

1 **A method to remove cellulose from rich organic samples to analyse**  
2 **microplastics**

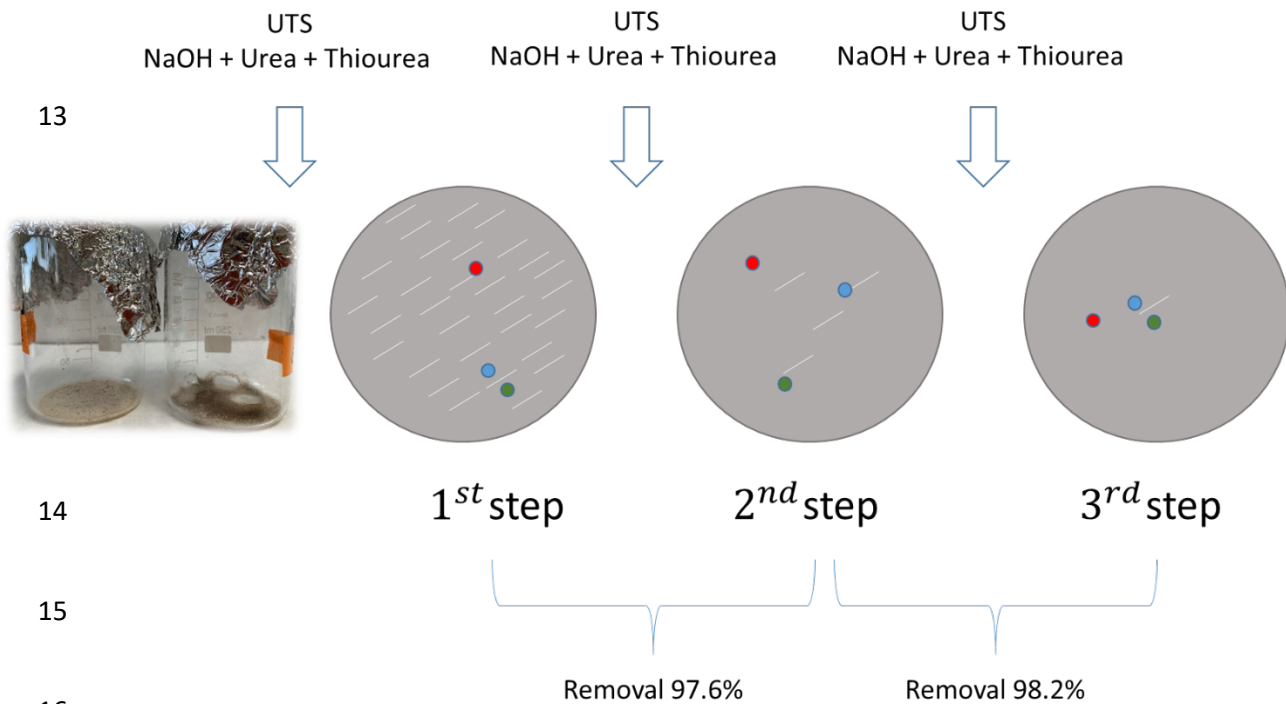
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12 **Graphical abstract**



18 **Highlights**

19 - Cellulose in wastewater and sludge causes interference in microplastic  
20 analysis

21 - A new method for removal cellulose in the analysis of microplastics is  
22 reported

23 - The study covers the behaviour of samples of synthetic, wastewater and  
24 sludge samples

25 - Reducing the cellulose by 97.6% in a second treatment with the method  
26 proposed

27 **Abstract**

28 Knowing the amount of microplastics that currently reach wastewater is  
29 extremely important today. Furthermore, carrying out a good  
30 quantification and detection of the type of plastic provides valuable  
31 information. However, the wastewater is loaded, in addition to a high  
32 concentration of organic matter, with a high concentration of cellulose at  
33 the treatment plant influent, which seriously hinders detection,  
34 quantification and classification of microplastics. The abundance of  
35 cellulose materials makes them possible to become false positives for  
36 microplastics. Numerous studies on the analysis of microplastics in  
37 different matrices show how to remove organic matter from samples, but  
38 there are very few studies on the removal of cellulose, which is also found  
39 in the samples and hinders their analysis. This study offers a method that  
40 combines, for the analysis of microplastics, the already known advanced  
41 oxidation treatments for the elimination of organic matter with the novel  
42 cellulose removal treatment of the samples with the aim of reducing the

43 amount of cellulose in the influent samples of conventional wastewater  
44 treatment plants. To remove the cellulose, 40 mL of a solution of urea 8%,  
45 sodium hydroxide 8% and thiourea 6.5% (by weight) were added for every  
46 100 mg of dry sample. The beakers were placed in the freezer at minus 20  
47 °C for 40 min and were then placed in agitation until they reached room  
48 temperature. After that, the samples were passed through a 53 µm mesh  
49 sieve. They were washed 15 times with 30 mL of ultra-pure water. The  
50 method is called UTS because of the acronym of its reagents  
51 (Urea/Thiourea/Sodium Hydroxide). By using the UTS method it is  
52 possible to reduce almost completely the cellulose residues from the  
53 influent sewage, and sludge samples by 97.6% in a second UTS treatment  
54 and 98.2% in a third UTS treatment. In all cases analysed, the  
55 microplastics were identified as high density polyethylene (HDPE) with  
56 correlation indices higher than 0.97, which shows that the treatment is  
57 harmless for this type of plastic material. The UTS method in combination  
58 with the WPO is an efficient and effective method for the analysis of  
59 microplastics in different matrices where cellulose and organic matter may  
60 cause possible interferences.

61 **Keywords:** Cellulose; Detection; Microplastics; Sludge; Wastewater

## 62 **1. Introduction**

63 The elimination of microplastics (MPs) in the environment is a current  
64 topic of study. Environmental pollution by MPs is a growing problem, and  
65 the problem is expected to persist for hundreds of years (Ivar, 2021).  
66 Microplastics are plastic particles smaller than 5 mm (Franco et al., 2021).  
67 These MPs are generating a global environmental problem that has an  
68 impact not only on the environment as such, but also on the food chain in  
69 particular. According to WHO (2019), global plastics production has  
70 increased almost exponentially since the 1950s. Taking into account  
71 population growth and current plastic consumption and waste, plastic  
72 production is expected to double by 2025 and triple by 2050 (FAO, 2017).

73 As the manufacture and use of plastics has steadily increased over the  
74 decades, the occurrence of MPs in the environment has also intensified and  
75 these new contaminants are now commonly found in rivers, lakes, and  
76 coasts (Carr et al., 2016; McCormick et al., 2014). According to Feng et  
77 al. (2020) fibers were the most frequently observed form in surface water  
78 and sediments. It is known that one of the largest inputs of MPs into the  
79 environment is from wastewater treatment plants (WWTPs) (Turan et al.,  
80 2021). Many authors have presented results on the detection and  
81 quantification of MPs in WWTPs effluent (Dyachenko et al., 2017; Franco  
82 et al., 2020; Xu et al., 2019). Other authors present research on the  
83 percentage of MPs removal in WWTPs (Gies et al., 2018; Franco et al.,  
84 2021). Mechanical, chemical, and biological treatment processes removed  
85 up to 99% of the MPs entering a WWTPs (Ziajahromi et al., 2016). After  
86 treatment, the removed MPs were primarily transferred to the sludge phase

87 (Ngo et al., 2019). However, there are few authors talking about the  
88 problems that we encounter for the detection, quantification, and  
89 identification of these pollutants in both the influent of the waterline and  
90 the sludge line of conventional WWTPs.

91       Additionally, there is not a standardised method for the analysis of  
92 MPs. Numerous authors have proposed methods but none have yet been  
93 approved. This makes it difficult to compare methodologies and to  
94 corroborate that MPs analysis is being carried out correctly. Cunsolo et al.,  
95 (2021) have optimised sample preparation for FTIR-based MPs analysis  
96 in wastewater and sludge samples: multiple digestions, however, it uses  
97 quite a few reagents and some that could be considered aggressive by other  
98 authors for microplastic analysis (Al-Azzawi, et al., 2020). The importance  
99 of a correct detection, quantification, and identification of MPs where no  
100 other factors are involved, is due to the current circular economy trend in  
101 WWTPs (Neczaj et al., 2018). The recognition of sludge as a resource, the  
102 use of sewage sludge as a source of energy and resource recovery is a good  
103 alternative for its management considering the requirements of the  
104 legislation and the principles of the circular economy, for this it is  
105 necessary to know all the damages that MPs could cause in the  
106 environment with a correct detection, quantification and identification  
107 (Gherghel et al., 2019).

108       Similarly, with regard to water, in order to avoid environmental  
109 pollution from insufficiently treated wastewater discharged into the  
110 environment or subsequently reused in the environment, the European  
111 Union has approved a regulation "Regulation (EU) 2020/741 of the

112 european parliament and of the council of 25 may 2020 concerning  
113 minimum requirements for water reuse" where, in Annex II, it is stated that  
114 depending on the results of the risk assessment there would be additional  
115 requirements. Therefore, the importance of knowing the quantity and type  
116 of MPs in reclaimed water prior to its use is emphasised.

117 In the influent of WWTPs, in addition to already known organic  
118 matter, there is a high concentration of cellulose which makes the normal  
119 process of identification and detection of MPs difficult. Cellulose is the  
120 most abundant natural biopolymer on planet Earth (Peng et al., 2020).  
121 Hurley et al. (2018) proposed a validation of a method for the extraction  
122 of microplastics from complex and organic-rich environmental matrices.  
123 With the proposed treatment and various protocols, they were able to  
124 eliminate between 57-67% of organic material in sludge and 35-68% of  
125 soil organic matter, but reported problems with cellulosic and chitinous  
126 material being resistant to KOH and NaOH treatment (Hurley et al. 2018).  
127 Olsen et al. (2020) demonstrated the need for a method for cellulose  
128 removal in wastewater samples, because without the possibility of  
129 spectroscopic techniques, it is not possible to discern cellulose fibers from  
130 microplastic fibers, even after commonly used digestion procedures. These  
131 same authors (Olsen et al., 2020) tested a removal method for seawater  
132 matrices containing a lower amount of cellulose fibers than influent  
133 samples or sewage sludge. Lares et al. (2018) also reported that the  
134 cellulose present in the samples can lead to inadequate separation during  
135 the density separation step commonly applied in wastewater sample  
136 treatments to isolate MPs due to the density of cellulose, which is very

137 similar to that of certain plastic polymers. Ivleva (2021) in a review of  
138 current analytical methods, recommends avoiding misidentification errors  
139 and strongly recommends including the cellulose spectrum, which is  
140 named as a typical matrix component. These statements demonstrate the  
141 need to remove cellulose before starting the detection, quantification and  
142 identification process.

143 The abundance of cellulose materials makes them possible to become  
144 "false positives" for microplastics. The elimination of cellulose from rich  
145 organic samples could offer more significant and real values of the amount  
146 of MPs entering the treatment plant and being removed before any  
147 treatment. The aim of the present study is the optimisation of cellulose  
148 removal in water and sludge samples, improving the detection,  
149 quantification, and identification of MPs.

150

## 151 **2. Materials and methods**

152 This section will refer to sampling, reagents and chemical products  
153 used, sample processing, method validation and sample characterization.

### 154 **2.1. Sampling**

155 Wastewater and sludge samples were collected in the influent of an  
156 urban WWTP located in Medina Sidonia, a Spanish municipality situated  
157 in Cadiz, Andalusia. According to the Spanish National Institute of  
158 Statistics (SNIS, 2021), the municipality had 11,773 inhabitants in 2020,

159 but the plant is capable of treating the wastewater of a population of 17,599  
160 equivalent inhabitants and can process a flow rate of up to 2,223 m<sup>3</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>.

161 There are two treatment lines: water and sludge. As at the majority of  
162 the existing WWTPs in Spain, the water line of the plant consists of  
163 primary and secondary treatment made up of the following units: a)  
164 Primary treatment with a coarse and fine screening unit and a de-gritting  
165 and degreasing system and b) The secondary treatment consists in an  
166 extended aeration biological reactor and secondary settling.

167 The effluent from Medina Sidonia WWTP discharges into the Sattillo  
168 stream and complies with European regulations (Directive 91/271/EEC)  
169 and its transposition into Spanish law (Royal Decree-Law 11/1995), which  
170 establishes the regulations applicable to the treatment of municipal  
171 wastewater.

172 The WWTP also has a sludge line, which consists of thickening the  
173 sludge before it is dewatered to a dryness of more than 60%. The sludge  
174 line is equipped with a deodorisation system using activated carbon  
175 filtration. The sludge from this sewage treatment plant is collected by a  
176 soil amendment company.

177 The characteristics of the urban wastewater of the WWTP of Medina  
178 Sidonia have been collected in several publications by the authors (Egea-  
179 Corbacho et al., 2019a, 2019b, 2019c). The specific characteristics of these  
180 samples are shown in Table 1.

181 Table 1. Characterization of the Medina Sidonia WWTP.



	pH (pH units)	Conductivity ( $\mu\text{S cm}^{-1}$ )	TOC ( $\text{mg L}^{-1}$ )	NT ( $\text{mg L}^{-1}$ )	COD ( $\text{mg L}^{-1}$ )
Influent	7.67 ( $\pm 0.15$ )	1465 ( $\pm 352$ )	137.71 ( $\pm 63$ )	51.10 ( $\pm 12.19$ )	597.92 ( $\pm 112.31$ )
Effluent	7.79 ( $\pm 0.15$ )	1048 ( $\pm 9$ )	20.14 ( $\pm 2.57$ )	3.75 ( $\pm 0.55$ )	166.99 ( $\pm 71.31$ )

182

## 183 **2.2. Reagents and chemical products used**

184 The pure urea pearls, extra-pure sodium hydroxide and extra-pure  
 185 sodium chloride were provided by Scharlau (Barcelona, Spain). Iron II  
 186 sulphate 7-hydrate purissimum, hydrogen peroxide 30% v/v and thiourea  
 187 were supplied by Panreac (Barcelona, Spain). Filters (0.8  $\mu\text{m}$   
 188 polycarbonate filters PC membrane 47 mm) were purchased from  
 189 Isopore<sup>TM</sup> (Darmstadt, Germany).

## 190 **2.3. Sample processing and method validation**

192 Two litres of untreated wastewater were filtered through three stainless  
 193 sieves of 1000, 355 and 100  $\mu\text{m}$ . From previous experience with the  
 194 different WWTP samples that have been taken, most of the cellulose  
 195 accumulates on the 100  $\mu\text{m}$  sieve. Therefore, the 100  $\mu\text{m}$  sieve was chosen  
 196 to carry out the experiments of this study. The solid fraction was collected  
 197 with ultrapure water into a beaker. The same sample was prepared in  
 198 triplicate and was left to dry in the oven at 70 °C. The samples were  
 199 covered with aluminium foil to avoid external contamination.

200 To validate the method, three replicates of synthetic samples were  
 201 made with a known amount of cellulose and MPs, in ultra-pure water. In  
 202 this way, the effectiveness of the method could be known. This allows the  
 203 efficacy of the UTS treatment to be determined at each stage by taking into

204 account the percentage of cellulose removal. Furthermore, by knowing the  
205 type and quantity of MPs added, it could be determined whether they are  
206 affected by the different UTS treatment steps. For the analysis, beakers  
207 with a known amount of cellulose and MPs were weighed. Subsequently,  
208 they were dried at 70 °C for 24 h. Once the sample had been tempered, it  
209 was weighed again to determine the dry weight of previous cellulose.

210 In the case of the sludge, 16 g were weighed and then passed through  
211 the 355 and 100 µm sieve. The 100 µm sieve was also used for the study.  
212 This fraction was collected in a beaker and placed in the oven at 70 °C. As  
213 with the water samples, they were covered with aluminium foil to avoid  
214 external contamination. The samples were prepared in triplicate.

215 To remove the cellulose, 40 mL of a solution of urea 8%, sodium  
216 hydroxide 8% and thiourea 6.5% (by weight) were added for every 100  
217 mg of dry sample. The method is called UTS because of the acronym of  
218 its reagents (Urea/Thiourea/Sodium Hydroxide). The beakers were placed  
219 in the freezer at minus 20 °C for 40 min and were then placed in agitation  
220 until they reached room temperature. After that, the samples were passed  
221 through a 53 µm mesh sieve. They were washed 15 times with 30 mL of  
222 ultra-pure water. Finally, the samples were recovered in the same beakers  
223 and the previous drying procedure was repeated. This method has been  
224 adapted from Olsen et al. (2020).

225 Once the samples were dry, the wet peroxide oxidation (WPO) of the  
226 organic matter was performed. According to Masura et al. (2015), in order  
227 to oxidise organic matter, 20 mL of 0.05 M iron sulphate solution and 20

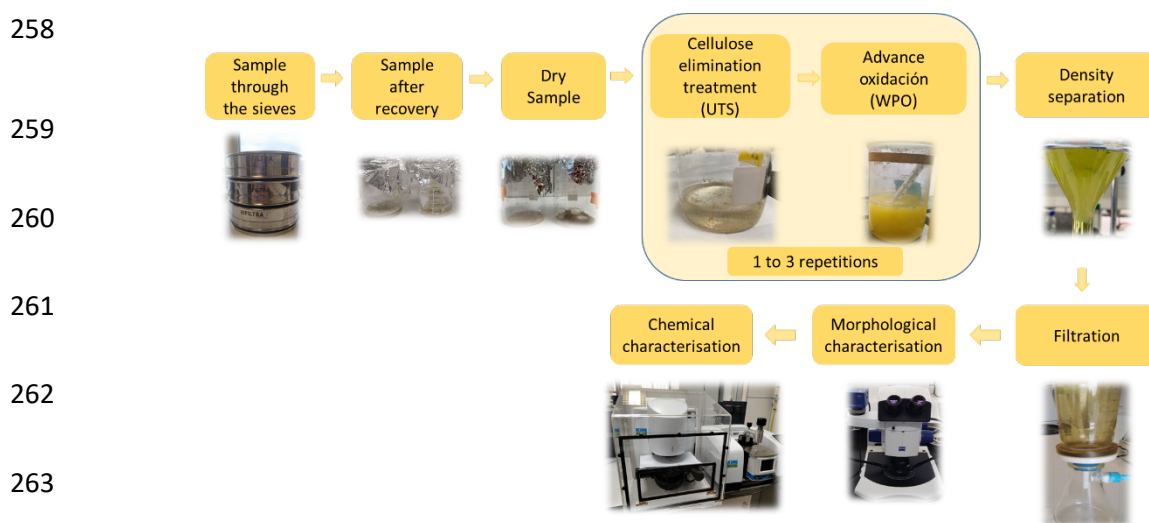
228 mL of 30% v/v hydrogen peroxide were added to the samples and stirred  
229 at 200 rpm and 75 °C for 30 min. Then they were passed through the sieve,  
230 washed with ultra-pure water and left to dry again. The whole procedure  
231 could be repeated from 1 to 3 times depending on the cellulose and organic  
232 matter content. The synthetic samples were treated in the same way as the  
233 wastewater samples.

234 In the specific case of sewage sludge, the process was carried out in  
235 reverse, starting the process with the WPO method previously described.  
236 After that, the samples were filtered through 0.53 µm mesh sieve to  
237 remove excess reagents, collecting the samples in the same way as  
238 described for wastewater. This was followed by UTS treatment described  
239 above.

240 In summary, for wastewater, the UTS treatment of removal cellulose  
241 is carried out first followed by WPO whereas for sludge samples the  
242 method is in reverse. This is due to the high amount of organic matter in  
243 the sludge, which would make the first UTS treatment more difficult and  
244 less effective.

245 Once the process was finished, density separation was carried out to  
246 isolate MPs from the rest of the particles retained within the samples and  
247 that might remain in the medium. For this purpose, 20 mL of 5 M sodium  
248 chloride solution was added for each 20 mL of sample. They were left in  
249 the decantation funnel overnight. The decanted material was discarded and  
250 the supernatant was filtered with vacuum filtration equipment through 0.8  
251 µm polycarbonate filters. Once the samples were filtered, the filters were

252 left to dry for 2 h at 40 °C and observed under a Carl Zeiss Axio Imager  
253 M1m binocular magnifying lens for the quantification of the MPs. FTIR  
254 analysis was carried out after each step in order to check changes in the  
255 estructura and composition of the MPs in the blank samples. Fig. 1 shows  
256 an overview of the analysis process in wastewater samples, the treatment  
257 for sludge is the same but the UTS and WPO steps are reversed.



264 Fig. 1. Overview of the analysis process in wastewater samples. Sludge samples  
265 have the UTS and WPO treatments at reverse.

## 266 2.4. Sample characterisation

267 After the treatment of the samples, the microparticles were  
268 differentiated according to their morphological and chemical  
269 characteristics. It was necessary to perform an initial count of the  
270 microparticles and differentiate them according to their morphological  
271 characteristics. However, in this step it was not possible to confirm that  
272 they were polymers, therefore they are called microparticles. To  
273 determinate whether the particles are plastics or not, it is required to

274 perform a second analysis of their chemical characteristics and distinguish  
275 between microparticles and MPs.

#### 276 **2.4.1. Morphological characterisation**

277 In order to monitor the effect of each of the UTS and WPO treatment  
278 replicates on the samples, photographs were taken of each of them. For  
279 this purpose, it was use a Carl Zeiss Axio Imager M1m optical microscope.

#### 280 **2.4.2. Chemical characterisation**

281 Chemical characterisation was performed according to spectroscopic  
282 methods used to identify the types of polymers in the collected samples  
283 employing a PerkinElmer Spectrum 100 Fourier Transform Infrared  
284 Spectroscopy (ATR-FTIR) in total attenuated reflection mode, in order to  
285 control whether the MPs added to the synthetic samples had been degraded  
286 during the different UTS and WPO treatment replicates.

287 To determine the composition of the MPs, the particles were exposed  
288 to infrared radiation (Sun et al., 2019), generating a particle-specific  
289 spectrum based on the chemical bonds between the atoms. The resulting  
290 spectrum was analysed using the characteristic spectrum compared to the  
291 polymer spectrum library of the reference. This library had previously  
292 been created with the pure polymer used as a reference.

### 293 **3. Results and discussion**

294 The proposed method is an enzyme-free digestion for the dissolution  
295 of cellulose and chitin. Based on existing methods to dissolve cellulosic  
296 materials (Hu et al., 2007; Jin et al., 2007; Yan et al., 2007; Olsen et al.,

297 2020). The three synthetic replicates of cellulose and microplastic samples  
 298 were tested with different repetitions of the same UTS treatment to remove  
 299 cellulose, with one repetition for replicate 1 (R1), two repetitions for  
 300 replicate 2 (R2) and three repetitions for replicate 3 (R3). R1 was  
 301 processed with a UTS treatment and WPO, R2 was treated with UTS and  
 302 WPO twice, and finally, R3 was pre-treated three times with UTS and  
 303 WPO. After each UTS and WPO treatment step, the samples were dried  
 304 and weighed to record the cellulose removal, by weight, for each sample.  
 305 A known weight of cellulose and 15 visual MPs between 1000 and 500  
 306  $\mu\text{m}$  were added to the control cellulose samples (R1, R2 and R3). Table 2  
 307 shows the percentages of cellulose removal for each of the replicates for  
 308 the different UTS and WPO treatment steps and repetitions.

309 Table 2. Monitoring of the mass loss of the synthetic samples after each step of the  
 310 treatment procedure.

	First repetition		Second repetition		Third repetition	
	% elimination w/ UTS	% elimination w/ WPO	% elimination w/ UTS	% elimination w/ WPO	% elimination w/ UTS	% elimination w/ WPO
<b>R1</b>	27.3	*	-	-	-	-
<b>R2</b>	26.3	40.7	97.6	*	-	-
<b>R3</b>	28.6	41.9	97.3	97.5	98.2	*

311 \* The treatment was carried out but not weighed as it had been filtered directly for  
 312 analysis.

313 As shown in Table 2, for the synthetic samples (cellulose, MPs, and  
 314 ultra-pure water), with a single repetition of the complete treatment (UTS  
 315 and WPO), an average of 41.3% ( $\pm 0.8$ ) was obtained. After the second  
 316 treatment replicate step UTS and WPO, a cellulose removal of 97.5 –

317 97.6% was observed, so that two replicates were accepted as the optimal  
318 number of replicates to successfully remove most of the cellulose present  
319 in the samples. The trade-off between time invested, reagent consumption  
320 and treatment efficacy indicates that the third repetition is not really  
321 necessary. This can be skipped as it does not provide much variation on  
322 the results in cellulose removal treatment. After the end of the treatment  
323 for each of the synthetic replicates, a count of the MPs present in each  
324 replicate was made to ensure that there had been no losses during the  
325 different stages. Corradini et al. (2019) show how organic matter affected  
326 the recovery rate of each polymer. With the proposed method adapted from  
327 Olsen et al. (2020), a large part of these interferences by organic matter in  
328 the samples and by cellulose in particular in the samples from the different  
329 treatment stages of the wastewater treatment plants would be eliminated.

330 Other potential methods for organic matter removal are derived from  
331 existing studies that extract MPs from biota. Acid digests, such as  
332 hydrochloric acid (HCl) and nitric acid (HNO<sub>3</sub>), have been shown to be  
333 very effective in destroying organic matter, but they also affect MPs  
334 particles, leading to degradation and melting (Hurley et al., 2018). Because  
335 many of the processes are aggressive and can degrade MPs, it is necessary  
336 to know the amount of MPs and the type of polymer (High Density  
337 Polyethylene) in the synthetic sample. Therefore, a count was made after  
338 each of the stages to which the sample was subjected. The number of MPs  
339 counted in replicate 1 was 19, in replicate 2 was 17 and in replicate 3 was  
340 16. The increase in MPs quantified with respect to the initial number may

341 be due to their fragmentation into smaller particles by mechanical actions  
342 during treatment.

343 Different stages of the wastewater treatment plant have a high amount  
344 of organic matter and cellulose. These stages can be the water influent, the  
345 biological reactor or the sludge line. The removal of this organic matter  
346 and cellulose is crucial for proper detection, identification and  
347 quantification. Further research on techniques and/or methods that allow  
348 the separation of MPs from organic matter is certainly a challenge, but is  
349 of great importance to reduce further microplastic contamination when  
350 reused water or sludge is used for soil improvement (Sol et al., 2020).

351 Referring to the above-mentioned, the removal of natural organic  
352 matter (NOM) becomes necessary. Different studies show that, in addition  
353 to the already known organic load in the wastewater, approximately 35%  
354 of the suspended solids in the influent originated from toilet paper (Ruiken  
355 et al., 2013). In wastewater, they have estimated a consumption of about  
356 10 kg y<sup>-1</sup> of toilet paper per person (Ruiken et al., 2013). These same  
357 authors give the example of Waternet in Amsterdam, with a population of  
358 1,200,000 people who are connected to Waternet's WWTPs. This  
359 population discharge 12,000 to 15,000 t y<sup>-1</sup> of toilet paper. The total mass  
360 of suspended solids measured in the influent is 32,000 t y<sup>-1</sup>. This indicates  
361 that approximately 40% of the influent suspended solids could be cellulose  
362 derived from toilet paper and wipes (Ruiken et al., 2013).

363 Furthermore, primary sludge from sewage treatment plants has been  
364 reported to contain a considerable amount of cellulose, about 20%, based



365 on suspended solids (Honda et al., 2002). Cipolletta et al. (2019) stated  
366 that the treated sludge had an average of 87% cellulose, hemicellulose and  
367 lignin content. Ruiken et al. (2013) show values for the cellulose fraction  
368 of 32% and 38% of the organic mass.

369 The removal of natural organic matter in water and sludge samples  
370 from WWTPs must be improved by dissolving cellulose. Many authors  
371 use WPO treatment to remove the organic matter present in this type of  
372 sample (Franco et al., 2020; Magni et al., 2019). However, applying this  
373 type of treatment to samples with a high amount of cellulose is not  
374 sufficient to remove it and, when performing the last step of separation by  
375 density of the microparticles of interest, the cellulose in suspension forms  
376 a matrix that traps these microparticles, preventing them from being  
377 separated from the rest of the solution by density and, therefore, hindering  
378 their recovery and subsequent study by microscopy and FTIR. The  
379 objective is to analyse, quantify and identify MPs in wastewater or sludge  
380 samples after a pre-treatment step that serves to ensure the subsequent  
381 extraction of impurity-free MPs. By using the UTS method it is possible  
382 to reduce almost completely the cellulose residues of the input and sludge  
383 samples.

384 In order to verify that the method worked, it was decided that it should  
385 be carried out on a sample of raw sewage. Three replicates of the  
386 wastewater sample were subjected equally to different numbers of  
387 replicates of the cellulose removal treatment: the first sample was  
388 subjected to only one WPO step (Fig. 2a). The second sample was  
389 subjected to one repetition of the complete treatment (WPO + UTS) (Fig.

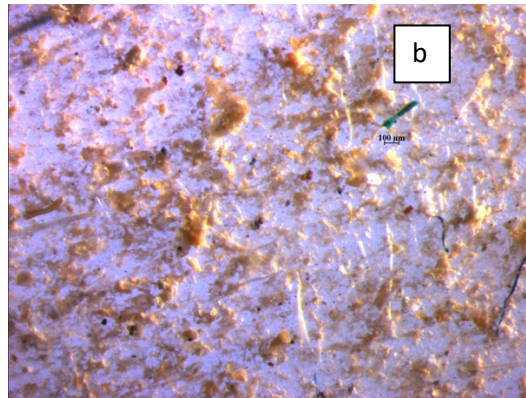
390 2b), while the third sample was subjected to three repetitions (3 WPO + 3  
391 UTS) (Fig. 2c). The aim was to observe the effect of the different treatment  
392 steps on the samples and to compare them with each other. It can be seen  
393 how the different treatment repetitions on the sample remove cellulose and  
394 other organic matter residues, facilitating the subsequent quantification  
395 and classification by shape of the microparticles present. Although three  
396 repetitions of the treatment were carried out for the last replicate, the  
397 results obtained with the synthetic samples of cellulose and MPs allow us  
398 to determine, with only two repetitions, that the elimination of cellulose  
399 would be sufficient. In heavily loaded samples a third repetition may be  
400 necessary.

401       After consecutive repetitions of the treatment, it is possible to observe  
402 the gradual disappearance of the white fibres corresponding to cellulose,  
403 while the microparticles of interest for the analysis remain practically  
404 unaltered. The existence of cellulose in wastewater samples makes the  
405 analysis of MPs as difficult as large amounts of organic matter can be.  
406 Authors such as Lavoy et al. (2021) argue that large concentrations of  
407 organic matter can make it impossible to study wastewater and MPs at  
408 certain stages in WWTPs because, if it is not correctly removed, it can lead  
409 to incorrect counts of the amount of MPs present, either because the  
410 organic matter adheres to them, modifying their density and thus affecting  
411 the separation by density of the treatment, or because it obscures the MPs  
412 themselves when performing the visual count or because it interferes with  
413 the analysis by infrared spectroscopy. Fig. 2 shows the wastewater sample

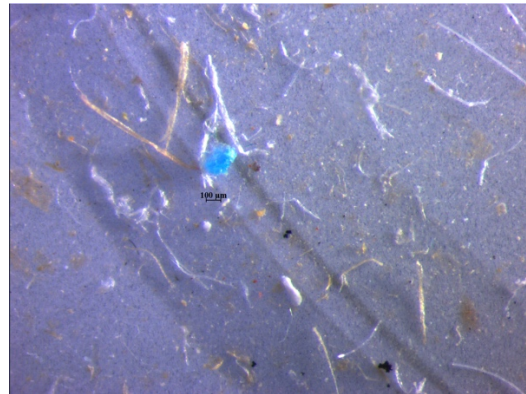
414 and the same sample after repeated treatments under an optical  
415 microscope. A decrease in cellulose is observed in the samples.

416

a

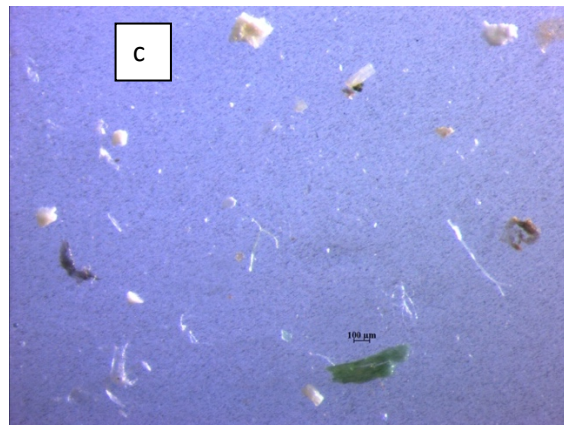


417



418

c



419 Fig. 2. Wastewater sample without treatment to remove cellulose, only with WPO (a), the  
420 same sample after the first UTS treatment and first WPO (b), the same simple after third  
421 UTS treatment and third WPO (c) under optical microscope.

422 As with the water line, the procedure was corroborated for a sludge  
423 sample. For the sludge, the first sample was treated with only one WPO  
424 (Fig. 3a), the second sample with WPO + UTS (Fig. 3b), the third sample  
425 with two cycles of WPO + UTS (Fig. 3c) and finally, the fourth sample  
426 with three cycles of WPO + UTS (Figure 4d).

427 Fig. 3 shows how the cellulose is decreasing in the sample, facilitating  
428 the analysis for the detection, counting and subsequent identification of  
429 MPs. In the case of sludge, it can be seen that 2 treatments of WPO + UTS  
430 could be sufficient (Fig. 3c), with a third treatment being recommended in  
431 order to obtain a clean sample (Fig. 3d).

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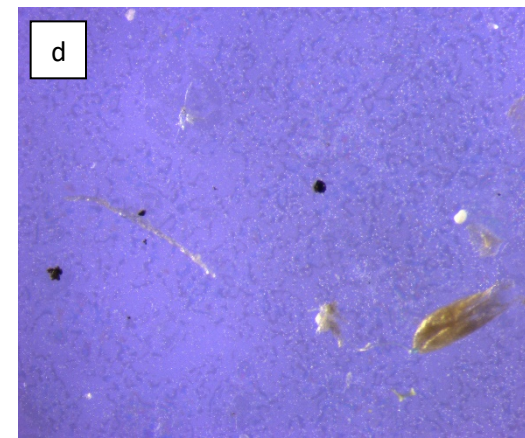
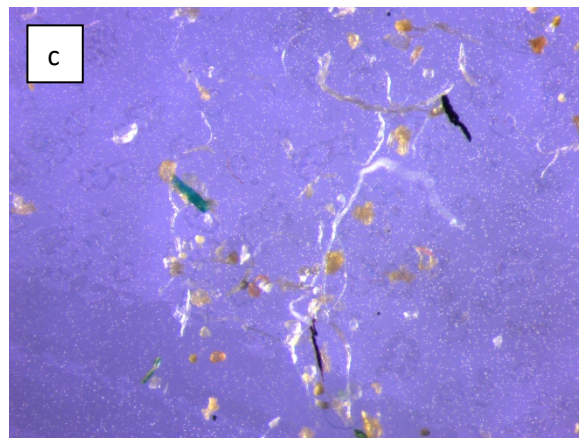
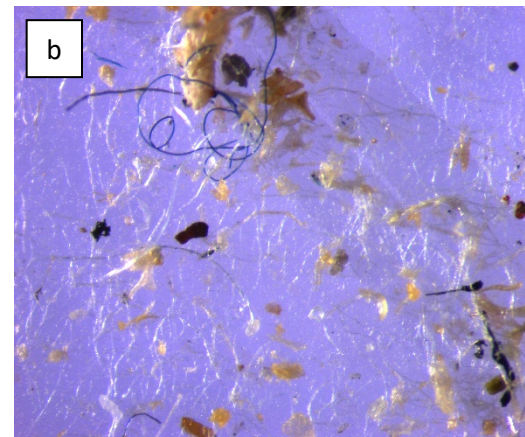
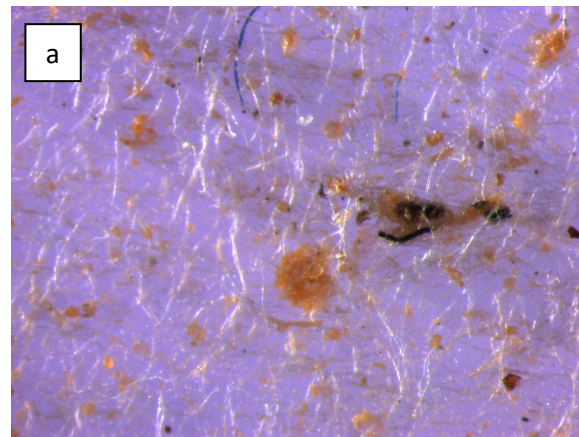
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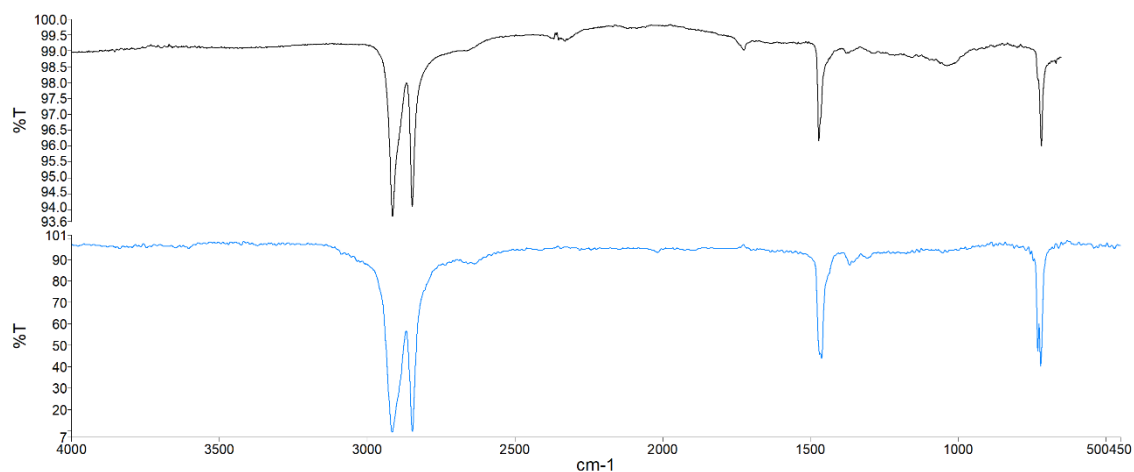
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442 Fig. 3. Sludge sample without treatment to remove cellulose, only with WPO (a),  
443 the second replica of sample with WPO + UTS (b), the third replica of sample with two  
444 cycles of WPO + UTS (c) and the fourth replica of sample with three cycles of WPO +  
445 UTS (d) under optical microscope.

446 Finally, to verify that the treatment of the samples does not imply a  
447 degradation of the plastic materials and that the cellulose does not interfere  
448 with their identification, the MPs of the three synthetic cellulose samples  
449 were analysed by FTIR after treatment. Fig. 4 shows the spectra obtained  
450 by ATR (Attenuated Total Reflectance) after analysing the MPs and  
451 comparing them with a reference library. In all cases analysed, the MPs  
452 were identified as high density polyethylene (HDPE) with correlation  
453 indices higher than 0.97, which shows that the treatment is harmless for  
454 this type of plastic material.



455 Fig. 4. Microplastic spectra acquired with FTIR-ATR from synthetic cellulose  
456 samples. Microplastic sample from R1 (—) and Reference espectre HDPE, High  
457 Density Poly-Ethylene (—).

458 Authors such as Lavoy et al. (2021) have also observed the possibility  
459 that certain polymers may degrade when subjected to treatments with  
460 prolonged digestion or with strong acids or alkalis. The treatment used on

461 these samples avoids long exposure times of the MPs to the reagents used,  
462 thus reducing their potential degradation, as shown in Fig. 4.

463 Once it was known that the method did not affect the synthetic HDPE  
464 polymer that was added to the pure water samples, wastewater and sludge  
465 samples also treated with the method were analyzed. Table 3 shows some  
466 of the particles analyzed, where organic matter, polyethylene (PET),  
467 HDPE, polypropylene (PP), polyethylene (PP) and polyvinyl chloride  
468 (PVC) have been detected. All the polymers had a correlation higher than  
469 0.91 with respect to those of the library used. Fig. 5 shows the spectra for  
470 the different particles analyzed.

471

472

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474 Table 3. Particles analyzed in one of the wastewater samples after application of the  
475 method.

Search Score	Search Best Hit Description	Polymer
0,980613	poly(ethylene terephthalate)	PET
0,954811	high density poly- ethylene	HDPE
0,835022	ricinoleic acid	--
0,918259	polypropylene	PP
0,93204	polyethylene	PE
0,903578	polyvinyl chloride	PVC

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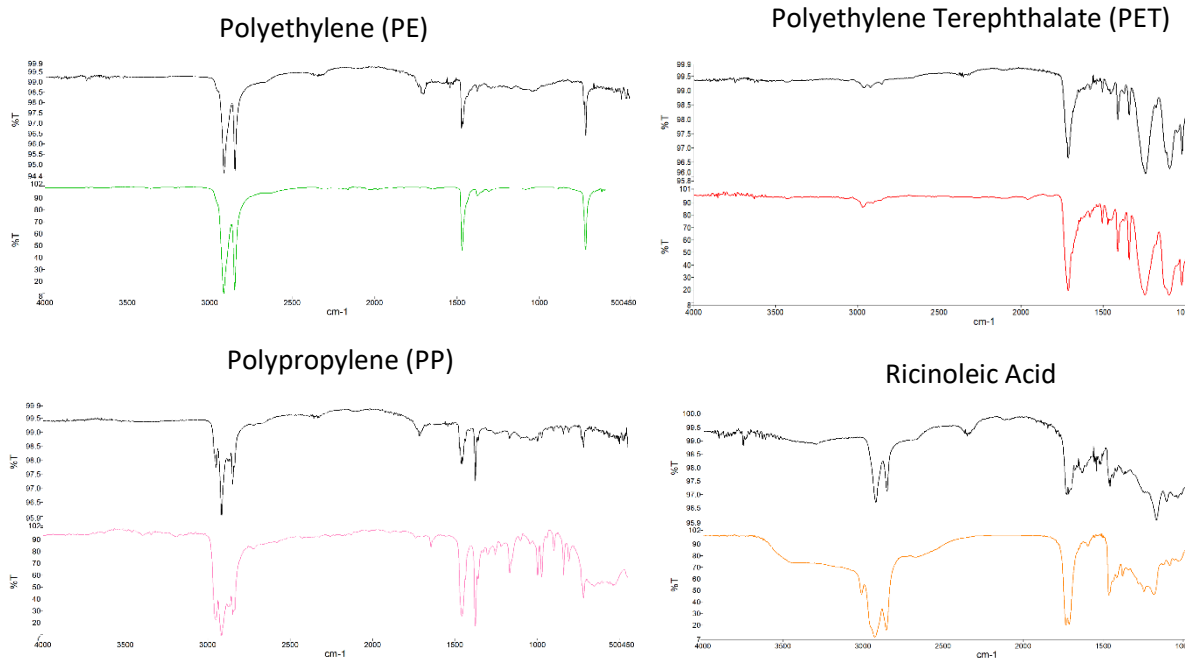
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Fig. 5. Microplastic spectra acquired with FTIR-ATR from real samples.

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Microplastic sample (—) and Reference espectre PolyEthylene (—), PolyEthylene

489

Terephthalate (—), Polypropylene (—) and Ricinoleic Acid (—),

490

Applying the method to all samples the authors have found a high

491

correlation in more than a dozen different polymers. By detecting different

492

polymers with high correlation, it can be stated that the proposed method

493

facilitates the analysis of these polymers.

494

#### 495 **4. Conclusions**

496 The correct and efficient removal of microplastics in different  
497 environmental matrices, and in particular in wastewater and sludge,  
498 depends on the method used. Organic and cellulose impurities make the  
499 detection, quantification and identification of microplastics difficult.

500 - Good visual pre-counting and obtaining a sample with a minimum  
501 of impurities facilitates the processes for the analysis of  
502 microplastics.

503 - The UTS method in combination with the WPO is proposed as a  
504 method for the analysis of microplastics in different matrices where  
505 cellulose and organic matter may cause possible interferences.  
506 Almost complete elimination of the cellulose present in the  
507 samples was achieved from the second repetition of the treatment.

508 - The establishment of a standardized methodology for the  
509 extraction of microplastics in different matrices is essential for  
510 efficient and reliable detection, quantification and identification.

511 Include cellulose removal combined with organic matter removal.

512 There are not many studies on the amount of cellulosic matter in  
513 wastewater and sludge. A study on quantity and how it affects COD is  
514 launched as future lines of research.

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