

Review Paper:

A perspective study on occurrence, impacts and sources of microplastics in the marine environment of south China Sea and Gulf of Thailand

Suriyanarayanan Sarvajayakesavalu^{1,2*}, Pisit Chareonsudjai³, Wirmon Mongkonthum³ and Ravikumar Mathaiah⁴

1. Vinayaka Mission's Kirupananda Variyar Arts and Science College, Vinayaka Mission's Research Foundation (Deemed to be University), Salem -636308, Tamil Nadu, INDIA

2. SCOPE (Scientific Committee on the Problems of the Environment), JSS Academy of Higher Education and Research (Deemed to be University), Mysuru -570015, Karnataka, INDIA

3. Department of Environmental Sciences, Faculty of Science, Khon Kaen University, Khon Kaen-40002, THAILAND

4. Department of Geography Sri Adichunchanagiri College of Arts and Commerce, Nagamangala, Mandya District - 571432, Karnataka, INDIA

*sunsjk@gmail.com

Abstract

The continuous discharge and the presence of the plastic wastes are global environmental issues requiring immediate mitigation and prevention measures to avoid and safeguard the marine biota and human health. Distribution, fate and effects of microplastics on the environment have gained more attention in recent years. The present study aims to synthesize the available data of microplastics to identify the load and trend of abundance in marine environment of South China Sea and the Gulf of Thailand based on mounting evidences on the microplastics reports. The major input of the microplastics to the South China Sea was contributed by Pearl River and the Mekong Rivers of Vietnam and Cambodia.

Among the available literature, the Gulf of Thailand found medium plastic abundance level when compared to the other surrounding areas. The outcome of these findings will be an aid in providing the management strategies and decision making in decreasing the entry of microplastics into the South China Sea and Gulf of Thailand which are considered as the most sensitive hotspots in contributing the discharge of plastics into the marine environment.

Keywords: Microplastics, South China Sea, Gulf of Thailand, Mekong River, Pearl River, Biota.

Introduction

Increasing population and associated anthropogenic activities have led to the emission of increased pollutants, dominated by synthetic organic compounds to the marine environment^{22,66,71}. The population of the Asia and Pacific river basins is predicted to be 2.1 billion people, with a projected increase to 2.964 billion by 2050. Two million tonnes of sewage, agricultural and industrial pollutants were released into the world's rivers as a result of increased anthropogenic activity¹⁹. Every year the world is producing 300 million tonnes of plastics which is nearly equal to the

weight of the entire human population (<https://www.unep.org/interactives/beat-plastic-pollution/>).

Since the early 1950's, more than 8.3 billion tonnes of plastics has been produced in which only 9% of all plastic waste has been recycled and 12% has been incinerated⁷⁰. The rest 79% of that plastics has been ended up as wastes into the environment. These plastics wastes persist in the environment for centuries⁶⁸. Plastics from inland and coastal operations are dumped into the sea in large quantities, posing a severe environmental threat⁵⁹. The river network may make it easier to transfer large amounts of plastic into the sea¹⁴.

The first study has been on plastic debris at Sargasso Sea¹³ and after that numerous studies have been reported on marine plastic pollution¹. An estimate shows that there are more than five thousand billion plastic particles floating on the world's seas³⁵.

Continuous discharge and presence of plastic trash are global environmental hazard that necessitates rapid mitigation and prevention efforts to protect marine biota and human health^{1,13}. Because of their longevity and resistance to disintegration, plastics will take decades to degrade completely. Due to photo degradation, it can break into tiny fragments known as microplastics^{18,35}.

Types and sources of microplastics

Due to lack of agreed nomenclature and considering the practical difficulties in sampling and measurement of different sizes, it is called 'microplastics' using the generic term as small pieces of plastics. In general, the plastics are classified in two major types i.e. 'Primary' and 'Secondary' microplastics.

Microplastics are derived from two distinct sources i.e. 'primary microplastics' and 'secondary microplastics'. Originally produced to be that of size are called primary microplastics whereas the breakdown and fragmented materials from larger macro plastics are called secondary microplastics. In 2008, during the international workshop on the 'occurrence, effects and fate of microplastics in marine debris' organized by National Oceanic and Atmospheric

Administration (NOAA), USA, it was agreed that the microplastics upper size is 5mm. Microplastics reported in various size ranges with diameter of <10 mm to <1 mm^{10,18,29}. As per Thomson, the size of plastics less than 5mm considered as microplastics⁶⁵.

Microplastics are used in cosmetics products, facial cleansers, peelers, granules in shower gels, scrubbers, moulding plastic powders, microbeads, nano size particles used in manufacturing process, vector for drugs, baby products, hair colouring shampoos, dyes, nail polishes, repellents and sunscreen lotions, garment materials like synthetic clothing etc.^{5,17,18,28,52}

Due to physical, chemical and biological processes, larger plastics are fragmented into smaller particles called 'secondary' microplastics. Several environmental factors such as temperature, ultraviolet radiation are influencing the disintegration process into smaller fragments to the extent of nano particles^{18,21,35}. Over time, these microplastics are accumulating at various levels of ecosystems and entering into aquatic ecosystem posing major environmental problems. These microplastics are entering into the marine environment via different pathways (Fig. 1).

East Asia is the world's most populous region with 2.66 billion people living in the coastline region alone, accounting for 75 percent of the region's population. Because of high population and related development activities, this region contributes significantly to the

economy and expanding coastal activities such as tourism, shipping and fishing posing considerable challenges to the marine eco system.

China has produced the most plastic garbage of the nine countries surrounding the South China Sea. According to Jambeck et al³⁵, China generated approximately 3.53 million metric tonnes of marine plastic garbage in 2010 and is the world's largest donor of ocean waste^{4,9}. When compared to the other studied rivers, the Chinese Yangtze River mouth reported the highest plastic concentrations of 4,137 particles per cubic metre during the world-wide sampling survey investigation. The Xi, Dong and Zhujiang rivers in China's Pearl River Delta were also found to be discharging 0.106 million tonnes of unmanaged plastics into the South China Sea per year⁵⁷.

According to Greenpeace South-East Asia report, Thailand is the world 6th biggest contributor of ocean waste. Thailand generates 1.03 million tones of plastic per year with over 3% of that flowing its way into the ocean⁴. The river Mekong from Thailand is considered as one of top 10 rivers polluted by plastics globally^{34,44}. Yearly upper mass input of plastics from Mekong river was estimated at 3.76×10^4 (t yr⁻¹)⁵⁷. Many studies have indicated that microplastics exist in significant proportions in the marine ecosystem^{18,35}. Microplastics' presence and fate have gotten increased attention in recent years as a severe environmental hazard affecting both aquatic and terrestrial ecosystems.

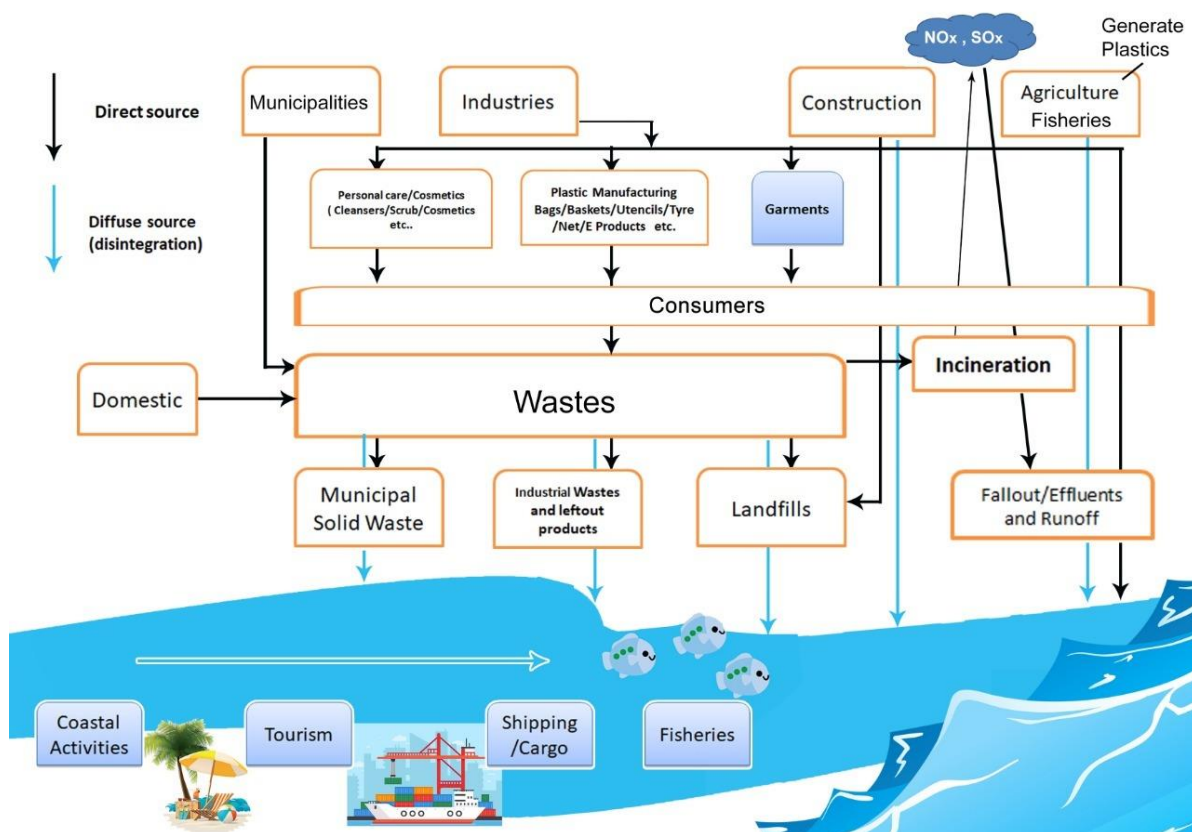


Fig. 1: Sources of Microplastics and transfer routes to sea

According to Schmidt et al⁵⁶ globally 2.75 million metric tons of plastics are entering into the oceans per year. This study also reveals that the discharges of 88-95% of plastic wastes originated mainly from the 10 rivers from Asia and Africa countries.

Study area

South China Sea (Fig. 2) is located between the Pacific Ocean on the East and the Indian Ocean on the West. It covers an area of 3.447 million square kilometers and a maximum depth of 5,245 meters at Manila Trench⁴⁰. The Sea is surrounded by nine countries i.e. Brunei, China, Cambodia, Malaysia, Indonesia, Singapore, Thailand, Viet Nam and the Philippines and Small Islands. About 50% of the total area of the South China Sea is occupied by the north eastern sub-basin.

Cities are mainly located on Pearl River delta and Yangtze River delta. Dense population and large numbers of manufacturing industries are located on Pearl River delta. The seasonal circulation pattern in the South China Sea is

largely affected by winds from the monsoon and the Northern South China Sea circulation linked water exchanges between the South China Sea and the East China Sea, as the South China Sea is located in the monsoon regime. The central South China Sea circulation is governed by monsoon winds and interactions between the circulation systems in the Northern South China Sea and the South China Sea Circulation, according to research findings⁶⁹. During the northeast monsoon, Mekong River water enters into the lower Gulf of Thailand due to the circulation of water^{31,79}.

South China Sea receives more than billion cubic meters of combined freshwater discharges from Pearl River from Guangdong Province, Red River and Mekong river in Vietnam Coast and Chao Phraya River in Gulf of Thailand. The major discharge from the river Chao Phraya is about $13.22 \times 10^3 \text{ Km}^3$ whereas in the coast of Vietnam from River Mekong³¹, it is about $326 \times 10^3 \text{ km}^3$. Discharges from these rivers including land-based contaminants influence the distribution of marine habitats and resources in the South China Sea and the Gulf of Thailand.



Fig. 2: Study Area Map showing South China Sea and Gulf of Thailand

Source: <https://pasarelapr.com/detail/south-china-sea-location-on-world-map-4.html>

South China Sea is the world's busiest international water way due to country's industrial and economic growth, rich sources of oil and natural gas in this region. South China Sea pollution is often reported because of its increasing population and associated activities. Major rivers that flow into the South China Sea include the Zhujiang known as Pearl river, Min Jiang, Longjiang known as Jiulong, Red river also known as Hong Ha, Mekong river at Vietnam coast, Rajang, Pahang rivers from Malaysia, Agno, Pampanga and Pasig Rivers from Philippines. Mekong River is the world's largest international river which flows from China through Myanmar, Thailand, Laos, Cambodia and Vietnam and enters into South China Sea.

The Gulf of Thailand is surrounded by the countries Cambodia, Malaysia, Vietnam and Thailand which cover roughly about 320,000 km² semi-located in the western part of the South China Sea (Pacific Ocean). Gulf of Thailand is influenced by seawater intrusion from the South China Sea⁷⁶. The major rivers Chao Phraya and Nakhon Chai Si enter into the Gulf of Thailand. Gulf of Thailand mean circulation is forced by the South China Sea during the Northeast monsoon^{31,79}. There are main harbours located

along the Gulf of Thailand which are also economically important for fishing activities. Mekong River is the world largest international river which flows from China through Myanmar, Thailand, Laos Cambodia and continues to Vietnam into six tributaries in Tien River and three tributaries in Hau River and enters into South China Sea and Gulf of Thailand.

Based on the mounting evidences on the microplastics reports and considering the continuous pressure on marine environment in this region, the present study aims to synthesize the available data of microplastics to identify the load and trend of abundance in marine environment of South China Sea and the Gulf of Thailand. Furthermore, this study will be able to identify the sources and effects of microplastics in the marine environment. The outcome of the study will give the concise information of microplastics and will aid in providing the management strategies and decision making in decreasing the entry of microplastics into the South China Sea and Gulf of Thailand which are considered as the most sensitive hotspots in contributing the discharge of plastics into the marine environment.

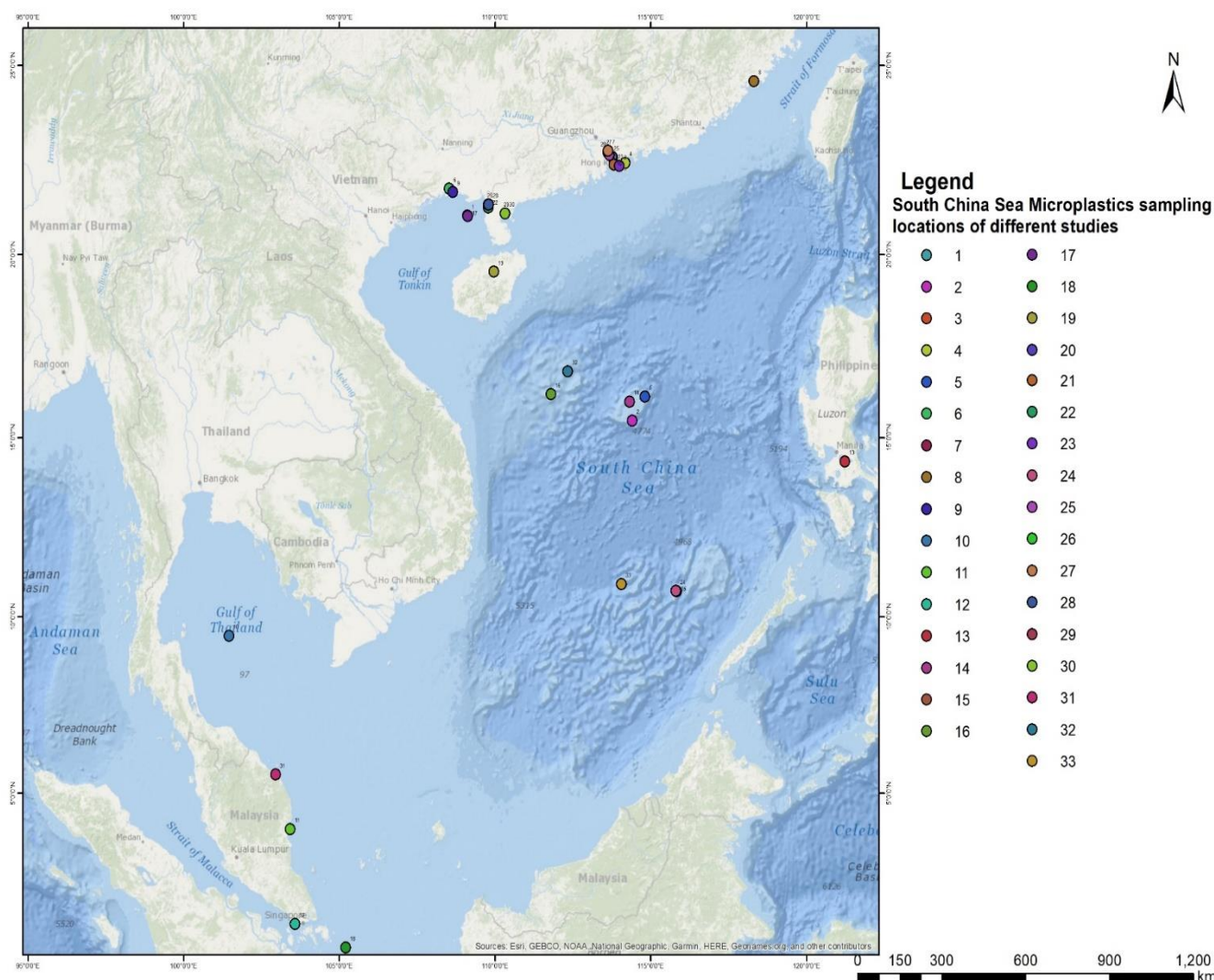


Fig. 3: Overview of the sampling locations of different studies (locations shown in table 1)

Table 1
Microplastic abundance in South China Sea and Gulf of Thailand

| S.N. | Location | Sample Type | Types of Microplastics | Abundance |
|------|---|----------------------------|---|---|
| 1. | Zhuhai and Weizhou Island, China ⁸² | River Discharge | Polypropylene Polyethylene | 59.7% 31.9% |
| 2. | South China Sea, China ¹² | Marine Water | 21 types of Microplastics ranging from | 0.045-2569 pieces/m ³ |
| 3. | Hong Kong Coast, Hong Kong ²⁷ | Coastal water | polystyrene | 92% 0.315-5mm |
| 4. | Lam Tsuen River mouth Tolo Harbor Hongkong, Hongkong ¹⁶ | River Discharge | NA | 7.428 pieces/m ³ 1,615,506 pieces/km ² |
| 5. | South China Sea, China ⁷³ | Marine Water | Maritime coating synthetic fibers | 33% 29.6% |
| 6. | Maowei Sea Estuary, China ⁴² | Mangrove sediment | Polyethylene Polypropylene Polystyrene | 520 to 940pieces/kg ⁻¹ |
| 7. | Pearl River, Hong Kong ²⁶ | Water | NA | 0.57 – 0.71 pieces/lr |
| | | Sediment | NA | 685 Pieces/Kg ⁻¹ |
| | | Esturay Sediment | NA | 258 pieces/kg ⁻¹ |
| | | | Polypropylene Ethylene propylene Fibrous polyethylene | |
| 8. | Xiamen Coast, China ⁶¹ | Surface water | NA | 103-2017 times/m ³ |
| | | Sediment | NA | 76-333 pieces/kg ⁻¹ |
| | | | Polyethylene Polypropylene | |
| 9. | Qinzhou Bay, China ⁴³ | Water | NA | 15-12852 pieces/kg ⁻¹ |
| | | Mangrove Sediment | NA | 306-6168 itmes/kg ⁻¹ |
| 10. | Gulf of Thailand, Thailand ⁶ | Fish | fibers | 79.52% |
| | Pearl River Estuary, Hong Kong ⁷⁸ | Water | Polyamide Cellophane | 8902 pieces/m ³ |
| 11. | Malaysian Marine water Kuala Nerus and Kuantan Port, Malaysia ³⁷ | Water | NA | >1.02 g cm ⁻³ |
| 12. | Gulf of Thailand Johor Straights, Malaysia ⁴⁸ | Sediment | NA | 1900 pieces/kg-dry |
| | | | NA | 300 pieces/Kg |
| 13. | Talim Bay, Malaysia | Beach sediment | NA | Fibers 0.26 pieces/g |
| 14. | South China Sea, China ⁸⁵ | Northern Continental Slope | NA | 1.96 pieces /individual |
| | | | NA | 1.53 pieces/g |
| | | Fish | NA | 1.77 pieces/individual |
| | | | NA | 4.82 pieces/g |
| 15. | Nansha Island, China ⁵¹ | Water | NA | 1733 pieces/m ³ |
| | | Fish | NA | 3 pieces/individual |
| 16. | | Coral reef | NA | 20-330µm |

| | | | | |
|-----|---|--|--|--|
| 17. | Xisha Island and Nansha Island ²³ Weishoo Island Sanya Hui Tou ⁸¹ | Sea water and Fish | NA | 40-610 times/g |
| 18. | Pangandaran Bay, Indonesia ³³ | Water | Fragments and Fibers fibers | 49.74% 22.8%, ranging from 0.12 to 5mm |
| 19. | Hainan Island ⁶² | Water Sediment Corals Fish | Predominant Fibers | 14.9 pieces/lr 343 pieces/Kg ⁻¹ 4.97 pieces/cm ⁻² 0.67-3.12 pieces/cm ⁻¹ |
| 20. | Pearl River Estuary ⁴⁵ | Fish | polyethylene terephthalate | 0.17- 1.33pieces/Individual |
| 21. | Lingding Bay of the Pearl River Estuary ³⁹ | Water | Polyethylene Polypropylene and Polypropylene/ethylene propylene rubber | 0.355-5.0mm |
| 22. | Beibu Gulf ⁸⁰ | Seaward boundary Landward boundary | Fiber, fragment, foam and line | 80-1020 pieces/kg 520-6040 pieces/kg |
| 23. | Hong Kong Beach ⁵³ | Beach | Pellet, Foam, Bead, Fragments | |
| 24. | Nansha Island ⁶² | Coral Reefs | Polypropylene and polyethylene | 0.0556 ± 0.0355 pieces/m ³ |
| 25. | Pearl River Estuary ⁸⁷ | Sediments | Polybrominated diphenyl ethers, decabromodiphenyl ethane, 1,2-bis (2,4,6-tribromophenoxy)ethane and hexabromocyclododecane | 100-7900 im/Kg ⁻¹ |
| 26. | Beibu Gulf ^{43,77} | Sediment Sea Snail Ellobium chinese | Polypropylene fibers and polyethylene fibers | 61% of the total concentration of surface sediment 7±2 pieces/kg to 53±6 pieces/kg |
| 27. | Pearl River ³⁶ | Water | Triclosan, triclocarban, methylparaben and N,N-diethyl-3-methylbenzamide | 0.94 pieces/m ³ |
| 28. | Beibu Gulf ³⁸ | Fish | Polyester and nylon | 0.027-1.0 pieces/Individual |
| 29. | Zhanjiang Mangrove wetland ³² | Fish | Polyethylene, polyethylene terephthalate, polypropylene and cellophane | 0.6-8.0 pieces/individual |
| 30. | South Eastern Coastal Zone ⁸⁴ | Mangrove Sediments | Foams Fibers | 74.6% 14% |
| 31. | Terengganu coast of Malaysia ⁴⁹ | Water | Polyamide | 3.3 pieces/lr |
| 32. | Yongxing Island ^{85,86} | Seabird Shorebird | Polypropylene-polyethylene | 56 pieces in 4 Bird species |
| 33. | Zhubi Reef Island ³² | Water | Polypropylene, polyamide | 1400-8100 pieces/m ³ |

Large amount of data has been obtained from the available literature using e-library portal SMART service@KKU from Khon Kaen University and EndNote. The data have been compiled and explored to understand the fate and effects of microplastics in the aquatic ecosystem of South China Sea and Gulf of Thailand. Combinations of keywords like microplastics, effects, source, effects relevant of South China Sea and Gulf of Thailand were used into search engine. Supporting searches such as EBSCO, Google scholar, PlumX metrix were also considered in 2020. Articles were considered for this review based on the relevance of topic i.e. microplastics in South China Sea and Gulf of Thailand. This review may not be a complete review. The overview of the sampling locations is presented in fig. 3.

Sources and presence of microplastics in South China Sea and Gulf of Thailand

Plastic wastes are entering into marine environment through direct disposal into rivers, streams, seas and diffused source through wind and water and losses during transport^{8,11,57,65,75}. Mismanaged plastic wastes are distributed across the oceans globally especially in the seas surrounded by highly populated coastlines⁷. Study shows that majority of the world's ocean plastic pollution arises from Asian Countries¹. China contributes the maximum plastic wastes of 28% (231,157 tonnes/year) followed by 10% from Indonesia (77,822 tonnes/year), 6% from Vietnam (41,717 tonnes/year) and Philippines (45,535 tonnes/year) and 3.2% (27,263 tonnes/year) from Thailand^{1,72}. This shows that plastic debris poses a high risk in polluting the aquatic ecosystem. Approximately 80% of ocean microplastics are contributed by land based sources and 18% from aquaculture or fishing industries^{25,35,52}.

It is estimated that the major source of plastic wastes to the world marine waters is from Yangtze River, Yellow river, Hai rivers in China followed by the Indus River which flows through India and Pakistan and the rivers from Africa³⁴. An estimate shows that more than 270 million people live in the coastal zone of the South China Sea⁴⁰. Land-based activities in river basins and coastal areas, increasing tourism, coastal aquaculture, cargo shipping are the main source of contaminants and pollutants in coastal waters. Approximately 70% of contaminants entering the South China Sea are derived from coastal rivers which include agricultural and urban run-off, industrial discharges and discharges from ports and harbours.

The first study on the distribution of marine debris in the Northern part of South China was reported by Zhou et al^{83,84}. The floating marine debris (FMD) seafloor marine debris (SMD) and beached marine debris (BMD) include small and medium based debris, woods, fibers etc.

The study also reveals that about 90% of the debris sources are land-based attributed to anthropogenic activities in the region. The first study on the abundance, compositions and

sizes of microplastics in the South China Sea was reported by Cai et al¹². The study revealed that large quantities of microplastics were found in the South China Sea ranging from 0.045 to 2569 ± 1770 particles/m³. There were 21 types of plastic polymers dominated by smaller-size fractions of microplastics which contributed 92% of the total load. The beaches located in at Zhuhai, Macau, Qinzhou, Beihai and Weizhou Island and Hong Kong were potentially influenced by river discharges. The highest quantity of small size plastic debris was found at Zhuhai and Weizhou Island which consisted of polypropylene (59.7%) and polyethylene (31.9%)⁸³.

In Hong Kong Coast lines were detected with microplastic debris size in the range of 0.315-5mm¹². Majority belongs to microplastics (mean abundance 5595 pieces/m²) which accounts for 92% of polystyrene, 5% as fragments and 3% of pellets. An abnormal type of microplastic fragment (pellet, foam, bead, fragment) has been reported in the beaches of Hong Kong⁸².

A study from Lam Tsuen River entering into Tolo harbor of Hong Kong found the microplastic abundance of 7.428 pieces/m³ (1,615,506 pieces/km²) during the rainy season. The findings are nearly double the amount than the coastal surface area of Hong Kong²⁷ acting as one of the major transports of microplastics to the South China Sea. The elevated level of microplastics evidenced that Hong Kong is a hotspot of marine plastic pollution. Earlier findings reveal that abundance of microplastics is significantly higher during the rainy season than the dry season due to the highest discharge attributes to the highest level of discharges from Pearl River from the west side of Hong Kong⁵³.

Another study found eight types of floating microplastics in South China Sea mainly consisting of maritime coating (33%) and synthetic fibers (29.6%)¹⁶. The study reveals that the diversity of microplastics has been increased with offshore distance. This may be attributed to mean circulation in South China Sea. It was estimated that Pearl River and its tributaries are transporting 15,963 tonnes of microplastics to Pearl River Estuary. The abundance of microplastics in the river water was found in the range of 0.57 to 0.71 pieces/litter whereas in sediments 685 Pieces/ kg⁻¹ and 258 ± 133 pieces/kg⁻¹ in estuary sediments are formed. The plastics polymers were dominated by polypropylene, ethylene propylene and fibrous polyethylene¹⁵.

Another study of microplastics abundance at Inner Lingding Bay of the Pearl River Estuary was conducted by Lam et al³⁹. The concentration of microplastics ranges from 0.355-5.0 mm in surface water which constitutes 95.4% of the total abundance by number.

The average microplastic concentration was almost 3.5 times higher than that of central Pearl River Estuary which indicates the positive correlation between plastic concentration and proximity to the river mouth.

The abundance of microplastic in mangrove sediments from of the Pearl River Estuary, South China ranged from 100 to 7900 pieces/kg⁻¹ dry weight with an average of 851 ± 177 pieces/kg⁻¹ dry weight. The abundance was relatively higher when compared to the other regions of the world. The most common polymers detected are polybrominated diphenyl ethers, decabromodiphenyl ethane, 1,2-bis (2,4,6-tribromophenoxy) ethane and hexabromocyclododecane²⁶. Another study by Jia et al³⁶ found that the abundances of microplastics in the Pearl River System, South China surface water was 0.94 ± 1.87 pieces/m³. This study also reveals that this might be major source for biocides contaminant in the region.

The abundance of microplastics in surface water of Xiamen Coastal area at South China Sea was found in the range of 103-2017 pieces/m³ and in sediments, it ranged from 76 to 333 pieces/kg⁻¹ in which the polymers of polyethylene (PE) and polypropylene (PP) were found dominant⁸⁷. The increased concentration of microplastics attributed to the increased industrial growth and urbanization in the southeast China.

In Qinzhou Bay at Guangxi Province, the microplastic abundance ranged between 15-12852 particles/ kg⁻¹. Polystyrene, polyethylene and polypropylene are the dominant microplastics with the size between 0.16 to 5.0mm. The abundance of microplastics in Mangrove sediments in this area ranged between 306 to 6168 Pieces/kg⁻¹.

Impact of microplastics in mangrove ecosystems is receiving increasing attention due to their unique ecosystem features. The distribution of microplastics in mangrove ecosystem is still limited in South China Sea. A study conducted by Li et al at Maowei Sea Estuary Mangrove sediments found the concentration of microplastics ranging from 520 ± 8 pieces/kg⁻¹ to 940 ± 17 pieces/kg⁻¹. The greater contribution of microplastics is from polyethylene (PE), polypropylene (PP), polystyrene (PS), with the size of <1 mm. The rhizosphere of mangroves found the highest concentration due to microbial activities. The pore volume of rhizosphere also plays the major reason for highest accumulation of microplastics of <1mm.

Distribution of microplastics in mangrove sediments in Beibu Gulf, South China was studied and a general increasing trend from the seaward boundary ranging from 80 ± 16 pieces/kg to 1020 ± 89 pieces/kg and to the land ward boundary ranging from 520 ± 32 to 6040 ± 114 pieces/kg was found⁴¹. Distribution patterns of microplastics along the East Coast of Hainan Island, South China Sea was investigated by Tang et al^{61,62}.

Average concentrations of 14.9 particles/L⁻¹ in seawater, 343 particles/kg⁻¹ in sediment, 4.97 particles/cm⁻² in corals and 0.67-3.12 particles/cm⁻¹ in Tridacnidae, Trochidae and fish intestines were identified. This study reveals that the

enrichment of microplastics in corals and other reef-dwellers in this region alters the coral community.

Zhou et al^{83,84} found five different shapes of microplastics in the mangrove sediments of South-Eastern Coastal zones of China. Among the microplastics, the dominant types are foams (74.6%) and fibers (14.0%) The FTIR study reveals the composition of polystyrene (75.2%), polypropylene (11.7%), rayon (4.6%), polyester (3.4%), polyethylene (2.8%) and acrylic (2.4%). The abundance was ranging from 8.3 to 5738.3 pieces/kg⁻¹ (dry sediment) among the sampling sites.

The distribution of microplastics ranged from 1400 to 8100 pieces/m³ of surface water of Zhubi Reef in the South China Sea. The abundance of microplastics was much higher than the previous reports in other regions. The predominant type of polymers are: polypropylene (25%) and polyamide (18%). The study reveals that the enrichment of microplastics was derived from the intensive fisheries and emissions from adjoining coastal cities⁶².

The average concentration of microplastics in Nansha Island of South China Sea was found 1733 pieces/m³ for surface water samples with the size of <5mm. In surface water samples, about 76.5% of particles were detected as micro beads. Presence of high concentration of fibers resulted in increased fishing activities from the Nansha Island⁸⁴. The study explains that fishery activities and human domestic sewage might be the dominant sources of microplastic pollution in the Nansha Island, South China Sea. The sediments of Beibu Gulf were detected the abundance of microplastics with a strong correlation of polypropylene fibers and polyethylene fibers³² attributed to the intense fishery activities in the region.

A study by Wang et al⁷²⁻⁷⁴ found that the abundance of microplastics was 150.4 ± 86.2 pieces/kg dry weight. Significant increased abundance of microplastics was observed in Gulf of Thailand at 6-12cm layer sediments attributed to the increased use of plastics in the region. This study reveals that microplastics were detected almost in all the surface samples from Gulf of Thailand and not in the deeper layers. A study by Handyman et al³⁰ at Java Sea in Indonesia proposed that the presence of microplastic particles possibly originated from the South China Sea and the Pacific oceans. According to the study by Jambeck et al³⁵ the Indonesia produced 3.2 million metric tonnes of mismanaged plastics every year of which 1.29 million tons end as marine debris.

The first report on the microplastics in Malaysian marine water was reported by Khalik et al³⁷ in Kuala Nerus and Kuantan Port. The results showed a density of >1.02 g cm⁻³ particles from six types of polymers such as polyester, polystyrene, polyamide, polyvinyl chloride, polypropylene and polyethylene. Matsuguma et al⁴⁸ measured the microplastics in Gulf of Thailand at 1900 pieces/kg-dry

sediment. The highest abundance was observed at 2-4 cm layer than the deeper core sediments of Johor Straits, Malaysia. The findings reveal that in sediment cores, the abundance of microplastics increased toward the surface which indicates the increasing microplastic abundance over the time.

In the Terengganu coast of Malaysia, a total of 983 microplastic particles with an average abundance of 3.3 particles/L⁻¹ were detected in surface seawater³⁷. Vietnam is one among the top 5 nations discharging 0.28 to 0.73 million tonnes of mismanaged plastics in a year⁴⁸. It is found that the studies on microplastics in Vietnam marine water are limited. Similarly, the study of microplastics in Singapore and Philippines marine water was also found limited.

Impact of Microplastics on Biota in South China Sea

Presence of microplastics is the evidence of understanding the risks posed by microplastics in the marine ecosystem. Small plastic particles have been observed in several species of crustaceans, bivalves, fishes and birds. According to Sweet et al⁵⁹, plastic litter in marine environment is affecting more than 800 coastal and marine species.

The average abundance microplastics from the deep-sea (200-478 m) fishes from the northern continental slope of the South China Sea was found 1.96 pieces/individual and 1.53 pieces/g. The intestines of fish samples contain 1.77 pieces/individual and 4.82 pieces/g⁶⁴. The majority of microplastics ingested by fish were <1 mm in size. The above findings are reflecting the high levels of microplastic contamination in this region potentially affecting the living organisms.

The abundance of microplastics in the fish species from Zhanjiang mangrove wetland, South China was found in 30 out of 32 fish species at an average concentration of 2.83 ± 1.84 pieces/ individual⁻¹ and ranged from 0.6 to 8.0 pieces/individual⁻¹ in each species. The majority of polymers were identified as polyethylene, polyethylene terephthalate, polypropylene and cellophane⁶².

In the Terengganu Coast of Malaysia, average of one plastic particle was detected in 130 individuals from 6 groups of zooplankton such as fish larvae, cyclopoid, shrimps, polychaete, calanoid and chaetognath where they ingested 0.14, 0.13, 0.01, 0.007, 0.005 and 0.003 particle/individual respectively³⁷.

Zooplankton are playing an important role in the marine food web to link the primary producer level to higher trophic level. The microplastics in Zooplanktons were detected in northern part of the continental slope of South China Sea sampled by 160 and 505µm mesh size plankton nets. The highest proportion (70%) of microplastics was found as fibers with the average length of 125µm and 167µm. The increasing trend at trophic level was observed and it may

attribute to the bioaccumulation through the food chain. The average abundance of microplastics ingested by zooplankton was 4.1 pieces/m³ and 131.5 pieces/m³ for net I and II respectively⁵⁹.

Zhu et al⁸⁶ conducted a study on one seabird species and two shorebird species in Yongxing Island of South China Sea to detect the microplastics debris. 56 pieces of plastic debris were detected in 4 out of 9 birds ranging from 0.67 to 8.64 mm size. About 92.9% of microplastics are <5 mm (52 pieces). The predominant fractions were identified as polypropylene-polyethylene copolymer (83.9%).

In Nansha Island of South China, the average concentration of 3.1 pieces/ individual for fish samples with the size of <5mm was detected⁸⁴. Microplastics occurrence in gastrointestinal tracts and gills of fish from Beibu Gulf, South China Sea was detected as of 0.027-1.000 pieces/individual⁻¹. These microplastics were found in fish stomach, intestines and gills with the count percentage of 57.7%, 34.6% and 7.7% respectively. The most common polymers were detected as polyester (44%) and nylon (38%)⁵⁸.

Microplastics found at digestive tracts of fishes from Pangandaran Bay in Indonesia were categorized as fragments 49.74% fibers 22.8%, ranging from 0.12 to 5mm in size⁸⁵. Microplastic concentration in sea snails (*Ellobium chinense*) from mangrove forest in north of Beibu Gulf was studied by Li et al⁴¹⁻⁴³. The study reveals that in the snails (*Ellobium chinense*) organs, rather than the shell, dominant fractions of microplastics were observed in the organs of the snail rather than the shell to the maximum level of 60% and a total of 7 ± 2 pieces/kg- 53 ± 6 pieces/kg was measured in snails. The results reveal that these contaminations possibly originated from the abrasion of fishing gear and contributed to 61.6% of the total concentration in the surface sediment.

A study of 26 species of wild fish from the Pearl River Estuary showed the microplastics concentration ranging from 0.17 pieces/individual⁻¹ (*Boleophthalmus pectinirostris* and *Acanthogobius flavimanus*) to 1.33 pieces/individual⁻¹ (*Plectorhynchus cinctus*) among different species. The composition of most common polymer was polyethylene terephthalate accounting to 38.2%³³.

Plastic pollution is also having an adverse effect on coral reef ecosystems in the seas, posing a severe environmental hazard⁴⁹. The effects and statistics on the coral reef are still limited, but they are gaining popularity. Microplastics in the coral reef of Xisha Island in the Northern South China Sea were found in the range of 1mm to 5mm in both seawater and fish, with a higher proportion of fibrous rayon and polyethylene terephthalate^{7,43}. Another study was conducted by Zhang et al^{80,81} at the coral reefs of South China Sea. The concentration of microplastics has been found in four sampling sites at Weishou Island, Sanya Hui

Tou (LHT), Xisha and Nansha Islands with the range of 40 to 610 pieces/kg⁻¹ of South China Sea. The study reveals that the greater proportion i.e. 75% of microplastics is in the range of <1mm at Nansha and Xisha Islands than the other sampled sites.

Wide spread microplastics were detected in the remote uninhabited coral reefs of Nansha Islands in South China Sea surface waters with an average concentration of 0.0556 ± 0.0355 pieces/m³. The most common polymers are polypropylene and polyethylene in which > 70% of them were <3 mm in size which is due to waste released from nearby residential islands and high-intensity fishing activities around the island²³.

The study also reveals that when compared with captive mullet, the wild mullets have increased risk of microplastics ingestion⁸¹. Increased amount of microplastics in Oysters (*Saccostrea cucullate*) was found in the range of 1.4 to 7.0 pieces/ individual or from 1.5 to 7.2 pieces/ gram tissue wet weight in the Pearl River Estuary attributed to the increased amount of plastic inputs from the surrounding waters. Microplastics fibers dominated with 69.4% of the total plastic detected. This study suggested that Oysters can be used as bio monitors for the microplastic contamination³⁶.

The abundance of microplastics in the Oyster was higher in the South China Coastal areas than the Northern part of Coastal area. The average abundance was found at 0.62 pieces/g and 2.93 pieces/individual. Fibers dominated 60.67% with the polymers of cellophane, polyethylene and polyethylene terephthalate. The results revealed that the abundance was high when compared with other parts of the world⁶⁰. Another study discovered significant levels of plastic fragments in the stomach of a green turtle, *Chelonia mydas*, in the South China Sea¹⁴ which was ascribed to increased microplastic input from the environment.

Microplastics associated effects

Evidences shows that microplastics cause biological stress, oxidative stress, neurotoxicity and genotoxic effects⁶³. Few studies have been conducted on the microplastics abundance in sea water organisms. Azad et al⁶ reported the first evidences of existence of microplastics at Gulf of Thailand in the intestines of fish samples. It was reported that abundance of microplastics can also cause the physical impacts on the sediments such as reducing water permeability, heat conductivity and transport of minerals in the root system at mangrove ecosystem⁵¹.

Existing evidences shows that microplastics is causing various toxic effects such as disruption in physical activity, feeding activity, reproductive system performance, metabolism, increased binding capacity of Persistent Organic Pollutants (PoP's) etc. at various trophic levels. Hence it is recommended to carryout risk assessment and associated legislative measures⁵⁴. A study by Jia et al³⁶ in the Pearl River System, South China found the concentration of

biocide in the microplastics ranging from 16.9–2890 ng/g considered as major source for biocides contaminant in the region.

Lo et al⁴⁷ studied the affinity of polyaromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs), polychlorinated biphenyls (PCBs) and 18 organochlorinated pesticides (OCPs) on the microplastics of the Hong Kong beach sediments. Elevated levels of this compound reveal the potential eco-toxicological risk in this region. Abundance of Microplastics was observed in sea snail *Ellobium chinense* in the mangrove on the Beibu Gulf³⁸. This contamination leads to the subsequent movement through the food chain.

Based on the previous findings, the Pearl river is considered as a major source of microplastics in Hong Kong Region. An estimate shows that Pearl river is discharging about 13.6 thousand tonnes of plastic wastes into South China Sea⁵⁷. The microplastics abundance in the surface water of Pearl river water was found in the range of 379-7924 particles/m³ and in the sediments it ranges from 80 to 9597 particles/kg⁻¹ in which 64.3% was found as polyethylene and 73.8% as polypropylene². The mean abundance of microplastics in Pearl River in Guangzhou urban section was found as 19,860 pieces/m³ and in Estuary section, was about 8902 pieces/m³.

The micro plastic particles in this region were dominated by the size of less than 0.5 mm with most common types of polymers such as polyamide and cellophane⁴⁷. With the above findings and considering the estimate of 39 billion particles or 66 tons, which converts to 2400-3800 tons of plastic debris of annual input, the abundance of microplastics from river pearl is considered as one of the major sources of microplastics into the South China Sea.

Conclusion

In recent years, increased attention has been paid to the distribution, fate and impact of microplastics on the environment. Although significant progress has been made at the global level, regional data is inadequate in understanding the distribution sources and fate of microplastics. The present study was based on previous findings from various sampling locations in the South China Sea from various countries. According to the data, the Pearl River and the Mekong Rivers of Vietnam and Cambodia are the major sources of microplastics in the South China Sea. This study suggests that more research on microplastics in this region should be conducted in order to determine the current state of dispersion, destination and consequences on the marine ecosystem. To control the transport of microplastics by rivers, site specific management strategies shall be adopted in term of reducing per capita usage of plastics, decreasing the output from sewerage discharges and waste water treatment plant discharges.

The waste water treatment facilities shall be upgraded with increased efficiency of micro plastic removal systems. More empirical research has to be focused to understand more

insights of distribution pattern of microplastics. Increasing use of plastics and cost effective production are the major causes of increasing levels of mismanaged plastics in the environment. Considering this, developed and developing countries should take effective measures or guidelines to reduce the per capita consumption of plastics.

Smart cities should ensure the microplastic reduction and the removal technologies in the wastewater treatment plants. Research on cost effective biodegradation methods should be promoted. Waste water treatment plants should be designed to fully remove microplastics. In France, 83 to 95% removal was done by wastewater treatment plants⁴⁶. The possible technological advancement should be adopted in the developing countries to minimize the microplastic load in the aquatic environment.

Countries should formulate guidelines, standards and monitoring procedures. The technical guidelines of China State Oceanic Administration for monitoring and evaluation of marine litter was the good move by China. Similarly, the monitoring of microplastics abundance and national standards for analysis and monitoring methods, environmental flow assessment, regional level initiatives, research promotion and risk assessment should be formulated. China has launched the research and development plan in 2016. However, still lack of awareness among the common people was observed and that should be addressed by the Government authorities. More research is needed on the transport, fate and the behavior microplastics from coastal zone to the marine environment.

According to Thailand Government road map for plastic waste management 2018-2030, three types of plastics will be banned from use by the end of 2019 i.e. microbeads, cap seals and oxo-degradable plastics. By 2022, 40 types of single-use plastics with a thickness of 36 microns will be outlawed. The aforementioned measures appear to be a positive sign of environmental preservation. Farmers, public health officials, environmental scientists, engineers, decision makers, municipal waste management officials, planners and developers are expected to focus source reduction, consumption and cost-effective plastic treatment technologies.

Acknowledgement

Authors are grateful to Faculty of Science, Khon Kaen University, Thailand for providing visiting professorship to Suriyanarayanan Sarvajayakesavalu during this work.

References

1. Alimba, C.G. and Faggio C., Microplastics in the marine environment: Current trends in environmental pollution and mechanisms of toxicological profile, *Environ Toxicol Pharmacol*, **68**, 61-74 (2019)
2. Anbumani S. and Kakkar P., Ecotoxicological effects of microplastics on biota: a review, *Environmental Science and Pollution Research*, **25**(15), 14373-14396 (2018)

3. Anderson J.C., Park B.J. and Palace V.P., Microplastics in aquatic environments: Implications for Canadian ecosystems, *Environ Pollut.*, **218**, 269-280 (2016)
4. Andrady A.L., Microplastics in the marine environment, *Mar Pollut Bull*, **62**(8), 1596-1605 (2011)
5. Auta H.S., Emenike C.U. and Fauziah S.H., Distribution and importance of microplastics in the marine environment: A review of the sources, fate, effects and potential solutions, *Environ Int*, **102**, 165-176 (2017)
6. Azad S.M.O. et al, First Evidence of Existence of Microplastics in Stomach of Some Commercial Fishes in the Lower Gulf of Thailand, *Appl Ecol Environ Res*, **16**(6), 7345-7360 (2018)
7. Bai M. et al, Estimation and prediction of plastic waste annual input into the sea from China, *Acta Oceanol. Sin.*, **37**, 26-39 (2018)
8. Barnes D.K.A. et al, Accumulation and fragmentation of plastic debris in global environments, *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences*, **364**(1526), 1985-1998 (2009)
9. Brate I.L.N. et al, Report made for the Norwegian Environment Agency: Microplastics in marine environments, Occurrence, distribution and effects (2014)
10. Browne M.A., Galloway T. and Thompson R., Microplastic—an emerging contaminant of potential concern?, *Integr Environ Assess Manag*, **3**(4), 559-561 (2007)
11. Buranapratheprat A. et al, The modification of water column conditions in the Gulf of Thailand by the influences of the South China Sea and monsoonal winds, *Continental Shelf Research*, **118**, 100-110 (2016)
12. Cai M. et al, Lost but can't be neglected: Huge quantities of small microplastics hide in the South China Sea, *Sci Total Environ*, **633**, 1206-1216 (2018)
13. Carpenter E.J. and Smith K.L., Plastics on the Sargasso Sea Surface, *Science*, **175**(4027), 1240-1241 (1972)
14. Cheung L.T.O. et al, Microplastic Contamination of Wild and Captive Flathead Grey Mullet (*Mugil cephalus*), *Int J Environ Res Public Health*, **15**(4), 26 (2018)
15. Cheung P.K. et al, Spatio-temporal comparison of neustonic microplastic density in Hong Kong waters under the influence of the Pearl River Estuary, *Sci Total Environ*, **628-629**, 731-739 (2018)
16. Cheung P.K., Hung P.L. and Fok L., River Microplastic Contamination and Dynamics upon a Rainfall Event in Hong Kong, China, *Environmental Processes*, **6**(1), 253-264 (2019)
17. Claessens M. et al, Occurrence and distribution of microplastics in marine sediments along the Belgian coast, *Mar Pollut Bull*, **62**(10), 2199-2204 (2011)
18. Cole M. et al, Microplastics as contaminants in the marine environment: A review, *Mar Pollut Bull*, **62**(12), 2588-2597 (2011)

19. Corcoran E. et al, Sick Water? The central role of wastewater management in sustainable development, A Rapid Response Assessment, United Nations Environment Programme, UN-HABITAT, GRID-Arendal (2010)
20. Cordova M.R. and Hernawan U.E., Microplastics in Sumba waters, East Nusa Tenggara, IOP Conference Series: Earth and Environmental Science, **162**, 012023 (2018)
21. Costa M.F. et al, On the importance of size of plastic fragments and pellets on the strandline: a snapshot of a Brazilian beach, *Environ Monit Assess*, **168**(1), 299-304 (2010)
22. Dachs J. and Méjanelle L., Organic Pollutants in Coastal Waters, Sediments and Biota: A Relevant Driver for Ecosystems During the Anthropocene?, *Estuaries and Coasts*, **33**(1), 1-14 (2010)
23. Ding J. et al, Microplastics in the Coral Reef Systems from Xisha Islands of South China Sea, *Environ Sci Technol*, **53**(14), 8036-8046 (2019)
24. Dris R. et al, Microplastic contamination in an urban area: a case study in Greater Paris, *Environmental Chemistry*, **12**(5), 592-599 (2015)
25. Eriksen M. et al., Plastic Pollution in the World's Oceans: More than 5 Trillion Plastic Pieces Weighing over 250,000 Tons Afloat at Sea, *PLoS One*, **9**(12), e111913 (2014)
26. Fan Y. et al, Distribution, sedimentary record and persistence of microplastics in the Pearl River catchment, China, *Environ Pollut*, **251**, 862-870 (2019)
27. Fok L. and Cheung P.K., Hong Kong at the Pearl River Estuary: A hotspot of microplastic pollution, *Mar Pollut Bull*, **99**(1), 112-118 (2015)
28. GESAMP, Sources, fate and effects of microplastics in the marine environment: part two of a global assessment, In Kershaw P.J. and Rochman C.M., eds., IMO/FAO/UNESCO-IOC/UNIDO/WMO/IAEA/UN/UNEP/UNDP Joint Group of Experts on the Scientific Aspects of Marine Environmental Protection, Vol. Rep. Stud. GESAMP No. 93 (2016)
29. Graham E.R. and Thompson J.T., Deposit- and suspension-feeding sea cucumbers (Echinodermata) ingest plastic fragments, *J Exp Mar Bio Ecol*, **368**(1), 22-29 (2009)
30. Handyman D.I.W. et al, Microplastics Patch Based on Hydrodynamic Modeling in The North Indramayu, Java Sea, *Polish Journal of Environmental Studies*, **28**(1), 135-142 (2019)
31. Hu J. et al, A Review on the Currents in the South China Sea: Seasonal Circulation, South China Sea Warm Current and Kuroshio Intrusion, *Journal of Oceanography*, **56**, 607-624 (2000)
32. Huang J.S. et al, Microplastic accumulation in fish from Zhanjiang mangrove wetland, South China, *Sci Total Environ.*, **708**, 134839 (2020)
33. Ismail M.R., Lewaru M.W. and Prihadi D.J., Microplastics ingestion by fish in the Pangandaran Bay, Indonesia, *WNOFNS*, **23**, 173-181 (2019)
34. IUCN 2018, International Union for Conservation of Nature, ISSUE BRIEF, https://www.iucn.org/sites/dev/files/marine_plastics_issues_brief_final_0.pdf (2018)
35. Jambeck J.R. et al, Plastic waste inputs from land into the ocean, *Science*, **347**(6223), 768-771 (2015)
36. Jia Y.W. et al, Occurrence and mass loads of biocides in plastic debris from the Pearl River system, South China, *Chemosphere*, **246**, 125771 (2020)
37. Khalik W.M.A.W.M. et al, Microplastics analysis in Malaysian marine waters: A field study of Kuala Nerus and Kuantan, *Mar Pollut Bull*, **135**, 451-457 (2018)
38. Koongolla J.B. et al, Occurrence of microplastics in gastrointestinal tracts and gills of fish from Beibu Gulf, South China Sea, *Environ Pollut.*, **258**, 113734 (2020)
39. Lam T.W.L. et al, Spatial variation of floatable plastic debris and microplastics in the Pearl River Estuary, South China, *Mar Pollut Bull.*, **158**, 111383 (2020)
40. Lebreton L. et al, River plastic emissions to the world's oceans, *Nature Communications*, **8**(1), 15611 (2017)
41. Li H.X. et al, Microplastics in oysters *Saccostrea cucullata* along the Pearl River Estuary, China, *Environ Pollut*, **236**, 619-625 (2018)
42. Li R. et al, Abundance and characteristics of microplastics in the mangrove sediment of the semi-enclosed Maowei Sea of the South China Sea: New implications for location, rhizosphere and sediment compositions, *Environ Pollut*, **244**, 685-692 (2019)
43. Li R. et al, Field study of the microplastic pollution in sea snails (*Ellobium chinense*) from mangrove forest and their relationships with microplastics in water/sediment located on the north of Beibu Gulf, *Environ Pollut.*, **263**(Pt B), 114368 (2020)
44. Lin C. and Nakamura S., Approaches to solving China's marine plastic pollution and CO2 emission problems, *Economic Systems Research*, **31**(2), 143-157 (2019)
45. Lin L. et al, Low level of microplastic contamination in wild fish from an urban estuary, *Mar Pollut Bull.*, **160**, 111650 (2020)
46. Lin L. et al, Occurrence and distribution of microplastics in an urban river: A case study in the Pearl River along Guangzhou City, China, *Sci Total Environ*, **644**, 375-381 (2018)
47. Lo H.S. et al, Spatial distribution and source identification of hydrophobic organic compounds (HBC's) on sedimentary microplastics in Hong Kong, *Chemosphere*, **219**, 418-426 (2019)
48. Matsuguma Y. et al, Microplastics in Sediment Cores from Asia and Africa as Indicators of Temporal Trends in Plastic Pollution, *Archives of Environmental Contamination and Toxicology*, **73**(2), 230-239 (2017)
49. Md Amin R. et al, Microplastic ingestion by zooplankton in Terengganu coastal waters, southern South China Sea, *Mar Pollut Bull.*, **150**, 110616 (2020)

50. Ng C.K.Y. et al, Marine Macrophytes and Plastics Consumed by Green Turtles in Hong Kong, South China Sea Region, *Chelonian Conserv Biol*, **15**(2), 289-292 (2016)
51. Nie H. et al, Microplastic pollution in water and fish samples around Nanxun Reef in Nansha Islands, South China Sea, *Sci Total Environ*, **696**, 134022 (2019)
52. Patel M.M. et al, Getting into the Brain, *CNS Drugs*, **23**(1), 35-58 (2009)
53. Po B.H. et al, Characterisation of an unexplored group of microplastics from the South China Sea: Can they be caused by macrofaunal fragmentation?, *Mar Pollut Bull.*, **155**, 111151 (2020)
54. Prokic M.D. et al, Ecotoxicological effects of microplastics: Examination of biomarkers, current state and future perspectives, *TrAC, Trends Anal Chem*, **111**, 37-46 (2019)
55. Ritchie H. and Roser M., Plastic Pollution Published online at OurWorldInData.org, from <https://ourworldindata.org/plastic-pollution> (2020)
56. Schmidt C. et al, Export of Plastic Debris by Rivers into the Sea, *Environmental Science & Technology*, **51**(21), 12246-12253 (2017)
57. Styllis G., Thailand falling behind in global battle with plastic waste Dead whale brings packaging overuse and government inaction into focus, *Nikkei Asian Review*, from <https://asia.nikkei.com/Economy/Thailand-falling-behind-in-global-battle-with-plastic-waste> (2018)
58. Sun X. et al, Ingestion of microplastics by natural zooplankton groups in the northern South China Sea, *Mar Pollut Bull*, **115**(1), 217-224 (2017)
59. Sweet M., Steifox M. and Lamb J., Plastics and shallow water coral reefs: synthesis of the science for policy makers, United Nations Environment Programme (2019)
60. Tan F. et al, Microplastic pollution around remote uninhabited coral reefs of Nansha Islands, South China Sea, *Sci Total Environ.*, **725**, 138383 (2020)
61. Tang G. et al, Microplastics and polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs) in Xiamen coastal areas: Implications for anthropogenic impacts, *Sci Total Environ*, **634**, 811-820 (2018)
62. Tang J. et al, Differential enrichment and physiological impacts of ingested microplastics in scleractinian corals in situ, *J Hazard Mater*, **404**(Pt B), 124205 (2020)
63. Teng J. et al, Microplastic in cultured oysters from different coastal areas of China, *Sci Total Environ*, **653**, 1282-1292 (2019)
64. Thang L.D., Overview of marine plastic debris in vietnam in relation to International context (10174) Paper presented at the FIG working week 2019 Geospatial Information for a smarter life and environmental resilience, Hanoi, Vietnam (2019)
65. Thompson R.C., Microplastics in the marine environment: Sources, consequences and solutions, In Bergmann M., Gutow L. and Klages M., eds., *Marine anthropogenic litter*, Berlin, Springer, 185-200 (2015)
66. Thushari G.G.N. and Senevirathna J.D.M., Plastic pollution in the marine environment, *Heliyon*, **6**(8), e04709 (2020)
67. Tibbetts J.H., Managing marine plastic pollution: policy initiatives to address wayward waste, *Environ Health Perspect*, **123**, A90-A93 (2015)
68. UN Environment Report, UN Environment 2018 Annual Report, from <https://www.unenvironment.org/resources/un-environment-2018-annual-report> (2018)
69. UNEP, Land-based Pollution in the South China Sea, UNEP/GEF/SCS Technical Publication No 10 from <https://www.unepscs.org/google/South-China-Sea-Technical-Publication-Land-Based-Pollution-South-China-Sea.pdf> (2007)
70. University of Georgia, More than 8.3 billion tons of plastics made: Most has now been discarded, Science Daily, www.sciencedaily.com/releases/2017/07/170719140939.htm (2017)
71. Villarrubia-Gomez P., Cornell S.E. and Fabres J., Marine plastic pollution as a planetary boundary threat to the drifting piece in the sustainability puzzle, *Mar. Pol.*, **96**, 213e220 (2018)
72. Wang J., Zheng L. and Li J., A critical review on the sources and instruments of marine microplastics and prospects on the relevant management in China, *Waste Manag Res*, **36**(10), 898-911 (2018)
73. Wang M.H., He Y. and Sen B., Research and management of plastic pollution in coastal environments of China, *Environ Pollut*, **248**, 898-905 (2019)
74. Wang Y. et al, Occurrence and distribution of microplastics in surface sediments from the Gulf of Thailand, *Marine Pollution Bulletin*, **152**, 110916 (2020)
75. Wattayakorn G., Environmental Issues in the Gulf of Thailand, In Wolanski E., ed., *The Environment in Asia Pacific Harbours*, Dordrecht: Springer (2006)
76. Wattayakorn G. et al, Seasonal dispersion of petroleum contaminants in the Gulf of Thailand, *Cont Shelf Res*, **18**(6), 641-659 (1998)
77. Xue B. et al, Underestimated Microplastic Pollution Derived from Fishery Activities and "Hidden" in Deep Sediment, *Environ Sci Technol*, **54**(4), 2210-2217 (2020)
78. Yan M. et al, Microplastic abundance, distribution and composition in the Pearl River along Guangzhou city and Pearl River estuary, China, *Chemosphere*, **217**, 879-886 (2019)
79. Yue T.X. et al, Numerical Simulation of Population Distribution in China, *Popul Environ*, **25**(2), 141-163 (2003)
80. Zhang L. et al, Dynamic distribution of microplastics in mangrove sediments in Beibu Gulf, South China: Implications of tidal current velocity and tidal range, *J Hazard Mater*, **399**, 122849 (2020)
81. Zhang L. et al, The spatial distribution of microplastic in the sands of a coral reef island in the South China Sea: Comparisons of the fringing reef and atoll, *Sci Total Environ*, **688**, 780-786 (2019)

82. Zhao S., Zhu L. and Li D., Characterization of small plastic debris on tourism beaches around the South China Sea, *Regional Studies in Marine Science*, **1**, 55-62 (2015)
83. Zhou P. et al, The abundance, composition and sources of marine debris in coastal seawaters or beaches around the northern South China Sea (China), *Mar Pollut Bull*, **62(9)**, 1998-2007 (2011)
84. Zhou Q. et al, Characteristics and distribution of microplastics in the coastal mangrove sediments of China, *Sci Total Environ*, **703**, 134807 (2020)
85. Zhu C. et al, Plastic debris in marine birds from an island located in the South China Sea, *Mar Pollut Bull.*, **149**, 110566 (2019)
86. Zhu L. et al, Microplastic ingestion in deep-sea fish from the South China Sea, *Sci Total Environ*, **677**, 493-501 (2019)
87. Zuo L. et al, Microplastics in mangrove sediments of the Pearl River Estuary, South China: Correlation with halogenated flame retardants' levels, *Sci Total Environ.*, **725**, 138344 (2020).
- (Received 15th September 2022, accepted 14th November 2022)
