

ENZYMATIC DIGESTION COMBINED WITH μ FT-IR IMAGING FOR RECOVERY AND CHARACTERISATION OF POLYMER PARTICLES FROM *MYTILUS GALLOPROVINCIALIS* TISSUE

SEVDALINA TURMANOVA¹, YANCHO HRISTOV¹,
DIMITRINA KIRYAKOVA^{1,*}, EMILIYA IVANOVA²,
PLAMENA ATANASOVA¹, GANKA KOLCHAKOVA¹,
ANTONIYA ILIEVA³, AND ELENA MOLLOVA²

¹ Department of Materials Science, Burgas State University “Prof. Dr. Assen Zlatarov”, 1 Y. Yakimov Str., Burgas 8010, Bulgaria

² Department of Ecology and Environmental Protection, Burgas State University “Prof. Dr. Assen Zlatarov”, 1 Y. Yakimov Str., Burgas 8010, Bulgaria

³ Department of Chemical Technologies, Burgas State University “Prof. Dr. Assen Zlatarov”, 1 Y. Yakimov Str., Burgas 8010, Bulgaria

* Corresponding author: dskiryakova@abv.bg

ABSTRACT

Microplastic contamination in marine organisms requires analytical approaches capable of efficiently removing biological matrices while preserving polymer integrity. Building upon previous work identifying enzymatic digestion as a suitable treatment method, the present study applies a pancreatic enzyme protocol (Kreon[®]25000) to recover polymer particles from *Mytilus galloprovincialis* tissue and to evaluate particle characteristics by μ FT-IR imaging. Frozen mussel tissue (2 g) was artificially spiked with reference particles of PVC, HDPE, PA, and PET and subjected to enzymatic digestion under controlled conditions. Digestion removed 99.8% of the biological matrix, allowing subsequent filtration, microscopic inspection, and spectroscopic identification. A total of 2334 particles were detected. Recovery varied among polymers, with HDPE showing the highest numerical recovery and PET the lowest. Particle size distributions differed markedly: HDPE, PA, and PVC were dominated by particles <50 μ m, whereas PET particles were predominantly larger. Morphological analysis revealed irregular fragment-like shapes across all polymer types. μ FT-IR imaging enabled polymer identification and spatial mapping, revealing heterogeneous particle distribution and localized clustering patterns on filter surfaces. Comparison of ATR-FTIR reference spectra with μ FT-IR spectra obtained after digestion confirmed preservation of diagnostic polymer bands, indicating that enzymatic treatment did not alter polymer chemical structure. The results demonstrate that enzymatic digestion combined with μ FT-IR imaging provides a reliable and polymer-preserving workflow for microplastic analysis in marine biological matrices. The findings highlight the influence of particle size and spatial distribution on recovery and detection, underscoring the importance of standardized imaging strategies for accurate quantification.

Keywords: contamination control; microplastic analysis; marine biota; size classification; spatial distribution; spectroscopic identification

Introduction

Microplastics (MPs) are synthetic polymer particles introduced into the marine environment through long-term accumulation and subsequent fragmentation of plastic materials (Barnes et al. 2009; Kalogerakis et al. 2017; Yang et al. 2021). They are typically defined as particles smaller than 5 mm and occur in various morphological forms, including fragments, fibers, films, and spheres. Their physicochemical properties vary depending on polymer type, degree of weathering, and environmental conditions (Tirkey and Upadhyay 2021; Golmohammadi et al. 2023; U.S. Environmental Protection Agency 2024). Based on their origin, microplastics are classified as primary particles manufactured at microscopic size for specific applications and secondary particles formed through mechanical, photochemical, and thermal degradation of larger plastic debris (Duis and Coors 2016; Cverenkárová et al. 2021; Song et al. 2024). MPs have been detected throughout the marine environment, including the water column, sediments, and marine biota (Van Cauwenberghe et al. 2015; Sunny et al. 2025).

Due to their filter-feeding behavior, bivalve mollusks, including *Mytilus galloprovincialis*, efficiently retain suspended particles from the surrounding environment, including microplastic fragments and fibers (Pizzurro et al. 2022, 2023; Kovačić et al. 2024). This species is widely distributed in coastal zones and exhibits limited mobility, making it a suitable bioindicator for assessing local pollution levels (Pizzurro et al. 2023; Mihailov et al. 2025). The accumulation of microplastic particles in *M. galloprovincialis* tissues provides valuable insight into the exposure of coastal ecosystems to synthetic polymers.

The analysis of microplastics in biological tissues is associated with methodological limitations, particularly at the stage of organic matter removal. Frequently used acidic and alkaline treatments may affect the surface structure and chemical composition of certain polymers, creating conditions for partial degradation or analytical losses (Pfeiffer and Fischer 2020; Di Fiore et al. 2024; Tuuri et al. 2024). The lack of harmonized protocols further limits the possibility for direct comparability between different studies (Hermsen et al. 2018; Al-Azzawi et al. 2020).

Enzymatic digestion has emerged as a promising alternative, allowing selective removal of biological material under controlled conditions with minimal impact on polymer structure (Mo et al. 2018; von Friesen et al. 2019; Di Fiore et al. 2024; Khan and Zaidi 2025). This approach facilitates subsequent spectroscopic identification and morphological characterization of particles (Chen et al. 2020; Morgado et al. 2021).

Previous research systematically evaluated enzymatic, acidic, and alkaline digestion protocols for the removal of biological matrices in *Mytilus galloprovincialis*, identifying enzymatic digestion as the most reliable approach for preserving polymer integrity and ensuring high recovery efficiency (Turmanova et al. 2026). Building upon these findings, the present study applies the previously validated enzymatic protocol to mussel tissue artificially spiked with reference polymer particles and performs detailed μ FT-IR imaging analysis. The study focuses on polymer identification, particle morphology, size distribution, and spatial distribution on filters, thereby advancing methodological reliability in microplastic analysis of marine biota. The aim of this study was to evaluate the recovery, characterization, and spatial distribution of selected polymer particles from *Mytilus galloprovincialis* tissue following enzymatic digestion using μ FT-IR imaging.

Materials and Methods

Materials

Black Sea mussels, *Mytilus galloprovincialis*, collected from the Burgas Bay (Black Sea, Bulgaria), were used as model biological material in the present study. Mussels were stored frozen at $-20\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ until analysis. Reference polymer particles were used to simulate microplastic contamination: polyvinyl chloride (PVC, 100–200 μm), high-density polyethylene (HDPE, 100–500 μm), polyamide (PA, 100–200 μm), and polyethylene terephthalate (PET, 100–250 μm). Enzymatic digestion was performed using Kreon[®]25000 (Abbott Laboratories GmbH, Germany), a pancreatic enzyme containing lipase (25,000 Ph. Eur units), amylase (18,000 Ph. Eur units), and protease (1,000 Ph. Eur units).

Sample preparation and polymer spiking

Frozen *Mytilus galloprovincialis* tissue (2.0 g) was used for the experiment. Samples were artificially spiked with known masses of microplastic particles representing four polymer types: polyvinyl chloride (PVC), high-density polyethylene (HDPE), polyamide (PA), and polyethylene terephthalate (PET). Particle size ranges were 100–200 μm for PVC and PA, 100–500 μm for HDPE, and 100–250 μm for PET. Separate samples were prepared for each polymer type, with only one polymer introduced per sample to allow polymer-specific recovery assessment and to prevent spectral overlap. A procedural control without added polymers was processed in parallel to ver-

ify background cleanliness. All handling procedures were conducted under contamination-controlled conditions, and samples were covered when not in use.

Enzymatic digestion using Kreon[®]25000

Enzymatic digestion was performed using Kreon[®]25000 (Abbott Laboratories GmbH, Germany). A total of 0.125 g of Kreon[®]25000 was dissolved in 20 mL of 1 M Tris-HCl buffer solution (pH 8.0), corresponding to the optimal activity range of pancreatic enzymes (Berdutina et al. 2000; von Friesen et al. 2019). The spiked mussel samples were added to the enzyme solution and incubated at $37.8\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ for 2 hours under constant stirring (300 rpm). These conditions were selected based on a previously optimized enzymatic protocol validated for *Mytilus galloprovincialis*, which demonstrated efficient biological matrix removal (99.8%) (Turmanova et al. 2026).

Filtration

Following enzymatic digestion, the resulting solutions were vacuum-filtered through metal filters with a pore size of 5 μm . Filters were rinsed with ultrapure water to remove residual reagents, dried at $40\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$, and stored in sealed containers until further analysis.

Microscopic inspection of filters

Filters were examined using a BSCOPE BS.1153-EPLH microscope (Euromex, Netherlands) to document representative polymer particles retained on the filters after digestion. Micrographs were captured at $40\times$ magnification to illustrate particle morphology and surface features. Optical microscopy was used for particle visualization, while polymer identification was confirmed by μ FT-IR analysis.

Identification of polymer particles by μ FT-IR imaging

Prior to μ FT-IR analysis, particles retained on the metal filters were carefully transferred onto Anodisc membrane filters (0.2 μm) to improve infrared transmission and enhance spectral quality during imaging. Polymer particles were analyzed using a μ FT-IR imaging microscope (LUMOS II, Bruker Optik GmbH, Germany). The instrument was equipped with a focal plane array (FPA) detector (32×32 pixels) providing a spatial resolution of 5 μm . Spectral imaging was performed in the range of $1000\text{--}4000\text{ cm}^{-1}$ with a spectral resolution of 5 cm^{-1} . Measurements were conducted in reflection mode, and background spectra were collected prior to each analysis. The effective spectral region used for polymer identification ranged approximately from $1200\text{ to }3500\text{ cm}^{-1}$.

μ FT-IR data were processed using Purity Microplastics Finder software for automated particle detection and polymer identification. Particles were classified as polymer particles when the spectral match met the acceptance criteria defined in the reference spectral libraries. Only particles with an acceptable spectral match score above 70% were considered confirmed microplastics. The

spatial coordinates of identified particles were recorded during imaging and used for subsequent analysis of particle morphology and spatial distribution on the filters. The μ FT-IR imaging system also enabled visualization of the overall filter surface, allowing assessment of residual biological material and particle retention after digestion.

ATR-FTIR Spectroscopy of polymer particles

Reference polymer particles (HDPE, PA, PVC, and PET) were analyzed using an ALPHA II FT-IR spectrometer (Bruker Optik GmbH, Germany) equipped with a Platinum ATR module and a diamond crystal. Spectra were recorded in the range of 400–4000 cm^{-1} at a spectral resolution of 4 cm^{-1} and averaged over 32 scans to improve the signal-to-noise ratio. The resulting spectra served as reference profiles for comparison with μ FT-IR spectra obtained from filter-retained particles after enzymatic digestion. Each polymer type was analyzed separately prior to use as reference material and re-analyzed after enzymatic digestion under the same ATR-FTIR conditions to verify spectral consistency and confirm that the digestion procedure did not alter polymer chemical structure.

Particle characterization and data analysis

Particle characterization was performed based on μ FT-IR imaging data. Particle size was determined as the equivalent circular diameter calculated from the projected particle area. Particles were grouped into size classes (< 50 μm , 50–100 μm , 100–300 μm , and > 300 μm) to evaluate size distribution.

Particle morphology was assessed using shape descriptors derived from imaging data. Particles were classified as irregular fragments based on aspect ratio and particle outline. Only particles larger than 5 μm were included in the analysis.

The spatial coordinates obtained from μ FT-IR imaging were used to generate spatial distribution and density maps of polymer particles on the filters. Descriptive statistical analysis (particle counts, size distribution, and percentage distribution by size class) and graphical representations were performed using Microsoft Excel (Microsoft Corp., USA).

Quality assurance and contamination control

All glassware and tools were thoroughly rinsed with filtered ultrapure water prior to use. Sample preparation

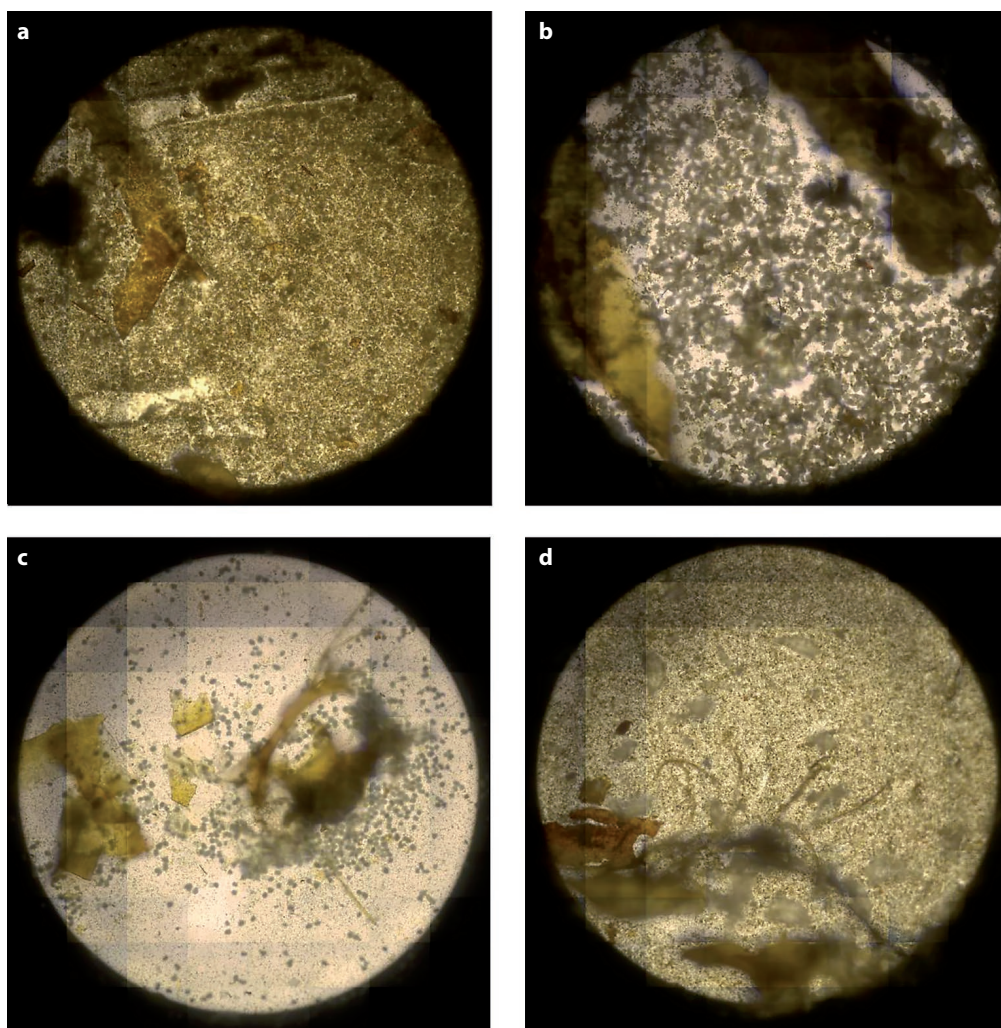


Fig. 1 Representative filter images after enzymatic digestion showing (a) HDPE, (b) PA, (c) PVC and (d) PET.

Table 1 Recovery and size characteristics of detected polymers.

Polymer	Added mass (mg)	Detected particles (n)	Particles per mg	Median size (μm)	Size range (μm)
HDPE	12.38	1107	89	15.4	0.9–64.8
PA	15.47	827	53	27.0	1.6–110.4
PVC	17.47	350	20	26.9	2.4–146.6
PET	8.55	50	5	70.7	8.1–275.5

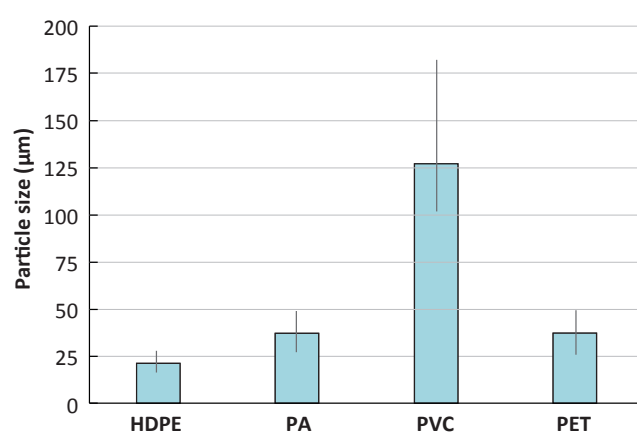
and filtration were conducted in a clean working environment, and samples were covered whenever possible to minimize contamination.

Results and Discussion

Recovery and detection of polymer particles

Polymer particles representing HDPE, PA, PVC, and PET were successfully detected, and identified from *Mytilus galloprovincialis* mussel tissue following enzymatic digestion using the previously validated Kreon[®]25000 protocol. The digestion effectively removed the biological matrix while preserving polymer integrity, enabling subsequent microscopic and $\mu\text{FT-IR}$ identification. $\mu\text{FT-IR}$ imaging of the filters confirmed clear retention of polymer particles on the filter surface, with only minimal residual biological material remaining (Fig. 1).

A total of 2334 particles were detected across all polymer types (Table 1). Recovery efficiency differed among polymers, reflecting differences in particle size distribution and material properties. HDPE exhibited the highest number of detected particles (1107), followed by PA (827) and PVC (350), while PET showed substantially lower recovery (50). When normalized to the added polymer mass, recovery ranged from 5 to 89 particles per mg, with HDPE showing the highest recovery efficiency and PET the lowest. The lower numerical recovery of PET is consistent with its larger particle size distribution and higher density, relative to polyolefins (Faszczewska et al. 2026), which can influence particle retention and detectability during filtration and imaging.

**Fig. 2** Particle size distribution of HDPE, PA, PVC and PET particles detected after enzymatic digestion.

High recovery rates observed for HDPE and PA support the suitability of enzymatic digestion for efficient removal of organic tissue while preserving polymer particles. This observation is consistent with previous studies reporting that enzymatic digestion effectively removes biological material and minimizes polymer alteration compared with strong chemical treatments (Karami et al. 2017; Prata et al. 2019). The polymer-dependent differences in recovery are consistent with previous studies indicating that particle size, density, and polymer properties influence microplastic detection and recovery in biological matrices (Cole et al. 2014; Dehaut et al. 2016).

Particle size distribution

Particle size analysis revealed pronounced differences among polymer types (Table 1 and Fig. 2). Median particle sizes ranged from 15.4 μm for HDPE to 70.7 μm for PET, indicating substantial variability in particle dimensions after digestion and filtration.

HDPE particles were predominantly small, with 96% measuring $< 50 \mu\text{m}$, while only 4% fell within the 50–100 μm size class. Similarly, PVC and PA particles were largely within the smallest size fraction, with 69% and 71% $< 50 \mu\text{m}$, respectively. In contrast, PET exhibited a markedly different size distribution, with only 14% $< 50 \mu\text{m}$, while 46% and 40% of particles occurred in the 50–100 μm and 100–300 μm ranges, respectively (Table 2).

The predominance of smaller particles among HDPE, PA, and PVC reflects both the initial particle size characteristics and possible size reduction during sample handling and processing. Smaller particles are also more readily retained on filters and detected by $\mu\text{FT-IR}$ imaging, contributing to their higher representation in the dataset.

Conversely, the larger size distribution observed for PET is consistent with its higher mechanical rigidity and resistance to fragmentation reported for polyester polymers (Andrady 2011). The lower proportion of small PET particles may also contribute to its reduced recovery ef-

Table 2 Percentage distribution of detected particles by size class.

Size class (μm)	HDPE	PA	PVC	PET
< 50	96%	71%	69%	14%
50–100	4%	23%	21%	46%
100–300	0%	6%	10%	40%
> 300	0%	0%	0%	0%

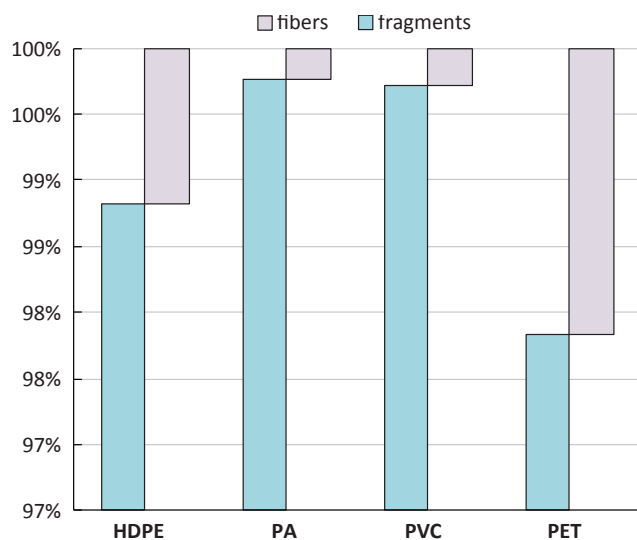


Fig. 3 Morphological distribution of HDPE, PA, PVC and PET particles detected after enzymatic digestion.

iciency, as larger particles are more prone to loss during transfer and handling steps. The dominance of particles $< 50 \mu\text{m}$ is consistent with previous microplastic recovery studies in biological matrices, where small particles

represent the dominant fraction detected after digestion and filtration (Cole et al. 2014; Li et al. 2015). This size range is of particular ecological relevance, as smaller microplastics exhibit higher bioavailability and increased potential for trophic transfer.

Overall, these findings demonstrate that the enzymatic digestion protocol enables recovery and detection of polymer particles across a broad size spectrum while maintaining size characteristics necessary for reliable quantitative analysis.

Morphological characteristics of recovered polymer particles

Microscopic examination revealed that the recovered polymer particles exhibited irregular shapes and heterogeneous surface features characteristic of fragment-like microplastics. Most particles were classified as irregular fragments rather than fibers or films. Morphological differences were observed among polymer types. HDPE particles appeared predominantly as angular fragments, while PA particles showed more compact shapes with smoother edges. PVC particles exhibited irregular geometry with varied opacity, whereas PET particles were generally larger and more compact, often displaying

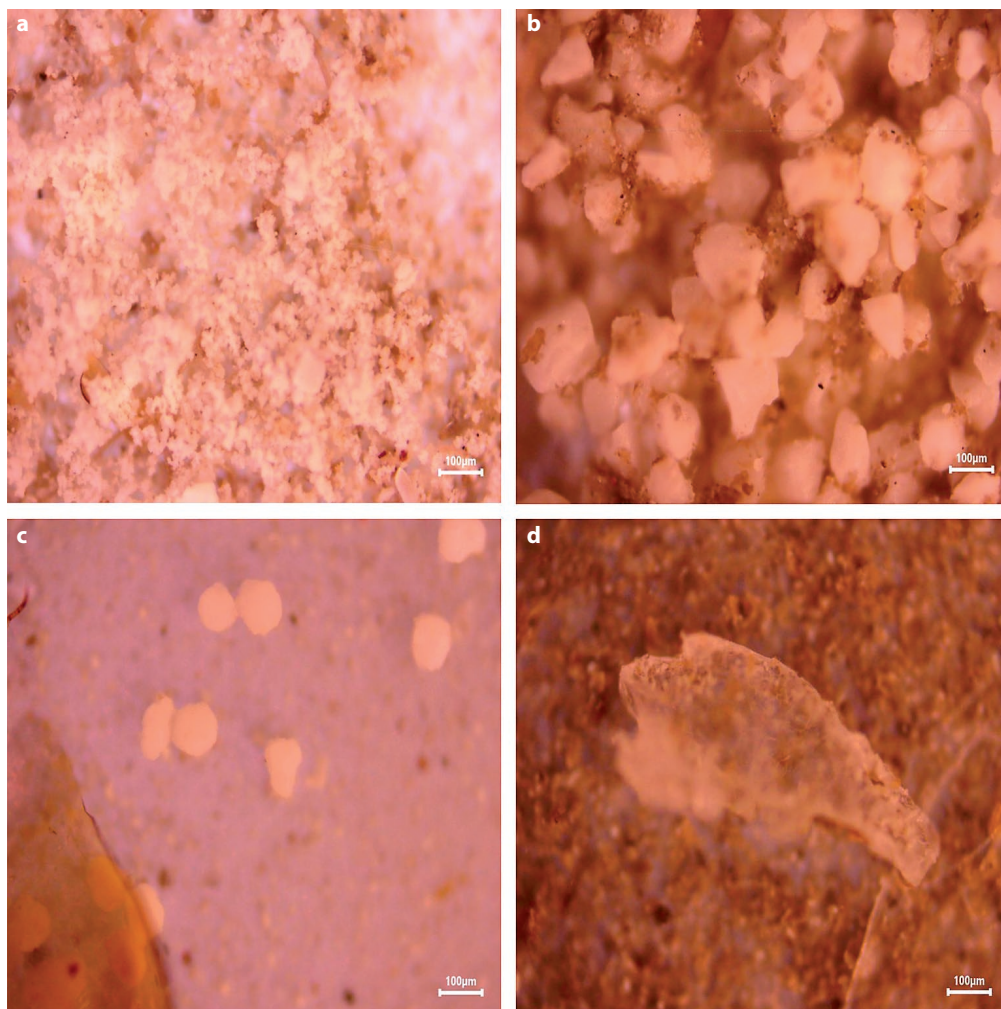


Fig. 4 Representative optical micrographs of polymer particles retained on filters after enzymatic digestion showing (a) HDPE, (b) PA, (c) PVC and (d) PET.

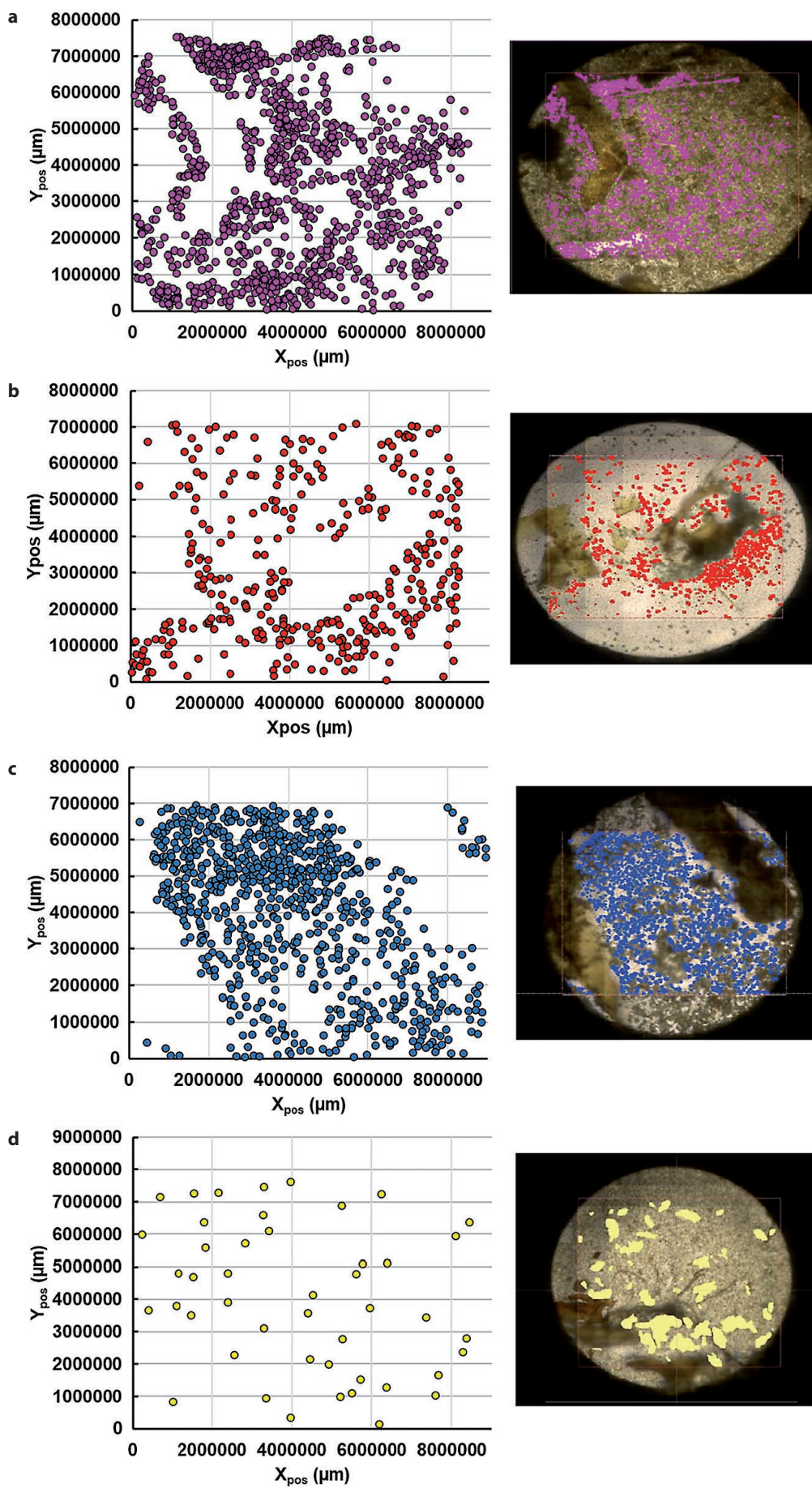


Fig. 5 μ FT-IR imaging maps showing the spatial distribution and polymer identification of particles on filter surfaces: (a) HDPE, (b) PA, (c) PVC and (d) PET.

smoother surfaces and well-defined edges. Quantitative analysis of particle morphology confirmed the predominance of irregular fragments across all polymer types (Fig. 3). Shape descriptors derived from μ FT-IR imaging data indicated that most particles had aspect ratios characteristic of fragment-like particles rather than elongated structures.

Representative optical micrographs illustrating the morphology and surface characteristics of the recovered particles are presented in Fig. 4a–d, highlighting differences in transparency, surface features, and edge definition among polymer types.

The predominance of irregular fragment-like shapes is consistent with morphologies commonly reported for environmental secondary microplastics (Cole et al. 2011; Hidalgo-Ruz et al. 2012). No visible surface degradation, melting, or structural alteration was observed following enzymatic digestion, indicating that the digestion protocol preserved polymer morphology. The observed

variability in particle morphology and size suggests that particle shape may influence settling behavior and spatial distribution on the filters, which is further examined in the following section.

Spatial distribution and clustering patterns of polymer particles

Spatial analysis based on μ FT-IR imaging coordinates revealed heterogeneous distribution patterns of polymer particles across the filter surfaces (Fig. 5 and Fig. 6). Scatter maps showed that particles were not uniformly dispersed but instead formed localized clusters and density gradients. HDPE particles, characterized by their small size and high abundance, appeared relatively evenly distributed across the filter surface. In contrast, PA and PVC particles showed moderate clustering, with localized accumulations observed in specific regions. PET particles, which were generally larger and less numerous, appeared in discrete areas rather than evenly distributed.

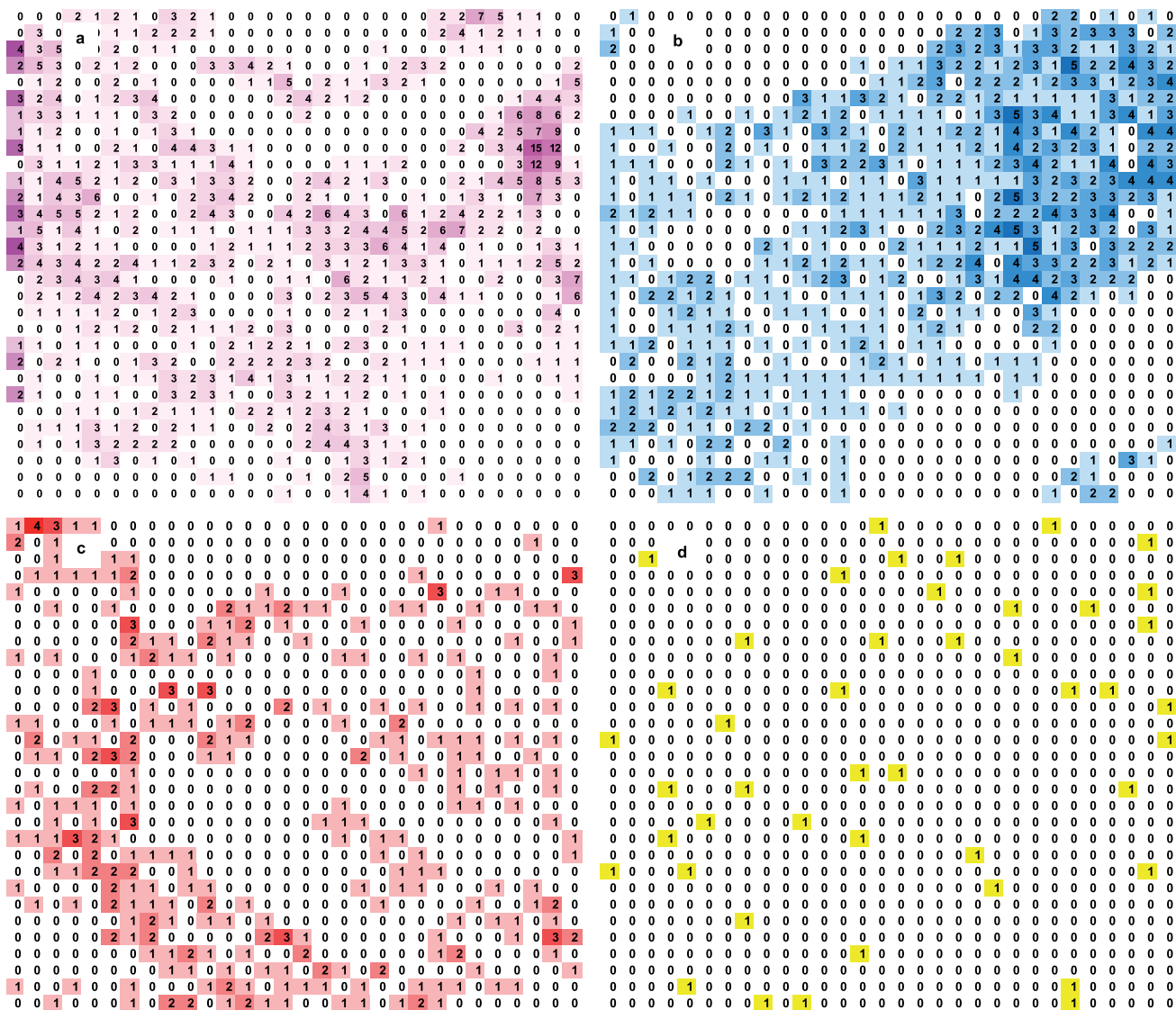


Fig. 6 Density maps showing spatial clustering and concentration patterns of polymer particles on filters after enzymatic digestion: (a) HDPE, (b) PA, (c) PVC and (d) PET.

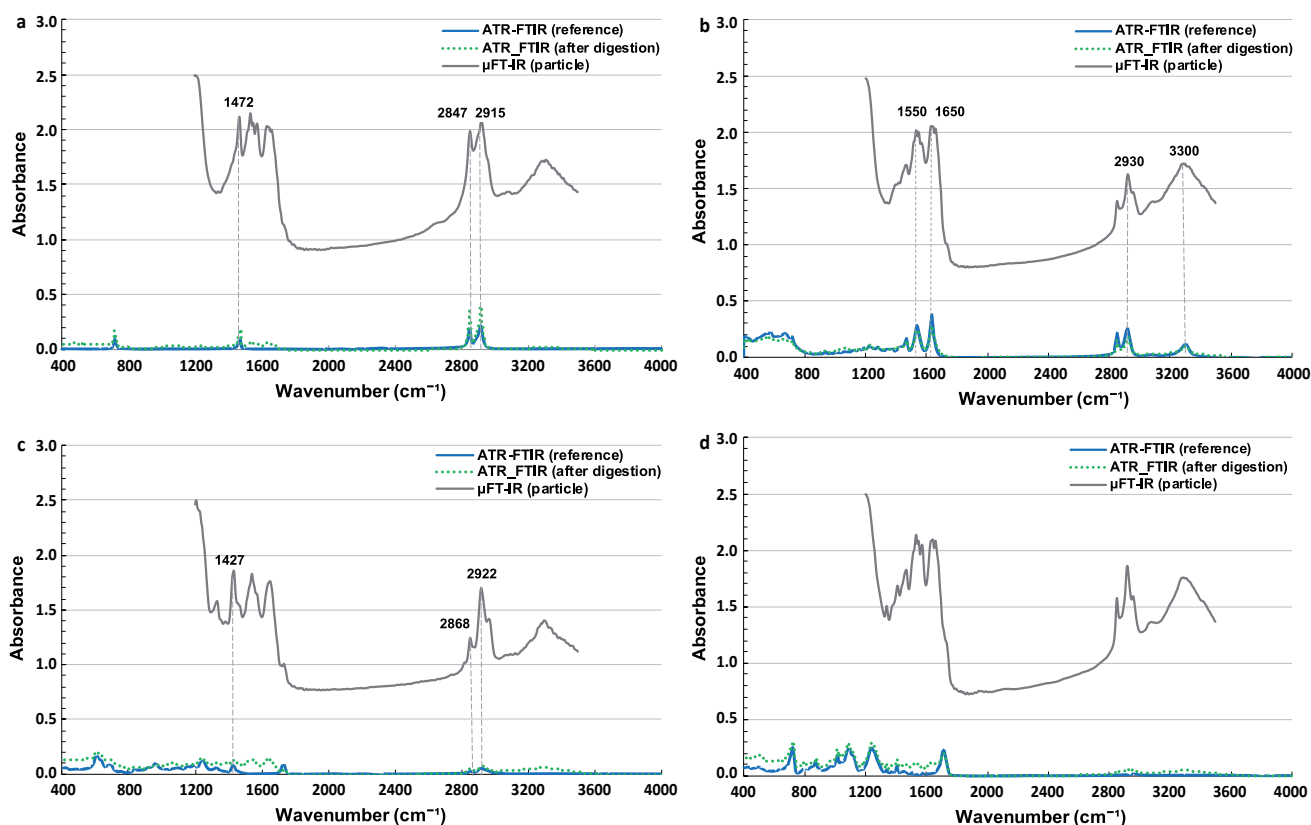


Fig. 7 Comparative ATR-FTIR reference spectra recorded before and after digestion and corresponding μ FT-IR spectra of HDPE (a), PA (b), PVC (c) and PET (d) particles recovered following enzymatic digestion.

Density maps further highlighted these spatial trends, revealing zones of increased particle concentration (Fig. 6). Such heterogeneity likely reflects hydrodynamic processes during vacuum filtration, particle-particle interactions, and differences in settling behavior influenced by particle size and morphology. Non-uniform particle deposition on filter membranes has been reported in previous microplastic studies and represents an important methodological consideration, particularly when only subareas of a filter are analyzed, as this may affect quantitative estimates (Löder et al. 2017; Mintenig et al. 2019). Spatial clustering may influence quantitative estimates and should therefore be considered when designing imaging strategies. Overall, spatial mapping indicates that particle size and morphology may influence distribution behavior during filtration, reinforcing the importance of whole-filter imaging or standardized scanning protocols in microplastic analysis.

Spectroscopic identification and polymer integrity

Polymer identity was confirmed through comparison of μ FT-IR spectra obtained from recovered particles with ATR-FTIR reference spectra recorded prior to enzymatic digestion (Fig. 7a–d). All four polymers exhibited characteristic absorption bands consistent with their known chemical structures. For HDPE, strong C–H stretching vibrations were observed in the region of 2848–2915 cm^{-1}

(Fig. 7a), along with characteristic bending vibrations near 1470 and 720 cm^{-1} (Campanale et al. 2023; Circelli et al. 2024). PA particles displayed prominent amide I and amide II bands around 1650 and 1550 cm^{-1} , respectively (Fig. 7b), as well as N–H stretching vibrations near 3300 cm^{-1} (Narayanan and Janardhanan 2024; Schwab et al. 2024). PVC spectra (Fig. 7c) were characterized by C–Cl related absorptions in the fingerprint region between 600–700 cm^{-1} (Fernández-Sanmartín et al. 2024), while PET showed a distinct ester carbonyl band near 1715–1730 cm^{-1} (Fig. 7d) and aromatic ring vibrations in the 1400–1600 cm^{-1} range (Lujic et al. 2025).

The preservation of diagnostic absorption bands indicates that the enzymatic digestion procedure did not induce detectable chemical alteration of the polymers. Enzymatic digestion selectively degrades biological proteins, lipids, and carbohydrates (Mo et al. 2018; von Friesen et al. 2019; Di Fiore et al. 2024; Khan and Zaidi 2025) while leaving synthetic polymers structurally intact, in contrast to strong oxidative or acidic treatments that may cause surface oxidation or chain scission (Karami et al. 2017; Prata et al. 2019). Minor differences between ATR-FTIR and μ FT-IR spectra may arise from differences in measurement geometry (ATR contact mode versus reflection imaging), particle thickness, surface roughness, and scattering effects associated with filter-based measurements, as discussed in vibrational microspectroscopy studies (Käppler et al. 2016). Such differences do not indicate

chemical degradation but rather methodological variability inherent to spectroscopic techniques. The strong spectral agreement between reference and recovered particles demonstrates the suitability of the combined enzymatic digestion and μ FT-IR imaging approach for accurate polymer identification in *Mytilus galloprovincialis* and similar marine biological matrices.

Methodological implications and study limitations

The present study demonstrates that enzymatic digestion using Kreon[®]25000 combined with μ FT-IR imaging provides a reliable workflow for the recovery, identification, and characterization of polymer particles from *Mytilus galloprovincialis* mussel tissue. The protocol effectively removed biological material while preserving particle morphology and chemical integrity, enabling robust spectroscopic confirmation and spatial analysis.

Several methodological insights emerge from the results. First, particle size strongly influences detectability and numerical recovery. Polymers dominated by smaller size fractions (e.g., HDPE) yielded higher particle counts per unit mass, whereas larger particles (e.g., PET) resulted in lower numerical abundance despite comparable mass addition. This highlights the importance of considering both particle number and size distribution when evaluating recovery efficiency. Second, spatial clustering observed on filters indicates that particle deposition during vacuum filtration is not entirely uniform. Such heterogeneity may introduce variability if only partial areas of the filter are analyzed. Whole-filter imaging or standardized scanning strategies are recommended to minimize sampling bias, as emphasized in methodological studies on representative microplastic analysis (Löder et al. 2017). Third, the preservation of diagnostic FT-IR bands confirms that enzymatic digestion is polymer-compatible and avoids the chemical alterations sometimes associated with strong oxidative or acidic digestion protocols (Karami et al. 2017; Prata et al. 2019).

Despite these strengths, certain limitations should be acknowledged. The present study was conducted using controlled spiking experiments, with one analyzed filter per polymer type. While this design allows clear evaluation of polymer recovery and integrity, it does not address environmental variability or replicate-based statistical uncertainty. Future studies should incorporate multiple replicates and environmentally aged particles to further validate the robustness of the method under complex real-world conditions. Additionally, detection efficiency decreases for particles approaching the spatial resolution limit of μ FT-IR imaging, potentially leading to underestimation of the smallest microplastic fraction (Käppler et al. 2016).

Overall, the findings support enzymatic digestion combined with μ FT-IR imaging as a robust and polymer-preserving approach for microplastic analysis in biological matrices, while highlighting the importance of

standardized imaging strategies and replication in future investigations.

Conclusion

This study demonstrates that enzymatic digestion using Kreon[®]25000 provides an effective and polymer-preserving approach for the recovery and identification of microplastic particles from *Mytilus galloprovincialis* tissue. The protocol achieved efficient removal of the biological matrix while maintaining particle morphology and chemical integrity, enabling reliable microscopic and spectroscopic analysis. Recovery efficiency varied among polymers and was strongly influenced by particle size and material properties. HDPE and PA exhibited higher numerical recovery, whereas PET showed lower particle counts, likely due to larger particle size and higher density. Size distribution analysis revealed dominance of particles <50 μ m for HDPE, PA, and PVC, while PET particles were predominantly larger. μ FT-IR imaging enabled accurate polymer identification and spatial mapping, revealing heterogeneous particle deposition and localized clustering patterns on filter surfaces. Morphological analysis confirmed the predominance of irregular fragment-like particles. Comparison of ATR-FTIR reference spectra with μ FT-IR spectra obtained after digestion confirmed preservation of diagnostic polymer bands, demonstrating that enzymatic treatment did not induce detectable chemical changes. Overall, the combined use of enzymatic digestion and μ FT-IR imaging represents a reliable workflow for microplastic analysis in marine biological matrices. The findings highlight the importance of particle size, spatial distribution, and standardized imaging strategies for accurate quantification and characterization. Future studies incorporating replicate samples and environmentally aged particles will further strengthen method validation under realistic environmental conditions.

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