



Particles under stress: Ultrasonication causes size and recovery rate artifacts with soil derived POM,

³ but not with microplastics.

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8 Abstract. The breakdown of soil aggregates and the extraction of particulate organic matter 9 (POM) by ultrasonication and density fractionation is a method widely used in soil organic matter (SOM) analyses. It has recently also been used for the extraction of microplastic from 10 soil samples. However, the investigation of some POM physiochemical properties and 11 12 ecological functions might be biased, if particles are comminuted during the treatment. In this work, different types of POM, which are representative for different terrestrial ecosystems and 13 anthropogenic influences, were tested for their structural stability in face of ultrasonication in a 14 range of 0 to 500 J ml⁻¹. The occluded particulate organic matter (oPOM) of an agricultural 15 and forest soil as well as pyrochar showed a significant reduction of particle size at ≥50 J ml⁻¹ 16 by an average factor of 1.37±0.16 and a concurrent reduction of recovery rates by an average 17 of 21.7±10.7 % when being extracted. Our results imply that ultrasonication causes an 18 imitated carry-over of POM to more strongly bound fractions or to the mineral-associated 19 20 organic matter (MOM) due to enhanced attraction to the mineral phase, which could e.g. lead 21 to a false estimation of physical stabilization. In contrast, neither fresh nor weathered 22 polyethylene (PE), polyethylene terephthalate (PET) and polybutylene adipate terephthalate (PBAT) microplastics showed a reduction of particle size or the recovery rate after application 23 of ultrasound. We conclude that ultrasonication applied to soils has no impact on microplastic 24 25 size distribution and thus provides a valuable tool for the assessment of microplastics in soils 26 and soil aggregates.





27 1 Introduction

28 The mechanical disintegration of soil aggregates by use of ultrasonication following the 29 method of Edwards and Bremner (1967a) is widely used in the assessment of soil organic 30 matter (SOM) stability. This includes characteristics such as aggregate composition and 31 stability (Edwards and Bremner, 1967b), the constitution of SOM pools (Golchin et al., 1994), 32 the stabilization of SOM in forest ecosystems (Graf-Rosenfellner et al., 2016) and the 33 occlusive strength of particulate organic matter (POM) (Büks and Kaupenjohann, 2016). 34 Ultrasonication is also applied to assess quantities and qualities of anthropogenic contaminants such as microplastics (Zhang and Liu, 2018; Zhang et al., 2018). 35

36 In studies on soil carbon pools, sonotrodes are applied to break down soil aggregates and separate the free and occluded light fractions (fLF and oLF) from the heavy fraction (HF). 37 38 These operational fractions correspond largely to the free particulate organic matter (fPOM), 39 the occluded particulate organic matter (oPOM) and the mineral-associated organic matter (MOM), which are assigned to the labile, intermediate and stable carbon pool, respectively, 40 41 and have turnover times of <1 year (labile) to several thousands of years (stable) (Lützow et 42 al., 2007). Furthermore, the extracted POM fractions may not only contain the natural but also 43 anthropogenic components such as microplastic. Its quantification and characterization is a very topical task in the growing research on microplastic contamination of soils and requires a 44 45 high extractive performance. In addition, when optical methods are used to determine the size 46 and shape of the microplastic, the extraction should also cause the least possible damage to 47 the extracted material, because both attributes provide information about the source (Zhang and Liu, 2018; Ding et al., 2020), the mobility within the soil pore space (O'Connor et al., 48 49 2019) and the ingestibility of microplastic by soil organisms (Büks et al., in review).

The common method of ultrasonication is carried out with a pieco-electric converter, that uses 50 51 electric energy to generate axial vibration of a sonotrode, which is dipped into a flask 52 containing a fluid and a submerged soil sample. The oscillating sonotrode emits acoustic pulses within the fluid. In front of the shock-waves the medium is compressed, and the 53 54 increased pressure causes an increased gas solubility. Behind the wave the medium relaxes 55 and the pressure drops below the normal level leading to an explosive outgassing (Ince et al., 2001). This so called cavitation effect produces lots of exploding micro-bubbles between 56 57 particles and within cavities of the soil matrix generating very local pressure peaks of 58 200 to 500 atm accompanied by temperatures of 4200 to 5000 K (Ince et al., 2001). It 59 provokes the detachment of physiochemical bondings between soil primary particles and soil aggregates and, thus, causes disaggregation. Depending on device type and settings, the 60 vibration frequency can vary up to 10000 kHz, but low frequencies around 20 to 100 kHz are 61 62 recommended for soil aggregate dispersion to avoid chemical alteration of OM, and the use of 63 40 kHz is very common. (Kaiser and Berhe, 2014; Graf-Rosenfellner et al., 2018)





As an artifact of the method, ultrasonication is known to provide mechanical and thermal 64 stress strong enough to comminute mineral particles at energy levels >700 J ml⁻¹ (Kaiser and 65 Berhe, 2014). Also, the destructive influence on POM was tested in different studies and 66 67 appears even at energy levels much lower than 700 J ml⁻¹. Without application of a solid mineral matrix, Balesdent et al. (1991) found >60 % of the POM in suspension comminuted 68 after application of 300 J ml⁻¹. Amelung and Zech (1999) treated natural soils with 69 70 0 to 1500 J ml⁻¹ and performed a separation into size fractions of <20 μ m, 20 to 250 μ m and 71 >250 μ m. At >100 J ml⁻¹ POM was transferred from the >250 μ m to the <20 μ m fraction. In a 72 similar manner, Yang et al. (2009) measured the mass and SOC content of sand, silt and clay 73 sized particle fractions in natural soils using an unconventional pulse/non-pulse 74 ultrasonication technique. The authors derived the comminution of POM at >600 J ml⁻¹. Oorts et al. (2005) added ¹³C-enriched straw to natural soils and could show that larger amounts of 75 POM were redistributed at 450 J ml⁻¹ when its degree of decomposition was higher. In 76 77 conclusion, those studies consistently found a comminution of POM by ultrasonic treatment, 78 which appears, however, at very different energy levels and is likely affected by the aggregation regime (suspended without mineral matrix, added as fPOM, occluded within 79 natural soils), direct or indirect quantification of POM and the type of POM. 80

The aim of this work was to test under standardized conditions how susceptible different 81 82 POMs are to comminution by ultrasonic treatment. We embedded three POMs (farm oPOM. forest oPOM and pyrochar, applied as an analog for soil black carbon and biochar 83 amendments) and also six differently weathered microplastics (fresh and weathered low-84 85 density polyethylene (LD-PE), polyethylene terephthalate (PET) as well as polybutylene adipate terephthalate (PBAT), a common biodegradable material) into a fine sand matrix. 86 Then, we treated these mixtures with 0, 10, 50, 100 and 500 J ml⁻¹, re-extracted the organic 87 88 particles with density fractionation and measured their recovery rates and particle size 89 distributions. The sand matrix was used only to simulate the influence of pore space on cavitation and, thus, our simplified approach excluded broadly varying POM-mineral 90 91 interactions resulting from aggregation processes in natural soil samples. We hypothesized 92 the strongest comminution in case of the two oPOMs, that already started to decomposed 93 within their former natural soil matrix, and we were curious about the effect of ultrasonication and artificial weathering on the structural stability of microplastic, which has not been studied 94 95 before.





96 2 Material and methods

97 2.1 Preparation of POM

98 The farm and forest oPOMs were extracted from air-dried soil aggregates of 630 to 2000 μ m 99 in diameter sampled in 10 to 20 cm depth from an organic horticulture near 100 Oranienburg/Brandenburg (N 52° 46' 54, E 13° 11' 50, texture Ss, C_{org}=4.9 g kg⁻¹, pH 5.8) and a spruce/beech mixed forest near Bad Waldsee/Banden-Württemberg (N 47° 50' 59, 101 E 9° 41' 30, texture SI4, C_{ord}=7.3 g kg⁻¹, pH 3.4), respectively. The extraction was performed 102 103 by use of a density fractionation in 1.6 g cm⁻³ dense sodium polytungstate (SPT) solution: In 104 12-fold replication, 120 ml of SPT solution were added to 30 g of aggregates in a 200 ml PE 105 bottle. The sample was stored for 1 h to allow the SPT solution to infiltrate the aggregates and was then centrifuged at 3500 G for 26 min. The floating free particulate organic matter (fPOM) 106 107 was removed by use of a water jet pump and discarded. The remaining sample was refilled to 108 120 ml with SPT solution and sonicated for 30 sec ($\approx 10 \text{ J ml}^{-1}$) by use of a sonotrode (Branson[©] Sonifier 250) in order to flaw the structure of macroaggregate (>250 μm). Then, 109 110 centrifugation and removal of the oPOM were executed as for the fPOM. The gained oPOM 111 was filtered off with an 0.45 μ m cellulose acetate membrane filter, washed 3 to 5 times with 112 200 ml deionized water within the filter device until the rinse had an electrical conductivity of $<50 \ \mu\text{S cm}^{-1}$, removed from the filter by rinsing with deionized water, collected and gently 113 114 dried for 48 h at 40°C. At the end, the oPOMs were sieved to 2000 µm, long-shaped residues 115 were cut by a sharp knife, sieved again and pooled to one oPOM sample. The pyrogenic char 116 sample (made from pine wood, pyrolysed at 850°C for 0.5 h by PYREG® GmbH) was dried for 24 h at 105°C, ground in a mortar and sieved to <630 μ m. The microplastics (LD-PE, PET 117 and PBAT) were made from plastic films by repeated milling (Fritsch Pulverisette 14) with 118 liquid nitrogen and sieved to <500 μ m. Then, half of each sample was weathered for 96 h at 119 38°C, 1000 W m⁻² (solar spectrum, 280 to 3000 nm) and a relative air humidity of 50 % 120 121 following DIN EN ISO 4892-2/3.

122 2.2 Mechanical stress treatment

123 In order to test their stability against ultrasonication, the nine POM types (farm and forest oPOM and pyrochar as well as fresh and weathered LD-PE, PET and PBAT) were each 124 exposed in triplicates to different mechanical stress levels (0, 10, 50, 100 and 500 J ml⁻¹). 125 Therefore, 1 % w/w POM, and 0.5 % w/w in case of the oPOMs, were embedded into an acid-126 127 washed and calcinated fine sand matrix, which simulates the soil mineral matrix. These artificial soils (each 20 g) were stored in 100 ml of 1.6 g cm⁻³ dense SPT solution for 1 h in 128 200 ml PE bottles, that did not show measurable release of plastic fragments due to 129 sonication in preliminary tests with a pure fine sand matrix (data not shown). Mechanical 130 131 stress was applied by use of a sonotrode (Branson[©] Sonifier 250) as described by Büks and





132 Kaupenjohann (2016). The sonication times corresponding to 0, 10, 50, 100 and 500 J ml⁻¹ 133 were determined by means of the sonotrode's energy output calculated following North 134 (1976). After the ultrasonic treatment, samples were centrifuged at 3500 G for 26 min. The 135 floated POM was removed by use of a water-jet pump, separated and cleaned by rinsing with 136 deionized water on a 0.45 μ m cellulose acetate membrane filter until the electrical 137 conductivity of the rinse went below 50 μ S cm⁻¹, and then lyophilized.

138 **2.3 Determination of recovery rates**

After lyophilization, the recovery rate $R=m_t m_0^{-1}$ was determined by weighing as the ratio of the recovered POM mass after treatment (m_t) to the initial POM mass (m_0) for all POM types and energy levels. The recovery rates for each replicate were plotted over the energy levels to show initial rates at 0 J ml⁻¹ and the influence of the mechanical stress treatment increasing to 500 J ml⁻¹ (Fig. 1). The recovery rate at a certain energy level is assumed significantly different to the 0 J ml⁻¹ level, if a pairwise t-test results in a p<0.05 (Table 1).

145 **2.4 Measurement of particle sizes**

146 All samples continued to be used for particle sizing. After pre-trials have shown that mainly 147 the hydrophobic particles (microplastics and pyrochar) coagulated in distilled water, aggregation was avoided by suspension in 0.1 % w/v Tween© 20 detergent solution and 148 149 vortexing following Katija et al. (2017). About 100 mg of POM were suspended in 500 ml 0.1 % Tween© 20 solution and size classified with a QICPIC image analysis device 150 151 (Sympatec GmbH, Clausthal-Zellerfeld, Germany) using a modified method from Kayser et al. (2019). Counts were grouped into 34 size classes from <5.64 µm to 1200-1826.94 µm and 152 plotted as cumulative histograms of each replicate and their mean values (Fig. 2a and 2b). As 153 the primary criterion for the reduction in particle size, the first 10% and 50% quantile 154 (median) values were compared by pairwise t-test between 0 J ml⁻¹ and each other energy 155 156 level, respectively. As particle size reduction could be significant but still marginal in case of a low variance between parallels and and a low grade of comminution at the same time, the 157 158 averaged comminution factor (CF) was introduced. It is defined as

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$$CF = \frac{\sum_{i} \left(\frac{X_{0,i}}{X_{i}}\right)}{i} \quad (1)$$

with i the number of parallels, $x_{0,i}$ the quantile value of the 0 J ml⁻¹ energy level and x_i the value of the compared energy level. A sample is then assumed significantly different to the 0 J ml⁻¹ control and not marginal, if the p-value given by the t-test is <0.05 and the





163 comminution factor is >1.1 for the 10 % quantile, the median or both, while its standard

164 deviation is sd<|CF-1|. (Table 2)





165 3 Results

166 **3.1 Resulting recovery rates**

All microplastic samples (LD-PE, PET and PBAT) show a constantly high recovery rate of about 97.1±2.5 % in average over the whole range of applied energy levels. In sharp contrast, all soil derived POMs (farmland, forest) and pyrochar were decreasingly recovered along with

170 increasing energy levels and had significant differences to the 0 J ml⁻¹ treatment at \geq 10 J ml⁻¹.

171 \geq 100 J ml⁻¹ and \geq 100 J ml⁻¹, respectively. (Fig. 1, Table 1)

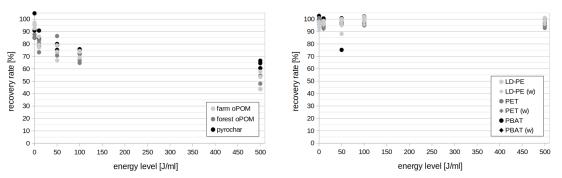


Figure 1: Recovery rates of natural POMs (left) and microplastics (right) after ultrasonic treatment with 0, 10, 50, 100 and 500 J ml⁻¹ (n=3). The (w) marks weathered plastics.

Table 1: Recovery rates of natural POMs and microplastics from after ultrasonic treatment with 0, 10, 50, 100 and 500 J ml⁻¹ (n=3). The (w) marks weathered plastics, mv mean value and sd standard deviation. Bold numbers are significantly different from the 0 J ml⁻¹ treatment by p<0.05.

	recovery rate [%w/w]					
sample	0 J ml⁻¹	10 J ml ⁻¹	50 J ml⁻¹	100 J ml ⁻¹	500 J ml⁻¹	
	mv sd	mv sd	mv sd	mv sd	mv sd	
farm oPOM	95.0 ± 2.3	80.8 ± 4.5	73.2 ± 6.1	72.3 ± 2.8	51.6 ± 7.2	
forest oPOM	89.3 ± 5.4	79.0 ± 5.1	76.9 ± 8.4	67.8 ± 3.6	48.7 ± 5.4	
pyrochar	93.5 ± 10.1	84.6 ± 6.1	78.1 ± 2.5	74.3 ± 1.9	63.8 ± 3.1	
LD-PE	96.9 ± 1.2	97.3 ± 1.0	95.8 ± 6.7	99.9 ± 1.9	99.2 ± 1.6	
LD-PE (w)	93.9 ± 3.4	96.5 ± 1.2	96.6 ± 1.5	98.9 ± 3.0	97.8 ± 1.7	
PET	98.6 ± 2.5	94.0 ± 1.6	98.7 ± 2.5	98.5 ± 2.0	94.3 ± 1.3	
PET (w)	96.2 ± 2.5	95.4 ± 3.0	97.0 ± 2.0	95.5 ± 1.0	96.4 ± 3.3	
PBAT	99.6 ± 2.5	99.5 ± 0.9	90.9 ± 13.8	98.3 ± 3.6	98.2 ± 0.9	
PBAT (w)	97.7 ± 0.9	99.3 ± 1.9	96.8 ± 1.6	96.6 ± 1.7	99.3 ± 1.9	





172 3.2 POM size distribution

173 None of the plastics shows a significant reduction of particle size due to ultrasonic treatment 174 within the 10 % and 50 % quantile. In contrast, at \geq 100 J ml⁻¹ the particle size of farm and 175 forest oPOM was significantly reduced compared to the 0 J ml⁻¹ treatment in both quantiles. 176 Ultrasonic treatment also causes a significant comminution of pyrochar, but of mainly the 177 smaller fraction indicated by the 10 % quantile, which appeared at \geq 50 J ml⁻¹ and is only 178 interrupted due to an outlier at 100 J ml⁻¹. The 50 % quantile data (median) remain 179 insignificant. (Fig. 2a and 2b , Table 2)





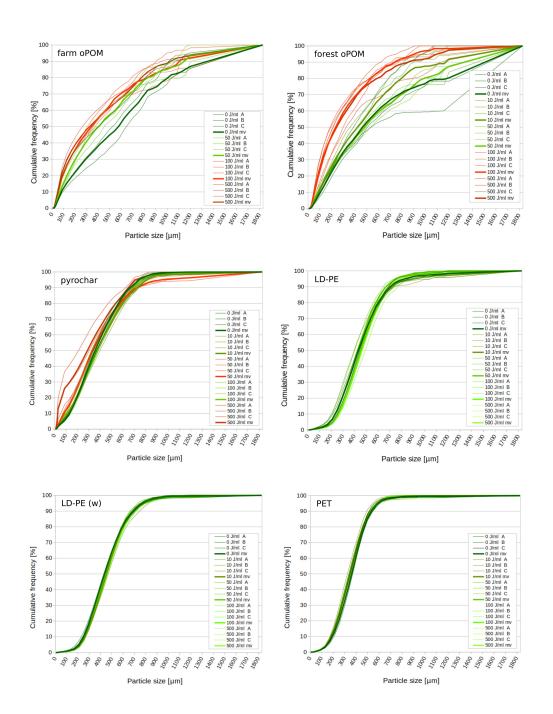


Figure 2a: Particle size distribution of natural POMs and microplastics after ultrasonic treatment with 0, 10, 50, 100 and 500 J ml⁻¹ (n=3). The (w) marks weathered plastics. Green graphs are similar to the 0 J ml⁻¹ treatment, red graphs significantly different by p<0.05 and comminution factor >1.1.





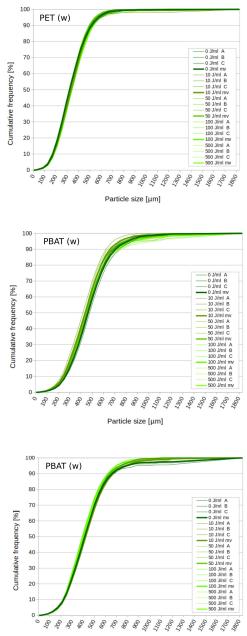




Figure 2b: Particle size distribution of microplastics after ultrasonic treatment with 0, 10, 50, 100 and 500 J ml⁻¹ (n=3). The (w) marks weathered plastics. Green graphs are similar to the 0 J ml⁻¹ treatment (p \ge 0.05 or comminution factor \le 1.1).





Table 2: Particle size distribution (10 % and 50 % quantile) and comminution factor of natural POMs and microplastics after ultrasonic treatment with 0, 10, 50, 100 and 500 J ml⁻¹ (n=3). The (w) marks weathered plastics, mv mean value and sd standard deviation. Bold numbers are significantly different from the 0 J ml⁻¹ treatment by p<0.05 and comminution factor >1.1.

		size dis	stribution	comminution factor		
		10% quantile	50% quantile	10% quantile	50% quantile	
POM type	J/ml	mv sd	mv sd	mv sd	mv sd	
	0	82.90 ± 9.46	561.33 ± 72.98	1.00 ± 0.00	1.00 ± 0.00	
	10	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	
farm oLF	50	72.31 ± 15.39	401.40 ± 47.86	1.17 ± 0.15	1.17 ± 0.34	
	100	53.40 ± 2.61	344.64 ± 33.40	1.56 ± 0.26	1.56 ± 0.23	
	500	47.21 ± 2.46	365.57 ± 52.18	1.76 ± 0.21	1.76 ± 0.23	
forest oLF	0	108.08 ± 17.40	476.26 ± 79.01	1.00 ± 0.00	1.00 ± 0.00	
	10	91.71 ± 11.04	422.27 ± 68.13	1.19 ± 0.27	1.17 ± 0.36	
	50	84.92 ± 16.97	485.08 ± 41.44	1.28 ± 0.09	0.98 ± 0.14	
	100	60.48 ± 16.40	233.11 ± 58.78	1.87 ± 0.55	2.18 ± 0.80	
	500	55.49 ± 13.01	244.41 ± 70.33	1.98 ± 0.28	2.02 ± 0.48	
	0	130.33 ± 6.33	355.79 ± 16.19	1.00 ± 0.00	1.00 ± 0.00	
	10	119.09 ± 16.07	369.18 ± 39.01	1.10 ± 0.11	0.97 ± 0.15	
pyrochar	50	81.39 ± 10.07	333.41 ± 9.59	1.62 ± 0.25	1.07 ± 0.08	
	100	103.37 ± 33.73	371.92 ± 19.99	1.34 ± 0.38	0.96 ± 0.09	
	500	31.18 ± 11.70	284.35 ± 67.85	4.59 ± 1.67	1.30 ± 0.28	
LD-PE	0	235.15 ± 19.46	433.21 ± 9.18	1.00 ± 0.00	1.00 ± 0.00	
	10	236.54 ± 29.80	432.25 ± 31.43	1.00 ± 0.06	1.01 ± 0.06	
	50	237.80 ± 28.51	425.20 ± 26.47	1.01 ± 0.20	1.02 ± 0.08	
	100	263.23 ± 6.87	463.10 ± 24.59	0.89 ± 0.05	0.94 ± 0.03	
	500	266.29 ± 5.32	454.22 ± 9.98	0.88 ± 0.06	0.95 ± 0.01	
LD-PE (w)	0	245.69 ± 15.39	435.02 ± 6.41	1.00 ± 0.00	1.00 ± 0.00	
	10	260.20 ± 5.64	451.72 ± 16.36	0.94 ± 0.04	0.96 ± 0.03	
	50	265.51 ± 1.55	451.20 ± 6.71	0.93 ± 0.06	0.96 ± 0.03	
	100	253.61 ± 7.67	442.70 ± 3.57	0.97 ± 0.08	0.98 ± 0.02	
	500	262.94 ± 3.25	458.59 ± 4.03	0.93 ± 0.06	0.95 ± 0.02	
PET	0	193.66 ± 11.91	360.74 ± 11.96	1.00 ± 0.00	1.00 ± 0.00	
	10	180.15 ± 7.97	339.89 ± 13.84	1.08 ± 0.12	1.06 ± 0.07	
	50	179.69 ± 5.09	344.78 ± 7.76	1.08 ± 0.09	1.05 ± 0.06	
	100	162.59 ± 29.24	341.00 ± 1.94	1.21 ± 0.19	1.06 ± 0.04	
	500	181.14 ± 7.12	344.70 ± 6.93	1.07 ± 0.08	1.05 ± 0.04	
PET (w)	0	171.89 ± 5.20	321.46 ± 4.19	1.00 ± 0.00	1.00 ± 0.00	
	10	186.44 ± 11.60	332.81 ± 7.80	0.92 ± 0.07	0.97 ± 0.01	
	50	172.80 ± 7.98	324.73 ± 7.55	1.00 ± 0.08	0.99 ± 0.04	
	100	182.74 ± 0.80	340.28 ± 7.11	0.94 ± 0.03	0.95 ± 0.03	
	500	157.67 ± 25.54	331.51 ± 9.52	1.11 ± 0.18	0.97 ± 0.04	
PBAT	0	263.19 ± 6.13	464.20 ± 11.93	1.00 ± 0.00	1.00 ± 0.00	
	10	243.05 ± 15.60	437.71 ± 18.57	1.09 ± 0.08	1.06 ± 0.04	
	50	240.26 ± 6.80	441.55 ± 9.41	1.10 ± 0.04	1.05 ± 0.05	
	100	246.75 ± 5.27	455.51 ± 5.37	1.07 ± 0.02	1.02 ± 0.04	
	500	242.52 ± 3.78	452.18 ± 11.85	1.09 ± 0.04	1.03 ± 0.05	
PBAT (w)	0	223.53 ± 6.06	413.87 ± 4.60	1.00 ± 0.00	1.00 ± 0.00	
	10	225.56 ± 6.97	423.06 ± 2.81	0.99 ± 0.06	0.98 ± 0.02	
	50	225.22 ± 2.92	414.68 ± 8.41	0.99 ± 0.04	1.00 ± 0.02	
	100	220.13 ± 1.97	396.85 ± 6.20	1.02 ± 0.03	1.04 ± 0.03	
	500	224.71 ± 5.53	404.80 ± 12.40	1.00 ± 0.03	1.02 ± 0.04	





180 4 Discussion

181 Our experiments indicate that soil derived oPOM and pyrochar embedded into a fine sand 182 matrix are prone to comminution by ultrasonic treatment at energy levels of \geq 50 J ml⁻¹. These values are well below the 300 to 750 J ml⁻¹ given in the literature for the complete 183 184 disaggregation of various soils (Amelung and Zech, 1999; Oorts et al., 2006; Yang et al., 2009), namely in the range of values given for the destruction of macroaggregates (Amelung 185 186 and Zech, 1999; Kaiser and Berhe, 2014). In consequence, particle size reduction will appear 187 during most ultrasonic treatments aimed to extract oPOMs from soils. This underpins the 188 former implications by some authors that ultrasonic treatment could lead to particle size artifacts. Microplastic, in contrast, shows a constant particle size distribution over all energy 189 190 levels and seems to resist ultrasonication within the tested range of 0 to 500 J ml⁻¹. The 191 recovery of microplastics also shows a constantly high rate of nearly 100 %, which is not 192 affected by the applied energy. In sharp contrast, the recovery rates of soil derived POMs and 193 pyrochar decreased with increasing energies from 95.0-78.6 % to 63.8-35.8 %, which became significant at 50 to 100 J ml⁻¹ and therefore is guite parallel to observed size 194 195 reduction.

196 The concurrent decrease of particle size and recovery rate of soil derived POMs and pyrochar and their absence in microplastics indicate, that there is a causal relationship between 197 198 recovery rate and sensitivity against mechanical stress. We assume a mechanism that retains 199 particles at the mineral phase after comminution. Physical disruption of large and weak particles increases the number of smaller ones, coming along with an increase of surface 200 area and, thus, surface forces (e.g. attraction through charges or hydrophobic interaction) 201 202 compared to volumetric forces (such as inertial forces). This causes an increased adsorption 203 of small POM to mineral surfaces immediately after the ultrasonic treatment and, in 204 consequence, a stronger retention of those particles observable as a lower recovery rate. 205 This effect appeared in our experiment from energies around 50 J ml⁻¹ with the beginning 206 destruction of oPOM and might also occur with small-sized fPOM during density fractionation 207 without application of mechanical stress.

208 No matter if the hypothesis on the underlying mechanism is valid, as a consequence of 209 concurrent recovery rate and particle size reduction, farmland, forest and pyrochar POMs 210 remain within the soil sample the more they are disrupted by stronger ultrasonic treatment. 211 Thus, not only particle size artifacts are produced. With increasing energy level the extraction of occluded POM is increasingly hindered and, thus, parts of small POM are extracted with 212 oPOM fractions at higher energy levels or remain within the heavy fraction - a carry-over 213 214 artifact. This leads to an overestimation of the more strongly bound POM fractions or the 215 mineral-associated organic matter (MOM), that natural part of the soil organic matter (SOM), 216 which is adsorbed on mineral surfaces of the heavy fraction and mainly assumed to be 217 molecular.





An overestimation would have an impact e.g. on the assessment of operationally defined 218 219 carbon pools within landscapes: POM is assigned to carbon pools with turnover times orders 220 of magnitude shorter then MOM, that endures hundreds of years. Malquantifications of these 221 pools, such as counting up to around 36.2 to 64.2 % of POM to the MOM as implied by this 222 work, would have phenomenal influence on e.g. the estimation of SOM decomposition and 223 CO₂ emissions from land-use change. Carrying-over SOM from little to highly decomposed 224 fractions also could alienate genuine C:N ratios, which strongly differ between the functional 225 carbon pools (Wagai et al., 2009).

226 Plastic, in turn, is not prone to disruption by ultranonic treatment and its recovery rates are stable in a wide range of energy levels. We therefore assume that there will be no carry-over 227 228 of particles due to comminution when extracting microplastics from soils with 229 ultrasonication/density fractionation. In consequence, the extractive performance is higher 230 and subsequent particle size measurements give more valid information about the original 231 particle size spectrum compared to the measurement of farmland, forest and pyrochar POM. 232 This is a positive sign for research on soil microplastic, however, it does not mean that 233 microplastic will be fully extracted from soils by this method. Soil microplastics appear within a 234 wide range of sizes between some nanometers and its upper limit of 5 mm by definition. Their smallest part, produced by physical, chemical and biological erosion within the soil, might also 235 236 interact stronger with soil mineral surfaces than larger pieces causing enhanced retention onto the soil matrix. Although we have introduced billions of tons of microplastics into 237 ecosystems since the 1950s (Thompson et al., 2009; Geyer et al., 2017), there are still 238 239 problems in producing microplastic fragments <100 µm on a laboratory scale with adequate use of time and material to perform experiments within this size range. 240





241 5 Conclusion

242 Unlike weathered and fresh PE, PET and PBAT microplastic, soil derived POMs like occluded 243 POM from farm and forest soils and pyrochar concurrently show comminution and a reduced 244 recovery rate after ultrasonication and subsequent extraction from a sandy matrix. As 245 comminution increases the retention, parts of the farmland, forest and pyrochar POM remain 246 within fractions only extractable with higher energy levels or were bound to the heavy fraction, 247 so that they are misinterpreted as MOM. An overestimation as shown in this study might lead 248 to fundamentally different interpretations of physical protection of SOM, functional carbon 249 pools and the expected mineralization rates in consequence of e.g. land-use change. On the 250 contrary, the extraction of microplastics do not cause additional retention of particles at the 251 mineral phase and do not alienate the particle size spectrum by ultrasonic-driven 252 comminution. We conclude that density fractionation in combination with ultrasonication is an 253 appropriate tool for analyzing occlusion of microplastics within soil aggregates and studying 254 the size distribution of particulate microplastics.





255 Author contribution

- 256 Frederick Büks developed the experimental concept, extracted all samples and prepared the
- 257 manuscript. Gilles Kayser performed the particle size analysis. Antonia Zieger supported the
- 258 development of the experimental concept. Martin Kaupenjohann and Friederike Lang
- 259 supervised the whole study.

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262 Competing interests

263 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.





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