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## Source identification of trace elements in peri-urban soils in eastern China

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1 **Abstract**

2 The source identification of trace elements in peri-urban soils have not been fully explored,  
3 especially for the areas in eastern China. Here, 80 soil samples, including 40 from cropland, 11  
4 from orchards and 29 from forests, were collected in a typical peri-urban catchment, Ningbo,  
5 eastern China. The concentrations of arsenic (As), cadmium (Cd), chromium (Cr), copper (Cu),  
6 nickel (Ni), lead (Pb) and zinc (Zn), Pb isotopes and basic soil properties were measured for  
7 each soil sample. Multivariate analysis of correlation, regression, principal component analysis  
8 (PCA) and isotopic tracers were used. The results showed that the trace elements concentrations  
9 significantly differed in land uses, especially for Cd, Cu and Zn. For the 7 trace elements, the  
10 Cd, Cu and Zn in crop soils are contaminant elements. In the peri-urban soils, Cr and Ni are  
11 dominated by parent material and paedogenic processes. Difference in As and Pb  
12 concentrations between land uses maybe attributed to atmospheric deposition induced by fossil  
13 fuel combustion. Application of fertilisers, calcium phosphate and calcium superphosphate,  
14 livestock manure and compost, are the dominant source of pollutants in peri-urban soils,  
15 especially for Cd, Cu and Zn, indicating the key point for pollution control for this area.  
16 Calcium and P are effective indicators of Cd, Cu and Zn contamination for the peri-urban  
17 catchment.

18 Key words: trace elements sources; peri-urban soil; land use; multivariate analysis

## 19 **1 Introduction**

20 Peri-urban ecosystems serve at the transitional zone between urban and rural ecosystems  
21 (Chen et al., 2008b; Huang et al., 2009; Simon, 2008; Zhu et al., 2017b). With the rapid urban  
22 expansion and industrial development, the peri-urban areas are often the sites responsible both  
23 for food, materials and energy supplements and for urban and industrial waste disposal (Chen  
24 et al., 2008b; Khai et al., 2007; Xiang et al., 2018; Zheng et al., 2018; Zhu et al., 2017b). The  
25 associated fertiliser use, fossil fuel combustion and other related anthropogenic activities may  
26 exacerbate the trace element pollution in peri-urban soils (Chen et al., 2008b; Wei and Yang,  
27 2010). Research into the source identification of trace elements will benefit for pollution  
28 control (Morton-Bermea et al., 2009; Ungureanu et al., 2017; Wei and Yang, 2010).

29 Trace elements are introduced naturally into soil through the weathering of parent materials,  
30 and can also result from a variety of human activities such as industrial and traffic emission  
31 (fossil fuel combustion), mining, smelting, manure and inorganic fertilizers application, road  
32 dust and waste disposal (Alloway, 2013; Ravankhah et al., 2017; Teng et al., 2014; Ungureanu  
33 et al., 2017; Wong et al., 2002). The soil parent materials and paedogenic processes generally  
34 have significant influences on elements of As, Co, Cr, Ni, Zn (Facchinelli et al., 2001;  
35 Guagliardi et al., 2013; Sun et al., 2013; Xu et al., 2014). Anthropogenic activities usually  
36 contribute the enrichment of As, Cd, Cu, Hg, Pb, Zn (Alloway, 2013; Lu et al., 2012; Manta et  
37 al., 2002; Nicholson et al., 2003; Sun et al., 2013; Xu et al., 2014). Anthropogenically derived  
38 trace elements have been found to accumulate in topsoil, and can lead to damage animal and  
39 human physiological functions via the food chain (Chen et al., 2008b; Fu et al., 2007;  
40 Hernandez et al., 2003; Rodriguez Martin et al., 2006; Tóth et al., 2016).

41 Trace element sources to soil differ by land use, due to differences in management activities,  
42 leading to differing contamination profiles (Chen et al., 2005b; Ettler et al., 2014; Liu et al.,  
43 2005; Micó et al., 2006; Sheppard et al., 2000; Teng et al., 2014). In ecosystems for which

44 agricultural practices are intensive, trace elements sources include application of liquid and  
45 solid manure (or their derivatives, compost or sludge) or inorganic fertilisers (Alloway, 2013;  
46 Gimeno-García et al., 1996; Rodriguez Martin et al., 2006; Xiang et al., 2018). Trace elements  
47 in urban soils receive significant loads of contaminants from traffic and industrial activities,  
48 and pose a significant challenge to food production in such habitats (Madrid et al., 2002;  
49 Meharg, 2016; Teng et al., 2014). In addition, industrial development may contribute  
50 significant atmospheric pollutant deposition to soils (Chen et al., 2008a; De Vries et al., 2003;  
51 Duan and Tan, 2013; Hernandez et al., 2003; Zheng et al., 2004). However, studies on source  
52 identification of trace elements in peri-urban soils usually focused only on the vegetable fields  
53 (Chen et al., 2008b; Singh and Kumar, 2006) or mapping spatial distribution of the whole area  
54 (de la Cueva et al., 2014; Guagliardi et al., 2013). Therefore, it is essential to identify the  
55 differences in concentrations and sources of trace elements for different land uses in peri-urban  
56 area.

57 Soil pollution by trace elements poses severe challenges to soil health and sustainability in  
58 China (Chen et al., 2015; Cheng and Hu, 2010; Cheng, 2003; Li et al., 2014; Liu et al., 2010).  
59 In China, the peri-urban zone begins beyond the contiguous built-up urban area and can extend  
60 as far as 300 km in the case of Chinese coastal cities (Webster and Muller, 2002). For example,  
61 the Hangzhou-Ningbo Corridor typifies the long-running and dynamic peri-urbanisation  
62 process in the Lower Yangtze Region of eastern China as a whole, arguably the world's largest  
63 extended urban region (Webster and Muller, 2002). Importantly, the huge pressure on food  
64 supply induced by rapid urbanisation process in the peri-urban area in eastern China has  
65 continued for decades (Chen et al., 2008b; Wei and Yang, 2010), we hypothesise that this will  
66 lead to distinctive contamination of agricultural soils within this catchment. This current study  
67 presents the results of soil trace elements in a peri-urban area in Ningbo city in eastern China.  
68 The objectives of this study were (1) to characterise differences in the concentrations of trace

69 elements for different land uses; and (2) to identify the sources of trace elements in peri-urban  
70 areas of eastern China.

71

## 72 **2 Materials and methods**

### 73 **2.1 Site description**

74 The Zhangxi catchment (an area of 85 km<sup>2</sup> and elevation range of 3-763 m), a typical peri-  
75 urban area in Ningbo City, was selected as the study area. Ningbo is a coastal city in eastern  
76 China that has undergone rapid urbanisation processes in recent decades. The soil layer in the  
77 catchment is shallow (ca. 30 cm on average) and is dominated by a silt loam in the 0-20 cm  
78 soil layer and sandy loam in the 20-30 cm soil layer. The parental materials/bedrocks are mainly  
79 silicate and aluminosilicate rocks, carbonate and aluminosilicate clastic rocks. The region has  
80 a moderate subtropical monsoon climate, warm and humid during April to September, and the  
81 rainy season is around June. The catchment has an annual mean temperature of 17 °C and mean  
82 annual precipitation of 1460 mm. The Zhangxi is a mixed land use catchment, including forest  
83 (mainly natural secondary forest) and farmlands (crop, orchard, etc). The cropland is usually  
84 treated with manure and inorganic fertilisers in the winter, and the manure are mainly derived  
85 from humans and their domestic livestock including pigs and chickens (Xiang et al., 2018;  
86 Zheng et al., 2018). Fritillaria, peanut, rice and several types of vegetables are the main crops  
87 in study area. The crop rotation patterns include vegetable-vegetable rotation, crop-vegetable  
88 rotation and crop-crop rotation.

89

### 90 **2.2 Sample preparation and analysis**

91 Eighty representative sites were selected covering the two types of land use (farmlands and  
92 forest). Soil samples (0 to 20 cm) were collected in March 2016, including 40 crop, 11 orchard  
93 and 29 forest soils (Fig. 1). Each sample comprised a mixture of five sub-samples randomly

94 obtained in a 2 m<sup>2</sup> grid. All soil samples were collected with a stainless hand auger and stored  
95 in snap-sealed polypropylene bags. Soil samples were dried in a Christ LD freeze dryer, sieved  
96 and milled (except for pH and soil texture determination) by hand to a fine powder in a mortar  
97 and pestle.

98 The concentrations of As, Cd, Cr, Cu, Ni, P, Pb, and lead isotope ratios, were determined  
99 with the ICP-MS (Thermo Scientific iCAP Q) in direct solution acquisition mode using a Cetac  
100 ASX-520 Auto Sampler. The concentrations of Zn, Ca and K were determined with an X-ray  
101 fluorescence (Rigaku Nex CG benchtop XRF). For ICP-MS analysis, BDH Prolabo Aristar  
102 69% nitric acid and BDH Prolabo Analar Normapur 30% hydrogen peroxide were used for  
103 extraction/digestion. Eight standards were made up including one blank also containing  
104 internal standard. Results were calculated from the resulting calibration curve based on the  
105 average intensity from 3 replicates of each sample, blank and standard. The XRF analysis was  
106 performed in batches of 9 (8 samples and one certified reference material) with analysis lasting  
107 approximately 13 minutes per sample. Certified reference materials for ISE-921 (river clay)  
108 and blank sample are used for quality control and recovery analysis. The recovery rates for  
109 elemental contents were between 79 and 110 % (Table S1).

110 The soil samples were also analysed for Pb isotopic composition to detect the input of  
111 anthropogenic Pb. The nitric acid digestion procedure was used as the sample preparation and  
112 using the same ICP-MS for analysis. Five standards were made up including one blank.  
113 Certified lead isotope standard VHG-LISPB1-50 in 1% HNO<sub>3</sub> (LGC Standards) was used to  
114 make up all standards. Analysis of the samples was carried out using ICP-MS (Thermo  
115 Scientific iCap Q) which was connected to the auto-sampler. <sup>206</sup>Pb, <sup>207</sup>Pb and <sup>208</sup>Pb were  
116 acquired at dwell times of 300 ms each. The measured ratios of <sup>206</sup>Pb/<sup>207</sup>Pb and <sup>208</sup>Pb/<sup>207</sup>Pb were  
117 calculated from the resultant data based on the average intensity from 10 replicates of each  
118 sample, blank and standard, and then Pb ratios of individual sample were corrected using

119 bracketing certified Pb isotopic standards (LGC Standards-VHG-LISPB1-50).

120 Soil samples for pH and soil texture were sieved to pass a 2 mm mesh. The soil pH was  
121 measured in water (1:2.5 soil:water ratio, w/v) using a pH-meter (Mettler Toledo Delta 320)  
122 (Imperato et al., 2003). The soil texture was determined with a laser diffraction particle size  
123 analyser (Malvern Mastersizer 2000) (Sun et al., 2013). The soil organic matter (SOM) was  
124 calculated by soil organic carbon which was measured by dichromate oxidation (Yeomans and  
125 Bremner, 1988). The C/N ratio was determined with an elemental analyser (Elementar Vario  
126 EL III).

127

### 128 **2.3 Statistical analysis**

129 The Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was used to determine the normality of the metal  
130 concentrations. Differences in trace element concentrations among various types of land use  
131 were determined with non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis tests and ANOVA by a Tukey test.  
132 Principal component analysis (PCA) was used to cluster trace elements that showed similar  
133 behaviour to identify potential sources. Varimax rotation was applied because orthogonal  
134 rotation minimises the number of variables with a high loading on each component and  
135 facilitates interpretation of results (Sun et al., 2013). Correlation matrix and regression analysis  
136 were used to investigate elemental associations amongst the trace elements in the topsoil. For  
137 correlation analysis, Pearson's product moment correlation coefficient was used for normal  
138 populations, and Spearman's rank correlation coefficient was used for non-normal populations  
139 (Micó et al., 2006). Statistical tests were considered to indicate statistical significance at a *p*  
140 level of less than 0.05. Outliers are not excluded during all data analysis except for the linear  
141 regression of Pb isotopes. All statistical analyses were performed in IBM SPSS Statistics 23.0.

142

### 143 **3 Results and discussion**



### 144 **3.1 Elemental concentrations and soil properties**

145 Descriptive statistics of the concentrations of elements, Pb isotopes and soil properties are  
146 summarised in Table 1. Soils could be classified as silt loam based on their clay, silt and sand  
147 contents. Only sand and silt had normal distributions, which was basically consistent with the  
148 general knowledge that soil properties are normally distributed with small coefficients of  
149 variation (Madrid et al., 2002; Sun et al., 2013). The soil pH values ranged from 4.0 to 6.9.  
150 Most soils were acidic; 51% had pH values below pH 5.0, and only 13% had pH values above  
151 pH 6.0. The acidic pH was partly due to the climate, the parent material and the soil texture  
152 (Barton et al., 1994) and partly due to the frequent use of mineral fertilisers (especially N  
153 fertiliser) and infrequent addition of fresh organic matter (Sun et al., 2013). For example, it has  
154 been reported that soil acidification in China results mainly from high inputs of N fertiliser and  
155 the uptake and removal of base cations by plants (Guo et al., 2010). The SOM had a large range,  
156 11 to 172 g kg<sup>-1</sup>, with a mean value of 47 g kg<sup>-1</sup>. The high levels of SOM imply an important  
157 retention of trace elements by porous carbon with a high adsorption capacity (Micó et al., 2006;  
158 Oh and Park, 2002). However, the low clay content may decrease retention, and the acidic pH  
159 could also facilitate the mobility, of trace elements (Sun et al., 2013). The K concentration (23.3  
160 g kg<sup>-1</sup>) was similar with the background value of Ningbo (23.0 g kg<sup>-1</sup>) (Dong et al., 2007). The  
161 mean concentrations of Ca and P for soils were 2.0 and 1.5 times higher than the background  
162 values of Ningbo (2.3 g kg<sup>-1</sup> and 0.63 g kg<sup>-1</sup>) (Dong et al., 2007). Calcium and P are commonly  
163 used to improve plant growth and yield, and Ca is also commonly applied as lime to raise the  
164 pH of acidic soils (Alloway, 2013). Compared with the background values of Ningbo, the  
165 significantly high concentrations of Ca and P indicate extensive application of inorganic  
166 fertilisers, such as calcium phosphate and calcium superphosphate (Dong et al., 2007).

167 Data from forests and orchards were combined for further analysis because no significant  
168 differences in trace element concentrations were found between them (Fig. 2). In forest and

169 orchard soils, the coefficients of variation for trace element concentrations varied from 32%  
170 for As to 100% for Cr and decreased in the order Cr > Cu > Ni > Cd > Pb > Zn > As. In crop  
171 soils, the coefficients of variation varied from 23% for Ni to 49% for Cd and decreased in the  
172 order Cd > Cu > Pb > As > Zn > Cr > Ni. The relatively low coefficients of variation and  
173 significantly higher concentrations of trace elements in crop soils than in forest and orchard  
174 soils, especially for Cd, Cu and Zn, suggest nonpoint-source agricultural pollution. This  
175 pollution may result from extensive use of fertilisers and pesticides (Madrid et al., 2002;  
176 Rodriguez Martin et al., 2006; Sun et al., 2010; Ungureanu et al., 2017; Xiang et al., 2018).

177 The mean concentrations of As, Cr, Ni and Pb in peri-urban soils were lower than  
178 background values of Ningbo (Fig. 2), indicating that the anthropogenic inputs of these  
179 elements were relatively low. This finding is in agreement with that of Wei and Yang (2010) that  
180 Cr and Ni appeared to be relatively less contaminating elements in China (Sun et al., 2013).  
181 The mean concentrations of Cu, Cd and Zn in crop soils were 2.9, 1.9 and 1.7 times higher than  
182 those concentrations in forest and orchard soils (Fig. 2, Table S2). The significantly ( $P < 0.01$ )  
183 high concentrations of Cu, Cd and Zn indicate an enrichment from agricultural inputs. This  
184 finding is in accordance with previous studies (Chen et al., 2008b; Lu et al., 2012; Micó et al.,  
185 2006; Wei and Yang, 2010).

186 For cropland, despite the main agricultural sources for Cd, Cu and Zn, some outliers for them  
187 may be partly attributed to the field burning, waste dump or other anthropogenic activities in  
188 the peri-urban area in Ningbo (Shi and Ganne, 2009; Zhu et al., 2017a). For forest soils, the  
189 top outliers for As, Cd, Cu and Pb shown in Fig. 2 were located mainly in nearby agricultural  
190 areas (less 200 m) (Fig. S1), indicating that the outliers may be caused by anthropogenic activities  
191 in agricultural areas (Madrid et al., 2002; Rodriguez Martin et al., 2006; Shi and Ganne, 2009;  
192 Ungureanu et al., 2017). The outliers of Cr and Ni in forest and orchard soils found in this study  
193 (Fig. 2, Fig. S1) may be caused by point pollution by anthropogenic activities, such as the local

194 field burning, the waste dumping and the nearby road dust (17 m and 50 m away from mountain  
195 road) (Sun et al., 2010), because widespread contamination with Cr and Ni has been reported  
196 in road dust (Wei and Yang, 2010).

197

## 198 **3.2 Inter-relationship and source identification**

### 199 **3.2.1 PCA**

200 PCA loading plot for trace elements, macro elements and basic soil properties in peri-urban  
201 soils is shown in Fig. 3. Almost all forest and orchard soils were clustered on the left, indicating  
202 that the samples were less contaminated than crop soils. In contrast, almost all crop soils were  
203 located on the right, which suggests trace elements enrichment. Two forest soils in the upper  
204 left quadrant had high Cr and Ni concentrations, which may attribute to point pollution by  
205 anthropogenic activities, such as the local field burning, the waste dumping and the nearby  
206 road dust (Sun et al., 2010). Cd, Cu and Zn line angles were sharp and strongly related to the  
207 first axis, indicating that they likely had the same above-mentioned agricultural sources. The  
208 Cr and Ni distribution differed from those of other trace elements, and the mean Cr and Ni  
209 concentrations were low (Fig. 2), indicating that Cr and Ni were predominantly controlled by  
210 the parent material and paedogenic processes, which is consistent with the findings of previous  
211 studies (Chen et al., 2008b; Křibek et al., 2010; Rodriguez et al., 2008; Sun et al., 2013; Zhao  
212 et al., 2014).

213 PCA for trace element concentrations in crop soils and in forest and orchard soils is shown  
214 in Table 2. For crop soils, trace elements could be grouped into a two-component model that  
215 accounted for 66% of the total variance. The rotated component matrix showed that As, Cr and  
216 Ni were associated with the first principal component (PC), and the PC2 included Cd, Cu, Pb  
217 and Zn. For forest and orchard soils, trace elements were grouped into a three-component  
218 model that accounted for 73% of the total variance. The rotated component matrix showed that

219 Cr, Ni and Pb were associated with the PC1, and the PC2 included Cd and Cu, while As and  
220 Zn belong to PC3. The results in crop soils and in the forest and orchard soils both imply that  
221 Cr and Ni can be defined as natural components. That Pb loading of the PCA differed to Cr and  
222 Ni, and concentrations differed in comparison with forest, orchard and crop soils (Table 2),  
223 implying Pb pollution in crop soils. Given the low As concentrations and coefficients of  
224 variation in forest and orchard soils, the As may derive mainly from atmospheric deposition.  
225 In forest and orchard soils, Zn had the similar situation with As. But in crop soils, Zn had a  
226 significant enrichment and had similar agricultural sources with Cd and Cu.

227

### 228 **3.2.2 Correlations between different elements and soil properties**

229 The correlation matrices between different element concentrations are presented in Fig. 4  
230 and Table S3. Significant correlations between Cr and Ni were found both in forest and orchard  
231 soils ( $R = 0.91$ ,  $P < 0.01$ ) and in crop soils ( $R = 0.77$ ,  $P < 0.01$ ) (Fig. 4), these correlations,  
232 together with the low mean concentrations, indicated an above-mentioned lithogenic origin  
233 (Rodriguez et al., 2008; Sun et al., 2013; Zhao et al., 2014). This finding can also be confirmed  
234 by the results of PCA. With the exception of Zn, Pb have significantly positive correlations  
235 with other trace elements in crop soils. A similar situation occurred for As. Both As and Pb  
236 have significant correlations with Cr and Ni in forest and orchard soils, and significant  
237 correlations with Cd in crop soils (see Fig. S2 in supporting information). The results imply  
238 atmospheric deposition induced by fossil fuel combustion may cause the enrichment of As and  
239 Pb in crop soils. It is reported that atmospheric deposition (such as cement, coal and oil  
240 combustion dust, metallurgic dust, vehicle exhaust particles) is the main source of As and Pb  
241 (Duan and Tan, 2013; Scudlark and Church, 1988; Shi et al., 2012; Shotyk et al., 1996; Zheng  
242 et al., 2004). This finding can be partly confirmed by the correlation ( $R = 0.52$ ,  $P < 0.01$ )  
243 between As with Pb in crop soils (Fig. 4, Table S3), as both them were dominated by fossil fuel

244 combustion in eastern China (Duan and Tan, 2013; Shi et al., 2012). No correlations between  
245 Zn and As, and Pb imply the source is not likely the fertilisers. Close correlations between  
246 metal (Cd, Cu and Zn) concentrations in crop soils suggested these elements had the same or  
247 similar pollution sources (Hernandez et al., 2003; Sun et al., 2010). This finding was partly in  
248 accordance with previous studies in which Cd, Cu and Zn were found to be related to  
249 agricultural pollution in agricultural soils (Chen et al., 2008b; Lu et al., 2012; Micó et al., 2006;  
250 Wei and Yang, 2010).

251 The correlation matrix between the concentrations of trace elements and soil properties  
252 (including macro elements) in peri-urban soils is shown in Table 3. Significant negative  
253 correlations between trace elements and altitude, and C/N indicate the trace element  
254 concentrations differed by land use, since forest sites usually located in high altitude (mean  
255 altitude, 138 m; range, 19 to 412 m) and rich in carbon concentrations (plant litter) and with  
256 lower contaminant burdens in contrast to the crop sites (mean altitude, 25 m; range, -3 to 74  
257 m). Altitude was not correlated with As and Ni concentrations, which confirmed that both of  
258 them were derived from origin that is supposed to be independent of altitude. The distribution  
259 of the C/N ratio was similar with the altitude due to the significant positive correlation between  
260 them ( $R = 0.74$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ) (see Table S4 and Fig. S3 in supporting information). The  
261 correlation results for a specific type of land use showed weak correlation between the  
262 concentrations of trace elements and soil properties, especially for the forest and orchard land  
263 shown in Table 3. This differed from the significant correlated results derived from packaged  
264 all data.

265 Significant positive correlations between metal (Cd and Cu) concentrations and P  
266 concentration (Table 3, Fig. 4) in crop soils indicate they have a possible same agricultural  
267 origin. Fertiliser application may be the origin, because P, Cu and Cd is closely associated with  
268 both inorganic and organic fertilisers, such as application of livestock manure, compost and

269 phosphate (Alloway, 2013; Eghball and Gilley, 1999; Gimeno-García et al., 1996; Nicholson  
270 et al., 2003). Calcium was significantly correlated with Cd, Cu and Zn (Table 3, Fig. 4),  
271 especially for Ca and Zn. Close relationship between Ca concentration and P concentration ( $R$   
272 = 0.61,  $P < 0.01$ ) (Fig. 4) suggests Ca and P are most likely derived from application of  
273 inorganic fertilisers, most likely the calcium phosphate and calcium superphosphate mentioned  
274 above. Gimeno-García et al. (1996) evaluated the concentrations of Cd, Cu and Zn in different  
275 inorganic fertilisers (urea, calcium superphosphate, iron sulphate and copper sulphate) in rice  
276 farming areas and found that calcium superphosphate contained the highest concentrations of  
277 Cd, Cu and Zn as impurities. Close relationship between Ca and P also implies that both Ca  
278 and P are effective indicators and factors explaining the variations of Cd, Cu and Zn in peri-  
279 urban soils in Ningbo. Besides, organic fertilisers, such as livestock manure or its derivatives,  
280 are usually composted nearby field and used commonly as a soil nutrient source in most of the  
281 fields(Xiang et al., 2018; Zheng et al., 2018). This compost (and pesticides) are also in  
282 enrichment with trace elements, especially for Cu and Zn and contribute partially to the  
283 pollution (Alloway, 2013; Bolan et al., 2003; Gimeno-García et al., 1996; Nicholson et al.,  
284 2003).

285

### 286 **3.2.3 Pb isotopic composition analysis**

287 Regression analysis (Fig. 5a) showed a significant linear relationship ( $R^2 = 0.41$ ,  $P < 0.001$ )  
288 between Pb concentration and  $^{206}\text{Pb}/^{207}\text{Pb}$  ratios. In Fig. 5b, the points of cropland and points  
289 of forest and orchard have much overlapping areas. These linear relationship ( $R^2 = 0.60$ ,  $P <$   
290  $0.001$ ) suggests that the Pb in peri-urban soils was mainly derived from a single, widespread  
291 source, or mixed origins with similar isotopic compositions, such as anthropogenic aerosols  
292 mostly containing coal and oil combustion dust, metallurgic dust, cement (Duan and Tan, 2013;  
293 Wang et al., 2000; Zheng et al., 2004). In Fig. 5b, the  $^{208}\text{Pb}/^{207}\text{Pb}$  and  $^{206}\text{Pb}/^{207}\text{Pb}$  ratios of

294 cropland are located mainly at the lower left, whilst the ratios from forest and orchard soils are  
295 located mainly at the upper right, especially for orchards. Given the relatively high Pb  
296 concentration in crop soils in comparison with forest and orchard soils, the differences in Pb  
297 isotope compositions for different land uses suggest the forest and orchard soils is less  
298 contaminated than crop soils. This is due to the effect of canopy interception on the atmospheric  
299 deposition. Atmospheric deposited elements have been found to be accumulated in the canopy  
300 of the forest for several years and can be release to the soil by rainfall and fire (Erel et al., 1997;  
301 Ettler et al., 2014; Iverfeldt, 1991; Lindberg, 1989).

302 The range of Pb isotopic compositions is consistent with the range of Pb isotopic  
303 compositions of atmospheric deposition. The range of Pb isotopic composition of crop soils in  
304 this study was similar with the range of Pb isotope ratios of PM<sub>10</sub> aerosols in Shanghai (ca. 110  
305 km away from this study area) and air in other area (Chen et al., 2005a; Komárek et al., 2008;  
306 Mukai et al., 2001; Zheng et al., 2004). However, the range of Pb isotopic composition in our  
307 peri-urban soils is similar to the range of deep soil (80-100 cm), while differed from the range  
308 of atmospheric deposition reported in Hu et al. (2018)'s study which investigated in peri-urban  
309 area of Nanjing City (ca. 330 km away from this study area). These findings indicated that the  
310 Pb in peri-urban soils of Ningbo city was likely derived from both natural origin and  
311 atmospheric deposition. Given the significant positive correlation between Pb and other (both  
312 contaminant and not contaminant) elements in peri-urban soils, the slight enrichment in Pb in  
313 crop soils compared with forest and orchard soils may attribute to atmospheric deposition  
314 induced by fossil fuel combustion (Cheng and Hu, 2010; Dach and Starmans, 2005; Sun et al.,  
315 2013). Besides, atmospheric deposition could contribute to As and Cu enrichments (Al-  
316 Khashman, 2004; Hernandez et al., 2003; Rodriguez et al., 2008). The Pb ratios of the two  
317 outliers in this study are similar to that of vehicle exhaust (unleaded) (Chen et al., 2005a), but  
318 the two locations are far from main roads. These two outliers may be attributed to local field

319 burning or to fumes from metal smelting due to the similar isotopic compositions (Komárek et  
320 al., 2008).

321 In this peri-urban areas, Cd, Cu and Zn were contaminant elements mainly derived from  
322 fertiliser application, and As and Pb were possibly influenced by atmospheric deposition. Hu  
323 et al. (2018)'s study suggested that atmospheric deposition along with fertilization were the  
324 major sources of heavy metals accumulation, and the relative contribution of atmospheric  
325 deposition reaches up to 33.0% compared with fertiliser application (33.8%), industrial  
326 emission (25.4%) and soil parent materials (10.8%) in the peri-urban soils of Nanjing city (also  
327 belong to the Yangtze River Delta region). While in our study, the influence of atmospheric  
328 deposition is relative weak. A possible explanation is that the two study areas are within a  
329 subtropical monsoon climate zone. The prevailing wind directions are southeast in summer,  
330 and Ningbo city locates in the southeast of the Nanjing city. These resulted in the different  
331 influence of atmospheric deposition at the two study areas. Another study in two contrasting  
332 peri-urban areas of Yangtze River Delta Region showed that application of large amounts of  
333 cow manure to vegetables had caused an accumulation of P, Cu, Zn and available Cd in soil  
334 (Huang et al., 2006). The common points for above mentioned studies in peri-urban soils in the  
335 Yangtze River Delta region are intensive agricultural production, extensive fertiliser  
336 application, many types of crops and related rotation patterns to satisfy the increasing food  
337 demands from urban areas. Generally, fertiliser application is an important input for elements  
338 contaminant (Cd, Cu and Zn) in crop soils with effectively indicated by Ca and P in this area,  
339 but the specific contaminant and indicative elements are depended on the element compose in  
340 applied fertilisers.

341

#### 342 **4 Conclusions**

343 The results showed that the soil trace element concentrations differed according to the type



344 of land use in peri-urban areas. The mean concentrations of Cd, Cu and Zn in crop soils were  
345 significantly higher than their background values of Ningbo and those in forest and orchard  
346 soils, i.e., Cd, Cu and Zn are contaminant elements in this peri-urban areas. Despite the  
347 contaminant elements, the Cr and Ni are dominant via soil formation. Atmospheric deposition  
348 may lead to the difference in As and Pb concentrations between land uses. Application of  
349 fertilisers, calcium phosphate and calcium superphosphate, livestock manure and compost, are  
350 the dominant source of pollutants in the peri-urban soils in Ningbo, especially for Cd, Cu and  
351 Zn. Calcium and P are effective indicators of trace element contaminant (Cd, Cu and Zn) for  
352 peri-urban soils in Ningbo city in eastern China. The trace element distribution in peri-urban  
353 areas with complex land use patterns require long-term monitoring and continuous study to  
354 identify influences on ecological health, especially in areas that are undergoing rapid  
355 urbanisation. This study enhances our ability to understand the sources of trace elements in  
356 peri-urban soils and is beneficial for pollution control.

357

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