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Abstract

Diverting food waste from landfills to composting or anaerobic digestion can reduce greenhouse gas emissions, enable the recovery of energy in usable forms, and create nutrient-rich soil amendments. However, many food waste streams are mixed with plastic packaging, raising concerns that food waste-derived composts and digestates may inadvertently introduce microplastics into agricultural soils. Research on the occurrence of microplastics in food waste-derived soil amendments is in an early phase and the relative importance of this potential pathway of microplastics to agricultural soils needs further clarification. In this paper, we review what is known and what is not known about the abundance of microplastics in composts, digestates and food wastes and their effects on agricultural soils. Additionally, we highlight future research needs and suggest ways to harmonize microplastic abundance and ecotoxicity studies with the design of related policies.

Key Words: microplastic, food waste, compost, digestate, circular economy

1. Introduction

Food waste constitutes approximately a quarter of all material landfilled in the US (USEPA, 2020), and is readily converted to methane—a potent greenhouse gas—under the anaerobic conditions found in landfills (Buzby et al., 2014). Diverting food waste from landfills to anaerobic digestion and composting could reduce methane emissions and enable the recovery of nutrients and energy in usable forms (USEPA, 2021a, 2021b). Both processes produce soil amendments—digestate and compost, respectively—that can be applied to agricultural lands to support soil health and fertility (Cheong et al., 2020; Kelley et al., 2020; Roy, 2017). Anaerobic digestion provides the additional benefit of recovering useable energy from food waste in the form of biogas (Xu et al., 2018). Growing recognition of these co-benefits has prompted recent legislation regarding the diversion of food waste from landfills (Golwala et al., 2021). In the US, this includes the state of Vermont’s *Universal Recycling Law* (2012), which mandated the diversion of all food residuals (including those from households) from landfills in 2020, and California’s *Short-Lived Climate Pollutant Reduction Law* (2016), which requires a 75% reduction in organic material sent to landfills by 2025.

Contamination from plastic packaging is an emerging challenge for food waste diversion initiatives (O’Connor et al., 2022; USEPA, 2021a). The ubiquitous use of plastics in food packaging means that many pre- and post-consumer food waste streams are mixed with plastic packaging (USEPA, 2021a). Substantial fractions of wasted food from industrial and commercial settings can remain packaged for a variety of reasons (e.g., expiration, off-specification, contamination). For example, a study conducted for the US state of Vermont reported that an estimated 38% of food waste in the state was packaged

61 (DSM Environmental Services Inc, 2018). Recovering food waste in these cases requires
62 some form of depackaging, using either mechanical depackagers or human labor, both of
63 which are likely to achieve variable and imperfect separation efficiency (do Carmo Precci
64 Lopes et al., 2019; Edwards et al., 2018). Source-separated post-consumer food waste can
65 also be mixed with mis-sorted plastic packaging, with varying levels of contamination that
66 may be influenced by factors such as population density (Friege and Eger, 2021) or food
67 waste diversion program design (Dai et al., 2016).

68 Despite efforts to separate packaging from food waste streams, early evidence
69 suggests that microplastics (plastic particles <5 mm) may be present in many food waste-
70 derived composts and digestates (**Figure 1**), and could be transferred to agricultural soils
71 when these amendments are land-applied (Kawecki et al., 2020; Weithmann et al., 2018).
72 Microplastics were first reported to be accumulating in the oceans in 2004 (Thompson et
73 al., 2004). In the two decades since, research on microplastics has focused on marine and
74 other aquatic environments, and it was not until 2012 that their presence in terrestrial
75 environments began to receive attention (Rillig, 2012). Since then, the number of studies
76 focusing on terrestrial environments has steadily increased, but still represent a small
77 fraction of all microplastic publications (5% as of 2019) (R. Qi et al., 2020). Previous
78 reviews focused on the abundance and sources of microplastics in soils as well as the
79 challenges of detecting and characterizing microplastics in complex organic matrices (e.g.,
80 J. Li et al., 2020; Ruggero et al., 2020; Sun et al., 2019, 2022; J. Wang et al., 2019; Xu et
81 al. 2020; Y. Zhou et al., 2020; Zhu et al., 2019). Few studies to date have measured the
82 abundance of microplastics in food waste (Golwala et al., 2021), though a recent review
83 includes microplastics among emerging contaminants in food waste-derived composts and

84 digestates (O'Connor et al., 2022). The body of peer-reviewed research on soil-microplastic
85 interaction is still in its infancy as well, but several recent reviews summarize documented
86 effects on soil physical properties, biota and crops (e.g., Iqbal et al., 2020; Ng et al., 2018;
87 R. Qi et al., 2020; J. Wang et al., 2019; Xu et al. 2020; Y. Zhou et al. 2020; Zhu et al.
88 2019). In addition to the potential risks posed to soil-plant systems, plastic contamination
89 can impede circular economy efforts by making composts and digestates less attractive to
90 farmers and consumers (Friege & Eger, 2021; Roy et al., 2021).

91 Despite the lack of scientific consensus on the risks posed by microplastics in soils
92 and the relative input from organic amendments, a growing number of entities have
93 imposed regulatory thresholds for microplastics in composts and digestates (USEPA,
94 2021a). Given the lack of data on the extent, impact, and relative magnitude of microplastic
95 pollution from composts and digestates and absence of standardized methods for measuring
96 microplastics in complex organic materials (USEPA, 2021a), the environmental benefits of
97 existing regulations are uncertain. In this paper, we review the current state of
98 understanding of microplastic contamination in food wastes, composts, digestates, and soils
99 (**Figure 2**). This review complements previous reviews by focusing on food waste-derived
100 composts and digestates as a possible source of microplastics to agricultural soils, and
101 discussing the limitations of existing regulatory approaches to microplastic contamination
102 in composts and digestates. For a full description of the systematic review methods, see the
103 **Supplementary Materials**. We begin with an overview of the different methods that have
104 been used to measure microplastics in complex organic matrices, followed by a review of
105 microplastic abundance in food wastes, composts and digestates. Next, we discuss the
106 various inputs of microplastics to agricultural soils and their prevalence therein, followed

107 by an overview of the impacts of microplastics on soil-plant systems. Finally, we provide a
108 roadmap for future research and highlight ways to harmonize efforts to quantify
109 microplastics in food waste-derived materials, understand the effects of microplastics in
110 agricultural soils, and establish related policy.

111 **2. Microplastic Measurement**

112 Methods for measuring microplastics in solid organic matrices typically involve a
113 sequence of steps aimed at isolating, identifying and characterizing the microplastics in
114 each sample. Isolation methods include flotation, elutriation, centrifugation, digestion (with
115 e.g., H₂O₂, Fenton's reagent), and sieving (Junhao et al., 2021; Ruggero et al., 2020).
116 Identification methods include fluorescence microscopy, thermal degradation (e.g., TED-
117 GC-MS, PY-GC-MS), spectroscopy (e.g., Fourier Transform Infrared Spectroscopy
118 (FTIR), Raman) and visual analysis (with or without light microscopy) (Junhao et al., 2021;
119 Ruggero et al., 2020). It is common for multiple isolation and identification methodologies
120 to be combined in series (Ruggero et al., 2020). Studies of microplastic abundance in food
121 wastes, composts and digestates largely report values on a count per weight basis (**Table 1**),
122 with a smaller number of studies reporting values on a weight per weight (*w/w*) basis
123 (**Table 2**). Only 25% of studies reviewed report values in both units (Braun et al., 2021;
124 O'Brien, 2019; Schwinghammer et al., 2020; Sholokhova et al., 2021). For agricultural
125 soils, all studies reviewed reported microplastic abundance on a count per weight basis
126 (**Table 3**). Microplastics are typically characterized by size fraction, shape and polymer
127 type, with some studies further differentiating by color or other properties. Below, we
128 briefly summarize the most common methods used to quantify microplastics in food waste,

129 compost, digestate, and agricultural soil, as well as some of the challenges that arise due to
130 the lack of standardized methods. For a more detailed review of methodologies for
131 microplastic measurement in heterogeneous solid matrices, see Ruggero et al. (2020).

132 A limited number of studies have measured microplastic abundance in food waste
133 alone (**Tables 1 and 2**). In these studies, microplastic isolation was achieved by organic
134 matter oxidation with 30–35% H₂O₂ (Ruggero et al., 2021; Schwinghammer et al., 2020),
135 density separation with a saturated salt solution (Golwala et al., 2021; Ruggero et al.,
136 2021), and/or wet sieving (do Carmo Precci Lopes et al., 2019; Kawecki et al., 2020;
137 Schwinghammer et al., 2020). Microplastics were identified using fluorescence microscopy
138 (Ruggero et al., 2021), visual analysis (do Carmo Precci Lopes et al., 2019; Golwala et al.,
139 2021; Kawecki et al., 2020; Schwinghammer et al., 2020), and/or FTIR (Golwala et al.,
140 2021; Ruggero et al., 2021; Schwinghammer et al., 2020).

141 More studies (albeit still a relatively small number) have examined microplastics in
142 food waste-derived composts or digestates than in food waste itself (**Tables 1 and 2**).
143 Among studies reporting microplastic abundance on a count per weight basis, isolation
144 strategies included sieving (Edo et al., 2021; O'Brien, 2019; Schwinghammer et al., 2020;
145 Weithmann et al., 2018), organic matter oxidation with 30% H₂O₂ (Edo et al., 2021; Gui et
146 al., 2021; Meixner et al., 2020; Schwinghammer et al., 2020) or Fenton's reagent
147 (Sholokhova et al., 2021), density separation with a saturated salt solution (Braun et al.,
148 2021; Edo et al., 2021; Gui et al., 2021; Meixner et al., 2020; Sholokhova et al., 2021), and
149 centrifugation (van Schothorst et al., 2021). Light microscopy was used in most cases to
150 identify and count putative microplastics based on morphology, color, and response to heat,
151 resulting in values on a count per weight basis. Subsequently, FTIR was used to confirm

152 and identify the polymer type of some or all of the putative microplastics (Edo et al., 2021;
153 Gui et al., 2021; Schwinghammer et al., 2020; Sholokhova et al., 2021; van Schothorst et
154 al., 2021; Weithmann et al., 2018). Studies reporting microplastic abundance in composts
155 and digestates on a *w/w* basis employed more variable methods, including quantification of
156 a single polymer type using alkaline extraction followed by liquid chromatography with
157 UV detection (Müller et al., 2020), direct weighing of larger size fractions (Bläsing and
158 Amelung, 2018; Braun et al., 2021; Kawecki et al., 2020; O'Brien, 2019; Schwinghammer
159 et al., 2020), and estimation based on polymer densities for smaller size fractions (Braun et
160 al., 2021).

161 Similar methods were used to measure microplastics abundance in agricultural soils.
162 The most common recovery methods included density separation (e.g., Chen et al., 2020;
163 Corradini et al., 2021; Hu et al., 2021) and organic matter oxidation (e.g., Piehl et al.,
164 2018). Most studies reviewed used both a digestion and density separation step (e.g., Feng
165 et al., 2021; Huang et al., 2021, 2020; Isari et al., 2021; Q. Li et al., 2021; Liu et al., 2018;
166 Rafique et al., 2020; Kumar and Sheela, 2021; J. Wang et al., 2021; J. Yang et al., 2021; L.
167 Yu et al., 2021; B. Zhou et al., 2020). The most common identification methods included
168 visual inspection under a light microscope (e.g., Chen et al., 2020; Corradini et al., 2021;
169 Feng et al., 2021; Isari et al., 2021; J. Wang et al., 2021; B. Zhou et al., 2020) and
170 photographing for photo software visual analysis (e.g., Feng et al., 2021; van Schothorst et
171 al., 2021; L. Yu et al., 2021), often followed by FTIR (e.g., Corradini et al., 2021; Liu et al.,
172 2018; J. Wang et al., 2021), Raman spectroscopy (Chen et al., 2020) or test of response to
173 heat (Beriot et al., 2021; Huerta Lwanga et al., 2017; Meng et al., 2020; van Schothorst et
174 al., 2021) to confirm a portion of or all putative microplastics. The most common soil depth

175 considered was 30 cm (e.g., Harms et al., 2021; Huang et al., 2021; Isari et al., 2021;
176 Kumar and Sheela, 2021; Meng et al., 2020; van Schothorst et al., 2021) and the deepest
177 was 80 cm (Hu et al., 2021).

178 There are several challenges associated with current approaches to quantifying
179 microplastics. First, some of the most common methods used to isolate plastics from
180 complex organic matrices may not be appropriate for all polymer types. High-density
181 plastics (e.g., PVC, PET) may not be recovered with density separation and flotation
182 methods (Liu et al., 2018), and organic matter oxidation with 30% H₂O₂ has been shown to
183 cause visual changes to PA, PP, PC, PET and linear LDPE (Nuelle et al., 2014). Another
184 major challenge is the lack of standard units for measuring microplastic abundance. There
185 is no consistent way to convert between microplastic count per weight and *w/w* values
186 without knowing or assuming shape, size and polymer type (Braun et al., 2021; Leusch and
187 Ziajahromi, 2021). This is problematic not only because it prevents comparison between
188 studies, but also because microplastic ecotoxicity thresholds and regulatory limits are
189 typically determined on a *w/w* basis (Leusch and Ziajahromi, 2021; USEPA, 2021a). This
190 disconnect makes it difficult to design studies that evaluate microplastic ecotoxicity risk at
191 real world concentrations, or in ways that can contribute directly to existing policy.

192 Variation in microplastic size fractions complicate comparison between studies too.
193 While it is widely accepted that microplastics are defined as particles <5 mm in size, there
194 is far less consensus on other size-based delineations (Gigault et al., 2018). Macroplastics
195 are sometimes defined as plastic particles >5 mm (Zhang et al., 2018), although other
196 studies further divide into meso- (5–25 mm) and macro- (>25 mm) plastics (Braun et al.,
197 2021; Golwala et al., 2021; Gui et al., 2021). The term “nanoplastic” remains under debate

198 as well and has been used to refer to plastic particles less than 0.1, 1, or even 1000 μm
199 throughout the literature (Gigault et al., 2018; R. Qi et al., 2020). Most of the studies
200 reviewed here focused on microplastics >1 mm (**Tables 1 and 2**). However, some studies
201 have used lower bounds as small as 30 μm (van Schothorst et al., 2021), while others report
202 no lower limit of detection at all (**Tables 1 and 2**). On the other end of the spectrum, some
203 studies include or even exclusively measure macroplastics (e.g., Kawecki et al., 2020).
204 These methodological differences likely exert a strong influence on total counts of
205 microplastic abundance, and underscore the need to develop standard methods for
206 measuring microplastics in complex organic matrices. This should include standard
207 sampling, isolation and identification protocols as well as known lower thresholds and
208 efficiencies.

209 **3. Microplastic Abundance in Food Wastes, Composts and Digestates**

210 We used a systematic literature search to identify scientific articles providing
211 primary data on microplastic abundance in food wastes, composts, and/or digestates (**Table**
212 **S1**). We intentionally excluded studies focusing on biosolids-derived organic amendments
213 unless there was co-digestion with food waste because microplastic occurrence in
214 wastewater has been reviewed elsewhere (Sun et al. 2019). We included studies of green
215 waste-derived composts (e.g., yard and landscape trimmings) for comparison with food
216 waste-derived composts. The studies that report microplastic abundance in terms of
217 particles per weight (standardized to particles kg^{-1} dry material where possible) are
218 summarized in **Table 1** and the studies that report microplastic abundance in terms of w/w
219 (standardized to w/w dry material where possible) are summarized in **Table 2**. For

220 composts, digestates and food wastes, we report plastic abundance values that include all
221 size fractions measured for a given study. In some instances, this includes or is solely
222 comprised of macroplastics. All the studies we reviewed reported finding plastics in
223 composts, digestates and/or food wastes, even in cases where the compost was derived
224 exclusively from green waste. The most frequently identified polymers included
225 polyethylene (PE), polypropylene (PP) and polystyrene (PS) (**Tables 1 and 2**), which are
226 also some of the most common plastics used in food packaging (Ncube et al., 2020).
227 “Biodegradable” or “compostable” bioplastics, including polylactic acid (PLA), Mater-
228 Bi®, and cellulose-based polymers were identified as well (**Tables 1 and 2**).

229 Plastic abundance in food waste alone spanned five orders of magnitude on a count
230 per weight basis (**Table 1**), and three orders of magnitude on a *w/w* basis (**Table 2**). Values
231 for homogenized food waste ranged from ~40 (Schwinghammer et al., 2020) to $1,400 \pm 150$
232 particles kg^{-1} dry material (Ruggero et al., 2021); however, the former study only
233 considered larger particles (1–5 mm) and the latter only considered smaller particles (0.1–2
234 mm). A study of grocery waste in the US found 300,000 particles kg^{-1} dry material
235 (Golwala et al., 2021). On a mass basis, plastic abundance ranged from ~0.025% *w/w* in
236 homogenized food waste (Schwinghammer et al., 2020) to 5.6% *w/w* in source-separated
237 household biowaste (do Carmo Precci Lopes et al., 2019).

238 Reported values also varied widely both within and between studies measuring
239 plastic abundance in composts—spanning seven orders of magnitude on a count per mass
240 basis (**Table 1**), and four orders of magnitude on a *w/w* basis (**Table 2**). Plastic abundance
241 ranged from 12 ± 8 (Braun et al., 2021) to $82,800 \pm 17,400$ (Huerta-Lwanga et al., 2021)
242 particles dry kg^{-1} green waste-derived composts and from 20 (Weithmann et al., 2018) to

243 30,000 (Edo et al., 2021) particles dry kg⁻¹ of composts made with food waste, with one
244 study reporting 4.28 x 10⁷ particles dry kg⁻¹ of a compost of unknown origin (Meixner et
245 al., 2020). On a mass basis, plastic abundance ranged from 0.00024% w/w in a green waste-
246 derived compost (Bläsing and Amelung, 2018) to 0.1358 ± 0.0596% w/w in a compost
247 made from household biowaste (Braun et al., 2021).

248 Plastic levels in digestates were comparable to those found in composts in both
249 magnitude and variability—also spanning seven orders of magnitude on a count per mass
250 basis (**Table 1**), and just two orders of magnitude on a w/w basis (**Table 2**), albeit with
251 fewer studies. Plastic counts typically ranged between 70 and 1670 particles dry kg⁻¹ in
252 digestates derived from commercial organic waste and co-digested manure and food waste,
253 respectively (O’Brien, 2019; Weithmann et al., 2018), with one study reporting up to 38.7 x
254 10⁷ particles dry kg⁻¹ of a digestate of unknown origin (Meixner et al., 2020). On a w/w
255 basis, plastic estimates ranged from 0.01% w/w in digestate derived from the organic
256 fraction of municipal waste (Schwinghammer et al., 2020), to 0.25% w/w in digestate
257 derived from co-digested dairy manure and food waste (O’Brien, 2019).

258 With such a limited number of studies reporting microplastic abundance in
259 composts, digestates and food wastes, caution should be taken when drawing any
260 conclusions. Nonetheless, we observed the following patterns: 1) Microplastic abundance
261 varies widely both within and between studies of food wastes, composts, and digestates, 2)
262 The overlapping ranges of microplastic abundance in food-waste derived composts and
263 digestates indicates that neither practice necessarily produces contaminant-free soil
264 amendments, and 3) The presence of microplastics in green-waste derived composts

265 indicates that packaging from food waste is not the only possible source of plastics in
266 organic soil amendments.

267 **4. Microplastic Inputs to Agricultural Soils**

268 Land application of contaminated organic amendments is just one of multiple
269 potential pathways by which microplastics may enter agricultural soils. Primary
270 microplastics—those that are intentionally engineered to be small (Golwala et al., 2021)—
271 are directly applied to agricultural soils in the form of plastic-coated controlled-release
272 fertilizers, treated seeds, and capsule suspension plant protection products (ECHA, 2020;
273 Stubenrauch and Ekardt, 2020). Secondary microplastics—which form from the breakdown
274 of macroplastics—can be unintentionally added to soils in the form of contaminated soil
275 amendments (e.g., biosolids, composts, digestates) or through the breakdown of plastic
276 mulching (Bläsing and Amelung, 2018; Corradini et al., 2021; Zhu et al., 2019). Plastic
277 mulching made with LDPE or biodegradable polymers is often used in agriculture to boost
278 crop yields, suppress weeds, retain water and fumigants and reduce fertilizer and herbicide
279 requirements (Brodhagen et al., 2017; Serrano-Ruiz et al., 2021). However, it can also
280 fragment over time and release microplastics into agricultural soils, and in some cases is
281 even tilled into soils intentionally at the end of the season (Brodhagen et al., 2017; Feng et
282 al., 2021; Serrano-Ruiz et al., 2021; B. Zhou et al., 2020). Other sources of secondary
283 microplastics include irrigation water (B. Zhou et al., 2020), roads (Chen et al., 2020;
284 Sommer et al., 2018), litter (de Souza Machado et al., 2018a), and atmospheric deposition
285 (Bianco and Passananti, 2020; Scheurer and Bigalke, 2018; J. Zhang et al., 2020).

286 However, these other sources will not all influence microplastic abundance at a specific site
287 (Corradini et al., 2021; Yu et al., 2021) and are beyond the scope of this review.

288 **5. Microplastic Abundance in Agricultural Soils**

289 Understanding existing levels of microplastic pollution in agricultural soils is
290 required to assess potential future impacts of microplastics in food waste-derived compost
291 and digestates. We conducted a systematic literature search to identify studies providing
292 primary data on microplastic abundance in agricultural soils (**Table S1**). Because plastic
293 mulching contributes microplastics to agricultural soils (Feng et al., 2021; B. Zhou et al.,
294 2020), we collated soil microplastic abundance values by plastic mulch use history.
295 Microplastic (<5 mm) abundance values are reported in **Table S2** for soils where plastic
296 mulching was used, in **Table S3** for soils where plastic mulching was not used, in **Table S4**
297 where plastic mulching was used on some but not all sites and in **Table S5** where plastic
298 mulch use was not specified. Results from these studies are synthesized in **Table 3**.

299 Microplastic abundance in agricultural soils typically ranged in the 10s to 1000s of
300 particles dry kg⁻¹ in soils where plastic mulching was used as well as soils where it was not
301 used (**Table 3**). These ranges overlap with the range of reported plastic content for food
302 waste-derived composts and digestates (**Table 1**). More research is needed to understand
303 the importance of different pathways of microplastics introduction to agricultural soils,
304 including the use of soil amendments derived from food waste. This will require knowledge
305 of the magnitudes of existing microplastic inputs from all possible sources and the use of
306 reference soils (i.e., experimental controls) to help delineate microplastic inputs from

307 various sources (e.g., distinguish between microplastics introduced by soil amendments
308 versus atmospheric deposition) (Harms et al., 2021; Kumar and Sheela, 2021).

309 **6. Impact of Microplastics in Agricultural Soils**

310 Recent peer-reviewed literature documents several negative effects of microplastics
311 in agricultural soils, but these effects are still not well understood. Microplastic impacts in
312 soil vary depending on several factors, including polymer type, size and shape, soil
313 characteristics, and microplastic dose and exposure time (de Souza Machado et al., 2018b;
314 Lozano et al., 2021; Zhao et al., 2021). Degradation times for plastic in soil are long (Roy
315 et al., 2011), resulting in accumulation through time, especially in surface soils (Yu and
316 Flury, 2021). Plastic degradation in soil can result in fragmentation of macroplastics into
317 micro- or nano-plastics and the release of toxic compounds through time (Rillig et al.,
318 2021). Here we provide a brief overview of available information on microplastic impacts
319 on soil physical properties, crops and biota.

320 **6.1. Physical Effects**

321 Microplastics have variable effects on soil physical properties. They are shown to
322 increase soil water repellence (Y. Qi et al., 2020) and porosity (Y. Qi et al., 2020; Zhang et
323 al., 2019). Soil bulk density (de Souza Machado et al., 2019, 2018b; Mbachu et al., 2021;
324 Y. Qi et al., 2020) and aggregate size (Kim et al., 2021; Lozano et al., 2021) tend to
325 decrease with addition of microplastics. Microplastics have variable effects on water
326 holding capacity (de Souza Machado et al., 2019, 2018b; Y. Qi et al., 2020). In most cases,
327 the observed physical effects vary depending on microplastic size, shape and polymer type
328 and soil conditions. Polymer type can, for example, determine the effects of microplastics

329 on soil bulk density, which in turn can influence water infiltration, surface runoff, and
330 erosion (de Souza Machado et al., 2018b; Jiang et al., 2017; Kim et al., 2021; Mbachu et
331 al., 2021; Y. Qi et al., 2020; Zhang et al., 2019). Plastic particle size may also mediate
332 effects on soil physical properties. For example, the saturated hydraulic conductivity of a
333 sandy soil increased with the addition of LDPE and starch-based macroplastics, but
334 decreased with the addition of the same polymers as microplastics (Y. Qi et al., 2020).
335 Other studies have found no significant effects on soil physical properties with the addition
336 of microplastics (Huerta-Lwanga et al., 2021).

337 **6.2. Ecotoxicity**

338 Ecotoxicity in soils may result from either introduction of microplastics themselves
339 or associated contaminants. Plastics contain additives such as plasticizers, pigments, and
340 thermal stabilizers which are not chemically bound to the polymers and can therefore be
341 lost more easily to the environment (Blackburn and Green, 2021; Billings et al., 2021;
342 Hahladakis et al., 2018). Plastics can also adsorb other chemical contaminants (e.g., per-
343 and polyfluoroalkyl substances) which may confound impacts on soil biota (Hahladakis et
344 al., 2018; Sobhani et al., 2021; J. Yang et al., 2021). While the release rates and
345 bioavailability of chemical contaminants associated with microplastics are not yet well
346 understood, there is evidence that microplastic effects on contaminant mobility are likely
347 negligible (Castan et al., 2021; Gouin et al., 2011, 2019).

348 Effects of microplastics on soil biota are documented in recent literature (Guo et al.,
349 2020; W. Wang et al., 2020). For example, microplastics affect species dominance,
350 diversity, and richness at microplastic doses in soils of 0.2–5% w/w (Fei et al., 2020; Ren et

351 al., 2020; J. Wang et al., 2020; Y. Wang et al., 2021; Yi et al., 2021) and overall microbial
352 biomass at 1% w/w (Blöcker et al., 2020). In some cases, observed effects are clearly
353 deleterious (J. Wang et al., 2020; Y. Wang et al., 2021). However, shifts in the soil
354 microbial community do not necessarily equate to changes in function. There is
355 considerable debate about the ability of microbial community composition and structure to
356 predict ecosystem function (Hicks et al., 2021). Soil macrofauna are also affected by
357 microplastics. For example, microplastics cause oxidative stress and abnormal gene
358 expression at a dosing level of 0.25% w/w for earthworms (*Eisenia fetida*) (Cheng et al.,
359 2020; B. Li et al., 2021). Microplastic exposure perturbs the gut microbiota of some soil
360 collembolans (*Folsomia candida*) (Zhu et al., 2018, Ju et al., 2019) and inhibits the
361 movement of others (*Lobella sokamensis*) (Kim and An, 2019). Microplastics consumed by
362 soil organisms can enter food chains and bioaccumulate, as was observed for earthworms
363 and chickens (*Gallus domesticus*) (Huerta-Lwanga et al., 2017). Microplastics introduced
364 into agricultural soils or in food waste can also be ingested by livestock and have been
365 found in the manure of sheep (*Ovis aries*) (Beriot et al. 2021) and pigs (*Sus scrofa*
366 *domesticus*) (J. Yang et al., 2021).

367 Recent research efforts also aim to assess the effect of microplastics on plant growth
368 in agroecosystems. Delayed or reduced germination rates have been observed for rye grass
369 (*Lolium perenne*) (Boots et al., 2019) and garden cress (*Lepidium sativum*) (Bosker et al.,
370 2019; Pflugmacher et al., 2020) in the presence of microplastics. Microplastics also reduced
371 root, shoot and/or total biomass growth at dosing rates of 1–2% w/w for wheat (*Triticum*
372 *aestivum*) (Pflugmacher et al., 2021; Qi et al., 2018), 0.1–10% w/w for garden cress
373 (Pflugmacher et al., 2020), 1–2% w/w for Chinese cabbage (*Brassica chinesis*) (M. Yang et

374 al., 2021), 0.1–1% w/w for corn (*Zea mays*) (F. Wang et al., 2020), 0.2–0.6% w/w for rice
375 (*Oryza sativa*) (Liu et al., 2021), 2% w/w for spring onion (*Allium fistulosum*) (de Souza
376 Machado et al., 2019), and 1% w/w for lime trees (*Citrus aurantium*) (Enyoh et al., 2020).
377 However, in some instances, biomass reductions were only observed for some polymer
378 types but not others (de Souza Machado et al., 2019; Qi et al., 2018; F. Wang et al., 2020;
379 M. Yang et al., 2021), at certain sizes but not others (Z. Li et al., 2020; M. Yang et al.,
380 2021), or under certain soil pH conditions (Liu et al., 2021). Mechanisms by which
381 microplastics affect plant growth are being explored and could be linked to oxidative
382 damage (Dong et al., 2021; Jiang et al., 2019; Pignattelli et al., 2021). Recent studies report
383 finding nanoplastics in tissues of cultivated crops (Azeem et al., 2021), including wheat (L.
384 Li et al., 2020; Lian et al., 2020), radish (*Raphanus sativus*) (Tympa et al., 2021), lettuce
385 (*Latuca sativa*) (Li et al., 2019; L. Li et al., 2020), corn (Sun et al., 2021), and cucumber
386 (*cucumis sativus*) (Z. Li et al., 2021). Transpirational pull is credited as the main driving
387 force for uptake of nanoplastics from plant roots into above-ground biomass in wheat (L. Li
388 et al., 2020) and lettuce (Li et al., 2019). Nanoplastics have also been shown to translocate
389 from plant leaves to roots via vascular bundles in maize (Sun et al., 2021). Further research
390 is needed to better understand the effects of plastic size, shape, and charge on plastic uptake
391 by plants (Sun et al., 2020).

392 While several studies report potential negative effects of microplastics in soil-plant
393 systems, the existing data are not sufficient to fully evaluate the risks of microplastics in
394 agricultural soils (Gouin et al., 2019, USEPA, 2021a). For instance, the lack of common
395 units between microplastic ecotoxicity and abundance studies precludes evaluation of the
396 environmental relevance of the microplastic doses at which negative effects are observed

397 (Leusch and Ziajahromi, 2021). Connors et al. (2017) suggest nine areas of improvement to
398 advance the quality of environmental microplastic research, which we suggest should be
399 applied in the context of food waste-derived soil amendments and agricultural soils: “1)
400 Environmental relevance of test concentrations, 2) Provision of sufficient detail for
401 converting particle concentrations, 3) Thorough characterization and/or description of test
402 particles, 4) Detailed reporting of particle preparation techniques and [stability], 5)
403 Analytical verification of test concentrations, 6) Consideration of the environmental
404 relevance of particle size, 7) Inclusion of appropriate controls, 8) Consideration of endpoint
405 applicability to environmental risk assessment framework, and 9) Reporting findings
406 accurately, without conjecture beyond experimental limits.”

407 **7. Harmonizing Science and Policy**

408 Prevailing scientific uncertainty creates a challenging context for policy design
409 related to microplastics and food waste diversion efforts. Scientists continue to debate the
410 risk posed by microplastics generally and the best course of action for risk management,
411 with differing viewpoints (Backhaus and Wagner, 2020; Burton, 2017; Coffin et al., 2021;
412 Gouin et al., 2019; Hale, 2018; Kramm et al., 2018). Most scientists continue to frame
413 microplastic risks as uncertain, which stands in contrast to the prevailing media narrative
414 that microplastics are emphatically harmful to humans and the environment (Völker et al.,
415 2020). Multiple entities currently regulate microplastics in composts and/or digestates,
416 despite the lack of scientific consensus on the risks posed by microplastics in soils more
417 broadly and the relative contribution of contaminated organic amendments specifically.
418 Thirteen states in the US (California, Iowa, Maryland, Minnesota, Montana, New

419 Hampshire, New York, North Carolina, Ohio, Rhode Island, South Carolina, Washington,
420 and Wisconsin) have enacted regulatory limits on physical contaminants in compost, and
421 the state of California regulates physical contaminants in both composts and digestates
422 (USEPA, 2021a). Total physical contaminant limits (a category encompassing glass, metal,
423 and other human-made inert materials in addition to plastics) range from 0.5 to 6% *w/w*
424 with most falling in the 1–2% *w/w* range (USEPA, 2021a). Four of the thirteen states—
425 California, Maryland, Ohio, Washington—have additional limits specifically for plastics or
426 film plastics ranging from 0.1 to 2% *w/w* (USEPA, 2021a). Only five states specify a lower
427 size threshold for consideration—4 mm in all cases—though testing requirements and
428 detection limitations may implicitly determine the size fractions measured (USEPA,
429 2021a). Compost and digestate regulations tend to be more stringent outside the US, with
430 limits largely falling between 0.25 and 0.5% *w/w* for total physical contaminants and
431 between 0.05 and 0.5% *w/w* for plastics or film plastics (USEPA, 2021a). Most countries
432 set the lower size threshold for consideration at 2 mm except for Germany, which regulates
433 particles >1 mm (USEPA, 2021a).

434 There are multiple limitations to the existing regulatory approach to microplastic
435 contamination in composts and digestates. First, regulatory standards are in units of *w/w*,
436 while 50% of the studies we reviewed reported microplastic abundance in composts and/or
437 digestates exclusively on a count per weight basis (**Table 1**). This results in a mismatch
438 between science and policy whereby many existing studies cannot accurately inform
439 regulatory limits. Second, due to an incomplete understanding of the risks posed by
440 microplastics in soils under different conditions (e.g., dosing rates, edaphic factors, polymer
441 types, size distributions etc.), allowable contamination levels and lower particles size

442 thresholds may instead be determined by aesthetic concerns and detection limits rather than
443 known risk (USEPA, 2021a). Third, regulating microplastics content in finished products,
444 without considering the fertilizer value of the material or application rate, does not limit the
445 ultimate flow of microplastics to soils via organic amendments. For example, under the
446 current regulatory structure, it may be permissible to land apply a large amount of
447 microplastics in a dilute form, but not a smaller amount of microplastics in a more
448 concentrated form. Finally, regulating contamination levels in organic amendments alone
449 may be insufficient to fully mitigate the flow of microplastics into agricultural soils given
450 the existence of other entry points. There are other examples of narrowly focused
451 microplastics policy that similarly do not address multiple pathways of introduction to the
452 environment. For example, current or proposed policies in the US, EU, China and South
453 Korea restrict the use of primary microplastics in cosmetic products, but exclude other
454 sources of microplastics (e.g., plastic mulching, plastic packaging, tires) (Mitrano and
455 Wohlleben, 2020).

456 There are, however, existing regulations that could be applicable to microplastics
457 and should be considered in current discussions. Certain heavy metals in biosolids, for
458 example, underwent rigorous toxicity assessments to determine allowable contamination
459 thresholds grounded in scientific evidence (Lu et al., 2012). Currently, the same is not true
460 for microplastics in composts and digestates; thus, current regulatory thresholds lack a
461 scientific basis, and the benefits of those thresholds are largely unknown. Given the
462 persistence of microplastics, uncertainties regarding toxicity, and the upward trend in both
463 plastic production and environmental detection, some have argued for a more precautionary
464 approach than the traditional regulatory paradigms for threshold contaminants (Coffin et

465 al., 2021). This type of approach would create tradeoffs in the context of present-day food
466 waste diversion efforts. For example, how should the more certain costs of methane
467 emissions from landfilled food waste be weighed against the uncertain impacts of terrestrial
468 microplastic pollution in cases where it is not possible to have 100% microplastic-free food
469 waste? It is critical to consider counterfactual scenarios given the options available to
470 clarify the consequences of microplastic regulations.

471 We propose the following path forward to better align efforts to quantify
472 microplastics in organic amendments, understand their effects in soils, and establish related
473 policy. First, standard methods for measuring microplastics in food wastes, composts,
474 digestates and soils must be developed (**Figure 3A**). Second, using these standard methods,
475 future studies should characterize both the extent of microplastic contamination in food
476 wastes, composts, digestates, and soils as well as the sources, impacts, and most effective
477 strategies to mitigate this contamination (**Figure 3B**). Third, if toxicity is well established,
478 evidence- and risk-based regulatory measures can be implemented to reduce microplastic
479 contamination from all sources (**Figure 3C**).

480 **8. Conclusions**

481 Microplastic abundance varies widely within and among studies of food wastes,
482 composts, digestates, and agricultural soils. There is some evidence that microplastics may
483 adversely affect soils and plants; however, lack of common units between microplastic
484 ecotoxicity and abundance studies precludes rigorous assessment. Existing regulations
485 establish weight-based limits in finished composts and digestates, which is incongruent
486 with many scientific studies that use count-based estimates of microplastic abundance.

487 Further work is necessary to elucidate tradeoffs associated with diverting food waste to
488 agricultural soils and to design policies that maximize the benefits of recovering food waste
489 while minimizing risk of microplastic pollution in soils.

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Table 1. Plastic abundance in composts, digestates and food wastes on a count basis.

Feedstock ^d	Abundance (particles kg ⁻¹ dry)	Sizes (mm)	Polymer Types ^d	Location	Reference
Compost					
Green waste	5733 ± 850 to 6433 ± 751	0.05–5	Mostly PP, also PE, nitrile rubber, PES	Lithuania	Sholokhova et al., 2021
Green waste	12 ± 8 to 46 ± 8	>0.0003	n/a	Germany	Braun et al., 2021
Green waste	1253 ± 561	0.03–2	PE, PP	Netherlands	van Schothorst et al., 2021
Green waste	82800 ± 17400	>1	PLA	Netherlands	Huerta-Lwanga et al., 2021
Household & green waste	20–24	>1	Mostly styrene-based polymers (PS etc.) & PE, also PES, PP, PET, PVC	Germany	Weithmann et al., 2018
Food waste	3783 ± 351 to 4066 ± 658	0.05–5	Mostly PE & PS, also PET, PP	Lithuania	Sholokhova et al., 2021
Household biowaste	32 ± 20	>0.0003	n/a	Germany	Braun et al., 2021
Rural domestic waste	2400 ± 358	0.05–5	Mostly PP, PE, also PES, PVC, PS, PE:PP, PU	China	Gui et al., 2021
OFMW digestate	39–102	1–5	Mostly PE & PVC, also PET, PS, PES, PUR, Other	Germany	Schwinghammer et al., 2020
OFMW	2800 ± 616	0.03–2	PE, PP	Netherlands	van Schothorst et al., 2021
OFMW	10000–30000	<0.025	Mostly PE, also PS, PP, PES, PVC, ACR	Spain	Edo et al., 2021
Unknown	5.2–42.8 (15.4) Mil ^a	<1	n/a	Austria	Meixner et al., 2020
Digestate					
OFMW	75–326 ^c	1–5	Mostly PES & PVC, also PP, PE, PET, PS, PA, EVA	Germany	Schwinghammer et al., 2020
Commercial biowaste	895	>1	n/a	Germany	Weithmann et al., 2018
Household biowaste	70–146	>1	Mostly styrene-based polymers (PS etc.), also PES, PE, PP, PET, PVC, PVDC, PA, PUR, latex- & cellulose-based polymers	Germany	Weithmann et al., 2018
Food Waste & Dairy Manure	1670	>1	n/a	USA	O'Brien, 2019
Unknown	0.6–38.7 (7.1) Mil ^a	<1	n/a	Austria	Meixner et al., 2020
Food Waste					
Grocery store	300000 ^a	n/a	n/a	USA	Golwala et al., 2021
Pulped food waste	1400 ± 150 ^a	0.1–2	Mostly Mater-Bi®, also PP, PE, PS, CE	Italy	Ruggero et al., 2021

Homogenized 40 °C 1–5 Mostly PE, also PP, PS Germany Schwinghammer et al., 2020
food waste

1006 ^a dry/as-is not reconciled; ^b as-is; ^c estimated from graph; ^d Abbreviations: OFMW: organic fraction municipal waste; ACR: acrylic polymers; CE:
1007 cellophane; PA: polyamide; EVA: ethylene vinyl acetate; PE: polyethylene; PES: polyester; PET: polyethylene terephthalate; PLA: Polylactic acid; PP:
1008 polypropylene; PS: polystyrene; PU/PUR: polyurethane; PVC: polyvinyl chloride; PVDC: polyvinylidene chloride

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1042 **Table 2.** Plastic abundance in composts, digestates and food wastes on a *w/w* basis.

Feedstock ^d	Abundance (% <i>w/w</i> dry)	Sizes (mm)	Polymer Types ^d	Location	Reference
Compost					
Green waste	0.00024–0.0065	>0.5	n/a	Germany	Bläsing and Amelung, 2018
Green waste	0.0048 ± 0.0089 to 0.053 ± 0.05 ^c	>0.0003	n/a	Germany	Braun et al., 2021
Green waste	0.0237	1–5	Mostly PP, also PE, nitrile rubber, PES	Lithuania	Sholokhova et al., 2021
Food waste	0.0845	1–5	Mostly PE & PS, also PET, PP	Lithuania	Sholokhova et al., 2021
Biowaste	0.018	>0.5	n/a	Germany	Bläsing and Amelung, 2018
Household biowaste	0.1358 ± 0.0596	>0.0003	n/a	Germany	Braun et al., 2021
Urban organic waste	0.001–0.0102 ^a	All	PET	Germany	Müller et al., 2020
OFMW digestate	0.005–0.05 ^c	1–5	Mostly PE & PVC, also PET, PS, PES, PUR	Germany	Schwinghammer et al., 2020
Digestate					
Kitchen & green waste	0.12 ± 0.12 ^b	>6	n/a	Switzerland	Kawecki et al., 2020
Organic waste	0.0209–0.0776 ^a	All	PET	Germany	Müller et al., 2020
Food Waste + Dairy Manure	0.25	>1	n/a	USA	O'Brien, 2019
OFMW	0.01–0.0350 ^c	1–5	Mostly PES & PVC, also PP, PE, PET, PS, PA, EVA	Germany	Schwinghammer et al., 2020
Food Waste					
Kitchen & green waste	0.5 ± 0.46 ^b	>6	n/a	Switzerland	Kawecki et al., 2020
Homogenized food waste	0.025 ^c	1–5	Mostly PE, also PP and PS	Germany	Schwinghammer et al., 2020
Household biowaste	3.0–5.6 ^d	>2	n/a	Austria	do Carmo Precci Lopes et al., 2019
Household biowaste (mechanically sorted)	0.04–2.9	>2	n/a	Austria	do Carmo Precci Lopes et al., 2019

1043 ^a dry/as-is not reconciled; ^b as-is; ^c estimated from graph; ^d calculated by mass balance; ^e Abbreviations: OFMW: organic fraction municipal waste; PA: polyamide; EVA: ethylene vinyl acetate; PE: polyethylene; PES: polyester; PET: polyethylene terephthalate; PP: polypropylene; PS: polystyrene; PUR: polyurethane; PVC: polyvinyl chloride

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1050 **Table 3.** Summary of microplastic abundance in agricultural soils by mulching practice.

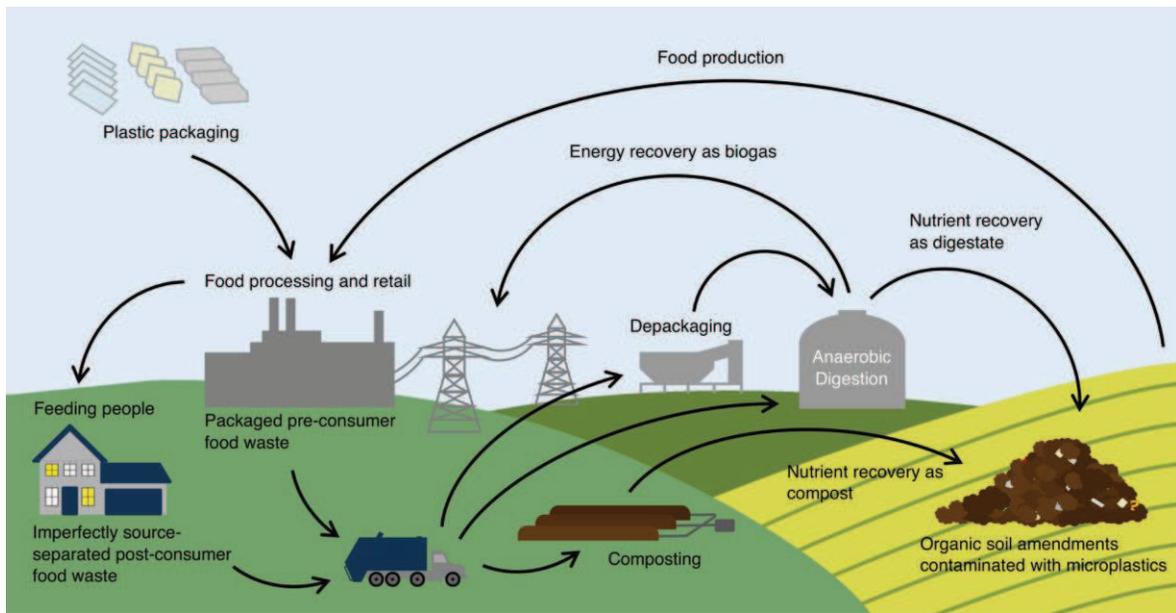
Plastic Mulch Practice	Agriculture Type	Mean Range (particles kg ⁻¹ dry)	Typical Order of Magnitude (particles kg ⁻¹ dry)	Sizes (mm)	Common Plastic Types Identified ^a	Soil Depth (cm)	Locations	References
Mulched	Mixed vegetable, Tomatoes, Beans, Cotton, Watermelon, Rice, Corn, Sorghum	63–18760	10's–1000's	0.02–5, 0.05–5, 1–5, 0.0011–5, 0.00045–5, 0.007–5, 0.02–5, 0.02–2, 0.03–2	PE, PP, PA, PS, PES, PVC, ACR	0–6, 0–10, 0–30, 0–40, 0–80	China, Spain, India, Greece	Beriot et al., 2021; Hu et al., 2021; Huang et al., 2020, 2021; Isari et al., 2021; Liu et al., 2018; Meng et al., 2020; van Schothorst et al., 2021; Kumar and Sheela, 2021; J. Wang et al., 2021; Zhang and Liu, 2018; B. Zhou et al., 2020
Non-mulched	Mixed crop, Pasture, Grasslands, Peanut, Wheat, Paddy, Woodland, Orchard, Unspecified	0.34–5490	10's–1000's	0.0004–2, 0.02–1, 1–5, 0.03–2, 0.02–5	PE, PP, PES, PA, ACR, PVC, EVA, rayon	0–5, 0–10, 0–20, 0–30	China, Germany, Netherlands, Chile	Corradini et al., 2021; Q. Li et al., 2021; Piehl et al., 2018; van Schothorst et al., 2021; J. Wang et al., 2021; J. Yang et al., 2021; B. Zhou et al., 2020
Some mulched	Mixed crop, Farm / Grassland	4–1444	10's–1000's	0.00045–2, 1–5, 0.02–5	PE, PP, PA, PS	0–6, 0–25, 0–30	China, Germany	Feng et al., 2021; Harms et al., 2021; Yu et al., 2021
Not Specified	Mixed vegetable, Mixed crop, Unspecified	870–3712	100's–1000's	0.02–5, 0.01–2, 0.05–5	PA, PP, PS, PE, PVC	0–5, 0–20, n/a	China, Mexico, Pakistan	Chen et al., 2020; Huerta Lwanga et al., 2017; Rafique et al., 2020

1051 ^a Abbreviations: ACR: acrylic polymers; EVA: ethylene vinyl acetate; PA: polyamide; PE: polyethylene; PES: polyester; PP: polypropylene; PS:
1052 polystyrene; PVC: polyvinyl chloride



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1054 **Figure 1.** Visible plastic contamination in (A) organic municipal solid waste compost
1055 windrows prior to screening (credit: E.D. Roy, S. Asia), (B) screw-press separated solid
1056 digestate from co-digestion of dairy manure and food waste (credit: E.D. Roy, United
1057 States), and (C–F) Putative microplastics found in food waste digestate (credit: K.K.
1058 Porterfield, United States).

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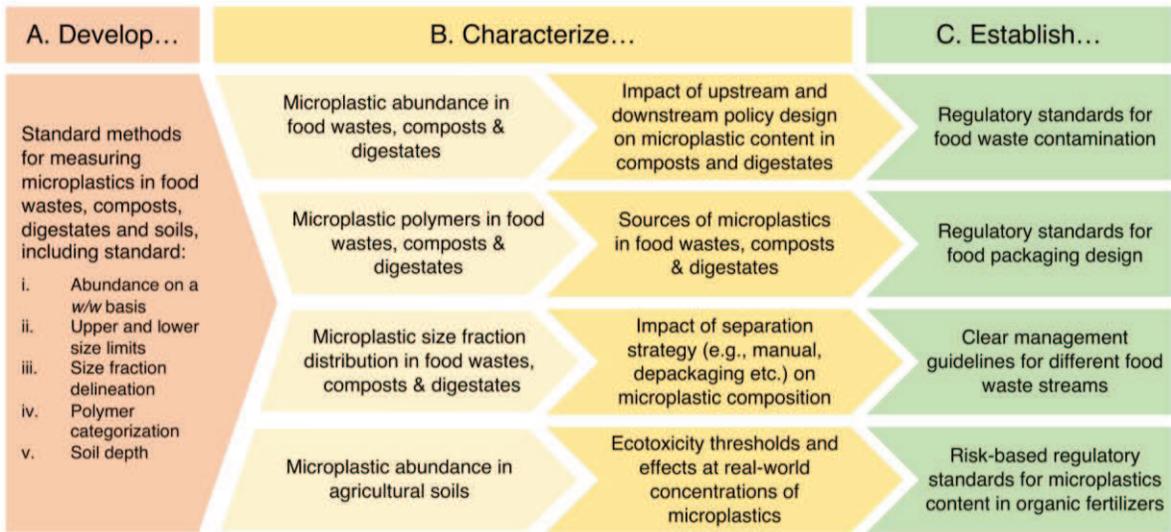


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1061 **Figure 2.** Conceptual diagram showing flows of food waste and microplastics to

1062 composting and anaerobic digestion and on to agricultural soils.

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1065 **Figure 3.** Schematic illustrating a design process to harmonize food waste microplastics

1066 science and policy.

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Microplastics in Composts, Digestates and Food Wastes: A Review

Katherine K. Porterfield, Sarah A. Hobson, Deborah A. Neher, Meredith T. Niles,

Eric D. Roy

Supplementary Material

We conducted a systematic review using the Web of Science core collection to identify studies providing primary data on microplastics abundance in composts and digestates, food wastes and agricultural soils. One search focusing on composts and digestates was conducted on July 22nd, 2021 and another focusing on agricultural soils was conducted on September 8th, 2021 (**Table S1**). The two searches resulted in 172 and 159 articles, respectively. If the article abstract included quantification or discussion of microplastics in an organic waste stream, organic amendment, fertilizer derived from an organic waste stream, or an agricultural soil, the article was selected for further review, if not, it was excluded. Of the original articles, 32 and 94, respectively, were found to be relevant and 11 and 21, respectively, were found to contain primary data on microplastic abundance in composts and/or digestates and agricultural soils. Articles that focused on microplastic abundance in marine or aquatic environments were excluded, as were papers that focused on sewage sludge and biosolids. Additional studies beyond the ones identified by the systematic literature search were included if they were found to meet the established criteria.

Table S1. Web of Science search terms

<i>Compost & Digestate Search</i>	
Topic	"organic waste*" OR "organic residual*" OR "solid waste*" OR "compost*" OR "digestate*" OR "organic amendment*" OR "organic fertilizer"
Topic	AND microplastic* OR nanoplastic*
<i>Agriculture Search</i>	
Topic	"agricultur*" OR "farm*" OR "horticultur*" OR "cultivat*" OR "agro"
Topic	AND microplastic* OR nanoplastic*
Topic	NOT "biosolid*" OR "wastewater*" OR "marine*" OR "aquatic" OR "wetland"

1 **Table S2.** Microplastic abundance in plastic mulched agricultural soils.

Cropland Type	Abundance (particles kg ⁻¹ dry)	Sizes (mm)	Plastic Type ^a	Soil Depth (cm)	Location	Reference
Mixed vegetable	78 ± 13	0.02–5	Mostly PE & PP, also PES	0–3	China	Liu et al., 2018
Mixed vegetable	63 ± 13	0.02–5	Mostly PE & PP, also PES	3–6	China	Liu et al., 2018
Rice, corn, sorghum	571	0.05–5	Mostly PE & PE:PP, also PE:PP:Polydiene, PP:Vistalon, PP, nylon, PES, rayon, ACR, PA	0–10	China	B. Zhou et al., 2020
Mixed vegetable	2116 ± 1024	n/a	n/a	0–10	Spain	Beriot et al., 2021
Tomatoes, Beans	8–30	1–5	n/a	0–30	India	Kumar & Sheela, 2021
Cotton	1615 ± 52	0.0011–5	PE	0–30	China	Hu et al., 2021
Cotton	112 ± 11	0.0011–5	PE	40–80	China	Hu et al., 2021
Mixed vegetable	9000–40800 (9800)	0.00045–5	n/a	0–30	China	Huang et al., 2021
Mixed	80 ± 49 to 1076 ± 347	0.007–5	PE	0–40	China	Huang et al., 2020
Watermelon	301 ± 140	0.02–5	PE	0–30	Greece	Isari et al., 2021
Canning tomatoes	69 ± 38	0.02–5	PE	0–30	Greece	Isari et al., 2021
Mixed	0–2200	0.02–2	n/a	0–30	China	Meng et al., 2020
Mixed vegetable	2242 ± 984	0.03–2	PE	0–30	Spain	van Schothorst et al., 2021
Mixed vegetable	7100–42960 (18760)	0.05–10 ^b	n/a	0–10	China	Zhang and Liu, 2018
Mixed vegetable	5386 ± 835	0.02–5	Mostly PE & PA, also PVC, PP, PS, PES, ACR, other	n/a	China	J. Wang et al., 2021
Mixed vegetable (greenhouse)	5124 ± 632	0.02–5	Mostly PE & PA, also PVC, PP, PS, PES ACR, other	n/a	China	J. Wang et al., 2021

2 ^a Abbreviations: ACR: acrylic polymers; PA: polyamide; EVA: ethylene vinyl acetate; PE: polyethylene; PES: polyester; PP: polypropylene; PS:
3 polystyrene; PVC: polyvinyl chloride, ^b macroplastics included

4 **Table S3.** Microplastic abundance in agricultural soils where no plastic mulching was used.

Cropland Type	Abundance (particles kg ⁻¹ dry)	Sizes (mm)	Polymer Types ^a	Soil Depth (cm)	Location	Reference
Mixed croplands	306 ± 360	0.0004–2	Mostly ACR, PUR, varnish, PE & EVA, also PP, Nitrile rubber, PS, Polyethylene chlorinated, PES, PA, PLA	0–20	Chile	Corradini et al., 2021
Pasture	184 ± 266	0.0004–2	ACR, PUR, varnish, PE, EVA, PP, Nitrile rubber, Polyethylene chlorinated, PES	0–20	Chile	Corradini et al., 2021
Grass/rangelands	none observed	0.0004–2	n/a	0–20	Chile	Corradini et al., 2021
Wheat	380–1093	0.02–1	Mostly PP, PE, PA & PET, also PS, PTFE, PVC, EVA	0–10	China	Li et al., 2021
Mixed vegetable farmlands; greenhouse	1000–3786	0.02–1	Mostly PP, PE, PA & PET, also PS, PTFE, PVC, EVA	0–10	China	Li et al., 2021
Unspecified Agricultural soils	0–1(0.34 ± 0.36)	1–5	Mostly PE, also PP, PS, PVC, PMMA, PET	0–5	Germany	Piehl et al., 2018
Mixed croplands	888 ± 500	0.03–2	PE, PP	0–30	The Netherlands	van Schothorst et al., 2021
Unspecified agricultural soils	16 ± 3	0.02–5	PES, PP, PE, rayon, PET	0–20	China	Yang et al., 2021
Peanut (pig manure mulched)	44 ± 16	0.02–5	PES, PP, PE, rayon, PET	0–20	China	Yang et al., 2021
Mixed croplands	263	0.05–5	Mostly PE & PE:PP, also PE:PP:Polydiene, PP:Vistalon, PP, nylon, PES, rayon, ACR, PA	0–10	China	B. Zhou et al., 2020
Wheat	3910 ± 1031	0.02–5	Mostly PE & PA, also PVC, PP, PS, PES, ACR	n/a	China	J. Wang et al., 2021
Paddy	5490 ± 573	0.02–5	Mostly PE & PA, also PVC, PP, PS, PES, ACR	n/a	China	J. Wang et al., 2021
Woodland	3683 ± 362	0.02–5	Mostly PE & PA, also PVC, PP, PS, PES, ACR	n/a	China	J. Wang et al., 2021
Orchard	3386 ± 593	0.02–5	Mostly PE & PA, also PVC, PP, PS, PES, ACR	n/a	China	J. Wang et al., 2021

5 ^a Abbreviations: ACR: acrylic polymers; PA: polyamide; EVA: ethylene vinyl acetate; PE: polyethylene; PES: polyester; PET: polyethylene terephthalate;
6 PLA: Polylactic acid; PP: polypropylene; PS: polystyrene; PUR: polyurethane; PVC: polyvinyl chloride

7 **Table S4.** Microplastics abundance in agricultural soils where plastic mulching was used on some but not all sites.

Cropland Type	Abundance (particles kg ⁻¹ dry)	Sizes (mm)	Polymer Types ^a	Soil Depth (cm)	Location	Reference
Farm/grassland	53 ± 30	0.00045–2	Mostly PE, PP, PS & PA, also PET, PC, PVC	0–3	China	Feng et al., 2021
Farm/grassland	44 ± 22	0.00045–2	Mostly PE, PP, PS & PA, also PET, PC, PVC	3–6	China	Feng et al., 2021
Mixed croplands	0–218 (4 ± 12)	1–5	Mostly PE, also PP, nylon, PA, PVDF, PDAP, PMMA, PET, PVF, poly(1.4-Butylene Adipate), PVA, PVS	0–30	Germany	Harms et al., 2021
Mixed croplands	310–5698 (1444 ± 986)	0.02–5	PP, ethylene-propylene copolymer, PE	0–25	China	Yu et al., 2021

8 ^a Abbreviations: ACR: acrylic polymers; PA: polyamide; EVA: ethylene vinyl acetate; PC: polycarbonate; PDAP: polydiallylphthalate; PE: polyethylene;
 9 PES: polyester; PET: polyethylene terephthalate; PLA: Polylactic acid; PMMA: polymethyl methacrylate; PP: polypropylene; PS: polystyrene; PUR:
 10 polyurethane; PVA: polyvinyl acetate; PVC: polyvinyl chloride; PVDF: polyvinylidene fluoride; PVF: polyvinyl formal; PVS: polyvinyl stearate

Table S5. Microplastic abundance in agricultural soils where plastic mulch use was unspecified.

Cropland Type	Abundance (particles kg⁻¹ dry)	Sizes (mm)	Polymer Types ^a	Soil Depth (cm)	Location	Citation
Mixed vegetable croplands	320–12560 (2020)	0.02–5	Mostly PP & PA, also PS, PE, PVC	0–5	China	Chen et al., 2020
Mixed crop gardens	870 ± 1900	0.01–2	n/a	0–20	Mexico	Huerta Lwanga et al., 2017
Unspecified agricultural soils	2200–6875 (3712 ± 2156)	0.05–5	n/a	n/a	Pakistan	Rafique et al., 2020

^a Abbreviations: PA: polyamide; PE: polyethylene; PP: polypropylene; PS: polystyrene; PVC: polyvinyl chloride