1	Heavy metal accumulation in vegetables grown in urban gardens
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### 23 Abstract

24 Urban agriculture is increasingly popular for social and economical benefits. However, edible 25 crops grown in cities can be contaminated by airborne pollutants, thuse leading to serious 26 heatlh risks. Therefore we need a better understanding of contamination risks of urban 27 cultivation to define safe practices. Here we study heavy metal risk in horticultural crops 28 grown in urban gardens of Bologna, Italy. We investigated the effect of proximity to different 29 pollution sources such as roads and railways, and the effect of the growing system used, that is 30 soil versus soilless cultivation. We compared heavy metals concentration in urban and rural 31 crops. We focussed on surface deposition and tissue accumulation of pollutants during three 32 years. Results show that in the city crops near the road were polluted by heavy metals, with 33 up to 160 mg per Kg dry weight for lettuce and 210 mg/Kg for basil. The highest Cd 34 accumulation of up to 1.2 mg/Kg was found in rural tomato. Soilless planting systems enabled 35 a reduction of heavy metal accumulation in plant tissue, of up to -71% for rosemary leaves. 36

Keywords: horticultural crops, urban and rural gardens, heavy metals, leaf leaching test,
soilless

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#### 41 **1 Introduction**

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43 Urban horticulture is spreading and becoming an essential feature of city planning in most cities of 44 the world. Born as a complementary food-providing initiative, urban horticulture is now gaining 45 value for many other essential roles it plays in the urban context (Ghosh et al. 2008; van 46 Veenhuizen 2006). It provides ecosystem services, contributing to increase urban life quality 47 through mitigation of the city climate, preservation and enhancement of biodiversity, reuse of urban 48 wastes and contribution to the aesthetic satisfaction given by a greener urban environment (La 49 Greca et al. 2011). Besides, urban horticulture has a wide field of social implications, for instance in 50 the rehabilitation of people with addictions of various nature (alcohol, drugs), or for supporting and 51 helping the elderly or the physically and mentally disabled (Muganu et al. 2010). Overall, its 52 multifunctional role is recognized (Orsini et al. 2013), ranging from its contribution to food 53 security, economic and environmental sustainability, preservation and implementation of the green 54 space (Zasada 2011). However, growing food in the urban environment relies on different 55 conditions as compared to traditional farming. In cities, horticultural gardens are distributed 56 according to the available space (generally on marginal areas, e.g. close to railways, main roads, or 57 nearby industrial areas) (Alloway 2004), rather than following rational and agronomical 58 considerations (e.g. potential pollution, access to light, proximity to residential neighbourhoods). 59 It is recognized that the risk of contaminants accumulating in air, soil and water can influence the

product quality and healthiness (Al Jassir et al. 2005; Leake et al. 2009). Given the health risk associated with their consumption, the European Union has defined maximum levels of lead and cadmium to be found in vegetables. Consistently, lead concentration should always be under 0.10, 0.30 and 0.20 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> of fresh weight respectively in legumes, brassica and all other vegetables. Cadmium threshold limits expressed by European Union regulation are set at 0.05, 0.1 and 0.2 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> of fresh weight respectively in vegetables whose edible part is the fruit, the stem/root or the leaf (EU 2009).

67 Common pollutants in the urban environment are mainly anthropogenic, especially caused by emissions from road traffic, previous industrial use of the sites, atmospheric deposition from 68 69 industrial activities and incinerators (Chen et al. 2005; Vittori Antisari et al. 2013). The main risk 70 associated with urban soils is the presence of heavy metals deriving from intense human activities 71 (Khan et al. 2008) and, more specifically, road traffic (Salvagio Manta et al. 2002). These elements 72 may be absorbed by plants (Tei et al. 2010), although their accumulation across plant organs and 73 between plant species may dramatically vary (Säumel et al. 2012). Within the city, areas with 74 different load of pollutants can be distinguished: a garden settled nearby a road or a railway 75 presents different conditions from one located in a courtyard or on a rooftop. Consistently, studies 76 on heavy metals concentration have demonstrated that distance from the road and contamination are 77 generally inversely correlated (Gherardi et al. 2009). Yet in the seventies, Lagerweff and Specht 78 (1970) found that concentration of Cd, Ni, Pb and Zn in roadside soil and grass samples from 79 several locations decreased with distance from traffic and with depth in the soil profile. Similar 80 results were more recently obtained by Naszradi et al. (2004) and Bakirdere and Yaman (2008). 81 Furthermore, the presence of buildings and trees as barriers for the pollutants was found to 82 remarkably reduce road-induced pollution in the nearby gardens (Säumel et al. 2012). A weak point 83 of previous researches is the absence of appropriate control when comparing urban to rural 84 horticultural production. Most of the available cases addressed contaminations in urban- (Bakirdere 85 and Yaman 2008; Bretzel and Calderisi 2006; Khan et al. 2008; Vittori Antisari et al. 2009), or 86 rural- (Peris et al. 2007) cases only. On the other hand, when a comparison of urban vs rural 87 horticultural good is claimed (Säumel et al. 2012), no reference to the growing conditions and 88 provenance of the rural product is given.

In the present work, three years of experiments are presented, including results on rural *vs* urban
products, distribution within the city and within gardens (proximity to different pollution sources,
and distance from road), and adoption of different cultivation systems (soil *vs*. soilless).

#### 93 2 Materials and Methods

95 A range of experiments was conducted between 2011 and 2013 in several sites within and nearby 96 the city of Bologna (Fig. 1). Prior experimentation soil samples were collected from all study sites 97 and analysed as follows. Soil samples were air-dried and sieved (<2 mm). pH (pHmeter, Crison, 98 Barcelona, Spain) measures were performed with distilled water on 1:2.5 w:v. Total Organic 99 Carbon was measured by Dumas combustion with a EA 1110 CHN elemental analyser (Thermo 100 Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA USA) after dissolution of carbonates with 2M HCl and the organic 101 matter was obtained using 1.72 factors. Soil particle size distribution was determined by the pipette 102 method (Gee and Bauder 1986) and total carbonates (CaCO<sub>3</sub>) were quantified by a volumetric 103 method, according to Dietrich-Fruehing. The sites used for experimentation were:

- 104- A rural control (coordinates 44°28'33'' N, 11°40'45'' E) from now on called105CONTROL/RURAL, located nearby the small town of Medicina (about 16,000 inhabitants,10635 km from Bologna, known as a vegetable crop cultivation area). The soil is UDIC107CALCIUSTEPT Fine Silty, Superactive, Mesic (SSS, 2014), Cambic CALCISOL, Siltic,108Hypocalcic (IUSS, 2014), with the following physic-chemical properties: sand (2-0.05 mm109 $\emptyset$ ) = 120 g kg<sup>-1</sup>; silt (0.05-0,002 mm  $\emptyset$ ) = 580 g kg<sup>-1</sup>; Clay (>0,002 mm  $\emptyset$ ) = 300 g kg<sup>-1</sup>; pH110= 7.8; organic matter = 23.2 g kg<sup>-1</sup>; total CaCO<sub>3</sub> = 90.7 g kg<sup>-1</sup>.
- 111 A traditional garden within the old city centre (coordinates  $44^{\circ}29'16''$  N,  $11^{\circ}20'51''$  E, 112 from now on called CENTRE), in the old district were few ancient traditional gardens still 113 exists. The soil is UDIFLUVENTIC HAPLUSTEPT Fine Silty, Superactive, Mesic (SSS, 114 2014), Terric, Calcaric, CAMBISOL, Siltic, (IUSS, 2014), with the following physic-115 chemical properties: sand = 190 g kg<sup>-1</sup>; silt = 560 g kg<sup>-1</sup>; Clay = 250 g kg<sup>-1</sup>; pH = 7.9; 116 organic matter = 18.3 g kg<sup>-1</sup>; total CaCO<sub>3</sub> = 120.5 g kg<sup>-1</sup>.
- Two gardens nearby the main railway (about 800 trains per day): a traditional one
  (coordinates 44°30'17" N, 11°21'28" E, from now on called RAILWAY/SOIL), and a

119	nearby rooftop soilless garden (coordinates 44°30'17" N, 11°21'20" E, from now on called
120	RAILWAY/SOILLESS). Aerial distance between these two gardens is about 200 m. In
121	traditional garden, the soil is UDIFLUVENTIC HAPLUSTEPT Fine Silty, Superactive,
122	Mesic (SSS, 2014), Fluvic, Eutric, CAMBISOL, Siltic (IUSS, 2014), with the following
123	physic-chemical properties: sand = 250 g kg <sup>-1</sup> ; silt = 550 g kg <sup>-1</sup> ; Clay = 200 g kg <sup>-1</sup> ; pH = 7.5;
124	organic matter = 16.8 g kg <sup>-1</sup> ; total CaCO <sub>3</sub> = 10.9 g kg <sup>-1</sup> . The soilless garden uses coir as
125	substrate (features provided by the supplier: bulk density = $0.06 \text{ g cm}^{-3}$ ; pH = 7.4; EC = 1.7
126	$dS m^{-1}$ ).

Two gardens nearby a main road of the city (via San Donato,  $10^3$ - $10^4$  vehicles day<sup>-1</sup>): two 127 traditional gardens, placed 10 m from the street (coordinates 44°30'54" N, 11°23'29" E, 128 from now on called ROAD/10) and 60 m from the street (coordinates 44°30'55" N, 129 11°23'33'' E, from now on called ROAD/60). Aerial distance between these two gardens is 130 131 about 80 m. The soil in both gardens is UDIFLUVENTIC HAPLUSTEPT Loamy, Superactive, Mesic (SSS, 2014), Irragric, Fluvic, Calcaric, CAMBISOL, Loamic, (IUSS, 132 2014), with the following physic-chemical properties: sand = 150 g kg<sup>-1</sup>; silt = 620 g kg<sup>-1</sup>; 133 Clay = 230 g kg<sup>-1</sup>; pH = 8.0; organic matter = 21.6 g kg<sup>-1</sup>; total CaCO<sub>3</sub> = 181.7 g kg<sup>-1</sup>. 134

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During years 2011 and 2012, plant samples were collected from crops already grown in the gardens, according to their availability in each site. In these years, plant species considered included vegetable and aromatic plants, namely tomato (*Lycopersicon esculentum*), zucchini (*Cucurbita pepo* L.), chicory (*Cichorium intybus* L.), strawberry (*Fragaria x Ananassa*), eggplant (*Solanum melongena* L.), sage (*Salvia officinalis* L.), basil (*Ocimum basilicum* L.), rosemary (*Rosmarinus officinalis* L.), and chilli pepper (*Capsicum annuum* L.), as well as some tree species, such as cherry

<sup>137 2.1</sup> Plant material

145 (*Prunus avium* L.), peach (*Prunus persica* L. Batsch), poplar (*Populus alba* L.), lime (*Tilia* L.), and
146 maple (*Acer campestre* L.).

In 2013, plantlets of three species, namely tomato (cv Caramba 281, Seminis Inc., Oxnard, CA,
USA), lettuce (cv Brasiliana, Eurosementi, Avellino, Italy) and basil (cv. Aromatico della Riviera
Ligure, Arcoiris, Modena, Italia), were purchased from a local nursery (LACME, Medicina,
Bologna, Italy). Transplanting was conducted in CONTROL/RURAL, ROAD/10, ROAD/60,
RAILWAY/SOIL and CENTRE on April 15<sup>th</sup> (tomato and lettuce) and May 15<sup>th</sup> (basil). Each
garden was provided with 9 plants per species.

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154 2.2 Experimental protocols

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- *Test#1: determination of pollutants as function of the distance of the road.* Plant samples
  were collected in 2011 and 2013 in ROAD/10 and ROAD/60 sites. Species considered in
  both gardens were tomato and zucchini in 2011 and tomato, lettuce and basil in 2013.
- *Test#2: comparison between different sources of pollution.* Two sites were selected for
  different sources of pollution: ROAD/10 and RAILWAY/SOIL. In 2011, leaves of lime,
  poplar and maple were sampled in ROAD/10, while in the RAILWAY/SOIL leaves of
  cherry, peach and poplar were collected. In 2013, tomato, lettuce and basil were collected
  from both gardens.
- *Test#3: comparison between the pollutants of horticultural crops grown in soilless and in soil.* In 2012 samples of sage, tomato, strawberry, basil, eggplant, rosemary, and chilli
   pepper grown in RAILWAY/SOIL and RAILWAY/SOILLESS were collected.
- *Test#4: urban vs. rural horticulture.* In 2013, according to the promising results obtained in
   the first two years and in order to overcome possible errors linked to differential mineral
   uptake due to species/cultivar, the analysis was extended to a great number of gardens
   within the city (CENTRE, RAILWAY/SOIL, ROAD/10 and ROAD/60). Furthermore, with

the aim of having a reference value in a rural environment, also the CONTROL/RURAL site
was included. In all sites, same cultivars of tomato, lettuce and basil obtained from the same
nursery were simultaneously grown.

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175 2.3 Lab determinations

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177 Leaf leaching test. The leaves of different species were sampled in glass jars of known tare weight. 178 In the laboratory, leaves were weighed and then washed with water acidulated with HCl (pH ~5) 179 (Vittori Antisari et al. 2012). Samples were shaken for 15 minutes and then water samples were 180 collected in polyethylene beakers, evaporated in ventilated oven, and brought to 100 mL. Samples 181 were then filtered, acidified with HNO<sub>3</sub> (65 % Suprapur, E. Merck, Germany; 1:100 v/v) and stored 182 at 4°C until analysis. The major and trace elements were determined by Inductive Coupled Plasma 183 Optical Emission Spectrometry (ICP-OES, Spectro Ametek, Arcos). The ICP-OES setting followed 184 multi-standard solutions (CPI-International-Amsterdam) that reproduce the matrix effect present in 185 samples and allow the lowering of Detection Limits (DL). Instrument response was assessed by 186 measuring a standard sample (CRM 609 - Community Bureau of Reference – BCR).

In order to evaluate the deposition rate of pollutants the leaf area was determined in function of the
leaf weight for three leaf samples. The calculated area/weight ratio ranges from 5.5 to 3.9 m<sup>2</sup> kg<sup>-1</sup>
(Rutter et al. 2011).

190 *Analysis of leaf samples.* Clean leaves were dried in ventilated oven (T<40°C) and ground in a 191 blender with blades made of pure titanium, carefully avoiding to introduce any further metal 192 contamination to the samples (Vittori Antisari et al. 2012). Briefly, approximately 0.4 g of leaves 193 sub-sample, weighted in Teflon bombs, were dissolved in 8 ml of H<sub>3</sub>NO<sub>3</sub> (suprapure, Merck, Roma, 194 Italy) + 2 ml of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> (Carlo Erba, Milano, Italia) using a microwave oven (Milestone 2100, 195 Sorisone, Bergamo, Italy). After cooling, solutions were made up to 20 ml with milli-Q water and 196 then filtered with Whatmann 42 filter paper. The accuracy of the instrumental method and 197 analytical procedures used was checked by triplication of the samples, as well as by using reference 198 material, which was run after every 10 samples to check for drift in the sensitivity. The analytical 199 quality of the results was checked against the following reference materials, which certify values of 200 the studied elements close to the measured ones: CRM 060 (aquatic plants), CRM 062 (Olive 201 leaves) provided by the European Commission Institute for Reference Materials and Measurements. 202 Statistical analysis. The experimental data were treated statistically using software packages (i.e. 203 Excel, Statgraphic plus 5.0, Systat 12.0). The used one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) test 204 (Tukey's test,  $p \le 0.05$ ) is a general technique that can be used to test the hypothesis that the means 205 among two or more groups are equal. This is a non-parametric test used to determine if one of 206 several groups of data tends to have more widely dispersed values than the other.

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#### 208 **3 Results and discussion**

209 Horticultural crops in urban or peri-urban areas are generally exposed to pollution risks, which 210 include trace elements and organic contaminants (Säumel et al. 2012). The recent increase of areas 211 for urban gardens in cities as well as the adoption of innovative (e.g. soilless) growing systems for 212 urban cultivation arises the public concern on the produce safety. Overall, the range of trace 213 elements concentration in the epigeous parts of the vegetables analyzed in the present study was 214 similar to concentrations reported in previous studies (Alexander et al. 2006; Finster et al. 2004; 215 Kachenko and Singh 2006; Murray et al. 2009), and always below limits expressed by European 216 Union regulation (EU 2009) (Table 1). Field surveys in urban areas are to date scarce but crucial to 217 determine health risks of urban horticulture (Säumel et al. 2012; Wong et al. 2006) and few studies 218 have evaluated the role of exposition at different pollutant sources (Kelly et al. 1996; Li et al. 219 2001). Differences in heavy metal pollution were however observed among study sites as reported 220 in the following sections.

- 221
- 222 3.1 Heavy metal risk as affected by the garden distance from the road

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224 A noticeable evidence related to traffic exposure has recently confirmed how lead concentration in 225 plant tissue has been successfully reduced by the adoption of unleaded gasoline (Mielke et al. 226 2011). However, environmental pollution associated to other metals (e.g. Ag, Cd, Ce, Ba) that are 227 generally added to fuel as preservatives, result to be highly correlated with traffic exposure. 228 Consistently, in order to assess the influence of the road distance on pollutant enrichment of 229 horticultural crops, the trace elements concentration in leaf tissues from plants grown nearby the 230 road (ROAD/10) was compared to the concentration found in vegetables grown on a more remote 231 area of the urban garden (ROAD/60), as shown in Table 1. As and Hg concentrations were below detection limits (0.01 and 0.02 µg kg<sup>-1</sup> of dry weight, respectively), while Cd amount was detected 232 233 only in tomato leaves in ROAD/10, in which a significant increase in the amount of Cr, Ni, Sn and 234 Zn was also recorded. In zucchini, greater accumulation of Ni, Sn and Zn was associated to 235 ROAD/10, whereas Ba concentration was higher in ROAD/60 samples. The stock of pollutant deposition (g m<sup>-2</sup> of leaf area) on the leaves of tomato and zucchini (Table 1), highlighted a 236 237 significant higher amount of most pollutants (As, Ba, Cu, Pb, Sb, Sn, V, Zn) deposited on both 238 crops grown nearby the road (ROAD/10) compared with the ones located far from it (ROAD/60), 239 therein confirming the deposition of these elements from road traffic as well as their high 240 bioavailability and leachibility from soils (Imperato et al. 2003; Madrid et al. 2002; Wong et al. 241 2006). As a matter of fact, anthropogenic metals have been reported to be both easily bio-available 242 in soils and easily diffused into the vegetable cuticle, through the stomata (Bianchini et al. 2013).

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244 3.2 Effect of different pollution sources on heavy metal load

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By analyzing the soluble pool of pollutants deposited on leaves of ornamental trees surrounding urban gardens exposed to road (ROAD/10) and railways (RAILWAY/SOIL) a different patterns of metals was distinguished (Table 2). Significantly higher amount of pollutants was found in the 249 deposition stock obtained from ROAD/10 as compared to RAILWAY/SOIL (Fig. 3, Vittori Antisari 250 et al. 2012), except for As that resulted significantly higher on the surface of leaves collected from 251 RAILWAY/SOIL (Table 2). Cd and Hg were not significantly different among samples. High 252 deposition of particulate pollutants are intercepted by woodlands (Fowler et al. 1989) and urban 253 trees are claimed to remove polluting particles from the air (Freer-Smith et al. 1997) absorbing 254 atmospheric turbulence (Beckett et al. 2000; McPherson et al. 1994). Such phenomenon may be 255 confirmed when comparing the behavior of deposition load on horticultural crops from that of 256 ornamental tree leaves. As a consequence, the protection of the urban garden with ornamental trees 257 resulted to be a sustainable solution to decrease the impact of both point and spread sources on the 258 horticultural crops, therein leading to increased food safety.

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260 3.3 Heavy metals risk in soil and soilless grown products

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262 The investigation was performed to evaluate the differential metal accumulation between urban 263 horticultural crops grown either on soil or in a soilless system. As shown in Fig. 2, samples from 264 plants grown in either soilless (RAILWAY/SOILLESS) or soil systems (RAILWAY/SOIL) did not 265 present differences in the total (expressed as sum of metals) concentrations. As, Cd and Hg 266 concentrations were below the detection limits, while Cd and V were mainly found in soil-grown 267 plants (data not shown). Significant differences in total accumulation were observed only in 268 rosemary and eggplant samples (Fig. 2) as a consequence to greater Zn accumulation in soil-grown 269 plants (data not shown). Consistently, depending on the species considered in the survey, 270 differential heavy metal loads were confirmed, suggesting that accumulators (e.g. rosemary, 271 Divrikli et al. 2006) should be avoided when cultivating contaminated soils (Fig. 2), in which 272 soilless growing systems should also be preferred.

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274 3.4 Heavy metal deposition and accumulation in rural and urban grown vegetables

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276 The experiment simultaneously addressed the quantification of heavy metal deposition (Fig. 3A) 277 and accumulation (Fig. 3B, C and D) in vegetable and aromatic species grown in rural and urban 278 environments and as a consequence of the distance to pollution sources (e.g. main roads, railways). 279 The pollutants deposited on the leaves were suddenly higher on ROAD/10, as highlighted by Fig. 280 3A. The highest concentration of metals observed in tomato leaf tissues (Fig. 3D) as compared to 281 basil and lettuce (Fig. 3B and C) was related to the dramatically higher Cu concentration (300 to 1100 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> DW, data not shown). The elevate amount of Cu observed in tomato leaves could be 282 283 explained as the consequence of foliar copper sulphate application for crop protection from 284 diseases. Copper sulphate is generally overused in urban gardens, being the unique allowed product 285 according to community garden rules (Tei et al. 2010). A peak in Cd concentration in leaves from all species was found in CONTROL/RURAL (0.4-1.2 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> of dry weight, data not shown). This 286 287 could be the result of long-term soil fertilization (Tella et al. 2013) and Cd build-up in soils. Lettuce 288 and basil (Fig. 3B and C) showed similar magnitudes of pollutants stored in their leaves and the 289 maximum accumulation was detected in the urban garden nearby the road (ROAD/10, mean value 290 184 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> of dry weight). Total metal concentration in tomato fruits was not significantly affected 291 by washing, nor by the growing (rural or urban) environment and the distance from pollution sources (mean value 55.0±2.6 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> of dry weight, data not shown). Overall, the greater content 292 293 of metals in tomato leaf tissue can be due to longer persistence of the plant in the field as compared 294 to lettuce and basil which have a shorter vegetative cycle. Similarly, great Ba concentration was 295 detected in the rosemary plants grown in RAILWAYS/SOIL as compared to other seasonal crops 296 (Fig. 2).

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#### 298 4 Conclusion

The concentration of heavy metals in urban grown vegetables is strictly related to the site in the citywhere plants are grown. When plants are cultivated nearby pollution sources (e.g. main roads), risks

301 of heavy metals accumulation is increased (about 1.5 folds when vegetables are grown 10 m from 302 the road as compared to 60 m away). Prior consumption, vegetables grown nearby roads need to be 303 carefully washed (deposition is increased 1.5 to 4 folds respectively in zucchini and tomato grown 304 nearby the road as compared to those cultivated 60 m away). Overall pollutant accumulation in 305 plant tissue is comparable to values found in rural areas, where Cd, mainly as a consequence to long-term soil fertilization, is generally higher (up to 1.2 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> of dry weight) than values found 306 307 in urban products. Improper pest management, commonly experienced in allotment garden, resulted in excessive Cu accumulation (up to 1100 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> of dry weight in tomato fruits). These results 308 309 should find application in the future planning and design of urban allotment gardens by public 310 administrations. Given their increased relevance in shaping today's cities, allotments should be 311 placed at safety distance from main roads or other pollution sources, and possibly surrounded by 312 tree barriers. The suitability of available soils should be confirmed by preliminary analyses and 313 whenever soils are not adequate, the adoption of soilless systems encouraged, although deeper 314 studies for confirming the benefits of soilless cultivation systems in reducing heavy metals risks are 315 however required. Finally, the present study should also call the attention on the possible risks faced by current rural cultivation systems: long-term soil fertilization may result in heavy metal build-up 316 317 in soils, therein leading to potential contamination risks.

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### 440 Tables

441

442 Table 1. Trace elements accumulation and deposition in leaves of tomato and zucchini as affected by distance to main road (ROAD/10 and

443 ROAD/60). Values expressed as mg kg<sup>-1</sup> of dry weight (accumulation) and g m<sup>-2</sup> of leaf area (deposition). BDL: Below Detection Limit; SD:

444 Standard Deviation. ANOVA (Tukey test p < 0.05) test was performed on tomato and zucchini separately. ns: not significant differences at  $P \le 0.05$ ;

445 \*: significant differences at P $\leq$ 0.05; \*\*: significant differences at P $\leq$ 0.01.

		As	Ba	Cd	Cr	Cu	Hg	Ni	Pb	Sb	Sn	V	Zn
Accumulation													
Tomato	ROAD/10	BDL	32.10	0.20	0.80	13.10	BDL	2.38	0.28	0.44	18.30	0.10	144.40
	SD		0.40	0.00	0.30	0.30		0.02	0.12	0.04	0.80	0.00	0.30
	<b>ROAD/60</b>	BDL	34.40	BDL	0.10	11.50	BDL	0.36	0.40	0.32	15.80	0.10	38.20
	SD		0.50		0.00	0.10		0.04	0.00	0.00	6.40	0.00	0.40
Significan	ce		ns	*	*	ns		*	ns	ns	ns	ns	*
Zucchini	ROAD/10	BDL	20.80	BDL	0.10	14.90	BDL	0.60	0.16	0.44	17.80	0.10	140.00
	SD		0.50		0.00	0.10		0.05	0.00	0.03	0.50	0.00	1.20
	<b>ROAD/60</b>	BDL	34.00	BDL	0.10	12.30	BDL	0.16	0.16	0.53	7.80	0.10	13.50
	SD		0.00		0.00	0.30		0.00	0.00	0.04	4.60	0.00	0.50
Significance			*		ns	ns		*	ns	ns	*	ns	*
						Deposit	ion						
Tomato	ROAD/10	0.3	18.2	0.1	0.9	68.8	BDL	3.5	3.6	0.2	0.3	0.5	100.1
	SD	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0		0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
	<b>ROAD/60</b>	0.1	4.6	0.1	0.3	16.3	BDL	4.7	1.3	BDL	0.2	0.2	21.7
	SD	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0		0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.0
Significance		*	*	ns	*	*		ns	*	*	*	*	*
Zucchini	ROAD/10	0.2	13.5	0.0	0.1	16.1	BDL	3.6	2.3	0.3	0.7	0.6	26.2
	SD	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0		0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
	<b>ROAD/60</b>	0.0	2.6	0.0	0.1	3.7	BDL	3.0	0.6	0.2	0.1	0.1	31.5
	SD	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0		0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Significance		*	*	ns	ns	*		ns	*	*	*	*	*

Table 2. Trace elements deposition in leaves of ornamental trees as affected by distance to main road (ROAD/10 and ROAD/60). Values expressed as g m<sup>-2</sup> of leaf area. SD: Standard Deviation. ANOVA (Tukey test p<0.05) test was performed comparing the average values of metals concentration. ns: not significant differences at P $\leq$ 0.05; \*: significant differences at P $\leq$ 0.01.

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		As	Ba	Cd	Cr	Cu	Hg	Ni	Pb	Sb	Sn	V	Zn
RAILWAY/	Poplar	0.93	11.31	0.08	1.42	34.25	0.06	3.88	0.75	0.12	1.45	0.30	84.75
SOIL	SD	0.01	0.73	0.00	0.02	0.99	0.00	0.13	0.10	0.01	0.06	0.03	0.75
	Cherry	1.21	14.04	0.04	1.72	55.05	0.06	5.45	0.91	0.24	1.67	0.44	57.52
	SD	0.03	1.09	0.00	0.03	1.15	0.00	0.15	0.16	0.01	0.05	0.03	0.87
	Peach	0.93	18.34	0.06	1.75	128.93	0.11	7.52	5.89	0.25	1.51	0.65	175.51
	SD	0.04	1.24	0.00	0.04	1.18	0.00	0.19	0.11	0.02	0.01	0.01	1.25
	Average	1.02	14.56	0.06	1.63	72.74	0.08	5.62	2.52	0.20	1.54	0.46	105.93
	SD	0.56	1.60	0.03	0.08	2.70	0.05	0.60	0.80	0.12	0.07	0.09	12.80
ROAD/10	Poplar	0.12	44.74	0.22	3.05	168.42	0.17	16.30	11.41	1.13	2.25	1.54	597.42
	SD	0.00	1.26	0.01	0.03	2.15	0.00	0.26	0.13	0.03	0.02	0.03	0.72
	Maple	0.30	43.35	0.24	3.39	110.11	0.14	9.50	10.90	0.91	2.51	1.62	511.06
	SD	0.01	0.99	0.01	0.05	1.58	0.00	0.20	0.15	0.05	0.01	0.04	0.85
	Lime	0.37	80.84	0.23	3.61	184.55	0.30	15.21	15.63	1.12	2.80	2.45	399.87
	SD	0.02	0.75	0.02	0.04	1.96	0.00	0.23	0.20	0.06	0.01	0.10	1.14
	Average	0.26	56.31	0.23	3.35	154.36	0.20	13.67	12.65	1.05	2.52	1.87	502.78
	SD	0.16	4.30	0.05	0.08	3.80	0.12	0.30	0.70	0.04	0.60	0.10	15.60
Significance		*	*	ns	*	*	ns	**	*	*	*	*	**

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# Figures

Figure 1. Sites used for sampling. Top box, localisation of the city of Bologna and the town of Medicina. *CONTROL/RURAL* samples were obtained from site (C). Bottom box, city of Bologna.



Figure 2. Cumulative concentration of selected heavy metals (As, Ba, Cd, Co, Cr, Cu, Ni, Pb, Sb, Sn, V, Zn) on leaveas of crops (tomato, sage, strawberry, pepper, rosemary, eggplant) grown on soil and soilless. Mean values, expressed as mg kg<sup>-1</sup> of dry weight (DW), vertical bars represent standard deviation. ANOVA (Tukey test p≤0.05) was performed in all study sites and different lowercase letters indicate a significant difference in metals content. ns = not significant differences at P≤0.05.



Figure 3. Cumulative pollutants (As, Ba, Cd, Co, Cr, Cu, Ni, Pb, Sb, Sn, V, Zn) deposition and tissue concentration. Deposition (A) was determined in the water after washing, as affected to garden location and growing system adopted, and expressed as  $g \text{ cm}^{-2}$  of leaf area (LA). Tissue cumulative concentration, expressed as mg kg<sup>-1</sup> Dry Weight (DW), on leaves of crops (basil, A; lettuce, B and tomato, C). ANOVA (Tukey test p≤0.05) was performed in all study sites and different lowercase letters indicate a significant difference in metals content.







