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20 Abstract:

Plastic pollution is widely present in terrestrial and aquatic ecosystems, and 21 microplastics (MPs) can be detected in organisms. In situ detection methods for MPs 22 23 in organisms have attracted widespread attention. Traditional imaging characterization methods of MPs, including stereo microscopes and fluorescence microscopy, are 24 25 typically used to image artificially added microsphere standards under laboratory conditions. However, they cannot specifically identify MPs in biological samples. Thus, 26 27 there is a need for a detection technique that can provide spatial distribution information 28 of MPs in biological samples, as well as measure their quality and quantity. In this perspective, to obtain high-resolution images with chemical composition analysis, we 29 compared ion sources for ionizing plastic macromolecules and mass analyzers for 30 31 analyzing macromolecules. Matrix-assisted laser desorption/ionization (MALDI) is suitable for imaging characterization, while time-of-flight (TOF) and Orbitrap mass 32 spectrometry are suitable for polymer mass spectrometry analysis. Furthermore, we 33 propose a technique that combines MALDI with TOF or Orbitrap, which holds promise 34 35 for the *in situ* imaging of MPs in biological samples.

36

37 Keywords: Microplastics; Organisms; *in situ* imaging; Mass spectrometry imaging

39 1. Introduction

Microplastics (MPs) are widely present in terrestrial and aquatic environments^[1] 40 in the form of fragments, fibers, and films with a diameter less than 5 mm^[2, 3]. Studies 41 have shown that MPs also exist in organisms, such as the guts and livers of fish ^[4, 5], 42 the roots and stems of plants ^[6-8], and human blood ^[9, 10]. Besides, submicroplastics 43 (100 nm to 1 µm) and nanoplastics (< 100 nm) have been shown to penetrate the blood-44 brain barrier of fishes ^[11, 12], the placental barrier of humans ^[13, 14], the skin barrier of 45 humans and mice ^[15, 16], and undergo internalization by bovine oviductal epithelial cells 46 and human colon fibroblasts ^[17]. Therefore, The MPs in organisms need to be 47 characterized and detected. 48

The detection methods for MPs are divided into qualitative methods and 49 quantitative methods ^[18]. Qualitative detection aims to confirm the existence of MPs 50 and characterize the type, morphology, and size of MPs. The coupling of microscopes 51 with vibrational spectroscopy techniques to identify MPs is the most common approach 52 ^[19]. Quantitative detection of MPs in terms of quantity can also be performed using 53 54 microscopic imaging. Furthermore, the distribution characteristics of fluorescently stained or radiolabeled MPs in organisms can be characterized by the intensity of 55 fluorescence or radioactivity. Mass spectrometry (MS) detection can provide mass-56 related information about MPs, but it cannot simultaneously obtain their morphology, 57 size, and aging degree. This perspective aims to seek an in situ mass spectrometry 58 imaging (MSI) method for MPs in organisms without labeling, and to quantitatively 59 analyze plastics in imaging. This will deepen our understanding of the metabolic and 60 transport mechanisms of MPs in biological tissues, and help us to evaluate the potential 61 62 risks of MPs to organisms and even ecosystems.

63

2. Imaging characterization of MPs

64 Currently, microscopy imaging techniques are conventional detection methods for 65 characterizing MPs within organisms (Table 1). Imaging techniques can be used to 66 describe the physical properties (shape and size) of MPs and to quantify the observed 67 MPs. In previous studies, laser confocal microscopy (CLSM), scanning electron 68 microscopy (SEM), and atomic force microscopy (AFM) were used to observe

fluorescently labeled polystyrene (PS) MPs with a diameter of 10 μ m in the digestive tracts of rotifers ^[20]. SEM was used to characterize the digestion of polylactic acid (PLA) with a diameter of 25 μ m by gastric lipases in mice, and fluorescence microscopy (FM) was used to characterize the migration process of fluorescent PLA plastic polymers in mice ^[21]. Although these techniques are typically used to image artificially added microsphere standards under laboratory conditions, they cannot specifically identify environmental MPs in biological samples.

77 Table 1 Applications and limitations of conventional imaging techniques for MPs

Imaging	Applications	Limitations	Ref.
techniques			[12 20]
Stereo	 Characterizing the size and 	 Low magnification. 	[13, 20]
microscope	morphology of MPs.	 Unable to provide 	
	 Counting the quantity of MPs. 	qualitative analysis, prone to false	
	 Magnification to a certain degree 	positives.	
	to observe the details of MPs.	• Not feasible for automation,	
		time-consuming and labor-intensive.	
		• Unable to perform <i>in situ</i>	
		imaging of MPs.	
FM	 Characterizing the size and 	 Fluorescent labeling of 	[6, 7,
	morphology of MPs.	plastics is required, which may lead	20, 21,
	 Characterizing the migration and 	to false positive results due to dye	43]
	fragmentation behavior of MPs	leaching.	
	in environmental and biological	Fluorescence quenching can	
	samples.	result in missed detection of MPs.	
		Chemical additives in	
		synthetic plastics may exhibit	
		fluorescence, interfering with the	
		identification of MPs.	
		 Environmental background 	
		may obscure the fluorescent signal	
		of plastics.	
SEM/TEM	 Characterizing high- 	Coupled with energy-	[6, 8,
	resolution surface morphology	dispersive X-ray spectroscopy, the	20, 21]
	of MPs.	morphology and elemental	
	Combining	composition of MPs can be	
	spectroscopic analysis	determined. However, the specificity	
	techniques for chemical	in identifying plastics is limited due	
	composition analysis of MPs.	to their common composition of C,	
	Characterizing the	H, and O.	
	distribution of MPs in	Plastics cannot be	
	environmental and biological	quantitatively detected.	
	samples.		
AFM	Surface imaging of	 The specificity in 	[20]
	nanoplastics.	identifying plastics is limited.	
	 Testing the mechanical 	Sample preparation requires	
	properties of MPs.	a high level of precision, with the	
	Application of MP	need for smooth and clean surfaces.	
	detection in environmental and	Flexible or irregular plastic samples	

	biological samples.	are difficult to meet the requirements.	
		• Susceptible to	
		temperature and humidity.	
		Plastics cannot be	
Infrared	Possessing micrometer	quantitatively detected.	[44]
spectroscopy	level spatial resolution	requirements unable to perform in	
imaging	No damage to the	situ imaging of plastics.	
0 0	samples.	Plastics cannot be	
	• Identifying the	quantitatively detected.	
	chemical composition of MPs.		
	• Rapid analysis with		
	No need for additives		
	or fluorescent labeling of MPs.		
Near-infrared	Possessing nanometer-	• Weak spectral specificity,	[20, 43]
hyperspectral	level spatial resolution.	prone to false positive results.	
imaging	• In situ imaging of MPs	• Limited ability to	
	in environmental and biological	differentiate between plastics of	
	damage to the sample	Plastics cannot be	
	No need for additives	quantitatively detected.	
	or fluorescent labeling of MPs.		
Raman	Possessing nanometer-	Fluorescent substances in	[19, 20]
spectroscopy	level spatial resolution.	the sample (environmental matrix or	
ımagıng	• Imaging of MPs	plastic additives) can interfere with	
	sample	Raman signals. Plastics cannot be	
	No need for additives	quantitatively detected.	
	or fluorescent labeling of MPs.	1	

78

Compared to the above imaging techniques, vibrational spectroscopy imaging techniques, such as infrared spectroscopy imaging, near-infrared hyperspectral imaging, and Raman spectroscopy imaging, rely on the characteristic absorption peaks of plastics in their spectra for relatively precise identification of MPs. However, they are prone to false positive results due to matrix interference. These techniques require cumbersome matrix purification, and the MPs should be extracted before detection $^{[20, 22]}$. This makes *in situ* imaging difficult to achieve.

Additionally, the imaging techniques have limitations in quantitative detection. It is challenging to identify particles smaller than the resolution of the instruments or particles firmly bound to biological matrices using imaging techniques. Although FM [22] and ¹⁴C isotope tracing techniques ^[23] can quantify the fluorescently or radioactively labeled plastic particles, their application in natural biological samples is difficult due

to the potential harm of labeled fluorescence and radioactivity to organisms, as well as
their degradation and shedding under environmental conditions.

93 **3. MS detection techniques for MPs**

MS detection is widely used in the detection of trace organic pollutants in the 94 environment. MS has the advantages of high sensitivity, high selectivity, high resolution, 95 and fast detection speed, and can be used for both qualitative and quantitative analysis. 96 Some MS techniques have been successfully applied in the detection of MPs or have 97 98 potential applications for MP detection. Currently, plastic macromolecules need to be cracked or depolymerized into small molecules under high temperature, strong acid, or 99 strong alkali conditions before MS detection ^[24-28]. This process cannot meet the 100 demand for non-destructive imaging. However, there are some MS ionization methods 101 that can achieve the direct ionization of plastic macromolecules. 102

103 **3.1 Ionization of MP molecules**

104 The ionization of target analyte molecules is a prerequisite for MS detection. 105 Gentle ionization methods, such as ambient ionization (e.g., Desorption Electrospray 106 Ionization (DESI)), may struggle to ionize the plastic polymers with a high molecular 107 weight of 10⁴ Da. Therefore, vacuum ionization methods with higher ionization 108 efficiency, such as matrix-assisted laser desorption/ionization (MALDI) MS and 109 secondary ion mass spectrometry (SIMS), hold greater potential for the detection of 100 plastic polymers ^[29-31].

SIMS is a hard-ionization technique that can bombard macromolecules into 111 complex fragments, making it suitable for detecting plastic polymers ^[32]. SIMS 112 bombards the sample surface with high-energy particles (nitrogen or argon), causing 113 the atoms and molecules on the sample surface to become ionized. After bombardment, 114 secondary ions are produced from atoms and molecules, which then enter the mass 115 analyzer for analysis ^[32]. The spatial resolution of this technique reaches the nanometer 116 level. However, the extensive ion fragmentation and low sensitivity limit the 117 application of SIMS in trace pollutants imaging (Table S1). 118

119 MALDI is an ion source that utilizes laser energy to vaporize the matrix with the 120 aid of ionization reagents, resulting in the ionization of target analyte molecules. The

matrix is crucial because it should possess the property of absorbing laser energy and 121 converting it into thermal energy. Ionization reagents serve to enhance the ionization 122 123 efficiency of the sample and increase the intensity of the mass spectrum signal. After mixing the sample, matrix, and ionization reagents together, a thin film forms on the 124 surface of the sample. Subsequently, the laser irradiates the surface of the sample matrix, 125 126 causing the matrix molecules to evaporate while absorbing the laser energy. As a result, the sample is released and ionized. The ions of the molecular fragmentation products 127 then enter the mass analyzer for analysis and detection. After absorbing the laser energy, 128 the matrix undergoes dissociation or fragmentation processes, resulting in the 129 generation of charged ions. During this process, interactions occur between matrix ions 130 and analyte molecules, facilitating proton transfer to protonate the analyte. The 131 assistance of matrix and ionization reagents significantly improves the ionization 132 efficiency of the sample, addressing the issue of ionizing non-volatile and high-133 molecular-weight analytes in MS. In contrast to the ESI techniques such as DESI, which 134 are suitable for ionizing water-soluble compounds with molecular weights below 2000 135 136 Da, MALDI ionization is performed under vacuum conditions. This makes MALDI ionization more appropriate for ionizing lipophilic macromolecular polymers with 137 molecular weights of tens of thousands of Da. MALDI-time-of-flight mass 138 spectrometry (MALDI-TOF-MS) has been successfully applied in the detection of MPs. 139 Professor Cai's team quantified PS and polyethylene terephthalate (PET) in sediments 140 and aviation plastic cups using MALDI-TOF-MS^[33]. The spatial resolution of MALDI-141 TOF can reach up to 1-5 µm, which offers great potential advantages in imaging 142 detection (Table S1). 143

144 **3.2 Mass analysis of MP molecules**

The MS detection of polymers also imposes requirements on the mass analyzer. Mass analyzers ^[24] such as TOF, Orbitrap, and magnetic sector MS can be used for the detection of biomacromolecules, and theoretically, they can also be applied to the detection of MPs.

149 TOF-MS is renowned for its capability in analyzing macromolecules. Ionized 150 molecules are accelerated by an electric field and fly at a constant velocity in the flight

tube, unaffected by external forces. Due to the variance in ion mass, their flight velocities differ, leading to varied arrival times at the detector. The mass can be determined based on the flight time. Therefore, TOF mass analyzers have m/zindependent trapping conditions ^[24]. They also have other advantages such as the highest detection speed and high resolution. However, the susceptibility to environmental influences during the detection process, to a certain extent, limits the application of TOF in terms of mass accuracy, resolution, and sensitivity (Table S1).

Orbitrap is a modified ion trap mass analyzer. After entering the orbitrap, ions 158 undergo radial motion under the influence of an electric field and axial oscillation. Due 159 to variance in ion mass, ions exhibit different frequencies in the orbit. The accumulation 160 of charge within the orbit generates a current signal outside the orbitrap, which is 161 detected and converted into a mass spectrum ^[34, 35]. The orbitrap mass analyzer has high 162 resolving power, high mass accuracy, and short acquisition times. Theoretically, 163 orbitrap has an unlimited mass range [36] and can be used for the analysis of 164 macromolecules. Compared with the orbitrap, Fourier transform ion cyclotron 165 166 resonance mass spectrometry (FTICR-MS) has higher trapping efficiencies for large ions, increased isotopic fidelity, and more precise resolution (Table S1). However, the 167 high accuracy of FTICR MS comes at the cost of longer signal acquisition times. Mass 168 imaging detection requires frame-by-frame information acquisition for a sample, and 169 the precision of a frame is usually 20-100 microns. Thus, an excessively long 170 acquisition time of tens of hours will be needed for one sample. The relative standard 171 172 deviation (RSD) of both TOF and Orbitrap in environmental samples can generally be achieved to be less than 3% (Table S1). In general, TOF or Orbitrap is sufficient for 173 174 analyzing high-molecular-weight compounds.

The magnetic sector MS is also a mass analyzer capable of analyzing macromolecules. The ionized sample, under the influence of a magnetic field, experiences Lorentz force and deflects along a trajectory. Due to variance in ion mass, ions are separated in mass-to-charge ratio orbits. Then, the separated ions are recorded by the detector. Isotope ratio mass spectrometry (IRMS), as a type of magnetic sector MS, has been used to trace the sources of MPs rather than their abundance ^[24]. However,

181 IRMS requires complete decomposition of organic compounds at temperatures 182 exceeding 1,000 °C to ensure accurate isotope testing results ^[37]. Due to the breakdown 183 of plastic macromolecules, this type of MS is unsuitable for the analysis of MPs.

184 4. Prospect of *in situ* imaging of MPs in biological samples using MSI

Scientists are seeking a detection technology that can provide *in situ* spatial distribution information of samples, as well as the quality and quantity of MPs. MSI combines microscopic imaging and MS, enabling the acquisition of both surface morphology in samples and mass spectra information of various chemical compounds. By matching and overlaying these two types of information, high-resolution images with chemical composition analysis can be obtained.

MSI is an MS technique that evolved from measuring the spatial distribution of endogenous compound molecules in biological tissues ^[38]. In 1998, the distribution characteristics of phospholipids on cell membranes were studied using TOF-SIMS ^[39]. Recently, MSI has been used to characterize the distribution of exogenous environmental pollutants within organisms. For example, the distribution of imipramine and chloroquine in the kidneys and brains of mice was visualized using atmospheric pressure-MALDI-TOF ^[40].

The development of *in situ* imaging and quantitative methods for MPs will help 198 understand the migration and transformation processes of MPs in the environment, as 199 well as the transport mechanisms in biological tissues. MALDI and SIMS coupled with 200 TOF or Orbitrap mass analyzers are proficient in analyzing and identifying 201 macromolecules such as plastic polymers. The reported concentration of PET MPs in 202 mussels from the market in Tianjin is 75.4 ng/g, while 12 MP particles with sizes of 5 203 to 10 µm were detected in four human placentas ^[13]. According to Hermabessiere's 204 calculation method ^[25], the mass concentration of polypropylene (PP) plastic is 205 estimated to be 10^3 ng/g from the quantity concentration. This is significantly higher 206 than the Instrumental Detection Limits (IDLs) for MALDI-TOF-MS detection, which 207 are 5.2 ng ^[27,32]. By combining *in situ* ionization techniques such as MALDI and SIMS 208 with MS like TOF or Orbitrap (which are proficient in macromolecular analysis and 209 identification), this technology will perform excellently in the analysis and 210

identification of plastic MPs. By combining the collected MS data with the spatial
information of optical images, the spatial images of chemical compositions can be
generated, theoretically enabling the characterization of plastic polymers through MSI
(Fig. 1). Attempts to perform plastic polymer *in situ* imaging using MALDI-TOF-MS^[41]
and TOF-SIMS ^[42] have begun (Fig. 2).

216

Fig. 1 Schematic diagram of an ideal MSI technique.

218

Fig. 2 Optical image (a), surface layer-MALDI-MS images (b-d) of a bilayer film prepared with PMMA (green) and PS (purple), intensity profile (e) along the red line in (d) ^[41]. Optical image (f-j) and surface layer-MALDI-MS images (g-k) of logo patterns scribed on the surface of PMMA film ^[41]. Simultaneous visualization of three different types of MPs (PMMA, GMA, and PVC) from a paramecium (l-p) ^[42].

224

Due to the hard ionization principle of TOF-SIMS, plastic macromolecules can be fragmented into complex fragments upon bombardment. The resulting mass spectral signals may not be sufficiently clear, leading to inaccurate quantification ^[38]. In contrast, MALDI-MSI, based on soft ionization principles, can ionize plastic macromolecules without disrupting their molecular structure. Thus, MALDI-MSI holds potential for the accurate quantification of MPs ^[33]. However, several challenges remain in establishing methods for detecting MPs using MALDI-MSI.

1) How to remove interference from embedding agents: The difficulty in preparing 232 biological samples for slicing without embedding agents. Embedding agents used to 233 234 support the slicing of biological tissues may produce background interference. If the 235 embedding material is necessary, its background noise should be identified by carefully comparing it with the characteristic peaks of the target molecules. Cryosectioning 236 without embedding is the best choice, which requires finding the optimal slicing 237 conditions (including adjusting the method and duration) for freezing the samples. 238 Besides, some semi-synthetic plastics, such as Celluloid, which is made from cellulose, 239 may have molecular structures and MS signals similar to those of plant biological 240

tissues. This may cause extra difficulties in conducting MS-based detection of suchsubstances.

243 2) How to improve imaging speed. High resolution of the instrument and oversized
244 sample areas can result in excessively long imaging times. Introducing machine
245 learning and deep learning techniques can aid in developing more efficient and rapid
246 MSI data processing programs.

3) How to improve the accuracy of MSI quantification. Inaccuracies in quantifying MPs may arise due to matrix interference and ion suppression in biological samples. Attempting internal standard correction for quantification or employing multiple calibration methods, such as thermal decomposition coupled with gas chromatography-MS or thermal alkaline/acid-assisted liquid chromatography-MS, can enhance the accuracy of quantification results from MSI.

253

254 CRediT authorship contribution statement

Y.L.: writing–original draft, review, editing & funding acquisition; X.Y.S., Y.W.:
writing–review & editing; Y.F. Z.: resources, formal analysis; J.J.Z.: formal analysis,
validation, writing–review & editing; P.W.: formal analysis; X.F.C.: supervision,
resources, validation; B.S.X.: supervision, writing; L.W.: methodology,
conceptualization, supervision, writing–review & editing, funding acquisition.

260

261 **Declaration of competing interest**

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

264

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Highlights

- · Mass spectrometry imaging holds promise for in situ imaging of microplastics in biological samples.
- Mass spectrometry imaging could provide in situ spatial distribution information of biological samples
- · Mass spectrometry imaging could quantify the quality and quantity of MPs in biological samples.

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