Scientia Horticulturae xxx (xxxx) 111250

Contents lists available at ScienceDirect

Scientia Horticulturae

journal homepage: www.elsevier.com/locate/scihorti

Compost and vermicompost in cucumber rhizosphere promote plant growth and prevent the entry of anthropogenic organic pollutants

Claudia Carnimeo [a], Antonio Gelsomino [b], Giovanni Cirrottola [a], Maria Rosaria Panuccio [b], Elisabetta Loffredo [a], *

[a] *Dipartimento di Scienze del Suolo, della Pianta e degli Alimenti, Università degli Studi di Bari Aldo Moro, Via Amendola 165/A, Bari 70126, Italy*
[b] *Dipartimento di Agraria, Università degli Studi Mediterranea di Reggio Calabria, Feo di Vito, Reggio Calabria 89122, Italy*

ARTICLE INFO

Keywords:
Soil contamination
Root system
Plant uptake
Contaminant accumulation
Endocrine disrupting chemical
Metalaxyl-M

ABSTRACT

An accurate assessment of the absorption and accumulation of soil pollutants by plants is essential to avoid the entry of toxic compounds into the human and animal food chain. Therefore, this study evaluated the effectiveness of the amendment of a loamy soil with a mixed compost (CP) and a vermicompost (VC) from digestate, at doses of 10 t ha^{-1} (CPL and VCL) and 30 t ha^{-1} (CPH and VCH), in sustaining the growth of cucumber (*Cucumis sativus* L.) plants and reducing the uptake of contaminats, such as the fungicide metalaxyl-M (MET-M) and the endocrine disruptors bisphenol A (BPA), 4-tert-octylphenol (OP) and nonylphenol (NP). Plant response to soil amendment with CP and VC was tested in parallel in both contaminated and uncontaminated soil. All treatments significantly promoted cucumber growth in both soil conditions. After 38 days of cucumber growth in contaminated soil, CPL, CPH, VCL and VCH increased dry biomass of roots and shoots by 42, 128, 118, 147%, and 46, 113, 271, 443%, respectively, compared to unamended soil (control). Root and shoot elongation and the number of leaves and their expansion were also significantly promoted by the application of CP and VC at both doses. All treatments, in the order: VCH > VCL > CPH > CPL, considerably reduced the absorption of all compounds by cucumber. Although small quantities of residues of each pollutant were found both in the roots and in the aerial organs of all plants, their overall accumulation in plants grown in amended soil was significantly lower than that found in the control plants. Thus, on the basis of the results obtained, it is evident that the use of CP and VC can be very effective and sustainable both from an economic and environmental point of view, since, in addition to stimulate plant growth, it can represent a successful strategy to mitigate the presence of toxic residues in food plants.

1. Introduction

The presence of contaminants in soil and food products is an alarming emergency in countries with a high concentration of industries, significant urbanization and prevailing intensive agricultural practices. However, even in more remote areas and in uncultivated soils, researchers have reported the presence of persistent organic contaminants that are very harmful to wildlife and humans (Corrales et al., 2015; Spataro et al., 2022). According to the United Nations, nearly 2 billion ha (22.5%) of agricultural land, pasture, forest, and woodland are affected by soil pollution (United Nations, 2019). A clean soil is essential for the maintenance of the ecosystem biodiversity and soil functioning thus ensuring global food security and mitigation of climate change. Moreover, the continued decline of stable organic matter in many soils has caused progressive alteration of biological equilibria and the consequent loss of the self-depollution capacity of soil.

Currently, a major concern among the international scientific community is due to the so-called anthropogenic organic pollutants (AOPs) that include different classes of compounds such as agrochemicals, pharmaceuticals, dyes, wood preservatives, industrial products and byproducts (FAO, 2017). AOPs may be defined as organic chemicals that are foreign to natural ecosystems and may adversely affect, either directly or indirectly, the normal chemical and biological equilibria and processes in both undisturbed and cultivated soils. AOPs can reach the soil on purpose, as in the case of agrochemicals for controlling crop diseases, or inadvertently and sometimes illegally through the incorporation into soil of not completely decontaminated liquid and solid wastes,

---

* Corresponding author.
E-mail address: elisabetta.loffredo@uniba.it (E. Loffredo).

https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scienta.2022.111250
Received 27 April 2022; Received in revised form 26 May 2022; Accepted 1 June 2022
0304-4238/© 20XX

such as sewage sludges, wastewaters, biosolids and biowaste of agro-industrial origin (Geissena et al., 2015; Silva et al., 2019).

Agrochemicals, including herbicides, fungicides, insecticides, nematicides and so on, are widely used in conventional agriculture for plant protection, and their repeted applications to soil and/or plants over the years or incorrect dosage can generate residue levels in soil that compromise soil fertility and food safety. Due to their prevailing low hydrophobicity, most agrochemicals can be absorbed by plant roots and translocated to different tissues where they accumulate. This is particularly dangerous in the case of food crops because toxic residues can enter the food chain of animals and humans. Furtheremore, these chemicals, especially the more polar ones, can pose serious environmental problems due to their movement into soil and transport in surface- and groundwater (Loffredo et al., 2021).

Metalaxyl-M [methyl *N*-(2,6-dimethylphenyl)-*N*-(methoxyacetyl)-D-alaninate, MET-M] is the bioactive R-enantiomer of the acylanilide chiral fungicide metalaxyl which is widely used for the control of phytopathogenic fungi of several crops and urban green areas turfgrasses (Leadbeater, 2014). Besides target organisms, the non-selective MET-M could adversely affect non-target organisms. For its systemic behaviour, MET-M is absorbed by plant roots and translocated into various organs where it is partly metabolized and partly accumulated. Due to its moderate dissipation in soil (half-life of about 39 d in field conditions), MET-M can accumulate and reach concentrations up to 1 mg kg^{-1} (Kurek, 2016).

Multiple contamination can be considered the norm for intensively cultivated soils, where agrochemicals can be simultaneously present in soil with other classes of AOPs such as the so-called endocrine disrupting chemicals (EDCs). They are a group of compounds known for their capacity to severely disturb the normal hormonal functions and metabolism of animals and humans (Corrales, 2015; EC, 2020). EDCs are used in many industrial products and, consequently, they are constantly released into terrestrial and aquatic environments where represent a serious threat to wildlife, especially aquatic, farm animals and humans (de Bruin et al., 2019; Kim et al., 2019). These compounds are often found in cultivated soils where they may enter through the application, discharge and/or disposal of urban and industrial effluents, sludges, biowaste from various production activities, including agriculture, and biosolids application (Loffredo, 2022).

The xenoestrogen bisphenol A [2,2-(4,4 dihydroxydiphenyl) propane, BPA] is the building block of epoxy resins and polycarbonates and is adopted as s stabilizer for polyvinyl chloride. BPA may severely affect the human endocrine system and act as a prominent EDC (Michałowicz, 2014). Octylphenol (OP) and nonylphenol (NP) originates from the breakdown of alkylphenol polyethoxylates which are the largest group of non-ionic surfactants used in cleaning products, cosmetics and pesticides (Chokwe et al., 2017; Olaniyan et al., 2018). All these three EDCs, in addition to being recalcitrant to biodegradation, are being constantly released into the environment where they represent an alarming risk for terrestrial and aquatic organisms (Metcalfe et al., 2022).

Another aspect related to intensive agriculture is the general progressive reduction of soil organic matter that exposes soil to degradation, alters the biological equilibria and determines inadequate levels of water and nutrients for plants. To counter this situation, unexpensive C-rich materials, such as compost (CP) and vermicompost (VC), can be incorporated into soil with the multiple benefits of supplying stable organic matter, improving soil fertility, stimulating plant growth and microbial activity, and promoting carbon sequestration (Diacono and Montemurro, 2010; Schimmelpfennig et al., 2014; Chen et al., 2018; Blouin et al., 2019). CP and VC have shown excellent capacity in the retention of organic and inorganic pollutants through various mechanisms that involve their numerous functional sorption sites (Senesi et al., 2015). This process allows to control pollutants bioavailability and limit their transport into natural waters (Gámiz et al., 2016; Parlavecchia et al., 2019). Furthermore, there is growing concern about the residues of pollutants and their metabolites that remain in harvested crops, particularly in the edible parts of plants, and can then be ingested by humans and animals via food or feed.

The root system is the main interface between plants and their environment, therefore under heavy soil contamination it represents the most exposed plant organ and may be considered an important indicator of the general stress status of the plant. The plant root system has a certain variability (plasticity) that represents a major survival strategy to cope with a wide range of soil factors and external stresses. Various morphological parameters such as the length, surface area, volume and diameter are used as potential indicator of root plasticity. Further morphological traits derived from the formers and having a functional significance are: specific root length (root length per unit of root dry weight, SRL), root fineness (root length per unit root volume, RF) tissue density (root dry mass per unit root volume, RTD), root surface area (root length per unit of diameter). All these morphological parameters are commonly used to evaluate plant responses to interfering agents, such as compost (Lazcano et al., 2009; Gelsomino et al., 2014; Busato et al., 2018), organic (Wei et al., 2021) or inorganic (Ryser and Emerson, 2007; Panuccio et al., 2014) pollutants.

Cucurbitaceae plants like cucumber are widely used in ecotoxicological soil surveys (Hilber et al., 2008) as they are particularly adept at absorbing, transporting and accumulating soil-bound persistent organic pollutants (Mattina et al., 2004; Sun et al., 2019), including BPA (Loffredo et al., 2010; Ahammed et al., 2020). The addition of C-rich materials to the soil has proven to be a promising technique for immobilizing organic contaminants in agricultural soils thus reducing their entry into cucumber plants (Hilber et al., 2009).

Considering all this, the aim of this study was to evaluate the potential of two doses of CP and VC to promote the growth of cucumber (*Cucumis sativus L.*) plants in both uncontaminated and contaminated soil and limit the entry and accumulation in plants of the contaminants MET-M, BPA, OP and NP.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Chemicals, soil, amendments and plant

MET-M (CAS number 70630-17-0) with purity ≥ 98%, BPA (CAS number 80-05-7) at 99.0% purity and OP (CAS number 140-66-9) at 99.5% purity were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich S.r.l., Milano, Italy, while NP (CAS number 104-40-5) at 99.5% purity was provided by Dr Ehrenstorfer GmbH, Augsburg, Germany. Some chemical properties of the compounds are shown in Table 1. All other chemicals of extra pure grade were obtained from commercial sources and used without further purification.

A loamy calcareous agricultural soil sampled at 0–20 cm depth at an experimental station located at Valenzano, South Italy, was used. The soil was air-dried, sieved at particle size < 3 mm to remove the coarser fraction and thoroughly homogenized. Soil properties were determined according to standard methods (Sparks et al., 1996). Briefly, soil moisture was measured after heating the soil at 105°C overnight; the pH was

Table 1
Some properties of the contaminants.

Compound	Chemical Structure	Molecular weight(g mol^{-1})	Water solubility (mg L^{-1})	log K_{ow}
Metalaxyl-M		279.33	8.4	1.65
Bisphenol A		228.29	300	3.32
4-tert-Octylphenol		206.32	3.1	5.50
4-Nonylphenol		220.35	0.1	5.76

Data from PubChem open chemistry database at the National Institutes of Health (2022).

potentiometrically measured in a 1:2.5 (w/v) soil-to-0.01 M $CaCl_2$ solution mixture (pH_{CaCl2}); electrical conductivity was measured at 25°C in a 1:2 (w/v) soil-to-water ratio slurry ($EC_{1:2}$, 25°C); total organic C and N were determined by an elemental analyzer LECO CN628 (LECO Corporation, MI, USA); total $CaCO_3$ was determined by the gas-volumetric method using a Dietrich–Fruhling calcimeter; cation exchange capacity (CEC) was measured by using 0.1 M $BaCl_2$ buffered to pH 8.2 with triethanolamine (2.25%, v/v). Soil characteristics are shown in Table 2.

The CP sample was obtained from a local municipal solid waste processing plant (Calabria Maceri & Servizi S.p.a., Rende, Italy) after a 3-month accelerated composting process of mixed animal and plant waste. The VC sample was provided by C&F Energy, Società Agricola S.r.l. (Altavilla Silentina, Italy) after 2-month vermicomposting with redworms (*Lumbricus rubellus*) of a digestate resulting from the anaerobic digestion process of a mixture of buffalo manure, chicken manure and olive oil mill wastewater. Major characteristics of CP and VC are reported in Table 2. Before use, CP and VC samples were air-dried, finely ground and 0.5-mm sieved.

Cucumber (*Cucumis sativus L.*) seeds were purchased from L'Ortolano S.r.l., Cesena, Italy.

2.2. Experimental protocol

Cucumber seeds were germinated in Petri dishes (9-cm diameter) kept in the dark into a Phytotron growth chamber (F.lli Della Marca S.r.l., Roma, Italy, model 60043/THTL) at a temperature of 22 ± 1°C for 3 days.

Plastic pots (13-cm diameter and 13-cm height) were filled to a height of about 10 cm with 800 g of air-dried soil only (control) or with 800 g of mixtures of soil and 1.12% (w/w) of amendment (CPL and VCL), or soil and 3.36% (w/w) of amendment (CPH and VCH). The lower and the higher dose of CP and VC correspond, respectively, to a soil application of about 10 and 30 t ha^{-1}. The two tested rates of CP and VC were chosen based on the doses commonly applied to soils in our region (Diacono and Montemurro, 2010) and on the amendment rates outlined by Raviv (2014). Then, pot mixtures were brought to 60% field capacity by adding distilled water.

After about 2 h, aliquots of 0.8 mL of individual methanol solutions of MET-M, BPA, OP and NP at a concentration of 1000 µg mL^{-1} were not added (uncontaminated, NC) or added into the upper soil layer (~ 3 cm), thus obtaining in the whole soil a concentration of 1 µg g^{-1} of each compound. After about 2 h, uniformly sized cucumber seedings were selected and not transplanted (bare soil) or transplanted (one seedling in each pot, planted soil) into the pots. Subsequently, a volume of 10 mL of distilled H_2O was added to each pot (with and without seedling). Thus, the following treatments were obtained: control (contaminated soil), CPL, CPH, VCL, VCH, NC (not contaminated soil) NC-CPL, NC-CPH, NC-VCL, NC-VCH.

Table 2
Some properties of the soil and the amendments.

Parameter	Soil	Compost	Vermicompost
Sand (%)	37	-	-
Silt (%)	50	-	-
Clay (%)	13	-	-
pH [a]	8.0 ± 0.2	8.4 ± 0.3	6.9 ± 0.1
EC [b] (dS m^{-1})	0.06 ± 0.01	5.42 ± 0.58	7.69 ± 0.37
Moisture (%)	4 ± 0.1	16 ± 0.1	19 ± 0.3
Ash (%)	-	-	26.7
TOC (% dw)	3.3 ± 0.1	27.0 ± 4.0	31.6 ± 3.1
C/N	18 ± 2	17	20
TN (% dw)	0.19 ± 0.02	1.60 ± 0.20	1.58 ± 0.10
Organic N (% dw)	-	1.4 ± 0.2	1.4 ± 0.1
Humic and fulvic C (% dw)	-	9.9 ± 1.5	13.4 ± 1.4
Total $CaCO_3$ (% dw)	15.4 ± 0.06	-	-
CEC ($cmol_+$ kg^{-1})	28.8 ± 3.8	-	-

[a] soil:0.01M $CaCl_2$ solution, 1:2.5 (w/v), amendment:double distilled H_2O 1:10 (w/v)

[b] in double distilled H_2O, 1:2 (w/v) for soil and 1:10 (w/v) for amendments; TOC: total organic carbon; TN: total nitrogen

Plants were grown in the chamber for 38 d using a 11-h daylight photoperiod. Relative humidity and air temperature were, respectively, 50% and 24 ± 1°C during light hours, and 60% and 17 ± 1°C during dark hours. Each pot (with and without plants) was watered with 20 mL of distilled H_2O per day. The pots were placed in the growth chamber according to a completely randomized design with 3 replications.

At the end of the experiments, plants were gently removed from pot mixtures, roots were rinsed with distilled water and separated from shoots. Immediately after, root and shoot fresh weights, shoot length, number of leaves per plant and length of the main leaf vein were measured. The root system was stained with 0.1% (w/v) toluidine blue O for 5 min, thoroughly washed with water and then scanned (WinRhizo STD 1600, Instruments Régent Inc., Canada) at a resolution of 600 dpi for morphological analyses. Scanned images were processed using the WinRhizo® root analysis software (Régent Instruments) to measure total root length, volume, surface area and average diameter. Then, root and shoot dry weights were determined by oven-drying at 70°C for 16 h. Total plant dry weight was obtained by summing root and shoot dry weight. Based on the measurements above, the following morphological ratios were calculated: specific root length (root length per unit of root dry weight, SRL), specific root surface area (surface area per unit of root dry weight, SRSA), specific root volume (root volume per unit of root dry weight, SRV) and root tissue density (root dry mass per unit of root volume, RTD) which represent functional parameters.

2.3. Extraction and quantification of contaminant residues from pot mixtures and plants

After cucumber plant removal, each pot mixture was thoroughly homogenized; then an aliquot of 20 g sample was collected, added with 50 mL of methanol and kept under mechanical shaking overnight (16 h). Then, the suspension was filtered and an aliquot of 15 mL was centrifuged at 10,000*g* for 10 min. Subsequently, 10 mL of supernatant solution was evaporated to dryness at a temperature of 40°C using a rotatory evaporator. The solid residue was dissolved in a volume of 1 mL of acetonitrile/water mixture (60:40 *v/v*), filtered through 0.45 µm Millipore™ cellulose acetate filters and analysed by reverse phase ultra-high performance liquid chromatography (UHPLC) technique (Section 2.4). The percentages of recovery from soil of MET-M, BPA, OP and NP at individual concentration of 1 µg g^{-1} were, respectively, 92.20 ± 1.61, 92.43 ± 0.80, 91.82 ± 2.08 and 94.6 ± 4.6% ($n = 4$). The percentages of the compounds disappeared in pot mixtures during the trial were calculated as the difference between the initial amounts and those extracted after 38 d.

Residual compounds were extracted from plants according to the procedure of Ferrara et al. (2006). Briefly, 0.1 g of dried shoot and root mass, individually, was added with 10 mL of pure methanol and kept under mechanical shaking for 4 h. Successively, the suspension was centrifugated for 10 min at 10,000*g* and an aliquot of 6 mL was evaporated to dryness at a temperature of 40°C using a rotary evaporator. The residue was dissolved in a volume of 1 mL of acetonitrile/water mixture (60:40 v/v), filtered through 0.45 µm Millipore™ cellulose acetate filters and analysed by UHPLC technique (Section 2.4).

2.4. Analytical measurement

The UHPLC system (Dionex Ultimate 3000 RSLC, Waltham MA, USA) used was equipped with an HPG-3200 RS pump, a WPS-3000 autosampler and a TCC-3000 column compartment connected to a Supelco™ LC-18 column (250 mm × 4.6 mm × 5 µm). The mobile phase was a mixture of water (A) and acetonitrile (B). The elution gradient adopted was the following: 0-1 min 40% A, 1-6 min from 40 to 30% A, 6-8 min from 30% to 20% A, 8-13 min from 20 to 10% A, 13-15 min 10% A. The flow rate was 1 mL min^{-1} and the retention times of MET-M, BPA, OP and NP were about, 3.8, 4.2, 8.0 and 13.5, respectively. MET-M was detected using a DAD-3000 RS diode array detector (Dionex Ultimate 3000 RSLC, Waltham MA, USA) at a wavelength of 220 nm, while BPA, OP and NP were detected using a FLD-3400 RS fluorescence detector (Dionex Ultimate 3000 RSLC, Waltham MA, USA) operating at wavelengths of 200-nm excitation and 290-nm emission.

2.5. Statistical analysis

Biometric data of plants and data of residual compounds extracted from plants were statistically analysed by one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) and the means of the treatments were compared to the control by the least significant difference (LSD) test at 0.05*P*, 0.01*P*, and 0.001*P* levels. Data of residual compounds extracted from soil were analysed by two-way ANOVA and the means were separated at 0.05*P* and 0.01*P* levels using the Duncan's multiple range test for the main factors and the LSD test for the interaction.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Plant response to soil amendment

3.1.1. Effects on the root system and aerial plant organs

Although the main objective of this study was to evaluate the effects of the two soil amendments in soil contaminated conditions, the response of plants to the application of CP and VC in uncontaminated soil was also evaluated, which allowed for a more comprehensive discussion of the role of these materials in the rhizosphere and on cucumber growth. For this purpose, various biometric parameters of both root system and aerial organs of the plants were measured (Fig. 1).

Root and shoot fresh weights of cucumber plants grown on uncontaminated soil were significantly higher in presence of both CPL and VCL, compared to the unamended control (NC), while VCH positively affected only shoots (Fig. 1A and B). A similar trend was found for root dry weights (Fig. 1C), while shoot dry weights were increased only by the higher dose of CP and VC (Fig. 1D). A different trend was observed for shoot elongation in NC soils where both doses of CP and the higher dose of VC appeared to depress this parameter compared to unamended soil (Fig. 1E). Furthermore, positive effects of CP and VC were also generally observed in NC soils on the number of leaves per plant (Fig. 1F) and on the average length of the main leaf vein (Fig. 1G) which can be considered an indicator of leaf extension. Considering the general increase in biometric parameters induced by soil treatment with CP and VC, the presence of shorter shoots was rather unexpected. This effect may be possibly due to a different phenotypic development of the plant, also testified by the greater number of leaves, induced by the amendments, particularly by their humic fraction which notoriously has hormone-like properties (Atiyeh et al., 2002). Another explanation of this effect may be the increase in soil pH and EC following the addition of CP and VC, which, as some authors claim (Vukobratović et al., 2018), would be responsible of shorter stems. All this, however, refers to the time interval considered. Changes are possible for longer periods.

As expected, the multi-contamination of soil (control) exerted phytotoxic effects on cucumber plants producing an evident decrease of root and shoot biomass, as well as shoot length and leaf parameters, compared to NC (Fig. 1). Similarly, Patama et al. (2019) found a significant inhibition of both root and shoot elongation of *Gypsophila elegans* treated with OP. In a recent study, an evident phytotoxicity due to soil treatments with BPA and OP on rocket salad plants was reported (Parlavecchia et al., 2020). Unfortunately, no results are present in the literature on toxic effects of NP on agricultural plants.

In the treatments with CP and VC, the toxic effects of the contaminants appeared noticeably mitigated by the presence of both amendments, with the only exception of CPL on root fresh weight (Fig. 1A), and the stimulation was positively related to the amendment dose (Fig. 1). This was particularly evident in VCH treatment, where the fresh weights of root and shoot increased by 223 and 279%, respectively (Fig. 1A and B), and dry weights by 147 and 443%, respectively (Fig. 1C and D), compared to the control. The apparent stress observed on the aerial organs in amended NC soils was not confirmed in contaminated soil where shoot elongation was generally favoured by the amendments (Fig. 1E). Also in contaminated soil, CP and VC generally increased the number of leaves per plant (Fig. 1F) and the average length of the main leaf vein (Fig. 1G).

These results indicate that the stimulation of cucumber plants by CP and VC observed in NC soil is even enhanced under multi-contamination conditions where plants greatly benefit from the antitoxic activity of these amendments. These positive effects may be attributed, at least in part, to the ability of C-rich materials like CP and VC to adsorb contaminants through various physicochemical mechanisms, thus reducing their presence in soil pore water and their bioavailability for plants (Hurtado et al., 2017). In a recent study, the toxicity of BPA and OP on hemp plants was significantly attenuated by the addition of a CP which increased root and shoot dry weights by more than 50%, compared to unamended soil (Loffredo et al., 2021). Evident antitoxic effects on rocket plants grown on a soil spiked with a mixture of contaminants, including BPA and OP, were observed following the application of a green CP (Parlavecchia et al., 2020).

The presence of VCH in cucumber rhizosphere produced the maximum plant biomass (Fig. 2). Furthermore, results showed that plants grown on contaminated soil enriched with VC relocated carbon from belowground production to aboveground production, as pointed out by the root (RMR) and shoot dry mass ratios (SMR) that reflect the proportion of resources distributed between the root and shoot apparatus (Fig. 2). The two-way ANOVA (Table S1) confirmed that in soil amended with CP, regardless of the dose applied, plant growth was mostly affected by the presence of the contaminants. Conversely, it was the amount of added VC rather than the contamination itself that affected the biomass production of cucumber plants (Table S1). These results confirm what already observed by Liu et al. (2021) who demonstrated that the addition of CP to soil significantly increases the height and shoot fresh and dry weights of roselle plants. Mixing 20% of VC with soil resulted in 98% average increase of *Dracocephalum moldavica* biomass, compared to soil only (Ose et al. 2021).

3.1.2. Root morphological analysis

The root system of cucumber plants was evaluated for a number of morphological parameters such as total root length, root surface area, mean root diameter and root volume (Fig. 3). Geldner and Salt (2014) emphasized the importance of roots and their architecture for a good ability of plants to absorb water and nutrients from the soil.

In plants grown on soil without contaminants, the presence of CP and VC increased all morphological parameters compared to control plants (NC), particularly with VCL addition (Fig. 3). A similar trend was observed in contaminated soil, where the increase of all root parameters of plants grown in amended soil was still significant compared to the control soil, but lesser than that in NC soil. The two-way ANOVA (*F*-ratios) evidenced that among the parameters examined the most affected by the treatments was the total root length (Table S2). Root length is considered more important than root weight to indicate root functionality because it expresses the potential for solute and water uptake (Ryser, 2007). In uncontaminated soil, root diameter increased significantly in the presence of CP and VC, while in contaminated soil only VC significantly enhanced this parameter (Fig. 3). Root diameter distribution is usually expressed as the "mean diameter" and sometimes does not characterize a response of the root system structure adequately, as

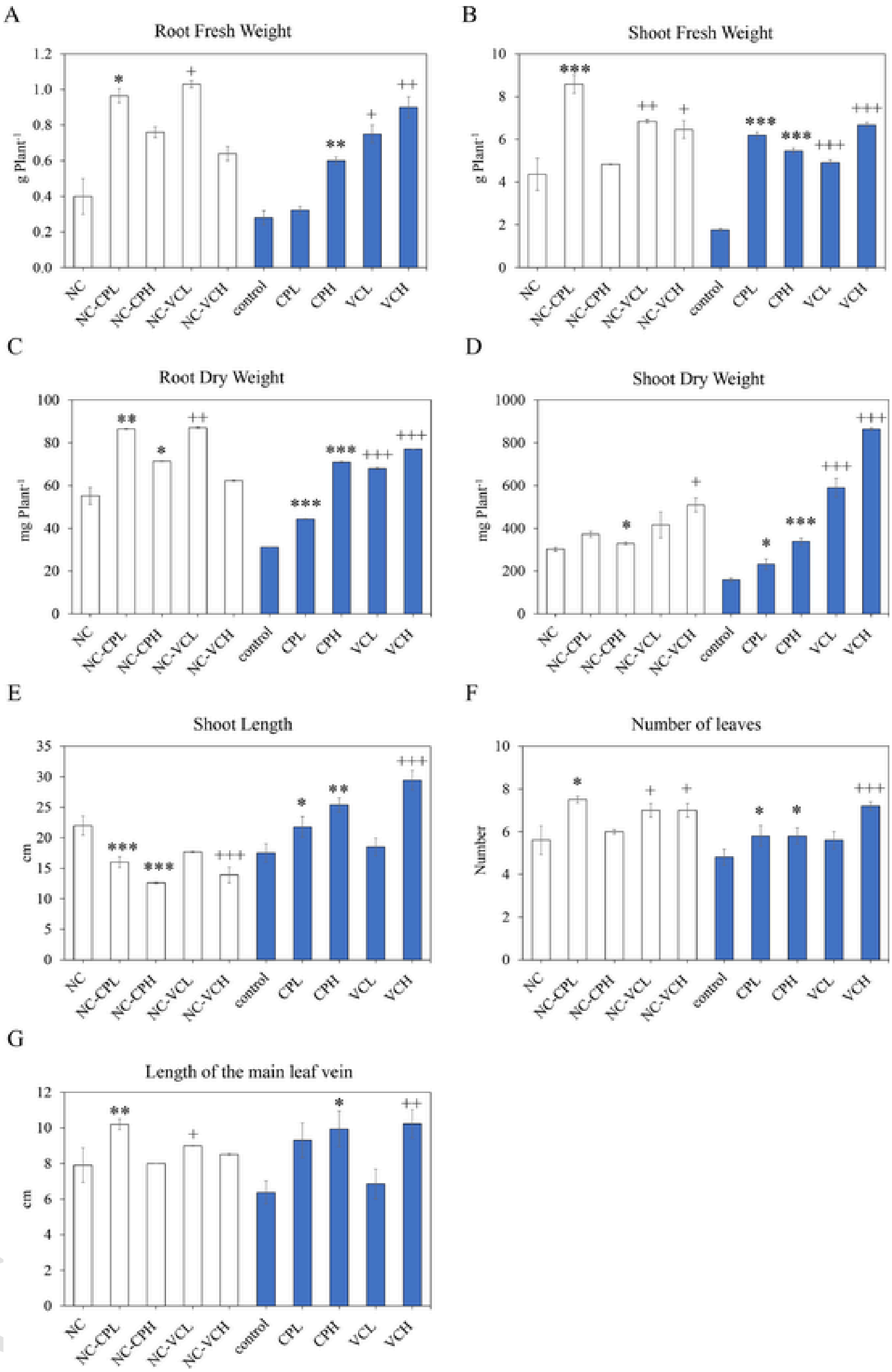

Fig. 1. Biometric data of cucumber plants grown on uncontaminated soil (NC) and contaminated soil only (control) or amended with CP and VC at the lower dose (CPL and VCL) and the higher dose (CPH and VCH). The vertical line on each bar indicates the standard error (n = 3). Significant differences were calculated between control and CP (*) or VC (+) treatments in uncontaminated or contaminated conditions (one-way ANOVA and LSD test, $^{*,+}$ $P \leq 0.05$; $^{**,++}$ $P \leq 0.01$; $^{***,+++}$ $P \leq 0.001$).

fine and coarse roots should be considered separately having different responses in terms of functionality. In both uncontaminated and contaminated soil, root volume was greatly increased by the lower dose of both amendments (Fig. 3). The ANOVA results indicated that the amendment dose, rather than the presence of the contaminants, caused the highest variability in the morphological parameters (Table S2).

Specific root length (SRL), specific root area (SRA) and specific root volume (SRV) describe the potential of the root apparatus to develop

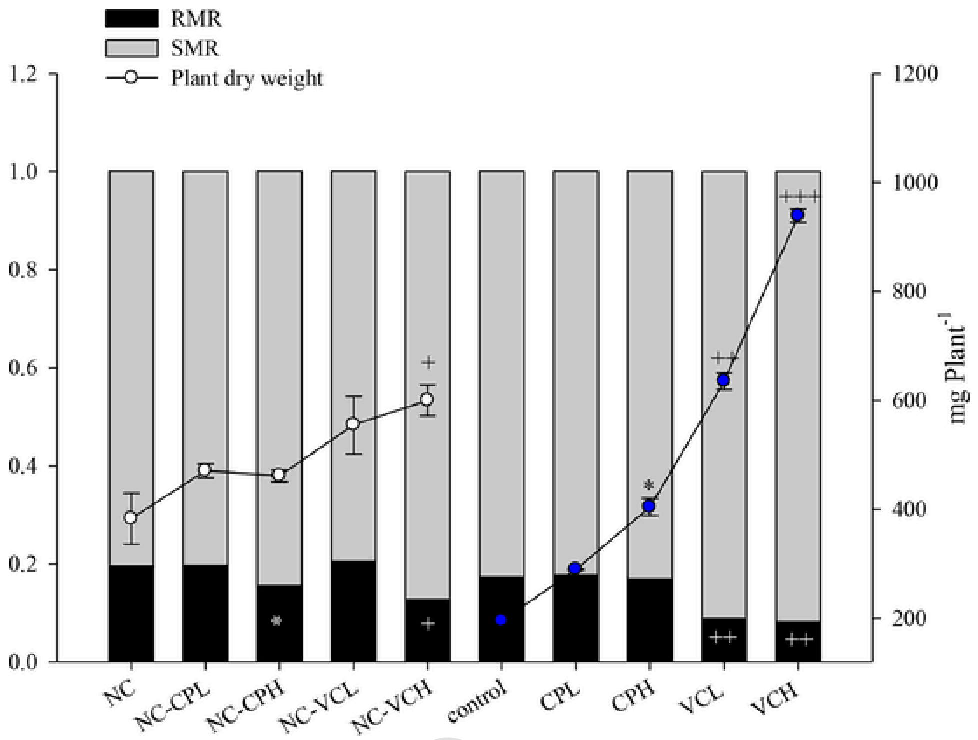

Fig. 2. Root (RMR) and shoot (SMR) dry mass ratios and total dry weights of cucumber plants. The vertical line on each point indicates the standard error (n = 3). Significant differences were calculated between control and CP (*) or VC (+) treatments in uncontaminated or contaminated conditions (one-way ANOVA and LSD test, $^{*,+}$ $P \leq 0.05$; $^{**,++}$ $P \leq 0.01$; $^{***,+++}$ $P \leq 0.001$).

and contact soil by investing a given amount of photosynthate. All these parameters are significantly increased on contaminated soil in plants treated with the lower concentration of CP and VC (Fig. S1). SRL is the root length per unit of root dry mass; it is believed to characterize economic aspect of the root system and is frequently used as an indicator of root fineness (Panuccio et al., 2014). SRL has been shown to increase, decrease, or remain constant in response to local heterogeneity of the soil and nutrient limitation (Eissenstat et al., 2000). These contrasting responses could be in part explained by considering that SRL is a complex parameter that includes variations in length, diameter and root tissue density, which respond to environmental conditions differently. Root tissue density (RTD) is defined as the amount of structural material invested by unit of volume (ratio between dry mass and volume) and is commonly associated with critical aspects of plant growth in unproductive environments. Low-density tissues enable a fast relative growth rate and a rapid resource acquisition with a low investment on dry matter. Conversely, roots with high tissue density are generally associated with a slow growth in infertile soil (Ryser 2007). On this basis, the significant increase of SRL on contaminated soil (Fig. S1) can be in part due to the increase in total root length and the concomitant decrease in root tissue density found in cucumber plants grown at the lower concentration of both amendments (Figs. 3 and S1). Two-way ANOVA showed that in general the concentration rather than the contamination determined the greatest variability in morphological ratios, particularly with organic amendments (Table S3). Higher SRL values indicate longer roots per unit of root mass. This root apparatus is more effective in water and nutrient uptake and is advantageous in high-resource environments leading to a fast plant growth. Conversely, this acquisition strategy is disadvantageous when resources are scarce, due to excess tissue building costs. In fact, as reported by Fitter (1991), even if roots with a smaller diameter can contact a larger soil volume per unit surface area, the maintenance carbon cost of producing finer roots is higher as these will have to be replaced more frequently. However, SRL can increase when resources are getting limited, as it is equally logical that species of stressed environments may need higher investment in root length to ensure the exploration of a larger soil volume.

3.2. Absorption and accumulation of contaminants in plants

3.2.1. Residual contaminants in soil

A decreasing amount of all organic contaminants was recovered after 38 d from bare and planted soil either not amended (control) or amended with CP and VC at the two doses (Table 3). Averagely for soil treatments, residue reduction in planted soil, compared to bare soil, was highly significant ($P \leq 0.01$) for MET-M, BPA and OP, and significant ($P \leq 0.05$) for NP (Table 3). During the experimental period, in bare soil, the contaminants underwent both adsorption on the solid fraction, with a consequent reduction of their mobility, and possible degradation. It is well known that soil pollutants can be retained by the organic fraction of soil or organic amendments, like CP and VC, via specific physical and chemical binding mechanisms and forces of various type and strength which include ionic, hydrogen and covalent bonding, charge-transfer or electron donor-acceptor mechanisms, dipole–dipole and van der Waals forces (Senesi et al., 2015). In particular, adsorption of low-polar pollutants can also occur through non-specific hydrophobic or partitioning processes between water and hydrophobic active sites of organic matter, such as aliphatic side chains and aromatic structures (Senesi et al., 2015). In planted soil, besides adsorption and possible degradation, plant uptake contributed to the removal of contaminants. The distribution of contaminants between soil and pore water (adsorption) in combination with biodegradation controls the bioavailability of the compounds to plant uptake. Absorption of most organic chemicals by plant roots is a passive and diffusive process that depends on the concentration of the compounds in soil pore water (Cheng et al., 2017).

It is reasonable to assume that both adsorption and, especially, biodegradation occurred with different intensity based on the presence or absence of the plant and the properties of the contaminant. The plant could have played different and contrasting roles on microbial degrada-

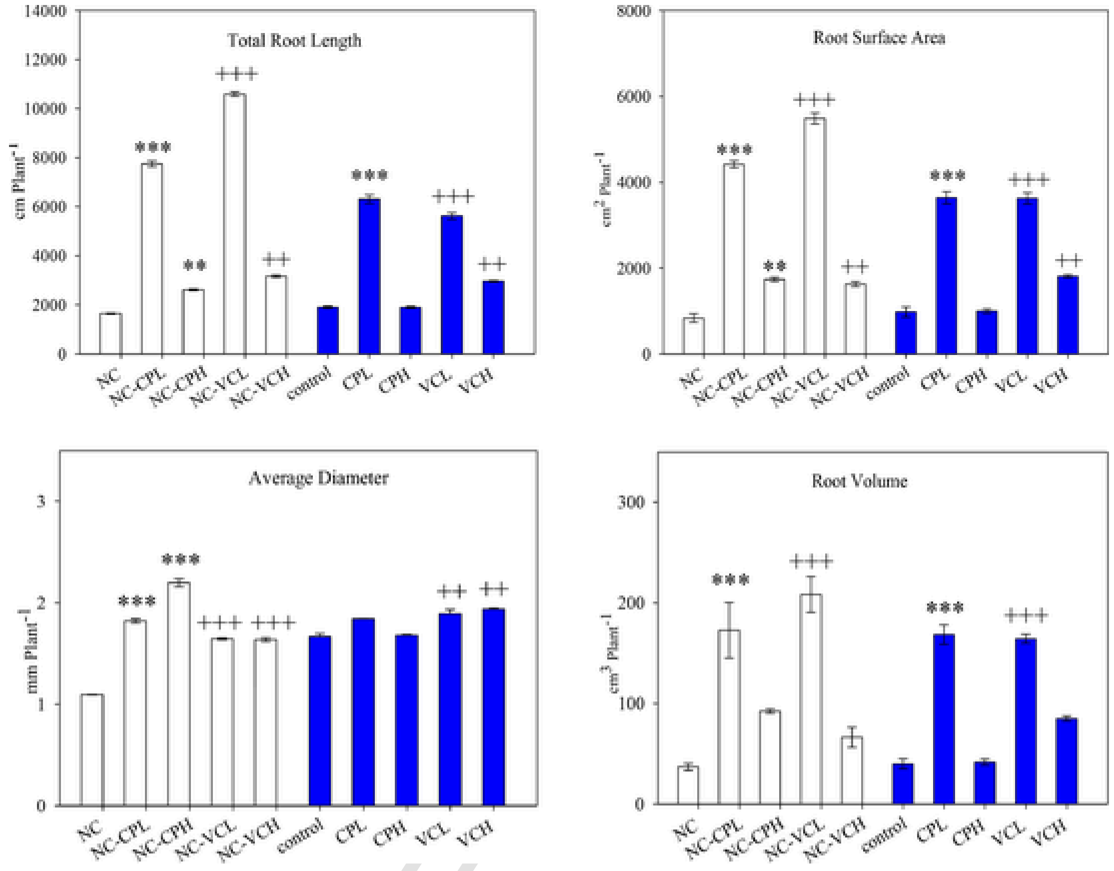

Fig. 3. Growth parameters of cucumber plants grown on uncontaminated soil (NC) and contaminated soil only (control) or amended with CP and VC at the lower dose (CPL and VCL) and the higher dose (CPH and VCH). The vertical line on each bar indicates the standard error (n = 3). Significant differences were calculated between control and CP (*) or VC (+) treatments in uncontaminated or contaminated conditions (one-way ANOVA and LSD test, $^{*,\,+}$ $P \leq 0.05$; $^{**,\,++}$ $P \leq 0.01$; $^{***,\,+++}$ $P \leq 0.001$).

tion of the molecules, that are: (i) root exudates released in the rhizosphere during cucumber growth, being a source of nourishment for microorganisms, might have promoted the dissipation of contaminants (rhizodegradation or phytostimulation), or (ii) the rapid root uptake of contaminants might have reduced their time of exposure to soil microorganisms with consequent lower biodegradation. Unfortunately, the experimental conditions of this study do not allow to discriminate and quantify the two possible processes.

Another factor that influences the absorption of contaminants by the plant are the physicochemical properties of the compound, primarily its hydrophobicity. When the percentages of residual compounds extracted from bare soil or planted soil or their differences, averagely for soil treatments, was related to the corresponding log Kow of the contaminants, significant correlations were found in all cases (Fig. 4). These results indicate that, regardless of soil treatment, the least hydrophobic compounds are: (i) the most degraded in bare soil; (ii) the most removed in planted soil; and (iii) the most absorbed by the plant, assuming that the difference between the amount of residual compound in bare soil and planted soil may be approximated to the amount of absorbed compound. Negative correlation between contaminant lipophilicity and their uptake by plants was previously demonstrated for the contaminants in this study and other plant species (Jayampathi et al., 2019; Gong et al., 2020; Loffredo et al., 2021). Despite the very low solubility of OP and NP, data obtained clearly evidenced the ability of cucumber to absorb these molecules. Bokern and Harms (1997) found that plants incorporated NP into cell walls as a mechanism to reduce the phytotoxicity of this compound. Brown et al. (2009) reported that NP uptake by plants was very low and its persistence within the plant was minimal.

Among the compounds examined, MET-M showed the maximum disappearance in both bare and planted soil and, on average, in all treatments (Table 3). This can be attributed to the relatively high water solubility of MET-M which allows the molecule to easily reach the roots and enter the plant with the water flow. The addition to the soil of CP or VC, especially at the higher dose, significantly ($P \leq 0.01$) increased the percentage of MET-M residues found in both bare and planted soil (Table 3). The effects were particularly evident in planted soil where residual MET-M was about 44% in the control and much more in the treatments with a maximum of 91% in VC_H (Table 3). It is not easy to explain these results which may depend on several factors. One hypothesis is that the increased retention capacity of the amended soil may have reduced the availability of the contaminant for microbial degradation; another hypothesis is that the increased retention capacity of the amended soil may have involved also simple organic compounds, including root exudates, which constitute a nutrient source for microbial degraders, with a consequent reduction in microbial activity and a longer permanence of the contaminant in the soil. Of course, other explanations are also possible. It has been largely demonstrated that MET-M adsorption occurs mainly on the organic fraction of soil and markedly increases after the addition of C-rich materials (Fernandes et al., 2003). Parlavecchia et al. (2019) found that the addition of different types of VC to soil noticeably increased MET-M adsorption. The adsorption capacity of a CP-based biomixture for MET-M was much higher than that of the soil only (Karanasios et al., 2010).

The general behaviour of BPA in both bare and planted soil was not very different from that of MET-M and quite similar to that of the other two EDCs OP and NP. Averagely for soil treatments, the presence of cucumber plants significantly decreased the quantity of residual BPA, OP

Table 3
Effects of plant, soil treatment and their interaction on the percentage of residual contaminant extracted from the soil after 38 days, compared to the initial amount added (100%).

Treatment	Bare Soil	Planted soil	Average
MET-M; $0.05P = 1.76$[a]; $0.01P = 2.37$[a]			
control	83.36	43.88	63.62 De
CP_L	91.59	71.23	81.41 Cd
CP_H	96.98	81.70	89.34 Bc
VC_L	92.09	88.37	90.23 Bb
VC_H	97.07	91.37	94.22 Aa
Average	92.22 Aa	75.31 Bb	
BPA; $0.05P = 6.53$; $0.01P = 8.79$			
control	85.19	60.95	73.07 Cc
CP_L	94.84	88.43	91.63 Bb
CP_H	97.42	88.24	92.83 ABb
VC_L	93.92	91.15	92.53 ABb
VC_H	97.45	94.16	95.80 Aa
Average	93.76 Aa	84.59 Bb	
OP; $0.05P = 2.38$; $0.01P = 3.20$			
control	87.99	75.81	81.90 Cc
CP_L	95.20	91.29	93.25 Bb
CP_H	97.79	95.74	96.77 Aa
VC_L	94.27	92.40	93.34 Bb
VC_H	98.68	95.63	97.16 Aa
Average	94.79 Aa	90.17 Bb	
NP; $0.05P = 6.66$; $0.01P = 8.97$			
control	89.19	69.88	79.53 Bc
CP_L	96.67	91.16	93.91 Ab
CP_H	99.06	96.36	97.71 Aa
VC_L	95.21	94.40	94.80 Aab
VC_H	96.99	95.85	96.42 Aab
Average	95.42 Aa	89.53 Ab	

Note: Data were statistically treated with two-way ANOVA. Significant differences between means are indicated by different letters according to the Duncan's multiple range test at $P \leq 0.05$ and $P \leq 0.01$.

[a] LSD for the interaction treatment × soil (bare or planted) at $P \leq 0.05$ and $P \leq 0.01$ (n = 3).

and NP in soil, compared to bare soil (Table 3). Similarly to what observed for MET-M, the presence of CP and VC at both doses reduced the removal of each of the other three contaminants, compared to bare soil. In fact, averagely for soil treatments, the removal of BPA, OP and NP in amended soil was only about 25, 28 and 21%, respectively, of the amounts removed in the control. All the considerations done for MET-M can be reasonably extended also to these molecules. Parlavecchia et al. (2020) found higher removals of BPA and OP in soil planted with rocket salad, compared to unplanted soil. Brown et al. (2009) reported that NP degradation was enhanced by the presence of winter wheat plants, compared to unplanted soil, and concluded that a significant plant uptake of this molecule was unlikely.

3.2.2. Accumulation of the contaminants in cucumber plants

Results obtained showed that cucumber plants were able not only to absorb all contaminants from the soil but also to accumulate them in their tissues. Kubicki et al. (2019), studying the dynamic of MET-M in tomato, reported that the compound was readily taken up by the roots with the normal water flow and uniformly translocated to the aerial organs through the xylem vessels. The amounts of residual contaminants found in both roots and shoots of 38-day grown plants are reported in Table 4. The presence of all compounds in the aerial parts indicates that the plant is able to translocate the molecules evidencing the risks of the possible contamination of the edible plant parts. Based on the results obtained, it is possible to state that residual contaminants did not accumulate homogeneously in the plant but were generally found at higher concentrations in the green organs. Teixeira et al. (2011) reported that the higher accumulation of MET-M in shoots of *Solanum nigrum*, compared to roots, could be explained by the low log Kow of this molecule which is easily transferred upward through both phloem and xylem vessels, especially via the transpiration stream. In unamended soil (control), all compounds were more concentrated in shoots than in roots and according to their solubility. A different situation was observed in amended soil where MET-M and BPA were always more concentrated in the shoots than in the roots, while OP and NP were in general slightly more concentrated in roots than in shoots. That may depend on the higher hydrophobicity of the latter molecules that made plant translocation more difficult. Abril et al. (2021), studying the bioconcentration and translocation of different types of contaminants in radish, reported that BPA was only detected in radish bulb, and explained this with the poor translocation to aerial organs due to the hydrophobicity of the compound and its rapid metabolization by plant cells.

A very interesting finding of this study is the relevant reduction of contaminant residues in all plants grown on amended soil, compared to the control, clearly indicating the important role of CP and VC in counteracting the uptake and accumulation of contaminants in plant tissues. The abatement of residual compounds in plants cultivated in amended

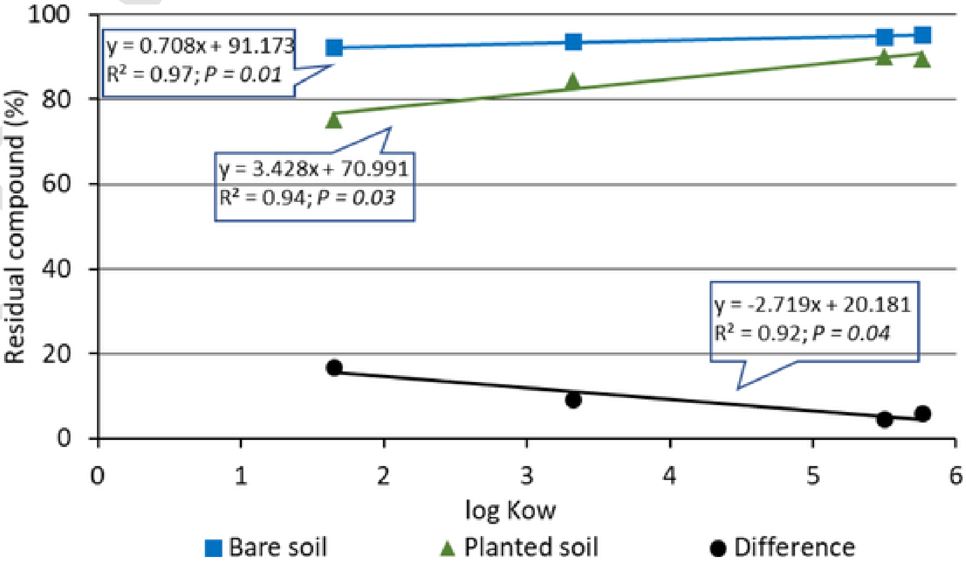

Fig. 4. Relationships between residual contaminants extracted from bare or planted soil or their difference and corresponding log Kow of the contaminants.

Table 4
Amounts (µg per g of dry plant mass) of residual contaminants in 38-d grown cucumber plants.

Compound	control	CP_L	CP_H	VC_L	VC_H
Roots					
MET-M	105.47 ± 17.38[a] a	58.28 ± 11.51 b	16.16 ± 1.26 c	21.79 ± 2.95 c	10.04 ± 0.86 c
BPA	76.01 ± 7.47 a	29.73 ± 7.15 b	8.17 ± 0.01 c	18.25 ± 0.94 bc	7.40 ± 0.12 c
OP	51.33 ± 1.78 a	22.42 ± 1.64 b	7.38 ± 0.13 d	14.97 ± 1.79 c	6.30 ± 0.86 d
NP	46.69 ± 1.95 a	21.66 ± 2.05 b	4.62 ± 0.02 d	9.87 ± 1.21 c	6.12 ± 0.32 c
Shoots					
MET-M	274.82 ± 28.96 a	97.47 ± 3.27 b	67.48 ± 2.51 b	30.78 ± 0.15 c	24.38 ± 3.63 c
BPA	177.03 ± 12.21 a	41.02 ± 1.19 b	44.64 ± 0.52 b	19.93 ± 0.56 c	14.73 ± 0.83 c
OP	99.56 ± 0.49 a	20.51 ± 0.58 b	8.91 ± 0.40 d	7.48 ± 0,12 d	12.04 ± 0.23 c
NP	98.16 ± 1.37 a	17.72 ± 0.57 b	4.38 ± 0.20 d	7.16 ± 0.04 c	5.64 ± 0.08 cd

Note: Data were statistically analysed by one-way ANOVA and significant differences between means of each row are indicated by different letters according to the Duncan's multiple range test at $P \leq 0.05$.

[a] Standard error of the mean (n = 3)

Table 5
Percentage of residual contaminants accumulated in total plant mass compared to the initial quantity added to the soil.

Compound	control	CP_L	CP_H	VC_L	VC_H
MET-M	6.30 ± 0.73[a] a	3.39 ± 0.29 b	3.11 ± 0.15 b	2.37 ± 0.12 b	2.20 ± 0.39 b
BPA	4.20 ± 0.87 a	1.46 ± 0.14 b	2.04 ± 0, 09 b	1.57 ± 0.13 b	1.40 ± 0.29 b
OP	2.36 ± 0.37 a	0.77 ± 0.10 bc	0.52 ± 0.01 c	0.64 ± 0.06 c	1.14 ± 0.21 b
NP	1.99 ± 0.04 a	0.67 ± 0.07 b	0.28 ± 0.02 c	0.59 ± 0, 05 b	0.56 ± 0.08 b

Note: Data were statistically analysed by one-way ANOVA and significant differences between means of each row are indicated by different letters according to the Duncan's multiple range test at $P \leq 0.05$.

[a] Standard error of the mean (n = 3)

soil occurred to varying degrees based on the type and dose of the amendment applied and the nature of the contaminant. In almost all treatments and for all molecules, the higher dose was more effective in reducing the accumulation of the contaminants both in roots and in shoots, indicating once again the importance of the organic fraction of soil in reducing the absorption and accumulation of contaminants in plants. Furthermore, considering the contamination as a whole, residues accumulation in roots followed the trend VCH < CPH < VCL < CPL < control. In shoots, MET-M and BPA residues followed the trend VCH = VCL < CPH = CPL < control, while OP and NP residues were similar in the treatments VCH, VCL and CPH, significantly higher in CPL and much higher in the control.

When the amounts of contaminants accumulated in the whole plant were compared to the amounts initially added to the soil, it was evident that, even in the control, they were small percentages, ranging between 2 and 6%, and inversely related to the hydrophobicity of the contaminant (Table 5). Li et al. (2019) studied the distribution of a large number of contaminants in the soil-water-plant systems and found that they were metabolized in plant tissues via different dissipation patterns. Compared to the control, any treatment significantly reduced the quantity of residues accumulated by the plant, being CP and VC at both doses not statistically ($P \leq 0.05$) different for MET-M and BPA, while CPH was slightly more efficient for OP and NP (Table 5).

In order to evaluate a possible influence of the amendments also on the transformation rate of the contaminants by the plant, the percentages of accumulated contaminants with respect to removed (degraded + absorbed) contaminants were calculated (Fig. 5). Results obtained suggest that soil treatment with CP and VC, in addition to influencing contaminant absorption, appear to be able to regulate the metabolic elimination of all compounds, as the transformation of contaminants seems faster in the plants grown in amended soil (Fig. 5). However, further studies are needed to better clarify this aspect.

4. Conclusions

Both CP and VC at the doses used in this study demonstrated significant potential to support the growth of cucumber plants in both uncontaminated and multi-contaminated soils. In the latter condition, both amendments exerted a crucial antitoxic activity that helped the plants to tolerate the stress condition. Each soil treatment with CP and VC improved all biometric parameters of cucumber plants, especially fresh and dry biomass. Soil amendment appeared to increase the permanence of each contaminant, compared to unamended soil, and was very effective in preventing the uptake and accumulation of the contaminants by cucumber plants. At the end of the experiments, residues of all contaminants, especially the less hydrophobic ones, were found both in roots and in shoots of all plants at much lower concentrations in amended soil than in not amended soil. Our findings suggest that, besides the well-known role in managing soil fertility and increasing plant productivity, soil addition with composted materials may help cultivated soils to mitigate toxic pressure from environmental contamination. Finally, the overall results obtained indicated that both amendments, in addition to influencing plant uptake and accumulation of the organic contaminants, may be able to regulate their metabolic fate in plant tissues.

Funding

This research was funded by Ordinary Fund for Scientific Research of the University of Bari Aldo Moro, Italy.

CRediT authorship contribution statement

Claudia Carnimeo: Conceptualization, Investigation, Visualization, Formal analysis, Data curation, Writing – original draft. **Antonio Gelsomino:** Conceptualization, Investigation, Methodology, Resources, Writing – original draft. **Giovanni Cirrottola:** Investigation, Formal analysis. **Maria Rosaria Panuccio:** Investigation, Formal analysis. **Elisabetta Loffredo:** Conceptualization, Methodology, Project administration, Supervision, Writing – review & editing, Funding acquisition.

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.

Acknowledgments

The authors thank Calabria Maceri & Servizi S.p.a., Rende, Italy, and C&F Energy, Società Agricola S.r.l., Altavilla Silentina, Italy, for providing, respectively, the compost and the vermicompost samples used in this study. The authors are grateful to the anonymous reviewers for their valuable comments and suggestions.

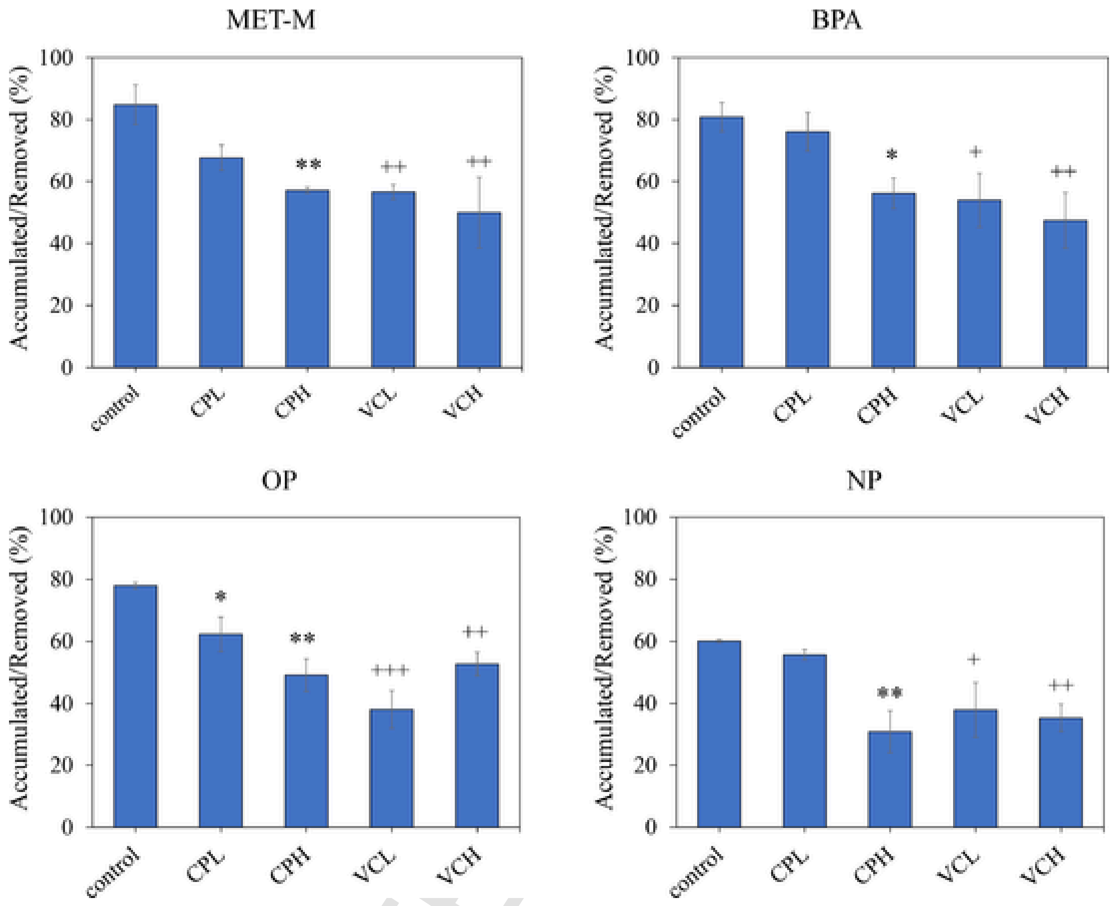

Fig. 5. Ratio between the amounts of residual compounds accumulated in the whole plant and the amounts removed (degraded + absorbed) from planted soil in a period of 38 days. The vertical line on each bar indicates the standard error (n = 3). Significant differences were calculated between control and CP (*) or VC (+) treatments in uncontaminated or contaminated conditions (one-way ANOVA and LSD test, $^{*,+}$ $P \le 0.05$; $^{**,++}$ $P \le 0.01$; $^{***,+++}$ $P \le 0.001$).

Supplementary materials

Supplementary material associated with this article can be found, in the online version, at doi:10.1016/j.scienta.2022.111250.

References

Abril, C., Santos, J.L., Martìn, J., Aparicio, I., Alonso, E., 2021. Uptake and translocation of multiresidue industrial and household contaminants in radish grown under controlled conditions. Chemosphere 268, 128823. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chemosphere.2020.128823.

Ahammed, G.J., Wang, Y., Mao, Q., Wu, M., Yan, Y., Ren, J., Wang, X., Liu, A., Chen, S., 2020. Dopamine alleviates bisphenol A-induced phytotoxicity by enhancing antioxidant and detoxification potential in cucumber. Environ. Pollut. 259, 2020. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envpol.2020.113957, 113957.

Atiyeh, R.M., Lee, S., Edwards, C.A., Arancon, N.Q., Metzger, J.D., 2002. The influence of humic acids derived from earthworm-processed organic wastes on plant growth. Bioresour. Technol. 84, 7–14. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0960-8524(02)00017-2.

Blouin, M., Barrere, J., Meyer, N., Lartigue, S., Barot, S., Mathieu, J., 2019. Vermicompost significantly affects plant growth. A meta-analysis. Agron. Sustain. Dev. 39, 34. https://doi.org/10.1007/s13593-019-0579-x.

Bokern, M., Harms, H.H., 1997. Toxicity and metabolism of 4-n-nonylphenol in cell suspension cultures of different plant species. Environ. Sci. Technol. 31, 1849–1854. https://doi.org/10.1021/es960353r.

Brown, S., Devin-Clarke, D., Dourbava, M., O'Connor, G., 2009. Fate of 4-nonylphenol in a biosolids amended soil. Chemosphere 75, 549–554. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chemosphere.2008.12.001.

Busato, J.G., de Carvalho, C.M., Zandonadi, D.B., Sodré, F.F., Mol, A.R., de Oliveira, A.L., Navarro, R.D., 2018. Recycling of wastes from fish beneficiation by composting: Chemical characteristics of the compost and efficiency of their humic acids in stimulating the growth of lettuce. Environ. Sci. Pollut. Res. 25, 35811–35820. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11356-017-0795-3.

Chen, Y., Camps-Arbestain, M., Shen, Q., Singh, B., Cayuela, M.L., 2018. The long-term role of organic amendments in building soil nutrient fertility: a meta analysis and review. Nutr. Cycl. Agroecosyst. 111, 103–125. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10705-017-9903-5.

Cheng, Z., Yao, F., Yuan-wang, L., Hui-quing, C., Zhao-jun, L., Jiang-ming, X., 2017. Uptake and translocation of organic pollutants in plants: a review. ScienceDirect 16 (8), 1659–1668. https://doi.org/10.1016/S2095-3119(16)61590-3.

Chokwe, T.B., Okonkwo, J.O., Sibali, L.L., 2017. Distribution, exposure pathways, sources and toxicity of nonylphenol and nonylphenol ethoxylates in the environment. Water SA 43, 529–543. https://doi.org/10.4314/wsa.v43i4.01.

Corrales, J., Kristofco, L.A., Steele, W.B., Yates, B.S., Breed, C.S., Williams, E.S., Brooks, B.W., 2015. Global assessment of bisphenol a in the environment: review and analysis of its occurrence and bioaccumulation. Dose Response 13, 1–29. https://doi.org/10.1177/1559325815598308.

de Bruin, W., Kritzinger, Q., Bornman, R., Korsten, L., 2019. Occurrence, fate and toxic effects of the industrial endocrine disrupter, nonylphenol, on plants - a review. Ecotoxicol. Environ. Saf. 181, 419–427. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ecoenv.2019.06.009.

Diacono, M., Montemurro, F., 2010. Long-term effects of organic amendments on soil fertility. A review. Agron. Sustain. Dev. 30, 401–422. https://doi.org/10.1051/agro/2009040.

Eissenstat, D.M., Wells, C.E., Yanai, R.D., Whitbeck, J.L., 2000. Building roots in a changing environment: implications for root longevity. New Phytol. 147, 33–42. https://doi.org/10.1046/j.1469-8137.2000.00686.x.

European Commission (EC), 2020. Endocrine Disruptors. European Commission (EC). https://ec.europa.eu/environment/chemicals/endocrine/index_en.htm (accessed on 10 March 2022).

FAO, 2017. Water Pollution from Agriculture: a Global Review, 2017. Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations Rome. Published by the.

Fernandes, M.C., Cox, L., Hermosín, M.C., Cornejo, J., 2003. Adsorption/desorption of metalaxyl as affecting dissipation and leaching in soils: role of mineral and organic components. Pest Manag. Sci. 59, 545–552. https://doi.org/10.1002/ps.664.

Ferrara, G., Loffredo, E., Senesi, N., 2006. Phytotoxic, clastogenic and bioaccumulation effects of the environmental endocrine disruptor bisphenol A in various crops grown hydroponically. Planta 223, 910–916. https://doi.org/10.1007/s00425-005-0147-2.

Fitter, A.H., 1991. Characteristics and functions of root systems. Plant roots: The Hidden Half. (Waisel, Y., Eshel, A., Kafkafi, U. eds), pp. 3-25. Dekker, New York. 10.1201/9780203909423.

Gámiz, B., Pignatello, J.J., Cox, L., Hermosín, M.C., Celis, R., 2016. Environmental fate of the fungicide metalaxyl in soil amended with composted olive-mill waste and its biochar: an enantioselective study. Sci. Total Environ. 54, 776–783. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2015.09.097.

Geissena, V., Mol, H.G.J., Klumpp, E., Umlauf, G., Nadal, M., van der Ploeg, M., Zee, S.E.A.T.M., Ritsema, C.J., 2015. Emerging pollutants in the environment: a challenge for water resource management. Int. Soil Water Conserv. Res. 3, 57–65. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.iswcr.2015.03.002.

Geldner, N., Salt, D.E., 2014. Focus on roots. Plant Physiol. 166, 453–454. https://doi.org/10.1104/pp.114.900494.

Gelsomino, A., Abenavoli, M.R., Sorgonà, A., 2014. Above- and below-ground morphological responses of a citrus rootstock interfered with orange waste compost: an evaluation as component of growing media. Agrochimica LVIII (2), 148–164.

Gong, W., Jiang, M., Zhang, T., Zhang, W., Liang, G., Li, B., Hu, B., Han, P., 2020. Uptake and dissipation of metalaxyl-M, fludioxonil, cyantraniliprole and thiamethoxam in greenhouse chrysanthemum. Environ. Pollut. 257, 113499. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envpol.2019.113499.

Hilber, I., Mäder, P., Schulin, R., Wyss, G.S., 2008. Survey of organochlorine pesticides in horticultural soils and there grown Cucurbitaceae. Chemosphere 73, 954–961. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chemosphere.2008.06.053.

Hilber, I., Wyss, G.S., Mäder, P., Bucheli, T.D., Meier, I., Vogt, L., Schulin, R., 2009. Influence of activated charcoal amendment to contaminated soil on dieldrin and nutrient uptake by cucumbers. Environ. Pollut. 157, 2224–2230. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envpol.2009.04.009.

Hurtado, C., Cañameras, N., Domínguez, C., Price, G.W., Comas, J., Bayona, J.M., 2017. Effect of soil biochar concentration on the mitigation of emerging organic contaminant uptake in lettuce. J. Hazard. Mater. 323, 386–393. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhazmat.2016.04.046.

Jayampathi, T., Atugoda, T., Jayasinghe, C., 2019. Uptake and accumulation of pharmaceuticals and personal care products in leafy vegetables. Pharmaceuticals and Personal Care Products: Waste Management and Treatment Technology. Emerging Contaminants and Micro Pollutants 87–113. https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-12-816189-0.00004-4.

Karanasios, E., Tsiropoulos, N.G., Karpouzas, D.G., Ehaliotis, C., 2010. Degradation and adsorption of pesticides in compost-based biomixtures as potential substrates for biobeds in Southern Europe. J. Agric. Food Chem. 58, 9147–9156. https://doi.org/10.1021/jf1011853.

Kim, D., Kwak, J.Il, An, Y.J., 2019. Physiological response of crop plants to the endocrine-disrupting chemical nonylphenol in the soil environment. Environ. Pollut. 251, 573–580. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envpol.2019.04.101.

Kubicki, M., Lamshöft, M., Lagojda, A., Spiteller, M., 2019. Metabolism and spatial distribution of metalaxyl in tomato plants grown under hydroponic conditions. Chemosphere 218, 36–41. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chemosphere.2018.11.069.

Kurek, M., Barchańska, H., Turek, M., 2016. Degradation processes of pesticides used in potato cultivations. Rev. Environ. Contam. Toxicol. 242, 105–151. https://doi.org/10.1007/398_2016_13.

Lazcano, C., Arnold, J., Tato, A., Zalle, J.G., Domínguez, J., 2009. Compost and vermicompost as nursery pot components: effects on tomato plant growth and morphology. Span. J. Agric. Res. 7 (4), 944–951. https://doi.org/10.5424/sjar/2009074-1107.

Leadbeater, A.J., 2014. Plant health management: Fungicides and antibiotics, Encyclopedia of Agriculture and Food Systems. pp. 408–424. pp. https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-444-52512-3.00179-0.

Li, Y., Sallach, J.B., Zhang, W., Boyd, S.A., Li, H., 2019. Insight into the distribution of pharmaceuticals in soil-water-plant systems. Water Res. 152, 38e46. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.watres.2018.12.039.

Liu, D., Ding, Z., Ali, E.F., Kehir, A.M.S., Eissa, M.A., Ibrahim, O.H.M., 2021. Biochar and compost enhance soil quality and growth of roselle (*Hibiscus sabdariffa* L.) under saline conditions. Sci. Rep. 11, 8739. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-021-88293-6.

Loffredo, E., 2022. Recent advances on innovative materials from biowaste recycling for the removal of environmental estrogens from water and soil. Materials 15, 1894. https://doi.org/10.3390/ma15051894.

Loffredo, E., Gattullo, C.E., Traversa, A., Senesi, N., 2010. Potential of various herbaceous species to remove the endocrine disruptor bisphenol A from aqueous media. Chemosphere 80, 1274–1280. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chemosphere.2010.06.054.

Loffredo, E., Picca, G., Parlavecchia, M., 2021. Single and combined use of *Cannabis sativa* L. and carbon-rich materials for the removal of pesticides and endocrine-disrupting chemicals from water and soil. Environ. Sci. Pollut. Res. 28, 3601–3616. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11356-020-10690-7.

Metcalfe, C.D., Bayen, S., Desrosiers, M., Muñoz, G., Sauvé, S., Yargeau, V., 2022. An introduction to the sources, fate, occurrence and effects of endocrine disrupting chemicals released into the environment. Environ. Res. 207, 112658. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envres.2021.112658.

Mattina, M.I., Eitzer, B.D., Iannucci-Berger, W., Lee, W.-Y., White, J.C., 2004. Plant uptake and translocation of highly weathered, soil-bound technical chlordane residues: Data from field and rhizotron studies. Environ. Toxicol. Chem. 23, 2756–2762. https://doi.org/10.1897/03-570.

Michałowicz, J., 2014. Bisphenol A - sources, toxicity and biotransformation. Environ. Toxicol. Pharmacol. 37 (2), 738–758. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.etap.2014.02.003.

Olaniyan, L.W.B., Okoh, O.O., Mkwetshana, N.T., Akoh, A.I., 2018. Environmental water pollution, endocrine interference and ecotoxicity of 4-tert-octylphenol: a review. Rev. Environ. Contam. Toxicol. 248, 81–109. https://doi.org/10.1007/398_2018_20.

Ose, A., Andersone-Ozola, U., Ievenish, G., 2021. Substrate-dependent effect of vermicompost on yield and physiological indices of container-Grown *Dracocephalum moldavica* Plants. Agriculture 11, 1231. https://doi.org/10.3390/agriculture11121231.

Panuccio, M.R., Jacobsen, S.E., Akhtar, S.S., Muscolo, A., 2014. Effect of saline water on seed germination and early seedling growth of the halophyte quinoa. AoB Plants 6, plu047. https://doi.org/10.1093/aobpla/plu047.

Parlavecchia, M., Carnimeo, C., Loffredo, E., 2020. Soil amendment with biochar, hydrochar and compost mitigates the accumulation of emerging pollutants in rocket salad plants. Water Air Soil Pollut. 231, 554. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11270-020-04915-1.

Parlavecchia, M., D'Orazio, V., Loffredo, E, 2019. Wood biochars and vermicomposts from digestate modulate the extent of adsorption-desorption of the fungicide metalaxylm in a silty soil. Environ. Sci. Pollut. Res. 26, 35924–35934. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11356-019-06729-z.

Patama, M., Belz, R.G., Sinkkonen, A., 2019. Realistic low doses of two emerging contaminants change size distribution of an annual flowering plant population. Ecotoxicology 28, 732–743. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10646-019-02069-3.

Raviv, M., 2014. Composts in growing media: Feedstocks, Composting methods and potential applications. Acta Hortic. 1018, 513–524. https://doi.org/10.17660/ActaHortic.2014.1018.56.

Ryser, P., Emerson, P., 2007. Growth, root and leaf structure, and biomass allocation in *Leucanthemum vulgare* Lam. (Asteraceae) as influenced by heavy-metal-containing slag. Plant Soil 301, 315–324. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11104-007-9451-x.

Schimmelpfennig, S., Müller, C., Grünhage, L., Koch, C., Kammann, C., 2014. Biochar, hydrochar and uncarbonized feedstock application to permanent grassland—effects on greenhouse gas emissions and plant growth. Agric. Ecosyst. Environ. 191, 39–52. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.agee.2014.03.027.

Senesi, N., Loffredo, E., D'Orazio, V., Brunetti, G., Miano, T.M., La Cava, P., 2015. Adsorption of pesticides by humic acids from organic amendments and soils. Humic Subst. Chem. Contam. 129–153. https://doi.org/10.2136/2001.humicsubstances.c8.

Silva, V., Mol, H.G.J., Zomer, P., Tienstra, M., Ritsema, C.J., Geissen, V., 2019. Pesticide residues in European agricultural soils – a hidden reality unfolded. Sci. Total Environ. 653, 1532–1545. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2018.10.441.

Sparks, D.L., Page, A.L., Helmke, P.A., Loeppert, R.H., Soltanpour, P.N., Tabatabai, M.A., Johnston, C.T., Sumner, M.E., 1996. Methods of Soil Analysis: Chemical Methods. SSSA-ASA, Madison, WI. Part 3. No. 5 in the SSSA Book Series.

Spataro, F., Rauseo, J., Pescatore, T., Patrolecco, L., 2022. Priority organic pollutants and endocrine-disrupting compounds in arctic marine sediments (Svalbard islands, Norway). Environ. Toxicol. Chem. (in press). https://doi.org/10.1002/etc.5334.

Sun, J., Wu, Y., Jiang, P., Zheng, L., Zhang, A., Qi, H., 2019. Concentration, uptake and human dietary intake of novel brominated flame retardants in greenhouse and conventional vegetables. Environ. Int. 123, 436–443. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envint.2018.12.008.

Teixeira, J., de Sousa, A., Azenha, M., Moreira, J.T., Fidalgo, F., Silva, A.F., Faria, J.L., Silva, A.M.T., 2011. *Solanum nigrum* L. weed plants as a remediation tool for metalaxyl-polluted effluents and soils. Chemosphere 85, 744–750. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chemosphere.2011.06.049.

United Nations (2019). Global sustainable development report. New York, 11 September 2019. https://sustainabledevelopment.un.org/globalsdreport/2019. (accessed on 4 March 2022).

Vukobratović, M., Lončarić, Z., Vukobratović, Ž., Mužić, M., 2018. Use of composted manure as substrate for lettuce and cucumber seedlings. Waste Biomass Valoriz. 9, 25–31. https://doi.org/10.1007/s12649-016-9755-2.

Wei, B., Liu, C., Bao, J., Wang, Y., Hu, J., Qi, M., Jin, J., Wei, Y., 2021. Uptake and distributions of polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons in cultivated plants around an E-waste disposal site in Southern China. Environ. Sci. Pollut. Res. 28, 2696–2706. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11356-020-10642-1.