

1 Coupling beach ecology and macroplastics litter studies: current trends and the way ahead

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19

20 Abstract

21

22 As sites of floating marine material deposition, sandy beaches accumulate marine litter. While  
23 research and assessment on beach litter is increasing and involves various actors (scientists, society  
24 and NGOs), there is the need to assess current and future dominant trends, directions and priorities  
25 in that research. As such, a textural co-occurrence analysis was applied to published scientific  
26 literature. Words were considered both singly and as part of compound terms related to concepts  
27 relevant to sandy beach ecology: morphodynamic state; Littoral Active Zone; indicator fauna. Litter  
28 as a compound term was also included. The main co-occurrences were found within compounds,  
29 with scarce interaction of “morphodynamic state” with the others, indicating the need for further  
30 integration of beach ecology paradigms into beached plastics studies. Three approaches are  
31 proposed to overcome the research limits highlighted: the unequivocation of terms, the  
32 consideration of adequate scales, and the attention to dynamics rather than just patterns.

33

34 Keywords

35 Beached macroplastics; co-occurrence analysis; Littoral Active Zone; Indicator fauna; Beach  
36 geomorphology

37

## 38 **1. Introduction**

39

40 It is widely accepted that marine litter is a global phenomenon, recognized of concern at  
41 international levels therefore included in the UNEP initiatives such as the Sustainable Development  
42 Goals (SDG) or in G7 and G20 statements (Borja and Elliott, 2019). Indeed, SDG14 (Life below  
43 water) specifically has an extremely ambitious target to reduce or remove this source of pollution  
44 by 2025 (UN, 2015) although without further development that target has been criticized as being  
45 inaccurate and unattainable (Cormier and Elliott, 2017). Marine Litter has been defined by UNEP,  
46 2005. as “any persistent, manufactured or processed solid material discarded, disposed of or  
47 abandoned in the marine and coastal environment”. Macroplastics are a component of plastic litter,  
48 defined as plastic pieces above 25 mm size (Galgani et al., 2013), and further detailed as size-  
49 classes in the new guideline about macrolitter monitoring (Fleet et al., 2021). They include a broad  
50 range of materials and shapes, due to production, mechanical alterations or differential weathering  
51 and other degradation conditions of a complex of different polymers (Frigione et al., 2021).  
52 Macroplastics litter is often the source of secondary microplastic contamination (Andrady, 2011,  
53 Lambert et al., 2014, GESAMP, 2015). Although connected, research related to macroplastics litter  
54 differs greatly from that of microplastics in terms of study design, protocols, and analyses (Fleet et  
55 al., 2021). Addressing macroplastics contamination and pollution is likely to identify paths from  
56 source of littering to the access to food webs via breakdown.

57

### 58 *1.1 Sandy beaches and beached plastics*

59 Sandy beaches are an ecosystem exposed to and under threat from many global environmental  
60 problems, notable those termed the *triple whammy* of increased urbanization and industrialization,  
61 increased use of resources and decreased resistance and resilience to external threats such as climate  
62 change (Defeo and Elliott 2021). The relatively young discipline (established in the 1980s,  
63 McLachlan, 1983) of sandy shore ecology began by identifying features shaping those physically-  
64 driven environments, and then proceeded by overlapping morphodynamic characterisation with  
65 biotic data layers, finally superimposed on by human pressures (Defeo et al., in press). Current  
66 paradigms define the morphodynamic type of a beach as the interaction between sand particle size  
67 and exposure to tidal range and wave conditions: as such, dissipative beaches are characterized by  
68 gentle slopes, wide beach width and fine grain sizes as relevant features. By contrast, the reflective

69 end of the scale occurs when the sediment is coarse and stored on the intertidal beach and  
70 backshore, and where there is no surf zone and waves surge directly up the beach face (McLachlan  
71 and Defeo 2018). The macrofauna inhabiting beach environments reflects these variations: an  
72 increasing number of species is found toward dissipative beaches, which are more benign as less  
73 exposed to substrate tumbling. With a progression through the morphodynamic spectrum through  
74 intermediate beaches, most species become less successful, and few can colonize reflective beaches  
75 due to the harsher environment given by the saltation of coarse substratum particles subjected to the  
76 high energy of incoming waves. The morphodynamic state is hence relevant to beach functioning,  
77 with direct repercussion on the quality and quantity of ecosystem services (McLachlan et al. 2013;  
78 McLachlan and Defeo 2018). Consequently, the occurrence of beached plastic could also be  
79 affected by the different exposure to and interaction with energy, matter and biota. The co-  
80 occurrence of environmental features and beached plastics data could reveal potential interactions  
81 occurring on matching spatial and/or temporal scales. It is hence timely to propose tools and  
82 standards quantifying beached plastic and beach ecological processes. For instance, the average  
83 specific gravity of plastics and polymers is  $1.275 \pm 0.303 \text{ g.cm}^{-3}$  (calculated from AmesWeb, 2021)  
84 whereas that of substratum particles such as quartz grains is  $2.65 \text{ g.cm}^{-3}$  and that of marine mollusc  
85 shells  $2.68\text{-}2.72 \text{ g.cm}^{-3}$ . Therefore, plastic and polymer accumulate, are buried and re-suspended  
86 (Williams and Tudor, 2001). Density, shape and relative size of macroplastics and substratum  
87 particles are important when considering these dynamics, occurring along the land-sea axis  
88 (Lebreton et al. 2019; Rangel-Buitrago et al., 2017; Moreira et al., 2016; Cresta and Battisti, 2021).  
89 Given the high relevance of the local level of beaches (Fanini et al., 2020), the variability in  
90 substratum and exposure will likely require tailored approaches depending on morphophysical and  
91 landscape features (Ryan and Perold., 2021) together with the application of standard protocols,  
92 essential to achieve data interoperability.

93 Macroplastics is also the most common subject of beach clean-up activities or citizen observation-  
94 based initiatives and monitoring actions. There is a common top-down approach to the topic,  
95 engaging society as citizen scientists and monitors (see the definition by ECSA, European Citizen  
96 Science Association <http://ecsa.citizen-science.net/>). NGOs, private sectors and national agencies  
97 and departments are conducting surveys, campaigns and projects supporting data collections and  
98 evidence-based policies (Hidalgo-Ruz and Thiel, 2015; GESAMP, 2019; Syberg et al, 2020).  
99 Despite this, there are still challenges in the definition of the role of citizen science and data that it  
100 can provide (Haklay et al. 2021). However, it is through these activities that relevant evidence can  
101 be built, enabling macroscale patterns to be determined and finally be mainstreamed into policies.  
102 Indeed, it is through these campaigns that plastics were identified as the most common material

103 composing human litter on the beach (Addamo et al, 2017). Also, bans on single use plastic items  
104 (SUP) were generally based on the top items found as beached macroplastics litter, on data  
105 collected by citizens and mediated by NGOs in their mainstream to policy making. Country  
106 implementation of international strategies such as the Programme of Measures for the European  
107 Marine Strategy Framework Directive (MSFD) - of which marine litter is Descriptor number 10 for  
108 determining Good Environmental Status - are also based on volunteer-led data collection. For  
109 example, the main marine litter monitoring in the UK has been the annual volunteer-led beach clean  
110 of the Marine Conservation Society (MCSUK) involving many thousand volunteers every  
111 September since 1994; this was recognized as part of the UK contribution to implementing the  
112 MSFD.

113 While these studies are powerful in depicting patterns and they strongly support governance via  
114 evidence-based information, studies tackling dynamics remain limited. Such studies would require  
115 the consideration of marine litter across temporal scales and disciplines, but also would need to be  
116 based on shared and quality-assured protocols, and shared data, which are a frequent constraint in  
117 large-scale studies (but see Morales-Caselles et al., 2021). The temporal dimension in particular  
118 reveals notable gaps, especially related to long-term designs and/or before-after impacts such as  
119 floods, typhoons, and bans of specific items e.g. single use plastic bags. Again, the relevance of the  
120 single beach unit in both social and ecological perspective would require attention since the very  
121 planning of actions.

122

### 123 *1.2 Assessing plastics on beaches: protocols and state of the art*

124 Reviews about methodologies for marine litter monitoring started in the 1990s (Rees and Pond,  
125 1995) and standard methodologies are proposed by the Regional Seas Convention guidelines within  
126 their action plans such as Cheshire et al., 2009 (UNEP/IOC), Helsinki Convention (HELCOM,  
127 2008), OSPAR Commission (2010) and Schulz et al. (2017). Furthermore, monitoring guidelines  
128 have been outlined for programmes such as the MSFD (Galgani et al., 2013), to support marine  
129 litter baselines (Hanke et al. 2019), threshold values (Van Loon et al., 2020) or providing  
130 harmonized list of items (Fleet et al., 2021). They mainly address: 1) Quantification (database –  
131 number, weight or volume);  
132 2) Characterization (composition - master lists); and 3) Evidence-based policies for production  
133 consumption systems (e.g. brand auditing, target items campaigns, or littering sources).

134 Selection criteria for beaches to be monitored are also given, both in the framework of national  
135 programmes (Opfer et al., 2012), or international regulations such as MSFD (EC 2008  
136 2008/56/EC), where marine litter represents an indicator of the environmental quality status of the

137 ecosystem. As a general approach, a set of desirable characteristics is provided for identifying the  
138 sampling area to design monitoring and assessment programs as well as for beach cleanup  
139 initiatives with volunteers (OSPAR, 2010; Galgani et al, 2013; GESAMP, 2019; WIOMSA manual  
140 -Western Indian Ocean Marine Science Association (Barnardo and Ribbink, 2020)), and  
141 UNEP/IOC manual (Cheshire et al., 2009).

142 In order to create robust and comparable quality-assured data, the monitoring methods have to be  
143 standardized, agreed and implemented consistently. When this relates to the areas that are  
144 monitored, the general indications about site selection include: accessibility of the site, and  
145 avoidance of steep slopes (15°-45°); areas not subjected to cleaning activities; avoid nesting sites  
146 for threatened species or presence of endangered or protected species; avoid streams, and natural or  
147 artificial elements likely to interfere with currents. In particular, the WIOMSA manual suggests a  
148 random selection of sites, and if this is not possible, a site selection guided by a pre-defined  
149 criterion, without previous investigation, in essence having a random sampling design. In all cases,  
150 the surveys for marine plastic macrolitter standing stock should be carried out along a  
151 predetermined length of 100 m running parallel to the shoreline (Barnardo and Ribbink, 2020).

152 There are a few protocols adapted to beach morphology, such as considering whether the area is  
153 macro or microtidal, and has reflective or dissipative conditions; fine sand or coarse sand or  
154 pebbles, presence/absence of organic litter (GESAMP, 2019). Turra et al. (2014) called for  
155 protocols relevant to sandy beach ecology (see also Moreira et al., 2016). However, to date, the  
156 integration of relevant sandy beach variables is left to single initiatives rather than embedded in  
157 protocols. However, beach structural features are intrinsically connected to functional processes  
158 occurring around sandy shores, from physical and biotic (faunal) conditions to socio-economic  
159 dimensions (see McLachlan and Defeo, 2018 for a recent comprehensive summary). For this  
160 reason, a greater connection of beach ecology with plastic studies would increase the relevance of  
161 research and enhance the support to policy and citizens. Given the high attention on the topic and  
162 the response by scientists which produce much literature about marine plastics litter, it was urgent  
163 to detect and communicate trends for future research. On this background, and with explicit focus  
164 on the macroplastics fraction, the aim here is to show the integration of ecological features of sandy  
165 beach systems into beached plastics litter studies. As such, the analysis of word co-occurrence in  
166 scientific publications was identified as suitable first step in this process.

167

## 168 **2. Materials and Methods**

### 169 *2.1. Keywords, compounds and co-occurrence in scientific literature*

170 This analysis starts from the attention to concepts and related keywords, as this is the background  
171 for any further data organization and analysis. The textural approach of word co-occurrence  
172 analysis of published literature has proven to be insightful across scientific disciplines (Callon et al.,  
173 1983), including ecology (Neff and Corley, 2009). This approach was found relevant in identifying  
174 trends and gaps in research on different topics; here, it was applied to a range of keywords extracted  
175 from both beach ecology and plastic litter studies, as follows:

176 1) identification of keywords related to beach features relevant to geomorphology, ecology and  
177 biota, and of keywords related to beached plastic sizes (including macroplastics); 2) bibliometric  
178 analysis of how often, in published literature, these words co-occur; 3) recommendations on  
179 strategies and parameters to be applied within projects related to beached macroplastics litter.

180 We emphasise that this approach integrates beach ecology standard terms and concepts into marine  
181 macroplastics litter studies, and vice-versa (in a range of actions from research to opportunistic gap-  
182 filling visits, to citizen science campaigns and governance support). This has the added benefit of  
183 proactively and concurrently making data interoperable and beneficial to science and society.

184 In the synthesis here, given that globally relevant beach features extracted from the ecology of  
185 sandy shores are non-independent from each other, we therefore defined components as entities  
186 composed of a set of non-independent parts. This established a dimensionality in the exploration  
187 process, in a hierarchy defined by single keywords and compounds to which the keywords belong.  
188 Compounds and selected words were within the following categories:

189  
190 *Litter*. The meaning of “litter” includes but is not limited to anthropogenic litter, which also is not  
191 exclusively related to plastics (Rangel-Buitrago et al., 2017). In the context of our analysis, litter  
192 was considered as a compound term, and given our intended focus on macroplastics litter, keywords  
193 were selected depending on the range of sizes most commonly used and standardized within plastics  
194 studies (Frias and Nash, 2019). Different plastic sizes are non-independent when considering  
195 weathering and breakdown, which are likely to occur on a beach, thereby creating secondary  
196 particles. Standing stock is a term originally related to biomass, but increasingly used to assess  
197 beached litter. It is specifically referred to a one-off count of beach plastics litter, and mentioned as  
198 such in international protocols and guidelines (JRC, 2013). It was therefore included in the  
199 compound.

200 The compound term “Litter” included the following keywords: “Plastic”; “Macroplastic”;  
201 “Microplastic”; “Nanoplastic”; “Macrolitter”; “Microlitter”; “Standing stock”.

202

203 *Morphodynamic state*. The morphodynamic state is defined by sand, waves and tides and these two  
204 last are related to beach exposure; in turn, exposure relates to fetch distance and wind speed and  
205 direction. This state directly influences the human use of beaches, both individually and collectively  
206 through their determination of beach morphodynamic types (McLachlan et al. 2018).  
207 Morphodynamic variables are non-independent from each other, and a subtle combination of them  
208 categorizes each state, from dissipative to reflective. It can thus be hypothesized that on beaches,  
209 marine litter deposition, breakdown, resuspension and washing are also physically driven, likely by  
210 a set of physical variables largely overlapping to those characterizing morphodynamic states.  
211 The compound term named “Morphodynamic” included the following keywords: “Beach  
212 exposure”; “Beach width”; “Beach slope”; “Grain size”.

213  
214 *The Littoral Active Zone (LAZ)*. The LAZ concept was introduced as a budgetary approach to  
215 substratum dynamics (Tinley, 1985). A LAZ is composed by zones characterised by the dynamic  
216 exchange of mobile substratum, hence the LAZ is connecting the subtidal to the littoral and to the  
217 primary dune (Figure 1.). Recent extensions of the concept brought attention, from an initial energy  
218 and substratum consideration only, to the resident fauna behavior and to the social and ecological  
219 components of the system (Scapini et al., 2019; Fanini et al., 2021 respectively; Defeo et al. in  
220 press). The functionality of a beach is tied to the LAZ, and a functional LAZ is conferring resilience  
221 on the system.

222  
223 Figure 1. Schematic representation of the Littoral Active Zone and keywords extracted for the  
224 analysis.

225  
226 The compound named “Littoral Zone” included the following keywords: “Sublittoral”; “Intertidal”;  
227 “Littoral”; “Beach”; “Dune”.

228  
229 *Indicator fauna*. To overlay a biotic data layer to the grid defined by morphodynamic state and  
230 LAZ, we considered a set of organisms recently highlighted as bioindicators of global relevance  
231 (Costa et al., 2020). These latter authors noted that the response to anthropogenic disturbances was  
232 related to the species (population, presence) organization level rather than higher (community or  
233 assemblage) ones. In this background, no organization level was considered, and single species  
234 were considered in the analysis as keywords. Finally, two flagship taxa with high conservation  
235 priority were added, such as nesting shorebirds (also mentioned in WIOMSA guidelines) and turtles  
236 (see McLachlan et al., 2013). Spawning fish, even though a relevant variable to both ecological and

237 social template, was here not added as they are limited to specific (macrotidal and shallow  
238 sublittoral) waters, hence these are not universal.

239 The compound term “Fauna” included the following keywords: “Talitrid amphipods”; “Donacid  
240 clams”; “Ghost crabs”; “Spionid polychaetes”; “Beetles”; “Bird nest”; “Turtle nest”.

241

## 242 2.2. Analysis

243 The keyword co-occurrence analysis was performed following established bibliometric steps of:  
244 information retrieval, pattern matching, data analysis, and data visualization (Cobo et al., 2011,  
245 Callon et al., 1983). A total of 32,304,541 unique abstracts were retrieved from PubMed -  
246 MEDLINE collection (accessed 03 April 2021). The abstracts were searched for the specific  
247 keywords, their synonyms and plural and hyphenated forms. The keyword occurrences in abstracts  
248 were then transformed to calculate their pairwise co-occurrences (Callon et al., 1983). These co-  
249 occurrences formed a network, which was analysed and visualised. The code is available  
250 here [https://github.com/lab42open-team/pubmed\\_trend\\_analysis](https://github.com/lab42open-team/pubmed_trend_analysis).

251

## 252 3. Results

253 There has been a large-scale increase of scientific publications targeting plastic (> 80,000 abstracts)  
254 and litter (> 20,000 abstracts) (Figure 2). Even though these two keywords have been present in  
255 literature since the 1960s, the increase became exponential since the 1990s. Keywords related to  
256 plastic sizes, such as “microplastic” and “nanoplastic” appear to be on the same trend, although they  
257 started being mentioned in the last two decades. The heatmaps (Figures 2 and 3) show an increase  
258 over time in literature as well as the co-dominance of faunal, litter and geomorphological terms.

259

260

261

262 Figure 2. Time heatmap of published literature. Keywords are on the Y-axis, grouped in compounds  
263 (visualized on the right).

264

265 The keyword “plastic” makes the strongest co-occurrences values: the highest co-occurrence is  
266 represented by words “plastic” and “microplastic” (991 abstracts including both words), followed  
267 by “plastic” and “litter” (583 abstracts including both words) (Figure 3). These highest co-  
268 occurrence values were found within the “litter” compound. There were then 14 pairs of words co-  
269 occurring between 100 and 500 times; among them, eight pairs were across different compounds:  
270 “turtle” and “beach”; “turtle” and “plastic”; “plastic” and “beach”; “plastic” and “beetle”; “beach”



271 and “litter”; “litter” and “beetle”; “litter” and “fauna”; “intertidal” and “fauna”. “Litter” is the  
272 compound being mentioned in six of them, in co-occurrence with keywords from the “fauna” and  
273 “LAZ” compounds.

274  
275  
276 Figure 3. Heatmap of co-occurrences of keywords (in alphabetical order).

277  
278 The co-occurrence network (Figure 4) highlights the way in which all keywords are generally used,  
279 similarly to a random network. The consideration of compounds, however, suggests a clustering,  
280 with “microplastic” being more connected to the network than words related to other plastic sizes,  
281 which remain at the edges of the network. Also keywords related to morphodynamic state remained  
282 at the margin, pointing at a scarce integration in beached plastics litter studies. It has to be noted  
283 however, that the lower number of publications (Figure 2) could have played a role in defining this  
284 pattern. Finally, the two keywords related to beach-specific life stages of iconic species, i.e. turtle  
285 nest and bird nest, remain less connected. In contrast, the trend highlighted for the “LAZ”  
286 compound term is revealing that, in spite of the extremely scarce use of the concept (only recovered  
287 in the last few years after being neglected for decades), features included in the LAZ are being  
288 considered in research - especially “beach” but also “intertidal” and “littoral”- and the concept of  
289 the active zone could be directly fed with data proceeding from such studies, including those on  
290 plastics litter.

291  
292  
293 Figure 4. Network visualization of co-occurrences. Compounds are marked in different colours and  
294 symbols. Sizes of symbols relate to the degree of co-occurrence of one word with all the others,  
295 while the thickness of the line indicates the number of co-occurrences between two single words.

296  
297 **4. Discussion**

298 The very large number of publications targeting plastics appears to include two trends related to  
299 macroplastics: 1) while still increasing, publications on macroplastics (unless “litter” and  
300 “macroplastic” are used as synonyms) are not increasing as much as those on microplastics, and 2)  
301 they remain less related to variables relevant to beach ecology. This latter point might hamper the  
302 consideration of a systems approach, where processes are regulated by key ecological variables,  
303 necessary to explain and predict the patterns observed. In a dynamic context such as the increasing  
304 number of publications on plastics, the detected use of keywords should serve as a warning to

305 scientists, given that published literature – as analysed in this study - is the foundation of  
306 prospective research. Integration of newly produced data on plastics litter with known ecologically  
307 relevant features of beach ecology should proceed, especially in the view of the UN Decade of  
308 Ocean Science for Sustainability 2021-30, which has identified marine litter as a priority topic  
309 (Claudet et al., 2020; Elliott, 2021).

310 Research designed to obtain interoperable and comparable data would allow the ability to fully  
311 exploit information, towards advances in both sandy beach ecology and in studies related to  
312 beached macroplastics. Considering beaches as social ecological systems (Fanini et al., 2021; Defeo  
313 et al., in press) and the tight intertwining of the social and ecological parts of such a system, well-  
314 defined in space and easy to identify, such integrated information would promptly find multiple  
315 pathways for mainstreaming science evidence into society and governance.

316 From the analysis were derived potential constraints to integration, which were then grouped into  
317 three general topics: 1) unequivocation, 2) identifying a scale for the coupling ecology and plastics  
318 on beaches, and 3) targeting dynamics of beached plastics.

319

#### 320 *4.1. Unequivocation*

321 With a rapidly increasing number of publications, and related datasets about plastics, meta-analyses  
322 will be required with a clear, unequivocal identification of items. In this respect, the use of terms  
323 which have been in use for long, but applied to other disciplines, should be used with caution. As  
324 examples, “litter”, and “standing stock” are adapted from ecology, although their meaning deeply  
325 differs when related to plastics or to natural material. Especially in the case of litter, the ambiguity  
326 also extends to a common perception among beach users and the public, i.e. whatever material is  
327 found stranded is litter, and is seen as damage to the aesthetics of landscape (see e.g. Williams et  
328 al., 2016). The distinction – starting from keywords - of natural vs. plastics substances should  
329 remain clear instead, due to their greatly different qualitative effects.

330 Also, terms such as macro-, meso- and micro- imply a range of sizes which differ between plastics  
331 and biology studies. The threshold of 5 mm as a discriminating size between macro and micro  
332 plastics (Frias and Nash 2019, even though this is the most common, is not the only existing  
333 definition) does not apply to macro and microorganisms for instance, where the threshold is defined  
334 by the ability of resolution by the human eye. However, size categories are essential to unravel the  
335 interactions of plastics with beach substratum material and size, with unconsolidated material size  
336 spanning from sand classes (63  $\mu\text{m}$  – 1.5 mm), but also pebbles (2-64 mm) and cobbles (65-512  
337 mm) (Blott and Pye, 2001), and a mixture of them. This is especially because of the importance of  
338 particle size in defining and interrogating the structure and functioning of beaches.

339

340 Recommendation: To avoid issues in current and future information management and analysis, it is  
341 recommended to add the word “plastic” whenever it refers to litter and/or standing stock, allowing  
342 recognition by improving discoverability in search engines and by text mining tools. The co-  
343 occurrence of these terms found in the analysis is a good sign, although such co-mention should  
344 become routine. The use of common synonyms (e.g. macroplastic OR macroplastics OR macro-  
345 plastic OR macro-plastics OR macro plastic OR macro plastics) should also become established for  
346 search engines.

347 Extending terminology standardization, terms such as macro-, meso-, micro- and nano- should  
348 consistently be accompanied by a dimension range, by the word “plastic” and used in one form  
349 (without a hyphen or space between them).

350

#### 351 *4.2. Identifying a scale for coupling ecology and plastics on beaches*

352 A common ground for both beach ecology and beached macroplastics litter studies is the  
353 consideration of a single beach as biogeomorphological unit – a mesoscale in sandy beach ecology,  
354 where across- and along-shore physical and biotic patterns can be detected. Geomorphological  
355 characteristics shape biotic processes on sandy beaches with a well-defined across-shore gradient. It  
356 is therefore appropriate to assume that they also shape the interaction of plastics within the system.  
357 Broadly used protocols to study macroplastics litter do include some beach variables, although these  
358 are not framed in compound terms such as the geomorphological state and the LAZ. This prevents  
359 the identification of a beach as a system with boundaries and, as a consequence, the systemic effects  
360 of plastics as a stressor. Data on key variables for beach ecology (such as beach width, beach  
361 exposure, beach slope, dune presence) are indeed easy to gather, not least from aerial photographs  
362 or satellite images, and could frame the analysis of patterns within a systemic vision. In widespread  
363 protocols, it is recommended to use standard stretches or areas (e.g. 100 linear m transects as with  
364 OSPAR, or standard quadrats). While this allows consistency in the relative presence and  
365 abundance of plastics (see e.g. Clean Coast Index, Alkalay et al., 2007 and subsequent index  
366 modifications, which are still based on the number of items per area), it does not account for beach  
367 key features. Internationally-accepted protocols (Galgani et al, 2013; Hanke et al. 2019; GESAMP,  
368 2019; Fleet et al., 2021) also consider freshwater inputs (Riverine Litter Observation Network) and  
369 urban areas as drivers in marine litter accumulation. However, the selection of units across a  
370 gradient of impact is often problematical.

371

372 Recommendation: By applying the ecological mesoscale (single beach) as the nominated unit,  
373 several dimensions for the interaction of beach ecology with beached plastics could be identified.  
374 The selection of sites could be less random and include the consideration of the morphodynamic  
375 state of beaches (from dissipative to reflective), as well as different substrata, and of the clear  
376 identification of the LAZ. In the case of extended beaches, the time/energy cost could be a limiting  
377 factor for researchers and/or citizen scientists. In these cases, indications from geomorphology  
378 (Nordstrom, 2005) and biodiversity studies (see specifically Battisti et al. 2017, for the application  
379 of biodiversity metrics to beached plastics) regarding the selection of subsites and replicates can be  
380 useful to optimize resources and create integrated datasets. Essential ecological variables defining  
381 the morphodynamic state could be cost-effectively integrated into protocols, given their simple  
382 measures: beach width, beach slope, exposure, grain size, and/or salinity. Furthermore, by  
383 considering single beaches as the unit for research across gradients, the concept of the gravity centre  
384 (Peng et al., 2017) could be developed to highlight spatial patterns such as those defined by cities  
385 and main freshwater discharges, and also to indicate temporal patterns (e.g. seasonal use of the  
386 beach). Finally, patterns related to a relevant ecological dimension could be connected to the social  
387 one, providing insights of a shift from reactive studies to proactive ones (Cinner, 2018).

#### 388 *4.3.Targeting dynamics of beached plastics*

389 To address the problem of plastic pollution, it is of paramount importance to interrogate patterns  
390 observed with system drivers and dynamics, enabling the formulation of strategies and actions.  
391 Once the boundaries of the system are identified, the classification of internal and external drivers  
392 will follow logically, placing the information (which might be already largely available from  
393 existing datasets) as tiles in a mosaic. The LAZ was proposed as the unit relevant at the ecological  
394 and social-economic levels for the depiction of dynamics connecting these two states (Fanini et al.,  
395 2021) and could be considered as a unit also in the case of beached plastic studies. For example,  
396 hydrological or meteorological drivers, which may be important for budgeting or analysing  
397 dynamics of macroplastics on beaches, would act on the LAZ. Similarly, social drivers are also  
398 acting on the LAZ. In this respect, some good practices are already routinely established, such as  
399 the brand audits on beached items (for example using the bar-coding on labels), allowing the  
400 identification of dynamics of contamination and pollution (e.g. the age and source of the plastics).  
401 Many other actions at different scales might be explored to analyse the dynamics connecting  
402 producers/users/actors in charge of disposal, matching them with the patterns observed and reported  
403 in publications. Actions finely tuned to the specific context could be proposed, targeting, for  
404 example, the reduction of use and alternative choices to plastics (Riechers et al., 2021), as well as

405 monitoring tools. Some of the LAZ components were found linked to beached plastics litter studies  
406 and so a data background is likely to be readily available following the conceptual up-take of the  
407 LAZ as part of a systems analysis. Temporal dynamics also deserve attention given that  
408 microplastics, as the degradation products of plastics and litter, have lately received a large amount  
409 of attention (Ivleva et al., 2017 ; Ryan et al., 2015; Rodrigues et al., 2021). Hence, it is timely to  
410 discriminate between primary and secondary particles, which is the dynamic connection between  
411 macro- and microplastic. Tools are increasingly available for the identification of plastic material  
412 found stranded, supporting essential information, such as toxicity, inertia, weathering (including  
413 biofilm creation) and break-down likelihood and follow up paths related to the occurrence of  
414 primary and secondary particles of plastics on a beach (Rodrigues et al., 2021). A focus on the  
415 weathering and breakdown of items on beaches might be a suitable inference method to link to  
416 studies on beach dynamics which started more than 50 years ago (see e.g. Frigione et al., 2021).

417 Recommendations: As with the budgetary approach to the dynamics of soft substratum – a concept  
418 on which the LAZ was originally based - budgetary approaches can also be established for plastics.  
419 Inputs and outputs into the LAZ could be estimated over different temporal scales, but also in terms  
420 of macro- and micro-plastic fractions (in terms of both weight and number of items, as already  
421 suggested in international protocols). This will shed further light on the eventual inter-dependency  
422 of sizes, especially if paired with the identification of social (e.g. tourism; fishery) and natural  
423 ecological/environmental (e.g. monsoons, beach exposure) drivers. Studies discriminating between  
424 primary and secondary microplastics should be encouraged, as they would greatly support the  
425 understanding of breakdown dynamics of plastics (GESAMP, 2015) while beached.

426

## 427 5. **Conclusions**

428 As remarked by Borja and Elliott (2019), it is no longer time to report occurrences of plastics  
429 without proposing solutions. It is also timely to tailor general solutions such as “increasing  
430 awareness; reducing littering; etc.” to the specific context, i.e. defining system components,  
431 boundaries, and dynamics of interaction. Available data would then fit into such a systematic  
432 vision, allowing the elucidation of paths, on which calibrated solutions can be proposed and hold a  
433 higher likelihood of success. However, published literature showed that the coupling between  
434 plastic studies and the geomorphological beach system (the very background of its definition) is still  
435 limited. Therefore, the huge potential arising from integrated data collection still needs to be  
436 revealed. Integration could ultimately support governance, enhancing the return of research results  
437 as policy-informing and operational knowledge, especially in the case of beached plastics litter.  
438 This would counter the current trend in which beach managers and stakeholders are only exposed to

439 a one-size-fits-all regulation with respect to beached plastics, whatever the exposure of the beach to  
440 waves and tides, and the size of the substratum particles. The consideration and inclusion of local  
441 characteristics would greatly sustain the small-scale management, often neglected by national and  
442 international guidelines. If intrinsic beach characteristics remain disconnected from monitoring  
443 programmes and we do not capitalize on the information available from beach ecology, there is the  
444 high risk of not increasing our understanding thereby disconnecting macroplastics litter studies from  
445 those beach features defining functional stability and ultimately, environmental sustainability.

446

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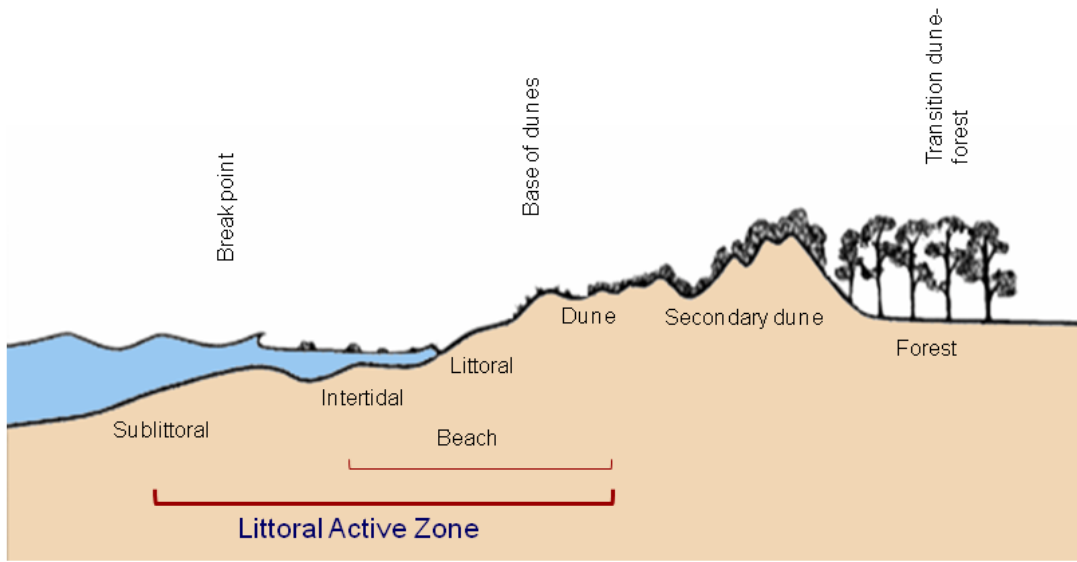
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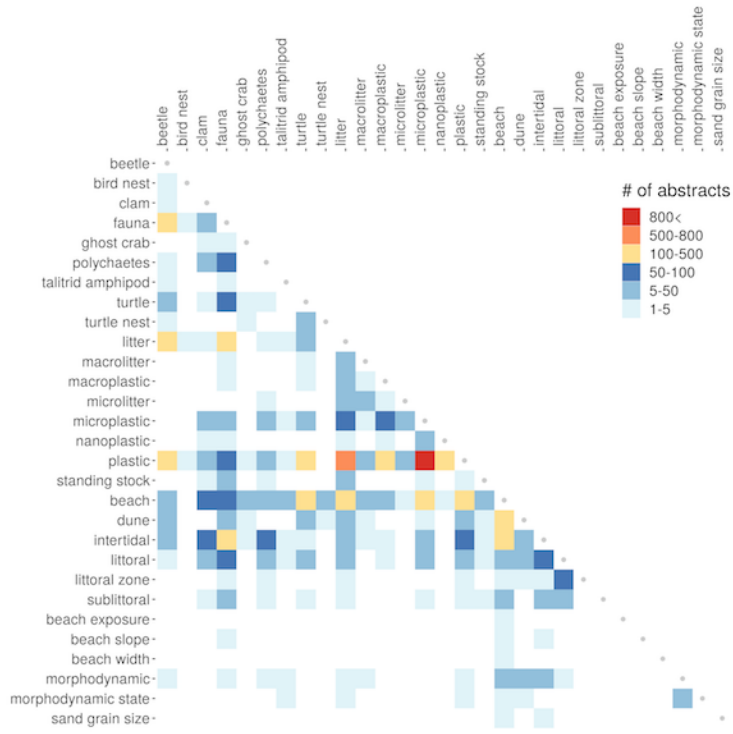
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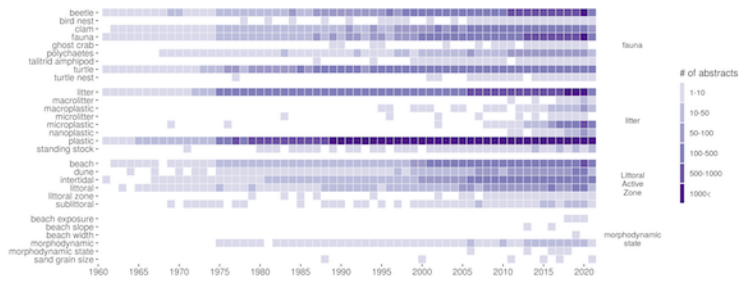


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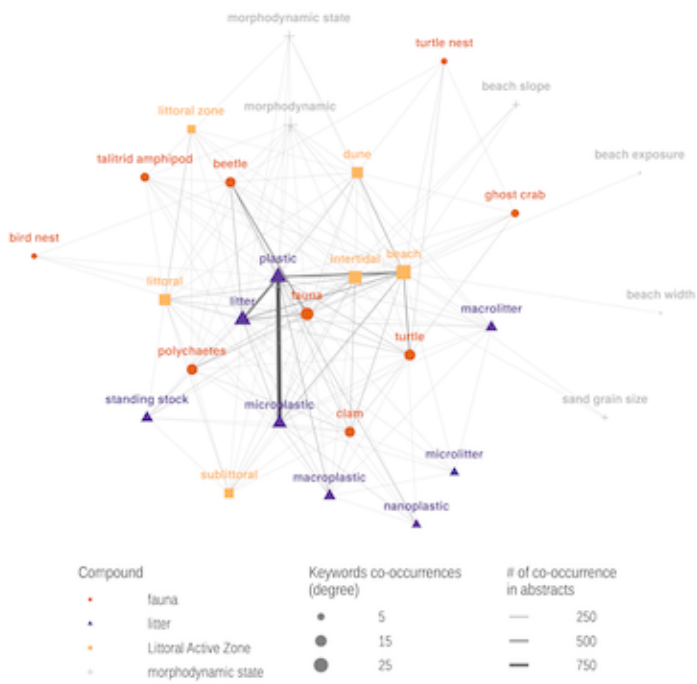
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