

A review of biodegradable plastics to biodegradable microplastics: Another ecological threat to soil environments?

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ABSTRACT

Biodegradable plastics attract public attention as promising substitute for non-degradable plastics that trigger serious plastic pollution, and they are claimed to be environmentally harmless and biodegradable by microorganisms. However, not all biodegradable plastics are completely degradable under natural conditions. Some of them may be disintegrated into microplastics more rapidly than conventional plastics, emerging as another threat to soil environments. As a part of microplastics, biodegradable microplastics may pose stronger negative effects on several soil species than oil-based microplastics under some conditions. Currently, there is a fiercely increasing trend to replace nondegradable plastic commodities with biodegradable ones. Therefore, to discuss the ecological safety of biodegradable plastics is essential before promoting wide application of them during commercial use. This review provided a brief introduction on biodegradable plastics and summarized their deterioration behaviors in terrestrial environments, together with evidences on releases of additives and biodegradable microplastics. Then, potential adverse effects of biodegradable microplastics in soil ecosystems, including responses on soil properties, microbial communities, and several soil species were discussed, suggesting biodegradable microplastics as a potential threat to ecological safety of soil ecosystems. By this token, biodegradable plastics might not be a panacea to the existing “white pollution” and need further exploring.

1. Introduction

The wide application of plastic materials benefits all aspects of our daily life, including packaging, agricultural mulching, even construction and manufacture (Chae and An, 2018). However, the increasing consumption of fossil fuel resources, together with poor waste management of plastic wastes, are now posing ecological threats to various environments and even human health (Prata et al., 2020; Shen et al., 2019; Ye et al., 2019). After deposited into the environment, plastic wastes undergo decomposition by a series of natural forces like mechanical abrasion, ultraviolet (UV) degradation, oxidation, and biodegradation, disintegrating into smaller fragments. Those tiny plastic pieces smaller than 5 mm were defined as “microplastics (MPs)” by Thompson et al. (2004), emerging as a novel type of contaminant. MPs that enter into the environment with micron sizes are classified into “primary microplastics”, whereas those undergo fragmentation from large debris are

“secondary microplastics” (Akdogan and Guven, 2019).

Microplastic pollution has been detected in all types of environmental media (Liu et al., 2018; Scheurer and Bigalke, 2018; Wen et al., 2018). Among them, soil systems are gaining special concerns in the past few years, as researchers suggest that the content of MPs in soil environments may be 4–23 times greater than that in marine systems (Horton et al., 2017). Several main contributors have been identified as MPs sources in soils. High MPs concentrations were documented in agricultural lands due to fragmentation of plastic mulching films and reuse of sewage sludge for soil fertility improvement (Huang et al., 2020; Steinmetz et al., 2016; Ziajahromi et al., 2017). Landfill, surface runoff and atmospheric deposition introduce MPs into soil environments (Dris et al., 2016; Hurley and Nizzetto, 2018). Besides, improper waste management and other human activities also account for MPs pollution (Feng et al., 2020).

Once disseminated into soil systems, MPs interact with the ambient

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environments. As exogenous input, MPs have been validated to exert influences on both abiotic and biotic components in soils, depending on their particle characteristics and environmental factors (Shen et al., 2020a; Xu et al., 2020). Some ecotoxicological studies documented the detrimental effects of MPs on soil properties, microbial communities, and soil biota, and some of them even triggered lethal effects (Guo et al., 2020; Wang et al., 2020a). Besides, due to the properties of persistency and large specific surface area, microplastic debris possess the ability to concentrate other environmental pollutants like heavy metals and persistent organic pollutants (POPs) following different mechanisms, potentially altering their distribution patterns and bioaccessibilities in soils (Hartmann et al., 2017; Tourinho et al., 2019).

Currently, the end-of-life treatments for plastic wastes are basically incineration, landfill disposal, and recycling, but each of them has huge limitations and remains uncontrolled (Walker and Rothman, 2020). To alleviate the current pollution status of both macro- and micro-plastics, researchers have been making great efforts searching for proper substitutes for conventional non-degradable plastic polymers (Rujnic-Sokele and Pilipovic, 2017). The appealing notion of “biodegradable plastics (BPs)” came into public attention as replacement for non-degradable plastic materials. It is claimed that BPs can be converted to CO_2 and H_2O as final products by naturally-occurring microorganism mineralization, providing new pathways for end-of-life treatment for plastic wastes like anaerobic digestion and composting (Lambert and Wagner, 2017; Tabone et al., 2010). Problematically, 100% degradation of biodegradable materials cannot be achieved under natural environments (Kubowicz and Booth, 2017; Viera et al., 2020). Evidences showed that BPs in natural environments also led to generation of biodegradable microplastics (BMPs) like conventional oil-based MPs did (Bagheri et al., 2017; Shruti and Kutralam-Muniasamy, 2019). In fact, since BPs are more vulnerable to degradation forces, more BMPs might be generated from BPs than MPs derived from non-degradable feedstocks within the same time frame, probably leading to more severe BMPs pollution among soil ecosystems (Fojt et al., 2020; Shruti and Kutralam-Muniasamy, 2019). Presently, most studies focus solely on oil-based non-degradable plastics, while overlooking the so-called BPs as potential threats due to their negligible output. Even fewer studies

have paid attention to BMPs derived from BPs and their toxic impacts on soil species (Boots et al., 2019; Green et al., 2017). The market share of BPs is expanding at an unprecedented rate with the increasing public awareness of sustainable development (RameshKumar et al., 2020). Therefore, if we intend to replace conventional plastics with BPs in our daily life, to evaluate whether BPs and the generated BMPs would alleviate plastic pollution or induce greater ecological impacts is of great significance. A previous discussion article written by Shen et al. (2020b) demonstrated the potential risks of replacing non-degradable plastics with BPs. The article was conducted with the following aspects: the functionalities of BPs in practical use, end-of-life treatments, costs, public awareness, and the degradability of BPs in natural environments. Although the authors mentioned the generation of BMPs and their subsequent ecological impacts, the points were presented without further discussion on how BMPs were generated and their ecotoxic mechanisms compared with non-degradable MPs.

The objective of this paper is to provide an overview on the current situation of BPs and their potential threats to soil ecosystems as BMPs. The article conducts the review as follows (Fig. 1): (1) introduction of typical BPs and their applications; (2) generation of BMPs derived from large-sized BPs; (3) potential biological effects of BMPs including direct and indirect effects; (4) whether it is ecologically safe to replace conventional non-degradable plastics with BPs from the perspective of the generated MPs and BMPs; and (5) perspectives and future research needs. In this paper, BPs refer to plastic materials that can be broken down and mineralized by biotic (mainly microbial) forces. BMPs are micron-sized plastic debris generated from BPs. “MPs” or “conventional MPs” in this context, refer to nondegradable microplastics. The notion “conventional plastics” mentioned in this paper refers to plastics that cannot be mineralized by naturally-occurring biodegradation. Other types of degradable plastics that can be disintegrated by chemical and UV forces through adding photo- or chemical oxidants, such as oxo-degradable and photo-degradable plastics, are not within our scope.

2. Methodology

Firstly, we formulated our main questions of this paper both broadly

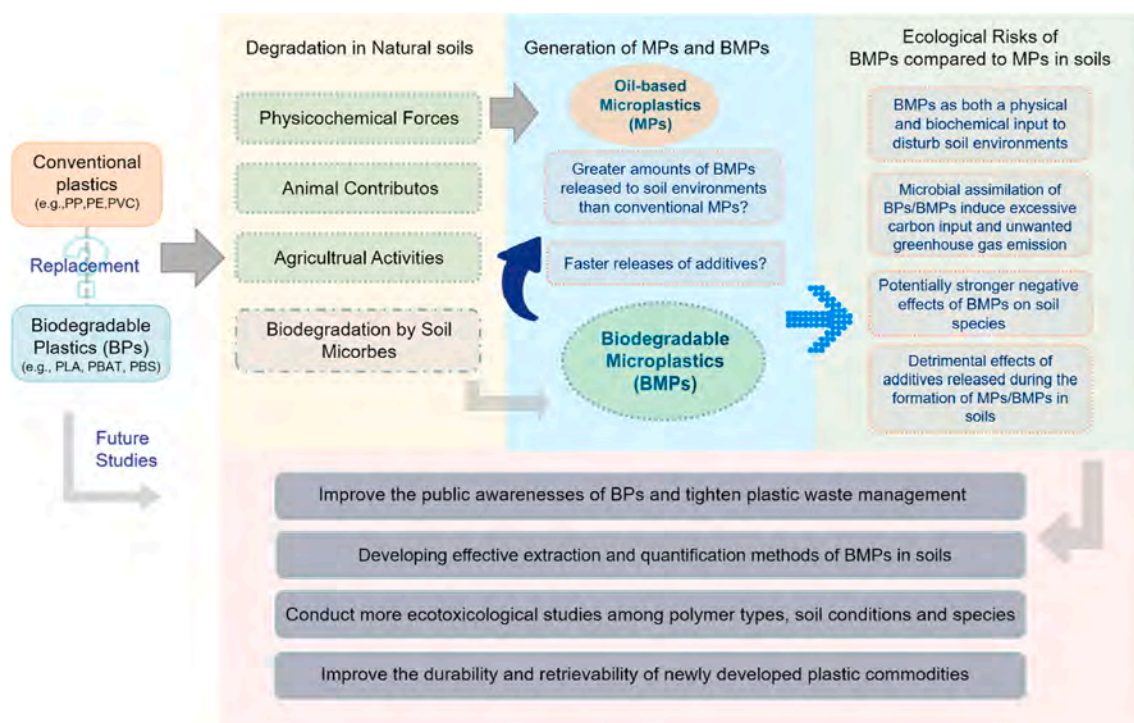


Fig. 1. Overview of the review structure.

and focally. Since replacing conventional plastics with BPs has been considered as a popular solution to the current MPs pollution by many researchers, we aim to discuss whether BPs are able to eliminate MPs without exerting negative effects on soil environments, from the generation of BMPs to their potential impacts in natural soils. We conducted our first screening using Web of Science, ResearchGate, ScienceDirect, Google Scholar, and SpringerLink databases with a combination of subject headings and keywords including “biodegradable microplastics”, “biodegradable plastic degradability”, “ecological impacts”, “soil environments”, “soil microbes”, “soil plant”, and “soil animal”. The initial screening carried out 347 articles. Although several review articles have been published concerning BPs and MPs impacts on soil ecosystems respectively, we noticed that there is no critical review about the potential ecological impacts of BMPs on soil environments.

Next, 138 studies were selected after exclusion of duplicates and specific evaluation based on article types, research field, and relevance to our topic. Finally, they were divided into several categories for further discussion, including: current applications and market of BPs; the breakdown of large-sized BPs in natural soils; the generation of BMPs; and the direct and indirect ecological impacts of BMPs on soil ecosystems.

3. Typical BPs and their degradation in soils

3.1. Several typical biodegradable polymers and their applications

Up to now, clear notions and classification between “biodegradable plastics (BPs)”, “bio-based plastics”, and “bioplastics” have not yet been standardized, and that confusion usually occurs between BPs and bio-based plastics (Rujnic-Sokele and Pilipovic, 2017). According to Lambert and Wagner (2017), BPs are plastic materials containing high-molecular polymers that can be degraded by biological forces like enzymatic activities or microorganism metabolisms with the end-points of CO₂ and H₂O. Polylactic acid (PLA) and polyhydroxyalkanoate (PHA) are two typical biodegradable polymers derived from biogenic feedstocks. While petroleum-based poly(butylene adipate-co-terephthalate) (PBAT) and polycaprolactone (PCL) polymers also reveal biodegradability, indicating that the concept of “biodegradable” is not based on source materials, but on specific polymer structures that determine biodegradabilities. Contrastively, bio-based plastics are derived from renewable biological origins including animals, plants, and microorganisms instead of petroleum resources, but not necessarily biodegradable. Generally, they are made from bioethanol or biofuel, such as bio-polyethylene (bio-PE), bio-polyvinyl chloride (bio-PVC), and so on, providing insights to alleviate the shortage of oil resources and the related environmental pollution status (Siracusa and Blanco, 2020). The notion “bioplastics”, refers to a sum of BPs and bio-based plastics. Within this context, we put special focus on BPs.

Currently, with more countries putting regulations on the production and marketing of non-degradable plastic products, the demand for BPs is increasing at an unprecedented rate, and the global BPs market is projected to reach \$6.73 billion by 2025 (European Bioplastics, 2018; European Bioplastics, 2020). BPs have exhibited great potential replacing non-degradable plastics in many fields, such as agricultural activities, food industries, and medical treatments (Arrieta et al., 2017; Iwata, 2015; Viera et al., 2020). Among them, PLA, PHA, and starch-based materials act as main contributors in BPs market (do Val Siqueira et al., 2021; Rai et al., 2021). Different polymers reveal distinct properties and degradation behaviors. Taken PLA and PHA materials as examples, both plastic materials exhibit comparable properties with most non-degradable materials, making them applicable to replace nondegradable agricultural mulching films, grocery bags, and other commodities (Elsawy et al., 2017; Kasirajan and Ngouajio, 2012; Sharma et al., 2021). While another widely applied biodegradable materials, starch-based materials, being commercialized though, reveal relatively poor mechanical and hydrophilic properties, which hamper their

practical use (do Val Siqueira et al., 2021; Gómez-Aldapa et al., 2020). Therefore, blending neat biodegradable polymers with other materials or adding additives during manufacture is of importance to obtain desired properties for different functions (Amulya et al., 2021; Gómez-Aldapa et al., 2020; Iwata, 2015). BPs during commercial use, such as Mater-Bi®, Ecoflex®, and co-polymer composites are synthesized by blending of different polymers and materials, making them comparable to conventional non-degradable plastics (Di Mola et al., 2021; Yang et al., 2020a). Adding photo- or chemical oxidants to accelerate disintegration is another pathway to achieve “degradability” of non-degradable plastics (Ojeda et al., 2009). However, it comes with a problem that the plastic products can be only disintegrated into small pieces, and the remaining “invisible”, but non-degradable byproducts could be released or further leached into the groundwaters without being detected (Gómez and Michel, 2013). Also, the recycling of BPs since they require a new waste stream for compostable and BPs to be widely available.

3.2. Decomposition of BPs in soils

3.2.1. Factors determining the decomposition of BPs

Considering the incomplete degradation of BPs in natural soil environments, it is vital to discuss the degradation behaviors of BPs and generation of BMPs if we intend to investigate the ecological effects of BMPs in natural soil systems.

The main degradation processes of BPs were divided into fragmentation and biodegradation steps (Shen et al., 2020b). Non-degradable polymers like PE, polypropylene (PP), are mostly subject to fragmentation by physical and chemical weathering forces (e.g., physical abrasion, wind or water erosion and ultraviolet (UV) radiation), breaking into smaller pieces. Although some plastic-degrading microbes such as *Actinobacteria*, *Hyphomonadaceae*, *Bacteroidetes*, and *Proteobacteria* were detected enriched on the surfaces of MPs and the ambient soils, the degradation rate was slow enough to be ignored (Chai et al., 2020; Zettler et al., 2013). As for biodegradable materials, besides abiotic degradation forces, specific microorganisms could further mineralize the plastic fragments into CO₂ and H₂O as final products under specific laboratory conditions. Since complete degradation is rarely obtained, we summarized some main factors influencing BPs degradation under natural soil systems and made comparison with degradation behaviors of conventional plastics in soils (Fig. 2). Table 1 and Table 2 summarized some soil degradation studies of BPs and provided the possible explanations for their distinct degradation behaviors.

Polymer characteristics and composition are decisive factors determining biodegradation rate of BPs. Smaller sized BPs and BMPs have larger specific area to interact with various degradation factors, leading to more rapid deterioration in soil environments (Chinaglia et al., 2018; Tosin et al., 2019). The structural differences among different polymers lead to distinct degradation behaviors even under the same laboratory settings (Al Hosni et al., 2019; Bagheri et al., 2017; Sintim et al., 2020). For instance, crosslinking phenomena make PBAT polymers brittle and easily fragmented in natural soil systems (Kijchavengkul et al., 2010a). To overcome the difficulties of PBAT materials during commercial use, blending them with other polymers including PLA, starch to enhance the durability is a common solution (Boyandin et al., 2013; Briassoulis, 2006). In line with the above conclusion, Weng et al. (2013) confirmed the slower erosion of PBAT-containing materials with the increasing PLA content in the biodegradable material blends. As demonstrated by extensive degradation studies, higher polymer crystallinity postponed the material biodegradation (Kanie et al., 2002; Mariani et al., 2007). And the amorphous region inside the material was more vulnerable to degradation forces than the crystalline part (Kijchavengkul et al., 2010b). Besides, plastic additives, even as minor components, can largely alter the degradation behaviors of BPs (Qi et al., 2021). For instance, mixing pro-degradants during plastic production, thereby enhancing the degradability of the materials, achieves faster

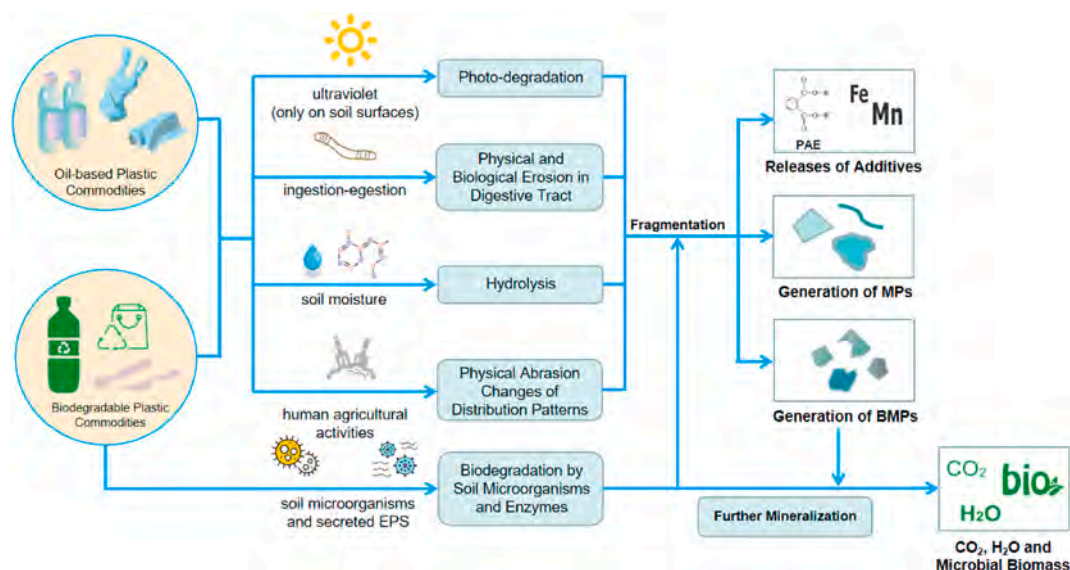


Fig. 2. Degradation of conventional plastics and BPs in soil environments.

degradation than the original materials (Schiavo et al., 2020). On the contrary, antioxidants are embedded during manufacture to prolong the lifespan of plastic commodities (Hahladakis et al., 2018).

Generally, faster biodegradation rate was observed under composting or microorganism-rich conditions, with higher temperature, humidity, and the help of specific microorganisms (Adhikari et al., 2016; Roohi et al., 2017). Zhang et al. (2019) identified functional bacteria including *Sphingomonas*, *Bacillus*, and *Streptomyces* as PBAT/PLA degrading species in two natural soil samples. Microbes themselves, together with secreted extracellular polymeric substance (EPS), break down the polymer chains of BPs and convert them into monomers, biomass, methane and finally CO₂ and H₂O. Laboratory studies that confirmed mineralization of BPs by incubating pure strains were extensive, while microorganisms that possessed the ability to degrade the specific polymer type might not exist extensively in natural soils (Apinya et al., 2015; Brodhagen et al., 2015). It is also noteworthy that environmental factors under natural environments also exert influences on the microbial activities, thereby disturbing the biodegradation of BPs (Hoshino et al., 2001; Sintim et al., 2020). Taken oxygen content as an example, the erosion of biodegradable polymers was slowed down under anaerobic conditions underneath soil profile than the soil surfaces (Cho et al., 2011; Napper and Thompson, 2019; Weng et al., 2013). In addition, temperature, soil moisture, soil structural component, and other environmental factors that stimulate or suppress the microbial activities possibly change the biodegradation rate (Borrowman et al., 2020; César et al., 2009; Shogren et al., 2003).

Likewise, abiotic processes, including pyrolysis, hydrolysis, and photo-degradation, contribute to BPs decomposition more rapidly. La Mantia et al. (2020) suggested that with the assistance of UV irradiation, the biodegradation of BPs was accelerated. Whereas, in natural soils, photo-degradation is largely hindered owing to soil burial of plastic wastes (Hayes et al., 2017). According to a PLA degradation study done by Karamanlioglu and Robson (2013), when environmental temperature was above the glass transition temperature (T_g) of the polymer, PLA materials became less stable with higher water absorption capacities, stimulating hydrolysis and microbial attachment. The above discussion indicates that abiotic forces help to disintegrate plastics into small fragments, thereby increasing specific surface area of the materials and the contact area of BPs with degradation contributors (Sintim et al., 2020).

The co-existence of BPs with other chemical substances in soils potentially triggers interactions, affecting their deterioration behaviors

at the same time. One study validated the accelerated degradation rate of both oil-based PE and biodegradable PBAT plastic films by the amendment of a broad-spectrum fungicide, prothioconazole (Li et al., 2020b). Ingestion of MPs by soil organisms or microbial contributors within plant rhizosphere also accounted for BPs biodegradation (Janczak et al., 2018). Since tiny-sized MPs are easily mistaken for food, ingestion of plastic residues by soil animals, the subsequent degradation within digestive tracts, and the final egestion of the plastic materials accelerate BPs degradation in soils (Kwak and An, 2021; Sanchez-Hernandez et al., 2020).

3.2.2. Releases of additives and other substances during polymer decomposition

To obtain greater performances and other properties of plastic products during practical use, additives such as plasticizers, dyes, photostabilizers, and pro-oxidants are mixed with neat polymers during manufacture (Soroudi and Jakubowicz, 2013). Presently, common types of plastic modifiers are classified into stabilizers (to prolong lifespan of plastic products), plasticizers (to modify mechanical properties), antioxidants (to delay oxidation of plastics), pro-oxidants (to obtain faster degradation), surfactants (to promote surface properties), and other additives (to improve functionality) based on their different purposes (Gunaalan et al., 2020; Hahladakis et al., 2018). Releases of these potentially harmful chemicals probably occur during weathering processes of plastics under natural soil conditions, which is regarded as another challenge in plastic contamination control (Serrano-Ruiz et al., 2018; Shen et al., 2019). Heavy metals (like lead and chromium), pigments, phthalate acid esters (PAE), poly brominated diphenyl ethers (PBDE) and other biotoxic additives have been detected in leachates from both aged MPs and plastic films, posing biological threats as mixture of multicomponent pollutants (Bejgarn et al., 2015; Luo et al., 2020; Wang et al., 2016). Up to now, biotoxicity induced by leached chemicals from incubation of MPs and BMPs have been observed (Serrano-Ruiz et al., 2018; Zimmermann et al., 2020).

Similar problems arise in the case of BPs products (Balestri et al., 2019). Despite the existed knowledge gap, releases of additives from BPs in soils were recorded. A pile composting study conducted by Sintim et al. (2020) verified this concern on BPs. During the 18-week degradation test, the added carbon black, to retain mechanical properties and durability of the tested biodegradable mulching films (a PLA/PHA blend film and a co-polyester film containing PBAT polymers), were detected in leachates. Another water incubation study confirmed the releases of

Table 1
Degradation factors of BPs in soil environments.

| Degradation factors | | Testing Materials | Description | Environmental Conditions | Time | Degradation Results | Explanation | References |
|---------------------|---------------------------|-------------------------------------|--|--|--------------------------|--|---|---|
| Soil biotic forces | Microbial biomass | PBS-starch, PBS, PLA | 0.25% Soil burial; Different bacterial biomass | Different bacterial biomass; 25 °C | 28 days, 2 years | Higher degradation ratio with higher bacterial biomass | Degradation closely related to soil microbial activities | Adhikari et al. (2016) |
| | Microbes | PLA coupons | With/without environmental microbes | Soil burial; Sterile soil extracts | 12 months | Faster degradation in microorganism-rich soils | Direct role for microorganisms in PLA degradation | Karamanlioglu and Robson (2013) |
| | Plastic-degrading species | PLA sheets | Inoculated with/without several actinomycetes genera | ASTM D5988-12 | 90 days | Highest PLA degradability in soils inoculated with <i>Pseudonocardia</i> sp. RM423 | Highest attachment and colonization of biofilms on PLA | Apinya et al. (2015) |
| | Plant Rhizosphere | PLA and PET films | Inoculated with 4 plant-promoting species | Pot incubated with planta and microbes | 6 months | Accelerated PLA biodegradation by rhizosphere microbes | Efficient production of biof | Janczak et al. (2018) |
| | Animal activities | 4 biodegradable plastic mulches | Weathering by soil burial | Earthworms feeding test | Weathering: 6, 12 months | Ingestion of soil-buried biodegradable mulches | Bioturbation and vermicomposting | Sanchez-Hernandez et al. (2020) |
| Soil abiotic forces | Depths | PHA/PLA blends with different ratio | 20 and 40 cm underneath surfaces | 20 ± 3 °C, watered, seeds planted | 5 months | Faster PHA degradation at 20 cm but lower at 40 cm | Preferential PLA microbial degradation under aerobic conditions | Weng et al. (2013) |
| | Climate | Commercial BPs films | BioAgri, Naturecycle, Organix, PLA/PHA films | Field trials in two sites | 36 months | Climate: Warmer > cooler; summer > winter | Promoted degradation under higher moisture and temperature | Sintim et al. (2020) |
| | Temperature | Biodegradable plastic sheets | PCL, PLA, PHB, and PBS | 25, 37, and 50 °C | 10 months | Higher degradation rate under higher temperatures | Melting temperatures, glass transition temperatures | Al Hosni et al. (2019) |
| | | PBS plastics | pellets: 500–700 µm, 200–355 µm, 5–75 µm | 28 ± 2 °C in dark, soil moisture 14.6% | 138 days | Smaller sized samples degraded more rapidly | Biodegradation was related to total available surface area | Chinaglia et al. (2018) |
| | | PLA coupons | Under 25, 37, 45, 50, and 55 °C | Soil burial | 12 months | PLA degraded faster at higher temperature | High temperature favored PLA hydrolysis | Karamanlioglu and Robson (2013) |

Table 2
Continued.

| Degradation factors | | Testing Materials | Description | Environmental Conditions | Time | Degradation Results | Explanation | References |
|----------------------|-----------------------|---|---|---|--------------|---|---|------------------------------|
| Soil abiotic forces | Soil Texture | PCL/S blends | Burial in sandy and clayey soil | ASTM D5988-03 ^a ; 28 °C in dark | 120 days | Faster degradation in clayey soils | Stronger microbial proliferation in finer soil texture | César et al. (2009) |
| | Soil moisture | PCL based polyurethane mulch | Two moisture, light levels, and soil types | Pot experiment; 19–25 °C | 140 days | Soil moisture as the most important factor | Important role of moisture in bulk erosion of material | Borrowman et al. (2020) |
| | Co- existed chemicals | 1% PBAT MPs (0.85–2.00 mm) | With/without pesticide prothioconazole | 24 ± 1 °C; 12/12h light/dark cycle | 6 weeks | Prothioconazole promoted MPs degradation | Need further studying | Li et al. (2020b) |
| BMPs characteristics | Material composition | PHA/PLA blending films | P(3HB,4HB)/PLA ratio from 100/0 to 0/100 | 20 ± 3 °C; seeds planted; regular watering | 5 months | Faster degradation with increasing PHA content | Favorable in PHA microbial mineralization | Weng et al. (2013) |
| BPs characteristics | Material composition | Two materials and their blends | PCL, AS-E, and PCL/AS-E | ASTM D5988-96 ^a ; 28 °C | 90 days | Degradability: AS-E > PCL/AS-E > PCL | Preferential microbial attack on starch; Higher crystallinity in PCL | Mariani et al. (2007) |
| | Polymer types | 4 types of biodegradable materials | plastarch, co-polyester + corn-based plastics, starch-derived plastics, and PHA | ASTM D5988-03 ^a ; 20 ± 2 °C | 660 days | Biodegradability: PHA > co-polyester + corn-based plastic > plastarch | Both enzymatic and chemical hydrolysis contribute to PHA degradation | Gómez and Michel (2013) |
| | Polymer structures | 4 biodegradable plastic sheets | PCL, PLA, PHB, and PBS | 25, 37, and 50 °C | 10 months | PCL showed the fastest degradation | Polyesters (PCL) with side chains showed faster degradation | Al Hosni et al. (2019) |
| BPs characteristics | Polymer structure | PBAT films | | Soil burial at 0.3 m depth | 39 weeks | Crosslinked structure delayed degradation | Crosslinked structures limited accessible water and microbes to polymer chain | Kijchavengkul et al. (2010a) |
| | Polymer structure | PHA specimens | PHBV, PHB | Environmental soil burial under 15 cm-depth | 10–12 months | Increases in crystallinity in all PHA specimens | Preferential attack in amorphous regions inside the material | Boyandin et al. (2013) |
| | Particle sizes | Mater-Bi HF03V1 | 355–500 µm, 180–210 µm, 75–125 µm | 28 ± 2 °C; pH 7.9; moisture: 14.6% | 276 days | Smaller-sized materials degraded more rapidly | Larger available surface area | Tosin et al. (2019) |
| BPs characteristics | Particle sizes | PBS pellets | 500–700 µm, 200–355 µm, 50–75 µm | 28 ± 2 °C in dark; Moisture: 14.6% | 140 days | Rapid degradation in smaller-sized pellets | Materials with larger surface area loaded with more microorganisms | Chinaglia et al. (2018) |
| | Material shapes | plastarch, co-polyester + corn-based plastics, starch-derived plastics, and PHA | Film samples; grounded samples | ASTM D5988-03 ^a ; 20 ± 2 °C | 660 days | No distinct degradability among film and powder | Essential role of environmental conditions in BPs degradation | Gómez and Michel (2013) |
| | Material shapes | PHA specimens (PHB, PHBV) | Pellets and films | Buried at 15 cm | 10–12 months | Faster degradation in films | Better attachment of microbes on the surfaces with PHA films | Boyandin et al. (2013) |
| Additives | Additives | 4 PBAT films | PBAT films + different additives | Soil burial | 26 months | Fastest degradation in BMF containing PHA | PHA degradation accelerated disintegration | Qi et al. (2021) |
| | Additives | 4 PBAT films | PBAT films + different additives | Soil burial | 26 months | Addition of CaCO ₃ delayed degradation | CaCO ₃ proved physical properties and hindered surface cracking | Qi et al. (2021) |

^a ASTM D5988-03 and ASTM D5988-96 stand for Standard Test Method for Determining Aerobic Biodegradation of Plastic Materials in Soil.

compounds from four commercial biodegradable plastic mulching films (including Mater-Bi®, Ecovio®, Bio-Flex®, and BioFilm®) even before biodegradation in soils (Serrano-Ruiz et al., 2020). Released compounds were mainly derived from partial hydrolysis of PBAT, PLA, and PHB in the blends of the commercial mulching films, potentially inducing negative impacts. Balestri et al. (2019) demonstrated similar leaching behaviors of the processing compounds from Mater-Bi® and high-density polyethylene (HDPE) bags after the ten-day natural weathering. The authors also observed adverse effects of plastic leachates on seedling growths of *Lepidium sativum* L., a garden cress species. The no differential phytotoxic effects on the early growth of the garden cress by conventional PE and biodegradable Mater-Bi® plastic leachates have also been confirmed (Menicagli et al., 2019).

So far, studies about ecotoxicological effects induced by plastic additives and leachates released from BPs have been poorly conducted. With less durability and faster biodegradation rate of BPs in soils, to what extent and under which condition the releases happen are vital problems that need long-term exploring. It is also worrying that whether the released chemicals during weathering could interact with the generated MPs and pose further ecological risks to natural soil environments (Serrano-Ruiz et al., 2021).

3.3. Evidences of MPs/BMPs released from large-sized plastics

Considering the technical difficulties in separation and the subsequent detection of MPs and BMPs from solid phases, there is very limited information available on the generation of MPs from large-sized plastics, let alone the generation of BMPs (Fojt et al., 2020; Viera et al., 2020). While the growing output of BPs and their increasingly important status urge us to explore whether BPs induce BMPs pollution like conventional ones do in natural ecosystems. A rapid degradation test on biodegradable PHA films in tap water and drinking water systems confirmed the generation of BMPs within the size range of 25 µm - 1 mm by epifluorescence microscopy (Shruti and Kutralam-Muniasamy, 2019). Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) observations further characterized the surface morphology of the generated MPs, revealing cracks and biofilm enrichment on the surfaces.

Since BPs are more vulnerable to various degradation factors than non-degradable plastics, the degradation rate of BPs seems to be more rapid than the conventional non-degradable plastic materials (Napper and Thompson, 2019; Wei et al., 2021). A study done by Lambert and Wagner (2016) demonstrated the releases of micron-sized fragments from several types of plastic materials, including conventional PP, PE, polystyrene (PS), polyethylene terephthalate (PET) commodities, and biodegradable PLA cup in a weathering chamber with UV exposure at 30 °C. The authors adopted nanoparticle tracking analysis for detection of particles between 30 and 2000 nm, and Coulter Counter techniques for 0.6–60 µm fragments. After 112 days, microscopic particles were detected increased in number among all plastic types, with PS plastic lid and PLA cup exhibiting the most increases in the concentrations of released micron-sized particles. Wei et al. (2021) compared the formation of BMPs and MPs from PBAT and LDPE materials in different aquatic environments, suggesting that PBAT BMPs were generated more readily from large-sized BPs than MPs from LDPE plastics. It was indicated that besides microbial mineralization, BPs also underwent UV degradation, oxidation, erosion, which jointly contributed to BMPs formation. The comparison of plastic deterioration was examined simultaneously under open-air, marine, and soil burial conditions, considering five types of plastic carrier bags (including biodegradable, oxo-biodegradable, compostable, and conventional plastics) (Napper and Thompson, 2019). The 27-month degradation experiment indicated higher fragmentation rate under the conditions with higher oxygen contents, humidity and ultraviolet (UV) radiation. Most of the detected fragments were in the size range of MPs, uncovering the no differential effects of natural weathering on generation of MPs/BMPs between biodegradable and non-biodegradable plastics. Similarly, Weinstein

et al. (2020) compared the degradability of biodegradable PLA and Mater-Bi® plastics with conventional PET, HDPE, and PS commodities in a salt marsh. After 4 weeks of natural weathering, MPs and BMPs were produced and biofilms were detected among all plastic types, with single-use bags generating the most MPs during the incubation test. From the above discussion, we conclude that the degradability of BPs is not able to eliminate BMPs but have greater potential of BMPs accumulation in natural soils. Currently, due to the current negligible output and misunderstandings of BPs, little attention has been paid to BMPs in soil systems.

Incorporation of tiny sized BMPs, MPs, and even nanoplastics into soil profile make it more difficult to separate and evaluate their abundances and characteristics in soils. With the elevated awareness of potential risks posed by BPs, more efficient methods should be developed on quantifying BMPs and MPs in soils. Investigations, along with ecological risk assessments on BPs and BMPs should also be conducted. Common extraction procedures of conventional MPs from soil profile are based on density separation or flotation methods using saturated NaCl solution (density: 1.19 g cm⁻³) (Li et al., 2020a). However, since most biodegradable polymers are denser than conventional plastic polymers (except for PVC), using NaCl solution as extraction solution is not appropriate for extracting BMPs from soil profile. Using saturated dense salt solution (such as NaBr, NaI, KI) may be more efficient in BMPs extraction (Li et al., 2021). In addition, special attention should be paid to the properties of the salt solution. For instance, saturated ZnCl₂ solution can dissolve cellulose, potentially interfering the extraction of BMPs containing cellulose. The oleophilic and non-conductive properties of MPs/BMPs could also be considered when it comes to separation of MPs/BMPs from environmental samples (Felsing et al., 2018; Scopetani et al., 2020). Use of chemicals to eliminate organic matter from MPs/BMPs surfaces is essential before further characterization, but since biodegradable polymers are more susceptible to many aggressive chemicals than conventional MPs, using solvents like chloroform seems to be a proper pathway (Krishnan et al., 2017). As for characterization of MPs and BMPs, common strategies, such as Fourier Transform infrared spectroscopy (FTIR) or Raman spectroscopies, and Pyrolysis gas chromatography-mass spectrometry are adopted (Fojt et al., 2020; Liang et al., 2021).

4. Can BMPs pose stronger negative effects to soil environments than conventional MPs?

4.1. Impacts on soil properties and soil biota

Considering that BMPs share some commonness with MPs, we first summarize some effects of conventional MPs on soil properties and organisms and possible mechanisms in this chapter, and then discuss the individualities of ecological effects posed by BMPs in soil environments. The objective of this part is to discuss whether it is ecologically safe to replace oil-based plastic commodities with BPs from the perspective of the generated and subsequent impacts of BMPs in soils.

4.1.1. Impacts on soil physicochemical properties

Soil properties play important roles in maintaining soil quality, crop production, nutrient cycling, and normal functioning in soil ecosystems (Mbachu et al., 2021). As xenobiotics, the presence of conventional MPs and BMPs in soil environments are able to change soil physicochemical properties and microbial activities (Boots et al., 2019; Liu et al., 2017; Qi et al., 2020b). Significant alterations in soil bulk density, total porosity, and soil aggregates were recorded due to the distinct characteristics of MPs/BMPs (densities, shapes, sizes, and surface properties) with natural soil particles, potentially related to soil erosion (Machado et al., 2018; Mbachu et al., 2021; Zhang and Liu, 2018). The random distribution of MPs in soils forms waterproof obstacles, blocking soil pores, and changing waterflow orientation (Jiang et al., 2017; Wan et al., 2019). One investigation study reported high coefficient of variation (CV) in

soil property parameters vertically in a MPs-polluted agricultural field, indicating that the random distribution of MPs under realistic conditions exacerbated the heterogeneity in soil column (Jiang et al., 2017). Alterations in chemical composition and functional microbial groups in soils by conventional MPs intrusion were reported (Liu et al., 2017; Ren et al., 2020). From a long-term perspective, an investigation study in a cropped field contaminated by residual plastic films reported reductions in total nitrogen (TN) and soil organic matter (SOM), revealing negative effects of plastic residues on soil fertility and potential of soil impoverishment (Qian et al., 2018). Alterations in soil chemical components were generally provoked by indirect changes of biological activities, especially for those related to nutrient cycling.

Significant alterations in soil bulk density, porosity, as well as hydrological properties were recorded after the amendment of both LDPE and a starch-based microplastic debris under environmentally relevant concentrations from 0 to 2% (w/w) (Qi et al., 2020a). Changes in physicochemical and hydrological properties could further influence soil qualities and plant growths. Compared to conventional MPs that could be regarded as almost chemically inert intruders in soil environments, BMPs should be regarded as both physical and biochemical input. Qi et al. (2020b) reported distinct effects on soil pH, electrical conductivity, and soil C:N ratio between low-density polyethylene (LDPE) MPs-treatments and BMPs-treatments with similar sizes and doses. The possible explanation was attributed to the faster degradation rate and potential byproducts during BMPs degradation in soils. The mineralization of BMPs could further impact soil properties. For instance, depolymerization and hydrolysis of PLA have been reported to be accompanied by lactic acid generation and decreases in pH (Karamanlioglu and Robson, 2013).

Besides, BMPs could act as carbon sources for soil microorganisms, probably having legacy effects on microbial composition, activities, and functions in the long run. A study done by Chen et al. (2020) observed a faster ammonium transformation rate in PLA BMPs treatments compared than that in pure soils, demonstrating that PLA BMPs might act as potential carbon sources in soil ecosystems. Another pot experiment done by Zhou et al. (2021) studied the biochemical changes induced by BMPs amendment in a plant-soil system. PHBV, as one of the most common PHAs biodegradable materials, was chosen as BMPs specimens. Significant increases in microbial biomass C, as well as dissolved organic carbon (DOC) were documented, probably due to the microbial assimilation of BMPs. N immobilization was further confirmed by decreases in dissolved organic nitrogen (DON) but elevated content of microbial biomass N (MBN), demonstrating the direct impacts on carbon and nitrogen cycles by BMPs intrusion. Stronger rises in C:N ratio, as well as changes in N cycling induced by PLA samples than conventional ones were documented (Sanz-Lázaro et al., 2021). Apart from that, the presence of BMPs in soils may be exogenous carbon input, taking part in carbon cycles in ecosystems, and leading to emissions of unwanted greenhouse gases (Boots et al., 2019; Shen et al., 2020a, 2020c). If so, the promotion of BP will become not a hope but a hidden risk, inducing more profound ecological impacts that have not been validated. From the point of this view, the rapid growth of BPs and their status as substitutes for non-degradable plastics could lead to BMPs accumulation in soil ecosystems, changes in soil biogeochemical cycles, and further climate changes.

4.1.2. Impacts on soil microorganisms

Soil enzymes and microbial community structures, as important contributors in soil environments, are closely related to microbial activities and soil energy flow (Song et al., 2020). The impacts of conventional MPs and BMPs on soil enzymatic and microbial community shifts are largely induced by changes in soil physicochemical properties (Awet et al., 2018; Fei et al., 2020; Machado et al., 2018). MPs/BMPs-induced microbial alterations were highly variable considering polymer types, shapes, concentrations, and soil textures, but overall cropped areas suffered from long-term contamination of plastic

residues displayed reductions in soil enzyme activities related to soil nutrient cycles (Qian et al., 2018; Wang et al., 2016). To better understand the in-depth mechanisms of MPs-induced shifts in microbial communities, we divided the changes into direct biochemical intrusions and indirect property-induced changes (Ye et al., 2019).

On the one hand, during natural weathering processes, MPs sometimes provide shelters for microbes and facilitate their survival even under adverse conditions, forming layers of biofilms as “plastisphere” (Keswani et al., 2016; Zettler et al., 2013). Unfortunately, such protective mechanism provides opportunities for some pathogens and potential harmful microbes to enrich. MPs associated with other environmental pollutants and potentially harmful microbes like faecal indicator organisms (FIO), pathogens, and some disease-causing bacteria, such as *Aeromonas*, *Arcobacter*, *Vibrio*, and *Pseudomonas*, may deteriorate the pollution status and pose stronger negative effects on ecological safety (McCormick et al., 2016; Miao et al., 2019; Wang et al., 2020e; Yang et al., 2020b). Meanwhile, Eckert et al. (2018) reported the inability of conventional wastewater treatments to wipe out MPs. Worse still, the microbial communities on the PS MPs surfaces in wastewater effluents after the incubation exhibited similarities to that on the untreated wastewater samples. Studies done by De Tender et al. (2015) and Wu et al. (2020) were in line with the above observations, suggesting that MPs, as microbial messengers between two different ecosystems, promoted bacterial migration, meanwhile weakening environmental variations, and facilitated the invasion of these pathogens, antibiotic resistance gene (ARGs) and harmful species into wider environments. Also, some plastic-degrading bacteria in *Actinobacteria*, *Hyphomondaceae*, *Bacteroidetes* and *Proteobacteria* have been detected on MPs during soil incubation tests, providing insights for pollution control in the future (Chai et al., 2020; McCormick et al., 2014).

Compared to conventional MPs, disintegration and formation of biofilms were found more pronounced in BMPs, thereby posing stronger alterations in microbial community structures (Qi et al., 2020b; Wang et al., 2020b). In soil-plant systems, Qi et al. (2020b) performed comparative studies investigating the effects on bacterial composition in wheat rhizosphere between PLA BMPs and LDPE MPs. The differential abundance analysis revealed higher relative abundances on genera such as *Bacillus*, *Variovorax*, *Comamonadaceae* in PLA MPs treatments, potentially induced by distinct chemical composition and surface characteristics between LDPE MPs and PLA BMPs. In line with the observations, PLA BMPs were proved to induce more pronounced impacts on the diversity and community composition of arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi groups (probiotic microorganisms that symbiose with higher plants) than PE MPs did, subsequently affecting the plant performances (Wang et al., 2020b). An 28-day incubation study using PET and PHA pellets was conducted to explore their selection of ARGs recently (Sun et al., 2021a). Although relatively higher abundances of multidrug resistance genes were identified higher on PET surfaces, Shannon diversities and abundances of ARGs on PHA BMPs and non-degradable PET MPs were similar. The study illustrated that both conventional MPs and BMPs harbored ARGs, acting as hotspots for horizontal gene transfer, but with preferences. Nevertheless, the MPs-induced impacts in soil microbes are usually not significant and short-term under environmentally relevant concentrations due to the intrinsic robustness of natural soils (Wang et al., 2020d).

On the other hand, it is believed that changes in soil physicochemical properties could be related to soil microbial activities and community structures indirectly (Wang et al., 2020c; Xu et al., 2020). Changes in soil parameters and microbial communities were observed on both macro- and micro-sized biodegradable plastic fragments (Qi et al., 2020a). For example, the addition of PLA BMPs induced decreases in soil pH, which indirectly altered microbial communities in both bulk soils and the rhizospheres (Boots et al., 2019; Qi et al., 2020b). Pathan et al. (2020) further reported that MPs could pose indirect effects on cultivated plants through changing soil structure, nutrient immobilization, contaminant adsorption and diffusion, soil microbial community

Table 3

Recent comparative ecotoxicological studies on soil plants and animals between nondegradable MPs and BMPs.

| Testing Species | Polymer types | | Doses | Exposure | Effects | Comparison | Possible Explanation | References |
|---|------------------|--|--|--------------------------------|---|-----------------------------|---|----------------------------|
| | Conventional MPs | BMPs | | | | | | |
| Earthworm, <i>Eisenia fetida</i> | PE | PLA, PPC | 0–500 g kg ⁻¹ | Soil incubation | Avoidance, elevated mortality with the increasing rate | No significant differences | Effects of concentrations outweighing polymer types | Ding et al. (2021) |
| Earthworm, <i>Aporrectodea rosea</i> | HDPE | PLA | 0.1% (w/w) | Soil-plant-earthworm system | Reduction in biomass | HDPE > PLA | Prolonged gut residence of the MPs altering the feeding activities | Boots et al. (2019) |
| Ryegrass, <i>Lolium perenne</i> | | | | | Fewer germination, Shorter shoots | PLA > HDPE | The toxic effects of degradation byproducts (e.g., lactic acid) | |
| Common bean, <i>Phaseolus vulgaris</i> L. | LDPE | PLA/PBAT | 0.5–2.5% (w/w) | Soil-plant system | Reductions in shoot, root growth, and fruit biomass | BMPs > LDPE MPs | Degradation byproducts of PLA; Alterations in rhizosphere microbial communities; | Meng et al. (2021) |
| Wheat, <i>Triticum aestivum</i> | LDPE | Starch-based film residues (Bio) | 1% (w/w) | Soil-plant system | Growth inhibition | Bio > LDPE | Faster degradation of BMPs leading to stronger alterations in soil structure, stability, and biological effects | Qi et al. (2018) |
| | | | | | Reductions in plant biomass; Shifts in wheat rhizosphere | Bio > LDPE | Faster degradation of BMPs; Releases of volatile compounds from BMPs | Qi et al. (2020b) |
| Maize, <i>Zea mays</i> L. var. Wannuoyihao | PE; PE + Cd | PLA; PLA + Cd | MPs: 0–10%; Cd: 5 mg kg ⁻¹ | MPs alone/MPs-Cd exposure | Changes in soil pH; Reduction in biomass and chlorophyll content; Increases in DTPA-extracted Cd | PLA > PE | Potential toxic degradation byproducts of PLA | Wang et al. (2020b) |
| Lettuce, <i>Lactuca sativa</i> L., Tomato, <i>Lycopersicon esculentum</i> Mill. | PE film residues | 7 types of Biodegradable film residues | Extracts from MPs/BMPs | <i>In vitro</i> culture test | Reductions in germination, root growth; Variable responses to different types | BMPs extracts > PE extracts | Compounds and byproducts released from BMPs degradation | Serrano-Ruiz et al. (2018) |
| Maize, <i>Zea mays</i> L. var. Wannuoyihao | HDPE | PLA | MPs: 0–10%; ZnO NPs: 0–500 mg kg ⁻¹ | MPs alone/MPs-ZnO NPs exposure | Inhibition in root and shoot growth under high-dose PLA BMPs treatment; Increased Zn accumulation under co-exposure; | PLA > HDPE | Releases of harmful secondary metabolites from PLA biodegradation | Yang et al. (2021) |
| Arbuscular Mycorrhizal Fungal (AMF) communities | | | | | Correlations between PLA dose and relative abundance of some AMF species; MP/BMPs + NPs alleviated reductions in microbial diversities induced by ZnO NPs | Not significant | Impacts on AMF communities by PLA and its metabolites; Protective role of MPs/BMPs against ZnO NPs toxicity | |

root-associated microbiome, and root symbionts.

4.1.3. Impacts on soil animals and plants

Laboratory tests have demonstrated the adverse impacts of MPs and BMPs on soil organisms from cellular to trophic levels. Present studies mainly focus on higher plant species (e.g., wheat, ryegrass, garden cress, spring onion, etc.) and invertebrates (e.g., earthworms, nematodes, springtails, and snails, etc.) (Guo et al., 2020; Ju et al., 2019). The reported responses on soil animals induced by MPs included but not limited to decreases in survival, growth and reproductive rate, detrimental effects on digestive tracts, oxidative stress, gut microbiome dysbiosis, and even neurotoxicity (Jin et al., 2019; Rodríguez-Seijo et al., 2017; Setälä et al., 2016). In analogy to adverse impacts on animals, MPs in soils provoke phytotoxicity including growth inhibition, reduced seed germination, oxidative bursts, and genotoxicity (Pignatelli et al., 2020; Zou et al., 2017). The results were often accompanied by changes in soil properties that could also be one of the contributors to

detrimental effects on plant health. (Jiang et al., 2019; Taylor et al., 2020). These reports implied that MPs in soils might exert influences on plant performances and further disturbances on normal functioning in soil ecosystems.

For a long time, BPs had been considered environmentally harmless. Unfortunately, since no differential adverse impacts of conventional MPs and BMPs on filter-feeding species, flat oysters (*Ostrea edulis*) and blue mussels (*Mytilus edulis*) were reported, researches began to lay eyes on the potential ecological risks of BMPs (Green et al., 2016, 2017; Klein et al., 2021). Up to now, there is still a paucity of information on environmental risk assessments of BMPs, especially in soil environments. And the contradictory results among different species and polymer types make it more difficult to elucidate the toxic mechanisms of BMPs in soil systems. Herein, we intend to provide a glimpse of potential ecotoxicological effects by BMPs.

On the one hand, as part of MPs, BMPs share some common features with MPs. Like conventional MPs, toxic effects of BMPs on animals and

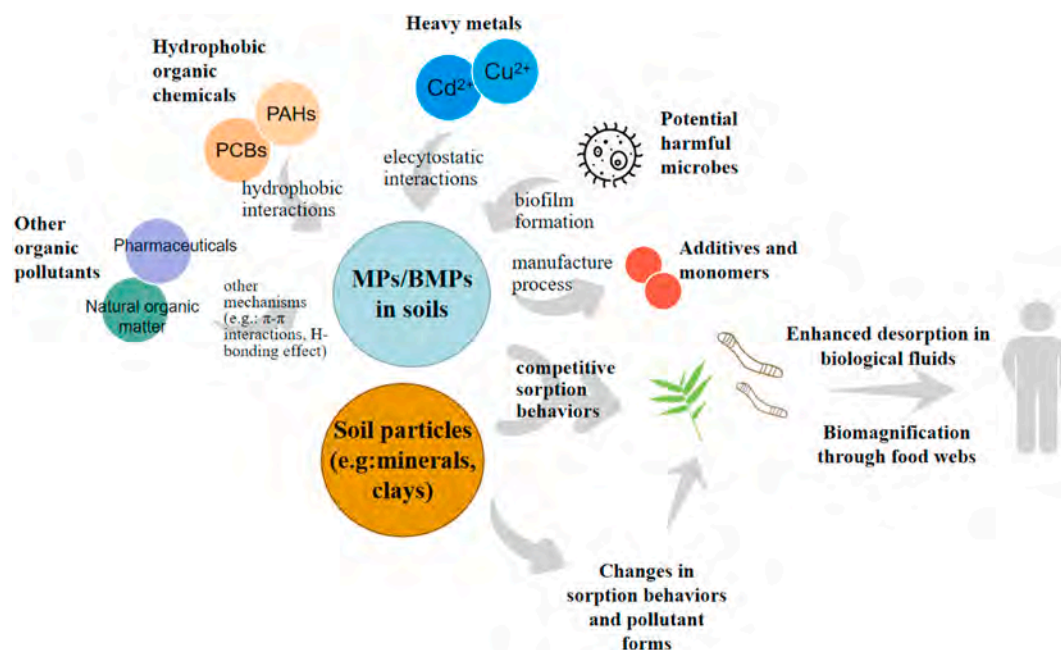


Fig. 3. MPs/BMPs as vectors of environmental pollutants in soils.

plants have also been recorded, leading to increases in intracellular reactive oxygen species (ROS) levels and impairment of membrane integrity (Gonzalez-Soto et al., 2019; Green et al., 2016; Zhang et al., 2021). Zimmermann et al. (2020) identified the particulate-induced toxicity of PLA BMPs on zebrafish *D. magna* by adding untreated BMPs, BMPs without extracted chemicals, and single extracted chemicals into culturing medium. On the other hand, due to the relatively rapid degradation of BPs and BMPs, releases of additives, monomers, and possibly noxious intermediates are more pronounced compared to non-degradable plastics (Serrano-Ruiz et al., 2021). For instance, Klein et al. (2021) conducted an 28-day sediment ecotoxicity study on freshwater oligochaete *Lumbriculus variegatus*, and identified chemicals originating from the PLA BMPs as the main driver of toxic effects in this study. Zhang et al. (2021) investigated the impact of virgin and UV-aged PLA BMPs on a zebrafish species. Sizes of the aged PLA BMPs reduced to half of the virgin ones (from ~25.56 to ~11.22 μm), and surface property changes such as introduction of O-containing surface groups and increase in hydrophilicity were also observed. Also, PLA BMPs after aging exerted stronger oxidative damages on zebrafish than virgin ones, indicating the elevated ecotoxicity of BMPs during natural weathering processes. More recently, an *in vitro* phytotoxic study of extracts from several types of biodegradable plastic fragments was conducted on two agricultural plant species (lettuce, *Lactuca sativa* L., and tomato *Lycopersicon esculentum* Mill.) (Serrano-Ruiz et al., 2018). Several commercial BPs particles (Mater-Bi®, Ecovio®, Bio-Flex®, and BioFilm®) composed of PBAT, PLA, TPS, and PHB materials were chosen as representative for most BPs during agricultural use. Results showed that extracts from different types of BPs led to inhibitory effects on seed germination, plant growth, and root health, suggesting the potential adverse impacts of BMPs induced by released chemicals. While the effects of conventional MPs and BMPs on soil species were found largely dependent on polymer types and plastic composition (Huerta Lwanga et al., 2016; Qi et al., 2018; Rodriguez-Seijo et al., 2017). Back in 2013, Sinohara Souza et al. (2013) illustrated the inhibitory effects of aqueous extract from PLA films on cell division of the *Allium cepa* meristematic cells. While research conducted by Rychter et al. (2010) found it harmless of PBAT materials on radish, cress, and oats during the degradation test. Since soil ecosystems are composed of various abiotic and biotic components, the ecological impacts of BMPs and conventional MPs are results of multifactors. Therefore, it is not likely to

consider the influencing factors individually when evaluating the ecological safety of plastic materials. Table 3 displayed some recent studies comparing ecotoxicological effects of MPs and BMPs on organisms in soils.

Despite the scarcity of related reports in soils, the results of toxicological studies between conventional MPs and BMPs were worrying. A laboratory study investigating biotoxicity of PLA BMPs, polypropylene carbonate (PPC) BMPs, and non-degradable PE MPs on earthworms *Eisenia fetida* concluded that PLA and PPC BMPs displayed comparable biotoxicity compared to PE MPs (Ding et al., 2021). In a soil-plant system, stronger reductions in shoot, root growth, and fruit biomass of common bean (*Phaseolus vulgaris* L.) induced by PBAT/PLA BMPs were recorded, while LDPE MPs only triggered negative effects under high concentrations (Meng et al., 2021). The negative effects of degradation compounds and alterations in rhizosphere bacterial community induced by BMPs might account for the results. Another pot experiment conducted to explore the effects of micron-sized LDPE and starch-based plastic film residues concluded that biodegradable film residues exhibited more severe inhibition on wheat growth than LDPE did (Qi et al., 2018). Wang et al. (2020b) demonstrated that 10% PLA MPs amendment in soils decreased maize biomass and chlorophyll contents in leaves in soils, while PE showed no discernible impacts. Similar results such as stronger inhibitory effects on the growth of *L. perenne*, lower root and shoot biomass, together with significant lower leaf chlorophyll content on common bean (*Phaseolus vulgaris* L.) by BMPs compared to conventional MPs questioned the environmental safety of the so-called “environmentally harmless” BPs (Boots et al., 2019).

By comparing the ecotoxicological studies of conventional MPs and BMPs in soils, it is worrying that BMPs pose no differential, sometimes even greater negative effects on soil animals and plants, which should be taken into consideration when we regard BPs as substitutes for conventional non-degradable plastics.

4.2. Interactions between BMPs and environmental chemicals

4.2.1. BMPs alter the distribution patterns of environmental pollutants in soils

Due to high specific surface area, hydrophobicity and persistence, MPs possess the ability to concentrate environmental pollutants, including organic and inorganic chemicals, and subsequently alter their

environmental behaviors as “vectors” (Dobaradaran et al., 2018; Syberg et al., 2015). Meanwhile, with the increasing awareness of potential risks by BPs and BMPs, some researches have demonstrated no differential impacts between BMPs with conventional MPs on concentrating and changing distribution patterns of environmental pollutants (Cerná et al., 2021; Torres et al., 2021). Mechanisms participating in sorption of BMPs and MPs are mainly attributed to hydrophobic interactions, electrostatic, π - π , hydrogen bonding, and some other effects (Hartmann et al., 2017; Shen et al., 2021). Fig. 3 displayed the ability of concentrating environmental pollutants by both conventional MPs and BMPs, acting as vectors for pollutants in soils.

Despite the paucity of field investigations, experimental studies have confirmed similar sorption behaviors and mechanisms between conventional MPs and BMPs, and sometimes BMPs even presented higher affinities to chemical substances with BMPs. For example, PBAT MPs revealed the highest affinity to phenanthrene in aqueous solution among PBAT, PE and PS MPs, owing to the low crystallinity of PBAT materials (Zuo et al., 2019). The calculated K_d value of the PBAT MPs was even higher than some of the carbonaceous geosorbents like biochars and black carbons, indicating BMPs as vectors for phenanthrene even in natural environments. Jiang et al. (2020) investigated sorption abilities of PBS, PVC, and PS MPs towards two triazole fungicides-triadimefon, and difenoconazole. PBS BMPs presented the highest sorption capacity for triadimefon ($104.2 \pm 4.8 \mu\text{g g}^{-1}$) and difenoconazole ($192.8 \pm 2.3 \mu\text{g g}^{-1}$), and the sorption behaviors were barely affected by environmental factors like pH, salinity, and dissolved organic matter like PVC and PS MPs did. The branched aliphatic composition of polymers contributed to the strong affinities. Tubić et al. (2019) demonstrated a relatively stronger affinity of PLA BMPs to 4-chlorophenol (4-CP) ($85\text{--}101 \mu\text{g g}^{-1}$) than conventional PP and PE MPs, following the pseudo-second order equation, indicating the contribution of different binding sites during the sorption. Heterogeneous sorption of pesticides fipronil to BMPs (polybutylene succinate (PBS) and PLA) was indicated by the well fitted Freundlich model, revealing greater concentrating abilities of BMPs for the pesticides than conventional MPs (Gong et al., 2019). As another main organic pollutants, antibiotics exhibited affinities to MPs and BMPs (Atugoda et al., 2021; Torres et al., 2021; Verdú et al., 2021). Fan et al. (2021) investigated the sorption behaviors of two common antibiotics-tetracycline (TC) and ciprofloxacin (CIP), on conventional PVC MPs and PLA BMPs in original and aged forms. It was indicated that the multi-layer adsorption of PLA BMPs displayed higher adsorption capacity for antibiotics than single-layer adsorption of PVC MPs. More importantly, since PLA BMPs were proved more susceptible to UV aging than PVC MPs, sorption capacities of aged PLA BMPs towards TC and CIP were greatly enhanced, potentially inducing combined effects under co-exposure. The more susceptible properties of BMPs in natural environments also lead to higher adsorption abilities to chemicals. Similar observations were documented in oxytetracycline (OTC) adsorption on PLA BMPs under different environmental conditions (Sun et al., 2021b). It was confirmed that biofilm-formed PLA BMPs exhibited much stronger affinity to OTC due to increased surface area, the generated oxygen-containing functional groups, stronger hydrogen bonding, and interactions with biofilms. Also, the OTC desorption behavior was also more pronounced on biofilm-formed PLA BMPs. These studies highlighted the environmental risks of BMPs in actual environmental conditions.

Under natural soil environments where BPs are more vulnerable to weathering than conventional plastics, BMPs present smaller sizes, rougher surfaces, along with generation of cracks and hydroxyl and carboxyl functional groups. The experimental results by Li et al. (2020b) illustrated that the weathered PBAT MPs presented distinctly higher sorption capacities to heavy metals than PE MPs had during the soil incubation tests, especially for Cu. In this study, the more rapid degradation rate of biodegradable PBAT than non-degradable PE materials possibly contributed to the results. More recently, Černá et al. (2021) investigated the PAHs (anthracene, benzo[a]anthracene, and benzo[a]

pyrene) accumulation onto MPs and BMPs in both aged and unaged forms in a PAHs-contaminated soil incubation test. Significant higher PAHs accumulation on BMPs than conventional MPs was observed, and the driving factors for PAHs sorption was the rubbery or glassy state of the particles. Within this study, aging process did not lead to significant changes.

From the above discussion, it is suggested that the chemical compositions and relative vulnerability of BMPs make them more readily to concentrate environmental chemical substances than oil-based MPs. However, there is still a dearth of experimental data to validate whether BMPs could act as vectors for environmental chemicals, changing their fate and distribution patterns to a larger extent than conventional MPs do in natural soil systems.

4.2.2. Biological effects of co-exposure of BMPs and contaminants

With the complexity under realistic soil environments, the combined effects of MPs with associated chemical substances on organisms and their mechanisms are ongoing concerns. The uptake of MPs by soil organisms provides a pathway for MPs-associated contaminants to enter animal tissues and thereby inducing detrimental effects on animal health. The problem whether MPs can act as vectors for environmental pollutants, leading to elevated bioaccumulation in organisms is under intense discussion (Syberg et al., 2015; Yang et al., 2019). Presently, studies concerning the co-transport of MPs with sorbed contaminants (mainly focused on persistent organic pollutants, including model polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs) (benzo[a]pyrene, fluoranthene), PBDEs, perfluorooctanesulfonate (PFOS), etc.) have documented higher bioaccumulation of contaminants in animal and plant tissues, and biological toxic effects (Chua et al., 2014; Gonzalez-Soto et al., 2019; O'Donovan et al., 2018). One possible explanation for the elevated bioaccumulation of chemicals by MPs-ingestion lies with the possible stronger desorption behaviors of chemicals inside animal digestive fluids (Liu et al., 2020; Rochman et al., 2013). Taken earthworms as an example, Hodson et al. (2017) reported that the Zn desorption abilities from MPs and Zn bioaccessibility inside gut fluids in earthworms were elevated than that in soils. Ma et al. (2020) studied the combined effect of MPs and antibiotics tetracycline (TC) in the gut microbiota of *Enchytraeus crypticus*, revealing significant higher abundances of ARGs in gut microbial communities in MPs-TC treatments than MPs or TC alone treatment groups.

Little information is available when it comes to co-exposure of environmental pollutants with BMPs and the subsequent ecological impacts in soil environments. An *in-vitro* human digestive model compared the desorption abilities of heavy metals from PE, PP, PVC, PS and PLA MPs. It was noteworthy that in the simulated human digestive tracts, Cr (VI) desorption rate and Cr bioaccessibility in PLA BMPs treatments presented to be the highest among all the tested materials, posing higher noncarcinogenic risks to human health (Liao and Yang, 2020). A soil-plant incubation study done by Wang et al. (2020b) documented higher DTPA-extractable Cd in soils after the amendment of PLA BMPs compared to PE MPs under their co-exposure with Cd, possibly due to the indirect effects of BMPs on soil properties and microbial community structures. Nanoparticles (NPs), as another emerging contaminant, is gaining concerns recently. Yang et al. (2021) explored the toxic impacts on maize (*Zea mays* L. var. Wannuoyihao) by single and co-exposure of conventional MPs and BMPs with ZnO NPs, as one of the most common engineered NPs. Increased Zn accumulation in maize was observed under the co-exposure of ZnO NPs with MPs/BMPs. Meanwhile, the amendment of MPs and BMPs were found to alleviate the negative effects of ZnO NPs on arbuscular mycorrhizal fungal communities, which might exert more profound impacts on soil microbial communities and plant growth.

According to recent studies, however, contribution of MPs or BMPs to the bioaccumulation of pollutants was not comparable to other exposure pathways such as dietary and dermal exposure (Rosato et al., 2020; Wang et al., 2019). Considering relatively low abundances of MPs

compared to other natural organic materials, the effect is negligible under realistic concentrations. For instance, Wang et al. (2019) exposed the earthworm, *E. fetida* under MPs or MPs-polychlorinated biphenyls (PCB) treatments in soils, and indicated that under environmentally relevant exposure, neither MPs-induced oxidative stress, nor enhanced bioaccumulation of PCB would exert detrimental effect on the earthworms. While the hypothesis has only been tested among very limited species and polymer types, it remains uncertain whether co-exposure of MPs and environmental pollutants would induce stronger impacts on soil organisms and even human health. The more profound impacts of BPs and BMPs on both soil abiotic and biotic components bring great uncertainty to the consequences of contaminant-MPs co-exposure. Moreover, compared to MPs/BMPs associated with chemicals sorbed from the ambient environments, more focus should be put on the inherent releases of potentially harmful chemicals, along with their following association with generated MPs. Since the releases of both intermediates, additives and byproducts are more pronounced in BPs and BMPs, future studies should put emphasis on the topic.

5. Perspectives and future research needs

In this paper, we conducted discussions on the ecological impacts of BMPs from their generation in natural soil environments to their single and combined effects on soil organisms and environments. In all, there is now a paucity of recognition on ecological safety of both BPs and BMPs. Clearly more experimental data and in-depth explanations are in urgent need to illustrate the ecological effects on soil environments posed by so-called harmless BPs.

As far as we are concerned, to consider current BPs as substitutes for conventional plastic commodities is not a wise choice, considering the potential ecological threats of BMPs. The reasons are stated as follows:

- 1) Due to the faster but incomplete degradation of BPs than conventional plastics in natural soil environments, larger amounts of BMPs may be released into soils in the same time frame than conventional non-degradable plastics, causing greater BMPs pollution;
- 2) BMPs in soil environments exert no differential ecological impacts on soil abiotic and biotic components with conventional MPs, following similar mechanisms. Besides, the presence of BMPs in soils may further lead to excessive carbon input, together with releases of degradation byproducts (such as monomers and possibly noxious intermediates), posing more profound impacts that need further investigating;
- 3) The existing ecotoxicological studies of BPs and BMPs are in lack. Under some conditions, BMPs generated from the so-called environmentally friendly BPs exhibit stronger, and more profound negative effects on soil abiotic and biotic components, emerging as a hidden threat. Clearly more experimental studies should be conducted to explore the biotoxicity of BMPs and their behind reasons;
- 4) The ecotoxicity studies of BMPs should not be limited to single particle impacts, and releases of chemicals from BPs and BMPs during natural weathering and their co-exposure with environmental pollutants should also be paid attention to;
- 5) The public misconceptions that BPs are totally environmental-friendly should be corrected, otherwise it may cause littering and improper waste management practices;

Considering the above limitations at present, great caution should be exercised in promoting BPs. We also suggest that future researches should lay eyes on the following aspects:

- 1) At present, detection and quantification methods of MPs, especially for BMPs, are in extreme shortage. Therefore, to accurately recognize the pollution status of MPs/BMPs in terrestrial environments, developing simple, effective, and cost-saving separation and extraction standards of MPs/BMPs from soil profile are in urgent need. For

instance, in density separation procedures, denser salt solutions should be adopted in separating BMPs in soil profile than that in conventional MPs. Methods considering other distinct properties of MPs/BMPs from soil particles should also be considered;

- 2) In our opinions, the point of solving MPs pollution lies not in developing new biodegradable polymers with excellent performances, but rather in improving plastic recycling processes and tightening regulations on plastic waste disposal. To improve the public awareness and correct understanding of BPs, bio-based, and bioplastics are also priorities;
- 3) Ecotoxicological studies on BPs and BMPs in soil ecosystems are now very limited, and mainly focused on PLA and PBAT materials. Clearly, discussions on the generation, environmental behaviors, and ecological impacts of BMPs and whether BMPs pose stronger negative effects than conventional MPs do need further uncovering. Also, investigations on BPs and BMPs with more polymer types, sizes, and more species should be conducted if we aim to consider BPs as substitutes for conventional plastic products;
- 4) Guidelines should be set and popularized on the classification of biodegradable materials according to their biodegradabilities under different environmental conditions. Specifically, we recommend developing degradation models of biodegradable polymers with different soil parameters, like soil moisture, soil organic matter, and nutrient contents, providing references for native agricultural activities;
- 5) To alleviate the current plastic pollution status, we recommend improving the durability and retrievability of newly developed plastic commodities. From our views, adding pro-oxidants to prove chemical degradation of plastic materials is not a wise move, but probably leading to higher MPs accumulation in natural environments. Instead, we prefer improving the flexibility and retrievability of BPs for cyclic utilization and further modification; If disposal is unavoidable, it is suggested to conduct biodegradation in pile composting conditions during centralized processing and monitor to ensure no toxic substances are released.

Declaration of competing interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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