



A Short Review On Micro-Plastics

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Abstract

Microplastics have now been recognized as emerging and persistent environmental contaminants of great ecological and public health significance. Microplastics are defined as plastics < 5 mm in size, MP's generate from the degradation of larger plastic debris (secondary microplastics) or are produced at the microscopic size for use industrially and commercially on purpose (primary microplastics). Their small size, chemical stability, and hydrophobic surface facilitate the adsorption of toxic chemicals and heavy metals. As particles, they are now well documented within marine, freshwater, terrestrial, and atmospheric environments, including food chains and human biological systems. This paper brings together recent evidence on sources and types, environmental fate, ecosystem impacts with growing evidence of human exposure effects and toxicity; it further demonstrates newly emerging detection techniques, regulatory challenges, and future directions in mitigation.

Introduction

Plastic production has increased massively over the last five decades because plastic is durable, cheap, and can be used for many different things. However, this same quality also makes it remain in the environment for a long time. When plastic waste is not managed properly it goes through physical, chemical, and biological degradation to become microplastics which are very resistant to further breakdown. Once created these microplastics get carried by wind, and water as well as through trophic transfers spreading across all ecosystems from deep-sea sediments up to the human bloodstream.

Microplastics are omnipresent. In recent years, microplastics shifted from being a consideration of waste management to becoming a global health concern. Studies have reported their presence in drinking water, salt, honey, seafood, fruits and vegetables, and even human placenta and blood. The dynamics of microplastics is thus an imperative study for risk assessment as well as policy formulation.

Review of literature**Origins and types of microplastics**

Examples of primary microplastics are cosmetic microbeads, industrial abrasives, synthetic resin granules and pharmaceutical additives. Secondary microplastics arise from the breakdown of common plastics, including nets for fishing, packaging waste and wear from tyres. Microplastics were first observed to be distributed throughout marine sediments, Brown et al. (2011).

Distribution in the Environment

Studies have indicated that oceans are a significant sink for microplastics (Jambeck et al. 2015). Rivers play an important role in transporting urban waste into coastal waters. Terrestrial systems, particularly agricultural soils receiving sewage sludge, are believed to be even larger repositories than the oceans (Nizzetto et al., 2016).

Microplastics are similar to food particles and so are ingested by marine life, including plankton, molluscs, fish and seabirds. Cole et al. (2013) observed decreased feeding efficiency in copepods and Rochman et al. (2016) observed liver disruption in fish after chronic exposure. Microplastics also provide a substrate for pathogenic microorganisms to create the microbiological community “plastisphere”.

Human Exposure

Cox et al. (2019) estimated that humans ingest 39,000–52,000 microplastic pieces per year from food. Microplastics were recently identified in human blood and placenta, and are indicative of systemic circulation. Although human toxicity studies are restricted, a number of experimental models show oxidative stress, inflammation and endocrine disruption.

[7] Our study revealed that mice, compared with other animals, not only exhibit a heightened susceptibility to the toxic effects of microplastics—evidenced by decreased gut microbiota diversity, increased Firmicutes/Bacteroidetes ratios, destabilized microbial networks, and disruption in the equilibrium of beneficial and harmful bacteria—but also possess limited potential to degrade microplastics, unlike earthworms and insects. Furthermore, machine learning models confirmed that exposure duration is the key factor driving changes induced by microplastics in gut microbiota. We also identified *Lactobacillus*, *Helicobacter*, and *Pseudomonas* as potential biomarkers for detecting microplastic toxicity in the animal gut. (ACS Nano 2025, 19, 1, 369–380)

Detection

The concentration of microplastics in human blood is detected through—gas chromatography / mass spectrometry. Five types of MPs were found in human blood including polyvinyl chloride, polyethylene, polystyrene and polyamide 66 [8]

Hazards

Microplastics have been detected in a variety of human tissues and organs, including the liver, lungs, blood, etc. Patients with microplastics detected who underwent carotid endarterectomy showed a high risk for myocardial infarction, stroke or death from many causes suggesting the risk of cardiovascular disease.[9]

A total 15 microplastics have been detected in human faeces and the concentration of faecal microplastics was correlated with the status of inflammatory bowel disease[10]

Discussion

The durability of microplastics is a result of the long-lasting nature of synthetic polymers and the global scale of plastic production. From an eco-toxicological standpoint microplastics are of concern not only because they cause physical injury following ingestion, but also as carriers of hydrophobic contaminants including Polychlorinated biphenyls (PCB), polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAH) and certain pesticides and metals. This additive effect of the mixture is especially hazardous to lower trophic organisms, bioaccumulation of which may result in higher trophic predators.

The discovery of microplastics recently in the human GI system, blood and lungs ask seven more serious questions about chronic exposure. Of added concern are Nanoplastics (<1 µm), which have the potential to pass through cellular and blood-brain barriers. Tire wear microplastics, synthetic textile microfibers and plastic mulch residues are too neglected but important terrestrial sources.

Mitigation measures to solve the problems should be comprehensive, including control of primary microplastics in consumer products, the redesign of wastewater treatment facilities, finding alternative biodegradable polymer materials and improving international plastic waste management.

Conclusion

Microplastics are now considered a widespread and enduring pollutant with the potential ecological and human health impacts. They may be transferred among different ecological levels, consumed by trophic chains and arrive intercalated with co-contaminants. While the science is still evolving, it seems much of this evidence calls for immediate preventive action. Areas where more research is needed are long-term toxicological studies, better detection of NP and sustainable materials. To end the flow there is need for politics to transition from linear to circular plastic economies.5.

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