

Quality Assessment of Research Studies on Microplastics in Soils: A Methodological Perspective

Published in: *Chemosphere*

Citation for published version: Shanmugam, S.D., Praveena, S.M., Sarkar, B., (2022) Quality Assessment of Research Studies on Microplastics in Soils: A Methodological Perspective. *Chemosphere*, 296: 134026. doi: 10.1016/j.chemosphere.2022.134026.

Document version: Accepted peer-reviewed version.

1 **Quality Assessment of Research Studies on Microplastics in Soils: A**
2 **Methodological Perspective**

3
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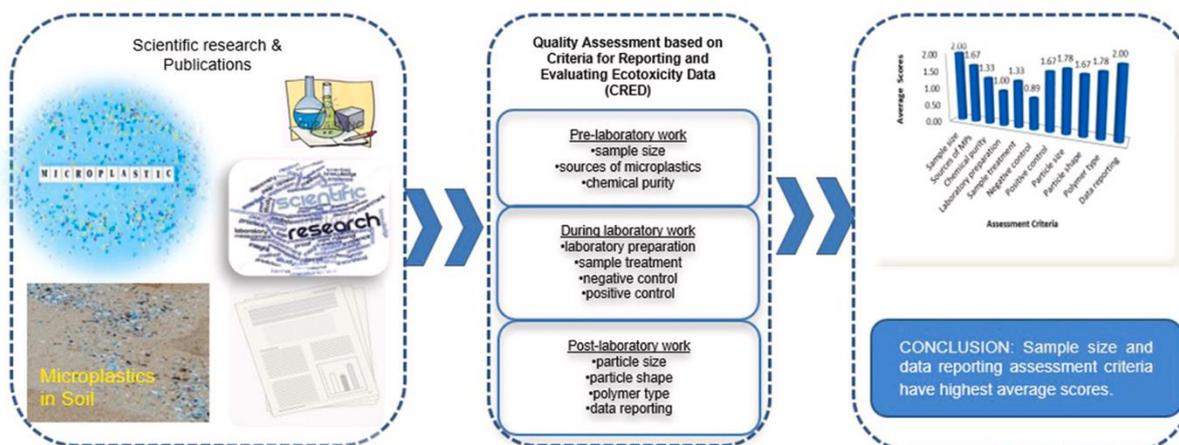
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25 **Highlights**

- 26 • Quality assessment was conducted by using CRED evaluation criteria.
- 27 • A total of 11 criteria were quantitatively evaluated.
- 28 • Sample size and data reporting criteria achieved the highest average scores.
- 29 • Negative control has the lowest average score of 0.89.
- 30 • Quality assurance for soil microplastics studies can be further improved.

31

32 **Graphical abstract**



33

34

35 **Abstract**

36 Microplastics have become a global concern, and soil acts as a major sink for plastic
37 pollution. Due to rapid development of soil microplastics research, various analysis
38 methods have been developed, but require proper consistency and standard
39 procedures. The objective of this study was to appraise a quality assessment
40 concerning soil microplastics from a methodological perspective. Nine studies were
41 selected for the quality assessment exercise based on methodological investigations
42 on soil microplastics and were evaluated based on the adapted Criteria for Reporting
43 and Evaluating Ecotoxicity Data (CRED) method. The highest score obtained by an
44 individual study was 21 while the lowest was 14, leaving a wide score gap which
45 indicated inconsistency amongst the studies. Criterion with the highest average score
46 of 2.0 was obtained for sample size and data reporting. The lowest average score of
47 0.89 was for the negative control. In conclusion, the total average scores for all eleven
48 criteria were 1.56. Current quality assessment perceived that there was room for
49 improvement and betterment of quality assurance for studies on microplastics and a
50 form of guideline on methodological aspects of soil microplastics studies. It was
51 suggested that future microplastics studies should methodically include quality
52 assurance/ quality control (QA/QC) protocols in every process to ensure that good
53 quality data is produced and applied in the risk assessment process.

54

55 Keywords: microplastics, soil, quality assessment, CRED method

56

57 **1.0 Introduction**

58 The outspread of sewage sludge, usage of plastic mulches, and land irrigation are
59 sources of microplastics contamination in soil (KAUR et al., 2022; Tian et al., 2022).
60 Due to low degradation rate, microplastics have tendency to adsorb toxic chemicals
61 and be ingested erroneously by various organisms that are habituating in soil
62 (Campanale et al., 2020). Contaminated microplastics in soil have high possibility of
63 being transferred to humans, causing threat to human health as microplastics are
64 eventually passed on to animals and become bio-accumulated through the food chain
65 (Elizalde-Velázquez and Gómez-Oliván, 2021; Zhou et al., 2021). Reports have also
66 suggested that nanoplastics, which are potential products of microplastic weathering
67 in soil, could be taken up by various plant species such as *Arabidopsis thaliana* (Sun
68 et al., 2020) and wheat (Li et al., 2020). These nanoplastics will be redistributed in
69 roots, stems, and leaves, resulting in additional risks of direct human exposure to
70 plastic contaminants in human bodies via food (Wu et al., 2021; Xiang et al., 2022;
71 Zhou et al., 2021).

72 Until now, density separation is a common method for extracting microplastics
73 from soil as this method differentiates the density between polymers and separation
74 (Lastovina and Budnyk, 2021; Radford et al., 2021; Sridhar et al., 2022). Although this
75 method is reliable and rapid, it cannot separate microplastics of very high density
76 because the heavy plastic particles along with other soil components may divide in the
77 same separating phase (Cutroneo et al., 2021; Stile et al., 2021). The oil extraction
78 technique exploits the oleophilic properties of microplastics, whereby the oil
79 encapsulates the microplastics for easier extraction. However, further identification is
80 limited as oil traces could not be eliminated (Scopetani et al., 2020). Other techniques
81 include a separator to isolate microplastics from solid samples through electrostatic

82 charges (Felsing et al., 2018) and the pressurised fluid extraction method by using
83 solvents (Fuller and Gautam, 2016). However, these techniques have not been
84 experimented further, resulting in uncertainty about reproducibility. The inconsistency
85 amongst adopted methodologies face challenges in comparing various investigations,
86 causing inefficient approximation of microplastics occurrence in soil (Jiao et al., 2021;
87 Mári et al., 2021). Moreover, the methods and effects of extraction treatments on
88 microplastics are seldom evaluated and reported for their efficiencies (Yang et al.,
89 2021). Until now, various methodologies for extracting and examining soil
90 microplastics were reviewed (Möller et al., 2020; Ruggero et al., 2020; Thomas et al.,
91 2020; Zhang et al., 2020; Zhou et al., 2020). These reviews focused on recovery of
92 microplastics based on individual experimental sampling, solutions, digestion, and
93 extraction techniques. However, these studies lack in quality assessment of
94 methodologies which involve soil microplastics.

95 Methodological aspects quality assessment of microplastics was reported in
96 water studies (Koelmans et al., 2019), aquatic biota samples (Hermsen et al., 2018a)
97 and bottled water (Praveena and Laohaprapanon, 2021). But reports on soil
98 microplastic studies are not available. Various studies that involved methodology
99 developments for microplastics analysis in soil have a high possibility to differ in the
100 degree of quality assurance deployed, causing debate on the quality of microplastics
101 findings (Cowger et al., 2020). Without the implementation of a proper quality
102 assurance assessment throughout the analysis, it will result in lower quality of
103 microplastic concentration data in the environment, leading to ineffective risk
104 assessment and decision-making (Brander et al., 2020).

105 Quality assessment of methodological aspects for environmental studies
106 comprises protocols, such as the Klimisch method, European Commission's Technical

107 Guidance for Deriving Environmental Quality Standards (TGD), and Criteria for
108 Reporting and Evaluating Ecotoxicity Data (CRED) (EU, 2018; Klimisch et al., 1997;
109 Moermond et al., 2016). The Klimisch method provides structure of procedures for
110 assessment on reliability of studies via classifications. The Klimisch method is
111 subjected to limitations of criteria for evaluation without specific guidance for relevant
112 evaluation, leading to result inconsistencies. Additionally, this method does not
113 guarantee enough reliability and relevance of the outcomes. Moreover, conflicting
114 evaluation results influence the outcome of assessment, and thus affect the quality of
115 studies (Ågerstrand et al., 2011; Tweedale, 2010). The European Commission's
116 Technical Guidance for Deriving Environmental Quality Standards (TGD) lacks
117 comprehensive information on the evaluation of reliability and relevance of studies,
118 causing evaluations to depend on expert judgement and leading to many
119 disagreements amongst assessors (Kase et al., 2016). The Criteria for Reporting and
120 Evaluating Ecotoxicity Data (CRED) is an improved scientific method which provides
121 more meticulous and transparent assessments of reliability and relevance of studies,
122 ensuring that any data is not disregarded without clear justification (Kase et al., 2016).
123 The CRED method provides assessors with more systematic assessment with direct
124 and detailed instructions on method evaluation of the studies, resulting in the discovery
125 of more weaknesses in the representation, performance, analysis and reporting of the
126 studies (Moermond et al., 2016). Assessors are granted room for thorough discussions
127 on the focused strengths and weaknesses of a study, as opposed to the fixed criteria
128 of the Klimisch method (Kase et al., 2016). So far, CRED method has been well
129 adapted for methodological aspects of microplastic studies which involve marine biota
130 (Ruijter et al., 2020), aquatic biota (Hermsen et al., 2018a) and drinking water
131 (Koelmans et al., 2019).

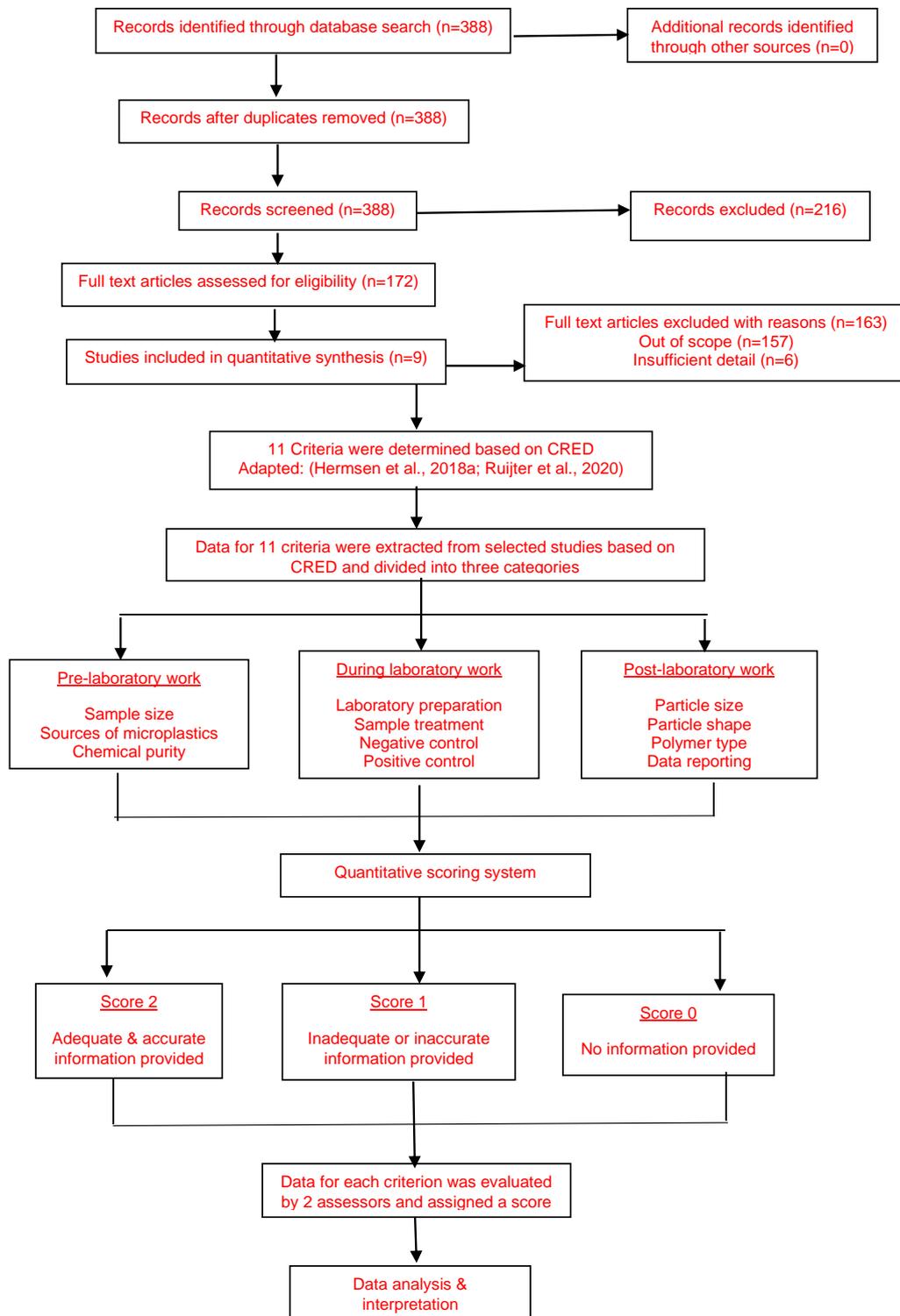
132 The objective of this study is to review the methodological aspects of
133 microplastics in soil by using the adapted CRED method, focusing on 11 criteria which
134 are divided into three main groups, namely pre-laboratory work (sample size, sources
135 of microplastics, and chemical purity), during laboratory work (laboratory preparation,
136 sample treatment, negative control, and positive control) and post-laboratory work
137 (polymer size, polymer shape, polymer type, and data reporting). The current quality
138 assessment study brings significance as it will indicate the areas of strength and
139 weakness that need improvement, particularly in the analytical procedure aspects,
140 such as sampling, sample treatment, use of controls, polymer identification and data
141 reporting. This leads to steps that ensure high data quality and a foundation for
142 standardisation of methodologies for future soil microplastics research.

143

144 **2.0 Methodology**

145 Literature was retrieved from the databases of Elsevier, Web of Science,
146 Scopus, and Google Scholar. Extensive literature search for studies on microplastics
147 in soil was performed until February 2021, focusing on methodology aspects for quality
148 assessment on method development. Queries included the following search terms:
149 “microplastics AND extraction AND soil”, “microplastics AND separation AND soil”,
150 “microplastics AND identification AND methods”, “microplastics AND soil AND
151 methodology”. There were 388 papers retrieved and screened. A total of 216 papers
152 were excluded as they did not meet the study requirements. The remaining 172 full
153 text papers were assessed for eligibility and 163 papers were excluded as they were
154 out of scope. A total of 9 studies were selected as these studies were involved in
155 method development for isolation and identification of soil microplastics. The nine

156 studies were selected and included in the quality assessment from a methodological
 157 perspective by using CRED (Supplementary 2). Figure 1 provides a detailed summary
 158 on the methodology flow from literature search until data analysis.



159

160 Figure 1. Flowchart of the methodology from literature search until data analysis

161 The selected nine studies were evaluated based on 11 quality
162 assurance/quality control (QA/QC) criteria subjected to the CRED method and were
163 adapted from studies by Hermsen et al. (2018a) and Ruijter et al. (2020). Quality
164 assessment was done for the following three categories: pre-laboratory work (sample
165 size, sources of microplastics, and chemical purity), during laboratory work (laboratory
166 preparation, sample treatment, negative control, and positive control) and post-
167 laboratory work (particle size, particle shape, polymer type, and data reporting).
168 Supplementary 1 describes the proposed quantitative scoring system to evaluate the
169 studies for extraction and identification of microplastics in soil by using the quality
170 assessment criteria. Each study was accumulated as part of this literature review and
171 was independently evaluated with scores by two assessors, in due course tabulated
172 and thoroughly discussed to reduce potential ambiguities. The data on average scores
173 for respective criteria were further analysed, paving ways to discuss the findings. The
174 assessment criteria were mainly implemented in this study to generate a
175 comprehension pertaining to the improvement of investigation methods for
176 microplastics research in soil.

177

178 **3.0 Results and Discussion**

179 3.1 An overview on methodologies

180 A total of nine studies were selected in this review, in which three studies
181 extracted microplastics from soil by using the density separation method (Han et al.,
182 2019a; Li et al., 2021, 2019). Studies by Mani et al. (2019) and Scopetani et al. (2020)
183 experimented the oil-based extraction method while Felsing et al. (2018) used the
184 electrostatic method to extract microplastics from soil. A study by Fuller and Gautam

185 (2016) used the mechanical method by extracting microplastics with pressurised fluid
186 extraction (PFE). Similarly, Liu et al. (2019) used the mechanical (circulation) method
187 for the same purpose. The heating method was used for extraction of soil microplastics
188 by Zhang et al. (2018).

189 Table 1 shows each study criterion which had assigned score of either 2
190 (adequate), 1 (adequate with restrictions), or 0 (inadequate) for all nine studies. The
191 maximum total score for the 11 criteria based on each study was 22 and based on
192 each criterion was 18. It was stressed that the scores provided for every study should
193 not be taken as a perception indicative of the relative value of the study. A study
194 scoring low on a certain criterion is still possible to provide valuable findings and
195 knowledge on microplastics in soil. The detailed information per individual study is
196 provided in Supplementary 2.

197

198 Table 1. Individual scores for each criterion based on methodological aspects of soil microplastics

References	Sample size	Source of microplastics	Chemical purity	Laboratory preparation	Sample treatment	Negative Control	Positive Control	Particle size	Particle shape	Polymer type	Data reporting
(Li et al., 2021)	2	2	2	0	1	1	2	2	1	1	2
(Scopetani et al., 2020)	2	1	1	1	2	1	2	2	2	2	2
(Liu et al., 2019)	2	2	1	0	2	1	2	2	2	2	2
(Li et al., 2019)	2	1	1	2	1	0	0	2	2	2	2
(Zhang et al., 2018)	2	2	1	1	1	0	2	2	2	1	2
(Felsing et al., 2018)	2	1	1	2	2	0	2	1	2	2	2
(Fuller and Gautam, 2016)	2	2	1	0	0	2	1	1	1	2	2
(Mani et al., 2019)	2	2	2	2	1	2	2	2	2	2	2
(Han et al., 2019a)	2	2	2	1	2	1	2	2	1	2	2

199

200 3.2 Quality assessment of selected studies

201 3.2.1. Pre-laboratory work criteria

202 All nine selected papers provided weight of soil sample size between 10 g and
203 200 g, and thus scoring a maximum score of 2 (Table 1). Studies by Fuller and Gautam
204 (2016), Mani et al. (2019), Scopetani et al. (2020) and Zhang et al. (2018) reported on
205 sampling of 10 g soil, which was the lowest sample size amongst all the selected
206 papers, while Han et al. (2019a) reported that 200 g was the highest sample size. All
207 selected studies obtained more than 90% recovery of microplastics, demonstrating
208 that the range of 10 g - 200 g sampling sizes were efficient for the developed
209 methodologies. Studies have reported that a smaller sample size such as 10 g was
210 enough when specifically investigating particles which are meticulous to detect,
211 suggesting that smaller particles (< 500 µm) were more ample (Cabernard et al., 2018;
212 Hermsen et al., 2018a; Ruijter et al., 2020; Zhang et al., 2018). However, a smaller
213 sample size (<10 g) decreased the possibility of recovering particles, leading to a
214 reduction of the strength of study while increasing the error margin (Koelmans et al.,
215 2019). Although extremely low sample sizes provide interesting data, it does not
216 provide solid conclusions as statistical strength would be too low to concur a trend. A
217 larger sample size will provide reliable findings as well as narrow the confidence
218 intervals (Hermsen et al., 2018a). Therefore, it is advisable to provide an adequate
219 sample size based on intent and method of study to enhance the mean result and
220 reliability of study (Hermsen et al., 2018a).

221 Sources of microplastics refer to specification on the root sources of
222 microplastics, whether bought or self-made, which maximises the reproducibility, and
223 should be reported. Reproducibility of experiments is possible when information on

224 microplastic materials is provided in detail, which undoubtedly influences findings of
225 particle size, shape, and polymer type (Brander et al., 2020). A total of six studies
226 obtained scores of 2 as detailed information on origins of microplastics, density and
227 other particulars were provided (Fuller and Gautam, 2016; Han et al., 2019a; Li et al.,
228 2021; Liu et al., 2019; Mani et al., 2019; Zhang et al., 2018). Three studies furnished
229 incomplete information on the sources of microplastics, and thus scored a minimal
230 score of 1 (Felsing et al., 2018; Li et al., 2019; Scopetani et al., 2020). Studies by
231 Fuller and Gautam (2016), Han et al. (2019a), Li et al. (2021), Liu et al. (2019) and
232 Zhang et al. (2018) have utilised manufactured microplastics such as polyethylene,
233 polyvinylchloride, and polyethylene terephthalate. The outcomes of the assessment
234 presented that most studies preferred to use manufactured microplastics over self-
235 made ones. Manufactured microplastics such as low-density polyethylene (LDPE),
236 high density polyethylene (HDPE), polyvinyl chloride (PVC), nylon, Teflon and
237 thermoplastic polyurethane (TPU) decrease the possibility of non-uniformity in shape
238 and size as the microplastics are of industrial grade and mechanically manufactured
239 (Freile-Pelegrín and Madera-Santana, 2017). When solid polymers undergo the
240 process of heating and moulding, polymers become hard and infusible, making them
241 more steadfast (Bass et al., 2020). Self-made microplastics were used in studies by
242 Felsing et al. (2018) and Scopetani et al. (2020). Self-made microplastics were
243 prepared by manually shredding and cutting various common plastic products such as
244 water bottles, yogurt bottles, plastic spoons, polyvinylchloride pipes, Styrofoam
245 packaging material, and plastic strainers (Han et al., 2019a; Mani et al., 2019). The
246 advantage of self-made microplastics is that the sources are easily available and come
247 in various colours depending on the source, making identification easier (Hahladakis
248 et al., 2018). However, the limitation is that there is possibility of non-uniformity in

249 shape and size of the microplastics. A maximum of 10 types of microplastics (HDPE,
250 LDPE, PET, PP, PS, PVC, PMMA, PLA, polyethylene fibres, and self-made tire wear)
251 were used for soil spiking by Felsing et al. (2018) and Liu et al. (2019), and a minimum
252 of two microplastic types (LDPE, PP) by Zhang et al. (2018).

253 Chemical purity is an essential criterion for quality assessment of microplastic
254 studies. (Han et al., 2019a; Li et al., 2021; Mani et al., 2019) documented full details
255 on chemical origin, brand, grade, and other information leading to a maximum score
256 of 2. Assessment presented six studies received a score of 1 as insufficient detail on
257 chemicals were reported (Felsing et al., 2018; Fuller and Gautam, 2016; Li et al., 2019;
258 Liu et al., 2019; Scopetani et al., 2020; Zhang et al., 2018). All the selected papers
259 utilised chemicals for sample treatment and microplastics extraction, except for study
260 done by Zhang et al. (2018) which used distilled water for this purpose. Fuller and
261 Gautam (2016) used solvents of high purity to extract microplastics. However, the
262 concentrations of solvents were not reported, and thus making it difficult to be
263 experimented further. Chemicals of high grade are known to be the purest of
264 chemicals and contain the least number of impurities (Abdin et al., 2020). The grades
265 of chemicals decrease as the level of impurities increase. Impurities are matters such
266 as water and trace metals in a confined chemical stage which vary from the respective
267 chemical composition of that phase (van Brakel, 2014). These impurities have
268 possibilities of causing reactions that alter the property or characteristics of
269 microplastics and affect the recovery level. Furthermore, corrosive chemicals affect
270 the outcomes of studies as they are capable of digesting or causing surface
271 degradation of microplastics (Chamas et al., 2020). Significant chemical alterations
272 such as oxidation and chain scission result in reduction of molecular weight and
273 magnitude of polymerization of the polymers (Chamas et al., 2020). Karami et al.

274 (2017), investigated into chemical contaminants pertaining to microplastics.
275 Nevertheless, chemical effects still could not be eliminated from experimental findings.
276 Unfortunately, chemical contaminants that were present in the microplastics were
277 overlooked. Most studies were unable to differentiate between possible microplastics
278 toxicity and chemical toxicity that caused adverse effects (Hwang et al., 2020; Ruijter
279 et al., 2020; Wang et al., 2021).

280

281 3.2.2 During laboratory work criteria

282 Contamination during laboratory preparation is a prevailing phenomenon during
283 microplastics studies, resulting in unreliability in the outcomes of many studies.
284 Various steps were taken to prevent contamination during sampling, treatment, and
285 analysis in microplastic investigations. A score of 2 was assigned when cotton clothes
286 and cotton laboratory coats were worn; distilled or ultrapure water was used for
287 cleaning and chemical preparation purposes, alongside usage of nitrile gloves,
288 including cleaning of laboratory surfaces and equipment. A score of 1 was assigned
289 when only a part of the measures was taken to avoid microplastics contamination or it
290 was generally mentioned. Studies by Felsing et al. (2018), Li et al. (2019) and Mani et
291 al. (2019) obtained a score of 2 while a score of 1 was assigned to papers by Han et
292 al. (2019a), Scopetani et al. (2020) and Zhang et al. (2018). Three of the selected
293 papers had limitedly mentioned the form of contamination prevention as the study
294 focus was mainly on good extraction precision of microplastics (Fuller and Gautam,
295 2016; Li et al., 2021; Liu et al., 2019). Commonly, contamination from microfibre stems
296 from clothing of researchers (Hermsen et al., 2018a). Natural fibre clothing such as
297 100% cotton attire and laboratory coats enables prevention of this contaminant.

298 Additionally, strict precautions were taken by sanitising surfaces, tools, and equipment
299 with alcohol. However, the sanitisation method may not be rigorous to eliminate
300 contamination, and thus meticulous washing and rinsing of laboratory tools and
301 apparatus were considered a good alternative. Studies by Li et al. (2019), Mani et al.
302 (2019) and Zhang et al. (2018) took further steps for contamination control by covering
303 glassware and apparatus with aluminium foil to avoid air borne contamination from
304 microplastics in the atmosphere. The usage of sampling apparatus and laboratory
305 equipment should be made from glass or metal instead of plastic. When usage of
306 plastic materials cannot be avoided, it is advisable to run procedural blanks to quantify
307 and rectify the addition of plastics from the equipment. More so, it is of utmost
308 importance to take appropriate storage measures of the equipment which can be
309 possibly contaminated by atmospheric deposition. The efficacy of cleanliness and
310 storage protocols may be periodically examined through stereoscope and procedural
311 blanks (Brander et al., 2020). Distilled water or ultrapure water was used for cleaning
312 and chemical preparation. Nitrile gloves were also used during microplastics
313 investigations by Mani et al. (2019). Nitrile gloves are manufactured to be more
314 resistant to solvents and chemicals and possess ability in breaking up electrostatic
315 charges, which can reduce contamination in the work environment (O'Connor et al.,
316 2020).

317 Sample treatment is essential as microplastics have resemblance to organic
318 matter in soils due to similar density concentrations, which interfere in the isolation
319 and identification of microplastics (Radford et al., 2021). Therefore, treatment of
320 sample was required to eliminate organic matter from spiked soil samples. A score of
321 2 was assigned when solution details and method used was presented with reference,
322 while a score of 1 was assigned when information was limited. Four studies received

323 a score of 2 for reporting the method used with references (Felsing et al., 2018; Han
324 et al., 2019a; Liu et al., 2019; Scopetani et al., 2020), while studies by Li et al. (2021,
325 2019), Mani et al. (2019) and Zhang et al. (2018) obtained a score of 1 due to lack of
326 method references. Five of the selected papers had preference in using hydrogen
327 peroxide for the digestion of organic matter through the oxidation method (Han et al.,
328 2019a; Li et al., 2019; Liu et al., 2019; Mani et al., 2019; Scopetani et al., 2020).
329 Hydrogen peroxide, when used at lower temperatures (up to 60 °C) proved to be a
330 good and effective chemical agent in the digestion process due to very little polymer
331 degradation and little effect on integrity in polymers (Al-Azzawi et al., 2020; Prata et
332 al., 2019). The selected studies carried out the digestion method with spiked soil
333 samples by using various types of soil such as farmland, paddy, floodplain, yellow
334 brown, agricultural and oat field, resulting in optimum findings. Zhang et al. (2018)
335 used the heating method to differentiate between microplastics and impurities in
336 spiked clay soil, loess soil and sandy soil that contained organic matter of 3.23%,
337 4.2%, and 7.4%, respectively. Microplastics transformed into transparent, circular, and
338 shiny particles when exposed to temperatures of 130 °C for 3 s - 5 s. The melting point
339 of LDPE and PP was 115 °C – 135 °C and 130 °C – 171 °C, respectively. If the
340 temperature was too high or the heating time was too long, the properties of the melted
341 microplastics such as transparency, circular form and shine would not be observed
342 (Zhang et al., 2018). Heating is usually part of the sample treatment process. This is
343 carried out to speed up the treatment process especially for digestion of organic
344 matter. Even so, the heating process can be detrimental as some microplastics can
345 be distorted (Hermsen et al., 2018a). Additionally, Felsing et al. (2018) measured the
346 total organic carbon (TOC) content from sediment and sand by acidifying freeze dried
347 samples with 1M hydrochloric acid for 3 h – 4 h and analysing with a carbon analyser.

348 The use of negative controls in microplastics studies pertaining to method
349 development is a growing standard practise. Possibilities of contamination by
350 microplastics fibres and particles are high, especially during spiking the samples and
351 handling, treatment, and analysis. Therefore, it is extremely critical to utilise controls
352 in parallel to spiked samples (Brander et al., 1965; Hermsen et al., 2018a). Negative
353 controls are essential to determine secondary contamination (Koelmans et al., 2019).
354 Negative controls should not contain any microplastics. A common practice in running
355 a negative control is to expose a wet filter paper in a petri dish at the work area during
356 sampling, processing, and analysis in the laboratory. The moist filter paper is then
357 analysed for microplastics by using microscopy and spectrographic methods together
358 with environmental samples. Another method to evaluate microplastics contamination
359 during analytical techniques such as digestion process, is to run an empty beaker with
360 reagents used (acid, alkali, oxidants, and catalysts) parallel to digesting soil samples
361 (Brander et al., 2020). A score of 2 was assigned when soil blanks for each batch of
362 spiked samples with triplicates were included. Controls should be given the same full
363 treatment as the studied spiked samples. Studies by Fuller and Gautam (2016) and
364 Mani et al. (2019) scored a total of 2 as the studies had run blanks with triplicates.
365 Mani et al. (2019) reported absence of microplastics in the blanks. However, Fuller
366 and Gautam (2016) detected an average content of 0.09 mg microplastics. This could
367 be due to possibility of the plastics being incorporated into the methanol, hexane, and
368 dichloromethane solvents, and thus resulting in greater than 100% recovery (Fuller
369 and Gautam, 2016). A score of 1 was given when blank soil sample was included.
370 Nevertheless, deemed insufficient if less than three replicates. Four studies received
371 a score of 1 (Han et al., 2019a; Li et al., 2021; Liu et al., 2019; Scopetani et al., 2020).
372 These studies had run blanks parallel with spiked samples to check for potential

373 source of contamination, but number of replicates was not mentioned. The rest of the
374 selected papers obtained a score of 0 for lack of information (Felsing et al., 2018; Li
375 et al., 2019; Zhang et al., 2018). Studies scored 0 when no form of negative control
376 was included in the study.

377 Positive controls were carried out to confirm whether microplastics found in
378 samples were accurately recovered during the isolation procedure (Dehaut et al.,
379 2019). Positive controls, also known as spiked recovery, were artificial samples that
380 were spiked with known microplastics particles and given the exact treatment as
381 unknown samples (Brander et al., 2020). The particle recoveries were calculated by
382 tallying the numbers of retrieved particles to the amounts added. Positive controls
383 must be run for selected microplastics, enclosing various polymer types and sizes.
384 Polymer sizes cover a wide range, and thus it must not be taken for granted that
385 recovered microplastics sustained a constant range of sizes and polymer types.
386 Therefore, it was important to use significantly small microplastics as controls due to
387 difficulty in recovering them (Koelmans et al., 2019). A score of 2 was assigned when
388 studies included positive controls in triplicates with added known microplastics and
389 were treated in parallel to the samples. Studies by Felsing et al. (2018), Han et al.
390 (2019a), Li et al. (2021), Liu et al. (2019), Mani et al. (2019), Scopetani et al. (2020)
391 and Zhang et al. (2018) had run positive controls with three or more replicates, and
392 thus obtaining a score of 2. (Liu et al., 2019) carried out three parallel experiments
393 with three replicates for experimental groups. Studies that report less than three
394 control replicates were assigned a score of 1, while a score of 0 was given when no
395 positive controls were reported. A study by Fuller and Gautam (2016) reported limited
396 information on replicates, resulting in a score of 1. Additionally, Li et al. (2019) scored
397 a 0 due to limited information with only a mention that control samples were used. To

398 validate the newly developed methods, it was essential to quantify the losses by using
399 positive controls to rectify and report insufficient recovery. For rectification purposes,
400 the differential findings detected in the positive controls were eliminated from the
401 findings in experimental samples. The outcome of positive controls was accounted for
402 establishment on the performance of the laboratory-based methods.

403

404 3.2.3 Post - laboratory work criteria

405 Particle size is a factor which defines the effects of developed methodologies
406 on microplastics (Hermsen et al., 2018a). The before and after comparison of particle
407 size should be reported to ensure that the spiked microplastics were chemically
408 unaltered during treatment and extraction processes (Mani et al., 2019). Some
409 methods included possibility of plastic altering procedures, such as ultra-sonication
410 and acidic or alkaline purification. Therefore, it was essential to provide a procedure
411 which was non-destructive in nature (Bergmann et al., 2015; Claessens et al., 2013).
412 A score of 2 was assigned to studies when before and after particle size ranges were
413 reported with unit measurement. Studies by Han et al. (2019a), Li et al. (2021, 2019),
414 Liu et al. (2019) Mani et al. (2019), Scopetani et al. (2020) and Zhang et al. (2018)
415 obtained a score of 2 due to providing details of particle sizes before and after spiking.
416 The study by Zhang et al. (2018) used LDPE particles sized <150 µm and PP particles
417 sized <400 µm, which resulted in after-spike particle sizes being close to the original
418 size ranges of 100 µm – 250 µm and >250 µm. Han et al. (2019a), Li et al. (2021) and
419 Mani et al. (2019) experimented with microplastics with a size of <1 mm. However, all
420 three studies reported no change in particle size of before and after spiking which
421 provided notion that the developed methodologies had not affected the sizes of
422 microplastics. A study by Liu et al. (2019) used microplastics of 0.03 mm – 4.76 mm

423 in size with a majority of after- spike recovery of 53.6% with <1 mm particle size.
424 Polyethylene microplastics were classified into three size categories of 100 µm – 500
425 µm, 500 µm – 1000 µm and 1000 µm – 3000 µm, providing a 100% recovery for sizes
426 >1 mm but a lower mean of 75.0% - 96.7% for sizes between 100 µm – 500 µm. The
427 study by Scopetani et al. (2020) had experimented with microplastics of sizes 0.2 mm
428 – 2 mm, with retrieval of after -spike particles as small as 5 µm – 300 µm, concluding
429 that the olive oil-based extraction method works well for retrieval of smaller
430 microplastics. A score of 1 was assigned to studies when before and after spike
431 particle size ranges were not reported with unit measurement. Studies by Felsing et
432 al. (2018) and Fuller and Gautam (2016), scored a 1 as the after-spike particle size
433 was not reported. Fuller and Gautam (2016) used a much smaller size of 50 µm of
434 powdered microplastics, facing limitations in detecting the after spiking microplastics
435 due to inability to measure size fractions of microplastics in samples. It was perceived
436 that the verification of smaller size microplastics from samples remained to be tough
437 by using available equipment. The present technology such as micro-Fourier
438 transformed infrared (µ-FTIR) spectrometry enables microplastics verification of
439 particles < 10 µm. However, such technological systems must be improved and be
440 readily available to researchers (O'Connor et al., 2020).

441 The gauging criterion pertaining to categorising of microplastics particle shape
442 is an important factor in determining and interpreting effects of microplastics (Ruijter
443 et al., 2020). The before and after observation of particle shape allows determination
444 whether shapes influence the isolation and identification processes in microplastics
445 studies. It is essential to incorporate measurements of shape by using some form of
446 high-resolution microscope to illustrate complete microplastic characterisation (Ruijter
447 et al., 2020). Studies that reported shapes with measurements by using high resolution

448 microscope were assigned a score of 2. Studies by Felsing et al. (2018), Li et al.
449 (2019), Liu et al. (2019), Mani et al. (2019), Scopetani et al. (2020) and Zhang et al.
450 (2018) scored a 2 by documenting specific shape findings. Felsing et al. (2018)
451 observed fragments, films, fibres, microbeads, spheres and pellets, while Scopetani
452 et al. (2020) found PS fragments and ABS fibres with similarity in before and after
453 spike particles. Zhang et al. (2018) used irregularly shaped particles of PP and PE
454 before spiking, which after the heating method rolled up into circular plastic fibres, as
455 PE and PP were light density polymers. This proved that the method developed
456 enabled smooth identification and was efficient in extracting microplastics from soil
457 organic matter. Additionally, Felsing et al. (2018), Liu et al. (2019) and Mani et al.
458 (2019) reported findings of fragments, fibres, microbeads, spheres, and pellets with
459 after spike PS of 36% microbeads and 29% foam. Liu et al. (2019) experimented with
460 beads, spheres, pellets, films, particle, and fibre, which resulted in 65% - 98.3%
461 recovery of particle, fibre and film. Finally, Li et al. (2019) used spiked microplastics of
462 fragment, bulk and fibre. However, after the separation process, it was found that white
463 fibre consisted of 38.9 % - 65.1 % was the dominating shape in soil. Particle shapes
464 were observed by using digital microscopy and stereomicroscopy. The selected
465 studies preferred using the stereomicroscopy technique with digital camera as the
466 magnified images were able to identify ambiguous plastic-like particles. Nevertheless,
467 particles of size range of <100µm without colour or definite shape faced difficulty in
468 characterisation as microplastics (Shim et al., 2017). Studies that only reported shapes
469 without using any form of microscopy equipment for measurement or vice versa was
470 given a score of 1. Selected studies by Fuller and Gautam (2016), Han et al. (2019a)
471 and Li et al. (2021) had obtained a score of 1. According to Ruijter et al. (2020), the
472 shapes used in experimental studies and the shapes recovered from environmental

473 samples showed a significant difference and suggested that greater refinement of
474 shapes into specific groups would provide better mechanistic comprehension.

475 Polymer type is important as the potential effects of microplastics are
476 determined by the composition of the polymer constituting the respective
477 microplastics, which indirectly influence the density of the polymer particles (Kooi et
478 al., 2017; O'Connor et al., 2020). This criterion determines the changes in chemical
479 structure that occur during the isolation and extraction processes. O'Connor et al.
480 (2020) stated that it was crucial to provide detailed information on the polymer
481 composition, such as chemical additives, surface chemistry, degree of crystallinity and
482 plasticisers, as they influence the outcome of microplastics in experimental design and
483 the environment. A range of polymers from low density to high density were used for
484 spiking experiments for the purpose of method development. A criterion score of 2
485 was assigned to the selected studies when polymer type was reported with
486 instrumentation. Studies by Felsing et al. (2018), Fuller and Gautam (2016), Han et al.
487 (2019a), Li et al. (2019), Liu et al. (2019), Mani et al. (2019) and Scopetani et al. (2020)
488 obtained a score of 2 with complete information on polymer type including
489 instrumentation details. Studies by Fuller and Gautam (2016), Han et al. (2019a), Li et
490 al. (2019), Liu et al. (2019), Mani et al. (2019) and Scopetani et al. (2020) identified
491 the spiked polymer types by using Fourier Transform Infrared Spectroscopy (FTIR).
492 Fuller and Gautam (2016) detected similarity between the initial spiking particles
493 (HDPE, PS and PVC) and the FTIR spectra database. This proved that chemical
494 changes did not occur in the microplastic particles during the isolation and extraction
495 procedures. A study by Felsing et al. (2018) reported polymer identification through
496 Pyrolysis-Gas Chromatography Mass Spectrometry (Pyr-GCMS). This
497 instrumentation technique presented analysis of thermally decomposed gas from

498 polymers, whereby the pyrograms of spiked polymers were compared with known
499 reference pyrograms. Both, FTIR and Pyr-GCMS were widely used in microplastic
500 studies since these techniques provided accurate and reliable findings of polymer
501 types (Shim et al., 2017). A criterion score of 1 was assigned to the selected studies
502 when the polymer type was reported but without details on instrumentation. Studies
503 by Li et al. (2021) and Zhang et al. (2018) received a score of 1.

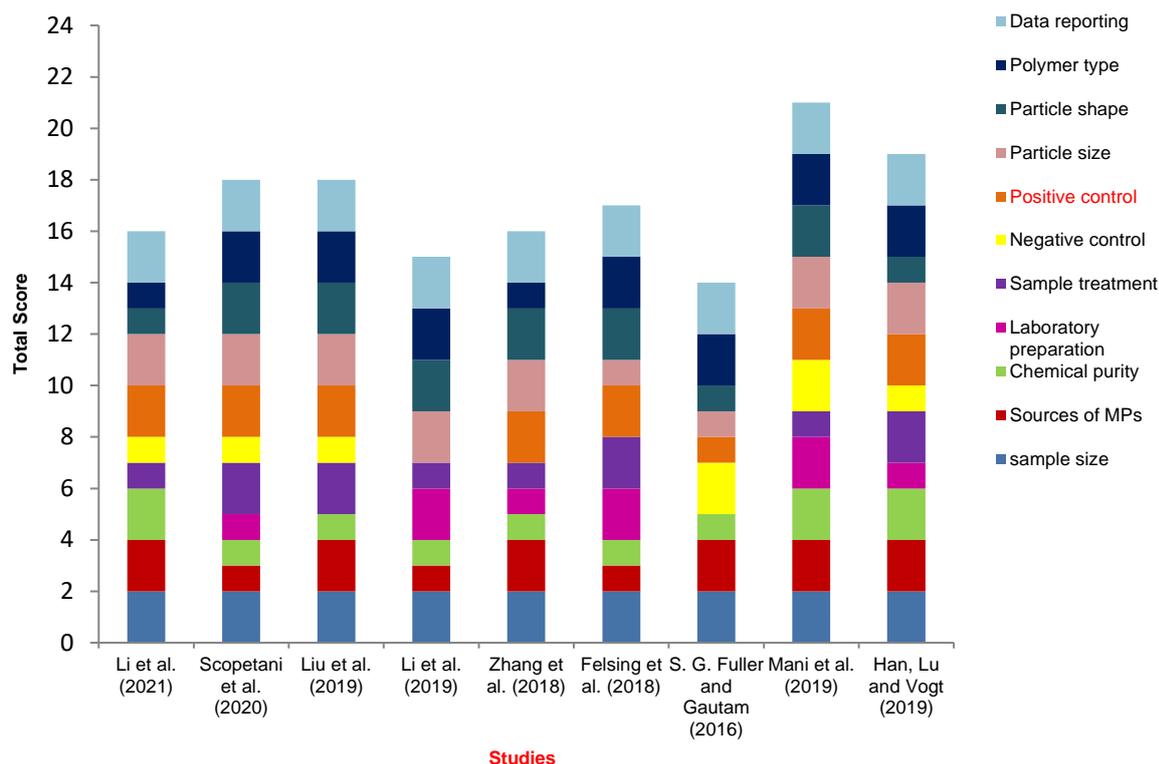
504 Data reporting is an important criterion to be considered in the quality
505 assessment of microplastics studies. Concentrations of microplastics are furnished as
506 particle concentration as microplastic particles per kg soil (item/kg) or mass
507 concentration as grams of microplastics per kg soil (g/kg) and percentage (Besseling
508 et al., 2019). Studies that clearly reported the data regarding microplastic units,
509 concentrations in particle number as well as in mass or percentage concentration were
510 assigned a score of 2. All the selected studies obtained a full score of 2 due to accurate
511 and enough information on reporting recovery of spiked microplastics with units.
512 Studies by Felsing et al. (2018) and Fuller and Gautam (2016) recovered 100% of
513 spiked microplastics. Five of the selected studies, (Han et al., 2019a; Li et al., 2021;
514 Mani et al., 2019; Scopetani et al., 2020; Zhang et al., 2018) reported spiked
515 microplastics mean recovery of more than 90%. Mean abundance of microplastics
516 were reported in units of item/kg by Han et al. (2019a), Li et al. (2019), Liu et al. (2019)
517 and Zhang et al. (2018) to be 5 items/kg - 295 items/kg, 200 items/kg -1290 items/kg,
518 136.6 items/kg – 256.7 items /kg, respectively. A score of 1 was assigned to studies
519 that limited the reporting of microplastics recovery without any units. However, none
520 of the studies scored 1. Inconsistency in reporting of microplastic concentrations
521 caused difficulty in reproducibility of experiment (Connors et al., 2017; van
522 Cauwenberghe et al., 2015). The method of reporting should be presented clearly to

523 enable comparisons of data across numerous experimental studies (Ruijter et al.,
524 2020). It has been previously recommended that it was better to report findings in
525 additional units wherever possible, to enable easier comparison amongst studies until
526 a standard for microplastics quantification was agreed upon (O'Connor et al., 2020).
527 Consistency in unit documentation was of utmost importance as the units of
528 microplastics concentration constitutes basic framework in quality assessment,
529 allowing comparisons of newly developed methods (Besseling et al., 2019; Koelmans
530 et al., 2019).

531

532 3.3 Overall Quality Assessment of Soil Microplastic Studies from a Methodological 533 Aspect

534 Figure 2 shows the total scores of the selected studies and criteria of quality
535 assessment based on methodological aspects of soil microplastics. The quality
536 assessment was based on a total score of 22 per study. Studies by Mani et al. (2019)
537 obtained the highest score of 21 as all information pertaining to the study criteria were
538 documented in detail. The lowest score of 14 was obtained by Fuller and Gautam
539 (2016) as six criteria, namely chemical purity, positive control, particle size, particle
540 shape, laboratory preparation, and sample treatment had provided limited information.
541 The highest score of 21 and lowest of 14 proved that there was a large gap between
542 study scores for quality assessment of studies on soil microplastics.



543

544 Figure 2. Total scores of the selected studies and criteria in quality assessment based
 545 on methodological aspects

546

547 Table 2 shows the average scores for each criterion based on methodological
 548 aspects of soil microplastics studies with a range between 0 and 2. The quality
 549 assessment found that sample size and data reporting criteria obtained a full average
 550 score of 2.0, concluding that these two criteria provided efficient and reliable data.
 551 Particle size and polymer type criteria scored an average of 1.78, while microplastics
 552 sources, particle shape and positive control criteria scored an average of 1.67.
 553 Chemical purity, sample treatment and laboratory preparation criteria achieved lower
 554 average scores of 1.33, 1.33 and 1.0, respectively. The criterion that required the most
 555 improvement was negative control, which obtained the lowest average score of 0.89.
 556 Although blank soil samples were included in the studies, it was deemed insufficient

557 due to less than three replicates, or number of replicates was not mentioned and had
 558 limited information on negative control.

559

560 Table 2: Average score of each criterion for current study in comparison to previous
 561 quality assessment studies

Criteria	Soil (Current study)	Bottled water (Praveena & Laohaprapanon, 2021)	Aquatic biota (Ruijter, 2020)	Drinking water (Koelmans et.al.2019)	Biota (Hermsen et.al.2018a)
Sample size	2.00	1.1	-	1.02	1.46
Sources of microplastics	1.67	-	1.79	-	-
Chemical purity	1.33	-	0.30	-	-
Laboratory preparation	1.00	1.7	0.18	0.77	0.57
Sample treatment	1.33	-	-	0.93	0.43
Negative control	0.89	1.4	0.06	1.18	0.86
Positive control	1.67	0.2	-	0.21	0.17
Particle size	1.78	*1.3	1.30	*0.89	*0.66
Particle shape	1.67	*	1.32	*	*
Polymer type	1.78	*	1.20	*	*
Data reporting	2.00	-	1.36	-	-
Total score	Average 1.56	1.14	0.94	0.83	0.69

562

563 * Average score was grouped as polymer identification (particle size, particle shape
 564 and polymer type)

565

566

567 The current assessment presented sample size and data reporting criteria to
 568 have the highest average scores as compared to all other previous assessments. A
 569 greater emphasis was given in providing sufficient and detailed information on sample
 570 size and reporting data with accurate unit measurement in recent studies pertaining to
 571 methodological aspects of soil microplastics. Adding on, for data reporting criteria, the

572 study by Ruijter et al. (2020) stated that 60% of the evaluated studies did not report
573 concentration or limited reporting to mass or number concentration, which may cause
574 complications in cross examining data. Studies by Ruijter et al. (2020) scored higher
575 for sources of microplastics criteria compared to the current study due to sufficient
576 details provided. However, the current assessment focused on studies pertaining to
577 method development that experimented with spiked soil samples. The sources of
578 microplastics used for spiking were industrially manufactured and self-made, which
579 require more elaborate specifications. A total of 33% of the evaluated studies had
580 incomplete source information on type, origin, specifications of size, and shape of the
581 microplastics. The chemical purity criteria were of utmost importance as chemical
582 composition affects the assessment of microplastics characterisation and impurities
583 were a source of contamination that may cause unfavourable chemical reactions
584 (Abdin et al., 2020). The average scores for chemical purity were higher for the current
585 study as compared to Ruijter et al. (2020). The current study provided detailed
586 information on the chemicals used, while contrastingly, 73.3% of the evaluated studies
587 by Ruijter et al. (2020) did not mention the possibility of chemical contaminants
588 affecting the observed adverse effects.

589 Although current studies obtained higher average scores for laboratory
590 preparation criteria as compared to studies by Hermsen et al. (2018a), Koelmans et
591 al. (2019) and Ruijter et al. (2020), the scores were lower than studies by Praveena
592 and Laohaprapanon (2021). The current study has focused more on contamination
593 controls in soil microplastics analysis by using cotton lab coats, rinsing, and cleaning
594 of laboratory apparatus and work surfaces with alcohol, and analysing with blank
595 samples. Sample treatment criteria scored a higher average on the current study as
596 compared to studies by Hermsen et al. (2018a) and Koelmans et al. (2019). The nature

597 of soil as a complex and dynamic medium, rich in minerals and organic materials,
598 required the need for heavy treatment procedures to eliminate organic matters in the
599 current study for soils as compared to biota and water samples (He et al., 2018).
600 Studies by Koelmans et al. (2019) had automatically assigned full scores for sample
601 treatment criteria as their study samples (tap water and bottled water) did not require
602 digestion steps. However, water samples from wastewater treatment plants had to
603 meet the criteria set of treatment at 50°C to prevent polymer mass losses due to
604 overheating.

605 Likewise, the current soil study achieved higher average scores for negative
606 control criteria in comparison to biota studies by Hermsen et al. (2018a) and Ruijter et
607 al. (2020). Studies by Ruijter et al. (2020) and Hermsen et al. (2018a) reported that
608 57% of the reviewed studies included blank samples for contamination control.
609 However, details and number of blanks were not mentioned. The current assessment
610 presented positive control criteria to have the highest average score amongst all other
611 previous assessments. The current study obtained 77% as the reviewed studies
612 reported three or more replicates for positive controls. Studies by Koelmans et al.
613 (2019) achieved only 6% for providing complete data on positive controls, indicating
614 that inclusion of positive controls was not a common practice. Similarly, Hermsen et
615 al. (2018a) stated that 89% of the reviewed studies lacked positive control, making the
616 studies unreliable for further investigations. Praveena and Laohaprapanon (2021)
617 reviewed studies which provided 17% of reliable positive control samples for the
618 analysis of bottled water, while Ruijter et al. (2020) lacked this information. The current
619 study obtained higher average scores for particle characterisation criteria which
620 included particle size, particle shape and polymer type as compared to other studies
621 by Hermsen et al. (2018a), Koelmans et al. (2019), Praveena and Laohaprapanon

622 (2021) and Ruijter et al. (2020). Hermsen et al. (2018a) studied particle size and
623 polymer type with ample focus on various instrumentation techniques. However, there
624 were limitations on information regarding particle shapes. Studies by Ruijter et al.
625 (2020) had discussed all particle characterisation criteria equally, while Praveena and
626 Laohaprapanon (2021) focused more on particle size and shape with limitations on
627 polymer type. Koelmans et al. (2019) had provided limited information on particle size
628 and shape. Therefore, the current study obtained the highest average score due to
629 provision of sufficient and efficient information on particle characterisation.

630 The current study involving methodology development for soil microplastic
631 studies achieved a higher total average score of 1.56 as compared to studies by
632 Hermsen et al. (2018a), Koelmans et al. (2019), Praveena and Laohaprapanon (2021)
633 and Ruijter et al. (2020) with 1.14 involving bottled water samples, ensuring a trending
634 increase in total average scores. Publications pertaining to studies on microplastics in
635 biota and water backdate as early as 2010 and 2011 (Hermsen et al., 2018a;
636 Koelmans et al., 2019). Studies in the early years lacked information on laboratory
637 preparation, negative and positive control, sample treatment and polymer identification
638 as microplastic research was still evolving (Boerger et al., 2010; Browne et al., 2011;
639 Courtene-Jones et al., 2017; Eriksen et al., 2013; Mason et al., 2018; Murray and
640 Cowie, 2011; Robbins, 2014; Schymanski et al., 2018). Therefore, it was perceived
641 that the current existing literature on soil microplastics has duly adapted and
642 improvised on methodological perspectives as research on microplastics had
643 progressed over the years, resulting in a significant higher total average score for the
644 quality assessment in the current study.

645

646 **4.0 Conclusion**

647 The quality assessment evaluated a total of nine studies pertaining to method
648 development for isolation and identification of soil microplastics. The evaluated criteria
649 groups were pre-laboratory work, during laboratory work, and post-laboratory work,
650 with a total of 11 specific criteria. The total score for evaluation of each study is 22.
651 The highest score obtained based on studies was 21 and the lowest score was 14.
652 The quality criteria which achieved the highest average score of 2.0 were sample size
653 and data reporting. The quality criterion with the lowest average score of 0.89 was
654 negative control. Measures to improve the quality assessment of negative control
655 criteria could be achieved when negative controls were run more regularly during
656 experimental procedures. Possibility of microplastic contamination from chemicals that
657 affected negative controls must also be avoided by filtering solutions. Atmospheric
658 deposition of microplastics in the laboratory had tendency to contribute towards
659 contamination in negative controls, and thus samples should be covered when not in
660 use and air circulation should be limited as much as possible. These measures would
661 enhance the purpose of utilising negative control, leading to better quality assessment
662 of this criterion. The quality assessment method based on criteria scores was
663 discerned to reshape as new analytical techniques became available, causing growth
664 in methodological aspects of soil microplastic research.

665

666 **Acknowledgement**

667 This work was supported by the Fundamental Research Grant Scheme, Ministry of
668 Education (Malaysia) with reference code: FRGS/1/2019/WAB05/UPM/02/2. The first
669 author would like to express great appreciation to the Graduate Research Assistance
670 (GRA), Universiti Putra Malaysia for funding her postgraduate study.

671

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914 **Supplementary Information**

915 Supplementary 1: Explanation of the quantitative scoring system proposed to evaluate the studies for extraction and identification of microplastics in soil using
 916 the (QA/QC) criteria. The purpose of the quantitative scoring system criteria is to assess the quality of the papers and to give guidance for appropriate methods
 917 for microplastics particle studies in the future. The criteria (1 – 11) relates to the technical quality of extraction and identification methods. Criteria (1-3) specifically
 918 relates to pre-laboratory work, criteria (4-7) during laboratory work and criteria (8-11) post-laboratory work. For each criterion a score of either 2 (adequate), 1
 919 (adequate with restrictions) or 0 (inadequate) points were assigned, which are explained below. (Adapted from Ruijter *et al.*, 2020 and Hermsen *et al.*, 2018).
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CRITERIA RELATING TO THE TECHNICAL QUALITY OF EXTRACTION AND IDENTIFICATION METHODS (1 – 11)				
Criterion	Explanation	Score 2	Score 1	Score 0
PRE-LABORATORY WORK (Criteria 1-3)				
1. Sample size	Appropriate soil sample size (based on weight) is needed for microplastic studies.	Adequate and accurate weightage of soil sample size (eg:10-250g)	Not adequate or inaccurate information on soil sample size weightage are provided	No soil sample size
2. Source of MPs	Specification on the root sources of stock or solutions of microplastics whether bought or self-made maximizes the reproducibility and should be reported. Refers to the microplastics used in positive control	The origin and/or production of microplastics in the respective laboratory is reported in detail, used for spiked MP based study	The information given on microplastics source is incomplete and hence not fully reproducible	No information on microplastics source reported
3. Chemical purity	In order to assess the methods, all chemicals and oils used should be of pure quality and have detailed specifications	-Chemicals must be of known concentrations, purity and the specifications of the chemicals and oils should be in detail -Chemicals are analysed or studies relied on manufacturer certificate as well as literature based	Concentrations of chemicals are mentioned but no information on the chemical purity or specifications	Not form of chemical information provided
DURING LABORATORY WORK (Criteria 4-7)				

4. Laboratory preparation	Microplastics contamination arising from the laboratory (air and materials) should be minimized. All materials used (equipment, tools, work surfaces and clothing) should be free of microplastics.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Measures are taken to prevent microplastics contamination by wiping surfaces before analysis - Cotton lab coats were used to avoid microfiber contamination -Nitrile gloves were used - Distilled or deionised water used 	Only a part of the measures is taken to avoid microplastics contamination or it is generally mentioned -no cotton lab coat used	No form of contamination prevention is mentioned
5. Sample treatment	Assessment on elimination of microplastics contaminants such as organic matter through digestion technique.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Details of solutions used for sample treatment is provided -Method used is presented with reference 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Details of solutions used for sample treatment is not provided -Method used is presented without reference 	No verification on sample treatment
6. Negative control	Soil blanks should be included for each batch of samples, with at least 3 replicate blanks per batch. Controls are given the same full treatment as the studied samples.	Blank soil /distilled water/deionized sample should be included for each batch of samples, with at least three replicate blanks per batch	Blank soil /distilled water/deionized sample included, nevertheless deemed insufficient if less than 3 replicates	No form of negative control was included in the study.
7. Positive control	Field soil samples are used to test the method developed. Includes controls (3) with added microplastic particles that are treated in parallel to the samples. The particle recoveries are calculated by tallying the numbers of retrieved particles to the amounts added.	Includes 3 or more field samples and control that are run in parallel (more than 3 replicates)	Studies that report less than 3 field samples and control included	No positive controls were included
POST- LABORATORY WORK: DATA ANALYSIS (Criteria 8-11)				

8. Particle size	Size is a major factor defining effects of microplastics and should be reported based on before and after spiking BS: before spiking AS: after spiking	-If a range of sizes is used, the lower and upper limit is reported -If a single size is used, it is reported with unit measurement - Particle sizes are reported based on before (BS) and after spiking (AS)	-If a range of sizes is used, the lower and upper limit is not reported - If a single size is used but not reported with unit measurement -particle sizes are not reported based on before (BS) and after spiking (AS)	No information on particle size
9. Particle shape	Shape is a critical factor determining effects of microplastics and should be reported	Shapes are measured with high resolution microscope and reported	Particle shapes are reported but not measured using appropriate equipment	No information on particle shape is reported
10. Polymer type	Polymer type is a crucial factor explaining effects of microplastics and should be reported	Recovery of microplastics are visually identified and further quantified through appropriate instrument eg: Raman spectroscopy, FTIR, GC-MS, TGA	Polymer type is reported but without information on instrument used	No information on polymer identity is reported
11. Data reporting	Unambiguous units are required to ensure reproducibility of the experiment and to make it possible to compare data across experiments	Studies that report clearly on MPs unit, concentrations in particle number as well as in mass / percentage concentrations	Studies that limit the reporting of MPs recovery without any units	No units are presented

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Supplementary 2: Score tables based on quality criterion for the selected nine studies

Chengtao Li (2021) A commonly available and easily assembled device for extraction of bio/non-degradable microplastics from soil by flotation in NaBr solution: Journal of Science of the Total Environment 759 (143482)		
Criterion	Explanation	Score
Sample size	42 samples containing 30.0 g of soil were taken	2
Sources of MPs	The plastic materials used in this study were supplied by Liangying Plastic Chemical Co., Ltd. (Guangdong, China). Sources mainly bought from supplier. Details provided	2
Chemical purity	NaBr was supplied by Tianli Chemical Reagent Co., Ltd. (Tianjin, China; purity (AR) $\geq 99\%$). Chemical used had detailed information. eg: Country, grade, density and process	2
Laboratory preparation	No information on lab or environmental condition	0
Treatment of sample	Sample pre-treatment: Collected soil samples are air-dried after removing sundries and sieving to obtain samples to be processed. No reference.	1
Negative control	An un-spiked 30.0 g soil sample was used as a control. Only one control used.	1
Positive control	42 samples containing 30.0 g of soil were taken and each sample was spiked with 0.3 g of microplastics. The original microplastics were used in controls. (PBS, PBAT, PLA) and (LDPE, PS, PP, PVC) Microplastic recovery experiments with different microplastic particle sizes and densities in spiked soil, were all performed in triplicate.	2
Particle size	The seven plastic types were mechanically crushed and grinded down into microplastic particles with particle sizes of <1mm. The microplastic particles were then separated into size classes of 100–200 μm and 200–1000 μm by sieving. (BS.) There is no significant difference in the average particle size before and after extraction with three density solutions (AS). Measurements based on SEM	2
Particle shape	A scanning electron microscope (SEM) (FEI Q45, American) was used to compare the morphology of the spiked microplastics separated and extracted with three different density solutions. The exact shape is not mentioned	1
Polymer type	3 types of biodegradable (PBS, PBAT, PLA) and 4 types of non-degradable (LDPE, PS, PP, PVC) plastics. Densities of the 7 types of plastics are tabulated. No identification with high-end instrument.	1
Data reporting	Recovery of seven microplastic polymer types (biodegradable and non-degradable types), comprising both small and large size classes, ranged from 92% to 99.6%.	2
Total score		16

Costanza Scopetani (2020) Olive oil-based method for the extraction, quantification and identification of microplastics in soil and compost samples: Journal of Science of the Total Environment 733 (139338)		
Criterion	Explanation	Score
Sample size	Five sub-samples of each soil (each 25 g) and compost (10 g) matrices (20 sub-samples in total) were spiked with all the six self-made MPs	2
Sources of MPs	Only mentioned self -made	1
Chemical purity	10ml 30% H ₂ O ₂ , 1ml of 2 mmol/L FeSO ₄ *7H ₂ O, 1 ml of 2 mmol/L protocatechuic acid and 5 mL of H ₂ O. No other specifications	1
Laboratory preparation	The possibility of self-contamination was considered, and during all steps of the sampling, treatment and analysis of the samples, fleece clothing and other plastic items, which could release MPs, were avoided. Instead, only cotton clothes were used during sampling.	1
Treatment of sample	10mL 30% H ₂ O ₂ , 1mL of 2 mmol/L FeSO ₄ *7H ₂ O, 1 mL of 2 mmol/L protocatechuic acid and 5 mL of H ₂ O (Oxidation method with reference)	2
Negative control	Procedural blanks were performed parallel with the samples to check for potential source of contamination. No microplastics were found in any of the blanks. Number of blanks not stated.	1
Positive control	To further test the method and to investigate if smaller MPs originally occurred in the collected soil and compost samples, three replicates of each matrix were prepared following the procedure described above. 2 oat field soil and 2 composted biowaste, sewage sludge samples.	2
Particle size	Six different self-made micro-polymers (range of dimension 0.2–2 mm) were used as test MPs. (BS) These findings show the method works for smaller particles (5µm-300µm) (AS)	2
Particle shape	In the sample collected from the Mäkelä field, two different polymers were found: one acrylonitrile (butadiene styrene) (ABS) fibre and one PS fragment. Visible light map of a plastic fragment and fibre through FTIR microscope	2
Polymer type	For validating the method, soil and compost samples were spiked with six different micro-polymers: PE, PS, PVC, PC, PET and PU. The MPs and car tire MPs were analysed before and after extraction using an Agilent Cary 630 FTIR Spectrometer equipped with a diamond crystal ATR (Attenuated Total Reflection)	2
Data reporting	The recovery rate also differed between the soil (mean recovery rate 73% ± 5% of added items) and compost (30% ± 18%). The method was validated using six different micro-polymers: PE, PS, PVC, PC, PET and PU and low, medium and high density polymers reached a mean recovery rate of 90%±2%, 97%± 5% and 95% ± 4%, respectively MP recovery (%)	2
Total score		18

Mengting Liu (2019) A method for extracting soil microplastics through circulation of sodium bromide solutions: Journal of Science of the Total Environment 691 (341-347)		
Criterion	Explanation	Score
Sample size	Using the separator, the mass of assayed soil can be adjusted in the range of 50 g to 200 g. 50 g of control soil and 20 repetitive Nile Red-stained MP, PMMA, PS or ABS were mixed individually.	2
Sources of MPs	Full names and other information tabulated	2
Chemical purity	Tests using three environment-friendly separation solutions: NaCl (1.19 g/ ml), CaCl ₂ (1.42 g/ ml), NaBr (1.55 g/ ml). All reagents were purchased from Aladdin. No other specifications	1
Laboratory preparation	In the method, strict quality control was carried out to reduce plastic contamination.	0
Treatment of sample	10ml of 30%H ₂ O ₂ were added and incubated for 3 d at 60 °C with references	2
Negative control	We used a control soil for the spiking experiments. Strict quality control was carried out to reduce plastic contamination and no MP were found in the blank control group. No mention of replicates.	1
Positive control	Three parallel experiments were performed in each group. Three replicates were set for each experimental group, as well as for corresponding control groups. 4 field samples are farmland, yellow-brown, paddy and floodplain soil	2
Particle size	Original plastic was white, except PVC and PMMA transparent, and all with the shape of bead in the size of around 3 mm. Different types of plastics were manually broken into MP by grinding and shredding and passed through a series of sieves (7-160mesh). Polyethylene MPs were divided into three size-classes: 100–500 μm, 500–1000μm, 1000–3000 μm. (BS) The size of MP ranged from 0.03mm-4.76mm, majority sizes were <1mm. (AS)	2
Particle shape	Three shape-different groups were selected as 500–1000 μm, PE MP with a particle, fibre or film. Original plastic was white, except PVC and PMMA transparent, and all with the shape of bead in the size of around 3 mm. Identified by a stereomicroscope (Nikon, SMZ25).	2
Polymer type	10 types of plastic used in this study include: PA, PP, PE, PET, POM, PVC, PC, ABS, PMMA, and PS. All types of MP were identified by (μ-FTIR, Thermo Nicolet iN10MX)	2
Data reporting	Results showed that the mean abundance of MP was 136.6–256.7 item /kg. Various MP including PP (40%), PE (35.5%), Acrylic (15.6%), PET (6.7%) and PA (2.2%) were found.	2
Total score		18

Qinglan Li (2019) Separation and identification of microplastics from soil and sewage Sludge: Journal of Environmental Pollution 254 (113076)		
Criterion	Explanation	Score
Sample size	Specifically, 50 g of soil or sludge sample was added to a 250 ml conical flask. Two litres of sludge were collected, air dried, sieved, and stored as the soil samples.	2
Sources of MPs	PE, PP, PS, PA, ABS, PET (test samples)	1
Chemical purity	30% H ₂ O ₂ , 30% H ₂ O ₂ + H ₂ SO ₄ (3:1, v/v) and 30% H ₂ O ₂ + HNO ₃ (3:1, v/v), separation effect of three floatation solution was compared, including saturated NaCl solution (1.2g/cm ³), 5 mol/L ZnCl ₂ solution (1.5 g/cm ³) and 7.5 mol/L NaI solution (1.8 g/cm ³). No other specifications.	1
Laboratory preparation	Every gravity flotation solution used in experiment was prepared by ultrapure water and the glassware after clean was rinsed three times using ultrapure water. Researchers were required to wear cotton laboratory coats during the experiment process. During flotation process, the flasks were covered by aluminium foil to prevent MP contamination from atmosphere.	2
Treatment of sample	To obtain the best oxidation efficiency and the least influence MP particle, in a preliminary experiment, we compared three treatments, i.e. 30% H ₂ O ₂ , 30% H ₂ O ₂ + H ₂ SO ₄ (3:1, v/v) and 30% H ₂ O ₂ + HNO ₃ (3:1, v/v) at 70 °C. No reference stated.	1
Negative ctrl	No information	0
Positive control	Only mentioned control samples. No other information. (The FTIR spectrums showed that most tested MP showed no major deviation from the control samples after three oxidation treatment)	0
Particle size	After air-dried, the soil samples were gently grounded and sieved through a 5mm and a 1mm stainless steel mesh successively. (BS) The MPs with diameter 1-5mm retained on the 1mm mesh were picked out manually and recorded numbers. The dominate morphology of MPs was white fibre with a size of 0.02-0.25 mm (AS)	2
Particle shape	The shape was divided into fibre, fragment, and bulk in µm, using stereo microscope (SteREO Discover V8, Carl Zeiss, Germany) equipped with a digital camera (AxioCom, Carl Zeiss, Germany),	2
Polymer type	6 polymers [Polyethylene (PE), Polypropylene (PP), Polystyrene (PS), Polyamide (PA), Acrylonitrile-butadiene-styrene (ABS) and Polyethylene terephthalate (PET)] were used as test samples. MPs were identified with Micro-Fourier (m-FTIR) (Nicolet iN10 MX, Thermo, USA) and Fourier transformed infrared spectroscopy (FTIR) (Tensor27, Bruker, USA).	2
Data reporting	The MP abundance separated by NaCl, ZnCl ₂ , and NaI was 200-740, 280-1180, and 420-1290 items/kg in soil and 3810-7400, 4433-10160, and 5553-13460 items/kg in sludge. Among those colours, white is the most common one (38.0-70.4%), followed by blue (16.5-35.6%) and red (3.4-24.2%).	2
Total score		15

Shaoliang Zhang (2018) A simple method for the extraction and identification of light density microplastics from soil: Journal of Science of the Total Environment 616-617 (1056-1065)		
Criterion	Explanation	Score
Sample size	10 g and 3 replicates of clay soil, sandy soil and loess soil were weighed	2
Sources of MPs	Both LDPE and PP (Riblon, Ter Hell Plastic GmbH) were white and grounded into irregularly shaped particles by the company	2
Chemical purity	Not mentioned, experimented with only distilled water	1
Laboratory preparation	The laboratory was thoroughly cleaned before the experiments and throughout the duration of our testing. Clothes made from plastic fibres were not allowed in the laboratory. In order to reduce contamination during this process, all filter papers were covered by a light aluminium specimen box during the process of filtration.	1
Treatment of sample	Microplastics and impurities were identified using a heating method (3–5 s at 130 °C). No reference stated.	1
Negative control	Just mentioned that “No microplastics were found in the control treatment”. No replicates, blanks or other information mentioned.	0
Positive control	LDPE and PP were added to soil samples at five concentration gradients (0.05%, 0.1%, 0.2%, 0.5% and 1.0%, w/w) with three replicates for each plastic. 3 replicates with field samples (clay soil, loess soil and sandy soil, agricultural soil and orchard soil)	2
Particle size	The sizes of the LDPE particles were <150 µm and the PP particles were <400 µm. (BS) The densities for both kinds of plastic particles were <1 g/cm. Size distribution of LDPE and PP were determined by dry-sieving method. Size were almost similar to original proportions (AS)	2
Particle shape	To distinguish between the impurities and the microplastics, which showed transparent, circular, and shiny properties, or had a big change of shapes, e.g. plastic fibre rolled up after heating, size in µm. After putting the slide under the microscope (Leica wild M3C, Type S, simple light) (6.4 X Zoom), a photo (before and after heating) was taken using a high-resolution camera (Leica DFC 425) linked to a computer with image software (Leica Applicate Suite 4.8) in order to identify the number and size distribution of the particles.	2
Polymer type	LDPE and PP. This method cannot be used to distinguish the chemical components of microplastics, which can be detected using the method of thermal analysis, infrared spectroscopy or Raman micro-spectroscopy	1
Data reporting	The recovery rate based on the weight of LDPE ranged from 86.0% ± 0.8 to 102.7% ± 4.2 in loess, 103.0% ± 4.8 to 128.0% ± 34.0 in sandy soil, 89.9% ± 0.3 to 104.0% ± 8.4 in clay soil and 87.9 ± 31.1 to 112.7 ± 22.0 in pure sand, respectively Recovery rate (%), item/kg MP (tabulated)	2
Total score		16

Stefanie Felsing (2018) A new approach in separating microplastics from environmental samples based on their electrostatic behaviour: Journal of Environmental Pollution 234 (20-28)		
Criterion	Explanation	Score
Sample size	For each sample material, 150 g was spiked with ten particles of each plastic type.	2
Sources of MPs	self-made tire wear, others manufactured. No other specifications.	1
Chemical purity	Mentioned only for TOC determination: 1 ml of hydrochloric acid (1 M). Other specifications not stated.	1
Laboratory preparation	To prevent contamination during the work, each step was carried out according to the requirements of NOAA (avoid wearing polyester-type clothing, fleece jackets, polyester lab coats, inspect all of the equipment made from plastic before use, sieves should be washed and sonicated before and after use) The device was cleaned between all recovery tests.	2
Treatment of sample	The TOC content of the four different sample materials was analysed by first acidifying 100-700 mg of freeze-dried sample material with 1 ml of hydrochloric acid (1 M) for 3-4 h. TOC measurement was conducted in Eltra Helios Carbon/Sulfur analyzer CS-580A (Eltra GmbH, Haan, Germany) (Sch€afer et al., 2015).	2
Negative control	Not mentioned	0
Positive control	Recoveries were determined by processing 3 replicates and then calculating the mean recovery. Field samples were quartz sand, beach sand, particulate matter and sediment	2
Particle size	Each material was sieved into three size fractions (63-200 µm, 200-630 µm, 630-2000 µm), except the fibres, available only with a size in the range of 630 µm to 5 mm. Five-mm particles were punched from the materials (BS) Particle sizes after spiking not mentioned, only particle recovery for size fractions	1
Particle shape	To determine whether the shape or age of the particles influenced their separation, particles of different shapes, including spheres, pellets, fibres, and fragments was observed using Keyence digital microscope to measure in µm.	2
Polymer type	7 plastic were used to produce MP standards to determine recovery: high density polyethylene (HDPE), low density polyethylene (LDPE), polyethylene terephthalate (PET), polypropylene (PP), (non-foamed) polystyrene (PS), polyvinyl chloride (PVC), and polymethyl methacrylate (PMMA). Standards were also prepared from three other plastics types: polylactic acid (PLA), polyethylene firers, and self-made tire wear. The densities of the ten plastics types covered a range from 0.85 g/cm ³ to 1.58 g/cm ³ . All plastics were characterized by pyrolysis-gas chromatography-mass spectrometry (PyGCMS).	2
Data reporting	For all materials, a mass reduction of almost 99% was achieved. For example, a 150 g sample of quartz sand could be reduced after the third step by 98.4 ± 0.1% to 2.34 ± 0.17 g. MP particles from the Rhine River were also recovered at 100%.	2
Total score		17

Stephen Fuller (2016) A Procedure for Measuring Microplastics using Pressurized Fluid Extraction: Journal of Environmental Science and Technology 50 (5774-5780)		
Criterion	Explanation	Score
Sample size	The soils samples were dried at 40 °C overnight, sieved through 1 mm sieve and stored at <4 °C prior to the analysis. A sample size of 10 g was used.	2
Sources of MPs	Details from where it was bought (similar as polymer type)	2
Chemical purity	High purity solvents such as methanol, hexane and dichloromethane (Suprasolv, Merck, Germany) were evaluated. Other details not included	1
Laboratory preparation	Not mentioned	0
Treatment of sample	Not mentioned	0
Negative control	Standard laboratory quality control procedures were followed for control blanks with triplicates. Results for laboratory control blanks showed average microplastic content of 0.09 mg (SD = 0.17, n = 3)	2
Positive control	Standard laboratory quality control procedures were followed for method validation. 2 environmental samples used were composted municipal waste sample and industrial soil samples	1
Particle size	The materials were powders typically 50 µm in diameter except for PS which had a mean size of approximately 1 mm. (BS). Faced limitations in measuring size fractions after spiking	1
Particle shape	Fragments are presented with micrographs. No details of instrument used.	1
Polymer type	The plastic materials used were high density polyethylene (HDPE) (Aldrich # 434272), polystyrene block-poly (ethylenaran-butylene)-block-polystyrene (PS) (Aldrich 200557), and poly (vinyl chloride) (PVC) (Aldrich #18621-25G). The identity of the materials was confirmed by a Nicolet 6700 FTIR spectrophotometer (Thermo) prior to use	2
Data reporting	The method was initially developed by recovering 101% to 111% of spiked plastics on glass beads and was then applied to a composted municipal waste sample with spike recoveries ranging from 85% to 94%. The soil samples were found to contain 0.03% to 6.7% of microplastic. Recovery (%)	2
Total score		14

Thomas Mani (2019) Using castor oil to separate microplastics from four different environmental matrices: Journal of The Royal Society of Chemistry 11 (1788-1794)		
Criterion	Explanation	Score
Sample size	10g sample for marine beach sediments (MBS) and agricultural soil (AS).	2
Sources of MPs	Mentioned in detail (product, retailer, fragmentation methods) Appendix	2
Chemical purity	Details of chemicals provided (Origin, Brand, concentration grade etc) Appendix	2
Laboratory preparation	To prevent contamination, glassware was used whenever possible. Containers, such as petri dishes, were always covered with a lid or aluminium foil when not in use. Where the use of plastic materials for processing was unavoidable (e.g. the PTFE stopcock in the separation funnel), the item was thoroughly rinsed before use with deionised water and EtOH (70%). White lab coats (100% cotton) were worn. Nitrile gloves were worn whenever the operator's hands came into close contact with samples and glassware. To prevent cross contamination between instruments or receptacles, all used items were thoroughly washed with warm water and labware detergent.	2
Treatment of sample	A subsequent H ₂ O ₂ treatment of these remaining residues resulted in a significantly higher final matrix reduction of 82 ± 6%. No reference stated.	1
Negative control	Procedural blanks were run during the visual sample examination phase to assess the laboratory atmosphere contamination potential. Three rinsed glass Petri dishes were placed uncovered on the laboratory bench during the entire visual sample examination phase, rinsed and drained onto cotton/cellulose filter paper and the filter paper was visually examined under a super-lighted stereomicroscope. No MP fragments were recorded in any of the blanks	2
Positive control	Each environmental matrix (Fluvial suspended surface solids (FSS) and marine suspended surface solids (MSS) and marine beach sediments (MBS) and agricultural soil (AS)) was divided into four replicates with specific target dry weights. Four replicates spiked with PP, PS, PMMA, PET-G were conducted	2
Particle size	We developed a protocol to separate microplastics (size range: 0.3–1 mm; virgin polymers: PP, PS, PMMA and PET-G). Particle sizes ranged from 0.3–1 mm (BS). 0.3-0.5mm and 0.5-1mm were found (AS)	2
Particle shape	We used fragments of four common polymer types PS opaque microbeads (33%) and PS foam (29%) were the largest contributors. Each fraction was numerically quantified using a stereomicroscope	2
Polymer type	Polymer types (PP, PS, PMMA, PET-G) with density details were reported and chemically analysed by attenuated total reflection (ATR)-FTIR.	2
Data reporting	The mean SD MP spike-recovery rate was 99 ± 4% with an average matrix reduction of 95 ± 4% MP recovery (%)	2
Total score		21

Xiaohin Han (2019) An optimized density-based approach for extracting microplastics from soil and sediment samples: Journal of Environmental Pollution 254 (113009)		
Criterion	Explanation	Score
Sample size	The 200 g clean soil and sand samples were spiked with ten pieces of the prepared microplastic particles (PP, PET, PE, PVC, PS and EPS)	2
Sources of MPs	The specific original product and sources tabulated GC vial cap, Water bottle, Yoghurt bottle, Pipe, Spoon, Styrofoam packaging	2
Chemical purity	Sodium chloride (NaCl, AR, 99.5%), sodium iodine (NaI, 99%) and hydrogen peroxide (H ₂ O ₂ , 35%) were purchased from Aladdin (Shanghai, China), Meryer (Shanghai, China) and Bohua (Tianjin China)	2
Laboratory preparation	Solutions of saturated NaCl and NaI were prepared by dissolving an excess of NaCl and NaI pellets in distilled water. No mention of laboratory conditions or elimination of contamination	1
Treatment of sample	The organic matter in the filtrate was removed by storing the filter membrane with floating particles in 30 ml of a 35% H ₂ O ₂ solution at room temperature for 7d (Nuelle 2014). As there was little organic matter in the sandy sediment sample, only the soil sample was used to test the influence of organic matter on the recovery rates of spiked microplastics.	2
Negative control	The non-presence of microplastic particles in the blank soil and sand matrix samples were verified by extracting microplastics using the prescribed extraction device and process. No mention of replicates.	1
Positive control	Five duplicate microplastics spiked sediment samples were used in the recovery experiments, allowing the determination of standard deviation based on the amount of microplastics found in the five sediment sample replicates. One soil sample was used.	2
Particle size	For the recovery experiments, plastic particles of <1mm in size were prepared by shredding and cutting various common plastic products made from PE, PP, PVC, PET, PS and EPS. (BS) The particle sizes were similar (AS)	2
Particle shape	Fragments and fibres found, size in mm. No details of instrument used.	1
Polymer type	Samples were spiked with ten pieces of the prepared microplastic particles (PP, PET, PE, PVC, PS and EPS). The visually recognized microplastic particles were further identified by attenuated total reflection Fourier transformed infrared spectroscopy (ATR-FTIR, Bruker Tensor II, Germany).	2
Data reporting	The average recovery rates of PP, PE, PET, PVC, PS and EPS were 92 ± 11.7%, 78 ± 16%, 90 ± 11%, 100 ± 0%, 98 ± 4% and 96 ± 4.9%, respectively (average recovery MP (%) and items/kg (tabulated)	2
Total score		19