

1 **Biodegradable plastic bags on the seafloor: a future threat for**  
2 **seagrass meadows?**

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26 ABSTRACT: Marine plastic litter is a global concern. Carrier bags manufactured from non-  
27 biodegradable polymers constitute a large component of this litter. Because of their adverse impact  
28 on marine life, non-biodegradable bags have recently been replaced by biodegradable ones.  
29 However, growing evidence shows that these latter are not readily degradable in marine sediments  
30 and can alter benthic assemblages. The potential impact of biodegradable bags on seagrasses  
31 inhabiting sandy bottoms, which are the most widespread and productive ecosystems of the coastal  
32 zones, has been ignored. Mesocosm experiments were conducted to assess the effect of a  
33 commercialized biodegradable bag on a common seagrass species of the Mediterranean,  
34 *Cymodocea nodosa*, both at the level of individual plant (clonal growth) and of plant community  
35 (plant-plant relationships), under three culture regimes (plant alone, in combination with a  
36 neighbour of the same species or of the co-existing seagrass *Zostera noltei*) simulating different  
37 natural conditions (bare substrate, monospecific meadows or mixed meadows). The bag behaviour  
38 in marine sediment and sediment physical/chemical variables were also examined. After six months  
39 of sediment exposure, the bag retained considerable mass (85% initial weight) and reduced  
40 sediment pore-water oxygen concentration and pH. In the presence of bag, *C. nodosa* root spread  
41 and vegetative recruitment increased compared to controls, both intra- and interspecific interactions  
42 shifted from neutral to competitive, and the growth changed from guerrilla to phalanx but only with  
43 *Z. noltei*. These findings suggest that biodegradable bags altering sediment geochemistry could  
44 promote the spatial segregation of seagrass clones and influence species coexistence.

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50 Keywords: biodegradable plastic, marine environment, plant interaction, seagrasses, sediments.

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52 **1.Introduction**

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54 Plastic pollution in the marine habitat is an environmental, growing problem at global scale  
55 (Derraik, 2002; Gross, 2013). Plastic carrier bags composed of polyethylene or polypropylene are a  
56 major component of the plastics accumulated in the marine environment (seawater and seafloor,  
57 Galgani et al., 1995; Thompson et al., 2004; Carson et al., 2011). Due to their extreme durability  
58 and adverse impact on marine organisms, these bags have been banned in many countries and  
59 replaced by biodegradable bags typically made from renewable raw materials such as starch or  
60 cellulose or bio-synthesized materials (Convery et al., 2007; UNEP, 2015). These materials are  
61 generally hygroscopic and/or have higher density than seawater thus the bags tend to settle onto the  
62 seafloor (Andrady, 2011) where they may be eventually entangled in marine vegetation and/or  
63 buried by sand. However, the expected benefits conferred by the increased use of biodegradable  
64 bags to marine organisms and ecosystems have been recently questioned (Accinelli et al., 2012;  
65 Tosin et al., 2012; Green et al., 2015). In fact, most polymers presently used for manufacturing  
66 biodegradable carrier bags (Accinelli and Abbas, 2011) are designed to breakdown into water,  
67 carbon dioxide/methane and biomass in a short time via microbial assimilation under standard  
68 conditions (i.e. soil, home or industrial compost facilities) that are generally not encountered in  
69 marine habitats. Very few companies worldwide claim to produce polymers designed to be  
70 biodegradable under marine environments (ASTM D7081-05), but the pass/fail criteria adopted for  
71 establishing the degradability are based on standard laboratory tests and their results cannot be  
72 extrapolated to real marine conditions. Indeed, the rate of degradation of bioplastics in marine  
73 environments strongly depends on local characteristics (including type of bacteria and organisms  
74 present, light, temperature and oxygen) and the compartment to which they are disposed, i.e.  
75 floating in seawater (pelagic zone) or in the seabed (Andrady, 2015). Studies have shown that some  
76 starch-based plastic bags degrade only partially after 236 days under sublittoral conditions (Tosin et  
77 al., 2012) remaining accessible for a given time to a suite of organisms living at or in the sediments.

78 The persistence of this material also inhibits gas changes between the overlying water and pore  
79 waters, and the resulting hypoxia or anoxia may alter macrobenthic community structure and  
80 interferes with the normal functioning of associated ecosystems (Green et al., 2015).

81 Surprisingly, no attention has been paid to assess the fate of plastics deposited on sandy bottoms  
82 colonized by marine vegetation (seagrasses) and their potential effect on plant growth. Seagrasses  
83 are clonal plants that colonize shallow coastal waters and estuaries in all continents except  
84 Antarctica (Short et al., 2007) and form both monospecific meadows dominated by a single  
85 foundation species and mixed meadows composed of species with different structural  
86 characteristics and functional traits (Duarte, 2000). Seagrasses depend on resources and conditions  
87 both above and within the sediments and are sensible to deterioration of sediment quality, although  
88 some species are able to cope with sediment alterations modifying biogeochemical conditions in  
89 their rhizosphere (Marbà and Duarte, 2001; Gacia et al., 2002; Borum et al., 2006). Seagrass  
90 meadows are vital to coastal ecosystems, provide numerous ecological services to human society  
91 (maintenance of marine biodiversity, regulation of the quality of coastal waters, protection of the  
92 coastline) and play a fundamental role in structuring communities (Costanza et al., 1997; Cullen-  
93 Unsworth and Unsworth, 2013). However, many species are presently under threat worldwide from  
94 localized (e.g., water pollution, eutrophication) and global stressors e.g., climate change),  
95 necessitating strategies to prevent further vegetation losses (Orth et al., 2000; Short et al., 2011).  
96 Currently, the amount of biodegradable plastics improperly discharged entering into the ocean it is  
97 unknown, but it is expected to become similar to the overall plastic input in future (UNEP, 2015).  
98 Therefore, understanding whether, and if so how, discarded biodegradable bags will influence the  
99 establishment, expansion and functioning of seagrass meadows in future is crucial.

100 In this study, we assessed in mesocosm the effect of a common type of bag manufactured with a  
101 starch derived polymer (Mater-Bi), which is available in the European market and certified as  
102 compostable and biodegradable, on the development of clones of a widely-distributed seagrass of  
103 the Mediterranean Sea, *Cymodocea nodosa* (Ucria) Ascherson. Specifically, we investigated the

104 response of the species to the bag, both at the level of individual plant (architecture and growth  
105 potential) and at plant community level (plant-plant interactions), over the first growing season (six-  
106 months) and under three culture regimes mimicking different naturally occurring situations: plant  
107 alone (i.e. when a clone colonizes novel substrate areas), in the presence of a neighbour of the same  
108 species (i.e., when a clone establishes into a monospecific stand) or of another seagrass, *Zostera*  
109 *noletii* Hornemann (i.e., when a clone establishes in a mixed stand). The behaviour of the bag in the  
110 marine sediment and its effect on sediment physical-chemical parameters, both in the absence of  
111 established vegetation and in the presence of *C. nodosa* or *Z. noletii*, were also examined in a  
112 parallel mesocosm experiment. The two species have contrasting clonal growth form and may  
113 coexist intermixed forming mixed beds (Kraemer and Mazzella, 1999). *C. nodosa* produces long  
114 internodes that ensure rapid and great occupation of new areas, and forms highly intermingled  
115 clumps of genets across the bed according to the guerilla-like growth form (Duarte et al., 2006). In  
116 contrast, *Z. noletii* produces short internodes, characteristics of the phalanx-like growth form  
117 (Ruggiero et al., 2005), and has a more compact structure that leads to uniform distribution of  
118 genets within the bed. We are particularly interested on the potential effect of the bag on the  
119 strength and direction of interactions both among clones of the same species and of different  
120 coexisting species, as plant-plant interactions and environmental stresses play a fundamental role in  
121 structuring plant communities and associated ecosystems (Tilman et al., 1981; Connell, 1983;  
122 Goldberg and Barton, 1992; Rose and Dawes, 1999).

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## 124 **2. Materials and methods**

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### 126 **2.1. Experimental set-up and plant material**

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128 All the experiments were carried out in an aquaculture system (INVE Aquaculture Research  
129 Centre) located at Rosignano Solvay (Italy) that consisted of separate outdoor tanks (7000L) with

130 continuous flow of natural seawater equipped following a protocol previously established for  
131 successfully growing seagrasses (Balestri and Lardicci, 2012). The seawater level in the tanks was  
132 maintained at 0.5 m. Seawater temperature ranged from 16 to 25.8 °C, pH was 8-8.2, and salinity  
133 varied between 37.6 and 38.4 over the experimental period.

134 The type of biobag used in this study (“MB” hereafter) consists of Mater-Bi obtained from  
135 vegetable oils and corn starch (Novamont, <http://www.novamont.com/>) and it is certified as  
136 compostable under EN 13432 conditions and can be processed in home composting systems  
137 (Vincotte certification). Before the start of the experiment, MB bags were cut into equal pieces (14  
138 cm x 14 cm,  $0.48 \pm 0.04$  g dry weight, 20  $\mu$ m of thicknesses). These pieces were placed in a tank at  
139 seawater-air surface and left to settle onto the bottom to simulate the natural entering in the marine  
140 environment from land sources. To establish plant cultures, plagiotropic rhizomes of *C. nodosa* and  
141 *Z. noltei* were collected in April 2016 in a shallow meadow (0.5 m depth) where the two species  
142 coexist (North western Mediterranean, Livorno, Italy). Collected plants were gently washed free of  
143 any adhering sediment particles and transported in seawater from the sampling site to the laboratory  
144 and planted within 2 h of sampling. Both the species exhibit typical unimodal growth at the  
145 collection site, reaching maximum development in summer and a cessation of growth in winter  
146 (Terrados and Ros, 1992; Marbà et al., 1996).

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## 148 **2.2. Behaviour of the bag buried in sediment and sediment variables**

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150 To examine the behaviour of the bag in marine sediments, 72 mesocosms (20 cm diameter x 19  
151 cm depth) made in a non-biodegradable copolymer, polypropylene (Nuova Pasquini & Bini, Italy,  
152 [www.pasquiniibini.it](http://www.pasquiniibini.it)) were filled with natural sediment consisting of silica sand (<0.6-1 mm,  
153 <0.01% organic content) in March 2016. In each pot, a controlled-release fertiliser (Cifo Italy, N: P:  
154 K 20:10:10; six months) was applied at a rate of 1 g l<sup>-1</sup> of sediment to assure the establishment of  
155 plants. The pots, hereinafter referred to as mesocosms, were placed in a tank and randomly assigned

156 to one replicate of two treatments, bag addition or positive control. In the bag addition treatment,  
157 one bag piece was individually inserted into the top 5 cm of sediment in the centre of the mesocosm  
158 while in the control a cellulose filter paper (15 cm diameter, Whatman n° 40) was inserted in the  
159 sediment. This latter treatment was used to assess whether the environment was sufficiently  
160 microbial active for biodegradation of starch/cellulose material. Each piece of bag or paper was  
161 individually inserted into a nylon mesh bag (1 mm mesh size) prior to be buried in the sediment to  
162 avoid the loss of particles due to fragmentation. The nets were retrieved from sediment every 15  
163 days over six months (three replicates per treatment and harvest) and all material contained in each  
164 net was washed in distilled water, dried to constant weight (40 °C), weighed after sieving (2 mm  
165 sieve) with a digital microbalance (KERN ABT 220-50M, 0.1 mg accuracy). Weight loss of the bag  
166 as function of time was determined as difference between the final weight and the initial weight of  
167 bag and expressed in percentage. This test does not demonstrate biodegradability per se but gives  
168 data useful to predict the extent and rate of disintegration of the plastic material in real marine  
169 environments (EN 13432, 2000). At the end of the experiment, sub-samples (9 mm x 8 mm) of bag  
170 film were cut from freshly collected samples, washed with sterile water, dried using the critical  
171 point drying method, coated with gold-palladium (10 nm thickness) and then visualized under a  
172 scanning electron microscopy (SEM; JEOL USA JSM-5410) to examine changes in surface  
173 morphology and microbial growth. In addition, sub-samples of the same size were cut from  
174 untreated bag (pristine samples) at the beginning of the experiment and examined under SEM.

175 Additional mesocosms (18) were used to assess the individual and interactive effects of bag and  
176 seagrass vegetation on physical-chemical sediment parameters (temperature, pH and oxygen  
177 concentration). The experiment was a fully factorial design involving bag treatment (one bag piece  
178 was inserted directly into the sediment or no bag addition, control) and vegetation type (one  
179 rhizome of *C. nodosa* or *Z. noltei* was planted into the sediment or bare sediment) as fixed  
180 orthogonal factors (three replicates per each treatment combination). The temperature of sediment  
181 was measured every two weeks over the experimental period by carefully pushing the sensor of a

182 portable digital thermometer in the top 5 cm of sediment at the centre of each mesocosm. At the end  
183 of the study, pore-water samples were collected in the sediment by carefully inserting in the centre  
184 of each mesocosm (-5 cm) a 25-ml vacuumed sterile plastic syringe connected to a bottle.  
185 Immediately after collection, oxygen concentration in pore-water samples was measured using an  
186 electrode connected to a portable dissolved oxygen meter (OxyGuard Handy Polaris) while pH was  
187 measured using a portable pH/Redox meter (OxyGuard Handy Polaris). The electrodes were  
188 regularly calibrated with standard solutions and cleaned after each measurement.

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### 190 **2.3. Effect of bag on *Cymodocea nodosa* clonal growth and plant-plant interactions**

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192 In March 2016, 36 pots (25 cm diameter x 23 cm depth) filled with natural sediment as described  
193 above were equally distributed in two tanks and left undisturbed for 25 days to allow natural  
194 colonization. In April, collected plants were cut into apical rhizome fragments of similar size (7-8  
195 cm long with a mean of  $3.1 \pm 0.3$  SE shoots for *C. nodosa*, and 2-2.5 cm long with a mean of  $2.6 \pm$   
196  $0.07$  shoots for *Z. noltei*). Each fragment of *C. nodosa* was tagged in the youngest internode and  
197 randomly assigned to the treatments. The experiment had a mixed factorial design with tank as  
198 random factor (A or B), and bag (bag presence or no bag, control) and culture regime (plant alone,  
199 monoculture or mixed culture) as fixed orthogonal factors. In the bag treatment, one bag piece of  
200 the same size of that used for the experiment described above was previously horizontally inserted  
201 into the top 5 cm of sediment in the centre of the microcosm, while no bag piece was added in the  
202 control but the sediment was manipulated as that of treatment to avoid possible artefact effects. In  
203 the plant alone regime treatment, one individual of *C. nodosa* was planted into the sediment at the  
204 periphery of the mesocosm (i.e., in absence of interaction). In the monoculture treatment, two  
205 individuals of *C. nodosa* were planted in the mesocosm (i.e., in presence of intraspecific interaction)  
206 while in the mixed culture treatment one individual of *C. nodosa* was planted along with one of *Z.*  
207 *noltei* (i.e., in presence of interspecific interaction). There were three replicates for each treatment



208 combination in each tank. Plants were grown for their first growing season, and during this period  
209 the position of the mesocosms into each tank was randomly reassigned once a week to minimize  
210 position effects on plant performance. Plants were checked every week and new shoots recorded.  
211 All plants were carefully harvested for measurements in September 2016, before leaves entered the  
212 senescence stage, and washed in seawater to remove the sediment. As the complete bag degradation  
213 was not achieved, plants were not destructively measured and then replanted into their original  
214 mesocosm for further study. Eight metrics of plant performance were used: total length of newly  
215 produced plagiotropic (horizontal) rhizomes, total number of new alive shoots and new rhizome  
216 branches, mean rhizome internode distance (spacer length), maximum leaf length, total number of  
217 new main roots and average total number of laterals on main roots. From these data, we calculated  
218 the following variables: shoot recruitment expressed as total number of newly produced shoots  
219 (both alive and dead) per plant relative to the initial number of shoots and shoot mortality estimated  
220 as number of dead shoots per plant relative to the total number of shoots (initial plus newly  
221 produced). The final number of alive shoots of *Z. noltei* was also determined. To examine how bag  
222 affects plant-plant interactions we calculated the index of relative interaction intensity (RII) (Armas  
223 et al., 2004) based on the total length of newly produced rhizome of the target plant (*C. nodosa*) for  
224 each treatment:

225

$$226 \quad \text{RII} = (\text{RL1} - \text{RL0}) / (\text{RL1} + \text{RL0}) \quad (\text{eqn 1})$$

227

228 where RL1 is the mean total length of the rhizome of *C. nodosa* at the same bag treatment level  
229 (bag addition or control) grown with a conspecific *i* or with a neighbour of *Z. noltei* *j* and RL0 is the  
230 is the total length of rhizome of *C. nodosa* grown alone. RII values indicate the outcome of  
231 interactions as negative (from -1 to 0, competition), neutral (equal to 0, no competition) and  
232 positive (from 0 to 1, facilitation).

233

## 234 **2.4. Statistical analyses**

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236 One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed on the number of shoots of *C. nodosa*  
237 fragments randomly assigned to the different treatments at the start of the experiment to check for  
238 no difference in initial size. Three-way ANOVAs were separately performed to investigate the  
239 effect of tank, bag and culture regime, individually and in combination, on *C. nodosa* selected plant  
240 variables at the end of the experiment. Two-way ANOVAs were used to assess the effect of bag and  
241 vegetation type, individually and in combination, on sediment variables measured at the end of the  
242 study. Two-way ANOVAs were also individually performed to examine the effect of tank and bag  
243 treatment on RII values calculated for intra-specific and inter-specific interactions. To test for  
244 significant difference of RII values for intra and interspecific interaction from zero (no significant  
245 plant interaction) between treatments (presence or absence of the bag), *t* single mean tests were  
246 separately performed. Finally, two-way ANOVA was performed to test for differences in final  
247 number of shoots *Z. noltei* between tanks and treatments (bag presence and control). When the main  
248 test was significant, a post hoc pairwise comparison of the means (Student Newman SNK test, at  $\alpha$   
249 = 0.05) was conducted to ascertain the a priori hypotheses. Before the analyses, data were checked  
250 for both normality (using Shapiro-Wilk test) and homogeneity of variance (using Cochran's test).  
251 Total length of newly produced rhizome and initial number of shoots of *C. nodosa* were log  
252 transformed while spacer length was square root ( $x + 1$ ) transformed before analysis. In all the  
253 figures the data are depicted in terms of the untransformed variable.

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## 255 **3. Results**

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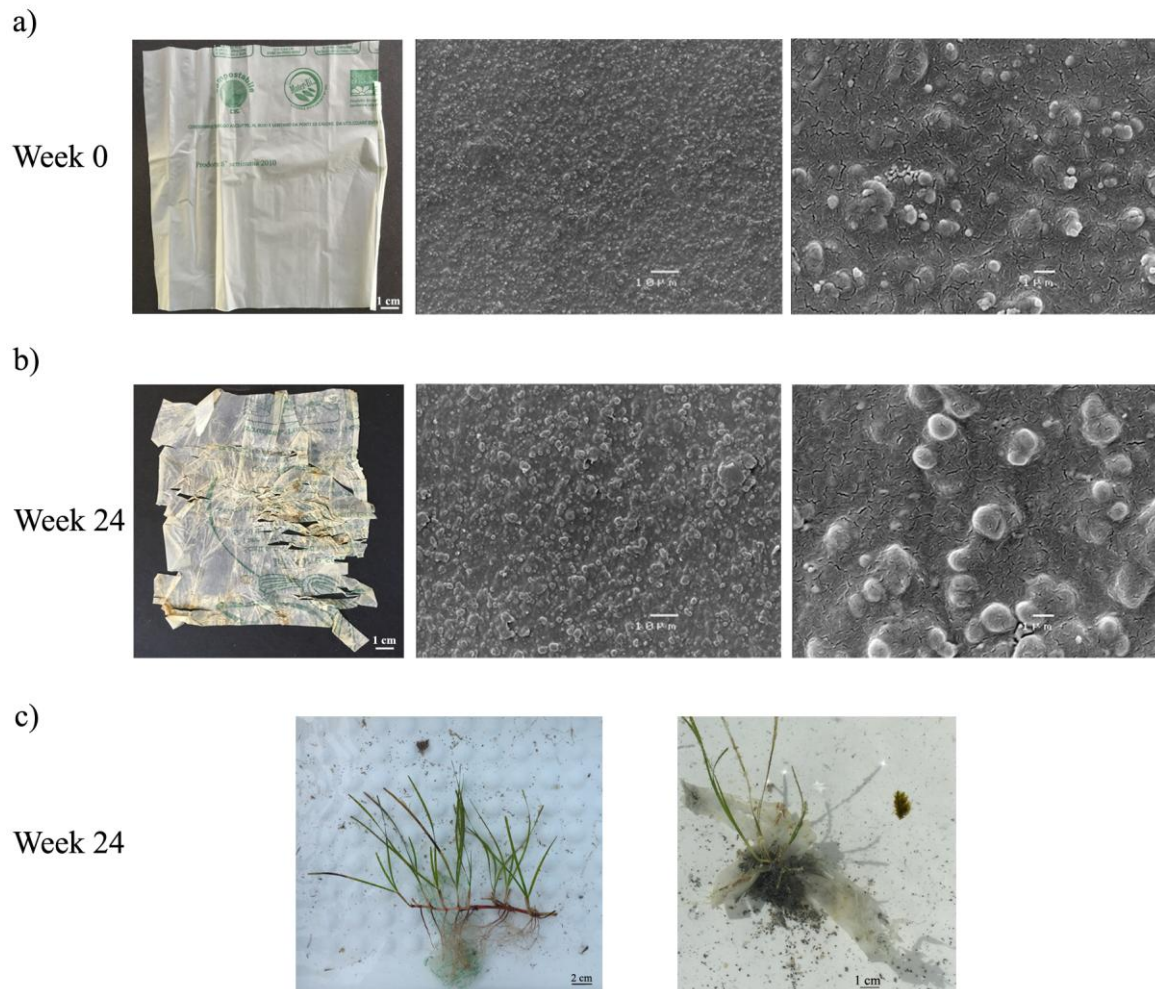
### 257 **3.1. Behaviour of bag buried in sediment and effect on sediment variables**

258

259 Qualitative assessment of MB bag buoyancy showed that the bag remained at the seawater-air  
260 interface for 10-25 minutes before to sink and settle onto the bottom. Bag pieces and filter paper  
261 samples buried in bare sediment exhibited progressive changes in their coloration (from white to  
262 pink or yellow) over the experimental period due to initial surface biofilm formation. The  
263 deterioration process of filter paper started after two months of sediment incubation, and a  
264 considerable loss of mass (about 60% of initial weight) was recorded at the end of the experiment  
265 (Fig. 1). No macroscopic alteration of surface morphology was visible on the bag film during the  
266 first three months of sand burial. Initial signs of bag deterioration, such small perforations, appeared  
267 at the end of July (after 14 weeks of exposure), when sea water temperature reached values equal or  
268 higher than 23°C (Fig. 2). The integrity of the film slightly deteriorated thereafter and large bag  
269 pieces were still visible at the end of experiment (Fig. 1). The loss of mass was about 15% of initial  
270 weight (Fig. 2) and 25% relative to the cellulose reference sample. SEM images of pristine  
271 (untreated) bag film revealed uneven hilly surface with numerous bumps but no sign of alteration  
272 (Fig. 1a). After 24 weeks of burial, potential signs of initial degradation, such as cracks and holes,  
273 possibly due to dissolving or mineralisation of granules were observed on the surface of bag buried  
274 films (Fig. 1b).

275 At the beginning of the experiment, sediment pore-water oxygen, pH and temperature in the  
276 mesocosms assigned to the treatments were similar. At the end of the study, pH and oxygen  
277 concentration in sediment pore-water decreased in the presence of bag compared to controls (Fig. 3;  
278  $F_{1,12} = 5.16$ ,  $P = 0.04$  for pH and  $F_{1,12} = 14.35$ ,  $P = 0.002$  for oxygen concentration). A significant  
279 interaction effect among treatments was found for sediment temperature (Fig. 2) which was lower  
280 in presence of bag than in controls but only in bare sediment ( $F_{1,12} = 6.37$ ,  $P = 0.01$ ). Oxygen  
281 concentration in the presence of *Z. noltei* was about 2.5 mg/L higher compared to that in bare  
282 sediment ( $F_{1,12} = 15.88$ ,  $P = 0.0004$ ) while pH in the presence of *C. nodosa* decreased of  
283 approximately 0.2 pH units ( $F_{1,12} = 14.86$ ,  $P = 0.0006$ ).

284



285

286 **Figure 1.** Photographs of MB bag samples and SEM images of the surface topography of bag films  
 287 before (a) and after 24 weeks (b) of incubation in the marine sediment and photographs of MB bag  
 288 fragments entangled into the root system of *C. nodosa* and *Z. noltei* clones after 24 weeks in  
 289 mesocosm (c)

290 (Colour online only, 2-column fitting image)

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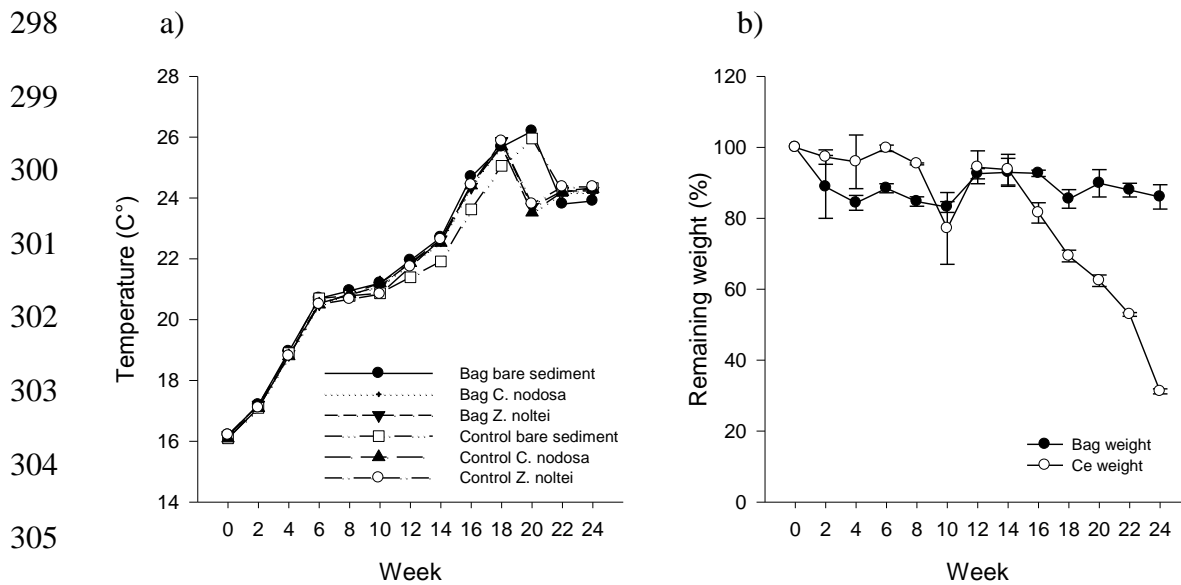
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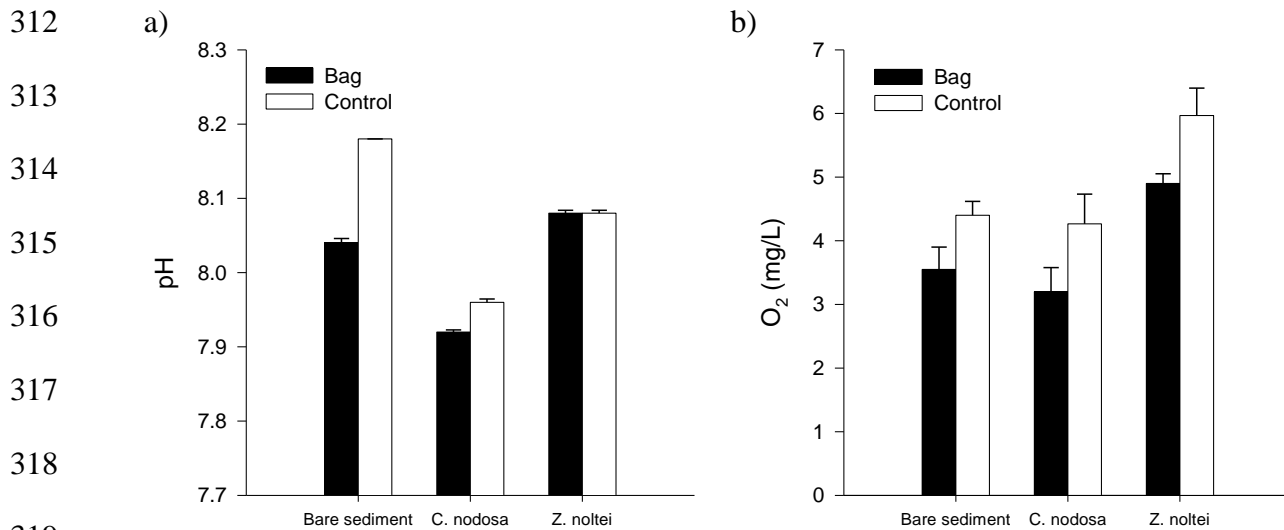
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306 **Figure 2.** Temporal variation of sediment pore-water temperature recorded in the presence of bag  
 307 or in the absence of bag (control) in bare substrate and in substrate colonized by *C. nodosa* and *Z.*  
 308 *noltei* (a) and percent weight remaining of bag and cellulose samples respective to initial weight (b).  
 309 Values are means  $\pm$  SE,  $n = 3$

310 (2-column fitting image)

311



320 **Figure 3.** Sediment pore-water pH (a) and oxygen concentration (b) after 24 weeks of incubation in  
 321 the presence of bag or in the absence of (control) in bare substrate and in substrate colonized by *C.*  
 322 *nodosa* and *Z. noltei*. Values are means  $\pm$  SE,  $n = 3$

323 (2-column fitting image)

### 324 3.2. Effect of bag on *Cymodocea nodosa* clonal growth and plant-plant interactions

325

326 At the start of the experiment, the number of shoots present in *C. nodosa* fragments assigned to  
327 different treatments was similar ( $F_{1,24} = 2.78$ ,  $P = 0.34$ ). All plants survived and propagated by  
328 clonal growth during the experiment. At the conclusion of the experiment, plants grown alone  
329 showed a higher number of alive shoots and rhizome branches, longer rhizome network and higher  
330 shoot recruitment but lower shoot mortality than those in monoculture or in mixed culture,  
331 regardless of bag treatment (Fig. 4; Table 1). Plants grown in the presence of bag exhibited higher  
332 shoot recruitment, total number of alive shoots and total number of roots and root laterals (Figure 4;  
333 Table 1), regardless of culture conditions. The formation of root laterals (9-16 per root) resulted in a  
334 tightly packed aggregation of roots near the bag (Fig. 1). There was a significant interaction  
335 between bag and culture regime for spacer length (Table 1); for plants grown in the presence of bag  
336 mean spacer length was shorter compared to that of control but only in mixed culture (Fig. 4).  
337 Relative interaction intensity index for total rhizome length ranged from 0.007 to - 0.58 (Fig. 4).  
338 There were significant differences between control and bag treatment for RII values of interspecific  
339 interaction ( $F_{1,8} = 12.86$ ,  $P = 0.007$ ) and intraspecific interaction ( $F_{1,8} = 8.43$ ,  $P = 0.01$ ). RII indices  
340 for plants grown in the absence of bag (Fig. 4) did not significantly differ from zero both for  
341 intraspecific interaction ( $t = -2.07$ ,  $P = 0.09$  data from two tanks pooled) and interspecific  
342 interaction ( $t = -0.61$ ,  $P = 0.56$  data from two tanks pooled), indicating no significant competitive  
343 effect from conspecifics as well as from the co-existing species on *C. nodosa* growth. In contrast, in  
344 the presence of the bag both the RII indices were negative (Fig. 4) and significantly different from  
345 zero ( $t = -6.5$ ,  $P = 0.001$  for intraspecific interaction and  $t = -4.7$ ,  $P = 0.004$  for interspecific  
346 interaction), indicating a competitive effect from conspecifics as well as from the co-existing  
347 species on *C. nodosa* growth. In the presence of bag, there was a reduction of more than 50% in  
348 rhizome length for a clone with a conspecific or with a clone of *Z. noltei* compared to control one  
349 grown in isolation. No significant effect of bag treatment or culture condition was detected for the

350 remaining *C. nodosa* variables (Fig. 4; Table 1) and no difference was found in the final number of  
351 new shoots (2-3 shoots per plant) present in *Z. noltei* plants grown in mixture both in the presence  
352 and in the absence of the bag ( $F_{1,1} = 1.00$ ,  $P = 0.50$ ).

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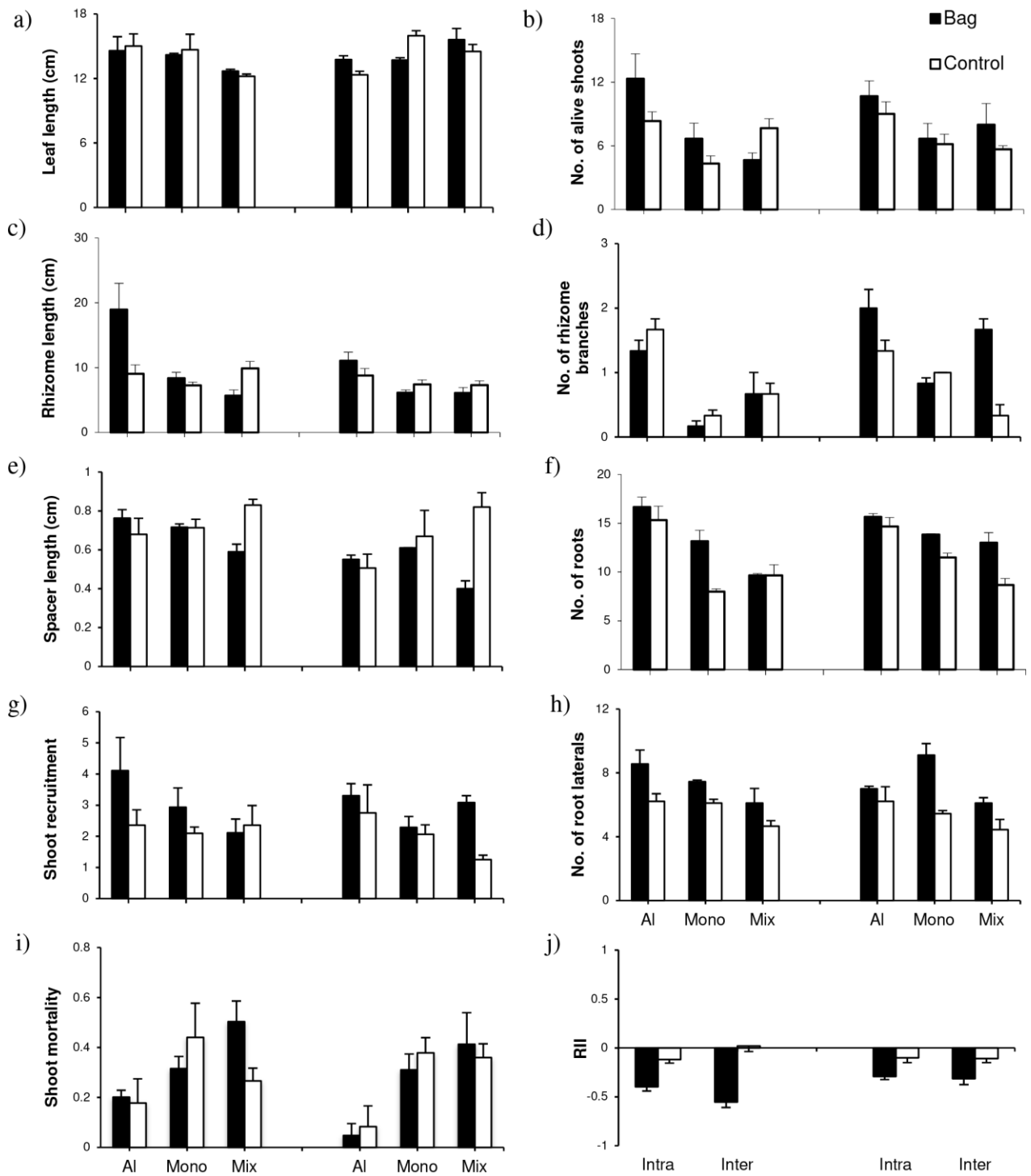
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364 **Figure 4.** Plant-level effects of MB bag and culture regime on *C. nodosa* (a-i), and the effect of MB  
 365 bag on the relative index of interaction (RII) for intraspecific (Intra) and interspecific interactions  
 366 (Inter) (j). (Al: *C. nodosa* alone, Mono: monoculture, Mix: Mixed culture). Values are means  $\pm$  SE,  
 367  $n = 3$  (2-column fitting image)



368 **Table 1.** Results of ANOVAs for morphological and growth variables, shoot recruitment and shoot  
 369 mortality of *C. nodosa* plants subjected to different experimental treatments at the end of the  
 370 experiment.. Results of SNK tests are reported. \*Denotes post-hoc pooling. B<sup>+</sup> = bag added, Co =  
 371 no bag added, Al = *C. nodosa* grown alone; Mon = *C. nodosa* grown in monoculture; Mix = *C.*  
 372 *nodosa* grown in mixed culture.

Source	df	Leaf length (cm)		Rhizome length (cm)		Spacer length (cm)	
		F	P	F	P	F	P
Tank = T	1	0.23	0.638	0.67	0.421	3.53	0.072
Bag = B	1	0.06	0.844	0.01	0.940	4.32	0.285
Culture = C	2	0.18	0.844	178.03	0.005	0.84	0.543
T x B	1	0.02	0.901	*		0.43	0.519
T x C	2	2.01	0.156	0.01	0.985	0.24	0.786
C x B	2	1.61	0.382	4.38	0.185	24.97	0.038
T x B x C	2	0.36	0.701	0.49	0.615	0.13	0.881
Residual	24						
SNK test		Al > Mon = Mix			Mix: B <sup>+</sup> < Co		

Source	df	Shoot recruitment		Shoot mortality		No. alive shoots	
		F	P	F	P	F	P
Tank = T	1	0.32	0.578	1.31	0.262	0.02	0.883
Bag = B	1	5.57	0.026	0.21	0.724	4.31	0.047
Culture = C	2	23.45	0.040	13.05	0.001	13.42	0.001
T x B	1	*		0.47	0.501	*	
T x C	2	0.14	0.867	*		*	
C x B	2	0.17	0.858	4.10	0.196	0.70	0.586
T x B x C	2	2.72	0.085	0.58	0.565	2.35	0.115
Residual	24						
SNK test		Al > Mon = Mix B <sup>+</sup> > Co		Al < Mon = Mix		Al > Mon = Mix B <sup>+</sup> > Co	

Source	df	No. rhizome branches		No. roots		No. root laterals	
		F	P	F	P	F	P
Tank = T	1	2.94	0.099	0.73	0.400	0.04	0.843
Bag = B	1	3.36	0.317	6.28	0.019	8.25	0.008
Culture = C	2	57.00	0.017	13.79	0.067	9.22	0.097
T x B	1	1.06	0.313	*		*	
T x C	2	0.01	0.992	0.83	0.445	0.32	0.728
C x B	2	6.33	0.136	0.51	0.661	0.31	0.761
T x B x C	2	0.15	0.857	1.24	0.306	0.74	0.485
Residual	24						
SNK test		Al > Mon = Mix		B <sup>+</sup> > Co		B <sup>+</sup> > Co	

## 417 **4.Discussion**

418

419 The present study is the first attempt to investigate the possible effect of biodegradable plastics on  
420 the development of natural marine plant communities, to our knowledge. This study also provides  
421 insights into the potential behaviour of biodegradable bags buried in marine sediments and in  
422 particular in shallow coastal bottoms colonized by seagrasses.

423 The negligible degradation of the biodegradable bag recorded after six months of exposure to  
424 marine sediments suggests that the soft bottom of shallow coastal areas of temperate seas could act  
425 as temporary sink for bioplastics (Nauendorf et al., 2016). Since the degradation of cellulose  
426 occurred at high rate, the poor bag deterioration might not be attributed to the lack of a favourable  
427 microbial community to biodegradation in the sediment. Instead, lack of UV-radiation and  
428 mechanical abrasion by wave in sediments might have played an important role. The extent of  
429 degradation observed here was, however, greater than that reported for other types of bags made  
430 from corn starch in previous field studies (1.5% of weight loss after three months of bag immersion  
431 in the sea, Accinelli et al., 2012) and in laboratory tests that simulated pelagic conditions (no  
432 fragmentation after 24 months of bag immersion in the sea, Tosin et al., 2012), but lower as  
433 compared to that recorded in other laboratory experiments that simulated the sublittoral zone (full  
434 degradation after about 9 months of bag exposure in seawater, Tosin et al., 2012) and at the  
435 seawater surface (full degradation after about 4 months of bag exposure, O'Brine and Thompson,  
436 2010). The different degradation rates may clearly reflect differences in bag polymer composition,  
437 experimental or environmental conditions and duration of the experiment. Our findings support the  
438 hypothesis that degradation of biodegradable bags in marine sediments is a complex process and  
439 needs to be better investigated both under laboratory conditions and in the field.

440 In coastal sediments oxygen penetration depth is very limited varying from less than 1 millimetre in  
441 muddy sediments to few centimetres in sandy sediments (Glud, 2008). The sediment used in this  
442 study was initially normoxic (>7 mg/L oxygen), and in the presence of bag sediment pore-water

443 oxygen concentration declined to values near to that setting sediment hypoxic conditions (2 mg/L  
444 oxygen, Diaz and Rosenberg, 1995). This decrease could be ascribed to the inhibition of gas change  
445 from seawater and sediment and/or reduced diffusion of oxygen due to the physical presence of bag  
446 pieces over the whole experimental period. A similar sealing sediment surface effect has been  
447 hypothesized by Green et al. (2015) for other types of compostable bags manufactured from corn  
448 starch. However, oxygen consumption by biofilm formation and increased production of CO<sub>2</sub> due to  
449 initial degradation of starch in the film might not be excluded. The lower temperature recorded in  
450 bare sediments in the presence of bag compared to controls also suggests that this material could act  
451 as a thermal insulator, probably due to lower thermal conductivity than sediment as previously  
452 reported for conventional plastics in beach sediments (Carson et al., 2011). Both *C. nodosa* and *Z.*  
453 *noltei* influenced sediment variables. *C. nodosa* acidified the sediment, suggesting enhanced  
454 microbial activity in sediments stimulated by decomposition of organic matter from detritus  
455 produced by the plant itself and exudation of dissolved organic carbon from roots (Perry and  
456 Dennison, 1999; Barròn et al., 2004; Fraser et al., 2016). Instead, *Z. noltei* ameliorated sediment  
457 conditions, increasing oxygen concentration possibly due to the release of oxygen by its roots into  
458 the sediment. The differential ability of these species to modify sediment conditions is in agreement  
459 with previous studies which indicate that *C. nodosa* excretes more organic exudates from its roots  
460 but oxidizes sediments much less than *Z. noltei* (Isaksen and Finster, 1996). For both the species,  
461 plant metabolic activity appeared to counteract the negative effect of bag on sediment temperature.  
462 Seagrasses generally grow in reduced sediments (Borum et al., 2006), and the release of oxygen by  
463 roots is recognized to be an adaptive mechanism to enable plants to supply sufficient O<sub>2</sub> to their  
464 belowground tissue to sustain aerobic metabolism, as well as to provide protection against invasion  
465 of reduced phytotoxic compounds from the surrounding sediment (Armstrong, 1979; Borum et al.,  
466 2005; Borum et al., 2006). Prolonged period of hypoxia or anoxia, however, may causes sudden  
467 seagrass die-offs events (Terrados et al., 1999; Borum et al., 2005; Brodersen et al., 2014;  
468 Brodersen et al., 2015). The root system of most seagrasses, including *C. nodosa*, is simple and

469 comprised of a root axis and 3-4 primary laterals (Marbà and Duarte, 2001), consistent with a  
470 “herringbone” root architecture typical of species adapted to grow under low nutrient conditions  
471 (Fitter et al., 1991). However, root morphology may vary in some species as a response to  
472 environmental conditions, such as availability of oxygen and nutrients, and sediment nature and  
473 texture (Kiswara et al., 2009; Hovey et al., 2012; Balestri et al., 2015). Since the amount of oxygen  
474 transported and the potential for oxygen release to the sediment by roots are determined in part by  
475 the total amount of active photosynthetic tissue (Smith et al., 1984), the proliferation of laterals on  
476 roots along with increasing shoot production observed in *C. nodosa* in the presence of bag could be  
477 a strategy to ensure enough flow of oxygen from the photosynthetic organs to the root so to  
478 maintain a supply to roots and oxidise sulphide (or other phytotoxics) under declining oxygen  
479 sediment concentrations. However, our results also showed that rhizome length did not consistently  
480 increase in the presence of bag leading to more compact clones compared to controls grown in  
481 isolation. In addition, both intra-specific and inter-specific interactions shifted from neutral to  
482 competitive, and spacer elongation in clones grown with a neighbour of *Z. noltei* decreased  
483 compared to control leading to a more phalanx growth form. These findings suggest that a *C.*  
484 *nodosa* clone growing in the presence of neighbours may not readily escape from bag induced  
485 deteriorated sediment conditions because of increased competition for available space and below-  
486 ground resources. Modelling studies indicate that guerrilla species such as *C. nodosa* are specialized  
487 in the occupation of free space and the long spacers between ramets they produce allow infiltration  
488 in the surrounding vegetation (i.e. promote interspecific contacts as well as interaction with other  
489 species allowing their coexistence). In contrast, phalanx species such as *Z. noltei* are specialized in  
490 the consolidation of occupied spaces and the short spacers they produce impede the establishment  
491 of other species (i.e. minimize interspecific contacts resisting competitors, Lovett Doust, 1981;  
492 Murrell et al., 2001; Murrell et al., 2002; Benot et al., 2013). Alterations of competitive intensity  
493 and clonal architecture in nature could translate to functional levels, affecting the spatial distribution  
494 of ramets in the environment and relationships with other seagrass species. For example, the

495 presence of bag in monospecific stands could indirectly reduce the chance of interconnection  
496 among recruits of *C. nodosa* and hamper sexual reproduction promoting spatial segregation of male  
497 and female clones with possible local reduction of genetic diversity. Genetic diversity enhances the  
498 chance of long term persistence of seagrass populations to disturbances (Randall Hughes and  
499 Stachowicz, 2004). On the other hand, in mixed stands the bag could favour a more pronounced  
500 segregation of species in discrete competitively determined patches in which structural complexity  
501 is mediated locally by the dominant foundation species. Since the duration of the experiment was  
502 not long enough to achieve complete biodegradation of the bag, further longer term studies should  
503 be conducted to determine the time required for a bag to totally degrade in marine sediments and  
504 assess how the final products of the biodegradation process affect plant development and  
505 physiology.

506

## 507 **5. Conclusions**

508

509 The adoption of biodegradable bags is clearly a viable alternative solution to reduce the  
510 environmental impact plastics at global scale. However, the results of this study demonstrate that  
511 biodegradable MB bags degrade slowly when buried in marine sediments, and can be breakdown  
512 into fragments potentially harmful for a number of organisms living within in or above sediment  
513 similarly to conventional plastics. The deposition of bags on the sediment may also alter below and  
514 above seagrass compartments and more importantly increase the intensity of both plant intra- and  
515 interspecific competition. Given the augmented production of bioplastic bags, an increasing input of  
516 these bags into the marine environment is expected in next decades. Therefore, future studies should  
517 investigate more in detail the bag degradation process in sediments colonized by seagrasses in order  
518 to understand the possible consequences for associated ecosystems. and to develop new, standard  
519 tests for biodegradation of plastics in marine habitats.

520

521 Because of the current uncertainty concerning the final fate of biodegradable bags and its effect, not  
522 only on marine organisms but also on foundation marine plant species, we recommend extreme  
523 caution in the use of these bags to prevent dispersal and accumulation in the ocean. We also stress  
524 the need to quantify the presence of conventional plastics currently deposited within or near  
525 seagrasses beds as well as to assess their effect on seagrass ecosystems and functioning to better  
526 estimate the global environmental impact. of plastics.

527

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529

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532

533

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**Table 1.** Results of ANOVAs for morphological and growth variables, shoot recruitment and shoot mortality of *C. nodosa* plants subjected to different experimental treatments at the end of the experiment. Results of SNK tests are reported. \*Denotes post-hoc pooling. B<sup>+</sup> = bag added, Co = no bag added, Al = *C. nodosa* grown alone; Mon = *C. nodosa* grown in monoculture; Mix = *C. nodosa* grown in mixed culture.

Source	df	Leaf length (cm)		Rhizome length (cm)		Spacer length (cm)	
		F	P	F	P	F	P
Tank = T	1	0.23	0.638	0.67	0.421	3.53	0.072
Bag = B	1	0.06	0.844	0.01	0.940	4.32	0.285
Culture = C	2	0.18	0.844	178.03	0.005	0.84	0.543
T x B	1	0.02	0.901	*		0.43	0.519
T x C	2	2.01	0.156	0.01	0.985	0.24	0.786
C x B	2	1.61	0.382	4.38	0.185	24.97	0.038
T x B x C	2	0.36	0.701	0.49	0.615	0.13	0.881
Residual	24						
SNK test				Al > Mon = Mix		Mix: B <sup>+</sup> < Co	

Source	df	Shoot recruitment		Shoot mortality		No. alive shoots	
		F	P	F	P	F	P
Tank = T	1	0.32	0.578	1.31	0.262	0.02	0.883
Bag = B	1	5.57	0.026	0.21	0.724	4.31	0.047
Culture = C	2	23.45	0.040	13.05	0.001	13.42	0.001
T x B	1	*		0.47	0.501	*	
T x C	2	0.14	0.867	*		*	
C x B	2	0.17	0.858	4.10	0.196	0.70	0.586
T x B x C	2	2.72	0.085	0.58	0.565	2.35	0.115
Residual	24						
SNK test		Al > Mon = Mix B <sup>+</sup> > Co		Al < Mon = Mix		Al > Mon = Mix B <sup>+</sup> > Co	

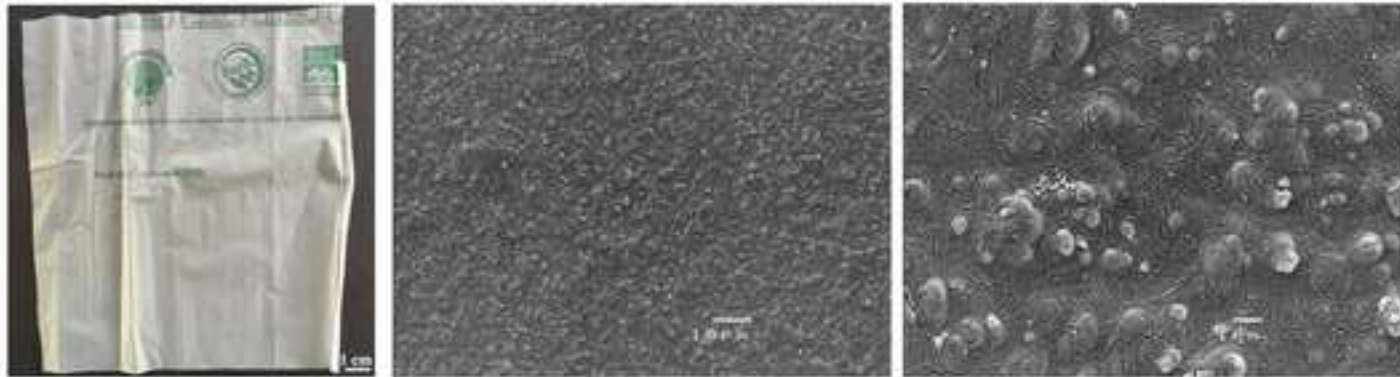
Source	df	No. rhizome branches		No. roots		No. root laterals	
		F	P	F	P	F	P
Tank = T	1	2.94	0.099	0.73	0.400	0.04	0.843
Bag = B	1	3.36	0.317	6.28	0.019	8.25	0.008
Culture = C	2	57.00	0.017	13.79	0.067	9.22	0.097
T x B	1	1.06	0.313	*		*	
T x C	2	0.01	0.992	0.83	0.445	0.32	0.728
C x B	2	6.33	0.136	0.51	0.661	0.31	0.761
T x B x C	2	0.15	0.857	1.24	0.306	0.74	0.485
Residual	24						
SNK test		Al > Mon = Mix		B <sup>+</sup> > Co		B <sup>+</sup> > Co	

Figure

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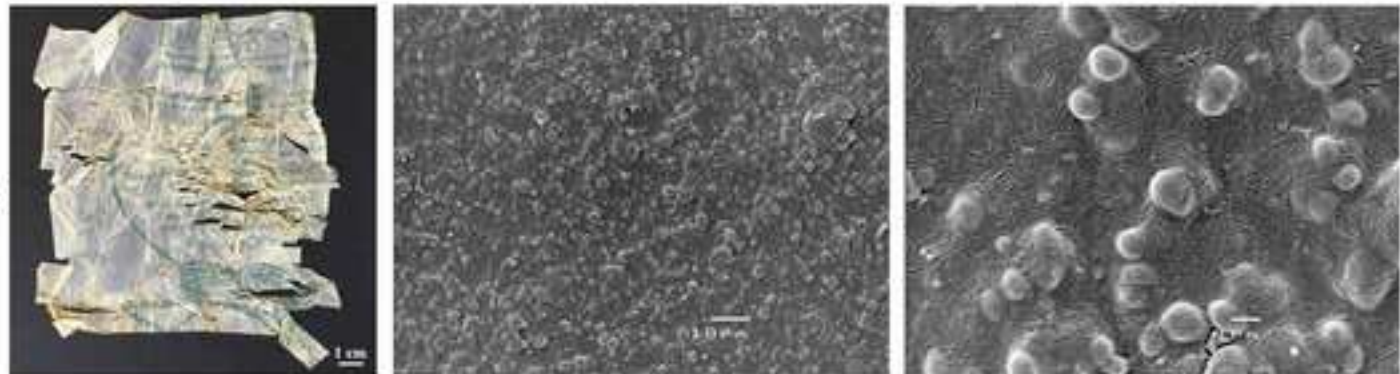
a)

Week 0



b)

Week 24



c)

Week 24

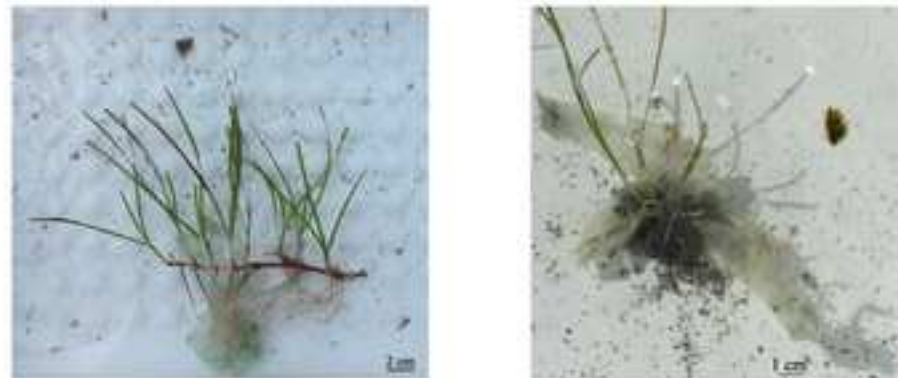


Figure  
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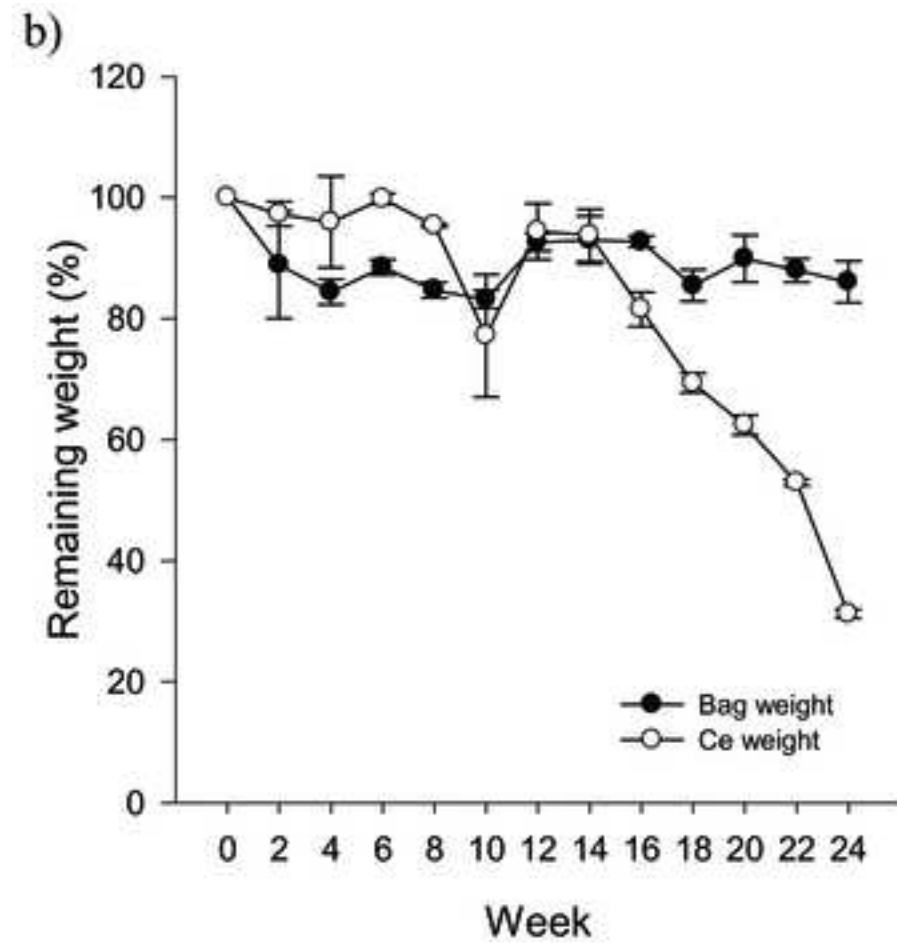
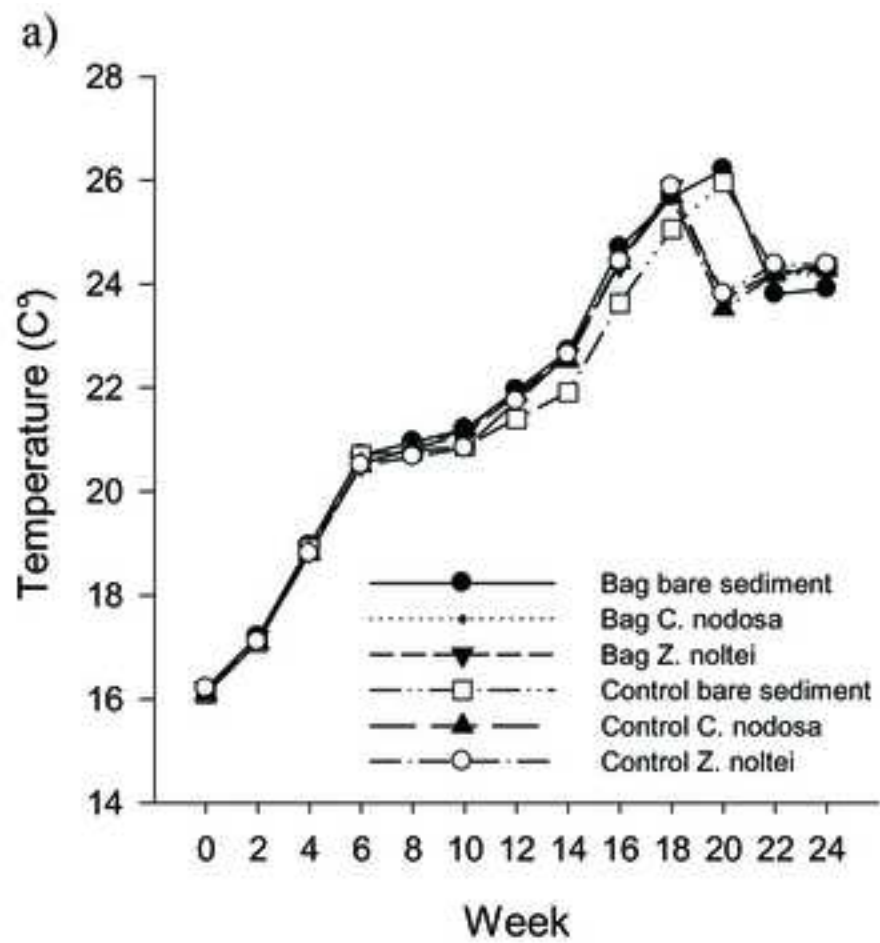




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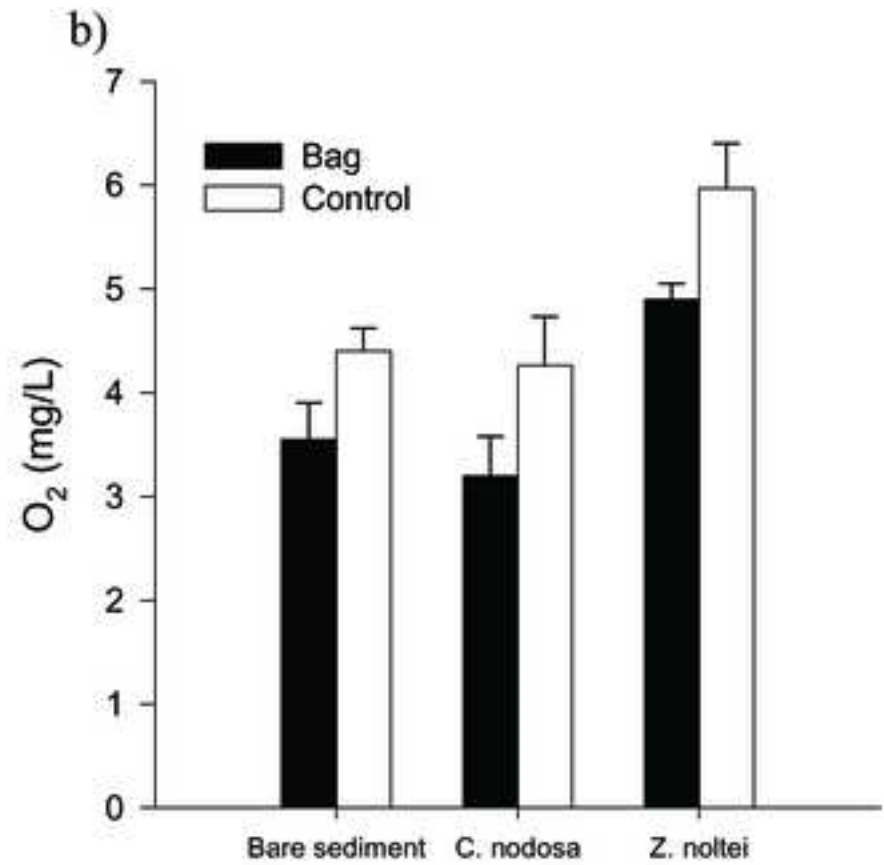
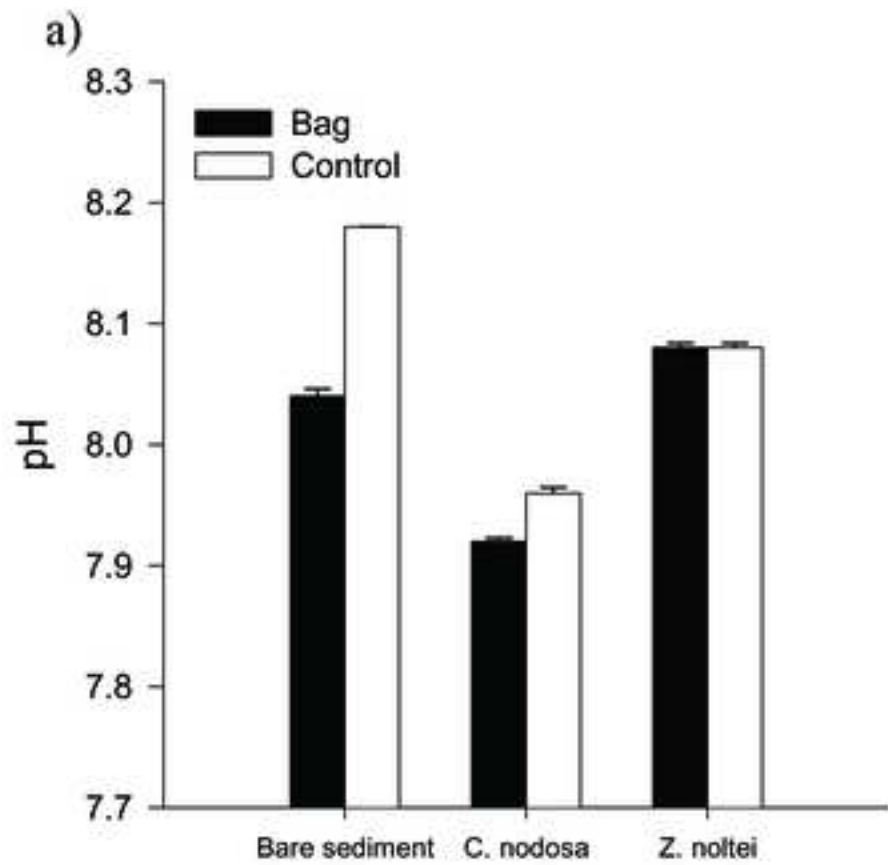


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