

1 Dynamics of low and high density microplastics in the world's largest choked coastal
2 lagoon under contrasting meteoceanographic conditions

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12 **ABSTRACT**

13 The contamination by plastic waste in aquatic environments has become a global issue,
14 scientifically reported since 1970. The size and durability of microplastics (MPs, 1 μm >
15 5 mm) have made these debris widely distributed in aquatic environments. Despite
16 various ongoing initiatives, there is a need to fill gaps in understanding how MPs are
17 transported from their release sources to their final destinations. Therefore, understanding
18 the distribution and dynamics of MPs in coastal areas, such as lagoons and estuaries,
19 which are considered continental sources of MPs to the oceans, is essential to help fill
20 these gaps and propose alternatives for managing what is the environmental problem of
21 the century. In this context, this study aimed to assess the transport patterns of MPs in
22 Patos Lagoon, the largest choked coastal lagoon in the world, considering contrasting
23 meteoceanographic conditions in the system dynamics, such as wind and discharge.
24 Using the hydrodynamic model TELEMAC-3D and the model for plastics particles
25 TrackMPD, simulations were performed using a type of MP polymer (Polypropylene -
26 PP). The simulations of MP transport considered advection, dispersion and the
27 contribution of biofilm in increasing particle density (representing high-density
28 microplastics). The results indicated a gradient of MPs retention from north to south, with
29 higher concentrations of MPs occurring in the northern part of the system. The central
30 region of the lagoon showed a greater tendency for MP export towards the southern region
31 than retention. Meanwhile, the estuary region of Patos Lagoon exhibited a tendency for

32 export of low-density MPs free of biofilm and retention of higher-density MPs, subject
33 to the action of the Plastisphere. Additionally, based on the results obtained from density
34 occurrence maps, it was possible to suggest potential accumulation areas of MPs
35 throughout the lagoon system, reinforcing that the system can act as a sink in specific
36 regions.

37 Keywords: plastic contamination; plastic accumulation; hot spots; estuaries; coastal
38 lagoons; numerical modelling.

39

40 **1. INTRODUCTION**

41 The presence of plastic debris in aquatic environments has been documented in the
42 scientific literature since the early 1970s, and in contemporary times, plastic
43 contamination became ubiquity in these environments. The origin of plastics in the oceans
44 can be attributed to both continental and maritime sources. According to Andrady (2011),
45 approximately 80% of this contribution is linked to microplastics from continental
46 sources (Li et al., 2018), which are highly susceptible to enter the aquatic environment
47 through rivers, surface runoff, and wastewater systems because of their low density and
48 weight (Horton et al. 2017). Meijer et al. (2021) estimated that between 0.08 and 2.7
49 million tons of plastics enter the oceans annually through rivers.

50 Among the different aspects related to the problem, special attention can be given to
51 microplastics (MPs), which encompasses a diverse array of microparticles and fibers,
52 typically ranging in size from 1 μm to 5 mm (Hanvey et al., 2017). Unlike their larger
53 plastic counterparts, MPs may be of primary origin, intentionally manufactured in this
54 size range (as pellets), or of secondary origin, resulting from the gradual breakdown of
55 larger plastic items within the environment (Horton et al., 2017). Their small size and
56 enduring nature present distinct challenges, as they can easily infiltrate and persist within
57 marine and coastal ecosystems indefinitely. From surface waters to the ocean floor,
58 microplastics have been documented (Barnes et al., 2009; Ling et al., 2017, Pan et al.,
59 2019; Abel et al., 2021; Erkan et al., 2023; Tsuchiya et al., 2024), directly and indirectly
60 affecting these environments. Their presence give rise to detrimental consequences,
61 including alterations in habitats (Gall & Thompson, 2015), disruptions to socio-economic
62 activities, adverse effects on aquatic organisms (Wright et al., 2013; Koelmans et al.,
63 2016), and even potential implications for human health (Napper et al., 2019).

64 Despite various initiatives to understand the transport and distribution patterns of MPs in
65 different aquatic compartments, obtaining a comprehensive global view of their
66 distribution remains challenging. Discrepancies between the estimated amount of plastic
67 floating on the ocean surface (Eriksen et al., 2014) and the estimated amount entering the
68 ocean (Jambeck et al., 2015) suggest that some of this debris may be retained near its
69 source regions. With approximately half of the world's population living within 80 km of
70 the coast, coastal areas are already indicated as sources of plastics to the oceans (Cole et
71 al., 2011) as well as accumulation environments (sinks). High concentrations have been
72 observed in port areas (Auta et al., 2017), as well as salt marshes (Weinstein et al., 2016;
73 Pinheiro et al., 2021) and estuaries (Díez-Minguito et al., 2020; Forero-López et al., 2021;
74 Shabaka et al., 2022; Banik et al., 2024).

75 The distribution of these debris can be complex, with a significant portion remaining
76 suspended in the water column (Ikenoue et al., 2023), while some may sink (Lobelle et
77 al., 2021), and others may be transported to beaches (Ranjani et al., 2022) and coastal
78 areas. Generally, microplastics with a density range lower (higher) than the surrounding
79 fluid are more likely to float (sink) in the water column (Waldschläger & Schüttrumpf,
80 2019), being considered low-density (high-density) MPs. Low-density MPs, such as
81 polypropylene, have a density range of 0.90-0.99 g/cm³; however, particle density may
82 vary due to biofouling development (Chubarenko et al., 2016), resulting in high-density
83 MPs. Among the processes that can be responsible for the removal of MPs from the
84 surface, one of the most relevant is biofouling (Kaiser et al., 2017). This can be defined
85 as the colonization of micro to macro-organisms on the surface of a consolidated
86 substrate, and it is called Plastisphere when formed on plastic debris (Zettler et al., 2013,
87 Su et al., 2022).

88 The monitoring of MPs distribution in coastal ecosystems is crucial for obtaining insights
89 into the transport and accumulation patterns of these particles, which are of utmost
90 importance for the proper management of these pollutants (Kershaw et al., 2015).
91 However, monitoring studies are conducted through sampling efforts, which involve high
92 financial costs and time demands, especially in larger areas. Due to the challenges
93 associated with monitoring this type of solid waste, the numerical modeling approach has
94 emerged as a promising and alternative tool for understanding the distribution of MPs in
95 extensive areas and in the water column (Isobe et al., 2009; Lebreton et al., 2012; Critchell
96 & Lambrechts, 2016; Jálón-Rojas et al., 2019; Díez-Minguito et al., 2020; Baudena et al.,

97 2022). This approach exposes these particles to different physical processes, allowing for
98 tracking and providing insights into their origins, distribution and destinations. Moreover,
99 it contributes to more accurate mapping of potential risk areas and suggests monitoring
100 sites. Numerical models also facilitate the evaluation of hypothetical scenarios and the
101 consistent interpretation of sparse data.

102 Patos Lagoon is considered the largest choked coastal lagoon in the world (Kjerfve,
103 1986), serving as a central hub for population, commerce, industry and recreation. As a
104 result, it is also subject to the disposal of industrial and municipal waste. According to
105 Santos et al., (2023), between the years 2010 and 2017, the annual input of plastic waste
106 into Patos Lagoon was estimated between 21.67 and 107.19 thousand tonnes, with the
107 main polymers found being Polypropylene (PP), Polyethylene (PE), and Polyvinyl
108 Chloride (PVC). In the estuarine area is located the second largest harbor of Brazil, Rio
109 Grande Harbor. This industrial area is responsible for the transport and operation of up to
110 50 million tons per year, subjecting this region to large amounts of urban waste (Pineiro
111 et al., 2021).

112 Recent studies have highlighted the occurrence of plastic debris in different areas of Patos
113 Lagoon (Fig. 1) (Silva & Sousa, 2021; Alves et al., 2022; Pineiro et al., 2022; Santos et
114 al., 2023). Rodriguez et al. (2024) simulated the export of MPs through the Patos Lagoon
115 coastal plume and their accumulation tendency in the coastal zone, but despite these
116 efforts, studies focusing on the transport of MPs in the lagoon main water body remain
117 limited due to its length (240 km). In this context, the aim of this study was to investigate
118 the advection and dispersion transport process of both low and high-density MPs in Patos
119 Lagoon, considering contrasting meteoceanographic conditions and high-density MPs
120 resulting from biofouling formation and its implications for the transport patterns. This
121 study was carried out with the TrackMPD model.

122

123 **2. MATERIAL AND METHODS**

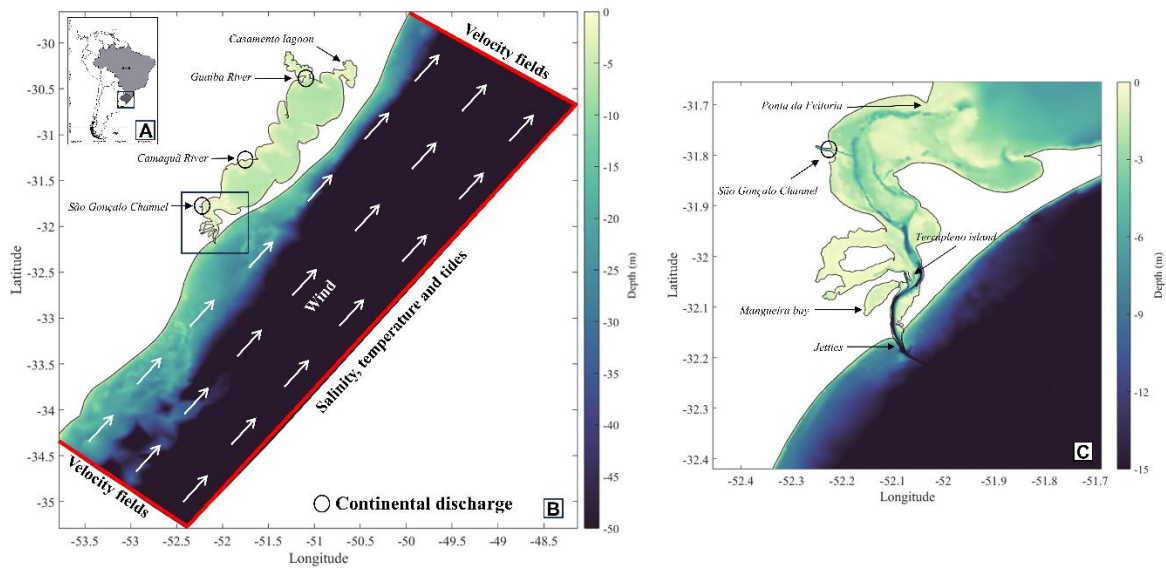
124 **2.1 STUDY AREA**

125 Patos Lagoon is a shallow coastal plain choked lagoon located in southern Brazil (30° –
126 32° S, 50°– 52° W) (Fig. 1). With an area of approximately 10.230 km², extending over
127 240 km, and with an average depth of 5 m, the lagoon drains a basin of 200.00 km².
128 Predominantly consisting of freshwater, the main body of the lagoon experiences coastal

129 water influence within the initial 60 km from the lagoon's mouth, defining the Patos
130 Lagoon Estuary (Fig. 1C). The estuarine area is the deepest region of the system due to
131 the presence of natural and artificial channels (Möller et al., 2001), and it is also the only
132 connection to the Atlantic Ocean through a long (20 km) and narrow (500 m) channel
133 fixed by a pair of 4 km long jetties (Fig. 1C) (Franzen et al., 2023).

134 The lagoon hydrodynamics is driven by continental discharges and the action of both
135 remote and local winds (Moller et al., 2001; Vaz et al., 2006). The main tributaries of the
136 lagoon are Guaíba and Camaquã rivers and São Gonçalo Channel. The continental
137 discharges in the lagoon have seasonal variability typical of mid-latitudes, with high
138 discharges in austral winter and late spring and low discharges during austral summer and
139 fall and with interannual (Távora et al., 2020) and interdecadal variations (Bortolin et al.,
140 2022). The lagoon is also under the influence of ENSO cycles, resulting in higher (El
141 Niño) or lower (La Niña) precipitation and continental discharges (Távora et al., 2019).

142 Although the lagoon circulation is influenced by both local and remote wind effects, the
143 local winds act as the primary driving force of the main lagoon body (Fig. 1B) when
144 discharges are $< 2000 \text{ m}^3 \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$, producing a set-up/set-down mechanism. Meanwhile, non-
145 local winds tend to promote the exchanges between the estuarine area and the adjacent
146 continental shelf (Fig.1C) due to the Ekman Transport acting 90° of the wind direction.
147 Throughout the year, northeasterly (NE) winds dominate, while southwesterly (SW)
148 become more important during autumn and winter, as frontal systems become more
149 frequent (Möller et al., 2001). This regional wind pattern coincides with the main axis of
150 the lagoon (NE – SW). Moller et al. (1996) indicated that easterly (E) winds occurring
151 during summer and spring are a result of sea breezes.



152

153 Figure 1: Study area (A, B, C). Model domain with the main tributaries of the lagoon
 154 (outline dots), bathymetric information represented in the color scale, identification of
 155 open boundaries, and applied boundary conditions for the simulations (B). Patos Lagoon
 156 estuary (C).

157

158 **2.2 HYDRODYNAMIC MODEL**

159 The TELEMAC-3D hydrodynamic model, version V7P0, was applied
 160 (<http://www.opentelemac.org>) to generate the advective field for the MPs dispersion
 161 simulations with TrackMPD. TELEMAC-3D was developed by the Laboratoire National
 162 d'Hydraulique (LNH) of Electricite de France (EDF). Based on the Finite Element
 163 Method, it solves the Reynolds averaged three-dimensional Navier-Stokes equations,
 164 considering local variations in the free surface of the fluid over time and hydrostatic
 165 pressure, in addition to Boussinesq approximations to solve the motion equations
 166 (Hervouet, 2007). The resulting equations are suitable for application in shallow waters,
 167 where vertical fluid velocities are much smaller than horizontal velocities. Advection and
 168 diffusion equations are used for calculating the transport of tracers such as temperature,
 169 salinity and suspended sediment. The key outcomes obtained at each point of the
 170 numerical grid include velocities in the three directions (u , v , and w), concentrations of
 171 transported tracers, and the elevation of the free surface of the fluid.

172 The numerical domain of the model encompasses the entire lagoon and extends to a depth
 173 of 2.300 m in the adjacent coastal region (Fig. 1B), being discretized through a non-

174 structured grid of finite elements that allows more control of the element distribution
175 within the domain, and consequently, more autonomy to establish finer resolution in
176 regions with complex morphology or bathymetry. Vertical discretization was achieved
177 through 7 sigma layers. The non-structured grid used in this study comprises 52.098
178 points and was generated through the BlueKenue software, version 3.3.4,
179 (<https://nrc.canada.ca/en>). The hydrodynamic performance of TELEMAC for the study
180 area has been extensively calibrated and validated by various authors (Fernandes et al.,
181 2002, 2005, 2007, 2021; Bitencourt et al., 2020, Lisboa et al., 2022, Franzen et al., 2023),
182 consistently showing good to excellent results for both RMSE and RMAE. The resulting
183 grid has already been calibrated and validated by Silva et al. (2002), who also presents
184 details about the configurations used for this simulations.

185 Initial and boundary conditions for the numerical grid were extracted from different
186 sources, interpolated, and prescribed at the respective open boundaries of the grid (Fig.
187 1B). Throughout the three-dimensional domain, initial fields of salinity and temperature
188 were prescribed based on the results of the Hybrid Coordinate Ocean Model (HYCOM,
189 <https://hycom.org>) + NCODA, which have a temporal resolution of 1 day and a spatial
190 resolution of $1/12^\circ$. Initial concentrations of suspended sediment were considered null
191 throughout the domain. The OSU Tidal Inversion System (OTIS) was used for
192 prescribing sea surface elevation at oceanic boundaries. Sea surface elevation is
193 calculated by the inverse solution of Laplace's equations for tidal dynamics, using data
194 collected by the TOPEX/POSEIDON Project, internally available in the TELEMAC-3D
195 model. To obtain a reliable estimate of sea surface elevation, 33 tidal harmonic
196 components were considered. Once the sea surface elevation is known at one edge point,
197 the Continuity Equation is integrated, and the components of current velocity are
198 obtained. At the surface boundary, the numerical grid was forced with results from the
199 global ECMWF model (European Center for Medium-Range Weather Forecast,
200 <http://www.ecmwf.int>), with a temporal resolution of 24 h and spatial resolution of 0.75° .
201 At the continental boundaries, daily river discharge data from the National Water Agency
202 (ANA, <http://www.ana.gov.br>) for Guaíba River and Camaquã River were used. For the
203 São Gonçalo Channel discharge, water level data obtained from the Mirim Lagoon
204 Agency (ALM, <https://wp.ufpel.edu.br/alm/agencia>) were used and transformed into
205 daily discharge from a rating curve (Oliveira et al., 2015).

206 The period of interest for our study corresponds to the entire year of 2013 (365 days),
207 saved every 24 hours. This specific year was chosen based on the Oceanic Niño Index
208 (ONI) analysis, where it appears as a neutral year with respect to the warm and cold
209 phases of the ENSO phenomenon. Therefore, selecting the year 2013 allows studying the
210 MPs transport process in the Patos Lagoon and its estuary under hydrodynamic conditions
211 without the influence of the ENSO phenomenon. To accomplish this, the hydrodynamic
212 model results were used to force the TrackMPD model (Jalón-Rojas et al., 2019).

213

214 **2.3 LAGRAGIAN TRACKING MODEL**

215 The Tracking Marine Plastic Debris model (TrackMPD, Jálón-Rojas et al., 2019), is a
216 particle transport model that accepts current velocities from various hydrodynamic
217 models such as MOHID, POM, MARS, NEMO, and TELEMAC-3D. The hydrodynamic
218 velocities that the model supports can result from the discretization of structured or
219 unstructured grids. Regarding the vertical discretization of the domain, TrackMPD
220 accepts hybrid vertical coordinates (z - σ) and sigma coordinates (σ), depending on the
221 settings used in the hydrodynamic model. It takes into account the physical characteristics
222 of each type of plastic, such as size, shape, particle density and settling velocity.
223 Additionally, processes influencing the behavior and transport of MPs, such as advection,
224 turbulence, deposition, beaching, resuspension, biofouling, and degradation, can be
225 independently added to the model, according to the purpose of the study.

226 TrackMPD can be used in both 2D and 3D modes. Its operation occurs in two stages,
227 where the first involves the integration and storage of velocity fields derived from the
228 hydrodynamic model, and the second consists of simulations involving the calculation of
229 particle trajectories. Once the velocities have been converted to TrackMPD's standard
230 input formats (step 1), different simulations can be conducted using various model
231 configurations (step 2), without the need for new integrations of the hydrodynamic
232 results.

233 As the model is based on a Lagrangian approach, each particle is advected using the
234 velocity fields, where the latter is interpolated in both time and space for the particle's
235 location. Advection can be calculated using the second or fourth-order Runge-Kutta
236 method (RK2 and RK4). Higher orders in the method, despite exhibiting better precision,
237 entail higher computational costs. Additionally, considering the temporal and spatial

238 scales of the studied physical problem, it is necessary to configure the integration time
 239 interval for the calculation of particle advection. TrackMPD resolves calculations at two
 240 integration timescales, an external and an internal one. The external timestep (Δt_e) is
 241 derived from the hydrodynamic model and corresponds to its outputs (e.g., results every
 242 24 h). The internal timestep (Δt_i) is used for calculating particle trajectories (e.g., 30
 243 minutes). To compute advection accurately and avoid an exaggerated estimate of particle
 244 displacement, it is recommended to use a smaller internal timestep compared to the
 245 external one.

246 The behavior of particles in the water column depends on their physical characteristics,
 247 which determine their settling velocity (w_s , $m \cdot s^{-1}$). Settling velocity occurs when the
 248 gravitational force, minus the particle's buoyancy, is greater (smaller) than the drag force.
 249 Thus, particles exhibit positive buoyancy (rise) or negative buoyancy (settling). The
 250 settling velocity of MPs can be constant or vary over time due to the influence of
 251 degradation and biofouling formation, among other processes. Therefore, particle
 252 trajectories in a three-dimensional domain are determined by advection, diffusion, and
 253 their vertical displacements through the following equations:

$$254 \quad dX(t) = dX_{adv}(t) + dX_{diff}(t) = U(x, y, z, t)dt + dX'(t) \quad (1)$$

$$255 \quad dY(t) = dY_{adv}(t) + dY_{diff}(t) = V(x, y, z, t)dt + dY'(t) \quad (2)$$

$$256 \quad dZ(t) = dZ_{adv}(t) + dZ_{diff}(t) + dZ_{dep}(t) = W(x, y, z, t)dt + dZ'(t) - w_s(t)dt \quad (3)$$

257 where $dX_{adv} = (dX_{adv}, dY_{adv}, dZ_{adv})$ represents advection established in the zonal (x),
 258 meridional (y), and vertical (z) axes obtained through the velocity fields of the
 259 hydrodynamic model $U = (U, V, W)$. Turbulent diffusion $dX_{diff} = (dX_{diff}, dY_{diff}, dZ_{diff})$ is
 260 represented by a random component $dX' = (dX', dY', dZ')$ added to the particle's
 261 movement on a much smaller scale than the advection movement. Vertical displacements
 262 dZ_{dep} depend on the settling velocity (w_s) of MPs.

263 It is also possible to calculate the settling velocity through formulations provided in the
 264 model, which result from experiments involving MPs (Khatmullina & Isachenko, 2017;
 265 Waldschlager & Schuttrumpf, 2019; Jalón-Rojas et al, 2022). These experiments serve as
 266 a basis for more realistic parameterizations of the variables. Through these formulations,
 267 it is also possible to include the effect of biofouling on particles, which alters the settling

268 velocity (w_s). By defining a biofilm growth rate as a function of time, it is possible to
269 calculate the density rate varying over time ($\text{g}\cdot\text{cm}^3\cdot\text{day}$), defined as:

$$270 \quad P_s = P_0 + DR\Delta t_i$$

271 where P_0 is the polymer density, Δt_i is the internal timestep, responsible for calculating
272 displacements, and DR is the biofilm growth rate as a function of time. A more detailed
273 description of the model's equations and all available numerical processes and solutions
274 is presented by Jálón-Rojas et al. (2019). The TrackMPD validation for Patos Lagoon is
275 presented by Rodriguez et al. (2024). Simulations were carried out using TrackMPD
276 version 2.2.

277

278 **2.4 DENSITY PROBABILITY MAPS**

279 Using a statistical approach to better highlight the accumulation trends of MPs (hotspots),
280 results from the TrackMPD model were analyzed through probability density maps,
281 calculated using probability density functions (PDFs). These density maps provide a
282 visual representation of potential regions of MP accumulation in the system, identifying
283 areas with the highest probability of particle occurrence. According to Mitarai et al.
284 (2009), this type of analysis can be applied to determine expected tracer concentrations,
285 widely used for predicting dispersion patterns. The functions are calculated based on the
286 probability of a particle moving from one location to another during a time interval,
287 counting the number of particles per interval and subsequently normalizing by the total
288 number of the particles, mapping these through the grouping of particle positions into
289 histograms (Jálón-Rojas et al., 2019). The PDFs were calculated at a grid resolution of
290 approximately 0.03 km^2 .

291

292 **2.5 SIMULATIONS SETUP**

293 The simulations were carried out considering high (scenarios 2 and 4) and low (scenarios
294 1 and 3) continental discharge in Patos Lagoon (Tab. 1). In Scenarios 1 (low discharge)
295 and 2 (high discharge) the trajectories of low-density MPs were simulated considering
296 the entire lagoon, with MPs particles being released from the three main tributaries of the
297 system (Guaíba and Camaquã rivers and São Gonçalo Channel).

298 According to Santos et al. (2022), an estimate of the contribution of plastic waste from
299 the tributaries into Patos Lagoon suggests that Guaíba and Camaquã rivers, and São
300 Gonçalo Channel introduce percentage contributions of 60%, 20%, and 20% of the total
301 load of plastic waste into the system, respectively. Thus, for Scenario 1 and 2, covering
302 the entire lagoon, 2.000 particles were proportionally distributed among the three
303 tributaries (1.200, 400 and 400), and for Scenario 3 and 4, 400 particles were released
304 from São Gonçalo Channel (Tab 1). The authors also reported that among all types of
305 plastics described, the most abundant type was polypropylene (PP), which corroborates
306 with the results described by Rodriguez et al. (submitted). Therefore, in all simulated
307 scenarios, the chosen polymer type was PP.

308 For scenarios 1 and 2 in the main lagoon, the only physical processes taken into account
309 were advection and dispersion. For Scenarios 3 and 4, the transport and accumulation of
310 high-density MPs were simulated considering only the estuarine area, with MPs being
311 released only from São Gonçalo Channel. In these scenarios (3 and 4), in addition to
312 advection and dispersion, the biofouling process was also included in the configuration
313 setup, aiming to indicate the trajectory of high-density MPs. High-density MPs, represent
314 those subject to biofouling, included here to better understand how this phenomenon
315 influences MP dynamics in Patos Lagoon estuary. This decision was driven by the
316 recognition that estuarine regions often exhibit more pronounced interactions with marine
317 currents, which can significantly influence the fate and transport of high-density MPs. In
318 all scenarios, the horizontal coefficient (K_h) used were set up to 1, a typical value for
319 coastal systems (Jálon-Rojas et al., 2019). For scenarios involving high-density MPs,
320 biofouling rate (DR) was set to $0.0005 \text{ g.cm}^{-1}.\text{day}^{-1}$ (Jálon-Rojas et al. 2019). Simulations
321 were run at a 5-minute internal timestep (Δt_i), and only the horizontal displacements due
322 to advection and dispersion were taken into account when presenting the results.

323 Table 1: Simulations setup for the scenarios considering low-density MPs in the entire
324 lagoon (1 and 2) and high-density MPs in the estuary only (3 and 4).

325

326

327

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329

	<i>Scenarios</i>			
	<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>4</i>
Domain	Lagoon	Lagoon	Estuary	Estuary
Discharge	Low	High	Low	High
Tributaries	Gua/Cam/SãoG	Gua/Cam/SãoG	SãoG	SãoG
MP type / density	PP/ low	PP/ low	PP/ high	PP/ high
Number of MPs released from each tributary	1.200/ 400 / 400	1.200/ 400 / 400	400	400
Predominant wind	NE	SW	NE	SW
Biofouling rate	No	No	0.0005	0.0005

330

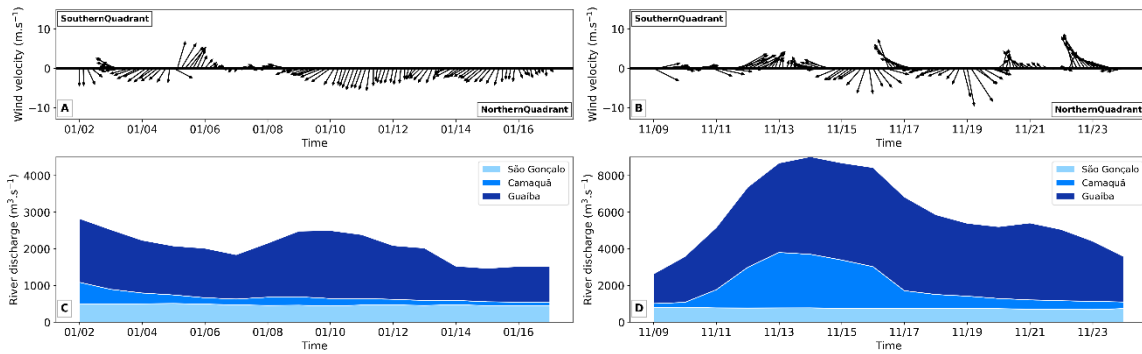
331 **3 RESULTS**

332 **3.1 HYDRODYNAMICS DURING LOW AND HIGH DISCHARGE PERIODS**

333 The analysis of the hydrodynamic conditions during the simulations serves as the starting
334 point for understanding the MPs dynamics in the system. The hydrodynamics of the
335 lagoon was assessed using information about the winds (Fig. 2A and 2B), freshwater
336 discharge from the tributaries (Fig. 2C and 2D) and resulting current velocity under
337 predominant wind conditions (Fig. 3).

338 During the low discharge period (Fig. 2C), maximum values ($2.000 \text{ m}^3 \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$) occurred in
339 Guaíba river, and smaller contributions from Camaquã river ($600 \text{ m}^3 \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$) and São Gonçalo
340 Channel ($500 \text{ m}^3 \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$) (Fig. 1). Winds were predominantly from the north quadrant (Fig.
341 2A). The highest (lower) wind velocities occur from the NE (E) direction, with speeds
342 exceeding $6 \text{ m} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$ ($2 \text{ m} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$).

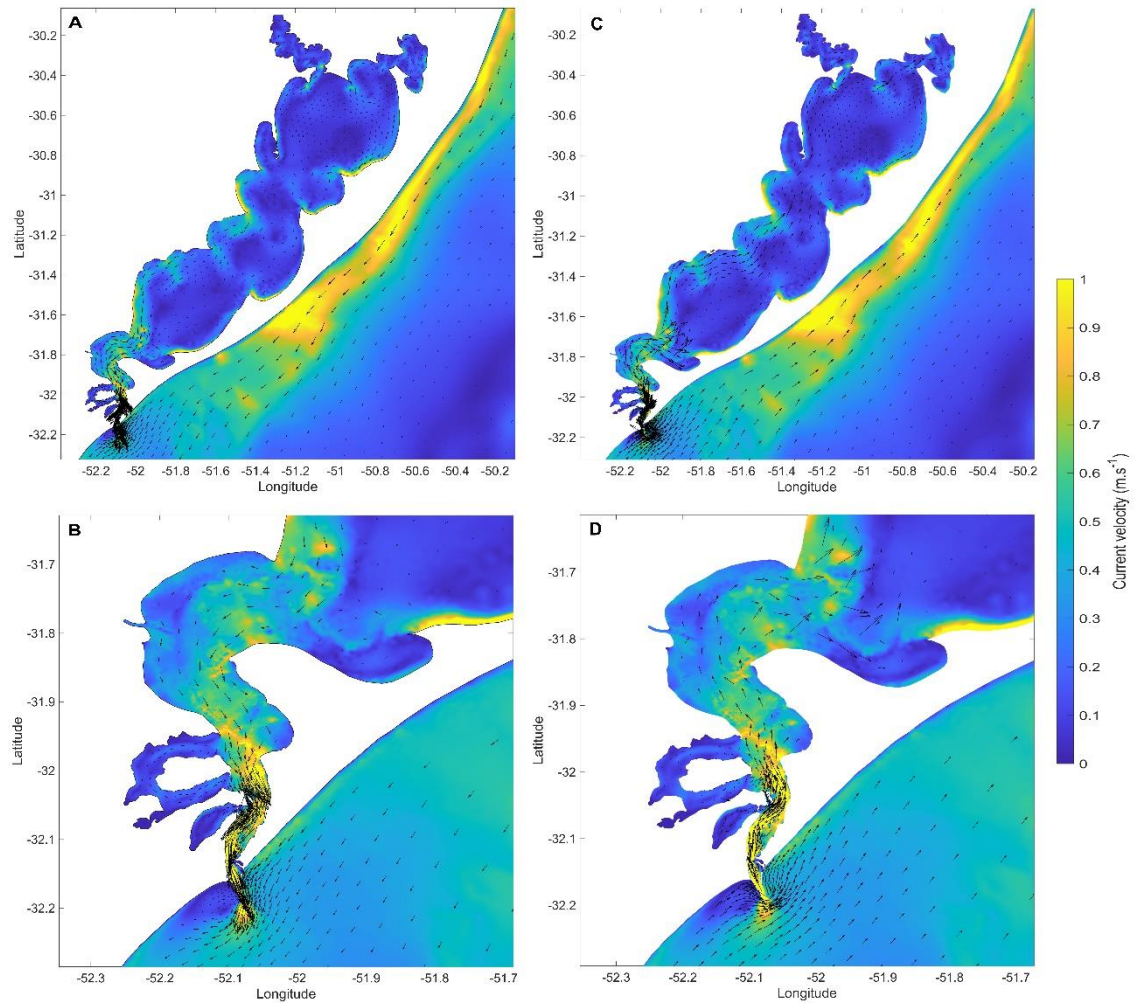
343 For simulations during the high discharge period (Fig. 2D), the maximum discharge
344 occurred in Guaíba river ($8.000 \text{ m}^3 \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$) and remained high during all the simulation. The
345 same occurs for the Camaquã river, which reached $3.000 \text{ m}^3 \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$, but not to São Gonçalo
346 Channel, which maintained low discharges ($800 \text{ m}^3 \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$) throughout the simulation (Fig.
347 2D). Winds during this period presented greater variability (Fig. 2B), with prevailing
348 wind direction (SW-NE) aligns with the main axis of the lagoon and wind speeds of 9
349 $\text{m} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$ and $7 \text{ m} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$ from the SW and NE directions, respectively (Fig. 2B).



350

351 Figure 2: 3-hour wind velocity and direction during low (A) and high discharge (B)
 352 simulated periods, where positive (negative) values represent winds from the south
 353 (north) quadrant. Discharges of the three main tributaries of Patos Lagoon during low (C)
 354 and high (D) discharge.

355 Figure 3 presents the resulting current velocity fields under the predominant wind
 356 directions NE (Fig. 3AB) and SW (Fig. 3CD) observed during the low and high discharge
 357 simulations. In the main lagoon water body, the lowest velocities occurred during both
 358 low and high discharge (Fig. AC). In the estuarine region, NE (SW) winds promoted more
 359 intense ebb (flood) currents, especially in the access channel, where the highest velocities
 360 occurred (Fig. 3BD). The impact of the winds on the currents is evident, along with the
 361 notably higher current velocities within the estuarine region compared to the northern
 362 sector of the lagoon. It is also possible to observe that through this wind pattern, more
 363 intense currents are observed along the margins of the lagoon body.



364

365 Figure 3: Current intensity and direction in Patos Lagoon during Northeast (AB) and
 366 Southwest (CD) wind events. Letters B and D represent the estuarine area.

367

368 **3.2 LOW-DENSITY MICROPLASTICS TRANSPORT IN THE LAGOON**
 369 **(SCENARIOS 1 AND 2)**

370 Figure 4 shows the trajectories of the low-density MPs together with their respective
 371 velocities (color scale) during the periods of low (Figs. 4A and 4B) and high (Figs. 4C
 372 and 4D) discharge in the entire lagoon. During the simulated period, it was observed that
 373 the 1200 MPs released from Guaíba river remained in the north of the system, with small
 374 dispersion towards the central lagoon. This is highlighted by the low MPs velocities,
 375 where most of them did not reach 0.2 m.s^{-1} . Notably, only those MPs reaching the lagoon's
 376 shores exhibited higher velocities (0.5 m.s^{-1}). Therefore, even with the predominance of
 377 northeast winds (Fig. 2A), the combination between the winds and low discharge (Fig.

378 2C) were not enough to enable a significant transport of MPs from the Guaíba river
379 towards the central region of the lagoon.

380 During the high discharge period (Figs. 4C and 4D), the dynamics of MPs released by the
381 Guaíba river is more intense. In the early stages of the simulation, a predominance of
382 westerly winds was observed (Fig. 2B), which, combined with the high discharge
383 provided by Guaíba river (Fig. 2D), imposed a transport of MPs towards the eastern
384 margin of the lagoon in the northern region, reaching velocities of 0.7 m.s^{-1} . However,
385 similarly to the behavior observed in the low discharge period (Figs. 4A and 4B), the
386 center of the northern cell continues to exhibit MPs with low velocities (0.1 m.s^{-1}). At the
387 end of the simulated period, the majority of MPs released from the Guaíba river was
388 directed southward, reaching the central region of the lagoon, while the others remained
389 trapped due to the low cellular circulation in the northernmost portion of the lagoon.

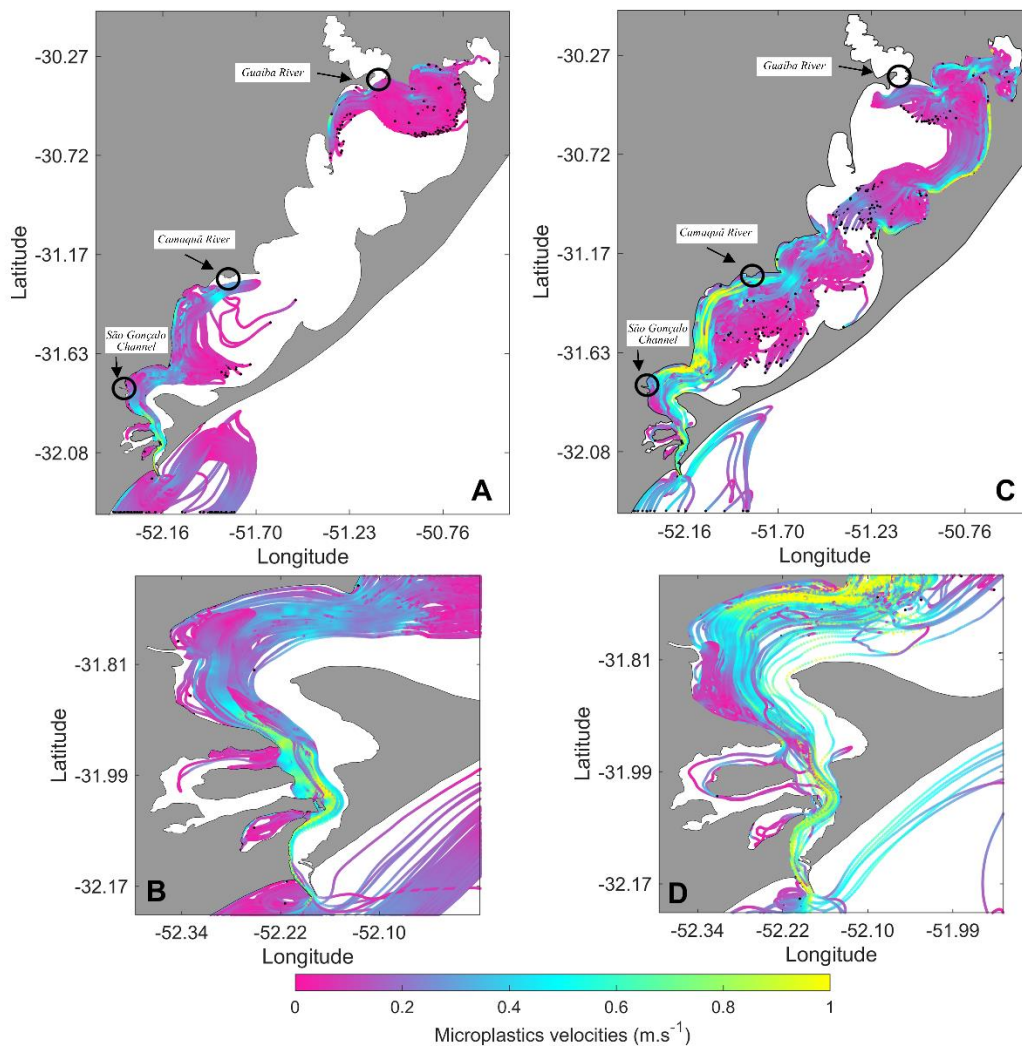
390 During the low discharge period, the 400 MPs released from Camaquã river were mainly
391 transported along the western margin of the lagoon, where the higher MPs velocities (0.3
392 m.s^{-1}) were observed, reaching the estuarine area (Figs. 4A and 4B). When arriving at the
393 estuary limit, MPs dispersed near the morphological step that separates the main body of
394 the lagoon from the estuary, known as Ponta da Feitoria (Fig. 1C), indicating that this
395 formation acted as a barrier to the transport of MPs towards the estuary. Subsequently,
396 with the prevailing north quadrant winds, currents towards the south prevailed and some
397 MPs entered the estuary via the western margin, reaching the coastal region. Due to the
398 low discharge from the Camaquã river during the simulated period (Fig. 2C), wind
399 prevailed as the main contributor to the transport of MPs during this period.

400 During high discharge period, however, the majority of MPs released from Camaquã river
401 remained trapped within the recirculation of the lagoon south cell. Furthermore, the
402 western margin near the mouth of Camaquã river was where the MPs exhibited higher
403 velocities, reaching up to 1 m.s^{-1} . In the central part of the south cell MPs particles
404 remained with low velocities (0.1 m.s^{-1}).

405 Considering the 400 MPs released from São Gonçalo Channel during the low discharge
406 event, it is clear that they encountered stronger currents (Fig. 3) and dispersed south
407 reaching the coastal area with high velocities (Figs. 4A and 4B). Due to the low discharge
408 from the São Gonçalo Channel (Fig. 2C) during this period, the transport of MPs occurred
409 based on the influence of the predominant NE wind (Fig. 2A). However, as MPs approach

410 the narrow 20 km long access channel, the funneling effect intensifies the currents and it
411 is possible to observe higher velocities of MPs near the mouth (0.8 m.s^{-1}) (Fig. 4B). It is
412 important to observe that some MPs enter the shallow bays of the estuary.

413 When looking at the high discharge period (Fig. 4BC), MPs released from São Gonçalo
414 Channel also reached the coastal area (Fig. 4D). It was also noticeable that almost the
415 entire estuarine area exhibited MPs with high velocities, differing only where they moved
416 to shallower areas and towards the margins. These pronounced displacements of MPs
417 corresponded to the stronger currents that occurred in this area (Fig. 3B). Even with the
418 wind varying in direction during the simulated period (Fig. 2B), the predominant direction
419 of the MPs trajectories was NE, promoting ebb flows towards the coastal area. Some MPs
420 particles were also observed in the estuary shallow bays.



421

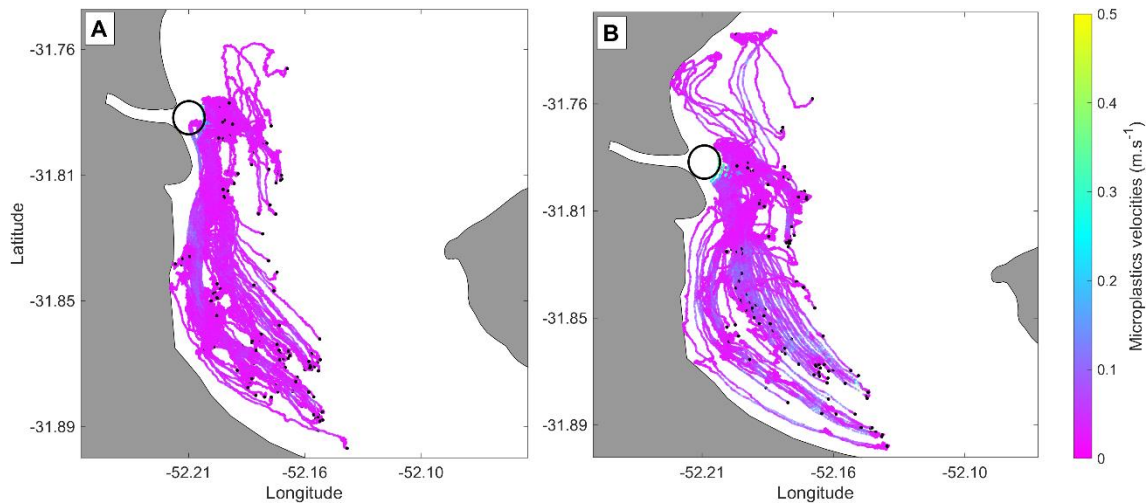
422 Figure 4: Trajectories of low-density MPs during low (A, B) and high (C, D) discharge.
423 Letters B and D indicate the estuarine area. Color bar indicated microplastics velocities
424 during trajectories and no-fill markers the release sources.

425

426 **3.3 HIGH-DENSITY MICROPLASTICS TRANSPORT IN THE ESTUARY** 427 **(SCENARIOS 3 AND 4)**

428 Considering the presence of biofouling on the MPs, 400 high-density MPs particles were
429 released from São Gonçalo Channel during the low discharge period (Fig. 2C). Results
430 indicated that throughout the simulated period, MPs remained restricted to the upper
431 estuarine region, near their release location (Fig. 5A). Although they were in an area of
432 higher currents (Fig. 3A) and predominant NE winds (Fig. 2A), their dispersion was
433 small. Consequently, MPs velocities were also small compared to the other scenarios,
434 reaching 0.1 m.s^{-1} . In the end of simulated period, no MP reached the coastal area or even
435 the lower estuarine region.

436 In the high-discharge period (Fig. 5B) the high-density MPs also remained close to their
437 release area, with small dispersion. Even with a greater prevalence of SW winds (Fig.
438 2B), which configure flood currents in this region (Fig. 3B), they had little influence on
439 the trajectories. However, unlike what happens during the low discharge period (Fig. 5A),
440 during high discharge, the velocities of the MPs generally increase, with some particles
441 reaching 0.2 m.s^{-1} , while the others remained constant in 0.1 m.s^{-1} . Just like in low
442 discharge, at the end of the simulated period, no MP reached the coastal area.



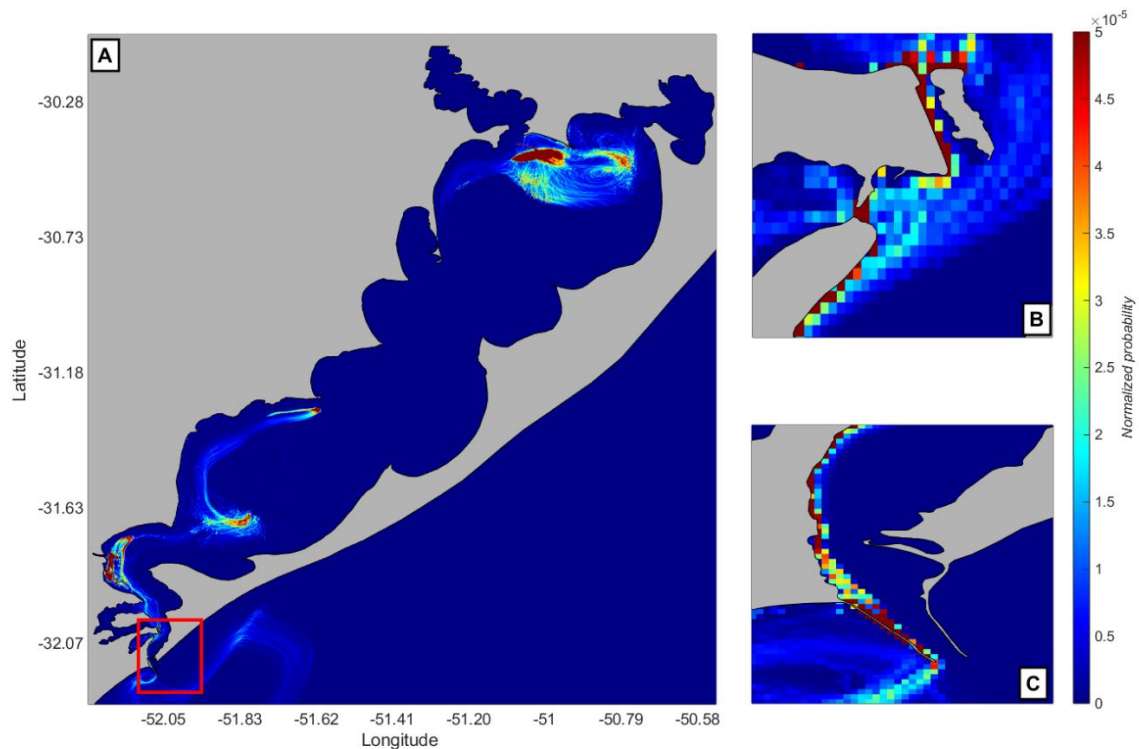
443

444 Figure 5: Trajectories of high-density MPs released from São Gonçalo Channel during
 445 the low (A) and high (B) discharge simulations. Color bar indicated microplastics
 446 velocities during trajectories and no-fill makes the release source.

447

448 **3.4 HOT SPOTS - POTENCIAL ACCUMULATION AREAS**

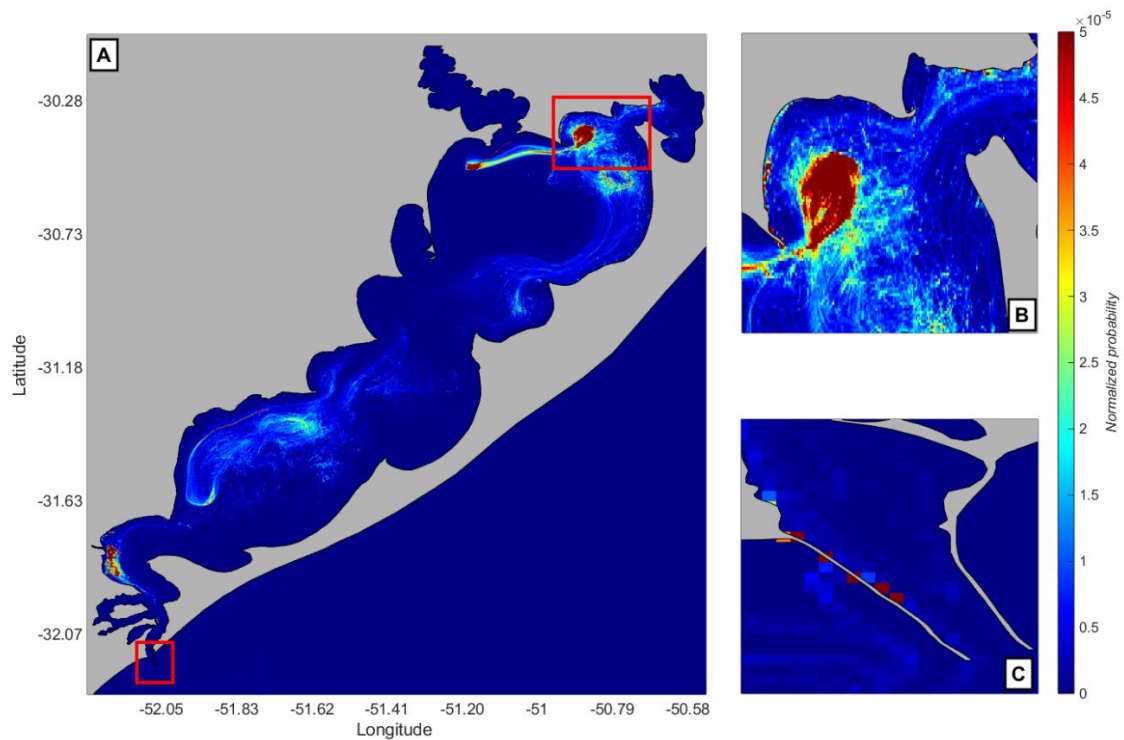
449 Figure 6 present the probability of MPs accumulation in Patos Lagoon (hot spots),
 450 considering both low and high-density MPs simulated during period of low freshwater
 451 discharge. Results of the PDF analysis for the low discharge period (Fig. 4A and Fig. 5A),
 452 indicated higher likelihood of MPs hot spots occurrence in the three regions of the main
 453 lagoon (Fig. 6A): in the northern area of the lagoon, in the central cell close to Camaquã
 454 river mouth and in the morphological step at Ponta da Feitoria (Fig. 1C). In the estuarine
 455 area, a large number of hot spots was observed, mainly near the São Gonçalo Channel
 456 mouth. Furthermore, hot spots were also observed in the lower estuarine region and
 457 towards its mouth, especially near Terraplano Island and around the mouth of Mangueira
 458 Bay (Fig. 6B). It was also possible to observe hot spots on both sides of the West Jetty
 459 (Fig. 6C).



460

461 Figure 6: Density maps from low and high density microplastics simulated during a low
 462 discharge period. Letters B and C represent the zoom in the red square, where letter B
 463 encompasses the region of Terrapleno Island, and letter C covers the area of the West
 464 Jetty. The color bar indicates the normalized probability values from the density maps.

465 The probability of hot spots of MPs during the high discharge period when considering
 466 low (Figs. 4C and 4D) and high-density MPs (Fig. 5B) is presented in Figure 7'. Results
 467 indicated hot spots of MPs near the mouth of Guaíba river (Fig. 7A) and in the
 468 northeastern region of Patos Lagoon (Fig. 7B). Some hot spots were also observed on the
 469 west margin of the south cell due to the Camaquã river contribution. The estuarine area
 470 also has hot spots near the mouth of São Gonçalo Channel (Fig. 7A), similarly to the low
 471 discharge period (Fig. 6A). Other estuarine MPs hotspots were observed at the western
 472 jetty.



473

474 Figure 7: Density maps from low and high density microplastics simulated during the
 475 high discharge period. Letters B and C represent the zoom in the red square, where letter
 476 B encompasses the region around the mouth of Casamento lagoon, and letter C covers
 477 the area of the West Jetty. The color bar indicates the normalized probability values from
 478 the density maps.

479

480 4. DISCUSSION

481 4.1 Low-density microplastics transport in the lagoon (scenarios 1 and 2)

482 Simulation results considering only low-density microplastics (Fig. 4) demonstrated that
 483 the calculated trajectories for MPs were consistent with variations in wind, discharge (Fig.
 484 2) and current (Fig. 3) regimes calculated by the hydrodynamic model. Both in the central
 485 and estuarine regions, MPs exhibited greater dynamics, managing to reach the coastal
 486 area. Furthermore, the different distribution of MPs among the northern, central, and
 487 southern sectors of the lagoon also proved to be coherent with the recognized regions of
 488 higher and lower hydrodynamics in the lagoon (Paim & Möller, 1986; Niencheski et al.,
 489 1988). These authors observed weaker currents in the northern and southern cells and
 490 more intense ones in the central region of the lagoon, corresponding to a node of a
 491 standing wave established in the main lagoon body due to local wind action (Moller et

492 al., 2001). Additionally, stronger currents are usually observed on the western margin of
493 the lagoon. This behavior explains the observed transport of MPs and is consistent with
494 the results presented by Bortolin et al. (2020) regarding the formation of mud depocenters
495 in the lagoon.

496 In the low discharge simulated period (Fig. 4AB), it can be summarized that MPs released
497 in the northern part of the lagoon showed a tendency to become trapped within the system,
498 while those released in the central region tended to remain primarily in the estuarine area,
499 with some exportation to the coastal region. The transport of the debris in the north was
500 aligned with the low hydrodynamics in the northern cell of the system. They exhibited
501 little displacement along the main axis of the lagoon, primarily following the western
502 margin. Thus, during the simulated period of 15 days, none of the MPs particles released
503 in the northern lagoon reached its central region.

504 MPs released in the estuarine region exhibited a tendency for exportation to the adjacent
505 coastal area. This transport was favored by the interaction between the estuary's geometry
506 and the ebb and flood flows driven by barotropic pressure gradients established due to
507 river discharge and wind (Moller et al., 2001). This barotropic circulation pattern was
508 also observed by Schicchi et al. (2023), where it was also indicated that the trajectories
509 of MPs located near river mouths responded markedly to continental discharge. However,
510 in our case, considering MPs distribution from Guaíba river this did not happen. In this
511 region, surface circulation was considered low regardless of the wind or discharge. MPs
512 exported to the coastal area through the access channel had a tendency to either remain
513 defined or indefinitely in the recirculation region that occurs south of the western jetty.
514 Cohen et al. (2019) indicated that the concentration of low-density MPs varied spatially
515 due to surface circulation. Considering these factors, the distribution of MPs relies
516 significantly on the flow field.

517 During the high discharge period (Fig. 4CD), the behavior of MPs differed from that
518 observed during low discharge (Fig. 4AB). It was possible to observe greater
519 displacements of MPs released from the Guaíba river towards the main axis of the lagoon.
520 These pronounced displacements were a response to the higher discharge combined with
521 the wind action. MPs with high velocities moved along the edges of the lagoon, both on
522 the eastern and western shores. Those located in the central regions of the lagoon
523 exhibited lower velocities associated with their shorter displacements. This may be
524 attributed to the extent of the lagoon and its cellular morphology, facilitating the

525 entrapment of particles within the circular dynamics of the region. Also, this distinct
526 behavior can be explained by the hydrodynamics of the lagoon itself. The higher
527 velocities along the margins create a pathway for the MPs in response to the wind action.
528 However, as they move towards the central areas of the lagoon, the transport of debris
529 slows down with velocity.

530 However, in the estuarine region, favored by the narrowing of the access channel towards
531 the estuary mouth, the behavior of MPs responds to the variability of the system.
532 Microplastics are exported more intensely and rapidly towards the coastal region during
533 these periods of low hydrodynamic activity. Summers et al. (2023) indicated that there is
534 an increase in MPs accumulation within the bay during low hydrodynamic periods,
535 whereas the opposite effect expels debris from the area, which corroborates with the
536 results indicated in our region.

537 **4.2 High-density microplastics transport in the estuary (scenarios 3 and 4)**

538 Considering biofouling-affected microplastics (high density), in both low and high
539 discharges, MPs released from São Gonçalo Channel exhibited a markedly different
540 behavior from those free from biofouling action. The difference was evident for low-
541 density MPs in the estuarine region (Fig. 4BD) compared to results from biofouling-
542 affected MPs (Fig. 5 AB). Regardless of the wind direction and discharge, MPs remained
543 confined within the upper estuary, exhibiting minimal displacement and velocities. When
544 comparing biofouling-free MPs to those affected by this process, it becomes evident that
545 this process strongly influences the dynamics of MPs. Summers et al. (2023) suggested
546 that MPs with lower density had more tendency to be exported to the continental shelf,
547 while higher-density MPs took significantly longer to be exported, remaining trapped
548 within estuaries for extended periods. The authors findings also corroborate with our
549 results when we take into count the trajectories of MPs from all 4 scenarios. Furthermore,
550 by concentrating our efforts on the estuarine zone, we aimed to capture the critical
551 interface between the lagoon and the adjacent oceanic environment, where rapid
552 exchanges and mixing occur. Additionally, it was expected that being considered denser
553 particles, they would have less spatial displacement, thus having a greater tendency to
554 remain within the lagoon body.

555 **4.3 Limitations for the study and future work**

556 Despite the lack of specific parameterizations for the study region, the presented results
557 serve as initial indicators of how MPs transportation occurs in Patos Lagoon. Low-density
558 MPs under the influence of a less dynamic system (low discharge, scenario 1) exhibit a
559 trapping gradient from the Guaíba river towards the São Gonçalo Channel. However,
560 when the dynamics of the lagoon become more pronounced in terms of both discharge
561 and wind, MPs show greater displacements from the northernmost region to the mouth of
562 the lagoon throughout the estuary. The variation in MPs concentration, starting from
563 Guaíba river and extending to the open ocean through the estuary, highlights the
564 significant function of Patos Lagoon as a buffer system before MPs are transported from
565 land to sea (Meijer et al., 2021). In regard to dense MPs, the plastisphere played a
566 significantly more prominent role than the influence of wind and discharge. It is plausible
567 to infer that Rdisplayed a tendency to remain trapped near their release region.
568 Consequently, considering the presence of the plastisphere suggests that the estuary could
569 potentially act as a short-term sink rather than a source of microplastics for the adjacent
570 coastal region, as shown in Figure 5. Despite this retention gradient, upon analyzing the
571 density maps, it was possible to observe that the estuarine region is the area with the
572 highest probability of occurrence of these particles.

573 It is crucial to emphasize that the results presented in this study stem from the chosen
574 configurations for the simulations, representing a significant step towards the
575 understanding of the dynamics of MPs and the contribution of the plastisphere effect in
576 this process. The investigation of the plastisphere is innovative and provides a strong
577 foundation for future research in this area. Model simulations still face some limitations
578 regarding the parametrization for dispersions coefficients, computational costs, and
579 model validation. However, future research should focus on these limitations and other
580 simulations should be conducted using increasingly realistic parameterizations
581 (horizontal and vertical dispersion coefficients), incorporating other processes
582 (deposition, bottom drag, resuspension, and degradation (Jalón-Rojas et al., 2019), and
583 different characteristics for MPs particles (Santos et al., 2023; Alves et al., 2023).
584 Furthermore, it is worth noting that the transport of microplastics may exhibit different
585 behavior when considering the positive and negative phases of the ENSO cycle. Higher
586 discharges are expected during El Niño events, suggesting a higher tendency for
587 microplastics to be exported to the coastal region during this period. Conversely, during
588 La Niña years, the opposite process might occur.

589

590 **5. CONCLUSIONS**

591 Low-density MPs exhibited behavior consistent with the hydrodynamics of their
592 respective release regions and dynamic configuration of the lagoon. During low
593 discharge, short-term simulations revealed a gradient of MP retention within the system,
594 with a larger quantity of MPs being retained in the north under the influence of lower
595 discharges and moderate winds. During this period, the estuarine region exhibits the
596 highest dynamics, influencing the increased export of debris to the coastal area. In high
597 discharge periods, MPs exhibited a different dynamic, responding to the configuration of
598 the lagoon. Increased wind activity and continental discharges influenced the larger
599 displacement of the MPs. Unlike in low-discharge, they exhibit higher velocities along
600 the shores of the lagoon body. MPs subjected to biofouling action and released in the
601 estuary exhibited distinct behavior from biofouling-free MPs, remaining retained in the
602 upper estuary in both low and discharge simulations.

603 Consequently, it is possible to infer that the regions further from the estuary's mouth may
604 be responsible for retaining MPs within the lagoon body. Conversely, the estuarine region
605 tends to facilitate the exportation of low-density MPs to the coastal region through
606 prevailing ebb currents and trap high-density MPs near release locations. However, this
607 area is also impacted by the presence of these debris because everything that enters the
608 lagoon through rivers or poor waste management eventually reaches the estuarine region
609 and remains there for a certain period.

610 The present study represents a significant advance in assessing the transport patterns of
611 microplastics (MPs) in Patos Lagoon. While acknowledging that the particle model
612 employed has to be further validated, it is crucial to highlight that achieving such a task
613 was not possible due to the high-water level observed in the system during the recent
614 flood events (September 2023 and May 2024). Nevertheless, the findings presented are
615 pivotal in understanding how MPs are transported from different release locations within
616 the system, aligning with the hydrodynamic behavior. These insights contribute to a
617 comprehension of the source-to-sink process, enabling a robust understanding of spatial
618 and temporal patterns in the exportation or retention of MPs within the system.

619

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