



## Evolutionary implications of microplastics for soil biota

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1 Environmental context

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3 Microplastic particles are increasingly recognized as a human-caused pollutant in soil with  
4 potential consequences for soil microorganisms. Microplastic may also have evolutionary  
5 consequences for soil microbes, because these particles may alter conditions in the soil and  
6 hence selection pressures. Including this evolutionary perspective may lead to new questions  
7 and novel insights into responses of soil microbes to this anthropogenic stressor.

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For Review Only

1 | **Evolutionary implications of microplastics ~~in soils~~<sup>for</sup> soil biota**

2

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18

19 Abstract

20  
21 Microplastic pollution is increasingly considered as a factor of global change: in addition to  
22 aquatic ecosystems, this persistent contaminant is also found in terrestrial systems and  
23 soils. Microplastic has been chiefly examined in soils in terms of presence and potential  
24 effects on soil biota. Given the persistence and widespread distribution of microplastic, it is  
25 also important to consider potential evolutionary implications of microplastic presence in soil;  
26 we here offer such a perspective for soil microbiota. We discuss the range of selection  
27 pressures likely to act upon soil microbes, highlight approaches for the study of evolutionary  
28 responses to microplastic, and point out obstacles to overcome. Pondering evolutionary  
29 consequences of microplastic in soils can yield new insights into the effects of this group of  
30 pollutants, including establishing 'true' baselines in soil ecology, and understanding future  
31 responses of soil microbial populations and communities.

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33 | Keyword: Ecotoxicology (*if allowed, further keywords: microplastic, soil, microbiota,  
34 evolution, selection pressures*)

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37 Introduction

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39 Microplastics are emerging as a factor of global change. These particles, generally defined  
40 as plastic < 5mm (or 1mm), have been found in a range of environments, including  
41 freshwater ecosystems (Li et al. 2018a), the oceans, arctic sea ice (Peeken et al. 2018), and  
42 also in terrestrial ecosystems and the soil (Rillig 2012; Horton et al. 2017; Machado et al.  
43 2018a). Current studies in soils focus on documenting the extent of pollution (e.g., Scheurer  
44 & Bigalke 2018), with data from soil lagging far behind our knowledge about oceans, where  
45 research has started a decade earlier (Thompson et al. 2004). Research has also started to  
46 document potential effects of microplastic particles on individual soil biota, for example  
47 earthworms (Huerta-Lwanga et al. 2017). Such studies are primarily aimed at understanding  
48 potential ecological consequences of this novel group of contaminants.

49

50 However, given the widespread - and likely long-term - presence of microplastic in the  
51 environment, it is also important to start considering evolutionary consequences. These have  
52 so far not been discussed, except perhaps in the context of the discovery of plastic-  
53 degrading microbes (Yoshida et al. 2016).

54

55 Here we discuss various aspects of selection pressures likely to act upon soil microbes (Fig.  
56 1); we introduce approaches for the study of evolutionary responses, and highlight general  
57 obstacles to overcome. We argue that introducing an evolutionary perspective would  
58 introduce highly relevant questions to the study of these persistent contaminants in soil.

59

60

61 Selection pressures

62

63 Microplastic particles may affect a range of soil properties, which would present soil biota  
64 with certain selection pressures (Fig. 1). This will lead to a shift in genotypes within  
65 populations, either by selection among already existing lines, or among lines based on *de*  
66 *novo* mutations; that is evolution. The question therefore becomes: how might microplastics  
67 affect the environment in soil, and which organismal traits would become important as  
68 targets of selection?

69

70 The most obvious factor would be microplastic as a novel resource, i.e. a source of nutrients  
71 and carbon. In fact, microplastic may be a significant anthropogenic component of soil  
72 organic carbon already (Rillig 2018). Plastics are often made to be inert and they typically  
73 decompose very slowly; for all intents and purposes of the human time horizon they may be  
74 regarded as persistent. However, microbiota (bacteria and fungi) genotypes with an ability to  
75 utilize the carbon or other elements contained in microplastic may have a selective  
76 advantage, and such genotypes would be expected to increase in relative abundance within  
77 the population. The same is true for any other additives chemically or physically bound to the  
78 plastic polymer (e.g. plasticizers), which may be contained in microplastic particles, even  
79 though such effects may be relatively more short-lived.

80

81 Furthermore, microplastics display an elevated ability to absorb chemical substances, such  
82 as antibiotics, heavy metals and other xenobiotics (Brennecke et al. 2016; Hirai et al. 2011;  
83 Li et al. 2018b). [For example, polyamides display a particularly high adsorption capacity for](#)  
[antibiotics containing a carbonyl group like tetracycline or ciprofloxacin, since strong](#)  
[hydrogen bonds between this carbonyl group and the microplastics amide group as a proton](#)  
[donor can be established \(Li et al. 2018b\).](#) However, the sorption ability differs greatly  
87 between diverse plastic materials, sorbed substances and environmental conditions (Li et al.  
88 2018b).

89 Still, through, [for example](#), increased antibiotic or heavy metal concentrations, microplastics  
90 and their surroundings can constitute microniches in the soil environment with highly  
91 selective conditions. In combination with [potentially providing a potentially elevated novel](#)

92 | nutrient availability-source they microplastics can consequently serve as so called “hot-spots” of horizontal gene transfer (HGT) and microbial evolution. While in water  
93 environments the additional surface introduced through microplastics is the major factor in  
94 enhancing plasmid transfer, plastic particles still favored microbial interactions to a larger  
95 extent than natural aggregates (Arias-Andres et al. 2018). Moreover, the presence of  
96 microplastics can positively alter the retention time of other introduced stressors in the soil  
97 environment and thus lead to longer lasting periods of exposure and subsequent evolution to  
98 these conditions (Sun et al. 2018).

100  
101 Microplastics also have the potential to change the soil physical environment. The soil  
102 physical environment is governed by soil aggregation, a process to which many soil biota  
103 contribute (Lehmann et al. 2017). Soil aggregates are relatively stable entities whose  
104 interiors contain microhabitats with often drastically different conditions to those on  
105 aggregate surfaces. Such temporarily stable structures have recently been conceptualized  
106 as massively concurrent evolutionary incubators for microbes (Rillig et al. 2017a), meaning  
107 that evolutionary processes and trajectories within aggregates are different compared to  
108 those in a non-structured soil. Following this concept, any changes in soil aggregation, that  
109 is processes affecting rates of formation, stabilization or disintegration of aggregates, could  
110 also be expected to have consequences for microbial evolution. Microplastic, probably  
111 especially linear fibers, could have effects on these processes. A change in soil aggregation  
112 and, corresponding to these, pore distributions, could have multiple evolutionary  
113 consequences within communities that are currently difficult to predict in terms of traits and  
114 directions. In fact, changes in soil structure and pore spaces may even lead to local  
115 extinction because of microhabitat loss (Veresoglou et al. 2015). Recently, effects of  
116 microfibers on soil aggregation were demonstrated experimentally (Machado et al. 2018b),  
117 together with accompanying changes in bulk density and water holding capacity.

118  
119 Many soil microbes interact strongly with hosts, including soil animals. Soil animals, in turn,  
120 may also interact with microplastics: earthworms have been shown to ingest polystyrene  
121 beads (Rillig et al. 2017b; Huerta Lwanga et al. 2016, 2017), and some studies have shown  
122 deleterious effects on earthworms (Huerta Lwanga et al. 2016). From earthworm guts,  
123 microbes specialized in degrading microplastic compounds have been isolated (Huerta  
124 Lwanga et al. 2018), which could be part of a newly evolved complex host-symbiont  
125 interaction in response to microplastic pollution in soils. Similarly, other soil animals may  
126 also consume these particles (e.g. Collembola; Zhu et al. 2018), with alteration in their  
127 associated microbiota. As such, we expect cascading effects of microplastic on microbiota  
128 evolution via effects on hosts.

129

130 When microplastics break down further to even smaller particles, such particles may enter  
131 the nanosize range (< 0.1 micrometer). Such nanoplastic particles may have very different  
132 properties, for example they may be able to traverse biological membranes and thus acquire  
133 toxic properties (Machado et al. 2018). Genotypes better resisting such effects would be  
134 expected to increase in abundance. These changes in community structure can further alter  
135 the complex interplay of microbial processes in the soil environment. For example, in an  
136 anaerobic digestion system the exposure to polystyrene nanoparticles caused an inhibition  
137 in community wide productivity linked with significant changes in microbial community  
138 structure (Fu et al. 2018), likely also observable in soil microbial communities.

139

140

141 Approaches for the study of evolutionary responses to microplastic

142

143 Several approaches are available for the study of evolutionary responses of soil biota to  
144 microplastic: experimental evolution in the lab, resurrection ecology, and observational  
145 studies using gradients.

146

147 Experimental evolution studies have a long tradition in microbial biology (e.g. Lenski et al.  
148 1991; Buckling et al. 2000). Such studies use serial transfers in the laboratory to study  
149 effects of a certain evolutionary driver. One could test using such systems if traits predicted  
150 to be favored by the presence of microplastic increase in abundance through time. In  
151 addition, monitoring abundance of certain genes may be promising. Through its horizontal  
152 mobility across bacterial species and linkage to genes conferring diverse resistance  
153 phenotypes the relative abundance of the class 1 integron-integrase gene *intI1* is widely  
154 considered as a proxy to measure the level of and the selective pressure associated with  
155 anthropogenic pollution (Gillings et al. 2014). In environmental studies it might pose  
156 extremely difficult to disentangle the influence of microplastics on *intI1* abundance from that  
157 of other potentially stronger selective agents such as antibiotic or heavy metal residues or  
158 human associated microbial pollution (Amos et al. 2015). However, in controlled experiments  
159 microplastics have already shown to increase the persistence of *intI1* from treated  
160 wastewater when entering a freshwater microbial community (Eckert et al. 2018).  
161 Consequently, *intI1* could provide a promising target to quantitatively measure the selective  
162 pressures imposed on soil microbial communities through the addition of microplastic  
163 particles in experimental evolution experiments.

164

165 Another promising approach may be resurrection ecology (Franks et al. 2018). This is an  
166 approach where extant populations are compared with historical populations, which can be  
167 reanimated ('resurrected') from historical samples. In our case, this would entail the use of  
168 soil archives, for example from agricultural experiment stations, that include samples  
169 collected prior to the widespread use of plastics. Populations extracted from such historical  
170 samples could be compared to extant populations from the same soil, with the caveat that  
171 other factors influencing the evolution of the target organisms may have changed  
172 concurrently.

173

174 Observational studies along established gradients of contamination, which share this basic  
175 limitation with resurrection studies, can also be used to learn about evolutionary responses  
176 of populations to the presence of microplastic. Here, correlations can be used to test for the  
177 link between predicted favored traits and their relative abundance in populations along a  
178 microplastic contamination gradient.

179

180

181 Obstacles to overcome

182

183 The single most challenging aspect of studying microplastic is likely its diversity: microplastic  
184 comes in a bewildering range and combination of chemical forms, sizes, surface properties,  
185 shapes and modifications (e.g. additives). Therefore, this is very much not like studying  
186 specific contaminants, but this work encompasses a whole group of substances, additives  
187 and sizes with likely very different effects. For example, effects of beads, films and fibers on  
188 soil and soil microbes might be quite different. This imposes significant challenges on the  
189 external validity of any study, since by necessity these will be limited to few plastic types for  
190 logistical reasons.

191

192 For the understanding of evolutionary dynamics of microplastic pollution in soil, it is  
193 important to realize that this is a gradually changing factor: microplastic arrives via various  
194 processes at the soil surface, and it then accumulates gradually in the soil, because of  
195 limited rates of decomposition. This means that, in any given soil, soil biota are not abruptly  
196 exposed to high concentrations of microplastic particles, which tends to be the current  
197 practice in experimental approaches aimed at elucidating ecological or physiological effects.  
198 Thus, it may also be useful to gradually expose soils and their biota to microplastic in  
199 experiments; evolutionary dynamics in response to gradual vs. abrupt changes in the  
200 environment are expected to differ significantly.

201 |

202 We here focus on soil microbes, because they are eminently tractable experimentally.  
203 However, soil biota are enigmatically diverse and contain entire food webs. It is thus risky to  
204 focus on only particular groups of biota, since microplastic may modify trophic interactions,  
205 thus exerting differential top-down effects. Such effects would potentially be extremely  
206 important to gauge evolutionary responses; however, it is a real challenge to capture the  
207 entirety of soil biodiversity.

208  
209 Finally, technical challenges remain, chiefly in respect to adequately quantifying types and  
210 amounts of microplastics in the soil matrix. These are certainly not unique to studies with an  
211 evolutionary focus, but will also limit such studies, for example as far as observational  
212 studies are concerned, and in terms of establishing true baseline levels of contamination in  
213 experiments.

214

215 Concluding remarks

216  
217 Pondering evolutionary consequences of microplastic in soils can lead to new questions  
218 (Table 1) and yield new insights into the effects of this group of pollutants. On the one hand,  
219 by studying selection pressures experienced by a range of soil biota we learn about the  
220 ways soil biota may adapt in future soils. Importantly, this can also include interactions with  
221 other factors of global change. On the other hand, when we now measure soil biota traits or  
222 process rates, we may actually already be unknowingly capturing such responses: this  
223 therefore becomes an issue of understanding 'true' baselines in soil biology.

224

225 Much of what we discuss here may also be applicable to aquatic systems; however, there  
226 the provision of a surface will likely be a dominant factor (Arias-Andres et al. 2018), with the  
227 possibility of novel interactions in the particle eco-corona, including plasmid exchange.

228

229

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235

236 Conflicts of interest

237 The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

238

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- 338

339 **Table 1** Examples of questions on evolutionary consequences of microplastic contamination  
340 in soils.

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342

Question	Explanation/ background
Has the presence of microplastic in soil already affected evolutionary trajectories of soil microbiota? For example, has microplastic created new niches for soil microbes?	Persistence of microplastic in soil, and the finding that microplastic appears to be ubiquitous in soil samples even from relatively non-human influenced ecosystems (Scheurer & Bigalke 2018)
Can evolutionary changes to microplastic within populations buffer against or exacerbate changes in microbial community composition? How do these changes interact with phenotypic plasticity?	Eco-evolutionary dynamics
Does microplastic lead to local extinctions of microbial populations?	Changes in soil physical structure (as a consequence of possible effects on soil aggregation) can lead to local exclusion of biota, for example soil animals, which may host specific microbes (Veresoglou et al. 2015; Zhu et al. 2018)
How does microplastic (and microplastic type) interact with other evolutionary drivers affecting soil microbial populations?	Global change is inherently a multifactorial phenomenon; also within cities or on agricultural fields there are multiple evolutionary drivers that co-occur with microplastic contamination

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348 Figure legends:

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351 **Figure 1.** Drivers of potential evolutionary effects of microplastics on soil microbes. The  
352 outer ring depicts microplastic particles of various properties (including size, shape,  
353 chemistry). Microbial communities (in the center) experience various effects triggered by  
354 microplastic particles. Typical impacts with evolutionary consequences include potential  
355 changes in soil structure, alteration of host availability or function (host microbiome),  
356 nanoplastic toxic effects, plastic particles representing a resource, and providing novel  
357 surfaces (with various chemicals attached, including heavy metals and antibiotics).

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