



Microplastic pollution in commercially important edible marine bivalves: A comprehensive review

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ABSTRACT

Microplastics have become major pollutants in the marine environment and can accumulate in high concentrations, especially in the gut of marine organisms. Unlike other seafood, bivalves are consumed whole, along with their digestive systems, resulting in the transfer of microplastics to humans. Therefore, there is an urgent need to review the status of microplastic pollution in marine bivalves. In this context, this article provides a comprehensive review of the status of microplastic pollution in marine bivalves and the impact of microplastics on the physiology and immunology of marine bivalves. In general, marine bivalves can accumulate high levels of microplastics in a tissue-specific manner. Although microplastic pollution does not cause mortality in bivalves, it can adversely affect bivalves' immunity, byssus production, and reproduction, potentially affecting bivalve populations. This article provides important information that will aid establishing management measures and determining the direction of future research.

1. Introduction

Plastics are synthetic materials that use fossil fuel-based polymers as the main ingredients. The competitive properties of plastics, such as high plasticity, durability, light weight, and low production cost, enable their wide application and play an important role in economic growth. Unfortunately, improper disposal of plastic waste results in an estimated 75–199 million tons of plastics ending up in our oceans, posing a significant threat to the marine environment (Eriksen et al., 2023). Large plastics gradually degrade into microplastics (MPs) (size <5 mm) through biological, photolytic, or mechanical mechanisms, which will remain in marine systems for thousands of years before further degradation (Arthur et al., 2009; Fu et al., 2020).

These MPs can be accidentally consumed by marine animals, including bivalves, accumulate in the gills and digestive tract, and might cause blockages (Khan & Prezant, 2018; Kinjo et al., 2019). Furthermore, these MPs are absorbed and transported to different tissues

through the endosomal pathway (Faggio et al., 2018; Scanes et al., 2019). Marine bivalves are high quality animal proteins (Song, Luo, et al., 2024) rich in polyunsaturated fatty acids (Tan, Huang, et al., 2023; Tan, Lim, et al., 2023; Tan, Ransangan, et al., 2023; Yan et al., 2024) and bioactive compounds that have multiple beneficial health effects (Tan, Lu, et al., 2023). Unlike finfish, bivalves such as mussels, oysters, clams, and scallops are often eaten together with their gills and digestive tract (main organs where MP accumulate), increasing the exposure of consumers to MPs through the food chain (Farrell & Nelson, 2013; Watts et al., 2014).

MPs in bivalves were recently reviewed by Wang, Mou, et al. (2021) and Ding et al. (2022). However, these reviews mainly focus on methods for the extraction and detection of microplastic in bivalves. There is very little information on the status of microplastic pollution in marine bivalves. In this context, this article provides an overview of the latest status of MP pollution in marine bivalves and reviews the impact of MP pollution on the physiology and immunology of marine bivalves. The

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information in this article not only fills the knowledge gap on the status of MP pollution in marine bivalves and the impact of microplastic pollution on marine bivalves but also provides guidance for the development of aquaculture and fisheries management plans for implementation in commercial fisheries and natural conservation.

2. Literature search and data collection

Scientific articles were gathered from Google Scholar, Web of Science, and PubMed (up to July 2024) using a combination of the following keywords: “microplastics”, “bivalves”, “physiology”, “immunology” and “reproduction”. To ensure thorough coverage, relevant articles from the reference lists of each retrieved article were downloaded. This process was repeated until no additional articles were identified. In total, 1620 articles were retrieved from the literature search.

The obtained articles were further screened to identify those describing MPs in marine bivalves or the effects of MPs on marine bivalves. After screening, only 650 articles met the criteria, with 75% of the articles published in the past 5 years (2020 and onward) (Fig. 1). The keywords of publications related to MPs in marine bivalves were analyzed using VOSviewer and are illustrated in Fig. 2. In general, most publications related to MPs in marine bivalves focus on environmental monitoring, ecosystems and seafood.

3. Status of microplastic pollution

Plastics are artificial hydrocarbon polymeric materials that are highly stable, durable, inexpensive, and lightweight. Since the 1950s, plastics have been increasingly used in our daily lives (Carpenter & Smith, 1972). The annual production of plastics has substantially increased from 1.5 million tons in 1950 to 240–280 million tons in 2008 and onward. In 2018, the total annual production of plastics was 360 million tons, with China being the largest producer of plastic materials (26%), followed by Europe (20%) and NAFTA (North American Free Trade Agreement) countries (19%). Plastic production is expected to grow, reaching 1.1 billion tons by 2050 (Geyer, 2020). Since about 40% of plastic production is used in single-use packaging (e.g. food and industrial packaging materials), the increase in plastic production and

usage has drawn public attention, and is considered to be beyond the safe planetary boundaries (Persson et al., 2022).

Over the past few decades, due to poor management of plastic waste, a huge amount of plastic waste has been deposited into the ocean, in which plastic wastes in the ocean mainly comes from various anthropogenic activities, including fisheries, shipping, agriculture, tourism, industries etc. (Naji et al., 2017; Robin et al., 2020). To date, it is estimated that the amount of plastic particles floating on the ocean surface is about 50–75 trillion plastics, weighting 75–199 million tons, with 8–10 million tones of plastic entering the ocean every year. Asia is the main source (80%) of marine plastic pollution, with the Philippines is the main contributor (36.4%), followed by India (12.9%), Malaysia (7.5%), China (7.2%) and Indonesia (5.8%) (Meijer et al., 2021). About 10% of this plastic waste deposited in the oceans is degraded by mechanical abrasion, microorganisms, and/or sunlight into MP,s which are defined as plastic particles with a diameter smaller than 5 mm (Arthur et al., 2009; Fu et al., 2020). In addition, some plastics in the ocean are directly deposited as MPs from electronic equipments, cosmetic products, synthetic textiles, etc. These MPs are distributed throughout water column and sediments, with the highest accumulation in ocean gyres, fjords, estuaries, bays and coastlines (Wessel et al., 2016). It is estimated that the amount of MPs floating on the ocean surface is about 171 trillion particles, weighting 2.3 million tones, accounting for about 85% of the total marine debris (Eriksen et al., 2023).

Based on shape, MPs can be classified into fragments, fibres, filaments, pellets, flakes, and foams, with fibres accounting for more than half of the total MPs (Wang, Wu, et al., 2021). Pakhomova et al. (2022) studied the microplastic variability in subsurface water from the Arctic East-Siberian Sea, across the Atlantic Ocean, and into the Antarctic Peninsula. The results revealed that the abundance of MP fibres in the Northern Hemisphere was significantly higher (about 2 fold) than that in the Southern Hemisphere, consistent with the distribution of the global human population. In the Northern Hemisphere, the weight concentrations of MPs are highest in the Barents Sea and the Central Atlantic ($7\text{--}7.5 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$), which is >10 fold higher than in other areas such as the Siberian Arctic and North Atlantic ($0.6 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$). Major MP polymers in the ocean include polyethylene terephthalate (PET), polystyrene (PS), polypropylene (PP), polyethylene (PE), and polyvinylchloride (PVC), which are also the most produced plastics (accounting for about 90% of

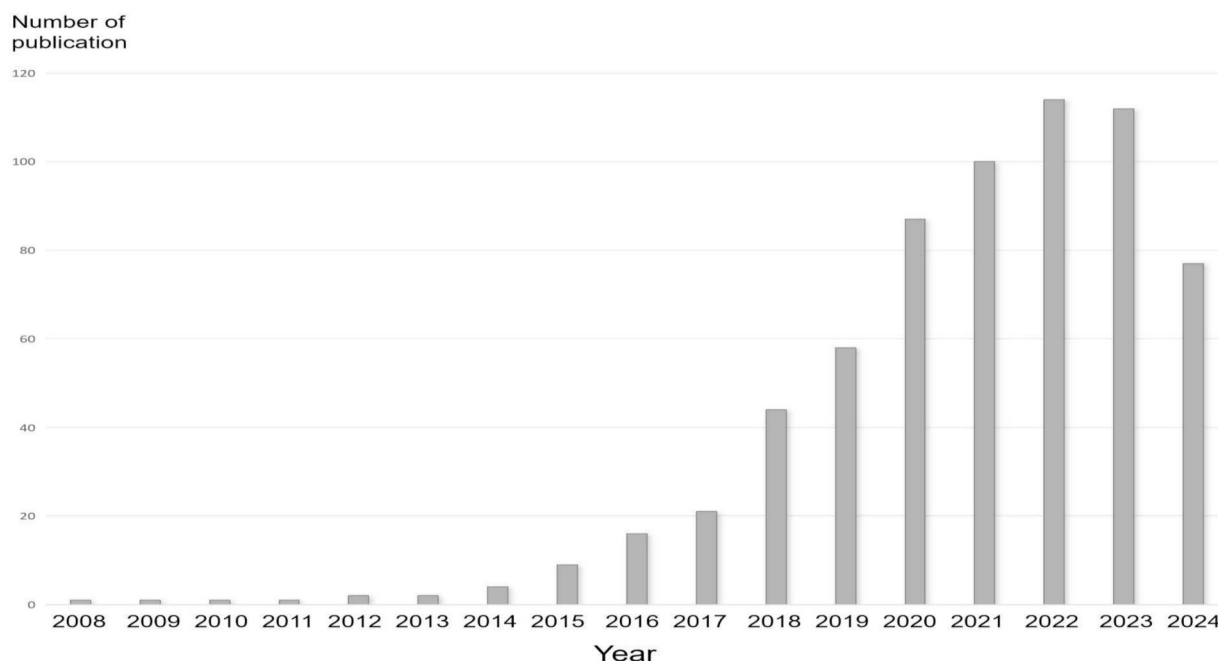


Fig. 1. number of publications related to microplastics and bivalves from year 2008 to 2024 (up to July 2024).

Table 1
Status of microplastic pollution in marine bivalves.

Species	Wild/ farmed	Bivalve size (cm)	Extraction method	Major type of microplastics	Polymer types	Concentration (per ind)	Concentration (per g)	Location	References
Mussels									
<i>Perna perna</i>	Wild	4.75 to 6.16	10%KOH	Fibres	Polymethyl methacrylate	–	0.80 to 28.10	Estuarine system of Brazil	Ribeiro et al., 2023
<i>Perna viridis</i>	Wild	2.00 to 9.00	30%H2O2	Fibres	PET	0.15 to 0.22	–	Sri Racha Bay, Thailand	Phaksopa et al., 2023
<i>Perna viridis</i>	Wild	5.29 ± 0.48	10% KOH	Fibres	Polyamides	1.31	–	Pasir Putih Estuary, Malaysia	Zahid et al., 2022
<i>Perna viridis</i>	Wild	6.54 ± 0.29	10% KOH	Fibres	Polyamides	1.05	–	Pasir Putih Estuary, Malaysia	Zahid et al., 2022
<i>Perna viridis</i>	Wild	7.62 ± 0.40	10% KOH	Fibres	Polyamides	0.79	–	Pasir Putih Estuary, Malaysia	Zahid et al., 2022
<i>Perna viridis</i>	Wild	–	10% KOH	Fragment	PET and PP	2.23 ± 1.04	0.4 ± 0.24	Pasir Putih Estuary, Malaysia	Zin et al., 2022
<i>Perna viridis</i>	Farmed	–	10% KOH	Fragment	PET and PP	1.29 ± 1.19	0.44 ± 0.34	Pasir Putih Estuary, Malaysia	Zin et al., 2022
<i>Perna viridis</i>	Wild	8.28 ± 0.82	10% KOH	Fiber	–	3.43 ± 0.21	–	Badon Bay, Thailand	Ruairuen et al., 2022
<i>Perna viridis</i>	Wild	8.30 ± 0.86	10% KOH	Fiber	–	0.75 ± 0.09	–	Badon Bay, Thailand	Ruairuen et al., 2022
<i>Perna viridis</i>	Wild	8.15 ± 0.80	10% KOH	Fiber	–	0.92 ± 0.23	–	Badon Bay, Thailand	Ruairuen et al., 2022
<i>Perna viridis</i>	Wild	8.70 ± 0.73	10% KOH	Fiber	–	0.75 ± 0.12	–	Badon Bay, Thailand	Ruairuen et al., 2022
<i>Perna viridis</i>	Wild	8.77 ± 0.97	10% KOH	Fiber	–	0.65 ± 0.13	–	Badon Bay, Thailand	Ruairuen et al., 2022
<i>Perna perna</i>	Wild	–	10% KOH	Fiber	–	8.30 ± 1.00	1.40 ± 0.30	Espirito Santo, Brazil	Bom et al., 2022
<i>Perna viridis</i>	Farmed	9.39 ± 6.42	30%H2O2	Filament	Polyester	8.40 ± 3.50	–	Koh Phee Canal, Thailand	Cherdasukjai et al., 2022
<i>Perna viridis</i>	Farmed	9.68 ± 5.69	30%H2O2	Filament	Polyester	5.50 ± 2.50	–	Koh Phee Canal, Thailand	Cherdasukjai et al., 2022
<i>Perna viridis</i>	Farmed	10.03 ± 3.58	30%H2O2	Filament	Polyester	6.10 ± 3.50	–	Koh Phee Canal, Thailand	Cherdasukjai et al., 2022
<i>Mytilus galloprovincialis</i>	Wild	5.57 ± 1.18	10% KOH	Fibres	Polyester and PET	0.45 ± 0.67	0.18 ± 0.31	Coast of Portugal	Pequeno et al., 2021
<i>Perna viridis</i>	Farmed	5.16 ± 0.92	30%H2O2	Fibres	–	–	0.41	Inner Bacoor Bay, Philippines	Bilugan et al., 2021
<i>Perna viridis</i>	Farmed	5.39 ± 0.9	30%H2O2	Fibres	–	–	0.40	Middle Bacoor Bay, Philippines	Bilugan et al., 2021
<i>Perna viridis</i>	Farmed	5.43 ± 1.46	30%H2O2	Fibres	–	–	0.27	Outer Bacoor Bay, Philippines	Bilugan et al., 2021
<i>Mytilus spp.</i>	Wild	5.40 to 5.90	10%KOH	Fibres	PP	–	0.54 to 3.0	Portuguese coast	Marques et al., 2021
<i>Perna viridis</i>	Wild	7.74 ± 0.07	30%H2O2	Fibres	Royan, PP and PET	5.70 ± 0.49	0.86 ± 0.08	Bandon Bay, Thailand	Chinfak et al., 2021
<i>Perna viridis</i>	Wild	10.49 ± 0.07	30%H2O2	Fibres	Royan, PP and PET	1.77 ± 0.30	0.14 ± 0.02	Bandon Bay, Thailand	Chinfak et al., 2021
<i>Mytilus galloprovincialis</i>	Farmed	–	10%KOH	Fibres	Rayon	0.80 to 2.10	1.60 to 2.60	Qingdao, China	Ding et al., 2021
<i>Mytilus edulis</i>	Farmed	5.77 ± 0.5	10% KOH	Fragment, fiber	PS	–	0.41 to 2.76	Marine coastal, France	Kazour & Amara, 2020
<i>Mytilus edulis</i>	Wild	–	Lipase, protease	Fragment, fiber	PET	–	1.43 ± 1.45	Southern part of South Korea	Jang et al., 2020
<i>Mytilus galloprovincialis</i>	Wild	–	30%H2O2	Fragment	PET	0.60	2.30	Turkish coasts	Gedik & Eryasar, 2020
<i>Mytilus edulis</i>	Wild	–	30% H 2 O2	–	–	9.88	–	Southern Gulf of St. Lawrence	McGrath, 2020
<i>Mytilus galloprovincialis</i>	Wild	–	1 M KOH	Fragment	Polyester	0.25 ± 0.12	–	Italy	Piarulli et al., 2020
<i>Perna viridis</i>	Wild	–	10% KOH	–	–	3.28 ± 0.87	1.8 ± 0.54	India	Dowarah et al., 2020
<i>Mytilus galloprovincialis</i>	Wild	–	10%KOH	Fibres	–	2.80	3.40	Cape Town, South Africa	Sparks, 2020
<i>Choromytilus meridionalis</i>	Wild	–	10%KOH	Fibres	–	1.80	5.60	Cape Town, South Africa	Sparks, 2020
<i>Aulacomya ater</i>	Wild	–	10%KOH	Fibres	–	2.30	2.90	Cape Town, South Africa	Sparks, 2020
<i>Mytilus edulis</i>	Wild	4.16 ± 1.27	10%KOH	Fibres	PP and PET	1.43 to 7.64	–	South West of England	Scott et al., 2019

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Table 1 (continued)

Species	Wild/ farmed	Bivalve size (cm)	Extraction method	Major type of microplastics	Polymer types	Concentration (per ind)	Concentration (per g)	Location	References
<i>Perna perna</i>	Wild	4.67 ± 0.51	30% H 2 O2	Fibres	Polyamide	31.20 ± 17.80	–	Guanabara Bay, Brazil	Brinstiel et al., 2019
<i>Perna perna</i>	Farmed	4.67 ± 0.51	30% H 2 O2	Fibres	Polyamide	25.00 ± 13.00	–	Guanabara Bay, Brazil	Brinstiel et al., 2019
<i>Perna perna</i>	Wild	>8.00	10%KOH	–	PP	2.60 ± 1.14	0.29 ± 0.14	Tinh Gia, Vietnam	Nam et al., 2019
<i>Perna canaliculus</i>	Wild	–	Concentrated HNO3	Fragment	PET	0.20 ± 0.20	0.00 to 0.48	New Zealand	Webb et al., 2019
<i>Mytilus edulis</i>	–	8.95 ± 0.39	10% KOH	Fiber	PET and Polyacrylonitrile	1.40 ± 0.30	0.10 ± 0.03	Fuzhou, China	Fang et al., 2019
<i>Perna viridis</i>	–	7.93 ± 0.48	10% KOH	Fiber	PET	1.40 ± 0.30	0.30 ± 0.10	Xiamen, China	Fang et al., 2019
<i>Mytilus spp.</i>	Wild	–	10%KOH	Fibres	–	2.81 ± 2.80	2.55 ± 2.80	Cantabrian Sea, Spain	Reguera et al., 2019
<i>Mytilus spp.</i>	Wild	–	10%KOH	Fibres	–	2.19 ± 1.57	1.59 ± 1.28	Ria of Vigo, Spain	Reguera et al., 2019
<i>Mytilus galloprovincialis</i>	–	6.29 ± 0.28	10%KOH	Fiber	PET and PP	–	0.80 ± 0.01	Bizerte, Tunisia	Abidli et al., 2019
<i>Mytilus edulis</i>	Farmed	–	10%KOH	Fragment	Acrylic and PP	0.68	0.12	South Korea	Cho et al., 2019
<i>Mytilus edulis</i>	Wild	4.73 ± 0.12	10%KOH	Fiber	PET	0.76 ± 0.40	0.15 ± 0.06	Channel coastline, France	Hermabessiere et al., 2019
<i>Mytilus spp.</i>	Wild	2.00 to 8.90	10%KOH	Fiber	Cellulosic	1.50 ± 2.30	0.97 ± 2.61	Norwegian coas	Brate et al., 2018
<i>Mytilus galloprovincialis</i>	Farmed	5.84 ± 0.35	10% KOH	Fiber and fragment	PP	1.90	3.17	Qingdao and Dongying, China	Ding et al., 2018
<i>Mytilus galloprovincialis</i>	Wild	3.96 ± 0.23	10% KOH	Fiber and fragment	Cellophane	0.53	2.00	Qingdao and Dongying, China	Ding et al., 2018
<i>Mytilus galloprovincialis</i>	Wild	1.24 ± 0.14	30% H 2 O2	Filament, fragment	–	–	0.05	Gulf of La Spezia, Italy	Bonello et al., 2018
<i>Perna viridis</i>	Wild	4.00 to 5.00	30%H2O2	–	–	–	20.00	Java Sea	Khoironi & Anggoro, 2018
<i>Perna viridis</i>	Wild	4.00 to 5.00	30%H2O2	–	–	–	8.00	Java Sea	Khoironi & Anggoro, 2018
<i>Perna viridis</i>	Wild	4.00 to 5.00	30%H2O2	–	–	–	4.00	Java Sea	Khoironi & Anggoro, 2018
<i>Mytilus trossulus</i>	Wild	2.00 to 3.00	Enzyme	Fiber	–	0.04 ± 0.19	0.26 ± 1.3	Baltic Sea, UK	Railo et al., 2018
<i>Mytilus edulis</i>	Wild	–	30%H2O2	Fiber	Polyester	3.23 ± 0.95	2.17 ± 0.62	Yantai, China	Qu et al., 2018
<i>Mytilus edulis</i>	Wild	–	30%H2O2	Fiber	Polyester	1.60 ± 0.43	2.18 ± 0.85	Qingdao, China	Qu et al., 2018
<i>Mytilus edulis</i>	Wild	–	30%H2O2	Fiber	Polyester	5.00 ± 2.03	3.18 ± 1.26	Zhoushan, China	Qu et al., 2018
<i>Perna viridis</i>	Wild	–	30%H2O2	Fiber	Polyester	3.17 ± 0.85	2.33 ± 1.04	Xiamen, China	Qu et al., 2018
<i>Perna viridis</i>	Wild	–	30%H2O2	Fiber	Polyester	4.13 ± 0.30	2.45 ± 0.55	Shenzhen, China	Qu et al., 2018
<i>Perna viridis</i>	Wild	–	30%H2O2	Fiber	Polyester	4.93 ± 1.49	3.15 ± 1.07	Qingzhou, China	Qu et al., 2018
<i>Mytilus spp.</i>	Wild	5.20 ± 1.50	10%KOH	Fiber	PET	1.50	0.97	Norway	Bråte et al., 2018
<i>Mytilus galloprovincialis</i>	Farmed	6.50	30%H2O2	Filament	–	12.40	9.20	Cesenatico, Italy	Renzi et al., 2018
<i>Mytilus galloprovincialis</i>	Farmed	5.00	30%H2O2	Filament	–	6.20	11.40	La Spezia, Italy	Renzi et al., 2018
<i>Mytilus galloprovincialis</i>	Farmed	6.00	30%H2O2	Filament	–	3.60	4.40	Olbia, Italy	Renzi et al., 2018
<i>Mytilus galloprovincialis</i>	Wild	4.50	30%H2O2	Filament	–	3.00	7.20	Talamone, Italy	Renzi et al., 2018
<i>Mytilus sp.</i>	Wild	4.00 ± 0.27	30%H2O2	–	–	3.2 ± 0.52	3.0 ± 0.9	Scotland, UK	Catarino et al., 2018
<i>Modiolus modiolus</i>	Wild	9.20 ± 0.22	30%H2O2	–	–	3.5 ± 1.29	0.086 ± 0.031	Scotland, UK	Catarino et al., 2018
<i>Mytilus edulis</i>	Wild	–	30%H2O2	Fiber	–	1.10–6.40	0.70–2.90	United Kingdom	Li, Green, et al., 2018
<i>Mytilus edulis</i>	Farmed	–	30%H2O2	Fiber	–	5.50	0.90	United Kingdom	Li, Green, et al., 2018
<i>Mytilus galloprovincialis</i>	Wild	4.67 ± 0.72	30%H2O2	Fragment	PET	0.80 ± 0.20	5.30 ± 0.50	Greece	Digka et al., 2018
<i>Mytilus edulis</i>	–	–	HNO3	Pellet	–	–	138.00	–	Murphy, 2018
<i>Perna perna</i>	–	–	HNO3	Pellet	–	–	77.12	–	Murphy, 2018
<i>Mytilus edulis</i>	Wild	–	10%KOH	Fragment	PET and PP	0.61 ± 0.56	–	French Atlantic coasts	Phuong et al., 2018a
<i>Mytilus edulis</i>	–	–	Enzyme	Fiber	–	–	1.05–4.44	UK	Courteney-Jones et al., 2017

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Table 1 (continued)

Species	Wild/ farmed	Bivalve size (cm)	Extraction method	Major type of microplastics	Polymer types	Concentration (per ind)	Concentration (per g)	Location	References
<i>Perna perna</i>	Wild	4.30 ± 0.99	69%HNO3	Fibres	–	Present	Present	Santos estuary, Brazil	Santana et al., 2016
<i>Mytilus edulis</i>	Wild	–	30%H2O2	Fiber	–	2.70	4.60	China	Li et al., 2016
<i>Mytilus edulis</i>	Farmed	–	30%H2O2	Fiber	–	1.60	3.30	China	Li et al., 2016
<i>Mytilus galloprovincialis</i>	Farmed	4.65 ± 0.25	30%H2O2	Fiber and fragment	–	5.00	2.50 ± 1.50	Shanghai, China	Li et al., 2015
<i>Mytilus galloprovincialis</i>	Wild	4.80 to 7.10	69% HNO3	Fiber, particle	–	–	0.12 ± 0.04	Italy, Portugal, Spain	Vandermeersch et al., 2015
<i>Mytilus edulis</i>	Wild	4.00 to 4.50	69%HNO3	–	–	–	0.20 ± 0.30	French, Belgian and Dutch North Sea coast	Van Cauwenbergh et al., 2015
<i>Mytilus edulis</i>	Farmed	5.20 ± 0.40	69%HNO3	Particles	–	–	0.36 ± 0.07	North Sea, German	Van Cauwenbergh & Janssen, 2014
<i>Mytilus edulis</i>	Farmed	7.00	30%H2O2	Fibres	–	178.00	–	Nova Scotia's Eastern Shore	Mathalon & Hill, 2014
<i>Mytilus edulis</i>	Wild	7.00	30%H2O2	Fibres	–	126.00	–	Nova Scotia's Eastern Shore	Mathalon & Hill, 2014
Species	Wild/ farmed	Bivalve size (cm)	Extraction method	Major type of microplastics	Polymer types	Concentration (per ind)	Concentration (per g)	Location	References
Oysters									
<i>Crassostrea virginica</i>	Wild	6.50 to 8.80	10% KOH	Fragment	PET, PS, and PP	0.13	0.01	New York	Minder et al., 2023
<i>Crassostrea brasiliana</i>	Wild	5.70 to 6.60	10%KOH	Fibres	Polymethyl methacrylate	–	0.80 to 44.10	estuary system in Brazil	Ribeiro et al., 2023
<i>Crassostrea tulipa</i>	Wild	4.60 to 10.60	10%KOH	Fibres	PET	1.40 to 3.40	0.34 to 1.70	Gulf of Guinea, Ghana	Addo et al., 2022
<i>Crassostrea gigas</i>	Farmed	–	10%KOH	Fibres	Polyester and PVC	1.20 to 3.30	0.30 to 3.00	Qingdao, China	Ding et al., 2021
<i>Crassostrea gigas</i>	Farmed	–	30% H 2 O2	Fiber, shard, irregular, spheroid	–	0.69 to 3.00	0.02 to 0.30	Salish Sea, USA	Martinelli et al., 2020
<i>Ostrea denselamellosa</i>	Farmed	–	10% KOH, 30%H 2 O 2	Fiber	Cellulose and PP	1.67 ± 0.44	0.31 ± 0.10	Xiangshan Bay, China	Wu et al., 2020
<i>Crassostrea virginica</i>	Wild	–	30% H 2 O2	–	–	8.75	–	Southern Gulf of St. Lawrence	McGrath, 2020
<i>Crassostrea gigas</i>	Wild	12.54	10% KOH	Fiber	–	10.95 ± 0.77	0.35 ± 0.04	Oregon, USA	Baechler et al., 2020
<i>Magallana bilineata</i>	Wild	2.00 to 16.00	10% KOH	Fiber	PET and PP	6.90 ± 3.80	0.81 ± 0.45	Gulf of Mannar, India	Patterson et al., 2019
<i>Crassostrea gigas</i>	Farmed	10.65 ± 1.36	10% KOH	Fiber, fragment, spherule	–	0.22 ± 0.28	0.04 ± 0.06 (items/g. dw)	Canada	Covernton et al., 2019
<i>Crassostrea gigas</i>	Wild	–	Lipase, protease	Fragment, fiber	PET	–	1.13 ± 0.84	Southern part of South Korea	Jang et al., 2020
<i>Crassostrea hongkongensis</i>	Wild	–	10%KOH	Fiber, flake, foam, fragment	Rayon and polyester	4.70 ± 0.30	0.80 ± 0.20	Maowei Sea, China	Zhu et al., 2019
<i>Crassostrea spp.</i>	Farmed	6.12 ± 0.97	10%KOH	Fibres	PET	1.52 ± 1.06	0.26 ± 0.29	Dandong, China	Teng et al., 2019
<i>Crassostrea spp.</i>	Farmed	9.88 ± 0.68	10%KOH	Fibres	PET	4.12 ± 6.05	0.83 ± 1.29	Dalian, China	Teng et al., 2019
<i>Crassostrea spp.</i>	Farmed	11.26 ± 1.31	10%KOH	Fibres	PET	1.95 ± 1.84	0.14 ± 0.16	Jinzhou, China	Teng et al., 2019
<i>Crassostrea spp.</i>	Farmed	8.20 ± 0.90	10%KOH	Fibres	PET	4.00 ± 2.25	0.33 ± 0.21	Qinhuangdao, China	Teng et al., 2019
<i>Crassostrea spp.</i>	Farmed	9.43 ± 2.59	10%KOH	Fibres	PET	1.46 ± 1.41	0.19 ± 0.22	Tianjin, China	Teng et al., 2019
<i>Crassostrea spp.</i>	Farmed	6.94 ± 1.10	10%KOH	Fibres	PET	1.67 ± 1.24	0.21 ± 0.20	Changdao, China	Teng et al., 2019
<i>Crassostrea spp.</i>	Farmed	5.80 ± 0.99	10%KOH	Fibres	PET	1.96 ± 1.43	0.42 ± 0.40	Qingdao, China	Teng et al., 2019
<i>Crassostrea spp.</i>	Farmed	8.61 ± 0.94	10%KOH	Fibres	PET	2.63 ± 2.28	0.25 ± 0.24	Lianyungang, China	Teng et al., 2019
<i>Crassostrea spp.</i>	Farmed	4.45 ± 1.33	10%KOH	Fibres	PET	1.67 ± 1.17	0.77 ± 0.91	Nantong, China	Teng et al., 2019
<i>Crassostrea spp.</i>	Farmed	–	10%KOH	Fibres	PET	1.50 ± 1.25	0.19 ± 0.19	Ningbo, China	Teng et al., 2019
<i>Crassostrea spp.</i>	Farmed	4.50 ± 0.91	10%KOH	Fibres	PET	3.12 ± 2.33	1.32 ± 1.22	Wenzhou, China	Teng et al., 2019
<i>Crassostrea spp.</i>	Farmed	5.91 ± 0.55	10%KOH	Fibres	PET	5.19 ± 2.59	1.42 ± 0.68	Putian, China	Teng et al., 2019
<i>Crassostrea spp.</i>	Farmed	4.44 ± 0.67	10%KOH	Fibres	PET	5.63 ± 2.45	2.35 ± 1.39	Xiamen, China	Teng et al., 2019
<i>Crassostrea spp.</i>	Farmed	8.24 ± 0.71	10%KOH	Fibres	PET	1.05 ± 1.03	0.12 ± 0.11	Shantou, China	Teng et al., 2019

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Table 1 (continued)

Species	Wild/ farmed	Bivalve size (cm)	Extraction method	Major type of microplastics	Polymer types	Concentration (per ind)	Concentration (per g)	Location	References
<i>Crassostrea</i> spp.	Farmed	6.74 ± 0.87	10%KOH	Fibres	PET	9.08 ± 5.70	1.00 ± 0.72	Shenzhen, China	Teng et al., 2019
<i>Crassostrea</i> spp.	Farmed	10.02 ± 1.07	10%KOH	Fibres	PET	1.50 ± 1.22	0.11 ± 0.10	Zhanjiang, China	Teng et al., 2019
<i>Crassostrea</i> spp.	Farmed	4.67 ± 0.90	10%KOH	Fibres	PET	1.84 ± 1.75	0.70 ± 1.05	Beihai, China	Teng et al., 2019
<i>Crassostrea gigas</i>	–	8.68 ± 0.14	10%KOH	Fiber	PET	–	1.48 ± 0.02	Bizerte, Tunisia	Abidli et al., 2019
<i>Crassostrea gigas</i>	Farmed	–	10%KOH	Fragment	Acrylic and PET	0.77	0.07	South Korea	Cho et al., 2019
<i>Crassostrea virginica</i>	Wild	6.33 ± 1.74	30%H2O2	Fiber	PET	16.50	3.84 ± 3.39	Florida estuary	Waite et al., 2018
<i>Crassostrea gigas</i>	Wild	8.30 ± 0.45	30% H 2 O2	Filament, fragment	–	–	0.11	Gulf of La Spezia, Italy	Bonello et al., 2018
<i>Saccostrea cucullata</i>	Wild	–	10%KOH	Fiber	PET	1.4–70	1.50 to 7.20	Pearl River Delta, China	Li et al., 2018b
<i>Crassostrea gigas</i>	–	–	HNO3	Pellet	–	–	39.20	–	Murphy, 2018
<i>Pinctada radiata</i>	–	6.90 ± 0.65	30%H2O2	Fiber	PET, PS and nylon	3.9 ± 0.8	0.10	Bandar lengeh, Persian Gulf	Naji et al., 2018
<i>Saccostrea forskalii</i>	Wild	–	69%HNO3	Fiber	Polyamide Nylon	–	0.37–0.57	Chonburi, Thailand	Thushari et al., 2017
<i>Crassostrea gigas</i>	Wild	–	10%KOH	Fragment	PET and PP	2.10 ± 1.70	–	French Atlantic coasts	Phuong et al., 2018a
<i>Alectryonella plicatula</i>	Farmed	8.40 ± 0.58	30%H2O2	Pellet and fiber	–	10.00	6.00 ± 1.50	Shanghai, China	Li et al., 2015
<i>Crassostrea gigas</i>	Farmed	–	10%KOH	Fibres	–	0.60 ± 0.90	–	Half Moon Bay, California, USA	Rochman et al., 2015
<i>Crassostrea gigas</i>	Farmed	9.00 ± 0.50	69%HNO3	Particles	–	–	0.47 ± 0.16	Brittany, France	Van Cauwenberghé & Janssen, 2014
Species	Wild/ farmed	Bivalve size (cm)	Extraction method	Major type of microplastics	Polymer types	Concentration (per ind)	Concentration (per g)	Location	References
Clams									
<i>Mercenaria mercenaria</i>	Wild	6.50 to 8.80	10% KOH	–	–	undetectable	undetectable	New York	Minder et al., 2023
<i>Anomalocardia flexuosa</i>	Wild	2.54 ± 0.31	10% KOH	Fiber	Polyolefins	0.79 ± 0.90	1.20 ± 2.00	Hong Kong	Lam et al., 2023
<i>Anomalocardia squamosa</i>	Wild	2.63 ± 0.28	10% KOH	Film	Polyolefins	1.89 ± 2.93	1.51 ± 1.71	Hong Kong	Lam et al., 2023
<i>Atactodea striata</i>	Wild	3.19 ± 0.18	10% KOH	Fiber	Polyolefins	0.90 ± 0.30	0.80 ± 2.0	Hong Kong	Lam et al., 2023
<i>Meretrix lyrata</i>	Wild	3.18 ± 0.42	10% KOH	Fiber	Polyolefins	0.79 ± 0.90	0.80 ± 1.10	Hong Kong	Lam et al., 2023
<i>Venerupis philippinarum</i>	Wild	2.89 ± 0.21	10% KOH	Fiber	Polyolefins	0.79 ± 0.90	1.30 ± 1.50	Hong Kong	Lam et al., 2023
<i>Meretrix lyrata</i>	Wild	3.60 ± 0.40	10% KOH	Fiber	Polyester, PET and PP	12.73 ± 4.49	4.71 ± 2.15	Han River Estuary, Vietnam	Tran-Nguyen et al., 2023
<i>Meretrix lyrata</i>	Wild	3.80 ± 0.40	10% KOH	Fiber	Polyester, PET and PP	13.20 ± 7.66	5.36 ± 2.69	Cu De River Estuary, Vietnam	Tran-Nguyen et al., 2023
<i>Paratapes undulatus</i>	Wild	3.80 ± 0.50	10% KOH	Fiber	Polyester, PET and PP	3.43 ± 0.98	2.17 ± 0.43	Han River Estuary, Vietnam	Tran-Nguyen et al., 2023
<i>Paratapes undulatus</i>	Wild	3.50 ± 0.70	10% KOH	Fiber	Polyester, PET and PP	3.30 ± 0.94	2.38 ± 1.28	Cu De River Estuary, Vietnam	Tran-Nguyen et al., 2023
<i>Ruditapes philippinarum</i>	Farmed	4.07 ± 0.40	10% KOH	Circularity	PS	2.70 ± 1.66	15.64 ± 9.25	South Korea	de Guzman et al., 2022
<i>Ruditapes philippinarum</i>	Farmed	5.12 ± 0.29	10% KOH	Circularity	PS	3.65 ± 1.95	41.63 ± 16.90	South Korea	de Guzman et al., 2022
<i>Meretrix lyrata</i>	Wild	2.00 to 6.00	10% KOH	Fiber	–	3.60 ± 2.10	2.70 ± 2.40	Ho Chi Minh, Vietnam	Kieu-Le et al., 2022
<i>Macra veneriformis</i>	Wild	3.29 ± 0.46	10% KOH	Fiber	Rayon	7.50 ± 4.00	2.50 ± 1.00	Nantong, China	Tang et al., 2022
<i>Macra veneriformis</i>	Wild	3.53 ± 0.25	10% KOH	Fiber	Rayon	5.50 ± 3.50	1.00 ± 0.50	Yancheng, China	Tang et al., 2022
<i>Macra veneriformis</i>	Wild	3.66 ± 0.30	10% KOH	Fiber	Rayon	8.50 ± 3.50	5.00 ± 4.00	Lianyungang, China	Tang et al., 2022
<i>Ruditapes philippinarum</i>	Wild	3.69 ± 0.21	10% KOH	Fiber	Rayon	4.50 ± 1.00	2.00 ± 0.60	Nantong, China	Tang et al., 2022
<i>Ruditapes philippinarum</i>	Wild	3.91 ± 0.43	10% KOH	Fiber	Rayon	5.00 ± 1.00	2.10 ± 0.50	Yancheng, China	Tang et al., 2022

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Table 1 (continued)

Species	Wild/ farmed	Bivalve size (cm)	Extraction method	Major type of microplastics	Polymer types	Concentration (per ind)	Concentration (per g)	Location	References
<i>Ruditapes philippinarum</i>	Wild	3.72 ± 0.20	10% KOH	Fiber	Rayon	7.00 ± 1.50	4.00 ± 1.50	Lianyungang, China	Tang et al., 2022
<i>Meretrix pethechialis</i>	Wild	3.98 ± 0.58	10% KOH	Fiber	Rayon	4.50 ± 2.00	0.80 ± 0.50	Nantong, China	Tang et al., 2022
<i>Meretrix pethechialis</i>	Wild	4.39 ± 0.43	10% KOH	Fiber	Rayon	4.40 ± 2.00	0.50 ± 0.30	Yancheng, China	Tang et al., 2022
<i>Meretrix pethechialis</i>	Wild	4.41 ± 0.47	10% KOH	Fiber	Rayon	7.30 ± 2.50	4.00 ± 3.50	Lianyungang, China	Tang et al., 2022
<i>Cyclina sinensis</i>	Wild	4.09 ± 0.76	10% KOH	Fiber	Rayon	4.50 ± 1.50	0.50 ± 0.10	Nantong, China	Tang et al., 2022
<i>Cyclina sinensis</i>	Wild	4.01 ± 0.73	10% KOH	Fiber	Rayon	4.30 ± 1.00	0.60 ± 0.10	Yancheng, China	Tang et al., 2022
<i>Cyclina sinensis</i>	Wild	3.99 ± 0.73	10% KOH	Fiber	Rayon	6.00 ± 2.00	1.50 ± 0.30	Lianyungang, China	Tang et al., 2022
<i>Katelysia hiantina</i>	Wild	–	69% HNO ₃	Filament/fiber	PP and rayon	5.89 ± 4.23	–	Panguil Bay, Philippines	Bonifacio et al., 2022
<i>Meretrix meretrix</i>	Wild	–	69% HNO ₃	Filament/fiber	PP and rayon	4.16 ± 2.86	–	Panguil Bay, Philippines	Bonifacio et al., 2022
<i>Donax sp.</i>	Wild	–	69% HNO ₃	Filament/fiber	Polypropylene and rayon	2.41 ± 1.47	–	Panguil Bay, Philippines	Bonifacio et al., 2022
<i>Scrobicularia plana</i>	Wild	4.50 ± 0.33	10% KOH	Fiber	Polyester and PP	0.30 ± 0.63	0.07 ± 0.15	Coast of Portugal	Pequeno et al., 2021
<i>Meretrix meretrix</i>	Wild	2.75 to 3.4	10% KOH	Fiber and fragmen	–	–	4.60	Lemo Beach, South Sulawesi	Tamrin et al., 2021
<i>Meretrix meretrix</i>	Wild	3.41 to 4.21	10% KOH	Fiber and fragmen	–	–	2.46	Lemo Beach, South Sulawesi	Tamrin et al., 2021
<i>Meretrix meretrix</i>	Wild	4.22 to 5.24	10% KOH	Fiber and fragmen	–	–	1.53	Lemo Beach, South Sulawesi	Tamrin et al., 2021
<i>Hiatella arctica</i>	Wild	2.36 ± 0.21	30% H ₂ O ₂	Fragment	PET	8.10 ± 1.80	–	Spitsbergen, Svalbard archipelago	Teichert et al., 2021
<i>Ruditapes philippinarum</i>	Farmed	–	10% KOH	Fibres	Polyester and PVC	1.20 to 3.20	4.50 to 20.10	Qingdao, China	Ding et al., 2021
<i>Polititapes spp.</i>	–	–	10% KOH	Fiber	PP and PS	–	10.40	Ria Formosa lagoon, southern Portugal	Cozzolino et al., 2021
<i>Cerastoderma spp.</i>	–	–	10% KOH	Fiber	PP and PS	–	11.90	Ria Formosa lagoon, southern Portugal	Cozzolino et al., 2021
<i>Ruditapes decussatus</i>	–	–	10% KOH	Fiber	PP and PS	–	18.40	Ria Formosa lagoon, southern Portugal	Cozzolino et al., 2021
<i>Meretrix lyrata</i>	Wild	2.65 ± 0.03	30% H ₂ O ₂	Fibres	Royan, PP and PET	0.67 ± 0.15	0.28 ± 0.06	Bandon Bay, Thailand	Chinfak et al., 2021
<i>Meretrix lyrata</i>	Wild	4.81 ± 0.05	30% H ₂ O ₂	Fibres	Royan, PP and PET	0.23 ± 0.09	0.03 ± 0.01	Bandon Bay, Thailand	Chinfak et al., 2021
<i>Siliqua patula</i>	Wild	11.39	10% KOH	Fiber	–	8.84 ± 0.45	0.16 ± 0.02	Oregon, USA	Baechler et al., 2020
<i>Limecola balthica</i>	Wild	–	1 M KOH	Fiber	Polyester	0.03 ± 0.03	–	Italy	Piarulli et al., 2020
<i>Scrobicularia plana</i>	Wild	–	1 M KOH	Fiber	Polyacrylonitrile	0.05 ± 0.05	–	Italy	Piarulli et al., 2020
<i>Sinonovacula constricta</i>	Farmed	–	10% KOH, 30% H ₂ O ₂	Fiber	PP	1.80 ± 0.34	0.21 ± 0.05	Xiangshan Bay, China	Wu et al., 2020
<i>Meretrix meretrix</i>	Wild	–	10% KOH	–	–	0.50 ± 0.11	0.18 ± 0.04	India	Dowarah et al., 2020
<i>Donax cuneatus</i>	Wild	1.00 to 2.00	10% KOH	Fibres	PET	1.08 ± 0.61	1.38 ± 0.49	Gulf of Mannar, India	Sathish et al., 2020
<i>Donax cuneatus</i>	Wild	2.00 to 3.00	10% KOH	Fibres	PET	0.89 ± 0.68	0.75 ± 0.18	Gulf of Mannar, India	Sathish et al., 2020
<i>Donax cuneatus</i>	Wild	>3.00	10% KOH	Fibres	PET	0.96 ± 0.63	0.60 ± 0.18	Gulf of Mannar, India	Sathish et al., 2020
<i>Cyamiocardium denticulatum</i>	Wild	–	1% NaOH	–	Polyphthalamide and polyarylamide	0.50	0.10 (DW)	Ross Sea	Sfriso et al., 2020
<i>Thyasira debilis</i>	Wild	–	1% NaOH	–	Polyphthalamide and polyarylamide	2.50	0.50 to 2.00 (DW)	Ross Sea	Sfriso et al., 2020
<i>Meretrix meretrix</i>	Wild	4.09 ± 0.21	10% KOH	Fiber	PET and Polyacrylonitrile	1.20 ± 0.40	0.30 ± 0.10	Xiamen, China	Fang et al., 2019
<i>Meretrix meretrix</i>	Wild	4.20 ± 0.17	10% KOH	Fiber	Polyacrylonitrile	0.50 ± 0.10	0.15 ± 0.05	Fuzhou, China	Fang et al., 2019
<i>Venerupis philippinarum</i>	Farmed	3.74 ± 3.99	10% KOH	Fiber, fragment, spherule	–	0.16 ± 0.22	0.22 ± 0.31 (items/g dw)	Canada	Covert et al., 2019
<i>Siliqua radiata</i>	Wild	7.12 ± 0.92	30% H ₂ O ₂	Fiber	–	5.00 ± 4.00	–	Hat Laem Son, Thailand	Rangseethapanya et al., 2019
<i>Siliqua radiata</i>	Wild	6.28 ± 0.61	30% H ₂ O ₂	Fiber	–	8.00 ± 4.00	–	Hat Pakmeng, Thailand	Rangseethapanya et al., 2019
<i>Ruditapes decussatus</i>	–	2.51 ± 0.16	10% KOH	Fiber	Cellophane and PET	–	1.40 ± 0.20	Bizerte, Tunisia	Abidli et al., 2019
<i>Tapes philippinarum</i>	Farmed	–	10% KOH	Fragment	PET, PP and polyester	1.15	0.34	South Korea	Cho et al., 2019
<i>Anomia ephippium</i>	Wild	3.25 ± 0.54	30% H ₂ O ₂	Filament, fragment	–	–	0.12	Gulf of La Spezia, Italy	Bonello et al., 2018

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Table 1 (continued)

Species	Wild/ farmed	Bivalve size (cm)	Extraction method	Major type of microplastics	Polymer types	Concentration (per ind)	Concentration (per g)	Location	References
<i>Amiantis purpuratus</i>	–	4.40 ± 0.24	30%H2O2	Fiber	PET, PP and nylon	6.90 ± 1.90	1.50 ± 0.15	Gelkan, Persian Gulf	Naji et al., 2018
<i>Amiantis umbonella</i>	–	4.40 ± 0.24	30%H2O2	Fiber	PET, PP and nylon	7.10 ± 1.60	2.90 ± 0.20	Gelkan, Persian Gulf	Naji et al., 2018
<i>Venerupis philippinarum</i>	Wild	44.60 ± 5.20	HNO3	Fiber	–	–	0.90 ± 0.90	Baynes Sound, British Columbia	Davidson & Dudas, 2016
<i>Venerupis philippinarum</i>	Farmed	40.70 ± 2.80	HNO3	Fiber	–	–	1.70 ± 1.20	Baynes Sound, British Columbia	Davidson & Dudas, 2016
<i>Sinonovacula constricta</i>	Farmed	6.21 ± 0.45	30%H2O2	Fiber	–	15.00	2.00 ± 1.50	Shanghai, China	Li et al., 2015
<i>Ruditapes philippinarum</i>	Farmed	3.36 ± 0.21	30%H2O2	Fiber and pellet	–	7.00	2.50 ± 1.50	Shanghai, China	Li et al., 2015
<i>Meretrix lusoria</i>	Farmed	3.49 ± 0.18	30%H2O2	Fiber	–	10.00	4.50 ± 1.50	Shanghai, China	Li et al., 2015
<i>Cyclina sinensis</i>	Farmed	2.82 ± 0.16	30%H2O2	Fiber and fragment	–	5.00	4.00 ± 1.50	Shanghai, China	Li et al., 2015
Species	Wild/ farmed	Bivalve size (cm)	Extraction method	Major type of microplastics	Polymer types	Concentration (per ind)	Concentration (per g)	Location	References
Scallops									
<i>Chlamys farreri</i>	Farmed	–	10%KOH	Fibres	Rayon	0.50–2.90	0.40 to 3.40	Qingdao, China	Ding et al., 2021
<i>Argopecten purpuratus</i>	–	7.74 ± 0.23	10%KOH	Fibres	Polyester and PP	2.25 ± 0.54	0.13 ± 0.03	Lima, Peru	De-la-Torre et al., 2019
<i>Patinopecten yessoensis</i>	Farmed	–	10%KOH	Fragment	PS, Polyester and PP	1.21	0.08	South Korea	Cho et al., 2019
<i>Chlamys farreri</i>	Farmed	6.45 ± 0.24	10% KOH	Fiber and fragment	PP	5.20 to 19.40	3.20 to 7.10	Qingdao and Dongying, China	Ding et al., 2018
<i>Patinopecten yessoensis</i>	Farmed	8.92 ± 0.23	30%H2O2	Fibres	–	55.00	–	Shanghai, China	Li et al., 2015
Species	Wild/ farmed	Bivalve size (cm)	Extraction method	Major type of microplastics	Polymer types	Concentration (per ind)	Concentration (per g)	Location	References
Cockles									
<i>Gafrarium pectinatum</i>	Wild	2.39 ± 0.21	10% KOH	Fiber	Polyolefins	0.79 ± 0.90	1.45 ± 2.00	Hong Kong	Lam et al., 2023
<i>Tegillarca granosa</i>	Wild	4.53 ± 0.42	10% KOH	Fiber	–	2.14 ± 0.36	–	Badon Bay, Thailand	Ruairuen et al., 2022
<i>Tegillarca granosa</i>	Wild	3.94 ± 0.34	10% KOH	Fiber	–	0.29 ± 0.06	–	Badon Bay, Thailand	Ruairuen et al., 2022
<i>Tegillarca granosa</i>	Wild	4.14 ± 0.61	10% KOH	Fiber	–	0.33 ± 0.04	–	Badon Bay, Thailand	Ruairuen et al., 2022
<i>Tegillarca granosa</i>	Wild	4.03 ± 0.07	10% KOH	Fiber	–	0.28 ± 0.05	–	Badon Bay, Thailand	Ruairuen et al., 2022
<i>Tegillarca granosa</i>	Wild	4.74 ± 0.26	10% KOH	Fiber	–	0.36 ± 0.06	–	Badon Bay, Thailand	Ruairuen et al., 2022
<i>Cerastoderma glaucum</i>	Wild	–	1 M KOH	Fragment	PP	0.01 ± 0.01	–	Italy	Piarulli et al., 2020
<i>Cerastoderma edulis</i>	Wild	3.52 ± 0.04	10%KOH	Fiber	PET	2.46 ± 1.16	0.74 ± 0.35	Channel coastline, France	Hermabessiere et al., 2019
<i>Tegillarca granosa</i>	Wild	–	10%KOH	Fragment	–	9.87–23.17	–	Semarang, Indonesia	Suprayogi, 2018
<i>Scapharca subcrenata</i>	Farmed	3.64 ± 0.16	30%H2O2	Fiber and fragment	–	40.00	–	Shanghai, China	Li et al., 2015
<i>Tegillarca granosa</i>	Farmed	2.62 ± 0.21	30%H2O2	Fiber and fragment	–	7.00	–	Shanghai, China	Li et al., 2015

PET = polyethylene terephthalate; PS = polystyrene; PP = polypropylene; – = no data.

et al., 2019). However, contradictory results have been documented in some studies, where significantly higher MP concentrations were reported in oysters (Abidli et al., 2019; Phuong et al., 2018; Van Cauwenberghé & Janssen, 2014) or clams (Ding et al., 2021; Najj et al., 2018) than in mussels. Therefore, more studies are required to confirm MP accumulation trends in different bivalves.

Many studies have shown that smaller bivalves accumulate higher concentrations of MPs than larger bivalves (Bom et al., 2022; Chinfak et al., 2021; Sathish et al., 2020; Tamrin et al., 2021; Zahid et al., 2022). For example, in the Pasir Putih Estuary, Malaysia, the MP content in small *P. viridis* (5.29 ± 0.48 cm) was 25% and 66% higher than that in medium (6.54 ± 0.29 cm) and large *P. viridis* (7.62 ± 0.40 cm) (Zahid et al., 2022). On the southeastern Brazilian coast, Bom et al. (2022) recorded a clear negative relationship between the size of *Perna perna* and the concentration of MP.s In the Tapi-Phumduang River system and Bandon Bay, Thailand, the MPs in smaller *Perna viridis* (7.74 ± 0.07 cm) and *Meretrix lyrata* (2.65 ± 0.03 cm) were 1.9 to 8.3 fold higher than that in larger one (10.49 ± 0.07 cm and 4.81 ± 0.05 cm for *Perna viridis* and *Meretrix lyrata*, respectively) (Chinfak et al., 2021). In Lemo Beach, South Sulawesi, the MP concentration (2.75–3.4 cm) in smaller *Meretrix meretrix* were 1.87 and 2.46 fold higher than those in the medium (3.41–4.21 cm) and large clams (4.22–5.24 cm) (Tamrin et al., 2021). In the Gulf of Mannar, India, Sathish et al. (2020) showed that smaller *Donax cuneatus* (1.00 to 2.00 cm) contain 1.21 to 1.84 fold higher MP content than larger one (2.00 to 3.00 cm). The higher MP content in smaller bivalves may be attributed to the fact that smaller bivalves feed more actively (higher clearance rate) to meet the higher energy demand for higher metabolisms and higher growth rate (Kreeger et al., 2018). However, some other studies did not find significant differences in MP concentrations among bivalve age groups (Cherdsukjai et al., 2022; Joshy et al., 2022), and some even documented that larger bivalves tend to accumulate more microparticles than smaller bivalves (Brate et al., 2018; de Guzman et al., 2022; Ding et al., 2018; Patterson et al., 2019). The lower MP concentration in smaller bivalves is believed to be due to smaller bivalves being unable to ingest larger MPs and therefore being exposed to a narrower range of MP sizes than larger bivalves (Patterson et al., 2019).

Many studies have shown that farmed bivalves contain much higher levels of MPs than wild ones (Anderson et al., 2016; Covernton et al., 2019; Ding et al., 2018; Mathalon & Hill, 2014; Phuong et al., 2018). For example, in Columbia, Canada, Covernton et al. (2019) reported that farmed *Venerupis philippinarum* and *Crassostrea gigas* had about 60% higher MP concentrations than their wild counterparts. In Qingdao, China, MP concentrations in farmed *Mytilus galloprovincialis* were 60–250% higher than those in the wild (Ding et al., 2018). In Halifax Harbor, Nova Scotia, Mathalon and Hill (2014) reported that farmed *Mytilus edulis* had 40% higher MP than wild *Mytilus edulis* collected from the most polluted areas. This may be due to the extensive use of plastic infrastructure and materials in bivalve farms, mainly made of polyethylene, polypropylene, polystyrene, or PVC, which potentially become a source of MP pollution (Mathalon & Hill, 2014; Zhu et al., 2019). However, some other studies did not record significant differences between wild and farmed bivalves, such as *M. edulis* on the Belgian coast (De Witte et al., 2014), *Venerupis philippinarum* in British Columbia (Davidson & Dudas, 2016), *Perna perna* in Guanabara Bay, Brazil (Brinstiel et al., 2019), *C. gigas*, *O. cucullata* and *Mytilus edulis* in Yellow Sea, China (Zhang et al., 2022), *P. viridis* in Pasir Putih Estuary, Malaysia (Zin et al., 2022). It is worth noting that a few studies reported higher MP content in wild bivalves than in farmed bivalves (Li et al., 2016). For example, in a field study covering 2/3 of the coastline of China, Li et al. (2016) reported that the concentration of MP in wild *M. edulis* was 1.69 fold higher than in farmed mussels. The authors attribute this observation to the fact that mussel farms in China are generally less affected by human activities and have high water quality.

Among MP shapes, fibres were the dominant MP shapes found in various bivalves, with MP fibres accounting for >80% of the total

microplastics in *Perna viridis* collected from Sri Racha Bay, Thailand (Phaksopa et al., 2023), *Mytilus galloprovincialis* collected from Coast of Portugal (Pequeno et al., 2021), *Perna viridis* and *Mytilus edulis* collected from the coastal waters of China (Qu et al., 2018), *Venerupis philippinarum* collected from Baynes Sound, British Columbia (Davidson & Dudas, 2016) etc. The proportion of MP fibres in bivalves is much higher than the estimated MP fibres (around 48.5%) in ambient water and sediments (Burn and Boxall, 2018), indicating selective accumulation of MP fibres in bivalves. This observation may be attributed to the difficulty of fiber elimination from the digestive tract. The dominant polymer types of MPs in bivalves were polyester (PET), polyethylene (PE), and polypropylene (PP), with these 3 polymer types accounting for >80% of the total MPs in *Perna viridis* collected from Sri Racha Bay, Thailand (Phaksopa et al., 2023), *Mytilus galloprovincialis* and *Scrobicularia plana* collected from Portuguese coast (Pequeno et al., 2021), *Mytilus spp.* collected from Portuguese coast (Marques et al., 2021) etc. This is not surprising since PET, PE, and PP have been mostly produced and used in plastic bottles, food wraps and bags etc. over the past few decades (Suaria et al., 2020), and these polymers have also been documented as the most common MPs in aquatic environments (Browne et al., 2011a; Gago et al., 2018; White et al., 2018).

5. Impact of microplastic on marine bivalves

5.1. Impact of MPs on immunity of marine bivalves

In general, hemocytes are the main components of the innate immunity of bivalves and play an important role in phagocytosis. MP exposure has been shown to impair innate immunity of bivalves (Table 2) (e.g. Paul-Pont et al., 2016; Pavicic-Hamer et al., 2022; Sendra et al., 2019). For example, in *Mytilus spp.*, exposure to polymethylmethacrylate (10 and 50 μm ; 0.1–10 mg/L) (Pavicic-Hamer et al., 2022) and polystyrene (2 and 6 μm ; 30 mg/L) (Paul-Pont et al., 2016) has been shown to cause a significant increase in the mortality rate of hemocytes. Moreover, exposure of *Mytilus spp.* to polystyrene (50 nm, 100 nm and 1 μm ; 10 mg/L) has been shown to decrease the phagocytosis capacity of hemocytes (Sendra et al., 2019). Similar observations have been documented in a laboratory experiments, where exposure of *M. galloprovincialis* hemolymph to amino polystyrene (50 nm) at concentrations ranging from 1 to 50 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$ for 30 min to 4 h induced a dose-dependent reduction of phagocytic activity (Canesi et al., 2015). In addition, exposure of *Mytilus spp.* to polyethylene and polystyrene MPs have been shown to cause lysosome dysfunctional through inducing lysosomal membrane destabilization (Avio et al., 2015; von Moos et al., 2012). Similar observations have been recorded in oyster *C. brasiliiana* (Nobre et al., 2020) and *M. edulis* (von Moos et al., 2012), where polyethylene exposure disrupted the stability of lysosomal membranes and increased granulocytoma formation indicative of cellular damage.

Besides hemocytes, exposure to MPs also affects the antioxidant system of bivalves (Avio et al., 2015; Canesi et al., 2015; Cole et al., 2020; Nobre et al., 2020; Paul-Pont et al., 2016; Pittura et al., 2018; Revel et al., 2019; Ribeiro et al., 2017). In *Mytilus sp.*, exposure to polystyrene (Cole et al., 2020; Paul-Pont et al., 2016), polyethylene (Pittura et al., 2018), and polypropylene (Revel et al., 2019) MPs caused a dose-dependent increase in superoxide dismutase (SOD) and catalase (CAT) activity, a means of modulating cellular oxidative balance in response to increased production of reactive oxygen species (ROS) (Canesi et al., 2015). Similar observations have been documented in clam *Scrobicularia plana*, where 2 weeks of polystyrene exposure (20 μm ; 1 mg/L) triggered substantial modulation of cellular oxidative balance (elevation of SOD in gills), indicative of oxidative damage, DNA damage, and neurotoxicity (Ribeiro et al., 2017). However, these results differ from those reported by Nobre et al. (2020), where exposure of oyster *C. brasiliiana* to polyethylene MP (150–250 μm ; 250 mg/L) did not cause significant changes in oxidative stress and induced inhibition of antioxidant enzymes, especially glutathione S-transferase (GST) and

Table 2
Impact of microplastics on the immunity of marine bivalves.

Species	Size (cm)	Exposure time (day)	Concentration (MP/L)	MP (type)	MP (μm)	Type of polymers	Observation	References
Mussels								
<i>Mytilus galloprovincialis</i>	–	3	0.1–10 mg/L	–	10 and 50	Polymethylmethacrylate	Increase the total haemocytes count in haemolymph, and significantly reduce cell viability	Pavicic-Hamer et al., 2022
<i>Mytilus sp.</i>	~1.00	294	15 to 15,000 particles/individual/week	Microbeads	40	PVC	Microplastics pose only a minor threat to blue mussel	Hamm & Lenz, 2021
<i>Mytilus edulis</i>	~5.00	7	20 particles/mL	Microbeads	1 to 75	PVC	No significant effects on CAT, neutral red retention, lysosomal membrane stability, Metallothionein isoform 20 and pyruvate kinase	Li et al., 2020
<i>Mytilus sp.</i>	~6.00	7	500 ng/mL	Microfibres	20	PS	Alter granulocyte/hyalinocyte ratios and increased SOD activity, decrease of a heightened immune response.	Cole et al., 2020
<i>Mytilus edulis</i>	–	52	25 mg/L	Fragments	65.6 and 102.6	PLA and PET	Filtration ability decreased, byssal threads and attachment strength impaired; hemolymph proteome changed.	Green et al., 2019
<i>Mytilus galloprovincialis</i> immune cells	3.63 \pm 0.33	3 h	10 mg/L	–	50 nm, 100 nm and 1 μm	PS	Reduced phagocytic capacity of hemocytes	Sendra et al., 2019
<i>Mytilus spp.</i>	5.00 to 6.00	10	0.008, 10 and 100 $\mu\text{g/L}$	–	<400	PET and PP	Significant increases in superoxide dismutase (SOD) and catalase (CAT) activities	Revel et al., 2019
<i>Perna perna</i>	–	90	0.125	Microbeads	0.1 to 1	PVC	No significant effects.	Santana et al., 2018
<i>Mytilus galloprovincialis</i>	6.00 \pm 1.00	28	10 mg/L	Micro powders	20–25	PET	Negatively affect immune system but less effect on oxidative system	Pittura et al., 2018
<i>Mytilus galloprovincialis</i>	4.10 \pm 0.90	18	460 MP/ml	Microbeads	–	–	Disruption of mussel global homeostasis resulting in the production of stress and immune-related proteins and as a consequence, a diminution of energy allocated to growth.	Detree & Gallardo-Escarate, 2018
<i>Mytilus edulis</i>	4.82 \pm 0.83	52	800 $\mu\text{g/L}$	Fragments	65.6 and 102.6	PLA and PET	Alteration of immunological profiles (up-regulation of C1qDC protein family, galectin-2 and apextrin) of haemolymph	Green et al., 2018
<i>Dreissena polymorpha</i>	–	6	5 \times 10 ⁵ and 2.0 \times 10 ⁶ items/L	–	1 and 10	PS	Accumulation of microplastic in the gut lumen and hemolymph; dopamine concentration increased	Magni et al., 2018
<i>Mytilus spp.</i>	5.86 \pm 0.96	7	30 mg/L	Microbeads	2 and 6	PS	Increase in hemocyte mortality and triggered substantial modulation of cellular oxidative balance: increase in reactive oxygen species production in hemocytes and enhancement of anti-oxidant and glutathione-related enzymes in mussel tissues.	Paul-Pont et al., 2016
<i>Mytilus galloprovincialis</i>	4.00 to 5.00	30 min to 4 h (hemolymph)	1 to 50 $\mu\text{g/ml}$	–	50 nm	Amino polystyrene	Dose dependent decrease in phagocytic activity and increase in lysozyme activity, but increase in extracellular ROS and NO production.	Canesi et al., 2015
<i>Mytilus galloprovincialis</i>	5.00 \pm 1.00	6	0.5 to 50 $\mu\text{g/L}$	–	<100	PET and PS	Decrease granulocytes: hyalinocytes ratio, hemocytes lysosomal membrane stability, but increase DNA tail, nuclear alteration	Avio et al., 2015
<i>Mytilus edulis</i>	–	4	2.5 g/L	Grains	<80	PET	Formation of granulocytomas after 6 h and lysosomal membrane destabilization	von Moos et al., 2012
Species	Size (cm)	Exposure time (day)	Concentration (MP/L)	MP (type)	MP (μm)	Type of polymers	Observation	References
Oysters								

(continued on next page)

Table 2 (continued)

Species	Size (cm)	Exposure time (day)	Concentration (MP/L)	MP (type)	MP (μm)	Type of polymers	Observation	References
<i>Crassostrea brasiliana</i>	–	7	250 mg/L	Microspheres	150–250	PET	Significantly decrease the level of GST, GPx, DNA damage, Microplastic accumulated in hepatopancreas cells;	Nobre et al., 2020
<i>Crassostrea virginica</i>	–	2	50 $\mu\text{g/L}$	Microbeads	0.5 and 3	PS	nanoparticles showed potential for bioreactivity and sublethal impacts.	Gaspar et al., 2018
<i>Crassostrea virginica</i>	–	2	50 ppb	Microbeads	0.5 and 3 μm	PS	did not cause any significant toxicity (acute or sublethal)	Gaspar et al., 2018
Clams								
<i>Scrobicularia plana</i>	3.80 \pm 0.50	14	1 mg/L	Microspheres	20	PS	Induce effects on antioxidant capacity, DNA damage, neurotoxicity and oxidative damage.	Ribeiro et al., 2017
<i>Scrobicularia plana</i>	3.80 \pm 0.50	14	1 mg/L	–	20	–	Microplastics induce effects on antioxidant capacity, DNA damage, neurotoxicity and oxidative damage	Ribeiro et al., 2017

PET = polyethylene terephthalate; PS = polystyrene; PP = polypropylene; PVC = polyvinylchloride; PLA = Polylactic acid; – = no data.

glutathione peroxidase (GPx). The discrepancy may be due to the size of MP particles used in this study (150–250 μm) being much larger than that in other studies (0.5–25 μm), or the ability of bivalves to tolerate MP is species-specific.

At the molecular level, a number of transcriptional and gene expression studies provide evidence that MPs negatively affects the immunity of bivalves (Capolupo et al., 2018; Detree & Gallardo-Escarate, 2018; Green et al., 2019). For example, Capolupo et al. (2018) exposed *M. galloprovincialis* larvae to polystyrene (3 μm ; 50–10,000 particles/mL) for 24 h. Upregulation of genes involved in immunomodulation indicating a modulation of redox balance to counteract the increased ROS production. Similar observations have been documented in *M. edulis*, where exposure to polyethylene MP (102.6 μm ; 800 $\mu\text{g/L}$) for 52 days resulted in up-regulation of genes related in immunity, especially the C1q-domain-containing (C1qDC) protein family, galectin-2, and apextrin (Green et al., 2019). However, these results differ from those reported by Pittura et al. (2018) and Gaspar et al. (2018), where transcriptional studies revealed that polyethylene (20–25 μm ; 10 mg/L) and polystyrene MP (0.5–3 μm) exposure for 28 days induced only mild cellular toxicity to *M. galloprovincialis* and *Crassostrea virginica*, respectively. We do not rule out the possibility that the contrasting responses may be related to the acclimation of bivalves to MPs, depending on exposure history. In fact, Detree and Gallardo-Escarate (2018) have shown that after a second exposure of *M. galloprovincialis* to microbeads (460 MP/mL), the expression of genes related to immune and stress responses was down-regulated in the digestive gland, indicative of bivalves being able to acclimate to MPs.

5.2. Impact of MPs on feeding behaviour and reproduction of marine bivalves

There is no general agreement on the effects of MP exposure on the feeding behaviour of bivalves (Table 3). Many studies have shown decreased clearance rate in bivalves in response to MP exposure (Alexander et al., 1994; Bacon et al., 1998; Grant & Thorpe, 1991; Green et al., 2017, 2019; Rist et al., 2016; Ward & Macdonald, 1996; Wegner et al., 2012; Xu et al., 2017). For example, Green et al. (2019) and Green et al. (2017) documented that exposure of *M. edulis* to polylactic acid and high density polyethylene (65.6 and 102.6 μm ; 25 mg/L) caused a significant reduction in filtration rate. Similar observations have also been reported by Xu et al. (2017) and Rist et al. (2016), in which exposure of *Atactodea striata* and *Perna perna* to polystyrene (up to 500 μm ; 1000 items/L) and polyvinylchloride (1–50 μm ; 2160 mg/L) caused more

than a 2 fold reduction in clearance rate. However, a few studies have not recorded significant changes in the clearance rate of bivalves when exposed to MPs (Cole & Galloway, 2015; Gardon et al., 2018; Green, 2016; Hamm et al., 2022; Revel et al., 2019; Walkinshaw et al., 2023). It is worth noting that Green et al. (2017) reported that exposure of *Ostra edulis* to polylactic acid and polyethylene MPs (65.6–102.6 μm ; 2.5–25 $\mu\text{g/L}$) caused an increase in filtration rate and pseudofaeces production.

In terms of nutrient absorption and assimilation, most studies have demonstrated that MP exposure reduces the efficiency of nutrient assimilation and reduces the overall energy budget (e.g. Bour et al., 2018; Gardon et al., 2018; Shang et al., 2021). For example, Shang et al. (2021) have shown that exposure of *M. corucis* to (10^4 – 10^6 particles/L) caused increased cellular energy demands and depleted carbohydrates, lipids, and proteins stores. Gardon et al. (2018) found that although the present of polystyrene (6 and 10 μm ; 0.25–25 $\mu\text{g/L}$) did not affect the ingestion rate of *Pinctada margaritifera*, it caused a significant negative effect on the assimilative efficiency of oyster in a dose-dependent manner. Similar observations have also been documented by Bour et al. (2018), in which large MPs entangled in the digestive tracts of *Ennucula tenuis* and *Abra nitida*, and significantly reduced the efficiency of nutrient absorption. However, these results differ from those reported by Sussarellu et al. (2016), in which two months exposure of *Crassostrea gigas* to polystyrene microspheres (2 and 6 μm ; 0.023 mg/L) increased nutrient assimilation efficiency, indicative of a compensatory effect in response to digestive interference caused by MPs. Surprisingly, mussels have high toleration to MPs, with exposure to high concentrations of MPs (up to 150 mg/L) not significantly affecting the overall energy budget (Gonçalves et al., 2018; Hamm & Lenz, 2021; Li et al., 2020; Van Cauwenberghe et al., 2015; Yap et al., 2020).

Decreased feeding rates and assimilation efficiency in most bivalves result in disruption of energy flow, reducing energy allocation for reproduction to maintain normal maintenance and growth (Bour et al., 2018; Gardon et al., 2018; Pandey et al., 2022; Sussarellu et al., 2016; Xu et al., 2017). For example, in *C. gigas*, exposure to polystyrene has been shown to negatively affect the quality of oocytes, quantity of egg production, and the motility of sperm (Pandey et al., 2022). In *Abra nitida*, exposure to MPs has been shown to impair clam reproduction by causing alterations in energy reserve, especially a reduction in protein content (Bour et al., 2018). In *Pinctada margaritifera* (Gardon et al., 2018) and *Atactodea striata* (Xu et al., 2017), exposure to polystyrene MPs caused a dose dependent negative impact on reproduction through reducing nutrient intake or absorption. Similarly, in *Crassostrea gigas*, results from dynamic energy budget modeling revealed that exposure of oysters to

Table 3
Impact of microplastics on the physiology of marine bivalves.

Species	Size (cm)	Exposure time (day)	Concentration (MP/L)	MP (type)	MP (μm)	Type of polymers	Observation	References
Mussels								
<i>Mytilus sp.</i>	~1.00	94	8 and 80 items/L	Microfibres	149	Polyester	Decreased in growth rate by 35.6%, but has no significant impact on mortality, respiration rates or clearance rates	Walkinshaw et al., 2023
<i>Mytilidae</i>	–	42	1.5, 15 and 150 mg/L	–	–	Polymethyl Methacrylate and PVC	Significantly affect respiration rate, byssus production and condition index of the animals, but no effects on clearance rate and survival	Hamm et al., 2022
<i>Mytilus sp.</i>	~1.00	294	15 to 15,000 particles/individual/week	Microbeads	40	PVC	Microplastics pose only a minor threat to blue mussel	Hamm & Lenz, 2021
<i>Mytilus corucus</i>	7.95 \pm 0.32	14	5.69 \times 10 ⁹ particles/mL	Microspheres	2	PS	Increased cellular energy demand and depleted carbohydrates, lipids and proteins stores	Shang et al., 2021
<i>Mytilus galloprovincialis</i>	–	35	1.5, 15, 150 mg/L	Microbeads	12–14	PVC	No difference in byssus production, respiration and survival rates	Yap et al., 2020
<i>Mytilus edulis</i>	–	52	25 mg/L	Fragments	65.6 and 102.6	PLA and PET	Filtration ability decreased, byssal threads and attachment strength impaired; hemolymph proteome changed.	Green et al., 2019
<i>Mytilus galloprovincialis</i>	larvae	1	50–10,000 particles/mL	Microspheres	3	PS	Upregulation of genes involved in shell biogenesis and immunomodulation and inhibition of lysosomal enzymes	Capolupo et al., 2018
<i>Mytilus edulis</i>	4.82 \pm 0.83	52	800 $\mu\text{g/L}$	Fragments	102.6	PET	Reduced the number of byssal threads produced and the attachment strength (tenacity) by ~50%.	Green et al., 2018
<i>Perna perna</i>	–	90	0.125	Microbeads	0.1 to 1	PVC	No significant effects.	Santana et al., 2018
<i>Mytilus edulis</i>	4.79 \pm 0.06	50	2.5 and 25 $\mu\text{g/L}$	–	65.6 and 102.6	PLA and PET	Decreased filtration rate	Green et al., 2017
<i>Perna perna</i>	3.50 to 4.00	44	up to 2160 mg/L	–	1–50	PVC	Impairment of the mussels' physiological performance (clearance rates, respiration rates and byssus production)	Rist et al., 2016
<i>Mytilus edulis</i>	–	14	10 items/L	Microbeads	10 to 90	PS	Respiration increased; no significant effects on overall energy budget.	Van Cauwenberghe et al., 2015
<i>Mytilus edulis</i>	–	8 h	0.1 to 0.3 g/L	Microbeads	30	PS	Production of pseudo-faeces; filtering activity reduced	Wegner et al., 2012
Species	Size (cm)	Exposure time (day)	Concentration (MP/L)	MP (type)	MP (μm)	Type of polymers	Observation	References
Oysters								
<i>Pinctada margaritifera</i>	–	60	0.25, 2.5, 25 $\mu\text{g/L}$	Microbeads	6 and 10	PS	Significant dose-dependent negative impact on the assimilation efficiency and more broadly the energy balance, with negative repercussions on reproduction	Gardon et al., 2018
<i>Ostrea edulis</i>	7.41	60	0.8 and 80 $\mu\text{g/L}$	–	65.6 and 102.6	PLA and PET	Increased respiration rate but do not affect filtration rate and shell growth.	Green, 2016
<i>Crassostrea gigas</i>	–	8	1000 MP/ml	Microbeads	1 to 10	PS	No measurable effects on the development or feeding capacity of the larvae	Cole & Galloway, 2015
<i>Crassostrea gigas</i>	–	60	0.023 mg/L	Microbeads	2 and 6 μm	PS	Increased clearance rate and absorption efficiency, but decreased in oocyte number (–38%), diameter (–5%), and sperm velocity (–23%), as well as lower D-larval yield (–41%) and larval development (–18%)	Sussarellu et al., 2016
<i>Ostra edulis</i>	6.30 \pm 0.16	50	2.5 and 25 $\mu\text{g/L}$	–	65.6 and 102.6	PLA and PET	Increased filtration rate and pseudofaeces production	Green et al., 2017
<i>Ostra edulis</i>	–	60	0.8 and 80 $\mu\text{g/L}$	–	65.6	PLA	Respiration rates increased; effects on the oysters were minimal	Green, 2016
<i>Crassostrea gigas</i>	–	60	0.023 mg/L	Microspheres	2 and 6	PS	Significant decreases in oocyte number (–38%), diameter (–5%), and sperm velocity (–23%). The D-larval yield and larval development of offspring derived from exposed parents decreased by 41% and 18%, respectively	Sussarellu et al., 2016
Clams								
<i>Ennucula tenuis</i>	–	28	1; 10 and 25 mg/kg of sediment	–	4–6; 20–25 and 125–500	–	Decreased energy reserves	Bour et al., 2018
<i>Abra nitida</i>	–	28	1; 10 and 25 mg/kg of sediment	–	4–6; 20–25 and 125–500	–	Decreased in protein content	Bour et al., 2018

(continued on next page)

Table 3 (continued)

Species	Size (cm)	Exposure time (day)	Concentration (MP/L)	MP (type)	MP (μm)	Type of polymers	Observation	References
<i>Abra nitida</i>	–	21	1, 10 and 25 mg/kg	Microbeads	–	–	Energy reserves significantly changed; protein content decreased under exposure of the largest particles	Bour et al., 2018
<i>Atacodea striata</i>	–	10	10 and 1000 items/L	Microbeads	up to 500	PS	Clearance rate decreased at high concentrations; energy allocation to growth and reproduction was affected.	Xu et al., 2017
Scallops								
<i>Pinctada margaritifera</i>	–	60	0.25, 2.5 and 25 $\mu\text{g/L}$	Microbeads	6 and 10	PS	Assimilation efficiency inhibited; negative repercussions on reproduction	Gardon et al., 2018

PET = polyethylene terephthalate; PS = polystyrene; PP = polypropylene; PVC = polyvinylchloride; PLA = Polylactic acid; – = no data.

polystyrene microspheres (2 and 6 μm ; 23 $\mu\text{g/L}$) for 8 weeks caused alteration of proteins in oocytes and expression of genes involved in gamete differentiation and maturation, reducing sperm mobility by 23%, as well as decreasing fertility, oocyte number, and diameter by 41%, 38% and 5%, respectively (Sussarellu et al., 2016). As a result, the survival of oyster D-larvae and the growth of oyster larvae decreased by about 41% and 18%, respectively (Sussarellu et al., 2016).

5.3. Impact of MPs on survival and burrowing behaviour and byssus production of marine bivalves

In general, most studies revealed that exposure of bivalves to MPs did not significantly affect the growth and survival of bivalves (e.g. Bour et al., 2018; Hamm et al., 2022; Hamm & Lenz, 2021; Santana et al., 2018) (Table 3), with the exception of Walkinshaw et al. (2023), who reported that exposure of *Mytilus sp.* to polyester (149 μm ; 80 items/L) caused a 35.6% reduction in growth rate but did not cause mortality. Caution through, these data were derived from laboratory experiments which may underestimate the impact of MPs on the survival of bivalves in natural environments. In the natural environment, the survival of mussels largely depends on their ability to hide from predators through burrowing in the sediment, as well as to form firm attachments (byssus threads) to withstand waves and currents.

Burrowing behaviour is an important avoidance response in bivalves to evade predators. Despite the importance of bivalve burrowing behaviour, the effects of MPs on burrowing behaviour of bivalves have not been well studied. To date, there is only one report on the effect of MPs on burrowing behaviour of bivalves, in which the authors did not observe any significant changes in burrowing behaviour of *Ennucula tenuis* and *Abra nitida* exposed to three sizes (4–6; 20–25 and 125–500 μm) of polyethylene MPs for four weeks (Bour et al., 2018). Similar observations have been documented in other shellfish, where environmentally relevant levels of MPs did not affect the burrowing behaviour of gastropod *Littorina littorea* (Doyle et al., 2020). It is obvious that more studies are required to confirm the effect of MP exposure on the burrowing behaviour of shellfish, especially bivalves.

In addition to burrowing behaviour, the production of byssus threads is another important indicator of the ability of bivalves, especially mussels, to survive in their natural environment. In general, many studies have demonstrated negative effects of MPs on the production of byssus threads (Green et al., 2019; Hamm et al., 2022; Rist et al., 2016). For example, Hamm et al. (2022) conducted a 6 weeks laboratory experiment to evaluate the impact of polymethyl methacrylate and polyvinyl chloride MPs (1.5–150 mg/L) on *M. galloprovincialis*, *M. trossulus* and *M. edulis*. It was found that the byssus production of mussels was reduced by 6–34% in a dose dependent manner. Similar observations were documented by Green et al. (2019), in which exposure of *Mytilus edulis* to fragmented polylactic acid (65.6 μm ; 25 mg/L) and polyethylene (102.6 μm ; 25 $\mu\text{g/L}$) for 52 days caused a reduction of the production and strength of byssal threads. When exposed to high concentrations of polylactic acid (65.6 μm ; 800 $\mu\text{g/L}$) and polyethylene (102.6 μm ; 800 $\mu\text{g/L}$), the strength and production of *M. edulis* byssal threads decreased by ~50% (Green et al., 2018). In the Asian green mussel *P. viridis*, exposure to polyvinylchloride MPs (21.6–2160 mg/L) for 44 days had a dose-dependent negative effect on byssus production (Rist et al., 2016). These negative effects may be attributed to the energy allocation for byssus production being used to maintain growth and essential functions of cells.

6. Discussion

Exposure of bivalves to MP particles has been shown to alter the feeding behaviour of marine bivalves, especially by reducing filtration and clearance rate, as well as reducing the energy fraction of synthesis due to reduced food uptake (e.g. Green et al., 2017, 2019; Rist et al., 2016; Xu et al., 2017). At the same time, MPs also induce stress and

activate the immune response (release of hydrolytic enzymes and nitrogen based reactive species) in marine bivalves, thereby increasing energy demands under toxicity and stress (e.g. Paul-Pont et al., 2016; Pavicic-Hamer et al., 2022; Sendra et al., 2019). As the results, energy allocation is diverted from reproduction to maintain essential functions, impairing the reproduction of bivalves (e.g. Bour et al., 2018; Gardon et al., 2018; Pandey et al., 2022), and potentially causing a negative impact on the population dynamics of marine bivalves.

From the perspective of food security, among seafood, bivalves are an important route for human exposure to MPs, mainly due to bivalves are consumed whole. In the human body, MPs can cause health issues through physical and chemical pathways, including genotoxicity, oxidative stress, apoptosis etc. (Schirinz et al., 2017; Smith et al., 2018; Wright & Kelly, 2017). Laboratory studies have shown that MPs can cause cytotoxicity to cerebral and epithelial human cells through inducing oxidative stress (Schirinz et al., 2017). Fortunately, increased public awareness of plastic pollution has improved waste management and reduced the use of disposable plastic items, especially shopping bags (Xu et al., 2022). However, the amount of MP in the ocean will inevitably increase, as the degradation of large plastic waste will generate millions of MPs.

In the marine environment, MPs are exposed to a variety of organic pollutants, especially persistent-type polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAH) and polychlorinated biphenyls (PCB), which accumulate and transfer to marine life through accidental ingestion (Avio et al., 2015; Semysim et al., 2024). This is due to the fact that these organic pollutants are hydrophobic, thus selectively absorbed by compounds with similar hydrophobic nature (Avio et al., 2015; Gonzalez-Soto et al., 2019; Heskett et al., 2012; Mato et al., 2001; Pittura et al., 2018). For example, Mato et al. (2001) reported that the absorption rate of polychlorinated biphenyl on the surface of plastic particles was significantly higher than that of the surrounding seawater. This aligns with the observations of Heskett et al. (2012), who reported the presence of PAHs and PCBs in plastics found on various remote islands around the world. Another good example is provided by Avio et al. (2015), who showed that polyethylene and polystyrene MPs increase the bioavailability of organic pollutants to bivalves by transferring pyrene (a model of PAH) to the gills, digestive tissues, and haemolymph of *M. galloprovincialis*, causing genotoxic effects and inducing immunological responses. Likewise, Pittura et al. (2018) demonstrated that MPs can absorb and

transfer benzo(a)pyrene to the tissues of *M. galloprovincialis*. Therefore, there is increasing concern about MPs in bivalves reaching humans through food chain.

Since MPs can be transferred through the food chain to consumers, depuration is an important step to reduce MP levels in marine bivalves before they are marketed. In general, bivalves have a rapid depuration efficiency for MPs, where a short depuration time of only 3 days is sufficient to reduce the MP content in the gut of bivalves by 90–100% (Christo et al., 2021; Kinjo et al., 2019; Stamataki et al., 2020) (Table 4). In fact, Woods et al. (2018) demonstrated that a 3 h depuration time could eliminate 65% of MP (0.2 µm) in the digestive tract of *Mytilus edulis*, and a 24 h depuration could completely remove MPs from *Crassostrea brasiliana* (Christo et al., 2021). However, several studies have shown that the MP depuration efficiency of bivalves is relatively low, where a 3 days depuration time can only remove <50% of the total MPs in the gut of bivalves (Al-Sid-Cheikh et al., 2018; Brinstiel et al., 2019; Van Cauwenberghe & Janssen, 2014). In scallop *Pecten maximus*, 14 and 48 days were required to completely remove 24 nm and 250 nm MPs, respectively (Al-Sid-Cheikh et al., 2018).

On the other hand, larger MP particles generally retain longer in the digestive tract than smaller MP particles, thus requiring longer depuration time to eliminate larger MP particles (Al-Sid-Cheikh et al., 2018; Brillant & MacDonald, 2000; Fernández & Albentosa, 2019; Kinjo et al., 2019). For example, in a 40 days depuration experiment of *M. galloprovincialis* ingesting MPs of 3 different sizes (1, 10, and 90 µm), Kinjo et al. (2019) recorded a clear size-dependent elimination rate of MPs, where the elimination rate of larger MPs of 10 µm and 90 µm took 4 and 7 fold longer time, respectively. In studies on sea scallops, *Pecten maximus* (Al-Sid-Cheikh et al., 2018) and *Placopecten magellanicus* (Brillant & MacDonald, 2000), larger MP particles were retained in the gut longer than smaller MP particles. However, these results differ from those reported by Fernández and Albentosa (2019), who found that in *M. galloprovincialis*, a 6 days MP depuration also showed a size-dependent elimination rate, with larger MP particles (> 10 µm) being eliminated faster than smaller ones (<10 µm). It is worth noting that many marine bivalve species have not been well studied concerning MP pollution and food security. Therefore, future surveys of MPs in these bivalves species, especially those edible species with commercial value, are highly recommended. In recent years, there is increasing evidence showing that climate change affects the physiology of marine bivalves

Table 4
Depuration efficiency of microplastics in marine bivalves.

Species	Size	Concentration (MP/L)	Depuration time (day)	MP (type)	MP (µm)	Type of polymers	Observation	References
<i>Crassostrea brasiliana</i>	7.25 ± 0.70	3 mg/L	1	Fibres	17.35 ± 4.17	–	Reduced by 100%	Christo et al., 2021
<i>Mytilus edulis</i>	4.00 ± 0.50	0.28 particles g ⁻¹ w.w.	2.5	–	–	–	Reduced by 90%	Stamataki et al., 2020
<i>M. galloprovincialis</i>	5.00 ± 0.30	0.27 particles g ⁻¹ w.w.	12	–	–	–	Reduced by 90%	Stamataki et al., 2020
<i>Mytilus edulis</i>	5.77 ± 0.50	Collected from wild	7	Fragments	–	PS	Reduced by 97.6%	Kazour & Amara, 2020
<i>Mytilus galloprovincialis</i>	–	250/ml	40	sphere	1, 10 and 90	PS	Larger MPs were slowly excreted in bulk	Kinjo et al., 2019
<i>Perna perna</i>	4.67 ± 0.51	Collected from wild	4	Fibres	–	Polyamide	Reduced by 46.79%	Brinstiel et al., 2019
<i>Mytilus galloprovincialis</i>	4.00	2 and 4 mm 3/L	7	–	4 to 6	PET	Reduced by 85%	Fernández & Albentosa, 2019
<i>Pecten maximus</i>	11.50 ± 1.60	15 µg/L	48	–	0.024 and 0.250	PS	24 nm and 250 nm MP were completely removed after 14 and 48 days, respectively	Al-Sid-Cheikh et al., 2018
<i>Mytilus edulis</i>	–	30 MP/L	0.125	Fibres	0.2	PET	Reduced by 65%	Woods et al., 2018
<i>Atactodea striata</i>	3.50 to 4.00	10 and 1000	7	–	63 to 250	PS	Amount of MP was reduced by 50% and 85% at a concentration of 10 and 1000 MP/L, respectively	Xu et al., 2017
<i>Mytilus edulis</i>	–	–	3	–	–	–	Reduced by 33%	Van Cauwenberghe & Janssen, 2014

PET = polyethylene terephthalate; PS = polystyrene.

(Liu et al., 2024; Song, Farhadi, et al., 2024; Song, Wang, et al., 2024; Tan et al., 2024; Tan, Yan, et al., 2023). Therefore, it is also very interesting to explore the effects of climate change drivers on the accumulation of MPs in bivalves.

7. Conclusion

In a nutshell, plastic pollution is a major threat to our oceans. Bivalves can accumulate high levels of MPs, especially in their gills and digestive glands, with smaller and farmed bivalves accumulating higher concentrations of MPs than larger and wild bivalves. Exposure to MPs may adversely affect immunity and energy budgets, resulting in the reallocation of energy from reproduction to maintaining essential functions, which could negatively affect the reproduction and population of marine bivalves. This study provides detailed information on the status of MP pollution in marine bivalves and the impact of MP pollution on marine bivalves. The information in this review is very useful for formulating management plans for sustainable commercial fisheries and natural conservation. For future studies, it is highly recommended to conduct more surveys of MPs in edible marine bivalves around the world, especially those of commercially important species.

CRedit authorship contribution statement

Zhixiong Xu: Writing – review & editing, Project administration, Funding acquisition. **Leiheng Huang:** Project administration. **Peng Xu:** Project administration. **Leongseng Lim:** Conceptualization. **Kit-Leong Cheong:** Supervision, Project administration, Conceptualization. **Youji Wang:** Supervision, Software. **Karsoon Tan:** Writing – review & editing, Writing – original draft, Visualization, Validation, Supervision, Software, Resources, Project administration, Methodology, Investigation, Funding acquisition, Formal analysis, Data curation, Conceptualization.

Declaration of competing interest

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

Data availability

The data that support the findings of this study are available from the corresponding author upon reasonable request.

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