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To cite this version:

Thi Thuy Duong, Duong Nguyen-Thuy, Ngoc Nam Phuong, Ha My Ngo, Thi Oanh Doan, et al.. Microplastics in sediments from urban and suburban rivers: Influence of sediment properties. Science of the Total Environment, 2023, 904, pp.166330. 10.1016/j.scitotenv.2023.166330. hal-04185063

HAL Id: hal-04185063 <https://univ-eiffel.hal.science/hal-04185063v1>

Submitted on 22 Aug 2023

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1 **Microplastics in sediments from urban and suburban rivers: influence of** 2 **sediment properties**

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Abstract:

 Although sediments are considered to be a major sink for microplastics (MP), there is still a relative lack of knowledge on the factors that influence the occurrence and abundance of MP in riverine sediments. The present study investigated the occurrence and distribution of MP in riverine sediments collected at twelve sites representative of different populated and urbanized rivers (To Lich, Nhue and Day Rivers) located in the Red River Delta (RRD, Vi-50 etnam, during dry and rainy seasons. MP concentrations ranged from 1,600 items kg^{-1} dw to 51 94,300 items kg^{-1} dw. Fiber shape dominated and MP were made of polypropylene (PP) and polyethylene (PE) predominantly. An absence of seasonal effect was observed for both frag- ments and fibers for each rivers. Decreasing MP concentrations trend was evidenced from the To Lich River, to the Nhue River and to the Day River, coupled with a decreasing fiber length and an increasing fragment area in the surface sediment from upstream to downstream. Con- tent of organic matter was correlated to MP concentrations suggesting that, high levels of or- ganic matter could be MP hotspots in urban rivers. Also, high population density as well as in highly residential areas are related to higher MP concentrations in sediments. Finally, a MP high ecological risk (RI: 866 to 4711) was calculated in the RDD.

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Keywords: Microplastics, aquatic ecosystems, riverine sediment, urban and suburban rivers

66 **Graphical abstract:**

Introduction

 Plastic production has increased rapidly since the start of large-scale plastic manufacturing in the 1950s due to its versatility, low cost, and durability (GESAMP, 2019). Global plastics production doubled from 2000 to 2019 to reach 460 million tons with only 9% recycled, 12% incinerated, and the remaining left in the environment or landfills (Geyer et al., 2017; OECD, 2022). Global studies on plastic production and transportation estimated that the annual river- sourced contribution of plastic waste to oceans ranged from 0.41 to more than 8 million tons per year (Geyer et al., 2017; Lebreton et al., 2017; Meijer et al., 2021). Plastic waste is mostly non-degradable or very slow to degrade, resulting in accumulation in various environmental compartments (Abbasi et al., 2019; Wong et al., 2020; Bank, 2021; Dissanayake et al., 2022), in the form of microplastics (MP) -tiny particles smaller than 5 mm in size. Once in the envi- ronments, due to their specific physical properties, MP can become harmful as they can adsorb a wide range of toxic chemicals, and pathogens (Barletta et al., 2019; Guo and Wang, 2019; He et al., 2020; Mao et al., 2020; Naqash et al., 2020) and be transferred to living or-82 ganisms through the food chain (Wootton et al., 2021). Since MP have small sizes, they are easily ingested by various organisms, leading to intestinal damage, reproductive dysfunction, lethality, developmental inhibition, reduction in lifespan, behavior and neural toxicity and oxidative damage (Lei et al., 2018 a, Song et al., 2019; Deng et al., 2020b; Li et al., 2020a).

 MP pollution in freshwater ecosystems has been studied extensively since the last decade (Wagner et al., 2018 a), but a majority of research focused mainly on quantifying MP in sur- face waters, while less attention is given to their occurrence and migration in sediment. However, sediments have been considered to be the long-term sink for MP debris in aquatic ecosystems. MP can be entrapped and aggregated with other substances such as suspended matter, bacteria, fungi and algae to form a relatively large combination resulting in the rapid settlement of MP in the bottom of water bodies (Zhao et al., 2022). Recently, it has been

 estimated that 70 - 90% of MP settled and accumulated into sediment environments world- wide (Yang et al., 2021). As a part of freshwater systems, rivers are one of the main pathways for transporting inland macro- and MP debris to the ocean (Lebreton et al. 2017). Although MP contamination in river systems has received attention, knowledge of MP distribution in riverine sediments still needs to be improved and clarified. Studies conducted in Asia, Eu- rope, America and Africa have shown that the abundance of MP in river sediments varied from almost none to several ten thousands of items per kilogram (Yang et al., 2021; Fan et al., 2022).

 In Asia, urban rivers are crossing densely populated areas where people produce and use plastics. Therefore, urban rivers are a receptacle and a potential sink of plastic and MP, origi- nating from direct release of domestic and industrial wastewaters, treated and untreated (Peng et al., 2018; Cordova et al., 2022; Talbot and Chang, 2022) and from urban runoff (Yukioka et al., 2020; Le et al., 2023b). In riverine sediments, abundance of MP is often related to the proximity of dense population areas, land use and the intensity of anthropogenic activities (Rodrigues et al., 2018; Kumar et al., 2021). For example, a high concentration of MP in riv- erine sediments was recorded in most rivers crossing dense population areas such as in the 109 Beijiang River, China (178 - 544 items kg⁻¹ (Wang et al., 2017); and the Nakdong River, South 110 Korea (1,970 \pm 62 items kg⁻¹; observation size range [0.02 - 5 mm] (Eo et al., 2019). High levels of MP pollution were subjected to intense industrial activities (Lahens et al, 2018; Deng et al., 2020a) or recreational-tourism (Manbohi et al., 2023). Although studies on MP distribution in riverine sediments has increased lately (Phuong et al., 2022), the link between the occurrence of MP and the sediment properties still need to be better understood, despite past studies evidencing the role of grain size and organic matter content on MP fate and trap- ping (Mendes et al., 2021; Soltani et al., 2022). Since the understanding and identification of MP sources and sinks is important to effectively reduce the impact of plastic pollution on re-

 ceiving ecosystems, the objective of this study is to characterize microplastic (MP) distribu- tion in riverine sediments from three contrasted river catchments in the Red River Delta (RRD) hydrosystem. More specifically, we aimed (i) assessing the level of MP concentrations in riverine sediments; (ii) evaluating sediment characteristics as a proxy of microplastic depo- sition in sediment; and discussing the correlation between MP abundance and sediment prop- erties, catchment characteristics; (iii) understanding the pollution status and ecological risk level of MP in urban and suburban rivers. The Red River Delta, localized in Northern Vi- etnam, is under the direct influence of the growing megacity of Hanoi, capital of Hanoi, and is subjected to a rapid change of urbanization that impacts its ecosystem. The three river catch- ments, e.g., To Lich River, Nhue River and Day River, located in the Red River Delta hydro- system, representing specific land use and urban pressure, were selected to monitor sediment characteristics and MP concentrations along each river and during both dry and rainy seasons. Therefore, the RRD can be considered as a representative model of Asian rivers crossing de-veloping megacities.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Study area

 The RRD, located in Northern Vietnam, is the country's second largest delta of the country 135 (e.g., 169,000 km² RRD catchment area), and hosts Hanoi City, the capital (Figure 1). RRD is the most densely populated region with a population of more than 21 million inhabitants, growing annually by 1.14% (General Statistic Office 2018, 2021). The RRD has a tropical climate, characterized by two contrasted seasons: a rainy and warm season (May to October) and a dry and cooler season (November to April). There is an average annual rainfall of 1,700 140 - 1,800 mm yr⁻¹ (Le et al., 2015). Over the past decade, anthropogenic activities have signifi-cantly altered the RRD hydrology, suspended sediment and associated nutrient load (Dang et

 al., 2010; Le et al. 2015). Twelve sampling sites located upstream, midstream and down- stream sections of the To Lich, the Nhue and the Day Rivers were chosen (Figure 1; Table S1). Within the urban part of the RDD, the To Lich River (17 km length, mean annual dis-145 charge Q: 30 m^3 s⁻¹) flows through the Hanoi metropolitan area and receives untreated waste- water directly from urban areas, residential areas, and industrial zones, degrading the quality of its water badly (Duong et al., 2022). Along this river, three sampling sites were selected: upstream TLR-1 middle stream TLR-2 and downstream TLR-3. Then, the Nhue River (74 km 149 length; mean annual discharge Q: 70 m³ s⁻¹), a tributary of the Red River, flows through densely populated provinces and receives the waters directly from the To Lich River. Four sampling sites were selected along the Nhue River: NR-1 in the up-stream part at the conflu- ence with the Red River; NR-2 in the middle stream before the confluence with the To Lich River); NR-3, 7 km downstream of the confluence with the To Lich River and NR-4, 50 km 154 downstream of the confluence. Finally, the Day River (mean annual discharge Q: 252 m³ s⁻¹) runs through highly urbanized provinces such as Hanoi, Hanam, Namdinh, and Ninhbinh, receiving waters from the Nhue River and flowing directly into the Gulf of Tonkin, dominat- ed by surrounding agriculture land use activities. Five sampling sites were selected along the longitudinal gradient of this river: DR-1, 9 km from the Day dam, Red river source; DR-2, 39 km from the source; DR-3, 115 km from the source, situated before discharging from the pol- luted Nhue river; DR-4, 126 km from the source, located after receiving water from the Nhue River; and DR-5, 175 km from the source. The current ratio of the urban/rural population of the To Lich River (6.4) is 3.1 - 21.7-fold higher than in the Nhue River (2.01) and the Day River (0.3) (General Statistic Office, 2021).

2.2. Sampling

 At each site, riverine sediment samples were collected during the rainy season, in June 2020, August 2020, and October 2020 and during the dry season in November 2020, January

 2021 and March 2021, for a total of 72 sediment samples. Riverine sediments (surface layer: 0-5cm) were collected in triplicate in the middle, left, and right bank of the river, in the sub- merged zone (e.g., intertidal banks were avoided) using a Van-Veen grab sampler. Samples were directly pooled and homogenized before being wrapped in aluminium foil and trans-ported in an ice-box to the laboratory.

2.3. Methods

Grain size distribution

 Grain size distribution was determined using laser diffraction with a Horiba LA 950 Grain Size Analyzer in triplicate. For this analysis, 2 g of sediment treated is required. Before ana-176 lyzing, organic matter was removed using 1 mL of 30 % H_2O_2 overnight and sediment 177 solutions were dispersed using 5.5 g L sodium hexametaphosphate $(NaPO₃)₆$. Grain size fractions were detected as volume percentages according to sediment grade based on a com- bination of sediment aggregated from Udden (1914) and Wentworth (1922) including: clay [< 4 m], silt [4 - 63 μm], sand [63-2,000 μm] and gravel [> 2,000 μm].

Organic matter content

 Loss on ignition technique was measured to determine the organic matter (OM) content. 183 Sediment sub-samples (1 g) were dried at 105 $\rm{^{\circ}C}$ for 24 hours and then at 550 $\rm{^{\circ}C}$ for 4 hours to estimate the pore water content and OM content, respectively, following the procedure of (Heiri et al., 2001).

Microplastic extraction

187 Sediment sub-samples were oven dried at 40 °C for 72 h to reach the constant weight, and were sieved (1 mm mesh size) to remove large particles (e.g., shells, leaves) prior to MP ex- traction and identification. MP extraction was performed using a density separation process (Strady et al., 2021; Duong et al., 2022) consisting of: (i) digesting the dried sediment with 191 30% H_2O_2 solution (Merck, Germany) at 40 °C for three hours to remove organic matter con-

192 tent; (ii) floatation of the fraction in a saturated NaCl solution ($\rho = 1.2$ g cm⁻³) to separate MP particles; (iii) filtration of the supernatant solution through a GF/A glass microfiber filter (Whatman, diameter of 47 mm and pore size of 1.6 μm) using a glassware filtration unit.

Microplastic observation

 MP collected on filters were analyzed using a Leica S9i stereomicroscope equipped with a camera. Based on their shapes, MP were categorised into fragments (including films and 198 foams), fibers, and pellets. LAS software[®] was used to measure the color and size of the MP, with a defined size range of [300 - 5,000 µm], following the recommended protocol of GESAMP (2019).

*Polymer identification by µ micro-Fourier Transform InfraRed (*μ*-*FTIR*)*

202 Items suspected as MP from all sediment samples and in the range size of [300 - 5,000 µm] were randomly selected and analyzed for polymer compositions using a microscope coupled 204 to a µFTIR spectrometer (NICOLET iN 10 MX infrared imaging microscope, Thermo Scien- tific). MP items were transferred onto Anodisc filters (0.2 µm of porosity and 25 mm of di- ameter, Whatman, Germany). Measurement parameters and reference databases were de- scribed in the study of Dhivert et al. (2022). Among three detector types equipped on the in-208 strument, an imaging detector was used with 16 MCT detectors of 25×25 µm. Each spectrum was acquired in a transmission mode, wave numbers ranged from $4,000$ to $1,200$ cm⁻¹ 210 with 1 accumulation and a resolution of 8 cm^{-1} . The background was performed on a clean Anodisc filter. Measured spectrums were automatically subtracted from the background dur- ing analyses. The whole filtered area was mapped and totaled more than 600,000 acquired spectrums for a filter. The obtained spectra were compared to reference spectra via the siMPle software (version 1.1.β). This free tool (simple-plastics.eu) was recently developed by Primpke et al. (2018). Reference databases include more than 30 polymer types and some natural compositions, such as protein. An item is accepted as MP when the matching score is 217 satisfied to the values set up by the default (*i.e.* $> 75\%$ for PE; $> 55\%$ for PP).

MP risk assessment

 The potential ecological risk of MP in sediments in the To Lich, Nhue and Day Rivers was calculated using a combination of Pollution load index (PLI), and ecological risk (RI) as pre- viously proposed by Li et al. (2020b). The calculation equations of the PLI and RI are given below:

$$
CF_{\mathbf{i}} = C_i/C_o \tag{1}
$$

$$
PLI = \sqrt{CFi} \tag{2}
$$

$$
RI = \sum_{n=1}^{n} (Ei)
$$
 (3)

Ei = Ti × (*Ci/Co*) (4)

227 Where: C_i : the concentration of MP (item per kg dry weigh) at the site i; Co: the minimum MP concentration. Instead of considering the minimum concentration observed during our study, as all sites are in urban zone and potentially contaminated, we used as Co the MP con-230 centration determined at Ba Lat, Red river (rural area) (Co=133 items kg^{-1} dry weigh; Le et al., 2023a) as the reference background value. Ei and RI are the potential ecological risk fac- tor and the potential ecological risk, respectively; Ti: chemical toxicity of a specific polymer 233 (Lithner et al., 2011). PLI is classified into four risk categories: I (PLI < 10); II (PLI: 10 - 20); 234 III (PLI: 20 - 30); IV (PLI > 30). The potential ecological risk level is considered to be five categories: minor (RI < 150), medium (RI: 150 -300), high (RI: 300 - 600), danger (RI: 600 - 236 1,200) and extreme danger (> 1200) .

2.4. Quality control

 All sampling equipment and laboratory glassware were previously cleaned with filtered de- ionized water and wrapped in aluminum foil to avoid any cross-site contamination. Cotton laboratory coats and nitrile gloves were used and working surfaces were cleaned daily with ethanol. All reagents employed during the sample processing were previously filtered through 242 a 1.6 µm glass fiber filter (Whatman GF/A) and then stored in clean glass containers. Blank samples were run simultaneously with analysis samples to assess the background and cross- contamination during laboratory analysis. There were an average of two fibers per sample which is considered negligible compared to the number of MP detected in field sediment samples.

2.5. Data treatments

 The MP concentration in sediments was expressed as particles per kilogram of dry 249 sediment (items kg⁻¹dw). Non-parametric Mann-Whitney and Kruskal-Wallis tests were used to compare the abundance MP among sites, rivers and sampling times. Correlations and Principal component analysis (PCA) using the R software - R version 4.0 (R Core Team, 2018) were applied to investigate the covariance of the relationships between the occurrence of microplastics in river sediments, population characteristics and land uses of river catchments.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Microplastic level, shape and size variations between rivers and seasons

 MP were identified in all three studied rivers, at all sampling sites and during both the dry 258 and rainy seasons. Their concentrations ranged from 1,600 items kg^{-1} dw to 94,300 items kg^{-1} dw (Figure 2), which is higher than 60% of the reported MP concentrations in riverine sedi-260 ments from Asia (e.g., 100 - 1,000 items kg^{-1} dw; Phuong et al., 2022). Fiber shape dominated over fragment shape in the three rivers (Figure 3), as reported worldwide in urbanized aquatic environments (Alam et al. 2019; Murphy et al., 2022). MP colors observed in the three rivers were purple for 40% of the whole MP, black for 16%, green for 13%, red for 12%, blue for 11% and the remaining was a mixture of grey, white and yellow (Figure 4).

 The polymer compositions of analyzed MP were polyethylene (PE) and polypropylene (PP), which accounted for 87% of all identified MP, followed by polyester (5.78%), polysty- rene (PS) (4.1%), polyvinyl chloride (PVC) (1.5%), polyurethane (PU) (1.2%) and other (0.4%) (Table 1 and Figure 1S). The results are similar to previous studies conducted in rivers crossing areas subjected to high anthropogenic pressure, like in Shanghai, Haihe River basin and Wen-Rui Tang River, China (Peng et al., 2018; Liu et al., 2021a and b, Wang et al., 2018); in Indian Himalaya, India (Tsering et al., 2021) (Table 2).

 The three rivers presented specific MP concentrations over the whole sites and sampling 273 periods (Kruskal-Wallis test, $p < 0.0001$, followed by the Conover-Iman test with $p < 0.0001$ for all). The To Lich River (TLR1, TLR2, TLR3) presented the highest concentrations with 275 an average abundance of MP over the six sampling periods and sites of $42,683 \pm 23,544$ items 276 kg⁻¹ dw (n = 18). No seasonal pattern was observed between the dry (corresponding Novem- ber, January, and March) and rainy (corresponding July, August, and October) seasons for 278 MP in this river (Mann-Whitney test, $p > 0.05$) pointing out the integrative aspect of the sed- iment through time in this riverine system. In comparison to other studies using the similar analytical procedure, notably for extraction, MP concentrations in the To Lich River sedi- ments were higher than those documented in other rivers in Europe, America, Africa and Asia (Table 2) and the same order of magnitude as sediments from the Phu Loc channel in Da Nang, receiving direct municipal untreated wastewater from densely populated areas (Nguyen et al., 2022). The Nhue River (NR1, NR2, NR3) presented an average abundance over the six-285 sampling periods and sites of $16,350 \pm 10,359$ items kg⁻¹ dw (n = 18) while the lower average 286 abundance of 7,747 \pm 6,117 items kg⁻¹ dw (n = 18) was measured in the Day River (DR1,

287 DR2, DR3) depicted in Figure 2. As for the To Lich River, no differences in MP concentra-288 tions were observed between the dry and the rainy seasons in both rivers (Mann-Whitney test, 289 $p > 0.05$, which also points out the integrative aspect of this compartment.

290 Considering fiber only, fiber concentrations at each river evidenced an absence of seasonal 291 effect (Mann-Whitney test, $p > 0.05$) and concentrations were significantly different over the 292 whole sampling period, with higher concentrations measured in the To Lich River, followed 293 by the Day River and the Nhue River (Kruskal-Wallis test, $p < 0.0001$, followed by Conover-294 Iman test with $p < 0.0001$ for all). Over the whole sampling period, the mean median fiber 295 length was measured 1,091 μ m in the Day River, 1,222 μ m in the Nhue River, and 1,291 μ m 296 in the To Lich River (Figure 5), with a significant difference between the To Lich River and 297 the Day River only (Kruskal-Wallis test, $p < 0.027$, followed by Conover-Iman test with $p <$ 298 0.009 for the To Lich and Day Rivers). This decreasing fiber length from upstream to down-299 stream showed that longer fibers were sampled in the surface sediment of highly urbanized 300 and still environments like the To Lich River (mean annual discharge Q: 30 $m^3 s^{-1}$) and that 301 shorter fibers were sampled in the surface sediment of the larger river, with higher water dis-302 charge, less direct urban pressure, and receiving waters from the whole basin, like the Day 303 River (mean annual discharge Q: $252 \text{ m}^3 \text{ s}^{-1}$). The median fiber length, determined at each site 304 and at each sampling time, presented an absence of seasonal effect for all rivers (Mann-305 Whitney test, p>0.05).

306 Considering fragment only, fragment concentrations at each river also evidenced an ab-307 sence of seasonal effect (Mann-Whitney test, $p > 0.05$), with significantly higher concentra-308 tions measured in the To Lich River over the whole sampling period (Kruskal-Wallis test, $p <$ 309 0.0001, followed by Conover-Iman test with p < 0.0001 for the To Lich River only. The mean 310 median fragment area was 210,016 μ m² in the Day River; 163,408 μ m² in the Nhue River and 311 151,792 μ m² in the To Lich River, over the whole sampling period. Contrary to fiber shape,

 we noticed an increasing fragment area size floating in the surface sediment, from upstream to downstream and a seasonal effect for fragment median area in the To Lich River only 314 (Kruskal-Wallis test, $p < 0.003$, followed by Conover-Iman test with $p < 0.003$ for the Day and To Lich Rivers and for the Nhue and To Lich Rivers) (Figure 5). To summarize, average concentrations over the six-sampling period and sites clearly evidenced a decreasing trend of MP concentrations, fibers and fragments, from the To Lich River, to the Nhue River and to the Day River, coupled with a decreasing fiber length and an increasing fragment area in the surface sediment from upstream to downstream.

3.2. Sediment characteristics

 Grain size trends are a natural result of sediment transport processes related to the effects of abrasion and selective sorting (Le Roux and Rojas 2007). The sediments sampled in the To Lich, Nhue and Day Rivers were categorized from silt to sandy silt. The mean grain size var- ied between the rivers from the To Lich River, to the Nhue River then to the Day River, and decreased from upstream to downstream (Table 3). The grain size of riverine sediments generally tends to decrease in the transport direction, from upstream to downstream (Le Roux and Rojas 2007). The sorting of the river sediment samples were divided into poorly sorted and very poorly sorted due to the average sorting values of all river sediments being higher than 2 mm. The sediments were categorized as very poorly sorted because the particle size either accumulated randomly (Ingmanson and Wallace, 1994) or was transported over a short distance (Folk and Ward, 1957). The poor sorting is also influenced by the current velocity which may be inhomogeneous most of the time (Li et al., 2022), so the accumulated sediment grains would be relatively various.

 Conversely, this may also be because the sediments have possibly been deposited relative- ly close to the source areas. The skewness, a parameter of the asymmetry of frequency distribution concerning median value of sediment grain size, varied substantially and the kurtosis, a measure of the "peakedness" of the distribution, changed slightly. The features of almost all riverine sediments define a symmetrical to fined skewed and platykurtic grain size distribution. This distribution indicates that positive skewness values generally find fine-sized substrate, i.e. silt to clay (Switzer and Pile, 2015) and low kurtosis value is produced with bimodal frequency (flat) curves equating to poorly sorted sediments.

 The loss of ignition LOI₅₅₀ is a standard method to determine the sediment's organic matter (OM) content. The level of OM varied significantly along the three studied rivers, with de- creasing values from upstream, e.g., 12.7 wt% in the To Lich River, to downstream with 9.7% in the Nhue River and 5.9% in the Day River (Kruskal-Wallis test, p<0.0001, followed by Conover-Iman test with p<0.0001) (Table 3). The high OM values observed in the To Lich River, until 23.7% evidenced inputs of untreated wastewater, rich in organic matter, directly to the river. The decreasing trend from upstream to downstream is consistent with the de- creasing urban pressure observed in the water basins, the increasing river width and the in-creasing water discharge (see section 2.1).

3.3 Relationships between abundance of MP and sediment properties

 The accumulation of MP in river sediments depends on certain factors, including their sources, deposition rates, and environmental factors such as river morphology, fineness of sediments, amounts of organic debris, etc. (Corcoran et al., 2020; Mendes et al., 2021). The Pearson correlation analysis showed a significant and positive correlation between MP abun-356 dance and sediment properties such as OM ($R = 0.7$; p <0.001) and sediment median grain 357 size $(R = 0.27; p < 0.05)$ (Table 4). High level of organic matter in sediment is probably due to the elevated total organic carbon found in the water column of the Tolich, the Nhue and the 359 Day rivers (10.7 - 48. 5 mg L⁻¹; 3.7 - 18.3 and 12.5 - 26 mg L⁻¹, respectively) (Kikuchi et al., 2009; Trinh et al., 2013). Increased OM, consequent eutrophication, and increased heavy metals from untreated wastewater input along the rivers are well documented in previous studies (Trinh et al., 2013; Luu et al., 2020). As a transport agent in the aquatic system, OM could interact with and absorb on the surface of microplastic creating different forms of ag- gregations with a higher density that could be transported as distinct particles. A high concen- tration of OM in the water could make MP collide and speed up MP aggregation and biofouling (Li et al., 2020a; Luo et al., 2022). MP particles would probably incorporate and integrate into the aggregated matter, along with pieces of other OM, before accumulating in sediment (Rillig, 2018). Sediments with high total organic carbon (TOC) can absorb more MP from the environment than those with low TOC due to their high cohesive capacity of OM (Green and Johnson, 2020). The accumulation of MP at the organic rich sediment sites (the To Lich and the Nhue Rivers) was significantly higher than those at less organic rich sedi- ment sites (the Day River) (p < 0.001) (Figure 2 and Table 3), suggesting that a high abun- dance of MP in sediment is mainly related to high organic content. This leads to the presump- tion that organic matter is an important factor in the accumulation of MP (Wang et al., 2021) and that high levels of organic matter could be the hotspots for MP in aquatic sediments.

 The link between sediment grain size and MP has been previously identified in several field studies (e.g., Enders et al., 2019; Corcoran et al., 2020; Vermeiren et al., 2021; Dhivert et al., 2022). The current study observed a correlation between median grain size and the abundance of MP. The sediment types with the highest abundance across three rivers consist-380 ed of 85.9% silt (fine silt to coarse silt; $<$ 63 μ m). Sediment samples from the three rivers 381 exhibited a high level of MP (from 1,600 items kg^{-1} dw to 94,300 items kg^{-1} dw), but the quantity of MP varied among different sediment grain sizes. The abundance of MP was posi-383 tively correlated with coarse silt ($R = 0.25$, $p < 0.05$) but negatively correlated with the pro-384 portion of fine silt and clay $(R = -0.25, p < 0.05$ and $R = -0.32, p < 0.01$ (Table 4). Although a clear correlation between sediment grain size and the abundance of MP was evident and noted in several studies, such relationships were not always consistent. For example, a num ber of studies reported that, in sediment samples with smaller grain sizes such as clay or silt 388 fractions ($<$ 63 μ m), a greater abundance of MP was observed (Corcoran et al., 2020; Enders et al., 2019; He et al., 2020). In contrast, it was found in both Peng et al. (2017) and Amrutha et al. (2023) that the sediment grain size was not significantly correlated with MP concentra- tions. This is likely due to a lack of comprehensive data sets on the interaction between trans- port and accumulation of MP and other multiple potential influence factors such as hydrody- namic conditions (He et al., 2020). Further studies are needed to provide a detailed under- standing of MP accumulation in sediments, combined with different potential factors such as sediment particle types, and flow conditions.

3.4 Relationships between abundance of MP and catchment

 In order to identify the relationship between the abundance of MP in sediment and influen- tial factors, a Principal Component Analysis (PCA) and Pearson correlation analyses were conducted (Figure 5 and Table 4). The variables in the data matrix for the PCA are based on the concentration of MP, sediment properties (grain size, OM) and catchment characteristics (area of catchment; population; population density; land use for agriculture; specially used; land use for residents). As defined by axes 1 and 2, representing around 70.9 % of the total variance, and two zones that are clearly individualized, the To Lich River and upstream of the Nhue River sites located in the right part of PCA and the Day and the Nhue downstream sites positioned in the left part of the PCA. A high abundance of microplastics, population, and resident areas can explain these sites. High agricultural land use explains the Day and Nhue downstream sites positioned in the right part of the PCA. Population density and urbanization are often associated with the intensity of human activities and socio-economic development, both supposedly linking MP occurrence in aquatic ecosystems. Based on the Pearson analysis, 410 MP abundance has a significant positive correlation with population $(R = 0.38; p < 0.01)$; 411 urban population/rural population ($R = 0.72$; $p < 0.001$); land use for resident and specially 412 used land, respectively $(R = 0.53; p < 0.001)$; $(R = 0.48; p < 0.001)$, which has a significant 413 negative correlation with area $(R = -0.52; p < 0.01)$; and land use for agriculture $(R = 0.5; p < 0.01)$ 0.001 (Table 5). The results of the present study highlight that the abundance of MP increased in areas with higher population density as well as in highly residential areas.

 Compared to the Day River, the To Lich and the Nhue Tivers have more urbanized area and populous catchments, the urbanized sites (TLR1, TLR2, TLR3) contaminated more MP than the suburban sites in the downstream course (DR1, DR2, DR3, DR4 and DR5) (Kruskal- Wallis test, p < 0.0001), suggesting that high population and increased urbanization in an area could significantly strengthen the potential for MP outgassing. Our results are consistent with recent research showing that the MP level was 65% higher in the more urban sites compared to the more rural section of the Tame River, UK (Tibbetts et al., 2018). Similar studies have reported a general trend toward higher microplastic pollution levels in more urbanized and intensive anthropogenic activity zones (Townsend et al., 2019). Although agricultural input is an essential source of MP pollution, the lower level of MP observed in areas with high agri- cultural land use in the Day River (DR1 - DR5) suggested that agricultural land use may have less impact on MP distribution compared to urban areas (the To Lich and the Nhue River sites), which has also been discussed in other studies. Recent studies highlighted that signifi- cant diffrefences in microplastic levels in sediment samples collected from different land uses of the Arvand River in Iran were found and the abundance of MP followed a decreasing or-431 der: urban > industrial > agricultural > and natural areas (Soltani et al., 2022). Using a multi- plicative linear regression and Bayesian Network modelling approach, MP were found to cor- relate significantly with land use and population (Tibbetts et al., 2018; He et al., 2020). How- ever, in their study on the distribution pattern of MP in Brisbane River sediment, He et al. (2020) implied that population and land use have a relatively greater impact on MP types rather than MP concentration.

3.5 Potential ecological risk in urban and suburban rivers

 MP could cause multifaceted ecological risks in aquatic and terrestrial environments. To comprehensively reduce the risk of MP pollution and develop control measures, ecological risk assessment of MP is an important scientific basis. The Pollution load index (PLI) indi- cates the level of MP pollution in surface sediments, which is based on the ratio between the measured concentration of MP and the background value. The PLI values for MP determined at the To Lich - Nhue and Day Rivers were classified as hazard level II, meaning that the de- gree of MP contamination in sediment was at a moderate pollution load (Table 2S). The PLI results showed that the degree of pollution caused by MP was higher in the To Lich and Nhue Rivers compared to the Day River during the investigation. The main reason for this was the MP' sources and the significant anthropogenic activities in the studied area. Terrestrial input of microplastic particles into rivers may occur due to effluent discharge from municipal wastewater, runoff from urban, agricultural, recreational and industrial areas. Previous studies have indicated that the To Lich and Nhue rivers are strongly impacted by untreated wastewa- ter disposal waste and urban runoff from the country's capital of Hanoi (Nguyen et al., 2019; Duong et al., 2022). It has been noted that approximately 95% of untreated wastewater efflu-453 ents (approximately 450,000 $m³$ per day) from many sources (domestic, hospital waste, and industrial waste) are discharged into urban rivers (Hoai et al., 2010), including the ones stud- ied (e.g., Nhue River, To Lich River). The entry of large amounts of untreated wastewater from urbanized, residential and recreational areas along the rivers which increased in OM, heavy metals, other pollutants, and the consequent eutrophication have been well documented in the studied sites. The fact that the number of MP in the three studied rivers presented high concentrations at all sampling sites confirms that the direct discharge of untreated wastewater from various sources from the city can be accredited as the potential primary origin of MP in these rivers. There are other MP sources of MP in the surrounding area of the rivers in this study. According to Suzuki et al. (2022), generated MP are released into the aquatic environ-463 ment $(2.4 \times 10^{9} - 2.8 \times 10^{12}$ MP particulates per year and 0.014 to 5.8 tonnes per year) during mechanical recycling of plastic wastes from traditional villages located along the Nhue-Day basin. Furthermore, the results of µFTIR showed PE and PP were the most common polymer types found in all sediment samples. Such polymers most likely originate from single-use packaging materials (e.g., grocery bags, food packaging, bottles, straws, containers, cups, cutlery, etc.), textiles (e.g., clothes, carpets, rope and nets) and personal care products, and therefore may end up as discharge in sewage outlets. The PLI approach has been accepted and used in numerous studies to evaluate the pollution load of MP in sediments (Peng et al., 2018). However, the PLI risk level is usually incomparable among different studies due to the difference in background concentration values for calculation. In addition, the PLI is based only on the microplastic concentration without consideration of different MP characteristics (polymer types, colors, sizes and shapes). A high-risk degree of MP pollution in sediment would be highly dependent on the high toxicity of the polymer.

 The potential ecological risk index (RI) is utilized to evaluate the level of MP contamina- tion in the sediment. This index has not only considered MP concentration but also the toxici- ty of polymer types. The toxicity level and toxic effects of different MP polymers vary ac- cording to their chemical properties and compositions. Regarding the risk levels based on RI values in sediments of the Day and To Lich and Nhue Rivers, they were categorized into two levels: danger (RI: 600 - 1200), and extreme danger (RI > 1200), respectively (Table 2S). Despite the preponderance of PP and PE polymers with low hazard scores, which were found in the sediment from the rivers in this study, the presence of strong toxic such as PS, PU or PVC had an impact on the risk assessment of MP. Overall, MP in freshwater sediments from the To Lich, Nhue and Day Rivers exhibited a medium pollution load and danger, reaching an extreme ecological risk level. Reducing, reusing, recycling, and treating plastic waste requires a feasible solution in order to manage and prevent the increase of MP pollution loads in freshwater sediments from collected study areas. Finally, additionally to the MP concentration level, the potential ecological risk of MP should take into account their ability to act as a vec- tor of organic pollutants, metal contaminants, and microbial pathogens into organisms (He at al., 2020; Wootton et al., 2021). An ecological risk assessment indicator taking into account all those factors should be established to better characterize the impacts of MPs on riverine biodiversity.

Conclusion

 High MP abundance was observed in the surface sediments from the To Lich-Nhue- Day Rivers. The results clearly showed a decreasing trend of MP abundance from the dense urban areas toward the suburban zone areas. MP exhibited a significant positive and negative correlation with population and land use. MP and organic matter were positively correlated, suggesting that organic matter can play a significant role in MP trapping and retention in sediment. This finding can be relevant for urban rivers of developing cities or of developing countries from Vietnam and worldwide as the OM content is often higher due to direct wastewater released in the rivers. In the future, the effect of sediment characteristics on the fate and transport of MP should be further investigated especially on the point/non- point sources of MP, on particles interactions during their settling, and their impacts on ecosystems.

Conflict of interest statement

 The authors declare that the research was conducted in the absence of any commercial or fi-nancial relationships that could be construed as a potential conflict of interest.

Acknowledgements

 This research is funded by Vietnam National Foundation for Science and Technology Devel- opment (NAFOSTED) under grant number: **11/2020/TN.** The authors would like to thank the COMPOSE project, funded by French MEAE and conducted by IRD and French Embassy in Vietnam for providing research facilities. The authors also thank many individuals for their help in collecting samples in the field.

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789 **Table 1:** Polymer composition **(**MP numbe and percentage (%) of each polymer type) in sur-790 face sediment collected from the To Lich, Nhue, and the Day rivers

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794 **Table 2:** Comparison of MPs concentration in sediment from different rivers worldwide

796 **Table 3:** Organic matter, grain size cumulative weight (%) and parameters (geometric mean -

797 mm) in sediments collected from the urban and suburban rivers (the To Lich, the Nhue, and

798 the Day rivers; $n = 18$, 24 and 30, respectively)

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801 **Table 4:** Pearson correlations between Microplastic abundance, sediment properties (organic matter content - OM; medium grain size of 802 sediment - Sed.size), weight percentage of sand, silt, clay and characteristics (Area; population - Popul; population density - Pop.Den; land use 803 for agriculture - Agri; specially used land - Spec; land use for resident - Resid; Ur/ Rur- Urban/Rural) in sediment collected from the To Lich, 804 Nhue and Day rivers

	TMPs	OM	Sed siz	Sand		Fine Silt Coarse silt Clay		Area	Pop Den	Agri	Spec	Resid	Ur/Rur
TMPs													
OM	$0.7***$												
Sed Siz	$0.27*$	0.02	$\mathbf{1}$										
Sand	0.23	0.07	0.58	$\mathbf{1}$									
Fine silt	-0.25 [*]	0.01	$0.93***$	$-0.87***$									
Coarse silt	0.25^*	-0.02	$0.7***$	$0.34***$	-0.71 ***								
Clay	-0.32	-0.12	-0.8 ***	$-0.55***$	0.66 ***	-0.78							
Area	-0.52	$-0.3***$	-0.38 **	-0.25	0.34	-0.36	0.39						
Pop Den	$0.49***$	$0.28*$	0.35^*	0.21	-0.32	0.41	-0.4	-0.76					
Agri	$-0.5***$	-0.27 *	-0.22	-0.12	0.20	-0.26	0.24	0.74	-0.86	$\mathbf{1}$			
Resid	$0.53***$	0.3^*	0.29^*	0.17	-0.25	0.33	-0.36	-0.91	0.94	-0.88	0.85		
Urb/Rur	$0.72***$	$0.58***$	$0.45***$	$0.37***$	-0.42	0.34	-0.43	-0.64	0.74	-0.6	0.05	0.66	$\mathbf{1}$

806 Note: *** at the 0.01 level (2-tailed), correlation is significant; **. at the 0.01 level (2-tailed), correlation is significant; *. at the 0.05 level (2-807 tailed), correlation is significant.

 Figure 2: Spatial and seasonal distribution of microplastic concentrations in surface sediment 831 collected in urban rivers (To Lich, Nhue Rivers) and suburban river (Day River) during dry 832 and rainy seasons

 Figure 3: Mean proportion of microplastics shapes (fragment and fiber) observed in surface sediment samples collected in the To Lich, Nhue and Day Rivers

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 Figure 4: Mean percentage of microplastic colors observed in surface sediment collected from the To Lich River, Nhue and Day River

849 (a) area for fragment (b), in surface sediments collected from the To Lich, the Nhue and the 850 Day Rivers 851 852 853 854 100% 100% (a) (b) Cumulative distribution (%)
 $\frac{8}{3}$ $\frac{8}{3}$ $\frac{8}{3}$ $\frac{8}{3}$ Cumulative distribution (%)
 $\frac{8}{3}$ $\frac{8}{3}$ $\frac{8}{3}$ 0% 0% 1,000 2,000 3,000 4,000 5,000 6,000 1,000,000 2,000,000 3,000,000 4,000,000 5,000,000 6,000,000 Length in µm Area in µm² DR **NR** - TLR

848 **Figure 5:** Occurrence of microplastic concentrations according to their size, length for fiber

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 Figure 6: Principal component analysis (PCA) based on microplastic abundance, sediment properties (organic matter content - OM; medium grain size of sediment - Sed.size), mass percentage of sand, silt, clay and characteristics (Area; population - Popul; population density - Pop.Den; land use for agriculture - Agri; specially used land - Spec; land use for resident - Resid) in sediment collected from the To Lich, Nhue and Day rivers

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875 **Supplemental Tables and Figure**

877 **Table S 1**: Total area, total population density in area and land use types in the To Lich, Nhue and Day Rivers 879

River	Total area (km ²)	Total population in area $(10^6 \text{ inhabitants} \cdot \text{km}^2)$	Sites	Depth (m)	Population density $(inhabitants.km-2)$	Land use types
T _o Lich	77.5		TLR1	0.55	24 078	Urban
		1.6	TLR ₂	0.5	32 268	Urban
			TLR3	0.7	4 4 9 7	Urban
Nhue	1,075		NR1	1.3	7621	Urban
		5.3	NR ₂	1.2	8 4 2 3	Urban
			NR ₃	2.5	1752	Urban
			NR4	0.5	1841	suburban
Day			DR1	1.2	2 3 0 2	suburban
		22	DR ₂	1.3	8 4 2 3	Urban
	7,665		DR ₃	2.2	723	Rural
			DR ₄	2.3	1841	Rural
			DR ₅	2.1	1 0 43	Rural

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882 **Table 2S:** Pollution load index (PLI) and Potential Ecological Risk Index (RI) the sediment 883 samples collected from the To Lich, Nhue and Day Rivers

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