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This is the final peer-reviewed author's accepted manuscript (postprint) of the following publication:

Published Version:

Accinelli, C., Abbas, H.K., Bruno, V., Nissen, L., Vicari, A., Bellaloui, N., et al. (2020). Persistence in soil of microplastic films from ultra-thin compostable plastic bags and implications on soil Aspergillus flavus population. WASTE MANAGEMENT, 113(15 July 2020), 312-318 [10.1016/j.wasman.2020.06.011].

Availability: This version is available at: https://hdl.handle.net/11585/762753 since: 2020-06-22

Published:

DOI: http://doi.org/10.1016/j.wasman.2020.06.011

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1	Persistence in soil of microplastic films from ultra-thin compostable plastic bags
2	and implications on soil Aspergillus flavus population
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19	
20	ABSTRACT
21	An increasing number of states and municipalities are choosing to reduce plastic
22	litter by replacing plastic items, particularly single-use ones, with same-use products
23	manufactured from compostable plastics. This study investigated the formation and
24	persistence of compostable film microplastic particles (CFMPs) from ultra-thin
25	compostable carrier bags in soil under laboratory conditions, and the potential impact
26	of CFMPs on Aspergillus flavus populations in the soil.

27	During a 12-month incubation period, compostable film samples in soils with small,
28	medium or large populations of indigenous A. <i>flavus</i> , underwent 5.9, 9.8, and 17.1%
29	reduction in total surface area, respectively. Despite the low levels of deterioration,
30	the number of CFMPs released increased steadily over the incubation period,
31	particularly fragments with size $< 0.05$ mm. Up to 88.4% of the released fragments
32	had associated A. <i>flavus</i> and up to 68% of isolates from CFMPs produced aflatoxins.
33	A. flavus levels associated with CFMPs increased rapidly during the initial part of the
34	12-month incubation period, whereas the percent aflatoxigenicity continued to
35	increase even after A. flavus density leveled off later. During 12 months incubation,
36	A. flavus DNA amounts recovered from CFMPs increased in soils with all levels of
37	indigenous A. flavus, with the largest increases (119.1%) occurring in soil containing
38	the lowest indigenous A. flavus. If confirmed in field studies, these results suggest
39	that burying compostable film in soil, or application of compost containing CFMPs,
40	may reduce soil quality and increase risk of adverse impacts from elevated
41	aflatoxigenic A. flavus populations in soil.
42	
43	Keywords
44	Plastic; compostable plastic; compost; microplastic; Aspergillus flavus; aflatoxins
45	
46	1. Introduction
47	Petroleum-based plastic has played a crucial role in modern societies since the
48	beginning of its large-scale production in the early 1950s. Due to its versatility and
49	ease of processing, plastic is used for manufacturing a wide variety of products,
50	including durable and single-use items for both domestic to industrial applications
51	(Andrady and Neal, 2009). Nearly 40% of the global plastic production (~ 120 $$
52	million tons) is represented by single-use packaging items, including carrier bags

53	(Kale et al., 2007; Hopewell et al., 2009; Geyer et al., 2017). Less than 30% of post-
54	consumer plastic is recovered for reuse or recycling for various reasons, including
55	difficulties of sorting plastic products from mixed waste, high cost of separate
56	collection, etc. (Geyer et al., 2017). In the case of single-use plastic packaging,
57	especially lightweight (LW; plastic bags less than 50 $\mu$ m thick) and ultra-thin (UT;
58	thickness less than 15 $\mu$ m) plastic bags, percentages of recovery are even lower, with
59	the bulk of these products being incinerated or ending up in landfills (Rivers et al.,
60	2017). However, due to their light weight and parachute-shaped design, these plastic
61	bags are also inadvertently dispersed in the environment. Because LW and UT
62	plastic bags are commonly manufactured from high-density polyethylene, their
63	persistence in the environment (e.g., soil, sea) as litter is a major environmental issue
64	(Napper and Thomson, 2019; Accinelli et al., 2012). In addition, after long exposure
65	to sunlight and to atmospheric agents, they become brittle and readily fragment into
66	small-sized, persistent particles, usually referred to as microplastics (MPs) (Ryan and
67	Moloney, 1990; Barnes et al., 2009). The term MP was originally proposed by
68	Thompson et al. (2004) in their studies on the effects of plastic debris on marine
69	ecology. MPs have since been found in surface water, debris and soil, as well as
70	seawater. MPs are defined not by the type of plastic they are made of, but by particle
71	size, so that MPs are defined as plastic particles that pass through a 5-mm sieve
72	(Arthur et al., 2009). Two major classes of MPs have been defined: (i) primary MPs,
73	which were plastic particles that were < 5-mm when they entered the environment,
74	such as microfibers from clothing, microbeads added to cosmetics as exfoliants and
75	microgranules added to detergents as foam suppressants; and (ii) secondary MPs,
76	which are < 5-mm plastic particles generated in the environment through
77	fragmentation of larger plastic items by natural weathering processes. An increasing
78	volume of evidence has shown that MP particles and films can be ingested by

79	wildlife, thus entering the food chain (Van Franeker et al, 2011; Besseling et al.,
80	2013; Huerta Lwanga et al., 2017). Other studies have indicated that the
81	environmental impact and health risk of MPs is greater than originally expected due
82	to their potential to selectively adsorb xenobiotics, and other chemical substances,
83	especially those with low water solubility (Velzeboer et al., 2014; Hodson et al.,
84	2017; Huerta Lwanga et al., 2016).
85	During the last decade, governments and other organizations worldwide have tried to
86	reduce the use of disposable plastic bags that are usually made of high-density
87	polyethylene in the form of thick film produced by the blown film extrusion process.
88	In England, Ireland, Greece, and other countries, the use of plastic bags plummeted
89	following the introduction of a charge for LW plastic bags (Xanthos and Walker,
90	2017). In other countries, including France, Italy, South Africa, and some states in
91	the United States have passed laws banning LW plastic bags. Alternatives to LW
92	plastic bags are available and allowed, including disposable paper bags, reusable tote
93	bags and compostable LW plastic bags, which are the preferred choice for many
94	supermarket consumers. In Italy, LW plastic supermarket bags were banned in 2011,
95	but UT plastic bags were excluded from the ban until 2018, when the ban was
96	extended to all but UT compostable plastic bags, resulting in the market for this
97	category of bags increasing to approximately 500 million dollars. Single-use UT
98	compostable plastic bags are manufactured with compostable plastic, and intended to
99	be disposed in organic waste collectors and then composted in industrial facilities.
100	In the last 40 years there has been increasing interest in using compost from
101	biological wastes in agriculture as a soil organic matter amendment. Source-
102	separated collection and composting of organic waste have gained importance as an
103	approach to reducing carbon footprints. However, use of different sorting procedures
104	and composting technologies results in differences in compost quality as measured

105 by factors such as total organic carbon content, C/N ratios, pH values, etc. Compost 106 quality is also affected by physical contaminant levels, including glass, metal and 107 plastic particles, which are routinely assessed gravimetrically by sieving the compost 108 through 4 and/or 2-mm sieve, then sorting and weighing unpassed material (Khalid et 109 al., 2017). Although thresholds for physical contaminants larger than 4 or 2 mm have 110 been established in various countries, the content of smaller-sized impurities, such as 111 plastic and compostable plastic particles, is not regulated or measured. As a result, it 112 is not known what effect application of compost from urban waste to agricultural 113 fields will have on MP contamination of agricultural soil, which may subsequently 114 enter surface waters (Rilling, 2012; Nizzetto et al., 2016b; Horton et al., 2017; 115 Rilling et al., 2017; Bläsing and Amelung, 2018; Weithmann et al., 2018; Chae and 116 Youn-Joo, 2018). Despite the growing concern about terrestrial contamination by 117 MPs, many other aspects of the phenomenon remain unclear or unexplored, 118 particularly for MPs generated from biodegradable and/or compostable plastic 119 packaging products. For example, investigations conducted with film fragments from 120 biodegradable agricultural mulching films have shown that these fragments are 121 frequently colonized by soil-borne fungi, including the aflatoxin-producing fungus 122 Aspergillus flavus and other mycotoxigenic fungi (Moore-Kucera et al., 2014). 123 The present study was undertaken to investigate the effect of UT compostable carrier 124 bags in soil in a defined, laboratory-based experimental system, in particular the 125 persistence of CFMPs in soil and their potential to alter the population size and 126 toxigenicity of A. flavus in CFMP-containing soil. 127 128 129

### 2. Materials and methods

# 132 2.1. Soil selection

- 133 Three soils with different A. *flavus* indigenous population sizes were selected for this
- study. Soils with low, medium, and high levels of *A. flavus* propagules were
- 135 collected in agricultural farms located in Northern Italy, Southern Italy and the
- 136 Mississippi Delta (U.S.), respectively. Properties of the three soils are presented in
- 137 Table 1. In each location, soil samples were collected from the topsoil layer (0-10
- 138 cm), passed through a 2-mm sieve and kept at 4 °C for no longer than 2 weeks.

139 2.2. Preparation of UT compostable plastic film samples

- 140 UT compostable bags (12-µm thin) obtained from Polycart S.p.A. (Perugia, Italy)
- 141 were cut into 2.8 cm x 6.0 cm rectangles or into 2.1 mm x 2.1 mm squares. In both
- 142 cases, compostable film samples were prepared to achieve single 2 mm x 2 mm
- 143 exposed film surfaces. Rectangle films were placed between two polyethylene nets
- 144 with mesh opening of either 2-mm or and 5-mm square, secured by hot-melt glue and
- then surface disinfected, as described in Accinelli et al. (2012).

Table 1. Properties of the three soils used in this study. Soil samples were collected from agricultural fields located in Southern (Low Af from 

Catania, Italy) and Northern Italy (Medium Af from Padova, Italy), and the Mississippi Delta (High Af from Stoneville, Mississippi, USA). Values

are average of five replicates.

Natural soil Aspergillus	il <i>Aspergillus</i> Soil textural class (particle size)		pН	Organic C	Aspergillus flavus level	
<i>flavus</i> level <sup>a</sup>	Sand	Silt	Clay			
	(%)	(%)	(%)		$(g kg^{-1})$	(cfu g <sup>-1</sup> ) <sup>b</sup>
Low Af	60.2	8.1	31.7	8.0	1.2	2.9
Medium Af	31.6	59.6	5.8	8.1	6.4	3.1
High Af	32.7	59.2	8.1	5.8	9.4	4.3

<sup>a</sup> Low natural A. *flavus* levels were found in soil from Northern Italy (Low Af); medium levels were in soil from Southern Italy (Medium Af); and high levels were in soil from the Mississippi Delta, USA (High Af). <sup>b</sup> Enumeration of colony forming units (cfu) of *A. flavus* by the procedure of Accinelli et al., 2014 

# 156 2.3. Soil incubation of UT compostable plastic film samples

157 Assembled UT rectangular films were then secured in centrifuge tubes (3.1 cm 158 diameter x 11.5 cm long) containing 50 g of soil. Another group of soil-containing 159 tubes were prepared with 2.1-mm square films, which were placed between two 2-160 mm square mesh of the same type described above. Each of these tubes contained 50 161 g of soil and 4 square films. In both rectangular or squared films, soil moisture of 162 each sample type was adjusted to the field capacity and samples were incubated at 25 163 °C in the dark in a ventilated incubator for 12 months. Soil moisture was monitored 164 at two-day intervals and water added as needed. At selected intervals, samples were 165 removed and processed for film degradation evaluation and microbiological analysis. 166 The experiment with rectangular UT films was also carried out using film samples 167 obtained from food waste disposal bags manufactured with recycled paper (Sumus 168 Italia s.r.l., Padova, Italy). For each film type and soil, six replicates were prepared, 169 including tubes with no films as controls.

170

#### 171 *2.4. Measurements of film deterioration and fragments enumeration*

172 At each sampling time, soil from tubes containing rectangular and square-shaped UT 173 films was transferred to clean 50-mL centrifuge tubes and placed under a dissecting 174 microscope equipped with a Nightsea Fluorescence Adapter (Electron Microscopy 175 Sciences, Hatfield, PA). Images were analyzed using the software imageJ version 176 1.50i (National Institutes of Health, Bethesda, USA) and film degradation was 177 calculated considering the total area of visible lacerations and holes, with respect to the exposed surface area  $(2.0 \text{ mm}^2)$  of single squares. In the case of the rectangular-178 shaped films, measurements were done considering the single 6 central 5 mm<sup>2</sup> grid 179 180 areas.

181	Fragments that were released from compostable film samples in the soil were
182	recovered by a modified density separation approach (Coppock et al., 2017). A 50-
183	mL centrifuge tube (lower tube) was connected to another tube with the same
184	diameter (upper tube) by means of a ball valve, mounted on a 4-mL cylinder. A
185	volume of 52 mL of a glycerol/water mixture (7:3, $v/v$ ) and 5 g of soil were loaded
186	into the upper tube and then mixed. After standing for 10 min in vertical position, the
187	ball valve was closed, and floating CFMPs were removed by washing the tube two
188	times with 7.5 mL of a 4% polyvinyl alcohol solution prepared in 1:1 water/ethanol
189	(v/v) (PVA; molecular weight ~195,000; Sigma-Aldrich KGaA, Darmstadt,
190	Germany). PVA dispersion was left to solidify for 2 hrs at 60 °C and particles were
191	subsequently enumerated and measured as described above.
192	
193	2.5. A. flavus isolation and aflatoxin biosynthesis
194	Soil from samples prepared with the single 2 mm x 2 mm square films were
195	transferred to a metal knurled plate (6 cm wide x 25 cm long) equipped with lateral
196	edges and mounted on an oscillator base unit. A thin (0.2 mm) circular (5-cm
197	diameter) surface-sterilized pieces of polyvinyl chloride foil with a central 4-mm
198	opening for securing a modified ionizer probe MJ II, which was attached to a
199	charging generator AG35 (Haug GmbH, Leinfelden-Echterdingen, Germany), was
200	positioned at a distance of 10 cm above the oscillating plate. Plates were oscillated
201	for 3-min intervals and attached UT film fragments were transferred to 9-cm
202	diameter plates containing potato dextrose agar (PDA) or modified rose Bengal agar
203	(MDRBA). Plates were then incubated at 25 °C and 37 °C, respectively. After 2
204	weeks of incubation, the percentage of UT film fragments colonized by A. flavus was
205	determined by visual observation using a dissecting microscope. Observations were
206	confirmed by sequencing analysis following the procedure described in Accinelli et

al. (2009), and sequences deposited in the NCBL GenBank database (accession
numbers from MN845191 to MN845210).

209 Thirty A. flavus isolates were then randomly picked from each size-class of incubated 210 film fragments and evaluated for their aflatoxin biosynthesis capability. Isolates were 211 grown in test tubes containing 2 mL of yeast extract sucrose broth and incubated 212 without shaking in the dark at 30 °C. After 7 days of incubation, broth was extracted 213 with chloroform and evaporated until dry under vacuum. Residues were dissolved in 214 methanol/H<sub>2</sub>O (70:30, v:v) and aflatoxin concentration determined by HPLC. 215 Samples were loaded on a minicolumn packed with aluminum oxide (Alltech Co., 216 Deerfield, IL), and 20 mL of the eluate injected on an HPLC system equipped with a 217 Nova-Pak C18 column (150 mm x 3.9 mm, 4 µm) and a multi-wavelength 218 fluorescence detector (Waters Inc., Macclesfield, UK). Chromatographic separation 219 was performed with a mobile phase consisting of water: methanol:1-butanol (60:25:1) and a flow rate of 0.9 mL min<sup>-1</sup> at 30 °C (Accinelli et al., 2016). Aflatoxins 220 221 were detected at 365 nm (excitation) and 440 nm (emission). Data are expressed as 222 total aflatoxins (aflatoxin B1, B2, G1 and G2) with the quantitation limits of 0.1 ng g<sup>-</sup> <sup>1</sup> of crude extracts. 223 224 Soil from incubated tubes were also used for quantitative polymerase chain reaction 225 (qPCR) for monitoring the A. *flavus* population over incubation time, following the 226 procedure described by Accinelli et al. (2016). Briefly, soil DNA was isolated using 227 the PowerSoil DNA isolation kit (MoBio Laboratories), following the 228 manufacturer's instructions. Recovered DNA was measured using a BioDrop 229 spectrophotometer (BioDrop Ltd, Cambridge, UK). Each 25 µL of reaction contained 230 12.5 µL of 2× TaqMan Universal PCR Master Mix (Applied Biosystems, Foster 231 City, CA), 0.2 µM of each primer, and 40 ng of DNA. Thermocycling conditions were as follows: 2 min at 50 °C, 10 min at 95 °C, 40 cycles of 15 s at 95 °C and 1 232

233	min at 60 °C. Reactions were performed using an Open qPCR (ChaiBio, Santa Clara,
234	CA). A standard curve ( $r2 = 0.92$ ; efficiency = 94%; slope = -0.21) was generated by
235	plotting cycle threshold values (Ct) against logarithmic-transformed amounts of
236	target DNA obtained from 10-fold dilutions of DNA isolated from A. flavus spore
237	dispersions.
238	
239	2.6. Statistical analysis
240	Mean values of data in single experiments were compared by Fisher's least
241	significant difference (LSD), and P values $< 0.05$ were considered statistically
242	significant.
243	
244	3. Results and discussion
245	3.1. CFMP deterioration and fragment formation
246	Extent of deterioration of CFMPs over the one-year period in the three selected soils
247	is shown in Fig. 1. During the first 3 months of incubation, surface deterioration of
247 248	is shown in Fig. 1. During the first 3 months of incubation, surface deterioration of 12- $\mu$ m thin films from compostable bags expressed as surface area loss was only
247 248 249	is shown in Fig. 1. During the first 3 months of incubation, surface deterioration of 12- $\mu$ m thin films from compostable bags expressed as surface area loss was only about 2.2% in soil with low <i>A. flavus</i> content, 5.6% in soil with medium <i>A. flavus</i>
247 248 249 250	is shown in Fig. 1. During the first 3 months of incubation, surface deterioration of 12- $\mu$ m thin films from compostable bags expressed as surface area loss was only about 2.2% in soil with low <i>A. flavus</i> content, 5.6% in soil with medium <i>A. flavus</i> content and 7.7% in soil with high <i>A. flavus</i> content. At the end of the 12-month
247 248 249 250 251	is shown in Fig. 1. During the first 3 months of incubation, surface deterioration of 12- $\mu$ m thin films from compostable bags expressed as surface area loss was only about 2.2% in soil with low <i>A. flavus</i> content, 5.6% in soil with medium <i>A. flavus</i> content and 7.7% in soil with high <i>A. flavus</i> content. At the end of the 12-month incubation period, film deterioration accounted for 4.1, 9.8, and 14.8% of the total
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247 248 249 250 251 252 253 254 255 256 257	is shown in Fig. 1. During the first 3 months of incubation, surface deterioration of 12-µm thin films from compostable bags expressed as surface area loss was only about 2.2% in soil with low <i>A. flavus</i> content, 5.6% in soil with medium <i>A. flavus</i> content and 7.7% in soil with high <i>A. flavus</i> content. At the end of the 12-month incubation period, film deterioration accounted for 4.1, 9.8, and 14.8% of the total surface in low, medium and high <i>A. flavus</i> containing soils, respectively. Low rates of deterioration (> 6% surface area loss) were also observed in a recent agricultural field soil burial study conducted in the northern USA for 12 months with bioplastic mulching films having a chemical composition comparable to those used in this study (Li et al, 2014). Data from the current study were generated by incubating film samples from plastic bags compostable industrially under conditions favorable to

259	fruits and vegetables in supermarkets and grocery stores in Italy. According to the
260	Italian law, allowed UT bags must satisfy the EN 13432 standard, which includes
261	90% mineralization within 6 months and 90% disintegration to fragment having a
262	size less of 2 mm within 3 months under industrial composting conditions
263	(temperature approximately of 60 $^{\circ}$ C, high humidity, etc.). Since compostable plastic
264	fragments less than 2 mm in size are not quantified in the final product from the
265	industrial composting process, it is not regulated by the EN 13432 or other
266	international standards (e.g., ISO, EN, ATSM, etc.). Therefore, the application of
267	industrially processed compost to agricultural fields is likely to contaminate the soil
268	with these UT film particles. Considering the size of single exposed film squares (< $2$
269	mm <sup>2</sup> ) used in this study and their slow deterioration in soil, our findings are
270	consistent with the above assumption. Except for Italy, where plastic bags have been
271	banned, other alternatives for customers are allowed, including paper bags, reusable
272	plastic bags, reusable cotton net bags, etc. The experiment described here was thus
273	repeated with sheets of the paper found in paper grocery bags. As expected,
274	deterioration of these cellulose-based sheets was rapid, and was completed within 3
275	months of incubation in all of the three soils (data not shown). In the biodegradability
276	evaluation standard test of packaging materials in soil and/or compost (i.e., ISO
277	17556:2012, ATSM D 5988-12), pure cellulose powder is used as reference material
278	(e.g., positive control) for assessing the biodegradation capability of a substrate's
279	biomass. To eliminate any possible complications caused by shape and dimension,
280	test materials are added to the substrate as powder. Cellulose-based foils that were
281	used for this experiment were manufactured from recycled paper items, with the
282	additions of natural wax for preventing tear-off. Sheets have a lesser exposed surface
283	area than powder and, in addition, a wax lining reduces the high wettability of
284	cellulose (Sintim and Flury, 2017). Although both aspects are expected to delay

285 microbial attack, the observed rapid deterioration of cellulose sheets demonstrated286 that the three soils were conducive to microbial activity.

287 In recent years, with the increasing number of bioplastic-based products that have 288 entered the market, studies concerning their environmental impact have received 289 growing interest. Nowadays, most of the commercialized bioplastic products are 290 single-use items (e.g., grocery bags, dishes, cutleries, etc.), which are specifically 291 designed to be disposed of in industrial composting facilities. Consequently, for 292 regulatory purposes and product certification requirements, published studies have 293 mainly focused on mineralization and/or deterioration of bioplastic under controlled 294 composting conditions (Harrison et al., 2018; Herman et al., 2011; Yagi et al., 2012; 295 Emadian et al., 2017). In contrast, information concerning the fate of these products 296 in natural environments (e.g., soil, sea water) is very limited and little information on 297 the release of microplastic particles or films into soil or other environments is 298 available in the literature (Accinelli et., 2012; Balestri et al., 2019). 299 The present study was conducted using samples of UT bioplastic bags labelled with the brand name Mater-Bi<sup>®</sup>, which are of the same type of bioplastic as those 300 301 provided in all Italian supermarkets and grocery stores. Grocery store bags 302 manufactured with poly(butylene adjate coterephtalate) (approximately 70%), 303 thermoplastic starch (approximately 30%), and minor amounts of synthetic additives 304 have been studied (Zuo et al., 2019). Their chemical composition, in addition to the 305 white pigment that is used for coloring these bags, greatly facilitated their 306 visualization under UV light. In preliminary experiments that were carried out in this 307 laboratory following the procedure described by Ernie-Cassola et al. (2017), 308 fluorescence of film fragments was increased by staining films with Nile red dye. 309 However, these studies showed that addition of dye was not necessary to correctly

310 visualize film fractions (data not shown). For this reason, and to avoid possible dye 311 effects on microbial degradation, staining of UT film was not done in this study. 312 Enumeration of released fragments during soil incubation of CFMPs is reported in 313 Fig. 1. As expected, the total number of detached fragments steadily increased over 314 the incubation period. At the end of the 12-month incubation period, the number of 315 recovered fragments was 5.5, 4.7, and 5.1 times higher than that recorded at the first 316 sampling time (i.e., 3 months) in the low A. flavus, medium A. flavus and high A. 317 *flavus* soils, respectively. While the percent of fragments greater than 0.07 mm in 318 size decreased during the incubation time and those between 0.07 and 0.05 mm 319 remained approximately constant, the percent of smaller fragments (i.e., < 0.05 mm) 320 showed an approximately 50% increase, with no significant differences among the 321 three soil types (Fig. 2). During the same time interval, the increase in released 322 fragments was up to 4-fold higher than the increase in deteriorated film area. 323 The fate of microplastic in soil is still largely unexplored (Nizzetto et al., 2016a; 324 Rilling et al., 2017). Studies have shown that these fragments selectively adsorb 325 organic pollutants onto their surfaces, and also have the potential to negatively affect 326 germination and early growth of herbaceous plants (Zuo et al., 2019; Balestri et al., 327 2019). The number or mass of small-sized plastic and compostable plastic film 328 fragments (i.e., fragments with size less than 2 or 4 mm) remaining in composted 329 products is not subject to government regulations at present. If our laboratory 330 findings are confirmed in ongoing field studies, the observations suggest that this 331 type of regulation should be seriously considered. Soil tillage, especially plowing, is 332 expected to spread plastic fragments throughout the soil profile, which may increase 333 the risk of them entering subsurface waters or exposing fragments to surface run-off 334 and wind transportation (Rilling et al., 2017).



Figure 1. Deterioration of microplastic compostable films (CFMP) (upper) and abundance of

- 337 released fragments (lower) from incubated samples of soil from Northern (Low A. flavus soil)
- and Southern Italy (Medium A. *flavus* soil), and the Mississippi Delta (High A. *flavus* soil).
- Bars with same letter are not significantly different (P > 0.05).



340



342 compostable films (CFMP) that were incubated in samples of soil from Northern Italy (Low

- 343 A. flavus soil), Southern Italy (Medium A. flavus soil), and the Mississippi Delta (High A.
- 344 *flavus* soil). Fragments were grouped in different size classes and data expressed as
- 345 percentage of fragments per surface area of CFMP. Bars with same letter are not significantly

 $346 \quad \text{different (P > 0.05).}$ 

### 347 3.2. Occurrence of A. flavus in compostable films and soil

Percentages of film fragments infected by the filamentous fungus A. flavus over the 348 349 12-month incubation period are summarized in Table 2. During the entire incubation 350 period, the relative frequency of contaminated CFMPs remained significantly higher 351 in the high A. *flavus* soil than in the other two soils. These results and those in Table 352 1 and Table 3 are consistent with the colonization rate of CFMPs being related to the 353 size of the A. *flavus* population in the soil. In contrast, and despite differences in the 354 size of the indigenous A. flavus soil populations, the frequency of A. flavus-infected 355 fragments was not significantly different (P > 0.05) between the low A. *flavus* soil 356 and the medium A. *flavus* soil (Table 2). These findings are consistent with Mater-Bi<sup>®</sup> starch-based bioplastic having a substantial ability to support the growth of this 357 358 fungus (Accinelli et al., 2009; Accinelli and Abbas, 2011; Moore-Kucera et al., 359 2014), a property which has been used to develop practical applications of it in 360 agriculture. For instance, the size of soil A. flavus populations in soil can be effectively monitoring by inserting baiting rods manufactured from Mater-Bi<sup>®</sup> 361 362 starch-based bioplastic into the soil (Accinelli et al., 2012). At selected sampling 363 time, baits are removed and analyzed for the number of A. flavus propagules. 364 Another technique relying on the rapid growth of this fungus on starch-based 365 bioplastic matrices involves field application of granular or sprayable bioplastic-366 based formulations containing adherent spores of non-aflatoxin-producing A. flavus 367 isolates. It is well established that A. *flavus* populations in soils are composed of 368 both aflatoxin- and non-aflatoxin producing isolates (Abbas et al., 2009). After 369 application of these bioplastic-based formulations, the fungus begins rapid growth, 370 competing with indigenous aflatoxin-producing isolates, resulting in a reduction of 371 risk of aflatoxin contamination of corn (Accinelli et al., 2009, 2012, 2016).

As indicated in Table 2 for the high *A. flavus* level soils, the percentage of *A. flavus* colonized fragments increased after 6 and 9 months of incubation. No further increases were observed at 12-month sampling time, when up to 75.4 % of the compostable fragments were infected by the fungus. Similar findings were observed in the low and medium *A. flavus* level soils, except that in these soils the relative increase was even more pronounced.

378 In the present study, A. *flavus* isolates that were recovered from detached fragments 379 were evaluated for their aflatoxin-producing ability. As indicated in Table 3, the 380 frequency of aflatoxigenic isolates was significantly higher after 9 and 12 moths of 381 incubation for all soils. Data from qPCR analysis showed that the size of the soil A. 382 *flavus* population increased during the incubation time, especially in the low level A. 383 *flavus* soil (Table 1 and Table 2). More specifically, DNA of this fungus showed 384 average increases of 119, 81.9, and 57.6 % during the 12-month incubation period in 385 the low, medium and high A. flavus level soils, respectively, while no significant 386 changes were observed in the control soils. These results are consistent with the 387 occurrence and accumulation of bioplastic film fragments in soil impacting the 388 composition of the soil microbial population. The health risk of increasing the soil A. 389 *flavus* population has already been identified by other researchers (Moore-Kucera et 390 al., 2014; Brodhagen et al., 2015) and this fungus is of particular concern for 391 asthmatic and immunosuppressed individuals. In addition, the elevated A. flavus 392 levels at an increased percent aflatoxigenicity are expected to substantially increase 393 aflatoxin contamination of crops grown in the soil. 394 In an exhaustive review, Brodhagen et al. (2015) stressed that incorporation of 395 bioplastic fragments into the soil is expected to increase the number of fungi, 396 especially filamentous fungi, capable of using them as nutrient sources. Research has

397 shown that fungi belonging to the genus *Aspergillus* are frequently detected in

398	starch-based bioplastic buried in soil, along with other mycotoxin-producing fungi
399	(i.e., Fusarium spp., Penicillium spp.) (Moore-Kucera et al., 2014; Bergenholtz and
400	Nielsen, 2002; Accinelli et al., 2009, 2012; Kim et al., 2000). Factors affecting the
401	ratio between aflatoxigenic and non-aflatoxigenic isolates in natural environments
402	(i.e., soil) remain unclear (Drott et al.; 2019), although it is widely believed that A.
403	flavus uses aflatoxins to kill competitors, so that these mycotoxins provide a selective
404	advantage in densely populated microbial environments. In this study the largest
405	increases in percent aflatoxigenicity were observed when A. flavus populations were
406	the highest incorporation. The physical form of CFMPs produced in soil from
407	compostable UT bioplastic films results in a very high surface-to-mass ratio and it is
408	expected that the large nutrient-releasing surface area would be conducive to the
409	growth of aflatoxin-producing A. flavus isolates. Further studies are needed to
410	determine if these observations can be replicated under field conditions and if the
411	physical form and composition of these CFMPs contribute to unusually large
412	increases in A. flavus levels and aflatoxigenicity.

413 Table 2. Relative frequency of *Aspergillus flavus* infection of compostable film microplastic (CFMP) fragments and percent aflatoxigenicity of *A*.

414 *flavus* isolates recovered from incubated soil samples with low, medium and high levels of indigenous A. *flavus* 

415

	% A. flavus	-infected fragmen	ts in soils	% of <i>A</i> . <i>fla</i>	wus isolates proc	lucing aflatoxin
	with differe	ent indigenous A. f	<i>lavus</i> levels			
Incubation time (days)	Low Af <sup>b</sup>	Medium Af	High Af	Low Af	Medium Af	High Af
3	39.2 a	41.3 a	52.5 c	27.2 a	31.0 a	32.3 a
6	47.4 b	53.4 b	67.1 e	29.0 a	29.6 a	27.3 a
9	74.0 c	75.4 c	88.4 f	44.5 b	40.2 b	46.3 b
12	75.2 d	79.1 c	86.0 f	68.0 c	61.3 c	63.2 c

416 <sup>a</sup> For each column, values with same letter are not significantly different form each other (P > 0.05).

417 <sup>b</sup> Low natural *A. flavus* levels were found in soil from Northern Italy (Low *A. flavus* soil); medium levels were in soil from Southern Italy (Medium

418 A. flavus soil); and high levels were in soil from the Mississippi Delta, USA (High A. flavus soil).

Table 3. Total *Aspergillus flavus* DNA recovered from incubated soil samples containing microplastic compostable films (CFMPs). Soil were
collected from Northern Italy (Low *A. flavus* soil), Southern Italy (Medium *A. flavus* soil) and the Mississippi Delta (High *A. flavus* soil). Samples
with no CFMPs were included (Control). For each soil, values with same letter are not significantly different (P > 0.05).

			Aspergillus flo	<i>wus</i> DNA (ng g <sup>-1</sup> )	)	
	Low A. flavus soil		Medium	A. flavus soil	High A. flavus soil	
Incubation time (d)	Control	CFMPs	Control	CFMPs	Control	CFMPs
0	48.2 a	-	82.2 b	-	133.2c	-
3	44.1 a	51.0 a	78.3 b	75.7 b	104.5 c	102.3 c
6	49.1 a	69.6 b	74.6 b	82.3 b	112.1 c	112.0 c
9	51.0 a	78.7 b	79.0 b	101.4 c	134.0 c	137.0 d
12	44.3 a	111.8 c	84.1 b	137.7 d	128.0 c	161.2 e

#### 4. Conclusions

424 In recent years, there has been increasing interest in using bags for groceries and 425 other goods that are made of bioplastic materials intended for disposal under 426 industrial composting conditions. However, when these materials are placed in soil, 427 and presumably during industrial composting processes, variable numbers of small-428 sized fragments or compostable film microplastic particles (CFMPs) are generated 429 and they unavoidably contaminate either the soil in which they were formed or soil 430 that has been amended with industrially composted material. The results of this 431 study show that under controlled laboratory conditions CFMPs are degraded very 432 slowly in soil, suggesting that if similar rates of CFMP degradation occur in field 433 soil, these small-size fragments may accumulate in the soil at higher levels than 434 currently expected. In addition, as observed by others, we have observed that in soil 435 under controlled laboratory conditions, naturally-present Aspergillus flavus fungus 436 associated with deteriorating CFMPs, which then resulted in increases in the size and 437 percent aflatoxigenicity of the A. flavus soil population.

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# **Declaration of interests**

 $\boxtimes$  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.

□The authors declare the following financial interests/personal relationships which may be considered as potential competing interests: