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# Ranking the suitability of common urban tree species for controlling PM<sub>2.5</sub> pollution

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#### ABSTRACT

Pollution caused by particles with aerodynamic diameters less than 2.5  $\mu$ m (PM<sub>2.5</sub>) is now a major environmental problem in many Asian cities. Planting more trees has been suggested as an unconventional approach to alleviate the problem. In this study, we developed a ranking approach to evaluate the PM<sub>2.5</sub> removal efficiency, negative impacts on air quality, and the suitability to urban environments of commonly occurring urban tree species. The results showed that the most frequently occurring tree species in global cities were not the best performers in removing PM<sub>2.5</sub>. Among the ten most frequently occurring tree species, only London plane (*Platanus acerifolia* (Aiton) Wild.), silver maple (*Acer saccharinum* L.) and honey locust (*Gleditsia triacanthos* L.) were ranked above average. However, there is great potential for improving the removal of PM<sub>2.5</sub> from urban air by using species that have high PM<sub>2.5</sub> removal efficiency, especially conifer species. Use of conifer species requires choosing the correct gender and matching trees with appropriate sites. The results from this study can assist environmental management agencies in the selection of tree species for urban greening projects focusing on PM<sub>2.5</sub> control.

Keywords: Air pollutant, urban environment, urban greening, biophysical characteristics



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#### Article History:

Received: 13 April 2014 Revised: 23 September 2014 Accepted: 23 September 2014

#### doi: 10.5094/APR.2015.031

#### 1. Introduction

High concentrations of  $PM_{2.5}$  in urban air pose a great health risk to urban residents. Epidemiological studies have already shown the linkage between  $PM_{2.5}$  pollution in cities and an increase in respiratory and cardiovascular diseases and premature deaths (Mate et al., 2010; Nawahda et al., 2012). Recently,  $PM_{2.5}$  pollution has increased in Asian cities (Yu et al., 2011; Tiwari et al., 2012) making it the top public health concern in this region (Nawahda et al., 2012). Administrations in affected cities face mounting pressure from the general public to control  $PM_{2.5}$  pollution.

Conventional measures for controlling PM<sub>2.5</sub> pollution focus on reducing emissions from sources (Tucker, 2000; Mölders, 2013; Pui et al., 2014). These measures cannot deal with the PM<sub>2.5</sub> already in the air. Urban trees, an unconventional solution to the problem, have been shown to remove  $PM_{2.5}$  from the air (Nowak et al., 2013). Urban trees reduce  $PM_{2.5}$  pollution both directly and indirectly. In direct reduction, tree canopies intercept PM2.5 with their branches and leaves (Beckett et al., 1998; Freer-Smith et al., 2004; Saebo et al., 2013). In a study of ten U.S. cities, Nowak et al. (2013) found that the amount of PM2.5 removed directly from urban air by trees varied between 4.7 t/year and 64.5 t/year in different cities. Indirectly, trees lower air temperatures through shading and evapotranspiration. The cooling effect reduces the need for energy-using fans and air conditioners, which further lowers emissions from power plants. Also, the rates of photochemical reactions in the urban atmosphere are slowed by the lowered air temperature resulting in decreased production of secondary air pollutants (Nowak et al., 2000).

The direct removal of PM2.5 by trees is affected by environmental factors as well as the biophysical characteristics of trees (Zhao et al., 2013). Environmental factors such as weather conditions, urban morphology, and concentrations of PM2.5 have a significant impact on the quantity of PM2.5 intercepted by trees (Beckett et al., 2000a; Reinap et al., 2009). Biophysical characteristics at the group level such as planting density, spatial arrangement, total leaf surface area, and phenology are the main influencing factors (Hagler et al., 2012; Nowak et al., 2013; Brantley et al., 2014). At the individual tree level, tree dimension, canopy texture, leaf characteristics, and growth habits define a species' PM<sub>2.5</sub> removal efficiency (Abdollahi, 2000; Fuller et al., 2009; Huang et al., 2013). Studies have shown that trees with larger leaf surface areas have higher PM2.5 removal efficiency (Lorenz and Murphy, 1989). Evergreen conifers have higher efficiency because they maintain high leaf surface areas all year round. Trees with dense canopies and fine textures have higher surface roughness that can facilitate the interception of PM2.5 (Freer-Smith et al., 2004; Freer-Smith et al., 2005; Petroff et al., 2008). At the leaf level, leaves with complicated structures and rough, sticky, or waxy surfaces can capture and retain PM2.5 more efficiently (Wedding et al., 1975; Little and Wiffen, 1977; Abdollahi, 2000; Saebo et al., 2012).

Because  $PM_{2.5}$  removal efficiency varies among tree species, it is advisable to use species with high  $PM_{2.5}$  removal efficiency in urban greening projects. However, high  $PM_{2.5}$  removal efficiency is not the only criterion for species selection. An important consideration is the species' ability to adapt to urban environments. Trees growing in urban environments are subjected to various abiotic and biotic stresses such as compacted soil, waterlogging, droughts, pests and diseases, and air pollutants (Pauleit, 2003; Nielsen et al., 2007; Jutras et al., 2010). If trees cannot tolerate these conditions, growth can be stunted and life span reduced. A tree with a poorly developed canopy will be less effective in intercepting  $PM_{2.5}$ . Tree species susceptible to pests and disease have to be treated with pesticides which are another source of  $PM_{2.5}$  (Coscolla et al., 2008). The removal and replacement of dead trees contributes to increased  $PM_{2.5}$  emissions if automobile transportation and power tools are used (Escobedo et al., 2011).

Tree species that impair air quality should be avoided or planted less frequently. People can be allergic to the pollen from some tree species (Hruska, 2003). Biogenic volatile organic compounds (BVOCs) emitted by trees can react with nitrous oxides (NO<sub>X</sub>) and other chemical species to form ozone (O<sub>3</sub>) and secondary organic aerosols (SOAs). O<sub>3</sub> is the main component of urban smog. SOA is a source of PM<sub>2.5</sub> (Benjamin and Winer, 1998; Setyan et al., 2012). Emission rates of BVOC vary greatly among tree species. Species with low emission rates are preferred in urban greening projects (Nowak et al., 2000).

Although a few studies included the improvement of air quality as a criterion in selecting urban tree species (Nowak and Heisler, 2010; Tong et al., 2010), none of the studies has systematically evaluated the suitability of common urban tree species for greening projects targeting  $PM_{2.5}$  pollution. Moreover, past studies focused mostly on particular regions so the results have limited use for cities in other regions. In this study we developed a ranking method and used it to evaluate the suitability of common urban tree species for controlling  $PM_{2.5}$ . Specifically, the objectives of this study include: (1) to find out what tree species commonly occur in global cities, and (2) to rank the suitability of those tree species for controlling  $PM_{2.5}$ . The method developed in this study and the evaluation results can assist environmental management agencies worldwide in selecting suitable tree species if they want to use urban greening as a  $PM_{2.5}$  control tool.

#### 2. Methods

## 2.1. Compiling a list of urban trees that are most commonly occurring within cities globally

An extensive literature search was conducted to compile a list of urban tree species commonly occurring around the world. Combinations of keywords including "urban", "city", "tree species", "woody plants", and "flora" were used in searching three online literature databases, including Scopus, ISI Web of Knowledge, and Google Scholar. Returned search results were filtered using the following two criteria: (1) the work was carried out within an urban area. In this study a place was deemed urban if it had a minimum of 2 500 inhabitants, and (2) the work focused on trees found in man-made landscapes such as streets, parks, and residential areas. Studies that were primarily conducted in natural reserves inside urban areas, remnant urban forests, and other types of natural forests were excluded in the analysis. Lists of tree species were extracted from studies that met the two criteria. If a paper did not contain a list of species which was mentioned in it, an e-mail was sent to the author requesting the information. A Google search was also conducted for urban tree inventory reports. Only inventory reports containing lists of tree species were downloaded and included.

Scientific names of identified species were verified against the Plant List database, the largest online database containing accepted scientific names for plant species (The Plant List, 2013). Species that did not have accepted scientific names were further verified using integrated taxonomic information system (ITIS, 2014). Species that could not be verified were discarded. Records at taxonomic levels lower than species (e.g. varieties and cultivars) were merged to the species level. After preprocessing, we counted the number of times that a particular species occurred in all studied cities to determine the relative frequency of this species among cities.

#### 2.2. Ranking the suitability of tree species

Following the approach used in i–Tree Species Selector (Nowak, 2008), the relative efficiency of  $PM_{2.5}$  of tree species was ranked using seven biophysical variables of trees (Table 1).

Biophysical variables of tree species were mainly collected from *Silvics of North America* (Burns and Honkala, 1990), Gilman and Watson (1993), and Horticopia (Horticopia, 2013). Ratings of variables were aggregated using a simple additive method.

The negative impacts on air quality were evaluated using criteria listed in Table 2.

Pollen allergenic ranks were obtained from Allergy–Free Gardening (2014), IMS Health (2014), and other literature (Lorenzoni–Chiesura et al., 2000; Hruska, 2003; Carinanos and Casares–Porcel, 2011). Standard BVOC emission rates of 51 species were obtained from Benjamin and Winer (1998). Measured emission rates per unit of dry biomass weight for the remaining 49 species were obtained from the Biosphere–Atmosphere interactions research group (BAI, 2013) and other references (Guenther et al., 1994; Kesselmeier and Staudt, 1999; Zhang et al., 2000). Following the procedure developed by Benjamin and Winer (1998), these measured emission rates were converted to standard emission rates by using algorithms developed by Guenther et al. (1993).

Five characteristics were used to evaluate a tree species' adaptation to urban environments (Table 3).

Table 1. Method	for ranking	PM <sub>2.5</sub> removal	efficiencies of	of tree	species
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Veriebles		Ratings and Criteria	
Variables	3	2	1
Туре	Evergreen conifer	Evergreen broadleaf	Deciduous
Size	Height of mature tree more than 20 m	Height of mature tree between 10 m and 20 m	Height of mature tree between 5 m and 10 m
Growth rate	Fast	Medium	Slow
Canopy structure	Dense canopy, fine texture	Canopy with medium density, medium texture	Open canopy, coarse texture
Leaf complexity	Bi– or tri–pinnately compound, or scale–like leaves in conifer	Pinnately or palmately compound; deeply–divided or lobed	Intact single leaf
Leaf size	Average size of leaf less than or equal to 5 cm	Average size of leaf between 5 cm and 20 cm	Average size of leaf more than 20 cm
Leaf surface feature	Rough, hairy, resinous, sticky, scaly, scurfy, glutinous, tufts	Ciliate, velvety, pubescent, waxy, glaucous, downy, slightly hairy, fuzzy	Smooth surface

	Tuble 2. Wethou joi Tuliking the ne	gutive impucts on an quanty by tree specie.	5
Mariahlar		Ratings and Criteria	
variables	3	2	1
Allergenic level of pollen	Highly allergenic	Medium	Low
BVOC emission rate	Emission rate of isoprene and monoterpenes more than 10 g day <sup>-1</sup> tree <sup>-1</sup>	Emission rate of isoprene and monoterpenes between 1 g day <sup>-1</sup> tree <sup>-1</sup> and 10 g day <sup>-1</sup> tree <sup>-1</sup>	Emission rate of isoprene and monoterpenes less than or equal to 1 g day <sup>-1</sup> tree <sup>-1</sup>

Table 3. Method for ranking the suitability for urban environments for tree species

<b>Table 2.</b> Method for ranking	g the negative impacts o	on air quality i	by tree species
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Variables		Ra	itings and Criteria
Valiables	3	2	1
Tolerance of poor soil	Strong	Medium	Low tolerance, need good soil
Tolerance of drought	Strong	Medium	Low tolerance, need watering
Resistance to pest and disease	Strong	Medium	Susceptible to multiple pests and diseases
Tolerance of SO₂	Strong	Medium	Low to sensitive
Tolerance of O₃	Strong	Medium	Low to sensitive
Tolerance of NO <sub>2</sub>	Strong	Medium	Low to sensitive

Tolerances of unfavorable soil conditions, droughts, pests and diseases of each species were obtained from NRCS (2014), Horticopia (2013), Hortipedia (2013), and UFEI (2012). Tolerances of SO<sub>2</sub>, O<sub>3</sub> and NO<sub>2</sub> were obtained from various published papers and reports (U.S. EPA, 1976; Umbach and Davis, 1984; Kozlowski and Constantinidou, 1986a; Kozlowski and Constantinidou, 1986b; Li and Hu, 2005; Appleton et al., 2009). If information for a characteristic of a particular species was not available, it was left blank. Values of negative impacts on air quality and suitability to urban environments of tree species were not calculated due to missing data.

To save space, only important references were presented in the main text of this article. A complete list of references that were used to extract the aforementioned characteristics of trees was included in the Supporting Material (SM).

#### 3. Results

#### 3.1. Common urban tree species

A total of 3 602 tree species were identified in 328 cities in 60 countries (for names of cities and countries, see the SM, Table S1). These species belonged to 191 families and 1 115 genera. The ten most frequently occurring families, genera, and species in global cities were listed in Table 4.

#### 3.2. Ranks of species

Based on occurrences of all species in studied cities, a list of the 100 most frequently occurring tree species was compiled (Table 5). Their  $PM_{2.5}$  removal efficiency, negative impact on air quality, and suitability for urban environments were ranked. The table was ordered by the relative PM<sub>2.5</sub> removal efficiency of each species and then by the occurrence of the species.

#### 4. Discussion

The list of species compiled in this study depicted a wellknown trend showing that cities exhibit common genera and species. While there were no similar lists with which we could compare our list, our list could be compared to results from several regional studies. Acer sp. and Tilia sp. were among the top 10 most frequently occurring genera found in our list. They were also the top two genera found in 10 Nordic cities (Sjoman et al., 2012). Species such as Norway maple (A. platanoides) were most common in cities in the United Kingdom, the United States of America, and Australia (Kendal et al., 2012; Nowak, 2012), they were among the top ten on our list. These observations supported to the conclusion that "urban-adaptable" species are becoming increasingly widespread across the planet (McKinney, 2006).

Among the ten most frequently occurring species, the PM<sub>2.5</sub> removal efficiency of London plane (P. acerifolia), silver maple (A. saccharinum) and honey locust (G. triacanthos) were ranked as above average. Silver maple also has a low to medium negative impact on air quality and adapts to urban environments very well. The two most widely occurring species black locust (R. pseudoacacia) and Norway maple, have below average efficiency in PM<sub>2.5</sub> removal but they adapt well to urban environments and are often invasive. The remaining six species had properties similar to black locust and Norway maple. This result reflected the fact, in the past, urban tree species were mainly selected for their aesthetic values and adaptability to urban environments (Saebo et al., 2003). Expanding the selection criteria to include assessments of ecosystem services (e.g., air pollution reduction) generated by trees will allow us to make better decisions.

Conifer species were ranked high in PM<sub>2.5</sub> removal efficiency. This result was in agreement with field observations (Beckett et al., 2000b; Saebo et al., 2012). The higher effectiveness of conifers is due to the following factors: year round foliage, dense and finetextured canopies, and high leaf area index. None of the conifer species, however, was among the top ten most frequently occurring species. In fact none of them was among the top twenty. This creates a unique opportunity to enhance the removal of PM<sub>2.5</sub> of urban forests by increasing the use of conifer species worldwide. A call for increased use of conifer species in urban greening programs to help control air pollution has been made by other researchers (Beckett et al., 2000b; Nowak and Heisler, 2010). Our results showed that conifer species are underused globally. Nevertheless, our results also indicated that caution needs to be taken when planting more conifers. For example eastern red cedar (J. virginiana) was ranked as a top species in PM<sub>2.5</sub> removal efficiency but its pollen is also highly allergenic. Therefore, male trees of eastern red cedar should be avoided in planting programs in cities. Eastern white pine (P. strobus) was ranked high in PM<sub>2.5</sub> removal efficiency but its tolerance of air pollutants was low. This limitation restricts its use in places with high levels of air pollution. Besides these concerns, the dense shade cast by conifers and their sensitivities to high salt levels in soils (Goodrich and Jacobi, 2012) are other factors that need to be considered.

There are broadleaf species which have high PM<sub>2.5</sub> removal efficiency, low negative impact on air quality, and good suitability for urban environments. Red maple (A. rubrum), silver linden (T. tomentosa), and American elm (U. americana) are a few examples. These findings showed that it was possible to construct an urban forest with both good species diversity and a high PM2.5 removal efficiency.

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Rank	Family	Occurrences	Genus	Occurrences	Species	Occurrences
1	Leguminosae	260	Acer sp.	213	Robinia pseudoacacia L.	125
2	Rosaceae	241	Fraxinus sp.	179	Acer platanoides L.	124
3	Oleaceae	229	Pinus sp.	176	Platanus acerifolia (Aiton) Willd.	96
4	Aceraceae	213	Prunus sp.	170	Gleditsia triacanthos L.	95
5	Salicaceae	198	Populus sp.	168	Acer saccharinum L.	93
6	Pinaceae	195	Quercus sp.	164	Acer negundo L.	92
7	Malvaceae	191	Ulmus sp.	147	Ailanthus altissima (Mill.) Swingle	89
8	Ulmaceae	186	Tilia sp.	143	Tilia cordata Mill.	89
9	Fagaceae	184	Platanus sp.	142	<i>Betula pendula</i> Roth	84
10	Betulaceae	174	Betula sp.	127	Morus alba L.	83

Table 4. Top ten most frequently occurring families, genera, and species of trees in 328 cities

The PM<sub>2.5</sub> removal efficiency estimated by this study measures the relative capacity of a tree species in removing PM<sub>2.5</sub> when it reaches mature size. Although the most reliable way to rank PM<sub>2.5</sub> removal efficiency among tree species is to directly measure the quantity of intercepted PM<sub>2.5</sub> using mature trees in a controlled environment, the feasibility of conducting that kind of study is low (Zhao et al., 2013). Current field measurements on PM<sub>2.5</sub> removal by trees were mainly conducted on tree seedlings, model trees, branches, or leaves (Abdollahi, 2000; Beckett et al., 2000b; Ould-Dada, 2002; Huang et al., 2013; Saebo et al., 2013). When scaling up those measurements to derive removal efficiencies of mature trees, unknown amount of uncertainties were introduced into the final estimates. Modeling studies mainly focused on groups of trees or urban forests (Nowak et al., 2013). They did not provide information on the  $PM_{2.5}$  removal efficiency of individual tree species. Despite these limitations, the ranking approach used in this study and others (Nowak, 2008) provides a feasible way for people to assess the PM<sub>2.5</sub> removal efficiency of any tree species.

In this study, characteristics that affected a species' negative impacts on air quality and its suitability for urban environments were assigned ordinal values ranging from one to three. This is due to the fact that those characteristics were normally assessed in a qualitative way in the literature. For example, most studies classified trees' tolerances of O<sub>3</sub>, NO<sub>2</sub>, and SO<sub>2</sub> pollution as tolerant, intermediate tolerant, and sensitive (U.S. EPA, 1976; Kozlowski and Constantinidou, 1986a; Kozlowski and Constantinidou, 1986b). This qualitative classification has its merit. Even for trees belonging to the same species, noticeable variations can be observed in those characteristics because of the influence of genetic factors, growth, environmental conditions, and measuring methods. Broad classification can accommodate these variations better than using specific numeric values.

While the result of this study can provide useful information for environmental management agencies worldwide, one should pay attention to the following limitations when using the results. First, the common tree species discussed in this article refer to species frequently occurring in global cities, not necessarily species that have large numbers of individuals. This is because the list of species was compiled from various sources. Different sampling approaches used in these sources resulted in varied detectability of tree species and estimates of parameters of tree populations. Furthermore, only a small number of sources presented estimates of quantities of trees. Those limitations prevented us from identifying the most common species by using quantities of trees. The compiled list was dominated by tree species in cities from the U.S., China, Germany, Brazil, Canada, and Slovakia where studies of urban vegetation have been conducted more extensively. Secondly, lack of information on BVOC emission rates, allergenicity of pollen, and air pollutants tolerance of some tree species limited our ability to perform a comprehensive evaluation. More studies are urgently needed in the future to fill in the information gap. Meanwhile users

can refer to local databases and available information on species from the same genus to make an informed guess. Third, in order to reach the necessary level of generalization in the results, some location-specific features of trees were not included in the ranking method, (e.g., adaptation of the species to the local climate). For the same reason, the ranking method did not consider the suitability of a species for a particular planting site. For example, for streets or other populated places, species like silver maple might need to be avoided because of the brittle wood (Roth, 2001) even though it has a relatively high rate of PM<sub>2.5</sub> removal efficiency. The users should modify the ranking system to meet their specific needs. Finally, the ranking method itself has limitations. Ranking results are decided by users' choices of variables and judgments of relative importance of different variables (Paruolo et al., 2013). A species' rank can vary if a different set of variables and weights are applied. Therefore, the ranking result from this study should be viewed as a general guideline for selecting species rather than absolute ranks.

#### 5. Conclusions

Tree planting has been proposed as an unconventional measure to control PM2.5 pollution. Knowing which tree species to plant is the first step to implement this approach. In this study an easy-to-use ranking method was developed to rank the relative suitability of common urban tree species for planting programs which include the removal of PM<sub>2.5</sub> as a target. The results showed that some widely-distributed urban tree species were not the best performers in removing PM2.5. However, planners can enhance the reduction of PM<sub>2.5</sub> by using a mixture of conifer and broadleaf species that have high PM2.5 removal efficiencies, good adaptability to urban environments, and fewer negative impacts on air quality. The application of the ranking method in a particular city can be enhanced by supplementing information such as adaptation to local climates, management costs, and features of planting sites. In future studies, the ranking method can be improved by incorporating more quantitative descriptions of tree species characteristics. Weights for various characteristics can be added to the ranking system when we have gained better knowledge of the relative importance of those characteristics on PM2.5 removal efficiency.

#### Acknowledgments

I want to thank Dr. David Nowak from USDA Forest Service, who introduced me to the ranking method. Also my gratitude goes to Dr. Joe McBride, Dr. Henrik Sjöman, Dr. Johan Östberg, Dr. Francesco Ferrini, Dr. Sandrine Godefroid, Dr. Dave Kendal, Dr. Carmen Luz De la Maza, Dr. Klaus Seeland, Dr. Stephan Pauleit, Dr. Michael Strohbach, Dr. Petr Pysek and Ms. Dhananjaya Lamichhane for generously sharing with me their data. This research was supported by a grant from the National Geographic Air and Water Conservation Fund (Grant no. GEFC01–13).

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n air qualit	emoval Effi	Crown Density and Texture	2	З	2	Э	2	3	2	2	2	2	1	2	2	3	2	2	З	2	2	3	2	2	2
impacts o	PM <sub>2.5</sub> R	Height	2	2	2	2	ю	з	з	з	з	З	з	з	Э	2	Э	З	ю	2	ŝ	ю	ŝ	З	з
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lable 5. PM2.5 removal		Scientific Name	Juniperus virginiana L.	Cupressus sempervirens L.	Juniperus chinensis L.	Thuja occidentalis L.	Pinus strobus L.	Taxodium distichum (L.) Rich.	Tsuga canadensis (L.) Carr.	<i>Grevillea robusta</i> A.Cunn. ex R.Br.	Fraxinus excelsior L.	Acer rubrum L.	Populus alba L.	Picea abies (L.) H.Karst.	Ulmus pumila L.	Picea pungens Engelm.	Tilia tomentosa Moench.	Ulmus americana L.	Salix alba L.	Jacaranda mimosifolia D. Don	Metasequoia glyptostroboides Hu and W.C.Cheng	Tilia xeuropaea L.	Ulmus glabra Huds.	Platanus acerifolia (Aiton) Willd.	Gleditsia triacanthos L.
		Occurrence	35	33	45	69	43	38	31	29	79	66	99	53	51	50	45	43	38	35	33	32	31	96	95

					Table 5. (	Continued.										
			PM <sub>2.5</sub> R	emoval Effic	ciency				Negative Ir	npact		Suitabili	ty for Urbar	ו Environm	ent	
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Acer saccharinum L.	1	3	з	2	2	2	1	14	1	2	з	ß	1	3	3	1
Acer pseudoplatanus L.	1	3	ß	2	2	2	1	14	1	2	з	2	1	2	з	
Fraxinus pennsylvanica Marshall	1	3	ŝ	2	2	1	2	14	1		ŝ	ŝ	1	1	1	1
Liriodendron tulipifera L.	1	2	ß	2	2	2	2	14	1	1	2	2	2	ŝ	1	
Pinus sylvestris L.	ß	2	2	2	1	2	2	14	2	1	ß	ŝ	1	1	2	1
Salix babylonica L.	1	3	ß	з	1	2	1	14	ñ	З	з	ŝ	2	1	2	з
Acer saccharum Marshall	1	2	ŝ	2	2	2	2	14	1	2	2	2	2	e	ŝ	
Magnolia grandiflora L.	2	2	з	2	1	2	2	14	1	1	ß	2	2	3	ß	
Quercus palustris Muenchh.	1	2	ю	2	2	2	2	14		3	2	2	2	3	2	3
Delonix regia (Hook.) Raf.	2	3	2	2	3	1	1	14	1		з	З	3	1	2	
Celtis occidentalis L.	1	3	2	2	1	2	3	14	1	2	ю	Э	1	3	ю	
Pinus nigra J. F. Arnold	ю	2	2	2	1	2	2	14	2	2	2	3	1	2	1	1
Sorbus intermedia (Ehrh.) Pers.	1	3	2	2	1	2	3	14			2	2	1	ŝ	з	
Prunus serotina Ehrh.	1	3	ю	2	1	2	2	14	1	1	з	3	2	1	2	1
Ficus benjamina L.	2	3	2	3	1	2	1	14	2	2	2	2	2	1	1	
Cedrus deodara (Roxb. ex Lamb.) G.Don	ю	3	2	2	1	1	2	14	1	1	ß	3	3	1	2	
Tilia americana L.	1	2	з	2	1	2	3	14	1	2	з	2	2	2	2	1
Zelkova serrata (Thunb.) Makino	1	2	3	2	1	3	2	14	1	3	2	3	2	2	2	2
Platanus occidentalis L.	1	2	1	3	2	3	2	14	2	2	2	3	2	3	1	
Populus tremula L.	1	3	з	2	1	3	1	14	2	2	ß	2	1	3		
Ficus microcarpa L.f.	2	3	2	з	1	2	1	14	2	2	2	2	1	3	з	
Cinnamomum camphora (L.) J.Presl	2	3	2	2	1	2	2	14	1	1	З	Э	2	3	2	1
Robinia pseudoacacia L.	1	3	ю	2	2	1	1	13	1	1	ß	3	1	3	Э	3
Acer platanoides L.	1	3	2	2	2	2	1	13	1	2	з	2	2	з	з	2

Table 5. Continued.

	NO <sub>2</sub> Tolerance	2	1		ß	ß		з		1	1			ю	з				2				1	3
iment	O <sub>3</sub> Tolerance	2	ŝ	1	з	в	3	ß	1	1	2	З	1	1	2	1	1	1	1	ю		2	ю	з
an Enviror	SO <sub>2</sub> Tolerance	2	3	1	ŝ	З	S	S	1	2	2	2	1	2	2	2	2	3	2	ю	З	3	1	з
lity for Urb	Pest. and Disease Resistance	1	2	2	3	2	1	2	1	1	1	2	1	1	2	2	1	2	2	1	2	2	1	1
Suitabi	Drought Tolerance	æ	2	ŝ	ŝ	ŝ	2	2	S	3	2	3	2	2	2	ß	З	2	2	2	З	S	2	з
	Soil Tolerance	æ	S	З	3	З	З	2	з	з	1	З	З	з	2	з	ŝ	З	2	2	2	з	S	2
e Impact	Ygilen Allergy	m	2	ß	1	З	1	1	ß	2	1		1	3	1	ß	2	2	3	2	2	1	2	ю
Negative	snoizzim3 DOV8	T	1	1	1	1	1	2	1	2	1	1	2		2	1	2		1	2	2	1	2	2
	Sum	13	13	13	13	13	13	13	13	13	13	13	13	13	13	13	13	13	13	13	13	12	12	12
	Leaf Characteristic	1	2	2	2	1	2	2	S	2	2	2	1	1	1	1	2	2	2	ŝ	1	1	2	1
	վ <b>1</b> 8n91 <b>1</b> 69J	2	2	2	2	1	1	2	1	2	3	2	2	1	2	1	2	2	2	1	2	1	2	2
ciency	Leaf Complexitγ	2	1	2	2	2	2	1	2	1	2	2	2	2	2	ß	1	1	2	2	1	2	1	2
emoval Effi	Crown Density and Texture	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	3	2	2	2	2	1	2	2	2	2	1	2	2
PM2.5 R	тhgiəН	2	ß	1	ß	З	ß	ŝ	2	2	1	2	ю	ŝ	S	2	ß	З	З	2	2	3	2	2
	Growth Rate	æ	2	ŝ	1	S	2	2	2	3	2	1	2	Э	2	£	3	2	1	2	ŝ	3	2	2
	ədγT	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	1	1	1
	Scientific Name	Acer negundo L.	Tilia cordata Mill.	Morus alba L.	Ginkgo biloba L.	Quercus rubra L.	Aesculus hippocastanum L.	Fagus sylvatica L.	Juglans regia L.	Populus nigra L.	Sorbus aucuparia L.	Acer campestre L.	Crataegus monogyna Jacq.	Fraxinus americana L.	Liquidambar styraciflua L.	Melia azedarach L.	Populus deltoides W. Bartram ex Marshall	Tilia platyphylla C.A.Mey.	Quercus alba L.	Ficus carica L.	Ficus elastica Roxb. ex Hornem.	Ailanthus altissima (Mill.) Swingle	Betula pendula Roth	Quercus robur L.
	Occurrence	92	89	83	82	82	80	70	69	63	62	61	54	53	49	48	43	35	30	29	28	89	84	99

		Solerance Solerance		e					1			1			2	1	1			1				1	1
	nent	O <sub>3</sub> Tolerance	æ	e	3	2	1	1	1		1	2			ŝ	2	ŝ		2	з	ŝ	2	1	2	2
	i Environn	SO <sub>2</sub> Tolerance		e	e	2	1	1	2	1	1	1	ŝ		2	2	2	1	2	2	1	S	1	2	2
	/ for Urbar	Pest. and Disease Resistance	1	2	1	2	1	1	2	1	1	2	1	3	2	1	2	1	2	2	2	1	1	1	1
	Suitability	ອວກຄາອloT triguoາQ	æ	3	2	Э	1	2	2	2	1	3	2	3	2	2	3	2	3	2	3	2	3	2	2
		Soil Tolerance	3	3	З	ß	З	З	3	З	з	2	3	з	ß	1	2	2	З	ß	2	2	2	з	3
	pact	YgıəllA nəlloq	1	1	1	1	2	2	1	2	3	2	2	1	3		2	1	2	2	2	2	1		1
	egative Im	snoizzim3 DOV8	1	1	1	2	2	1		2		1		1	1	1	1		1	1	1	1	1	1	1
	z	E n	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	12	11	11	11	11	11	11	11	11	11	11
		Leaf Characteristic م	1	1	1	3	1	2	1	1	2	1	2	1	1	2	1	2	1	2	2	2	2	2	2
nued.		կյՑսəյ լεəյ	2	1	1	1	2	2	2	2	2	33	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	1	2	2
e 5. Conti	A:																								
Tabl	il Efficienc	Texture	1	2	1	2	1	1	2	1	1	1	2	2	1	1	1	1	1	2	1	1	1	1	1
	es Remova	Dris Viizned nword	2	2	2	1	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	3	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
	PM	thgieH	2	3	2	2	2	2	3	2	1	2	2	2	2	1	2	1	1	1	2	1	2	1	1
		Growth Rate	æ	2	S	2	ŝ	2	1	ŝ	3	2	1	2	2	2	1	2	3	1	1	2	2	2	2
		ədγT	4	1	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
						.mx	.xd	٦.		Q,				upr.	ton								ter		
		: Name	ana Decne	ponica L.	indica L.	niculata Lo	loides Mic	fera Marsl	rriacus L.	nii Carrièr	orea L.	folia Jacq.	irnea Zeyh	murense F	um W.T.Ai	ifera Ehrh	etulus L.	stris Mill.	Idensis L.	um Thunb.	Iurna L.	orida L.	ioides Wa	rulata L.	iiniana L.
		Scientific	us calleryo	ophora ja	Aangifera	uteria par	lus tremul	ula papyrij	Hibiscus sy	oulus simo	Salix cap	mus parvij	sculus × ca	dendron al	trum lucid	inus ceras	Carpinus b	lalus sylve	ercis cana	er palmatı	Corylus co	Cornus flo	pa bignon	Prunus ser	runus virg
			Pyr	S	<	Koelre	hopu	Betu	4	Pop		n	Aes	Phelloc	Ligust	Pru	9	N	0	Aci			Catal	-	Ч
		e																							
		Occurrer	61	59	41	40	33	32	32	32	30	30	29	29	28	72	52	51	47	44	41	40	36	34	34

		NO <sub>2</sub> Tolerance			1					
	ment	O <sub>3</sub> Tolerance		1	з	з	з	Э		
	an Environ	SO <sub>2</sub> Tolerance		2	2	з	2	ŝ		
	ity for Urba	Pest and disease Resistance	1	1	ю	ю	2	1	2	
	Suitabil	Drought tolerance	2	1	ŝ	m	ŝ	ŝ	2	
		Soil tolerance	3	2	2	ю	ю	ŝ	2	
	Impact	γβı∋llA n∋llo¶	1	1	2	1	1	1	1	
	Negative	BVOC Emissions	1	1	1		1	2	1	
		Sum	11	11	11	11	10	10	10	
		Leaf Characteristic	ŝ	1	2	1	1	1	1	
Continued.		dtgn91 te91	1	2	2	2	2	1	2	
Table 5.	iciency	Leaf Complexity	1	1	1	1	1	2	1	
	emoval Eff	Crown Density and Texture	2	2	2	2	2	1	2	
	PM <sub>2.5</sub> R	ţdвi9Н	1	2	2	3	1	2	1	
		Growth Rate	2	2	1	1	2	1	2	
		Type	1	1	1	1	1	2	1	
		Scientific Name	Eriobotrya japonica (Thunb.) Lindl.	Prunus avium L.	Ostrya virginiana (Mill.) K.Koch	Nyssa sylvatica Marshall	Lagerstroemia indica L.	Phoenix canariensis Chabaud	Syringa reticulata (Blume) H.Hara	
		Occurrence	33	31	30	29	52	33	30	

#### Supporting Material Available

Countries and cities included in this study (Table S1), References used for deriving characteristics of the tree species. This information is available free of charge via the internet at http:// www.atmospolres.com.

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