

1 **This is the peer reviewed version of the following article**

2 **Muscolo A., Romeo F., Marra F., Mallamaci C. “Recycling agricultural, municipal and**
3 **industrial pollutant wastes into fertilizers for a sustainable healthy food production”. Journal**
4 **of Environmental Management Volume 300, 1-8. which has been published in final**
5 **<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jenvman.2021.113771>**

6 **www.elsevier.com/locate/jenvman**)

7

8 **The terms and conditions for the reuse of this version of the manuscript are specified in**
9 **the publishing policy. For all terms of use and more information see the publisher's website**

10

11

12

13

14

15

16

17

18

19

20

21

22

23

24

25 **Abstract**

26

27 This work was focused on recycling different typology of pollutant wastes (olive pomace and orange
28 residues; municipal wastes and sulphur residue of hydrocarbon refining processes) with the triple
29 objectives of limiting wastes in landfill, reducing greenhouse gas emission and producing organic-
30 mineral fertilizers. The environmental risk and benefit of the whole process have been considered.
31 The specific objectives were: 1) innovation in waste management techniques by reducing the
32 accumulation of different typology of wastes with a unique process 2) verifying efficiency of the
33 obtained organic-mineral fertilizers on soil and plant growth 3) improving soil and crop quality
34 connecting waste and food, to economy and environment.

35 Sulphur-based pads increased soil quality and the best soil improvement was observed when the pads
36 contained orange residues. Onion and Garlic showed the best growth when cultivated in presence of
37 sulphur-based pads (+ 20%), the best performance was observed when orange residues were present
38 in the pads (+45%). Onion and Garlic quality in terms of antioxidant compounds and antioxidant
39 capacity increased in presence of sulphur-based pads (+ 30%) mostly when orange residues were
40 present in the pads (+90%). In short, in addition to the environmental advantages, numerous economic
41 benefits coming from the decrease in the production and use of chemical fertilizers, the reduction of
42 costs for landfilling and the gain rising from the sale of the new fertilizers produced, emerged.

43 **Keywords:** crop quality; mineral-organic fertilizer; soil fertility; sulphur bentonite; waste
44 management.

45

46

47

48 **1. Introduction**

49

50 In the last 50 years, the green revolution using genetically selected plant varieties, fertilizers,
51 pesticides, water and other capital investments, allowed a significant increase in agricultural

52 production (more than three times) and population worldwide (FAO, 2017a; FAO and OECD, 2019).
53 The green revolution (with a production growth of 23.7 million food tons per day) was criticized,
54 because caused biodiversity loss, dependence from fossil biofuels and pollution impacting negatively
55 soil, air and water resources (FAO, 2017b), putting at risk population health and ecosystem
56 sustainability.

57 Agriculture is the sector that generates about one fifth of greenhouse gas emissions worldwide but, at
58 the same time, produces a large amount of biomass (European Commission, 2015). The latter could
59 represent an essential environmental and bioeconomic intake (Bracco et al., 2018; European
60 Commission, 2012), because biomass utilization can reduce dependence from fossil fuel and
61 consequently mitigate greenhouse gas emissions (McCormick and Kautto, 2013). The transformation
62 of vegetable wastes into products with added value, can contribute to the evolution of new green
63 markets worldwide.

64 In addition to the agricultural sector, the industrial sector produces also wastes that could be recycled
65 in valuable products valorising waste chain. In the refining process of crude oil, the excess of sulphur,
66 a compound essential for life with many industrial applications, it's unwanted and needs to be
67 removed for its damaging effects not only on the environment, but also on catalytic cracking and
68 refining processes due to the corrosive effects, and the generation of acid gasses during the
69 combustion (Al-Bidry and Azeez, 2020). More than 90% of the elemental sulphur recovered is used
70 to produce sulphuric acid, even if its production generates emissions which are harmful for the
71 environment. Marwa et al. (2017), with a life cycle assessment study, showed that sulphuric acid
72 production system not only impacts the environment with high CO₂ emission (83.26 kg/ ton of
73 sulphuric acid) but also it is energetically unsustainable. In agriculture the value of sulphur is well
74 known for more than a century (Bogdanov, 1899; Hart and Peterson, 1911), however, the incessant
75 utilize of other formulations containing nitrogen (N) and phosphorus (P) but no sulphur (S), the higher
76 S exportation from soil under high yield crops, and the decreased S input by rainwater, led to an

77 increment of S deficiency in soils (Lucheta and Lambais, 2012). In the last years, waste materials
78 raised the attention of sector operators and politicians in view of circular economy because their use
79 in agriculture reduces the waste of valuable nutrients, keeping them into the ecosystem. Waste
80 materials, with their organic and elemental contents, can ameliorate soil properties promoting in turn
81 crop performance (Al-Barakah et al., 2013; Song et al., 2015) and reducing, at the same time, the use
82 of chemical fertilisers. Previous works evidenced the feasibility of using composted municipal wastes
83 as fertilizer in agriculture (Srivastava et al., 2016) evidencing also that the composition and
84 application rate greatly affected soil microbial biomass. Gelsomino et al. (2010) evidenced that the
85 agricultural wastes (orange and olive residues) were mostly used composted for agricultural purposes,
86 with satisfactory results. On the basis of the above considerations and of our previous works (Muscolo
87 et al., 2017; 2019; Panuccio et al., 2016; 2019) focused on the reuse of different kinds of biomasses
88 for land restoration and crop improvement, the novelty of this work is to recycle raw material crude
89 and not composted with low cost, low emission and high incoming, sulphur, municipal waste and
90 polluting agricultural wastes of local origin: orange peel and pulp, commonly called "pastazzo, and
91 olive pomace with a unique process, to produce fertilizers able to recovery soils and improve crop
92 quality and yield. The aim is the development and setting of a new market of mineral-organic
93 fertilizers. The new fertilizers will be experimentally produced by Steel Belt System s.r.l, with a
94 patented technology that already uses Sulphur finely mixed with bentonite clay to make it friable and
95 easily absorbable by plants. The aim of this work was to contribute to address environmental issues
96 such as limiting the excess of sulphur, the wastes in landfill, and the use of chemical fertilizers
97 producing at the same time mineral-organic fertilizers which are not polluting for soil and water. To
98 close the loop in a sustainable and productive way the specific objectives were: 1) innovation in waste
99 management techniques by reducing the accumulation of different typologies of wastes through a
100 unique process, using not composted agricultural wastes 2) verifying efficiency of the obtained
101 mineral-organic fertilizers on soil and plant growth 3) improving soil and crop quality connecting
102 waste and food, to economy and environment. For this purpose, raw materials have been analysed

103 from a chemical, physical and biological point of view, and the composition of the mineral-organic
104 fertilizers was optimized starting from previous works (Muscolo et al., 2019). Sulphur, insoluble in
105 its elemental form, when mixed with bentonite-clay and wastes is slowly released into soil, where
106 bacteria transform it in sulphate, the chemical form soluble in soil and easily absorbed by crops.
107 Additionally, the organic wastes (agricultural and municipal) used in dried form and mixed to sulphur
108 and bentonite add organic components to soil maintaining soil biodiversity equilibrium.

109

110 **2. Material and Methods**

111 *2.1 Fertilizer preparation*

112 The manufacturing process to obtain pads of sulphur with a diameter of 3/4 mm was carried out by
113 Steel Belt System s.r.l. as reported in Muscolo et al. (2017; 2019). Sulphur was linked to bentonite
114 clay (as support and carrier). The amount of bentonite used proportionally to molten S is based on an
115 arbitrary 10%. To prepare the different pads sulphur-bentonite was mixed with orange residue
116 (pastazzo) (Or), or olive pomace (Op) or dried municipal waste (Mw) sieved at (0.2-0.1 mm), or with
117 a mix of them. Elemental S was in percentage the main constituent of the pads.

118 **1. Preparation phase:** 90% elemental S was pelletized with 10% bentonite clay (as support and
119 carrier). These pads represent our control. 85% elemental S was pelletized with 10% bentonite clay
120 and with 5% orange waste, 5% olive pomace or 5% municipal waste.

121 **2. Pelletized phase:** once prepared the mixture of liquid S with the ingredients (bentonite and/or
122 agricultural or municipal wastes), the obtained mixtures have been introduced in a special patented
123 rotary pastillator, which deposits the liquid pads of the above listed ingredients opportunely mixed,
124 on a heat exchanger in continuous steel tape for the solidification of the pads.

125 Pathogens (total coliforms, faecal coliforms, salmonella spp and Escherichia coli) and heavy metals
126 have been also assessed to avoid any toxic and harmful effects on soils and crops. Samples for metals

127 were preserved with nitric acid and then analyzed by atomic absorption spectroscopy (GBC mod.
128 908). Total coliforms, faecal coliforms and escherichia coli were expressed as densities of colonies
129 \log_{10} CFU 100 g^{-1} waste material. The same samples were also analyzed for Salmonella spp.,
130 according to a procedure consisting of a 'pre-enrichment' stage using a buffered peptone water
131 solution and a non-selective culture medium to revitalize the microorganism as reported in Ben Said
132 et al. (2017).

133

134 *2.2 Soil treatments*

135 In this experiment a sandy-loam (11.85% clay, 23.21% silt, and 64.94% sand) soil was used (FAO,
136 1999). The experiment was performed using pots of 30 cm diameter each containing 9 kg of soil with
137 a pH of 8.87, 1.81 % of organic matter. Pots were amended with S-bentonite (SB); S-bentonite +
138 orange waste (SBO_r); S-bentonite + olive pomace (SBO_p), S-bentonite + municipal wastes (SBM_w),
139 S-bentonite + orange waste+ municipal wastes (SBO_rM_w) and S-bentonite + olive pomace +
140 municipal wastes (SBO_pM_w) at the concentration of 1.4 g corresponding to 476 kg S ha^{-1} dose
141 generally used to lower the pH and to replenish S (Severson and Shacklette, 1988; Muscolo et al.,
142 2017). Non-fertilized soil was used as control (CTR). The experiments were performed in triplicates
143 in greenhouse as reported in (Muscolo et al., 2017). During the experiment, the pots were watered
144 regularly to ensure that water content was maintained at 70% of field capacity. At the end of the
145 experiments (90 days after treatments) the differently treated soils (three replicates), were air-dried
146 and sieved (<2mm) prior to the chemical analysis (fully described in the section soil and pad analysis).
147 Soil samples for the biochemical determination (microbial biomass and enzyme activities) were
148 stored in the refrigerator at 4°C for up to 24 h until processing.

149

150 *2.3 Soil and pad analysis*

151 Electric conductivity (EC) was determined in distilled water by using 1:5 residue/water suspension,
152 mechanically shaken at 15 rpm for 1 h to dissolve soluble salts and then detected by Hanna instrument
153 conductivity meter; pH was measured in distilled water (soil/pad:solution ratio 1:2.5) with a glass
154 electrode. Organic carbon was assessed with dichromate oxidation method (Walkley and Black,
155 1934). Total nitrogen (TN) was measured with Kjeldahl method (1883). C/N was determined as a
156 carbon:nitrogen ratio. Microbial biomass carbon (MBC) was determined in field moist samples
157 (equivalent to 20 g D.W.) (Vance et al., 1987). Soil extracts of both fumigated and unfumigated
158 samples were filtered and analysed for soluble organic C (Walkley and Black, 1934). MBC was
159 estimated on the basis of the differences between the organic C extracted from the fumigated soil and
160 that from the unfumigated soil, and an extraction efficiency coefficient of 0.38 was used to convert
161 soluble C into biomass C (Vance et al., 1987).

162 Water soluble phenols were extracted in triplicate as reported by Kaminsky and Muller (1977; 1978).
163 Total water-soluble phenols (monomeric and polyphenols) were determined by using the Folin-
164 Ciocalteu reagent (Box, 1983). Tannic acid was used as a standard and the concentration of water-
165 soluble phenolic compounds was expressed as tannic acid equivalents ($\mu\text{g TAE g}^{-1}$ D.W.).

166 Fluorescein diacetate hydrolase (FDA) was determined according to the method of Adam and Duncan
167 (2001). Dehydrogenase (DHA) activity was determined by the method of von Mersi and Schinner
168 (1991). Cations and anions were detected by ion chromatography (DIONEX ICS-1100). For anions,
169 0.5 g of dried material was extracted using 50 ml of anion solution ($\text{Na}_2\text{CO}_3/\text{NaHCO}_3$ 3.5 mM)
170 stirring for 20 minutes. The extracts have been filtered and the chromatographic analysis was carried
171 out. For cations, 1 g of dry material was ashed at 550°C for 5-6 hours in a porcelain capsule. The
172 ash was then mineralized for 30 minutes at 100°C using 1M HCl solution. The solution was
173 subsequently filtered and analysed by ion chromatograph (eluent meta-sulfonic acid 20 mM).

174 *2.4 Plant analysis*

175 In the present investigation the sulphur-based fertilizers have been tested on *Allium cepa* L. (the
176 common onion) and *Allium sativum* L. (the common garlic), sulphur loving crops, that contain
177 important substances with protective and beneficial effects on human health. The presence of sulphur-
178 containing phytochemicals in garlic and onion provides substantial immunomodulatory, anti-
179 inflammatory, anticancer, antitumor, antidiabetic, anti-atherosclerotic, and cardioprotective features.
180 The experiment was terminated at bulb maturity, as characterized by neck softening and reduced
181 solution uptake. Bulb diameters were measured using callipers and leaves were counted. Leaf and
182 root length were measured with a meter. Plants were harvested and separated into shoots, bulbs, and
183 roots. Fresh weights were measured by weighing, and the individual plant parts were then dried at 70
184 °C in an oven. Dry weights were determined and plant materials were ground to pass a 20-mesh
185 screen. Antioxidant compounds and antioxidant activities have been detected in the onion bulbs
186 differently fertilized in comparison to control at the end of the experiments. Antioxidant and
187 antioxidants activity are markers of crop quality because related to the beneficial human health effects
188 (Younes et al., 2021)

189

190 *2.5 Determination of total phenolic compounds and total flavonoids in plants*

191 Total phenol content, was detected by Folin–Ciocalteu assay (Muscolo et al., 2020). The absorbance
192 of the samples was recorded at 760 nm. A calibration curve was constructed with gallic acid and
193 results were expressed as g gallic acid equivalent kg^{-1} DW. Total flavonoids in the extracts were
194 detected according to the spectrophotometric method (Muscolo et al., 2020). The absorbance was
195 measured at 430 nm. Flavonoid content was calculated from a calibration curve of rutin and expressed
196 as g rutin equivalent kg^{-1} DW.

197

198 *2.6 Determination of antioxidant activities in plants*

199 The antioxidant activity against DPPH radical (2,2-diphenyl-1-picryl-hydrazyl-hydrate) was
200 determined according to Muscolo et al. (2020). The DPPH concentration in the cuvette was chosen
201 to give absorbance values of ~1.0. Changes in absorbance of the violet solution were recorded at 517
202 nm after 30min of incubation at 37 °C. The inhibition I (%) of radical-scavenging activity was
203 calculated as

$$204 \quad I (\%) = [(A_0 - AS)/A_0] \times 100,$$

205 where A₀ is the absorbance of the control and AS is the absorbance of the sample after 30 min of
206 incubation. Results were expressed as Trolox equivalent (TE).

207 The ABTS assay was performed according to Muscolo et al. (2020). The absorbance of the samples
208 was recorded at 734 nm using a UV–visible spectrophotometer. The inhibition I (%) of radical-
209 scavenging activity was calculated as $I (\%) = [(A_0 - AS)/A_0] \times 100$, where A₀ is the absorbance of
210 the control and AS is the absorbance of the sample after 4min of incubation. Results were expressed
211 as $\mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$ TE using a Trolox ($1\text{--}50 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$) calibration curve.

212 The oxygen radical absorbance capacity (ORAC) assay was performed according to Muscolo et al.
213 (2020). ORAC values were expressed as $\mu\text{mol TE mg}^{-1}$ FW using a Trolox ($10\text{--}100 \mu\text{mol L}^{-1}$)
214 calibration curve.

215 *2.7 Statistical analysis*

216 Analysis of variance was carried out for all the data sets. One-way ANOVA with Tukey's Honestly.
217 Significant Difference test were carried out to analyse the effects of fertilizers on each of the various
218 parameters measured. ANOVA and T-test were carried out using SPSS software (IBM Corp.2012).
219 Effects were significant at $p \leq 0.05$.

220

221 **3. Results and discussion**

222 3.1 Chemical properties of biomass

223 The biomass used to prepare the different sulphur-based pads, differed in numerous chemical
224 parameters, SBMw was alkaline in respect to olive pomace and orange residue and had the lowest
225 EC and moisture content than Or and Op. Organic carbon and total nitrogen were the highest in Op
226 (57%), and significantly the lowest in SBMw (6.3%), (Table 1). Nevertheless, the low amount of
227 carbon, nitrogen, ammonium and potassium, SBMw contained high amount of calcium, magnesium
228 and sulphate (Table 1). All the biomass analysed contained important macro and micro elements
229 useful for mineral plant nutrition and were eligible to be used for soil fertilization purpose. Municipal
230 wastes have been largely used in developing countries to produce compost an attractive procedure to
231 dispose this waste reducing the huge problem of landfill conferment. Generally, the Mw was used
232 composted or dried (De Bertoldi et al., 1996; Zinati et al., 2004; Kabirinejad and Hoodaji, 2012) to
233 reduce pathogens even if other two drawbacks, such as excess of soluble salt accumulation and
234 potential toxicity of certain elements to plants, were identified (Maftoun et al., 2004). It is well-known
235 that micro-pollutants, present in these wastes, can cause adverse effects on organisms and can modify
236 soil properties (Muir and Howard, 2006; Carbonell et al., 2009). Composting Mw for agricultural
237 purposes is a way to break down pathogen organisms but not its content of heavy metal that could
238 pollute soils (Weber et al., 2007) and lower plant productivity and quality with detrimental effects on
239 human health (Ashfaque et al., 2016). Our results evidenced that while Or and Op didn't contain
240 heavy metals, the Mw that we used in this research, contained cadmium, lead, zinc, nickel, mercury,
241 copper and chromium but their amounts fell in the range allowed by European regulation and were
242 far below the allowed limit (Fig. 1). On the basis of these analyses, from which resulted that the
243 biomasses were suitable for the environment, Steel Belt System used them to produce fertilizers in
244 the form of round shape pads with small diameter to favour the fast release of nutrients and sulphur
245 in soil. No pathogens (total Coliforms, faecal Coliforms, E. coli and Salmonella spp), have been

246 detected in the pads. The process used for pads production destroyed all the living forms that
247 potentially can be found in municipal wastes.

248 Chemical soil analysis, 3 months after the addition of the different fertilizers, evidenced significant
249 and substantial differences among the treatments, and between the treatments and the control. Water
250 content increased in all the amended soils, except for SB, suggesting that the addition of fertilizers
251 with organic components increased water holding soil capacity (Vengadaramana & Jashothan, 2012;
252 Mirzabaiki et al., 2020). No significant differences were detected in pH values measured in H₂O and
253 KCl between control and treatments, and among the treatments (Table 2). EC increased in all the
254 amended soils and mostly in presence of the mixed pads, SBOrMw and SBOpMw (Table 2), that
255 originally were richer in chemical elements. EC was in any case in all the soil samples, lower than 4
256 dS/m, the threshold for which a soil is considered saline.

257 Water soluble phenols increased only in soils fertilized with SBOp, suggesting that during the three
258 months of treatment, the phenols contained in the Op raw material, have been released into the soils.
259 This data evidences how the composition of raw material is able to affect some soil properties.
260 Organic carbon enhanced in all treatments compared to control (CTR), except for SB. The greatest
261 increase was observed in soils treated with SBOr and SBOrMw. The lowest value was observed in
262 SB treatment. Data evidenced that the addition of pads to soils containing orange residues increased
263 the amount of carbon in soils. C/N ratio varied with the treatments and it was the highest in SB,
264 suggesting that, with this treatment, the process of organic matter decomposition tended to remain
265 fairly stable over the 3 months. FDA increased only in SBOr and SBOp. The lowest value was
266 observed in CTR, that had also the lowest amount of microbial biomass and the lowest dehydrogenase
267 activity (Table 2). Fluorescein diacetate hydrolase reflects the potential microbial activity of soil
268 freshly amended with a wide range of organic material, and generally increases when the microbial
269 activity increase. This increase is inversely related to the degree of stabilisation of the added organic
270 matter, defined by the C/N ratio (Sánchez-Monedero et al., 2008). Our results agree with the above

271 findings, showing a strict positive relationship between FDA and MBC, and an inverse correlation
272 between FDA and C/N. MBC and DHA had the same trend of FDA were the lowest in CTR and SB,
273 and increased with pads containing organic wastes and mostly with pads containing agricultural
274 wastes. The ions in soil changed with the type of fertilizer added, a significant increase in calcium,
275 magnesium and sulphate was observed in soil amended with fertilizers containing orange residues
276 and Mw, the wastes which, already initially, contained these nutrients in major amount (Fig. 2). These
277 data agree with data of Hussain et al. (2017), showing that organic wastes had a great positive impact
278 on soil properties including the addition of nutrients.

279

280 *3.2 Plant growth and antioxidant properties.*

281 Regarding onion plants, the only increase in leaf length, respect to control, was observed when plants
282 were grown with pads containing orange residue (Fig. 3). Root length significantly increased mostly
283 in presence of SBO_r, and at minor extent with SB, and SBO_rMw (Fig. 3). Bulb diameter increased in
284 all the treatments except for CTR and SBO_pMw (Fig. 3). Leaves were less numerous in SB, CTR and
285 SBO_pMw compared to the other treatments (Fig. 3). Pads containing orange residue showed the best
286 physiologic effect on plants. Pads with orange had the greatest amount of ammonium, potassium and
287 a good amount of magnesium and calcium. Previous studies of Backes et al. (2018) and Nawaz et al.
288 (2017) demonstrated the important effect of nutrients on onion growth and development, putting in
289 evidence as bulb diameter increased in presence of potassium and ammonium irrespectively of plant
290 growth. Our results agree with findings of the previous authors and with results of Fawzy et al. (2007)
291 which showed as calcium soil application significantly increased vegetative growth and bulb yield.

292 In this study, total phenols increased in all treatments compared to control and SBO_r and SBO_rMw
293 were the conditions that better stimulated their synthesis. Surprisingly, SBO_pMw increased total
294 phenol content more than SB, SBO_p, SBMw, suggesting a synergistic effect of Op and Mw when
295 they were mixed in the pads (Table 3). Total phenols are important antioxidants with beneficial effects

296 on human health. It is well known that total phenol synthesis in plant is highly in competition with
297 protein synthesis, which are indispensable for growth. In environment rich of nutrients, primary
298 metabolism, strictly linked to growth processes, prevails on secondary metabolism. Stefanelli et al.
299 (2010), highlighted that nitrogen fertilization caused a decrease in the quantity of total phenols. Our
300 data evidenced that SBO_r and SBO_rM_w, the pads with a minor content of nitrogen mostly increased
301 total phenol amounts in onion bulb. Similar behaviour was observed for flavonoids. DPPH that
302 measures the scavenger capacity of a plant, increased in presence of SBO_r and SBO_rM_w more than
303 in the other treatments (Table 3) and this increase was correlated to the amount of total phenols.
304 Benkeblia (2005), in his study on garlic and different varieties of onions, demonstrated high
305 significant correlations between total phenolic content and reducing power, scavenging of hydrogen
306 peroxide and chain-breaking activity of extracts. ORAC that measures inhibition of peroxy radical
307 induced oxidations by antioxidants and thus reflects classical radical chain-breaking antioxidant
308 activity was higher in SBO_r and SBO_rM_w than the other treatments followed by SBO_pM_w,
309 evidencing one more time the correlation between total phenols and antioxidant activities and
310 between the content of total phenols and the chemical composition of the pads. ABTS, increased in
311 treated onions in respect to control, showing positive relationship with total phenols and flavonoids.
312 These results indicated promising perspectives for the exploitation of onion, and this study could be
313 useful to consumers, planning rich antioxidant diets and to nutritionists in estimating the daily intakes
314 of phenolic antioxidants and their impact on health.

315 Garlic grew better with treatments than control, the best leaf elongation and leaf number were detected
316 with pads containing orange residues (Fig. 3). Root length decreased only in presence of SB and
317 SBO_rM_w and SBO_pM_w, while bulb diameter increased in all treatments compared to control and
318 much more when in the pads were present orange residues (Fig. 3). As in onion, total phenols and
319 flavonoids increased in treated garlics and mostly in presence of orange residues (Table 4).
320 Accordingly, increased also the antioxidants capacities expressed as DPPH, ORAC and ABTS (Table

321 4) confirming a strict correlation between the amount of total phenols and flavonoids and antioxidant
322 properties of the plants.

323 *3.3 Environmental impact: risk and benefit*

324 By calculating the environmental and economic impact of reusing recalcitrant agro-industrial wastes
325 and putting all the results on the scales, the production of sulphur-bentonite fertilizers can be
326 considered a beneficial process leading to significant reductions in greenhouse gas emissions in the
327 atmosphere for the elimination of a large amount of hazardous materials from the environment. From
328 a review of the literature it emerged that one ton of wet orange waste left on the ground emits 0.130
329 kg of CH₄, 30.900 kg of CO₂ and 0.069 kg of N₂O (Manfredi et al., 2009) as well as one ton of wet
330 olive pomace produces, if left not treated on the earth's surface, 1162.3 kg of CO₂, 122 kg of CH₄ and
331 0.12 kg of N₂O. With appropriate recycling of these agricultural wastes by using low cost and efficient
332 processes it is possible to slow down soil and air pollution (Hischier et al., 2020). Considering that
333 pads, in addition to agricultural wastes, contain also recalcitrant sulphur and municipal wastes, the
334 GHG emissions should to be definitively reduced by their absence in dump. Study of Lee et al. (2017)
335 showed an emission of 2603 to 2708 t CO₂e/dry t, from municipal waste abandoned in landfill. CH₄
336 emitted by landfill was at about 54 kg/ dry t, with a greenhouse warming potential 25 times higher
337 than CO₂. Nitrous oxide is produced predominantly by microbial processes as a by-product of
338 nitrification and as a product of incomplete denitrification, one tonne of nitrous oxide would generate
339 265 times the amount of warming as one tonne of CO₂. Rinne et al. (2005) and Harborth et al. (2013),
340 showed a higher emission of nitrous oxide (approx. 0.03–0.4 ml m⁻² min⁻¹) from waste landfills than
341 agricultural and forest soils (Rinne et al., 2005). LCA modelling performed by Damgaard, et al.
342 (2011) and Manfredi et al. (2011) showed that landfills are the main contributors for global warming,
343 photochemical stratospheric ozone formation. In addition to landfilling wastes, sulphur as residue of
344 hydrocarbon refining processes generates hydrogen sulphide and sulphur oxide causing
345 environmental pollution, thus the production of the pads containing a high sulphur percentage can

346 help to maintain a clean environment. As reported in Pergola et al. (2020) the production of 1 ton of
347 compost on-farm of raw materials caused an energy requirement ranging from 1500 to 2000 MJ, and
348 a mean cost of 130 euro, evidencing that the production cost was in any case cheaper than commercial
349 compost. Our process, which used non-composted organic material, completely reduces these costs,
350 making it more sustainable from both an environmental and energy point of view.

351 Furthermore, as reported by Haitao et al. (2015) the advantage due to the replacement of chemical
352 fertilizers with organic-mineral ones which leads to -20% GHG with a simultaneous increase (+ 50%)
353 of the soil organic matter must also be considered. In addition to the environmental advantages, the
354 economic benefits can come from the sale of the new fertilizers produced. A ton of pads can be sold
355 on average for 30 euros in EU countries, to which must be added the approximately euros saved by
356 the reduction of CO₂ and CH₄ emissions, the decrease in the production and use of chemical fertilizers
357 and the reduction of costs for landfilling, which allows the manufacturing process to be included as
358 a clean process.

359 **4. Conclusions**

360 This study is an innovative approach of green remediation which combines the recovery of municipal,
361 industrial and agricultural wastes reducing their negative impact on the environment while
362 transforming them in a resource toward achieving circular economy. Results demonstrated an
363 increase in soil and crop quality when Sulphur-based pads were used. The best increase was detected
364 when pads contained orange residues were used. The agricultural utilization of these wastes could
365 meet the target objective of European Union countries to decrease the quantity of wastes going to
366 landfill sites by 20% by 2010 and by 50% by 2050. In respect to other previous studies, it points out
367 the importance that the chemical characteristics of the wastes have on the properties and potential
368 added value of the final products. Data showed many differences between the properties and
369 effectively of the different fertilizers which in some case can overlap, and in other can act in different

370 way. For this reason, their actions and properties need to be discriminated for increasing the efficacy
371 of their use.

372 **Declaration of Competing Interest**

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

375 **Acknowledgment**

376 This research was financial supported by

377 The authors thank the Angel's Beer s.r.l. for purchasing their Italian Craft Beers.

378

379 **References**

380 Adam, G., Duncan, H. (2001). Development of a sensitive and rapid method for the measurement of
381 total microbial activity using fluorescein diacetate (FDA) in a range of soils. *Soil Biol. Biochem.* 33,
382 943–951.

383 Al-Barakah, F. N., Radwan, S. M. A., & Abdel-Aziz, R. A. (2013). Using biotechnology in recycling
384 agricultural waste for sustainable agriculture and environmental protection. *Int. J. Curr. Microbiol.*
385 *App. Sci*, 2(12), 446-459.

386 Al-Bidry, M. A., & Azeez, R. A. (2020). Removal sulphur components from heavy crude oil by natural
387 clay. *Ain Shams Engineering Journal*, 11(4), 1265-1273.

388 Ashfaque, F., Inam, A., Sahay, S., & Iqbal, S. (2016). Influence of heavy metal toxicity on plant growth,
389 metabolism and its alleviation by phytoremediation-a promising technology. *Journal of Agriculture*
390 *and Ecology Research International*, 1-19.

391 Backes, C., Villas Boas, R. L., Godoy, L. J. G. D., Vargas, P. F., & SANTOS, A. J. (2018).
392 Determination of growth and nutrient accumulation in Bella Vista onion. *Revista Caatinga*, 31(1),
393 246-254.

394 Benkeblia, N. (2005). Free radical scavenging capacity and antioxidant properties of some selected
395 onions (*Allium cepa* L.) and garlic (*Allium sativum* L.) extracts. *Brazilian Archives of Biology and*
396 *Technology*, 48 (5): 1-8.

397 Ben Said, I., Mezghani, I., Doneyez, F., Chaieb M., Muscolo, A. (2017). Reclaimed municipal wastewater
398 for forage production. *Water Science & Technology*, 1-12.

399 Bogdanov, S. (1899). On the sulphur in plants. *Exp. Sta. Rec*, 11, 723-724.

400 Box, J. D. (1983). Investigation of the Folin-Ciocalteu phenol reagent for the determination of
401 polyphenolic substances in natural waters. *Water research*, 17(5), 511-525.

402 Bracco, S., Calicioglu, O., Gomez San Juan, M., & Flammini, A. (2018). Assessing the contribution of
403 bioeconomy to the total economy: a review of national frameworks. *Sustainability*, 10(6), 1698.

404 Carbonell, G., Pro, J., Gómez, N., Babín, M. M., Fernández, C., Alonso, E., & Tarazona, J. V. (2009).
405 Sewage sludge applied to agricultural soil: ecotoxicological effects on representative soil
406 organisms. *Ecotoxicology and Environmental Safety*, 72(4), 1309-1319.

407 De Bertoldi, M., Sequi, P., Lemmes, B., & Papi, V. (1996). The Science of Composting. *Chapman &*
408 *Hall, London*.

409 Damgaard, A., Manfredi, S., Merrild, H., Stensøe, S., & Christensen, T. H. (2011). LCA and economic
410 evaluation of landfill leachate and gas technologies. *Waste Management*, 31, (7), 1532-1541.

411 European Commission. (2012). Innovating for Sustainable Growth: A Bioeconomy for Europe.
412 https://ec.europa.eu/research/bioeconomy/pdf/official-strategy_en.pdf.

413 European Commission. (2015). EIP-AGRI Workshop “Opportunities for Agriculture and Forestry in the
414 Circular Economy”. Workshop Report 28-29 october 2015. Brussels, Belgium.
415 [https://ec.europa.eu/eip/agriculture/sites/agri-eip/files/eip-
agri_ws_circular_economy_final_report_2015_en.pdf](https://ec.europa.eu/eip/agriculture/sites/agri-eip/files/eip-
416 agri_ws_circular_economy_final_report_2015_en.pdf), Accessed 14th Dec 2019

417 Fawzy, Z. F., El-Nemr, M. A., & Saleh, S. A. (2007). Influence of levels and methods of potassium
418 fertilizer application on growth and yield of eggplant. *Journal of Applied Sciences Research*, 3(1),
419 42-49.

420 Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO). (1999). RICE Post-harvest Operations.
421 <http://www.fao.org/3/a-ax442e.pdf>.

422 Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO). (2017a). Strategic Work of FAO for
423 Sustainable Food and Agriculture. <http://www.fao.org/3/ai6488e.pdf>

424 Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO). (2017b). The State of Food and
425 Agriculture 2017. Leveraging Food Systems for Inclusive Rural Transformation.
426 <http://www.fao.org/3/a-i7658e.pdf>.

427 Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO) & Organization for Economic Co-
428 operation and Development (OECD). (2019). *OECD-FAO Agricultural Outlook 2019-2028*.
429 <http://www.fao.org/3/ca5308en/ca5308en.pdf>.

430 Gelsomino, A., Abenavoli, M. R., Princi, G., Attinà, E., Cacco, G., Sorgonà, A. (2010). Compost from
431 Fresh Orange Waste: A Suitable Substrate for Nursery and Field Crops? *Compost Science &
432 Utilization*, 18, 201-210.

433 Haitao, L., Jing, L. Xiao L., Yanhai, Z., Sufei, F., Gaoming, J. (2015). Mitigating greenhouse gas
434 emissions through replacement of chemical fertilizer with organic manure in a temperate farmland.
435 *Science Bulletin*, 60(6), 598–606.

436 Harborth, P., Fuß, R., Münnich, K., Flessa, H., & Fricke, K. (2013). Spatial variability of nitrous oxide
437 and methane emissions from an MBT landfill in operation: Strong N₂O hotspots at the working face.
438 *Waste Management*, 33, 2099–107. doi: 10.1016/j.wasman.2013.01.028

439 Hart, E. B., & Peterson, W. H. (1911). The sulphur requirements of farm crops in relation to the soil and
440 air supply. *Journal of the American Chemical Society*, 33(4), 549-564.

441 Hischer, R., Reale, F., Castellani, V., & Sala, S. (2020). Environmental impacts of household
442 appliances in Europe and scenarios for their impact reduction, *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 267,
443 121952.

444 Hussain, M., Farooq, M., Nawaz, A., Al-Sadi, A. M., Solaiman, Z. M., Alghamdi, S. S., ... & Siddique,
445 K. H. (2017). Biochar for crop production: potential benefits and risks. *Journal of Soils and*
446 *Sediments*, 17(3), 685-716.

447 IBM Corp. Released (2012). IBM SPSS statistics for windows, Version 21.0. IBM Corp, Armonk, NY.

448 Kabirinejad, S., & Hoodaji, M. (2012). The effects of biosolid application on soil chemical properties
449 and Zea mays nutrition. *International Journal of Recycling of Organic Waste in Agriculture*, 1(1), 1-
450 5.

451 Kaminsky, R., & Muller, W. H. (1977). The extraction of soil phytotoxins using a neutral EDTA
452 solution. *Soil Science*, 124(4), 205-210.

453 Kaminsky, R., & Müller, W. H. (1978). A recommendation against the use of alkaline soil extractions
454 in the study of allelopathy. *Plant and soil*, 49(3), 641-645.

455 Kjeldahl, J. (1883). Neue methode zurestimmung des stickstoffs in organischen körpern. *Journal of*
456 *Analytical Chemistry*, 22, 366–382.

457 Lee, C. T., Hashim, H., Ho, C. S., Fan, Y. V., M., & Klemeš, J. J. (2017). Sustaining the low-carbon
458 emission development in Asia and beyond: Sustainable energy, water, transportation and low-carbon

459 emission technology. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 146, 1-13,
460 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.2016.11.144>.

461 Lucheta, A. R., & Lambais, M. R. (2012). Sulphur in agriculture. *Revista Brasileira de Ciência do Solo*,
462 36(5), 1369-1379.

463 Maftoun, M., Rassooli, F., Ali Nejad, Z., & Karimian, N. (2004). Cadmium sorption behavior in some
464 highly calcareous soils of Iran. *Communications in soil science and plant analysis*, 35(9-10), 1271-
465 1282.

466 Manfredi, S., Scharff, H., Tonini, D., & Christensen, T.H. (2009). Landfilling of waste: Accounting of
467 greenhouse gases and global warming contributions. *Waste Management Resource*, 27, 825–36.
468 doi:10.1177/0734242X09348529

469 Manfredi, S., Tonini, D., & Christensen, T. H. (2011). Environmental assessment of different
470 management options for individual waste fractions by means of life-cycle assessment
471 modelling. *Resources, Conservation and Recycling*, 55(11), 995-1004.

472 Marwa, M., Soumaya, A., Hajjaji, N., & Jeday, M. R. (2017). An Environmental Life Cycle Assessment
473 Of An Industrial System: Case Of Industrial Sulphuric Acid. *International Journal of Energy,*
474 *Environment and Economics*, 25(4), 255-268.

475 McCormick, K., & Kautto, N. (2013). The bioeconomy in Europe: An overview. *Sustainability*, 5(6),
476 2589-2608.

477 Mirzabaiki, M., Ebrahimipak, N. A., Pazira, E., & Samavat, S. (2020). Investigation of different organic
478 fertilizers application on the soil water holding capacity. *Desert*, 25(2), 165-174.

479 Muir, D. C., & Howard, P. H. (2006). Are there other persistent organic pollutants? A challenge for
480 environmental chemists. *Environmental science & technology*, 40(23), 7157-7166.

481 Muscolo, A., Mallamaci, C., Settineri, G., & Calamarà, G. (2017). Increasing soil and crop productivity
482 by using agricultural wastes pelletized with elemental sulphur and bentonite. *Agronomy*
483 *Journal*, 109(5), 1900-1910.

484 Muscolo, A., Papalia, T., Settineri, G., Romeo, F., & Mallamaci, C. (2019). Three different methods for
485 turning olive pomace in resource: Benefits of the end products for agricultural purpose. *Science of*
486 *the Total Environment*, 662, 1-7.

487 Muscolo, A., Papalia, T., Settineri, G., Mallamaci, C., & Panuccio, M. R. (2020). Sulphur bentonite-
488 organic-based fertilizers as tool for improving bio-compounds with antioxidant activities in red
489 onion. *Journal of the Science of Food and Agriculture*, 100(2), 785-793.

490 Nawaz, M. A., Shireen, F., Huang, Y., Zhilong, B., Ahmed, W., & Saleem, B. A. (2017). Perspectives
491 of vegetable grafting in Pakistan, current status, challenges and opportunities. *Int. J. Agric. Biol*, 19,
492 1165-1174.

493 Panuccio, M. R., Attinà, E., Basile, C., Mallamaci, C., & Muscolo, A. (2016). Use of recalcitrant
494 agriculture wastes to produce biogas and feasible biofertilizer. *Waste and biomass valorization*, 7(2),
495 267-280.

496 Panuccio, M. R., Papalia, T., Attinà, E., Giuffrè, A., & Muscolo, A. (2019). Use of digestate as an
497 alternative to mineral fertilizer: effects on growth and crop quality. *Archives of Agronomy and Soil*
498 *Science*, 65(5), 700-711.

499 Pergola, M., Persiani, A., Pastore, V., Palese, A. M., D'Adamo, C., De Falco, E., Celano, G. (2020).
500 Sustainability Assessment of the Green Compost Production Chain from Agricultural Waste: A Case
501 Study in Southern Italy. *Agronomy*, 10(2), 230. <https://doi.org/10.3390/agronomy10020230>

502 Rinne, J., Pihlatie, M., Lohila, A., Thum, T., Aurela, M., Tuovinen, J.P., Laurila, T., & Vesala, T. (2005).
503 Nitrous oxide emissions from a municipal landfill. *Environmental. Science & Technology*, 39 p. 7790

504 Sánchez-Monedero, M. A., Mondini, C., Cayuela, M. L., Roig, A., Contin, M., & De Nobili, M. (2008).
505 Fluorescein diacetate hydrolysis, respiration and microbial biomass in freshly amended soils. *Biology*
506 *and Fertility of Soils*, 44(6), 885-890.

507 Severson, R. C., & Shacklette, H. T. (1988). *Essential elements and soil amendments for plants: Sources*
508 *and use for agriculture* (Vol. 1017). US Government Printing Office.

509 Song, X., Liu, M., Wu, D., Griffiths, B. S., Jiao, J., Li, H., & Hu, F. (2015). Interaction matters: Synergy
510 between vermicompost and PGPR agents improves soil quality, crop quality and crop yield in the
511 field. *Applied Soil Ecology*, 89, 25-34.

512 Stefanelli, D., Goodwin, I., & Jones, R. (2010). Minimal nitrogen and water use in horticulture: effects
513 on quality and content of selected nutrients. *Food Research International*, 43, 1833–1843.

514 Srivastava, V., de Araujo, A.S.F., Vaish, B. et al. (2016). Biological response of using municipal solid
515 waste compost in agriculture as fertilizer supplement. *Rev Environ Sci Biotechnol* 15, 677–696
516 <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11157-016-9407-9>

517 Vance, E. D., Brookes, P. C., & Jenkinson, D. S. (1987). An extraction method for measuring soil
518 microbial biomass C. *Soil biology and Biochemistry*, 19(6), 703-707.

519 Vengadaramana, A., & Jashothan, P. T. J. (2012). Effect of organic fertilizers on the water holding
520 capacity of soil in different terrains of Jaffna peninsula in Sri Lanka. *J. Nat. Prod. Plant Resour*, 2(4),
521 500-503.

522 von Mersi, W., Schinner, F. (1991). An improved and accurate method for determining the
523 dehydrogenase activity of soils with idonitrotetrazolium chloride. *Biol. Fertil. Soils* 11, 216–220.

524 Younes, N. A., Rahman, M. M., Wardany, A. A., Dawood, M. F. A., Mostofa, M. G., Keya, S. S., Abdel,
525 Latef A.A.H., Tran, L. S. P. (2021). Antioxidants and Bioactive Compounds in Licorice Root Extract

526 Potentially Contribute to Improving Growth, Bulb Quality and Yield of Onion (*Allium cepa*).
527 *Molecules*, 26(9), 633. <https://doi.org/10.3390/molecules26092633>

528 Walkley, A., & Black, I. A. (1934). An examination of the Degtjareff method for determining soil
529 organic matter, and a proposed modification of the chromic acid titration method. *Soil science*, 37(1),
530 29-38.

531 Weber, J., Karczewska, A., Drozd, J., Licznar, M., Licznar, S., Jamroz, E., & Kocowicz, A. (2007).
532 Agricultural and ecological aspects of a sandy soil as affected by the application of municipal solid
533 waste composts. *Soil Biology and Biochemistry*, 39(6), 1294-1302.

534 Zinati, G. M., Li, Y., Bryan, H. H., Mylavarapu, R. S., & Codallo, M. (2004). Distribution and
535 fractionation of phosphorus, cadmium, nickel, and lead in calcareous soils amended with
536 composts. *Journal of Environmental Science and Health, Part B*, 39(1), 209-223.

537

538 **Table 1** Chemical properties of agricultural (olive pomace and orange residue) and municipal wastes.
 539 Organic carbon (OC), total nitrogen (TN), carbon nitrogen ratio (C/N), ions and water soluble phenols
 540 (WSP).

541

Chemical properties	Olive pomace	Orange residue	Municipal waste
pH	5.0 ^{b*} ±0.1	5.1 ^b ±0.2	7.7 ^a ±0.2
EC (mS/cm)	12.0 ^a ±1.1	10.1 ^b ±0.9	5.0 ^c ±0.2
Moisture (%)	86.7 ^a ±3.2	83.6 ^a ±2.9	55.5 ^b ±2.5
OC (%)	57.6 ^a ±1.9	45.6 ^b ±2.5	6.3 ^c ±1.5
TN (%)	2.0 ^a ±0.6	1.2 ^b ±0.3	0.7 ^c ±0.5
C/N	28.2 ^b ±1.9	36.8 ^a ±1.7	9 ^c ±1.1
Na⁺ (mg g⁻¹ dw)	1.8 ^a ±0.5	0.97 ^b ±0.2	0.86 ^c ±0.4
NH₄⁺ (mg g⁻¹ dw)	0.24 ^b ±0.03	0.33 ^a ±0.04	0.17 ^c ±0.04
K⁺ (mg g⁻¹ dw)	39.2 ^b ±2.3	49.2 ^a ±2.6	6.7 ^c ±0.9
Mg²⁺ (mg g⁻¹ dw)	2.2 ^c ±0.4	4.2 ^b ±0.7	12.1 ^a ±0.6
Ca²⁺ (mg g⁻¹ dw)	2.5 ^c ±0.7	9.3 ^b ±1.0	60 ^a ±1.6
Cl⁻ (mg g⁻¹ dw)	3.8 ^a ±0.5	2.4 ^b ±0.6	1.65 ^c ±0.3
PO₄³⁻ g g⁻¹ dw)	2.1 ^a ±0.4	1.1 ^c ±0.3	1.2 ^b ±0.4
SO₄²⁻ (mg g⁻¹ dw)	nd	nd	30 ±1.6
WSP (mg TAEg⁻¹ dw)	1.8 ^a ±0.4	0.53 ^c ±0.2	1.2 ^b ±0.8

542 Data are the mean of three independent experiments ± standard errors. *Different letters, in the same
 543 row, indicate significant differences at $p \leq 0.05$.

544

545

546

547

548

549 **Table 2** Soil properties 3 months after the treatment with the different fertilizers. CTR= Control, soil without fertilizer;
 550 soil+sulphur+bentonite (SB); Sulphur+bentonite+orange residue (SBO_r); Sulphur+bentonite+olive pomace (SBO_p);
 551 Sulphur+bentonite+municipal waste (SBM_w); Sulphur+bentonite+orange residue+municipal waste (SBO_rM_w); Sulphur+bentonite+olive
 552 pomace+municipal waste (SBO_pM_w). Water content (WC), electric conductivity (EC, $\mu\text{S}/\text{cm}$), organic carbon (OC), total nitrogen (TN),
 553 carbon nitrogen ratio (C/N), water soluble phenols (WSP, $\mu\text{g TAE g}^{-1} \text{ ds}$), fluorescein hydrolase (FDA, $\mu\text{g fluorescein g}^{-1} \text{ ds}$), Dehydrogenase
 554 (DHA, $\mu\text{g INTF g}^{-1} \text{ ds h}^{-1}$), Microbial Biomass C (MBC, $\text{mg C g}^{-1} \text{ s}$).

	CTR	SB	SBO_r	SBO_p	SBM_w	SBO_rM_w	SBO_pM_w
WC (%)	10.0 ^{*c} ±0.2	10.2 ^c ±0.2	13.93 ^a ±0.4	12.5 ^b ±0.1	14.6 ^a ±0.7	14.5 ^a ±0.7	12.88 ^b ±0.4
pH (H₂O)	8.87 ^a ±0.1	8.71 ^a ±0.2	8.72 ^a ±0.1	8.84 ^a ±0.1	8.81 ^a ±0.1	8.63 ^a ±0.2	8.66 ^a ±0.2
pH (KCl)	8.31 ^a ±0.2	8.32 ^a ±0.1	8.25 ^a ±0.2	8.42 ^a ±0.1	8.21 ^a ±0.1	8.05 ^a ±0.3	8.11 ^a ±0.3
EC	352 ^c ±4.1	273.8 ^e ±2.0	382.5 ^b ±2.8	332.2 ^d ±2.2	386.3 ^b ±3.1	466.4 ^a ±7.3	451.1 ^a ±8.1
WSP	2.51 ^b ±0.1	2.52 ^b ±0.1	2.55 ^b ±0.3	3.81 ^a ±0.2	2.57 ^b ±0.4	2.52 ^b ±0.1	2.51 ^b ±0.2
OC (%)	1.047 ^c ±0.02	0.997 ^d ±0.01	1.320 ^a ±0.2	1.197 ^b ±0.05	0.984 ^d ±0.02	1.297 ^a ±0.1	1.140 ^b ±0.04
TN (%)	0.058 ^b ±0.01	0.035 ^c ±0.01	0.084 ^a ±0.01	0.077 ^b ±0.01	0.082 ^a ±0.01	0.081 ^a ±0.01	0.079 ^b ±0.01
C/N	18 ^b ±0.5	28 ^a ±0.9	16 ^c ±0.2	16 ^c ±0.1	12 ^e ±0.1	16 ^c ±0.3	14 ^d ±0.4
FDA	4.25 ^e ±0.2	6.43 ^c ±0.2	8.61 ^a ±0.4	8.20 ^a ±0.3	5.54 ^d ±0.1	7.12 ^b ±0.2	6.52 ^c ±0.2
DHA	49 ^e ±0.8	54 ^d ±1.2	69 ^a ±0.6	65 ^b ±1.2	60 ^c ±1.1	67 ^b ±0.9	56 ^d ±1.0
MBC	1.81 ^f ±0.1	3.55 ^e ±0.1	5.67 ^a ±0.2	5.33 ^b ±0.1	4.44 ^c ±0.2	5.44 ^{ab} ±0.3	3.88 ^d ±0.1

555 Data are the mean of three independent experiments ± standard errors. *Different letters, in the same row, indicate significant differences
 556 at $p \leq 0.05$.

557

Table 3 Antioxidant activities (DPPH, μM Trolox Eq/g FW; ABTS, μM Trolox Eq/FW; and ORAC, μM Trolox Eq/100g FW) polyphenols (mg Tr/g FW) and flavonoids (mg rutin/g FW) in red onion bulbs grown for 3 months in soils differently treated: control CTR, soil without fertilizer; soil+sulphur+bentonite (SB); Sulphur+bentonite+orange residue (SBO_r); Sulphur+bentonite+olive pomace (SBO_p); Sulphur+bentonite+ municipal waste (SBM_w); Sulphur+bentonite+orange residue+ municipal waste (SBO_rM_w); Sulphur+bentonite+olive pomace+ municipal waste (SBO_pM_w).

Onion	CTR	SB	SBO _r	SBO _p	SBM _w	SBO _r M _w	SBO _p M _w
DPPH	2.81* ^d ±0.04	3.13 ^c ±0.05	4.04 ^a ±0.18	3.05 ^c ±0.06	3.04 ^c ±0.05	3.94 ^a ±0.11	3.31 ^b ±0.13
ABTS	7.40 ^d ±0.1	10.0 ^{bc} ±0.2	11.0 ^a ±0.2	10.2 ^b ±0.1	9.53 ^c ±0.3	10.9 ^a ±0.1	10.1 ^b ±0.1
ORAC	1160.6 ^d ±21	1128.8 ^d ±14	2303.3 ^a ±26	1618.2 ^c ±11	996.9 ^c ±4.1	2293.8 ^a ±9.8	1782.4 ^b ±4.8
Polyphenols	4.71 ^f ±0.1	7.82 ^c ±0.1	9.81 ^a ±0.4	6.78 ^d ±0.2	5.98 ^e ±0.2	9.37 ^a ±0.2	8.43 ^b ±0.2
Flavonoids	2.20 ^e ±0.04	3.70 ^d ±0.06	5.15 ^b ±0.02	3.62 ^d ±0.04	3.60 ^d ±0.04	5.56 ^a ±0.06	4.16 ^c ±0.05

558

559 Data are the mean of three independent experiments ± standard errors. *Different letters, in the same row, indicate significant differences at $p \leq$
560 0.05.

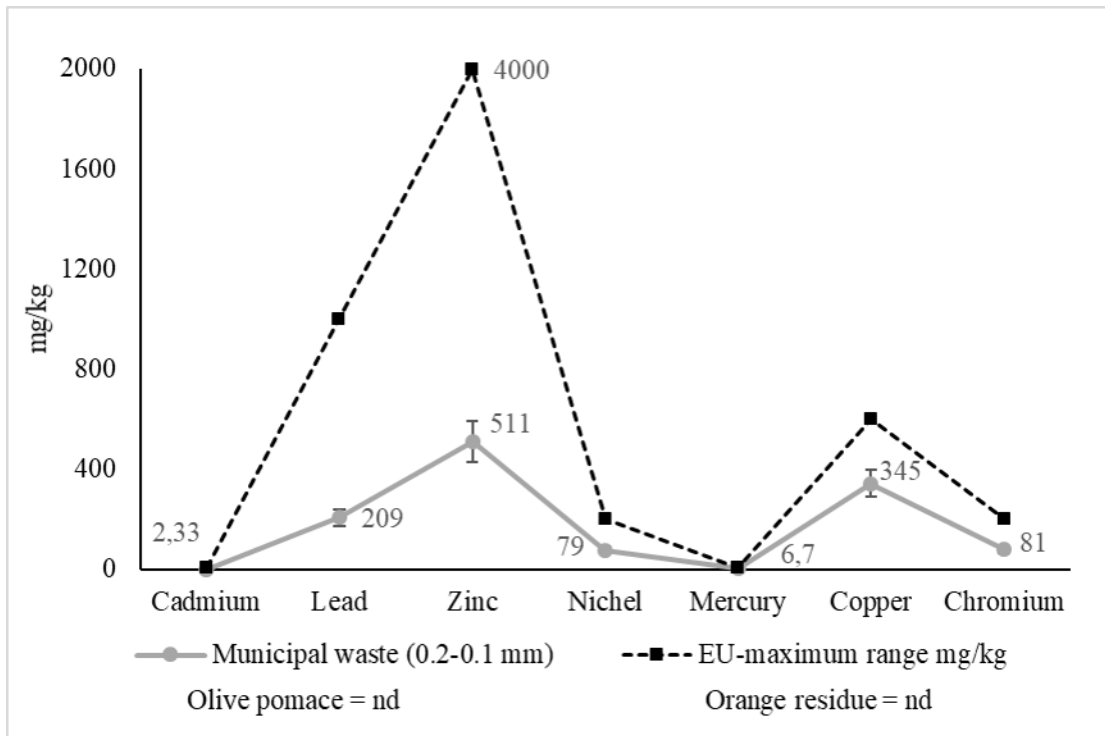
561

562 **Table 4** Antioxidant activities (DPPH, $\mu\text{M Trolox Eq/g FW}$; ABTS, $\mu\text{M Trolox Eq/FW}$; and ORAC, $\mu\text{M Trolox Eq/100g FW}$) polyphenols
 563 (mg Tr/g FW) and flavonoids (mg rutin/g FW) in garlic bulbs grown for 3 months in soils differently treated: control CTR, soil without fertilizer;
 564 soil+sulphur+bentonite (SB); Sulphur+bentonite+orange residue (SBO_r); Sulphur+bentonite+olive pomace (SBO_p); Sulphur+bentonite+
 565 municipal waste (SBM_w); Sulphur+bentonite+orange residue+ municipal waste (SBO_rM_w); Sulphur+bentonite+olive pomace+ municipal waste
 566 (SBO_pM_w).

Garlic	CTR	SB	SBO _r	SBO _p	SBM _w	SBO _r M _w	SBO _p M _w
DPPH	2.31 ^e ±0.01	3.44 ^c ±0.03	4.32 ^a ±0.05	3.25 ^d ±0.02	3.44 ^c ±0.02	3.77 ^b ±0.05	3.33 ^{cd} ±0.07
ABTS	9.4 ^e ±0.4	12.0 ^c ±0.3	13.1 ^b ±0.1	11.2 ^d ±0.2	11.5 ^{cd} ±0.2	13.7 ^a ±0.3	11.1 ^d ±0.1
ORAC	4301.6 ^e ±5	5007.8 ^b ±19	5468.3 ^a ±21	5012.2 ^b ±25	4890.9 ^c ±17	5211.8 ^{ab} ±18	4582.1 ^d ±13
Polyphenols	6.91 ^d ±0.5	8.82 ^b ±0.1	9.94 ^a ±0.3	7.96 ^c ±0.2	7.98 ^c ±0.3	9.75 ^a ±0.4	8.11 ^c ±0.4
Flavonoids	4.20 ^c ±0.3	5.60 ^b ±0.3	6.41 ^a ±0.2	5.95 ^b ±0.2	6.70 ^a ±0.3	5.98 ^b ±0.3	5.44 ^b ±0.3

567

568 Data are the mean of three independent experiments ± standard errors. *Different letters, in the same row, indicate significant differences at $p \leq$
 569 0.05.

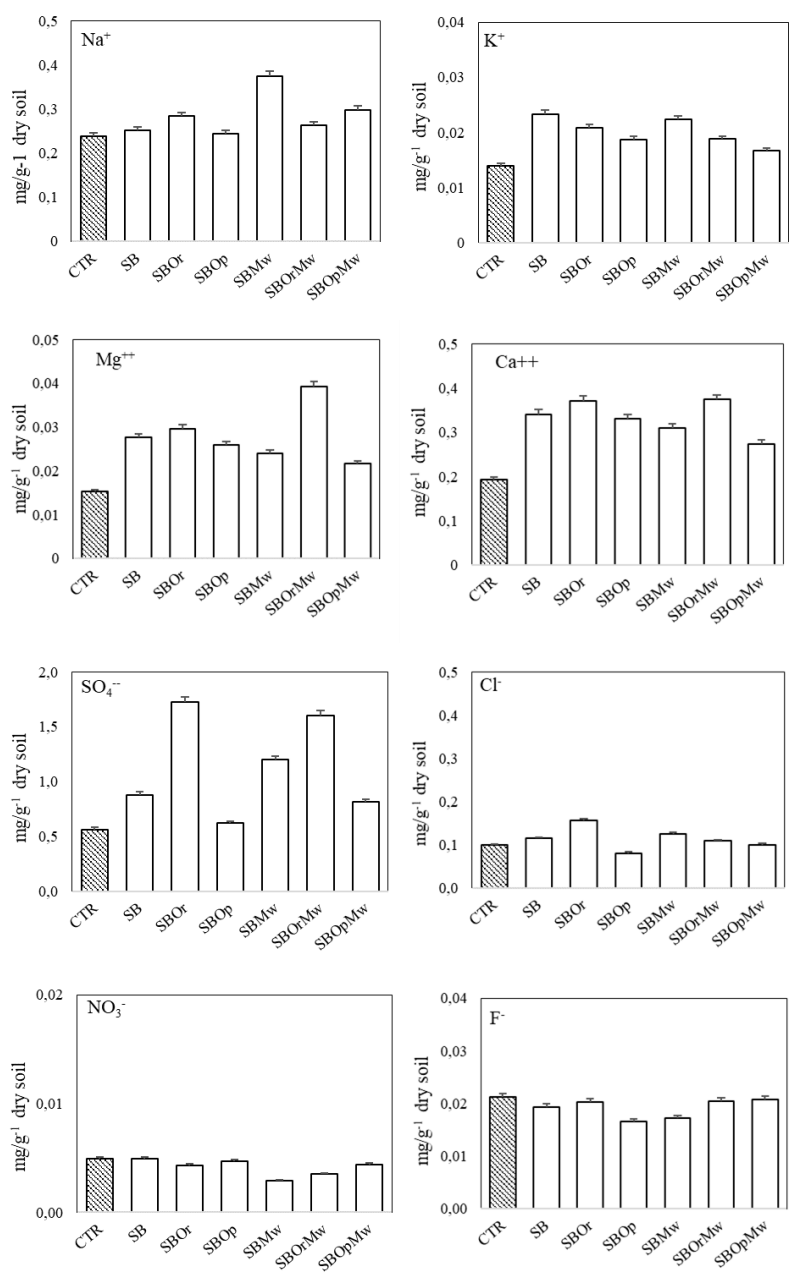


570

571 **Figure 1** Content of cadmium, lead, zinc, nickel, mercury, copper and chromium (mg/kg) in Mw
 572 (0.2-0.1 mm), compared to the European maximum allowed limit. Or and Op didn't contain heavy
 573 metals.

574

575

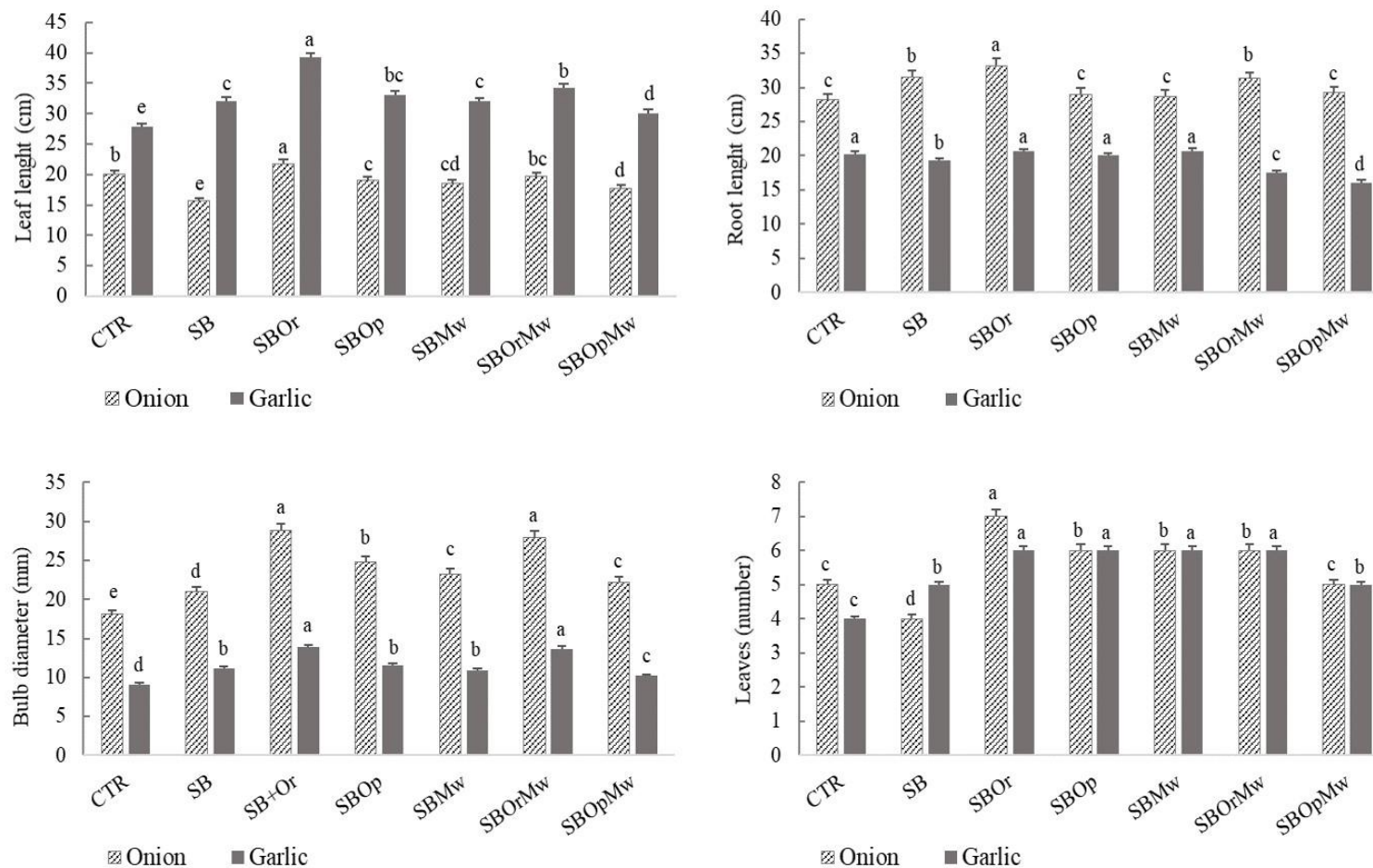


576

577

578 **Figure 2** Cation and anion content in soil 3 months after the amendment with: CTR= Control, soil
 579 without fertilizer; soil+sulphur+bentonite (SB); Sulphur+bentonite+orange residue (SBOOr);
 580 Sulphur+bentonite+olive pomace (SBOp); Sulphur+bentonite+municipal waste (SBMw);
 581 Sulphur+bentonite+orange residue+composted municipal waste (SBOOrMw);
 582 Sulphur+bentonite+olive pomace+ dried municipal waste (SBOpMw). Data are the means of three
 583 independent experiments and bars represent the standard error of the parameters analysed.

584



585

586 **Figure 3** Growth parameters of onion and garlic grown for 3 months on soils differently treated. CTR= Control, soil without fertilizer;
 587 soil+sulphur+bentonite (SB); Sulphur+bentonite+orange residue (SBOr); Sulphur+bentonite+olive pomace (SBOp); Sulphur+bentonite+
 588 municipal waste (SBMw); Sulphur+bentonite+orange residue+ municipal waste (SBOrMw); Sulphur+bentonite+olive pomace+ municipal waste
 589 (SBOpMw). Different letters, in the same group of bars, indicate significant differences at $p \leq 0.05$.

