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Document Information

This report (Deliverable 3.2.1) provides an overview of the state-of-the-art methods to monitor marine litter and its impacts on biodiversity including endangered species.

Approvals

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1. Introduction

1.1. PlasticBusters MPAs in a nutshell

PlasticBusters MPAs, is a 4-year-long project Interreg Mediterranean funded project aiming to contribute to maintaining biodiversity and preserving natural ecosystems in pelagic and coastal marine protected areas (MPAs), by defining and implementing a harmonized approach against marine litter. The project entails actions that address the whole management cycle of marine litter, from monitoring and assessment to prevention and mitigation, as well as actions to strengthen networking between and among pelagic and coastal MPAs.

The PlasticBusters MPAs consolidates Mediterranean efforts against marine litter by:

- Diagnosing the impacts of marine litter on biodiversity in MPAs and identifying marine litter 'hotspots';
- Defining and testing tailor-made marine litter surveillance, prevention and mitigation measures in MPAs;
- Developing a common framework of marine litter actions for Interreg Mediterranean regions towards the conservation of biodiversity in Med MPAs.

The PlasticBusters MPAs project deploys the multidisciplinary strategy and common framework of action developed within the Plastic Busters initiative led by the University of Siena and the Sustainable Develoment Solutions Network Mediterranean. This initiative frames the priority actions needed to tackle marine litter in the Mediterranean and was labelled under the Union for the Mediterranean (UfM) in 2016, capturing the political support of 43 EuroMediterranean countries.

1.2. Aim and scope of this report

The overarching aim of this report is to present a summary review of the state-of-the-art methods to monitor marine litter (macro-litter and micro-litter) in all marine compartments (beach, sea surface, seafloor, biota) and its impacts on biodiversity. This report aims to take-stock of the marine litter monitoring methodologies applied in the Mediterranean region, without though overlooking any ground-breaking scientific advances made in the field, worldwide.

In this respect, a thorough screening of the related scientific literature (peer-reviewed articles, technical reports, etc.) published in the last 5 years was carried out. It should be highlighted that the geographical scope of the literature review covered all Mediterranean countries; thus going beyond the scope of the Interreg Med regions. Special emphasis was given to the results of the ongoing Interreg Med projects dealing with marine litter monitoring aspects (i.e. ACT4LITTER, AMARE, MEDSEALITTER, etc.).

The compiled summary report aims to establish a common understanding within the project partnership on the recent advances made with regards to marine litter monitoring in order to select the most mature, relevant and applicable protocols towards defining and testing a harmonized marine litter monitoring approach (Deliverables 3.3.1 and 3.3.2).

1.3. Definitions and policy context

Within this document marine litter is defined as any persistent, manufactured or processed solid material discarded, disposed of or abandoned in the marine and coastal environment. Marine litter can be classified in size classes as follows: macrolitter referring to items above 25mm in the longest dimension; mesolitter from 5mm to 25 mm; and microlitter from 1 μ m to 5mm. Sometimes the later size class is further broken down to large microplastics from 1mm to 5 mm and small microplastics from 1 μ m to 1mm.

The main legislative frameworks related to marine litter monitoring are the EU Marine Strategy Framework Directive (2008/56/EC, 2010/477/EC, 2017/848/EC) and the Barcelona Convention Ecosystem Approach (COP19 IMAP Decision IG.22/7) (see Box 1.1 and Box 1.2).

Box. 1.1. The Marine Litter Descriptor, criteria, and respective Indicators within the framework of the EU MSFD.

Marine Litter within the EU MSFD

Properties and quantities of marine litter do not cause harm to the coastal and marine environment (Descriptor 10)

Criteria D10C1 - Primary:

The composition, amount and spatial distribution of litter on the coastline, in the surface layer of the water column, and on the seabed, are at levels that do not cause harm to the coastal and marine environment.

- ✓ amount of litter washed ashore and/or deposited on coastlines, including analysis of its composition, spatial distribution and, where possible, source (10.1.1)
- ✓ amount of litter in the water column (including floating at the surface) and deposited on the seafloor, including analysis of its composition, spatial distribution and, where possible, source (10.1.2)

Criteria D10C2 - Primary:

The composition, amount and spatial distribution of micro-litter on the coastline, in the surface layer of the water column, and in seabed sediment, are at levels that do not cause harm to the coastal and marine environment.

✓ amount, distribution and, where possible, composition of microparticles (in particular microplastics) (10.1.3)

Criteria D10C3 - Secondary:

The amount of litter and micro-litter ingested by marine animals is at a level that does not adversely affect the health of the species concerned.

✓ amount and composition of litter ingested by marine animals (10.2.1)

Criteria D10C4 - Secondary:

The number of individuals of each species which are adversely affected due to litter, such as by entanglement, other types of injury or mortality, or health effects.

Box. 1.2. The Marine Litter Operational Objectives and respective Indicators within the framework of the Barcelona Convention Ecosystem Approach and the Integrated Monitoring and Assessment Programme (IMAP)

Marine Litter and the Barcelona Convention Ecosystem Approach

Ecological Objective 10 (EO10): Marine and coastal litter do not adversely affect the coastal and marine environment.

IMAP Common Indicator 22:

Trends in the amount of litter washed ashore and/or deposited on coastlines (including analysis of its composition, spatial distribution and, where possible, source).

IMAP Common Indicator 22:

Trends in the amount of litter in the water column including micro plastics and on the seafloor.

IMAP Candidate Indicator 24:

Trends in the amount of litter ingested by or entangling marine organisms focusing on selected mammals, marine birds, and marine turtles.

2. Monitoring marine litter on beaches

2.1. Macro-litter

Beach surveys for macro-litter (items > 2.5 cm) assessment are the most common mode of marine litter monitoring in the Mediterranean. A thorough screening of the literature revealed that most beach litter studies (published in peer-reviewed journals from 2013-2018) carried out in the Mediterranean focus on the collection and visual identification and classification of litter items found at a shoreline site. The protocols applied may differ in terms of sampling units (size and positioning), frequency and timing of the surveys, size limits and classes of litter items to be surveyed, classification list and quantification units (see Tab. 2.1).

Within the framework of the Marine Strategy Framework Directive, the Technical Group on Marine Litter (MSFD TG10) has developed guidelines on beach litter monitoring (Galgani et al., 2013). According to these guidelines the survey sites are selected taking into consideration the following criteria: they have a minimum length of 100 m; they are characterized by a low to moderate slope (~1.5-4.5 °); they have clear access to the sea (not blocked by breakwaters or jetties); they are accessible to survey teams throughout the year; they are ideally not subject to cleaning activities. Furthermore, the selected beaches are situated in the vicinity of ports or harbours, river mouths, coastal urban areas, tourism destinations; and in relatively remote areas. Surveys are carried out at intervals of three months in autumn (mid-September to mid-October), winter (mid-December to mid-January), spring (April) and summer (mid-June to mid-July). During the surveys, all macroscopic beach litter items larger than 2.5 cm in the longest dimension are collected and counted, ensuring the inclusion of caps, lids and cigarette butts. In each survey, the sampling unit used is a 100-metre stretch from the strandline to the back of the beach. The back of the beach is identified using coastal features such as the presence of vegetation, dunes, cliff base, road, fence or other anthropogenic structures such as seawalls (either piled boulders or concrete structures). Two (2) sections of a 100metre stretch on the same beach are monitored, separated at least by a distance of 50m. All items found on the sampling unit are collected and are categorized in accordance with the 'MSFD TG10 Master List of Categories of Litter Items'. Results are expressed as counts of litter items per square meter (m²) or counts of litter items per 100-metre stretch of beach. It should be noted, that according to the Decision EC/2017/848 on the 'Assessment of criteria and methodological standards for assessing the GES' the unit of counts/100 m is recommended for criterion D10C1 'Litter on coastline'.

Within the framework of the Barcelona Convention a guidance document for beach litter monitoring has been developed. According to this document the approach for selecting the survey site is the same as the one suggested by the MSFD TG10. Furthermore, the recommended sampling unit and the frequency and timing of the surveys follow the MSFD TG10 approach. The same applies for the quantification units and the size classes to be surveyed, however regarding the classification list there are some very few small differences. Indicative examples are the following: the categories of plastic drink bottles ≤ 0.5 I (G7) and plastic drink bottles ≥ 0.5 I (G8) in the MEDPOL Beach Litter Survey Form have been merged into one category entitled plastic drink bottles (G7/G8); similarly the plastic caps and lids (G21) and the plastic rings from bottle caps and lids (G24) have been merged into one category entitled plastic caps and lids, including rings from bottle caps/lids (G21/24). In total 7 such merges/differentiations have been identified.

Table 2.1. Literature review on beach macro-litter studies published in peer-reviewed journals from 2013-2018.

Location	Sampling unit	Frequency & timing	Size classes	Classification list	Quantification units	Reference
Slovenia	50-m transect	24 h timeframe	≥2 cm	UNEP/IOC Litter classification list	items/m2	Laglbauer et al., 2013
Tyrrhenian coast, Italy	2m*2m (4m²) plots	April-May	≥2.5 cm	MSFD TG10 Masterlist	N/A	Poeta et al., 2016
North-western Adriatic coast, Italy	50-m transect	May-June	≥2 cm	UNEP/IOC Litter classification list	items/m²	Munari et al., 2016
Tyrrhenian coast, Italy	100-m transect	Every 3 months	≥2.5 cm	MSFD TG10 Masterlist	items/m	Poeta et al., 2016
Israel	100-m transect	Seasonal (surveys were an average of 55 days apart)	≥2.5 cm	UNEP/IOC Litter classification list	items/100m²	Pasternak et al., 2017
Israel	10-m transect	April-July (every 2 weeks)	≥ 2 cm	MSFD TG10 Masterlist	items/m²	Portman and Brennan, 2017
Mediterranean coastline, Morocco	25-m transect	Seasonal	-	Material type	Weight	Alshawafi et al., 2017
Corfu, Greece	100-m transect	Every 15 ± 5 days	≥2.5 cm	MSFD TG10 Masterlist	items/100 m; kg/100 m	Prevenios et al., 2018
Ulcinj, Montenegro	2m*2m (4m²) plots	May	≥2.5 cm	MSFD TG10 Masterlist	N/A	Šilc et al.,2018
Pelagos Sanctuary, Italy	100-m transect	Seasonal	≥2.5 cm	OSPAR List	items/100m²	Giovacchini et al., 2018
Mediterranean coastline, Morocco	100-m transect	November- December	≥2.5 cm	UNEP List	items/100 m; items/m²; gr/m²;	Maziane et al., 2018
Adriatic and Ionian Seas, all countries	100-m transect	Every 3 months	≥2.5 cm	MSFD TG10 Masterlist	items/100m; items/m²	Vlachogianni et al., 2018

Several InterregMed modular projects and other projects have undertaken beach litter monitoring activities using different approaches as shown in Table 2.2. The vast majority of these initiatives are applying the MSFD TG10 and the MEDPOL guidelines for beach litter monitoring.

NGOs efforts provide a very important contribution to beach litter monitoring data in the Mediterranean with the vast majority of the NGOs active on the issue (i.e. LEGABIENTE, MAREVIVO, MEDSOS, MIO-ECSDE, HELMEPA, SURFRIDER, etc.) applying the MSFD TG10 methodology for beach litter monitoring.

Regarding the MSFD monitoring programmes of the Members States it seems that most of the Member States have adopted the MSFD TG10 methodology.

Table 2.2. Beach macro-litter monitoring undertaken by Interreg Med modular projects and other projects/initiatives.

Project/Initiative	Sampling unit	Frequency & timing	Size classes	Classification list	Quantification units
Interreg Med ACT4LITTER	100-m transect	Every 3 months	≥ 2.5 cm	MSFD TG10 Masterlist	items/100m; items/m²
Interreg Med BLUEISLANDS	100-m transect	Monthly	≥ 2.5 cm	OSPAR List	items/100m; items/m²
Interreg-BALKANMED Meltemi	100-m transect	Every 3 months	≥ 2.5 cm	MSFD TG10 Masterlist	items/100m; items/m²
EU SWIM-H2020 SM (Algeria, Egypt, Morocco)	100-m transect	Every 3 months	≥ 2.5 cm	MSFD TG10 Masterlist	items/100m; items/m²
UN Environment Programme/MAP Marine Litter-MED	100-m transect	Every 3 months	≥ 2.5 cm	MEDPOL LIST	items/100m; items/m²
IPA Adriatic DeFishGear	100-m transect	Every 3 months	≥ 2.5 cm	MSFD TG10 Masterlist	items/100m; items/m²
EEA Marine Litter Watch	100-m transect	Every 3 months	≥ 2.5 cm	MSFD TG10 Masterlist	items/100m

Last but not least, despite their relatively recent emergence, drones are increasingly being deployed within research efforts, including beach litter monitoring. The scientific literature review yielded one study undertaken in the Mediterranean focusing on beach litter monitoring through aerial imagery (Deidun et al., 2018). The authors perceive this approach as a well-suited one to address the monitoring needs of MPAs managers, enabling the regular and exhaustive monitoring of long stretches of coastline within the confines of the same MPAs. However, the study pinpoints also the possible constraints imposed by data protection considerations, which have resulted in many countries adopting restrictions on drone flights in some areas (including beaches).

2.2. Micro-litter

Microplastics comprise a very heterogeneous assemblage of pieces that vary in size, shape, colour, specific density, polymer type, and other characteristics. For meaningful comparisons and to answer the specific questions and to test hypotheses through monitoring, it is important to define methodological criteria to quantify such metrics as for e.g. the abundance, distribution and composition of microplastics and to ensure sampling effort is sufficient to detect the effects of interest. Microplastics, commonly defined as plastic particles smaller than 5mm, are of particular concern in recent years because of their prevalence in the ocean and potential ingestion by marine organisms. Occurrence and distribution of microplastics to the global marine environment include both primary sources (derived from hand and facial cleansers, cosmetic preparations, scrubbers in air-blasting, and production waste from plastic processing plants) and secondary sources (derived from fragmentation of larger plastics as a result of physical and chemical effects). In general, large amounts of plastics end up as marine debris as a result of insufficient treatment capacity, accidental inputs, littering, illegal dumping and coastal human activities. Larger plastic items (meso-and macroplastics) enter a beach or ocean and undergo mechanical, photo (oxidative) and/ or biological degradation, which breaks them into progressively smaller plastic fragments that eventually become undetectable to the naked eye.

The setup of standardized protocols to quantify particle density is needed in order to compare studies across time (i.e., seasonal and evolving trends) and space (i.e., regional and biogeographic variation).

Within the framework of the Marine Strategy Framework Directive, the Technical Group on Marine Litter (MSFD TG10) has developed guidelines on beach litter monitoring (Galgani et al., 2013) and generally recommends to: (a) quantify microplastics in the size range 20 µm to 5 mm, (b) categorize them according to their physical characteristics including size, shape and colour, (c) obtain information on polymer type, since this can help identify potential sources and pathways, (d) categorize to size bins with a minimum level of resolution of approximately 100 µm (20-100 µm, 101-200 μ m, 201- 300 μ m etc), (e) all particles in the range 20-100 μ m to be subjected to further analysis to confirm identity (e.g. using FT-IR), (f) for particles in the size range 0.1 - 5mm a proportion (for example 10%) of the material in each size class, up to a maximum of 50 items per year or sampling occasion whichever is the least frequent) of the items considered to be microplastics be subjected to further analysis to confirm identity (e.g. using FT-IR). The latter step is important in order to 1) ensure quality control of visual identification and 2) gain information on the relative abundance of different polymer types which can be used to help identify potential sources and pathways leading to the accumulation of microplastics. Regarding the sampling frequency, it is recommended that microparticles in beaches are sampled at the same time as macro-litter on beaches, or in parallel with any other routine intertidal monitoring (e.g. for chemical contaminants, biota). However, detailed power analyses is required in order to determine the adequate number and timing of sampling events for detecting the levels of change (effect size) from the background/natural variability.

More specifically Galgani et al. (2013) recommend that microplastics should be monitored at the front of the shore (strandline) and where available on sandy shores (0.1 – 0.0125 mm diameter), separate samples should be collected to monitor each of two size classes of debris (1-5mm and 20 μ m – 1 mm), samples should be collected from the upper 5cm of the beach sediment, a minimum of five replicate samples should be collected starting from the strandline, each replicate should be separated by at least 5 m, while replicates would be distributed in a stratified random manner so as to be representative of an entire beach or a specific section of a beach. Regarding large microplastics (1 – 5mm), they should be sampled using an extension of the protocol for meso debris (5-25mm) by stacking together the 5mm sieve with a further metal sieve of 1mm mesh to achieve volume reduction in the field. Small microplastics (20 μ m – 1 mm) should be collected from the top 5 cm of sand using a metal spoon (suggest 15 ml) standardising sampling by volume and collecting approximately 250 ml of sediment. For the extraction of the microplastics they recommend the density separation using a concentrated saline NaCl solution (1.2 g/ml).

The NOAA Marine Debris Program has published in 2015 a more detailed manual with recommendations for extracting and quantifying in the laboratory synthetic particles in beach sediments (Masura et al., 2015). The plastic debris analyzed by this method is considered microplastic and ranges in size from 5 mm to 0.3 mm. The recommended procedure is summarized as follows: weigh 400 g of wet sediment, dry in an oven at 90°C overnight or until sample dryness, determine the dry sample weight, extraction with lithium metatungstate solution (density 1.6 g/mL), hand stir for several minutes, leave to settle, remove any visible solids >5mm with forceps, filter the floating material through a 0.3 mm sieve, oven dry the collected material at 90 °C for 24 hours or longer, determine the mass of the dried solids and in case there is a lot of organic material, use the Wet Peroxide Oxidation. Final density separation with 5 M NaCl in a separating funnel, allow solids to settle overnight, visually inspect settled solids for any microplastics and discard, collect floating solids in a clean 0.3 mm custom sieve, allow the sieve to air dry while loosely covered with aluminum foil for 24 hours. Microscopic examination of the solids under a dissecting microscope at 40X magnification, weigh the mass of the microplastics and analysis of microplastics using Fourier-Transform Infrared Spectroscopy.

Table 2.2. Literature review on beach micro-litter studies published in peer-reviewed journals from 2013 and 2018 (ND: not described).

Location	Size	Sampling			Extraction					Identification	Reference
		Beach zone	n	Depth (cm)	Drying duration/ Temp	Extraction process	Stirring time/ speed	Settling time	Repeat extractions		
Slovenian coast	250μm-5mm	Entire beach	3	5	24 h/60 °C	1.2 kg/L NaCl	2 min manually	30 min	2	Visual (microscope)	Laglbauer et al., 2014
Slovenian coast	250 μm-5mm	Sublittoral zone	3	ND	24 h/60 °C	1.2 kg/L NaCl	2 min manually	30 min	2	Visual (microscope)	Laglbauer et al., 2014
North-western Adriatic coast, Italy	≤5mm	High tide mark	6	5	48 h/50 °C	Optical	-	-	-	FTIR-ATR	Munari et al., 2017
Mediterranean coastline, Morocco	1.25- 4.75 mm	Entire beach	3	5	1 h/65 °C	Optical	-	-	-	-	Alshawafi et al., 2017
Northern coast of Crete isl.	≥2mm	Entire beach	12-18	10	-	Optical	-	-	-	-	Karkanorachaki et al., 2018
Mediterranean Sea (Esp, Fr, It, Gr, Tr, Is)	0.3- 5mm	High tide line	5	5	48 h/60 °C	1.2 kg/L NaCl	2 min/ 900 rpm	8 h	3	Visual (microscope) and Raman spectroscopy	Lots et al., 2017
Northern Tunisian coast	≥1mm	ND	3	2-3	air	1.2 kg/L NaCl	5 min manually	ND	ND	FTIR-ATR	Abidli et al., 2018
Kea isl., Aegean Sea	1-2 mm	Upper beach	3-4	3	ND	1.2 kg/L NaCl	ND	ND	ND	FTIR-ATR	Kaberi et al., 2013
Kea isl., Aegean Sea	2-4 mm	Upper beach	3-4	3	ND	Optical	-	-	-	Visual and FTIR-ATR	Kaberi et al., 2013
Samos isl., Greece	≥1.2 µm	Beach and sublittoral zone	27	0-5, 5-10, 10-15 cm	ND	1.2 kg/L NaCl	ND	ND	ND	ND	De Ruijter et al., 2018

Several, partly different, methods of extracting microplastics from beach sediments are described in the literature. Besides the use of NaCl, recommended by Galgani et al (2013), several researchers use solutions (e.g. NaI, ZnCl₂) denser than NaCl in order to separate more dense microplastics. An elutriation column which facilitates the separation of microplastic particles from the sediment particles is also used by some researchers (e.g. Hengstmann et al., 2018; Kedzierski et al., 2016 & 2018, etc.). A new, totally different, approach in separating microplastics from environmental samples is based on their electrostatic behaviour (Felsing et al., 2018).

Differentiation from the recommended sampling of surface beach sediments is reported by Turra et al., 2014 in Brazil; Chubarenko et al., 2018 in the Baltic Sea and De Ruijter et al., 2018 in Greece, which tried a three-dimensional distribution of microplastics on sandy beaches.

Regarding, the polymer identification, microplastics can be easily identified as such either using infrared spectroscopy [FTIR] in the ATR mode or Raman spectroscopy. The latter is a relatively easier and faster semi-automated technique. Most Raman instruments are able to match the sample spectra to a spectral library to identify the specific polymer. Raman spectroscopy does not work well with the smaller or dark-colored microplastics and FTIR microscopy may have to be used. An emerging, faster technique for identification of MPs is hyperspectral imaging that yields false-color near infrared images of the particles. Advantage of this technique is that multiple samples can be imaged and identified automatically, simultaneously. Visual identification of MPs despite its simplicity is prone to serious error (Andrady, 2017 and references therein).

A review of the literature on microplastics in beach sediments for the years from 2013 to 2018 showed that the majority of studies examined the spatial distribution (abundance, mass, type, and/or size) of microplastics. Out of at least 35 publications reporting results worldwide, only 8 refer to the Mediterranean region (Tab. 2.2).

There is a lack of quality assurance/quality control (QA/QC) instruments available: e.g. no organisations yet offer proficiency training or testing, there have been no inter-laboratory studies, no certified reference materials are available, no standardized sampling and analysis protocols have been published, no accreditation certificates have been issued and some procedures in use have not yet been validated. Approaches for QA/QC will therefore be very useful for evaluating sources of variability and error and increasing confidence in the data collected. Currently, an inter-calibration exercise is running in the framework of MEDCIS project.

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3. Monitoring marine litter on the sea surface

In the last five years (from 2013 to 2018) a total of 30 studies focusing on marine litter on the seasurface in the Mediterranean Sea have been published. The present chapter provides an overview of the methods and protocols used in the Mediterranean in order to monitor marine litter floating on the sea surface. Depending on the litter size class monitored, methodologies vary; from visual observations aboard for macro-litter to surveys that make use of nets with different mesh-sizes for sampling micro-litter.

3.1. Macro-litter

For macro-litter, visual observation is the most common methodology used and relies on competent and dedicated observers. Direct visual observations need fewer resources, but are fraught with potential biases linked to differences in litter detectability due to observation conditions, litter size classes and observation platforms as well as due to the potential fatigue of the observer. Some of these factors are not so determinant when it comes to automatic recording of floating litter, which has been used in more recent applications and is provided by recording systems specifically set to acquire images from ships, aircrafts or drones. Apart from the 'traditional' RGB cameras, the use of thermic cameras and multi-spectral cameras is also being experimented for automated marine monitoring (Bryson and Williams 2015).

Floating macro-litter surveys have been conducted in several studies in the Mediterranean. These visual surveys have been carried out from different types of vessels (Table 3.1), ranging from small-or medium-sized boats (Di-Méglio and Campana, 2017; Zeri et al., 2018) to large ships (Ryan, 2013), including platforms of opportunity as ferries and cargo ships (ISPRA, 2015; Sà et al., 2016, Arcangeli et al., 2018). In many cases, these surveys are carried out simultaneously with other research surveys such as cetacean observations (Di-Méglio and Campana, 2017).

Observations are generally conducted only from the side of the ship with the best viewing conditions, because variable detection rates depend on the sea state, light conditions and the characteristics of floating objects (Galgani et al., 2013a). In some studies, only those conducted in sea state ≤ 2 Beaufort are taken into account (Di-Méglio and Campana, 2017). Observers scan the sea surface from the deck at a distance from the sea level which may vary according to the type of vessel. For example, sightings from research and sailing vessels are done closer to sea level (~ 5m, Suaria and Aliani, 2014 and ~ 3m, Di-Méglio and Campana, 2017), while distance to sea surface increases in passengers ferries (17-25 m, Arcangeli et al., 2018). These observations can be conducted either through naked eye (Vlachogianni et al., 2017; Zeri et al., 2018) or binoculars (Arcangeli et al., 2018) with different observation periods varying from 30 minutes to 1hour 30 minutes (Suaria and Aliani, 2014, Arcangeli et al., 2018). These visual surveys are tedious for observers, thus reducing the sighting time and increasing the number of replicates (transects) can help to reduce sampling error. Performed transects can vary in time and distance conducted. For example, transects of 30 minutes with a research vessel can have a mean length of 9.21 km (Suaria and Aliani, 2014) while transects conducted from a ferry can have a length of 65 km (Arcangeli et al., 2018). Even though the latter transects have a duration of 1.5 hours, the travelled distance is not three times larger than the 30 minutes transects performed in Suaria and Aliani, 2014.

Macrolitter density in the sea surface has been seen to vary according to the speed of the vessels (Vlachogianni et al., 2017), thus it is important to take into account this parameter. As for neuston net sampling towing speed has a low variation; 2-3.5 knots (Cózar et al., 2015, Ruiz-Orejón et al., 2016), vessels used in visual surveys have a more broad speed range: 6 – 25 knots (Di-Méglio and Campana, 2017, Arcangeli et al., 2018). In general, small boats can cover coastal waters, usually travelling at slow speed and detecting all items with at least one dimension bigger than 2.5 cm by naked eye (e.g.; Di-Méglio and Campana, 2017). The increase of observation height and vessel speed

corresponds to a loss of ability to detect small- sized items. Large vessels, on the other hand, can survey large open sea areas and provide data on larger size classes (>20 cm), which are considered adequate indicators for describing spatial patterns over a larger scale (Sà et al., 2016; Arcangeli et al., 2018).

During ship surveys, automated photographs of the sea surface during daylight can be obtained through cameras applied on the bow of the platforms of opportunity such as commercial vessels or cruises (e.g. SeaLitterCAM, Galgani et al., 2013b). The recognition analysis is performed afterwards on the video/images acquired. A standard image analysis includes the characterization of pixels to distinguish water vs floating items, and the evaluation of items discriminability using linear discriminant analyses. Several algorithms for automated image analysis and object detection have been developed and proposed, based on the characterization of pixels and the analysis of colour and shape of objects (e.g. Maire et al., 2013). In this situation, the bias is linked to observation conditions and the post-processing recognition of images. Ship-based, drone and aerial surveys techniques have been tested through field experiments.

At a large monitoring program scale, aerial surveys from aircrafts to estimate the amounts of litter at sea and to locate areas of higher aggregations of floating litter are developed (Lecke-Mitchell & Unger et al. 2014). Aircraft surveys cover large areas but can detect only larger classes of items (i.e. the smallest size limit for aerial detection is ca. 30–40 cm). Aerial surveys are considered valuable for detecting spatial differences in abundance, but the high costs of these surveys prevent from a large replication to monitor changes over time (Galgani et al., 2013a;). Surveys are designed based on the line transect distance sampling technique, although aircraft cruise condition, such as speed and height, can make it difficult to take accurate measures. From aircraft also strip transects are used, especially when a multi-thematic monitoring is performed (e.g. French SAMM monitoring program, Laran et al., 2017). From aircrafts both visual observation and automatic detection techniques can be applied.

Automated recording of floating objects can be obtained through a variety of recording systems applied on Unmanned Aerial Vehicles (UAV) or other remote controlled devices, such as drones that can be used to monitor the presence of marine litter at different spatial scales in the sea surface. The use of these devices presents some advantages when compared to traditional visual techniques: human error of visual surveys is reduced; human risk (for pilots and observers) is reduced, while at the same time survey effort can be increased; the images are recorded permanently allowing subsequent statistic analysis (Bryson and Williams, 2015). The use of UAV for marine monitoring has seen a rapid development in recent years for the floating litter monitoring (e.g. in the INTERREG-MED project MEDSEALITTER), but also for the marine mammal and other marine fauna monitoring (e.g. Adame et al., 2017; Hodgson et al., 2013). Two main categories of UAV can be used for marine monitoring: fixed-wing drones and multicopteres. For all the techniques or platforms, two methods are generally applied to define the area to be monitored, fixed width transects and distance sampling. The first method is applied for density estimation and assumes that all litter is detected within a pre-defined distance from the observer, considering a conservative strip width based on preliminary measures. The distance sampling method assumes to estimate the perpendicular distance to each item to compensate for decreasing detection rate with increasing distance from the observer; separate detection curves should be estimated for different sea states (Ryan, 2013; Suaria & Aliani, 2014). The main constraint of both methods is the accurate definition of the monitored strip width or of the distance and angle between the observer and the items, measures that can be obtained with tools such as an inclinometer, range finder "stick" (Ryan, 2013) and laser range finder.

3.2. Micro-litter

To date the monitoring programs proposed by the MSFD TG10 contain the more appropriate methodology for monitoring floating micro-litter, in which the manta trawl net is the main equipment requirement. At the sea surface, micro-litter is typically sampled by surface towing plankton nets with mesh ranging from 0.1 to 0.5 mm, which captures particles limited to the size of the net aperture. Net tow sampling efforts typically capture marine litter particles smaller than 10 mm in size. The vast majority of observations since the 1970s have been made using plankton nets, with broadly similar sampling methodologies but variable reporting units (particle count per area or volume, or mass per area or volume). However, recently the most relevant characteristics of the sampling nets used are the mesh size and the opening area of the net. Mesh sizes ranges from 200 μm to 780 μm , with a majority of the studies (83%) ranging from 200 μm to 333 μm (Table 2). The manta nets is used with a variability of mesh sizes nets (330, 333, 500, 780 µm). The net aperture for rectangular openings of the nets (sea surface) ranged from 0.6 to 0.25 m. The towed speed ranges between 1 to 3.4 knots. It is important to highlight the need to use a net with same mesh size in order to obtain comparable data amongst sampling areas. A source of error for the quantification and abundance of micro-litter and microplastics on particular on the sea surface is the towing speed which needs a coordinated approach in order to reduce variability related to different studies.

Different methods and approaches for the separation of floating micro-litter from plankton and other organic matter are reported in literature. In most studies, samples previously stored (e.g. in formaldehyde solution) are directly examined and sorted under a stereomicroscope. In some studies, instead, samples are sieved and then washed with distilled or ultrapure water in order to remove large litter (Faur et al., 2015; Güven et al., 2017; Schmidt et al., 2017). Collingnon et al., 2014 and Pedrotti et al., 2016 have selected floating debris from the supernatant. A different approach is also reported by Gündoğdu and Çevik, 2017. In this study, the microplastics separation was performed in 5 stages: wet sieving, drying, wet peroxide oxidation, density separation and microscopic examination.

Generally, each sampled litter is characterized and classified by colour, shape and size. Concerning the shape, different methods have been reported to classify the debris shapes. In most studies, different shape categories or a master list of different types of plastic was developed after initial screening of the collected material.

Although the FT-IR spectroscopy technique is considered the most accurate technique for the polymers identification, in most of studies visual identification of micro-particles has been carried out.

Table 3.1. Literature review on floating macro-litter studies with visual observation published in peer-reviewed journals from 2013-2018.

Location	Type of vessel used	Vessel speed	Transect duration	Observation height	Observation width	Wind speed	Detection limit	Litter items classification list	Quantification units	References
Adriatic Sea, Central and Western Mediterranean	Research vessel	10 knots	0.5 hr	5 m	-	< 5 Beaufort	> 2 cm	styrofoam / plastic / others	Items/km²	Suaria and Aliani, 2014
Northern Mediterranean (Liguro- Provençal basin)	Sailing vessel	6 knots	-	3 m	50 m each side	< 2 Beaufort	> 1 cm	styrofoam / plastic / others	Items/km²	Di-Méglio and Campana, 2017
Ligurian Sea, Sardinian- Balearic basin, Bonifacio Strait, Central Tyrrhenian Sea, Sicilian- Sardinian Channels, Adriatic Sea, Ionian Sea	Ferry	19–25 knots	1.5 hr	17–25 m	25 - 100 m	< 2 Beaufort	> 20 cm	MSFD TG10 Masterlist	Items/km²	Arcangeli et al., 2018
Western Mediterranean Sea	Ferry	19–25 knots	1.5 hr	17–25 m	25 - 100 m	< 2 Beaufort	> 20 cm	MSFD TG10 Masterlist	Items/km²	Campana et al., 2018
Northern Mediterranean, Pelagos Sanctuary	Research vessel	3 - 4 knots	0.5 hr	-	20 m each side	-	> 2.5 cm	MSFD TG10 Masterlist	Items/m²	Fossi et al., 2017
Mediterranean French Exclusive Economic Zone extended to Pelagos sanctuary	Aerial survey	90 knots	-	183 m	-	-	-	Macrodebris and Fishing debris	Total items	Darmon et al., 2017
Coastal Adriatic waters	Small vessel	2-3 knots	1 hr	1-3.2 m	6 – 8 m	1 - 2 Beaufort	> 2.5 cm	MSFD TG10 Masterlist	Items/km²	Vlachogianni et al., 2017; Zeri et al., 2018
Adriatic-Ionian waters	Ferry	26-27 knots	1 hr	25 m	50 m 75 m 100 m	1.5 Beaufort	> 20 cm	MSFD TG10 Masterlist	Items/km²	Vlachogianni et al., 2017; Zeri et al., 2018
Adriatic Sea	Research vessel	10 knots	0.5 hr	5 m	-	< 20 knots	> 2.5 cm	-	Items/km²	Carlson et al., 2017

Table 3.2. Literature review on floating micro-litter studies published in peer-reviewed journals from 2013-2018.

Location			Sam		Identification	References		
	Compartment	Net	Mesh size	Mouth	Vessel speed	Time		
North Western Mediterranean Sea Tuscan coast	Sea surface/Water column	Surface samples: Manta-net Vertical hauls: WP2 plankton net	Manta trawl net: 330 μm WP2 net: 200 μm	Manta trawl: 0.5 × 0.25 m WP2: 0.57 m diameter	Manta trawl: 2 – 3 knots WP2: 0 knots	Manta trawl: 20 min WP2: up to 100 m	FTIR	Baini et al., 2018
Western Mediterranean Sea PelagosSanctuary	Sea surface	Manta-net	330 µm	0.5 × 0.25 m	3 – 4 knots	30 min	FTIR	Fossi et al., 2017
Western Mediterranean SeaGulf of Lion	Sea surface	Manta-net	780 μm	0.5 x 0.15 m	2.5 knots	20 min	Visual (microscope)	Schmidt et al., 2017
Aegean-Levantine Sea, Turkish	Sea surface	Manta-net	333 μm	0.4 x 0.2 m	-	-	FTIR	Güven et al., 2017
Aegean-Levantine Sea	Sea surface	Manta-net	333 μm	0.2 × 0.6 m	2 knots	15 min	Visual (microscope)	van der Hal et al., 2017
Western Mediterranean Sea (Ligurian Sea)	Sea surface	Neuston net	200 μm	0.6 x 0.2 m	2.5 knots	60 min	FTIR	Pedrotti et al., 2016
Western Mediterranean Sea and Adriatic Sea	Sea surface	Neuston net	200 μm	1×0.5 m	1.5 – 2 knots	5 min	FTIR-ATR	Suaria et al., 2016
Whole Mediterranean	Sea surface	Manta-net	333 μm	0.6 x 0.25 m	3.13 knots	15 - 30 min	Visual (microscope)	Ruiz- Orejón et al., 2016

Adriatic Sea	Sea surface	Neuston net	300 μm	0.6 × 0.15 m	3 knots	20 min	Chemical analysis	Gajšt et al., 2016
Western Mediterranean Sea	Sea surface	Neuston net	200 μm	0.6 x 0.25 m	1.5 knots	20 min	Visual (microscope)	Fossi et al., 2016
Aegean-Levantine Sea Turkey	Sea surface	Manta-net	333 μm	0.6 × 0.25 m	2 knots	20 min	Visual (microscope)	Gündoğdu and Çevik, 2017
Western Mediterranean Sea AsinaraNational Park PelagosSanctuary	Sea surface	WP2	200 μm	57 cm diameter	0.772 m/s	20 min	Visual (microscope)	Panti et al., 2015
Whole Mediterranean	Sea surface	Neuston net	200 μm	1.0 × 0.5 m	2 – 3 knots	15 min	Visual (microscope)	Cózar et al., 2015
Western Mediterranean Sea	Sea surface	Manta-net	330 μm	0.6 × 0.15 m	1.4 m/s	45 - 90 min	Visual (microscope)	Faure et al., 2015
Western Mediterranean Sea (Corsica)	Sea surface	WP2 0.2 mm	200 μm	0.6 x 0.25 m	2.5 km/h	20 min	Visual (microscope)	Collignon et al., 2014
Western Mediterranean Sea (Sardinian coast)	Sea surface	Manta-net	500 μm	-	2 knots	20 min	Visual (microscope)	de Lucia et al., 2014
Adriatic and Ionian Seas	Sea surface	Manta-net	330 μm.	0.6 × 0.24 m	< 3 knots	30 min	Visual (stereomicroscope); ATR-FTIR spectroscopy	Zeri et al., 2018

3.3. References

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4. Monitoring marine litter on the sea floor

4.1. Macro-litter

Less than 20 studies were conducted since 2013 (see Table 4.1) in the Mediterranean Sea, and very few covered extensive geographic areas or considerable depths. Today, much of the existing data on seafloor marine litter comes from trawl surveys conducted through the experimental trawl fishery vessels (e.g. the MEDITS project).

Simple protocols based on existing trawling surveys, and on diving and video imagery are the most applied approaches when others such as acoustic remain experimental. The most common approaches to evaluate sea-floor litter use opportunistic sampling. This type of sampling is usually coupled with fisheries surveys and programmes focusing on biodiversity monitoring, since methods for determining seafloor litter distributions (e.g. trawling, diving, video) are similar to those used for benthic biodiversity monitoring and assessment. The use of submersibles or Remotely Operated Vehicles (ROVs) is another applied approach for deep sea areas although this requires expensive equipment.

Monitoring programmes for demersal fish stocks, undertaken as part of the Mediterranean International Bottom Trawl Surveys, operate at large regional scale and provide data using a harmonized protocol, which may provide a consistent support for monitoring litter at regional sea scale on a regular basis. Within the European MEDITS a protocol for marine litter assessments using trawling programmes has been developed. This protocol harmonizes the steps and procedures needed to provide an accurate methodology applicable for MSFD monitoring (facilitating the evaluation of sources, trends, data analysis, etc.)

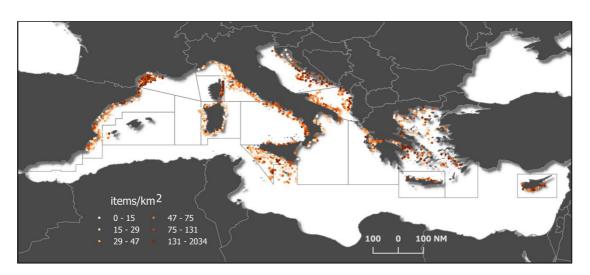


Figure 3.1. Harmonized monitoring of plastic litter in the northern Mediterranean Sea performed by 12 institutions in countries. Data was collected in 1279 surveyed stations sampled during fish stocks assessment cruises (MEDITS project) using the same protocol and trawl net. Results are expressed as plastic densities (items per Km²). (Spedicato et al., 2018)

For shallow waters, information is obtained from on-going monitoring of benthic species during camera surveys, and through regular diving activities (Galgani et al., 2013) usually coupled with regular surveys on biodiversity (marine reserve, offshore platforms, etc.), since methods for determining seafloor litter distributions (e.g. trawling, diving, video) are similar to those used for benthic biodiversity assessments.

Trawling (otter or beam trawl) is an efficient method for large scale evaluation and monitoring of seafloor litter. It enables the control of mesh sizes and opening width (Galgani et al., 2013). However, sampling restrictions in rocky areas (incompatible with trawling) may lead to underestimation of the quantities present. Pole trawling, working deeper in the sediment and down to the abyssal plain where only soft bottom occur, provide more consistent evaluations. Amongst the advantages, monitoring programmes for demersal fish stocks operate at large regional scale and provide data using a harmonized protocol, which may provide a consistent support for monitoring.

If pole trawling may support locally some experiments in the deep sea, only some countries will have the possibility to use submersibles or Remotely Operated Vehicles (ROVs). This will be done giving however priority to coastal canyons and through an opportunistic approach in order to limit costs. This approach is of great use for non-accessible areas such as areas far beyond the commonly used fishing grounds (sandy bottoms) and the continental shelf and extend the assessment of marine litter in bathyal environments, reaching the maximum depths from the Mediterranean Sea. Optical surveys can provide a precise geolocalisation of items as well as additional information about the local environmental and the biological setting, but only for visible macroscopic litter. Image-based surveys, with non-contiguous images, does not capture however the full range of the heterogeneity of litter distribution.

Several studies have analysed still images, a sort of sub-sample of video surveys (Tubau et al., 2013, Pham et al., 2014), whereas other have analysed a continuous video (Pham et al., 2014) or a combination of still and video images (Fabri et al., 2014). In any case, quantification of the area sampled or observed is an issue as an estimation of the absolute size of an image or the evaluation of the surface requires lasers or precise information about the position and attitude of the vehicle and the camera.

ROVs are adequate tools to monitor specifically the interactions between litter and marine organisms (Angiolillo et al. 2015; Bo et al., 2013, 2014; Consoli et al., 2018; Melli et al., 2017). For litter, ALDFG may represent almost 100% of total debris, especially in fishing grounds and fishing lines represent a large part of entanglement records (Consoli et al., 2018). Marine Strategy Framework Directive for European waters and the UNEP/MAP regional plan that have both included entanglement in the list of impacts may monitor harm through this approach.

Typically, monitoring of marine litter through fish stock assessment cruises is based on the record of different types of items that are categorized using the MSFD sea floor litter template. 29 different categories, derived from the MSFD master list (Galgani et al., 2013) enable to characterize some specific types such as single use plastics and fishing related litter. As a counterpart, ROV surveys are usually not categorizing items following the MSFD recommendations, since more experimental and more often dedicated to studies on biodiversity. Nevertheless, surveys are often recording individual items with highly relevant associated information such as pictures, interaction with organisms or associated substrate.

It must be noted that the interpretation of results from monitoring marine litter on the sea floor is made difficult because the ageing of plastics at depth is not known and the presence of debris on the sea floor may have begun before specific scientific investigations started in the 1990s. Due to the persistence of certain litter materials, the monitoring of litter on the sea floor must consider accumulation processes of past decades and does not permit to evaluate fluxes as cleaning is often not possible. Timescales of observation should therefore be adapted, requiring multiannual frequencies for deep sea floor surveys.

Reporting units are depending on the method/approach used. Sampling through diving or imagery (ROV) will use items/ units of distance (100 m, 1 km) whereas trawling will enable units to be reported by surface (items/ha or km²).

Table 4.1. Literature review on seafloor macro-litter studies published in peer-reviewed journals from 2013-2018.

Location	Habitat	Sampling	Classificat ion list	units	Depth	References
Santa Maria di Leuca, Italy	Shelf/slopes	10 transects, Towed Camera	N/A	Items/10 m ²	386–1179 m	D' Onghia et al., 2017
Western Mediterranean Sea (Sardinia Island, Italy)	Continental shelves/slope	GOC73 experimental bottom trawl, 18.4 km2 covered experimental trawl MEDITS	N/A	Items/km²	0-800	Alvito et al., 2018
Thyrenian Sea	rocky bottoms/ slope	69 video transects, 26 areas, 6.03 km2	N/A	Items/km²	30–300 m	Angiolilo et al., 2015
Ligurian and Tyrrhenian seas (western Mediterranean Sea)	Rocky banks	69 video transects, 4 sites, 2930 m2 samples	N/A	Items/100 m ²	70 - 280 m	Bo et al., 2014
Ligurian and Tyrrhenian seas (western Mediterranean Sea)	Hard bottom, rocky surface	ROV, 7 sites, 500 m long linear video transect, 1000 m2 sample	N/A	Items/m of survey	50 – 150 m	Cánovas-Molina et al., 2016
Sardinia (Central Western Mediterranean)	canyons	17 sites, 29 ROV surveys (1-4 dives per site)	N/A	Items/ m ²	100 – 480 m	Cau et al., 2017
Greece(Gulf of Kuşadası)	continental shelf	Trawl	N/A	Items/km ²	9 -210 m	Cerim et al, 2014
Greece (Gulf of Güllük)	continental shelf	Trawl	N/A	Items/km²	9 -210 m	Cerim et al, 2014
Greece (Gulf of Gökova)	continental shelf	Trawl	N/A	Items/km²	9 -210 m	Cerim et al, 2014
Greece (Marmaris)	continental shelf	Trawl	N/A	Items/km²	9 -210 m	Cerim et al, 2014
Sicily	rocky banks	19 ROV transect,	N/A	Items/km²	20-200	Consoli et al. 2018
North eastern Mediterranean, Mersin Bay (Turkey)	continental shelf	132 hauls, demersal trawls	N/A	Kg/ha	19 – 178 m	Eryasar et al, 2014
Mediterranean sea	Bathyal/abyssal	292 tows, Otter/agasiz trawl, 12 mm mesh	N/A	Kg/km ²	900-3000m	Ramirez-Llodra 2013
France- Mediterranean	slopes	17 canyons, 101 ROV dives	N/A	Items/km survey	80-700m	Fabri et al., 2014
Straits of Sicily, Italy	Soft bottoms	120 hauls	N/A	Items/km²	10-800	Fiorentino et al., 2015
Western Mediterranean Sea (Gulf of Alicante)	continental shelf/slope	886 hauls, otter trawl (237 km2)	N/A	Items/km²	50–700 m	García-Rivera et al, 2017
Mediterranean, Southern France	shelves & canyons	90 sites (trawls, 0.045 km2/tow, 20 mm mesh)	N/A	Items/km²	0-800 m	Gerigny et al., 2018
Turkey (Antalaya)	Soft bottoms/ bathyal	Trawl, 32 stations, 24 mm mesh, 0.27- 0.82 km2/haul	N/A	Items/km²	200-800m	Guven et al., 2013
Greece (Saronikos, Patras, Echinades)	Soft bottoms	69 hauls , 10,9 km2, 50 mm mesh	N/A	Items/km²	20-350	Ioakemidis et al., 2014
Greece (saronikos)	Rocky/slopes	ROV, 0.007 km2	N/A	Items/km²	94-115	Ioakemidis et al., 2015

Greece (Argolikos)	Soft bottoms	8 hauls, 0.8 km2	N/A	Items/km²	150-750	loakemidis, 2015
North-western Mediterranean Sea	Canyon	ROV, 21 immersions, 41 hours 20 minutes	N/A	% of site with litter	79 – 401 m	Lastras et al., 2016
Morocco (from Cap Boujdor to Cap Blanc)	Continental shelves/slope	100 hauls, scientific trawling survey, 47,541 km2	N/A	Kg/km ²	10-266 m	Loulad et al, 2017
Sud-east Adriatic Sea	Mixed bottom (hard and soft)	SCUBA DIVERS, 47 DIVE, 0,02 km2	N/A	Items/100 0 m ²	0-40	Macic et al., 2017
North-western Mediterranean Sea (Blanes, Gulf of Valencia, Eivissa Channel)	Canyons, seamounts and landslides	ROV, 7 transects, 30 h video	N/A	Recroded items	60 – 800 m	Mecho et al., 2017
Adriatic Sea, Italy	Mixed bottom (hard and soft)	17 ROV transects, 19.5 km of total lenght	N/A	Items/100 m ²	21-23	Melli et al., 2016
North western Adriatic Sea	Rocky outcrops bottom	2 expeditions with oceanographic vessel, ROV; 17 transectes	N/A	Items/100 m2	15-40 m	Melli et al., 2017
Maltese islands	continental shelf	44 hauls, Otter Trawl	N/A	Items/km²	49-697 m	Misfud et al, 2013
North and central Adriatic Sea	Soft bottoms	rapido trawl at 67 hauls, 1.9 km2	N/A	Items/km²	0-100	Pasquini et al., 2016
Central Mediterranean Sea (Calabrian slope)	Continental slope	Trawl,18.9 ha covered), 4 samples	N/A	Kg/ha	1400 m (mean)	Pham et al., 2014
Western Mediterranean Sea	Continental slope	Trawl, 56 ha covered, 8 samples	N/A	Kg/ha	1500 m (mean)	Pham et al., 2014
Eastern Mediterranean Sea (Crete-Rhodes Ridge)	Continental slope	Trawl, 37.9 ha covered, 8 samples	N/A	Kg/ha	1500 m (mean)	Pham et al., 2014
North-western Mediterranean Sea (Blanes)	Continental slope	Trawl, 407 ha covered, 94 samples	N/A	Kg/ha	1387 m (mean)	Pham et al., 2014
North-western Mediterranean Sea (Gulf of Lion)	Continental shelf	Trawl, 276.4 ha covered, 52 samples	N/A	Items/ha	85 m (mean)	Pham et al., 2014
North-western Mediterranean Sea (Blanes)	Canyons	ROV, 2 ha covered, 4 samples Trawl, 33.9 ha covered, 13 samples	N/A	Items/ha	1496 m (mean ROV) 1431 m (mean Trawl)	Pham et al., 2014
North-western Mediterranean Sea (Gulf of Lion)	Canyons	Trawl, 126.5 ha covered, 11 samples	N/A	Items/ha	510 m (mean)	Pham et al., 2014
Western Mediterranean Sea (Algero-Balearic Basin)	Deep Basin	Trawl, 16 ha covered, 3 samples	N/A	Kg/ha	2883 m (mean)	Pham et al., 2014
Eastern Mediterranean Sea (Crete-Rhodes Ridge)	Deep Basin	Trawl, 2.8 ha covered, 2 samples	N/A	Kg/ha	3000 m (mean)	Pham et al., 2014
Central Mediterranean Sea (Calabrian Basin)	Deep Basin	Trawl, 12.5 ha covered, 3 samples	N/A	Kg/ha	2967 m (mean)	Pham et al., 2014
Thyrenian sea	Fishing grounds	6 x 1.5 ha samples, trawl, 10mm mesh	N/A	Items/km²	40-80m	Sanchez et al., 2013

Spain-Mediterranean	Fishing grounds	6 x 1.5 ha samples, trawl, 10mm mesh	N/A	Items/km²	40-80m	Sanchez et al., 2013
Northern and central Adriatic Sea	shelves	67 hauls (beam trawl), 4.3 km2	N/A	Items/km²	0-100	Strafella et al., 2015
NW Mediterranean sea	Canyons	ROV, 26 dives	N/A	Items/km²	140-1730	Tubau et al., 2015
Adriatic and Ionian Seas	Mixed bottom (hard and soft)	121 hauls with several mesh size	MSFD TG10 Masterlist	Items/km²	10-281	Vlachogianni et al 2017
Adriatic Sea	Mixed bottom (hard and soft)	38 visual transects by SCUBA divers and snorkeking	MSFD TG10 Masterlist	Items/ 100 m ²	3-24	Vlachogianni et al 2017

4.2. Micro-litter

Most of the reviewed studies focus on quantifying the micro-plastics abundance in the marine environment. Sediment sampling can require significantly more effort and resources because of the depth. The observed variations in environmental samples are largely due to many factors, including a large diversity in the type and size of particles, the locations examined (e.g. proximity to sources), the sample matrix, the patchy distribution of microplastics and sampling conditions (Alomar et al., 2016).

Because of land-based emissions, including wastewater treatment plants (WWTPs), rivers, urban and industrial coastal centres, the selection of sampling site will have a significant impact of the abundance and type of plastic surveyed. General sampling strategies are based on bulk or volume reduced, depending on the type of microplastic accumulation being investigated, using box corer or sediment grab, and considering the importance of the upper layer with largest percentage found near surface.

The most common approach is to extract plastic particles from sediment using a density separation based on the difference in density between plastic and sediment particles, typically by agitating the sediment sample in concentrated salt solutions (Van Cauwenberghe et al., 2013) to obtain higher densities. These modifications result in an increased extraction efficiency for high-density microplastics such as polyvinylchloride or polyethylene terephthalate.

Visual examination is the most common method used to assess size and quantities of microplastics, although it can have a relatively high error rate (Gesamp, 2016). Various imaging approaches, such as zooscan may be practical for the visualization or counting of microplastic particles, with the potential to enable large numbers of samples to be analysed rapidly. Methods that identify the type (pellets, filaments, plastic films, granules, etc.), shape (cylindrical, sheets, etc.), state (eroded, broken, etc.) and colour must be used on regular basis, when electron microscopy may provide higher resolution but cannot be used to determine polymer type.

For the identification of polymers, calculation of specific density, Fourrier Transform-Infra Red (FTIR), attenuated total reflectance (ATR) Fourrier Transform-Infra Red or "deep Raman" spectroscopy, pyrolysis-gas chromatography-mass spectrometry (Pyr-GC-MS), Scanning Electron Microscopy – Energy-Dispersive X-ray Spectroscopy (SEM-EDS), Focal Plane Array-Based Reflectance Micro-FT-IR Imaging, FT-IR /imaging and thermogravimetry (TGA) have been applied, each of them with advantages or limitations (Van Cauwenberghe et al. 2013; Rocha-Santos and Duarte, 2015, Gesamp, 2016). Selecting suitable and comparable quantification and identification methods for microplastics is crucial for evaluating concentrations of and risks due to microplastic pollution. The most appropriate methods remain to be determined for further harmonization and use on regular basis, understanding that visual identification alone is inappropriate for studies on particles below 100 μ m (Gesamp, 2016).

Further research on methods needs to consider sampling design in terms of (i) the number and the size of replicates, (ii) the spatial area and the frequency of sampling, (iii) the method used for

sampling (i.e. type of core for sediment samples), and (iv) methods used for identification of microplastics. There is also a need to mitigate airborne contamination.

Studies sampling an area (using quadrants) will often report abundances per unit of surface (m²). If bulk samples from the surface to a specific depth are taken, the reporting unit is m³. Detailed information on the density of the sediment is required. Additionally, within studies reporting weight, a distinction must be made among those reporting wet (sediment) weight and those reporting dry weight. This adds to the constraints of converting from weight to volume units, or vice versa. Sediment samples from different locations or even different zones on one beach have different water content. Therefore, some authors choose to express micro-plastic abundance per sediment as dry weight to eliminate this variable (Van Cauwenberghe et al., 2013; Vianello et al., 2013).

Table 4.2. Literature review on microplastics in deep sediments related studies published in peer-reviewed journals from 2013 to 2018.

Location	Sampling	Depth	Laboratory analysis	References
32"22.90 N 31"43.130 E	25 cm ² Core sampling, 1- 5mm	1176- 4848	Density (NaCl) separation, visual counts, 4 categories (fibres, pellets, films, spherical)	Van cauwernberghe et al., 2013
NW basin, canyons & slope	Canyons/slopes/abyssal plain, ROV/core sampling, 0.32-5mm	300-3500	Density (NaCl) separation, visual counts, fibers & particles separation, FTIR analysis	Woodall et al., 2014
Eolian Islands	Undisturbed sediment (5 cm depth) collected by scientific scuba divers, using wide mouth glass jars	30	Surface sediment, sieving, visual observation, MSFD categories (5)	Fastelli et al., 2016
Malta	0.1-m2 van Veen grab at eight sampling stations	4-22	Density (NaCl) separation, visual counts, 3 categories (fibrous, rounded and irregular)	Romeo et al., 2015
Croatia	sediment collected by scientific scuba divers, using wide mouth glass jars in 10 sites. Three replicates for each site	3-15	Density (NaCl) separation of sieved fractions, MSFD categories (5)	Blăsković et al., 2017
Balearic Islands	Superficial core sampling (0-3.5 cm) with scuba diving, 1- 5 mm	8-10 m	Density (NaCl) separation of sieved fractions, MSFD categories (5)	Alomar et al., 2016

4.3. References

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5. Monitoring marine litter in rivers/river outflows

5.1. Macro-, meso- and micro-litter

Riverine litter refers to litter present in rivers and on riverbanks. The rivers act as pathways which collect litter from run-off and direct input, transporting it towards the aquatic and marine environment. Litter may also remain in the river catchment, to possibly be released at a later date in its entirety or after physical degradation.

There are no harmonized methodologies for providing quantitative data for comparable assessments of riverine litter. Applied methodologies differ in the targeted environmental compartment, litter size fraction and the technology used.

As reported in 2016 by González et al., different monitoring methods are used in two environmental compartments: river water bodies and riverbanks. For a river water body, the river water surface can be monitored by visual observation and image acquisition, while collection methodologies of the water column include the use of retaining structures and sampling using grids, nets and filtration systems (with different mesh sizes and openings) at different water depths. Riverbank monitoring comprises the observation and eventual collection of litter items and sediment samples from the riverbanks.

Table 5.1. Main methodologies for monitoring litter by size categories in different compartments of a river (González et al., 2016).

Size category	River water body	River bank	
	Visual observation	Visual observation +	
	Automated image acquisition systems		
MACRO	Retaining structures (e.g. dams)	Collection	
	Riverbed and bottom nets		
	Booms / floats		
MECO	Booms / floats	Visual observation +	
MESO	Manta trawl / net	Collection	
MICRO	Manta trawl / net	Codiment comples	
IVIICKU	Pumps	Sediment samples	

The only study found for monitoring riverine inputs of marine litter was published in 2015 (Van der Wal et al., 2015) and it was carried out in the river Po, within approximately 50 km from the river mouth. The sampling was done in one two-week sampling period and three methods were tested for monitoring floating microlitter. The first method used a manta net (mesh size 330 μ m), especially modified for monitoring in rivers. The second applied the pump-mantanet method, where water was pumped through the manta-net, providing results on litter in suspension; and the third method used a sampler that contained two metal nets (for surface and suspension sampling) with a mesh size of 3.2 mm.

The mantanet and the pump-mantanet samples were treated in the same analytical way. The samples were cleaned with the use of sieves. Microlitter was first removed from the samples using stereomicroscopes and micro tweezers. Particles were dried and put in closed petri dishes for image analysis and chemical analysis. Each particle was photographed under the microscope. Chemical analysis from the categories fragments and pellets of particles was performed using Near Infrared spectroscopy (NIR). Each particle was categorized according to the MSFD TG 10 Master List.

The analysis of the samples obtained with the third method was performed using visual identification. Each particle was first categorized according to the MSFD TG 10 Master List, and after that its size and colour (by the MSFD TG 10 Master List) was also determined.

5.2. References

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6. Monitoring marine litter in biota

Marine litter can impact biodiversity in a number of ways, namely through litter ingestion, entanglement (e.g., in ghost nets), facilitation of the transportation of marine organisms via rafting on litter items, damages to benthic habitats and communities through e.g. abrasion of coral reefs from fishing gear and disruption of species colonies, reduced oxygenation or 'smothering' of species communities as well as through release and diffusion of toxic compounds that can potentially lead to bio-accumulation and bio-magnification of toxics.

Among the different interactions, ingestion is the most studied impact (some 40 papers have been published in the last 5 years) and several methodological approaches have been developed and adopted according to the species and the litter size classes investigated. On the contrary, entanglement and coverage/colonization are far less studied (some 20 papers for each type of harm have been published). Fewer studies have actually focused on the impact of marine litter on organisms inhabiting Mediterranean pelagic and coastal MPAs, and different methodologies are applied to detect the possible effects related to the interaction with marine litter.

6.1. Ingestion

The ingestion of marine litter has been reported worldwide in various organisms ranging from invertebrates to vertebrates, including endangered species (Kühn et al., 2015; Werner et al., 2016; Wright et al., 2013). This phenomenon can be explained in different ways: marine organisms may ingest litter deliberately because of their resemblance to prey (Campani et al., 2013; Cole et al., 2011; Romeo et al., 2016; Wright et al., 2013) or accidentally while feeding on their prey, e.g. by filter feeding (Fossi et al., 2014, Fossi et al 2016) or hunting on shoals (Battaglia et al., 2016; Romeo et al., 2015), or as a result of secondary ingestion (debris already ingested by prey). Depending on the litter size and on the species, marine litter particles may be excreted or accumulated in the gastrointestinal tract, and cause physical and mechanical damages, such as abrasion and obstruction of gastrointestinal tract, inflammation, blockage of feeding appendages or filters, (Cole et al., 2011; Li et al., 2016; Pedà et al., 2016; Wright et al., 2013) or malnutrition and pseudo-satiation resulting in a reduced food intake (Kühn et al., 2015; Romeo et al., 2017). In cases where the gastrointestinal tract becomes completely blocked or severely damaged, marine litter ingestion may lead directly to the death of the organism (Werner et al., 2016). Moreover, the ingestion of plastic debris represents a serious hazard for vertically migrant micronekton due to the buoyancy of this material, which may hinder their movements in the water column (Romeo et al. 2016).

Marine litter, in particular plastic litter, may also represent a direct and indirect vehicle for the introduction of chemical substances into the marine biota and the food-web, although this issue is still debated (Koelmans et al., 2016), with potential impacts on human health (Barboza et al., 2018). These chemicals could become available for organisms (Rios et al., 2007; Rochman et al., 2014) and can enter cells, chemically interacting with biological molecules and causing endocrine system disruptions (Teuten et al., 2009). Therefore biological consequences such as oestrogenic effects (Sonnenschein and Soto, 1998) and reduction of testosterone production (Foster, 2006) might occur at species level. Additionally, the sub-lethal and chronic effects of these chemicals could likely compromise populations and communities and have long term consequences.

6.1.1. Species investigated

From 2013 to 2018, more than 40 papers on the incidence of marine litter ingestion in marine organisms in the Mediterranean basin have been published. Most of the research was carried out on the Western Mediterranean Sea, whereas the Ionian Sea and the Central Mediterranean Sea, the Adriatic Sea, and the Aegean Levantine Sea were less investigated. Over the same period, in these studies litter ingestion has been investigated on 94 Mediterranean species, belonging to different

taxonomic groups including invertebrates, fish, sea turtles, seabirds and marine mammals (Figure 6.1 and Table 6.1).

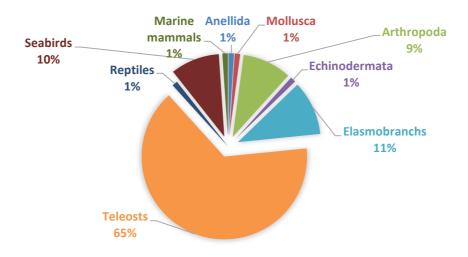


Figure 6.1. Percentage of species investigated among different taxa from 2013 to 2018 on marine litter ingestion in the Mediterranean Sea.

Among these in only 74 out of 94 species the ingestion of marine litter items has been documented. While fish species represent the majority of the affected species (60%), also a considerable number of endangered species have been reported to ingest marine litter. All Mediterranean turtles (*Caretta caretta, Chelonia mydas* and *Dermochelys coriacea*) and some marine mammals (*Physeter microcephalus, Balaenoptera physalus, Tursiops truncatus, Grampus griseus and Stenella coerulealba*) were found to be affected by debris ingestion in published studies. Most studies on these endangered species dealt with stranded individuals. Marine litter ingestion in seabirds is a well-documented phenomenon on a global scale, as reported by Laist (1997) and Kühn et al. (2015), whereas the presence of marine debris in several bird species belonging to the Procellariiformes, Suliformes and Charadriiformes orders in the Mediterranean basin has been studied only by Codina-García et al. (2013) (Table 6.1). The few studies available on marine litter ingestion by marine invertebrates (Alomar et al., 2016; Digka et al., 2018; Fossi et al., 2014; Gusmão et al., 2016; Remy et al., 2015; Vandermeersch et al., 2015) investigated several species belonging to the Annelids, Crustaceans, Echinoderms and Molluscs (Table 6.1).

Understanding fully the impact of litter on marine organisms is a challenging task and its one of the main aim of the Plastic Busters MPAS project. In order to compare results of different areas and to adopt targeted management strategies and measures, it is very important to assess the impacts of litter on marine organisms via the use of a common approach (Fossi et al. 2018), linking the detection of the ingested marine litter to the physical and toxicological effects. In this sense, bioindicator species at regional and local scale with both ecological and commercial interest should be considered (Fossi et al., 2018).

Table 6.1. Overview of published studies investigating the potential ingestion of marine litter by different species* in the Mediterranean area (2013-2018), divided by taxa.

(a) Elasmobranchs

Таха	Species	Habitat	Method	Litter size	Polymer id	Reference
Elasmobranchs	Galeus melastomus	demersal	demersal Dissection and stereomicroscope		No	Anastasopoulou et al. , 2013
			Dissection and stereomicroscope	Micro	No	Cartes et al., 2016
			Dissection and stereomicroscope	Micro	Yes	Alomar & Deudero, 2017
Elasmobranchs	Scyliorhinus canicula	demersal	Dissection and stereomicroscope	Macro	No	Anastasopoulou et al., 2013
Elasmobranchs	Pteroplatytrygon violacea	pelagic	Dissection and stereomicroscope	Macro	No	Anastasopoulou et al., 2013
Elasmobranchs	Raja clavata	demersal	Dissection and stereomicroscope	Macro	No	Anastasopoulou et al., 2013
Elasmobranchs	Raja oxyrinchus	demersal	Dissection and stereomicroscope	Macro	No	Anastasopoulou et al., 2013
Elasmobranchs	Centrophorus granulosus	demersal	Dissection and stereomicroscope	Macro	No	Anastasopoulou et al., 2013
Elasmobranchs	Centroscymnus coelolepis	demersal	Dissection and stereomicroscope	Micro	No	Cartes et al., 2016
Elasmobranchs						
Elasmobranchs	Etmopterus spinax	demersal	Dissection and stereomicroscope	Macro	No	Anastasopoulou et al., 2013
Elasmobranchs			Dissection and stereomicroscope	Micro	No	Cartes et al., 2016
Elasmobranchs	Squalus acanthias	demersal	Dissection, digestion (15% H2O2) and observation using	Micro	Yes	Avio et al., 2015
			stereomicroscope			
Elasmobranchs			Dissection and stereomicroscope	Macro	No	Anastasopoulou et al., 2013
Elasmobranchs	Squalus blainville	demersal	Dissection and stereomicroscope	Macro	No	Anastasopoulou et al., 2013

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^{*} In only 74 out of 94 species the ingestion of marine litter items has been documented.

(b) Teleosts

Teleosts Sodis hyolina Mesopelagic Dissection and stereomicroscope Macro No Anastrospoulou et al., 2013	Taxa	Species	Habitat	Method	Litter size	Polymer id	Reference
Teleosts Netastomo melanurum Demersal Dissection and stereomicroscope Macro No Anostosopoulou et al., 2013	Teleosts	Sudis hyalina	Mesopelagic	Dissection and stereomicroscope	Macro	No	Anastasopoulou et al., 2013
Teleosts Dissection and stereomicroscope Micro No Cartes et al., 2016	Teleosts	Conger conger	Demersal	Dissection and stereomicroscope	Macro	No	Anastasopoulou et al., 2013
Teleosts Saurida undosquamis Demersal Dissection, digestion (35% hydrogen peroxide) and stereomicroscope Micro No Güven et al., 2017	Teleosts	Nettastoma melanurum	Demersal	Dissection and stereomicroscope	Macro	No	Anastasopoulou et al., 2013
Teleosts Engraulis encrasicolus Pelagic Dissection and stereomicroscope Micro Yes Compa et al., 2018 Teleosts Sardina pilchardus Pelagic Dissection, digestion (15% H2O2) and stereomicroscope Micro Yes Avia et al., 2015 Teleosts Sardina pilchardus Pelagic Dissection, digestion (15% H2O2) and stereomicroscope Dissection, digestion (35% hydrogen peroxide) and stereomicroscope Dissection and stereomicroscope Dissection on digestion (30% H2O2) and observation using stereomicroscope Dissection and stereomicroscope Dissection on digestion (30% H2O2) and observation using stereomicroscope Dissection and stereomicroscope Macro No Anastasopoulou et al., 2013 Teleosts Molva macrophthalma Demersal Dissection and stereomicroscope Macro No Anastasopoulou et al., 2013 Teleosts Molva macro Demersal Dissection and stereomicroscope Macro No Anastasopoulou et al., 2013 Teleosts Phycis blennoides Demersal Dissection and stereomicroscope Micro No Cartes et al., 2016	Teleosts	_		Dissection and stereomicroscope	Micro	No	Cartes et al., 2016
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Teleosts Sardina pilchardus Pelagic Dissection, digestion (15% H2O2) and stereomicroscope Dissection, digestion (35% hydrogen peroxide) and stereomicroscope Dissection, digestion (35% hydrogen peroxide) and stereomicroscope Dissection, digestion (30% H2O2) and observation digestion (30% H2O2) and observation using stereomicroscope Dissection and stereomicroscope Dissection, digestion (30% H2O2) and observation Micro Yes Digka et al., 2016 Compa et al., 2018 Teleosts Merluccius merluccius Benthopelagic Dissection, digestion (15% H2O2) and observation Dissection and stereomicroscope Micro Yes Avio et al., 2015 Avio et al., 2015 Teleosts Micromesistius poutassou Benthopelagic Dissection and stereomicroscope Macro No Anastasopoulou et al., 2013 Teleosts Mora macrophthalma Demersal Dissection and stereomicroscope Macro No Anastasopoulou et al., 2013 Teleosts Micro No Cartes et al., 2016 Teleosts Phycis blennoides Demersal Dissection and stereomicroscope Micro No Cartes et al., 2017	Teleosts	Engraulis encrasicolus	Pelagic	Dissection and stereomicroscope	Micro	Yes	Compa et al., 2018
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	Teleosts	-		Dissection and stereomicroscope	Micro	No	Cartes et al., 2016
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Teleosts Diaphus metopoclampus Benthopelagic Dissection and stereomicroscope Micro/ Macro No Romeo et al., 2016				·			
Teleosts Electrona risso Mesopelagic	Teleosts	Electrona risso	Mesopelagic	<u> </u>			

Teleosts	Hygophum benoiti	Mesopelagic				
Teleosts	Myctophum punctatum	Mesopelagic	_			
Teleosts	Alepocephalus rostratus	Demersal	Dissection and stereomicroscope	Micro	No	Cartes et al., 2016
Teleosts	Cataetyx laticeps	Demersal				
Teleosts	Argyrosomus regius	Benthopelagic	Dissection, digestion (35% hydrogen peroxide) and stereomicroscope	Micro	No	Güven et al., 2017
Teleosts	Boops boops	Benthopelagic	Dissection and stereomicroscope	Micro	No	Nadal et al., 2016
Teleosts	Brama brama	Pelagic	Dissection and stereomicroscope	Macro	No	Anastasopoulou et al., 2013
Teleosts	Caranx crysos	Pelagic	Dissection, digestion (35% hydrogen peroxide) and stereomicroscope	Micro	No	Güven et al., 2017
Teleosts	Dentex dentex	Benthopelagic	Dissection, digestion (35% hydrogen peroxide) and stereomicroscope			Güven et al., 2018
Teleosts	Dentex gibbosus	Benthopelagic	Dissection, digestion (35% hydrogen peroxide) and stereomicroscope			Güven et al., 2019
Teleosts	Diplodus annularis	Demersal	Dissection, digestion (35% hydrogen peroxide) and stereomicroscope	Micro	No	Güven et al., 2020
Teleosts	Epigonus telescopus	Benthopelagic	Dissection and stereomicroscope	Macro	No	Anastasopoulou et al., 2013
Teleosts	Lepidopus caudatus	Pelagic	Dissection and stereomicroscope	Macro	No	Anastasopoulou et al., 2013
Teleosts	Lithognathus mormyrus	Demersal	Dissection, digestion (35% hydrogen peroxide) and stereomicroscope	Micro	No	Güven et al., 2017
Teleosts	Liza aurata	Benthopelagic	Dissection, digestion (35% hydrogen peroxide) and stereomicroscope	Micro	No	Güven et al., 2018
Teleosts	Mullus barbatus	Demersal	Dissection, digestion (35% hydrogen peroxide) and stereomicroscope	Micro	No	Güven et al., 2019
			Dissection, digestion (15% H2O2) and stereomicroscope	Micro	Yes	Avio et al., 2015
			Dissection, digestion (NaOH) and observation using stereomicroscope	Micro	No	Bellas et al., 2016
			Dissection and stereomicroscope/Dissection, digestion (30% H2O2) and stereomicroscope	Macro/Micro	No	Anastasopoulou et al., 2018
			Dissection, digestion (30% H2O2) and stereomicroscope	Micro	Yes	Digka et al., 2018
Teleosts	Mullus surmuletus	Demersal	Dissection and stereomicroscope	Micro	Yes	Alomar et al., 2017
			Dissection, digestion (35% hydrogen peroxide) and stereomicroscope	Micro	No	Güven et al., 2017
Teleosts	Nemipterus randalli	Demersal	Dissection, digestion (35% hydrogen peroxide) and stereomicroscope	Micro	No	Güven et al., 2018
Teleosts	Pagellus acarne	Benthopelagic	Dissection, digestion (35% hydrogen peroxide) and stereomicroscope	Micro	No	Güven et al., 2019
Teleosts	Pagellus bogaraveo	Benthopelagic	Dissection and observation using stereomicroscope	Macro	No	Anastasopoulou et al., 2013
Teleosts	Pagellus erythrinus	Demersal	Dissection, digestion (35% hydrogen peroxide) and stereomicroscope	Micro	No	Güven et al., 2017
			Dissection and stereomicroscope/Dissection,	Macro/Micro	No	Anastasopoulou et al., 2018

			digestion (30% H2O2) and stereomicroscope			
			Dissection, digestion (30% H2O2) and observation using stereomicroscope	Micro	Yes	Digka et al., 2018
Teleosts	Pagrus pagrus	Demersal	Dissection, digestion (35% hydrogen peroxide) and stereomicroscope	Micro	No	Güven et al., 2017
Teleosts	Pelates quadrilineatus	Demersal	Dissection, digestion (35% hydrogen peroxide) and stereomicroscope	Micro	No	Güven et al., 2018
Teleosts	Polyprion americanus	Pelagic / demersal	Dissection and observation using stereomicroscope	Macro	No	Anastasopoulou et al., 2013
Teleosts	Pomadasys incisus	Demersal	Dissection, digestion (35% hydrogen peroxide) and stereomicroscope	Micro	No	Güven et al. 2017
Teleosts	Schedophilus ovalis	Pelagic /bathipelagic	Dissection and stereomicroscope	Macro	No	Anastasopoulou et al., 2013
Teleosts	Sciaena umbra	Demersal	Dissection, digestion (35% hydrogen peroxide) and stereomicroscope	Micro	No	Güven et al., 2017
Teleosts	Scomber japonicus	Pelagic	Dissection, digestion (35% hydrogen peroxide) and stereomicroscope	Micro	No	Güven et al., 2018
			Dissection and stereomicroscope/Dissection, digestion (30% H2O2) and stereomicroscope	Macro/Micro	No	Anastasopoulou et al., 2018
Teleosts	Serranus cabrilla	Demersal	Dissection, digestion (35% hydrogen peroxide) and stereomicroscope	Micro	No	Güven et al., 2017
Teleosts	Siganus Iuridus	Demersal	Dissection, digestion (35% hydrogen peroxide) and stereomicroscope	Micro	No	Güven et al., 2018
Teleosts	Sparus aurata	Demersal	Dissection, digestion (35% hydrogen peroxide) and stereomicroscope	Micro	No	Güven et al., 2019
Teleosts	Thunnus alalunga	Pelagic	Dissection and stereomicroscope	Micro/Macro	No	Romeo et al., 2015
Teleosts	Thunnus thynnus	Pelagic	Dissection and stereomicroscope	Micro/Macro	No	Romeo et al., 2016
Teleosts	Trachinotus ovatus	Pelagic	Dissection and stereomicroscope	Micro	No	Battaglia et al., 2016
Teleosts	Trachurus mediterraneus	Pelagic	Dissection, digestion (35% hydrogen peroxide) and stereomicroscope	Micro	No	Güven et al., 2017
Teleosts	Trachurus trachurus	Pelagic	Dissection and stereomicroscope/Dissection, digestion (30% H2O2) and stereomicroscope	Macro/Micro	No	Anastasopoulou et al., 2018
Teleosts	Umbrina cirrosa	Demersal	Dissection, digestion (35% hydrogen peroxide) and stereomicroscope	Micro	No	Güven et al., 2017
Teleosts	Upeneus moluccensis	Demersal	Dissection, digestion (35% hydrogen peroxide) and stereomicroscope	Micro	No	Güven et al., 2018
Teleosts	Upeneus pori	Demersal	Dissection, digestion (35% hydrogen peroxide) and stereomicroscope	Micro	No	Güven et al., 2019
Teleosts	Xiphias gladius	Pelagic	Dissection and stereomicroscope	Micro/ Macro	No	Romeo et al., 2015
Teleosts	Xiphias gladius	Pelagic	Dissection and stereomicroscope	Macro	No	Anastasopoulou et al.,2013
Teleosts	Citharus linguatula	Benthic	Dissection and stereomicroscope/Dissection, digestion (30% H2O2) and stereomicroscope	Macro/Micro	No	Anastasopoulou et al., 2018
Teleosts	Solea solea	Benthic	Dissection and stereomicroscope/Dissection, digestion (30% H2O2) and stereomicroscope	Macro/Micro	No	Anastasopoulou et al., 2019

			Dissection, digestion (10% KOH), separation (NaI) and stereomicroscope	Micro	Yes	Pellini et al., 2018
Teleosts	Chelidonichthys lucerna	Benthic	Dissection, digestion (15% H2O2) and stereomicroscope	Micro	Yes	Avio et al., 2015
Teleosts	Helicolenus dactylopterus	Benthic	Dissection and stereomicroscope	Macro	No	Anastasopoulou et al., 2013
Teleosts	Scorpaena elongata				No	
Teleosts	Trigla lucerna	Benthic	Dissection, digestion (35% hydrogen peroxide) and stereomicroscope	Micro	No	Güven et al., 2017
Teleosts	Lagocephalus spadiceus	Benthopelagic	Dissection, digestion (35% hydrogen peroxide) and stereomicroscope	Micro	No	Güven et al., 2018

(c) Arthropoda, Mollusca, Echinodermata, Anellida

Таха	Species	Habitat	Method	Litter size	Polymer id	Reference
Arthropoda	Gammarella fucicola	benthic	Microscopic slides	Micro	No	Remy et al., 2015
	Gammarus aequicauda	benthic	Microscopic slides	Micro	No	Remy et al., 2016
	Melita hergensis	benthic	Microscopic slides	Micro	No	Remy et al., 2017
	Nototropis guttatus benthic Nebalia strausi benthic		Microscopic slides	Micro	No	Remy et al., 2018
			Microscopic slides	Micro	No	Remy et al., 2019
	Palaemon xiphias	benthic	Microscopic slides	Micro	No	Remy et al., 2020
	Liocarcinus navigator	benthic	Microscopic slides	Micro	No	Remy et al., 2021
	Athanas nitescens	benthic	Microscopic slides	Micro	No	Remy et al., 2022
	Galathea intermedia	benthic	Microscopic slides	Micro	No	Remy et al., 2023
Mollusca	Mytilus galloprovincialis	benthic	Digestion (HNO3:HCIO4 (4:1 v:v)/69% nitric acid) and stereomicroscope	Micro	No	Vandermeersch et al., 2015
			Dissection, digestion (30% H2O2) and stereomicroscope	Micro	Yes	Digka et al., 2018
Echinodermata	Holothuria forskali	benthic	Dissection and observation of fecal pellet with stereomicroscope	Micro	No	Alomar et al., 2016
Anellida	Saccocirrus papillocercus	benthic	Dissection and stereomicroscope	Micro	Yes	Gusmão et al., 2016

(d) Reptiles, Seabirds, Marine Mammals

Таха	Species	Habitat	Method	Litter size	Polymer id	Reference
Reptiles	Caretta caretta	benthopelagic	Dissection and visual inspection adopting the MSFD protocol	Micro/ Macro	No	Campani et al., 2013
			Dissection or fecal pellets and visual inspection adopting the MSFD protocol	Micro/ Macro	No	Camedda et al., 2014
			Dissection and visual inspection adopting the MSFD protocol	Micro/ Macro	No	Matiddi et al., 2017
Seabirds	Calonectris diomedea		Dissection and visual inspection	Micro/ Macro	No	Codina-García, 2013
Seabirds	Puffinus yelkouan		Dissection and visual inspection	Micro/ Macro	No	Codina-García, 2013
Seabirds	Puffinus mauretanicus		Dissection and visual inspection	Micro/ Macro	No	Codina-García, 2013
Seabirds	Morus bassanus		Dissection and visual inspection	Micro/ Macro	No	Codina-García, 2013
Seabirds	Ichthyaetus audouinii		Dissection and visual inspection	Micro/ Macro	No	Codina-García, 2013
Seabirds	Larus michahellis		Dissection and visual inspection	Micro/ Macro	No	Codina-García, 2013
Seabirds	Ichthyaetus melanocephalus		Dissection and visual inspection	Micro/ Macro	No	Codina-García, 2013
Seabirds	Rissa tridactyla		Dissection and visual inspection	Micro/ Macro	No	Codina-García, 2013
Seabirds	Stercorarius skua		Dissection and visual inspection	Micro/ Macro	No	Codina-García, 2013
Marine mammals	Physeter macrocephalus	pelagic	Dissection and visual inspection	Macro	No	de Stephanis et al., 2013

6.1.2. Sampling strategies

The sampling strategies applied within the reviewed studies vary according to the taxonomic group, the size and conservation status of the species. If the specimens are protected, threatened or endangered, special permits are required for transport and necropsy and it is advantageous to involve regional or national networks to maximize sample retrieval. Dead sea turtles, seabirds and marine mammals can be collected from beaches or at sea from accidental mortalities such as victims of longline fishing (by catch) or of boat collisions. Regarding living specimens, faecal pellets can be collected, using a non-invasive tecnique, in rescue facilities.

On the other hand, monitoring activities on commercially harvested species are simple; specimens and samples can be easily become available through fishing activities. Invertebrates and fish can be obtained from existing active monitoring programs, for example the MEDITS program, or from ad hoc monitoring campaigns using fishing vessels. For reliable information on changes (or stability) in quantities of ingested litter and their effect, a statistical sample size is recommended, as well as continuous sampling in order to collect the background information needed to define 'good environmental status' and to evaluate possible temporal trends.

6.1.3. An overview of the biological samples investigated

Analysis of ingested litter has been carried out in many different marine organisms. The methodologies applied vary according to the species, the size of the organisms and the desired analytical level. Generally, the whole organism is analyzed when small invertebrates/fish species are being investigated, whereas for larger organisms the grastrointestinal (GI) tract or feacal pellets are the main target tissues and samples to be analyzed. Currently, only two studies in the Mediterranean report the analysis of faecal pellets in sea turtles (Camedda et al., 2014) and holoturians (Alomar et al., 2016) (Table 6.1).

6.1.4. Litter size classes examined

Regarding the size of the marine litter investigated, over 60% of the published papers investigated the presence of microlitter, also due to the small size of the species investigated (Figure 6.2). It is important to underline that some studies have not taken into account the size of the particles in the characterization of ingested marine litter (Table 6.1).

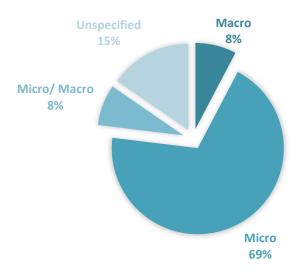


Figure 6.2. Percentage of studies per litter size classes from 2013 to 2018 on marine litter ingestion in the Mediterranean Sea.

6.1.5. An overview of the methods for sample processing

6.1.5.1. Macrolitter

In recent years, several Mediterranean initiatives and projects such as the DeFishGear, INDICIT, and MEDSEALITTER have worked towards the improvement and harmonization of protocols aiming to detect marine litter in biota. These protocols are based on the guidelines produced by the MSFD task group on marine litter. The IPA-Adriatic DeFishGear project elaborated a protocol for the detection of marine litter in fish species (Vlachogianni et al., 2017). The INDICIT project has produced a protocol for monitoring the impacts of marine litter on sea turtles (stomach contents, faecal pellets). MEDSEALITTER is also working on protocols for monitoring marine litter in sea turtles and fish species.

In the reviewed studies the protocols for monitoring ingested litter in different marine species such as seabirds, sea turtles, fish etc., are based on the MSFD TG 10 Guidelines (Galgani et al., 2013). More specifically:

- The protocol for seabirds is based on tool "10.2.1_T1 Fulmar" and tool "10.2.1_T2 Shearwater" which follow the OSPAR Ecological Quality Objective (EcoQO). However, only a
 single study by Codina-Garcia in 2013 reported the occurrence of marine litter ingestion in 9
 species of Mediterranean seabirds, using visual inspection of the seabirds' stomach content.
- Regarding sea turtles, the protocol is based on the tool "10.2.1_T3 Sea turtle" which also includes the protocol for sampling litter excreted by live sea turtles (fecal pellet analysis). Several studies on loggerhead sea turtle *Caretta caretta* in the Mediterranean Sea have been performed (Campani et al., 2013; Camedda et al., 2014; Matiddi et al., 2018). Each report and study applied the MSFD monitoring protocol for sea turtles. According to the MSFD, the stomach content of stranded *Caretta caretta* should also be used as indicator to measure the trends of marine litter and regional differences.
- Since fishes are among the most studied organisms, different methods have been adopted to evaluate litter ingestion. A review of the available methods for the detection of litter in fishes and invertebrates has been recently published by FAO (Lusher et al 2017a). It was found that marine litter ingestion by smaller fish and invertebrate species is detected via the use of chemicals (basic or acid compounds or oxidizing agents) or enzymes to digest the organic matter. The resulting solution is then filtered and the particles observed under a stereomicroscope and analysed by (micro) Fourier Transform Infrared Spectroscopy (µ) FTIR or Raman Spectroscopy to identify the chemical nature of the particles .

6.1.5.2. Microlitter

Analysing microplastics ingested by biota is a challenging task, and for this reason an increasing number of techniques have been developed in recent years (Lusher et al., 2017a, 2017b). Of the currently existing methods, the ones most widely tested are listed in Table 6.1. For each method, the costs, the strengths and weaknesses, and its applicability to the organism being studied should be carefully considered. Here we report in detail the most commonly used method.

The gastro-intestinal tract or the whole organism should be rinsed with deionised filtered (0.45 μ m) water to avoid contamination of the sample. To degrade organic matter, the sample can be digested using a 10% KOH solution at 60°C for 12 hours (Rochman et al., 2015), or 15%, 30% or 35% H_2O_2 is also often used (Avio et al., 2015, Anastasopoulou et al., 2018, Guven et al., 2017) or using enzymatic digestion (Cole et al., 2014) (see Table 6.1). After digestion of the organic matter, the solution obtained is filtered onto glass fibre filters and the residual inorganic particles analysed though a stereomicroscope. Such particles (e.g. non-digested tissue particles, inorganic residues, microplastics, etc.) are characterised by their type, size, and colour, and then weighted and subdivided into different categories. Given the difficulty to visually identify marine microlitter, further analyses are

used to confirm the isolated particle. Such analyses can be performed by spectroscopy (FT-IR or Raman) or by the "hot needle" technique, if spectroscopy instruments were not available. Spectroscopic analysis is also used to determine the nature of the polymer making-up the particles, to better define the nature and source of contamination in the bioindicator species.

More recently, selective fluorescent staining using Nile Red is being applied as a rapid-screening approach to detect and quantify microplastics in environmental samples (Erni-Cassola et al., 2017; Maes et al., 2017) and could potentially be applied to biota samples as this technique allows for fluorescent particles, of up to a few micrometers, to be identified and counted as well as offering the possibility of plastic categorization based on surface polarity characterization of the identified particles (Maes et al., 2017). During all the analytical procedures, particular attention must be paid to the prevention of possible environmental contamination due to the ubiquitous nature of certain types of particles (e.g. synthetic fibres). For this reason, together with the samples, it is recommended to include experimental blanks. Moreover, all analytical procedures should be carried out with glass material where possible, minimizing the use of plastic laboratory material and in closed areas with little ventilation and air circulation for example from air conditioners.

6.1.6. An overview of the litter classification lists

The most frequently used marine litter items classification list in the reviewed studies is the MSFD TG10 list.

6.1.7. An overview of the quantification indices and units

The results of the analysis of marine litter ingestion are expressed as follows:

- Presence/absence of litter in the whole organism/GI tract/faecal pellets;
- Occurrence (%) of individuals that have ingested marine litter among a subpopulation/population/species;
- The abundance (N) and weight (g) of marine litter (macro- and micro-litter) ingested per individual (N items/individual; g/individual) as a total and per category of litter.

6.1.8. Monitoring the impacts of marine litter on biota

Recent studies in the different regions of the Mediterranean basin suggest that some areas are affected by high concentrations of marine litter including microplastics and plastic additives (phthalates), representing a potential risk to biodiversity (Darmon et al., 2017; Fossi et al., 2014, 2016, 2017). The impact of marine litter and its interactions with Mediterranean marine organisms were reviewed by Deudero and Alomar (2015), who identified almost 134 species affected by marine litter in total. According to the most recent review, marine litter ingestion has been documented for 91 Mediterranean species, belonging to different taxonomic groups including invertebrates, fish, sea turtles, seabirds and marine mammals (Fossi et al., 2018). Ingestion of marine litter and contaminants associated to it can produce physiological effects in biota which can be assessed through the analysis of specific biomarkers.

Most of the studies consider the occurrence of marine litter in marine organisms, which can provide only indications on the physical impact of the ingested material. In addition to the physical harm, there is growing concern regarding the chemical hazards related to the ingestion of marine litter. Plastic additives (e.g. PBDEs and phthalates) can directly leach from plastic debris, leading to the accumulation within marine organisms of chemicals such as persistent, bioaccumulating and toxic (PBT) substances; these substances can also be adsorbed and transported by marine litter. Some studies have examined the possible link between the chemical effects of plastic ingestion and the risk of bioaccumulation along the trophic web. For instance, Fossi et al. (2014, 2016) and Baini et al. (2017) detected levels of phthalates and organochlorines in specimens of *Euphausia krohnii*, muscle samples of basking shark *Cetorhinus maximus* and in blubber samples of four cetaceans: fin whale

Balaenoptera physalus, bottlenose dolphin *Tursiops truncatus*, Risso's dolphin *Grampus griseus* and striped dolphin *Stenella coeruleoalba*. The levels of these toxic chemicals in species tissues have been used as possible tracers of exposure to plastic ingestion and can be used as baseline data to monitor impacts caused by marine litter in species. As mentioned in the previous section, if these chemicals become bioavailable, they can penetrate cells and chemically interact with biologically important molecules. This may cause adverse effects at different levels of biological organisation, from molecular level to tissue level, including liver toxicity (Avio et al., 2015b; Rochman et al., 2013), alterations of gene expression (Karami et al., 2017; Sleight et al., 2017), genotoxic effect (Avio et al., 2015a), endocrine disruption (Rochman et al., 2014; Teuten et al., 2009) and histological alterations (Avio et al., 2015a, 2015b; Pedà et al., 2016). However, most of these effects have been shown in laboratory studies and very few are available from field studies and particularly on Mediterranean organisms (Avio et al., 2015b).

A more comprehensive evaluation of the actual ecotoxicological risk for the bioindicator species, associated with the presence of marine litter in the Mediterranean area, can be performed using a set of extremely sensitive diagnostic and prognostic methodologies, the so-called biomarkers. Such methodologies are based on an evaluation of the "response" - at the organism, population or community level - induced by a source of environmental chemical stress. To evaluate the possible effects on the bioindicator species, from molecular to cellular level, a set of biomarkers can be applied that integrate the data obtained from the detection of marine litter and the plastic tracers with a more complex ecotoxicological evaluation of the health status of the selected bioindicator organisms (Fossi et al., 2018) (Table 6.2).

Table 6.2. Overview of published studies on marine litter impact on biota in the Mediterranean area (2013-2018) divided by taxa.

Таха	Species	Impact related to marine litter ingestion	Method	Reference
Mollusca	Mytilus galloprovincialis	Biological effects	genotoxic effect histological alterations	Avio et al., 2015b
Arthropoda	Euphausia krohnii	Transfer of chemical	phthalates	Fossi et al. 2014
Elasmobranchs	Cetorhinus maximus	Transfer of chemical	phthalates	Fossi et al. 2014
Teleosts	Mullus surmuletus	Biological effects	oxidative stress	Alomar et al. 2017
Marine mammals	Palaonontora physalus	Transfer of	phthalatos	Fossi et al. 2014
iviaime maininais	Balaenoptera physalus	chemical	phthalates	Baini et al. (2017)
Marine mammals	Tursiops truncatus	Transfer of chemical	phthalates	Baini et al. (2017)
Marine mammals	Grampus griseus	Transfer of chemical	phthalates	Baini et al. (2017)
Marine mammals	Stenella coerulealba	Transfer of chemical	phthalates	Baini et al. (2017)

Physical and ecotoxicological effects strictly related to marine litter and, in particular, to plastics can be directly addressed in very few cases; therefore an integrated approach, linking the detection of

ingested marine litter with the physical and toxicological effects related to the ingestion of contaminated plastic litter, is needed.

One of these very few studies in the field have carried out the following 3-fold approach. The application of the threefold approach can elucidate not only the rate of ingestion among the different bioindicators, but also the multiple sub-lethal stresses that marine litter ingestion can cause in the short and long term. Each of the three investigation tools that make up the threefold approach can be applied independently or simultaneously to the selected bioindicator species (Fossi et al 2018).

The methodology to monitor the impacts of marine litter on marine organisms can be performed following three different scales of approach, depending on the target organism (Fossi et al., 2018):

- i. analysis of the gastro-intestinal content in vertebrates/invertebrates in order to evaluate the marine litter ingested by organisms. Information on the degree to which the biota ingests marine litter (including microplastics) is essential in order to determine and monitor threshold levels.
- ii. quantitative and qualitative analysis of plastic additives (eg. phthalates and PBDEs) and PBT compounds in the tissues (for example muscle) of bioindicators, used as "plastic tracers". (Rochman et al., 2015, Baini et al. 2017).
- iii. analysis of the effects based on biomarker responses at different biological levels (from gene/protein expression variations to histological alterations). Assessing the undesirable biological responses related to the ingestion of marine litter and the accumulation of plastic associated compounds is crucial to evaluating the extent of the threat of marine litter and plastic ingestion to marine organisms (Fossi et al. 2016; Pedà et al., 2016; Avio et al., 2015b).

6.2. Entanglement

According to UNEP (2016), entanglement incidents in marine debris lead to wounds or death, with a declining order of species affected per taxon, for 192 species of invertebrate, 89 species of fish, 83 species of bird, 38 species of mammal and all species of sea turtle. In the Mediterranean there is a general lack of data on the interaction of marine organisms with litter through entanglements. Entanglement or more generally interactions between litter and marine organisms, has been described for cetaceans, pinnipeds, marine turtles, birds, fishes including sharks and for many invertebrates both and coastal and deep sea areas (Galgani et al., 1996; Cedrian, 2008; Rodriguez et al., 2013; Bo et al., 2014; Tubau et al., 2015; Colmenero et al., 2017). As recent work has shown, lost gear or litter in general can also harm benthic organisms and habitats, including deep sea Mediterranean species like sponges, gorgonians, or certain cold water corals (Pham et al., 2014; Fabri et al., 2014, Consoli et al., 2018).

The incidence of entanglement can vary strongly according to region, to the fishing activities with which animals interact and more generally to the presence of litter. Generally, the factors that may contribute to organisms being entangled in, or strangled by, abandoned fishing gear or litter include the presence of organisms in or near the nets, and water turbidity, making the litter and gear less visible. For cetaceans, whose ability to detect nets by echolocation is fundamental (Kühn et al., 2015), ambient noise can hide or distort the echoes produced by fishing gear. In vertebrates, fasting is one of the frequent consequences of entanglement, as well as the impossibility of moving and thus escaping from predators. Entanglement also leads to wounds susceptible to secondary infections and sometimes amputation after constriction (NOAA, 2014).

Benthic organisms can also be caught in lost traps or other litter items. Typically, crabs, octopus, fishes and many small invertebrates are taken in traps on the seabed and die, an impact that is very

common in some Mediterranean countries where fishermen are considering octopuses as target species.

In the deep Mediterranean Sea, interactions between litter and marine organisms were suggested years ago, using manned or unmanned submersibles, including ROVs (Galgani et al., 2016; Pham et al., 2014), which also showed that debris may be used as a habitat by some macro-invertebrates. Because of their morphology, gorgonians, some sponges, corals and colonial zoanthids might be more susceptible to this kind of damage, as observed by Angiolillo et al. (2015) and Consoli et al. (2018). In contrast, entanglement in derelict fishing gear has been reported to cause severe damage in corals (Octocorallia and Hexacorallia), gorgonians and sponges with evident signs of tissue damage and epibiosis of fouling organisms (see Oliveira et al., 2015 for review). Recently, during a survey carried out in the central Mediterranean Sea, Consoli et al. (2018) found a total of 16 species (15 cnidarians and 1 sponge) showing some form of interaction (Entanglement/Coverage and or damage) with litter and 12 of these were species of conservation concern according to international directives and agreements. Moreover, they observed a significant positive relationship between the number of litter-fauna interactions and the mean litter density: this latter indicator could thus be considered a good tool for the monitoring of marine litter impact on benthic communities.

6.3. Marine litter as transport vector and habitat

Marine litter (macro- and micro-plastic) can represent a transport vector or a habitat for marine organisms found on the sea surface or on the seafloor.

The hydrophobic surface of plastic marine debris stimulates microbial colonization, producing what is referred to as "microbial reefs," where they may contribute to the self- breakdown or degradation of plastics (Dussud and Ghiglione, 2014). Plastic when in seawater rapidly develops (after 1 week) a biofilm that includes primary producers, consumers, predators and decomposers (Watnick and Kolter, 2000) that encourages the attachment of larger organisms that use chemical and/or physical characteristics as a cue to settle (Zardus et al., 2008; Hadfield et al., 2014).

Since 2013, some 20 scientific peer-reviewed papers investigated the colonization and coverage of litter in the Mediterranean Sea (Table 6.3). Only four papers have studied, in terms of presence and effects, the colonization of floating micro- and macro- litter by different phyla of organisms, while others investigated the presence of litter coverage and colonization in the deep-sea.

Floating litter

The papers that investigate the colonization of the floating litter have collected the litter with manta trawls or visual sightings (Cabezas et al., 2013; Dussud et al., 2018; Virsek et al., 2017; Tutman et al., 2017). Traditional methods such as microbiology and microscopy (SEM, TEM), and DNA isolation (e.g. RT- PCR, PCR) techniques were used to investigate the species that use the litter as transport vector or habitat.

The floating macro-litter became habitat for dispersal rafting of some species such as benthic foraminiferal species (*R. concinna*; Jorissen, 2014) amphipods (*C.andreae*; Cabezas et al., 2013) and crabs (*Liocarcinus navigator, Planes minutus*; Tutman et al. 2017). Microorganisms have also shown to be capable of rafting through microplastics spreading up their natural dispersion process. Virsek et al. (2017) have identified 28 bacterial species on the microplastics particles, including pathogenic fish bacteria (*Aeromonas spp.*) and hydrocarbon-degrading bacterial species. Dussud et al. (2018) revealed for the first time a clear niche partitioning between free-living, organic particle-attached, and plastic marine debris (PMD). The authors observed that PMD represent favorable environments for a large number of species, with significantly higher evenness compared to free living and organic fraction particle. The PMD fraction was dominated by Cyanobacteria (40.8%, mainly Pleurocapsa sp.)

and Alphaproteobacteria (32.2%, mainly Roseobacter sp.). Moreover, the biofilms covered between 0 and 3.5% of the surface area, revealing a rather patchy covering of the PMD.

Deep-sea litter

The full extent of effects that litter has on deep-sea habitats and their fauna is still poorly understood, but several impacts have been documented in different studies (Gündoğdu et al. 2017; loakemidis et al., 2015; Ramirez-Llodra et al. 2013). Most of the studies on deep-sea litter have used semi-quantitative sampling gears (e.g. trawls, dredges; bottom trawl; Gündoğdu et al., 2017; Ramirez-Llodra et al., 2013) to collect the samples. More recently, the development and increasing utilization of Remotely Operated Vehicles (ROVs) has allowed investigating the coverage and colonization of different species on deep-sea litter, limiting the damage to the benthos in slopes and rocky bottoms. Moreover, ROV is less complicated than submersible and generally cheaper (Deidun et al., 2015; Cau et al., 2017; Consoli et al., 2018; Melli et al., 2017; loakemidis et al., 2015; Lastras et al., 2016; Fabri et al., 2014; Bo et al., 2014; Taviani et al., 2017). All the researchers have used image analysis, captured by ROV, for the identification of species that inhabit and coverage the litter.

Nine papers studied the presence of fauna on litter in the Mediterranean deep-sea. Some authors have investigated the presence of megafauna-colonized litter on sea bed, either comparing total biomass of megafauna with total litter weight (Ramirez-Llodra et al. 2013) or recording the different fouling species (Gündoğdu et al. 2017; loakeimidis et al., 2015). One of the most important impacts of litter highlighted on soft bottom environment of the Mediterranean Sea is the alteration of the texture of the seabed (artificial hardgrounds) and thus the change of the structure of benthic communities (Gündoğdu et al., 2017; loakemidis et al., 2015; Melli et al., 2017).

Derelict nets and longlines, often entangled around rocky obstacles and under tension, form an artificial substrate which is preferentially colonized by the serpulid policheate, ramified hydroids (Sertulariidae), encrusting sponges, colonial tunicate, bryozoans and zoanthids, and occasionally by *Neopycnodonte cochlear* and scleractinian corals (Cau et al. 2017; Fabri et al 2014).

The presence of the epibiosis on the tissue damage of coral colonies inflicted by entanglement and discarded long lines covered by hydroids is observed by Bo et al. (2014) and Deidun et al. (2015). Litter-fauna interactions were investigated, with 70% of the items presenting high fouling levels, and epibionts coverage on 50-100% of their surface. Interactions and usage, as substrate or refuge, of the litter by megafauna (asteroids, holothurians, crustaceans and demersal fish) is also observed (Cau et al. 2017; Melli et al., 2017).

Nowadays, specific protocols to evaluate the effect of litter colonization and coverage are not available.

Table 6.3. Overview of the methodological approaches used to investigate marine litter colonization and coverage in the Mediterranean area (2013-2018).

Location	Habitat	Таха	Method	Occurrence %	Litter size	Reference
Sardinia Channel	Benthic	Cnidaria	Four ROV dives were carried out for a total length of ca. 1700 m. Taxonomic identification was based on still image and analysis through the robotic arm of the ROV, together with a grab sample to gain information on composition of all		Macro-litter	Taviani et al., 2017

			aspects of coral rubble			
Malta island	Benthic	Cnidaria	ROV survey was at depths ranging between 250 and 400 m. Two video transects were carried out on slope substrata, for a total of 4 hours and 50 minutes of video footage and 4000 m ² of surveyed seabed area	n.a.	Macro-litter	Deidun et al., 2014
Northern Adriatic Sea	Benthic	Cnidaria	ROV survey 4 areas, 17 dive, and each dive	Litter-fauna interactions were with most of the debris (65.7%)	Macro-litter	Melli et al., 2017
The Saronikos Gulf	Benthic and pelagic	Polychaeta, Echiura, Gastropoda, Ascidia, Bivalvia, Serpulidae, Anthozoa Rhodophycea, Gastropoda, Echinodermata Rhodophycea, Anthozoa, Echinoedea, Asteroidea	ROV survey, 1 area, 2 dive	n.a.	Macro-litter	loakeimidis et al., 2015
Central western Mediterranean	Benthic	Serpulidae, (Sertulariidae), tunicate, bryozoans and zoanthids.	29 ROV dives, with 1–4 dives per site. A total of 1.3 km² of useful footage of hard bottoms has been acquired during the surveys, which allowed obtaining ca. 4200 independent photo sampling units	litter items was also high: 65%	Macro-litter	Cau et al., 2017
North-western Mediterranean (Andalusian coasts)	Beach and benthic	Arthropoda	Manual collection; genomic DNA	n.a.	Macro-litter	Cabezas et al., 2013
Western Mediterranean Sea	Surface and water column	Bacteria	32 manta trawls (mesh size 333 μm); DNA extracted from 72 randomly sorted PMD (recently introduced plastic marine debris) from each the 32 stations and from all the 3 mm- and 0.2 mm-pore size filters from surrounding seawater. Between 2 and 4 plastic fragments (filament,	Most of the samples were highly colonized by bacteria	Micro and macro-plastics (2.8 - 23.8 mm)	Dussud et al., 2018

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			pellet or sheet, size > 2 mm) were extracted separately at each station; RT-PCR			
Western Mediterranean Sea (Tyrrhenian Sea)	Benthic	Epibionted species (not identified)	ROV with range 70-280 m of deep; 940 video frames corresponding to almost 3000 m ² of analyzed surface	n.a.	Micro e macro-litter	Bo et al., 2014
Western Mediterranean Sea (Bastia, Corsica, France)	Surface and water column	Foraminifera, benthic macroalgae, hydrozoan, gastropods, bryozoans	Manta plankton net with a mesh size of 150 μm	19.3 individuals per 100 cm ²	Micro and macro-plastics	Jorissen, 2014
Western Mediterranean;C entral Mediterranean; Eastern Mediterranean	Benthic	Megafauna	Otter-trawl Maireta system (OTMS) and an Agassiz trawl. OTMS 40 mm mesh size, covered by an outer net 12 mm in mesh size and a total net length of 25 m; range of speed 2.6-2.8 knots. Agassiz trawl: 12 mm net mesh size, a 2.5 m horizontal opening and 1.2 m vertical opening; 2.0 knots. 6 transects; samples taken at 900, 1050, 1200, 1350, 1500, 1750, 2000, 2250 and 2700 m	n.a.	Micro e macro-litter	Ramirez-Llodra et al., 2013
North-western Mediterranean	Benthic	Cnidaria	21 ROV (equipped with three video camera) immersions; 420 Gb of video images were recorded (41 h 20 min); 7914 positions; range of depths: 79-401 m	n.a.	Macro-litter	Lastras et al., 2016
North-western Mediterranean (French continental margin)	Benthic	Polychaetes, Mollusca, Cnidaria	ROV; 101 video films; length explored 83 km; range of deep: 60-800 m	n.a.	Macro-litter	Fabri et al., 2014
South Adriatic Sea	Benthic	Arthropoda	Visual sightings of floating objects in the open in an area with a depth of 1226 m	n.a.	Macro-litter	Tutman et al., 2017
Slovenian coast- North Adriatic sea	Benthic and pelagic	Bacteria	Manta net with 308 μm pore size, the boat speed was approx. 2.5 knots and the time of sampling was 30 min. Transects were approx. 1.3 nm long. Used only fragments, due other	n.a.	Micro-plastics	Viršek et al., 2017

			higher abundance and good surface to volume ratio, which enables effective growth to bacterial biofilms		
East Mediterranean Sea	Benthic	Cnidaria, Crustacea	Bottom trawl net (4.5 m length; 0.8 m mouth; 20 mm mesh size). The trawl net was towed for 20 min. All macro- plastics were taken and placed into cold storage containers, and quickly separated to determine the species	Macro-plastics	Gündoğdu et al., 2017

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7. List of acronyms

ALDFG Abandoned, lost, discarded fishing gear

AUT Agricultural University of Tirana
D10 Descriptor 10 (Marine Litter)

DeFishGear Derelict Fishing Gear Management System in the Adriatic Region

EC European Commission
EcAp Ecosystem Approach
EU European Union

FAO Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations

FTIR Fourier-transform infrared spectroscopy

FTIR-ATR Fourier-transform infrared spectroscopy - Attenuated Total Reflectance

GES Good Environmental Status

GI Gastrointestinal

IMAP Integrated Monitoring and Assessment PrOGRAMME

IPA Instrument for Pre-accession Assistance

ISPRA Italian National Institute for Environmental Protection and Research

MAP Mediterranean Action Plan

MEDPOL Mediterranean Pollution Monitoring Programme

MIO-ECSDE Mediterranean Information Office for Environment, Culture and Sustainable Development

MPAs Marine Protected Areas

MSFD Marine Strategy Framework Directive

MSFD TG10 MSFD Technical Sub-Group on Marine Litter

NGO Non-Governmental Organisation

NOOA Marine Debris Monitoring and Assessment

OSPAR Convention for the Protection of the Marine Environment of the North-East Atlantic

QA Quality assurance
QC Quality control

ROVs Remotely operated vehicles

S.D. Standard Deviation

UNEP United Nations Environment Programme

WWTP's Waste Water Treatment Plants



THE PLASTIC BUSTERS MPAs PARTNERSHIP





























