

1 Soil-biodegradable plastic films do not decompose in a lake sediment over 9 months
2 of incubation

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18 **Abstract**

19 Agriculture relies heavily on the use of plastic mulch films, which increase crop yields
20 and can lower water demands. In recent years, soil-biodegradable mulch films have
21 been marketed to replace the non-biodegradable, conventional polyethylene-based
22 mulch films. These biodegradable mulch films are designed to be ploughed into the
23 soil after use to biodegrade *in situ* by soil microorganisms. However, research has
24 shown that part of the mulch film material may be transported from the fields to
25 neighboring environments, including aquatic ecosystems. Research on potential
26 biodegradation of soil-biodegradable plastics in freshwater habitats is lacking. Here,
27 we investigated the mineralization of soil-biodegradable agricultural mulch films in
28 freshwater lake sediments of Lake Lucerne, Switzerland. Two types of commercial
29 soil-biodegradable mulch films were incubated within lake sediment cores, along with
30 traditional PE plastic, and the production of CO₂ and CH₄ was followed over time
31 relative to non-plastic containing control sediments. After the 40-week incubation
32 period, films were visually intact and showed no signs of mineralization. Gas
33 analyses showed no additional production of either CO₂ or CH₄ in the degradable
34 mulch film incubations, compared to control or PE plastic incubations. We conclude
35 that these two used soil biodegradable mulch films have a low biodegradability in
36 lake sediments, likely reflecting that the microbial community structure in the lake
37 sediment lacks active microbial degraders. Our results highlight the importance of
38 preventing transport of soil-biodegradable mulch films from agricultural soils to
39 surrounding aquatic environments.

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42 Introduction

43

44 Part of the solution to overcoming plastic pollution in the environment is to use
45 biodegradable plastic instead of conventional plastics in applications in which
46 plastics are used in the open environment and for which complete recollection of the
47 plastic after use is impossible. A picture-case example are thin agricultural mulch
48 films. Modern agriculture relies heavily on the use of plastic mulch films to elevate
49 soil temperature and maintain soil moisture, to provide protection and to prevent
50 weed growth. Conventional mulch films are composed of polyethylene (PE). If these
51 films are thin, they cannot readily be reused nor recycled after application, which
52 means they need to be incinerated or landfilled after single use (Serrano-Ruiz et al.,
53 2021). Such a short life-cycle of plastic products is undesirable, and both incineration
54 and landfilling are considered undesirable end of life treatment options. Another
55 disadvantage of conventional thin (<25 μm) mulch films is that they cannot easily be
56 re-collected entirely after their application, leaving PE plastic residues in the soil.
57 Because PE films persist, these residuals build up in soils over time, eventually
58 harming agricultural productivity (Gao et al., 2019). Furthermore, the films may
59 slowly decompose into microplastics. Both macro- and microplastics have been
60 shown to be transported by wind and water, away from the initial application site,
61 towards waterways, lakes and coastal seas (Egessa et al., 2020; Ren et al., 2021;
62 Yang et al., 2022), where they have been shown to cause harm to the ecosystem
63 (Galloway et al., 2017; Hale et al., 2020).

64 In an attempt to limit soil plastic pollution, the agricultural industry has developed
65 soil-biodegradable mulch films as substitutes of conventional films. These soil-
66 biodegradable films can be composed of different materials, for example biologically
67 derived polymers, forms of polysaccharides, polypeptides, but also lipid based
68 products, and are designed to be degradable by soil microorganisms under the
69 moisture and temperature conditions found in the soil environment (Yang et al.,
70 2020). A standard has been set by the EU (2018 EU standard EN 17033) for the
71 biodegradability of mulch films named as such. In general, the biodegradation of the
72 soil-biodegradable mulch films (hereafter referred to as BD-films) involves two
73 stages: i. Breakdown of the large pieces into small organic molecules by abiotic or
74 biological (enzymatic) processes. II. Uptake and metabolic use of these organic
75 molecules by microorganisms under conversion into CO₂ and microbial biomass
76 (Zumstein et al., 2018).

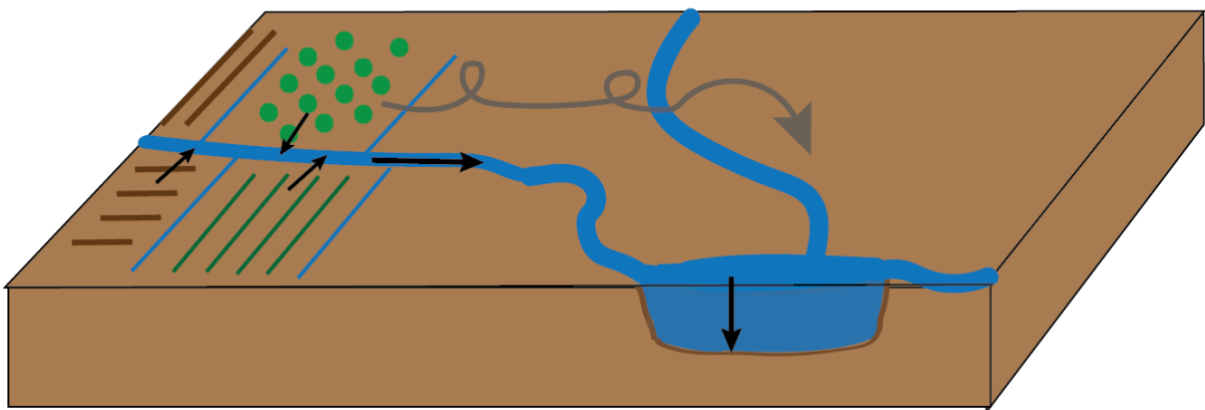
77 Soil-biodegradable mulch films are designed to be biodegraded in soil. It is, however,
78 possible that fragments of the of BD-films may be transported away from agricultural
79 soils before being completely biodegraded. While we are not aware of studies
80 specifically on the transport of BD- films, transport of conventional mulch films by
81 wind or water has been observed (Dris et al., 2015; Ren et al., 2021; Yang et al.,
82 2022).

83 Earlier studies have shown successful biodegradation of BD-films in soil
84 environments (Li et al., 2014; Sintim et al., 2020), with complete biodegradation
85 being predicted to take several years. Research on the aquatic biodegradation of
86 BD-plastics is predominantly focused on the marine realm. There, several studies
87 have shown microbial colonization on BD-plastics (Eich et al., 2015; Nauendorf et
88 al., 2016; Morohoshi et al., 2018), and some showed a disintegration of the plastics
89 over time (Briassoulis et al., 2020; Lott et al., 2020; Wei et al., 2021), although these
90 studies were not performed on mulch films, but on other BD-plastic products, such
91 as bags. The transferability of studies on different BD-plastics is limited, but as there

92 are currently no studies on BD mulch films in the aquatic environment available, we
93 still introduce these studies on other BD plastic products here. All the above
94 presented studies are disintegration studies, which generally cannot distinguish
95 whether BD-plastics merely physically degraded into smaller particles (i.e.,
96 fragmentation), or whether they have been microbially biodegraded, resulting in
97 microbial biomass and CO₂ and/or CH₄ production, which makes an assessment of
98 the mineralization of the BD plastics difficult. A recent study by Lott et al. 2021 (Lott
99 et al., 2021) measured marine biodegradation of BD plastic components (PHB,
100 PBSe) by CO₂ measurements, in experiments with marine sediments. There, they
101 found a 116 and 222 days in incubation experiments under benthic and eulittoral
102 marine conditions.

103
104 Here, we determine the biodegradability of BD- films in freshwater lake sediments by
105 performing sediment incubation studies with two types of soil-biodegradable, and
106 one traditional PE plastic mulch films. Our results show that none of the tested films
107 biodegraded over the 40 weeks incubation period: we detected no excess production
108 of CO₂ or methane in the incubation experiments with BD-plastics as compared to
109 PE-films and plastic-free control sediments. Furthermore, there were no signs of any
110 physical degradation of any of the films after the 40 weeks incubation. Our findings
111 suggest that the conditions in the tested sediment, likely including abiotic factors
112 (unfavorable temperature and water chemistry) and biotic factors (low abundance
113 and activity of BD-MF degrading microorganisms) impaired biodegradation in the
114 lake. Our findings suggest significant higher stability of soil-biodegradable mulch
115 films in lake sediments than soils, highlighting the need for measures to control off-
116 field transport of soil BD-films.

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119
120 Fig. 1. Transport of plastics from agricultural sources to lake sediments, either via
121 water ways or via wind transport.

122

123

124 **Methods**

125

126 Sediment collection

127 Sediment cores were taken from Lake Lucerne (Switzerland) at 46°59'38"N
128 8°20'57"E in June 2021, at an approximate water depth of 40 m. Multiple
129 deployments with a multicorer device were used to collect the required number of
130 sediment cores, which were later randomly distributed over the treatments.
131 Sediments were collected into 10 cm diameter, transparent butyrate plastic core
132 liners. All sediment cores were brought into a climate room of 10°C (to mimic the
133 temperature of Lake Lucerne bottom waters, see (Fiskal et al., 2019)) within 2 hours
134 after core collection.

135

136 Gas analysis incubation experiment

137 To determine the production of CO₂ and CH₄ from the sediments, 16 cores were
138 setup for incubation studies in the 10°C climate room. An overview of the
139 experimental setup is presented in Fig. 2. Four cores did not receive any treatment
140 (film-free control group), four cores were supplied with PE films, and eight with
141 biodegradable mulch films purchased from two Swiss agricultural vendors: four cores
142 received BD mulch films purchased from Sansonnens FG Frères SA (Rueyres-les-
143 Prés, Switzerland), called MF-S from here on, and four with biodegradable plastics
144 purchased from Gvz-rossat AG (Otelfingen, Switzerland), called MF-R from here on.
145 These plastics are classified as 'OK biodegradable soil' by TÜV Austria, and are
146 composed mainly of PBAT and polylactic acid (PLA)(Nelson et al., 2019). The
147 plastics (all kinds) were cut and weighted. Each core received 300 milligrams of
148 plastics, folded multiple times to form a rectangular stack. To increase the surface
149 area for degradation and to make the stacks of plastic film loose, rather than
150 squeezed together, the plastics were cut into comb shaped pieces (see Fig. S1 for
151 plastics weights and shape), which allowed sediment between the folded layers. Part
152 of the water was removed from each core, to allow for an air headspace above the
153 overlying water. The oxygen concentration in the headspace was not tracked, but
154 results from earlier experiments with the same sediments showed oxygen was not
155 completely consumed over one year's time.

156 For a part of the cores, the stopper at the bottom was pushed upwards slightly (5-15
157 cm) to decrease the water and headspace volumes above the sediment surface, to
158 create more equal headspace volumes in each core. This type of cores was
159 distributed over the treatments (2 per treatment). The procedure was not repeated
160 for all used cores, because not all stoppers turned out to be tight enough to be
161 pushed up and remain in position. All cores, pushed up or not, had a 7 cm height gas
162 headspace (± 550 cm³). Water headspace volumes varied between cores. One of the
163 PE cores leaked water over the course of the experiment and was therefore
164 discarded from the results. Films (biodegradable/PE) were pushed into the sediment
165 surface (1-2 cm). Each of the cores was closed off with an adapted stopper, that
166 contained two sampling ports, as specified in van Grinsven et al. (in prep). These
167 stoppers allowed for non-invasive gas sampling over the course of the experiment.
168 The cores were incubated in the dark at 10°C for 40 weeks. Gas samples (10 mL)
169 were taken monthly. The removed gas was resupplied with N₂ gas to prevent
170 underpressure in the cores. The volume of gas exchanged on a monthly basis was
171 less than 2% of the gas headspace. Gas samples were pushed into 60 mL serum
172 bottles containing N₂ gas, which were analyzed for CO₂, CH₄ and N₂O

173 concentrations. Gas samples were analyzed by gas chromatography (GC; Agilent
174 6890N, Agilent Technologies) using a Carboxen 1010 column (30 m x 0.53 mm,
175 Supelco), a flame ionization detector and an auto-sampler (Valco Instruments Co.
176 Inc.)

177 The change in headspace CO₂ and CH₄ concentration over time was taken as a
178 measure of biodegradation. The headspace CO₂ and CH₄ concentrations of all
179 cores of each treatment were averaged. The data of each individual core is shown in
180 the supplemental material (Fig. S2; S3).

181

182 Visualization incubation experiment

183 Identical cores were used for the gas analysis and visualization experiments. 12
184 cores were used for the visualization experiment: four cores received PE plastics,
185 four cores MF-S BD-plastics, and four cores MF-R BD-plastics, as shown in Fig. 2.
186 No control cores were included, as these experiments were purely used for
187 visualization of the extracted plastics, and control experiments would therefore not
188 result in any results, as nothing could have been visualized. As a smaller quantity of
189 plastics could be added to the visualization experiments, the plastics did not need to
190 be folded, and therefore, they were not cut either (Fig. S1). Two unfolded pieces of
191 plastics were added to each core. No cores were pushed up and no headspace was
192 created, the cores were filled with water up to the stopper, to cause minimal
193 disturbance and to keep conditions close to *in situ* conditions. Bottom water
194 contained around 400 μM of oxygen at the start of the experiment. Earlier
195 experiments showed limited oxygen consumption over the course of one year. Non-
196 adapted stoppers were used, as these cores were not subsampled over the course
197 of the experiment. Incubation occurred in parallel to the gas analysis experiment, at
198 10°C in the dark.

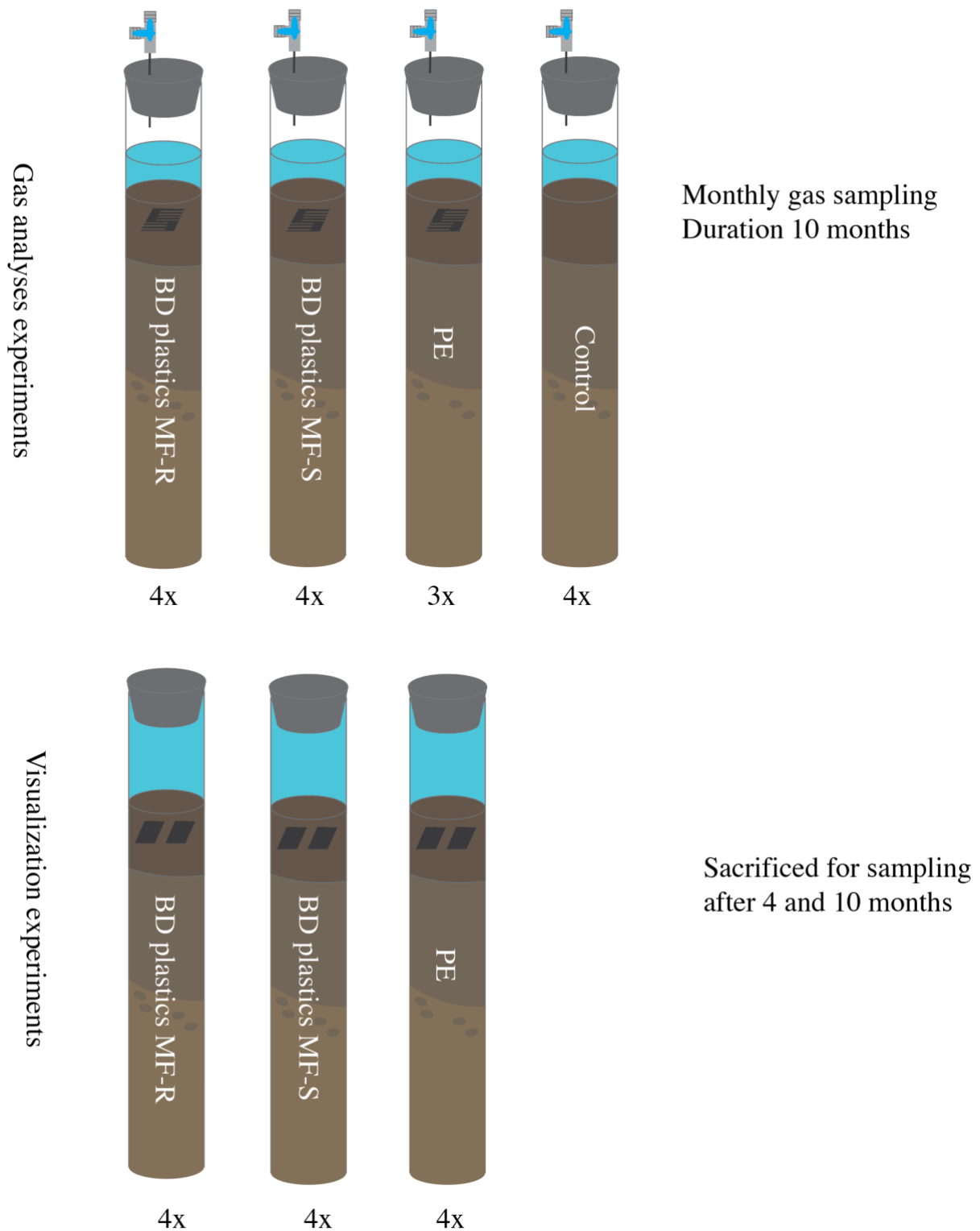
199 After 18 weeks, two cores per treatment were sampled and sacrificed. The plastics
200 were removed from the sediments with tweezers, pulled through the overlying water,
201 and put into a 4% paraformaldehyde solution overnight at 4°C to fixate the samples.
202 The samples were then rinsed twice with PBS 1x to remove paraformaldehyde, and
203 then stored at -20°C until further usage. This was repeated after 40 weeks for the
204 remaining sediment cores.

205

206 (Biodegradable) plastic samples were used for microscopy after all samples were
207 retrieved at the end of the experiments. Samples were stained with DAPI 1 mg mL⁻¹
208 and placed on microscope slides with a mounting and anti-fading medium. The
209 samples were viewed under a Leica fluorescence microscope with 100x and 400x
210 magnification, to look for biofilm growth and visible degradation of the plastics.

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213
 214 **Fig. 2.** Experimental setup. The gas analysis experiments contained a headspace to
 215 allow for gas sampling, via a sampling port. The visualization experiments had no
 216 gas headspace, the entire space above the sediment was filled with *in situ* bottom
 217 water. No control experiment was included in the visualization experiments, as these
 218 experiments were solely used for microscopy of the retrieved plastics (see methods).
 219 All experiments were performed at *in situ* (Lake Lucerne) temperature, in the dark.
 220 BD – Biodegradable; PE – polyethylene; MF-R and MF-S – Biodegradable mulch
 221 films of two Swiss companies (see methods).

222 Results

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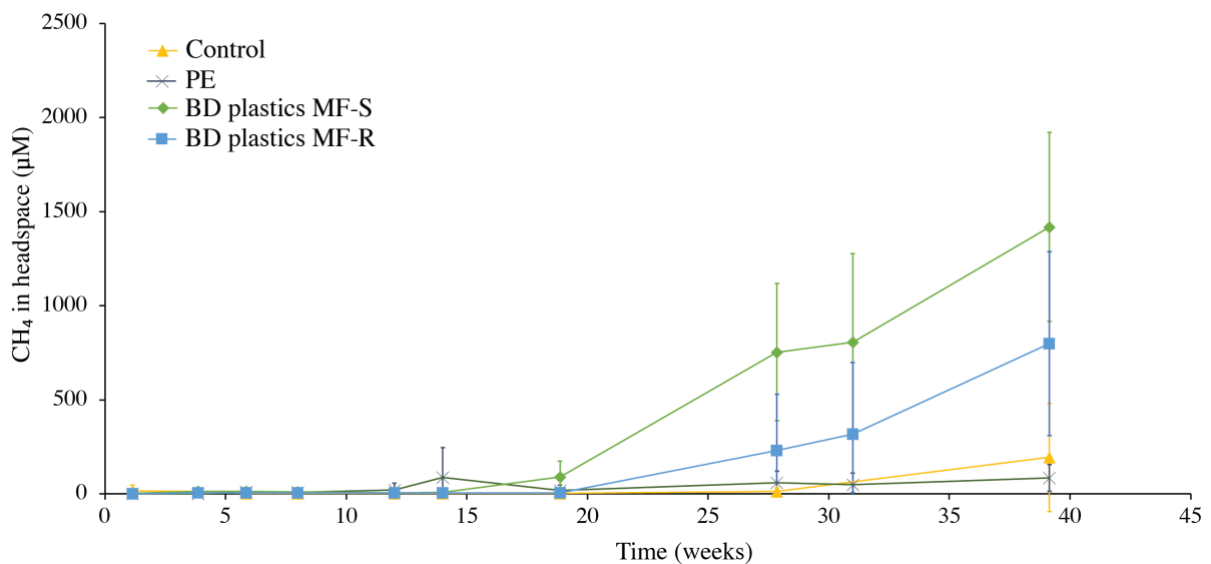
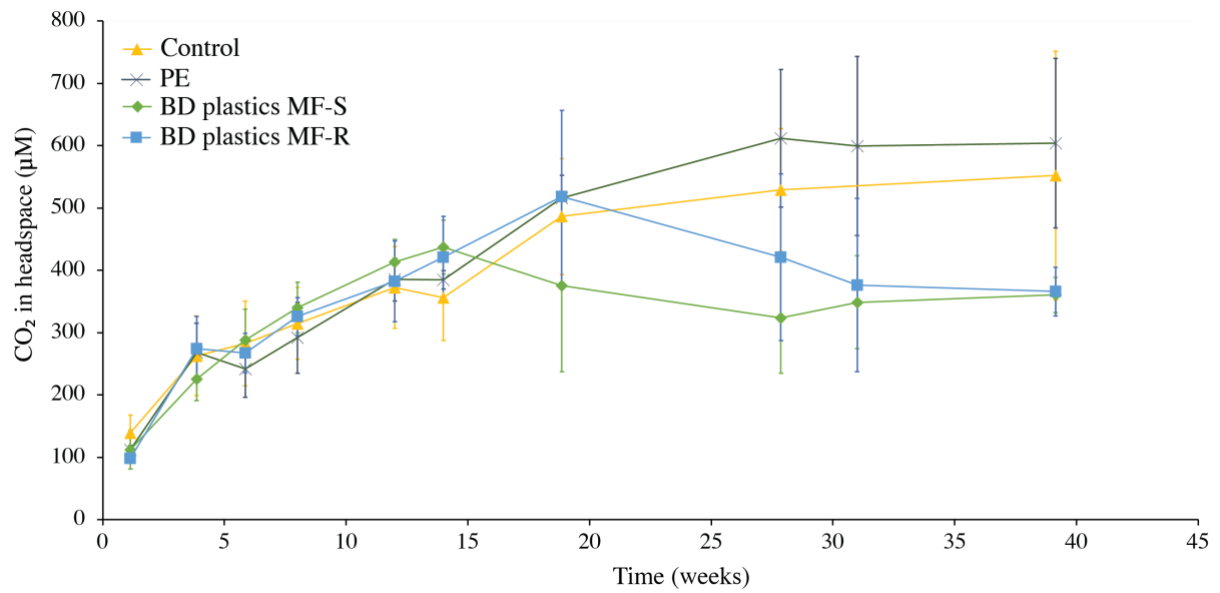
224 Concentrations of CO₂ and methane in the gas headspace of the sediment cores
225 were followed over the course of the experiment, to assess plastic biodegradation.
226 Given the organic composition of each of the plastics types, being composed of
227 organic polymers, CO₂ and possibly CH₄ were expected to be key biodegradation
228 products, alongside with microbial biomass.

229 Overall, the change in CO₂ concentration over time did not differ significantly
230 between any of the treatments, including the control (pairwise ANOVA with post-hoc
231 analyses with a Bonferroni adjustment revealed that all the pairwise differences
232 between groups were not statistically significantly different, $p > 0.05$). During the first
233 20 weeks, the four treatments behave similarly, with a steady increase in headspace
234 CO₂ concentration, with an exception of MF-S, which started to differ from 15 weeks
235 onwards (Fig. 3). From 20 weeks (15 for MF-S) to the termination at 40 weeks, the
236 concentration change differed slightly between treatments, but variation within
237 treatments was large, and the difference between groups not statistically significant,
238 as described above. In the incubations with PE-films, the CO₂ concentration
239 increased until week 30 and then stabilized. In the control experiment, this
240 stabilization was observed from week 20 until week 40. In both the BD-plastics
241 treatments, a decrease in the CO₂ concentration relative to the preceding weeks was
242 observed in the middle part of the incubation period, from either week 15 or 20 (MF-
243 S and MF-R, respectively) to week 30, after which the concentrations stabilized.
244 Individual cores, however, showed variations within the treatments, and the
245 difference between treatments were not statistically significant, as stated above.
246 Overall, the results show that the BD-plastics treatments did not produce larger
247 amounts of CO₂ than the control (no addition) treatment.

248 Methane production from all sediments, including the control treatment, remained
249 around zero from week 0 to week 15. After week 15, the methane concentration in
250 the PE treatments increased slightly (Fig. 3; more detailed view available in the
251 supplemental information, Fig. S4), and in the BD-plastics treatment MF-S, more
252 pronounced. In the control experiment, methane concentrations dipped slightly below
253 the starting concentrations, but then increased from week 28 onwards, albeit with
254 large variations between individual sediment cores. Both BD-plastics treatments
255 showed large increases in relative amounts of methane from week 20 onwards,
256 although the large variations between individual cores within the treatments lead to
257 large, overlapping error bars. The stabilization of the CO₂ concentration and the
258 increase in CH₄ concentration in the BD-plastics experiments matched timewise,
259 both occurring from week 15 - 20 onwards, although the increase in CH₄ continued
260 after week 28, when the CO₂ concentration in the BD-plastics experiments had
261 stabilized.

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266 Fig. 3. Headspace CO₂ and methane concentrations, in µM. An excerpt of the CH₄ graph,
267 with a smaller y-axis, is available in Fig. S4.

268

269 Visualization of the plastic film surfaces after retrieval from the sediments after 40
270 weeks did not show any clear signs of degradation or biofilm formation, on any of the
271 film types (PE, MF-S, MF-R; Fig. S5). DAPI staining showed a low number of
272 microbes on the plastics' surfaces. Both regular and microscopic visualization, of all
273 types of used plastics, showed no variation in the appearance between the end to
274 the start of the experiment.

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278 Discussion

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280 The biodegradability of BD-plastic films depends largely on the match between their
281 composition and the environment. In soils, BD mulch films have been shown to
282 biodegrade successfully (Li et al., 2014; Sintim et al., 2020). However, due to this
283 required match between the properties of the material and the in situ conditions for
284 biodegradation, transport of BD mulch films to aquatic environments could result in a
285 buildup of material, as is suggested by our results. The biodegradability of the mulch
286 films investigated in this research is in strong contrast to the biodegradability of these
287 films under previously investigated soil conditions. Whereas within several soils,
288 substantial degradation of the incorporated BD-plastic films was observed (11-98%
289 after 12 months (determined by 'percentage of area remaining', (Li et al., 2014); 12-
290 23% degradation of powdered BD-plastics after 28 days (determined by weight loss;
291 Adhikari et al., 2016)), no biodegradation could be observed in our sediment
292 experiments, neither based on produced CO₂ nor from visual analysis by
293 microscopy. Similar conclusions were drawn based on a 100-day marine, coastal
294 zone sediment experiment (Nauendorf et al., 2016), even though biofilm growth on
295 biodegradable plastic bags (composed of biodegradable polyester and corn starch)
296 was observed in that study. Freshwater BD-plastic degradation studies are more
297 rare, and are focused on biofilm formation, rather than on biodegradation rates
298 (Morohoshi et al., 2018). As observed by Nauendorf et al. (2016), biofilm formation
299 and degradation are not necessarily related. Most marine sediment studies combine
300 a biofilm assessment with visual assessments of degradation, but don't quantify the
301 degradation, neither respiration nor fragmentation. Quantification of degradation
302 percentages based on assessment of the remaining plastics is difficult, as
303 microparticles, that form as a result of physical breakdown, are difficult to recover
304 and quantify (Wei et al., 2021). Furthermore, weight assessments are often
305 unreliable, as microbial biomass, attached to the plastics is difficult to remove
306 completely without disturbing the plastic mass itself (Nauendorf et al., 2016). Our
307 results show a large variation between individual incubations, within treatments (Fig.
308 S2). Sediment cores were all taken from the same location, but by several multicorer
309 casts. Potentially, variations between the cores existed from the start, for example in
310 the amount of carbon present in each sediment core. By randomly distributing the
311 cores over the treatments, we have guaranteed that this did not cause a biased
312 result in the treatment comparisons. It may, however, have resulted in larger
313 variations within treatments. Furthermore, it is possible certain cores were more
314 disturbed than others while being transported to the lab, resulting in slightly changed
315 oxygen conditions within the upper cm of the cores. Overall, the effect of the
316 treatments did not exceed the variation between incubations within each treatment
317 (Fig. 3), indicating there was no strong treatment effect.

318

319 The BD mulch films used in this study were designed to degrade in agricultural soils.
320 A major difference between aquatic sediment conditions and soils may be the
321 oxygen availability: due to the low diffusion speed of oxygen through water, oxygen
322 is limiting in lake sediments, despite oxygen-rich overlying water. Lake Lucerne,
323 where the sediments used in this study were collected, is an oligotrophic lake, with a
324 high oxygen availability in the bottom waters (which was also remained during the
325 experiment duration). In Lake Lucerne sediments, oxygen has been shown to be
326 depleted from 1.0 cm downwards (Fiskal et al., 2019). The plastics were buried
327 shallowly in the sediments, and will, at least partly, have been surrounded by

328 sediments containing dissolved O₂ (DO) in our experiments. Although exact DO
329 penetration depths can only be determined with micro-sensors, we can assume
330 initial oxic conditions here, based on the natural oxygen penetration depth of these
331 sediments (Fiskal et al., 2019), the oxygen concentration in the overlying water
332 ($\pm 400 \mu\text{M}$, Fiskal et al., 2019), and the disturbance caused by the pushing of the
333 plastics into the sediments, bringing oxygen-rich water in contact with the sediment
334 surrounding the plastic film. After the initial oxic conditions, DO may have become
335 depleted within the originally anoxic sediment depths ($> 1 \text{ cm}$), or shallower.
336 Although under oxic conditions, microbial growth and substrate turnover is expected
337 to occur more rapidly, earlier research showed similar BD-plastic biodegradation
338 rates under oxic and anoxic conditions, despite higher microbial biomass formation
339 on BD-plastics under oxic incubation conditions (Nauendorf et al., 2016). The onset
340 of methane production in our incubations, from week 15 onwards, paired to the
341 stabilization of the CO₂ concentration, suggests anoxic conditions established after
342 15 weeks into the experiments. Although the increase in methane concentration in
343 our MF-S and MF-R experiments could suggest enhanced breakdown of the BD-
344 plastics, it's timely match to the decrease in CO₂ production, rather suggests that the
345 respiration of sedimentary carbon, rather than the BD-plastics carbon, is being
346 degraded, similarly to the control and PE experiment. It is, however, interesting to
347 note that the BD-plastics experiments experienced this oxic-anoxic conversion,
348 whereas the control and PE plastics didn't.

349
350 Within soil experiments, several biotic and abiotic factors affect the extent of
351 biodegradation. As the used BD-mulch films are designed to biodegrade in soils, we
352 also consider these factors to compare the biodegradation in the aquatic realm to
353 that of the soils. A first factor would be abiotic fragmentation by photodegradation,
354 which requires sunlight to reach the plastics. In soils, photodegradation affects the
355 plastics, decreasing their quality and molecular weight (Zhang et al., 2021). In
356 shallow surface waters, photodegradation may also affect plastic degradation. Our
357 experiments, with sediment cores of 40 m water depth, were performed in the dark,
358 as photodegradation is not relevant at such water depths. For future studies, pre-
359 degradation of plastics by photodegradation, prior to incorporation into the sediment,
360 would be interesting, as further discussed below. Besides photodegradation, Li et al.
361 (2014) identified soil pH, soil temperature, and fungi abundance as potential factors
362 for differences between degradation efficiency between sites. (Sander, 2019)
363 suggested nitrogen limitations in soils may affect and limit BD-plastic biodegradation,
364 as the N-poor BD-plastics solely supply the colonizing microorganisms with carbon,
365 hydrogen and oxygen-rich compounds, and not with nitrogen. Organisms will
366 therefore have to acquire nitrogen from different sources, which, if not sufficiently
367 available, may limit growth and activity of the BD-plastic-colonizing and degrading
368 organisms. (Lopardo et al., 2019) showed that the addition of BD-plastics to
369 aquaculture eluent filters can improve nitrogen removal efficiency, by providing a N-
370 limited carbon source. Lake Lucerne sediments have been shown to contain
371 relatively high amounts of nitrate, up to around 10 cm depth ($2 \mu\text{M}$ at 2.5 cm, $33 \mu\text{M}$
372 at 0.5 cm depth, (Fiskal et al., 2019). Nitrogen limitation is therefore not expected to
373 have limited microbial colonization or growth in the experiments, although more
374 research would be needed to determine the limiting factors for microbial growth. The
375 here-used mulch films were new, and not deployed on agricultural fields prior to
376 incubation. Therefore, their degradation status might differ from a part of the mulch
377 films that enter aquatic environments from agricultural fields. It is, however, unknown

378 what is the general state of plastics when they are transported towards the aquatic
379 ecosystem. Newer BD mulch foils are more likely to still contain the most labile,
380 easily degradable compounds, which may be degraded after deployments in fields,
381 either by chemical or biological degradation, On the other hand, used mulch films are
382 more likely to contain a larger surface area, and are more likely to already contain a
383 biofilm. Further research on a potential priming effect of soil pre-incubation, is
384 necessary. Furthermore, it would be interesting to test other lake environments, such
385 as eutrophic lakes, which differ in microbial and chemical composition from the
386 currently studied lake Lucerne (van Grinsven et al., 2022).

387
388 The limited mobility of soil bacteria has earlier been suggested to potentially limit
389 colonization of BD-plastics in soils, as direct contact is required between the soil and
390 plastics to allow for colonization (Sander, 2019). Such problems may, however, be
391 easier overcome within aquatic environment, as the water-saturation allows for a
392 higher mobility of microbes and an easier exchange of compounds via diffusion and
393 flow. However, the community of microorganisms may differ strongly between soil
394 and sediment environments, mostly due to different redox and nutrient conditions
395 between the two environments. As the genera of microbes that are capable of BD-
396 plastic degradation are still being investigated and discovered, especially in
397 freshwater environments, it is not possible to simply scan the microbial community
398 for BD-plastic degraders, and make an assessment on the potential for
399 biodegradation based on the microbial community composition. We did not
400 determine the microbial community composition in these experiments, as the results
401 would most likely not have been able to provide us information on the plastic
402 degradation: the sedimentary microbial community is highly diverse, differs strongly
403 with depth, and contains many organisms with unknown functions (Han et al., 2020).
404 The lack of suitable BD-plastic degrading microorganisms is, however, the most
405 likely explanation for the large difference in BD mulch film decomposition between
406 our sediment experiment, and previously performed soil experiments. The sediments
407 likely lack microorganisms that produce hydrolytic enzymes (esterases) that can
408 cleave PBAT and PLA, the main polyesters in the used BD-films. When specific
409 genes known to be associated to BD plastic degradation are identified in the future, it
410 would be interesting to screen our incubation experiment sediments for those genes,
411 to confirm such a hypothesis.

412

413 **Conclusions**

414 Two types of biodegradable plastic mulch films showed no signs of degradation over
415 a 10-month period within lake surface sediments, suggesting very limited
416 biodegradability in freshwater sediment environments. These findings stress the
417 importance of limiting the transport of plastics from agricultural soils to waterways –
418 not only for traditional plastics, but also for soil biodegradable plastics. Given that
419 these plastics are designed to remain in the soil rather than to be removed after use,
420 they remain present in the natural environment until complete degradation. The
421 extent of the transport of BD mulch films from soils to waterways and lakes is up to
422 this point unknown. Our results show it is of high importance to investigate how
423 much of the applied biodegradable mulch films are transported to aquatic
424 environments, to be able to assess the potential pollution of lakes and coastal areas
425 by the current and future applications of biodegradable plastic mulch films.

426

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428

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432 with the incubation experiments.

433

434 **Competing interests**

435

436 The contact author has declared that neither they nor their co-authors have any
437 competing interests.

438

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