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1 Occurrence and characteristics of microplastics in soils from
2 greenhouse and open-field cultivation using plastic mulch film

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15 **Abstract**

16 There is a major knowledge gap concerning the extent of microplastic pollution in agronomic
17 regions of China, which represent a plastic use hotspot. In order to clarify the amendment of
18 agronomic region and plastic film mulching mode to microplastics distribution, the characteristics
19 of microplastics distributed in agricultural soils from three typical regions (Beijing (BJ), Shandong
20 (SD), and Xinjiang (XJ)) with two plastic film mulching modes (greenhouse (G) and conventional

21 field-based film mulching (M)) in China were investigated. Microplastics weight and their response
22 to planting regions were also evaluated in this study. The result showed that the average abundance
23 of microplastics in soils from BJ, SD, and XJ was 1.83×10^4 items kg^{-1} , 4.02×10^4 items kg^{-1} and
24 3.39×10^4 items kg^{-1} , and the estimated weight of microplastics per kg of dry soils was 3.12 mg kg^{-1}
25 ¹, 5.63 mg kg^{-1} , and 7.99 mg kg^{-1} , respectively. Microplastics in farmland were mainly of small
26 particle size (50 to 250 μm), with their abundance decreasing with increasing particle size. Among
27 the microplastics detected, polyethylene and polypropylene were the two dominant types present,
28 accounting for 50.0% and 19.7%, respectively. The standard total effect of planting regions on
29 microplastic number and weight was 31.8% and 32.3%, and plastic film mulching modes (G vs. M)
30 could explain 34.4% of the total variation of microplastic compositions with a contribution rate of
31 65.6% in this study. This research provides key data for an assessment of the environmental risk of
32 microplastics and supports the development of guidelines for the sustainable use of agricultural
33 plastic film. Further, it is necessary to quantify and assess the contribution of other different plastic
34 sources to microplastics in soil. Big data technologies or isotope tracer techniques may be promising
35 approaches.

36 **Keywords:** Microplastics, Spatial distribution, Morphology and composition, Plastic mulch film,
37 Planting regions.

38 1 Introduction

39 Microplastic, as an emerging pollutant of global concern, is almost ubiquitous within the
40 atmosphere, water, and terrestrial biosphere (Baho et al., 2021; Hurley et al., 2018; Li et al., 2023).

41 Research related to microplastics has been a rapidly evolving domain; however, previous research

42 mainly focused on microplastic pollution in marine and other aquatic ecosystems (Alimi et al., 2018;
43 Qi et al., 2020). There is increasing evidence that microplastic pollution may pose a major threat to
44 the functioning and sustainability of terrestrial ecosystems (Huang et al., 2020a; Li et al., 2020;
45 Zhou et al., 2021b). Detailly, these microplastics incorporated into soil can increase contact angle
46 and saturated hydraulic conductivity, decrease bulk density and water holding capacity (Yu et al.,
47 2023), and alter bacterial community structure (Li et al., 2023; Zhou et al., 2021a). Microplastics
48 can also be readily absorbed and ingested by keystone organisms, which regulate critical functions
49 within terrestrial ecosystems (Zhou et al., 2021a; Zhou et al., 2020). They can be transported through
50 food webs and into the human food chain (Li et al., 2020; Okeke et al., 2022), where their effects
51 on human health remain uncertain but remain of concern (Kannan and Vimalkumar, 2021; Udovicki
52 et al., 2022). Although investigations on microplastic pollution in terrestrial ecosystems have
53 increased recently, most of them have focused on the environmental hazards of microplastics. Very
54 little work has been done regarding the abundance and composition of microplastics in typical
55 planting region. There is a major knowledge gap concerning the extent of microplastic pollution in
56 agronomic regions of China, which represent a plastic use hotspot.

57 Microplastics enter the terrestrial environment via numerous sources, such as agricultural
58 plastic films (Huang et al., 2020b; Yang et al., 2021b), municipal-derived composts and waste
59 disposal (Sharma et al., 2017), sewage sludge (Corradini et al., 2019), atmospheric deposition (Allen
60 et al., 2019), animal manures/film-coated fertilizer (Weithmann et al., 2018; Yang et al., 2021a;
61 Zhang et al., 2022), and road run-off (Blasing and Amelung, 2018). Of these, agricultural plastic
62 film has been recognized as a dominant source of microplastics entering agricultural soil (Huang et
63 al., 2020b; Khalid et al., 2023). In our previous study, we found that microplastic (particle sizes < 5

64 mm) derived from four types of buried plastic mulching film persisted in agricultural soil for up to
65 2 years (Qi et al., 2021). Various factors, e.g., plastic components, mulching age, film types, tillage,
66 and UV irradiation, caused plastic residues to generate microplastics that accumulated in
67 agricultural soils (Liu et al., 2023; Revell et al., 2021). However, there is a knowledge gap about the
68 macroscopically important effect of planting region and plastic mulching mode on the occurrence
69 and distribution of microplastics. Not yet, evidence could directly reveal the response of
70 microplastic distribution on agronomic regions and plastic mulching modes.

71 Suburbs of Beijing (BJ), intensive agricultural areas of Shandong (SD), and long-term planting
72 regions of Xinjiang (XJ) represent three typical agronomic regions in China in which the application
73 of agricultural plastic film is commonplace, quantification and assessment of microplastic pollution
74 in the actual soil environment are in breach. We hypothesize that the abundance and composition of
75 microplastics in farmland significantly depend on planting regions and mulching modes. To test this
76 hypothesis, we detected the abundance, size, morphology, and compositions of microplastics present
77 in soils from these distinct planting regions and under two modes of plastic use, namely greenhouse
78 (G) and field mulching (M) conditions, aiming to reveal the total effects of planting regions and
79 mulching modes on microplastic distribution in the typical agronomic regions. We used this
80 information to assess the sources and possible implication of microplastic contamination in
81 farmland. The effects of agricultural activities in different regions on the abundance and
82 morphological characteristics of soil microplastics are also discussed and evaluated, providing data
83 to support further research on pollution by legacy plastic in farmland.

84 2 Materials and Methods

85 2.1 Test sites and sample collection

86 The experimental sites involved in the study were located in Beijing (BJ, 40°05'N, 116°54'E,
87 including the experimental center for the Institute of Agricultural Environment and Sustainable
88 Development, Shunyi, Chinese Academy of Agricultural Sciences), Shandong Province (SD,
89 36°26'N~37°20'N, 116°29'E~120°03'E, including the intensive agricultural areas in Qingdao,
90 Dezhou, and Shouguang city), and Xinjiang Uygur Autonomous Region (hereinafter referred to as
91 Xinjiang, XJ, 40°35'N~46°72'N, 81°15'E~87°19'E, including the agricultural planting areas with
92 long-term mulching in Changji city, Tacheng District, Alar, Kuitun, and Kanas). In detail, the site
93 of Beijing has a temperate monsoon climate with an annual average temperature of 10-12°C and a
94 mean annual precipitation of 644 mm. The region surrounding Shandong has a warm temperate
95 monsoon climate with an annual average temperature of 11-14°C and a mean annual precipitation
96 of 650-750 mm. The region surrounding Xinjiang has a temperate continental climate with a larger
97 difference in annual average temperature and a mean annual precipitation of 150 mm.

98 A total of 45 sampling sites covered with plastic film for more than 10 years were selected in
99 this study (Fig. 1), including soil samples under two mulching modes: (i) greenhouse cultivation
100 with plastic film mulching used to cover the soil (G), and (ii) conventional film mulching used to
101 cover the soil in open fields (M). Considering the plastic film mulching mode, geographic location,
102 crop types, sown area, yield, and so on, at least three sampling sites of a mulching mode were
103 collected at each planting region. The information on sampling sites was detailed in Table 1S.

104 All soil samples were collected from June to October 2019. For each soil sample, 15 replicate

105 points were randomly selected within each field or greenhouse. Soil was collected from each point
106 with a stainless-steel corer (3 cm in diameter) from the 0-10 cm soil layer. Each soil sample was
107 thoroughly mixed and quartered, then packed into an aluminum box before being brought back to
108 the laboratory. Subsequently, the soil samples were spread out flat on kraft paper in a clean room,
109 air-dried to a constant weight at room temperature, and then stored in an aluminum box for
110 subsequent separation and identification of microplastics.

111 2.2 Protocol for isolation of microplastics in agricultural soil

112 In order to increase the accuracy of image recognition during the detection process,
113 microplastics in soil were allowed to be hierarchically detected by particle size classification (Jia et
114 al., 2022). The soil sample was mixed evenly and then successively sieved through the 5 mm and 2
115 mm stainless steel filter meshes. At this stage, visible plant residues, stones, and other inert material
116 were removed. Microplastics (2000-5000 μm) left on the 2 mm stainless steel filter mesh were
117 selected and photographed to record their number and morphological characteristics.

118 Considering the limitations of instrument resolution and the influence of statistical software
119 noise, we did not perform statistical analysis for microplastics in the size range of 0-50 μm . For the
120 detection of microplastic ranging from 50-2000 μm , techniques using fluorescent staining (Shruti et
121 al., 2022) combined with total reflection Fourier-transform infrared (FTIR) methods were applied.
122 The microplastic isolation protocol allowed the quick and efficient isolation and characterization of
123 the main plastic types present within soil. In order to ensure the effectiveness of separating
124 microplastics from soil, different densities of suspension were used to suspend microplastics step
125 by step in this study (Nuelle et al., 2014; Hurley et al., 2018). The developing details of the isolation

126 protocol were specified in the supplement materials (3 Method section). The major operational steps
127 included: a) preparation of the soil sample; b) density separation; c) removal of impurities; d)
128 microscopic imaging; e) chemical identification; and f) statistical analysis. Initially, 10 g of soil
129 passed through a 2 mm filter mesh was weighed into a clean glass beaker for subsequent isolation
130 protocols. Each soil sample was replicated three times.

131 For density separation, a saturated NaCl solution (1.18 g cm^{-3}) was employed to extract
132 microplastics from the soil. Briefly, 200 ml of NaCl solution was added to the soil sample, and the
133 mixture was stirred at 400 rev min^{-1} for 20 minutes before being left to settle for 24 hours. The
134 supernatant containing the microplastic particles was transferred into a clean beaker. The
135 abovementioned procedures were repeated three times to completely extract plastic from the soil
136 samples. Following a 1-hour period of settling, the supernatants were filtered through a stainless
137 filter with a 48- μm pore size to recover the particles for subsequent removal of impurities.

138 The particles that had been recovered from the stainless filter were transferred into a small
139 glass bottle, to which a 10% NaOH (w/v) solution was added and mixed evenly. After this, the bottle
140 was placed in a water bath (50°C) for 6 hours in order to decompose the organic matter present in
141 the extracts while causing no obvious damage to the microplastics. After the removal of impurities,
142 the particles were rinsed using deionized water and transferred to a clean beaker (about 200 ml of
143 solution containing microplastic).

144 A Nile red solution ($240 \mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$) was then added to the plastic solution at a ratio of 1:2000
145 (Nile red: water), and the particles were left to stain for 30 minutes. Then a 0.2- μm glass fiber filter
146 membrane (diameter: 60 mm) was settled on a vacuum filtration device (inner diameter: 45 mm),
147 and the suspension was filtered through. More than one filter membrane was used for the same

148 sample, so all the microplastics were evenly dispersed on the membrane instead of overlapping each
149 other. To prevent the fluorescence effect of Nile red on the filter membrane, the membrane and
150 vacuum filter device were repeatedly rinsed using deionized water at least three times. Each filter
151 membrane-attached microplastic was then stored in an individual glass culture dish for subsequent
152 observations and assays.

153 Photographs of the plastic particles were taken with a fluorescence microscope (Leica M165
154 FC, Germany) within 24 h of recovery from soil. Five scopes evenly distributed across each filter
155 membrane were selected and photographed under both white light and fluorescence (Ex 450-490
156 nm, Em 500-550 nm). The locations were also marked on the photo for subsequent micro-Fourier
157 Transform Interferometer (μ -FTIR) analysis to identify the composition of the microplastics using
158 attenuated total reflectance (ATR) mode. FTIR, undisturbed by fluorescent signals, was used to
159 identify microplastics based on specific regions in the polymeric functional group (Baruah et al.,
160 2021; Turner and Holmes, 2011). Within the marked locations on each glass fiber filter membrane,
161 suspected plastic particles with distinguishable shapes were found via the microscope attached to a
162 Fourier infrared spectrometer. About 15 individual suspected particles for one soil sample (a total
163 of 719 particles) were identified, whose aim was to correct the data to ensure its accuracy. The μ -
164 FTIR spectrometer (Bruker, Germany) spectra were recorded from wavenumber ranging from 400-
165 4000 cm^{-1} and 64 scans averaged at a resolution of 4 cm^{-1} in this study.

166 In order to reduce contamination from exogenous microplastics (e.g., in the air and from
167 clothing), sample preparation, extraction, and detection were carried out in a clean room, and plastic
168 products were avoided. Cotton test clothes and latex gloves were worn during the experiment. All
169 the glassware and metalware in the experiment were pre-cleaned with deionized water and stored

170 with tin foil when not in use.

171 2.3 Data analysis

172 Fiji ImageJ software was used to automatically count and analyze the morphological
173 characteristics of microplastics in each fluorescence photo. In the process of using ImageJ software
174 (Ferreira et al., 2012), the image was first adjusted to an 8-bit gray scale, and the contrast and
175 threshold of the image were adjusted to ensure that all particle fragments were included as far as
176 possible (all particle sizes larger than 50 μm were included in the calculation).

177 The calculation formula of microplastic content N on each filter is as follows:

$$178 \quad N = n \times \frac{S_1}{S_2 \times 5} \quad (\text{Eqn. 1})$$

179 Where n is the content of microplastics in each fluorescence photograph; S_1 is the total area of the
180 filter membrane, $d = 45 \text{ mm}$, $S_1 = \pi(d/2)^2 = 1589.6 \text{ mm}^2$; and S_2 is the fluorescence photograph area
181 ($S_2 = 4.35 \times 3.27 = 14.22 \text{ mm}^2$). The constant 5 is the number of fluorescence photographs selected
182 on each filter membrane.

183 The abundance of microplastics in soil N is expressed as the number of microplastics per
184 kilogram of dry soil in unit of items kg^{-1} . The weight of microplastics in soils was calculated by the
185 following formula:

$$186 \quad W = A \times h \times \rho \times N \quad (\text{Eqn. 2})$$

187 The weight of microplastics in soils W is expressed as mg microplastic per kilogram of dry soil
188 (mg kg^{-1}), where A is the area of each microplastic detected in this study; h is the thickness of
189 microplastic (set at 0.010 mm); and ρ is the density of microplastic detected in this study (set at 1.00
190 g cm^{-3}). The abundance of microplastics with particle sizes of 2000-5000 μm was the result of visual

191 detection plus fluorescence identification.

192 Excel 2016 and IBM SPSS Statistics 25 (IBM Inc., Chicago, USA) were used to statistically
193 analyze the data, and Duncan's method was used to test for significant differences using $P < 0.05$ as
194 the cutoff for statistical significance. Origin 2021 mapping was used to analyze and fit the
195 abundance and morphological characteristics of microplastics in farmland soil in different mulched
196 areas. A structural equation model was applied to evaluate the total effect of microplastic distribution
197 as amended by planting region and mulching modes. Redundancy analysis (RDA) was used to
198 analyze the relationship between components of microplastic and planting regions as well as
199 mulching modes with Canoco version 5.0.

200 3 Results

201 3.1 Abundance of microplastics in three typical agronomic regions

202 The abundance of microplastics in agricultural soils showed a distinct pattern dependent upon
203 the mulching mode and geographical region we collected (Fig. 2). Overall, the abundance of
204 microplastics in soil under greenhouse cropping was slightly greater (3.60×10^4 items kg^{-1}) than
205 under conventional field-based mulching (3.01×10^4 items kg^{-1}), however, this proved to be non-
206 significant (Table 2S, $P > 0.05$). The abundance of microplastics in Beijing suburban soils under
207 both greenhouse and field mulching was 1.82×10^4 items kg^{-1} and 1.83×10^4 items kg^{-1} , respectively.
208 In SD sites, the abundance of microplastic in intensive agricultural areas was 4.83×10^4 items kg^{-1}
209 and 3.49×10^4 items kg^{-1} under greenhouse and field-based mulching, respectively. In XJ,
210 microplastic abundance in the long-term planting area was 3.43×10^4 items kg^{-1} and 3.32×10^4 items

211 kg⁻¹ under greenhouse and field-based mulching, respectively. For three typical regions, the average
212 abundance of microplastics in soils from Shandong (4.02×10^4 items kg⁻¹) and Xinjiang province
213 (3.39×10^4 items kg⁻¹) was significantly ($P < 0.05$) higher than that from Beijing (1.83×10^4 items kg⁻¹).
214

215 A two-way ANOVA analysis (Table 2S in Supplemental Materials) showed that different
216 mulching modes had no distinct effect on the abundance of microplastics in agricultural soil ($P >$
217 0.05), nevertheless planting regions (BJ, SD, and XJ) had a significant effect on microplastic
218 abundance ($P < 0.05$). The interaction between mulching mode and regional location had no
219 significant effect ($P > 0.05$).

220 3.2 Morphological characteristics of microplastics

221 The morphology of microplastics detected in farmland soil varied among the three mulching
222 modes (Fig. 3); however, there were no significant differences in their area, perimeter, Feret's
223 diameter, or length-width ratio ($P > 0.05$). In detail, the minimum area of microplastics detected
224 was $286.3 \mu\text{m}^2$, and the maximum was $141.6 \times 10^4 \mu\text{m}^2$. The perimeter values ranged from 118.4
225 μm to $1.95 \times 10^4 \mu\text{m}$, while the Feret's diameter ranged from $50.0 \mu\text{m}$ to $3345.6 \mu\text{m}$. It should be
226 noted that we only characterized microplastics with a size larger than $50 \mu\text{m}$ in this study. In addition,
227 the length-width ratio ranged from 1.01 to 87.1, and the proportion of microplastics with circularity
228 and solidity ranged from 0.5 to 1 accounted for 57.8% and 92.7%, respectively (Fig. 1S). The result
229 indicated that most of the detected microplastics were close to round in shape, and that the majority
230 were relatively regular in shape.

231 According to particle size, the detected microplastic in this study were divided into 6 grades:

232 Class1 (50-100 μm), Class2 (100-250 μm), Class3 (250-500 μm), Class4 (500-1000 μm), Class5
233 (1000-2000 μm), Class6 (2000-5000 μm). The distribution of microplastics with different grades of
234 particle size is shown in Fig. 4A-C. Microplastics with the small size at Class1 (50-100 μm) and
235 Class2 (100-250 μm) accounted for about 80% of the total, and the microplastic abundance all
236 decreased with the increasing particle size in the three planting regions (Fig 4A-C). The proportions
237 of six grades of microplastics in G mode were 49.4%, 31.8%, 9.7%, 5.4%, 2.9%, and 0.7%,
238 respectively; in M mode, they were 44.7%, 37.7%, 9.2%, 4.8%, 3.1%, and 0.5%, respectively. Both
239 in the two mulching modes (G and M), the microplastic abundance also decreased with increasing
240 particle size (Fig. 2S). There was an order-of-magnitude difference between the abundance of
241 microplastics with particle sizes of 50-2000 μm and $> 2000 \mu\text{m}$ in the same soil sample.

242 A two-way ANOVA analysis showed that the two contrasting mulching modes had no
243 significant effect on the distribution of microplastic particle size (Table 2S, $P > 0.05$). While the
244 distribution of microplastics with a particle size ranging from 100 μm to 250 μm and 500 μm to
245 1000 μm was significantly different ($P < 0.05$) in the different planting regions (BJ, SD, and XJ).
246 The proportion of microplastics with a particle size ranging from 100 μm to 250 μm in SD (41.9%)
247 was significantly higher than that in BJ (31.1%) and XJ (31.6%). The trend of microplastic
248 distribution in the size range 500-1000 μm in different planting regions was XJ > BJ > SD, and XJ
249 was significantly higher than SD ($P < 0.05$). The interaction of mulching mode and planting region
250 had significant effects on the distribution of microplastics with particle sizes of 50-100 μm and 100-
251 250 μm ($P < 0.05$).

252 In order to better assess the risk of microplastics, their weight was estimated in this study based
253 on the number and morphological characteristics (i.e., area, circularity, and solidity) of microplastics

254 detected above. The reason for this was that the weight concentration of microplastics was often
255 used in toxicological experiments. Microplastic weight all decreased with increasing particle size in
256 the three agronomic regions (BJ, SD, and XJ), with each having a similar trend with the proportion
257 of microplastic size (Fig 4D-F). The average weight of microplastics on a per kg dry soil basis in
258 the three regions was 3.12 mg kg⁻¹, 5.63 mg kg⁻¹, and 7.99 mg kg⁻¹, respectively, increasing in the
259 order BJ < SD < XJ. Further, the microplastic weight in XJ was significantly higher than that in BJ.
260 Nevertheless, a two-way ANOVA showed that planting region and mulching mode, as well as their
261 interaction, had no significant effect on microplastic weight (Table 2S, $P > 0.05$).

262 3.3 Microplastics components detected by μ -FTIR with ATR mode

263 In total, 210 unquestionable microplastics from all the detected particles were selected and
264 characterized using μ -FTIR to analyze their composition. In summary, six plastic types were found
265 amongst the samples (Fig. 5A-C), namely polyethylene (PE), polypropylene (PP), polystyrene (PS),
266 polyamide (PA), urea-formaldehyde resins (UF), and other (Polyoxymethylene(Polyformaldehyde),
267 POM), with the numbers of 105, 41, 3, 29, 31, and 1, respectively (Fig. 5A). Therefore, PE and PP
268 represented the two dominant plastic types, accounting for 50.0% and 19.5% of all the particles
269 analyzed, followed by UF and PA, accounting for 14.8% and 13.8%, respectively.

270 Regardless of the differences among regions (Fig. 5B), the dominant type of microplastic in G
271 mode was PP, accounting for 37.0%, and PE in M mode, accounting for 63.4%. PP and PS in G
272 mode were significantly ($P < 0.05$) higher, while PE and POM were significantly ($P < 0.05$) lower
273 than those in M mode, respectively. There was no significant difference in the proportion of PA and
274 UF microplastics between the two mulching modes ($P > 0.05$). Regardless of the two mulching

275 modes' differences (Fig. 5C), PE was the dominant plastic type in Beijing, Shandong, and Xinjiang,
276 accounting for 53.5%, 47.9%, and 48.2%, respectively, and that in Beijing was significantly higher
277 than that in Shandong and Xinjiang ($P < 0.05$). However, there was no significant difference in PE
278 microplastic proportion in Shandong and Xinjiang ($P > 0.05$). The proportions of PP and PS in the
279 three planting regions were distinctly different, following the order SD > XJ > BJ. Similar to PE,
280 PA in Beijing was 21.2% ($P < 0.05$), significantly higher than those in Shandong (10.7%) and
281 Xinjiang (11.6%). UF in Beijing and Xinjiang were 16.2% and 16.2%, respectively, significantly
282 higher than those in Shandong (12.1%). Contrary to PP and PS, POM was significantly different,
283 following the order BJ > XJ > SD ($P < 0.05$).

284 3.4 Effect of plastic mulching modes and planting regions on microplastic distribution

285 A structural equation model and RDA analysis were used to evaluate the response of
286 microplastic distribution (i.e., abundance and morphological characteristics) and components on
287 plastic mulching modes and planting regions. Overall, the abundance of microplastic in agricultural
288 soils was significantly dependent on planting region, while the microplastic component was
289 significantly determined by mulching mode (Fig. 6A-D). Detailly, the planting region directedly
290 affected the number and area of microplastic with an estimate coefficient of 0.32 and 0.19,
291 respectively, and then indirectly affected the microplastic weight with an estimate coefficient of 0.48
292 and 0.88, respectively (Fig. 6A). The standard total effects of planting regions on number, area, and
293 weight were 31.8%, 19.4%, and 32.3% (Fig. 6B, $P < 0.05$). Notably, the regression result showed
294 that Feret's diameter was another important factor that dominated the weight of microplastics (Fig.
295 6A-B), which was not negligible in the detection of microplastics.

296 RDA showed that the explanatory variables, including plastic mulching modes and planting
297 regions, accounted for 52.4% of the total variation of microplastic compositions, and the dominant
298 types of microplastic, PP and PE, were significantly positively associated with G and M modes,
299 respectively (Fig 6C, $P < 0.05$). Further Interactive-forward-selection analysis showed that
300 mulching modes (G and M) significantly affect the microplastic composition and could explain 34.4%
301 of their total variation with a contribution rate of 65.6% (Table 3S in Supplemental Material). The
302 microplastic types of samples under the two mulching modes were relatively clustered together in
303 their respective groups (Fig. 6D, explanatory variables accounted for 13.78% of the total variation
304 in this mode, $P < 0.05$), while there was no cluster in three typical regions. This was also confirmed
305 by the result of the two-way ANOVA mentioned above.

306 4 Discussion

307 4.1 Distribution of microplastics in farmland

308 Microplastics were found in all 45 soil samples studied here. The spatial distribution of
309 microplastics showed distinct patterns in our agricultural soils caused by geographical location and
310 modes of mulching. Plastic films used to construct greenhouses combined with the use of
311 conventional plastic mulching film (G mode) represent a common agronomic practice in China (Yu
312 et al., 2021). It is a dominant factor resulting in the accumulation of microplastic in soils under this
313 farming practice being significantly higher than under conventional open field-based plastic film
314 mulching (M mode) in SD and XJ. Another notable phenomenon in Beijing was that microplastic
315 abundance in M mode was higher than that in G mode. We attributed this finding to the samples

316 collected in these urbanized farmland areas being nearer to roads (Fig. 1), leading to microplastic
317 contamination associated with road traffic (e.g., more POM microplastics occurred). Which could
318 be confirmed by the fact that microplastics were detected in road dust worldwide due to plastic litter
319 fragmentation and vehicle tire abrasion (Blasing and Amelung, 2018; Myszka et al., 2023).
320 Statistically, it has been shown that microplastic abundance was highest in intensive farming regions,
321 followed by suburban farmland, and lowest in less intensive agricultural soil (Yang and He, 2021).
322 In this research, microplastic abundance increased in the intensive farming regions of Shandong
323 province, followed by the long-term agricultural region of Xinjiang, with the last being the suburban
324 regions of Beijing. The farmland in Xinjiang province has been mulched with agricultural film for
325 a long time, to the extent that excessive plastic film residues have visibly accumulated in these soils
326 (Hu et al., 2021). This was the reason why the result had a discrepant trend from the abovementioned.
327 Additionally, microplastic weight was in the order of BJ < SD < XJ, which was different from the
328 trend of microplastic number (BJ < XJ < SD), because the microplastics in Xinjiang are relatively
329 large on the whole (Fig. 3A and Fig. 4A-B).

330 In our study, the abundance of microplastic in agricultural soils from the largest vegetable
331 production base was 4.83×10^4 items kg^{-1} (G-SD), significantly higher than that reported by Yu et al.
332 (2021), where the abundance ranged from 310 to 5698 items kg^{-1} . One thing is certain, different
333 separation methods for extracting microplastic from soil severely affect the abundance and spatial
334 distributions, which cause the distinct results. Different statistical techniques (e.g., differentiated
335 units expressed microplastic abundance) may also bring difficulties when comparing results from
336 different studies, resulting in problems with statistical analysis of disparate datasets (Jia et al., 2022).
337 For example, the abundance of microplastics in soil determined by density suspension combined

338 with the heating method ranged from 5.80×10^2 to 1.19×10^4 pieces kg^{-1} in long-term mulched
339 farmland in Gansu and northern Shaanxi (Cheng et al., 2020). The concentration of MPs in
340 agricultural soil in Shaanxi Province ranged from 1.43×10^3 to 3.41×10^3 items kg^{-1} detected by the
341 density fraction method (Ding et al., 2020). While the number of microplastics obtained from the
342 soils using continuous air flotation followed by density separation was 571 pieces kg^{-1} and 263
343 pieces kg^{-1} in mulching and non-mulching soils on the coastal plain of Hangzhou Bay, respectively
344 (Zhou et al., 2019). In the case of a low-density suspension for extracting microplastics, it will also
345 inevitably underestimate the abundance of microplastics with a high density.

346 We found that microplastics recovered in the three planting regions mainly possessed small
347 particle sizes within the range of 50-100 μm and 100-250 μm . Further, their abundance gradually
348 decreased with increasing particle size, which was consistent with the previous study (Cheng et al.,
349 2020). Microplastics in coastal soils adjacent to the Bohai Sea and the Yellow Sea were also
350 dominated by small particle sizes, with ca. 60% of the soil microplastics having a size range of < 1
351 mm (Zhou et al., 2018). The microplastics with a size larger than 2000 μm , including those manually
352 selected and identified by fluorescence microscopy, were analyzed in this study. There was an order-
353 of-magnitude difference between the abundance of all microplastics with particle sizes of 50-2000
354 μm and $> 2000 \mu\text{m}$ in the same soil sample, which was consistent with the result by Jia et al. (2022),
355 who reported microplastics with smaller sizes (10-500 μm) accounted for 96.5%–99.9% in
356 agricultural soil in Xinjiang. Lately, microplastics in 1-1000 μm size range were defined as a new
357 classification by Hartmann et al. (2019), which may be more likely to be transmitted or
358 absorption/desorption toxic pollutants (i.e., heavy metal) (Khalid et al., 2021), or even absorbed by
359 organisms (Li et al., 2020), posing an aggravated threat to the agroecosystems (Chen et al., 2023).

360 Therefore, more attention should be paid to the toxicity of microplastics with small sizes (including
361 nanoplastics) in the future.

362 4.2 Sources of microplastics in farmland

363 The different shapes and compositions of microplastics were expected to be closely related to
364 their sources, such as greenhouse plastic covers, mulch film, packaging bags, manure or film-
365 coating fertilizer, etc. In our study, the microplastic components identified by μ -FTIR included PE,
366 PP, PS, PA, UF, and POM. Of these, PE and PP represented the two dominant microplastic types,
367 which was consistent with the results of Liu et al. (2018). PE microplastics widely exist in
368 agronomic regions, maybe due to their predominance within mulching film, packaging bags,
369 irrigation pipes, farm implements, etc. On the whole, the abundance of PE microplastics in soil was
370 related to farmland mulched with PE plastic film for a long time, this was consistent with the result
371 of Hu et al., who indicated that microplastics in Xinjiang cotton fields were mainly PE components
372 (Hu et al., 2021). PP may be derived from greenhouse film, agricultural drain pipe, strapping rope,
373 farm implements, and beverage bottles (Ding et al., 2020). PP microplastic in G mode possessed a
374 larger proportion than that in M mode, owing to PP being the major component of greenhouse plastic
375 film. PA is mainly used as nylon, industrial cloth, medical appliances, knitwear, fishing nets,
376 fertilizer, and pesticide bags, which are widely used in agricultural production. As the main
377 component of coated-fertilizer, UF is widely used in farmland soil, representing a major source of
378 microplastic in agricultural soils. PS is often used in the production of lamp-chimneys, electrical
379 devices, packaging, etc., which are generally present in greenhouses. Therefore, this may be the
380 reason why more PS microplastic accumulated in G mode than in M mode. POM was mainly used

381 in parts of apparatus (such as wear-resisting parts, instrument boards, machine tools, gears, and other
382 automotive parts); more vehicles and large machinery occurred in the suburbs of Beijing and long-
383 term planting regions of Xinjiang, which is the reason for the higher abundance of POM
384 microplastics. This further indicated that the slightly higher microplastic abundance under M mode
385 in Beijing may be related to road traffic. Intensive agricultural areas of Shandong, especially under
386 G mode, almost had no POM microplastics in the soils.

387 In this study, microplastics were mainly white or transparent film with a granular appearance,
388 alongside microplastic fragments of black color and pink fiber particles derived from shed plastic
389 film and conventional film or plastic packaging. The fiber-shaped microplastic may originate from
390 the ropes or cloth strips used to tie vegetables to poles or as a net to allow vines to grow. The wide
391 variety, wide application, and non-degradation of plastics resulted in large amounts of plastic
392 residues (including microplastics and nanoplastics) accumulating in the soil, causing "white
393 pollution" to the environment. Therefore, it is urgent to trace the source of plastic pollution,
394 rationalize the use of plastic, and recycle of plastic waste.

395 4.3 Effects of plastic mulching mode and planting region on microplastics

396 The distinct distribution and characteristics of microplastic were related to planting regions,
397 plastic mulching modes, soil physical and chemical properties, and other environmental factors
398 (such as temperature and wind velocity) to a certain extent (Liu et al., 2023; Revell et al., 2021).
399 Microplastic abundance and morphological characteristics were significantly dependent on planting
400 regions, while microplastic components were dominated by plastic mulching modes. Planting
401 regions significantly affected the abundance of microplastics, and the direct and indirect effects of

402 planting regions on the weight of microplastics reached 32.30%. This could explain the different
403 levels of plastic contamination exemplified in previous studies. Huang et al. (2020b) found a
404 significant linear correlation between the amounts of mulch film use and the film residues in soils
405 in the different regions of China, indicating that the application of agricultural plastic mulch films
406 serves as one of the main sources of film-like MPs with a dominant component of PE in agricultural
407 soils. However, plastic mulching modes had no significant effect on microplastic abundance in
408 farmland; the microplastic pollution could not be simply attributed to the application of plastic
409 mulch film. In our study, plastic mulching modes significantly affected the compositions of
410 microplastics, combined with the contribution of plastic types, this conclusion can provide a
411 reference for covering different mulch films.

412 Otherwise, land utilization type was one of the factors affecting the distribution of soil
413 microplastics (Chen et al., 2022). Agricultural activity, like tillage, fertilization, irrigation, and
414 recycling of plastic mulch film, also greatly affects the distribution of microplastics (Huang et al.,
415 2020b; Zhang et al., 2022). The distribution of microplastic size in the mulched farmland soil in
416 Northwest China was also linearly and negatively correlated with soil depth (Hu et al., 2021).
417 However, issues with this study included a lack of consideration of microplastic distribution in
418 different soil layers. The contribution of other environmental factors and anthropogenic activities to
419 the microplastics distributed in soil needs to be further evaluated.

420 4.4 Perspectives for future soil microplastic research

421 (1) **Establishment of a microplastic database and assessment of pollution levels.** While
422 microplastic contamination in terrestrial ecosystems is being increasingly investigated by

423 researchers, there is a large knowledge gap on the extent to which agricultural soils are affected.
424 Globally, agricultural plastic film represents a dominant source of microplastics in farmland,
425 especially in China. It is necessary to establish a database on the distribution of microplastics in
426 farmland soil, so as to grade and assess the level of microplastic pollution in farmland soil in China.

427 **(2) Tracing and controlling microplastics.** Besides the physical cracking and bio-degradation
428 of plastics (secondary microplastics), microplastics also directly originate from a range of other
429 activities, i.e., primary microplastics, which are specifically produced within a small size for a
430 variety of applications, like cosmetic products or household cleaners. Tracing the source of
431 microplastics will provide a better understanding of the contributors to microplastic pollution and
432 be beneficial to controlling microplastic pollution at the source.

433 **(3) Microplastics and the carbon cycle.** As we know, biodegradable plastic can be utilized by
434 soil microorganisms as a source of carbon, but there is a large knowledge gap in the relationship
435 between microplastic-related carbon mineralization and greenhouse gas emissions. Further, one of
436 the key debates is whether the advantage (e.g., carbon sequestration) of microplastics as carbon
437 sources utilized by soil microorganisms outweighs the contribution of (micro)plastic degradation to
438 carbon emissions. Therefore, revealing the contribution of plastics, even microplastics, to carbon
439 sequestration or greenhouse gas emissions could provide data support for assessing the degradation
440 effects of plastic production in the environment.

441 5 Conclusion

442 In order to reveal the contribution of planting regions and mulching modes to microplastic
443 distribution, the characteristics of microplastics were investigated in greenhouse and open-field

444 cultivation using plastic mulching film from three typical regions in China. Microplastics were
445 readily detected in all 45 soil samples examined in this study. Their abundance, morphology, and
446 composition showed distinct characteristics for each of the three typical mulched agricultural areas
447 of China. Generally, the abundance of microplastics was highest in the Xinjiang long-term planting
448 area, followed by the Shandong intensive planting area, and lowest in the Beijing suburbs. The
449 microplastic particles smaller than 250 μm accounted for 80% of the total recovered, suggesting that
450 smaller-sized microplastics play a dominant role in the three planting regions. The distribution of
451 microplastic size and microplastic weight decreased with increasing particle size. PE and PP were
452 the dominant microplastic types. Otherwise, the distribution of microplastic abundance was
453 significantly responsive to agronomic region, while microplastic composition was significantly
454 dependent on plastic film mulching mode (G vs. M). Microplastic sizes and types were not
455 negligible in the assessment of microplastic pollution. This information provides key data for
456 assessing the environmental risk of microplastics and preventing plastic pollution from agricultural
457 plastic film. In the future, big data technologies or isotope tracer techniques will be considered to
458 quantify and assess the contribution of more different plastic sources to microplastics in soil.

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