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Accepted manuscript

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

18

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25

26 **Abstract**

27 An accurate assessment of the absorption and accumulation of soil pollutants by plants is
28 essential to avoid the entry of toxic compounds into the human and animal food chain.
29 Therefore, this study evaluated the effectiveness of the amendment of a loamy soil with
30 a mixed compost (CP) and a vermicompost (VC) from digestate, at doses of 10 t ha⁻¹ (CP_L
31 and VC_L) and 30 t ha⁻¹ (CP_H and VC_H), in sustaining the growth of cucumber (*Cucumis*
32 *sativus* L.) plants and reducing the uptake of contaminants, such as the fungicide
33 metalaxyl-m (MET-M) and the endocrine disruptors bisphenol A (BPA), 4-tert-
34 octylphenol (OP) and nonylphenol (NP). Plant response to soil amendment with CP and
35 VC was tested in parallel in both contaminated and uncontaminated soil. All treatments
36 significantly promoted cucumber growth in both soil conditions. After 38 days of
37 cucumber growth in contaminated soil, CP_L, CP_H, VC_L and VC_H increased dry biomass
38 of roots and shoots by 42, 128, 118, 147%, and 46, 113, 271, 443%, respectively,
39 compared to unamended soil (control). Root and shoot elongation and the number of
40 leaves and their expansion were also significantly promoted by the application of CP and

41 VC at both doses. All treatments, in the order: $VC_H > VC_L > CP_H > CP_L$, considerably
42 reduced the absorption of all compounds by cucumber. Although small quantities of
43 residues of each pollutant were found both in the roots and in the aerial organs of all
44 plants, their overall accumulation in plants grown in amended soil was significantly lower
45 than that found in the control plants. Thus, on the basis of the results obtained, it is evident
46 that the use of CP and VC can be very effective and sustainable both from an economic
47 and environmental point of view, since, in addition to stimulate plant growth and increase
48 soil fertility, it can represent a successful strategy to mitigate the presence of toxic
49 residues in food plants.

50

51 **Keywords:** soil contamination, root system, plant uptake, contaminant accumulation,
52 endocrine disrupting chemical, metalaxyl-m, contaminant mitigation

53

54 **1. Introduction**

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

66 Currently, a major concern among the international scientific community is due to
67 the so-called anthropogenic organic pollutants (AOPs), a wide class that include different
68 compounds such as agrochemicals, pharmaceuticals, dyes, wood preservatives, industrial
69 products and byproducts (FAO 2017). AOPs may be defined as organic chemicals that
70 are foreign to natural ecosystems and may adversely affect, either directly or indirectly,
71 the normal chemical and biological equilibria and processes in both undisturbed and
72 cultivated soils. AOPs can reach the soil on purpose, as in the case of agrochemicals for
73 controlling crop diseases, or inadvertently and sometimes illegally through the
74 incorporation into soil of not completely decontaminated liquid and solid wastes, such as
75 sewage sludges, wastewaters, biosolids and biowaste of agro-industrial origin (Geissena
76 et al. 2015; Silva et al. 2019).

77 Agrochemicals, including herbicides, fungicides, insecticides, nematicides and so on,
78 are widely used in conventional agriculture for plant protection, and their repeated
79 applications to soil and/or plants over the years or incorrect dosage can generate residue
80 levels in soil that compromise soil fertility and food safety. Due to their prevailing low
81 hydrophobicity, most agrochemicals can be taken up by plant roots and then traslocated
82 to different tissues where they accumulate, which is particularly dangerous in the case of
83 staple food crops because toxic residues can enter the food chain of animals and humans.
84 Furthermore, these chemicals, especially the more polar ones, can pose serious
85 environmental problems due to their movement into soil and transport in surface- and
86 groundwater (Loffredo et al. 2021).

87 Metalaxyl-M [methyl *N*-(2,6-dimethylphenyl)-*N*-(methoxyacetyl)-*D*-alaninate,
88 MET-M] is the bioactive *R*-enantiomer of the acylanilide chiral fungicide metalaxyl
89 which is widely used for the control of phytopathogenic fungi of several crops and urban
90 green areas turfgrasses (Leadbeater 2014). Besides target organisms, the non-selective

91 MET-M could adversely affect non-target organisms. For its systemic behaviour, MET-
92 M is absorbed by plant roots and translocated into various organs where it is partly
93 metabolized and partly accumulated. Due to its moderate dissipation in soil (half-life of
94 about 39 d in field conditions), MET-M can accumulate and reach concentrations up to 1
95 mg kg⁻¹ (Kurek 2017).

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

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

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

130 The root system is the main interface between plants and their environment, therefore
131 under heavy soil contamination it represents the most exposed plant organ and may be
132 considered an important indicator of the general stress status of the plant. The plant root
133 system has a certain variability (plasticity) that represents a major survival strategy to
134 cope with a wide range of soil factors and external stresses. Various morphological
135 parameters such as the length, surface area, volume and diameter are used as potential
136 indicator of root plasticity. Further morphological traits derived from the formers and
137 having a functional significance are: specific root length (root length per unit of root dry
138 weight, SRL), root fineness (root length per unit root volume, RF), tissue density (root
139 dry mass per unit root volume, RTD), root surface area (root length per unit of diameter).
140 All these morphological parameters are commonly used to evaluate plant responses to

141 interfering agents, such as compost (Lazcano et al. 2009; Gelsomino et al. 2014; Busato
142 et al. 2018), organic (Wei et al. 2021) or inorganic (Ryser and Emerson 2007; Panuccio
143 et al. 2014) pollutants.

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

148

149 **2. Materials and methods**

150 2.1 Chemicals, soil, amendents and plant

151 MET-M with purity $\geq 98\%$, BPA at 99.0% purity and OP at 99.5% purity were
152 purchased from Sigma-Aldrich S.r.l., Milano, Italy, while NP at 99.5% purity was
153 provided by Dr Ehrenstorfer GmbH, Augsburg, Germany. Some chemical properties of
154 these AOPs are shown in Table 1. All other chemicals of extra pure grade were obtained
155 from commercial sources and used without further purification.

156 A loamy calcareous agricultural soil sampled at 0–20 cm depth at an experimental
157 station located at Valenzano, South Italy, was used. The soil was air-dried, sieved at <3-
158 mm particle size to remove the coarser fraction and thoroughly homogenized. Soil
159 properties were determined according to standard methods (Sparks et al. 1996). Briefly,
160 soil moisture was measured after heating at 105 °C overnight; pH was potentiometrically
161 measured in a 1:2.5 (w/v) soil-to-0.01 M CaCl₂ solution mixture (pH_{CaCl₂}); electrical
162 conductivity was measured at 25 °C in a 1:2 (w/v) soil-to-water ratio slurry (EC_{1:2 25 °C});
163 total organic C and N were determined by an elemental analyzer LECO CN628 (LECO
164 Corporation, MI, USA); total CaCO₃ was determined by the gas-volumetric method using
165 a Dietrich–Fruhling calcimeter; cation exchange capacity (CEC) was measured by using

166 0.1 M BaCl₂ buffered to pH 8.2 with triethanolamine (2.25%, v/v). Soil characteristics
167 are shown in Table 2.

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

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

178

179 2.2 Experimental protocol

180 Cucumber seeds were germinated in Petri dishes (9-cm diameter) kept in the dark
181 into a Phytotron growth chamber (F.lli Della Marca S.r.l., Roma, Italy, model
182 60043/THTL) at a temperature of 22 ± 1 °C for 3 days.

183 Plastic pots (13-cm diameter and 13-cm height) were filled to a height of about 10
184 cm with 800 g of air-dried soil only (control), or with 800 g of mixtures of soil and 1.12%
185 (w/w) of amendment (CP_L and VC_L), or soil and 3.36% (w/w) of amendment (CP_H and
186 VC_H). The lowest and the highest dose of CP and VC correspond, respectively, to a soil
187 application of about 10 and 30 t ha⁻¹. Then, pot mixtures were brought to 60% field
188 capacity by adding distilled water.

189 After about 2 h, aliquots of 0.8 mL of individual methanol solutions of MET-M,
190 BPA, OP and NP at a concentration of 1000 µg mL⁻¹ were not added (uncontaminated,

191 UN) or added into the upper soil layer (~ 3 cm), thus obtaining in the whole soil a
192 concentration of $1 \mu\text{g g}^{-1}$ of each compound. After about 2 h, uniformly sized cucumber
193 seedlings were selected and not transplanted (bare soil) or transplanted (one seedling in
194 each pot, planted soil) into the pots. Subsequently, a volume of 10 mL of distilled H_2O
195 was added to each pot (with and without seedling). Thus, the following treatments were
196 obtained: control (contaminated soil), CP_L , CP_H , VC_L , VC_H , NC (not contaminated soil),
197 NC-CP_L , NC-CP_H , NC-VC_L , NC-VC_H .

198 Plants were grown in the chamber for 38 d using a 11-h daylight photoperiod.
199 Relative humidity and air temperature were, respectively, 50% and $24 \pm 1^\circ\text{C}$ during light
200 hours, and 60% and $17 \pm 1^\circ\text{C}$ during dark hours. Each pot (with and without plants) was
201 watered with 20 mL of distilled H_2O per day. The pots were placed in the growth chamber
202 according to a completely randomized design with 5 replications.

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

216 SRV) and root tissue density (root dry mass per unit root volume, RTD) which represent
217 functional parameters.

218

219 2.3 Extraction and quantification of contaminant residues from pot mixtures and plant
220 tissues

221 After cucumber plant removal, each pot mixture was thoroughly homogenized; then
222 an aliquot of 20 g sample was collected, added with 50 mL of methanol and kept under
223 mechanical shaking overnight (16 h). Then, the suspension was filtered and an aliquot of
224 15 mL was centrifuged at 10,000 g for 10 min. Subsequently, 10 mL of supernatant
225 solution was evaporated to dryness at a temperature of 40 °C using a rotatory evaporator.
226 The solid residue was dissolved in a volume of 1 mL of acetonitrile/water mixture (60:40
227 v/v), filtered through 0.45 μm Millipore™ cellulose acetate filters and analysed by reverse
228 phase ultra-high performance liquid chromatography (UHPLC) technique (section 2.4).
229 Recoveries from soil of MET-M, BPA, OP and NP each at an initial concentration of 1
230 $\mu\text{g g}^{-1}$ were, respectively, 92.20 ± 1.61 , 92.43 ± 0.80 , 91.82 ± 2.08 and $94.6 \pm 4.6\%$ ($n=4$).
231 The percentages of the compounds disappeared in pot mixtures during the trial were
232 calculated as the difference between the initial amounts and those extracted after 38 d.

233 Absorbed contaminant were extracted from plant tissues according to the procedure
234 of Ferrara et al. (2006). Briefly, 0.1 g of dried shoot and root mass, individually, was
235 added with 10 mL of pure methanol and kept under mechanical shaking for 4 h.
236 Successively, the suspension was centrifugated for 10 min at 10,000 g and an aliquot of
237 6 mL was evaporated to dryness at a temperature of 40 °C using a rotary evaporator. The
238 residue was dissolved in a volume of 1 mL of acetonitrile/water mixture (60:40 v/v),
239 filtered through 0.45 μm Millipore™ cellulose acetate filters and analysed by UHPLC
240 technique (section 2.4).

241

242 2.4 Analytical measurement

243 The UHPLC system (Dionex Ultimate 3000 RSLC, Waltham MA, USA) used was
244 equipped with an HPG-3200 RS pump, a WPS-3000 autosampler and a TCC-3000
245 column compartment connected to a Supelco™ LC-18 column (250 mm × 4.6 mm × 5
246 µm). The mobile phase was a mixture of water (A) and acetonitrile (B). The elution
247 gradient adopted was the following: 0-1 min 40% A, 1-6 min from 40 to 30% A, 6-8 min
248 from 30% to 20% A, 8-13 min from 20 to 10% A, 13-15 min 10% A. The flow rate was
249 1 mL min⁻¹ and the retention times of MET-M, BPA, OP and NP were about, 3.8, 4.2, 8.0
250 and 13.5, respectively. MET-M was detected using a DAD-3000 RS diode array detector
251 (Dionex Ultimate 3000 RSLC, Waltham MA, USA) at a wavelength of 220 nm, while
252 BPA, OP and NP were detected using a FLD-3400 RS fluorescence detector (Dionex
253 Ultimate 3000 RSLC, Waltham MA, USA) operating at wavelengths of 200-nm
254 excitation and 290-nm emission.

255

256 2.5 Statistical analysis

257 Biometric data of plants and data of residual compounds extracted from plants were
258 statistically analysed by one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) and the means of the
259 treatments were compared to the control by the least significant difference (LSD) test at
260 0.05*P*, 0.01*P*, and 0.001*P* levels. Data of residual compounds extracted from soil were
261 analysed by two-way ANOVA and the means were separated at 0.05*P* and 0.01*P* levels
262 using the Duncan's multiple range test for the main factors and the LSD test for the
263 interaction.

264

265 3. Results and discussion

266 3.1 Plant response to soil amendment

267 3.1.1 Effects on the root system and aerial plant organs

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

274 Root and shoot fresh weights of cucumber plants grown on uncontaminated soil were
275 significantly higher in presence of both CP_L and VC_L, compared to the unamended control
276 (NC), while VC_H positively affected only shoots (Fig. 1A and B). A similar trend was
277 found for root dry weights (Fig. 1C), while shoot dry weights were increased only by the
278 higher dose of CP and VC (Fig. 1D). A different trend was observed for shoot elongation
279 in NC soils where both doses of CP and the higher dose of VC appeared to depress this
280 parameter compared to unamended soil (Fig. 1E). Furthermore, positive effects of CP and
281 VC were also generally observed in NC soils on the number of leaves per plant (Fig. 1F)
282 and on the average length of the main leaf vein (Fig. 1G) which can be considered in
283 indicator of leaf extension.

284 As expected, the multi-contamination of soil (control) exerted phytotoxic effects on
285 cucumber plants producing an evident decrease of root and shoot biomass, as well as
286 shoot length and leaf parameters, compared to NC (Fig. 1). Similarly, Patama et al. (2019)
287 found a significant inhibition of both root and shoot elongation of *Gypsophila elegans*
288 treated with OP. In a recent study, an evident phytotoxicity due to soil treatments with
289 BPA and OP on rocket salad plants was reported (Parlavecchia et al. 2020).

290 Unfortunately, no results are present in the literature on toxic effects of NP on agricultural
291 plants.

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

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

313 The presence of VC_H in cucumber rhizosphere produced the maximum plant biomass
314 (Fig. 2). Furthermore, results showed that plants grown on contaminated soil enriched

315 with VC relocated carbon from belowground production to aboveground production, as
316 pointed out by the root (RMR) and shoot dry mass ratios (SMR) that reflect the proportion
317 of resources distributed between the root and shoot apparatus (Fig. 2). The two-way
318 ANOVA (Tab. S1) confirmed that in soil amended with CP, regardless of the dose
319 applied, plant growth was mostly affected by the presence of the contaminants.
320 Conversely, it was the amount of added VC rather than the contamination itself that
321 affected the biomass production of cucumber plants (Tab. S1). These results confirm what
322 already observed by Liu et al. (2021) who demonstrated that the addition of CP to soil
323 significantly increases the height and shoot fresh and dry weights of roselle plants. Mixing
324 20% of VC with soil resulted in 98% average increase of *Dracocephalum moldavica*
325 biomass, compared to soil only (Ose et al., 2021).

326

327 3.1.2 Root morphological analysis

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

332 In plants grown on soil without contaminants, the presence of CP and VC increased
333 all morphological parameters compared to control plants (NC), particularly with VC_L
334 addition (Fig. 3). A similar trend was observed in contaminated soil, where the increase
335 of all root parameters of plants grown in amended soil was still significant compared to
336 the control soil, but lesser than that in NC soil. The two-way ANOVA (*F*-ratios)
337 evidenced that among the parameters examined the most affected by the treatments was
338 the total root length (Tab. S2). Root length is considered more important than root weight
339 to indicate root functionality because it expresses the potential for solute and water uptake

340 (Ryser, 2007). In uncontaminated soil, root diameter increased significantly in the
341 presence of CP and VC, while in contaminated soil only VC significantly enhanced this
342 parameter (Fig. 3). Root diameter distribution is usually expressed as the "mean diameter"
343 and sometimes does not characterize a response of the root system structure adequately,
344 as fine and coarse roots should be considered separately having different responses in
345 terms of functionality. In both uncontaminated and contaminated soil, root volume was
346 greatly increased by the lower dose of both amendments (Fig. 3). The ANOVA results
347 indicated that the amendment dose, rather than the presence of the contaminants, caused
348 the highest variability in the morphological parameters (Table S2).

349 Specific root length (SRL), specific root area (SRA) and specific root volume (SRV)
350 describe the potential of the root apparatus to develop and contact soil by investing a
351 given amount of photosynthate. All these parameters are significantly increased on
352 contaminated soil in plants treated with the lower concentration of CP and VC (Fig. S1).
353 SRL is the root length per unit of root dry mass; it is believed to characterize economic
354 aspect of the root system and is frequently used as an indicator of root fineness (Panuccio
355 *et al.*, 2014). SRL has been shown to increase, decrease, or remain constant in response
356 to local heterogeneity of the soil and nutrient limitation (Eissenstat *et al.*, 2000). These
357 contrasting responses could be in part explained by considering that SRL is a complex
358 parameter that includes variations in length, diameter and root tissue density, which
359 respond to environmental conditions differently. Root tissue density (RTD) is defined as
360 the amount of structural material invested by unit of volume (ratio between dry mass and
361 volume) and is commonly associated with critical aspects of plant growth in unproductive
362 environments. Low-density tissues enable a fast relative growth rate and a rapid resource
363 acquisition with a low investment on dry matter. Conversely, roots with high tissue
364 density are generally associated with a slow growth in infertile soil (Ryser 2007). On this

365 basis, the significant increase of SRL on contaminated soil (Fig. S1) can be in part due to
366 the increase in total root length and the concomitant decrease in root tissue density found
367 in cucumber plants grown at the lower concentration of both amendments (Figs. S1 and
368 S2). Two-way ANOVA showed that in general the concentration rather than the
369 contamination determined the greatest variability in morphological ratios, particularly
370 with organic amendments (Tab. S3). Higher SRL values indicate longer roots per unit of
371 root mass. This root apparatus is more effective in water and nutrient uptake and is
372 advantageous in high-resource environments leading to a fast plant growth. Conversely,
373 this acquisition strategy is disadvantageous when resources are scarce, due to excess
374 tissue building costs. In fact, as reported by Fitter (1991), even if roots with a smaller
375 diameter can contact a larger soil volume per unit surface area, the maintenance carbon
376 cost of producing finer roots is higher as these will have to be replaced more frequently.
377 However, SRL can increase when resources are getting limited, as it is equally logical
378 that species of stressed environments may need higher investment in root length to ensure
379 the exploration of a larger soil volume.

380

381 3.2 Absorption and accumulation of contaminants in plant tissues

382 3.2.1 Residual contaminants in soil

383 A decreasing amount of all organic contaminants was recovered after 38 d from bare
384 and planted pot soil either not amended (control) or amended with CP and VC at the two
385 doses (Table 3). Averagely for soil treatments, residue reduction in planted soil, compared
386 to bare soil, was highly significant ($P \leq 0.01$) for MET-M, BPA and OP, and significant
387 ($P \leq 0.05$) for NP (Table 3). During the experimental period, in bare soil, contaminants
388 underwent adsorption on the solid fraction thus reducing their mobility and activity
389 degradation. It is well known that soil pollutants can be adsorbed onto soil organic

390 fraction or soil amendment, like CP and VC, via specific physical and chemical binding
391 mechanisms and forces of various type and strength which include ionic, hydrogen and
392 covalent bonding, charge-transfer or electron donor-acceptor mechanisms, dipole–dipole
393 and van der Waals forces (Senesi et al. 2015). In particular, adsorption of low-polar
394 pollutants can also occur through non-specific hydrophobic or partitioning processes
395 between the water phase and the hydrophobic active sites of organic matter, such as
396 aliphatic side chains and aromatic structures (Senesi et al. 2015). Besides surface
397 adsorption/immobilization and, possibly, biological degradation, plant uptake contributed
398 to the removal of contaminants, as found in planted pot soil. The distribution of
399 contaminants between soil and pore water (adsorption) in combination with
400 biodegradation controls the bioavailability of the compounds to plant uptake. Absorption
401 of most organic chemicals by plant roots is a passive and diffusive process that depends
402 on the concentration of the compounds in soil pore water (Cheng et al. 2017).

403 It is reasonable to assume that both adsorption and, especially, biological degradation
404 occurred with different intensity based on the presence or absence of the plant and the
405 properties of the contaminant. The plant could have played different and contrasting roles
406 on microbial degradation of the molecules, that are: (i) root exudates released in the
407 rhizosphere during cucumber growth, being a source of nourishment for microorganisms,
408 might have promoted the dissipation of contaminants (rhizodegradation or
409 phytostimulation), or (ii) the rapid root uptake of contaminants might have reduced their
410 time of exposure to soil microorganisms with consequent lower biodegradation.
411 Unfortunately, the experimental conditions of this study do not allow to discriminate and
412 quantify the two possible processes.

413 Another factor that influences the absorption of contaminants by the plant are the
414 physicochemical properties of the compound, primarily its hydrophobicity. When the

415 percentages of residual compounds extracted from bare soil or planted soil or their
416 differences, averagely for soil treatments, was related to the corresponding log K_{ow} of
417 the contaminants, significant correlations were found in all cases (Fig. 4). These results
418 indicate that, regardless of soil treatment, the least hydrophobic compounds are: (i) the
419 most degraded in bare soil; (ii) the most removed in planted soil; and (iii) the most
420 absorbed by the plant, assuming that the difference between the amount of residual
421 compound in bare soil and planted soil may be approximated to the amount of absorbed
422 compound. Negative correlation between contaminant lipophilicity and their uptake by
423 plants was previously demonstrated for the contaminants in this study and other plant
424 species (Jayampathi et al. 2021; Gong et al. 2020; Loffredo et al. 2021). Despite the very
425 low solubility of OP and NP, data obtained clearly evidenced the ability of cucumber to
426 take up these molecules. Bokern and Harms (1997) found that plants incorporated NP
427 into cell walls as a mechanism to reduce the phytotoxicity of this compound. Brown et al.
428 (2009) reported that NP uptake by plants was very low and its persistence within the plant
429 was minimal.

430 Among the compounds examined, MET-M showed the maximum disappearance in
431 both bare and planted soil and, on average, in all treatments (Table 3). This can be
432 attributed to the relatively high water solubility of MET-M which allows the molecule to
433 easily reach the roots and enter the plant with the water flow. The addition to the soil of
434 CP or VC, especially at the higher dose, significantly ($P \leq 0.01$) increased the percentage
435 of MET-M residues found in both bare and planted soil (Table 3). The effects were
436 particularly evident in planted pot soil where residual MET-M was about 44% in the
437 control and much more in the treatments with a maximum of 91% in VC_H (Table 3). It is
438 not easy to explain these results which may depend on several factors. One hypothesis is
439 that the increased retention capacity of the amended soil may have reduced the availability

440 of the contaminant for microbial degradation; another hypothesis is that the increased
441 retention capacity of the amended soil may have involved also simple organic
442 compounds, including root exudates, which constitute a nutrient source for microbial
443 degraders, with a consequent reduction in microbial activity and a longer permanence of
444 the contaminant in the soil. Of course, other explanations are also possible. It has been
445 largely demonstrated that MET-M adsorption occurs mainly on the organic fraction of
446 soil and markedly increases after the addition of C-rich materials (Fernandes et al. 2003).
447 Parlavecchia et al. (2019) found that the addition of different types of VC to soil
448 noticeably increased MET-M adsorption. The adsorption capacity of a CP-based
449 biomixture for MET-M was much higher than that of the soil only (Karanasios et al.
450 2010).

451 The general behaviour of BPA in both bare and planted soil was not very different
452 from that of MET-M and quite similar to that of the other two endocrine disruptors OP
453 and NP. Averagely for soil treatments, the presence of cucumber plants significantly
454 decreased the quantity of residual BPA, OP and NP in soil, compared to bare soil (Table
455 3). Similarly to what observed for MET-M, the presence of CP and VC at both doses
456 reduced the removal of each of the other three contaminants, compared to bare soil. In
457 fact, averagely for soil treatments, the removal of BPA, OP and NP in amended soil was
458 only about 25, 28 and 21%, respectively, of the amounts removed in the control. All the
459 considerations done for MET-M can be reasonably extended also to these molecules.
460 Parlavecchia et al. (2020) found higher removals of BPA and OP in soil planted with
461 rocket salad, compared to unplanted soil. Brown et al. (2009) reported that NP
462 degradation was enhanced by the presence of winter wheat plants, compared to unplanted
463 soil, and concluded that a significant plant uptake of this molecule was unlikely.

464

465 3.3 Accumulation of contaminants in cucumber plants

466 Results obtained showed that cucumber plants were able not only to absorb all
467 contaminants from the soil but also to accumulate them in their tissues. Kubicki et al.
468 (2019), studying the dynamic of MET-M in tomato, reported that the compound was
469 readily taken up by the roots with the normal water flow and uniformly translocated to
470 the aerial organs through the xylem vessels. The amounts of residual contaminants found
471 in both roots and shoots of 38-day grown plants are reported in Table 4. The presence of
472 all compounds in the aerial parts indicates that the plant is able to translocate the
473 molecules evidencing the risks of the possible contamination of the edible plant parts.
474 Based on the results obtained, it is possible to state that residual contaminants did not
475 accumulate homogeneously in the plant but were generally found at higher concentrations
476 in the green organs. Teixeira et al. (2011) reported that the higher accumulation of MET-
477 M in shoots of *Solanum nigrum*, compared to roots, could be explained by the low log
478 Kow of this molecule which is easily transferred upward through both phloem and xylem
479 vessels, especially via the transpiration stream. In unamended soil (control), all
480 compounds were more concentrated in shoots than in roots and according to their
481 solubility. A different situation was observed in amended soil where MET-M and BPA
482 were always more concentrated in the shoots than in the roots, while OP and NP were in
483 general slightly more concentrated in roots than in shoots. That may depend on the higher
484 hydrophobicity of the latter molecules that made plant translocation more difficult. Abril
485 et al. (2021), studying the bioconcentration and translocation of different types of
486 contaminants in radish, reported that BPA was only detected in radish bulb, and explained
487 this with the poor translocation to aerial organs due to the hydrophobicity of the
488 compound and its rapid metabolization by plant cells.

489 A very interesting finding of this study is the relevant reduction of contaminant
490 residues in all plants grown on amended soil, compared to the control, clearly indicating
491 the important role of CP and VC in counteracting the uptake and accumulation of
492 contaminants in plant tissues. The abatement of residual compounds in plants cultivated
493 in amended soil occurred to varying degrees based on the type and dose of the amendment
494 applied and the nature of the contaminant. In almost all treatments and for all molecules,
495 the higher dose was more effective in reducing the accumulation of the contaminants both
496 in roots and in shoots, indicating once again the importance of the organic fraction of soil
497 in reducing the absorption and accumulation of contaminants in plants. Furthermore,
498 considering the contamination as a whole, residues accumulation in roots followed the
499 trend $VC_H < CP_H < VC_L < CP_L < \text{control}$. In shoots, MET-M and BPA residues followed
500 the trend $VC_H = VC_L < CP_H = CP_L < \text{control}$, while OP and NP residues were similar in
501 the treatments VC_H , VC_L and CP_H , significantly higher in CP_L and much higher in the
502 control.

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

512 In order to evaluate a possible influence of the amendments also on the
513 transformation rate of the contaminants by the plant, the percentages of accumulated

514 contaminants with respect to removed (degraded + absorbed) contaminants were
515 calculated (Fig. 5). Results obtained suggest that soil treatment with CP and VC, in
516 addition to influencing contaminant absorption, appear to be able to regulate the
517 biological breakdown of all compounds, as the transformation of contaminants seems
518 faster in the plants grown in amended soil (Fig. 5). However, further studies are needed
519 to better clarify this aspect.

520

521 **CONCLUSIONS**

522 When present in soil, the fungicide MET-M and the endocrine disruptors BPA, OP
523 and NP can be absorbed by the root system of horticultural plants, like cucumber, and
524 translocated to various organs. This is more likely to occur at low organic matter content
525 of the soil, and poses a serious threat to animal and human health. Soil amendment with
526 carbon-rich materials, such as CP and VC, can effectively hinder the entry of pollutants
527 into plants. Both CP and VC at the doses used in this study demonstrated significant
528 potential to support the growth of cucumber plants in both uncontaminated and multi-
529 contaminated soils. In the latter condition, both amendments exerted a crucial antitoxic
530 activity that helped the plant to tolerate the stress condition. Each soil treatment with CP
531 and VC improved all biometric parameters of cucumber plants, especially fresh and dry
532 biomass. Soil amendment appeared to reduce the availability of each contaminating
533 molecule and was very effective in preventing the uptake and accumulation of the
534 contaminants by cucumber plants. At the end of the experiments, residues of all
535 contaminants, especially the less hydrophobic ones, were found both in roots and in
536 shoots of all plants at much lower concentrations in amended soil than in not amended
537 soil. Our findings suggest that beside this key role in managing the soil fertility and
538 increasing plant productivity (Chen et al., 2018; Blouin et al., 2019), soil addition of

539 composted materials may help cultivated soils to mitigate toxic pressure from
540 environmental contamination. Finally, the overall results obtained indicated that both
541 amendments, in addition to influencing plant uptake and accumulation of organic
542 contaminants, may be able to regulate their metabolic fate in plant tissues.

543

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706

707

708 **Figure Captions**

709 Figure 1. Biometric data of cucumber plants grown on uncontaminated soil (NC) and
710 contaminated soil only (control) or amended with CP and VC at the lower dose (CP_L
711 and VC_L) and the higher dose (CP_H and VC_H). The vertical line on each bar indicates
712 the standard error (n = 3). Data were statistically treated with one-way ANOVA and
713 the means of the treatments were compared to the corresponding soil only by the LSD
714 test. *,⁺ $P \leq 0.05$; **, ⁺⁺ $P \leq 0.01$; ***, ⁺⁺⁺ $P \leq 0.001$

715 Figure 2. Root (RMR) and shoot (SMR) dry mass ratios and total dry weights of cucumber
716 plants.

717 Figure 3. Growth parameters of cucumber plants grown on uncontaminated (NC) or
718 contaminated (C) soils compared to the respective control plants: non contaminated
719 (NC soil) and contaminated (C soil). Significant differences were calculated between
720 control and compost (*) or vermicompost (+) treatments in uncontaminated or
721 contaminated conditions (one-way ANOVA, * $P \leq 0.05$; ** $P < 0.01$; *** $P < 0.001$).

722 Figure 4. Relationships between residual compounds extracted from bare or planted soil
723 or their difference and corresponding log Kow of the compounds.

724 Figure 5. Ratio between the amounts of residual compounds accumulated in the whole
725 plant and the amounts removed (degraded + absorbed) from planted soil in a period of
726 38 days.

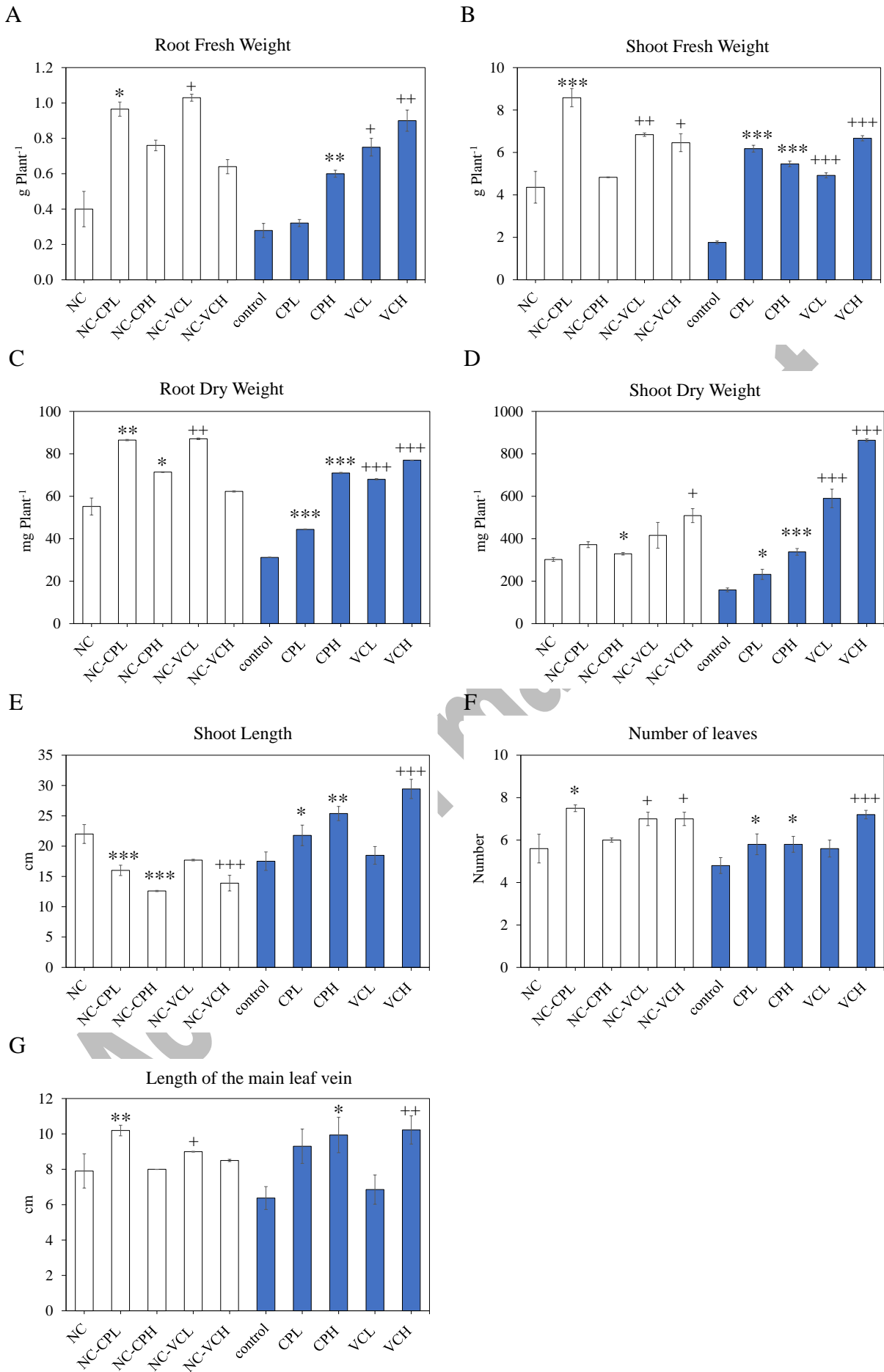


Fig. 1

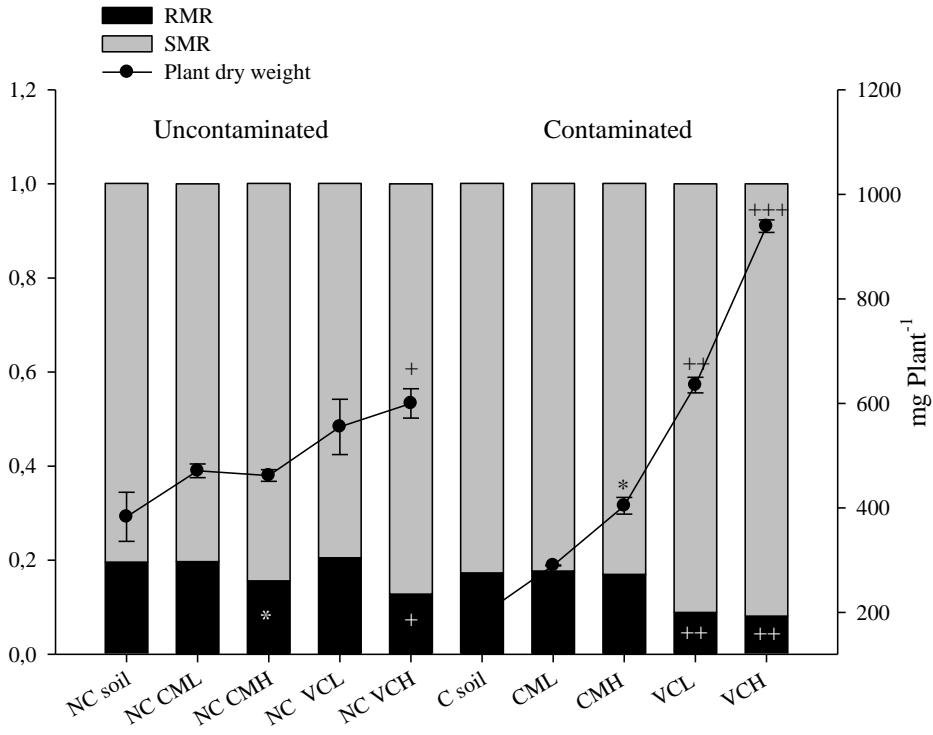


Fig. 2

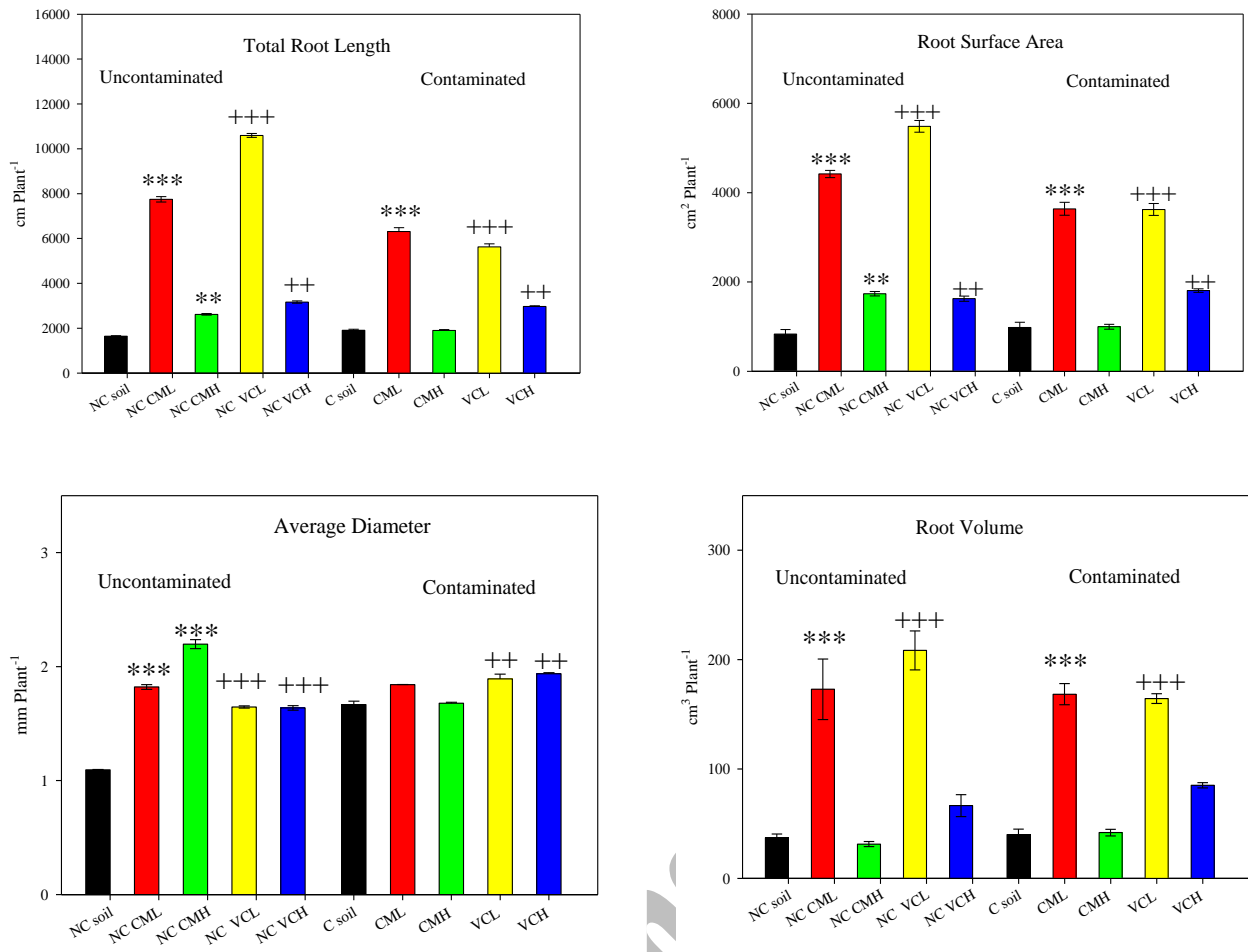


Fig. 3

Accepted

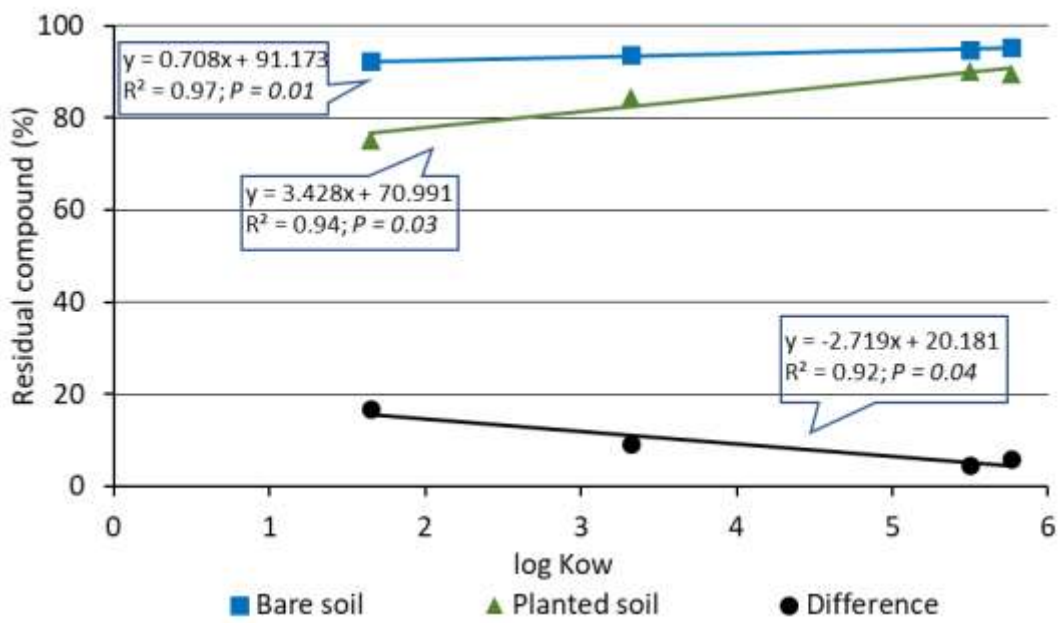


Fig. 4

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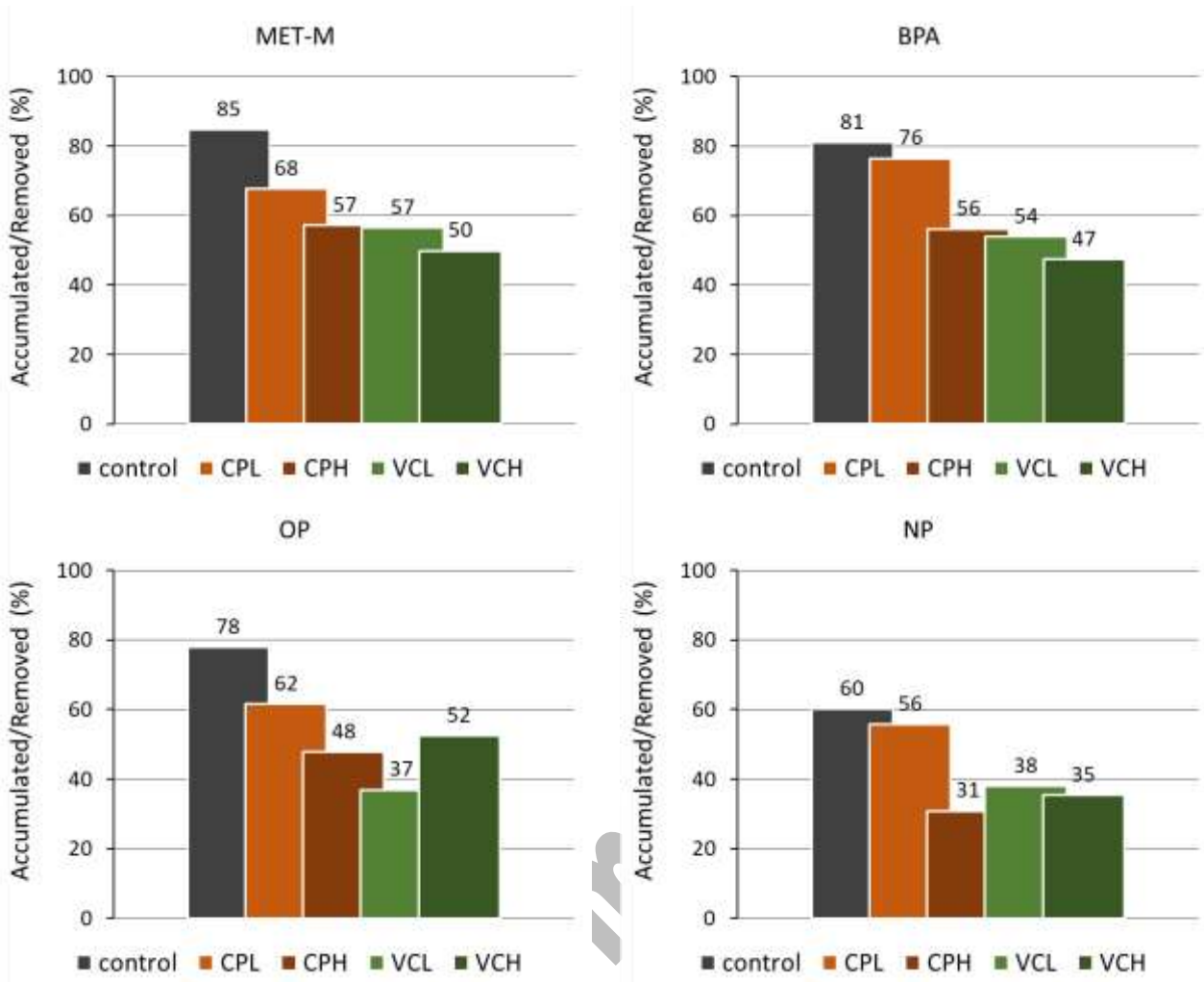
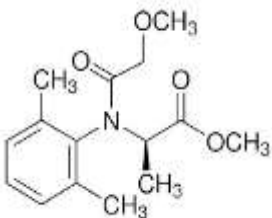
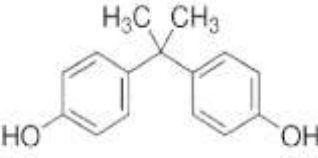
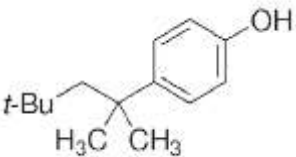
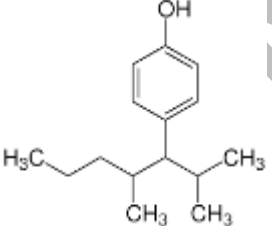


Fig. 5

Table 1. Major properties of tested 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)

Table 2. Major properties of the soil and the organic amendments

Variable	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 (% fw)	4 ± 0.1	16 ± 0.1	19 ± 0.3
Ash (% dw)	-	-	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	-	-

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

Treatment	Bare soil	Planted soil	Average
MET-M; 0.05 <i>P</i> = 1.76 ^a ; 0.01 <i>P</i> =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; 0.05 <i>P</i> = 6.53; 0.01 <i>P</i> =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; 0.05 <i>P</i> = 2.38; 0.01 <i>P</i> =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; 0.05 <i>P</i> = 6.66; 0.01 <i>P</i> =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 $P \leq 0.01$.

^aLSD for the interaction treatment \times soil (bare or planted) at $P \leq 0.05$ and $P \leq 0.01$ ($n = 3$).

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

Compound	control	CP _L	CP _H	VC _L	VC _H
Roots					
MET-M	105.47 \pm 17.38 ^a a	58.28 \pm 11.51 b	16.16 \pm 1.26 c	21.79 \pm 2.95 c	10.04 \pm 0.86 c
BPA	76.01 \pm 7.47 a	29.73 \pm 7.15 b	8.17 \pm 0.01 c	18.25 \pm 0.94 bc	7.40 \pm 0.12 c
OP	51.33 \pm 1.78 a	22.42 \pm 1.64 b	7.38 \pm 0.13 d	14.97 \pm 1.79 c	6.30 \pm 0.86 d
NP	46.69 \pm 1.95 a	21.66 \pm 2.05 b	4.62 \pm 0.02 d	9.87 \pm 1.21 c	6.12 \pm 0.32 c
Shoots					
MET-M	274.82 \pm 28.96 a	97.47 \pm 3.27 b	67.48 \pm 2.51 b	30.78 \pm 0.15 c	24.38 \pm 3.63 c
BPA	177.03 \pm 12.21 a	41.02 \pm 1.19 b	44.64 \pm 0.52 b	19.93 \pm 0.56 c	14.73 \pm 0.83 c
OP	99.56 \pm 0.49 a	20.51 \pm 0.58 b	8.91 \pm 0.40 d	7.48 \pm 0.12 d	12.04 \pm 0.23 c
NP	98.16 \pm 1.37 a	17.72 \pm 0.57 b	4.38 \pm 0.20 d	7.16 \pm 0.04 c	5.64 \pm 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 compounds 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 \pm 0.73 ^a a	3.39 \pm 0.29 b	3.11 \pm 0.15 b	2.37 \pm 0.12 b	2.20 \pm 0.39 b
BPA	4.20 \pm 0.87 a	1.46 \pm 0.14 b	2.04 \pm 0.09 b	1.57 \pm 0.13 b	1.40 \pm 0.29 b
OP	2.36 \pm 0.37 a	0.77 \pm 0.10 bc	0.52 \pm 0.01 c	0.64 \pm 0.06 c	1.14 \pm 0.21 b
NP	1.99 \pm 0.04 a	0.67 \pm 0.07 b	0.28 \pm 0.02 c	0.59 \pm 0.05 b	0.56 \pm 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)

Supplementary Material

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

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Table S1. Significant effects of the soil contamination treatment and organic amendment dosage (compost or vermicompost) on fresh and dry shoot and root weight of cucumber plants presented as *F*-values and level of significance (**P* ≤ 0.05; ***P* < 0.01; *** *P* < 0.001; ns, not significant) estimated by two-way ANOVA (contamination x organic dosage).

	COMPOST				
	SHOOT		ROOT		TOT
	F.W.	D.W.	F.W.	D.W.	D.W.
<i>Organic dosage (D)</i>	132.05***	41.47***	27.52**	169.51***	21.80**
<i>Contamination (C)</i>	44.80***	111.34***	55.52***	289.04***	62.32***
<i>D × C</i>	23.10***	9.01**	16.22**	85.92***	5.55*
<i>R</i> ²	0.967	0.946	0.960	0.993	0.951
<i>r</i>	0.984	0.973	0.980	0.996	0.975
	VERMICOMPOST				
	SHOOT		ROOT		TOT
	F.W.	D.W.	F.W.	D.W.	D.W.
<i>Organic dosage (D)</i>	103.08***	103.12***	52.10***	248.17***	113.54***
<i>Contamination (C)</i>	46.12***	23.03**	n.s.	52.65***	8.41*
<i>D × C</i>	16.01***	35.12**	11.86**	86.03***	33.34**
<i>R</i> ²	0.959	0.961	0.956	0.992	0.981
<i>r</i>	0.980	0.981	0.978	0.996	0.990

Table S2. Significant effects of the soil contamination treatment and organic amendment dosage (compost or vermicompost) on growth parameters in cucumber plants presented as *F*-values and level of significance (**P* ≤ 0.05; ***P* < 0.01; *** *P* < 0.001; ns, not significant) estimated by two-way ANOVA (contamination x organic dosage).

COMPOST				
	ROOT LENGTH	SURFACE AREA	ROOT VOLUME	DIAMETER
<i>Organic dosage (D)</i>	2661.64***	658.95***	102.49***	239.64***
<i>Contamination (C)</i>	89.47***	28.44**	n.s.	n.s.
<i>D × C</i>	54.63***	15.99**	n.s.	216.49***
R ²	0.999	0.996	0.972	0.993
<i>r</i>	0.999	0.998	0.986	0.997
VERMICOMPOST				
	ROOT LENGTH	SURFACE AREA	ROOT VOLUME	DIAMETER
<i>Organic dosage (D)</i>	4038.10***	838.78***	151.57***	188.28***
<i>Contamination (C)</i>	721.33***	46.79***	n.s.	399.03***
<i>D × C</i>	757.65***	81.58***	7.20*	32.84**
R ²	0.999	0.997	0.982	0.993
<i>r</i>	1.000	0.998	0.991	0.996

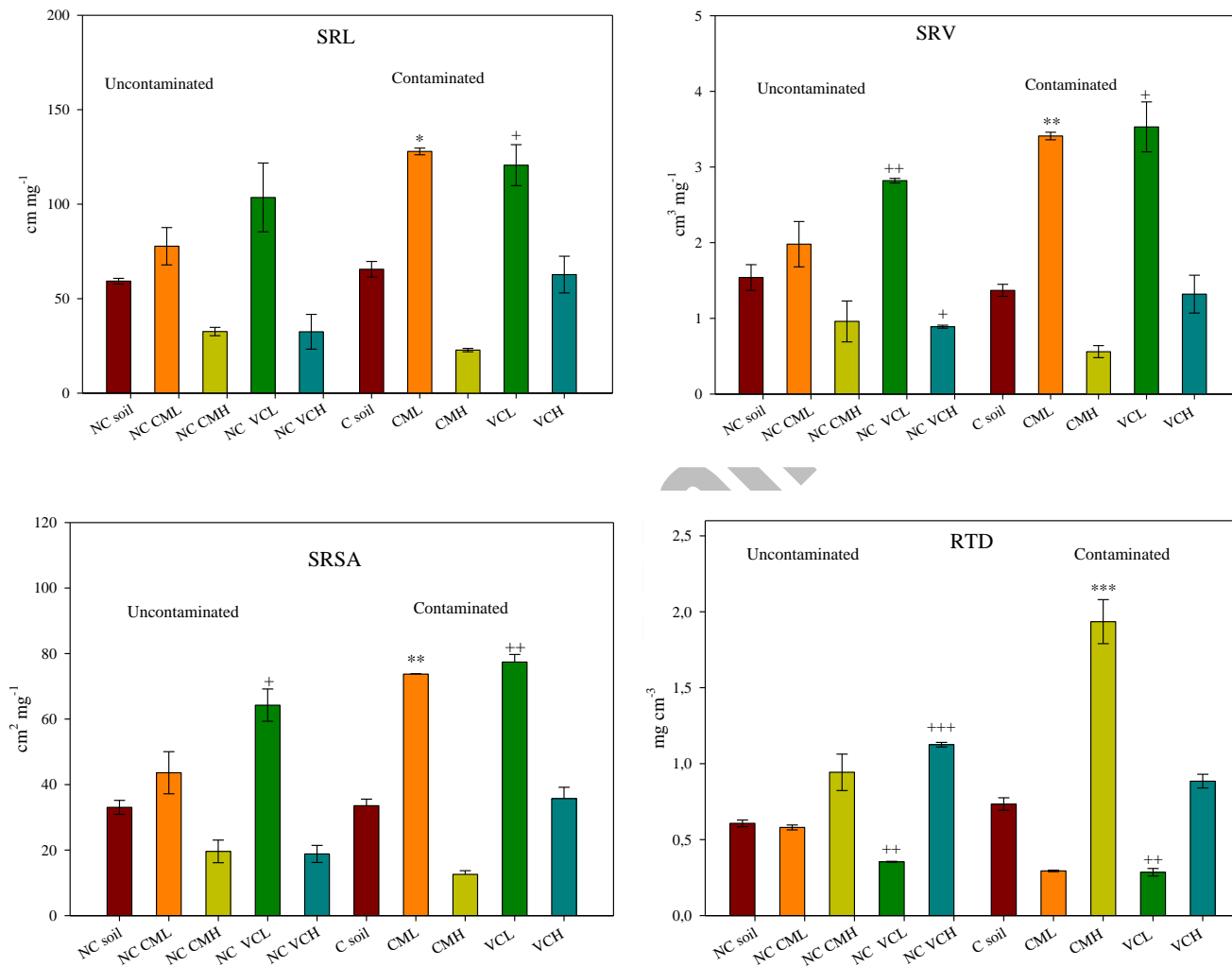


Figure S1. Morphological parameters of cucumber plants grown on uncontaminated (NC) or contaminated (C) soils compared to the respective control plants: non contaminated (NC soil) and contaminated (C soil). Significant differences were calculated between control and compost (*) or vermicompost (+) treatments in uncontaminated or contaminated conditions (one-way ANOVA, * $P \leq 0.05$; ** $P < 0.01$; *** $P < 0.001$).

Table S3. Significant effects of the soil contamination treatment and organic amendment dosage (compost or vermicompost) on morphological ratios in cucumber plants presented as *F*-values and level of significance ($*P \leq 0.05$; $**P < 0.01$; $***P < 0.001$; ns, not significant) estimated by two-way ANOVA (contamination x organic dosage).

COMPOST				
	SRL	SRSA	SRV	RTD
<i>Organic dosage (D)</i>	133.82***	87.16***	56.84***	83.05**
<i>Contamination (C)</i>	17.13**	8.83*	n.s.	17.46**
<i>D × C</i>	22.78**	18.31**	14.57**	32.20**
R^2	0.982	0.973	0.961	0.976
<i>r</i>	0.991	0.987	0.980	0.988
VERMICOMPOST				
	SRL	SRSA	SRV	RTD
<i>Organic dosage (D)</i>	21.23**	118.47***	73.95***	280.09***
<i>Contamination (C)</i>	n.s.	16.57**	n.s.	6.62*
<i>D × C</i>	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	20.04**
R^2	0.889	0.978	0.964	0.990
<i>r</i>	0.943	0.989	0.982	0.995