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Vegetation reflectance spectroscopy for biomonitoring of heavy metal pollution in urban soils

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1 **Abstract**

If to bio-indicators bring new opportunities to characterize heavy metaination, without being constrained by laborious soil sampling and lat sample processing. Here we used *Tilia tomentosa* trees, sampled three European c 2 Heavy metals in urban soils may impose a threat to public health and may 3 negatively affect urban tree viability. Vegetation spectroscopy techniques 4 applied to bio-indicators bring new opportunities to characterize heavy metal 5 contamination, without being constrained by laborious soil sampling and lab-6 based sample processing. Here we used *Tilia tomentosa* trees, sampled 7 across three European cities, as bio-indicators i) to investigate the impacts of 8 elevated concentrations of cadmium (Cd) and lead (Pb) on leaf mass per area 9 (LMA), total chlorophyll content (Chl), chlorophyll *a* to *b* ratio (Chla:Chlb) and 10 the maximal PSII photochemical efficiency (Fv/Fm); and ii) to evaluate the 11 feasibility of detecting Cd and Pb contamination using leaf reflectance spectra. 12 For the latter, we used a partial-least-squares discriminant analysis (PLS-DA) 13 to train spectral-based models for the classification of Cd and/or Pb 14 contamination. We show that elevated soil Pb concentrations induced a 15 significant decrease in the LMA and Chl*a*:Chl*b*, with no decrease in Chl. We 16 did not observe pronounced reductions of Fv/Fm due to Cd and Pb 17 contamination. Elevated Cd and Pb concentrations induced contrasting 18 spectral changes in the red-edge $(690 \sim 740 \text{ nm})$ region, which might be 19 associated with the proportional changes in leaf pigments. PLS-DA models 20 allowed for the classifications of Cd and Pb contamination, with a 21 classification accuracy of 86% (Kappa=0.48) and 83% (Kappa=0.66), 22 respectively. PLS-DA models also allowed for the detection of a collective 23 elevation of soil Cd and Pb, with an accuracy of 66% (Kappa=0.49). This

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- 24 study demonstrates the potential of using reflectance spectroscopy for
- 25 biomonitoring of heavy metal contamination in urban soils.
- 26 **Keywords**: soil heavy metal contamination; leaf functional trait; vegetation
- 27 reflectance spectroscopy; red-edge position; bio-indicator

28 **Capsule**

- Fraction theory finder communication, had related
and spectroscopy; red-edge position; bio-indicator
where the property of the matter of pollutions in the same solis.
We metal pollution and the classification of pollutants 29 Applying leaf reflectance spectroscopy to urban trees allows for biomonitoring
- 30 of heavy metal pollution and the classification of pollutants in urban soils.

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3

31 **Introduction**

metals such as arsenic (As), cadmium (Cd), chromium (Cr), copper
nercury (Hg), lead (Pb), zinc (Zn), antimony (Sb), cobalt (Co) and
(Ni), which accumulate on the soil surface and transfer to deeper soil
where they can infi 32 Soil contamination is a widely spread problem across Europe 33 (European Commission, 2006). Among the most frequent soil pollutants are 34 heavy metals such as arsenic (As), cadmium (Cd), chromium (Cr), copper 35 (Cu), mercury (Hg), lead (Pb), zinc (Zn), antimony (Sb), cobalt (Co) and 36 nickel (Ni), which accumulate on the soil surface and transfer to deeper soil 37 layers where they can infiltrate into the groundwater (Vince et al., 2014). 38 Plants growing on heavy metal polluted soils passively take up heavy metals, 39 jeopardizing their growth and negatively affecting other organisms feeding 40 on the plants (Panagos et al., 2013; Tóth et al., 2016). Furthermore, 41 elevated concentrations of these heavy metals in agricultural or urban soils 42 endanger food safety and public health (Poggio et al., 2009; Tóth et al., 43 2016).

44 Urban soils typically contain elevated concentrations of Cd, Cu, Zn 45 and Pb, originating from anthropogenic activities such as traffic and industrial 46 emissions (Gallagher et al., 2008; Li et al., 2001; Poggio et al., 2009; 47 Pourkhabbaz et al., 2010; Vince et al., 2014). Cd and Pb are the most 48 common heavy metals resulting from road traffic, which is attributed to the 49 historical use of Pb as a gasoline additive (Kovarik, 2005) and Cd 50 accumulation which is mainly due to abrasion of tires (Andersson et al., 2010; 51 Vince et al., 2014). Cd and Pb are toxic for plants, animals and humans 52 (Pandit et al., 2010; Poggio et al., 2009). Cd accumulates in human body 53 and can cause nephropathy, pulmonary lesions and lung cancer after long 54 period of exposure (Poggio et al., 2009). Pb increases blood pressure and

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55 damages liver, kidney and fertility, and most severely it reduces brain 56 functioning and induces hyperactivity and hearing loss in children (Poggio et 57 al., 2009). Therefore, it is vital to detect elevated concentrations of Cd and 58 Pb in urban soils.

Then soils.

Measuring heavy metals is typically based on the collection of soil or

sust samples, which is labor intensive and costly, especially when

In European countries, the estimated total annual cost related to

1n 59 Measuring heavy metals is typically based on the collection of soil or 60 road dust samples, which is labor intensive and costly, especially when 61 monitoring heavy metal contamination at larger spatial scales (Wei and Yang, 62 2010). In European countries, the estimated total annual cost related to 63 monitoring and remediating soil contaminants is 17.3 billion euros (European 64 Commission, 2006), and around 81% of the expenditures is spent on 65 remediation measures (Liedekerke et al., 2014). Consequently, only up to 15% 66 is available to be spent on site investigations (Liedekerke et al., 2014), 67 implying that there is a need for more cost-effective investigation methods to 68 evaluate spatial and temporal heterogeneity of soil pollution. Soil near-69 infrared (NIR) spectroscopy has been applied for the detection of heavy 70 metals at relatively low cost. However, this method requires intensive soil 71 sampling (Pandit et al., 2010; Shi et al., 2014). Therefore, a spatially explicit 72 characterization of heavy metal contamination at large scales is constrained 73 by the capacity of sampling and sample processing, especially in urban areas 74 characterized by sealed soil surfaces and highly heterogeneous land-use 75 types.

76 Bio-indicators are living organisms that can be used to assess the 77 quality of the environment (Holt and Miller, 2010; Parmar et al., 2016). 78 Urban vegetation can be used as bio-indicators for monitoring air and soil

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can inhibit plant growth (Giulia et al., 2013; Horler et al., 1980), and
se chlorophyll content and biomass productivity (Gallagher et al., 200
et al., 2003). Cd and Pb often limit plant growth by altering leaf
al structur 79 pollution (Ho, 1990; Khavanin Zadeh et al., 2013; Sawidis et al., 2011). 80 Plants concentrate metal elements in their above ground parts, which are 81 indicative of elevated soil heavy metal concentrations. Furthermore, heavy 82 metals can inhibit plant growth (Giulia et al., 2013; Horler et al., 1980), and 83 decrease chlorophyll content and biomass productivity (Gallagher et al., 2008; 84 Manios et al., 2003). Cd and Pb often limit plant growth by altering leaf 85 internal structures (Giulia et al., 2013; Pourkhabbaz et al., 2010). For 86 instance, Cd can reduce cell wall extensibility and relative water content 87 (Barceló and Poschenrieder, 1990). Pb can reduce not only the leaf 88 expansion but also the total chlorophyll content and efficiency of PSll electron 89 transport (Kastori et al., 1998). Overall, heavy metal toxicity causes multiple 90 direct and indirect effects on various physiological functions and on the 91 morphology of plants (Barceló and Poschenrieder, 1990), reflected in 92 changes of leaf functional traits.

93 Metal induced morphological and physiological changes can further 94 alter vegetation absorbance and reflectance characteristics (Horler et al., 95 1980). Typically, heavy metal contamination induces most notable changes 96 in the visible and NIR spectral regions, and thus reflectance spectroscopy 97 holds great promise for evaluating the impact of heavy metal contamination 98 on vegetation (Clevers et al., 2004; Kooistra et al., 2004, 2003; Rosso et al., 99 2005). By applying reflectance spectroscopy to monitoring candidate bio-100 indicators located at multiple sites in urban areas, researchers have been 101 able to detect polluted sites (Khavanin Zadeh et al., 2013). Previous studies 102 have investigated the effect of individual metals on vegetation spectral

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is et al., 2003). Some studies have focused on spectral response in

sepectral bands such as the red-edge region (690~740 nm), which

en used to estimate plant chlorophyll variations under stress due to

metals (Clevers et 103 104 105 106 107 108 109 110 111 112 113 114 115 116 117 118 119 120 121 122 123 124 responses, e.g., canopy reflectance in response to manipulated pot-soil Cd changes (Rosso et al., 2005). However, different metals may induce similar or contrasting spectral responses (Amer et al., 2017; Horler et al., 1980; Manios et al., 2003). Some studies have focused on spectral response in specific spectral bands such as the red-edge region (690~740 nm), which has been used to estimate plant chlorophyll variations under stress due to heavy metals (Clevers et al., 2004; Rosso et al., 2005). The red-edge position (REP) is defined as the position generating the maximum slope (inflection point) of the reflectance spectra (or maximum first derivative reflectance) in the red-edge region (Clevers et al., 2004; Horler et al., 1983), and has been found to be negatively related to soil Pb concentration (Clevers et al., 2004; Kooistra et al., 2004). Overall, associating soil heavy metal pollution with a range of plant functional and reflectance characteristics provides a cost-effective method for assessing heavy metal pollution. However, there is still a lack of vegetation reflectance spectroscopy studies that bio-monitor Cd and Pb contamination across a variety of urban environments, especially for monitoring contamination due to multiple metals. Here we tested *Tilia tomentosa* as a bio-indicator for elevated soil Cd and Pb concentrations. Selecting 187 study trees cross three European cities (Leuven, Porto and Strasbourg), our objectives were: i) to assess the impacts of elevated concentrations of Cd and Pb on leaf mass per area (LMA), total chlorophyll content (Chl), chlorophyll *a* to *b* ratio (Chla:Chlb) and the maximal PSII photochemical efficiency (Fv/Fm); and ii) to investigate the 125

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- 126 feasibility of using leaf reflectance spectroscopy and partial-least-squares
- 127 discriminant analysis for biomonitoring soil Cd and Pb contamination.

128 **Materials and Methods**

129 *Sampling of leaf and soil and heavy metal measurements*

Irials and Methods
Ing of leaf and soil and heavy metal measurements
nucted soil and leaf sampling in summer 2017 and randomly selected
s and 187 T. tomentosa trees across three medium sized cities
nn (Belgium): n = 64; 130 We conducted soil and leaf sampling in summer 2017 and randomly selected 131 19 sites and 187 *T. tomentosa* trees across three medium sized cities 132 (Leuven (Belgium): $n = 64$; Porto (Portugal), $n = 67$; Strasbourg (France): n $133 = 56$). We randomly selected trees for sampling, and the trunk diameter 134 ranged 5-130 cm. For each tree, we sampled the top soils (0–10 cm) at three 135 random locations surrounding the trunk, and the three locations are mixed 136 for metal measurements. We sampled 15 leaves at three random positions in 137 each tree and stored the leaf samples in a cool box with ice. We performed 138 soil sampling once, while leaf sampling was performed multiple times 139 throughout the growing season for a subset of trees in Leuven and 140 Strasbourg.

141 Heavy metal concentrations in the soil were measured by digesting 50 142 mg of dried and sieved soil with 7.5 ml concentrated hydrochloric acid and 143 2.5 ml concentrated nitric acid. The digested solution was diluted to 10 ml 144 and measured with ICP-OES. For quality control of soil metal analysis, an 145 internal soil standard was run parallel with the soil samples, which deviated 146 less than 5% of the known composition. In this study, we focused on Cd and 147 Pb, as these were the heavy metals that reached the toxicity thresholds 148 (Table 1).

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nment, Finland (MEF, 2007). We grouped the samples into two classe
contaminated and contaminated, subjected to individual metals (Table
I samples and corresponding leaf spectral observations (section 2.3)
rouped into four 149 *Identification of contamination based on soil heavy metal thresholds* 150 Soil heavy metal contamination levels were identified based on published 151 threshold standards (Tóth et al., 2016) released by the Ministry of the 152 Environment, Finland (MEF, 2007). We grouped the samples into two classes 153 - non-contaminated and contaminated, subjected to individual metals (Table 154 1). Soil samples and corresponding leaf spectral observations (section 2.3) 155 were grouped into four classes according to Pb contamination following the 156 MEF standard (MEF, 2007). The four classes included class 0 being non-157 contaminated (Pb < 60 mg/kg), class 1 of low contamination (60 \leq Pb < 200 158 mg/kg), class 2 of medium contamination (200 \leq Pb $<$ 750 mg/kg) and class 159 3 of high contamination (Pb \geq 750 mg/kg).

160 We also defined four contamination classes subjected to both Cd and 161 Pb contamination by re-grouping of the Cd and Pb binary classes (Table S1), 162 i.e., four CdxPb classes including the non-contaminated (class 0), Cd 163 contaminated only (class 1), Pb contaminated only (class 2) as well as when 164 both Cd and Pb are over the thresholds (class 3).

165 *Leaf reflectance and functional traits*

166 Leaf reflectance was measured using an ASD FieldSpec 3 spectroradiometer 167 (ASD Inc., Longmont, CO, USA) connected to a Plant Probe and Leaf Clip 168 Assembly (ASD Inc., Longmont, CO, USA). It allows for reflectance 169 measurement in a spectral range of 350 – 2500nm with a band width of 1 170 nm. Next, we measured the leaf maximal PSII photochemical efficiency 171 (Fv/Fm, ratio of the variable fluorescence to the maximal fluorescence) using

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172 a chlorophyll fluorescence meter (Handy PEA, Hansatech Instruments Ltd., 173 Pentney, UK), combined with a leaf clip that allows for dark adaption (25 174 min). Then, we measured the leaf area using a flatbed scanner, followed by 175 oven dry for 3 days, allowing to determine leaf mass per area (LMA). In total, 176 aggregated per tree and sampling time, collected leave samples allowed for 177 further statistical analysis on a sample size of 333 for reflectance and 178 functional traits. The 333 observations of reflectance spectra and functional 179 traits were grouped into their contamination classes subjected to the soil 180 heavy metal contamination classes as defined in the Section 2.2.

Iry for 3 days, allowing to determine leaf mass per area (LMA). In totated per tree and sampling time, collected leave samples allowed for statistical analysis on a sample size of 333 for reflectance and mal traits. The 3 181 A random subset of the leaf samples (n=53) were used to determine 182 the total chlorophyll (Chl) and carotenoid (Car) content. Leaf round discs with 183 a diameter of 28.6 mm were punched from the leaf samples using a paper 184 punch. Chla, Chlb and Car were extracted with a mortar and pestle in 80% 185 acetone and their concentrations determined by measuring the solution 186 absorbance (A) at wavelengths 470, 646.8 and 663.2 nm using a UV-VIS 187 spectrophotometer (Shimadzu 1650 PC, Kyoto, Japan) according to Eqs. (1-3) 188 (Lichtenthaler, 1987).

 $Chla = 12.25 * A_{663.2} - 2.79 * A_{646.8} \#(1)$ $Chlb = 21.50 * A_{646.8} - 5.10 * A_{663.2}$ #(2)

$$
Car = \frac{1000 * A_{470} - 1.82 * Chla - 85.02 * Chlb}{198} \#(3)
$$

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189 For quality control of chlorophyll analysis, we performed parallel 190 measurements in 12 samples, and the average standard error was lower 191 than 5%.

192 *Spectral and statistical analysis*

193 To highlight the metal-induced spectral variations, we calculated the 194 reflectance relative differences between group means for the contaminated 195 and non-contaminated classes subjected to Cd and Pb contamination. We 196 also applied first derivatives to the reflectance, focusing mainly on the red-197 edge region, to derive the red-edge inflection point (REIP) and evaluate the 198 metal induced red-edge shifts (Clevers et al., 2004).

al and statistical analysis

nlight the metal-induced spectral variations, we calculated the

nnce relative differences between group means for the contaminated

nnce relative differences between group means for the contam 199 Partial least squares (PLS) regression is a multivariate method for 200 relating two data matrices, X and Y, i.e., explanatory and response matrices, 201 by extracting latent variables (components) to model the variations of both 202 matrices (Wold et al., 2001). The PLS regression can reduce high 203 dimensional data (e.g. hyperspectral) to a small number of latent variables 204 which serve as new predictors on which the response variable is regressed 205 (Rosipal and Krämer, 2006). Partial least squares discriminant analysis (PLS-206 DA) is a variant used when the response variable is categorical. We used 207 PLS-DA for the classification of metal contamination classes. PLS-DA models 208 were applied to four types of data, (i) the original reflectance spectral, and 209 three pre-processed spectral data including (i) first derivative (ii), standard 210 normal variate SNV and (iii) continuum removal (CR) precede applying the 211 PLS-DA models. PLS-DA model calibration was first initiated on the entire 212 dataset for the full spectrum with 10 components. The initial model was

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213 trained using a 10-fold cross-validation with 99 times of permutations,

214 allowing for determination of the optimal number of components and the

215 spectral bands yielding a variable importance in projection (VIP) ≥ 0.8 .

For an independent validation, the entire dataset was randomly split

te training and test subsets, with a sample size being 2/3 (n=215) and

=118) of the total observations (n=333), respectively. The VIP ≥ 0.8

al ban 216 For an independent validation, the entire dataset was randomly split 217 into the training and test subsets, with a sample size being $2/3$ (n=215) and 218 1/3 (n=118) of the total observations (n=333), respectively. The VIP ≥ 0.8 219 spectral bands were then used to train and test models on the two subsets, 220 respectively.

221 PLS-DA Model classification accuracy was evaluated using the overall 222 accuracy (Eq. 4) and kappa coefficient (Eq. 5), as well as for assessing the 223 classification for individual classes using the producer's (Eq. 7) and user's 224 accuracies (Eq. 8),

$$
Accuracy = (TP + TN)/(TP + TN + FP + FN) \#(4)
$$

$$
Kappa = \frac{p_a - p_e}{1 - p_e} \#(5)
$$

$$
p_e = \frac{(TN + FP) \times (TN + FN) + (FN + TP) \times (FP + TP)}{(TP + TN + FP + FN)^2} \#(6)
$$

Producer $Accuracy = TP/(TP + FP)$ #(7)

User $Accuracy = TP/(TP + FN)$ #(8)

- 225 where the letters *T* and *F* denote *true* and *false*, respectively, and *P* and *N* 226 denote *positive* and *negative*, respectively, p_a is the actual agreement
- 227 (identical to accuracy), whereas p_e is the expected agreement by chance
- 228 (random accuracy) that can be calculated as Eq. (6).

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229 We used linear mixed models to test whether elevated soil heavy 230 metals affect the leaf functional traits. We defined the metal contamination 231 classes, i.e., binary or multi-class, as the fixed effect factor and defined city 232 and sampling site as random effect factors in the mixed models. All analyses 233 were performed in the R programming environment (R Core Team, 2016). 234 The R package 'lme4' (Bates et al., 2015) was used for running the mixed 235 models, and the package 'lsmeans' (Lenth, 2016) was used for post-hoc 236 analysis of pairwise comparisons between the contaminated classes based on 237 Tukey's test. PLS-DA was implemented using the package 'mixOmics' (Rohart 238 et al., 2017).

239 **Results and Discussion**

240 *Heavy metal effects on leaf functional traits*

mpling site as random effect factors in the mixed models. All analyses
erformed in the R programming environment (R Core Team, 2016).
package 'Ime4' (Bates et al., 2015) was used for running the mixed
s, and the package 'I 241 Elevated Pb and Cd concentrations had a significant effect on LMA of *T.* 242 *tomentosa* trees (Table 2). Soil Cd contamination did not induce significant 243 changes in LMA (Fig. 1a), whereas Pb contamination significantly decreased 244 LMA (Fig. 1b). Generally, Cd and Pb stress leads to damages to chloroplasts 245 and thylakoid membranes in plants (Shen et al., 2016; Wu et al., 2014), 246 which often causes reduced leaf growth such as small leaf size and small 247 stomata (Shi and Cai, 2009), as well as thin cuticles of leaf surfaces 248 (Pourkhabbaz et al., 2010). Therefore, elevated Pb concentrations could have 249 reduced leaf thickness and thus decreased LMA. Cd also induces changes in 250 leaf structural properties, while Cd concentrations measured in this study 251 might still be below the threshold that induces significant inhibition of leaf 252 expansion.

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ated with photoinhibition and reduction of the photosynthetic capacity
et al., 2016). Chla:Chlb decreased significantly along with the increas
Pb concentration (Fig. 2), suggesting that Chla was more suppressed
red to Chlb 253 Elevated soil Pb induced significant changes in leaf total Chl content, 254 Chl*a* to Chl*b* ratio (Chla:Chlb) and Fv/Fm, whereas Cd and other metals did 255 not yield significant changes (Table 2). Decrease in leaf Chl content is often 256 associated with photoinhibition and reduction of the photosynthetic capacity 257 (Shen et al., 2016). Chla:Chlb decreased significantly along with the increase 258 in soil Pb concentration (Fig. 2), suggesting that Chla was more suppressed 259 compared to Chlb (Nie et al., 2016). Similarly, a significant reduction of 260 Chla:Chlb has been found in *Torreya grandis* (Shen et al., 2016) and *Typha* 261 *latifolia* plants (Manios et al., 2003) treated with a high concentration of Cd 262 and Pb, suggesting increases in chlorophyll hydrolysis due to the toxic effect 263 (Manios et al., 2003). Results may differ for different plant species, for 264 instance in a greenhouse environment, Horler et al. (1980) observed a 265 significant decrease of Chla:Chlb in pea leaves due to elevated Cd 266 concentrations, but no changes following elevated Pb (Horler et al., 1980).

267 Cd and Pb contamination induced a decrease in Fv/Fm (Fig. 3a, b), 268 whereas Fv/Fm appeared to be not sensitive to low-level Pb contamination 269 (Fig. 3d), suggesting that Cd and Pb stress may induce photosynthesis 270 inhibition. Similarly, Cd was found to affect Fv/Fm in the wetland plant 271 species *Salicornia virginica* (Rosso et al., 2005) and in the turf grass species 272 *Festuca arundinacea Schreb* (Huang et al., 2017). Generally, the observed 273 decrease in Fv/Fm in plants subjected to Cd/Pb stress is associated with the 274 photoinhibition of PSII, as a result of the overproduction of reactive oxygen 275 species (ROS) (Huang et al., 2017; Shen et al., 2016). However, a significant 276 decrease in Fv/Fm may not always be observable if Cd/Pb concentration does

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277 not exceed a high threshold (Huang et al., 2017; Shen et al., 2016). Giulia et 278 279 280 281 282 283 al. (2013) found that a high soil Pb concentration did not decrease Fv/Fm in *Q. ilex* plants, and they argued that these metals may not significantly alter functionality of the photosynthetic apparatus. Similarly, Shi and Cai (2009) reported that Fv/Fm was not affected in peanut plants treated with a high concentration of Cd. Therefore, the effect of heavy metals on Fv/Fm might depend largely on metal type, concentration and plant species.

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l largely on 284 285 286 287 288 289 290 291 292 293 Mixed models for multi-class CdxPb and Pb contamination showed much more pronounced effects on LMA and Chla:Chlb than on Fv/Fm and leaf total Chl content (Table 3), which suggests that heavy metals induced more structural changes and proportional changes in leaf biochemicals than the quantity changes of individual components. An increase in leaf total Chl content and Fv/Fm was observed at a relative low-level Pb or Cd×Pb contamination (Table 3), suggesting that heavy metals impose complicated effects on photosynthesis and that Cd and Pb may increase the PSII quantum yield within a certain range of low concentrations (Ouyang et al., 2012; Shen et al., 2016).

294 295 296 297 298 The effect of soil heavy metals on leaves or the content of heavy metal accumulation in the leaves might be related to the age of trees (Doganlar et al., 2012). To test whether tree age difference affect the observed effects of Cd and Pb on leaf functional traits in this study, we used trunk diameter as a proxy of tree age and added it as an additional random factor in the mixed models (Table S2 and Table S3). Results suggest that the observed effects of 299

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300 Cd and Pb on T. *tomentosa* leaves was not significantly influenced by tree 301 age.

tance and nrst derivatives in response to neavy metals
d soil Cd concentrations yielded relatively large variations in leaf
ance centered at the 500, 680 and 720 nm bands (Fig. 4a), whereas
d Pb yielded large variations a 302 *Reflectance and first derivatives in response to heavy metals* 303 Elevated soil Cd concentrations yielded relatively large variations in leaf 304 reflectance centered at the 500, 680 and 720 nm bands (Fig. 4a), whereas 305 elevated Pb yielded large variations at the 550 and 700 nm bands (Fig. 4b). 306 In the red-edge region, Cd had a large effect on reflectance at the red-edge 307 center (\sim 720 nm), whereas Pb had a large effect on reflectance ranging from 308 the red absorption to the beginning of the red-edge bands ($680~\sim}700$ nm). 309 Over the full spectrum, soil Pb contamination induced larger variations 310 $(\pm 10\%$, Fig. 4b) compared to Cd contamination $(\pm 5\%)$ (Fig. 4a), which 311 might be attributed to the fact that Pb contamination was severer than Cd in 312 this study. Cd concentration was slightly higher than the threshold (1 mg/kg), 313 but was much lower than the 'low guideline' of contamination level (10 314 mg/kg) at which ecological or health risks present (Tóth et al., 2016).

315 The decrease in the NIR region (750~1400 nm) was associated with 316 elevated Cd and Pb concentrations. This might be attributed partly to the 317 decreased LMA because contaminated trees often have a much thinner outer 318 epidermal layer and thus thinner leaves (Pourkhabbaz et al., 2010), although 319 the effect of Cd on LMA observed in this study was marginal (Fig. 1). Metal-320 induced decreases in leaf NIR reflectance might be associated mainly with 321 the changes in leaf internal structural properties which decrease the internal

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322 light scattering and increase the transmittance of leaves (Horler et al., 1980; 323 Kumar et al., 2001).

The mecachinate entreading in the minds of introducts shorted the peaks centered at 530 and 720 nm (Fig. S1). In the red-edge spectra Cd contamination induced a shift of absorbance features towards the rwavelengths (Fig. S 324 The first derivative reflectance in the visible-to-NIR bands showed two 325 major peaks centered at 530 and 720 nm (Fig. S1). In the red-edge spectral 326 region, Cd contamination induced a shift of absorbance features towards the 327 shorter wavelengths (Fig. S1a). In contrast, Pb contamination induced a red-328 edge shift to the longer wavelengths (Fig. S1b). In addition to the red-edge 329 bands, Pb contamination also yielded large variations in the first derivative 330 reflectance at the green bands, suggesting a more pronounced change of the 331 overall shape of reflectance (cf. Fig. 4). As shown in the first derivative 332 reflectance, Pb contamination also induced a shift in the green edges (both 333 sides of the green peak) compared to Cd contamination. This might explain 334 the observed decrease in the Chla:Chlb ratio (Fig. 2), since absorption at the 335 green edge bands is related to Chlb variations (Kumar et al., 2001).

336 The extracted REIP showed contrasting changes in the Cd and Pb 337 contaminated trees, with decreasing and increasing trends, respectively (Fig. 338 S2), which confirms the contrasting effects of Cd and Pb contamination on 339 the red-edge reflectance. Heavy-metal induced REIP changes, or red-edge 340 shifts, have been found to depend to some degree on plant species and 341 sampling sites (Kooistra et al., 2004). Normally, a decreased REIP can be 342 observed when plant stress induces a reduction in leaf total Chl content 343 (Horler et al., 1983). However, here we did not observe obvious Chl 344 reduction associated with Cd or Pb contamination. Therefore, the REIP

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A model calibration for binary and multi-class classifications

binary classifications, the PLS-DA calibration models for Cd-

nination classification yielded a total accuracy of 84.1~86.5% (kappa

0.49, Table S4). PLS-DA 345 variations observed here were more likely associated with the proportional 346 changes in the Chla:Chlb ratio, in combination with changes in leaf structures. 347 *PLS-DA model calibration for binary and multi-class classifications* 348 In the binary classifications, the PLS-DA calibration models for Cd-349 contamination classification yielded a total accuracy of 84.1 \sim 86.5% (kappa = 350 0.46~0.49, Table S4). PLS-DA models for Pb contamination yielded a total 351 accuracy of $72.7 \times 77.8\%$ (kappa = 0.46×0.57). For the multi-class 352 classification of CdxPb-mixed contamination, PLS-DA models yielded a total 353 accuracy of $43.2 \times 66.1\%$ (kappa = 0.24 \sim 0.49, Table S4). PLS-DA models for 354 the multi-class classification of Pb yielded a total accuracy of 52.0~64.0% 355 (kappa = $0.29 \sim 0.43$). The best classifications for individual metals are 356 illustrated in confusion-matrix plots (Fig. 5).

357 The best model for Cd correctly classified the Cd class 0 with a 358 producer and use accuracy of 86% and 97%, respectively, and were 77% 359 and 43% for the Cd class 1 (Fig. 5a). The producer and use accuracy for the 360 Pb class 0 were 88% and 67%, respectively, and 77% and 90% for the Pb 361 class 1 (Fig. 5b). The best model for $CdxPb$ yielded a relatively low user 362 accuracy in predicting the classes 1 and 3 (Fig. 5c), which however, accounts 363 for a very small proportion of the total observations. The best model for 364 multi-class Pb contamination yielded a relatively high producer accuracy for 365 the classes 0 and 3 (Fig. 5d), with 80% and 100%, respectively. In contrast, 366 the model yielded a higher user accuracy for the classes 0 and 1 than for the 367 classes 2 and 3. The low user accuracy for the Pb classes 2 and 3 was mainly

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368 due to the small sample size of high Pb concentrations, which consists of only 369 17 and 4 observations for the classes 2 and 3, respectively.

370 Overall, the high producer accuracy, paired with relatively low user 371 accuracy for a relatively high metal concentration was rather encouraging, 372 since our models slightly tended to overestimate the observed contamination 373 rather than underestimate the elevated contamination. This implies a high 374 probability of detecting the elevated concentrations of soil heavy metals.

375 *PLS-DA model validation using full spectrum and VIP-bands*

ordin, the mgn, product determination was rather encouraging,
cy for a relatively high metal concentration was rather encouraging,
our models slightly tended to overestimate the observed contaminatio
than underestimate the 376 Compared to model calibration accuracies, model validation based on the full 377 spectrum produced comparable accuracies (Table S5). In binary 378 classifications, models for Pb contamination yielded higher kappa coefficients 379 than the models for Cd contamination. In multi-class classifications, model 380 validation showed improved total accuracies and kappa coefficients (Table 381 S5), suggesting the potential of using calibrated PLS-DA models for detecting 382 elevated soil Cd and Pb concentrations.

383 Validation of models trained with the VIP (≥ 0.8) bands showed 384 slightly improved kappa values and total accuracies compared to the full use 385 of bands (Table S5). The importance of individual spectral bands in the 386 classification is indicated by the VIP scores for individual metals (Fig. 6). Cd 387 contamination yielded relatively high VIP scores at the red-edge (730 nm) 388 and SWIR bands (1300 nm, 1650 nm) compared to Pb contamination, 389 suggesting unique spectral responses to elevated soil Cd in these bands (Fig. 390 6). Pb contamination yielded higher VIP scores at the green (530 nm) and

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391 the beginning of red-edge (700 nm), suggesting that Pb contamination 392 induced more pronounced responses in the visible bands. For the binary 393 classifications, VIP-based PLS-DA models yielded higher accuracies for Pb-394 contamination classification (kappa = 0.66) than for Cd (kappa= 0.39 , Table 395 S5). For multi-class classifications, the VIP-based PLS-DA models yielded 396 comparable accuracies by using a much less amount of bands compared to 397 the use of full spectral bands.

nination classification (kappa = 0.66) than for Cd (kappa = 0.39, Table
or multi-class classifications, the VIP-based PLS-DA models yielded
rable accuracies by using a much less amount of bands compared to
of full spectral 398 Model validation results showed that selecting a set of influential bands 399 (VIP \geq 0.8) allowed for maintaining classification accuracy and improving 400 model-use and computational efficiencies. Within a limited number of 401 observations, by randomly dividing independent training and testing subsets 402 of observations, our results suggest that spectrally calibrated PLS-DA models 403 have great potential of applying to future scenarios for monitoring heavy 404 metals.

405 *Comparison between reflectance pre-processing methods*

406 The kappa coefficient is a balanced measure compared to the use of the 407 producer-, user- and total accuracies, especially when the observations in 408 difference classes are highly imbalanced such as in this study. Hence, we 409 evaluated the three spectra-preprocessing methods according to the kappa 410 values. Model calibration and validation both showed that the first derivatives 411 yielded the highest kappa values compared to the use of the original and 412 SNV reflectance data (Table S4 and Table S5).

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tion and validation were repeated by using a fixed number of
nents (Table S6, Table S7 and Table S8). Results showed that the first-
vive reflectance yielded the highest kappa coefficients, followed by the
ectance and the 413 Using a different number of components might induce some degree of 414 variation in model accuracies, although we used the cross-validation (CV) 415 procedure. In addition to the CV-optimized number of components, model 416 calibration and validation were repeated by using a fixed number of 417 components (Table S6, Table S7 and Table S8). Results showed that the first 418 derivative reflectance yielded the highest kappa coefficients, followed by the 419 CR reflectance and the original reflectance (Fig. S3). The SNV reflectance did 420 not yield improvement compared to the original reflectance data, suggesting 421 that the SNV process may mask subtle spectral responses subjected to 422 individual metals. Overall, PLS-DA models based on the first derivative 423 reflectance produced the best classifications, which also suggests that heavy 424 metals have induced complicated effects on leaf biochemical and structural 425 properties that lead to light absorption changes/shifts over the full spectrum.

426 First derivative spectra of leaves have been proven to be effective in 427 eliminating background signals and for resolving overlapping spectral 428 features (Demetriades-Shah et al., 1990), which is useful to detect plant 429 stresses or estimate pigment changes (Rundquist et al., 1996; Smith et al., 430 2004). Also, first derivative reflectance has better discrimination power 431 compared to the original reflectance by characterizing the rate of change of 432 reflectance with respect to wavelengths (Bao et al., 2013; Lassalle et al., 433 2018; Smith et al., 2004). Typically, derivative analysis may facilitate the 434 detection of changes that might be masked in the original spectra by the 435 presence of plant intrinsic co-variations (Horler et al., 1983). For instance, 436 derivative spectra in the visible region may enable to detect subtle changes

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437 in leaf pigment balance associated with physiological disorders or vegetation 438 types (Bandaru et al., 2016; Demetriades-Shah et al., 1990; Pu, 2011).

nitoring heavy metal using reflectance spectra measured from above
getation canopy (Wang et al., 2018). Canopy spectra first derivatives
tee the additive noises (baseline shifts) induced by illumination
lity, canopy struct 439 440 441 442 443 444 445 446 447 448 449 Derivative analysis can be particularly useful for remotely biomonitoring heavy metal using reflectance spectra measured from above the vegetation canopy (Wang et al., 2018). Canopy spectra first derivatives eliminate the additive noises (baseline shifts) induced by illumination instability, canopy structural or soil background influences (Demetriades-Shah et al., 1990; Gnyp et al., 2014; Kochubey and Kazantsev, 2012; Pu, 2011), thereby improving the accuracy for quantification of canopy biochemical or physiological changes (Jin and Wang, 2016; O'Connell et al., 2014). Moreover, PLS modeling further facilitates the use of features of the full derivative spectrum for the characterization of vegetation undergoing changes or stresses.

450 451 452 453 454 455 456 457 Apparently, PLS-DA models for Pb-contamination classifications exclusively produced higher kappa values than for Cd contamination classifications, across different cases of spectra-preprocessing methods, model calibration (Fig. S3a) and validation (Fig. S3b), as well as when using a subset of VIP-bands (Fig. S3c). This can be attributed to the data imbalance between the Cd- and Pb-contamination levels, which, however, shows a great promise of the proposed approach for spectroscopic detection of elevated soil heavy metals, given that a diverse set of observations are used for model calibration. 458

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459 **Conclusions**

460 This study used *T. Tomentosa* trees growing in three European cities as bio-461 indicators of soil heavy metal contamination, and evaluated whether tree 462 spectra responses were able to reflect the elevated metal concentrations. 463 Results showed that elevated soil Cd and Pb concentrations led to decrease in 464 the leaf mass per area (LMA) and the chlorophyll *a* to *b* ratio (Chla:Chlb), 465 while no significant reduction in leaf total chlorophyll (Chl) and the maximal 466 PSII photochemical efficiency (Fv/Fm). Soil Pb contamination was severer 467 and showed more pronounced effect on LMA, Fv/Fm, Chl and Chla:Chlb than 468 did the Cd contamination in the studied sites.

a responses were able to reflect the elevated metal concentrations,
s showed that elevated soil Cd and Pb concentrations led to decrease
f mass per area (LMA) and the chlorophyll *a* to *b* ratio (Chla:Chlb),
o significant 469 Cd and Pb contamination induced specific changes in leaf reflectance 470 and the reflectance first derivatives, particularly in the red-edge spectral 471 region. Partial least squares discriminant analysis (PLS-DA) models calibrated 472 using leaf reflectance showed promise for detecting soil Cd and Pb 473 contamination in urban areas. PLS-DA models based on reflectance first 474 derivatives allowed for the best classification of Cd and Pb contamination. 475 This study shows that elevated soil heavy metals can be monitored by 476 measuring leaf spectra of trees. This holds great potential for mapping urban 477 heavy metal contamination by measuring urban vegetation using high-478 resolution spectrometers onboard airborne or drone platforms. Future work 479 should investigate whether our findings can be extrapolated to broader scales 480 by using canopy level reflectance data and a diverse set of plant species as 481 bio-indicators. Multi-temporal investigations of the quantitative relationships 482 between the practical content of heavy metals in leaves and reflectance

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- 483 spectroscopic measures are also needed to understand metal translocation
- 484 from soil to vegetation and for dynamic biomonitoring of heavy metal
- 485 contamination.

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494 **Declarations of interest**

495 None.

496 **References**

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Figure Captions

Fig. 1. Boxplots with the leaf mass per area (LMA) differences between the binary classes ($0 =$ non-contaminated, $1 =$ contaminated) of (a) Cd and (b) Pb contamination, as well as among multiple classes of (c) Cd×Pb and (d) Pb contamination. Significance levels are indicated according to the post-hoc Tukey's test of the applied mixed models.

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Boxplots with the leaf chlorophyll at to b ratio (Chla:Chlb) differences
Boxplots with the leaf chlorophyll at to b Fig. 2. Boxplots with the leaf chlorophyll a to b ratio (Chla:Chlb) differences between the binary classes ($0 =$ non-contaminated, $1 =$ contaminated) of (a) Cd and (b) Pb contamination, as well as among multiple classes for (c) Cd×Pb and (d) Pb contamination. Significance levels are indicated according to the post-hoc Tukey's test of the applied mixed models.

Fig. 3. Boxplots show the chlorophyll fluorescence Fv/Fm differences between the binary classes ($0 =$ non-contaminated, $1 =$ contaminated) of (a) Cd and (b) Pb contamination, as well as among multi-class classifications of (c) Cd×Pb and (d) Pb contamination. Significance levels are indicated according to the post-hoc Tukey's test of the applied mixed models.

Fig. 4. Leaf mean reflectance of the contaminated (1) and non-contaminated (0) trees subjected to (a) Cd and (b) Pb, and their reflectance relative difference ((X1-X0)/X0) between the contaminated and non-contaminated leaves.

Fig. 5. Predicted versus observed classes for (a) Cd binary classification, (b) Pb binary classification, (c) Cd×Pb classification and (d) Pb multi-class classification. Here the first derivative reflectance data were used for (a), (b) and (c), the original reflectance were used for (d). Numbers indicate the confusion matrix of classification.

Fig. 6. The variable importance in projection (VIP) scores for the spectralbased PLS-DA models for binary classification for Cd and Pb contamination, and for multi-class classification of Pb and CdxPb contamination. $VIP \geq 0.8$ highlights the spectral bands contributing significantly to the PLS-DA models.

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Tables

Table 1. Measured soil heavy metal content and the threshold values for classification of contamination. Cd and Pb were the major contaminates in this study, and Pb was the only metal that reached the highline and thus Pb contamination was classified into three sub-classes.

*, Pb contamination sub-levels:

1) Low contamination ($60 \le Pb < 200$ mg/kg);

2) Medium contamination (200 \leq Pb < 750 mg/kg);

3) High contamination (Pb \geq 750 mg/kg).

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Table 2. Results of mixed models for testing the effect of soil heavy metals on leaf functional traits, including the leaf mass per area (LMA), Fv/Fm, total chlorophyll content (Chl) and Chla:Chlb ratio. Modeled random effects were city and sites. Chlorophyll data were only available for a subset of the samples, where only Cd and Pb reached the thresholds of contamination.

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Table 3. Mixed models for testing the effect of multi-level Cd×Pb and Pb contamination on leaf functional traits, including the leaf mass per area (LMA), Fv/Fm, total chlorophyll content (ChI) and Chla:Chlb ratio. The modeled random effects are city and site. Chlorophyll data were only available for a subset of the samples, where only Cd *and Pb reached the threshold of contamination.*

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- Cd and Pb pollution in urban soils reduces the leaf mass per area of Tilia trees
- Soil Cd and Pb pollution reduces the leaf chlorophyll a to b ratio of Tilia trees
- Soil Cd and Pb pollution alters leaf spectral properties in the red-edge region
- PLS-DA models based on leaf spectra allow for the detection of Cd and Pb pollution

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