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7 **Microfibre release to water, via laundering, and to**
8 **air, via everyday use: a comparison between**
9 **Polyester clothing with differing textile parameters**

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16 KEYWORDS: microplastics, microfibres, polyester, textiles, sustainable fashion.

17

18 ABSTRACT. Textiles are one of the major sources of microplastic pollution to aquatic
19 environments and have also been reported in dry and wet atmospheric deposition. There is still a
20 lack of information on the direct release of microfibres from garments to the air and on the

21 influence of textile characteristics including structure, type of yarn and twist. The present study
22 examined microfibre emissions directly to the air and to water as a consequence of laundering.
23 Polyester garments with different textile characteristics were examined including: various material
24 compositions, fabric structure, yarn twist, fibre type, and hairiness. Scaling up our data indicate
25 release of microfibres per person per year to the air is of a similar order of magnitude to that
26 released to wastewater by laundering. The lowest releases to both air and water were recorded for
27 a garment with a very compact woven structure and highly twisted yarns made of continuous
28 filaments, compared with those with a looser structure (knitted, short staple fibres, lower twist).
29 Our results demonstrate for the first time that direct release of microfibres from garments to air as
30 a consequence of wear is of equal importance to releases to water. Currently there is considerable
31 interest in interventions focused on capture from wastewater. However, our results suggest more
32 effective interventions are likely result from changes in textile design that could reduce emissions
33 to both air and water.

34

35 **1. Introduction**

36 Microplastic pollution has become a high profile topic. The term first came into popular use
37 following research in the marine environment¹ but it has become clear that microplastics are also
38 present in freshwater² and terrestrial³ systems, as well as urban dust⁴. Microplastics are defined as
39 plastic particles smaller than 5 mm, and are further divided, on the basis of their origin, as
40 “primary” microplastics if they are intentionally produced either for direct use or as precursors to
41 other products, and “secondary” microplastics if they are formed in the environment from
42 breakdown of larger plastic materials.^{5,6}

43 According to desk based evaluation conducted by the International Union for conservative of
44 Nature (IUCN), washing of synthetic textiles could contribute 35% of the release of primary
45 microplastics to the oceans.⁷ However, this estimation is based on releases of primary
46 microplastics via laundering alone and the release to the atmosphere as a consequence of wearing
47 clothes is not included. Hence, the overall importance of textiles as a source of microplastics could
48 be underestimated. Irrespective of the pathway via air or water it is important to note that, during
49 laundering and wearing, not only microfibres of synthetic origin (microplastic of fibrous shape <
50 5 mm) could be released, but also microfibres of artificial or natural origin. Natural fibres can be
51 modified during manufacturing processes, for example by reconstitution into semi-synthetic
52 cellulosic materials as well as by bleaching, dyeing, finishing. The persistence and potential
53 impacts of these varying forms of fibres in the environment is not fully understood.

54 There is clear evidence of widespread microfibre accumulation in aquatic environments, including
55 shorelines⁸, rivers⁹, oceans¹⁰ as well as the Arctic^{11,12} and deep sea^{13,14}. Microfibre ingestion has
56 also been reported for a variety of aquatic organisms, including oysters¹⁵, fish^{16,17}, and turtles¹⁸.
57 More recently, microfibres have been found in terrestrial environments. For example, microfibres
58 accounted for more than the 50% of the total microplastics detected in farmland around Shanghai,¹⁹
59 for 92% of the microplastics in samples from the Chai River valley, China,²⁰ and represented the
60 largest proportion of microplastics also in soils from rice-fish experimental stations in Shanghai.²¹
61 Recent studies have also indicated the presence of microfibre contamination in the air^{22,23} and it
62 has been estimated that between 3 and 10 tons of microfibres are deposited by atmospheric fallout
63 every year in Paris alone, with 29% constituted by fibres of petrochemical nature²⁴. The presence
64 of microfibres in the air has also been investigated indoors^{25,26}, in an intercity terminal and a
65 university campus in Turkey²⁷. The results of these works confirmed the presence of synthetic

66 microfibres in the indoor and outdoor environments, but the prevalent microfibres were artificial
67 and natural ones. Concentrations of microfibres in the range 1.0-60.0 microfibres/m³ and
68 deposition rates between 1586 and 11,130 microfibres/day/m², were documented indoor.²⁵ The
69 quantity of microfibres in the atmosphere shows considerable temporal and spatial variability.²⁷
70 Human exposure to microplastics via ingestion of contaminated seafood and exposure via
71 household microfibres fallout during a meal, has also been examined, showing that microplastic
72 ingestion by humans via consumption of mussels ranged between 123 particles/year/capita in the
73 UK to 4620 particles/years/capita in countries with a higher shellfish consumption, whereas
74 microfibre exposure during a meal via dust fallout in a household was found to be much greater,
75 with 13,731-68,415 particles/years/capita.²⁸ Exposure to microfibres could lead to inhalation, as
76 already observed for natural and synthetic fibres found in human lungs by Pauly et al.²⁹ Synthetic
77 fragments and fibres, as well as non-synthetic particles of protein and cellulose origin, were
78 founded inhaled by a Breathing Thermal Manikin, in a set of simulation experiments in indoor
79 environments.³⁰

80 Several studies have investigated the release of microfibres to wastewater from the washing of
81 synthetic clothes, using different washing procedures, and estimated that thousands of microfibres
82 could be released by a single household wash of 5-6 kg.^{31,32,33} It has been suggested that textile
83 parameters such as material composition of the fabric³¹, type of yarn³² and textile construction^{34,35}
84 could all influence release. However, very little information is available on these parameters and
85 more research is needed to provide information to guide interventions to reduce microfibre
86 emission. The present work aims to assess the influence of several parameters on release.
87 Furthermore, we will quantify release of microfibres during everyday use and wear of clothing.
88 The three main objectives were: (1) determine the amount of microfibres released from garments

89 during washing, and (2) compare this with the amount shed directly to the air due to their wearing,
90 (3) examine the extent to which microfibre release both to air and water is influenced by textile
91 characteristics. Four polyester garments were selected with different textile characteristics,
92 including material composition (neat or blend), fabric structure (woven or knitted), yarn twist (high
93 or low), fibre type (staple or filament), and hairiness (high or low). Microfibre release to water and
94 air was assessed by using a household washing machine and tests to quantify the release of fibres
95 from wearing clothes.

96
97

98 **2. Materials & Methods**

99 **2.1. Materials**

100 Four different polyester commercial garments were used. These included a 100% green polyester
101 blouse, a 100% blue polyester t-shirt, a 100% black polyester dress, and a 50%:50% pink
102 polyester/cotton sweatshirt. Four replicates of each garment were used for investigating the release
103 of microfibres during washing and four separate replicates were used for investigating release of
104 microfibres during wear. All garments were purchased in the same size (Large).

105 Before testing, the garments were pre-washed to eliminate loose fibres, impurities and the presence
106 of other type of fibres. All replicates of the same garment type were washed in a Whirlpool
107 WWDC6400 washing machine (40 °C, 1200 rpm, 1h), using a commercial liquid laundry detergent
108 in the dose recommended by the manufacturer, whose composition is reported in the Supporting
109 Information (SI). Cross-contamination of microfibres between washes was prevented as described
110 in the QA/QC section of the SI. Cotton lab coats and nitrile gloves were worn during all the
111 experimental work.

112 **2.2. Textile characteristics of tested garments**

113 The polyester garments were selected considering five textile parameters: (1) material
114 composition, (2) textile structure, (3) yarn twist, (4) fibre length and (5) hairiness.
115 The work focused on polyester garments but, since polyester is widely used in blends with cotton,
116 the effect of neat versus blended polyester fabrics on microfibres release was also studied. The
117 composition of the fabrics reported on the label was confirmed by Fourier transform infrared
118 spectroscopy (FTIR). Spectra were acquired by means of a Hyperion 1000 microscope (Bruker)
119 coupled to an IFS 66 spectrometer (Bruker), using 16 scans and a resolution of 4 cm^{-1} , over the
120 range $4000\text{--}400\text{ cm}^{-1}$. The obtained spectra were compared to a spectral database of synthetic
121 polymers (Bruker I26933 Synthetic fibres ATR library).

122 Usually, textiles have two main structures: woven and knitted. The woven structure is made of two
123 sets of yarns interlaced, the warp runs in a lengthways direction and the weft runs in a widthway
124 direction; the knitted is obtained by interlacing loops of yarn.³⁶ The yarn can be constituted by
125 staple fibres, of comparatively short length, and filaments, which are fibres of indefinite length.³⁷
126 The yarn twist provides structural integrity to the yarn and is defined as the number of turns present
127 in a unit length of yarn.³⁸ The fabric structure and yarns of the selected garments was analysed
128 using a Leica M205 FA light microscope (Leica Microsystem) and a field-emission scanning
129 electron microscope (SEM) Quanta 200 FEG (FEI) operating in high vacuum mode, using an
130 accelerating voltage ranging between 15 and 20 kV and a secondary electron detector (Everhart-
131 Thornley detector). Before SEM analysis the samples were sputter-coated with gold–palladium.
132 SEM micrographs were also used to measure the twisting. The yarn twist (turn per meter, t/m),
133 was measured by using equation 1:

134
$$T = \frac{\tan\theta}{\pi d}$$
 Equation 1

135 where θ is the angle formed by the fibre in the yarn with the yarn axis, d is the diameter in meters.³⁹

136 The level of twist was classified in this way: no twist means that no torsion is present in the yarn;

137 low twist indicates values up to 500 t/m; moderate twist refers to a twist value up to 1000 t/m; high

138 twist was used to comment value above 1000 t/m.

139 Lastly, the hairiness is defined as the presence of small fibres that protrude from the main yarn

140 core⁴⁰ and basically could be high or low depending whether the yarn is made of staple fibres or

141 continuous filaments, respectively. Hairiness was evaluated through the observation of the yarns

142 under the light microscope.⁴¹ Its value was expressed as number of protruding fibre ends per meter

143 of yarn (n/m). The level of hairiness was classified as low for values up to 500 n/m, and high for

144 values above 1000 n/m. The values obtained were in line with the type of fibres composing the

145 yarns of the fabrics. In fact, yarns made of short staple fibres presented greater hairiness than those

146 made of continuous filaments.

147 Figure S1 in the Supporting Information (SI) reports the optical and scanning electron micrographs

148 of the surfaces of each selected garment and the yarns constituting them. The textile parameters

149 analysed for each garment as reported in Table 1, and were used to codify the samples.

150

151 **Table 1.** Code and textile parameters of the selected garments.

Type of garment	Structure	Yarn	Twist	Hairiness	CODE
100% polyester blouse	woven filaments	continuous filaments	warp 2458 t/m weft 875 t/m	warp 96 n/m weft 173 n/m	PES-Woven-Filament
100% polyester t-shirt	knitted	continuous filaments	no twist	59 n/m	PES-Knit-Filament

100% polyester dress	knitted	short staple fibres	631 t/m	3754 n/m	PES-Knit-Staple
50 %:50% polyester/cotton sweatshirt	knitted	short staple fibres	470 t/m	3426 n/m	PES/COT-Knit-Staple

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153

154 Due to its mixed composition of cotton and polyester, PET/COT-Knit-Staple was further analysed
 155 by SEM to understand how cotton and polyester fibres were combined together in the yarns. In
 156 Figure S2, the obtained SEM micrographs are reported and it is clearly detectable the presence in
 157 the yarn of cotton fibres, with the typical twisted ribbon form, and of polyester fibres with a
 158 cylindrical and smooth surface.⁴² The two types of fibres were mixed together in each single yarn.

159 **2.3. Release of microfibres from synthetic clothes during washing**

160 Release of microfibres from the selected garments due to laundering was evaluated. Washing tests
 161 were performed using a Bosch washing machine serie 4 varioperfect WLG24225it with the
 162 following program for synthetics at 40°C, 1 h 47 min and 1200 rpm. The choice of the washing
 163 cycle is described in the SI. The commercial liquid detergent, whose composition was detailed in
 164 the SI, was used in the dose recommended by the supplier. Each garment was washed alone, with
 165 four replicates for each garment type. A total of 16 washing trials were performed.

166 The analytical procedure³⁵ adopted to determine the amount of microfibres consisted in a multistep
 167 filtration procedure as detailed in the SI, using filters with 400, 60, 20 and 5 µm pore size. The
 168 weight of microfibre recovered on the different pore size filters, was normalized for the washing
 169 load, obtaining W in mg/kg. The mean value of the total mass of microfibres per kilogram of

170 washed fabric for each type of garment, W_a , and the standard deviation (SD), were calculated.
171 QA/QC measures applied to prevent cross-contamination of microfibres between washes and
172 among the different filtrations are described in the SI. Since PES/COT-Knit-Staple was made of a
173 blend of cotton and polyester, further analyses were performed on the released microfibres in order
174 to assess if they were of synthetic or cellulosic nature. Thermogravimetric analysis was performed
175 on approximately 5 mg of microfibres recovered from 400 μm and 60 μm pore size filters as well
176 as on a neat sample, about 5 mg, cut from a new sweatshirt (not pre-washed). Samples were placed
177 in an open platinum pan and heated from 30 to 800 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ at the rate of 10 $^{\circ}\text{C min}^{-1}$ under nitrogen
178 atmosphere (flow rate: 40 mL min^{-1}) in a Pyris 1 TGA (Perkin–Elmer).
179 The dimensions of the collected microfibres were determined using the procedure reported in the
180 SI. For each test, the number of microfibres released to wastewater by each garment, N , was
181 estimated according to Equation 2:

$$182 N_w = \frac{W}{\pi \cdot \frac{D^2}{4} \cdot L} \quad \text{Equation 2}$$

183 where W is the amount of microfibres in grams released by the washed garment, ρ is the density
184 of the material, L and D are average length and diameter, respectively, of the released fibres.³¹ For
185 the PES/COT-Knit-Staple garment, the formula took into account the data obtained from TGA
186 analysis. The numbers of polyester and cotton microfibres released were first calculated separately,
187 considering in the formula the masses (provided by the TGA analysis) and the mean dimensions
188 (obtained from optical microscopy and SEM analysis) of the microfibres released by the two
189 different materials. The two values were then summed to obtain the overall number of microfibres
190 released by PES/COT-Knit-Staple. Each value of N was normalized for the weight of the
191 corresponding washed garment, obtaining the number of microfibres/gram, in order to compare
192 more easily the number of microfibres released to water with those released to air. Finally, the

193 mean value of the total number of microfibres per gram of washed fabric for each type of garment,
194 and the SD, were calculated.

195 **2.4. Release of microfibres from synthetic clothes to air**

196 An experimental procedure was developed to quantify the number of microfibres released to the
197 air from synthetic clothes. Tests with volunteers wearing the selected garments, were carried out
198 in a closed room of 4 m² floor area. The room had room had a desk with a height of 85 cm, no
199 windows, no other sources of air flow. The floor was covered using cardboard and paper tape.
200 Before testing, the room was deep cleaned using liquid soap, water and a handheld vacuum cleaner,
201 white cotton cloths were used during the cleaning of the room. All the operators involved in the
202 cleaning and tests, wore polypropylene boilersuits and shoe covers so that microfibre
203 contamination could be eliminated from the results. To assess the cleanliness of the room prior to
204 the trials, 8 polystyrene Petri dishes (9 cm of diameter) each lined with dampened filters papers
205 (Whatman n. 1), were left in the room for 10 days, following a similar procedure reported
206 elsewhere⁴³. The Petri were then observed under the Leica M205 FA light microscope. The
207 observation revealed the presence of only one microfibre in one of the Petri, so the room was
208 considered cleaned. Based on the approach used to collect dust,⁴⁴ and taking into account recent
209 works on airborne contamination^{25,28,43}, Petri dishes were used to capture the microfibres released
210 during the tests. Dampened filter papers were used in preference to adhesive tape, so as not affect
211 the FTIR analysis.^{28,43} Four adult volunteers were selected and performed the test procedure
212 (approved by the Ethics Committee of the University of Plymouth). Each person separately tested
213 each of the 4 garment types, resulting in a total of 16 tests. Other than the garment under test, the
214 volunteers wore white leggings made of 100% cotton. Each volunteer, positioned at the centre of
215 the room, performed a specific sequence of movements that was selected to simulate a mix of real

216 life activities. The duration of the sequence was set to 20 min as a compromise between a
217 reasonable time to allow microfibres to deposit and acceptable time for the volunteers to remain
218 in the closed room. A detailed description of the sequence of movements is reported in the SI.⁸
219 Petri dishes lined with filter papers were placed at a distance of about 60 cm from the volunteer.
220 To avoid cross-contamination between two consecutive tests, the room was cleaned by an operator
221 wearing 100% cotton clothes under a boilersuit, and by using a handheld vacuum cleaner. QA/QC
222 measures are reported in the SI.

223 The microfibres released during the tests and collected on the filter papers, were observed through
224 optical microscopy to allow a quick evaluation of the microfibres present, as already reported in
225 other works.^{25,28,43} For their identification different criteria were taken into account, such as the
226 colour and shape of the original fibres from the garments, and are reported in detail in the SI.^{25,42}

227 In details, the surface of the filter papers was observed and counted by using a Leica M205 FA
228 light microscope (Leica Microsystem) and analysed by Image J to measure their dimensions.

229 For each test, the number of microfibres per unit area, N_t , was calculated by using Equation 3:

$$230 \quad N_t = \sum_{i=1}^8 n_i / 8a \quad \text{Equation 3}$$

231 with n_i the number of microfibres counted in each filter paper, a is the area of the Petri dish. The
232 total number of microfibres released in the room per gram of worn fabric, was determined by using

233 Equation 4:

$$234 \quad N_a = \frac{N_t}{W_t} \cdot A \quad \text{Equation 4}$$

235 where A is the area of the room (4 m^2) and W_t the weight in grams of the garment worn in the test.

236 Then, the mean value of the total number of microfibres per gram of worn fabric for each type of
237 garment, and the SD, was calculated. A mean size was calculated for length and diameter of the
238 released microfibres, based on the measurements of 100 microfibres for PES-Knit-Filament, PES-

239 Knit-Staple and PES/COT-Knit-Staple, and 10 microfibres for PES-Woven-Filament since the
240 number of microfibres released by this garment was much smaller than those of the others. To
241 confirm the chemical composition of the counted microfibres, FTIR spectroscopy was applied as
242 detailed in the SI.

243 **2.5. Statistics**

244 Statistical analysis of the amount and number of microfibres released to water and air, respectively,
245 was carried out by using IBM® SPSS® Statistics software. One-way Analysis of Variance
246 (ANOVA) with a Student–Newman–Keuls (SNK) post hoc test, Welch ANOVA with a Games–
247 Howell post hoc test, two-sample t-test and Mann-Whitney U (MWU) were applied. A 5%
248 significance level was used for all statistical tests; p values <0.05 indicate significant difference
249 among the data. More details are reported in the SI.

250

251 **3. Results**

252 **3.1. Microplastic release to water**

253 PES/COT-Knit-Staple released the greatest quantity of mg of microfibres per kg fabric of $1054 \pm$
254 158, while PES-Woven-Filament fabrics released the lowest one of 128 ± 62 . PES-Knit-Filament
255 and PES-Knit-Staple released 296 ± 36 mg of microfibres per kg fabric and 244 ± 25 mg of
256 microfibres per kg fabric, respectively. The mass of microfibres recovered on $400 \mu\text{m}$, $60 \mu\text{m}$, 20
257 μm pore size filters and the concentration calculated dividing the mass of microfibres recovered
258 on the $5 \mu\text{m}$ pore size filter for the volume filtered (mg/L), for each garment type, are reported in
259 Figure S3 and discussed in the SI. It is to be highlighted that the largest quantity of microfibres

260 was recovered on the filter with a 60 µm pore size for all garments except PES-Woven-Filament,
261 for which the greatest aliquot was recovered on the 20 µm filter.

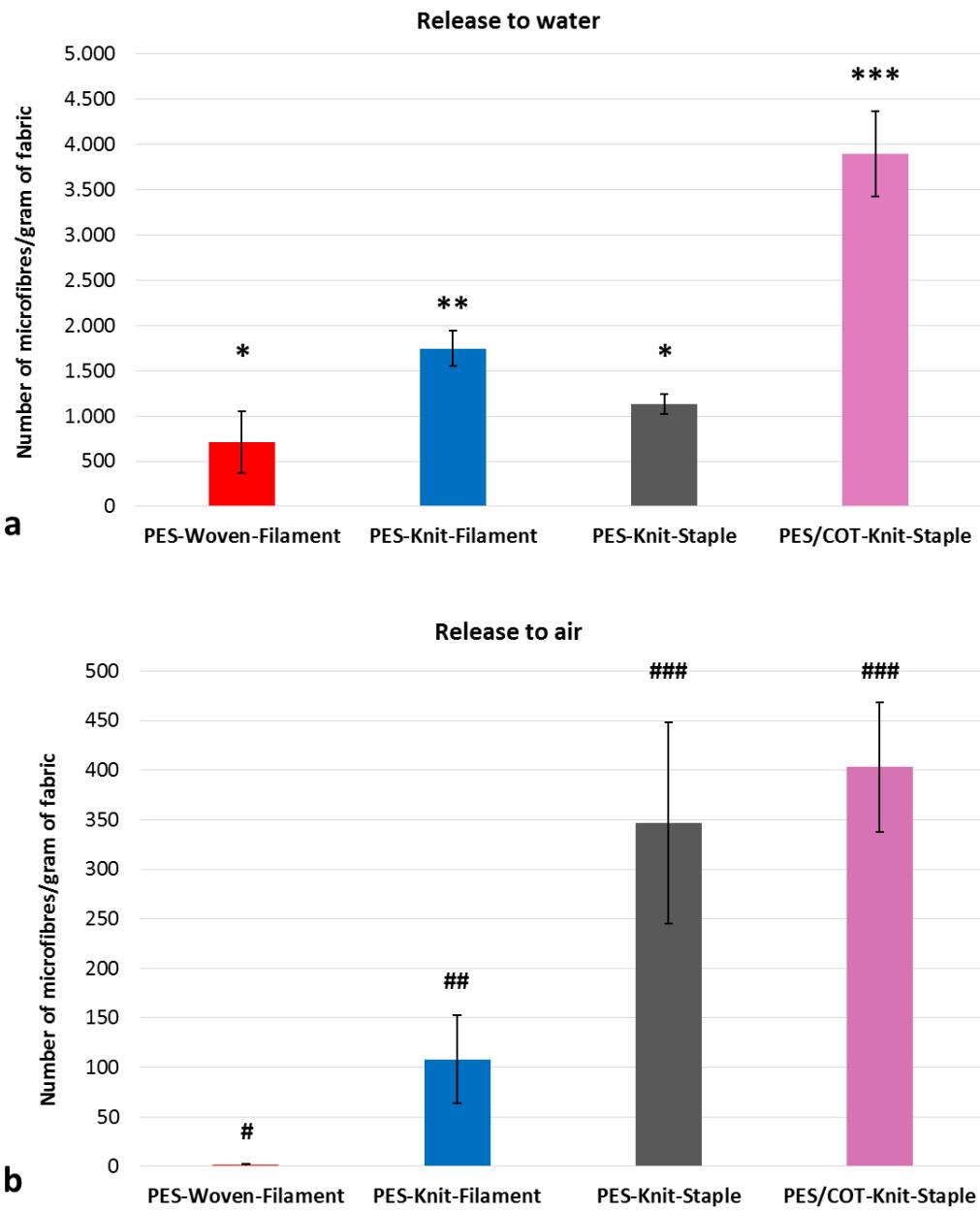
262 Since the PES/COT-Knit-Staple garment was made of a blend of 50%:50% polyester/cotton, in
263 order to understand the composition of the microfibres released during the washing tests and
264 recovered during the filtration of the wastewater, a thermogravimetric investigation was carried
265 out on the microfibres accumulated on 400 and 60 µm pore size filters. The thermogravimetric
266 curves are reported in Figure S1d and discussed in the SI.^{45,46} The results of this analysis indicate
267 that around the 80% of the fibres released from PES/COT-K-S to water were of cotton.

268 Microscopy analysis of the microfibres recovered on each filter was used to examine their
269 dimensions. The length of the microfibres recovered on the different pore size filters is reported in
270 Figure S1c. PES-Knit-Filament released microfibres had an average length of 610 ± 480 µm and
271 diameter of 16 ± 3 µm; PES-Woven-Filament microfibres had a mean length of 760 ± 690 µm and
272 diameter of 15 ± 2 µm; in the case of PES-Knit-Staple the average length and diameter were 796
273 ± 604 µm and 16 ± 2 µm, respectively; microfibres released from PES/COT-Knit-Staple had a
274 mean length of 720 ± 742 µm and a mean diameter of 18 ± 6 µm. Regarding this last garment, the
275 average length and diameter of cotton fibres were 889 ± 835 µm and 19 ± 6 µm respectively,
276 whereas those of polyester fibres were 420 ± 395 µm and 15 ± 4 µm. Notwithstanding that the
277 polyester microfibres released from PES/COT-Knit-Staple were significantly smaller than the
278 cotton ones (MWU: U=706, p=0.00), the greater release of cotton microfibres could be due to the
279 different chemical compositions of the fibres composing the yarn. In fact, the higher hydrophilicity
280 of cellulosic fibres could influence the wettability of these fibres⁴⁷ during the washing process
281 possibly increasing their release from the fabric. In addition, it should be considered that, during

282 laundering, the wet abrasion of cotton is high since the fibres could swell and fibrils could easily be
283 broken due to mechanical action and physical forces of the washing process.⁴⁸

284 The weight of microfibres released by each garment type, was converted to a number of
285 microfibres released by applying a formula with the mean dimensions of the released fibres, and
286 the density of the material. The average numbers of microfibres released per gram of washed
287 fabrics, per each type of textile, are reported in Figure 1a. The amount of microfibre released by
288 the four different fabrics were compared through statistical analysis with Welch ANOVA (Table
289 S1 in the SI), that detected significant difference in the quantities released ($F(3,6)=49.29$, $p=0.00$).
290 Games-Howell post hoc test revealed a significantly greater release of microfibres from PES/COT-
291 Knit-Staple (3898 ± 467 microfibres/g of fabric), than the releases from all the other garments
292 ($p<0.05$ in all cases). Comparing PES/COT-Knit-Staple with PES-Knit-Staple, that has the same
293 textile parameters (knitted structure, short staple fibres), the difference in the release for these two
294 fabrics is related to the presence of cotton in the blend of PES/COT-Knit-Staple, as supported by
295 the TGA analysis. PES-Knit-Filament (1747 ± 193 microfibres/g of fabric) released significantly
296 more microfibres than both PES-Woven-Filament (709 ± 343 microfibres/g of fabric, $p=0.014$)
297 and PES-Knit-Staple (1128 ± 111 microfibres/g of fabric, $p=0.011$). All three garments are made
298 of 100% polyester, but with differences in textile parameters. PES-Knit-Filament and PES-Knit-
299 Staple are both arranged in a knitted structure, but the first has yarns made of continuous filaments
300 no twisted and with low hairiness, whereas the second has yarns made of short staple fibres
301 moderately twisted and with high hairiness. Since the hairiness of PES-Knit-Filament is lower than
302 PES-Knit-Staple, the greater release of PES-Knit-Filament could be ascribable to the absence of
303 the twist in its yarns that could have favored the release of microfibres from the fabric. Moreover,
304 it should be taken into account that the minimum lengths detected for PES-Knit-Filament and PES-

305 Knit-Staple were 71 µm and 87 µm, respectively. Then, this contradictory result on the release
306 from PES-Knit-Filament, could be due to the release from PES-Knit-Staple of microfibres with
307 dimensions lower than about 70 µm, not observable with the filtration and identification methods
308 applied in these experiments. Instead, the differences in the release between PES-Knit-Filament
309 and PES-Woven-Filament could be found in their different textiles structures (knitted vs. woven).
310 In general, PES-Woven-Filament was the fabric that released the lowest amount of microfibres,
311 but it was found not significantly lower than PES-Knit-Staple ($p=0.248$), indicating that a woven
312 structure, with more twisted yarns, plays a role in reducing the amount of microfibres released
313 during washing.



314

315 **Figure 1.** a) Release to water: number of microfibres released per gram of washed fabric from
 316 100% polyester blouse PES-Woven-Filament, 100% polyester t-shirt PES-Knit-Filament, 100%
 317 polyester dress PES-Knit-Staple, 50% polyester/50% cotton sweatshirt PES/COT-Knit-Staple,
 318 (n=4); b) Release to air: number of microfibres per gram of worn fabric, released to air by wearing
 319 the 4 selected garments (n=4); Different symbols denote significant differences among the number
 320 of microfibres released by each type of fabric to water (*) and air (#).

321 **3.2 Microplastic release to air**

322 The number of microfibres released per gram of worn fabric for each kind of tested garment are
323 reported in Figure 1b, together with the SD. Statistical analysis (Table S2) performed on these
324 values confirmed that the number of microfibres released to air during the wearing of the garments
325 differs significantly depending on the type of fabric (ANOVA-SNK: $F(3,12)=35.45$, $p=0.00$) and
326 follow the order PES-Woven-Filament < PES-Knit-Filament < PES-Knit-Staple < PES/COT-Knit-
327 Staple. No significant difference was found between the values of the two knitted fabrics with
328 short staple fibres PES/COT-Knit-Staple (403 ± 65 microfibres/g of fabric) made of 50%:50%
329 polyester/cotton, and PES-Knit-Staple (347 ± 102 microfibres/g of fabric) made of 100% polyester
330 (ANOVA-SNK: $p=0.24$). A significant difference (ANOVA-SNK: $p>0.05$) was found between
331 the number of microfibres released by the two fabrics constituted by continuous filaments, PES-
332 Knit-Filament (108 ± 44 microfibres/g of fabric) and PES-Woven-Filament (1 ± 1 microfibres/g
333 of fabric), confirming a mitigating effect of the woven structure. These results also indicate that
334 the fabrics made of short staple fibres, PES-Knit-Staple and PES/COT-Knit-Staple, released more
335 microfibres to air than those released by fabrics made of continuous filaments, PES-Woven-
336 Filament and PES-Knit-Filament (ANOVA-SNK: $p>0.05$). Moreover, PES/COT-Knit-Staple and
337 PES-Knit-Staple have also yarns poorly twisted whereas PES-Woven-Filament yarns presented
338 the greatest twist. Regarding PES-Knit-Filament, the effect of the twist is less clear in this case
339 since its yarns have no twist but maybe the fact that they are made of continuous filaments, could
340 be responsible for the low release of microfibre and thus the fibre length had a mitigating effect.
341 Mean fibre dimensions, length and diameter, were calculated analyzing the optical micrographs of
342 the microfibres recovered in the Petri dishes. Microfibres released by PES-Knit-Filament were
343 characterized by a length of 1036 ± 393 μm and diameter of 18 ± 4 μm ; the dimensions of

344 microfibres released by PES-Knit-Staple were length of $1023 \pm 467 \mu\text{m}$ and diameter of 18 ± 3
345 μm ; the microfibres released by PES/COT-Knit-Staple were $1024 \pm 1008 \mu\text{m}$ in length and $21 \pm$
346 $6 \mu\text{m}$ in diameter. Microfibres released by PES-Woven-Filament had diameter of $15 \pm 4 \mu\text{m}$ and
347 length of $494 \pm 15 \mu\text{m}$, significantly smaller than the lengths of both PES-Knit-Filament (t-test:
348 $t(28)=8.61, p=0.00$) and PES-Knit-Staple (t-test: $t(37)=7.81, p=0.00$). It is interesting to note that
349 microfibres released by both PES-Knit-Filament and PES-Knit-Staple have length not
350 significantly different (t-test: $(198)=0.21, p=0.83$) even if the release for the latter was significantly
351 higher (ANOVA-SNK, $p>0.05$). The comparison of the average length of the microfibres released
352 to both media by each garment, showed that the length was greater for the microfibres released to
353 air than water for all garments, except for PES-Woven-Filament where the contrary occurs.
354 The high SD of the length of PES/COT-Knit-Staple microfibres, measured among the 100
355 microfibres analysed to determine mean length and diameter, could be due to the difference
356 between the length of cotton and polyester staple fibres. The staple length of a synthetic fibre is
357 controlled by the manufacturer, so they may be all the same length or they consist of a mixture of
358 fibres of different lengths blended in known proportions. In the case of a natural fibre, staple length
359 is a much less easily defined characteristic of any batch of fibre, which basically consist of fibres
360 varying in length over a wide range.⁴⁷

361 FTIR analyses of subsamples of the microfibres collected in the Petri dishes during the tests
362 revealed that they were all polyester for the polyester garments PES-Knit-Filament, PES-Woven-
363 Filament and PES-Knit-Staple. Alternatively, in the case of PES/COT-Knit-Staple, results pointed
364 out that only 1 of the 32 analysed fibres were polyester, while the others were all of cellulosic
365 nature. Such result was foreseen during the inspection of filters under light microscope since the
366 microfibres observed had all the characteristics of cotton fibres.³⁴

367 **4. Discussion**

368 All the textiles examined released measurable quantities of fibres as a consequence of both
369 laundering and everyday wear. The polyester/cotton blend garment showed the greatest release to
370 both media, with a majority of microfibres, 80 % (in water) and 97 % (in air), being identified as
371 cotton. This appears to indicate that garments with a polyester/cotton blend composition tend to
372 release more cotton microfibres than synthetic ones, a finding in line with previous works^{35,49,50}.
373 However, there is no scientific consensus on microfibre release from cotton, since other works
374 reported that polyester/cotton blended garments release less³¹ or found no clear comparisons
375 between the releases of polyester and cotton textiles⁵¹. Several studies have already reported the
376 presence of cotton fibres in aquatic environments^{52,53,54}, ingested by fish⁵⁵ as well as in the
377 atmosphere^{19,25,27,56}. The occurrence of natural microfibres in different environment highlights that
378 natural fabrics could shed more microfibres than synthetic ones. This could be due to the material
379 composition and textile characteristics of natural fabrics. This data allows to hypotize a possible
380 underestimation of the exposure of human to microfibres, since microfibres of natural origin are
381 often not taken into account. Therefore, that calls for further research on the release, fate and
382 impact of cellulosic microfibres in the environment.

383 PES-Knit-Filament and PES-Knit-Staple garments have the same knitted structure but the first was
384 composed of continuous filaments with no twist and low hairiness, whereas the second of short
385 staple fibres with moderate twist and high hairiness. Short staple fibres and high hairiness, have
386 been found responsible for a greater release of microfibres during washing in a previous
387 investigation³⁵ since the short fibres can more easily slip away due to the mechanical actions of
388 wearing and moving, as also supposed by the mechanism of fibre release reported by Zambrano et
389 al.⁴⁹. However, PES-Knit-Filament released significantly less microfibres to air than PES-Knit-

390 Staple, but it behaves oppositely during the washing process, calling for further studies to assess
391 if this outcome is due to limits in fibre length detection in washing tests (as discussed in the Results
392 section) or if the release of microfibres during washing could have more complex release
393 mechanisms and variables than that to air. PES-Woven-Filament was the garment responsible for
394 the overall lowest numbers of microfibres released to both media. The reasons for this behavior
395 lay in the textile parameter of PES-Woven-Filament, which is made of continuous filaments highly
396 twisted and arranged in a woven structure. In fact, the releases of PES-Woven-Filament to air and
397 water were significantly lower than those of PES-Knit-Filament, whose yarns were also made by
398 continuous filaments but were arranged in a knitted structure with no twist. This could be due to
399 the presence of high twisted yarns arranged in a woven structure, resulting in a more compact
400 textile with respect to knit fabrics which are typically softer and more flexible.⁵⁷

401 Comparing the overall quantities of microfibres released during washing to those reported by De
402 Falco, et al.³⁵ of 49-308 g per kg of washed fabric, the release for the present study was much
403 higher (128-1054 mg/kg of washed fabric). A possible explanation could be that washing tests
404 carried out with only one garment result in greater wettability of the fabric that could enhance the
405 mobility of microfibres that detach from the yarns. In fact, a recent work has pointed out that
406 washing programs with a high water-volume-to-fabric ratio are responsible for a greater release
407 of microfibres.⁵⁸ The outcomes of the present work indicate that in order to reduce microfibre
408 emissions to water and air, the optimal textile parameters are, wherever possible, woven structure,
409 yarns made of continuous filaments highly twisted, low hairiness. The selected parameters are in
410 line with conclusions by Carney Almroth et al.,³⁴ who found that tightly constructed yarns (i.e.
411 with high twist) are to be preferred to reduce microfibre release. Cesa et al.⁵⁹ also suggested that
412 parameters responsible for fibres cohesion (i.e. yarn twist, fibres size and regularity) avoid possible

413 propagation of fibres. Zambrano et al.⁴⁹ highlighted that fabrics with lower hairiness, higher
414 abrasion resistance and yarn strength released less microfibres. Furthermore, a previous work²⁰
415 found that woven polyester fabrics released more than knitted ones but this finding was correlated
416 to the yarn type, that was made of short staple fibres in the woven structure, whereas it was
417 composed by continuous filaments in the knitted fabric. This scenario points out how, despite
418 differences in the method used in the different papers, there seems to be consensus among the
419 scientific community that some parameters have a direct effect on microfibre release.

420 Here, we present the first estimation of microfibres released to air directly as a consequence of
421 wearing clothes. Considering other results reported in literature on fibre deposition from the
422 atmosphere, the lengths of fibres (494-1036µm) released from clothing in our experiments
423 resembled that of past studies for indoor air and dust (50-450µm) as well as fibres found in human
424 lung tissues (50-250µm).^{25,29,30} Some information of the consequences of chronic high dose
425 exposure to microfibres can be derived from studies on the health of workers of synthetic textile
426 and flock industries, who presented an increased prevalence of the following symptoms: interstitial
427 lung disease, reduced lung capacity, coughing, dyspnoea, wheezing, increased phlegm production,
428 allergic reactions, asthma.⁶⁰ Further, due to their hydrophobic nature, textile fibres have the
429 potential to sorb and subsequently release chemical contaminants during wear and washing,
430 including additives, unreacted monomers and environmental pollutants.^{61,62} Therefore, more
431 studies are needed to assess the potential exposure and consequent impact of microfibres, both of
432 synthetic and natural origin, on human health.

433 The data obtained were scaled up to obtain an estimation of the possible number of polyester
434 microfibres that a single person could release per year. In order to scale up the numbers of polyester
435 microfibres released to water and to air, and allow a more direct comparison of the emissions, the

following assumptions were made: (1) one person performs 55 laundry cycles per year with an average load of 4 kg of polyester garments per wash¹⁸; (2) one person wears 1 kg of polyester garments and performs similar movements simulated during the air tests for 8 h per day; (3) the number of microfibres per gram of fabric released during washing among the values related to the four types of textiles and the same was done for the number of microfibres per gram of fabric released during wearing. Regarding these last assumption, both for washing and wearing, for the PES/COT-Knit-Staple garment only the contribution of polyester fibres was considered, on the basis of TGA analysis for the washing tests (20%) and FTIR spectroscopy for wearing tests (3%). These assumptions lead to data useful for understanding the possible orders of magnitude of polyester microfibre release to water and air, mainly for comparison reasons. Of course, they cannot be representative of the global release of microfibres to both media, since only one type of material, i.e. polyester, was taken into account. The scale up of the data indicate that one person could release a number of polyester microfibres per year of approximately $2.98 \cdot 10^8$ to water by washing, and $1.03 \cdot 10^9$ to air by wearing polyester garments. Of course, these estimations do not take into account the variability of garments actually used by a person. However, the relative magnitude of the two releases is very similar and this highlights that microfibres are not just released from clothing to wastewater but also to the air. Such finding implies that previous estimations of microplastic pollution in world oceans⁷, actually underestimated the impact of synthetic textiles on this environmental problem since they did not take into account the amount of synthetic microfibres that can reach the oceans by atmospheric deposition. In fact, atmospheric deposition is likely an important pathway for microfibres to enter soils; yet, the sources, fate and effects of microfibres to terrestrial ecosystems is understudied.⁶³ Further, there is likely underestimation of microfibre pollution in the environment due to the exclusion of inputs of natural

459 and artificial fibres which this study has shown is an abundant component of microfibres released
460 from clothing (through both washing and wear).

461 Hence, mitigation actions focused on intercepting microfibre release to water (e.g. washing
462 machine filters, washing conditions, wastewater treatment etc.) will only address part of the issue
463 and a wider approach is therefore needed. Based on the findings of this study and others^{32,34,35,49,59},
464 it is clear that textile parameters play a role in influencing microfibre emissions to both water and
465 air. Therefore, improved textile designs utilizing, where possible, textile parameters able to reduce
466 the amount of microfibres released, could be an effective solution to tackle the problem of
467 microfibre emissions. From the work so far it would appear that design should focus on production
468 of fabrics with a compact structure, such as woven, using highly twisted yarns made of continuous
469 filaments, while more loose structures including knitted, short staple fibres and low twist should
470 be avoided when possible. Further investigations should be performed to create a comprehensive
471 set of recommendations to guide industry and policy. Mitigation actions at the textile design stage
472 could also be complemented by application of a finishing treatment that is able to protect the fabric
473 from the chemical and mechanical actions of laundering or from friction and abrasion during
474 wearing, but more research is still needed on this topic.^{64,65,66} The combination of these measures,
475 possibly together with fibre capture systems for washing machines⁶⁷ could lead to substantial
476 reduction of microfibre pollution from textiles.

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479 ASSOCIATED CONTENT

480 **Supporting Information.**

481 The following files are available free of charge.

482 Additional information as noted in the text (PDF)

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486 **Author Contributions**

487 The manuscript was written through contributions of all authors. All authors have given approval

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491

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