1	Insights into the Release of Triclosan from Microplastics Assessed	
2	with Diffusive Gradient in Thin-films	
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#### 24 Abstract

Microplastics (MPs) can act as vectors for chemicals, controlling the fate and 25 26 potential risks posed by these chemicals. Organic chemicals associated with MPs might also pose risks as they can be released from MPs during weathering processes, although 27 the thermodynamic and kinetics of the release processes remains poorly understood. In 28 this study, the adsorption and desorption kinetics of triclosan (as a model compound) 29 were investigated from two types of MPs - polystyrene (PS) and polyvinyl chloride 30 31 (PVC) – by batch experiments and using the diffusive gradients in thin-films (DGT) technique as an *in-situ* tool. Batch experiments showed that pseudo-second-order 32 equations gave the best fit for the adsorption/desorption data, implying that 33 34 chemisorption is the main process. DGT continuously accumulated triclosan from MP suspensions, but slower than theoretical rates, indicating some restrictions to desorption. 35 The DIFS model, employed to help interpret data obtained with DGT, gave distribution 36 coefficients for labile triclosan ( $K_{dl}$ ) of 5000 mL g<sup>-1</sup> (PS) and 1000 mL g<sup>-1</sup> (PVC) and 37 38 the response times  $(T_c)$  for release of triclosan from microplastics to solution were of 10 s (PS) and 1000 s (PVC). The higher  $K_{dl}$  for PS than PVC and the smaller  $T_c$  for PS 39 than PVC show that more of the triclosan adsorbed on PS could be rapidly released, 40 while there werre some kinetic limitations for the triclosan on PVC. An important and 41 42 novel finding was that key water chemistry parameters, pH and ionic strength, individually and interactively affected the supply to DGT (indicating availability). Both 43 the  $K_{dl}$  and  $T_c$  controls the availability and hence potential risks. This is the first study 44 45 to use DGT as an *in-situ* tool to quantitatively assess the interactions of organic 46 compounds with MPs in aquatic environment, can better our understudying of fate and behaviours of MPs in environment. 47

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Keywords: Microplastics; Triclosan; Diffusive Gradients in Thin-Films; sorption;
waters

#### **Graphical Abstract** 52



2.03

#### 55 **1. INTRODUCTION**

Microplastics (MPs) are defined as plastic particles with a diameter less than 5 mm 56 57 (Collignon et al. 2014). The most common MPs are made of Polyethylene (PE), polypropylene (PP), polystyrene (PS), polyvinyl chloride (PVC) and along with other 58 commonly synthesised plastics, can be broken down/abraded to these small sizes in 59 environment (MacLeod et al. 2021). MPs are now ubiquitous in oceans, rivers and even 60 biota (Hirai et al. 2011, Law et al. 2014, Ng and Obbard 2006). MPs found in the 61 62 environment may come from the additives in personal care products and polishing materials used in industrial process (primary sources) (do Sul and Costa 2014) or be 63 formed by physical, chemical, or biological actions which break down/abrade larger 64 pieces of plastic in the environment (secondary sources) (MacLeod et al. 2021, 65 Rochman et al. 2013). MPs have been considered as a class of persistent pollutants 66 which could pose negative effects on organisms, such as physical damage (Engler 2012) 67 transformation via cytotoxicity and morphology (da Costa Araújo et al. 2020, Tu et al. 68 69 2021, Wu et al. 2019), changes in lipid and energy metabolism, and alterations in gut bacterial communities (Chen et al. 2020, Wang et al. 2018). As a result, considerable 70 attention has been paid to the environmental sources, fates and influences of MPs over 71 72 the last decade or so (Galloway and Lewis 2016, Hunt et al. 2020, Lonnstedt and Eklov 73 2016, MacLeod et al. 2021, Nizzetto et al. 2016, Stock et al. 2019).

74 MPs can adsorb chemical contaminants and carry them from one environmental compartment to another and may influence/control the fate, bioavailability and effects 75 of contaminants that are within or on them (Liu et al. 2021, Liu et al. 2020, Sheng et al. 76 2021, Wu et al. 2020a). Several studies have demonstrated that MPs could act as a 77 vector of organic chemicals, such as polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs) and 78 personal care product ingredients (PCPs)(Jia et al. 2020, Leon et al. 2018, Mai et al. 79 2018, Sheng et al. 2021). Triclosan (TCS) is a typical antimicrobial agent and widely 80 81 added to PCPs, such as toothpastes, cosmetics and facial cleansers (Wang et al. 2020). 82 Raut and Angus (2010) have reported that TCS has a potential endocrine-disrupting effect on fish and it could disturb lipid and energy metabolism in tilapia fish. 83

84 Knowledge on the desorption process of TCS from MPs is limited to a recent study 85 with MPs and soils (Chen et al. 2021), which reported that up to 34% and 22% of the TCS loading can be released from polyethylene (PE) and polystyrene (PS), respectively, 86 87 with only one-step desorption laboratory experiments. However, it is unknown how much TCS can potentially be released if multistep desorption applies and what the 88 89 desorption rates of TCS from MPs might be, which are important information that can 90 help us to better understand the fate and ecological risks of TCS in the environment. An in situ technique of diffusive gradients in thin-films (DGT) (Chen et al. 2012) has been 91 applied to compensate the disadvantages of traditional desorption batch experiments, 92 which have been used to measure the fluxes and desorption of organic chemicals from 93 94 solid phases, such as soils and sediments, with minimal disturbance (Chen et al. 2014, Chen et al. 2015, Ji et al. 2022, Li et al. 2021b). Similarly, when the DGT device is 95 96 introduced into batch experiments investigating chemical-MPs desorption, it will accumulate solutes (here TCS) from the solution initially, resulting in lower interfacial 97 98 concentrations which induces further TCS desorption from the MPs. How much TCS will be desorbed and how fast this process is, depends on binding strength with the MPs 99 and also environmental conditions. Therefore, DGT can be an ideal tool to give new 100 insights into the complex interactions between chemicals and MPs. 101

In this study, we investigate the release of TCS as an example organic contaminant from two types of MPs, PS and PVC, by using the DGT technique. The overall goal is to measure *in-situ* fluxes and release characteristics of TCS from MPs and the impacting parameters, for example pH, ionic strength (IS) and dissolved organic matter (DOM). This will enhance our understanding of the fate and behaviours of MPs associated organic chemicals, resulting in an improvement of the environmental risks.

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# 109 2. METHODS AND MATERIALS

110 **2.1 Chemicals and Reagents** 

111 Triclosan (TCS, purity > 99%) and Bisphenol A (BPA, purity > 99%) were 112 purchased from Sigma-Aldrich and Supelco (Bellefonte, USA), respectively. BPA was

used as internal standard. All the standards were stored at -20 °C. PS and PVC beads 113 (mean particle size 100 µm and 1 µm, respectively) were purchased from Hongyun 114 Plastic Raw Materials Co., Ltd (Dongguan, China). Their infrared spectrograms and 115 scanning electron microscopy (SEM) graphs are given in Fig. S1 of the supporting 116 information (SI). Methanol and acetonitrile were all of HPLC grade and purchased from 117 Merck (Darmstadt, Germany). Sodium chloride (NaCl), formic acid (HPLC grade) (FA), 118 119 Sodium acetate (NaAc), sodium bicarbonate (NaHCO<sub>3</sub>) and hydrochloric acid (HCl) ( $\geq$ 25% in water) were purchased from Aladdin Reagent Inc. (Shanghai, China). DOM 120 (humic acid) was supplied by the International Humic Substance Society. MQ water 121 was obtained with a Purelab classic (ELGA, Antony, France). 122

#### 123

### **2.2 MP Preparation and Batch Experiments**

The virgin PS and PVC were washed with methanol followed by Milli-Q (MQ, 124 18,2  $\Omega$ M) water and then oven dried before use. To prepare the PS/PVC with TCS 125 adsorbed (contaminated PS/PVC hereafter referred to as cPS/cPVC), appropriate 126 127 cleaned PS/PVC and TCS solution was equilibrated for 3 days in a 3 L conical flask with MQ water to give concentrations for PS/PVC and TCS of 1.5 g L<sup>-1</sup> and 200 ng 128 mL<sup>-1</sup>, respectively. The MPs were then collected by a 0.7 µm GF/F filter (Whatman), 129 dried by vacuum and stored in a glass dish at 4°C for the desorption test later. 130

131 To compare with the DGT method later, the adsorption and desorption kinetics of TCS on to/from the PS and PVC were tested. For the adsorption test, around 0.15 g 132 PS/PVC were added into 100 mL of 200 ng TCS mL<sup>-1</sup> solution. The MP suspensions 133 were continuously stirred and appropriate amounts of solution were sampled at 0, 15 134 min, 30 min, 1h, and then 3, 5, 7, 12, 24, 36 and 48 h. The sub-samples were then 135 filtered with a 0.22 µm polytetrafluoroethylene (PTFE) filter before analysis. By doing 136 137 this, the equilibrium time was determined when the adsorption reached the maximum value and used for later experiments. In the desorption kinetics experiment, ~0.15 g 138 139 cPS/cPVC were weighted in a conical flask with 50 mL MQ water. Solution samples (0.5 mL) were then collected at 0, 1, 5, 12, 24, 48 and 72 h, respectively, and filtered 140 141 into GC vials before analysis.

#### 142 **2.3 DGT Preparation**

DGT devices with 0.5 mm thick HLB-agarose binding gels and 1 mm thick 143 agarose diffusive gels were prepared as described in a previous study (Chen et al. 2017), 144 while no filter membrane was included to avoid significant adsorption of TCS on the 145 filter. In brief, agarose gel solution (containing 1.5% agarose) was prepared by 146 dissolving agarose in MQ water in a microwave oven until all the agarose was dissolved 147 and the solution became transparent. The hot gel solution was immediately pipetted into 148 149 a preheated, gel-casting assembly and left to cool down to its gelling temperature (36°C or below). For HLB-agarose binding gel, 1 g (wet weight) of HLB was added to 10 mL 150 of hot agarose gel solution, mixed well and then cast between two preheated glass plates 151 152 and left to gel at room temperature. All gels were hydrated in MQ water and stored in NaCl solution (0.01–0.1 M). 153

154 **2.4 Desorption kinetics with DGT** 

The MP slurries use for DGT deployment were made of 0.35 g cPS/cPVC and 15 155 mL Milli-Q water, adding in a 60 mm diameter glass dish and mixing well. After 5 h 156 (when TCS had reached desorption equilibrium, as determined in a preliminary test), 157 158 DGT devices were deployed (exposure window facing down) in the glass dishes and left undisturbed in the bench until retrieved (duplicates DGT) after 5, 9, 24, 48, 72, 120, 159 160 168, 240, 288 and 336 h, respectively. The water evaporation (though limited <5% by 161 weight) was compensated daily with appropriate MQ water by compared to initial weight of each dish setup. The slurry temperature was measured throughout the 162 experiment which was  $18 \pm 2$  °C. 163

#### 164 **2.5 Effects of pH, IS, and DOM on DGT uptake**

To investigate the effects of pH, IS and DOM on the DGT uptake of TCS from MP slurry (with PS as an example), a three-way-two-level full factorial experimental design was employed to evaluate the main and interaction effects of these three factors. The experiment design included 8 corner points (duplicate each) and 4 central points (detailed in Table S1, SI). For each treatment, 0.35 g of cPS and 20 mL MQ water with 170 different pH, IS and DOM were added in a 60 mm diameter glass dish and mixed evenly. 171 After 5 h, DGT devices were deployed in the glass dish for 24 h. The temperature during 172 the experiments was recorded and was  $22.5 \pm 0.5$  °C.

**2.6 Sample Preparation and Chemical analysis** 

After deployment, three types of samples were prepared and analysed for TCS: 174 175 DGT samples (providing DGT derived concentration:  $C_{DGT}$ ), the solution sample remaining at the end of the deployment (referred to as  $C_w$ ) and solvent extracted 176 PS/PVC samples (referred to as  $C_{mp}$ ). For DGT samples, the extraction method for the 177 binding gel followed our previous study (Chen et al., 2017). Briefly, the binding gels 178 179 were peeled off from the DGT devices and put into a 15 mL glass vials. 5 mL of 180 acetonitrile and the internal standard (BPA) were spiked and extracted for 30 min in an ultrasonic bath. The extract was dried with N<sub>2</sub> gas and the sample was redissolved in 1 181 mL mixture of acetonitrile/MQ water mixture (1:4, V:V), and filtered by 0.22 um PTFE 182 syringe filter prior to be injected on to the UPLC. The solutions containing 183 microplastics samples were collected and filtered using an empty solid phase extraction 184 (SPE) tube with a 20  $\mu$ m sieve plate to separate from microplastics. The 0.8 mL of the 185 186 collected solution was spiked with 0.2 mL acetonitrile and passed through the PTFE syringe fiter (0.22 um) before analysed by the UPLC; For the microplastics collected 187 in a PP tube, methanol (5 mL) and appropriate amount of internal standard were added 188 189 and extracted for 30 min in an ultrasonic bath (this provided an elution recovery of 92% as demonstrated in a preliminary test). Following this 0.5 mL of extract was taken and 190 dried under N2 gas, and redissolved in 1 mL mixture of acetonitrile-water, and filtered 191 by 0.22 um PTFE syringe filter prior to be injected on to the UPLC. 192

193 TCS and BPA in all samples were analysed by using an Agilent 1290 HPLC 194 coupled with a photodiode array detector at the maximum UV absorbance of 197 and 195 226 nm, respectively, and quantified by internal standard method. A CNW Athena C18-196 WP ( $4.6 \times 150$  mm, 5 µm) LC column was used for the chemical separation. The 197 column temperature was maintained at 30 °C, and the injection volume was 100 µL. 198 The mobile phases consisted of Mill-Q water (A) and acetonitrile (B). The gradient procedure was 0–1.5 min, 50% B, then increase to 80% B within 5 min, followed by 4.5 min of post-time to rebalance the column before the next injection. The quantification of TCS was performed by internal standard method with a 7 point calibration curve covering concentrations of 1 - 500 ng/mL.

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## 204 2.7 DGT calculation and DIFS modelling

205 The  $C_{\text{DGT}}$  was calculated via equation (1):

206 
$$C_{\rm DGT} = \frac{M \,\Delta\,g}{DAt} \qquad (1)$$

207 Where: M is the mass of TCS in the DGT binding gel;  $\triangle g$  is the thickness of diffusive 208 layer; *D* is the diffusion coefficient through the diffusive layer in solution, the *D* value 209 for TCS was adopted from previous study (Chen et al. 2017) and calculated for 210 temperature in this study; *A* is the area of DGT exposure window (3.14 cm<sup>2</sup>); *t* is the 211 deployment time.

The DGT induced fluxes in Soils/Sediment (DIFS) model quantifies the dependence of R (=  $C_{\text{DGT}}/C_{\text{w}}$ ) on resupply of analyte from solid phase to solution. It uses  $K_{\text{dl}}$ , the distribution coefficient of labile analyte (eq2) and the response time,  $T_{\text{c}}$  (eq 3), to describe the kinetics of adsorption (rate constant,  $k_1$ ) and desorption (rate constant,  $k_{-1}$ ).  $K_{\text{dl}}$  may be lower than the corresponding value of  $K_{\text{d}}$  that is based on the total analyte measured in the solid particles.  $T_{\text{c}}$  is the characteristic time for the system respond to depletion by DGT.

219 
$$K_{\rm dl} = \frac{C_{\rm p}}{C_{\rm w}} = \frac{k_1}{P_{\rm c}k_{-1}} \qquad (2)$$

220 
$$T_{\rm c} = \frac{1}{k_{-1} + k_1} = \frac{1}{k_{-1}(1 + K_{\rm dl}P_{\rm c})}$$
(3)

221 where  $P_c$  is the particle concentration.

222R values at different deployment time were fitted into the DIFS model to calculate223the kinetic parameters ( $k_1$ ,  $k_{-1}$ , and  $T_c$ ) and  $K_{dl}$ , the input parameters are given in Table224S2. The software 2D\_DIFS (version 1.2.3-3, can be obtained from DGT Research Ltd,225Lancaster, U.K.) was employed.

#### 226 **2.8 Quality assurance and quality control**

An internal standard method was utilized for quantitative analysis of TCS. All data generated from the analysis were subjected to strict quality control procedures. Glass containers were chosen in the experiments, as plastic containers posed a risk of adsorption to TCS (Fig. S2). All glassware was cleaned and baked (450 °C for 4 h) before use to avoid background contamination. The method limit of detection (LOD) and limit of quantification (LOQ) for TCS were calculated using 3 and 10 times the signal-to-noise ratios and were 0.23 and 0.76 ng mL<sup>-1</sup>, respectively.

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# 5 **3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

#### **3.1 Adsorption-Desorption from the Batch Experiment**

237 The results of the sorption and desorption kinetics experiments are given in Fig 1, Fig. S3 and S4 (SI). TCS was quickly adsorbed by PS and PVC and reached adsorption 238 equilibrium after 24 h (Fig. S3A). PVC showed a higher adsorption capacity  $(q_e)$  and 239 uptake rate for TCS than PS (43.5 vs 74.1  $\mu$ g g<sup>-1</sup>, respectively). The higher q<sub>e</sub> for PVC 240 could be due to its smaller particle size (therefore higher surface area) than PS, 241 consistent with previous studies (Li et al. 2019, Velzeboer et al. 2014). Pseudo-first-242 243 order and pseudo-second-order models were used to fit the adsorption data (Fig. 1A and Fig. S3). Parameters calculated with different models for the adsorption kinetics are 244 245 given in Table S3. The pseudo-second-order model gave an excellent fit for the adsorption kinetics data for both PS and PVC, with  $R^2 > 0.99$ , better than the pseudo-246 first-order model ( $R^2 < 0.8$ ). This finding is similar to previous studies (Chen et al. 2021, 247 Wang and Wang 2018). The rate constants  $k_1$  and  $k_2$  were 0.118 h<sup>-1</sup> (PS), 0.085 h<sup>-1</sup> (PVC) 248 and 0.014 g  $\mu$ g<sup>-1</sup>h<sup>-1</sup> (PS), 0.010 g  $\mu$ g<sup>-1</sup>h<sup>-1</sup> (PVC) for the first and second order models, 249 respectively. The calculated qe values were 44.8 and 77.2 µg g<sup>-1</sup> for PS and PVC, 250 respectively provided by the second order model, which were comparable to the 251 experimental  $q_e$ . The  $q_e$  of PS for TCS was much lower than those reported by previous 252 studies (450  $\mu$ g g<sup>-1</sup> (Chen et al. 2021) and 1006  $\mu$ g g<sup>-1</sup> (Li et al. 2019)), probably due to 253 the different size (Li et al. 2019, Lu et al. 2021) and crystallinity of MPs (Li et al. 2021a, 254 Liu et al. 2019, Zhou et al. 2020). The excellent pseudo-second-order model fitting 255

suggests that the adsorption process is mainly controlled by chemical adsorption ratherthan physical adsorption (Lu et al. 2021).



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Fig. 1 Adsorption (A) and desorption (B) kinetics modelling (pseudo-second-order) of
 TCS on to/from PS and PVC in the batch experiment.

261 For the desorption stage, TCS desorbed from PS and PVC in 12 h and reached desorption equilibrium after 24 h (Fig. 1B and Fig. S4). The percentage of TCS that 262 desorbed from PS (32.9%) was over twice that from PVC (13.3%), indicating the strong 263 interaction of TCS with PVC and that the adsorbed TCS on the MPs are partially labile 264 (implying availability). The pseudo-second-order model also fitted the desorption data 265 very well ( $R^2 > 0.99$ ) for both PS and PVC (Table S4), an improvement compared to 266 the pseudo-first-order model ( $R^2 < 0.4$ ), again suggesting that the desorption process of 267 TCS from MPs is mainly controlled by chemical adsorption (Lu et al. 2021). The 268 desorption rate constants ( $k_2$ ) followed the order of PS (0181 g µg<sup>-1</sup>h<sup>-1</sup>) > PVC (-0.484 269 g  $\mu$ g<sup>-1</sup>h<sup>-1</sup>), which also exhibited the strong binding of TCS to PVC (Table S3). The 270 calculated sorption capacities in the desorption phase  $(q_{e,de})$  were 21.0 µg g<sup>-1</sup> and 59.9 271  $\mu g g^{-1}$  for PS and PVC, respectively, very close to the experimental values (20.5  $\mu g g^{-1}$ 272 for PS and 60.0  $\mu$ g g<sup>-1</sup> for PVC). 273

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### **3.2 Desorption driven by DGT and DIFS modelling**

When DGT is deployed within the suspensions containing MPs, it will firstly take up the TCS from the dissolved phase, which then induces desorption of TCS previously 278 adsorbed on the MPs. This broadly mimics uptake processes for biota. Therefore, 279 understanding these processes helps enhance our knowledge of the potential bioavailability of chemicals adsorbed on MPs. The measured masses of TCS 280 accumulated by DGT after different deployment times are shown in Fig. 2A. As can be 281 seen, DGT accumulated much more TCS from PS than PVC, consistent with the results 282 from the batch experiment. However, DGT accumulated masses of TCS that were much 283 284 lower that the theoretical values (assuming unchanging solution concentrations) for both PS and PVC. This indicates that the desorption of TCS from MPs induced by DGT 285 is limited by the rate of supply/ desorption rate (kinetically) from the MPs. The DGT 286 derived concentrations ( $C_{DGT}$ ) and the directly measured solution concentrations ( $C_w$ ) 287 288 of TCS are compared in Fig. 2B. Both decreased with increasing deployment time from both the PS and PVC, but the reduction was more pronounced for PVC. TCS on PS is 289 290 more readily available and supplied to solution more quickly.

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Fig. 2 Dependence on deployment times of the DGT accumulated masses of TCS from 293 PS or PVC for different DGT deployment times (A) and the DGT derived TCS 294 295 concentrations and direct solution measurements (B). The blue and red lines represent theoretical accumulated masses by DGT for PS and PVC, respectively. They were 296 calculated according to the equation  $M = \frac{DC_{w0}At}{\Delta g + \delta}$ , re-arranged from equation (1), where 297  $C_{\rm w0}$  is the initial concentration of TCS in the solution,  $\delta$  is the thickness of diffusive 298 299 boundary layer with value of 0.76 mm adopted from our previous study at static 300 condition (Chen et al. 2012).

To obtain quantitative desorption kinetic data, the experimental data (R at different times) were applied to the DIFS model. Because the experimental setup was limited to 20 mL, rather than an infinite system/volume, to calculate the ratio of R that is required for the DIFS model, the initial solution concentration of TCS ( $C_{w0}$ ) was used. Other parameters for the DIFS model are given in Table S2. The observed R and modelled Rfrom the best fit were plotted against deployment time for TCS in solutions with PS or PVC and are given in Fig. 3.

The DIFS model fitted the experimental data well, particularly over short time 309 periods, with a general trend of an initial decline in R, followed by a slower decrease 310 particularly over longer time periods. This is very similar to a previous study for 311 312 antibiotics in soils (Chen et al. 2014). In theory, and as observed in the modelled line, there should be an initial increase for R due to the establishment of a linear diffusion 313 314 gradient in the diffusive layer. There was no TCS in solution at the beginning, quickly reaching a maximum. However, this was too fast to be observed before the first data 315 316 point at 5 h. The later decline in R reflects the decreased concentration of TCS at the DGT interface and therefore the solution in this relatively small system. The decrease 317 in the solution TCS concentration caused disequilibrium between the solution and MP 318 phases, inducing desorption from the MP to resupply the solution phase. However, this 319 320 desorption was not fast enough to fully resupply the decrease in the solution phase, so R continuously decreased. The greater decline in R for PVC than PS indicates that the 321 ability of PVC to resupply TCS is less than that of PS. Larger R values for PS than PVC 322 at the same time points suggests a faster resupply (shorter response time) of TCS on PS 323 324 as documented as follow.



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Fig. 3 DIFS modelling of R ( $C_{DGT}/C_{w0}$ ) against time for TCS in the suspensions with

- 327 PS and PVC.
- 328

Table 1. Parameters for TCS desorption from PS and PVC derived from the best DIFS
 model fitting

Parameter	PS	PVC
$K_{\rm d} ({\rm mL \ g^{-1}})^*$	1874	7483
$K_{\rm dl}(\rm mL~g^{-1})$	4667	906
$T_{\rm c}({\rm s})$	10	1005
$k_1(\mathbf{s}^{-1})$	9.8×10 <sup>-2</sup>	9.5×10 <sup>-4</sup>
$k_{-1}$ (s <sup>-1</sup> )	1.2×10 <sup>-3</sup>	4.5×10 <sup>-5</sup>

331 \*obtained from the methanol extraction method.

The resulting thermodynamic  $(K_{dl})$  and kinetic parameters  $(T_c, k_1 \text{ and } k_{-1})$  from the 332 best DIFS model fitting are given in Table 1, together with the experimental  $K_d$  for 333 comparison. For PS, the  $K_{dl}$  value is greater than the  $K_d$ , which indicates that the labile 334 335 TCS is adsorbed on the PS is much larger than that estimated by the methanol extraction, suggesting that simple solvent extraction might underestimate the availability of TCS 336 on PS. In contrast, for PVC, the  $K_{dl}$  is much smaller than the  $K_d$ , indicating that the 337 338 labile fraction on the PVC is much smaller than the methanol extracted fraction (which overestimates the availability). This implies that the TCS bound onto the PVC is less 339

available than that on the PS; there is a much smaller labile pool of TCS on PVC though with a much higher  $K_d$ .

 $K_{\rm dl}$  ultimately controls the amount of TCS that could be desorbed from MPs, while 342  $T_{\rm c}$  and  $k_{-1}$  determine how fast MPs can release TCS to the solution (Chen et al. 2014, 343 Harper et al. 1998). T<sub>c</sub> values for PVC were 2 orders of magnitudes higher than for PS, 344 indicating that the TCS is released more rapidly to the solution from PS, and it takes 345 346 longer for PVC (~17 min) compared to PS (< half minute) to reflect the decline of TCS in solution. The resulting  $k_1$  values for PS are much higher than the corresponding 347 adsorption rate constants  $(0.018 \text{ h}^{-1} - 26 \text{ h}^{-1})$  from the batch experiment method (with 348 pseudo-first-order model) reported in previous studies (Chen et al. 2021, Lu et al. 2021, 349 350 Wu et al. 2020b). For PVC, they are similar to or slightly higher than the corresponding values  $(0.037 \text{ h}^{-1} - 1.4 \text{ h}^{-1})$  obtained previously (Lu et al. 2021, Ma et al. 2019). This is 351 352 likely because the pseudo-first-order model cannot describe the process well in many cases as documented in these studies. Relatively few  $k_{-1}$  values (0.032 h<sup>-1</sup> – 0.080 h<sup>-1</sup>) 353 354 (Chen et al. 2021, Lu et al. 2021) are available for MPs, and they are close to our values from the batch experiment but again less than those from the DGT and DIFS simulated 355 values. Smaller  $k_{-1}$  for PVC than PS implies there is a greater kinetic limitation for the 356 release of TCS from PVC, but not for PS. 357

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#### **3.3 Effects of IS, pH and DOM**

In actual aquatic environments, some key water chemistry parameters such as pH, 360 IS, DOM can affect/control the fate, behaviour and availability of analytes of interest. 361 362 DGT can mimic, to some extent, biota that uptake chemicals from solution in the presence of solids such as in soil/sediment. DGT was used in this work to provide an 363 estimation/comparison of the labile fraction of TCS released from MPs (with PS as an 364 example) under different conditions with varying of these water chemistry parameters. 365 366 The results for the effects of these binary parameters on DGT measurements (expressed as r – indicator of capability for release of TCS from solid phase to solution) are shown 367 368 in Fig. 4.



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Fig.4 Interaction effects of (A) pH and ionic strength (IS), (B) dissolved organic matter (DOM) and pH, and (C) DOM and IS on the ratio (r) of DGT derived concentration ( $C_{DGT}$ ) and directly measured solution concentration ( $C_w$ ) of TCS from solutions containing PS MPs within 24 hours.

374 The statistical analysis (Table S5 and Fig. S5) shows that the solution IS, pH and their interaction (IS\*pH) had significant effects on the value of r (p < 0.05), while no 375 376 significant effect was observed for DOM or its interaction with IS or pH (p > 0.05). As 377 shown in Fig. 4, the value of r decreased as pH increased, and increased as IS increased. Lower pH resulted in less TCS being released from PS. Previous studies have also 378 reported adsorption decreasing with increasing pH; this is due to the chemical 379 speciation changes (resulting in electrostatic repulsion for the increasing negative 380 381 charged target chemicals) (Li et al. 2019, Sun et al. 2021, Wu et al. 2020b). Higher IS supressed the release of analyte from MPs to solution, which has also been reported in 382 other studies (Lu et al. 2021, Wu et al. 2020b). However, for the first time, we 383 investigated the interaction effect of these parameters in this study, and found that the 384 effects of pH and IS are dependent on each other (Fig 4A). For example, at lower IS 385 (such as < 0.05 mol/L), the effect of pH might be not significant, while at higher IS, pH 386

387 showed significant effects; Similarly, the IS effect might be negligible at high pH (e.g. > 7.8) but significant when the pH is lower. Clearly, conditions with higher IS and lower 388 pH will result in more TCS being available while lower IS and higher pH will make 389 390 TCS on MPs less available; conditions with lower IS and pH or higher IS and pH will result in similar (medium) TCS availability in the solutions. This implies that the 391 availability and risks of chemicals on MPs change as environmental conditions change. 392 393 For example, from freshwater (low IS) to seawater (high pH and high IS), the availability of contaminants on MPs might firstly increase then decrease, which might 394 result in no apparent changes. While in some scenarios, such as in stomach of animals 395 (carrying MPs with micropollutants (Liu et al. 2020)), where the pH is lower and if the 396 397 IS is higher at the same time, more chemicals will be released and available for uptake resulting in higher risks for the animals. No measurable effects of DOM on the value 398 399 of r was observed probably because all the freely dissolved and DOM associated TCS were available for DGT uptake under these test conditions. Therefore, interaction 400 401 effects from these parameters, particularly pH and IS, should be considered in toxicity studies and risk assessments for MPs with adsorbed micropollutants. 402

403

#### 404 **4. Conclusions and Perspectives**

405 This study has, for the first time, assessed the desorption and release of TCS as a model compound from MPs, using the DGT technique. Compared to the batch 406 experiment approach, the DGT method provides both thermodynamic and kinetic 407 information, whilst potentially also mimicking chemical availability to biota from the 408 409 MPs, although more dedicated studies are warranted. DGT can act as an almost infinite sink for the analytes of interest and provides an assessment of the availability of 410 analytes desorbed from MPs. Results from this study suggest that the labile fraction of 411 412 TCS is controlled by MP type. The water chemistry parameters pH and IS are key 413 factors affecting the availability of analytes on MPs, but are not independent of each 414 other. As a result, they should be taken into consideration at the same time, particularly for environments characterized by varying pH and IS in space, such as river/estuaries 415

416 and the intestinal tracts of organisms (Liu et al. 2020). The uptake by DGT of inorganic 417 substances in aquatic systems has been demonstrated to correlate well with their concentration/toxicity in biota (Costello et al. 2012, Xie et al. 2021). Hence, findings 418 from this work might also apply to the uptake processes of organic chemicals by biota. 419 Our findings might all also help the study design and/or data interpretation for 420 microplastics with co-existing contaminants. Our work here demonstrated that DGT 421 422 can be a promising in situ tool for understanding the fate, behaviour and effects of organic contaminants (theoretically also for inorganics) adsorbed on microplastics. This 423 should provide data to improve the risk assessment of emerging contaminants and 424 microplastics. 425

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## 427 Acknowledgements

This work was financially supported by the Key Deployment Project of Centre for 428 Ocean Mega-Research of Science, Chinese Academy of Sciences (COMS2019J08), 429 430 Guangzhou Municipal Science and Technology Project (No. 201904010291), National Natural Science Foundation of China (No. 21806042) and Guangdong Provincial Key 431 Laboratory of Chemical Pollution and Environmental Safety (2019B030301008). The 432 authors are grateful to Prof. Hao Zhang and Prof. Kevin C. Jones for their kind 433 434 comments/suggestion on the drafted manuscript. Miss Y. W. Jia is supported by Chinese Scholarship Council (PhD fellowship 202006750030). 435

- 436 Notes
- 437 The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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