

1 **Plastic debris in the Mediterranean Sea: types, occurrence and distribution along Adriatic**
2 **shorelines**

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4 Cristina Munari¹, Marco Scoponi², Michele Mistri^{1*}

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6 ¹ *Department of Chemical and Pharmaceutical Sciences, University of Ferrara, Via Fossato di*
7 *Mortara 17, 44121 Ferrara, Italy*

8 ² *Advanced PolymerMaterials, Via G. Saragat 9, 44122 Ferrara, Italy*

9

10 * Corresponding author

11 *E-mail address: msm@unife.it (M. Mistri)*

12 *Tel: +39 0532 455736; Fax: +39 0532 249761*

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14 **Abstract**

15 Small plastic debris in sediments from five beaches were investigated to evaluate their occurrence
16 and abundance in the Northern Adriatic coast for the first time. Plastic debris extracted from
17 sediments were counted, weighted and identified by Fourier-transform infrared spectroscopy (FT-
18 IR). A total of 1345 items of debris (13.491 g) were recorded, with a mean density of 12.1 items kg⁻¹
19 d.w. and 0.12 g kg⁻¹ d.w. Fragments were the most frequent type of small plastics debris detected.
20 In terms of abundance, microplastics (<5 mm) accounted for 61% of debris, showing their wide
21 distribution on Adriatic coasts, even far-away from densely populated areas. The majority of the
22 polymers found were polyolefins: there were greater quantities of polyethylene and polypropylene
23 compared to other types of plastic. Primary microplastics accounted for only 5.6% of the total plastic
24 debris. There were greater quantities of microplastics at sites subjected to stronger riverine runoff.
25 The results will provide useful background information for further investigations to understand the
26 sink and sources of this emergent and priority contaminant.

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31 **Keywords**

32 Microplastics; Polymer composition; Beaches; Adriatic Sea; FT-IR spectroscopy

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34 **1. Introduction**

35 Plastics are essential in our everyday lives. World production of plastics has strongly expanded, from
36 1.7 million tonnes in 1950 to 322 million tonnes in 2015 (Plastic Europe, 2016). Whether deliberately
37 or accidentally, when plastics waste is not properly disposed it may end up as litter in the environment,
38 seas and rivers and harming wild life, fisheries and tourism. Through a combination of
39 photodegradation, oxidation and mechanical abrasion, the degradation rate of plastics in the
40 environment is slow and results in production of small fragments and microplastics (Barnes et al.,
41 2009). The existence of microplastics (plastic particulates < 5 mm; Ivar do Sul and Costa, 2014) in
42 the marine environment has been known for nearly half a century (Carpenter and Smith 1972). While
43 pictures of macroplastic debris in ocean gyres (Moore et al. 2001) and of the excessive accumulation
44 of litter on beaches in the most remote locations worldwide (e.g. Convey et al., 2002; Foster-Smith
45 et al., 2007) have fostered the awareness of plastic pollution, microplastics have emerged as an
46 imminent source of plastic contamination in the marine environment only recently as a consequence
47 of their eluding presence in sediments and seawater (Claessens et al., 2011; Ivar do Sul and Costa,
48 2014).

49 The most widely used plastics are polyethylene (PE), polypropylene (PP), polyvinyl chloride (PVC),
50 polystyrene (PS) and polyethylene terephthalate (PET), which represent grossly 90% of the total
51 world production (Andrady and Neal, 2009). Millions of tonnes of plastic waste (4.8 - 12.7 million
52 tonnes in 2010) end up the marine environment (Jambeck et al., 2015). Certain plastics are expected
53 to occur in greater abundances than others due to the relative proportions that are manufactured, used,
54 and discarded. For instance, half of all the plastics that are produced annually are polyolefins, i.e. PE
55 and PP (Plastic Europe, 2016), which are principally used to make packaging that is used once and
56 then discarded. It is, however, not known whether polyolefins occur in greater abundance as items of
57 debris compared to other polymers. The most prominent types of microplastics identified in the
58 marine environment include pellets, irregular fragments, films and fibres (Wright et al., 2013) of
59 which can be classified as primary or secondary microplastics. Primary microplastics are intentionally

60 produced as precursors to other products, while secondary microplastics result from the degradation
61 of macroplastics due to chemical, mechanical and photolytic degradation processes in the marine
62 environment (Mathalon and Hill, 2014). The sources of primary microplastics are usually plastic
63 pellet processing facilities at petrochemical plants, and specific trading activities such as oceanic
64 shipping routes (Thompson et al., 2009). Small sized primary microplastics granules are also present
65 in cosmetics products and used as abrasives in a wide range of applications (Browne, 2015).

66 The Marine Strategy Framework Directive, MSFD (2008/56/EC; European Commission, 2008)
67 establishes a framework for each Member State to take action to achieve or maintain Good
68 Environmental Status (GES) for the marine environment by 2020. The MSFD follows a holistic
69 functional approach identifying a set of 11 Descriptors, which collectively represent the state and
70 functioning of the whole system (Borja et al., 2010). Descriptor 10 (D10) is identified as "Properties
71 and quantities of marine litter do not cause harm to the coastal and marine environment" (European
72 Commission, 2008). Microplastics are considered specifically in descriptor 10 of the MSFD (10.1.3
73 "*Trends in the amount, distribution and, where possible, composition of micro-particles (in particular*
74 *micro-plastics)*"), and implicitly in the indicator related with impacts of litter on marine life.
75 According to the MSDF, microplastics should be categorized according to their physical
76 characteristics including size and shape. It is also important to obtain information on polymer type
77 (Gago et al., 2016).

78 The Adriatic Sea is characterized by one of the greatest seafloor litter pollution among Mediterranean
79 regions (Pasquini et al. 2016). The north-western Adriatic coast is thus vulnerable to plastic
80 accumulation on beaches from land sources due to river discharges, marine sources due to
81 aquaculture, fishing and recreational maritime activities, as well as being an important route for
82 commercial vessels and cruise ships. Abundant scientific literature has extensively explored the
83 various anthropogenic impacts affecting this fragile coastal ecosystem (Munari et al., 2011; Torresan
84 et al., 2012; Romano and Zullo, 2014), but the presence and diffusion of microplastics as
85 contaminants have not yet been investigated in any environmental compartment.

86 With the present study we wanted to assess, for the first time in the north-western Adriatic coast, the
87 quality and quantity of small plastic debris occurring in beach sediments to address the gap in
88 knowledge and to serve as a baseline for future comparisons. Further hypotheses tested were that: (1)
89 microplastics will be found in greater numerical abundance than macroplastic debris; (2) PE and PP
90 will be more abundant than other polymers due to differences in levels of production; (3) the amount
91 of primary microplastics will be prevalent respect to secondary microplastics because of nearby
92 petrochemical industrial parks (Marghera, Ferrara, Ravenna); (4) there will be differences in
93 microplastics abundance between beaches with strong riverine inputs and those with weak riverine
94 inputs. We considered beach sediments at the high water line, since they reflect the amount of
95 microplastics washed towards the coastlines with the tidal flows (Martins and Sobral, 2011).

96

97 **2. Methods**

98 *2.1 Study area*

99 Along the north-western Adriatic coast a large number of rivers discharge into the sea, being the Po
100 River the most relevant, followed by the Adige. Five beaches (Fig. 1), differently affected by riverine
101 runoff, were sampled. The considered area is subjected to intense marine traffic from supplier vessels
102 for offshore activities (gas platforms), trawl-fishing vessels, and recreational boats. It is also an area
103 of intense aquaculture, with offshore mussel farms, and coastal clam cultivations. Inland, a few dozen
104 kilometers away from the sampled beaches, there are three important petrochemical industrial parks:
105 Porto Marghera, Ferrara, and Ravenna.

106

107 *2.2 Sampling and analysis*

108 Beach surveys were conducted at the 5 beaches in May 2015. At each beach there were two replicate
109 sites separated by 200 m. Each site consisted of a 10 m stretch of linear shoreline. At each site,
110 sampling was performed by using quadrats placed along the last high tide mark, as plastic is
111 preferably accumulated in this zone (Martins and Sobral, 2011). Three replicate samples were

112 collected at each site by scraping the first 5 cm of sand from 50 × 50 cm quadrats (Galgani et al.,
113 2011; Martins and Sobral, 2011; Jayasiri et al., 2013). Replicates of the same site were separated by
114 5 m. All samples were obtained during calm conditions with low wave activity. Samples were placed
115 in labelled bags and transferred to the laboratory, where all replicates were analyzed separately.

116 In the laboratory, sediment samples were dried at 50°C during 48 hours. Each sediment sample was
117 then divided into subsamples and the plastic debris were removed under a dissection microscope
118 (Nikon SMZ45T, magnification 3.35-300x), counted and weighted to the nearest 0.0001 g. The
119 identified plastics were measured at their largest cross-section using calipers and classified into four
120 groups: micro (≤ 5 mm), meso ($>5-20$ mm), macro ($>20-100$ mm) and mega (>100 mm) (Jayasiri et
121 al., 2013). Plastic debris were also categorized according to shape (i.e., fibre, film, fragment or pellet).

122 Fourier-transform infrared spectroscopy (FT-IR) analysis of 20 plastic debris for each shape type was
123 carried out with a CARY 600 FT-IR (Agilent Technologies) instrument. Measurements were carried
124 out in attenuated total reflectance (ATR) configuration, with a Pike Miracle diamond cell. Tests were
125 carried out at 25°C in dry air. Particles were identified by comparing FT-IR absorbance spectra of the
126 microplastics to those in a self-collected, polymer reference library.

127 Differences in abundances of plastic debris (categorized by shape and dimension) were analyzed
128 through permutational analysis of variance (PERMANOVA). The similarity matrix was calculated
129 using the Bray-Curtis index and abundance data were $\log(x + 1)$ transformed. The experimental
130 design incorporated two factors: "Location" (fixed) with 5 levels: Rosolina (ROS), Volano (VOL),
131 Bellocchio (BEL), Casalborsetti (CAS) and Bevano (BEV), and "Site" (random and nested within the
132 factor "Location") with 10 levels: ROS1, ROS2, VOL1, VOL2, etc. Similarity percentage (SIMPER)
133 analysis was used to explore differences in plastics distribution (categorized by dimension) within
134 and between beaches. All statistical analyses were performed using PRIMER v.6 and its add-on
135 package PERMANOVA+ (Anderson et al., 2008).

136 Data of river runoff was obtained by Regional Agencies Annual Reports (ARPAV, 2014; ARPA,
137 2015).

138

139 **3. Results**

140 Thirty quadrats were sampled at the five beaches. Some examples of plastic debris collected during
141 the study are shown in Fig. 2. The smallest debris collected was 0.8 mm of length. All sediment
142 samples collected on the beaches contained plastics. A total of 1345 items of debris (13.491 g) were
143 recorded from the 30 samples of sediment, with a mean density of 12.1 items kg^{-1} d.w. and 0.12 g kg^{-1}
144 d.w. The greatest plastic abundance by number and weight was observed at Volano (21.6 ± 12.8
145 items kg^{-1} d.w., and 0.28 ± 0.29 g kg^{-1} d.w., respectively). In contrast, the lowest mean values by
146 number and weight were 5.99 ± 3.25 items kg^{-1} d.w. and 0.013 ± 0.01 g kg^{-1} d.w. at Bellocchio.

147 As predicted there was greater abundance of smaller debris (micro and meso) compared to macro and
148 mega plastic debris (Hypothesis 1). This was reflected in the frequency distribution of different sizes
149 of debris, which were skewed toward smaller debris (Fig. 3). In terms of numerical abundance,
150 microplastic accounted for 61% of the total amount found. Small plastic debris (micro and meso
151 plastics) made up 89.9% of total amount, while larger debris (macro and mega plastics) accounted
152 for 10.1%.

153 Identification through FT-IR spectroscopy evidenced that at all beaches the majority of the polymers
154 found were polyolefins (Fig.4). As predicted by Hypothesis 2, there were greater quantities of PE
155 (37.7% in weight) and PP (34.5% in weight) compared to other types of plastic (Nylon: 12.2%; PS:
156 9.4%; PET: 3.9%; PVC: 1.8%; and thermoplastic polyurethane, TPU: 0.6%). At all beaches the
157 majority of plastic debris were PE, except at Bevano where it was PP. The composition in weight by
158 polymer type of plastic debris at each of the five beaches is shown in Fig. 5. The primary shape types
159 (by number) were fragments (60.6%), followed by film (23.6%), and fibres (10.3%). Contrary to what
160 expected, pellets made up only 5.6% of all plastic shape types (Hypothesis 3). In Table 1 the average
161 abundance of shape type of beach plastics collected is shown. Fragments were identified as PE, PP,
162 PVC, PS and TPU. Fibres were identified as PE, PP and Nylon, and the film polymers were PE and
163 PP. Pellets were composed of PE or PP.

164 Rosolina is subjected to the Adige River runoff (average flow: $235 \text{ m}^3 \text{ s}^{-1}$), Volano to the Po River
165 runoff ($1540 \text{ m}^3 \text{ s}^{-1}$), Bellocchio to the Reno River ($96 \text{ m}^3 \text{ s}^{-1}$), Casalborsetti to the Lamone River (11
166 $\text{m}^3 \text{ s}^{-1}$), and Bevano to the Fiumi Uniti ($10 \text{ m}^3 \text{ s}^{-1}$) and Bevano creek ($1.5 \text{ m}^3 \text{ s}^{-1}$) runoff. So we have
167 two beaches subject to strong riverine runoff (Volano and Rosolina), and the other three (Bellocchio,
168 Casalborsetti and Bevano) to weak riverine runoff. According to PERMANOVA, significant
169 differences were found between locations (Tab. 2): there were differences in plastic abundances
170 categorized by shape and dimension between beaches subjected to strong riverine runoff (Rosolina
171 and Volano) and the others (Tab. 3; Supplementary Materials). As the number of unique values under
172 permutations was very low, P-values were obtained using Monte Carlo samples from the asymptotic
173 permutation distribution (Anderson and Robinson, 2003). These results were corroborated by
174 SIMPER analysis (Tab. 4, Supplementary Materials). Finally, a significant relationship ($r=0.91$,
175 $P<0.001$; Hypothesis 4) between the average abundance of microplastics ($< 5 \text{ mm}$) and riverine runoff
176 was found (Fig. 6).

177

178 **4. Discussion**

179 Biodegradation of plastic litter entering the environment from land- or sea-based sources is extremely
180 slow (Thompson et al., 2004). As almost all main Italian rivers flow into the Adriatic Sea (Po, Adige,
181 Brenta, Tagliamento, Isonzo, etc.), the Adriatic and its beaches provide a large sink for undegraded
182 synthetic polymers (Munari et al. 2016; Pasquini et al. 2016). The results of this study demonstrated
183 the presence of small plastic debris at all of the sampled Adriatic beaches. Quantified microplastic
184 concentrations in this study are comparable to other studies (e.g. Van Cauwenberghe et al., 2015),
185 although the wide array of existing techniques and quantification units limits the comparison of
186 results.

187 As predicted by Hypothesis 1, at all the 5 beaches microplastics comprised the majority of the plastic
188 debris (61%), with a declining plastic size with increasing plastic debris abundance. Barnes et al.
189 (2009) reported a generalized decrease in the mean size of plastic debris in the global environment,

190 along with the increasing abundance of such particles due to continuous degradation. Because of
191 weathering degradation, beaches are better settings than other natural environments for the
192 breakdown of plastic debris (Andrady, 2011), so it is extremely likely that the plastic debris present
193 in the 5 beaches will continue to fragment into smaller particles: this may facilitate dispersion by
194 wind or wave action, and thus the entry of microparticles into food webs. As shown in Fig. 2, most
195 of microplastics were colored. The colors of plastic debris, especially of the microplastics, causes
196 them to resemble natural food that is likely ingested by the biota (Andrady, 2011). Microplastics
197 comprise a frequently reported size category in ingestion studies (Thompson et al., 2004), and for this
198 reason they must be regarded as a real threat to marine life.

199 Results of FT-IR spectroscopy analysis indicated that most plastics were polyolefins, and as predicted
200 by Hypothesis 2, we found greater abundances of PE and PP compared to other polymers. These are
201 plastic resins with specific gravity less than one, permitting them to be positively buoyant and easily
202 deposited on beaches (Andrady 2011). Our finding is in agreement with previous studies of
203 macroplastic debris in which packaging was the most abundant type of debris found in coastal habitats
204 (Jayasiri et al., 2013; Zaho et al., 2015; Munari et al. 2016). This is not surprising, since PE, with an
205 annual global production of around 80 million tonnes, is mainly used to manufacture packaging
206 (plastic bags, plastic films, containers including bottles), and PP, with an annual global production of
207 around 55 million tonnes, is mainly used for packaging, reusable containers, stationery, textiles,
208 ropes, etc. (Thompson et al., 2004).

209 Fragments by number and weight were the most frequent type of small plastics debris detected, and
210 were identified as PE, PP, PVC, PS and TPU. The main source of fragments was attributed to the
211 breaking down of larger items. Fragmentation of larger items is mainly driven by photo-oxidative,
212 thermal- and biodegradation (Andrady, 2011), but rates and mechanisms may vary among polymer
213 types: PE, for example, is more readily fragmented by weathering events, while PP is more subject
214 to mechanical degradation (Cooper and Corcoran, 2010). At our beaches, fragments had all sorts of
215 shapes, but the majority were jagged fragments of larger plastic items. Films were the second most

216 common type of plastic debris, and were composed by PE and PP. Plastic film is mainly used for
217 single-use packaging for food. Fibres were the third most common type of debris: PE, PP and Nylon
218 fibres are used to produce bags and ropes, which are widely used in the local aquaculture and fishing
219 industry. Contrary to Hypothesis 3, primary microplastics (i.e. virgin plastic pellets) accounted for
220 only 5.6% of the 1345 sampled plastic debris. The presence of these virgin plastic pellets does not
221 imply long-range marine transports since there are large petrochemical industrial parks with pellet-
222 producing and pellet-processing plants (e.g. Lyondell-Basell at Ferrara, Eni-Versalis at Ravenna and
223 Porto Marghera) nearby the sampled beaches. These results show that north-western Adriatic beach
224 sediments are more contaminated by secondary microplastics than by virgin plastic pellets. These
225 results may also mean that, at least in northeastern industrial area, petrochemical companies have
226 become sensitive to environmental issues, and their policies to prevent accidental spilling of virgin
227 plastic pellets during production and transport phases seem real and effective.

228 Most studies report high microplastic concentrations in sediments close to densely populated areas
229 (Barnes et al., 2009; Costa et al., 2010; Claessens et al., 2011; Jayasiri et al., 2013; Zhao et al., 2015).
230 In this study, higher values ranging from 21.6 ± 12.8 items kg^{-1} d.w. (Volano) to 16.6 ± 2.3 items kg^{-1}
231 d.w. (Rosolina), were obtained in natural zones far-away from densely populated areas, being all
232 beaches considered in this study included in the Po River Delta Parks and in the Natura 2000 Italian
233 network. The comparison of our results with those from the Lagoon of Venice (Vianello et al., 2013;
234 plastics ranging from 2175 to 672 items kg^{-1} d.w.) shows that the level of contamination from small
235 plastics in our beaches is lower than in the Lagoon. In addition to the different method of microplastics
236 extraction (there is no standardized procedure for microplastics analysis; Morét-Ferguson et al., 2010)
237 this is probably because of the different local hydrodynamic regimes since microplastics tend to
238 accumulate in low-dynamic areas. Small plastic debris, discharged into the sea indirectly via
239 wastewaters, sewage pipelines and terrestrial runoff (Derraik, 2002), would be expected in higher
240 quantities in beaches subjected to stronger riverine runoff, since higher discharge might positively
241 impact the higher plastic density. As a matter of fact, the highest microplastic concentrations in this

242 study were encountered at Volano and Rosolina, two beaches subjected to Po and Adige River runoff
243 respectively, rather than Bellocchio or Bevano, which are affected by a much weaker riverine runoff
244 (Hypothesis 4). Trivially, this study provides evidence indicating that natural areas are not excluded
245 from microplastic contamination. This causes concern since the presence of microplastics in beach
246 sediments may result in changes in their physical characteristics, such as sediment permeability and
247 thermal insulation properties, that can have a variety of potential impacts on beach organisms (Carson
248 et al., 2011).

249

250 **5. Conclusions**

251 This study represents a baseline for microplastic research in the coastal sediment compartment in the
252 Mediterranean Sea. We sampled 5 north-western Adriatic beaches for small plastic debris and we
253 found all beaches to be contaminated. Microplastics (<5 mm) resulted in greater abundance than other
254 plastic debris. Seven polymer types were found, but at all beaches the majority of plastic debris were
255 polyethylene and polypropylene. Secondary microplastics were dominant, resulting more abundant in
256 beaches with strong riverine inputs. The cleaning of these beaches is promoted by local NGOs like
257 Legambiente or WWF, it is occasional (grossly once a year) and carried out by citizens and school
258 groups on a voluntary basis. However, beach cleaning only concerns medium-large sized litter, as
259 bottles and bags. As there are no cleaning possibility available for such a small items, the only option
260 is to prevent and combat the presence of larger plastic items in the environment. The ubiquitous
261 prevalence of microplastics in north-western Adriatic beaches (and thus in the marine environment)
262 indicates the need of more research to understand the sink and sources of this emergent and priority
263 contaminant in the marine environment and biota.

264

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Codice campo modificato

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379 Figure Legend

380 Fig. 1. Location of the study beaches (ROS: Rosolina; VOL: Volano; BEL: Bellocchio; CAS:
381 Casalborsetti; BEV: Bevano). Main petrochemical industrial parks are also indicated.

382 Fig. 2. Examples of the collected plastic debris.

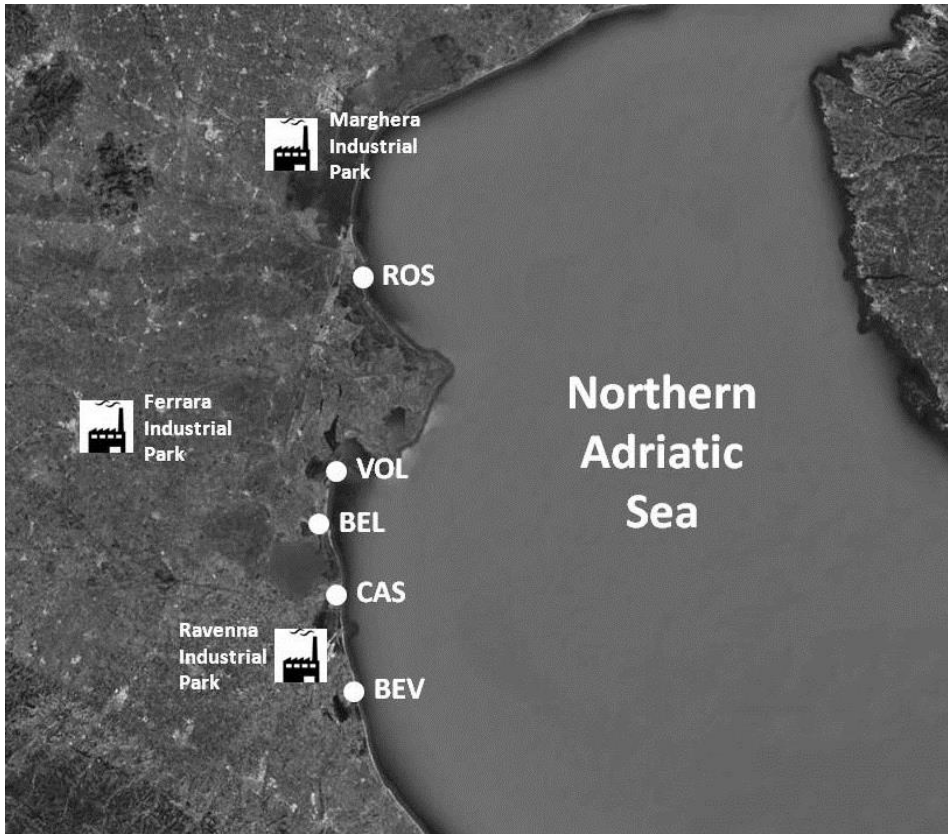
383 Fig. 3. Composition of plastic debris collected at the five beaches according to size: Micro (≤ 5 mm),
384 Meso (>5 –20 mm), Macro (>20 –100 mm) and Mega (>100 mm).

385 Fig. 4. FT-IR spectroscopy spectra of the plastics collected in this study.

386 Fig. 5. Weight composition of plastic debris collected at the five beaches according to type of
387 polymer.

388 Fig. 6. Relationship between average riverine flows and abundance of microplastics (< 5 mm).

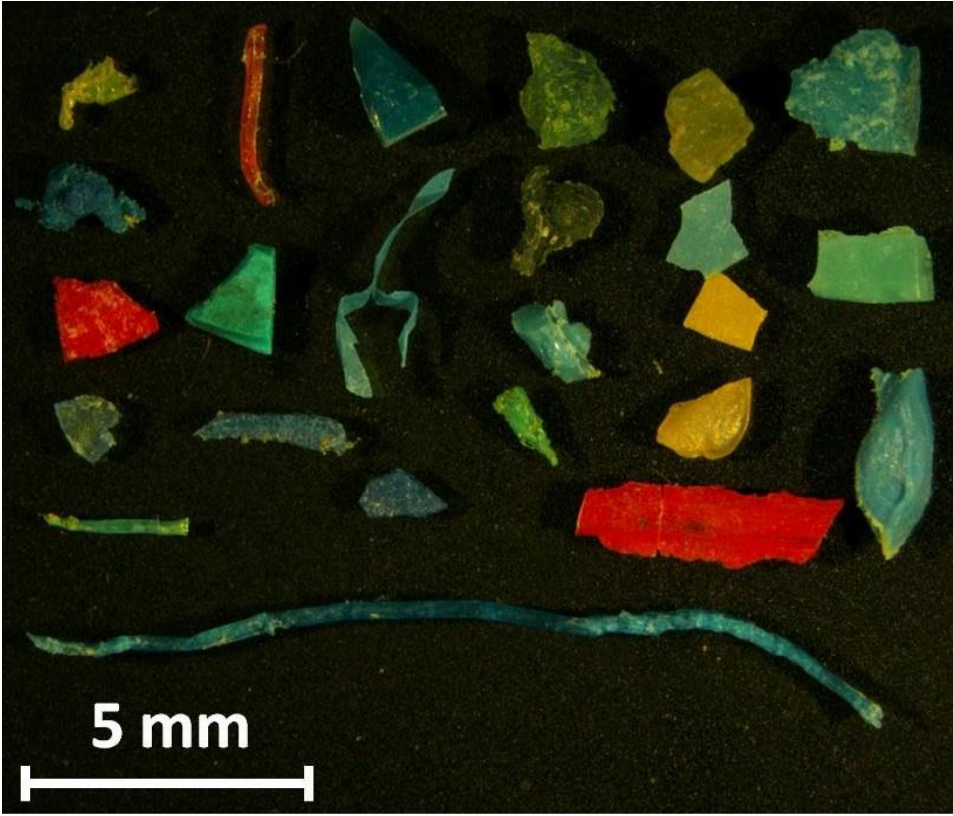
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391 Fig. 1

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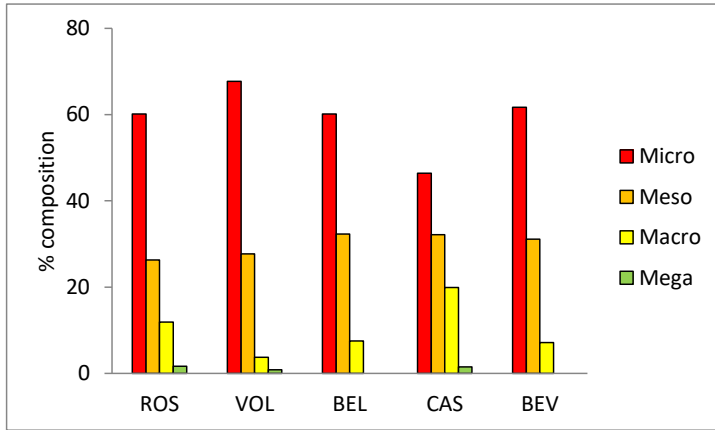


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395 Fig. 2

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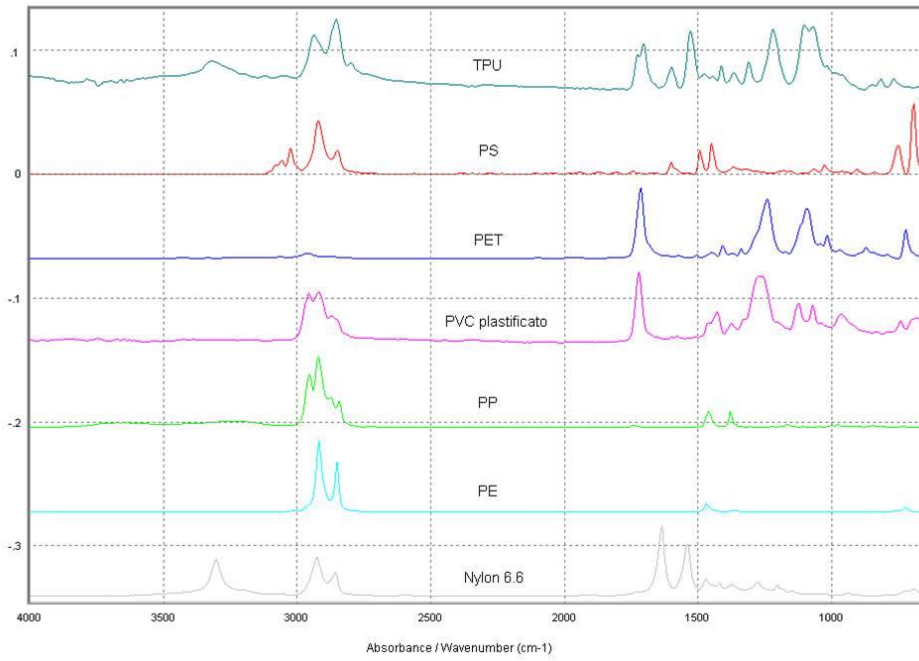


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399 Fig. 3

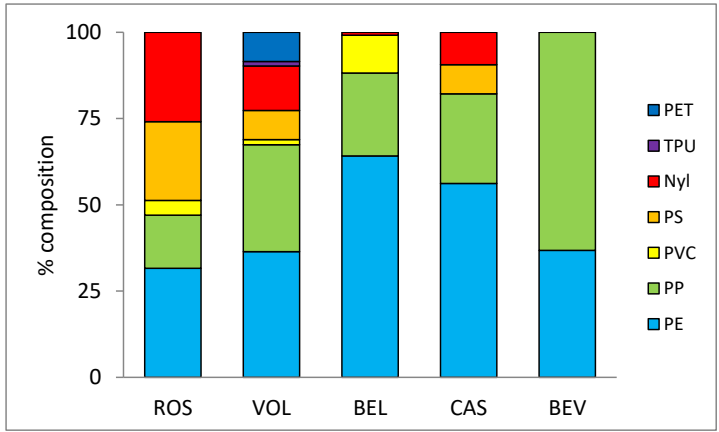
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402 Fig. 4.

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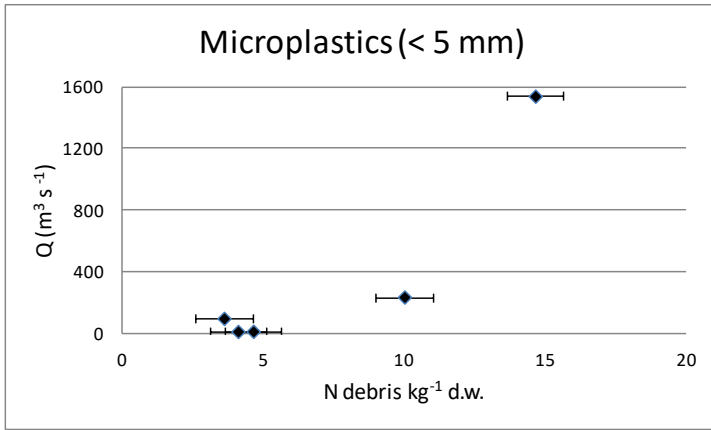
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406 Fig. 5

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410 Fig. 6

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Table 1.

Shape type of beach plastics collected. Values represent average

abundance (pcs per kg of dry sediment) and standard deviation (in italics (for comparison with other studies, use a conversion constant of 14.8 to obtain pcs per m²).

Location	Site	Fibre	Film	Pellet	Fragment
Rosolina	ROS1	0.99	4.77	1.35	10.36
		<i>0.87</i>	<i>0.95</i>	<i>0.47</i>	<i>3.53</i>
	ROS2	1.80	4.68	1.44	7.84
		<i>0.41</i>	<i>1.84</i>	<i>0.68</i>	<i>3.01</i>
Volano	VOL1	1.17	5.41	0.90	10.81
		<i>0.31</i>	<i>6.58</i>	<i>0.78</i>	<i>9.87</i>
	VOL2	1.08	5.14	1.26	17.48
		<i>0.27</i>	<i>1.77</i>	<i>0.41</i>	<i>7.20</i>
Bellocchio	BEL1	0.63	1.53	0.27	4.23
		<i>0.68</i>	<i>1.28</i>	<i>0.27</i>	<i>2.92</i>
	BEL2	0.90	0.63	0.54	3.24
		<i>0.41</i>	<i>0.41</i>	<i>0.27</i>	<i>0.81</i>
Casalborsetti	CAS1	3.51	2.16	0.36	3.51
		<i>1.89</i>	<i>1.43</i>	<i>0.31</i>	<i>1.64</i>
	CAS2	2.16	1.62	0.36	3.96
		<i>0.54</i>	<i>0.47</i>	<i>0.16</i>	<i>1.80</i>
Bevano	BEV1	0.09	1.17	0.09	7.12
		<i>0.16</i>	<i>0.83</i>	<i>0.16</i>	<i>3.20</i>
	BEV2	0.09	1.44	0.18	4.86
		<i>0.16</i>	<i>1.13</i>	<i>0.16</i>	<i>2.15</i>

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Table 2.
Main tests from PERMANOVA on unrestricted permutation of log(x+1) shape and dimension data of plastic debris. Significant P-values are in bold

<i>Shape</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>SS</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>Pseudo-F</i>	<i>P(perm)</i>	<i>P(MC)</i>
Location = Lo	4	5191.7	1297.9	14.169	0.0023	0.0003
Site = Si(Lo)	5	458	91.6	0.435	0.9353	0.9248
Residual	20	4213	210.7			
Total	29	9862.6				
<i>Dimension</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>SS</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>Pseudo-F</i>	<i>P(perm)</i>	<i>P(MC)</i>
Location = Lo	4	2746.9	686.7	3.112	0.0285	0.0388
Site = Si(Lo)	5	1103.5	220.7	1.203	0.3162	0.3163
Residual	20	3669.6	183.5			
Total	29	7519.9				

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