

Current frontiers and recommendations for the study of microplastics in seafood

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1 Title

2 Current frontiers and recommendations for the study of microplastics in seafood

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13 Abstract

14 For seventy years, mass plastic production and waste mismanagement have resulted in huge pollution of 15 the environment, including the marine environment. The first mention of seafood contaminated by 16 microplastics was recorded in the seventies, and to date numerous studies have been carried out on 17 shellfish, fish and crustaceans. Based on an *ad hoc* corpus, the current review aims to report on the 18 numerous practices and methodologies described so far. By examining multiple aspects including problems related to the definition of the term microplastic, contamination at the laboratory scale, 19 20 sampling and isolation, and quantification and identification, the aim was to point out current limitations and the needs to improve and harmonise practices for future studies on microplastics in seafood. A final 21 part is devoted to the minimum information for publication of microplastics studies (MIMS). Based on 22

23 the aspects discussed, MIMS act as a starting point for harmonisation of analyses.

24 Keywords

25 Microplastics; fishery products; methods; limits; recommendations

26 Abbreviations

ATR: attenuated total reflection, DAC: digestion atmospheric control, FAC: filtration atmospheric 27 28 control, FAO: Food and Agriculture Organization, FPA: focal plan array, FT-IR: Fourier-transform 29 infrared, GESAMP: Group of Experts on the Scientific Aspects of Marine Environmental Protection, 30 H₂O₂: hydrogen peroxide, HClO₄: perchloric acid, HNO₃: nitric acid, KOH: potassium hydroxide, LC₅₀: 31 lethal concentration 50%, LD₅₀: lethal dose 50%, LOAEL: Lowest observed adverse effect level, 32 MIMS: Minimum Information for publication of Microplastics Studies, MP: microplastic, MSFD: 33 Marine Strategy Framework Directive, NaClO: sodium hypochlorite, NIC: negative identification 34 control, NOAEL: No observed adverse effect level, O/SC: operator/solution control, OSPAR: 35 Convention for the Protection of the Marine Environment of the North-East Atlantic, PCE: positive 36 control of extraction, PIC: positive identification control, Py-GC/MS: pyrolysis coupled with gas 37 chromatography and mass spectrometry, SAC: sampling atmospheric control

38 1. Introduction

In 2016, global plastic production, excluding fibres, was estimated at 335 millions metric tons [1]. In less than a century, plastic has become an unavoidable material thanks to its diverse and convenient properties such as durability, resistance and lightweight. However, a major issue concerning plastic is waste management. Since 1950, a small amount of global production has been recycled (9%), most often for a single cycle, while a huge quantity (60%) has been discarded in the environment, and ultimately in the marine environment [2].

Consequently, vast quantities of plastic have accumulated in the oceans all around the globe, and these plastics are subject to degradation through various processes including UV degradation, oxidisation, and abrasion. The sizes of these pieces of plastics cover nearly 12 log scales from meter to nanometre [3], facilitating their ingestion by a wide range of marine organisms from the largest such as sperm whales [4] to the smallest, *i.e.* copepods [5]. Among all these synthetic particles, microplastics (MP) are commonly defined as plastic items with a size below 5 mm [6].

51 There are many questions surrounding the ecological and human health risks posed by MP. There have 52 been few studies on the direct, for example physical effects of MP, or indirect harms caused either by 53 bacteria or by chemicals. Concerning indirect harms, it has been demonstrated that MP are covered by 54 numerous bacterial genera [7], including pathogenic and non-pathogenic Vibrio species [8]. MP are also 55 a vector of hydrophobic organic compounds (HOC), but the actual risk is a subject of debate [9]. Finally, 56 another suspected hazard is related to the presence of numerous additives in plastic that can make up 57 60% of the total weight [10], and that can leach out from the MP [11]. Bacterial and chemical hazards are thus more related to MP surfaces and volumes; the current definition of MP, solely based on length, 58 59 therefore does not seem accurate enough for risk assessment.

Ingestion of microplastics has been described in numerous marine organisms, including different species of bivalves, crustaceans, cephalopods and fish [12-75]. The number of studies on MP-contaminated seafood has increased exponentially, but there is still no standardised methodology, making it impossible to compare studies. This is a major issue in terms of assessing the risk(s) posed by MP. As a way to improve and harmonise methods for the future studies, the different steps of MP analysis: sampling, isolation, quantification, polymer identification, and contamination management were analysed and compared based on the available literature. For the period from 1973 to April 2018, 64 studies published were gathered from Scopus and PubMed, based on their main subject dealing with both microplastics and seafood. These publications were analysed using an *ad hoc* reading grid. This corpus comprises 3 articles published before 2010 [12-14], 5 between 2010 and 2012 [15-19], 7 between 2012 and 2014 [20-26], 12 between 2014 and 2016 [27-38], and 37 between 2016 and 2018 [39-75].

71 **2.** Definition and size issues

72

2.1 Current definitions and limits

73 As previously mentioned, the term microplastic historically refers to "plastic particles smaller than 5 74 mm" as stated by the international research workshop on the occurrence, effects, and fate of microplastic 75 marine debris [6]. Moreover, this definition is taken up by several international bodies such as the Group of Experts on the Scientific Aspects of Marine Environmental Protection (GESAMP) [76], the Food and 76 77 Agriculture Organization (FAO) [77], the Convention for the Protection of the Marine Environment of the North-East Atlantic (OSPAR) [78], and the Marine Strategy Framework Directive (MSFD) [79]. 78 79 Nonetheless, a minority of researchers prefer to define microplastics as particles with a size < 1 mm 80 [80]. Although the upper limit is well established, its counterpart, *i.e.* the lower limit, is more subject to debate, with different limits being considered: 20 µm and 5 µm [78], 1 µm [81] and 100 nm [82]. 81 82 Historically, the limit of 100 nm was established based on the definition of nanomaterials. However, 83 nanoplastics result from the degradation of larger pieces and are thus not intentionally produced [81]. 84 Their heterogeneous characteristics such as size distribution, shape, surface charges, stability, ability to form aggregates and porosity, call into question the limit of 100 nm [81]. 85

86

2.2 Limitations of current definitions and proposals for improvement

More generally, as discussed in the review carried out by Monserrat Filella [83], it is problematic to retain a definition solely based on a size corresponding to the "largest part of the particle". This

89 definition is not sufficiently clear and is not suitable for the current challenges in environmental and 90 human toxicological risk assessment [84]. Moreover, it has been highlighted that regarding particle sizes 91 and shapes, differences in toxicity are recorded [85]. These limits are illustrated in the first half of Table 92 1. Three particles namely a cube, sphere and fibre measuring 5 mm at the largest part of one of their 93 dimensions are proposed. The cube has a 4-log scale higher volume compared to the fibre. Similarly, 94 when equal volumes are considered, in the second half of Table 1, the surface area of the fibre is 2-log 95 scale larger than that of the cube. Due to their morphology, there are considerable differences between 96 cubes and spheres on the one hand, and fibres on the other. Cubes and spheres are characterised by large 97 volumes, while fibres have very small volumes but large surfaces of contact. The need for a "three-98 dimensional" definition is also echoed in recent studies [86-88]. Indeed, these dimensions will be helpful 99 to estimate particles weights, depending on polymer types. Weight estimates are requested by scientists 100 based for different reasons: 1) because plastic inputs in ocean are usually expressed in metric tons, and 2) because identification technology using mass spectrometry, such as pyrolysis coupled with gas 101 102 chromatography and mass spectrometry (Py-GC/MS), processes signals related to analytes mass. 103 Likewise, having an estimate of particle weights coupled with identification of the polymer would be 104 helpful for toxicological approaches. Clearly, the main toxicological dose descriptors, such as the no 105 observed adverse effect level (NOAEL), lowest observed adverse effect level (LOAEL), lethal dose 106 50% (LD₅₀) or lethal concentration 50% (LC₅₀), are usually expressed as a mass (mg) per mass (kg bw, 107 kg) or volume (L) per duration (day or hours).

108

TABLE 1 goes here (if possible)

This raises the question of how to measure these three dimensions. Some commercial devices propose these expensive configurations, but they usually require a perfectly flat background to serve as a reference of measurement, which is usually not encountered with filters containing MP. Alternative strategies could be used to approximate the volume, such as considering particles as an ellipsoid [86] and using polymer average densities, to estimate particles mass. In this way, authors could propose the contribution of each polymer type to the total mass of MP [86]. The same authors explain that a single 115 polypropylene MP, with an estimated weight of 4.4 µg, contributes highly to the total mass of the 116 isolated particles. Hermabessiere et al. [87] used a similar approach with pristine MP. It was shown that 117 the volume of microspheres and fibres can be estimated easily by equating them with perfect spheres and cylinders. There are strong concerns regarding fragments with irregular shapes, mostly secondary 118 119 MP, which probably constitute the largest proportion of MP and are of great concern for the MP community [89]. Here again, approximations can be suggested, such as calculating a mean diameter, 120 assuming that the shape factor of the particle $(4\pi \times \left(\frac{area}{nerimeter^2}\right))$ is not significantly less than 1 [83]. 121 122 Among other approximations, Simon et al. [86] proposed to approximate the thickness of the particle. 123 They considered that the ratio linking thickness to the minor dimension of the particle is the same as the 124 average ratio between minor and major dimensions. The average ratio was calculated from the ratios 125 measured for the whole analysed particle. Finally, the particle depth could also be estimated using an 126 ocular micrometre as proposed by Davison & Asch [17], but this would require particle handling which 127 does not meet the current challenges.

Based on these facts, there is a need for the research community working on MP, not only those working on seafood, to reassess the definition of a MP, as the meaning of this term is not the same for everyone. The mass of MP or at least the tri-dimensional structure and the shape of MP have to be considered. As a basis for any study on MP and as the first main element of standardisation this new definition, incorporating lower and upper limits, should be adopted by all scientists.

3. Laboratory environment and prevention of contamination

Microparticles of plastic are ubiquitous and can be collected everywhere in the laboratory environment
or on operators (Figure 1). Each type of MP can be found, from fibres that are highly represented, to
fragments.

137

FIGURE 1 goes here (if possible)

The low number of particles in the analysed samples makes the presence of these microparticles in the surrounding environment more than problematic. There is a clear risk of overestimating MP loads in samples, leading to poorly robust results [53].

Based on the corpus (Table 2), the external environment and the prevention of contamination were assessed regarding different parameters such as the operator, the work environment and cleaning procedures, and preparation of solutions, blanks and their management.

144

3.1 Contamination from the operator

145 With regard to prevention of contamination by the operator, only 36% of the studies reported that the 146 operators wore cotton lab coats. Nonetheless, behind this overall statistic, it should be noted that 147 proportions are evolving. Since the first mention of cotton lab coat in a publication in 2014 [29], the 148 number of publications has increased each year and, in 2018, 58% of publications (n=12) clearly 149 specified its use [64, 65, 67, 68, 71, 74, 75]. Some interesting additional pieces of information were 150 provided by two studies. The first, mentioned by Bråte et al. [40], indicates that cotton lab coats were 151 cleaned with a sticky roller. This detail could be important bearing in mind that lab coats can be cleaned 152 either at industrial or local laboratory laundries. In the cleaning machines, lab coats can be mixed with 153 other kinds of fabrics with possible synthetic fibre transfer. The second idea, developed by Kühn et al. 154 [67], is the use of coloured cotton lab coats. This would help scientists to systematically exclude a given type of coloured fibre. However, the colour choice has to be oriented towards the less encountered 155 156 colours, which is not always easy. Prevention of contamination by the operator could also be considered 157 through the use of gloves, as operators' fingers can carry fibres (Figure 1 B). Overall, 20% of the corpus 158 articles (Table 2) clearly mentioned that gloves were worn. Here again, these practices tend to be more 159 widespread than a few of year. Wearing gloves has two advantages: contamination prevention and 160 operator protection from harmful chemical products that can be used to destroy biological tissues (see 161 4.3). Special care should be taken to ensure that no MP are present at the surface of gloves by keeping 162 them in a protected box, and cleaning them using filtered water/alcohol solutions or compressed air.

163 **3.2** Contamination from the work environment

164 Considering the work environment, two parameters should be considered: the place where samples are 165 handled, and the tools, materials and equipment used to carry out the experiments. Cleaning procedures 166 are more or less well described in the publications. In all, 61% of the corpus (Table 2) has an explicit 167 mention of this procedure, with this percentage rising to 80% for the two last years (n=25). Cleaning 168 procedures are highly diverse, but 87% of them involve the use of liquid rinsing. The solution or 169 chemicals used for this step are water (tap, deionised, purified, ultrapure, MilliQ), alcohol (either not 170 defined or ethanol) and acetone. In 35% of these procedures, a combination of solutions or replication of 171 rinsing with three successive rinsing steps are used. In five studies, cleaning was followed by control 172 under a stereomicroscope [43, 46, 52, 65, 67]. Only four studies performed solely a stereomicroscope 173 check, without a rinsing procedure [26, 44, 54, 55]. Finally, a single work used glassware heat treatment 174 by heating glass at 550°C for 4H before its use [48]. Unfortunately, heating glassware is only feasible 175 for small containers, while, due to samples sizes, large volumes of solution can be required for the 176 digestion of tissues.

As previously mentioned, the place where handling is carried out should also be considered to avoid 177 178 airborne MP contamination. In a recent study, Wesh et al. proposed a comparison between different 179 working environments, including a basic laboratory bench, a car in-house laboratory facility, a fume-180 hood and a clean bench, *i.e.* laminar flow or safety cabinet [90]. Their results showed that the clean 181 bench significantly reduced the number of contaminated samples compared with the other three devices 182 (*p*-value ≤ 0.01). The use of such devices should therefore be encouraged strongly as a standard practice 183 for the analysis of MP in seafood. A special care would have to be paid to the filters in such devices. 184 Like for microbiological purposes, HEPA H14 0.3 µm filters should be considered as the minimum 185 standard because, based on EN 1822-1, these have an efficiency of 99.995% for particles > 0.3 μ m. Considering studies using chemical products and for safety reasons, addition of an activated carbon filter 186 187 should be recommended for air expelled into the room. The use of horizontal airflow cabinets should be avoided to protect operators from hazardous vapours emanating from digestates. Regarding the corpus 188

189 (Table 2), since 2017, 61% of the articles did not clearly describe a specific place for carrying out 190 analyses, and more than half of the studies still do not described a way of preventing contamination in 191 the working area. This fact raises concerns regarding the levels of MP contamination reported in the 192 literature. Concerning studies that used strategies to prevent contamination of the work place, only 193 12.5% (n=8) mentioned the use, even partially, of a type of airflow cabinet during the study on 194 microplastics in samples [23, 29, 31, 32, 51, 53, 60, 75]. The other most commonly used work areas are 195 basic cleaned laboratory benches (10.9%; n=7) [26, 44, 45, 55, 57, 68, 72] and fume hoods (10.9%; n=7) 196 [27, 30, 32, 38, 41, 47, 63]. A single study reported the use of both a fume hood and laminar flow 197 cabinet [32]. Three studies (4.7%) indicated that analyses were performed in specific laboratories, with controlled circulation [40, 52, 64]. Finally, one study even used an infant incubator to process samples 198 199 [58], which can be considered as a highly protected environment under reserve of sealing the place 200 where the arms come through.

201

3.3 Contamination from used solutions

Although an essential parameter, the filtration of solutions is mostly not mentioned in publications, as 75% of the corpus (Table 2) did not specify any filtration of the solutions used, even when chemical approaches were employed to digest tissues. Despite this figure, it should be noted that half of the experiments using filtered solutions were reported in studies published since 2017. In fact, even the use of "deionised, purified, ultrapure, MilliQ" water could be subject to recontamination after water circulation through the filter, membrane and resin. Filtration of solutions, as well as stereomicroscopic control of used filters, are mandatory for MP studies.

There is a real need for an "MP-free" standard for researchers in the field, like what has been developed in molecular biology with the "DNase-free" standard. This call for an "MP-free" standard relates on a broad of range of materials used for MP studies such as solutions, filters, gloves, etc. Unfortunately, laboratory suppliers are not familiar with the topic of MP, and efforts are needed to raise awareness of the analytical constraints involved in microplastics research. These MP-free materials would certainly be more expensive compared to current prices, but they would clearly offer non-negligible efficiency gains.

215 **3.4 Controls of contamination**

216 The last point, concerning contamination prevention, is the use of controls, also referred to as blanks in 217 the publications. Controls aim to ascertain the quantity of MP coming from different sources of 218 contamination; therefore, different types of controls can be used in the studies. They are required 219 whenever analysed tissues are in direct contact with external contamination sources. The main control 220 usually employed in studies is covered by the catch-all term "procedural" blank; the second mentioned 221 term is atmosphere control, and finally the last term is observational control. These controls respectively 222 rely on controls that follow the same process than used for samples, control checking for potential 223 contamination from the ambient air, and lastly is a specific control of ambient air during MP isolation 224 into samples or onto filters. These terms could also refer to different controls at different steps of the 225 analytical process.

226 There is a lack of precision and description of controls in the publications; the corpus was only studied 227 based on "procedural", "atmosphere" and "observational" controls (Table 2). Before 2014, there is no mention of blanks or controls. Since 2014, although 73.5% of articles mention a procedural blank, only 228 229 18.4% and 10.2% noted the use of atmosphere and observational controls, respectively. A few 230 publications also propose new controls, namely positive/negative controls [42, 53] or control of sample 231 containers [71]. Positive controls aim to check whether plastic present in samples is accurately 232 recovered during the isolation process, whereas negative controls are more difficult to implement, as no 233 MP-free matrix exists. The number of controls reported in the different studies can vary, and there is no 234 clear statement on the appropriate number of controls to be performed. Some publications suggest 235 applying controls to each analysed batch of samples [27, 32, 40], which might be encouraged for future 236 standardisation. Nonetheless, overall the number of controls should not be too high compared with 237 samples.

The first step concerned by control is dissection. This step is mostly subject to contamination by the atmosphere, tools and operator. The main problem at this step concerns the atmosphere, which is why the use of sampling atmospheric control (SAC) is highly encouraged. The second step, if applied, relates 241 to digestion. It involves possible contamination by the atmosphere, operator and used solutions, and is 242 usually assessed by processing an Erlenmeyer flask without sample, as a flask containing a sample. For 243 this step, two controls can be proposed: a digestion atmospheric control (DAC) to monitor the 244 atmosphere, and a flask that undergoes the same analysis process as a sample, which can be considered 245 an operator/solution control (O/SC). As proposed in a few studies [17, 42, 53], the use of a positive control of extraction (PCE), a flask with a defined number of MP, should be considered in future 246 247 research. The third step consists in filtration with a risk of contamination by operators and the atmosphere; this risk can be assessed using a filtration atmospheric control (FAC). Finally, the 248 observation step is mostly threatened with contamination by the atmosphere and tools, but most often, 249 250 filters are protected by the lids of Petri dishes.

251 Although controls are often referred in scientific studies, there are issues regarding their management 252 and the communication of control results. As an example, since 2014, 49% of the publications did not 253 clearly report how controls results were managed, and only 32.7% of papers reported their blank results. 254 These figures are not surprising as there is no consensus on this topic. Some strategies are not 255 satisfactory as they use systematic exclusion of items, without considering the numbers found in 256 controls vs. those observed in samples. Particles are thus subtracted without considering their colours or 257 shapes, or an average number of particles counted in controls is subtracted. In some studies, it is 258 reported that no particles were observed in the blanks. Based on all the studies analysed in this review, 259 and bearing in mind the environment in which MP analysis is performed, it is justifiable to wonder about 260 the accuracy of these control results. In contrast, the currently most advanced and thorough 261 methodology consists in subtracting control counts, taking particle shape, colour, and synthetic nature into account [46, 72]. This idea could also be combined with other approaches where the notion of 262 263 control size and contact surface are highlighted [48, 52]. This would help to compare controls and 264 samples if the exposed surface is not the same. Finally, the notion of exposure time could also be taken into account [73] as controls are not always in contact with the atmosphere for a period equivalent to 265 266 that of the samples. By combining all these ideas, future controls could be expressed as number of items cm⁻² h⁻¹. This would enable researchers to accurately subtract items from sampled based on shape and 267

268 colour of items, taking into account the surface and exposure time. The scientific community therefore
269 needs to develop new approaches to reach a consensus on how to handle these important issues, and
270 accurately estimate MP loads in seafood.

271

3.5 Proposals for standardisation

As explained above, preventing contamination in the context of MP analysis is a key factor from the arrival of samples at the laboratory to the reporting of results. Numerous parameters must be managed to perform MP analysis with good quality assurance and good laboratory practices.

Contamination from the operator must be reduced through the use of cotton lab coats and gloves. Concerning the work environment, the use of laminar flow cabinets is strongly encouraged [90]. This has to be accompanied by a cleaning procedure. All solutions used during MP analysis must be filtered to ensure the absence of particles. As contamination cannot be 100% ruled out, the use of different controls is mandatory. These approaches aim to monitor different types of contamination (atmosphere, operator, chemicals) and have to be thoroughly described in publications, together with the way they are incorporated into results.

Some gaps are still seen in published studies, but recent research tends to include improved measures to control contamination. This can be observed when regarding the specific "controls" or "quality assurance-quality control" paragraphs in the materials and methods sections of articles [53, 62, 72]. Figure 2 below illustrates the various parameters that should be applied by scientists for future research on MP in seafood.

287

FIGURE 2 goes here (if possible)

288 4. Sampling and isolation

289 **4.1 Sam**

4.1 Sampling for studies on MP in seafood

Sampling is the first step in the process for MP analysis. Preliminary essential data to record in publications are the number of individuals sampled and their scientific names. Overall, these data are suitably presented by authors, as only 7.8% of studies in the corpus (Table 2) did not explicitly report the number of individuals. A minimum of n=50 individuals has been defined by OSPAR and the MSFD as a limit to obtain adequate sampling [78, 79], although MSFD members recognised that data on variability related to sampling sizes are lacking. It should be noted that this number is not always respected in studies.

297 Certain localisation parameters should also be recorded such as GPS coordinates, catching depths and 298 types of capture (trawl type, mesh size, etc.). These data are easily recovered for scientific catches [26, 299 51, 67], but this could be more difficult when samples are purchased directly from fishermen or market 300 or sold as processed seafood [35, 60, 75].

301 When individuals are still whole, biometric data have to be recorded, such as total or standard length 302 with an ichthyometer or a calliper and weight. Recording whole sample size will help scientists to determine whether this corresponds to a commercial size; as an example, commercial sizes for major 303 304 European species can be found in Regulation (EC) No 850/98 [91]. Moreover, it could help to estimate 305 the physiological state of studied organisms. Studies on bivalves and crustaceans usually meet this standard, but it is more difficult to find such studies on fish. However, these data are important, 306 307 especially for risk assessments related to human health. On the basis of the corpus, 64.1% and 42.2% of 308 papers (Table 2) mentioned average size and weight for whole or tissue samples, respectively, which is 309 not satisfactory even in recent years. Less than half of the studies report weights, not always mentioning 310 the one of analysed tissue. Improving these figures is therefore a major challenge for the coming years, 311 particularly when the isolation step involves, as explained below, chemical digestion of tissues that 312 needs to be standardised.

Sample management differs between studies; some research involves direct sampling of tissues on board, while other studies preserve whole organisms until analysis. The procedure for tissue sampling has also to be reported in studies as it could lead to additional contamination of samples, the use of SAC should be encouraged. During tissue recovery, recording the time of sample exposure to ambient air would be an interesting parameter to record. It is especially important if the time factor is taken into account by the controls (see 3.4). Moreover, it is important to rinse parts that are not analysed either for fish or bivalves as much as possible, so that contamination from other parts of the animal would notoccur [27, 53].

321

4.2 Tissue preservation before processing

322 There are two methods for storing samples: storage at temperatures below 0° C, *i.e.* samples placed in a 323 freezer, or at temperatures above 0°C in chemical mixtures, e.g. formaldehyde and ethanol. These data 324 must also be reported in scientific papers as they could have an impact on the observed results. Together 325 with the method used to preserve samples, the storage time would be of interest, even though it is not 326 essential. To the best of authors knowledge, a single study looked at the impact of preservation methods 327 on microplastics [52], comparing storage at -20°C for ten days to storage in 4% formaldehyde for three days. No effect of the storage method was found by the researchers. Unfortunately, except for two 328 329 studies that used same concentrations of formaldehyde [18, 67], the others used a concentration of 5% or 330 higher [15, 17, 51, 65, 68]. Likewise, a storage limited to three days in formaldehyde seems to be 331 inconsistent with scientific fishing campaigns that can last weeks [92, 93], with long periods before 332 samples landing. Nonetheless, this type of approach aiming to assess the impact of sample processing on MP integrity is of great interest and should be pursued. Another important area of study is the 333 334 compatibility of solutions used during samples processing. In the case of formaldehyde, the use of 335 oxidising chemicals or perchloric acid downstream should be prohibited due to the potential 336 development of violent reactions. This shows that sample storage should be taken into account as soon 337 as the study is designed. When possible, sample freezing should be given preference, particularly when 338 chemical digestion is performed downstream. It has been well documented, particularly in fish, that 339 freezing has an impact on muscle constituents. On the one hand, mechanical destruction of tissue can 340 occur due to crystallisation of certain water pools inside muscle, and on the other, protein aggregation 341 and lipid oxidisation can occur [94]. These phenomena are all the more likely when freezing kinetics are 342 slow, the freezing time is long, and the freezing temperature is low. Here again, long periods of freezing 343 can occur between sampling and analysis, and it would be of great value to assess whether long freezing 344 times are an advantage or a disadvantage for both dissection and chemical degradation of seafood 345 tissues.

346

TABLE 2 goes here (if possible)

347

4.3 Dissection and digestion methods for MP studies

At this point in the analysis process, there are two main methodologies: dissection and chemical digestion of tissues. Consulting the corpus (Table 2), a trend is emerging, whereby small sampling quantities are more often subject to the chemical approach: 66% of studies (n=29) with sampling \leq 180 individuals used such an approach. In contrast, 62% of studies (n=29) with sampling > 180 individuals prefer the dissection approach. Methodology can also be governed by the type of studied organism, as an example bivalves are exclusively studied as a whole after a chemical digestion (Table 2).

354 Dissection is very easy to set up and implement, and it is not expensive. This could explain why it is 355 generally preferred for MP studies, and particularly for very large sampling sizes. It accounts for more 356 than half of the whole corpus (53%) (Table 2). Nonetheless, there are some issues concerning the use of 357 dissection for MP isolation. The first disadvantage is the sample inspection time, which can be as long as 358 10 min to 1h30 [39, 45, 57], leading to a high risk of contamination from the work environment. The 359 second important issue with this methodology is the risk of omitting particles [17, 25]. The first reason 360 for these omissions is that dissections are sometimes performed with the naked eye, which is not 361 accurate enough to distinguish all MP. The second reason is that depending on their size and shape, MP can be difficult to observe among the contents of the alimentary tract. 362

Concerning chemical digestion of tissues, different methods have been described. These include enzymatic methods (trypsin, proteinase K, mix lipase/amylase/protease), oxidative methods (sodium hypochlorite (NaClO) and hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2)), acid methods (nitric acid (HNO_3) or a mixture of HNO₃ and perchloric acid ($HClO_4$)), and basic methods (potassium hydroxide (KOH)). The use of KOH is the most commonly described of the chemical methods used in the studies of the corpus (17%) (Table 2). This chemical is mostly used at a concentration of 10%, except in one publication where a concentration of 20% was tested [63]. KOH was used to digest both bivalves [35, 68, 71] and fish 370 tissues [23, 35, 44, 48, 53, 60, 63, 70, 75]. KOH has the advantage of having no deleterious effects on 371 several polymer types [95, 96]. KOH must, however, be handled with caution, as it is a corrosive compound. In the corpus (Table 2), eight studies (13%) proposed the use of oxidising solutions such as 372 9% NaClO on fish stomach contents [51], and 30% H₂O₂ on bivalves [30, 33, 42, 59, 69] and fish organs 373 374 [31, 59, 66]. H₂O₂ is the second most commonly used technique to digest seafood tissues, mostly bivalves. The main concern with oxidising solutions is their stability over time. This must therefore be 375 376 taken into account in the context of method standardisation. Echoing what was previously discussed (see 377 3.4) the use of DAC, O/SC and PCE is highly encouraged during the digestion step.

378 A total of eight studies using acid approaches were found in the corpus (Table 2), among which five 379 (8%) used 69% nitric acid [29, 37, 41, 47, 62] and three (5%) used a 65% HNO₃: 68% HClO₄ 4:1 (v/v) 380 mixture [27, 32, 38]. The nitric acid method has only been applied to bivalves, while the acid mixture 381 was applied to both bivalves and crustaceans. The main drawback of the acid approach is its adverse 382 effect on polymers, described in numerous studies [95, 97, 98]. Three studies (5%) used enzymatic 383 digestion for the analysis of bivalve tissues [52, 72] and fish gut [61]. Enzymatic approaches can be 384 considered mild approaches, and they usually do not require temperatures above 40°C. The second 385 advantage of this type of approach is that enzymes have no impact on synthetic polymers. One of the 386 disadvantages of such methods is the use of a multistep analysis, involving multiple solutions with a higher risk of contamination. As an example, enzymatic digestion was not sufficiently effective on fish 387 388 gut [61], and an additional step using 30% H₂O₂ was necessary. Moreover, these approaches can sometimes be time consuming. Finally, depending on the method, hazardous reactions can occur, which 389 390 is not compliant with good hygiene and safety practices. As an example, H₂O₂ heating can generate O₂, 391 and NaClO should not be put in acidic conditions because of the release of the highly toxic Cl₂ 392 compound.

393

4.4 Filtration as the last step in the isolation process

The last step of in the sampling and isolation process involves filtration when chemical digestion of tissues is performed. The use of FAC is required at this step. Filter retention levels mentioned in the 396 corpus (Table 2) (n=31) are 250 μ m (3%), 200 μ m (6%), 149 μ m (6%), 52 μ m (3%), 20 μ m (6%), 13 397 μm (10%), 12 μm (3%), 8 μm (10%), 5 μm (23%), 1.6 μm (3%), 1.2 μm (13%), 0.8 μm (3%), and 0.7 398 μ m (10%). Regarding these studies, and looking at the filters used, it appears that 61% (n=19) chose a 399 retention diameter below 10 µm. This makes it possible to retain very small MP below the limit of 400 detection of certain identification techniques used downstream (see 5.3). Concerning filter composition, 401 the most common materials are nitrocellulose (29%) and glass fibre (26%). For future studies, a 402 compromise between filtration efficacy, *i.e.* absence of clogging and absence of interference for 403 identification, and MP retention needs to be found and then put forward as a standard.

404

4.5 **Proposals for standardisation**

Based on these findings, some advice can be proposed concerning sampling and isolation, in order to 405 406 standardise practices. A minimum of 50 individuals must be sampled per studied species (Figure 3), 407 even though statistical analyses are required to assess whether this is representative of population 408 variability. It is important to gather metadata as much as possible, including GPS coordinates for the catch. The second important point to keep in mind is to select individuals that correspond to the 409 410 commercial size, if risk assessment for human health is considered. Biometric data, *i.e.* whole size, 411 whole weight and analysed tissue weight are mandatory for study reports in order to improve 412 standardisation of digestion techniques. Once sampled, tissues are to be stored as frozen samples, since 413 the effects of chemical preservatives on polymers are not clearly documented. For particle isolation, the 414 chemical approach should be given preference (Figure 3) as it ensures low exposure of tissues to 415 ambient air and recovery of smaller particles. Two methods are popular in the research community but, 416 to the best of author knowledge, the method using 10% KOH at 60°C for 24H is the one whose impact 417 has been assessed most closely; additionally, this solution is more stable over time compared to 30% 418 H_2O_2 .

419

FIGURE 3 goes here (if possible)

420 New methodological parameters concerning digestion should be clarified in future studies to improve421 method standardisation and comparison of results. The main focus should be to estimate the limits of

422 applicability of each method: species, weight of tissues, etc. Various other parameters also need to be 423 better clarified and defined (Figure 3). As an example, the ratio of solution to tissue weight has to be given [27, 32], instead of highly imprecise information such as the volume of solution without reference 424 to tissue weight [33, 41, 71], or unclear expressions such as "three times the volume of the biological 425 426 material" [23, 53, 64]. Concerning digestion duration and temperature, certain terms like "overnight" and "room temperature" [27, 32, 37, 38, 47] should also be avoided as they make it difficult for other 427 428 scientists to reproduce the analysis precisely. Multiple treatments must be thoroughly assessed to avoid 429 unnecessary steps that can lead to contamination, and to determine whether they are necessary for all 430 sample types and sizes. Finally, regarding filtration, harmonisation of filter pores and composition is also 431 needed.

432

5. Quantification and identification

433 **5.1** Quantification strategies for particle isolation in seafood

The quantification of MP is usually performed by observation under a stereomicroscope. Some studies report observation with the naked eye, but this approach is limited to large MP with sizes above 500 μ m. At this step of the analytical process, "MP-like" or "putative MP" are sorted and generally isolated from the dissected tissue while they are directly counted on the digestate filter [44, 64, 66]. This step is highly tedious, and particularly complicated if the filter is loaded or the contents of the dissected tissue are in large volumes.

440 Currently, automation is theoretically available with both FT-IR and Raman spectroscopy. It has been 441 implemented with both Raman [99] and FT-IR [100] on MP in water and sediment samples. Concerning 442 seafood, automation of particle counting was mentioned in a single publication, without implementation 443 in routine laboratory practice [101], mainly because this approach is still "unreasonably time-444 consuming" [102] and because of resolution issues.

445 Preliminary categorisation of items is generally performed based on particle shapes. As a minimum, 446 sorting consists in separating fibres from other items. Fibres are included in 69% of the studies from the 447 corpus (Table 2). Six publications explicitly mention that fibres were not included in their evaluation because they were considered laboratory contamination [17, 23, 31, 37, 47, 56]. Nonetheless, it is 448 449 important to remember that fibres are produced in high quantities [2] and they are not retained by most 450 wastewater treatment plants [103]. With this in mind and with the aim of improving prevention of 451 contamination (see 3.5); it becomes difficult to rule out fibres when studying MP in seafood. Finally, 452 22% of studies did not mention fibres; however, most of these studies were carried out before 2013. As a 453 reminder, a list of MP item types was provided by Lusher et al. [104]. It includes fragments, fibres, 454 beads, foams, and pellets.

A second approach consists in sorting items based on their size. To do this, authors generally assess the frequency of items in the different size classes. Considering the studies in the corpus (Table 2) this strategy was performed in 27% of cases. Once again, the main issue with these studies is that none of them used the same classes, which makes it difficult to compare results.

A third method of sorting is based on particle colour. This approach was adopted in 67% of the articles of the corpus (Table 2). This sorting approach is also of interest because it enables an orientation test before identification of the items (see 5.2). Of course, particles with colours such as pink, red, blue, or yellow have a higher probability of being synthetic compared to transparent, black or white ones [105].

463 Until clear identification has been carried out, only the terms MP-like, particle or item should be used.

464

5.2 Orientation tests: selection of putative polymers

Once quantification has been performed, there is a need for identification in order to discriminate real MP from non-synthetic particles. Studies that did not perform any identification or orientation represent 16% of the corpus (Table 2). Except for one publication [45], all these works were published before 2015, showing the attention paid in recent years to better characterisation of isolated particles. Since 2015, the absence of identification seems to have been replaced by orientation tests, but it is important to separate orientation techniques from identification methods. The first indicates the suspected synthetic nature of a particle, while identification leads to clear determination of the polymer composing the MP. 472 Moreover, it should be mentioned that the sole use of an orientation test is not satisfactory, but it can473 help to spread non-target particles and avoid overloading analytical devices.

Different orientation tests are proposed in 28% of the corpus articles (Table 2): density tests in solutions with different salinity [22, 44], observation of particle characteristics such as colour, shape, and ability to break [25, 30, 35, 36, 41, 43, 44, 50, 61-63], the use of polarised light microscopy [47], the use of a hot needle that leaves a mark on synthetic particles [27, 32, 38, 39, 61], and finally colouration with Rose Bengal that stains organic particle leaving mineral, chitin and synthetic material unaffected [17]. Rose Bengal is not the unique colouring agent used for orientation, recently some papers mentioned the use of Nile Red [106] to perform such approach [107].

481

5.3 Identification methods to ascertain the nature and quantities of true MP

Regarding identification, the main technique described in the corpus (Table 2) is Fourier-transform infrared (FT-IR) (48%), as is or adjusted in different configurations: micro FT-IR, attenuated total reflection (ATR), and focal plan array (FPA) (Table 2). The second described technique is Raman microscopy, used in 9% of the studies described in the corpus [18, 29, 37, 51, 60, 75].

486 The main advantages of such techniques are the ability to analyse small particles such as $\leq 20 \ \mu m$ and 487 the possibility of coupling particle counting and identification, even though particle isolation is usually 488 performed in seafood. Regarding their drawbacks, FT-IR is generally sensitive to moisture content and 489 not able to identify black particles [108]. Raman technology is not able to easily identify fibres, or 490 particles containing pigments [29, 75], and can destroy particles due to the high energy intensity of its 491 laser. Pyrolysis coupled with gas chromatography and mass spectrometry (Py-GC/MS) has not yet been 492 used for seafood studies, contrary to other research fields such as MP in sediment or water. However, a 493 method has been developed and applied on a few MP isolated from bivalves [87]. This technique allows 494 the characterization of the particle core, and recently proved to be efficient in determining polymer 495 composition for samples identified as "pigment" by Raman microscopy [87].

In a context of method comparison and harmonisation of analytical practices, there is a need for method
 performance assessment. This assessment has been performed for Py-GC/MS [87] with information on

498 method development, repeatability, and theoretical limits of detection. Such approaches should also be 499 encouraged for spectroscopic methods allowing for better comparison of results from different studies. 500 As an example of harmonisation, among all FT-IR studies (n=21), only 52% provided a threshold 501 beyond which the identification of the polymer's nature is certain, and this threshold varied from 60% to 502 85%. None of the six studies performing Raman identification provided such information. Working with 503 the same parameters would help to harmonise identification methods and ultimately enable sharing of 504 research databases, increasing the diversity of spectra available to everyone, and thereby the power of 505 identification of the different tools [102]. Finally, it could be suggested to add positive identification controls (PIC), *i.e.* a single polymer or multiple known polymers, and negative identification controls 506 507 (NIC), *i.e.* a single polymer or multiple natural polymers such as cotton or chitin, to ascertain proper 508 functioning of the analytical device for each batch or particle analysed.

509 Another issue concerns samples with noise or unidentifiable signals. Among studies having carried out 510 identifications using either Raman or FT-IR spectroscopy (n=37), only 16.2% reported unidentified 511 items [34, 42, 52, 60, 73, 75], nonetheless this information is important and should be detailed. 512 Unidentified particles can be either due to absence of spectrum or a noisy signal; chemometric methods 513 are cutting-edge approaches that can help to solve the latter issue. Briefly, chemometry consists in the 514 application of mathematics and statistics, e.g. multivariate analysis for signal processing and correction. 515 A free online analytical pipeline is available to develop chemometric approaches; the Chemflow project 516 (https://vm-chemflow-francegrille.eu/) developed on Galaxy is mostly dedicated to infrared 517 spectrometry. Next steps involve the development of *ad-hoc* analysis pipelines [100], made available to 518 the research community, able to process problematic spectra and improve identification levels. In 519 parallel to the chemometric approach, as proposed by different authors [102, 109], some works must 520 also be undertaken with weathering and analytical specialists to obtain Raman/FT-IR/Py-GC/MS spectra 521 related to weathered polymers. Indeed, most of the particles found in seafood are secondary sourced MP that have been damaged by the action of UV, oxidisation and swell. This results in spectra that could be 522 523 different from pristine polymers conventionally used for databases. Moreover, this has been demonstrated for PVC after analysis by µ-Raman [105] and Karami et al. expected that unidentified 524

525 items could partly correspond to weathered polymers [60]. Polymers having known amounts of common 526 additives can also be considered with such approaches to explore whether the plastic additive content 527 could influence identification after weathering processes.

528 Finally, not all particles are usually analysed with the identification tools; a subset of particles is mostly preferred. Regarding the corpus (Table 2), there is huge diversity in the strategies for studies carrying 529 530 out identifications (n=37). Five studies (14%) did not report how many particles were analysed or 531 whether there was a selection of items. Seven articles (19%) reported that they analysed all the particles. 532 while 11 (30%) mentioned a fixed number of particles having been analysed, without information on the 533 proportion of isolated particles that it represents. Fourteen studies (38%) mentioned analysis of a subset 534 of particles, among which 10 (27%) provided the number of particles analysed vs. the number of 535 isolated particles [34, 42, 56, 58, 59, 61, 64, 66, 69, 73], this practice should be encouraged for future 536 studies. The MSFD provides a strategy concerning identification, proposing that all the particles < 100537 μ m should be subject to identification, while for those > 100 μ m, only a subset was proposed; as an 538 example, 10% could be analysed in the limit of 50 particles [79]. In a recent review, Hermsen et al. 539 proposed another method consisting in studying a minimum of 100 particles when the number of MP-540 like is less than 200 and more than 50% of the particles above 200 items [110]. Based on recent studies, 541 it appears that small particles with a size $< 100 \,\mu m$ represent the majority of particles [71]. The number 542 of items to analyse is thus increasing with the precision of detection devices, and there is a need to 543 define new rules for particle identification. Unfortunately, the above-mentioned proposals are not 544 strongly supported by statistical data. As a result, there is also a need for statistical work to provide 545 advice concerning subsampling, defining the adequate percentage to analyse and to obtain accurate and representative identification of all particles with a high confidence level. Adjustment of the confidence 546 547 level should be carefully performed, bearing in mind that very high precision will lead to high costs 548 regarding machine and labour times.

549 Identification results are generally given as a list of polymers, followed by the percentage for a given 550 polymer. This allows to easily visualise which polymer is mostly identified, but unfortunately not necessarily the one whose quantity is the highest. This fact was illustrated in a recent study on MP in wastewater [86]. As previously discussed (see 2.2), identification data should be combined with quantification data, especially those on size and estimated volumes, in order to estimate the mass of MP present in seafood. This would be of great value for both environmental and human health risk assessment [84].

Once identification has been performed, and provided that identified sub-samples are representative of the whole sampling, and that controls have been thoroughly taken into account, contamination results can be proposed as average MP indiv⁻¹ and MP g^{-1} [104]. The latter result is particularly important when assessing risks to human health and exposure to MP through seafood, using total diet studies.

560

5.4 Proposals for standardisation

561 Concerning quantification and identification, the first parameter to work on concerns automatic particle 562 counting (Figure 4) in order to lower the risk of contamination and increase the number of particles 563 found compared to manual sorting [109]. Common terminologies need to be adopted by the community 564 for the description of particles. Although the different shapes of particles are well defined [104], the 565 other descriptors need to be standardised further. The use of common terminologies will enable easier 566 comparison of studies, and thereby more efficient risk assessment work.

567 Regarding identification, the comparison of methods on identical samples is suggested and method 568 performance criteria should be established for all the techniques. This will help to evaluate their 569 complementarity (Figure 4), allowing for the establishment of future common identification strategies, 570 or analytical workflows as recently proposed [88], thus saving time and money. Adding identification 571 controls will help to improve quality assurance and participate in standardisation of practices. There is a 572 need to establish, based on statistical criteria of representativeness (Figure 4), accurate rules to define the 573 size of sub-sampling when used for identification. Ultimately, a link between size and identification 574 should be considered in order to approximate MP mass in samples. This will be helpful in environmental 575 and human health risk assessments.

576

FIGURE 4 goes here (if possible)

Finally, there are considerable needs concerning approaches in bioinformatics (Figure 4) to enable researchers to identify the currently unidentified spectra. Chemometry and data analysis pipelines would help to remove ambiguities regarding unidentified particles based on statistical tools and enable all scientists to use these difficult methodologies without the need to have extensive knowledge in the field. Finally, the development and pooling of databases, including for weathered polymers, will also improve inter-study reproducibility of identification.

583 6. Minimum information for publication of microplastics studies

As previously highlighted, the number of publications on MP in seafood has increased at an exponential rate in recent years. Unfortunately, some of these publications do not satisfy minimum criteria that should be required to publish a paper dealing with the identification of MP.

Even though a different methodology was used, authors shared some conclusions with the work of Hermsen et al. [110], *i.e.* the need to work in clean air conditions, the need for contamination controls, or the need for identification to ascertain the polymeric nature of particles. Moreover, authors propose use of recommendation put forward by Lusher et al., concerning, as an example, shape classification and expression of results [104].

592

TABLE 3 goes here (if possible)

593 Authors propose the development of a concept that has already been implemented in other sciences, 594 such as molecular biology [111]: the minimum information for publication of microplastics studies 595 (MIMS). This checklist could be used by people involved in publication from authors to reviewers. The 596 list is proposed in Table 3 and is subdivided following the different items presented in this review that 597 represent the different steps of MP analysis from sampling to identification. A distinction was made 598 between essential information that is mandatory to produce an accurate report on a study, and any 599 desirable information that would add value to the work but whose absence would not affect the overall 600 understanding and the ability to reproduce experiments. This table is the fruit of authors' reflexions and 601 could be used and adapted for other studies dealing with MP contamination in seawater or sediments.

602 **7.** Conclusion

The study of MP in organisms, including seafood, has essentially developed in the last ten years. That makes it a relatively young field of science. Based on the studies examined in this review, good and less good practices were highlighted. The main information to be drawn from this review is that although in the past much information was missing from the articles, recent studies are more informative concerning for example: contamination prevention, solution filtration, and use of controls. Unfortunately, some practices need to be thoroughly improved such as management of controls, digestion method harmonisation and polymer identification.

610 There is a need to better structure information to improve standardisation, opening the way for the 611 comparison of studies, which is of particular interest for toxicological risk assessment.

This review was also an opportunity to reflect on the future challenges facing research on microplastics in seafood. These challenges include developing a more accurate definition of MP in regard to risk assessment, better contamination management thanks to airflow cabinets, the need for harmonisation of digestion methods, and the need to accurately identify isolated MP-like particles. Taking into account the needs of standardisation, as well as the challenges, the concept of MIMS is proposed. This checklist ensures that the minimum information would be proposed to publish an accurate report dealing with experiments concerning microplastics.

In the coming years, the above-mentioned challenges should be addressed. This involves
interdisciplinary and collaborative work. This will help to improve the quality and accuracy of studies
on MP in general, and MP in seafood in particular.

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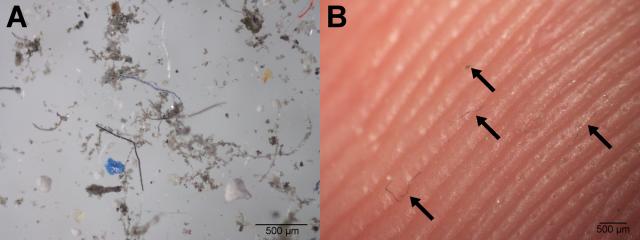
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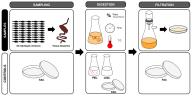
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- 963

964 Captions

- 965Figure 1: Pictures of microparticles and potential MP isolated from a laboratory ventilation grid (A) and the surface of
an operator's finger (B) where fibres are pointed out by arrows.
- 967 Figure 2: Representation of basic precautions to avoid sample contamination in the context of MP load analysis.
- Figure 3: Schematic representation of proposal for standardization of sampling and isolation. SAC: sampling
 atmospheric control, PEC: positive extraction control, O/SC: operator/solution control, DAC: digestion atmospheric
 control, FAC: filtration atmospheric control.
- Figure 4: Schematic representation of proposal for standardization of quantification and identification. PE:
 polyethylene, PP: polypropylene, PS: polystyrene, μRaman: Raman microspectroscopy, μFT-IR: Fourier-transform
 infrared microspectroscopy, Py-GC/MS: pyrolysis coupled to gas chromatography and mass spectrometry.
- Table 1: Comparison of cube, sphere and fibre lengths, diameters, volumes and areas considering equal maximum size
 and volumes.
- 976 Table 2: Reading grid showing the main points selected from the studies in the corpus.
- 977 Table 3: Minimum information for publication of microplastics studies (MIMS).







QUANTIFICATION (AUTOMATION)



IDENTIFICATION

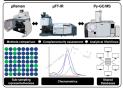


Table	1
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	Cube	Sphere	Fibre ^a
Equal maximum size			
Lengths (L)	5 mm	-	5 mm
Diameters (D)	-	5 mm	0,05 mm
Areas ^b	150 mm^2	79 mm^2	$0,79 \text{ mm}^2$
Volumes ^c	125 mm ³	65 mm^3	0,01 mm ³
Equal volumes			
Lengths (L)	3,7 mm	-	25465 mm
Diameters (D)	-	4,6 mm	0,05 mm
Areas ^b	81 mm^2	66 mm^2	4000 mm^2
Volumes ^c	50 mm^3	50 mm^3	50 mm^3

Volumes ¹ 30 mm 30 mm 20 mm 20 mm ^a Fibre is here considered as a cylinder ^b Areas were calculated using different formulas: $6 \times L^2$ for the cube, $4\pi \times \left(\frac{D}{2}\right)^2$ for the sphere and $2\pi \times \left(\frac{D}{2}\right)^2 + 2\pi \times \left(\frac{D}{2}\right) \times L$ for the fibre.

^c Volumes were calculated using different formulas: L^3 for cube, $\frac{4}{3}\pi \times \left(\frac{D}{2}\right)^3$ for the sphere and $L \times \pi \times \left(\frac{D}{2}\right)^2$ for the fibre.

Table 2

					ination prevention				Sampling					Isolatio	on				Q	uantific	ation	Identification
Ref. Year	Cotton lab coat a	 Cleaning procedure ^b 	Sol. filtratior	Working 1 place ^c	Blanks ^d	Blanks management	Blank results °	Aver. Length ^f	Aver. weight ^f	n^{f}	Organism s ^g	Method	Concentration	Ratio ^h	Time ⁱ	$T^{\circ}C^{j}$	Comp. Treat	Filters ^k	Sizes1	Colors	Fibers	Methods ^m
[12] 1972	2 -	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	270	F	Dissection	-	-	-	-	-	-	Yes	Yes	-	FT-IR
[13] 1973	3 -	-	-	-	-	-	-	Part.	-	-	F	Dissection	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	Yes	-	-
[14] 1976		-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	F	Dissection	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	Yes	-	-
[15] 2010) -	-	-	-	-	-	-	Yes	Yes	670	F	Dissection	-	-	-	-	-	-	Yes	Yes	-	-
[16] 2011	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	31	Ce	Dissection	-	-	-	-	-	-	No	-		-
[17] 2011	-	-	-	-	PC	-	-	-	-	141	F Cr	Dissection	-	-	-	-	-	-	Yes	Yes	Excluded	Coloration
[18] 2011 [19] 2011	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	Yes	-	120 182	F	Dissection	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	Yes	Yes	μR + SEM
[20] 2012			-	-	-	-	-	Yes Yes	-	569	F	Dissection Dissection	-	-	-	-		-	Yes*	Yes Yes	Yes Yes	-
[21] 2012	2 _	-	-	-	-	-	-	Yes	-	425	F	Dissection	-	-	-	-	-	-	Yes	Yes	-	-
[22] 2013	3 -	-	-	-	-	-	-	Yes	-	595	F	Dissection	-	-	-	-	-	-	Yes	Yes	-	Density
[23] 2013	3 -	-	-	AFC	-	-	-	Yes	Yes	388	F	KOH	10 %	3:1 (v/v)	2-3 w	R.T	-	200 µm (S)	Yes	-	Excluded	FT-IR
[24] 2013	3 -	-	-	-	-	-	-	Yes	Yes	19	F	Dissection	-	-	-	-	-	-	Yes	Yes	-	-
[25] 2013	3 -	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	192	F	Dissection	-	-	-	-	-	-	Yes	-	-	0
[26] 2013	8 n.g.	Yes (S)	-	CWS	-	-	-	-	-	504	F	Dissection	-	-	-	-	-	-	Yes	-	Yes	FT-IR
[27] 2014	÷ -	Yes (MR)	Yes	FH	PB (B)	Subtraction	IA/B	Part.	Part.	50	В	HNO3 : HClO4	65 % & 68 % - 4:1 (v/v)	5:1 (v/w)	O.N	R.T	Yes	13 µm (C)	Yes	Yes	Yes	Hot needle
[28] 2014	+ -	-	-	-	-	-	-	Yes	-	Part.	F	Dissection	-	-	-	-	-	-	Yes	-	Yes	-
[29] 2014		Yes (MR)	Part.	AFC	PB (NC)	-	Nothing	Yes	-	93	в	HNO ₃	69 %	7 - 25 mL/indiv	O.N	R.T	Yes	5 µm (CN)	Yes	Yes	Yes	μR
[30] 2014		Yes (R)	-	FH	PB (NC)	-	-	Yes	Yes	50	В	H_2O_2	30 %	15:1 à 20:1 (v/w)	-	55 - 65°C	Yes	0.8 µm (CN)	-	-	Yes	o
[31] 2015	5 -	Yes (MR)	Yes	AFC	-	-	-	Yes	Yes	125	F	$NaCl + H_2O_2$	20.5 M + 15 %	250 mL (NaCl)	10 min	$50^{\circ}C(H_2O_2)$	-	8 µm (CN)	Yes	-	Excluded	FT-IR
[32] 2015	5 -	Yes	Yes	AFC + FH	PB (B)	Subtraction	-	Yes	Yes	165	Cr	HNO3 : HClO4	65 % & 68 % - 4:1	5:1 (v/w)	O.N	R.T	Yes	13 µm (C)	Yes	Yes	Yes	Hot needle
[33] 2015	š _	Yes (MR)	Yes	-	PB	_	IN/B	Yes	Yes	144	в	H ₂ O ₂	(v/v) 30 %	200 mL	24 h + 24 - 48 h	65°C + R.T	Yes	5 µm (CN)	Yes	Yes	Yes	μF
[34] 2015			-	-	-	-	-	Yes	Yes	263	F	Dissection	-	-	-	-	-		Yes	-	Yes	μF
[35] 2015		Yes (MR)	-	-	AB	Exclusion	IA/B	Part.	-	152	М	КОН	10 %	3:1 (v/v)	O.N	60°C	-	-	Yes	-	Yes	0
[36] 2015	5 -	-	-	-	-	-	-	Yes	Yes	22	F	Dissection	-	-	-	-	-	-	Yes	Yes	-	0
[37] 2015	5 -	-	Part.	-	PB (NC)	-	-	Yes	-	-	В	HNO ₃	69 %	20 mL/3 indiv	O.N	R.T	Yes	5 µm (CN)	Yes	-	Excluded	μR
[38] 2015	5 Yes	Yes (MR)	Yes	FH	PB	Exclusion	IA/B (C)	Yes	Yes	425	В	HNO3 : HClO4	65 % & 68 % - 4:1	5:1 (v/w)	O.N	R.T	Yes	13 µm (C)	-	Yes	Yes	Hot needle
[39] 2016	5 Yes	Yes (R)		-	OB	_	Nothing	Yes	-	212	F	Dissection + NaOH	(v/v) 1 M	10 mL	21 d	_			Yes	Yes	Yes	Hot needle
[40] 2016		. Yes (R+S)	-	RAS	OB (B)	-	-	-	-	302	F	Dissection	-	-	-	-	-	-	Yes	Yes	Yes	FT-IR (A)
[41] 2016	0	Yes (R)	-	FH	PB + AB (NC)	-	IA/B	Yes	Yes	54	В	HNO ₃	69 - 71 %	40 mL	4 h	90°C	Yes	1.2 µm (GF)	-	Yes	Yes	0
[42] 2016		Yes (MR)	Yes	-	PB + PC	-	IN/B	S.F	S.F	390	В	H_2O_2	30 %	200 mL	24 h + 24 - 48 h	65°C + R.T	Yes	5 µm (CN)	Yes	-	Yes	μF
[43] 2016	<u>.</u> -	Yes (S)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	205	F	Dissection	-	-	-	-	-	-	Yes	Yes	Yes	0
[44] 2016	5 Yes + g.	Yes (S)	-	CWS	PB (NC) + AB (NC)	Exclusion	IN/B (C)	Yes	Yes	761	F	KOH	10 %	-	2 w	-	-	$250\mu m(S)$	Yes	Yes	Yes	0
[45] 2016		Yes (R)	-	CWS	OB + AB (NC)	-	-	Yes	-	337	F	Dissection	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	Yes	-
[46] 2016		Yes (R+S)	-	-	PB + AB (NC)	Specif. Subtract.	IN/B (C)	Yes	Yes	290	F	Dissection	-	-	-	-	-	-	Yes	Yes	Yes	μF (A)(F)
[47] 2016		Yes (R)	-	FH	OB (NC)	-	-	Yes	-	30	В	HNO ₃	22.5 M	-	O.N	R.T	Yes	0.7 µm (GF)	-	-	Excluded	PLM
[48] 2016 [49] 2016		Yes (H)	-	-	PB + AB (NC)	-	IN/B	Yes	-	64	F Cr	KOH	10 %	> 3:1 (v/v)	3 - 4 d	40°C	-	-	Yes	Yes	-	FT-IR
[49] 2016 [50] 2016		-	-	-	-	-	-	Yes Yes	Yes	1450 302	Cr	Dissection Dissection	-	-	-	-	-	-	Yes	Yes	Yes Yes	FT-IR O
[50] 2010 [51] 2017		Yes (R)	-	AFC	- PB (NC)	-	Nothing	Yes	Tes	502 60	F	NaClO + Methanol	- 9 % + 99 %	-	O.N	-	Yes	5 μm (CA)	Yes	- Tes	Yes	μR
[52] 2017		Yes (MR+S)	-	RAS	PB(NC) + AB(NC)	-	Dif. from Samp.	-	-	-	В	Trypsin	0.3125 %	25 mL	30 min	38-42°C	-	52 μm (G)	Yes	Yes	Yes	FT-IR (A)
[53] 2017		Yes (R)		AFC	PB (NC) + OB + PC +	Subtraction	Nothing	_		400	F	КОН	10 %	3:1 (v/v)	2 - 3 w			200 µm (S)		Yes		FT-IR
2017	_		-	AIC	NC	Subtraction	Nothing	-	-		F		10 %	3.1 (WV)	2 - 3 w	-	-	200 µm (3)	Yes		-	
[54] 2017	U	Yes (S)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	76	F F	Dissection	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	Yes	Yes	FT-IR
[55] 2017 [56] 2017		Yes (R+S)	-	CWS	AB (NC)	-	- IA/B	- V	-	212 20	F	Dissection	-	-	-	-	-	-	Yes	Yes	Yes	μF
[57] 2017		Yes (MR)	-	CWS	PB (NC) OB	-	IA/B	Yes Yes	Yes	417	F	Dissection Dissection	-	-	-	-		-	Yes	Yes Yes	Excluded	µF FT-IR (A) FT-IR
	7 Yes + l.g.		_	П	PB (B)	Exclusion		-	103	1337	F	Dissection	_				-		Yes	Yes	Yes	FT-IR
[59] 2017	U	Yes (MR)	Yes	-	PB (NC)	-	IA/B	Yes	Yes	378	F	H ₂ O ₂	30 %	200 - 400 mL	24 to 72 h	65°C	Yes	5 μm (CN)	Yes	Yes	Yes	μF
	Yes + n.g.		Yes	AFC + CWS	PB	-	Nothing	Yes	Yes	120	F	КОН	10 %	10:1 (v/w)	72 h	40°C	Yes	149 & 8 µm	-	-	-	μR
[61] 2017	-	Yes (R)	-	-	PB (B)	Aver. subtract.	IA/B	-	S.F	62	F	Proteinase K	3 - 15 U/mg	-	2 h + 20 min	$50^{\circ}\text{C} + 60^{\circ}\text{C}$		1.2 µm (GF)	-	Yes	Yes	o
[62] 2017		Yes (R)	-	-	PB (B)	-	IA/B	-	-	26	М	HNO ₃	-	-	-	-	Yes	0.7 µm (GF)	Yes	Yes	Yes	0
[63] 2017		-	-	FH	PB (NC)	Subtraction	-	-	-	62	F	KOH	20 %	3:1 (v/v)	3 w	R.T	-	$0.7\mu m(GF)$	-	Yes	Yes	О
[64] 2018		Yes (R)	Part.	RAS	PB + OB	Exclusion	Nothing	Yes	Yes	120	F	Dissection + KOH	10 %	3:1 (v/v)	5 d	60°C	-	$1.2\mu m(GF)$	Yes	Yes	Yes	μF
	3 Yes + n.g.		-	-	-	-	-	Yes	Yes	148	Cr	Dissection	-	-	-	-	-	-	Yes	Yes	Yes	FT-IR (A)
[66] 2018		Yes (R)	-	-	PB (NC)	Subtraction	-	Yes	Yes	160	В	H ₂ O ₂	30 %	20:1 (v/w)	-	55 - 65°C	Yes	1.2 µm (GF)	Yes	Yes	Yes	FT-IR
[67] 2018 [68] 2018		Yes (R+S)	-	- CWS	OB (B)	-	Fibres	Yes	Yes	72	F B	Dissection	-	- 200 mJ	-	- 65°C + D T	- V	-	Yes	Yes	Yes	μF
	3 Yes + n.g.		Yes	CWS	PB	-	- INI/D	- 6 17	- 6 E	-		KOH	10 %	200 mL 200 mI	24 h + 24 h	65°C + R.T		20 μm 5 μm (CN)	Yes	Yes	Yes	μF
[69] 2018	3 -	Yes (R)	Yes	-	PB	-	IN/B	S.F	S.F	162	В	H_2O_2	30 %	200 mL	24 h +24 - 48 h	65°C + R.T	Yes	5 µm (CN)	Yes	-	Yes	μF

				Contamina	tion prevention				Sampling					Isolatio	on				Q	uantificat	tion	Identification
Ref. Year	Cotton lab coat a	Cleaning procedure b	Sol. filtration	Working place ^c	Blanks ^d	Blanks management	Blank results e	Aver. Length ^f	Aver. weight ^f	$n^{\rm f}$	Organism s ^g	Method	Concentration	Ratio ^h	Time ⁱ	$T^{\circ}C^{j}$	Comp. Treat	Filters ^k	Sizes1	Colors	Fibers	Methods ^m
[70] 2018	-	-	Yes	-	PB (NC)	-	Nothing	-	-	533	F	KOH	10 %	5:1 (v/v)	24-36 h	55°C	Yes	1.6 µm (GF)	Yes	-	Yes	μF
[71] 2018	Yes + g.	Yes (R)	-	-	PB + SB	-	Not synthetic	Yes	-	180	В	KOH	10 %	50 mL	24 h	60°C	Yes	12 µm (CN)	Yes	Yes	Yes	μF
[72] 2018	-	Yes (R)	Yes	CWS + RAS	PB (B)	Specif. Subtract.	IA/B	Yes	Yes	450	В	SDS + Biozym F & SE	50 % (5g/L) + 25 % + 25 %	6 mL	48 h	37.5°C	-	$20\mu m(PN)$	-	-	Yes	FT-IR
[73] 2018	-	-	-	-	PB (NC)	-	IA/B	-	-	163	М	Dissection	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	Yes	FT-IR
[74] 2018	Yes	Yes (R)	-	-	-	-	-	Yes	Yes	210	F	Dissection	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	Yes	Yes	FT-IR
[75] 2018	Yes + n.g.	Yes (MR)	Yes	AFC + CWS	PB (NC)	-	Not synthetic		S.F	198	F	KOH	10 %	10:1 (v/w)	72 h	40°C	Yes	149 & 8 µm	Yes	-	Yes	μR

a: n.g.: nitrile gloves l.g.: latex gloves g.: gloves

b: S: Observation under stereomicroscope R: Rinsing with water or chemical solution MR: Multiple rinsing H: Heat treatment

c: AFC: Airflow cabinet or assimilated CWS: Cleaned work surface FH: Funnehood RAL: Restricted access laboratory or assimilated II: Infant incubator

d: PB: Procedural blank AB: Atmosphere blank OB: Observational blank PC: Positive control NC: Negative control SB: storage blank (B): applied per batch (NC): Not communicated number

e: IA/B: items average per blank IN/B: items number per blank (C) color mentionned

f: Part.: Partially communicated S.F: Communicated in supplementary files

g: F: Fish, Ce: Cephalopods, Cr: Crustaceans, B: Bivalves, M: Multiple organisms

h: Read 3:1 (v/v) as solution added equivalent to 3 x tissue volume and 10:1 (v/w) as solution added equivalent to 10 mL per gram of tissue

i: O.N stands for overnight

j: R.T stands for room temperature

k: s : sieve CA: Cellulose acetate CN: Cellulose nitrate C: Cellulose GF: glass fiber PN : Plankton net G:gauze

I: Asterisk materialize a study where weight of MP where communicated instead of size

m: O: Observation of characteristics µR: µ-Raman spectroscopy µF: µFT-IR Fourrier transformed infrared spectroscopy PLM: Polarized Light Microscopy SEM: Scanning Electron Microscopy (A): Attenuated Total Reflectance used (F): Focal Plan Array used

Table 3

Parameter to check	Information ^a	Parameter to check Inf	ormation ^a
Sampling		Filtration	
Species names	Ε	Cleaning procedure of glass and tools	Е
Number of individuals	Ε	Type of filter used	Е
Location (GPS)	Е	Procedure of filter storage	D
Depth	D		
Type of catching	D	Counting	
Individual sizes ^b	Ε		_
Commercial size (if risk assessment performed)	D	Method used (automatic, stereomicroscope, etc)	E
Whole and tissues weights	Е	Counting of particles in controls (SAC, DAC, O/SC, FAC, PCE) Counting of particles in samples	°Е Е
Tissue extraction procedure (sample cleaning, organs concerned)	E	Particle size	E E E
Time of sample exposition to atmosphere	D	Particle colour	Ē
Conservation method (freezing, chemicals, etc.)	Ε	Particle picture	Е
Proof of innocuousness of this method on MP	Ε		
Time of conservation	D	Identification	
Work environment		Number of analysed particles and proportion compared to total isolated particles	Е
Type of lab coat used (cotton or other)	Е	Identification method used (Raman, FTIR, Py-GC/MS, etc.)	Е
Working place (bench, laminar flow cabinet)	E	Evidence of method performance criterion (optimization,	D
Cleaning procedure (chemicals, frequency)	E	validation, etc.)	
creating procedure (chemicans, hequeiney)	2	Use of standard references	Ε
Controls		Use of positive/negative controls (PIC/NIC) d	D
		Information of identification scores & minimal tolerated value	Ε
Description (SAC, DAC, O/SC, FAC, PCE) °	Ε	Identification by second method for unknown	D
Numbers	Ε		
Location and for which step	Ε	Data analysis	
Area covered by controls	D		D
Time of exposition	D	Availability of the whole results (samples, controls, etc.)	D
		Description of how controls results were taken into account	E
Digestion		Identification results of PIC/NIC d	D
		Identification results (expressed as a % of analysed particle)	E
Use of filtered reagents exempt of MP	Ε	Information on % misidentified or unidentified results	E
Cleaning procedure of glass and tools	Е	Clear separation between MP and other particles	E
Used chemical	Ε	Use of adequate units (MP/g & MP/indiv)	E
Proof of innocuousness of this method on MP	E	Estimation of MP mass based on identification & size	D
Recovering rates with the method	Ε		
Relative proportion chemical/tissue	Ε		
Model of used devices	Ε		
Type of heating source	D		
Temperature set to the device	Ε		
Temperature in the digestate	D		
Temperature monitoring across digestion	D		
Duration of digestion	Ε		

Agitation speed

^a Essential (E) and desirable (D) information for the MP studies ^b Based as an example on the Ifremer report "Guide for measuring species in fisheries Fishes, mollusks, shellfishes, marine reptiles, marine mammals" (http://archimer.ifremer.fr/doc/00001/6237/)

E

^cSAC: sampling atmospheric control, DAC: digestion atmospheric control, O/SC: Operator/Solution Control, FAC: filtration atmospheric control and PCE: Positive Control of Extraction

^d PIC: Positive Identification Control and NIC: Negative Identification Control

