

One-year follow-up of microbial diversity in bioaerosols emitted in a waste sorting plant in France

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▶ To cite this version:

Jodelle Degois, Xavier Simon, Frédéric Clerc, Cyril Bontemps, Pierre Leblond, et al.. One-year followup of microbial diversity in bioaerosols emitted in a waste sorting plant in France. Waste Management, 2021, 120, pp.257-268. 10.1016/j.wasman.2020.11.036 . hal-03070350

HAL Id: hal-03070350 https://hal.univ-lorraine.fr/hal-03070350v1

Submitted on 16 Dec 2022

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17 ABSTRACT:

Bioaerosols emitted in waste sorting plants (WSP) can induce some adverse 18 health effects on the workers such as rhinitis, asthma and hypersensitivity 19 pneumonitis. The composition of these bioaerosols is scarcely known and 20 21 most of the time assessed using culture-dependent methods. Due to the well-22 known limitations of cultural methods, these biodiversity measurements underestimate the actual microbial taxon richness. The aim of the study was 23 24 to assess the airborne microbial biodiversity by using a sequencing method in a French waste sorting plant (WSP) for one year and to investigate the main 25 26 factors of variability of this biodiversity. Static sampling was performed in five areas in the plant and compared to an indoor reference (IR), using closed-27

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28	face cassettes (10 L.min ⁻¹) with polycarbonate membranes, every month for						
29	one year. Environmental data was measured (temperature, relative humidity).						
30	After DNA extraction, microbial biodiversity was assessed by means of						
31	sequencing. Bacterial genera Staphylococcus, Streptococcus, Prevotella,						
32	Lactococcus, Lactobacillus, Pseudomonas and fungal genera Wallemia,						
33	Cladosporium, Debaryomyces, Penicillium, Alternaria were the most						
34	predominant airborne microorganisms. Microbial biodiversity was different in						
35	the plant compared to the IR and seemed to be influenced by the season.						
36							
37	Keywords: bioaerosol; biodiversity; 16S rDNA; Illumina sequencing; ITS						
38	rDNA; next-generation sequencing; occupational exposure; household waste						
39	sorting; determinants						
40	Abbreviation list						
41	CFC closed-face cassette						
42	(r)DNA (ribosomal)desoxyribonucleic acid						
43	HTS high-throughput sequencing						
44	WSP waste sorting plant						
45	IR Indoor Reference						
46	ITS internal transcribed spacer						
47	OEL Occupational Exposure Limit values						
48	OTU Operational taxonomic unit						
49	QS Sorensen-Dice coefficient						

50 RH relative humidity

51 **1** Introduction

52 The management of waste-limiting landfill disposal is an important issue in our society. Thus, industrial structures and treatment channels are developing all 53 over the world in order to collect, sort, recycle waste or produce energy from 54 55 residual materials. Of these channels, the sorting of household, commercial and industrial solid waste is one of the challenges all countries face. For 2020, 56 57 the European Union plans to increase the amount of domestic waste recycled, to represent 50% of overall waste mass (Council of the European Union, 58 59 2008). In France, the number of waste sorting plants increased from 265 to 60 410 installations between 2000 and 2014 (ADEME, 2015). They treat several million tons of non-hazardous household or industrial waste every year and 61 employ an increasing number of workers involved in sorting waste manually, 62 cleaning and maintaining facilities, driving handling or loading machines, etc. 63 Published studies revealed that workers in waste sorting plants (WSP) were 64 exposed to complex bioaerosols including dust, bacteria and fungi, as well as 65 66 microbial compounds and metabolites (Madsen et al., 2016; Park et al., 2013; Schlosser et al., 2015; Tolvanen, 2001; Van Tongeren et al., 1997). The 67 68 corresponding exposure has been associated to health disorders among 69 workers, and respiratory, gastrointestinal or dermatologic symptoms have 70 been reported for many situations that involve the handling of household waste (Poole and Basu, 2017; Walser et al., 2015). However, data provided 71 72 by epidemiological studies is not sufficient to be able to establish a link between exposure and health issues, and there are no Occupational 73

74 Exposure Limit values (OELs) available for airborne biological agents. As the health issues caused by bioaerosols are linked to the type of species and 75 76 compounds to which workers are exposed, one of the reasons explaining the current lack of OELs may be linked to the complex composition of bioaerosols 77 in the workplace atmosphere, such as WSP. Most of the existing published 78 studies provide biodiversity data in WSP by culture and identification of 79 80 microorganisms on nutrient media. They revealed that predominant airborne microorganisms in WSP belonged to Aspergillus and Penicillium for fungi and 81 82 to Bacillus and Staphylococcus for bacteria (Breum et al., 1999b; Lehtinen et 83 al., 2013; Madsen et al., 2019; Rahkonen, 1992; Viegas et al., 2014). A recent study has provided new data based on high-throughput sequencing (HTS) 84 85 measurements, confirming previous culture-dependant findings, as well as 86 highlighting new microbial taxa such as Wallemia, for fungi (Degois et al., 2017). Indeed, HTS has provided a new approach for environmental microbial 87 88 studies over the last decade. The technique was already being used to characterize microbial communities in swine houses (Kumari et al., 2016), 89 composting facilities (Mbareche et al., 2017b) or wastewater treatment plants 90 (Lin et al., 2014). It provides a solution to some of the limitations of the culture 91 92 method but it also introduces other types of biases such as DNA extraction 93 efficiency or errors of sequencing (Duquenne, 2018; Mbareche et al., 2017a). Nevertheless, the use of HTS in WSP has enabled a more complex 94 bioaerosol composition to be revealed, with more microbial taxa detected, as 95 96 opposed to culture (Degois et al., 2017). 97 The evolution of microbial biodiversity over time in bioaerosols has also been

98 investigated in different environments. Thus, geographical location,

99 temperature, relative humidity and, more generally, the seasons were found to be potential determinants of biodiversity of airborne microbial communities for 100 wastewater treatment plants (Ding et al., 2016), swine houses (Kumari et al., 101 2016) and outdoor air (Bowers et al., 2012). As the impact of each of these 102 factors on biodiversity varies from study to study, no conclusions can be 103 drawn regarding the mode of action for environmental factors. To date, such 104 105 an investigation has not yet been carried out for bioaerosols emitted in French WSPs. Yet, a better understanding of factors affecting airborne communities 106 107 would improve knowledge about microbial exposure for workers and would provide useful data for establishing further sampling strategies as well as for 108 managing biological risk. Biodiversity measurements were taken in the 109 110 working environment of a waste sorting plant (WSP) over the period of one year. 111

The aims of the present study were: 1) to characterize the bacterial and fungal biodiversity in bioaerosols in six sampling areas of a WSP using HTS, 2) to assess temporal variations of the microbial biodiversity in emitted bioaerosols and 3) to investigate the environmental parameters which may affect the microbial biodiversity in the bioaerosols emitted in a waste sorting plant.

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118 2 Material and methods

119 2.1 Description of the waste sorting plant

120

The waste sorting plant (WSP) is in eastern France and employs about 50
workers for the sorting activities. The plant treats non-hazardous household

and industrial waste collected from 44 towns (representing approximately 123 235,000 inhabitants). An overview of the general organization of the plant and 124 the sorting activities is provided in Figure 1. Household waste comprised 125 various materials (cardboard, different types of plastic packaging, cartons and 126 metals) unloaded directly onto the ground by trucks in a waste unloading area 127 (Figure 10). Waste was then selected at random to be fed into the sorting 128 129 chain to then be manually sorted by workers in sorting cabins (Figure 1@and b) before being stored in pits. Industrial waste such as furniture or 130 131 wood items was fed into a wood chipper (Figure 14) and sent to an incineration unit adjacent to the WSP along a conveyor belt to supply the hot 132 water system of the neighbouring town. As mentioned above, incoming waste 133 134 was treated at random but the mode of treatment was mostly based on a "last in, first out" approach. However, it was not possible to specify the storage time 135 and the nature of the waste treated on the days of sampling. 136 The company daily recorded the amount of waste delivered to the unloading 137 area, shredded or squeezed by the press. The median mass was 71,640 kg 138 (59,200-89,920 kg) in the unloading area, 16,320 kg (5,040-24,500 kg) for the 139 shredder, and 23,296 kg (18,800-39,151 kg) for the press. Even if it mainly 140 included food packaging, most of the treated waste was of varying materials 141 142 (between 59% and 86% of daily mass of waste) and the remaining fraction consisted of large cardboard items and papers/magazines processed through 143 a separate sorting chain, which was not examined in this study. 144

146 2.2 Sampling methods and strategy

147 Stationary bioaerosol samples were collected at five sampling points positioned near significant working areas inside the WSP, known as "waste 148 exposure areas" in the following sections of the paper: point 1 in the unloading 149 150 area; point 2 in the first sorting cabin; point 3 in the third sorting cabin; point 4 151 near the shredder and point 5 near the press (Figure 1). In addition, a sample was taken from an IR (indoor reference) (point 6) in a meeting room in 152 another administrative part of the building, hermetically separated from waste 153 sorting activities. Samples were collected every month from January to 154 December 2016 for all the sampling points in order to assess the variation of 155 microbial biodiversity (12 samples collected per sampling location). 156

To perform bioaerosol sampling, three-piece 37 mm closed-face cassettes 157 (CFC) with a polycarbonate membrane filter (Nuclepore[®], 0.8 µm pore size) 158 and a cellulose support pad (Millipore[®], thick cellulose absorbent pad) were 159 attached to constant flow pumps (Bravo, Tecora, France) calibrated at a flow 160 rate of 10 L/min using a flow meter (Mass Flowmeter 4040, TSI Inc., USA). 161 162 Flow rates were measured before and after sampling. CFCs were placed at the approximate height of the human respiratory tract and sampling was 163 performed for five hours during the work shift. In parallel to bioaerosol 164 sampling, temperature and relative humidity (RH) of the air were measured 165 using a real-time measuring device (Labguard[®] 3D Mobiguard, Biomérieux, 166 167 France) positioned near the sampling device. All samples were transported to the laboratory in a cold box, stored at 4°C and analyzed within 24 hours of 168 being collected. 169

170 2.3 Pre-treatment of samples and DNA extraction

171 To elute the particles from the filter, a volume of 5 mL of a sterile solution (0.01 % Tween 80 in ultra-pure water) was introduced into each CFC through 172 the inlet. Then, the cassette inlets and outlets were closed with caps and 173 174 shaken (Heildolph[®], Multi-Reax shaker) at 2000 rpm for 20 min and at room temperature. DNA extraction was performed using a commercial kit 175 (FastDNA® SPIN kit for soil, MP Biomedicals, Illkirch, France), according to 176 the manufacturer's instructions, with 500 µL of eluted particle solution. The 177 DNA samples were stored at -20°C until sequencing. 178 DNA sequencing and sequence data analysis 2.4 179 The DNA samples were purified, amplified and sequenced by the INRA 180 Transfert Environnement (Narbonne, France) sequencing platform. The 181 bacterial biodiversity was examined by sequencing the 16S rDNA (v3-v5 182 variable region) using primers F-5'-GTGYCAGCMGCCGCGGTA-3' and R-5'-183 184 CCCCGYCAATTCMTTTRAGT-3'. The primers used to amplify the specific fungal barcode ITS2 were w404 5'-185 CTTTCCCTACACGACGCTCTTCCGATCTTGTGARTCATCGAATCTTTG-3' 186

187 and w40 5'-

188 GGAGTTCAGACGTGTGCTCTTCCGATCTTCCTCCGCTTATTGATATGC-3'.

189 For the DNA amplification by PCR, the mixture contained 5 μ L of DNA

template, 4 μ L of dNTPs (25 mM), 1 μ L of each primer (100 ng/ μ L), and 0.5

 $~\mu L$ of Taq polymerase in a total volume of 50 $\mu L.$ The PCR cycle was 2 min at

192 95°C (denaturation step), 1 min at 56°C or 65°C for ITS2 or 16S rDNA

amplification respectively (annealing step) and 1 min at 72°C (elongation

194 step). The two genetic targets were sequenced using paired-end sequencing

195 with Miseq technology (Illumina, San Diego, USA). Sequence analysis was performed according to Mothur's SOP (Kozich et al., 2013). Simply put, the 196 reads were trimmed; barcodes, primers and homopolymers longer than 8 pb 197 were removed using Mothur (v.1.37.4) software (Schloss et al., 2009). 198 Chimera were detected and removed using UNCHIME (Edgar et al., 2011). 199 After alignment, the reads with 100% identity were clustered into a single 200 201 sequence. The bacterial reads were assigned by the Wang method (Wang et al., 2007) that was executed in Mothur with SILVA database. Operational 202 203 taxonomic units (OTUs) were defined using the traditional method. The ITS2 reads were processed in the same way as bacterial sequences. Fungal OTUs 204 were assigned at the genus level using the massBLASTer algorithm in the 205 206 UNITE database (https://unite.ut.ee/analysis.php) with an e-value of over 10⁻⁶⁰ 207 and more than 95% identity.

208 2.5 Statistical analysis

209 2.5.1 Sample labelling

The names of the samples follow a letter code (B or F for bacterial or fungal samples respectively) with a first digit to indicate the month of sampling and a second digit that represents the sampling location. For example, the bacterial analysis for the sample collected in February in the sorting cabin is named B23 in figures, which represents Bayesian's results.

215 2.5.2 Diversity analysis

Alpha diversity, which estimates the diversity within a sample, was calculated according to the Shannon index and Specific Richness (SR) to measure variations in the first sorting cabin, the sorting cabin, and the shredder. To assess the statistical differences, Mann-Whitney and Kruskal-Wallis tests
were performed using Statgraphics Centurion XVI software (Statistical
Graphics Corp., USA).

The Sorensen-Dice coefficient (QS) (Tuomisto, 2010) was calculated to 222 223 compare the beta diversity between measurements and the similarity in 224 composition between the bioaerosols emitted inside the plant and in the IR. The more the microbial compositions between two samples have in common, 225 226 the closer the index value is to 1 (identical composition). This index was calculated using the Mothur software for bacterial and fungal biodiversity, over 227 a period of four months: January (winter), April (spring), August (summer) and 228 229 October (fall). These months were chosen because of the success of sequencing for the two genetic targets (ITS and 16S rDNA) at all the sampling 230 231 points.

- 232 2.5.3 Correlation calculation
- To establish a relation between the QS and the temperature or the RH, the
- value of the Spearman' rs statistic was calculated using Statgraphics

235 Centurion XVI software (Statistical Graphics Corp., USA).

236 **2.5.4 Bayesian networks analysis**

- 237 Bayesian networks were used to identify the similarities between
- measurements (Pearl and Russell, 2002). The software used for this
- technique is BayesiaLab (www.bayesia.com). For each measurement, the
- biodiversity data is summarized into the presence (value 1) or absence (value
- 0) of the genus. Each measurement is then a vector whereby each coordinate

symbolizes the presence or absence of a specific genus (Table S1). The data
table used displays measurements as columns and genera as rows.

Based on this data, the idea is to automatically build a network that highlights

the statistical correlations between the measurements, based on the

frequency of shared genus between samples. Each measurement becomes a

247 node and whenever a statistical correlation is strong enough (p value <

248 0.0001), then a link is established between the nodes (Figure S1).

In a second step of the statistical analysis, a data clustering method is applied 249 to form groups of nodes with strong enough similarity. In Figure S1, the nodes 250 bearing the same color belong to the same group. This analysis can be 251 viewed through a dendogram (Figure S2), the highest level of which shows 252 the best compromise between the overall number of groups formed and the 253 average similarity within the groups. It is expected that the standard statistical 254 255 settings for forming the groups will identify patterns of biodiversity between measurements, particularly when taking into account the season in which 256 measurement was carried out. 257

258 **3 Results**

259 3.1 Sampling conditions

During the sampling campaign (twelve days in the year 2016), 72 bioaerosol samples were collected (representing 5 sampling points and an IR for each day) for microbial biodiversity analysis. The number of workers in the WSP was representative of the previous years but the plant had recorded an increase in the amount of waste sorted. No production dysfunctions were observed during sampling periods except a halt in production in November 266 with no activity for the two sorting cabins. The temperature was monitored at the different sampling sites over the period of the campaign. It varied from 0°C 267 to 27°C (Figure S2 A and B). Temperatures measured in waste management 268 areas were at the maximum in summer (about 27°C in July) and the minimum 269 in winter (about 0°C in the hall and 12°C inside the cabins in January and 270 February). Measured values were similar between areas located in the hall 271 272 (unloading waste area, shredder and press/storage) and varied between cabins. The temperature monitored at the IR was more stable (about 20°C) 273 274 and significantly higher than in waste management areas. The recorded values of relative humidity (RH) varied from 28% to 60% and were similar 275 between the two cabins and the IR; they were higher in areas located in the 276 277 hall especially during fall and winter (Figure S3 A and B).

278 3.2 General sequencing data

279 A total of 63 samples (87% success rate) and 68 samples (94% success rate) were successfully sequenced for bacterial and fungal biodiversity, 280 respectively. Samples with DNA concentrations lower than 3 ng.µL⁻¹ were not 281 282 sequenced (winter samplings or IR). The number of reads (a read is a sequence analyzed by the sequencing machine) after sequencing varied 283 extensively depending on the location and on the month of sampling. The 284 median of the reads was approximately 25,000 except for 16S rDNA reads for 285 286 the IR, which contained less reads than the other sampling locations (Table 287 1). Two samples with a very low number of bacterial reads were not considered. 288

3.3 Bacterial biodiversity and monthly variation

291 **3.3.1 Dominant bacterial phyla and their variations**

292 Thirty bacterial phyla were observed but 96% of the reads represented the five most prominent phyla in all the samples (Figure 2A, B, and C): 293 294 Actinobateria, Bacteroidetes, Cynaobacteria, Firmicutes and Proteobacteria. 295 Among them, Firmicutes and Proteobacteria were the two most dominant specimens in samples collected in waste treatment areas (median=41.5% and 296 24.6% respectively) and in the IR (median= 20.0% and 48.6% respectively), 297 298 followed by Actinobacteria and Bacteroidetes. The variation of the main bacterial phyla over the course of the study is illustrated in Figure 2A, B, and 299 C for three sampling locations: unloading waste area, in the first-sorting cabin 300 and in the IR (for the other sampling points, see Figure S4A, B, and C in the 301 supplementary materials). A high proportion of Cyanobacteria was recorded in 302 303 February in the unloading waste area with 65.7% of the bacterial reads attributed to this phylum. This result was not observed at any other sampling 304 site or at any other time during the sampling campaign. 305

306 **3.3.2 Dominant bacterial genera and their variations**

At the genus level, 605 bacterial genera were observed in our samples. The more abundant bacteria are known as core microbiome in biodiversity studies. In the current project, the core microbiome was composed of 45 genera with 6 Actinobacteria, 7 Bacteroidetes, 15 Firmicutes, 1 Nitrospinae, and 16 Proteobacteria genera. These main genera represented between 9.3% (waste unloading area in February) and 83.8% (IR in September) of the bacterial

313 reads.

314 As for phyla, the description of the results is focused on three sampling points: the unloading waste area, the first-sorting cabin and the IR (Figure 2D, E, and 315 F). Results from the other sampling plants are presented in Figure S4 of the 316 supplementary materials. One of the most dominant bacterial genera found at 317 each sampling point, including the IR, was *Staphylococcus* (Figure 2D, E and 318 F) with a median of approximately 9% of relative abundance in all sampling 319 320 points, except near the press in March. *Prevotella* and *Pseudomonas* were present throughout the whole year in substantial proportion in the two waste 321 322 treatment locations (about 3%) and in lower proportion in the IR (less than 0.6%). *Streptococcus* was also found every month but in lower proportions 323 with a maximal value of 11.3%, observed in the IR in January. Other bacterial 324 325 genera were frequently found during the year in the bioaerosols collected in 326 the unloading area and in the first sorting cabin: Lactobacillus (3%), Bacillus (1%), Leuconostoc (2%) which was absent in the IR, as well as Aerococcus, 327 328 Lactococcus, Acinetobacter, and Corynebacterium.

329 **3.4 Fungal biodiversity and its variation**

330 **3.4.1** Dominant fungal phyla and their variations over the year

- Among the 6 phyla detected in the bioaerosols, Ascomycota, Basidiomycota,
- and Mucoromycota were the dominant ones (Figure 3A, B, and C and Figure
- 333 S5 A, B and C in the supplementary materials). Ascomycota reads
- represented more than 50% of the fungal reads (56.3% in the waste treatment
- areas and 53.2 % in the IR). The main fungal phyla were present at each
- period and at each sampling point with varied proportions depending on the
- location and the time of the sampling.

338 **3.4.2** Dominant fungal genera and their variations over the year

339 A total of 592 fungal genera were identified when all the collected bioaerosol samples were considered. The fungal core microbiome was composed of 45 340 genera. This core microbiome varied from 58.7% (in October near the press) 341 342 to 91.2 % (in January in the first-sorting cabin) with a median value of 77.2%. 343 The relative abundance of the fungal microbiome found in the unloading waste area, the first-sorting cabin and the IR and its variation over the year is 344 described in Figure 3. The fungal biodiversity found in the sorting cabin, near 345 346 the shredder and near the press is illustrated in Figure S5 of the supplementary materials. Among the core microbiome, 8 genera were found 347 in huge proportions throughout the whole year: *Cladosporium*, *Alternaria*, 348 Debaryomyces, Penicillum, Candida, Wallemia, Cryptococcus, and Mucor 349 (Figure 3 and Figure S5 of the supplementary materials). Wallemia was the 350 351 predominant genus in the two occupational sampling points (Figure 3 D, E, and F). It represented 17.3% (up to 66.4% in February) and 21.4% (up to 352 54.8% in November) of the ITS2 reads in the unloading waste area and in the 353 354 first sorting cabin respectively. In the IR, Wallemia was also recorded in substantial proportion (6.5%). *Cladosporium* and *Debaryomyces* were also 355 dominant genera found at the three sampling locations throughout the year. 356 *Cladosporium* was the predominant genus in the IR. In the unloading waste 357 358 area and in the first-sorting cabin, about 5% of fungal reads were attributed to 359 Penicillium and Candida (5.2% and 6.1% in the unloading waste area; 5.2% and 4.5% in the first-sorting cabin). They only represented about 1% in the IR. 360

361 **3.5 Variation of alpha biodiversity**

The sampling location had no statistical impact on Shannon indexes for bacteria and fungi. The Shannon index values were higher for the bacterial biodiversity than for the fungal biodiversity. The number of microbial genera did not depend on the period of sampling, neither for bacteria nor fungi.

366 **3.6 Season and humidity as the main factors of microbial diversity**

The similarity of microbial (fungal and bacterial) composition between the IR 367 and the sampling points inside the WSP was measured by calculating the 368 Sorensen-Dice coefficient (QS). For bacterial biodiversity, this coefficient 369 370 varied from 0.07 in winter to 0.6 in spring in the sorting cabin (Figure 4A). There was more similarity between bacterial communities in waste treatment 371 areas and IR in fall-summer than in winter-spring. A positive correlation was 372 observed between the QS values and temperature values (Spearman rs p-373 value=0.51, n=20). The higher the temperature was, the closer the bacterial 374 375 composition of bioaerosols was to that of IR.. The sampling location had an impact on bacterial biodiversity regarding Sorensen-Dice coefficient (Kruskall-376 Wallis test: p=0.003). For fungal biodiversity, the values varied from 0.12 to 377 378 0.64 (Figure 4B). The coefficient was minimal (about 0.15) in summer and maximal in spring with values superior to 0.5. The fungal composition in 379 bioaerosols collected at the IR and at the sampling points in the WSP showed 380 closer similarities in spring and in fall. The fungal biodiversity was negatively 381 382 correlated with the relative humidity of the air (Spearman rs p-value=-0.67, 383 n=20), the higher the RH, the more the composition of fungal bioaerosols differed, as compared to the IR. 384

385 3.7 Results from Bayesian networks statistics

The Bayesian networks were used to group bioaerosol samples according to 386 the similarities in their microbial composition at the genus level. This operation 387 is called "clustering" and is only based on statistical data. The groups were 388 389 then analyzed to determine whether the composition of bioaerosol can be 390 attributed to an environmental parameter (e.g. a given pattern of bioaerosol is more often present during a specific season). A first clustering provided 20 391 392 clusters with statistical similar composition for fungal biodiversity and 17 for bacterial biodiversity (Figure 5 and Figure S6 in the supplementary materials). 393 The clusters represent the sets of bacterial or fungal genus that are frequently 394 identified together in a sample. After clustering, the composition of each 395 cluster was analyzed to determine the common patterns between clusters: the 396 397 day or location of sampling, the intensity of activity (amount of treated waste), 398 the number of workers, the monitored climatic conditions at each sampling point, the atmospheric conditions during and three days before the collection. 399 400 The clusters were named according to the parameters (bacterial diversity Figure S6 in the supplementary materials; fungal biodiversity Figure 5A). For 401 402 fungi, 18 factors were attributed to a parameter that was most of time associated with the day of sampling. After the first clustering, a second 403 Bayesian analysis was performed to establish relationships between the 404 405 renamed clusters (Figure 5B). This analysis shows that the composition of 406 microbial aerosols is related with the seasons of the year. For bacteria, no relation with identified parameters was found to link the samples. In a same 407 408 group, they were bioaerosols sampled at different locations and at different time (Figure S6 in supplementary materials). 409

410 **4 Discussion**

411 **4.1 Overview of the sampling campaign**

During the sampling campaign, the climatic conditions were those of the semicontinental climate usually found in the North East of France. The year 2016 in particular was characterized by very marked seasons, with very low temperatures in winter and rather high temperatures in summer. The production as well as working activities were considered representative for the investigated WSP.

418 4.2 Dominant airborne microorganisms in the WSP

The biodiversity data revealed that some microbial taxa was present in 419 420 substantial proportions throughout the whole year and at all the sampling 421 locations. For bacteria, the Firmicutes was the dominant bacterial phylum followed by Proteobacteria and Bacteroidetes, with an exception for the 422 unloading waste area in February (Figure 2). About 605 bacterial genera were 423 found but only few of them (45) account for most of the 16S rDNA reads in 424 collected bioaerosol samples. Among these genera, Staphylococcus, 425 426 Streptococcus, Lactobacillus and Lactococcus but also Prevotella, Pseudomonas, Acinetobacter and Bacillus, were present and dominant in all 427 428 samples. For fungi, the dominant phyla were Ascomycota and Basidiomycota. 429 Among the 592 fungal genera, only five genera (*Wallemia*, *Cladosporium*, 430 Debaryomyces, Candida, and Penicillium) constituted more than half of the ITS2 reads. 431

The present study corroborates our previous findings in another WSP located
in France, using HTS technologies (Degois et al., 2017). In this previous

434 study, the same genera (*Staphylococcus*, *Streptococcus*, *Penicillium*) were also found to be in abundance. *Staphylococcus* was isolated from bioaerosol 435 samples collected in truck cabs for waste collection (Madsen et al., 2016) and 436 437 during cardboard sorting (Madsen et al., 2019). Staphylococcus and Bacillus were found by culture in bioaerosols emitted during paper sorting (Breum et 438 al., 1999). In the present study, the genus *Prevotella* was also found in high 439 440 relative abundance throughout the whole year. To our knowledge, this genus was not reported in studies measuring the bacterial composition in bioaerosol 441 442 emitted in waste sorting plant. The fungal genera *Penicillium* and *Aspergillus* were also isolated by culture from samples collected in truck cab samples 443 (Madsen et al., 2016) and in a waste treatment plant (Breum et al., 1999; 444 445 Lehtinen et al., 2013; Tolvanen, 2001; Viegas et al., 2014). In addition to 446 Penicillium, Cladosporium was the predominant fungal genus in a sorting paper plant (Breum et al., 1999). Candida and Alternaria were also found in 447 high proportion, using HTS, in a domestic compost heap and in the 448 bioaerosols emitted from it (Mbareche et al., 2017a; Wéry, 2014). 449 The results from our study indicate that Wallemia was one of the predominant 450 451 genera in the bioaerosols emitted in the investigated WSP. This genus belongs to the order Wallemiales (Wallemiomycotina, Basidiomycota) and 452 453 includes several species (W. ichthyophaga, W. muriae, W. sebi, W. mellicola, 454 W. tropicalis, W. Canadensis, W. hederae and W. peruviensis). These species are salty environments (Zalar et al., 2005) and are known to be 455 spoilage organisms of food items with low water activity (aw) (Zajc and 456 457 Gunde-Cimerman, 2018). But some are also found in the airborne state and in settled dust in occupational and indoor environments, as well as dwellings 458

459 (Fröhlich-Nowoisky et al., 2009; Li et al., 2019; Zeng et al., 2004). They usually differ in their xerotolerance and tolerance to solutes (NaCl, MgCl2), 460 growth rate and temperature, enzymes and metabolites production profiles as 461 well as in their size of conidia (Jančič et al., 2015; Jančič et al., 2016). The 462 predominance of *Wallemia* in bioaerosols from the WSP can be explained by 463 the presence of food packaging among waste (trays, yoghurt pots and sauce 464 465 jars, beverage bottles, etc.) on which food residue remains, creating favorable conditions for their growth and survival. This residue may come from food 466 467 items with the water activity reduced initially or that has been lowered by dehydration during the period prior to sorting. Similar hypotheses can be put 468 forward to explain the predominance of other fungal genera such as 469 470 *Cladosporium* and *Penicillium*, as several species belonging to these genera were found to be able to grow in the presence of low water activity (Gunde-471 Cimerman et al., 2003). Their growth and survival on paper and cardboard 472 473 have also been shown (Das et al., 1997).

474

The presence of *Wallemia* in bioaerosols from WSP has already been 475 demonstrated in our previous published study carried out using molecular 476 methods in the same working environment (Degois et al., 2017). This result 477 contrasts with the results of studies conducted using culture-based methods 478 479 for which this genus has not been identified (Tolvanen, 2001; Viegas et al., 480 2014). Fungal species belonging to *Wallemia* have a very low growth rate on usual culture media and its numeration is usually impaired due to masking by 481 faster growing species. Thus, its presence in different environments is 482 483 underestimated while using culture-based methods. On the other hand, the

Aspergillus genus was poorly detected in the present study as compared to 484 previous published studies (Degois et al., 2017; Tolvanen, 2001). This under-485 representation may be due to specific factors at our site (undetermined 486 environmental or ecological factors) or due to a methodological bias. Indeed, 487 we have already shown that *Aspergillus* might be under-represented in HTS 488 analyses compared to culture methods, probably due to an inefficient DNA 489 490 extraction (Degois et al., 2019). These specific examples refer to the complementarity of the two approaches whose respective advantages and 491 492 limitations have already been widely discussed (Degois et al., 2017; Degois et al., 2019; Duguenne, 2018; Mbareche et al., 2017). 493 The biodiversity of airborne bacterial communities emitted in waste sorting 494 centers is different, compared to that recorded at composting or anaerobic 495 496 digestion facilities where bacteria belonging to Saccharopolyspora, 497 Saccharomonospora, Thermomonospora, Thermobifida, or Legionella can be found. These bacteria are thermophilic and/or are involved in the degradation 498 499 process of organic matter, as seen in composting or anaerobic digestion processes and related to the type of waste treated in this sort of facility 500 (Dubuis et al., 2017; Wéry, 2014). The airborne fungal core microbiome found 501 in the WSP was similar, as described before, as other facilities treating dry 502 and solid waste. 503 504 The present study provides additional biodiversity data about bioaerosols

emitted in WSP and reveals their actual complex composition throughout thewhole year.

507 4.3 Reported health disorders cause by the detected microbial taxa

508 Several of the dominant microbial genera found in the present study include species that are involved in health disorders among general and occupational 509 populations. For example, some *Prevotella* species have been involved in 510 511 human health disorders such as pulmonary diseases and chronic otitis and 512 sinusitis (Tanaka et al., 2008). The effects of airborne fungal particles are well documented in the literature and the risk associated with exposure to airborne 513 514 fungal particles is better documented than the bacterial risk. Fungi can induce different types of health issues including respiratory allergies (asthma, rhinitis 515 or hypersensitivity pneumonitis), toxicity, and irritation or infection. Exposure 516 to airborne fungal species belonging to Cladosporium, Aspergillus and 517 Penicillium has been associated with allergic skin diseases such as contact 518 519 dermatitis (Kallawicha et al., 2016). In addition, these fungi produce volatile 520 organic compounds that may cause several symptoms such as a dry cough. pharyngitis or headache. Furthermore, the wall cell of Aspergillus and 521 522 Candida ssp. are composed of mannan, which is a known allergic compound (Dylag, 2017). In addition, Wallemia sebi is involved in allergic disorders such 523 as farmer's lung disease and produces a toxic metabolite, wallemiol, which 524 has the same effect as the mycotoxin penicillic acid (Wood et al., 1990). 525 Because of the high number of genus, only the main genera are represented 526 527 in the present paper. However, as the exposure-response relationship was 528 not established, the minor and rare taxa could also affect worker health. Furthermore, the pathogenic property is not the only aspect to consider and 529 some airborne bacteria present in minority proportions can carry endotoxins 530 531 or β -D-glucans. These components have been reported to induce several

health effects such as irritation of the upper airways or mucous membranes,
inflammation (Bønløkke et al., 2006; Lawniczek-Walczyk and Gorny, 2010)
and irritation of the respiratory system, fever and diarrhea (Duquenne et al.,
2013; Liebers et al., 2008). Exposure to these compounds was reported in
other plants treating solid and dry waste (Lehtinen et al., 2013; Tolvanen,
2001).

On the other hand, the biodiversity data provided by the present study needs 538 539 to be expanded for an eligible risk assessment in the WSP. Firstly, the relationship between airborne microorganism exposure and human health 540 disorders must be specified (Walser et al., 2015). Secondly, personal 541 samplings are required for the assessment of occupational exposure. Indeed, 542 stationary sampling does not take into account the movement of workers 543 544 during their shift, nor the professional gestures that can affect exposure. 545 Finally, the HTS technologies do not allow the identification at the species level due to the short reads provided by Illumina sequencing, the sequencing 546 547 depth, the sequenced regions and the errors of sequence annotations in databases (Nilsson et al., 2006; Yamamoto and Bibby, 2014a). The genus 548 level does not allow for a precise risk assessment. Indeed, a genus can 549 gather a large number of species (*e.g.* more than a hundred for the genus 550 551 *Bacillus*) and within a genus, only some species can be pathogenic (Kwok et 552 al., 1999). Nevertheless, the HTS constitutes a powerful screening and characterization tool at the genus level, enabling to focus on potential 553 pathogenic species, in a second and more targeted process. 554

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555 4.4 Sorting activities compared to the indoor reference

556 The Sorensen-Dice coefficient is a good index to measure a difference in the composition of two samples. In the present study, a significant difference 557 (index value <0.5) was found between samples collected in areas with 558 559 ongoing sorting activities and the IR, and this was the case for all seasons. 560 This result suggests specific bioaerosols exposure for workers handling waste compared to the administrative staff. For airborne bacterial communities, the 561 difference in biodiversity between waste-exposed sampling points and the IR 562 was higher in winter and in spring when the highest differences in temperature 563 between the two sampling locations were taken into consideration. The cold 564 climatic conditions were apparently less favorable to bacterial growth of most 565 bacteria encountered during warmer seasons. Despite the low temperatures 566 567 measured, the specific richness was higher at waste-exposed locations than in IR. This suggested that the waste contributes significantly to bacterial 568 biodiversity. For fungal communities, the difference in composition between 569 570 waste-exposed sampling points and the reference was less significant, with higher differences observed when the temperatures were extreme (in winter 571 and in summer). The IR was heated during the winter and cooled during the 572 summer with an air conditioning system (air drying). Moreover, the air in the 573 administrative building was renewed with the outdoor air that surrounded the 574 575 waste treatment building. As a consequence, the indoor air may have been polluted by the outdoor air. Such a phenomenon has already been described 576 (Adams et al., 2013) and could partly explain the similarities in fungal 577 578 biodiversity between the two locations in winter and in summer. In the present study, no differences in microbial biodiversity were observed between the 579

580 sampling points inside the waste treatment buildings, whatever statistical method was used (Bayesian network, Shannon index). This could be 581 582 explained by the temperature and the relative humidity, which were similar between sampling points, especially in the hall (sampling points 1, 4 and 5). 583 Waste represented the main source of bioaerosol emissions. With the 584 exception of sampling point number 4, the type of waste was identical for all 585 586 sampling points, and the only difference was the duration of storage at each point (several days, weeks or months at the locations 1 and 5 versus just a 587 588 few minutes at locations 2 and 3). In addition, the workers opened the two doors located on either side of the box in order to cool the first-sorting cabin 589 during the hot season. However, the first-sorting cabin was located in front of 590 the shredder which produced large amounts of airborne dust and which may 591 have contaminated the air of the first-sorting cabin. All these observations 592 could explain the similarities of microbial composition detected between the 593 waste-exposed locations. 594

595 **4.5 Seasonal variations of microbial biodiversity in bioaerosol**

596 The Bayesian network approach was used for clustering the fungal bioaerosol samples depending on their composition similarities. The results showed 597 correlation according to the month or the season of sampling (consecutive 598 months) regardless of the locations of the waste-exposed samples. The 599 600 period of sampling did not explain correlation of the airborne bacterial 601 samples. No other parameters (number of workers, sampling locations, amount of waste) could provide an explanation for how samples were 602 603 clustered by the Bayesian network analysis for both bacterial and fungal 604 communities.

605 Seasonal variations in the concentration of airborne microorganisms were investigated in studies carried out on outdoor air from different countries 606 (Bezerra et al., 2014; Bowers et al., 2013; Crandall and Gilbert, 2017) and on 607 indoor air (Chao et al., 2002; Frankel et al., 2012; Wang et al., 2010). The 608 seasonal variations were also investigated in occupational environments such 609 as a wastewater treatment plant (Ding et al., 2016; Oppliger et al., 2005), 610 611 swine confinement buildings (Nehme et al., 2008), composting plants (Fracchia et al., 2006) and biowaste collection plants (Nielsen et al., 2000). 612 613 The corresponding studies reported contrasting results regarding to the seasonal effect on concentrations of airborne microorganisms. 614 Several studies found a seasonal variability of microbial biodiversity in 615 bioaerosols but the impact of the season on microbial communities depended 616 617 on the study and the investigated place (Bowers et al., 2012; Ding et al., 618 2016; Fröhlich-Nowoisky et al., 2009; Kumari et al., 2016; Nehme et al., 2008). No general tendency was observed with regards the published data 619 620 and the impact of environmental parameters is difficult to predict (Liao and Luo, 2005). To our knowledge, the impact of environmental parameters on 621 airborne biodiversity has not been assessed in a waste sorting plant and 622 therefore, our results cannot be compared with any other published data. 623 Other determinants of biodiversity in bioaerosols 624 4.6 Temperature and relative humidity of the air may partly explain our results, as 625 626 these parameters were shown to greatly influence microbial growth (Brown

and Mohr, 2016), as well as the aerosolization of fungal spores from

contaminated matters (Madsen, 2012). In the present study, the

629 meteorological conditions for sampling were very different throughout the

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630 year. However, for a given sampling day, the temperature and humidity conditions were different between the hall and the two cabins, and showed 631 correlation in the same cluster. Thus, temperature and relative humidity were 632 not the only parameters impacting the airborne fungal biodiversity in the WSP. 633 This hypothesis was confirmed by an extended statistical analysis performed 634 on the Shannon index values, combining multilinear regression analysis and 635 636 general linear models. This analysis considered the temperature and the relative humidity at the sampling point but also the temperature, the relative 637 638 humidity and the rainfall during the day of the sampling and three days before. The best-fit model took into account all the previous parameters however it 639 could explain only 40% of the Shannon index values (data not shown). 640 The impact of the environment on microbial biodiversity in bioaerosols is 641 642 multifactorial and complex and combines not only the climatic conditions but 643 also others parameters such as the amount and nature of waste or other pollutant sources. This confirms that microbial biodiversity and more 644 645 generally, bioaerosol composition would be multifactorial and difficult to characterize. So far, other parameters have also been proven to impact 646 microbial concentrations such as human activity (Maron et al., 2006), particles 647 size and density of urban area (Fang et al., 2007), air pollution (Gao et al., 648 2015; Gao et al., 2016), CO₂ concentrations (Chao et al., 2002), operations of 649 650 a process (Tolvanen, 2001), indoor air pollutants (Wang et al., 2010), the site investigated (Fracchia et al., 2006) and physical, environmental and 651 ecological factors (Emerson et al., 2016). 652

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The age of the stored waste has also been shown to have an impact on both
airborne bacteria and fungi exposure levels (Gladding and Gwyther, 2017;
Schlosser et al., 2015).

656 4.7 Limitations of the study

657 A large number of samples were collected, at different workstations and at 658 different times of the year. This provided a satisfactory overview of the airborne microbial biodiversity in the WSP. Stationary samples were adequate 659 in providing information about the exposure of workers in the cabins, but less 660 apt regarding machine operators who moved around during their shift. 661 Samples near the press, the shredder and the unloading area therefore did 662 not allow for the characterization of the bioaerosol exposure for these 663 employees. However, sampling on filters and analysis by molecular biology 664 allowed for long-term sampling (5 hours) for a better representation of 665 666 exposure assessment than short-term sampling with Andersen type impactors used for the analyzes by culture. Molecular biology methods and particularly 667 HTS are limited due to biases for DNA extraction, PCR or sequence analysis 668 (Haugland et al., 1999; Mbareche et al., 2017b; Yamamoto et al., 2014). 669 These techniques are based on DNA analysis, which does not provide 670 information on the viability and pathogenicity of airborne microorganisms and 671 the associated health risk for workers. In addition, short sequences that are 672 673 generated by sequencing limit the identification of microorganisms at the 674 genus level, which may hamper a sound health risk assessment. However, HTS provides an overview of microbial biodiversity in poorly characterized 675 fields. Finally, exposure to viruses was not assessed in this study. 676

678 4.8 Further prospects

Most studies in waste treatment plants focus on fungi. Since bacteria were 679 proven to be present in higher abundance than fungi, and to be the main 680 colonizers of household waste bins (Gladding and Gwyther, 2017), more 681 investigations of bacterial biodiversity in WSP would add to knowledge about 682 risk assessment in this field. To improve this knowledge, it would be relevant 683 to couple HTS sequencing with other techniques such as sequencing longer 684 685 sequences or an analysis by culture followed by an identification by MALDITOF-MS, which would provide identification at the species level and/or 686 687 allow the viability of microorganisms to be preserved. An analysis of the viral 688 risk in WSP would also be relevant. Thanks to the present study, airborne microbial biodiversity was measured over a period of one year in one WSP. It 689 would be interesting to compare with other WSPs with a similar or different 690 organization. 691

Evaluating the impact of environmental factors on airborne biodiversity in 692 693 workplaces is not easy especially due to the significant amount of unknown or uncontrolled factors. A pilot study would be an accurate way of assessing all 694 the potential parameters (in particular the nature of waste) that could have an 695 696 effect on biodiversity and evaluating how these parameters modify the composition of airborne microorganisms. Even if such studies describe more 697 simple conditions as compared to the occupational environment, they would 698 contribute to a more accurate understanding of such a complex phenomenon. 699 The biodiversity results obtained at the genus level also represent a good 700 701 basis for the definition of taxa to be monitored in this sector for occupational

health purposes, if similar measurements confirm their presence andabundance in other WSPs.

704

705 **5 Conclusions**

706

The study investigated the microbial diversity in bioaerosols emitted over oneyear in different representative areas of a French WSP.

The observed biodiversity was variable and dependant on the season, and 709 was also found to be more complex than in studies using culture-based 710 methods. Among the large number of genera observed, the genera 711 Staphylococcus, Streptococcus, Prevotella, Pseudomonas, Cladosporium, 712 713 Wallemia, Penicillium, and Candida were recorded in high proportions throughout the year. The season seemed to have an impact on fungal 714 biodiversity. The parameters affecting bacterial biodiversity were probably 715 716 multifactorial and are yet to be identified. Workers handling waste were exposed to specific bioaerosols, different from those emitted in the offices. 717 718 Because of the high bioaerosol complexity in WSP, a long-term monitoring survey would be more appropriate in providing an accurate assessment of 719 bioaerosol composition. 720

Analysis of the composition of bioaerosols by HTS provided a good overview of the microorganisms workers may be exposed to. This has improved knowledge in terms of exposure measurements in this occupational environment. This technique should be coupled with methods of identification at the species level and/or conservation of viability for better risk assessment. Even if the study is not exhaustive, it has produced an overview of airborne biodiversity over a period of one year for a standard facility, which will assist us in making future studies more relevant.

729

730 6 Acknowledgments

731 The authors would like to kindly acknowledge Cécile Dziurla, Catherine

732 Coulais, Véronique Koehler and Alexis Boivin for their invaluable technical

733 assistance. Special thanks to Véronique Ritz and Jérôme Schmitt from the

- company for making it possible to carry out the measurement campaigns and
- for making the facilities available.

736 **7 Funding**

- 737 This research did not receive any specific grant from funding agencies in the
- 738 public, commercial, or non-profit sectors.

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Figure 1: Schematic organization of the household waste sorting plant and location

978 of the sampling points.



Figure 2: Bacterial biodiversity at the phylum (A, B and C) and at the genus (D,E and
F) levels in bioaerosols collected in the unloading waste area, in the first-sorting
cabin and in the indoor reference. To facilitate the reading, only the 45 main genera
found in a proportion superior than 0.3% were represented.



Figure 3: Fungal biodiversity at the phylum (A, B and C) and at the genus (D,E and F) levels in bioaerosols collected in the unloading waste area, in the firstsorting cabin and in the indoor reference. To facilitate the reading, only the 45 main genera found in a proportion superior than 0.3% were represented.

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Figure 4: Sorensen-Dice coefficient for **A**. bacterial and **B**. fungal biodiversity. This coefficient represents a distance of community composition between a sampling point and the indoor reference. A coefficient near 1 means that the two samples had a similar composition.



Α

1001 Figure 5: Bayesian network analysis of biodiversity data for fungi in bioaerosol samples collected over one year in the WSP. A: Details of each cluster regrouping 1002 samples with statistical similar composition in fungal genera; bioaerosol samples 1003 were clustered depending on their common bacterial genera and each cluster 1004 corresponds to a node. Identification of samples in nodes was made as followed: The 1005 1006 letter F reports to fungal sample, the first number to the month and the last number to the sampling location. B: Links representing the statistical correlations between 1007 nodes (p value < 0.0001). 1008

Bacteria	Unloading	31,282	15,290	35,073	12	None
	area					
	First-sorting	30,393.5	4,918	42,222	12	None
	cabin					
	Sorting cabin	33,875	1,581	37,463	10	February,
						November
	Shredder	33,467	2,660	39,888	11	November
	Press/storage	28,075	-	40,098	11	February
	Indoor	2,078	-	22,105	7	February,
	reference					June, July,
						November,
						December
Fungi	Unloading	26,894	19,552	46,777	12	None
	area					
	First-sorting	30,346	16,681	44,581	12	None
	cabin					
	Sorting cabin	23,309.5	12,199	49,119	12	None
	Shredder	25,825.5	12,583	47,207	12	None
	Press/storage	26,144	12,934	43,240	11	March
	Indoor	23,477	12,325	52,283	8	February,
	reference					March, July,
						October

Table 1: Overview of high-throughput sequencing data obtained from bioaerosol
samples taken in the WSP during the year of sampling. Bacterial biodiversity was
measured by sequencing of a region of 16S rDNA and fungal biodiversity was
measured by sequencing of ITS2 region.



6 locations, 12 months

Bioaerosols sampling

Bacterial and fungal biodiversity analysis