



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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1 | **Evolutionary implications of microplastics ~~in soils~~ for soil biota**

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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).

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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](#)
84 [antibiotics containing a carbonyl group like tetracycline or ciprofloxacin, since strong](#)
85 [hydrogen bonds between this carbonyl group and the microplastics amide group as a proton](#)
86 [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-
93 | spots” of horizontal gene transfer (HGT) and microbial evolution. While in water
94 | environments the additional surface introduced through microplastics is the major factor in
95 | enhancing plasmid transfer, plastic particles still favored microbial interactions to a larger
96 | extent than natural aggregates (Arias-Andres et al. 2018). Moreover, the presence of
97 | microplastics can positively alter the retention time of other introduced stressors in the soil
98 | environment and thus lead to longer lasting periods of exposure and subsequent evolution to
99 | 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.

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141 Approaches for the study of evolutionary responses to microplastic

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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 *int11* 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 *int11* 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 *int11* from treated
160 wastewater when entering a freshwater microbial community (Eckert et al. 2018).
161 Consequently, *int11* 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 Concluding remarks

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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.

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233 234 235 Conflicts of interest

236 The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

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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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