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1 Nanoplastic occurrence in a soil amended with plastic debris

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ABSTRACT: While several studies have investigated the potential impact of nanoplastics, 10 proof of their occurrence in our global environment has not yet been demonstrated. In the 11 present work, by developing an innovative analytical strategy, the presence of nanoplastics in 12 soil was identified for the first time. Our results demonstrate the presence of nanoplastics with 13 a size ranging from 20 to 150 nm and covering three of the most common plastic families: 14 polyethylene, polystyrene and polyvinyl chloride. Given the amount of organic matter in the 15 soil matrix, the discrimination and identification of large nanoplastic aggregates are 16 17 challenging. However, we provided an innovative methodology to circumvent the organic 18 matter impact on nanoplastic detection by coupling size fractionation to molecular analysis of plastics. While photodegradation has been considered the principal formation pathway of 19 nanoplastics in the environment, this study provides evidence, for the first time, that plastic 20 21 degradation and nanoplastic production can, however, occur in the soil matrix. Moreover, by providing an innovative and simple extraction/analysis method, this study paves the way to 22 further studies, notably regarding nanoplastic environmental fate and impacts. 23

24 Key Words: Nanoplastics, soil, municipal wastes, Py-GCMS, AF4

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26 1. Introduction

27 Despite a consensus that plastic debris will accumulate in the environment, its presence has drastically increased, reaching almost 360 million tons in 2018 (PlasticsEurope 28 2019). Plastic pollution is now considered one of the main environmental challenges and 29 30 represents an emerging threat for all living species, especially due to the chemical species (additives and other adsorbed elements) that are associated with plastics (Velzeboer, Kwadijk, 31 32 et Koelmans 2014; Alimi et al. 2018; Davranche et al. 2019; Shen et al. 2019). Leading 33 governments have even classified plastic pollution as a critical problem comparable to climate change (Programme 2016). 34

In marine systems, despite knowledge gaps regarding the occurrence and fate of microplastics, the recent discovery of nanoplastics (Ter Halle et al. 2017) has opened the door to new considerations in terms of their properties and environmental fate and behavior. Nanoplastics are defined as plastic particles with sizes covering the colloidal range (1 nm to 1 µm) and with a Brownian motion in aqueous system (Gigault et al. 2018). By contrast, compared to marine systems, terrestrial systems are largely ignored, as noted by Rillig (2012).

However, plastic-based materials such as plastic mulches and polytunnels are widely used to increase agricultural production efficiency or life duration (Steinmetz et al. 2016; Liu et al. 2018; Gao et al. 2019). Sewage sludge products also contribute to the incorporation of microplastics into soils (Habib, Locke, et Cannone 1998; Corradini et al. 2019). Both inputs, together with many others (Hurley et Nizzetto 2018), such as landfills (He et al. 2019), lead to the accumulation of plastics in soils, which could represent an even larger pollution pool than that in the oceans (Horton et al. 2017). Once plastic debris is present in soil, it mixes and

reacts with soil organic matter (OM) and minerals and may persist for up to a few hundred 48 49 years (Bläsing et Amelung 2018). The prolonged residence time of plastics in soil could lead to the formation of micro- and nanodebris. The formation of such debris represents a severe 50 challenge for environmental protection, especially for long-term farming based on plastics 51 utilization (Steinmetz et al. 2016). Some recent studies have started investigating nanoplastic 52 impacts on soil biota (Zhu et al. 2018; Awet et al. 2018), their interactions with contaminants 53 (Velzeboer, Kwadijk, et Koelmans 2014; Davranche et al. 2019) and their transport through 54 model soils (Hu et al. 2020; Pradel et al. 2020). However, to the best of our knowledge, 55 evidence of nanoplastics in a natural soil environment has never been demonstrated. This lack 56 57 is clearly due to the need for appropriate analytical methodologies for the identification of nanoplastics in the complex and heterogeneous soil matrix (Pinto da Costa et al. 2019). The 58 size, shape, concentration (at the trace level) and carbon composition of nanoplastics make 59 60 their identification and quantification highly challenging, especially due to the amount of natural OM, which is also composed of carbon and covers the entire colloidal size range. 61

Due to their small size and high surface reactivity, nanoplastics could exert a direct and indirect effect on soil ecosystems, including groundwaters. They could indirectly influence the soil physicochemical properties, whereas direct effects were already reported on soil microorganisms and fauna communities (Zhu et al. 2018; Awet et al. 2018). Since soils and groundwaters are major human resources, evaluating the occurrence, fate and impact of nanoplastics in soils is crucial and is a main political and governmental priority, leading to legislation such as the European Commission directive on plastics on soil regulation.

69 Regarding the difficulties to extract and detect nanoplastics in a soil matrix, our 70 objective is not to realize an exhaustive study of nanoplastic presence in various kind of soils, 71 but to demonstrate that nanoplastics are present and can be produced directly in the soil 72 matrix. The challenge was here to find a soil sufficiently contaminated by plastics and for enough years to allow the potential production of nanoplastics. For this purpose, we chosen to work on a soil contaminated by plastic debris through several municipal waste amendments performed around fifteen to thirty years ago. Nanoplastics were extracted using a water extraction procedure and subsequently identified by an innovative high-resolution analytical method combining size fractionation and molecular analysis.

78 2. Methods

79 2.1. Soil sampling and geochemical analysis.

The soil samples are agricultural soils collected in central France in February 2018. 80 They correspond to the upper most horizon (0 to 10 cm, organo-mineral (Ah) horizon) of a 81 82 well-drained cambisol (VWR classification), enriched in pebbles and developed from alluvial deposits. The contaminated soil received two household wastes amendments mostly 83 composed of plastics around thirty and fifteen years ago. The wastes were crushed and mixed 84 with organic compost that was spread on the soil. The field was regularly tilled and used as a 85 meadow for the last ten years. Plastic debris is thus clearly visible on and in the soil horizons 86 from the surface to 40 cm depth. Plastic crushing has probably promoted the plastics 87 degradation in the soil (Ng et al. 2018). Regarding the contamination origin, treatment and 88 dates, this soil is therefore the ideal target for studying the potential nanoplastic production in 89 90 a soil matrix.

A soil control was sampled from a non-amended plot close to the contaminated plot. The same extraction protocol and characterization methods were used for the amended and control soil samples. Soil samples were dried in ambient air, sieved at 2 mm and stored in ambient air in the dark. To ensure no plastic pollution, both soils were similarly stored and treated. The geochemical composition of both soil samples is summarized in the Supplementary Materials, Table S1. Geochemical analyses were performed at the "Service d'Analyse des Roches et des Minéraux" (SARM). The major element concentrations were determined by inductively 98 coupled plasma-atomic emission spectrometry (ICP-AES, Thermo ICap 6500). Trace element
99 concentrations were determined by ICP-mass spectrometry (Thermo Elemental X7). The
100 samples were digested by alkaline fusion using lithium metaborate (LiBO₂) as a fusion flux.

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102 2.2. Nanoplastic water extraction experiments.

To extract nanoparticles from the soil samples, soil-water extraction was performed. 103 Ultrapure water was added to soil at a soil/water ratio of 1:4 (200 g/800 g) and stirred at 300 r 104 min⁻¹ for 72 h without any pH adjustment. Soil solutions were sampled over time. After pH 105 and conductivity measurements, each sample was filtered to 0.8 µm (Sartorius filters). Total 106 organic carbon (TOC) was determined using a TOC analyzer (Shimadzu TOC-V CSH). The 107 accuracy of the TOC measurements was estimated at \pm 5% for all samples using a standard 108 solution of potassium hydrogen phthalate. The extraction experiments were performed in 109 110 duplicate.

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112 2.3. Nanoplastics identification and characterization.

Water-extract filtrates were fractionated by asymmetric flow-field flow fractionation 113 114 coupled to UV spectroscopy and static light scattering (AF4-UV-SLS, Wyatt Technology, Germany, and Agilent Technologies, France). The AF4 channel thickness was fixed by a 250-115 µm Mylar film. The channel had a length of 26.5 cm and a width that narrowed from 2.1 to 116 117 0.6 cm. The accumulation wall was defined by a 10-kDa PES membrane purchased from Wyatt Technology. The method used was described by Gigault et al. (2017). The detailed 118 parameters are presented in the Supplementary Materials. Three hundred microliters of each 119 sample were injected into the AF4 instrument. The sizes (gyration radius, Rg) obtained from 120 SLS were determined by the first-order Berry model using ASTRA-6 software. The AF4 121

instrument was calibrated (Supplementary Materials, Fig. S1) using polystyrene spherical 122 models (PSL, NIST traceable standard) to convert the elution time for a sphere with the 123 equivalent hydrodynamic diameter (d_{zH}). Both the AF4 extracts and < 0.8 μ m water extract 124 fractions were analyzed by pyrolysis (PY-3030D - Frontier Lab, Japan) coupled to gas 125 chromatography and mass spectrometry (Py-GCMS). For this experiment, 40 µL of sample 126 was introduced into an analysis cup and placed on a heating table at 40°C until complete 127 128 evaporation of the solvent. This step was repeated one time to concentrate the samples before injection. The method followed for Py-GC/MS was described by Dehaut et al. (2016), and the 129 130 corresponding settings are detailed in the Supplementary Material. A blank control was performed to ensure that none of the instruments or materials contaminated the samples. 131

132 **3. Results and Discussion**

3.1. Extraction and aggregation of the nanoparticle fraction.

During soil-water extraction, pH, conductivity and TOC were monitored in the <0.8 µm 134 fraction of the soil water-extracts (Fig. 1). For the contaminated soil (Fig. 1.I), in the first 6 h, 135 TOC increased from 24 to 30 mg L⁻¹ and then decreased to reach a pseudo equilibrium from 136 24 h with an average concentration of $23.7 \pm 1.8 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$. The pH remained stable (7.35 ± 0.2), 137 while the conductivity continuously increased along the experiment, from 59.0 to 325.7 µS 138 cm⁻¹. The TOC variations could be explained by an aggregation. Aggregates were formed 139 140 with the running time experiments and were removed by the filtration at 0.8 µm, leading to the TOC decrease. This hypothesis is also supported by the conductivity increase, which 141 could be responsible of the colloids material aggregation. By contrast, the TOC, pH and 142 143 conductivity of the control soil all increased along the experiment (Figure 1.II) but with 144 values much lower than for the contaminated soil. The control soil did not reach equilibrium during the experiment. Moreover, the control soil has lower concentrations of CaO and CO₂ 145 total than the contaminated soil (Table S1, Supplementary Materials). The contaminated soil 146

147 is thus enriched in carbonates as compared to the control sample. Such carbonates are 148 dissolved during the water-extraction which buffer the pH and involve the conductivity 149 increase. This carbonates enrichment could be the result of agricultural practices such as 150 liming but also of the presence of weathered plastics debris. Hahladakis et al. (2018) showed 151 that plastics can have carbonate-based fillers representing until 50% of the total plastic 152 weight.



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154 155

Fig. 1: Evolution of TOC, pH, and conductivity with extraction time. **I**: contaminated soil, **II**: soil control. The error bars correspond to the standard deviation calculated from duplicates.

156 To verify such hypothesis and better understand the behaviors in presence, the soil water extracts were characterized by AF4-UV-SLS. Regarding the TOC evolution, only 3 157 samples were collected and analyzed at 3 extraction times (6 h, 24 h and 72 h). Fig. 2 presents 158 159 the AF4-UV-SLS analysis results at different sampling times for the <0.8 µm solutions. According to the UV results, 3 populations (void time, A and B) were identified for all 160 extraction times (Fig. 2.I). The void time population from 0 to 2.5 min corresponds to small 161 particles (0 to 5 nm) that are generally not colloidal (Chevalier et al. 2018) and correspond to 162 low-molecular-weight OM. They were not considered in the present study. Two colloidal 163 populations were identified: A from 7 to 12 min and B from 12 to 19 min, which correspond 164 to hydrodynamic sizes (d_{ZH}) of 20 to 150 nm and 150 nm to 500 nm, respectively (eq. (1), 165 Supplementary Materials). The variation in Rg (gyration radius), obtained by SLS, provides 166

information on the particle size. From 6 h to 24 h, while Rg did not vary for A, Rg increased 167 168 from 200 to 600 nm for **B** and finally decreased at 72 h to reach 200 nm, the initial value (Fig. 2.II). Such R_g variations indicate particle aggregation (Frimmel, Kammer, et Flemming 2007). 169 To characterize the nature of the particle aggregation, Rg was combined with the 170 hydrodynamic radius ($r_{\rm H}$ – obtained from AF4 elution time, eq. (1)) to determine the shape 171 factor S (i.e., R_g/r_H). While S = 0.778 corresponds to hard spherical particles, a deviation to 1 172 indicates the presence of inhomogeneities on the sphere structure (Brewer et Striegel 2011). 173 Here, S >> 1 indicates the formation of polymorphic aggregates. Our results therefore show 174 the formation of large and polymorphic aggregates. This aggregation process can be 175 confirmed by the UV signal evolution with time. From 6 to 72 h, the UV signal of A 176 decreased, while it increased for **B**, indicating the aggregation and transfer of the **A** 177 population to **B**. Moreover, from 6 to 72 h, the maximum of the peaks in the **B** population is 178 179 shifted to the right, which means that the particles size increased. In addition, from 6 to 72h, the total UV signal decreased for the same elution time interval (7 to 20 min). The total area 180 181 of the peaks was 367 at 6 h, 314 at 24 h and 213 at 72 h which correspond to the TOC decrease and particles loss. Thus, after 24 h, large aggregates with sizes > 0.8 μ m were 182 formed, and the remaining particles in the $<0.8 \,\mu$ m fraction were smaller, as confirmed by the 183 184 R_g decrease.





Fig. 2: I: Fractograms (UV trace at 254 nm) of the soil water extracts at 6 h, 24 h and 72 h from the
contaminated soil with respect to elution time. II: Evolution of the gyration radius (Rg) with the elution time for

the 3 soil water extracts.

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190 *3.2. Are extracted nanoparticles nanoplastics?*

191 To discriminate the presence of anthropogenic nanoparticles, populations **A** and **B** 192 identified by AF4 were collected and further analyzed by Py-GCMS. Analysis by Py-GCMS

of different plastic materials provides specific molecular markers, which are reported in 193 194 commercial databases (Tsuge, Ohtani, et Watanabe 2011; Supplementary Materials, table S2). Fig. 3 presents the pyrograms obtained at different extraction times for A only. The most 195 196 abundant signal was obtained at 24 h (no signal at 72 h). At 6 h and 24 h, the global pyrograms present a series of multiple peaks at constant time intervals that are characteristic 197 of polyethylene (PE) (Tsuge, Ohtani, et Watanabe 2011). By extracting the appropriate ion 198 masses (m/z, Supplementary Materials, table S2), specific plastic molecular markers were 199 200 identified at particular retention times (t_R) , as follows:

- 201 Naphthalene (m/z 128) at $t_R=11.3$ min and naphthalene-1-methyl (m/z 142) at $t_R=12.3$ 202 min are characteristic of polyvinyl chloride (PVC; Fig. 3.II)
- 203 Styrene monomer (m/z 104) at $t_R=8.5$ min and toluene ($t_R=7$ min) are markers of 204 polystyrene (PS; Fig. 3.III).
- Finally, as previously described, the pyrogram (Fig. 3.IV) shows the presence of PE
 with a series of alkenes: 1-decene (C10), 1-undecene (C11), 1-dodecene (C12), 1tridecene (C13), 1-tetradecene (C14) and 1-pentadecene (C15).

208 Moreover, as demonstrated by Ter Halle et al. (2017), the presence of the triplet nalkadiene, n-alkene and n-alkane with a bimodal distribution indicates a typical molecular 209 210 formation pathway of PE during pyrolysis, rather than OM (Fig. 3.IV). Considering the Py-GCMS results and by comparison with the control soil, nanoplastics are effectively present in 211 212 the amended soil. Indeed, for the control soil, 24 h of extraction time also allowed the most important signals to be obtained, but these signals had typical markers that are characteristic 213 of natural organic matter (Supplementary Materials, Fig. S2). No specific markers of plastics 214 215 were determined in the control soil water extracts at any time.

For the contaminated soil, a first approximation gives a size ranging from 20 to 150 nm (A population) with heterogeneous shapes. Surprisingly, no signal was obtained for **B**

despite the aggregation suggested by the AF4 results and TOC evolution. Different 218 hypotheses could be made: (i) the nanoparticles identified in A aggregated to form 219 micrometric particles that were transferred to **B** while the nanoplastics remained stable; or (ii) 220 221 OM became predominant in **B** and interfered with the pyrolysis signal. Nanoplastics could be stabilized by their bindings with organic macromolecules or present a different aggregation 222 behavior. However, the comparison of the water extracts with and without AF4 analysis and 223 fraction collection (Fig. 4) showed that the pyrolysis signals were enhanced after size 224 225 fractionation despite sample dilution. Therefore, AF4 can be used as a purification technique to remove organic and dissolved species that may interfere with detection. The amplification 226 227 of the Py-GCMS signal of plastics after AF4 purification demonstrates that OM mitigates the detection of plastics. A higher proportion of OM than plastics could hide the plastic signature 228 in the Py-GCMS results for the **B** population. This assumption explains the higher pyrolysis 229 230 signal at 24 h than at 6 h and the plastic disappearance at 72 h. To summarize, in the first 6 h, OM was quickly released and aggregated after 24 h. In both cases, OM was present in a 231 232 higher proportion than plastics and interfered with the plastic pyrolysis signal until plastic 233 detection became impossible at 72 h. By contrast, at 24 h, OM had just begun to aggregate, and its proportion was less than that of nanoplastics, enhancing the plastic PY-GCMS signal. 234

235 Finally, despite the increase in detection sensitivity achieved using A4F or other colloidal purification techniques (ultracentrifugation and ultrafiltration), it is still challenging 236 to attribute specific markers to nanoplastics or OM. An interesting way to discriminate the 237 OM contribution from that of plastics is the toluene-to-styrene ratio (Tol/Sty). Styrene and 238 toluene are also produced during the pyrolysis of OM (Fabbri, Trombini, et Vassura 1998). 239 240 Tol/Sty ranges from 4 to 5 for substrates of OM origin, in contrast to values of 0.001 to 1 for polystyrene plastics (Fabbri, Trombini, et Vassura 1998; Watteau et al. 2018). This difference 241 242 in ratios was confirmed by analyzing polystyrene nanoplastics and humic acid standards

(Dignac et al. 2005). Tol/Sty did not exceed 0.03 for the polystyrene standards, while 6.3 was 243 244 obtained for the humic acids. In the soil-water extracts, for A, Tol/Sty was 2.8. Recently, Watteau et al. (2018) compared the Tol/Sty values of leachates from a soil amended with 245 246 municipal solid wastes. For the 0-2 µm fraction, potentially containing nanoplastics, Tol/Sty was approximately 3 to 5 for their nonamended soil sample (Watteau et al. 2018). Despite this 247 difference in range from typical values, the authors claimed no plastic occurrence since 248 249 Tol/Sty was over 1. However, the confidence of the nanoplastics detection in our samples is based on (i) the coherent polystyrene detection associated with PE and PVC nanoplastics 250 251 identification and (ii) the contribution of OM to plastics markers at the nanoscale (i.e., high specific surface area). Note that in the literature, Tol/Sty ratios were determined from 252 microplastic debris with sizes generally >500 µm. Nevertheless, plastic debris (micro- and 253 millimetric) is generally coated by biofilms and OM with a thickness less than 0.4 µm 254 (Besseling et al. 2017). Therefore, the mass proportion of OM on large debris is insignificant. 255 Nanoplastics (like other nanoparticles) are also associated with OM (surface sorption, 256 heteroaggregate formation, surfactant-type associations, etc.) (Hotze, Phenrat, et Lowry 257 258 2010). However, regarding the high specific surface area and similar size of OM and 259 nanoplastics, the OM mass contribution to core materials (i.e., plastics) is substantially larger (Delay et al. 2011). Indeed, by decreasing the size from 200 µm to 200 nm, the OM volume 260 on plastic increases by more than 4 000 times (Supplementary Materials, Fig. S3). This OM 261 distribution on nanoplastics leads to different Tol/Sty values from those of large 262 microplastics. 263

To summarize, in our experiment, nanoplastics are released into the soil solution concomitantly with OM, which controls the stability and aggregation pathways of nanoplastics (Hotze, Phenrat, et Lowry 2010). OM-nanoplastics associations are thus a key factor in their detection in complex environmental matrices. This study demonstrated the

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mandatory use of AF4 or other size-separation techniques for proper detection. The development of an analytical strategy based on Py-GCMS is therefore needed (pyrolysis temperature optimization, ramp program, etc.). Preliminary sample treatment (UV or H₂O₂) to separate nanoplastics from OM is also of major concern in such analytical strategies. Finally, this study also rises the question of plastics impacts on soil chemical properties. The occurrence of plastic debris seems indeed to involve different geochemical behaviors of both studied soils.



Fig. 3: I. Pyrograms of the 3 soil water extracts at 6, 24 and 72 h. Numbers correspond to specific markers of
plastic: 1: toluene, 2: styrene, 3: 1-decene, 4: a-methyl styrene, 5: 1-undecene, 6: 1-dodecene, 7: naphthalene, 8:
1-tridecene, 9: naphthalene 1-methyl, 10: 1-tetradecene, 11: 1-pentadecene. II, III and IV: Ion chromatograms at



281 282



283 *3.3. Environmental implications.*

In addition to the first proof of nanoplastic presence in a soil contaminated by plastic debris, this study demonstrates that such debris is formed from larger pieces of plastic directly in the soil matrix. While the main degradation pathways of plastics in ocean and surface waters are mechanical abrasion and photo-thermo-oxidative degradation (Andrady 2015), these mechanisms only occur in the first centimeters of the soil. Unfortunately, experimental data on plastic degradation in soils are limited and rather scattered, as is knowledge of the

parameters that control these degradation processes (Scalenghe 2018). To elucidate this 290 291 uncertainty concerning nanoplastic formation pathways, the degradation of carrier plastic bags in soil, open-air and marine environments was recently compared over a 3-year period 292 293 (Napper et Thompson 2019). After 3 years, plastic bags were still functional after exposure to soil and marine environments but had degraded into microplastics under open-air conditions. 294 Therefore, degradation is slower in soil and marine environments than under open-air 295 conditions. Our results suggest that in a 30-year time frame, plastic degradation in soil occurs 296 297 to produce nanoplastics, which is similar to the degradation time observed in oceanic systems. This degradation pathway in soil thus suggests the implication of mechanisms other than 298 299 photo-thermo-oxidative processes. Scalenghe (2018) reported that plastics degradation in soil could be enhanced by microorganisms. 300

Nanoplastics production in soil also raises the question of their environmental fate and 301 their final impact on living organisms. The nanoscale of nanoplastics allows them to pass 302 through the cell membranes (Bouwmeester, Hollman, et Peters 2015). As soils support our 303 304 food sources, there is an urgent need to investigate the fate of nanoplastics: Are they taken up by plants? Do they accumulate in the food chain? Are they transferred to surface and 305 306 groundwater? Their ability to cotransport contaminants (Velzeboer, Kwadijk, et Koelmans 307 2014; Davranche et al. 2019) as well as to release additives in the environment (Shen et al. 2019) could also impact water quality. These issues represent considerable societal and 308 economic impacts that need to be urgently characterized to better anticipate them. 309

To conclude, it is important to note that the aim of the present study was not to provide an exhaustive study of the nanoplastic occurrence in various soil families and pedo-climatic conditions. Regarding that no study has already provided evidence of the potential nanoplastic production and presence in natural soil under environmental conditions, we chose to study a soil sample contaminated in plastics during a sufficient timeframe to be able to prove that anoplastics can be produced directly in a soil matrix. For this, we developed an innovative and single extraction/analytical procedure allowing to detect nanoplastics even with a high amount of OM. Moreover, the present results suggest that nanoplastic production in soil seems to be rather slow, 30 years maximum, since photo-degradation is only limited to the first cm of the uppermost soil horizon.

320 4. Supplementary Materials

Table of the elementary composition of the top soil of the contaminated and the uncontaminated soil (Table S1), detailed methods, A4F calibration (Fig. S1), plastic markers for the Py-GCMS detection (Table S2), pyrograms of the soil water extracts from the uncontaminated soil (Fig. S2), comparison between OM volume and plastic debris surface (Fig. S3).

326 5. Acknowledgments

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