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Microplastics in different water samples (seawater, fresh water and wastewater) - Part II: Removal efficiency of membrane treatment processes

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Abstract:

 Microplastics (0.1 μm–5 mm) as a newly emerging pollutant have attracted increasing global attention due to their widespread distribution and various adverse effects on natural environments and human health potentially. However, research in the field is still in the early stages of exploration as there are almost no relevant standards or policies made for the detection, emission and removal methods for microplastics in any country or region. Therefore, this study used an improved quantitative and qualitative analytical methodology for microplastics detection by μ- FTIR spectroscopy carried out with siMPle analytical software and explained in Part I. In this part II, the removal efficiency of membrane treatment processes is evaluated using this methodology. The presence of microplastics was measured in different water sources and their treatment plants (seawater, three municipal and a pharmaceutical wastewaters and three drinking waters) with the same analytical method. Polyethylene is the dominant material in almost all water types followed by polypropylene, polystyrene, and polyethylene terephthalate. Almost all treatment technologies in water treatment plants can remove microplastics whatever the feed water type and concentration of microplastics. But some treatment processes or transport pipes could also cause additional pollution of the water with microplastics. Moreover, ultrafiltration was confirmed to be an excellent process for microplastic removal both in industrial and lab-scale experiments. The 200 kDa ultrafiltration membrane could retain 70–100% and 80–100% of microplastics in quantity and in surface area, respectively. Thus, ultrafiltration leads to a considerable removal efficiency on microplastics and it also can greatly control the dimensions of microplastics in smaller ranges.

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553 **List of abbreviations**

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1. Introduction

 Rapid urbanization and industrialization promoted the development and progress of society, 560 while bringing more potentially emerging contamination risks, such as microplastics (0.1μm ∼5 mm) (Drummond et al., 2022). Public concerns on microplastic transport and transfer, ecological risks, and chronic toxicity to living, were increased globally. Excessive production of plastics has risen over 20 fold over the last half century and is predicted to worsen at least 2050 (Kahane- Rapport et al., 2022). The widespread applications and improper disposal contributed to the ubiquitous existence of plastic debris in diverse aquatic systems, such as wastewater, marine water, freshwater, etc. (Luo et al., 2019). Specifically, 95-99% of MPs derived from discarded plastics could be enrolled into raw wastewater and wastewater treatment plants (WWTPs) were the major receptors for microplastics derived from industries, landfill, domestic wastewater, and stormwater (Wu et al., 2022). The distribution and abundance of microplastic particles (MPs) in WWTPs were greatly related to human activities and urban agglomeration (Chen et al., 2020). Abundance of MPs in marine waters was demonstrated to range from tens to thousands of particles per cubic meter, and most marine organisms were contaminated with several to hundreds of MPs per individual (Bakir et al., 2020). Even in freshwater, MPs of polypropylene (PP), polyethylene (PE), polystyrene (PS), and polyethylene terephthalate (PET) were frequently detectable, accounting for 70% of total MPs (Li et al., 2020). Additionally, the rivers, lakes, and even glaciers were all contaminated with microplastics. For instance, MPs in Lake Geneva (Europe) surprisingly reached 577 a concentration of 48,146 MP·km⁻² (Faure et al., 2012) and the annual deposition flux of MPs in 578 Demula glacier (Asia) was evaluated to 7640 ± 720 to 9550 ± 900 MPs·m⁻² (Wang et al., 2022).

 In view of environmental risks, the presence of microplastics increased its toxicity via compound contaminations and posed multi threats to humans and other living beings. Microplastics most with hydrophobic surfaces probably act as carriers for toxic organics/inorganics adsorption and for microorganism growth (Yang et al., 2022). More studies illustrated that humans may be exposed to MPs through inhalation, ingestion, and dermal contact, and MPs could be transported via blood (Huang et al., 2022; Na et al., 2021). Based on extensive investigations, large quantity and widespread of microplastic contaminations need to be furtherly

 researched and demand prompt solutions. While, no specific treatment technology on MPs removal has been determined currently, it is necessary to explore the fate of MPs in water treatment plants and investigate the effective treatment technology on MPs removal. Additionally, the distribution of MPs in concentration, MP types, and MPs dimensions varied a lot even in same water types (Bretas Alvim et al., 2020; Simon et al., 2018), as shown in Table S1 of supplementary information (SI) with data of MPs in different water types from literatures. Different studies showed poor comparability because of the different detection methods and operation processes. Previous studies were mainly focused on individual stages in the assessment of MPs, while an analysis of all stages (i.e., sample extraction, processing, identification, quantification, and transportation) was required for a comprehensive understanding of the contamination caused by MPs. Therefore, it should be firstly considered to choose a suitable detection method of MPs with high efficiency and high accuracy to investigate the distribution and transportation of MPs.

 In France, the occurrence of MPs in natural aqueous environments was rarely mentioned, and the removal of MPs through treatment plants remains to be explored. Therefore, this study was designed to investigate the distribution of MPs in France with two main objectives: (1) To obtain and compare the essential information on distribution and abundance of MPs from wastewater, seawater, surface water, and underground water; (2) To find out the footprint of MPs in different water treatment plants and calculate the related removal efficiency by each treatment process. To be more precise, the reliable analytical method on MPs identification and quantification by μ-FTIR with siMPle software proposed in Part I was adopted in this Part II. A three-item characterization of MPs (counts, dimensions or surface area, types) is possible with this method. Samples from wastewater treatment plants (WWTPs), seawater treatment plants (SWTPs), and drinking water treatment plants (DWTPs) were all investigated with the same analytical method to evaluate MPs removal by primary, secondary, or tertiary treatment processes. Moreover, the treatment by ultrafiltration (UF) membranes was particularly assessed. This study gives information on microplastics contamination in France with a unified analytical method and in different water samples.

⁶¹³ 2. Material and Methods

614 2.1. Sample Sources and pretreatment

 Three types of water (Table 1) were analyzed in this study: (i) samples from a SWTP equipped to treat seawater after shellfish farms and before discharge into the ocean with two main treatment routes, as shown in Figure 1. Particularly, in treatment route 2, two groups of 200 kDa UF modules were located in different positions: semi-industrial scale UF with more than 4 years of operation 619 (membrane area 9 m² Old UF) and industrial scale UF with less than 1 month operation 620 (membrane area 240 m² New UF).; (ii) samples from four different WWTPs sites; and (iii) samples from three drinking water treatment plants (DWTPs). To avoid external pollution, all samples were collected and transported in 1 L pre-cleaned glass bottles with 3 replicates and frozen up at -20℃ before analysis. The bottles were closed immediately after sampling. The contact with the bottleneck and inner covers was prevented during sampling. .

 The pretreatment of membrane process was mainly described in Part I. The chemicals of 30% 626 (w/v) H_2O_2 , 10% (w/v) KOH, 1–10% H_2SO_4 , and Fenton reagent were applied for digestion under room temperature, mainly based on the components of samples. Ultrapure water and filtrated ethanol were used for rinsing and cleaning. The plastic-made devices or containers were avoided, and the glass devices or containers were pre-cleaned with selected rinsing solution (whose positive control was made) before using. MPs extraction was operated in cleaned fume hood, with white lab coats worn at all times.

632 Table 1 Information of water treatment plants

2.2. Analytical Method (full details in Part I)

 The detection of MPs was achieved by the μ-FTIR microscope (Perkin Elmer, USA) coupled with siMPle software (Germany), as previously described in Part I. The turbidity of samples was tested in the laboratory with a turbidity meter, Turb 550 IR (WTW ,Germany). A TOC-L instrument (Shimadzu, Japan) based on the 680 °C catalytic oxidation method was used to measure the concentration of total organic carbon (TOC).

 The retention efficiency (by membranes) or removal efficiency (by other treatments) was determined as the decreased MPs concentration compared to MPs concentration in influent of 646 related treatment process, shown as Eq. (1) :

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E_{\text{retention/removal}} = (1 - C_{\text{MPs_feed}} / C_{\text{MPs_efficient}}) \times 100\%
$$
 Eq. (1)

648 Where $C_{MPs\text{ feed}}$ represented MPs concentration before treatment; $C_{MPs\text{ effluent}}$ represented the MPs concentration after treatmeent. This equation was applied for MPs concentration in quantity and surface area.

2.3. Sample Pretreatment

652 The digestion methods used in this study included 30% (w/v) H_2O_2 (Fisher Chemical), 10% (w/v) KOH (Fisher Chemical), 1–10% H2SO4 (Fisher Scientific), and Fenton reaction. The selection of digestion was mainly based on compositions of samples in terms of organic matters 655 and suspended solids. Samples with digestion requirements was firstly digested with H_2O_2 at 656 volume ratio (V_{sample} : V_{H2O2}) from 1:1 to 1:2 for 1–14 days. When 14d of H_2O_2 was not available, 657 Fenton reagent (0.05M (II) FeSO₄·7H₂ O with 30% H₂O₂ at volume ratio of 1:1) for stronger oxidation were applied. Particularly, seawater samples needed digestion with 10% (w/v) KOH 659 within 24 h, and $1-10\%$ H₂SO₄ was used to adjust pH and eliminate precipitation. The samples were digested to clearer visible survey by avoiding occlusion by organic matters. During digestion, the glass bottle was covered with aluminum foil to prevent airborne contamination. All the digestion processes were operated under room temperature. Ultrapure water and filtrated ethanol was used for rinsing throughout the whole experiments. Three types of filters, 25 μm stain steal filter and 3 or 5 μm gold filter (i3 TrackPor P, Germany), were used for MPs extraction before μ- FTIR imaging by a vacuum Büchner funnel apparatus (Part I). The MPs abundance in chemicals were assessed before experiments with ignorable influences on final results.

 More detailed information on sampling, digestion, rinsing process, μ-FTIR and siMPle, and operational conditions can be found in Part I.

2.4. Lab-scale Filtration of PE MPs by UF membranes

 UF membranes were multichannel hollow fibers made of polyether sulfone (PES) (ALTEON™ I, SUEZ Aquasource®, France). The molecular weight cut-off (MWCO) of UF membrane was 200 kDa, with pore size of 20 nm. A UF module was built with one fiber which was composed of 7 channels with inner diameter of 0.9 mm, and installed into a PTFE external shell pluged with epoxy glue on both sides of the module, allowing in/out dead-end filtration. The 675 module was 20 cm in length resulting in approximately a specific surface of 3.96×10^{-3} m² and an concentration volume of 0.89 mL. Polyethylene (PE) microspheres (10-150 μm, Cospheric, USA) 677 were used to prepare $0.1 \text{ mg} \text{L}^{-1}$ PE suspension as UF feed. The dead-end filtration test (once for 1 L) was operated at a constant transmembrane pressure (TMP) of 0.3 bar. The UF system (pipes, connections, or containers) contained none PE particle. Before filtration, UF membranes were 680 rinsed with 1 L of ultrapure water (300 L·m⁻²) under a TMP of 1.0 ± 0.1 bar to remove the preservative agent (glycerol). UF permeate was collected in pre-cleaned glass bottles and immediately analyzed by the developed method in Part I.

3. Results

3.1. Microplastics Retention by UF membrane in Lab-scale

 The investigation of UF membrane on PE MPs retention in lab-scale was operated, as shown 686 in Figure 2. By identification, PE was the main type of MPs in 0.1 mg·L⁻¹ PE synthetic suspensions, shown in SI, Figure S1. To be noted, the only MPs considered in this part were PE MPs for calculations to avoid the influences of airborne contamination and other secondary contamination on final results. The 200 kDa UF membrane achieved 91% retention of MPs in quantity, resulting in 18 MP·L⁻¹ in UF permeate. The retention rate of microplastics in surface area could reach more than 98%. After all, the lab scale study confirmed that UF membrane could effectively retain MPs 692 from inlet water and control the dimension of PE MPs in smaller ranges (minor dimensions (d_{min}) \leq 50 μm and major dimensions (d_{mai}) \leq 150 μm), but still some PE MPs with a larger dimension 694 than UF pore size $(0.02 \mu m)$ were found in permeate. The question was opened to know where these particles come from knowing that membrane integrity was checked: airborne contamination, UF plastic module and permeate pipe degradation, more porous module cross section, etc. UF efficiency for MP removal at full scale will also be assessed in the following sections.

 Figure 2 Dimensions and Concentration Distribution of PE MPs in (a) UF feed (before filtration) and (b) UF permeate (after filtration).

3.2. Microplastics Retention in Seawater Treatment Plant

 The publications on the presence of MPs and its related hazardous in marine environment emerged exponentially, but there was a lack of knowledge on the removal of MPs in SWTPs. A SWTP with two treatment routes was sampled for this study. Figure 3 showed the distribution of MPs in quantity and types, together with the removal/retention efficiency of MPs by different stages of the treatment. The up-bottom order of water types marked on the Y-axis was consistent with the discharge sequence in SWTP, and the samples was named with the related treatment process (the former or the latter). Notably, the rules for making figures were kept for all samples taken from different water treatment plants in this study. In addition, the evolution of MPs in surface area, and in major and minor dimensions of samples was shown in Figure 4 and Figure S1, respectively.

 Figure 3 Concentration in quantity and types of MPs in seawater samples together with the related retention/removal rates by different treatment processes (retention used for membranes, removal used for 715 the other treatments)

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Surface area in log scale $(\mu m^2 \cdot L^{-1})$

 Figure 4 Concentration in surface area and types of MPs in seawater samples together with the related retention/removal rates by different treatment processes (retention used for membranes, removal used for the other treatments)

 In treatment route 1 and in view of quantity (Figure 3), the entire treatment process (from 723 seawater to 0.2 µm filter outlet) provided $94 \pm 2\%$ total removal rate of MPs. Zeo-A-UV (Zeolite 724 A and UV) process removed $63 \pm 4\%$ of MPs from seawater, followed by $83 \pm 4\%$ removal by 1 μm cartridge, while almost no MPs in quantity was removed by 0.2 μm cartridge from 1 μm outlet. In view of surface area (Figure 4), Zeo-A-UV process showed no removal but increased MPs in 727 Zeo-A outlet, while 1 µm cartridge and 0.2 µm cartridge contributed to $97\pm 8\%$ and $44 \pm 28\%$ removal of MPs, respectively. The different results of MPs in quantity and surface area reflected 729 the limits of expressing the results in MPs·L⁻¹ sole for MPs description, and the supplement of the surface or dimensions of MPs was necessary for more accurate descriptions. In treatment route 2: Zeo-B-UV outlet, Old UF feed, and New UF feed provided increased MPs concentration in 732 quantity compared to seawater (Figure 3), yet resulted in $42 \pm 5\%$, $60 \pm 11\%$, <0% removal of MPs in surface area (Figure 4), respectively. While Zeo-B-UV outlet, Old UF feed, and New UF 734 feed were samples all treated by primary sedimentation $+100 \mu m$ disk $+$ Zeolite B process, and Zeo-B-UV outlet, the increased MPs in quantity reflected the external MPs contaminations (mainly by PA, PE, PP, and PS) in sampling sites or transportation channels after partial removal of MPs by treatment process. However, the followed UF membranes, especially the New UF, exhibited excellent retention ability on MPs both in quantity and surface area whatever the MPs in UF feeds. 739 The Old UF and New UF, respectively, supported 74 ± 1 % and 96 ± 2 % retention of MPs in 740 quantity, and supported $81 \pm 9\%$ and $99.5 \pm 0.5\%$ retention of MPs in surface area. Around 130 741 MP·L⁻¹ was detected in Old UF permeate, and less than 21 MP·L⁻¹ were obtained in New UF permeate. Therefore, the results indicated that UF membranes provide effective retention on MPs from influent, especially with recent UF membranes.

 In general, SWTP treatments by 1 μm cartridge, 0.2 μm cartridge, and UF membranes all provided comparatively considerable removal or retention efficiency on MPs, while treatments with Zeolite A (+UV) and Zeolite B (+UV) posed potential contaminations of MPs. When treated with Zeolite A (+UV) (Figure 3 and Figure 4), 96.4% of PE particles in total surface area was invaded in Zeo-A-UV outlet, while only 2.4% of PE occurred in seawater (raw influent). Moreover, 749 Zeo-A-UV outlet was found with more and larger MPs with $d_{min} > 150$ µm and $d_{max} > 400$ µm 750 compared to that in seawater (SI Figure S2(a)(b)). When treated with Zeolite B (+UV), increasing of PA, PE, and PP particles in quantity were discovered in Zeo-B-UV outlet compared to seawater. Since zeolites were the aluminosilicate members of microporous solids, mainly consisting of silicon, aluminum, and oxygen (Jiang et al., 2018), micro-pollution including MPs could be blocked in zeolite in long-term use and without cleaning, which could lead to secondary pollution of MPs in the effluents. This result reminds to pay attention to the secondary contamination of microplastics which might come from the treatment processes and pipes. In view of UF membranes, both Old and New UF showed good retention rates on MPs in quantity and in surface area. 758 According to SI Figure S2, more smaller MPs within $d_{\text{min}} < 40 \mu m$ and $d_{\text{maj}} < 50 \mu m$, occupying 65% of total MPs, were discovered in Old UF permeate (SI Figure S2 (g)). Meanwhile, MPs with 760 d_{min} > 80 µm and d_{maj} > 200 µm were almost completely retained by both Old UF and New UF membranes. Since the two UF modules were both 200 kDa hollow fiber membrane made of PES, the main difference was the duration of use. It could be inferred that UF membranes themselves were not the polluting sources of MPs according to the MPs types in permeates, while membrane 764 aging could decrease the MPs retention capacity especially on smaller particles $(d_{min} < 40 \mu m)$ and 765 d_{maj} < 50 µm). Additionally, comparing the removal/retention rates of MPs in quantity (Figure 3) and surface area (Figure 4) by different treatment processes (e.g. 1 μm cartridge, 0.2 μm cartridge, and UF membranes without ignorable external contaminations), higher removal rate in total surface area was presented compared to that in quantity. This study is one of the first to report this finding and it needs more verifications in the followed investigations and further discussion for explanations.

3.3. Microplastics Retention in Wastewater Treatment Plants

 Four different WWTPs in France were sampled for MPs analysis. Three of WWTPs (WWTP 1-3) built with secondary treatments, and WWTP 4 was equipped upgraded with UF as a tertiary treatment. The distribution and removal/retention of MPs in quantity and surface area were shown in **Erreur ! Source du renvoi introuvable.** and **Erreur ! Source du renvoi introuvable.**, respectively. The distribution of major/minor dimensions of MPs in different WWTPs was shown 777 in Figure S3.

778

779 Figure 5 Concentration in quantity and types of MPs in WWTPs samples together with the related 780 retention/removal rates by different treatment processes (retention used for membranes, removal used for 781 other treatments)

782

783 Figure 6 Concentration in surface area and types of MPs in WWTPs samples together with the related 784 retention/removal rates by different treatment processes (retention used for membranes, removal used for 785 other treatments)

786 In terms of MP types, PE was the main type of MPs in municipal WWTPs (WWTP 2–4), and 787 PA was predominant in the pharmaceutical WWTP 1 (**Erreur ! Source du renvoi introuvable.**

 and **Erreur ! Source du renvoi introuvable.**). In terms of concentration in quantity (**Erreur ! Source du renvoi introuvable.**), the influent of pharmaceutical WWTP 1 contained around 4,203 $\,$ MP·L⁻¹ of MPs, while those of municipal WWTPs were more loaded with MPs ranging from 791 15,000 MP·L⁻¹ to 42,000 MP·L⁻¹. In municipal WWTPs, the removal rates of MPs by activated sludge, physico-chemical and biofiltration, and MBR all achieved up to >88% in quantity (**Erreur ! Source du renvoi introuvable.**), together with > 97% removal of MPs in surface area (**Erreur ! Source du renvoi introuvable.**). Focusing on membrane processes, both MBRs in WWTP 1 and WWTP 2 showed good retention rates (88%-95% in quantity and 97%-98% in surface area) on 796 MPs. As MBR permeates in WWTP 1 and WWTP 2 respectively contained 190 MP \cdot L $^{-1}$ and 5,065 797 MP·L⁻¹, the MBR in WWTP 1 (pore size of 0.02 μ m) was more effective on MPs removal. By comparison, MBR in WWTP 2 showed weaker retention of MPs than tiin WWTP 1 which might 799 be caused by bigger pore size of membrane in WWTP 2 (0.1 μ m > 0.02 μ m) but also by 10 times higher MPs concentration (both in quantity and surface area) in WWTP 2 influent. Although the 801 retention rate by 200 kDa UF in WWTP 4, 72% in quantity and 72% in surface area, was lower than secondary treatments in all WWTPs (>88%), UF membranes enabled the lowest MPs 803 concentration both in quantity $(35 \text{ MP} \cdot \text{L}^{-1})$ and surface area. The relative lower retention rates by UF were mainly due to the reduced MPs concentrations in UF permeate. Finally, even the concentration of MPs varied greatly in raw wastewater, all secondary treatments provided considerable removal efficiency on MPs both in quantity and surface area. However, although the MPs removal by secondary treatment was quite high, the residue MPs in secondary effluents 808 ranging from 128 MP·L⁻¹ to 5,065 MP·L⁻¹ still needs more treatment. Thereby, UF membrane was recommended as the effective treatment for MPs after secondary treatment to better control the MPs concentrations (quantity and surface area) at lower levels.

 In view of dimensions (Figure S3), the dimensions of MPs in MBR effluent and UF permeate were smaller than that in activated sludge or biofiltration process effluent. Particularly, 200 kDa 813 UF in WWTP 4 controlled MPs within a much smaller range, $d_{\text{min}} < 80$ μm and $d_{\text{maj}} < 200$ μm. Additionally, the removal rates of MPs by each treatment in surface area was also higher than that in quantity in all WWTPs, as for SWTP samples. Considering the dimensions of MPs that can be 816 removed, smaller particles, especially those with d_{min} <40 μ m and d_{maj} <50 μ m increased the difficulty for MPs removal/retention (in quantity). In agreement with previous studies on the effectiveness of membrane processes for controlling MPs (Padervand et al., 2020; Talvitie et al.,

819 2017), MBR and UF process in this study both showed considerable retention rates of MPs and 820 significant decrease of MPs in dimensions and quantity, and UF membrane is suggested for 821 terminal water treatment due to the lowest MPs concentrations in UF permeate.

822 3.4. Microplastics Retention in Drinking Water Treatment Plants

823 In DWTPs, the distribution and removal/retention of MPs in quantity and surface area were 824 shown in Figure 7 and Figure 8, respectively. The distribution of major/minor dimensions of MPs 825 in different DWTPs was shown in Figure S4.

826 In terms of MPs types in quantity (Figure 7), PE was the most dominant in surface water 827 feeding DWTP 2 and DWTP 3, occupying $80 \pm 3\%$ and $98 \pm 0.2\%$ in inlets, respectively. PP, 828 occupying $76\pm 6\%$, was the main component in underground water based DWTP 1. However, 829 considering about the surface area (Figure 8), the proportion of PE in inlet of DWTP 3 was 830 decreased to $56 \pm 1\%$, while PS was secondly dominant in inlet of DWTP 3 occupying $44 \pm 2\%$ 831 in total surface area, while it occupied only $0.5\pm0.1\%$ in quantity meaning that PS particles have 832 much bigger dimensions that PE particles. PS particles in inlet of DWTP 3 were detected in fewer 833 counts but in larger surface area (Figure 7 and Figure 8). The results demonstrated that importance 834 of three-item characterization of MPs (counts, surface area, and types of MPs) in this study. In 835 view of the concentrations, the distribution of MPs differed a lot in inlets of different DWTPs, 836 ranging from the lowest concentration of 153 MP \cdot L⁻¹ in DWTP 2 to the highest concentration of 837 19,836 MP \cdot L⁻¹ in DWTP 3, averagely in quantity.

838 Focused on treatment process, the primary treatment by sieve in DWTP 1 enabled $54 \pm 3\%$ 839 and $54 \pm 1\%$ removal of MPs in quantity and surface area, respectively. The primary treatment by 840 sedimentation in DWTP 3 provided higher $91 \pm 4\%$ and $95 \pm 2\%$ removal of MPs in quantity and 841 surface area, respectively. Treatment of filtration in all DWTPs were positioned in the 842 terminal/tertiary treatment, resulting in qualified permeates with lowest concentration of MPs in 843 each DWTP. The sand filter in DWTP 3 retained $99\pm1\%$ of the MPs in quantity, and $99 \pm 1\%$ in 844 surface area. Additionally, the UF membranes both in DWTP 1 and DWTP 2 showed 80-88 % 845 retention of MPs in quantity, and 90-95% retention of MPs in surface area. Additionally, the MPs 846 concentration in filtration permeates from all DWTPs was effectively reduced to $18-42 \text{ MP} \cdot \text{L}^{-1}$ 847 whatever the inlet water conditions. In view of MPs dimensions (Figure S4), UF membranes as

848 well limited MPs dimensions within $d_{min} < 80 \mu m$ and $d_{maj} < 200 \mu m$. UF membranes were proved

849 to be effective for MPs retention from DWTPs. The removal/retention rates of MPs by each

850 treatment process in surface area was also higher than the one in quantity in DWTPs.

851

852 Figure 7 Concentration in quantity and types of MPs in DWTPs samples together with the related 853 retention/removal rates by different treatment processes (retention used for membranes, removal used for 854 the other treatments)

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 Figure 8 Concentration in surface area and types of MPs in DWTPs samples together with the related retention/removal rates by different treatment processes (retention used for membranes, removal used for the other treatments)

4. Discussion and Conclusion

 In the light of above, most of the considered treatment processes are effective on MPs removal/retention, except some process with external pollution or the secondary release of MPs. Among all treatment processes, UF membranes, 0.2-1 μm cartridges, and sand filter as the terminal treatment enablede considerable retention rates on MPs to ensure the good quality of final effluent. Particularly, UF membrane is highly suggested for MPs retention whatever the water types. UF membranes could provide acceptable MPs concentrations in permeates and almost complete 867 retention rate on MPs of d_{min}>80 μm and d_{maj} >200 μm. The retention rates of 200 kDa UF in SWTP, WWTPs, and DWTPs ranged from 72-98% in quantity to 81-99% in surface area. However, considering that most transportation pipes and connections were made of plastics as well as the dimensions of MPs could be smaller to nano sizes, it was hard to say that a certain process can 871 remove MPs completely, even with UF membranes. The full mechanisms of MPs transfer in the processes still need to be furtherly studied in the future.

 Table 2 summarized the performances of all treatment processes on MPs dimension ranges as 874 well as concentration and proportion of smaller MPs (Min-d <40 μ m Maj-D <50 μ m) in this study. The results revealed the effectiveness on MPs removal/retention might ultimately depend on the 876 pore size of treatment processes without chemical reactions. By statistics, the counts of smaller 877 MPs with d_{min} <40 µm and d_{maj} <50 µm were ranked in dominant positions, especially in secondary and tertiary effluents, accounting for 11-74% of MPs in quantity. However, the presence of smaller MPs increased the difficulty for detection, tracking,and removal, and increased the potential threat for natural environment and organisms. According to Batel et al. (2020), cellular uptake and transfer of MPs across organs seemed only possible for smaller microsized or nanosized plastic particles. Besides, the translocation of smaller MPs (0.1-150 μm) into the tissue has been demonstrated in multiple studies conducted with rodents, rabbits, dogs, and humans (Carr et al., 2012; Imhof and Laforsch, 2016; Larue et al., 2021). Due to higher surface-to-volume ratios, smaller MPs might deliver higher amounts of contaminants such as persistent organic pollutants

886 through transport in gut system and accumulation in food chains (Batel et al., 2020). Therefore, it 887 revealed that the identification, quantification, and removal of smaller MPs or even nano-sized 888 plastics would be a challenge for future studies.

 This study evidenced the ubiquitous microplastics in seawater, wastewater, surface water, and groundwater of France. In comparison, wastewater was observed to aggregate the most MPs compared to seawater, surface water, and ground water, due to urban agglomeration and 893 anthropogenic impact. The 4203-42,000 MP·L⁻¹ of MPs in raw wastewater of France by μ-FTIR 894 in this study was positioned at the highest level among European countries $(57.6-10,044 \text{ MP} \cdot \text{L}^{-1})$, 895 USA (1-133 MP·L⁻¹), and Asia (<500 MP·L⁻¹), etc (Long et al., 2019; Sun et al., 2019; Wu et al., 2022). The results in France was much closer to MPs abundance in Denmark which ranked just 897 after France with $2,223$ -10,044MP·L⁻¹ in WWTPs (Simon et al., 2018). In terms of surface water 898 and groundwater, the detected MPs in inlet of DWTPs in France $(153-19.836 \text{ MP} \cdot \text{L}^{-1})$ were as well the highest levels among most other countries and regions based on the survey by Selvam et al. (2021) with 1-20 MP·L⁻¹ and by Li et al.(2018) with <187 MP·L⁻¹. The MPs abundances in DWTP 901 1-2 (153-632 MP·L⁻¹) was in the same order of magnitude than some studies on rivers, such as the 902 Lek Canal with 460 MP·L⁻¹ (Bäuerlein et al., 2022) and Amsterdam canals with $48-187$ MP·L⁻¹ (Leslie et al., 2017). In terms of seawater, MPs abundance in seawater of France was also positioned at a high level compared to others, such as in Asia and Europe, Pacific, Southern, and Atlantic Oceans (Zhang et al., 2022; Zheng et al., 2019). Additionally, the four WWTPs, three DWTPs, and SWTP in France provided by 87.8-99.8%, 82.3-99.9%, 69.0-96.0% removal of MPs in quantity and showed comparative effectiveness to water treatment plants across worldwide countries (Wu et al., 2022) . The three DWTPs in France provided significant removal of MPs from the inlet. Moreover, the types of MPs in water bodies of France are basically the same as those in other countries or regions, mainly composed of PE, PP, PS, and PA (Long et al., 2019; Mintenig et al., 2020; Wang et al., 2020). However, as most studies did not show the surface area of MPs in water bodies, the comparison on MPs concentration and removal/retention capacity based on surface area was not discussed in this study. In summary, quantitative concentration of MPs in different water bodies of France in this study were all assessed at high levels, partially because of the higher resolution of the detection method (Part I). Indeed, one should keep in mind that the results found in the literature may unfortunately still be very method-dependent (collection, detection, analytical method…). but still it reminds to researchers and public that they should pay more attention on MPs management and treatment.

 In conclusion, this study used a quantitative and qualitative analytical methodology of MPs by μ-FTIR spectroscopy carried with the siMPle analytical software which has been confirmed to be an efficient, reliable, and non-destructive detection method in Part I. For the first time, with the same analytical method, MPs were analyzed in different water types from France and different treatment processes were assessed for their MP removal, in a single paper. The MPs concentration in different types of water resources varied a lot. Generally, raw wastewaters contained the highest quantity of MPs, then generally followed by some surface waters, groundwater. PE was the most abundant type of MPs in almost all water types, then followed by PP, PS, and PET. Most treatment technologies, including primary, secondary, and tertiary treatment had the ability to remove/retain MPs from feed water. The efficiency of treatment processes including ultrafiltration should not make us forget that the retained MPs must also be managed efficiently. Some treatment processes, transport pipes, or other external instruments could also cause a secondary MPs. Moreover, almost in all treatment process, the removal/retention rates on MPs in surface area were higher than that in quantity. The possible reasons included (1) feed water contained more larger pieces of MPs which were preferably removed/retained by different processes; (2) the attachment of smaller MPs on larger MPs was separated under forces of water flow and interception; (3) aged MPs in natural waters were prone to undergo physical abrasion, biofouling, and chemical oxidation-associated weathering by different treatments and further decomposed into smaller secondary MPs (Wu et al., 2022). It is believed that this study could finally improve public awareness on MPs contamination, help MPs limitation policies, and select appropriate removal technology in the future.

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