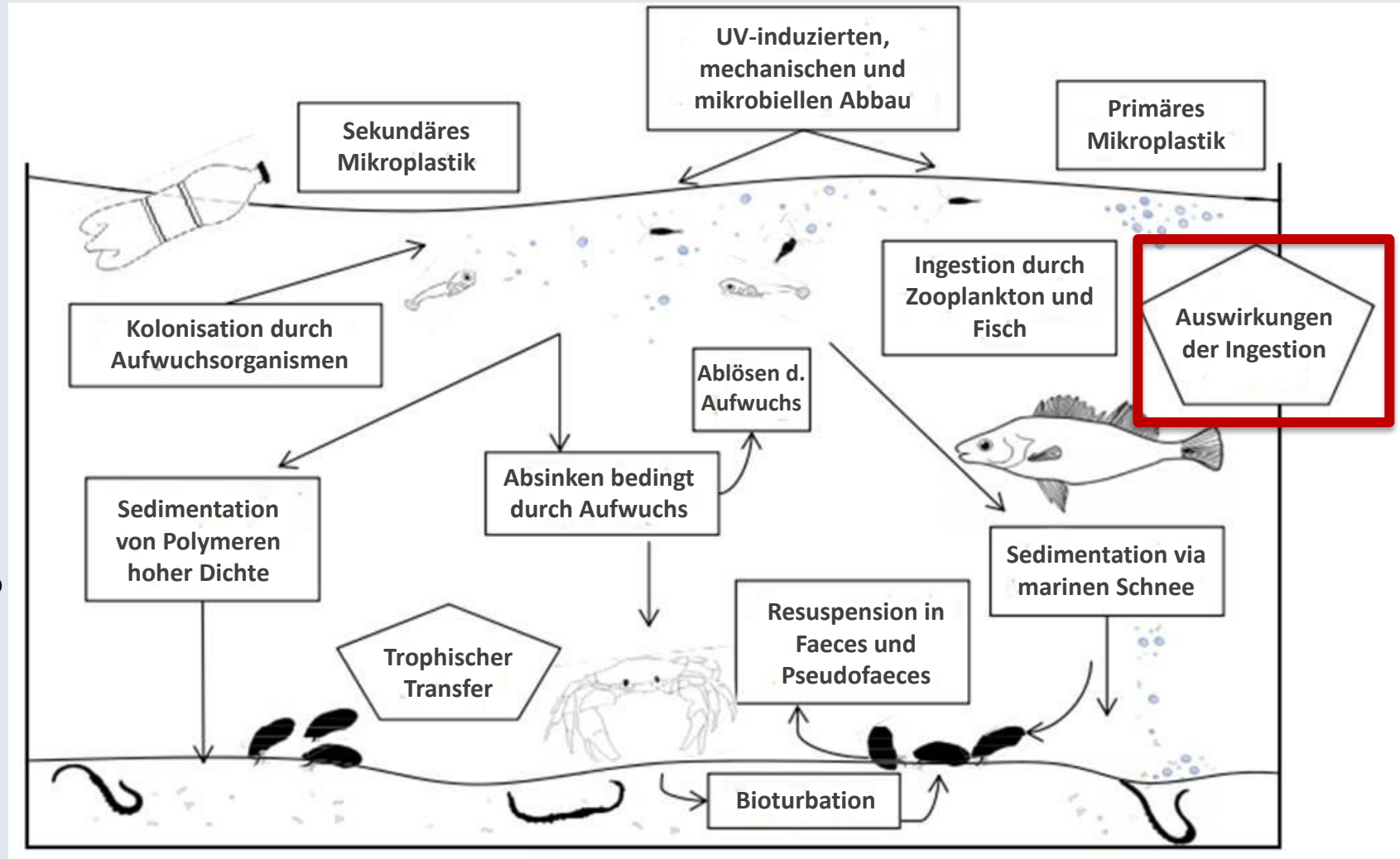
"There is a fundamental lack of information concerning the potential for microplastics in marine ecosystems to function as hotspots for the attachment of microbial assemblages originating from the wider environment."

"...almost 25% of the bacteria on one polyethylene surface were vibrios, bacteria from the same group as the cholera bacterium..."

Substratspezifische Anreicherung oder auch Einfluss des marinen Nahrungsnetzes (anthropogener Einfluss)?

Mikroplastik und das marine Nahrungsnetz

Aufnahme + Ausscheidung Mikroplastik



Modifiziert nach Wright et al. 2013 Environ Pollut

Eukaryonten als Reservoir pathogener Mikroorganismen

Die Rolle der Vibrionen



The ISME Journal (2009) 3, 1082–1092
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www.nature.com/ismej

ORIGINAL ARTICLE

Plankton composition and environmental factors contribute to *Vibrio* seasonality

Jeffrey W Turner^{1,2}, Brooks Good³, Dana Cole^{2,4} and Erin K Lipp²

¹Odum School of Ecology, University of Georgia, Athens, GA, USA; ²Department of Environmental Health Science, University of Georgia, Athens, GA, USA; ³Coastal Research Division, Georgia Department of Natural Resources, One Conservation Way, Brunswick, GA, USA and ⁴Division of Public Health, Georgia Department of Human Resources, Atlanta, GA, USA

Plankton represent a nutrient-rich reservoir capable of enriching *Vibrio* species, which can include human pathogens, at higher densities than the surrounding water column. To better understand the relationship between vibrios and plankton, the partitioning of culturable vibrios, on TCBS, between free living and plankton associated (63–200- and >200- μ m-size fractions) was monitored over a 1-year period in coastal waters of Georgia, USA. Seasonal changes in the total *Vibrio* concentration were then compared with changes in environmental parameters as well as changes in the relative composition of the plankton community. Using univariate analyses, *Vibrio* concentrations were strongly associated with temperature, especially when those vibrios were plankton associated ($R^2 = 0.69$ and 0.88 for the water and both plankton fractions; respectively) ($P < 0.01$). Multivariate general linear models revealed that *Vibrio* concentrations in the plankton fractions were also correlated to shifts in the relative abundance of specific plankton taxa. In the 63–200- μ m fraction, *Vibrio* concentrations were inversely associated with copepods, cyanobacteria and diatoms. In the >200- μ m fraction, *Vibrio* concentrations were positively associated with copepods and negatively associated with decapod larvae. Our results confirm the role of temperature in *Vibrio* seasonality and highlight an important and independent role for plankton composition in explaining seasonal changes in *Vibrio* concentration.

The ISME Journal (2009) 3, 1082–1092; doi:10.1038/ismej.2009.50; published online 7 May 2009

Subject Category: microbial ecology and functional diversity in natural habitats

Keywords: copepods; plankton; seasonality; *Vibrio*

Environmental Microbiology (2005) 7(6), 761–772

doi:10.1111/j.1462-2920.2005.00792.x

Minireview

Persistence of vibrios in marine bivalves: the role of interactions with haemolymph components

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²Istituto di Scienze Fisiologiche, Università di Urbino, Urbino, Italy.

Summary

Marine bivalves are widespread in coastal environments and, due to their filter-feeding habit, they can accumulate large numbers of bacteria thus acting as passive carriers of human pathogens. Bivalves possess both humoral and cellular defence mechanisms

rounding waters. Two general groups of pathogenic bacteria may be present in coastal seawater and may be entrapped by bivalves: the former group includes non-indigenous bacterial pathogens (e.g. *Salmonella* and *Shigella*) that are shed into the water from infected animals and humans, the latter includes bacteria indigenous to the marine environment, predominantly members of the family *Vibrionaceae* (Potasman *et al.*, 2002).

The genus *Vibrio* includes more than 30 species, and many are pathogenic to humans and/or have been associated with food-borne diseases (Chakraborty *et al.*, 1997). Among these species, *Vibrio cholerae* is not only the most feared but also the most extensively studied



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Fish as Reservoirs and Vectors of *Vibrio cholerae*

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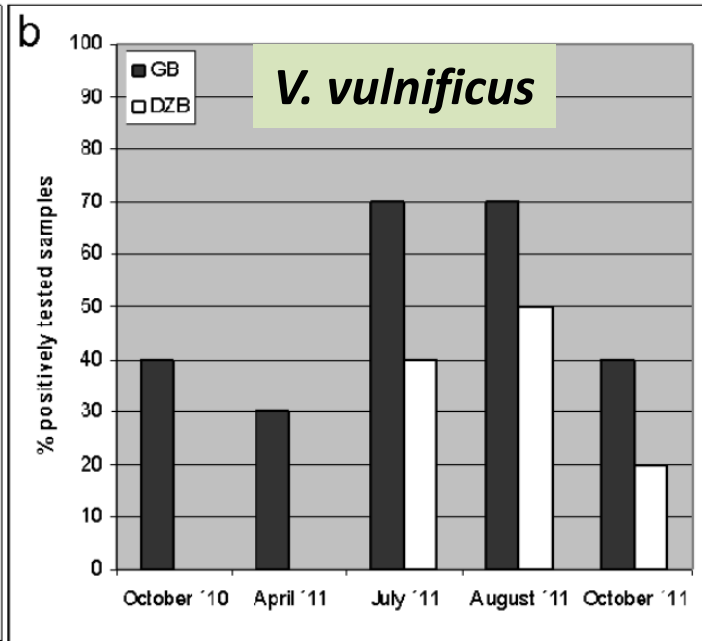
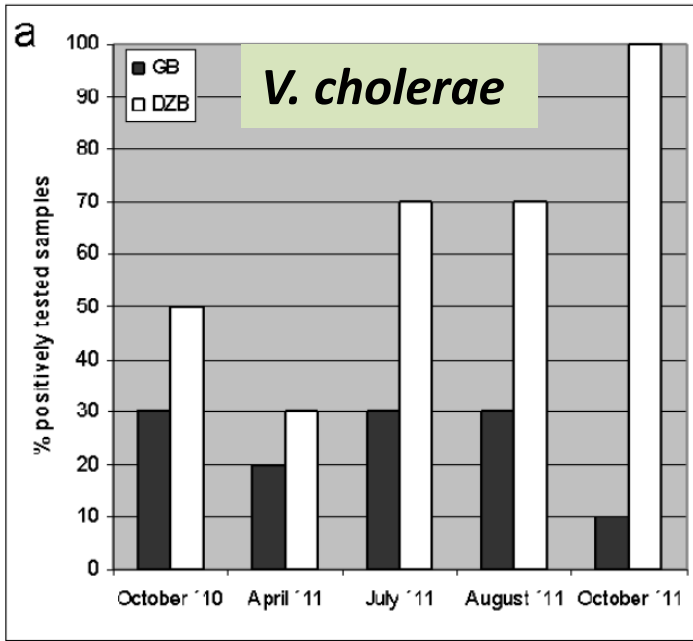
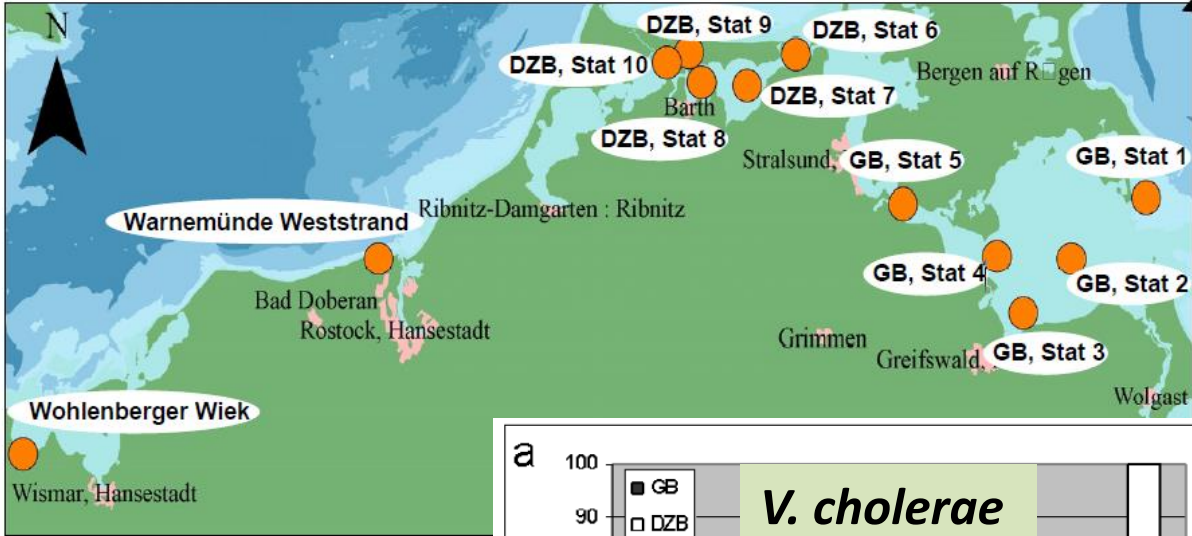
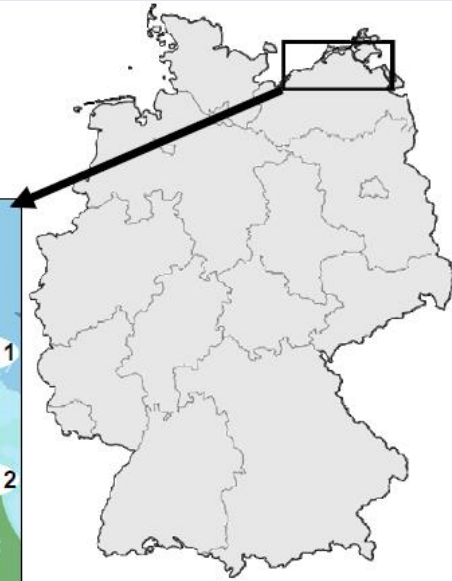
Vibrio cholerae, the etiologic agent of cholera, is autochthonous to various aquatic environments, but despite intensive efforts its ecology remains an enigma. Recently, it was suggested that copepods and chironomids, both considered as natural reservoirs of *V. cholerae*, are dispersed by migratory waterbirds, thus possibly distributing the bacteria between water bodies within and between continents. Although fish have been implicated in the scientific literature with cholera cases, as far as we know, no study actually surveyed the presence of the bacteria in the fish.

Here we show for the first time that fish of various species and habitats contain *V. cholerae* in their digestive tract. Fish ($n = 110$) were randomly sampled from freshwater and marine habitats in Israel. Ten different fish species sampled from freshwater habitats (lake, rivers and fish ponds), and one marine species, were found to carry *V. cholerae*. The fish intestine of *Sarotherodon galilaeus* harboured ca. 5×10^3 *V. cholerae* cfu per 1 gr intestine content—high rates compared with known *V. cholerae* cfu numbers in the bacteria's natural reservoirs. Our results, combined with evidence from the literature, suggest that fish are reservoirs of *V. cholerae*. As fish carrying the bacteria swim from one location to another (some fish species move from rivers to lakes or sea and vice versa), they serve as vectors on a small scale. Nevertheless, fish are consumed by waterbirds, which disseminate the bacteria on a global scale. Moreover, *V. cholerae* isolates had the ability to degrade chitin, indicating a commensal relationship between *V. cholerae* and fish. Better understanding of *V. cholerae* ecology can help reduce the times that human beings come

Vibrionen der Deutschen Ostseeküste

Häufigeres Auftreten im Sommer

Häufigste Infektionen: östliches M-V



- Abundant:**
- *V. vulnificus*
 - *V. cholerae*

Länder mit humanen Fällen

Vibrio-Infektionen seit 1985

Summe gesamte Ostsee: etwa 300 Fälle

Unterschiedliche *Vibrio*-Arten

Year	Countries reporting cases	Number of cases	Species of infections
1985-1993	Finland, Denmark, (Netherlands, Belgium)	9	<i>V. vulnificus</i> , <i>V. cholerae</i> (non O1)
1994	Germany, Sweden, Denmark, Finland	21	<i>V. vulnificus</i> , <i>V. cholerae</i> (non O1), <i>V. alginolyticus</i>
1995	Denmark, Finland, Estonia	8	<i>V. vulnificus</i> , <i>V. cholerae</i> (non O1)
1996	Denmark, Finland	2	<i>V. cholerae</i> (non O1)
1997	Sweden, Finland, Denmark	21	<i>V. vulnificus</i> , <i>V. cholerae</i> (non O1), <i>V. alginolyticus</i> , <i>V. damsela</i>
1998	Finland, Denmark	6	<i>V. cholerae</i> (non O1)
1999	Finland	8	<i>V. cholerae</i> (non O1), <i>V. fluvialis</i>
2000	Finland	5	<i>V. cholerae</i> (non O1), <i>V. parahaemolyticus</i>
2001	Finland, Sweden	11	<i>V. cholerae</i> (non O1), <i>V. parahaemolyticus</i> , <i>V. vulnificus</i>
2002	Germany, Finland	10	<i>V. cholerae</i> (non O1), <i>V. vulnificus</i>
2003	Finland, Germany, Sweden	19	<i>V. cholerae</i> (non O1), <i>V. vulnificus</i>
2004	Finland, Sweden	6	<i>V. cholerae</i> (non O1), <i>V. parahaemolyticus</i> , <i>Vibrio</i> spp*
2005	Finland, Sweden	9	<i>V. cholerae</i> (non O1), <i>V. parahaemolyticus</i> , <i>Vibrio</i> spp*
2006	Germany, Denmark, Sweden, Poland, Finland, Estonia, (Netherlands)	67	<i>V. vulnificus</i> , <i>V. cholerae</i> (non O1), <i>V. alginolyticus</i> <i>V. parahaemolyticus</i> , <i>Vibrio</i> spp*
2007	Finland, Sweden	14	<i>V. cholerae</i> (non O1), <i>Vibrio</i> spp*
2008	Sweden, Finland, (Netherlands)*	13	<i>V. vulnificus</i> , <i>Vibrio</i> spp*
2009	Finland, Sweden, Germany, (Netherlands)	15	<i>V. cholerae</i> (non O1), <i>V. parahaemolyticus</i> , <i>V. alginolyticus</i> , <i>Vibrio</i> spp.
2010	Finland, Sweden, Germany, (Netherlands)	36	<i>V. cholerae</i> (non O1), <i>V. parahaemolyticus</i> , <i>V. alginolyticus</i> , <i>V. vulnificus</i> <i>Vibrio</i> spp*.

Supplementary Table 2. *Vibrio* cases reported per year in the Baltic Sea region, 1985-2010.

Vibrio vulnificus

Pathogene Eigenschaften bzw. Krankheitsverlauf

**Infektion: Beim Baden/Waten/Kontakt Meeresfrüchte, über verletzte Haut
(Abschürfungen, Wunden)**



Department of Health and Human Services ,USA



Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC)

Beziehung Vibrio – Mikroplastik?

- **Wundinfektion**
- **Bei schweren Verlauf Abszess-Bildung in allen Organen**
- **Tödliche Verläufe durch Blutvergiftung innerhalb weniger Tage**
- **Ältere und Immungeschwächte Menschen besonders betroffen**

Die Rolle von Mikroplastik als Träger mikrobieller Populationen in Ökosystemen der Ostsee

MikrOMIK

Fördervolumen 2014-2017: 1,3 Mio. EURO



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