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1 The unknown fate of macroplastic in mountain rivers

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17 ABSTRACT

18 Mountain rivers are typically seen as relatively pristine ecosystems, supporting numerous goods (e.g.,
19 water resources) for human populations living not only in the mountain regions but also downstream
20 from them. Recent evidence suggests, however, that mountain river valleys in populated areas can be
21 substantially polluted by macroplastic (plastic item > 5 mm). It is, however, unknown how distinct
22 characteristics of mountain rivers modulate macroplastic routes through them, which makes planning
23 effective mitigation strategies difficult. To stimulate future works on this gap, here, we present a
24 conceptual model of macroplastic transport pathways through mountain river. Based on this model, we
25 formulate four hypotheses on macroplastic input, transport and degradation in mountain rivers. Then,
26 we propose designs of field experiments that allow each hypothesis to be tested. We hypothesize that
27 some natural characteristics of mountain river catchments can accelerate the input of improperly
28 disposed macroplastic waste from the slope to the river. Further, we hypothesize that specific
29 hydromorphological characteristics of mountain rivers (e.g., high flow velocity) accelerate the
30 downstream transport rate of macroplastic and, together with the presence of shallow water and coarse
31 bed sediments, can accelerate mechanical degradation of macroplastic in river channels, accelerating
32 secondary microplastic production. The above suggests that mountain rivers in populated areas can act
33 as *microplastic factories*, which are able to produce more microplastic from the same amount of
34 macroplastic waste inputted into them (in comparison to lowland rivers that have a different
35 hydromorphology). The produced risks can not only affect mountain rivers but can also be transported
36 downstream. The challenge for the future is how to manage the hypothesized risks, especially in
37 mountain areas particularly exposed to plastic pollution due to waste management deficiencies, high
38 tourism pressure, poor ecological awareness of the population and lack of uniform regional and global
39 regulations for the problem.

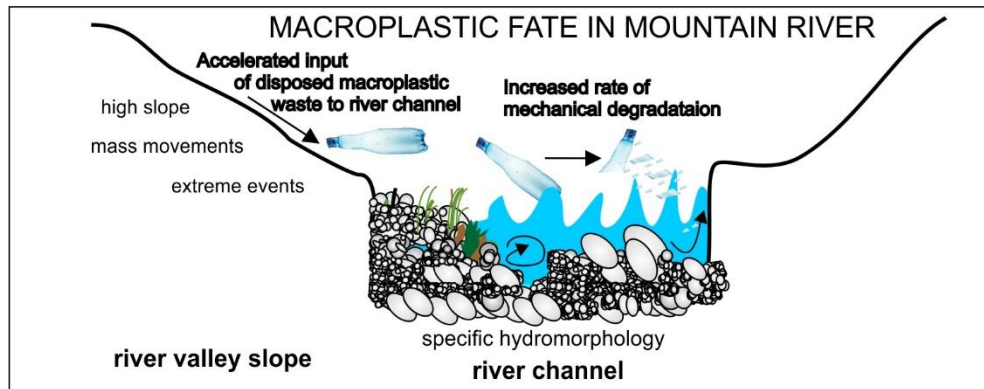
40 *Keywords:* plastic fragmentation; macroplastic storage; plastic degradation; secondary microplastic

41 Highlights

- 42
- 43 • Mountain rivers (MR) in populated areas can act as microplastic factories
 - 44 • Natural processes can accelerated input of macroplastic waste to MR
 - 45 • Fragmentation rate of macroplastic can be increased by mountain river hydromorphology

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Graphical abstract



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1. Unexplored problem of macroplastic in mountain rivers

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Plastic pollution has recently been attracting the attention of scientists, engineers and the general public. This results from its global extent and numerous risks to human livelihood and ecosystem functioning, as well as non-optimistic perspectives of its further accumulation resulting from increasing production and long-term perseverance in the environment (Borelle et al., 2020). The fate of plastic in rivers is less understood than in the oceans (Blettler et al., 2018), and previous works have considered rivers mostly as transport pathways of land-derived plastic to the ocean (Liro et al., 2020). Recent works have suggested, however, that rivers are not only simple vectors of plastic transport from land to ocean but also a complex environment where plastic may be stored, remobilized and degraded (van Emmerik and Schwarz, 2019; Liro et al., 2020; Weideman et al., 2020; van Emmerik et al., 2022). This implies that the presence of plastic-related environmental risks in river ecosystems may continue in the future, even when the input of new plastic debris to the fluvial systems will be decreased.

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It is known that the natural characteristics of fluvial systems and their anthropogenic modifications are key controls of macroplastic (plastic item > 5 mm) transport pathways through rivers (van Emmerik and Schwarz, 2019; Liro et al., 2020; Gallitelli and Scalici, 2022; van Emmerik et al., 2022). However, how these controls operate in mountain rivers is mostly unexplored (cf. Liro et al., 2022). Although most of the existing riverine macroplastic studies come from lowland rivers (van Emmerik and Schwarz, 2019), recent works also demonstrated their occurrence in mountain rivers (Mihai, 2018; Gallitelli and Scalici, 2022; Liro et al., 2022). Mountain rivers are generally known for their specific characteristics (e.g., catchment topography, high-energy floods, transport of coarse mineral and organic sediments, diverse morphological forms (Wohl, 2010; Hauer et al., 2016; Maier et al., 2021)) as well as for the numerous goods they provide for human populations living not only in the mountain regions but also downstream from them (e.g., as water resources (Viviroli et al., 2007; 2020; Schickoff et al., 2022)). It is, however, unknown how these distinct characteristics of mountain rivers modulate macroplastic routes through them, and what risks can result from them. Here, we present a conceptual and theoretical framework for narrowing this knowledge gap in future studies. First, we outline the existing waste management challenges known from mountain rivers. Then, we conceptualize and hypothesize how distinct characteristics of

82 mountain rivers can modulate macroplastic input, transport and degradation as well as
83 proposing field experiments able to test our hypotheses. With our paper, we aim to stimulate
84 future studies on macroplastics in mountain rivers and to accelerate the mitigation of
85 macroplastic pollution in mountain rivers.

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87 **2. Waste management challenges in mountain river catchments**

88 2.1. Distribution of plastic waste emission sources in the river proximity

89 The topography of mountain river catchments and the occurrence of mass movements on the
90 upper parts of slopes favor the concentration of plastic emission sources on river floodplains,
91 which are relatively flat and allow for easier construction of living and transport
92 infrastructures compared to the remaining areas of mountain river catchments (slopes and
93 headwater areas). Previous studies have indicated that human infrastructures (e.g., roads) in
94 both urban and rural areas of mountain regions are predisposed to macroplastic pollution
95 because they stimulate illegal dumping practices (Matos et al., 2012; Malinowski et al., 2015;
96 Mihai and Grozavu, 2019; Mihai, 2018) that frequently occur directly in the area of river
97 floodplains (Mihai et al., 2012; Mihai, 2018). We suggest that this problem may be more
98 important in the case of larger, lower-lying mountain rivers flowing through more populated
99 areas and having forested and wide floodplains with numerous unpaved roads offering
100 accessibility and relatively low visibility, favoring intentional dumping. The highest parts of
101 mountain regions have more diffuse and less abundant sources of litter, which is disposed
102 here due to waste management gaps related to underdeveloped transportation networks,
103 limiting the access to proper waste management services (UNEP, 2016), and the littering
104 behavior of residents and tourists (Mihai and Grozavu, 2019). In the lower part of mountain
105 rivers, macroplastic input seems to be controlled mostly by dumping or improper disposal of
106 plastic waste on or near the river floodplain (Mihai et al., 2012, 2022; Mihai, 2018). The river
107 floodplain zone here is wider than in the upstream part of the catchment, and in many
108 populated areas of a mountain, it is used for multiple purposes, e.g., for agriculture, living and
109 transport infrastructure and recreation. All these factors increase the potential for intentional
110 or unintentional dumping, which seems preferentially concentrated along the roads (e.g.,
111 Matos et al., 2012). The number and area of local sources (e.g., roads or dumping sites) of
112 macroplastic input to the river can be mapped in future works during field works or by using
113 remote sensing materials (e.g., aerial photos). Such information collected for different spatial
114 units of rivers (e.g., reaches, segments, forms, habitats) can then be related to the data on
115 plastic abundances collected from them, allowing for testing of the relation between artificial
116 inputs of macroplastics and their abundance in rivers (Liro et al., 2020). More locally, the
117 abundances of plastic waste (e.g., items, gram/site, items/m², gram/m²) in a given source can
118 also be determined and the distance of macroplastic emission from it measured. For example,
119 to quantify the importance of macroplastic input from, e.g., roads, built-up areas, bridges and
120 recreational sites, future works can compare macroplastic abundances (items/m², gram/m²)
121 within the plots located at different distances from such sources, taking into account river
122 flow directions and local topography. The above suggests that the amount of macroplastic
123 entering mountain rivers can be better explained by the characteristics of river valley bottoms
124 (especially floodplains), which concentrate the majority of plastic emission sources, rather
125 than by the characteristics of the whole river catchment.

126 2.2. Limited areas suitable for waste landfilling

127 The natural characteristics of mountain river catchments limit the area suitable for proper

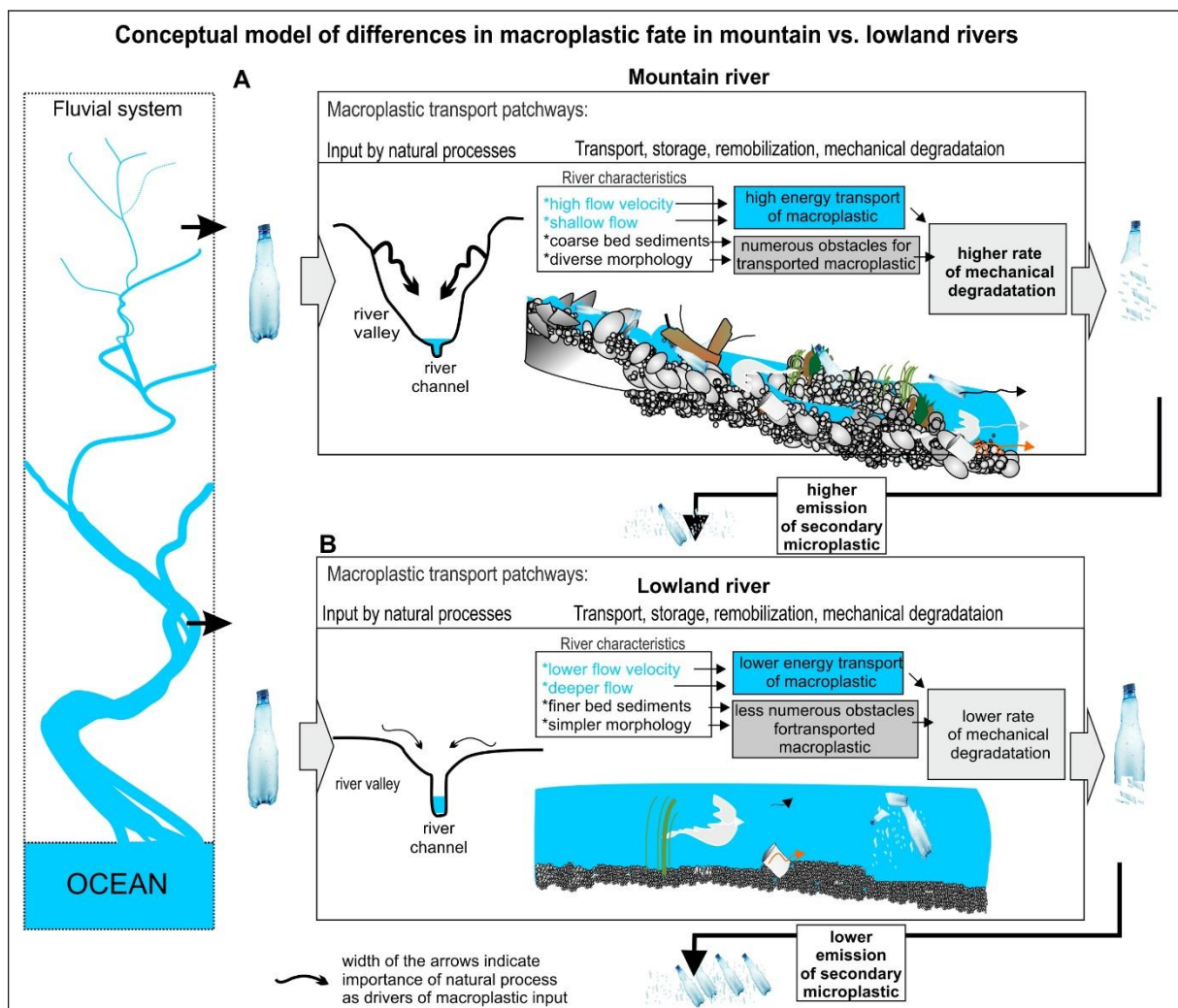
128 landfill site construction. Such sites must comply with the environmental regulations
 129 regarding the proximity to water bodies, human settlements and critical infrastructure (Mihai
 130 and Ichim, 2013). At the bottom of mountain river valleys (where most plastic waste emission
 131 sources are located) (Mihai, 2018), such sites' location may be challenging to locate because
 132 of the steep slopes of the river valley bottom and the occurrence of mass movements.
 133 Locations of landfills on mountain rivers may be more suitable within the flat areas of river
 134 floodplains; however, still, such areas must be selected with caution to avoid flood inundation
 135 zones.

136

137 3. Conceptual model of macroplastic transport pathways through mountain river

138 3.1. Macroplastic input into river

139 Disposed macroplastic waste can enter the zone of active fluvial processes (river channels or
 140 floodplains) in two ways: (i) artificially (e.g., by dumping or improper disposal) or (ii) as a
 141 result of natural processes (e.g., wind, surface runoff, or landslide) (Liro et al., 2020; Mellink
 142 et al., 2022).



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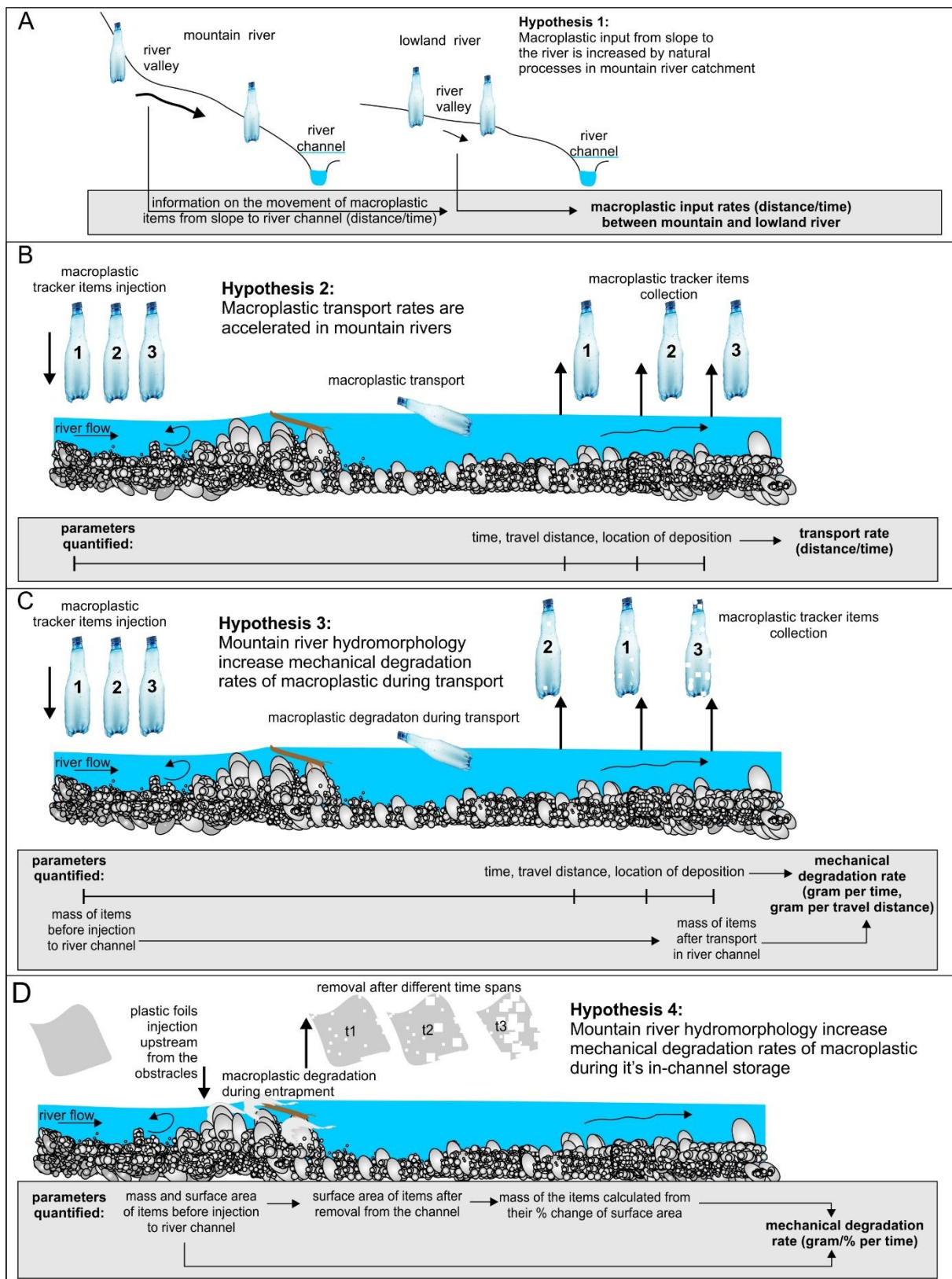
144 **Figure 1.** Conceptual model of differences in macroplastic pathways in mountain vs. lowland
 145 rivers.

146 3.1.1. Macroplastic input is accelerated in mountain rivers (Hypothesis 1)

147 We hypothesized that the natural characteristics of mountain rivers (e.g., steep valley slopes,
148 mass movements, high precipitation and high surface runoff) (see Wohl, 2010) can not only
149 constrain the method of plastic waste management described in Section 2 but also favor
150 macroplastic input into the river. The importance of these natural characteristics as a control
151 of macroplastic input could be higher in the upper parts of mountain river catchments where
152 valley slopes are steeper and the frequency and magnitude of extreme events are higher (see
153 Wohl, 2010). In the lower part of mountain rivers, the river floodplains are also more
154 frequently embanked in populated areas, which may provide a barrier for macroplastic input
155 by natural processes.

156 3.1.2. Experimental design to test Hypothesis 1

157 The above hypothesis can be tested in future works by monitoring tracer items of
158 plastics in higher and lower parts of mountain river catchments (Figure 2A). Such
159 experiments can utilize both actually disposed plastic items or different types of fresh plastic
160 items (polymer composition, shape, size) placed in the field. Together with the information on
161 geomorphic and land cover characteristics of given locations as well as the magnitude and
162 frequency of natural factors controlling macroplastic input to the river (e.g., wind,
163 precipitation, surface runoff, landslides), it may be possible to quantify the effectiveness of
164 macroplastic mobilization on slopes and thus its input into rivers. The gained information can
165 also be applied to calibrate the existing numerical models used for tracking macroplastic
166 movement within river catchments (see, for example, Mellink et al., 2022).



168 **Figure 2.** The designs of field experiments proposed to test hypotheses on macroplastic input
 169 (A) transport (B) and degradation (C-D) in mountain rivers (see section 3).

170 **3.2. Macroplastic transport and remobilization in river**

171 The initiation of macroplastic transport and remobilization depends on the
172 characteristics of river floodplains and channel zones (e.g., vegetation cover, sediment
173 characteristics), macroplastic properties (e.g., size, weight, surface area, shape), its position
174 in/on the sediments or vegetation cover (e.g., depth in the subsurface sediments, height of the
175 entrapment of riparian vegetation) and river flow hydrodynamics (e.g., flow velocity, water
176 depth, bed shear stress) (Liro et al., 2020).

177 3.2.1. Downstream transport rates of macroplastic is higher in mountain rivers (than in the
178 lowland one) (Hypothesis 2).

179 We hypothesized that mountain river hydrodynamics (e.g., high flow energy) will increase the
180 transport rate of macroplastic. Such conditions occur especially along high-slope, bedrock-
181 confined reaches (more common in the upper parts of catchments) and along channelized
182 reaches (more common in the middle and lower parts of catchments).

183 3.2.2. Experimental design to test Hypothesis 2

184 This hypothesis can be tested by monitoring the movements of tracked plastic litter items (so-
185 called tracking experiments; for methods, see, for example, Duncan et al., 2020; Newbould,
186 2021). Such experiments can allow for the collection of data on transport mechanisms (travel
187 distance, travel time) (Figure 2B) and their comparison between the lower and upper parts of
188 the mountain river catchment or between mountain and lowland rivers in general. The gained
189 data may be crucial to understand the mechanism of macroplastic transport along mountain
190 rivers and, in conjunction with the data on morphological types of mountain river channels
191 (see, for example, Maier et al., 2021), can allow for regional and global assessment of
192 macroplastic flux from mountain to lowland rivers.

193 **3.3 Macroplastic storage in mountain rivers**

194 Macroplastic inputted (naturally or artificially) into river channels or floodplains, or deposited
195 there during previous transport–remobilization events, can be stored as surface sediments (on
196 bare mineral or organic sediments, on living vegetation, on hydrotechnical structures, etc.) or
197 as subsurface sediments below the surface of the bed or river floodplain (Liro et al., 2020).
198 Understanding the macroplastic storage dynamics is crucial for the detection of plastic
199 accumulation hotspots and the planning of cleanup actions. Recent works from mountain
200 rivers have suggested that high-surface-roughness elements of river channels frequently
201 inundated by floods (e.g., wood jams, wooden islands) can store substantial amounts of
202 macroplastic (Liro et al., 2022). The longevity of macroplastic storage will depend on the
203 erosional potential of the given forms, which can be quantified using information on their
204 half-life (for method see e.g., van der Nat et al., 2003). The storage of macroplastic on wood
205 jams will last, for example, from a few months to a few years, whereas on a wooden island, it
206 will last from a year to a few tens of years (see Liro et al., 2022 and literatures cited therein).
207 We suggest that more long-term storage can be expected within delta–backwater zones of
208 dam reservoirs, having a similar surface roughness and inundation frequency but significantly
209 higher erosional resistance. The reconstruction of plastic debris abundances recorded in
210 floodplain sediments (e.g., from undercut banks) could provide a relatively low-cost
211 method for determining the amount of macroplastic stored in a given unit of river in the past.
212 Such information, combined with data on river channel dynamics (e.g., collected from remote
213 sensing materials), can be used not only for the detection of plastic accumulation hotspots but

214 also for the assessment of the amount of plastic remobilized as a result of floodplain sediment
215 erosion in the future (see Liro et al., 2020).

216 **3.4. Macroplastic degradation in mountain rivers**

217 Along the whole route of macroplastic debris through a river, it can be degraded as a result of
218 physical, chemical and biological processes (Hurley et al., 2020; Delorme et al., 2021). This
219 process results in the fragmentation of larger plastic particles into smaller ones (i.e., micro-
220 and nanoplastics), which produce a serious risk for biota and human health (Sridharan et al.,
221 2021; Gallitelli et al., 2021; Jeyavani et al., 2021).

222 Based on the above-described characteristics of mountain rivers (see Section 3.2), it can be
223 expected that the rate of mechanical degradation occurring during plastic debris transport
224 (Hypothesis 3) and storage (Hypothesis 4) in mountain river channels can be accelerated (in
225 comparison to a lowland river) (Figures 1 and 2).

226 3.4.1. Mechanical degradation of transported macroplastic items is higher on mountain river
227 (than on the lowland one) (Hypothesis 3)

228 Specifically, we hypothesize that the presence of numerous obstacles to river flow (e.g.,
229 coarse bed sediments, wood jams, steep banks), together with the relatively shallow water flow,
230 will favor frequent mechanical contacts (and thus abrasion) of transported plastic items.

231 3.4.2. Experimental design to test Hypothesis 3

232 The rate of mechanical degradation of macroplastic debris occurring during its transport in
233 mountain river channel can be quantified by future field experiments that we have designed,
234 as shown in Figure 2C. Specifically, to collect data on the degradation of macroplastics during
235 their transport in river channels, a combination of the tracked plastic method (Duncan et al.,
236 2020; Newbould et al., 2021) and approaches utilized previously for the estimation of
237 macroplastic weight loss used in laboratory experiments (see, for example, Gerritse et al.,
238 2020) can be implemented (Figure 2C). In more detail, we propose measuring the difference
239 in the mass of macroplastic items before and after their transport in river channels, applying
240 methods successfully used previously to determine the mass loss of macroplastic items in
241 mesocosm experiments (see e.g., Gerritse et al., 2020). Together with the data on river
242 hydromorphology, time and travel distance, as well as the type of plastic items used for the
243 experiment, this gives us a unique opportunity to evaluate numerous controls of macroplastic
244 degradation in mountain rivers. This experimental setup can utilize different types of plastic
245 objects (e.g., bottles, boxes, and cups), plastic polymer types (PET, PVC, biodegradable
246 plastics, etc.) and trackers (e.g., GPS, RFID, radio transmitters, and printed items). Recorded
247 data on macroplastic degradation should be corrected using information on the degradation of
248 control plastic items, located in the riverside zone where the experiment will be performed,
249 but not influenced by fluvial transport. Such a comparison will give some estimation about the
250 rate of biochemical degradation occurring in a given region. The time span of such an
251 experiment is from weeks to months depending on the specific study goal, river
252 characteristics and tracking technology used (Newbould et al., 2021; Duncan et al., 2021).

253 3.4.3. Mechanical degradation of stored macroplastic items is higher on mountain river (than
254 on the lowland one) (Hypothesis 4)

255 We hypothesized that plastic bags and foil items tend to be preferentially trapped on the

256 obstacles occurring in mountain river channels (bedrock, boulders, large woody debris, tree
257 roots) and then become mechanically degraded by the water, which overflows them. These
258 types of plastic items are very common as single-use packaging materials and are thus
259 frequently found in rivers in populated areas (Plastic Europe, 2021). Such items typically have
260 a film shape (large area and low thickness), allowing for their transport in suspensions, which
261 increases the probability of their entanglement on obstacles occurring in relatively shallow
262 channel zones. The mechanical stress connected with their motion in overflowing water is
263 hypothesized to increase the rate of their mechanical degradation. Our observations suggest
264 that suitable conditions for the degradation of trapped plastic items occur especially in the
265 shallow, fast-flowing water sections of channels (e.g., riffles).

266 3.4.2. Experimental design to test Hypothesis 4

267 To quantify the rate of mechanical degradation during macroplastic storage in mountain river
268 channels, we propose a simple, short-term experiment utilizing plastic foil sheets of known
269 sizes (see Figure 2D). The information on mechanical degradation can be gained by
270 comparison of the surface area (and thus mass) before and after such items are trapped in river
271 channel zones in a given time period (Figure 2D). We propose measuring the mass loss of
272 different types of plastic foil items (thickness, polymer types) based on changes in their
273 surface area during the experiment. Such a measurement can be effectively performed using a
274 photo comparison of plastic foil items (see, for example, O’Brain and Thomson, 2010;
275 Kalogerakis et al., 2017) and allow for avoiding the problems with destroying soft plastic
276 items during cleaning and drying before traditional weighing. The time span of the field part
277 of such an experiment can be from hours to weeks, depending on the river hydrograph and
278 observed degradation rate.

279 4. Future outlook

280 Based on our conceptualization, we hypothesize that mountain rivers in populated areas can
281 act as *microplastic factories*, which are able to produce more microplastic from the same
282 amount of macroplastic waste inputted into them (in comparison to less energetic lowland
283 rivers).

284 This results from the natural characteristics of mountain river catchments and
285 hydromorphological conditions occurring in their channels, which can not only accelerate the
286 input of macroplastics from the slope to the river but also favor their mechanical degradation
287 in river channels.

288 The above suggests that, despite the fact that mountain rivers are typically seen as relatively
289 pristine ecosystems, the input of macroplastic waste to them can produce a serious risk that
290 can probably be quickly transferred downstream to the lowland rivers.

291 The challenge for the future is how to manage these risks, especially in mountain areas
292 particularly exposed to plastic pollution due to waste management deficiencies, high tourism
293 pressure, poor ecological awareness of the population and lack of uniform regional and global
294 regulations for the problem.

295 Author Contributions

296 **ML**: conceptualized paper idea, wrote the original draft and created original figures. **AZ, LG,**
297 **FCM, TvE**: contributed to the writing and editing of the paper and corrected figures. All
298 authors contributed to the article and approved the submitted version.

299 **Declaration of Competing Interest**

300 The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal
301 relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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