

Impacts of soil and water fluoride contamination on the safety and productivity of food and feed crops: A systematic review

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Science of the Total Environment

Impacts of soil and water fluoride contamination on the safety and productivity of food and feed crops: A systematic review --Manuscript Draft--

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Abstract:	Although a strong connection between the environmental fluoride contamination and the fluorosis disease is nowadays worldwide well documented, the knowledge on the fluoride contamination levels of cultivated crops at the basis of the human food-chain is limited and fragmented. Adopting a systematic approach, this study reviews the available literature concerning the impacts of soil and water fluoride pollution on the safety and productivity of food and feed crops at a global scale, with the aim to provide a comprehensive overview of the current state of the art. The analyses of literature highlighted that food and feed crops exposed to soil and water fluoride pollution may reach concentrations of fluoride potentially harmful to human health. Nevertheless, despite the efforts already made to assess the crop fluoride accumulation in contaminated areas of India and China, the present study brings to light the lack of knowledge still existing on this issue for some regions strongly affected by environmental fluoride contamination such as the East African Rift Valley. Concerning the impacts of fluoride on cultivated crops, many authors observed that fluoride can produce toxic effects on plants leading to oxidative stress, reduction in chlorophyll content, alterations in the levels of proline, betaine, soluble sugars, nitrogen and macro and micronutrients. However, the appearance of symptoms such as visible injuries, reduced root and shoot length and yield decline was not always observed, also at high levels of fluoride exposure, and in some cases, the biomass production was even stimulated by increasing fluoride doses.
Response to Reviewers:	We are very grateful to the referees for the analysis of the manuscript and the very valuable suggestions. In the "Response to Reviewers comments" file we have reported our comments and responses to the reviewer's suggestions. As concern the Supplementary Material, as indicated in the guidelines, we did not annotate any corrections and switched off the 'Track Changes' option in Microsoft Word in the updated files that we uploaded. However, since we have also made some revisions to the supplemental files, to allow reviewers to track the corrections made, we have included the tracked versions of the supplemental files in the "Supplemental files with Changes Marked" file.

Impacts of soil and water fluoride contamination on the safety and productivity of food and feed crops: A systematic review

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Margherita Rizzu: Conceptualization, Methodology, Investigation, Data Curation, Writing - Original Draft preparation, Visualization. Alberto Tanda: Investigation, Data Curation, Writing- Original draft preparation. Chiara Cappai: Investigation, Draft preparation. Pier Paolo Roggero: Writing - Reviewing and Editing, Supervision. Giovanna Seddaiu: Conceptualization, Writing - Reviewing and Editing, Supervision, Resources and project management.

Reviewer #2

Comments to Author	Responses
1. The Graphical Abstract does not give much useful information. It should be reconsidered.	Thank you for this recommendation, we have redrawn the graphical abstract using a more informative type of graph
2. The first two highlights are meaningless. They told only what the authors did, but did not tell the significant findings that the authors obtained.	As suggested, we rewrote the highlights focusing on the significant findings that were obtained in the Systematic Review
3. There should be only one paragraph in the abstract.	We deleted the carriage return to make the abstract a single paragraph.
4. The first sentence should cite two or three more latest references, as you said the problem is well recognized. It is unconvincing to cite only one reference. In addition, the currently cited reference is very old (published more than 20 years ago). So please cite some references that were published in the last 5 years. Maybe the following ones can be considered. Li, P., He, X., Li, Y., Xiang, G. 2019. Occurrence and health implication of fluoride in groundwater of loess aquifer in the Chinese Loess Plateau: a case study of Tongchuan, northwest China. Exposure and Health 11(2):95-107. https://doi.org/10.1007/s12403-018-0278-x He, X., Li, P., Ji, Y., Wang, Y., Su, Z., Elumalai, V. 2020. Groundwater arsenic and fluoride and associated arsenicosis and fluorosis in China: occurrence, distribution and management. Exposure and Health 12(3):355-368. https://doi.org/10.1007/s12403-020-00347-8 Wu, J., Li, P., Qian, H. 2015. Hydrochemical characterization of drinking groundwater with special reference to fluoride in an arid area of China and the control of aquifer leakage on its concentrations. Environmental Earth Sciences 73(12):8575-8588. https://doi.org/10.1007/s12665-015-4018-2 Subba Rao, N., Ravindra, B., Wu, J. 2020. Geochemical and health risk evaluation of fluoride rich groundwater in Sattenapalle Region, Guntur district, Andhra Pradesh, India. Human and Ecological Risk Assessment 26(9):2316-2348. https://doi.org/10.1080/10807039.2020.1741338 Wu, J., Sun, Z. 2016. Evaluation of shallow groundwater contamination and associated human health risk in an alluvial plain impacted by agricultural and industrial activities, mid-west China. Exposure and Health 8(3):311-329. https://doi.org/10.1007/s12403-015-0170-x	As suggested, we added the following three more latest references to the first sentence: He, X., Li, P., Ji, Y., Wang, Y., Su, Z., Elumalai, V. 2020. Groundwater arsenic and fluoride and associated arsenicosis and fluorosis in China: occurrence, distribution and management. Exposure and Health 12(3):355-368. https://doi.org/10.1007/s12403-020-00347-8 Subba Rao, N., Ravindra, B., Wu, J. 2020. Geochemical and health risk evaluation of fluoride rich groundwater in Sattenapalle Region, Guntur district, Andhra Pradesh, India. Human and Ecological Risk Assessment 26(9):2316-2348. https://doi.org/10.1080/10807039.2020.1741338 Wu, J., Sun, Z. 2016. Evaluation of shallow groundwater contamination and associated human health risk in an alluvial plain impacted by agricultural and industrial activities, mid-west China. Exposure and Health 8(3):311-329. https://doi.org/10.1007/s12403-015-0170-x

5. Line 61, such for example should be such as	We have corrected the sentence as suggested (Line 61)
6. Line 66, agricultural-related as should be agricultural-related activities such as	We have corrected the sentence as suggested (Line 66)
7. Lines 170 and 172, Zhonglei is not the family name of the Chinese author, and it is the given name of the Chinese scholar. So please recheck the names of the authors from the references.	As recommended, we have rectified the sentences using the correct family name of the author (Text: Line 178 and 181; References: 971, 997 Supplemental File 3: Table 5: reference #3). We double-checked all the references and corrected the following typing or formatting mistakes: Line 325 and 415. Szostek and ~~Ciecko~~ Ciećko Line 659. ~~Interantional~~ International Line 696. Asian Journal of Experimental Sciences Line 716. ~~2016~~ 2016a. Line 719. ~~2016~~ 2016b. Line 791. doi: ~~https://doi.org/~~10.1007/s10653-020-00568-5. Line 802. South Asian Journal of Experimental Biology Line 868. doi: ~~https://doi.org/~~10.1371/journal.pmed.1000097. Line 884. ~~Physiol. Mol. Biol.~~ Physiology and Molecular Biology of Plants Supplemental File 3: Table 5: reference #13: ~~YePu, et al.~~ Li, et al. (2018) The same typing and formatting mistakes were corrected also in Supplemental File 2 - List of publication included in the Systematic Review
8. Lines 454-455, this sentence needs a reference.	Please note that as per a suggestion of reviewer # 3 we have rephrased the sentence in question as follows: <u>At a global level, it is estimated that around 200 million people are at risk of hazardous exposure to fluoride, including about 66 million people in India and 45 million in China with a high prevalence also found in South America and Africa (Edmunds and Smedley, 2013).</u> The bibliographic reference to which the information reported in the entire sentence refers is: Edmunds and Smedley, 2013.
9. DOI information is suggested to add after each of the references. This will help readers to track the literature.	As suggested, we added the DOI information after each reference for which this information was possible to find.

10. There are so many tables. Some tables that are not so important can be put into supplementary or can be explained using plain text. Big tables will take up too many pages. I think inclusion of 4-5 tables may be enough for the review article.	As per your advice, we have left in the text only the first 4 tables (relating to materials and methods) and we have putted the over-size tables in the supplemental materials (Supplemental File 3 - Over-size tables).
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Reviewer #3

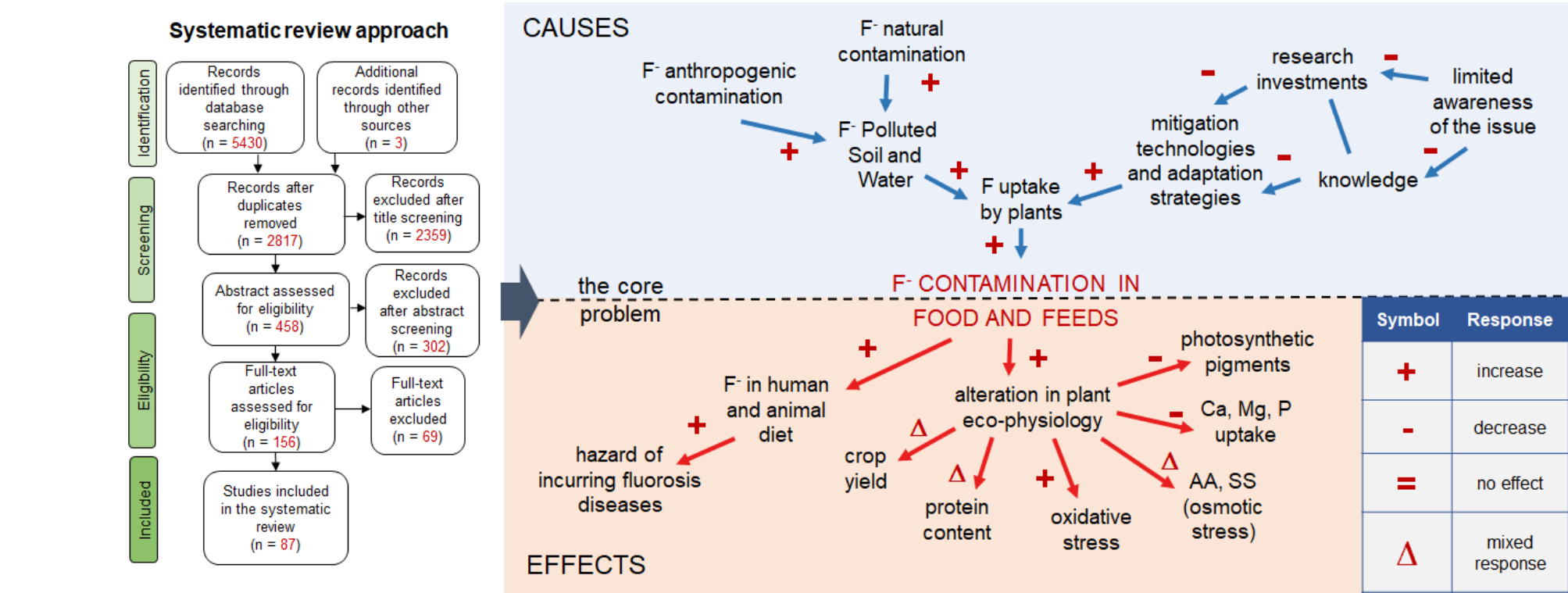
Referee's comments	Responses
1. The Graphical Abstract of the paper is not informative and meaningful, and should be redrawn.	Thank you for this recommendation, we have redrawn the graphical abstract using a more informative type of graph
2. The highlights didn't accurately reflect the main points of the paper, they should be rewritten.	As recommended, we rewrote the highlights focusing on the main findings that were obtained in the Systematic Review
3. Line 366, ad at the end of the line should be as.	We have corrected the typo as indicated (Line 398)
4. Line 455, what do you mean by "66 of which in India and 45 in China"?	We have rephrased the sentence indicated to make it more understandable as follows (line 486): <u>At a global level, it is estimated that around 200 million people are at risk of hazardous exposure to fluoride, including about 66 million people in India and 45 million in China with a high prevalence also found in South America and Africa (Edmunds and Smedley, 2013).</u>
5. For the 3.4.5. Effects on nutrients balance, it's really not nutrients balance.	As suggested, we have modified the paragraph title as follow (line 413): 3.4.5. <i>Effects on nutrients <u>balance uptake</u></i>
6. The title of 3.4.7 is Effects on protein, nitrogen forms, ash, fat and fibre contents, but for the nitrogen, the content of the discussion is not "nitrogen forms".	As suggested, we have modified the paragraph title as follow (line 452): 3.4.7. <i>Effects on protein, nitrogen <u>forms</u>, ash, fat and fibre contents</i> We have also corrected this information in Table 3 and Table 3a (SF1) (last row) and in the title of SF3 - Table 13 - Effects of increasing doses of soil or water fluoride on the content of protein, nitrogen <u>forms</u> (N-tot: total nitrogen, N-prot: protein nitrogen, N-nitrate: nitrate nitrogen), ash, fat and fibre in different vegetable species. (Please note that Table 13 has been moved to Supplemental File 3 (SF3) as per the suggestion of reviewer # 2).

Reviewer #4

Referee's comments	Responses
1. the level of F- in the groundwater in a particular region if correlated with the presence of F- bearing minerals and the depth of the water table, can be another layer of information which can greatly enhance the utility of the review. 3. A correlation between the occurrence of high F- in soil and groundwater and the occurrence of F- induced diseases (fluorosis) among the inhabitant of the area, would add weight to the review.	Thank you for these interesting suggestions, we checked whether the further information you recommended (presence of F- bearing minerals, depth of the water table, and correlation between the occurrence of high F- in soil and groundwater and occurrence of F- induced diseases among the inhabitant of the area) was reported in the field studies included in the present systematic review (SR) in order to add new useful information layers to those reported in table 5 (now in Supplemental File 3 as per suggestion of reviewer #2). Unfortunately, most of the studies included in the present SR, following the <i>research method</i> and the <i>keywords</i> and the <i>inclusion and exclusion criteria</i> defined in the Review Protocol (Table 1), did not report the suggested further information. Expanding the research to further studies would lead beyond the boundaries of the present SR, which has as its core topic the impacts of soil and water fluoride pollution on the safety and the productivity of food and feed crops at a global scale.
2. The conclusion is very general and speculative. The conclusion should be synthesis of the findings from the study or review.	Thank you for this precious comment. As recommended, we reviewed the conclusions of the work, agreeing on the need to give it a focus more oriented to report the synthesis of the findings of the systematic review work and clear indications both for future research perspectives and in terms of agronomic management of crop systems contaminated by fluoride. During the review of the conclusions we found that in order to summarize the clearest messages possible both as regards the impact of fluoride on crop yields, and as regards the attitude of the crops with respect to the bio-accumulation of fluoride, some small integrations were necessary also in the results paragraph. In paragraph 3.4.1. (Effects on growth and biomass) we inserted a brief integration with respect to aspects related to crop yields (line 330). In paragraph 3.3.1., concerning the crop accumulation pattern, we inserted an integration regarding the transfer factor (line 229). We have in fact included the calculation of this index, based on the data already reported, in table 6, which allowed us to better assess the accumulation trend in plant tissues of crops subjected at the increasing doses of contamination. The TF calculation method was reported in M&M (line 134). In paragraph 4 (Knowledge gaps and future research perspectives)

	we then discussed the limits of the proposed index, which it was possible to calculate based on the available data, with reference to another index, the bio-concentration factor highlighting the need to use the latter to obtain a comparison between crops based only on the crops bio-accumulation capacity and not biased by other interacting soil factor.
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Graphical Abstract



Highlights

~~1. Information on the impacts of F pollution on crop yield and safety is limited and fragmented.~~

~~2. We gather all the available literature data on this topic through a systematic approach.~~

1. Plants tend to accumulate fluoride mostly in the root system

2. Accumulation of F in plant tissues is dose-dependent with some exceptions

3. F contamination of food crops can represents an actual health hazard in polluted areas

4. F can alter chlorophyll levels, plant physiology and can induce oxidative stress

4.5.Evidences of F affecting crop yields are often contradictory even at high F levels

1 **Impacts of soil and water fluoride contamination on the safety and productivity of food and**
2 **feed crops: A systematic review**

3

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14 CRediT author statement:

15 Margherita Rizzu: Conceptualization, Methodology, Investigation, Data Curation, Writing - Original
16 Draft preparation, Visualization. Alberto Tanda: Investigation, Data Curation, Writing- Original draft
17 preparation. Chiara Cappai: Investigation, Draft preparation. Pier Paolo Roggero: Writing -
18 Reviewing and Editing, Supervision. Giovanna Seddaiu: Conceptualization, Writing - Reviewing and
19 Editing, Supervision, Resources and project management.

20 **Abstract**

21 Although a strong connection between the environmental fluoride contamination and the fluorosis
22 disease is nowadays worldwide well documented, the knowledge on the fluoride contamination levels
23 of cultivated crops at the basis of the human food-chain is limited and fragmented. Adopting a
24 systematic approach, this study reviews the available literature concerning the impacts of soil and
25 water fluoride pollution on the safety and productivity of food and feed crops at a global scale, with
26 the aim to provide a comprehensive overview of the current state of the art. The analyses of literature
27 highlighted that food and feed crops exposed to soil and water fluoride pollution may reach
28 concentrations of fluoride potentially harmful to human health. Nevertheless, despite the efforts
29 already made to assess the crop fluoride accumulation in contaminated areas of India and China, the
30 present study brings to light the lack of knowledge still existing on this issue for some regions strongly
31 affected by environmental fluoride contamination such as the East African Rift Valley. Concerning
32 the impacts of fluoride on cultivated crops, many authors observed that fluoride can produce toxic
33 effects on plants leading to oxidative stress, reduction in chlorophyll content, alterations in the levels
34 of proline, betaine, soluble sugars, nitrogen and macro and micronutrients. However, the appearance
35 of symptoms such as visible injuries, reduced root and shoot length and yield decline was not always
36 observed, also at high levels of fluoride exposure, and in some cases, the biomass production was
37 even stimulated by increasing fluoride doses.

38

39 **Keywords:** pollution, yield reduction, oxidative stress, risk assessment, hazard index, fluorosis.

40 1. Introduction

41 The association between excessive environmental fluoride occurrence and the high rate of fluorosis
42 in the populations of polluted areas is nowadays well recognized ([He, et al., 2020](#), [Ozsvath, 2009](#),
43 [Subba Rao, et al., 2020](#), [Wu and Sun, 2016](#)). The prolonged exposure to high fluoride doses can lead,
44 in fact, to a series of major illnesses that involve the dental apparatus and skeletal system but also, as
45 recently examined, non-skeletal tissues as internal organs, nervous, reproductive and immune systems
46 (Wei, et al., 2019). Although low-fluoride intakes have been recognised to have positive effects on
47 the prevention of dental caries, moderate chronic ingestion, particularly during childhood, is known
48 to provoke the appearance of black spots on teeth and in most severe cases their loss. Skeletal system
49 disorders appear with the protracted intake of high fluoride doses with symptoms that comprise bone
50 deformities, ligaments calcification and associated back, knee, shoulder and neck pain with
51 difficulties in movements and in proper walking (Bharati, et al., 2005, WHO, 1999, 2011).

52 Endemic fluorosis is prevalent in at least 25 countries with the highest incidence in India, China and
53 various African regions (Vithanage and Bhattacharya, 2015), but groundwater with concentrations
54 above the WHO guideline limit for drinking-water (1.5 mg L^{-1}) have been found in many parts of the
55 world. Beyond China and India, affected regions are Sri Lanka, North and West African countries
56 (Tunisia, Libya, Sudan, Senegal, Ghana, Ivory Coast), the East African Rift Valley (Kenya, Tanzania,
57 Ethiopia, Uganda and Rwanda), South Africa, central Argentina, northern Mexico and Pakistan
58 (Edmunds and Smedley, 2013).

59 The sources of fluoride contamination can be both natural and anthropogenic with the firsts being
60 paramount (Amini, et al., 2008). Natural sources are related to geogenic processes that are primarily
61 responsible for groundwater pollution, such ~~for example~~^{as} the weathering of F-rich minerals and the
62 release of fluoride due to volcanic activities, fumarolic gases, hydro-geothermal vents and marine
63 aerosols. Contamination from anthropogenic activities can be significant on a local scale and may be
64 either of industrial origin, such as the release of wastes from aluminium smelters, effluents from coal-

65 based power stations and factories processing various materials (e.g glass, ceramic, plastics,
66 pesticides, disinfectants, etc.), or agricultural-related such as the long-term uncontrolled use of
67 phosphatic fertilizer or the irrigation with fluoride-enriched water (Ali, et al., 2016, Kimambo, et al.,
68 2019, Singh, et al., 2018)

69 Through the polluted soil, water, and air, fluoride can enter the food-chain (Vithanage and
70 Bhattacharya, 2015). After drinking water, in fact, the consumption of contaminated food products is
71 considered another important source of fluoride exposure for human organisms (Brahman, et al.,
72 2014, WHO, 2011). Furthermore, the contamination of the plant growth environment can lead to the
73 manifestation of toxic effects in food crops with consequent yield and nutritional quality reduction
74 and related economic losses (Ahmed, et al., 2019a, Bustingorri and Lavado, 2014).

75 Several field-scale explorative trials and controlled experiments have been conducted in various
76 contaminated regions of the world to investigate the accumulation of fluoride in crops and the effects
77 on their productivity, nevertheless, the information is still fragmented. Even though, in fact, numerous
78 studies have considered and examined the worldwide environmental fluoride occurrence, particularly
79 in groundwater systems (Amini, et al., 2008, Edmunds and Smedley, 2013, Kimambo, et al., 2019,
80 Vithanage and Bhattacharya, 2015), and various overviews have been conducted on fluoride toxicity
81 in plants (Baunthiyal and Ranghar, 2014, Baunthiyal and Ranghar, 2015, Choudhary, et al., 2019,
82 Singh, et al., 2018, Yadu, et al., 2016), no systematic reviews have been performed concerning the
83 impacts of soil and water fluoride pollution on the safety and the productivity of food and feed crops
84 at a global scale.

85 With the aim to provide a comprehensive overview on this topic and bring to light the gaps of
86 knowledge, this work attempted to gather all the existing scientific literature on the impacts of the
87 environmental fluoride pollution on crop productivity and safety.

88 The findings of this review are intended to suggest future research directions to scientists toward a
89 better understanding of the relationships between fluoride contamination and food safety and

production as well as informing the development of possible mitigation and adaptation strategies in the affected areas.

2. Review methods

The systematic literature review followed the methodological approach reported by existing guidelines (Bilotta, et al., 2014, Collaboration for Environmental Evidence, 2013, Pullin and Knight, 2009, Pullin and Stewart, 2006). A review protocol was implemented defining the connotations of the systematic literature search, the inclusion/exclusion criteria and the data extraction forms (Supplemental File 1 - [SF1](#)).

2.1. Resources

Academic search engines such as ISI Web of Science (Web of Science Core Collection plus other databases such as Bioabs, Kjd, Medline, Rsci, Scielo), PubMed, Scopus, Science Direct, JSTOR, Agricola, Fluorideresearch.org and Cab Abstracts were used. Advanced search options were considered entering the following keywords: *fluoride OR fluorine*, in the title field, *AND crop OR plant OR vegetation OR grasses OR vegetables OR agriculture*, in the other fields. The search was restricted to the English language, and the timespan went from 1985 to 2020. To refine the results, the search conducted on the Web of Science Core Collection and the Scopus database was limited to the following subject areas:

- for the Web of Science Core Collection: *Environmental sciences, Toxicology, Water resources, Plant sciences, Soil science, Agronomy, Ecology, Agriculture multidisciplinary, Multidisciplinary sciences, Biology, Forestry, Horticulture Agricultural engineering, Physiology, Agriculture dairy animal science, Environmental studies*
- for the Scopus database: *Environmental Science, Agricultural and Biological Sciences, Multidisciplinary, Decision Sciences*

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2.2. Review process

Records were stored in a reference manager software database and duplicates were eliminated. The article screening was performed following a stepwise process according to the established inclusion criteria (Table 1). A first selection was conducted on the basis of the publication title, in the second stage abstracts were assessed and finally, the remaining articles were filtered revising the whole paper. In case of doubts about the pertinence of a record, this was included and further evaluated in the next stage. A subset of the references was revised by two further independent reviewers in order to assess the reliability of the application of the inclusion criteria. The final numbers of articles recovered, duplicated, accepted and excluded were annotated to produce an accurate PRISMA flow diagram (Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic reviews and Meta-Analyses) (Moher, et al., 2009). The list of the papers that were finally included is reported in the Supplemental File 2- [\(SF2\)](#).

2.3. Data extraction and analysis

From the final subset of articles, available qualitative (Table 2) and quantitative (Table 3) information was extracted. If the data were not reported in the text, they were extracted from tables and graphs. For each extracted variable, the percentages increase/decrease ($\Delta\%$) from control values to those of treated subjects were calculated and data were summarized in Tables ~~8-13~~ [5-13 included in Supplemental File 3 \(SF3\)](#). [In Table 6 \(SF3\), the Transfer Factor \(TF\) in the edible parts was calculated by the ratio between the concentration of fluoride of the edible organs and the concentration of total fluoride in the soil \(Ding, et al., 2018\)-. Furthermore, the accumulation pattern was reported. The TF index allows to assess the accumulation trend in plant tissues of crops subjected at increasing doses of contaminant. When TF >1, the concentration of fluoride in the plant tissues is higher than the concentration of total fluoride in soil, indicating a hyper-accumulator behaviour in the considered plant organ.](#)

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3. Results

3.1. Characteristics of the studies included in the systematic review

A total of 87 studies was retrieved through the process of the systematic review (Figure 1), with 77 % of the collected articles published after or in the year 2010.

Field-scale studies, pot experiments, hydroponic experiments and multi-experiments studies were found. Some of them reported exclusively data on fluoride accumulation in crops, from others it was possible to get only data on the effects of fluoride on plants and further articles included both types of data (Table 4).

Around 46 % of the studies were focused on soil pollution, 37 % on water pollution and the remaining 17 % on both sources of fluoride contamination.

Among the studies conducted under controlled conditions (pot and hydroponic experiments), in the 74% of the cases, NaF was used as a pollutant to contaminate the source of exposure (soil or water), KF was used in the 11% of the studies, NH₄F in another 11% while AlF and HF in the 4%.

3.2. Fluoride in the water-soil-plant system of different areas of the world and human health hazard

The areas in which the greatest number of studies has been conducted were India (~42%, 16 studies) and China (~32%, 12 studies), where the considered environmental fluoride contamination was mostly of natural origin. Concerning the other regions, just two field-scale studies (~5%) were found for Pakistan and one field-scale study (~3%) for each of the following regions was found: Argentina, Ethiopia, Iran, Nigeria, New Zealand, Poland, Russia and Tanzania (Figure 2).

Concerning India, the majority of the studies regarded the areas of Rajasthan and West Bengal, furthermore, other experiments were conducted also in Andhra Pradesh, Telangana, Bangalore, Uttar Pradesh and Bihar ([SF3](#) - Table 5). In general, the different studies considered a wide variety of food crops, including grain crops, pulses, horticultural crops, leafy vegetables and tubers. The lowest value

165 of soil total fluoride concentration ($6.7 \text{ mg F}^- \text{ kg}^{-1}$) was found by Nagaraju et al. (2017) in Talupula,
166 Anantapur District, Andhra Pradesh while the highest ($681.0 \text{ mg F}^- \text{ kg}^{-1}$) was detected in Rajasthan
167 by Saini et al. (2013). The soil water-soluble fluoride varied from $0.3 \text{ mg F}^- \text{ kg}^{-1}$ (Lakshmi, et al.,
168 2016) in Aatmakoor Mandal, Nalgonda district, Telangana, to $73.9 \text{ mg F}^- \text{ kg}^{-1}$ in Rajasthan (Saini, et
169 al., 2013). Concerning groundwater, the fluoride concentration ranged from $0.3 \text{ mg F}^- \text{ L}^{-1}$ in Birbhum
170 district to $21.5 \text{ mg F}^- \text{ L}^{-1}$ in Bangalore (Begum, et al., 2008, Mondal and Gupta, 2015). The lowest
171 contents of fluoride in various vegetable species ($< 4.2 \text{ mg F}^- \text{ kg}^{-1} \text{ DM}$) were observed in the regions
172 of Nowapara and Junidpur, Birbhum district and in Nalgonda district, Telangana (Lakshmi, et al.,
173 2016, 2017a, 2017b, Pal, et al., 2012), while the greatest value was recorded in *Brassica oleracea* L.
174 ($296 \text{ mg F}^- \text{ kg}^{-1} \text{ DM}$) by Begum et al. (2008) in Bangalore.

175 Regarding China, six out of twelve field-scale studies concerned the uptake and accumulation of
176 fluoride in tea plant (*Camellia sinensis* (L.) O. Kuntze) which is well known to be one among the
177 fluoride hyper-accumulator species (Cronin, et al., 2000). The concentration of fluoride in young tea
178 leaves varied from a minimum of $49.0 \text{ mg F}^- \text{ kg}^{-1} \text{ DM}$ found by ~~Zhonglei et al.~~ Xie, et al. (2007), up
179 to $808.0 \text{ mg F}^- \text{ kg}^{-1} \text{ DM}$ observed by Fung et al. (1999) in Guangdong province. Mature leaves were
180 found to have higher concentrations compared to young ones, ranging from $221.0 \text{ mg F}^- \text{ kg}^{-1} \text{ DM}$
181 ~~(Zhonglei, et al., 2007)~~ (Xie, et al., 2007) to $2919.0 \text{ mg F}^- \text{ kg}^{-1} \text{ DM}$ in Lantau Peak of Lantau Island
182 (Fung, et al., 2003). The fluoride accumulation in edible parts of various food crops observed by
183 different authors in China ranged from a value of $0.1 \text{ mg F}^- \text{ kg}^{-1} \text{ DM}$ in cabbage up to $34.7 \text{ mg F}^- \text{ kg}^{-1}$
184 DM in pumpkins leaves (He, et al., 2020), and the concentration of fluoride in wheat grains ($0.6\text{-}7.2$
185 $\text{mg F}^- \text{ kg}^{-1} \text{ DM}$) was found, in most of the cases, to be higher than the national edible health standard
186 of China (CMH, 2012) ($\leq 1.5 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$) (Li, et al., 2019a, Li, et al., 2017, Wang, et al., 2012, Yu, et
187 al., 2018, Zheng and Sun, 2011). Higher concentrations were found in roots, leaves and straw of
188 wheat grown in the region of Baiyin, Gansu province and Yangtze River outfall region and in roots
189 and leaves of maize, with the greatest value ($542 \text{ mg F}^- \text{ kg}^{-1} \text{ DM}$) observed in Gansu province in roots

190 (Li, et al., 2019a, Li, et al., 2017, Wang, et al., 2012). In this area also the highest concentration of
191 fluoride were recorded both in soil (total fluoride: 4987 mg F⁻ kg⁻¹; water-soluble fluoride: 59 mg F⁻
192 kg⁻¹) and water (82 mg F⁻ L⁻¹) (Li, et al., 2017). The lowest values of soil total fluoride (82 mg F⁻ kg⁻¹
193 ¹) and water fluoride (0.2 mg F⁻ L⁻¹) were observed in Shihezi, Xinjiang by Yu et al. (2018) while the
194 minimum soil water-soluble fluoride (0.04 mg F⁻ kg⁻¹) was found by Ruan and Wong (2001) in Jintan
195 County (Jiangsu Province).

196 Environmental fluoride pollution of natural origin was also found in the water-soil-plant systems of
197 Argentina, Ethiopia, Nigeria, Pakistan and Tanzania (Brahman, et al., 2014, Dagnaw, et al., 2017, De
198 Troiani, et al., 1987, Kazi, et al., 2019, Okibe, et al., 2010, Rizzu, et al., 2020), while anthropogenic
199 sources of fluoride contamination were identified in Poland, New Zealand and Russia. In Poland, the
200 old Warta reservoir near the town of Luboń was severely contaminated by the wastes from a nearby
201 chemical plant (Jezierska-Madziar and Pinskiwar, 2003), in New Zealand Loganathan et al. (2001)
202 studied the effects of the long-term application of P-fertilizer on the top-soil fluoride concentration
203 (SF3 - Table 5) while in Russia Sokolova et al. (2019) studied the effects of fluoride contaminated
204 soils 0.5 km from the IrkAZ (one of the largest enterprises in aluminium industry in Russia) on the
205 productivity and fluoride uptake of some field crops.

206 Some of the abovementioned authors, as well as assessing the fluoride accumulation in food crops
207 also conducted nutritional surveys among the populations of the contaminated areas in order to
208 estimate a hypothetical fluoride daily ingestion (estimated daily intake, EDI) associated with the
209 consumption of the studied crops and the related hazard index (HI) which represents how many times
210 the effective intake exceeds the recommended dose. In many cases, the cumulative EDI from the diet
211 and drinking water exceeded the recommended value (HI > 1) with children and teenagers being the
212 categories considered at major risk (Bhattacharya, et al., 2017, Brahman, et al., 2014, He, et al., 2020,
213 Jha, et al., 2008a, Kazi, et al., 2019, Rizzu, et al., 2020).

214

215 3.3. Fluoride uptake and partitioning under controlled conditions

216 Among the analysed publications concerning pot and hydroponic experiments, it was possible to get
217 data on fluoride accumulation in plant tissues of 31 different species including cereals (*Hordeum*
218 *vulgare* L., *Oryza sativa* L., *x Triticosecale* Wittm., *Triticum aestivum* L., *Zea mays* L.), pseudo-
219 cereals (*Amaranthus gangeticus* L., *Amaranthus viridis* L.), pulses (*Glycine max* L. Merrill, *Lupinus*
220 *angustifolius* L., *Lupinus luteus* L., *Medicago sativa* L., *Onobrychis viciifolia* Scop., *Pisum sativum*
221 L.), horticultural species (*Abelmoschus esculentus* (L.) Moench, *Allium cepa* L., *Coriandrum sativum*
222 L., *Ipomoea aquatica* Forssk., *Lactuca sativa* L., *Spinacea oleracea* L.), in particular species
223 belonging to the Brassicaceae (*Brassica chinensis* L., *Brassica juncea* L., *Brassica napus* L., *Brassica*
224 *oleracea* L., *Raphanus sativus* L.) and Solanaceae families (*Lycopersicon esculentum* L., *Solanum*
225 *tuberosum* L.) and further cultivated species (*Camellia japonica* L., *Camellia sinensis* (L.) O. Kuntze,
226 *Olea europaea* L., *Phacelia* spp. Juss., *Saccharum officinarum* L.) ([SF3](#) - Table 6).

228 3.3.1. Fluoride Transfer Factor (TF) in edible parts and accumulation pattern

229 An overall decreasing trend in the TF (which remains always < 0.4) calculated for edible parts of
230 lady's finger, onion, radish and soybean was observed in several studies where plants were treated
231 with increasing doses of NaF in soil (20-1000 mg F⁻ kg⁻¹). A decreasing behaviour was observed also
232 in the case of spinach (50-800 mg F⁻ kg⁻¹) with TF of leaves reaching higher values (1-0.5) at the
233 lowest concentrations (< 200 mg F⁻ kg⁻¹). Potato tubers, in contrast, showed a mixed response,
234 exhibiting a hyper-accumulation (TF = 2.1) when treated with 11 mg F⁻ kg⁻¹, while for higher
235 increasing concentrations (up to 220 mg F⁻ kg⁻¹) the TF ranged from 0.3 to 0.1.
236 Only one study assessed the impacts of AlF on the fluoride accumulation in rapeseed (25-75 mg F⁻
237 kg⁻¹) with TF ranging from 0.6 to 0.2 with a dose-dependent decreasing trend.
238 When fluoride was applied in the form of KF to soil (20-300 mg F⁻ kg⁻¹), the edible organs of triticale,
239 narrow leaf-lupin, yellow lupin, sainfoin, radish and maize showed a TF always < 0.3.

As a well-known hyper-accumulator, the TF of the leaves of tea plants treaded with NH_4F or NaF (10-500 $\text{mg F}^- \text{kg}^{-1}$) reached markedly higher values compared to the TF of all the other considered species (up to 76). Only in one study the TF of tea was found to be lower than 1 (SF3 - Table 6).

In general, for almost all the crops, roots were the organs that accumulated fluoride most. An exception was represented by tea plant and Japanese camellia that, as expected, hyper-accumulated fluoride in the leaves which showed higher concentrations compared to roots and young shoots (Camarena-Rangel, et al., 2015, Ruan, et al., 2004, Yang, et al., 2016); this trend was moreover confirmed also in the previously mentioned field-scale studies (Fung, et al., 1999, Fung, et al., 2003, Ruan and Wong, 2001, Xie, et al., 2007). Another exception was represented by a study of Chen et al. (2017) on radish where the authors found that the accumulation of fluoride was highest in leaves than in roots. However, other studies conducted in radish confirmed the common higher concentration of fluoride in roots compared to leaves or, more generally, to aerial biomass (Chakrabarti and Patra, 2013a, Szostek and Ciećko, 2014). Furthermore, when mimicked sprinkler irrigation was applied (70-80% of water poured into the pot and 20-30% sprayed on plants) wheat (var. Raj. 3077) and barley (RD-2052) showed the highest concentration of fluoride in leaves, followed by stems, and then roots and grains (Agarwal and Chauhan, 2014, 2015). In other studies on cereals, roots were confirmed as the organs with the highest accumulation of fluoride, usually followed by the leaves and shoots and finally the grains (Chakrabarti, et al., 2013b, Jha, et al., 2013a, Mackowiak, et al., 2003, Szostek and Ciećko, 2014) or, in some other cases, as in the studies of Bhargava and Bhardwa (2011) on wheat (var. Raj. 4083) and Gautam and Bhardwaj (2010a) on barley (var. RD-2683), with the grains or crop ears accumulating more fluoride than shoot and leaves, respectively.

In crops as lady's finger and sugar cane, leaves were the second organ for fluoride concentration followed by fruits and shoots (lady's finger) or stem (sugar cane). At the opposite, in pakchoi, water spinach and lettuce, stems accumulated more fluoride than foliage (Zhang, et al., 2018). In mustard Ahmad et al. (2015) and Yadav et al. (2018) observed the following order: roots > seeds > shoots >

265 leaves, while Chakrabarti and Patra (2013a) found a higher concentration of fluoride in leaves than
266 in seeds. In olive tree the pattern was: roots > shoot > leaves > fruits (Zouari, et al., 2014). In onion,
267 after roots, the shoot accumulated more fluoride than the bulb and in slender amaranth leaves
268 accumulated more than seeds (Jha, et al., 2009, Stanley, et al., 2002).

269 In many species (winter oilseed rape, narrow-leaf lupine, yellow lupine, phacelia and spinach) the
270 accumulation pattern roots > aerial mass was observed but the partitioning among aerial organs was
271 not investigated (Jha, et al., 2008b, Li, et al., 2018, Szostek and Ciećko, 2014). In some other cases,
272 the accumulation pathway among organs was variable depending on the level of fluoride to which
273 the plants were exposed (Bustingorri, et al., 2015, Bustingorri and Lavado, 2014, Das, et al., 2015).

274

275 3.3.2. Fluoride uptake

276 In the examined studies, an overall increasing trend of fluoride accumulation in organs of plants
277 treated with rising concentrations of fluoride in soil or water was observed.

278 The highest fluoride concentration (3217 mg F⁻ kg⁻¹ DM) was found in rice roots in case of a
279 hydroponic experiment; this species showed a hyper-accumulation also in the shoot (395 mg F⁻ kg⁻¹
280 DM) with respect to the level of fluoride to which the plants were subjected (30 mg F⁻ L⁻¹)
281 (Mackowiak, et al., 2003). Tea leaves also showed a marked capacity to accumulate fluoride reaching
282 up to 2553 mg F⁻ kg⁻¹ DM in plants treated with 300 mg F⁻ kg⁻¹ in soil (Yang, et al., 2016). Japanese
283 camellia and sugar cane were also found to have high levels of fluoride in their tissues when treated
284 with 30 mg F⁻ kg⁻¹ of soil, up to 553 and 697 mg F⁻ kg⁻¹ DM (Japanese camellia) and 521 and 120 mg
285 F⁻ kg⁻¹ DM (sugar cane) in roots and leaves, respectively. Considering its fast growth rate, sugar cane
286 was best recommended by authors for phytoremediation purposes (Camarena-Rangel, et al., 2015).
287 Very high concentrations were observed also by Zouari et al., (2014) in roots (up to 1070 mg kg⁻¹
288 DM) and shoots (up to 570 mg F⁻ kg⁻¹ DM) of olive tree treated with concentrations of fluoride in
289 water up to 1900 mg F⁻ L⁻¹, and another extremely high value (1858 mg kg⁻¹ DM) was observed by

290 Elrashidi et al. (1998) in the biomass of barley cultivated in acid soil and treated with 400 mg F⁻ kg⁻¹
291 ¹.

292 Concerning cereals, when plants were treated with low concentrations of fluoride the lowest value
293 (0.9 mg F⁻ kg⁻¹ DM) was observed in grains of wheat irrigated with 4 mg F⁻ L⁻¹ while, among plants
294 treated with the highest concentrations, the maximum value (54 mg F⁻ kg⁻¹ DM) was found in grains
295 of rice plants treated with water at 30 mg F⁻ L⁻¹ (Bhargava and Bhardwaj, 2011, Chakrabarti, et al.,
296 2013b).

297 Among the Brassicaceae, the lowest value (0.2 mg F⁻ kg⁻¹ DM) was observed in cabbage treated with
298 10 mg F⁻ L⁻¹ while the greatest (64 mg F⁻ kg⁻¹ DM) was found in radish roots cultivated in soil with
299 300 mg F⁻ kg⁻¹. The maximum value for mustard seeds (22 mg F⁻ kg⁻¹ DM) was found in the variety
300 CS-14 irrigated with 75 mg F⁻ L⁻¹. Even they are not edible parts, it is worth noting that the shoots of
301 winter oilseed rape and the leaves of radish reached 193 and 300 mg F⁻ kg⁻¹ DM, respectively, when
302 plants were grown in a soil contaminated with 1000 mg F⁻ kg⁻¹ (Khandare and Rao, 2006, Li, et al.,
303 2018, Szostek and Ciećko, 2014, Yadav, et al., 2018).

304 Regarding pulses, values in soybean ranged between 0.4 and 9.0 mg F⁻ kg⁻¹ DM, and 2.4 and 28 mg
305 F⁻ kg⁻¹ DM in seeds and leaves, respectively. The concentration of fluoride in the aerial mass of
306 narrow-leaf lupine, yellow lupine and sainfoin varied from 3 to 8, 4 to 33 and 3 to 28 mg F⁻ kg⁻¹ DM
307 when plants were cultivated in soils contaminated with fluoride contents from 0 to 60, 0 to 300 and 0
308 to 150 mg F⁻ kg⁻¹, respectively (Bustingorri, et al., 2015, Bustingorri and Lavado, 2014, Szostek and
309 Ciećko, 2014).

310 Among the leaf-vegetables (elephant-head amaranth, slender amaranth, coriander, water spinach,
311 lettuce and spinach) very high values were reached in spinach (up to 220 mg F⁻ kg⁻¹ DM) treated with
312 800 mg F⁻ kg⁻¹ in soil (Jha, et al., 2008b). In lettuce, water spinach, coriander and elephant-head
313 amaranth, treated with waters from 0 to 10 mg F⁻ L⁻¹, the concentrations of fluoride ranged
314 respectively between 2.0-2.8, 4.3-6.2, 4.0-16.4 and 4.0-50.0 mg F⁻ kg⁻¹ DM (Chakrabarti and Patra,

2013a, Khandare and Rao, 2006). Quite high concentrations were observed also in other horticultural species such as for example in potato tubers (up to 21 mg F⁻ kg⁻¹ DM), lady's finger fruits (up to 49 mg F⁻ kg⁻¹ DM) and onion bulbs (up to 54 mg F⁻ kg⁻¹ DM) when exposed to the highest levels of fluoride (220, 600 and 800 mg F⁻ kg⁻¹ of soil respectively) (Das, et al., 2015, Jha, et al., 2009, Jha, et al., 2013b).

320

3.4. Effects of fluoride on plants

3.4.1. Effects on growth and biomass

A decrease in the total biomass of plants exposed to rising concentrations of fluoride was observed in many crops such as barley, rice, wheat, lady's finger, onion, soybean, pea, radish, spinach, triticale and olive tree (SF3 - Table 7). In contrast, Szostek and Ciećko (2017b) found that increasing levels of soil fluoride contamination (up to 300 mg F⁻ kg⁻¹ of soil administered as KF) stimulated the biomass produced by radish, phacelia, narrow-leaf lupin, yellow lupin, winter oilseed rape and aerial parts of maize plants while the production of spring triticale straw and grains, maize roots, and aerial parts of lucerne was depressed (SF3 -Table 7).

Regarding yields, when soils were contaminated with NaF, dose-dependent decreases in yield of variable magnitude were observed in different crops. At maximum contamination doses of 300-450 mg F⁻ kg⁻¹, a reduction in yield of about 20 and 30% was observed in tea and soybean respectively. At concentration ranging from 800-1000 mg F⁻ kg⁻¹, yield were reduced by 20% in spinach and by 70-80% in onion and rapeseed. When fluorine was added to the soil in the form of KF triticale showed a dose-dependent decrease of up to 34% at maximum doses (200-300 mg F⁻ kg⁻¹) while a slight increase was observed in the roots of radish. Low NaF concentration (0.4-10 mg F⁻ L⁻¹) administered to lettuce and pak-choi via irrigation water led to a marked effect in terms of yield increases (up to 170 and 180%) that reached the peak at 3 mg F⁻ L⁻¹ while in the same trial on water spinach, the yield

was initially promoted and then suppressed. At higher concentrations (200-300 mg F⁻ L⁻¹) wheat and lady's finger were observed to exhibit a reduction in yield of approximately 50 and 60% respectively.

In species as wheat, soybean, pea, mustard, radish, olive tree and lady's finger some authors also observed a reduction in shoot and root length accompanied in some cases by a decrement in the number of leaves and leaf area, number of flowers, number and length of pods, number of seeds and 1000-grain weight (SF3 - Table 8).

Concerning tea plants, Yang, et al. (2016) observed that fluoride in hydroponic cultures, administered in the form of NaF, inhibited the growth of new roots and shoot tips, and coherently Pan, et al. (2020) found a reduction in root length by up to 50% in plants grown in hydroponic cultures at 16 mg F⁻ L⁻¹. In contrast, in a pot experiment Ruan, et al. (2003) observed that the growth of tea plants was not affected even at the highest level of fluoride contamination (100 mg F⁻ kg⁻¹ of soil as NH₄F). Similarly, also Sharma et al. (2014) did not observe significant effects on shoot height, root length, leaf area, number of leaves, fresh leaf weight and dry leaf weight compared to control. No negative effects on the morphological parameters was also found by Camarena-Rangel et al. (2015) in a study assessing the phytoremediation efficiency in fluoride removal of Japanese camellia and sugar cane grown in hydroponic cultures with levels of fluoride up to 10 mg L⁻¹.

3.4.2. Visible symptoms

In species as onion, tip burning was observed (Jha, et al., 2009) while in wheat plants, chlorosis and necrosis symptoms were detected (Joshi and Bhardwaj, 2012). Leaf necrosis was found also by Yang et al. (2016) in tea plants treated with 300 mg F⁻ kg⁻¹ of soil and visual symptoms of fluoride toxicity appeared as well in olive leaves in which necrosis was apical and/or marginal and progressively extended over the whole surface of the leaf lamina (Zouari, et al., 2014). On the other hand, Bustingorri et al. (2015) in soybean, Jha et al. (2013a, 2008b) in rice, wheat and spinach, and Ruan

et al. (2003) in tea, despite a biomass reduction found in some cases, did not observe any visible injury.

3.4.3. Oxidative stress and defensive mechanisms

Superoxide dismutases (SODs) are prevalent metalloenzymes greatly involved in the immune response of living organisms. They are the first important defence enzymes within a plant cell being able to eliminate the oxidants in the cell parts affected (Ismail and Suroto, 2012), particularly toxic superoxide radicals (ROS). Biochemical changes observed in plants under fluoride stress may be related to the antioxidative defence mechanisms operating in the plant cells (Chakrabarti and Patra, 2015). The formation and accumulation of toxic oxygen species, like hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2), lipid peroxidation (LP) and electrolyte leakage (EL) has been associated with various types of stresses (Cai, et al., 2016a). Other studies monitored the thiobarbituric acid reactive substances (TBARS) and malondialdehyde (MDA) production as markers of free radical formation in plant tissues. Moreover, under the influence of different environmental stresses, some authors reported a reduction in glutathione (GSH) (Śnieszek, et al., 2018), ascorbic acid (AA), total flavonoid (Flav) and total polyphenol content (Phe). Antioxidant enzymes like catalase (CAT), glutathione peroxidase (GPOX) and ascorbate peroxidase (APX) can catalyse the rupture of hydrogen peroxide H_2O_2 .

Various authors observed an increase in SOD activity when plants were exposed to fluoride (SF3 - Table 9), but other studies showed that whereas lower fluoride concentrations stimulated the antioxidant system, higher fluoride levels caused a significant reduction of antioxidant enzyme activities with an increase of oxidative stress indicators such as H_2O_2 , TBARS, LP and EL both in roots and leaves (Cai, et al., 2016a, Chakrabarti and Patra, 2015, Zouari, et al., 2017). In a study by Bustingorri et al. (2017) on soybean a significant decrease in GSH with respect to control was observed only at high fluoride concentration. Furthermore, Snieszek et al., (2018) found significant

alterations in the level of AA, GSH, Flav and Phe in pea plants cultivated in contaminated soils, compared to the control plants.

Significant variations in the AA levels were also found in different vegetable species cultivated under field conditions in fluoride contaminated areas (Mondal and Gupta, 2015, Pal, et al., 2012).

3.4.4. Effects on the content of photosynthetic pigments

Total chlorophyll reduction is primarily caused by the chlorophyll collapse or inhibition of chlorophyll synthesis due to fluoride stress (Chang and Thompson, 1963). In most of the analysed studies, the chlorophyll content of fluoride-treated plants was found to decrease with respect to controls in a dose-dependent manner. In contrast, Stanley et al. (2002) found that in amaranth the chlorophyll a and b of leaf samples was not affected by fluoride. Together with the chlorophyll decline, several authors observed also a reduction in the content of carotenoids in species ~~adas~~ lady's finger, mustard, rice and tomato ([SF3](#) - Table 10).

Field-studies conducted on different plant species also reported a significant decrease in the chlorophyll content of most of the vegetables cultivated in the treated or fluoride-affected areas with respect to control plants (Mondal and Gupta, 2015, Pal, et al., 2012).

A reduction in photosynthetic and chlorophyll fluorescence parameters was also found by Cai et al. (2016a) in tea plants treated with fluoride doses higher than 5 mg L⁻¹. Joshi and Bhardwaj (2012) reported a modest effect of fluoride on chlorophyll b and a significant reduction in chlorophyll a in plants irrigated with increasing levels of fluoride. Furthermore, Camarena-Rangel, et al. (2015) found that the chlorophyll decrease in camellia species was manifested after 28 days for all the fluoride levels tested observing that this parameter was a better indicator of cellular integrity than others such as oxidation or wilting. Conversely, chlorophyll concentration in sugar cane plants grown in medium with 5 or 10 mg F⁻ L⁻¹ was observed to increase with respect to control plants confirming the tolerance of this species to fluoride.

412

413 3.4.5. *Effects on nutrients ~~balance~~ uptake*

414 Zouari et al., (2017) suggested that the increased uptake of some minerals observed in olive could be
415 interpreted as a defence response of plants to fluoride. Szostek and ~~Ciecko~~Ciećko (2015, 2017a)
416 observed that the soil contamination with fluorine significantly affected the concentration of calcium,
417 magnesium and phosphorus in all the tested species (S3 - Table 11). In contrast, tea plants subjected
418 to fluoride treatments did not show any significant alteration in the concentrations of macro and
419 microelements (K, Ca, Mg, S, P, Fe, Mn, Zn) in leaves (Ruan, et al., 2003, 2004) (S3 - Table 11).

420

421 3.4.6. *Effects on free amino acids, proline, betaine and soluble sugars contents*

422 A common response of plants to various types of environmental stresses is the overproduction and
423 intracellular accumulation of free amino acids such as proline and betaine (Hayat, et al., 2012). In
424 addition to other physiological functions, in fact, proline and betaine have an adaptive role in
425 maintaining cell turgor or osmotic balance under stress conditions and are believed to have positive
426 effects on enzyme and membrane integrity (Ashraf and Foolad, 2007, Dar, et al., 2016, Kavi Kishor,
427 et al., 2015). Proline is a metal chelator, a signalling molecule and an antioxidant defence molecule
428 preventing electrolyte leakage and normalizing concentrations of ROS (Dar, et al., 2016, Hayat, et
429 al., 2012). Soluble sugars are also considered to have an important role in improving abiotic stress
430 tolerance of plants by mediating osmotic adjustment and acting as ROS scavengers with antioxidant
431 function. On the other hand, various kind of environmental stresses may compromise the
432 photosynthesis efficiency and thus, reduce the soluble sugars supply (Keunen, et al., 2013, Ruan, et
433 al., 2003, Sharma, et al., 2020).

434 Concerning proline or free amino acids accumulation in response to increasing fluoride doses, various
435 authors consistently reported an increasing trend in species as lady's finger, mustard, potato, olive,
436 rice and tea (S3 - Table 12). In accordance with these findings also Pal, et al. (2012) in a field-scale

437 experiment found that the level of proline of various plant species was higher in vegetables grown
438 under fluoride stress conditions with respect to control plants. Conversely, Mondal and Gupta (2015)
439 found a significant reduction in free amino acid contents in different species cultivated in a fluoride-
440 polluted area in comparison to those grown in the control area. A mixed response was observed in
441 the accumulation of betaine in tea leaves. At $5 \text{ mg F}^- \text{ L}^{-1}$, in fact, betaine levels increased by up to
442 28% compared to control while at higher fluoride doses, betaine slightly decreased by up to 20% at
443 $50 \text{ mg F}^- \text{ L}^{-1}$ (Cai, et al., 2016a).

444 As regards soluble sugars, a steady decreased with increasing fluoride concentration was observed in
445 lady's finger and rice while their level increased in olive and potato tubers. In potato leaves an
446 increase of soluble sugars content was observed in the range from $11\text{-}44 \text{ mg F}^- \text{ kg}^{-1}$ whereas a
447 reduction of those compounds was found at 110 and $220 \text{ mg F}^- \text{ kg}^{-1}$ (Ahmed, et al., 2019b, Das, et
448 al., 2015, Zouari, et al., 2016). In field experiments various vegetable species (with the exception of
449 spinach and cabbage), showed a decrease in soluble sugars levels when cultivated in fluoride
450 contaminated areas (Mondal and Gupta, 2015, Pal, et al., 2012).

451

452 3.4.7. Effects on protein, nitrogen ~~forms~~, ash, fat and fibre contents

453 Studies that consider the effects of soil or water fluoride contamination on plant proteins or nitrogen
454 contents are very few (Ahmed, et al., 2019b, Das, et al., 2015, Pan, et al., 2020, Saleem, et al., 2015,
455 Szostek and Ciećko, 2017b) and, among these, just one investigated also the effects on ash, fat and
456 fibre content (Saleem, et al., 2015). Protein or protein nitrogen content was found to significantly
457 decrease with increasing fluoride doses in lady's finger, in the aerial mass of winter oilseed rape, and
458 in potato tubers and leaves ([SF3](#) - Table 13). Szostek and Ciećko (2017b) supposed that the fluoride-
459 induced metabolic stress may alter the protein synthesis processes and accelerate their degradation
460 and use for catabolic processes. A reverse relationship, *id est* an increase in the protein or N-protein
461 content was observed in tomato, in the grains of spring triticale, in roots of black radish and in the

462 aerial mass of Lucerne ([SF3 - Table 13](#)). At field scale, Mondal and Gupta (2015) observed an
463 increase in the protein content of the plants grown in fluoride-treated plots, compared to control plots,
464 in many vegetable species (onion, beet, celeriac, garlic, pea, wheat, rice and mustard while in spinach,
465 cabbage, carrot, cucumber and lentil).

466 As regards the total nitrogen, its content increased with increasing soil fluoride levels in spring
467 triticale, black radish, phacelia lucerne, maize aerial mass and roots of narrow-leaf and yellow lupine.

468 Conversely, in the aerial mass of yellow lupine, the N-total content decreased ([SF3 - Table 13](#)).

469 Saleem, et al. (2015) observed that the ash content of two tomato varieties (Roma and Chinar) was
470 not affected by increasing levels of soil fluoride contamination. In Chinar variety a significant
471 reduction of fat content was found for soil fluoride concentrations above 50 mg F⁻ kg⁻¹ while no
472 significant effects were observed in the fibre content. At the opposite, in Roma variety, the fibre
473 content was significantly reduced with all the treatments while the fat content was not affected ([SF3](#)
474 [-Table 13](#)).

475

476 3.4.8. Further effects

477 An interesting strategy to adapt and resist high concentrations of fluoride was observed by Cai, et al.
478 (2016a) in leaves of tea plants consisting in the reduction in stomatal aperture with an increase in the
479 epidermal hairs number. Similar results were found in young olive trees under fluoride stress, in
480 which slight reductions of leaf relative water content (LRWC) and stomatal conductance were
481 detected (Zouari, et al., 2016). Moreover, among the effects caused by fluoride on plants, serious
482 damages to the ultrastructure of the cells were observed through transmission electron microscopy
483 within a study in tea plant conducted by Li and Chen (2018).

484

485 4. Knowledge gaps and future research perspectives

486 At a global level ~~about~~, it is estimated that around 200 million people are ~~estimated to be~~ at risk of
487 hazardous exposure to fluoride, including about 66 ~~of which~~ million people in India and 45 million in
488 China. ~~A with a~~ high prevalence ~~was assessed~~ also found in South America and Africa (Edmunds and
489 Smedley, 2013).

490 The geographical distribution of the regions in which the fluoride in the water-soil-plant system has
491 been investigated at field-scale so far, well reflects that of the high-fluoride groundwaters already
492 reported by several authors (Ali, et al., 2016, Amini, et al., 2008, Edmunds and Smedley, 2013,
493 Kimambo, et al., 2019). However, the analysis of the state of the art highlights that for some areas,
494 such as for example the African Rift Valley, where groundwaters and surface waters recorded some
495 of the highest concentrations of fluoride ever observed (Davies, 2008, Edmunds and Smedley, 2013),
496 the contribution of the local food and feed contaminated crops to the daily fluoride human exposure
497 is still poorly investigated.

498 Regarding India, rightly the areas in which the majority of the field-scale studies were conducted are
499 recognised to be among the most affected of the country, first among all Rajasthan, where the risk of
500 fluorosis concerns around 11 million people in 18 districts, and after that, Andhra Pradesh and
501 Telangana which is the second-worst affected state in India (Ali, et al., 2016).

502 Concerning China, endemic fluorosis has been documented almost in all provinces and the main
503 sources of exposure are considered to be high fluoride water, pollution from coal-burning and
504 elevated consumption of brick tea (Kimambo, et al., 2019). This explains why a so high percentage
505 of the studies conducted in this area (six out of twelve) focus on the accumulation of fluoride in tea
506 plant.

507 The contribution of fluoride contaminated foods to the fluoride daily ingestion (and related HI)
508 depends, as well as ~~from on~~ the concentration of fluoride in the food itself, also ~~from on~~ the amount of
509 contaminated food ingested (USEPA, 1992). Therefore, to truly understand the potential impacts of

510 the fluoride contamination of cropping systems on the health of the local communities, an essential
511 aspect is to conduct nutritional surveys among the populations living in the contaminated areas.

512 From the literature analyses, it was found that, even though many field-scale studies have been
513 conducted in the polluted regions, only a few authors carried out investigations about the eating habits
514 of the rural populations. Further efforts in this direction would be necessary, not only to determine
515 the EDI and HI associated with the consumed crops but also to identify which crops in a specific area
516 give the greatest contribution to the fluoride daily ingestion (Rizzu, et al., 2020).

517 An effective adaptation strategy in contaminated areas could be represented by the choice of those
518 species or cultivars that, with equal yields, show the least fluoride uptake capacity and accumulation
519 in edible organs. With regard to this, although a certain range of plant species has been considered in
520 the investigation on the fluoride absorption and accumulation additional research would be needed to
521 strengthen the present knowledge on the already examined species and to include more food crops
522 species in risk assessments. Furthermore, in order to compare the accumulation behaviour of different
523 crop species, data on fluoride concentration in plant tissues, collected in field and pot scale
524 experiment, should be always accompanied by the information related to the water-soluble fluoride
525 (WS-F) in soil which allows to calculate the bio-concentration factor (BCF = concentration of F in
526 plant tissue/concentration of WS-F in soil) (Bustingorri and Lavado, 2014). Compared to the TF, in
527 fact, the BCF, based on the WS-F, which is the bioavailable soil fluoride fraction for plants, allows
528 to compare the accumulation behaviour of different plant species regardless of the soil factors that
529 could influence the mobility and the adsorption of fluoride in soils. At the opposite, these factors
530 could interact with the species bio-accumulation attitude in determining the TF.

531 Concerning the effects of fluoride on plant health and production, since on most of the studied species
532 just one or few experiments were conducted, we believe that further investigation would be necessary
533 to confirm the existing knowledge. An aspect that would be also interesting to consider is related to
534 the effect and the interaction linked to the presence of the counterion that accompanies the F^- in the

pollutant (e.g. Na^+ , K^+ , NH_4^+ , H^+ , etc.) used in the trials conducted in controlled conditions. In this regard, could be convenient, for instance, setting up control treatments in which plants are exposed at the same concentration of the counterion without being exposed to the F^- (e.g. NaCl , KCl , etc.). Finally, greater attention should be reserved to the investigation on the effects of soil or water fluoride contamination on plant proteins or nitrogen contents, which represents an important factor influencing the nutritional quality of foods.

For clarity and data manageability purposes, in the present systematic review of literature, we decided to focus our attention only on those studies that consider the effects of soil and water fluoride contamination on the fluoride plant uptake and the productivity of adult plants at the physiological maturity stage. The choice of those boundaries led to the exclusion of a great number of papers concerning the effects of fluoride on plant germination and development in early stages. Given the importance of these parameters in determining plant yields in field-conditions, and the considerable amount of literature existing on this matter, we believe that this specific topic may also deserve a proper work of studies collection and analyses to be conducted with a systematic approach.

A further significant portion of literature that was excluded in our analysis regards all those studies in which the source of contamination is represented by the airborne fluoride. From the air, in fact, fluoride can be absorbed by the plant leaves via stomata leading to a progressive accumulation over time (Baunthiyal and Ranghar, 2015, Singh, et al., 2018). Since the two types of uptake mechanisms (by roots system or via stomata) may lead to different accumulation patterns and symptoms manifestation, we believe that studies focusing on one or the other route of entry must be reviewed and analysed separately. Airborne contamination of fluoride is a relevant issue particularly in the vicinity of industrial activities such as for example phosphate fertilizer manufacturing plants, brick kilns, aluminium and zinc smelters, glass and ceramic industries, etc. (Amundson, et al., 1990, Ben Abdallah, et al., 2006, Teixeira Rossi, et al., 2016) and the concentration of fluoride in the vegetation that grows in the nearby of these activities is utilized to bio-monitor the air contamination (Elloumi,

560 et al., 2015). Due to the conspicuous literature produced on this matter and the significance of the
561 subject dealt, a methodical overview of the existing knowledge on this topic would be really useful
562 to orient future investigation on the base of the current findings.

563 Another topic, that has not been addressed in the present study which would worth to be considered
564 for further studies, regards the effects of the interaction of fluoride with other water or soil elements
565 (e.g. Ca, P, Al, etc.) and variables (e.g. pH, texture, water content, etc.) on the fluoride plant uptake
566 and accumulation and its effect on crop productivity.

567 Finally, a really crucial aspect on which focus the attention in future investigation concerns the
568 development and implementation of strategies aimed to mitigate the impacts of soil and water fluoride
569 on plant, animal and human health. Researchers and stakeholders, in facts, would greatly benefit from
570 a comprehensive framework of information aiming to collect all the existing options already
571 identified to reduce the contribution of food crops to the human and animal fluoride dietary intake
572 (e.g. use of water filters and soil amendments, phytoremediation, selection of species/variety with
573 low bioaccumulation etc.). Such an overview would enable, in facts, the investigators to have a base
574 on which identify and pursue the most promising research lines and the stakeholders to consider a set
575 of possible effective mitigation options to test in their specific context.

576

577 5. Conclusive remarks

578 ~~The outcomes of this systematic review emphasized that food and feed crops cultivated in areas~~
579 ~~affected by soil and water fluoride pollution may reach levels of fluoride concentration potentially~~
580 ~~harmful to human health. A certain number of the examined studies, in fact, highlighted that the~~
581 ~~fluoride intake deriving from those foods might significantly increase the daily fluoride ingestion of~~
582 ~~individuals, contributing, together with the consumption of contaminated water, to the risk of~~
583 ~~overcoming the recommended dose and enhancing the related hazard of incurring fluorosis diseases.~~

584 However, in spite of the efforts that were already made in the assessment of crop fluoride
585 accumulation for some contaminated areas, mostly Asia, this review suggests that further studies are
586 needed to analyse the fluoride in food crops particularly in those regions where the environmental
587 fluoride contamination is a serious issue and the prevalence of fluorosis is well documented, such as
588 for example the East African Rift Valley, from which just two field scale studies were retrieved
589 through this review process.

590 Through the systematic literature review process, a total of 87 studies were included in this work,
591 among field-scale, pot, and hydroponic experimental studies, regarding the impacts of soil and water
592 fluoride pollution on the safety and the productivity of food and feed crops at a global scale.

593 As regards the investigation on the effects of fluoride on plant health and production, even though
594 some efforts in this direction were already made, ~~additional research would be needed to strengthen~~
595 ~~the available evidences and confirm the current findings. Many authors observed the manifestation~~
596 ~~of~~ in our opinion, additional research would be needed to strengthen the available evidence and
597 confirm the current findings. Fluorine contamination led, in fact, to mixed results on crop yields that
598 were suppressed or promoted, with more or less marked effects, depending on the contaminant (NaF
599 or KF), the route of administration (directly via soil or via irrigation water), and the crop species
600 under study. When soils were contaminated with NaF, dose-dependent yield decreases were observed
601 in tea, soybean (up to 20-30% at 300-450 mg F⁻ kg⁻¹), spinach (up to 20-30% at 800 mg F⁻ kg⁻¹), onion
602 and rapeseed (up to 70-80% at 800-1000 mg F⁻ kg⁻¹). The administration of NaF at low concentration
603 (0.4-10 mg F⁻ L⁻¹) via irrigation water led to a marked effect in terms of yield increases (up to 170
604 and 180%) in lettuce and pak-choi (reaching the peak at 3 mg F⁻ L⁻¹) while, in the same trial, the
605 yield of water spinach was initially promoted and then suppressed. At higher concentrations (200-
606 300 mg F⁻ L⁻¹) wheat and lady's finger were observed to exhibit a reduction in yield of approximately
607 50% and 60% respectively. Adding fluorine to the soil in form of KF led to contrasting results: while
608 triticale showed a dose-dependent decrease (up to 34% at 200-300 mg F⁻ kg⁻¹), yields of yellow lupine

609 and rapeseed increases of up to 15% and 64% respectively (at 200-300 mg F⁻ kg⁻¹). Less marked
610 increases were observed on the aerial biomass of radish and maize. At 60 mg F⁻ kg⁻¹ narrow-leaf
611 lupine showed a yield increase by 40%.

612 Many authors investigated also the toxic effects of fluoride on plants which was found to induce
613 oxidative stress, reduction in chlorophyll content, alterations in the level of proline, betaine, soluble
614 sugars, nitrogen and macro and micronutrients. In spite of that, the manifestation of symptoms such
615 as visible injuries, ~~decreasing~~decrease in root and shoot length ~~and yield reduction~~ was not always
616 observed, ~~also at high doses of fluoride exposure, and in some cases, the biomass production was~~
617 ~~even stimulated by increasing fluoride levels.~~

618 From the analysis of literature on controlled condition experiments, it came out that, with few
619 exceptions, (i.e. Japanese camellia and tea plant), plants tend to accumulate fluoride mostly in the
620 root system ~~and this can~~. This could represent ~~a disadvantagean~~ issue mostly in the case of crops
621 whose edible part is represented by the ~~underground organs, roots, such as for example radish, which,~~
622 for instance, was found to accumulate up to 296 mg F⁻ kg⁻¹ DM in the Irkutsk region of Russia.
623 Nevertheless, in most of the examined crops the accumulation of fluoride in other edible parts (e.g.
624 leaves, fruits, tubers, bulbs, or seeds) ~~can reach~~ was found to be dose-dependent, reaching
625 considerable levels when plants ~~are~~were exposed to ~~increasing doses of high~~ fluoride ~~doses.~~
626 However, as far as the non-carcinogenic chronic effects of fluoride on human health are concerned,
627 it is not possible to give a priori an absolute indication on the potential hazard related to the
628 consumption of a contaminated food product. The contribution to the fluoride daily ingestion (and
629 related HI), depends in fact, apart from the concentration of fluoride in the food itself, also on the
630 amount of contaminated food ingested. In this regard, to better assess the potential impacts of the
631 fluoride contamination of cropping systems on the health of the local communities, the investigation
632 on the eating habits of the populations living in contaminated areas is fundamental. The areas where
633 the populations mainly practice subsistence farming and the food products are self-consumed would

be in fact the most affected. Among the examined field-scale experiments, the few authors that carried out nutritional surveys among local rural populations highlighted a significant contribution of the fluoride contaminated foods to the risk of overcoming the recommended dose enhancing the hazard of incurring fluorosis diseases.

In particular, in our opinion, field studies oriented to assess the extent of the fluoride contamination in the food chain would deserve greater investigation efforts in some seriously affected regions so far neglected. In fact, the majority of the field studies that were found through our analyses were located in Asia (India ~ 42% and China ~ 32%), while very few field experiments were found for Africa and South America despite in these regions the environmental fluoride contamination is serious and well documented.

Even though, as reported above, it is not possible to associate the levels of fluoride reached by crops with a predetermined level of risk, recommendation on the choice of the species to be grown in contaminated areas can however be based on the degree of fluoride mobility from the soil to the edible plant parts which is commonly measured through the BCF.

In contaminated areas, therefore, the cultivation of crops with the lowest BCFs in the edible parts is the most advisable. On the contrary, the planting of crops such as tea and sugar cane, which have found to be strongly fluoride hyper-accumulators ($BCF > 1$), should be likely avoided.

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1014 **Figure legends**

1015 Figure 1 - The PRISMA flow diagram illustrating the number of records related to each phase of the

1016 systematic review (adapted from Moher, et al. (2009)).....6

1017 Figure 2 - Fluoride in agro-ecosystems: geographical distribution of the investigated areas (map was

1018 created using Mapline online free trial version: <https://mapline.com>). 7

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1020 **Supplemental Files**

1021 Supplemental File 1 (SF1) - Review Protocol

1022 Supplemental File 2 (SF2) - List of publications included in the Systematic Review

1023 Supplemental File 3 (SF3) - Over-sized Tables

Table 1 - Inclusion and exclusion criteria

Inclusion criteria	Exclusion criteria
Every kind of study assessing: - the effects of soil and water fluoride on quali-quantitative characteristics of crop production - fluorine uptake capacity of different kind of crops cultivated in soils and/or irrigated with water characterized by various levels of fluoride - articles focusing only on adults plants - microcosm, mesocosm and field-scale trials	First and second stages (screening title and abstract): - Not on topic (misclassified) - No relevant population (e.g. animals, humans, seedlings) - No relevant exposure (e.g. airborne contamination) - Methodological articles (e.g. procedures for determination of fluoride in soil or plant material) - Full text not available - Not in English Third stage (assessing full text): - Same criteria of the first and second stages - No relevant outcome - Other reasons

Table 2 - Qualitative information extracted from the studies

Variable	Description
Country	Country where the study was conducted
Zone	Specific study area (village or town, city, district, province etc.)
Type of experiment	Pot/Field/Hydroponic (P/F/H)
Growing conditions	Greenhouse/Open field/Growth Chamber (G/O/GC)
Source of Exposure	Soil/Water (S/W)
Pollutant	Natural pollution, NaF, KF, NH ₄ F etc.
Other factors and levels	Other factors considered in the cases of factorial experiments and respective levels
Fertilization or amendment management	Type and doses of fertilizers/amendments applied
Species of plant	Scientific name of the studied plants
Variety	Varieties of the studied plants, if available
Phenology stage	Phenology stage at which plant where harvested
Accumulation pathway	Fluoride accumulation pathway among different plant organs
Effects of fluoride on plants	Visible injuries, oxidative stress, enzymatic activity etc.

Table 3 - Quantitative information extracted from the studies

Kind of information extracted	Description
Sample size	Number of replicates per each treatment
Levels of fluoride exposure	Different levels of concentration of fluoride in water or soil
Levels of fluoride in different plant tissues	Different levels of concentration of fluoride in different plant parts (roots, stem, leaves, fruits, seeds etc.)
Yield of different plant parts	Dry matter of different plant parts or the entire plant biomass
Morphological traits	Morphological traits of the considered plant species (plant height, trunk diameter, leaf area, shoot length, root length, pod length, ear length, n. of leaves, n. of branches, n. of tillers, n. of ears, n. of flowers, n. of pods, n. of seeds, n. of seed pod ⁻¹ , n. of flowers ear ⁻¹ etc.)
Oxidative stress indicators	Oxidative stress indicators (H ₂ O ₂ : hydrogen peroxide, LP: lipid peroxidation, EL: electrolyte leakage, TBARS: thiobarbituric acid reactive substances, MDA: malondialdehyde, GSH: glutathione, AA: ascorbic acid, Flav: total flavonoid, Phe: total polyphenol content)
Antioxidant enzymes activity	Activity of the antioxidant enzymes (SOD: superoxide dismutase, CAT: catalase, GPOX: glutathione peroxidase and APX: ascorbate peroxidase)
Content of photosynthetic pigments	Content of photosynthetic pigments (chlorophyll a, chlorophyll b, carotenoids)
Nutrients uptake	Uptake rates of different nutrient elements (P, Ca, Mg, K, Al, S, Zn, Fe)
Content of free amino acids, proline, betaine and soluble sugars	Content of free amino acids, proline, betaine and soluble sugars
Content of protein, nitrogen ~~forms~~ , ash, fat and fibre	Content of protein, nitrogen forms (total nitrogen, protein nitrogen, nitrate nitrogen), ash, fat and fibre

Table 4 - Number of studies collected per each category of experiment type and kind of extractable data.

Type of experiments conducted in the included studies	N. of studies that reported data exclusively on F accumulation	N. of studies that reported data or results exclusively on the effects of F on plants	N. of studies that reported both kind of data
Field-scale	34	2	3
Pot	10	10	19
Hydroponic	0	2	4
Field + Pot	1	0	0
Field + Hydroponic	1	0	0
Pot + Hydroponic	0	0	1

Figure 1

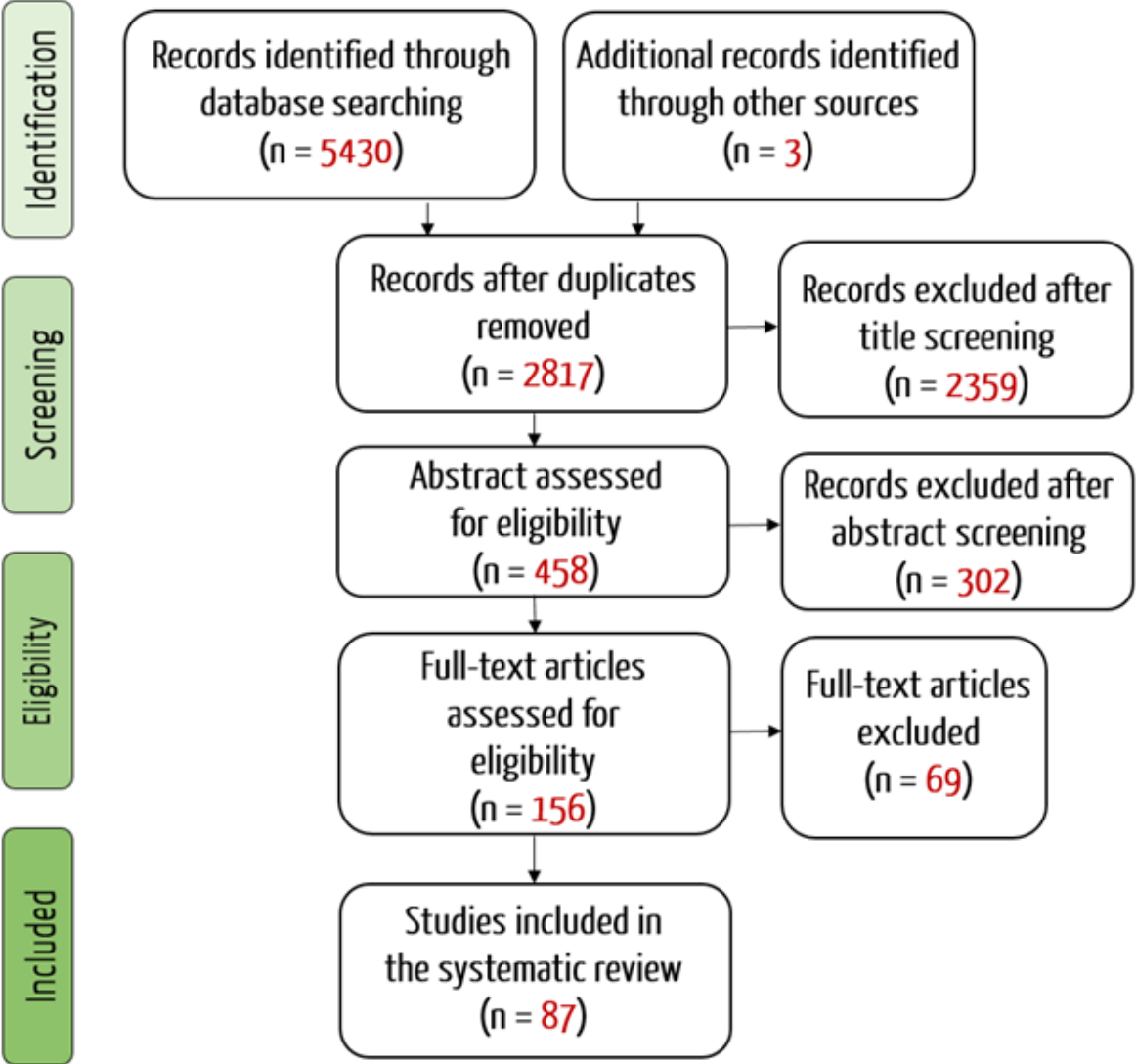
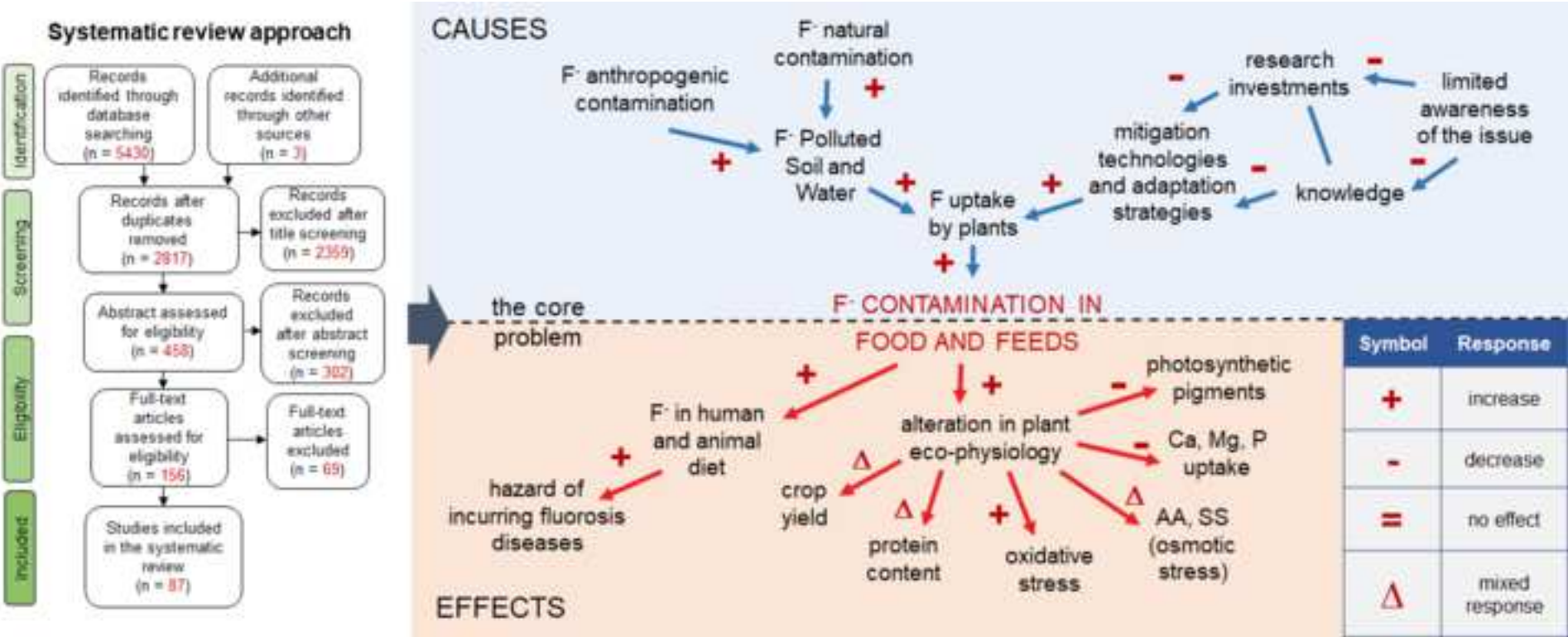


Figure 2





Highlights

- 1. Plants tend to accumulate fluoride mostly in the root system
- 2. Accumulation of F in plant tissues is dose-dependent with some exceptions
- 3. F contamination of food crops can represents an actual health hazard in polluted areas
- 4. F can alter chlorophyll levels, plant physiology and can induce oxidative stress
- 5. Evidences of F affecting crop yields are often contradictory even at high F levels

1 **Impacts of soil and water fluoride contamination on the safety and productivity of food and**
2 **feed crops: A systematic review**

3

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15 Margherita Rizzu: Conceptualization, Methodology, Investigation, Data Curation, Writing - Original

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17 preparation. Chiara Cappai: Investigation, Draft preparation. Pier Paolo Roggero: Writing -

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19 Editing, Supervision, Resources and project management.

20 **Abstract**

21 Although a strong connection between the environmental fluoride contamination and the fluorosis
22 disease is nowadays worldwide well documented, the knowledge on the fluoride contamination levels
23 of cultivated crops at the basis of the human food-chain is limited and fragmented. Adopting a
24 systematic approach, this study reviews the available literature concerning the impacts of soil and
25 water fluoride pollution on the safety and productivity of food and feed crops at a global scale, with
26 the aim to provide a comprehensive overview of the current state of the art. The analyses of literature
27 highlighted that food and feed crops exposed to soil and water fluoride pollution may reach
28 concentrations of fluoride potentially harmful to human health. Nevertheless, despite the efforts
29 already made to assess the crop fluoride accumulation in contaminated areas of India and China, the
30 present study brings to light the lack of knowledge still existing on this issue for some regions strongly
31 affected by environmental fluoride contamination such as the East African Rift Valley. Concerning
32 the impacts of fluoride on cultivated crops, many authors observed that fluoride can produce toxic
33 effects on plants leading to oxidative stress, reduction in chlorophyll content, alterations in the levels
34 of proline, betaine, soluble sugars, nitrogen and macro and micronutrients. However, the appearance
35 of symptoms such as visible injuries, reduced root and shoot length and yield decline was not always
36 observed, also at high levels of fluoride exposure, and in some cases, the biomass production was
37 even stimulated by increasing fluoride doses.

38

39 **Keywords:** pollution, yield reduction, oxidative stress, risk assessment, hazard index, fluorosis.

40 **1. Introduction**

41 The association between excessive environmental fluoride occurrence and the high rate of fluorosis
42 in the populations of polluted areas is nowadays well recognized (He, et al., 2020, Ozsvath, 2009,
43 Subba Rao, et al., 2020, Wu and Sun, 2016). The prolonged exposure to high fluoride doses can lead,
44 in fact, to a series of major illnesses that involve the dental apparatus and skeletal system but also, as
45 recently examined, non-skeletal tissues as internal organs, nervous, reproductive and immune systems
46 (Wei, et al., 2019). Although low-fluoride intakes have been recognised to have positive effects on
47 the prevention of dental caries, moderate chronic ingestion, particularly during childhood, is known
48 to provoke the appearance of black spots on teeth and in most severe cases their loss. Skeletal system
49 disorders appear with the protracted intake of high fluoride doses with symptoms that comprise bone
50 deformities, ligaments calcification and associated back, knee, shoulder and neck pain with
51 difficulties in movements and in proper walking (Bharati, et al., 2005, WHO, 1999, 2011).

52 Endemic fluorosis is prevalent in at least 25 countries with the highest incidence in India, China and
53 various African regions (Vithanage and Bhattacharya, 2015), but groundwater with concentrations
54 above the WHO guideline limit for drinking-water (1.5 mg L^{-1}) have been found in many parts of the
55 world. Beyond China and India, affected regions are Sri Lanka, North and West African countries
56 (Tunisia, Libya, Sudan, Senegal, Ghana, Ivory Coast), the East African Rift Valley (Kenya, Tanzania,
57 Ethiopia, Uganda and Rwanda), South Africa, central Argentina, northern Mexico and Pakistan
58 (Edmunds and Smedley, 2013).

59 The sources of fluoride contamination can be both natural and anthropogenic with the firsts being
60 paramount (Amini, et al., 2008). Natural sources are related to geogenic processes that are primarily
61 responsible for groundwater pollution, such as the weathering of F-rich minerals and the release of
62 fluoride due to volcanic activities, fumarolic gases, hydro-geothermal vents and marine aerosols.
63 Contamination from anthropogenic activities can be significant on a local scale and may be either of
64 industrial origin, such as the release of wastes from aluminium smelters, effluents from coal-based

65 power stations and factories processing various materials (e.g glass, ceramic, plastics, pesticides,
66 disinfectants, etc.), or agricultural-related such as the long-term uncontrolled use of phosphatic
67 fertilizer or the irrigation with fluoride-enriched water (Ali, et al., 2016, Kimambo, et al., 2019, Singh,
68 et al., 2018)

69 Through the polluted soil, water, and air, fluoride can enter the food-chain (Vithanage and
70 Bhattacharya, 2015). After drinking water, in fact, the consumption of contaminated food products is
71 considered another important source of fluoride exposure for human organisms (Brahman, et al.,
72 2014, WHO, 2011). Furthermore, the contamination of the plant growth environment can lead to the
73 manifestation of toxic effects in food crops with consequent yield and nutritional quality reduction
74 and related economic losses (Ahmed, et al., 2019a, Bustingorri and Lavado, 2014).

75 Several field-scale explorative trials and controlled experiments have been conducted in various
76 contaminated regions of the world to investigate the accumulation of fluoride in crops and the effects
77 on their productivity, nevertheless, the information is still fragmented. Even though, in fact, numerous
78 studies have considered and examined the worldwide environmental fluoride occurrence, particularly
79 in groundwater systems (Amini, et al., 2008, Edmunds and Smedley, 2013, Kimambo, et al., 2019,
80 Vithanage and Bhattacharya, 2015), and various overviews have been conducted on fluoride toxicity
81 in plants (Baunthiyal and Ranghar, 2014, Baunthiyal and Ranghar, 2015, Choudhary, et al., 2019,
82 Singh, et al., 2018, Yadu, et al., 2016), no systematic reviews have been performed concerning the
83 impacts of soil and water fluoride pollution on the safety and the productivity of food and feed crops
84 at a global scale.

85 With the aim to provide a comprehensive overview on this topic and bring to light the gaps of
86 knowledge, this work attempted to gather all the existing scientific literature on the impacts of the
87 environmental fluoride pollution on crop productivity and safety.

88 The findings of this review are intended to suggest future research directions to scientists toward a
89 better understanding of the relationships between fluoride contamination and food safety and

production as well as informing the development of possible mitigation and adaptation strategies in the affected areas.

2. Review methods

The systematic literature review followed the methodological approach reported by existing guidelines (Bilotta, et al., 2014, Collaboration for Environmental Evidence, 2013, Pullin and Knight, 2009, Pullin and Stewart, 2006). A review protocol was implemented defining the connotations of the systematic literature search, the inclusion/exclusion criteria and the data extraction forms (Supplemental File 1 - SF1).

2.1. Resources

Academic search engines such as ISI Web of Science (Web of Science Core Collection plus other databases such as Bioabs, Kjd, Medline, Rsci, Scielo), PubMed, Scopus, Science Direct, JSTOR, Agricola, Fluorideresearch.org and Cab Abstracts were used. Advanced search options were considered entering the following keywords: *fluoride OR fluorine*, in the title field, *AND crop OR plant OR vegetation OR grasses OR vegetables OR agriculture*, in the other fields. The search was restricted to the English language, and the timespan went from 1985 to 2020. To refine the results, the search conducted on the Web of Science Core Collection and the Scopus database was limited to the following subject areas:

- for the Web of Science Core Collection: *Environmental sciences, Toxicology, Water resources, Plant sciences, Soil science, Agronomy, Ecology, Agriculture multidisciplinary, Multidisciplinary sciences, Biology, Forestry, Horticulture Agricultural engineering, Physiology, Agriculture dairy animal science, Environmental studies*
- for the Scopus database: *Environmental Science, Agricultural and Biological Sciences, Multidisciplinary, Decision Sciences*

115

116 2.2. Review process

117 Records were stored in a reference manager software database and duplicates were eliminated. The
118 article screening was performed following a stepwise process according to the established inclusion
119 criteria (Table 1). A first selection was conducted on the basis of the publication title, in the second
120 stage abstracts were assessed and finally, the remaining articles were filtered revising the whole
121 paper. In case of doubts about the pertinence of a record, this was included and further evaluated in
122 the next stage. A subset of the references was revised by two further independent reviewers in order
123 to assess the reliability of the application of the inclusion criteria. The final numbers of articles
124 recovered, duplicated, accepted and excluded were annotated to produce an accurate PRISMA flow
125 diagram (Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic reviews and Meta-Analyses) (Moher, et al., 2009).
126 The list of the papers that were finally included is reported in the Supplemental File 2 (SF2).

127

128 2.3. Data extraction and analysis

129 From the final subset of articles, available qualitative (Table 2) and quantitative (Table 3) information
130 was extracted. If the data were not reported in the text, they were extracted from tables and graphs.
131 For each extracted variable, the percentages increase/decrease ($\Delta\%$) from control values to those of
132 treated subjects were calculated and data were summarized in Tables 5-13 included in Supplemental
133 File 3 (SF3).
134 In Table 6 (SF3), the Transfer Factor (TF) in the edible parts was calculated by the ratio between the
135 concentration of fluoride of the edible organs and the concentration of total fluoride in the soil (Ding,
136 et al., 2018). Furthermore, the accumulation pattern was reported. The TF index allows to assess the
137 accumulation trend in plant tissues of crops subjected at increasing doses of contaminant. When TF
138 >1 , the concentration of fluoride in the plant tissues is higher than the concentration of total fluoride
139 in soil, indicating a hyper-accumulator behaviour in the considered plant organ.

140

141 **3. Results**

142 *3.1. Characteristics of the studies included in the systematic review*

143 A total of 87 studies was retrieved through the process of the systematic review (Figure 1), with 77
144 % of the collected articles published after or in the year 2010.

145 Field-scale studies, pot experiments, hydroponic experiments and multi-experiments studies were
146 found. Some of them reported exclusively data on fluoride accumulation in crops, from others it was
147 possible to get only data on the effects of fluoride on plants and further articles included both types
148 of data (Table 4).

149 Around 46 % of the studies were focused on soil pollution, 37 % on water pollution and the remaining
150 17 % on both sources of fluoride contamination.

151 Among the studies conducted under controlled conditions (pot and hydroponic experiments), in the
152 74% of the cases, NaF was used as a pollutant to contaminate the source of exposure (soil or water),
153 KF was used in the 11% of the studies, NH₄F in another 11% while AlF and HF in the 4%.

154

155 *3.2. Fluoride in the water-soil-plant system of different areas of the world and human health hazard*

156 The areas in which the greatest number of studies has been conducted were India (~42%, 16 studies)
157 and China (~32%, 12 studies), where the considered environmental fluoride contamination was
158 mostly of natural origin. Concerning the other regions, just two field-scale studies (~5%) were found
159 for Pakistan and one field-scale study (~3%) for each of the following regions was found: Argentina,
160 Ethiopia, Iran, Nigeria, New Zealand, Poland, Russia and Tanzania (Figure 2).

161 Concerning India, the majority of the studies regarded the areas of Rajasthan and West Bengal,
162 furthermore, other experiments were conducted also in Andhra Pradesh, Telangana, Bangalore, Uttar
163 Pradesh and Bihar (SF3 - Table 5). In general, the different studies considered a wide variety of food
164 crops, including grain crops, pulses, horticultural crops, leafy vegetables and tubers. The lowest value

165 of soil total fluoride concentration ($6.7 \text{ mg F}^- \text{ kg}^{-1}$) was found by Nagaraju et al. (2017) in Talupula,
166 Anantapur District, Andhra Pradesh while the highest ($681.0 \text{ mg F}^- \text{ kg}^{-1}$) was detected in Rajasthan
167 by Saini et al. (2013). The soil water-soluble fluoride varied from $0.3 \text{ mg F}^- \text{ kg}^{-1}$ (Lakshmi, et al.,
168 2016) in Aatmakoor Mandal, Nalgonda district, Telangana, to $73.9 \text{ mg F}^- \text{ kg}^{-1}$ in Rajasthan (Saini, et
169 al., 2013). Concerning groundwater, the fluoride concentration ranged from $0.3 \text{ mg F}^- \text{ L}^{-1}$ in Birbhum
170 district to $21.5 \text{ mg F}^- \text{ L}^{-1}$ in Bangalore (Begum, et al., 2008, Mondal and Gupta, 2015). The lowest
171 contents of fluoride in various vegetable species ($< 4.2 \text{ mg F}^- \text{ kg}^{-1} \text{ DM}$) were observed in the regions
172 of Nowapara and Junidpur, Birbhum district and in Nalgonda district, Telangana (Lakshmi, et al.,
173 2016, 2017a, 2017b, Pal, et al., 2012), while the greatest value was recorded in *Brassica oleracea* L.
174 ($296 \text{ mg F}^- \text{ kg}^{-1} \text{ DM}$) by Begum et al. (2008) in Bangalore.

175 Regarding China, six out of twelve field-scale studies concerned the uptake and accumulation of
176 fluoride in tea plant (*Camellia sinensis* (L.) O. Kuntze) which is well known to be one among the
177 fluoride hyper-accumulator species (Cronin, et al., 2000). The concentration of fluoride in young tea
178 leaves varied from a minimum of $49.0 \text{ mg F}^- \text{ kg}^{-1} \text{ DM}$ found by Xie, et al. (2007), up to 808.0 mg F^-
179 $\text{kg}^{-1} \text{ DM}$ observed by Fung et al. (1999) in Guangdong province. Mature leaves were found to have
180 higher concentrations compared to young ones, ranging from $221.0 \text{ mg F}^- \text{ kg}^{-1} \text{ DM}$ (Xie, et al., 2007)
181 to $2919.0 \text{ mg F}^- \text{ kg}^{-1} \text{ DM}$ in Lantau Peak of Lantau Island (Fung, et al., 2003). The fluoride
182 accumulation in edible parts of various food crops observed by different authors in China ranged from
183 a value of $0.1 \text{ mg F}^- \text{ kg}^{-1} \text{ DM}$ in cabbage up to $34.7 \text{ mg F}^- \text{ kg}^{-1} \text{ DM}$ in pumpkins leaves (He, et al.,
184 2020), and the concentration of fluoride in wheat grains ($0.6\text{-}7.2 \text{ mg F}^- \text{ kg}^{-1} \text{ DM}$) was found, in most
185 of the cases, to be higher than the national edible health standard of China (CMH, 2012) ($\leq 1.5 \text{ mg}$
186 kg^{-1}) (Li, et al., 2019a, Li, et al., 2017, Wang, et al., 2012, Yu, et al., 2018, Zheng and Sun, 2011).
187 Higher concentrations were found in roots, leaves and straw of wheat grown in the region of Baiyin,
188 Gansu province and Yangtze River outfall region and in roots and leaves of maize, with the greatest
189 value ($542 \text{ mg F}^- \text{ kg}^{-1} \text{ DM}$) observed in Gansu province in roots (Li, et al., 2019a, Li, et al., 2017,

Wang, et al., 2012). In this area also the highest concentration of fluoride were recorded both in soil (total fluoride: 4987 mg F⁻ kg⁻¹; water-soluble fluoride: 59 mg F⁻ kg⁻¹) and water (82 mg F⁻ L⁻¹) (Li, et al., 2017). The lowest values of soil total fluoride (82 mg F⁻ kg⁻¹) and water fluoride (0.2 mg F⁻ L⁻¹) were observed in Shihezi, Xinjiang by Yu et al. (2018) while the minimum soil water-soluble fluoride (0.04 mg F⁻ kg⁻¹) was found by Ruan and Wong (2001) in Jintan County (Jiangsu Province). Environmental fluoride pollution of natural origin was also found in the water-soil-plant systems of Argentina, Ethiopia, Nigeria, Pakistan and Tanzania (Brahman, et al., 2014, Dagnaw, et al., 2017, De Troiani, et al., 1987, Kazi, et al., 2019, Okibe, et al., 2010, Rizzu, et al., 2020), while anthropogenic sources of fluoride contamination were identified in Poland, New Zealand and Russia. In Poland, the old Warta reservoir near the town of Luboń was severely contaminated by the wastes from a nearby chemical plant (Jezierska-Madziar and Pinskiwar, 2003), in New Zealand Loganathan et al. (2001) studied the effects of the long-term application of P-fertilizer on the top-soil fluoride concentration (SF3 - Table 5) while in Russia Sokolova et al. (2019) studied the effects of fluoride contaminated soils 0.5 km from the IrkAZ (one of the largest enterprises in aluminium industry in Russia) on the productivity and fluoride uptake of some field crops. Some of the abovementioned authors, as well as assessing the fluoride accumulation in food crops also conducted nutritional surveys among the populations of the contaminated areas in order to estimate a hypothetical fluoride daily ingestion (estimated daily intake, EDI) associated with the consumption of the studied crops and the related hazard index (HI) which represents how many times the effective intake exceeds the recommended dose. In many cases, the cumulative EDI from the diet and drinking water exceeded the recommended value (HI > 1) with children and teenagers being the categories considered at major risk (Bhattacharya, et al., 2017, Brahman, et al., 2014, He, et al., 2020, Jha, et al., 2008a, Kazi, et al., 2019, Rizzu, et al., 2020).

213

214 3.3. Fluoride uptake and partitioning under controlled conditions

215 Among the analysed publications concerning pot and hydroponic experiments, it was possible to get
216 data on fluoride accumulation in plant tissues of 31 different species including cereals (*Hordeum*
217 *vulgare* L., *Oryza sativa* L., x *Triticosecale* Wittm., *Triticum aestivum* L., *Zea mays* L.), pseudo-
218 cereals (*Amaranthus gangeticus* L., *Amaranthus viridis* L.), pulses (*Glycine max* L. Merrill, *Lupinus*
219 *angustifolius* L., *Lupinus luteus* L., *Medicago sativa* L., *Onobrychis viciifolia* Scop., *Pisum sativum*
220 L.), horticultural species (*Abelmoschus esculentus* (L.) Moench, *Allium cepa* L., *Coriandrum sativum*
221 L., *Ipomoea aquatica* Forssk., *Lactuca sativa* L., *Spinacea oleracea* L.), in particular species
222 belonging to the Brassicaceae (*Brassica chinensis* L., *Brassica juncea* L., *Brassica napus* L., *Brassica*
223 *oleracea* L., *Raphanus sativus* L.) and Solanaceae families (*Lycopersicon esculentum* L., *Solanum*
224 *tuberosum* L.) and further cultivated species (*Camellia japonica* L., *Camellia sinensis* (L.) O. Kuntze,
225 *Olea europaea* L., *Phacelia* spp. Juss., *Saccharum officinarum* L.) (SF3 - Table 6).

226

227 3.3.1. Fluoride Transfer Factor (TF) in edible parts and accumulation pattern

228 An overall decreasing trend in the TF (which remains always < 0.4) calculated for edible parts of
229 lady's finger, onion, radish and soybean was observed in several studies where plants were treated
230 with increasing doses of NaF in soil (20-1000 mg F⁻ kg⁻¹). A decreasing behaviour was observed also
231 in the case of spinach (50-800 mg F⁻ kg⁻¹) with TF of leaves reaching higher values (1-0.5) at the
232 lowest concentrations (< 200 mg F⁻ kg⁻¹). Potato tubers, in contrast, showed a mixed response,
233 exhibiting a hyper-accumulation (TF = 2.1) when treated with 11 mg F⁻ kg⁻¹, while for higher
234 increasing concentrations (up to 220 mg F⁻ kg⁻¹) the TF ranged from 0.3 to 0.1.

235 Only one study assessed the impacts of AlF on the fluoride accumulation in rapeseed (25-75 mg F⁻
236 kg⁻¹) with TF ranging from 0.6 to 0.2 with a dose-dependent decreasing trend.

237 When fluoride was applied in the form of KF to soil (20-300 mg F⁻ kg⁻¹), the edible organs of triticale,
238 narrow leaf-lupin, yellow lupin, sainfoin, radish and maize showed a TF always < 0.3.

239 As a well-known hyper-accumulator, the TF of the leaves of tea plants treated with NH_4F or NaF
240 ($10\text{-}500 \text{ mg F}^- \text{ kg}^{-1}$) reached markedly higher values compared to the TF of all the other considered
241 species (up to 76). Only in one study the TF of tea was found to be lower than 1 (SF3 - Table 6).

242 In general, for almost all the crops, roots were the organs that accumulated fluoride most. An
243 exception was represented by tea plant and Japanese camellia that, as expected, hyper-accumulated
244 fluoride in the leaves which showed higher concentrations compared to roots and young shoots
245 (Camarena-Rangel, et al., 2015, Ruan, et al., 2004, Yang, et al., 2016); this trend was moreover
246 confirmed also in the previously mentioned field-scale studies (Fung, et al., 1999, Fung, et al., 2003,
247 Ruan and Wong, 2001, Xie, et al., 2007). Another exception was represented by a study of Chen et
248 al. (2017) on radish where the authors found that the accumulation of fluoride was highest in leaves
249 than in roots. However, other studies conducted in radish confirmed the common higher concentration
250 of fluoride in roots compared to leaves or, more generally, to aerial biomass (Chakrabarti and Patra,
251 2013a, Szostek and Ciećko, 2014). Furthermore, when mimicked sprinkler irrigation was applied (70-
252 80% of water poured into the pot and 20-30% sprayed on plants) wheat (var. Raj. 3077) and barley
253 (RD-2052) showed the highest concentration of fluoride in leaves, followed by stems, and then roots
254 and grains (Agarwal and Chauhan, 2014, 2015). In other studies on cereals, roots were confirmed as
255 the organs with the highest accumulation of fluoride, usually followed by the leaves and shoots and
256 finally the grains (Chakrabarti, et al., 2013b, Jha, et al., 2013a, Mackowiak, et al., 2003, Szostek and
257 Ciećko, 2014) or, in some other cases, as in the studies of Bhargava and Bhardwa (2011) on wheat
258 (var. Raj. 4083) and Gautam and Bhardwaj (2010a) on barley (var. RD-2683), with the grains or crop
259 ears accumulating more fluoride than shoot and leaves, respectively.

260 In crops as lady's finger and sugar cane, leaves were the second organ for fluoride concentration
261 followed by fruits and shoots (lady's finger) or stem (sugar cane). At the opposite, in pakchoi, water
262 spinach and lettuce, stems accumulated more fluoride than foliage (Zhang, et al., 2018). In mustard
263 Ahmad et al. (2015) and Yadav et al. (2018) observed the following order: roots > seeds > shoots >

264 leaves, while Chakrabarti and Patra (2013a) found a higher concentration of fluoride in leaves than
265 in seeds. In olive tree the pattern was: roots > shoot > leaves > fruits (Zouari, et al., 2014). In onion,
266 after roots, the shoot accumulated more fluoride than the bulb and in slender amaranth leaves
267 accumulated more than seeds (Jha, et al., 2009, Stanley, et al., 2002).

268 In many species (winter oilseed rape, narrow-leaf lupine, yellow lupine, phacelia and spinach) the
269 accumulation pattern roots > aerial mass was observed but the partitioning among aerial organs was
270 not investigated (Jha, et al., 2008b, Li, et al., 2018, Szostek and Ciećko, 2014). In some other cases,
271 the accumulation pathway among organs was variable depending on the level of fluoride to which
272 the plants were exposed (Bustingorri, et al., 2015, Bustingorri and Lavado, 2014, Das, et al., 2015).

273

274 3.3.2. Fluoride uptake

275 In the examined studies, an overall increasing trend of fluoride accumulation in organs of plants
276 treated with rising concentrations of fluoride in soil or water was observed.

277 The highest fluoride concentration (3217 mg F⁻ kg⁻¹ DM) was found in rice roots in case of a
278 hydroponic experiment; this species showed a hyper-accumulation also in the shoot (395 mg F⁻ kg⁻¹
279 DM) with respect to the level of fluoride to which the plants were subjected (30 mg F⁻ L⁻¹)
280 (Mackowiak, et al., 2003). Tea leaves also showed a marked capacity to accumulate fluoride reaching
281 up to 2553 mg F⁻ kg⁻¹ DM in plants treated with 300 mg F⁻ kg⁻¹ in soil (Yang, et al., 2016). Japanese
282 camellia and sugar cane were also found to have high levels of fluoride in their tissues when treated
283 with 30 mg F⁻ kg⁻¹ of soil, up to 553 and 697 mg F⁻ kg⁻¹ DM (Japanese camellia) and 521 and 120 mg
284 F⁻ kg⁻¹ DM (sugar cane) in roots and leaves, respectively. Considering its fast growth rate, sugar cane
285 was best recommended by authors for phytoremediation purposes (Camarena-Rangel, et al., 2015).
286 Very high concentrations were observed also by Zouari et al., (2014) in roots (up to 1070 mg kg⁻¹
287 DM) and shoots (up to 570 mg F⁻ kg⁻¹ DM) of olive tree treated with concentrations of fluoride in
288 water up to 1900 mg F⁻ L⁻¹, and another extremely high value (1858 mg kg⁻¹ DM) was observed by

289 Elrashidi et al. (1998) in the biomass of barley cultivated in acid soil and treated with 400 mg F⁻ kg⁻¹.
290

291 Concerning cereals, when plants were treated with low concentrations of fluoride the lowest value
292 (0.9 mg F⁻ kg⁻¹ DM) was observed in grains of wheat irrigated with 4 mg F⁻ L⁻¹ while, among plants
293 treated with the highest concentrations, the maximum value (54 mg F⁻ kg⁻¹ DM) was found in grains
294 of rice plants treated with water at 30 mg F⁻ L⁻¹ (Bhargava and Bhardwaj, 2011, Chakrabarti, et al.,
295 2013b).

296 Among the Brassicaceae, the lowest value (0.2 mg F⁻ kg⁻¹ DM) was observed in cabbage treated with
297 10 mg F⁻ L⁻¹ while the greatest (64 mg F⁻ kg⁻¹ DM) was found in radish roots cultivated in soil with
298 300 mg F⁻ kg⁻¹. The maximum value for mustard seeds (22 mg F⁻ kg⁻¹ DM) was found in the variety
299 CS-14 irrigated with 75 mg F⁻ L⁻¹. Even they are not edible parts, it is worth noting that the shoots of
300 winter oilseed rape and the leaves of radish reached 193 and 300 mg F⁻ kg⁻¹ DM, respectively, when
301 plants were grown in a soil contaminated with 1000 mg F⁻ kg⁻¹ (Khandare and Rao, 2006, Li, et al.,
302 2018, Szostek and Ciećko, 2014, Yadav, et al., 2018).

303 Regarding pulses, values in soybean ranged between 0.4 and 9.0 mg F⁻ kg⁻¹ DM, and 2.4 and 28 mg
304 F⁻ kg⁻¹ DM in seeds and leaves, respectively. The concentration of fluoride in the aerial mass of
305 narrow-leaf lupine, yellow lupine and sainfoin varied from 3 to 8, 4 to 33 and 3 to 28 mg F⁻ kg⁻¹ DM
306 when plants were cultivated in soils contaminated with fluoride contents from 0 to 60, 0 to 300 and 0
307 to 150 mg F⁻ kg⁻¹, respectively (Bustingorri, et al., 2015, Bustingorri and Lavado, 2014, Szostek and
308 Ciećko, 2014).

309 Among the leaf-vegetables (elephant-head amaranth, slender amaranth, coriander, water spinach,
310 lettuce and spinach) very high values were reached in spinach (up to 220 mg F⁻ kg⁻¹ DM) treated with
311 800 mg F⁻ kg⁻¹ in soil (Jha, et al., 2008b). In lettuce, water spinach, coriander and elephant-head
312 amaranth, treated with waters from 0 to 10 mg F⁻ L⁻¹, the concentrations of fluoride ranged
313 respectively between 2.0-2.8, 4.3-6.2, 4.0-16.4 and 4.0-50.0 mg F⁻ kg⁻¹ DM (Chakrabarti and Patra,

2013a, Khandare and Rao, 2006). Quite high concentrations were observed also in other horticultural species such as for example in potato tubers (up to 21 mg F⁻ kg⁻¹ DM), lady's finger fruits (up to 49 mg F⁻ kg⁻¹ DM) and onion bulbs (up to 54 mg F⁻ kg⁻¹ DM) when exposed to the highest levels of fluoride (220, 600 and 800 mg F⁻ kg⁻¹ of soil respectively) (Das, et al., 2015, Jha, et al., 2009, Jha, et al., 2013b).

3.4. Effects of fluoride on plants

3.4.1. Effects on growth and biomass

A decrease in the total biomass of plants exposed to rising concentrations of fluoride was observed in many crops such as barley, rice, wheat, lady's finger, onion, soybean, pea, radish, spinach, triticale and olive tree (SF3 - Table 7). In contrast, Szostek and Ciećko (2017b) found that increasing levels of soil fluoride contamination (up to 300 mg F⁻ kg⁻¹ of soil administered as KF) stimulated the biomass produced by radish, phacelia, narrow-leaf lupin, yellow lupin, winter oilseed rape and aerial parts of maize plants while the production of spring triticale straw and grains, maize roots, and aerial parts of lucerne was depressed (SF3 -Table 7).

Regarding yields, when soils were contaminated with NaF, dose-dependent decreases in yield of variable magnitude were observed in different crops. At maximum contamination doses of 300-450 mg F⁻ kg⁻¹, a reduction in yield of about 20 and 30% was observed in tea and soybean respectively. At concentration ranging from 800-1000 mg F⁻ kg⁻¹, yield were reduced by 20% in spinach and by 70-80% in onion and rapeseed. When fluorine was added to the soil in the form of KF triticale showed a dose-dependent decrease of up to 34% at maximum doses (200-300 mg F⁻ kg⁻¹) while a slight increase was observed in the roots of radish. Low NaF concentration (0.4-10 mg F⁻ L⁻¹) administered to lettuce and pak-choi via irrigation water led to a marked effect in terms of yield increases (up to 170 and 180%) that reached the peak at 3 mg F⁻ L⁻¹ while in the same trial on water spinach, the yield

338 was initially promoted and then suppressed. At higher concentrations (200-300 mg F⁻ L⁻¹) wheat and
339 lady's finger were observed to exhibit a reduction in yield of approximately 50 and 60% respectively.
340 In species as wheat, soybean, pea, mustard, radish, olive tree and lady's finger some authors also
341 observed a reduction in shoot and root length accompanied in some cases by a decrement in the
342 number of leaves and leaf area, number of flowers, number and length of pods, number of seeds and
343 1000-grain weight (SF3 - Table 8).

344 Concerning tea plants, Yang, et al. (2016) observed that fluoride in hydroponic cultures, administered
345 in the form of NaF, inhibited the growth of new roots and shoot tips, and coherently Pan, et al. (2020)
346 found a reduction in root length by up to 50% in plants grown in hydroponic cultures at 16 mg F⁻ L⁻¹.
347 In contrast, in a pot experiment Ruan, et al. (2003) observed that the growth of tea plants was not
348 affected even at the highest level of fluoride contamination (100 mg F⁻ kg⁻¹ of soil as NH₄F).
349 Similarly, also Sharma et al. (2014) did not observe significant effects on shoot height, root length,
350 leaf area, number of leaves, fresh leaf weight and dry leaf weight compared to control. No negative
351 effects on the morphological parameters was also found by Camarena-Rangel et al. (2015) in a study
352 assessing the phytoremediation efficiency in fluoride removal of Japanese camellia and sugar cane
353 grown in hydroponic cultures with levels of fluoride up to 10 mg L⁻¹.

354

355 3.4.2. Visible symptoms

356 In species as onion, tip burning was observed (Jha, et al., 2009) while in wheat plants, chlorosis and
357 necrosis symptoms were detected (Joshi and Bhardwaj, 2012). Leaf necrosis was found also by Yang
358 et al. (2016) in tea plants treated with 300 mg F⁻ kg⁻¹ of soil and visual symptoms of fluoride toxicity
359 appeared as well in olive leaves in which necrosis was apical and/or marginal and progressively
360 extended over the whole surface of the leaf lamina (Zouari, et al., 2014). On the other hand,
361 Bustingorri et al. (2015) in soybean, Jha et al. (2013a, 2008b) in rice, wheat and spinach, and Ruan

362 et al. (2003) in tea, despite a biomass reduction found in some cases, did not observe any visible
363 injury.

364

365 3.4.3. *Oxidative stress and defensive mechanisms*

366 Superoxide dismutases (SODs) are prevalent metalloenzymes greatly involved in the immune
367 response of living organisms. They are the first important defence enzymes within a plant cell being
368 able to eliminate the oxidants in the cell parts affected (Ismail and Suroto, 2012), particularly toxic
369 superoxide radicals (ROS). Biochemical changes observed in plants under fluoride stress may be
370 related to the antioxidative defence mechanisms operating in the plant cells (Chakrabarti and Patra,
371 2015). The formation and accumulation of toxic oxygen species, like hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2), lipid
372 peroxidation (LP) and electrolyte leakage (EL) has been associated with various types of stresses
373 (Cai, et al., 2016a). Other studies monitored the thiobarbituric acid reactive substances (TBARS) and
374 malondialdehyde (MDA) production as markers of free radical formation in plant tissues. Moreover,
375 under the influence of different environmental stresses, some authors reported a reduction in
376 glutathione (GSH) (Śnieszek, et al., 2018), ascorbic acid (AA), total flavonoid (Flav) and total
377 polyphenol content (Phe). Antioxidant enzymes like catalase (CAT), glutathione peroxidase (GPOX)
378 and ascorbate peroxidase (APX) can catalyse the rupture of hydrogen peroxide H_2O_2 .

379 Various authors observed an increase in SOD activity when plants were exposed to fluoride (SF3 -
380 Table 9), but other studies showed that whereas lower fluoride concentrations stimulated the
381 antioxidant system, higher fluoride levels caused a significant reduction of antioxidant enzyme
382 activities with an increase of oxidative stress indicators such as H_2O_2 , TBARS, LP and EL both in
383 roots and leaves (Cai, et al., 2016a, Chakrabarti and Patra, 2015, Zouari, et al., 2017). In a study by
384 Bustingorri et al. (2017) on soybean a significant decrease in GSH with respect to control was
385 observed only at high fluoride concentration. Furthermore, Snieszek et al., (2018) found significant

alterations in the level of AA, GSH, Flav and Phe in pea plants cultivated in contaminated soils, compared to the control plants.

Significant variations in the AA levels were also found in different vegetable species cultivated under field conditions in fluoride contaminated areas (Mondal and Gupta, 2015, Pal, et al., 2012).

3.4.4. *Effects on the content of photosynthetic pigments*

Total chlorophyll reduction is primarily caused by the chlorophyll collapse or inhibition of chlorophyll synthesis due to fluoride stress (Chang and Thompson, 1963). In most of the analysed studies, the chlorophyll content of fluoride-treated plants was found to decrease with respect to controls in a dose-dependent manner. In contrast, Stanley et al. (2002) found that in amaranth the chlorophyll a and b of leaf samples was not affected by fluoride. Together with the chlorophyll decline, several authors observed also a reduction in the content of carotenoids in species as lady's finger, mustard, rice and tomato (SF3 - Table 10).

Field-studies conducted on different plant species also reported a significant decrease in the chlorophyll content of most of the vegetables cultivated in the treated or fluoride-affected areas with respect to control plants (Mondal and Gupta, 2015, Pal, et al., 2012).

A reduction in photosynthetic and chlorophyll fluorescence parameters was also found by Cai et al. (2016a) in tea plants treated with fluoride doses higher than 5 mg L⁻¹. Joshi and Bhardwaj (2012) reported a modest effect of fluoride on chlorophyll b and a significant reduction in chlorophyll a in plants irrigated with increasing levels of fluoride. Furthermore, Camarena-Rangel, et al. (2015) found that the chlorophyll decrease in camellia species was manifested after 28 days for all the fluoride levels tested observing that this parameter was a better indicator of cellular integrity than others such as oxidation or wilting. Conversely, chlorophyll concentration in sugar cane plants grown in medium with 5 or 10 mg F⁻ L⁻¹ was observed to increase with respect to control plants confirming the tolerance of this species to fluoride.

411

412 *3.4.5. Effects on nutrients uptake*

413 Zouari et al., (2017) suggested that the increased uptake of some minerals observed in olive could be
414 interpreted as a defence response of plants to fluoride. Szostek and Ciećko (2015, 2017a) observed
415 that the soil contamination with fluorine significantly affected the concentration of calcium,
416 magnesium and phosphorus in all the tested species (S3 - Table 11). In contrast, tea plants subjected
417 to fluoride treatments did not show any significant alteration in the concentrations of macro and
418 microelements (K, Ca, Mg, S, P, Fe, Mn, Zn) in leaves (Ruan, et al., 2003, 2004) (S3 - Table 11).

419

420 *3.4.6. Effects on free amino acids, proline, betaine and soluble sugars contents*

421 A common response of plants to various types of environmental stresses is the overproduction and
422 intracellular accumulation of free amino acids such as proline and betaine (Hayat, et al., 2012). In
423 addition to other physiological functions, in fact, proline and betaine have an adaptive role in
424 maintaining cell turgor or osmotic balance under stress conditions and are believed to have positive
425 effects on enzyme and membrane integrity (Ashraf and Foolad, 2007, Dar, et al., 2016, Kavi Kishor,
426 et al., 2015). Proline is a metal chelator, a signalling molecule and an antioxidant defence molecule
427 preventing electrolyte leakage and normalizing concentrations of ROS (Dar, et al., 2016, Hayat, et
428 al., 2012). Soluble sugars are also considered to have an important role in improving abiotic stress
429 tolerance of plants by mediating osmotic adjustment and acting as ROS scavengers with antioxidant
430 function. On the other hand, various kind of environmental stresses may compromise the
431 photosynthesis efficiency and thus, reduce the soluble sugars supply (Keunen, et al., 2013, Ruan, et
432 al., 2003, Sharma, et al., 2020).

433 Concerning proline or free amino acids accumulation in response to increasing fluoride doses, various
434 authors consistently reported an increasing trend in species as lady's finger, mustard, potato, olive,
435 rice and tea (S3 - Table 12). In accordance with these findings also Pal, et al. (2012) in a field-scale

436 experiment found that the level of proline of various plant species was higher in vegetables grown
437 under fluoride stress conditions with respect to control plants. Conversely, Mondal and Gupta (2015)
438 found a significant reduction in free amino acid contents in different species cultivated in a fluoride-
439 polluted area in comparison to those grown in the control area. A mixed response was observed in
440 the accumulation of betaine in tea leaves. At $5 \text{ mg F}^- \text{ L}^{-1}$, in fact, betaine levels increased by up to
441 28% compared to control while at higher fluoride doses, betaine slightly decreased by up to 20% at
442 $50 \text{ mg F}^- \text{ L}^{-1}$ (Cai, et al., 2016a).

443 As regards soluble sugars, a steady decreased with increasing fluoride concentration was observed in
444 lady's finger and rice while their level increased in olive and potato tubers. In potato leaves an
445 increase of soluble sugars content was observed in the range from $11\text{-}44 \text{ mg F}^- \text{ kg}^{-1}$ whereas a
446 reduction of those compounds was found at 110 and $220 \text{ mg F}^- \text{ kg}^{-1}$ (Ahmed, et al., 2019b, Das, et
447 al., 2015, Zouari, et al., 2016). In field experiments various vegetable species (with the exception of
448 spinach and cabbage), showed a decrease in soluble sugars levels when cultivated in fluoride
449 contaminated areas (Mondal and Gupta, 2015, Pal, et al., 2012).

450

451 3.4.7. *Effects on protein, nitrogen, ash, fat and fibre contents*

452 Studies that consider the effects of soil or water fluoride contamination on plant proteins or nitrogen
453 contents are very few (Ahmed, et al., 2019b, Das, et al., 2015, Pan, et al., 2020, Saleem, et al., 2015,
454 Szostek and Ciećko, 2017b) and, among these, just one investigated also the effects on ash, fat and
455 fibre content (Saleem, et al., 2015). Protein or protein nitrogen content was found to significantly
456 decrease with increasing fluoride doses in lady's finger, in the aerial mass of winter oilseed rape, and
457 in potato tubers and leaves (SF3 - Table 13). Szostek and Ciećko (2017b) supposed that the fluoride-
458 induced metabolic stress may alter the protein synthesis processes and accelerate their degradation
459 and use for catabolic processes. A reverse relationship, *id est* an increase in the protein or N-protein
460 content was observed in tomato, in the grains of spring triticale, in roots of black radish and in the

461 aerial mass of Lucerne (SF3 - Table 13). At field scale, Mondal and Gupta (2015) observed an
462 increase in the protein content of the plants grown in fluoride-treated plots, compared to control plots,
463 in many vegetable species (onion, beet, celeriac, garlic, pea, wheat, rice and mustard while in spinach,
464 cabbage, carrot, cucumber and lentil).

465 As regards the total nitrogen, its content increased with increasing soil fluoride levels in spring
466 triticale, black radish, phacelia lucerne, maize aerial mass and roots of narrow-leaf and yellow lupine.

467 Conversely, in the aerial mass of yellow lupine, the N-total content decreased (SF3 - Table 13).

468 Saleem, et al. (2015) observed that the ash content of two tomato varieties (Roma and Chinar) was
469 not affected by increasing levels of soil fluoride contamination. In Chinar variety a significant
470 reduction of fat content was found for soil fluoride concentrations above 50 mg F⁻ kg⁻¹ while no
471 significant effects were observed in the fibre content. At the opposite, in Roma variety, the fibre
472 content was significantly reduced with all the treatments while the fat content was not affected (SF3
473 - Table 13).

474

475 3.4.8. *Further effects*

476 An interesting strategy to adapt and resist high concentrations of fluoride was observed by Cai, et al.
477 (2016a) in leaves of tea plants consisting in the reduction in stomatal aperture with an increase in the
478 epidermal hairs number. Similar results were found in young olive trees under fluoride stress, in
479 which slight reductions of leaf relative water content (LRWC) and stomatal conductance were
480 detected (Zouari, et al., 2016). Moreover, among the effects caused by fluoride on plants, serious
481 damages to the ultrastructure of the cells were observed through transmission electron microscopy
482 within a study in tea plant conducted by Li and Chen (2018).

483

484 4. Knowledge gaps and future research perspectives

485 At a global level, it is estimated that around 200 million people are at risk of hazardous exposure to
486 fluoride, including about 66 million people in India and 45 million in China with a high prevalence
487 also found in South America and Africa (Edmunds and Smedley, 2013).

488 The geographical distribution of the regions in which the fluoride in the water-soil-plant system has
489 been investigated at field-scale so far, well reflects that of the high-fluoride groundwaters already
490 reported by several authors (Ali, et al., 2016, Amini, et al., 2008, Edmunds and Smedley, 2013,
491 Kimambo, et al., 2019). However, the analysis of the state of the art highlights that for some areas,
492 such as for example the African Rift Valley, where groundwaters and surface waters recorded some
493 of the highest concentrations of fluoride ever observed (Davies, 2008, Edmunds and Smedley, 2013),
494 the contribution of the local food and feed contaminated crops to the daily fluoride human exposure
495 is still poorly investigated.

496 Regarding India, rightly the areas in which the majority of the field-scale studies were conducted are
497 recognised to be among the most affected of the country, first among all Rajasthan, where the risk of
498 fluorosis concerns around 11 million people in 18 districts, and after that, Andhra Pradesh and
499 Telangana which is the second-worst affected state in India (Ali, et al., 2016).

500 Concerning China, endemic fluorosis has been documented almost in all provinces and the main
501 sources of exposure are considered to be high fluoride water, pollution from coal-burning and
502 elevated consumption of brick tea (Kimambo, et al., 2019). This explains why a so high percentage
503 of the studies conducted in this area (six out of twelve) focus on the accumulation of fluoride in tea
504 plant.

505 The contribution of fluoride contaminated foods to the fluoride daily ingestion (and related HI)
506 depends, as well as on the concentration of fluoride in the food itself, also on the amount of
507 contaminated food ingested (USEPA, 1992). Therefore, to truly understand the potential impacts of
508 the fluoride contamination of cropping systems on the health of the local communities, an essential
509 aspect is to conduct nutritional surveys among the populations living in the contaminated areas.

510 From the literature analyses, it was found that, even though many field-scale studies have been
511 conducted in the polluted regions, only a few authors carried out investigations about the eating habits
512 of the rural populations. Further efforts in this direction would be necessary, not only to determine
513 the EDI and HI associated with the consumed crops but also to identify which crops in a specific area
514 give the greatest contribution to the fluoride daily ingestion (Rizzu, et al., 2020).

515 An effective adaptation strategy in contaminated areas could be represented by the choice of those
516 species or cultivars that, with equal yields, show the least fluoride uptake capacity and accumulation
517 in edible organs. With regard to this, although a certain range of plant species has been considered in
518 the investigation on the fluoride absorption and accumulation additional research would be needed to
519 strengthen the present knowledge on the already examined species and to include more food crops
520 species in risk assessments. Furthermore, in order to compare the accumulation behaviour of different
521 crop species, data on fluoride concentration in plant tissues, collected in field and pot scale
522 experiment, should be always accompanied by the information related to the water-soluble fluoride
523 (WS-F) in soil which allows to calculate the bio-concentration factor ($BCF = \text{concentration of F in}$
524 $\text{plant tissue} / \text{concentration of WS-F in soil}$) (Bustingorri and Lavado, 2014). Compared to the TF, in
525 fact, the BCF, based on the WS-F, which is the bioavailable soil fluoride fraction for plants, allows
526 to compare the accumulation behaviour of different plant species regardless of the soil factors that
527 could influence the mobility and the adsorption of fluoride in soils. At the opposite, these factors
528 could interact with the species bio-accumulation attitude in determining the TF.

529 Concerning the effects of fluoride on plant health and production, since on most of the studied species
530 just one or few experiments were conducted, we believe that further investigation would be necessary
531 to confirm the existing knowledge. An aspect that would be also interesting to consider is related to
532 the effect and the interaction linked to the presence of the counterion that accompanies the F^- in the
533 pollutant (e.g. Na^+ , K^+ , NH_4^+ , H^+ , etc.) used in the trials conducted in controlled conditions. In this

534 regard, could be convenient, for instance, setting up control treatments in which plants are exposed
535 at the same concentration of the counterion without being exposed to the F⁻ (e.g. NaCl, KCl, etc.).
536 Finally, greater attention should be reserved to the investigation on the effects of soil or water fluoride
537 contamination on plant proteins or nitrogen contents, which represents an important factor influencing
538 the nutritional quality of foods.

539 For clarity and data manageability purposes, in the present systematic review of literature, we decided
540 to focus our attention only on those studies that consider the effects of soil and water fluoride
541 contamination on the fluoride plant uptake and the productivity of adult plants at the physiological
542 maturity stage. The choice of those boundaries led to the exclusion of a great number of papers
543 concerning the effects of fluoride on plant germination and development in early stages. Given the
544 importance of these parameters in determining plant yields in field-conditions, and the considerable
545 amount of literature existing on this matter, we believe that this specific topic may also deserve a
546 proper work of studies collection and analyses to be conducted with a systematic approach.

547 A further significant portion of literature that was excluded in our analysis regards all those studies
548 in which the source of contamination is represented by the airborne fluoride. From the air, in fact,
549 fluoride can be absorbed by the plant leaves via stomata leading to a progressive accumulation over
550 time (Baunthiyal and Ranghar, 2015, Singh, et al., 2018). Since the two types of uptake mechanisms
551 (by roots system or via stomata) may lead to different accumulation patterns and symptoms
552 manifestation, we believe that studies focusing on one or the other route of entry must be reviewed
553 and analysed separately. Airborne contamination of fluoride is a relevant issue particularly in the
554 vicinity of industrial activities such as for example phosphate fertilizer manufacturing plants, brick
555 kilns, aluminium and zinc smelters, glass and ceramic industries, etc. (Amundson, et al., 1990, Ben
556 Abdallah, et al., 2006, Teixeira Rossi, et al., 2016) and the concentration of fluoride in the vegetation
557 that grows in the nearby of these activities is utilized to bio-monitor the air contamination (Elloumi,
558 et al., 2015). Due to the conspicuous literature produced on this matter and the significance of the

559 subject dealt, a methodical overview of the existing knowledge on this topic would be really useful
560 to orient future investigation on the base of the current findings.

561 Another topic, that has not been addressed in the present study which would worth to be considered
562 for further studies, regards the effects of the interaction of fluoride with other water or soil elements
563 (e.g. Ca, P, Al, etc.) and variables (e.g. pH, texture, water content, etc.) on the fluoride plant uptake
564 and accumulation and its effect on crop productivity.

565 Finally, a really crucial aspect on which focus the attention in future investigation concerns the
566 development and implementation of strategies aimed to mitigate the impacts of soil and water fluoride
567 on plant, animal and human health. Researchers and stakeholders, in facts, would greatly benefit from
568 a comprehensive framework of information aiming to collect all the existing options already
569 identified to reduce the contribution of food crops to the human and animal fluoride dietary intake
570 (e.g. use of water filters and soil amendments, phytoremediation, selection of species/variety with
571 low bioaccumulation etc.). Such an overview would enable, in facts, the investigators to have a base
572 on which identify and pursue the most promising research lines and the stakeholders to consider a set
573 of possible effective mitigation options to test in their specific context.

574

575 **5. Conclusive remarks**

576 Through the systematic literature review process, a total of 87 studies were included in this work,
577 among field-scale, pot, and hydroponic experimental studies, regarding the impacts of soil and water
578 fluoride pollution on the safety and the productivity of food and feed crops at a global scale.

579 As regards the investigation on the effects of fluoride on plant health and production, even though
580 some efforts in this direction were already made, in our opinion, additional research would be needed
581 to strengthen the available evidence and confirm the current findings. Fluorine contamination led, in
582 fact, to mixed results on crop yields that were suppressed or promoted, with more or less marked
583 effects, depending on the contaminant (NaF or KF), the route of administration (directly via soil or

via irrigation water), and the crop species under study. When soils were contaminated with NaF, dose-dependent yield decreases were observed in tea, soybean (up to 20-30% at 300-450 mg F⁻ kg⁻¹), spinach (up to 20-30% at 800 mg F⁻ kg⁻¹), onion and rapeseed (up to 70-80% at 800-1000 mg F⁻ kg⁻¹). The administration of NaF at low concentration (0.4-10 mg F⁻ L⁻¹) via irrigation water led to a marked effect in terms of yield increases (up to 170 and 180%) in lettuce and pak-choi (reaching the peak at 3 mg F⁻ L⁻¹) while, in the same trial, the yield of water spinach was initially promoted and then suppressed. At higher concentrations (200-300 mg F⁻ L⁻¹) wheat and lady's finger were observed to exhibit a reduction in yield of approximately 50% and 60% respectively. Adding fluorine to the soil in form of KF led to contrasting results: while triticale showed a dose-dependent decrease (up to 34% at 200-300 mg F⁻ kg⁻¹), yields of yellow lupine and rapeseed increases of up to 15% and 64% respectively (at 200-300 mg F⁻ kg⁻¹). Less marked increases were observed on the aerial biomass of radish and maize. At 60 mg F⁻ kg⁻¹ narrow-leaf lupine showed a yield increase by 40%.

Many authors investigated also the toxic effects of fluoride on plants which was found to induce oxidative stress, reduction in chlorophyll content, alterations in the level of proline, betaine, soluble sugars, nitrogen and macro and micronutrients. In spite of that, the manifestation of symptoms such as visible injuries, decrease in root and shoot length was not always observed.

From the analysis of literature on controlled condition experiments, it came out that, with few exceptions (i.e. Japanese camellia and tea plant), plants tend to accumulate fluoride mostly in the root system. This could represent an issue mostly in the case of crops whose edible part is represented by the roots, such as radish which, for instance, was found to accumulate up to 296 mg F⁻ kg⁻¹ DM in the Irkutsk region of Russia. Nevertheless, in most of the examined crops the accumulation of fluoride in other edible parts (e.g. leaves, fruits, tubers, bulbs, or seeds) was found to be dose-dependent, reaching considerable levels when plants were exposed to high fluoride doses. However, as far as the non-carcinogenic chronic effects of fluoride on human health are concerned, it is not possible to give *a priori* an absolute indication on the potential hazard related to the consumption of a contaminated

609 food product. The contribution to the fluoride daily ingestion (and related HI), depends in fact, apart
610 from the concentration of fluoride in the food itself, also on the amount of contaminated food ingested.
611 In this regard, to better assess the potential impacts of the fluoride contamination of cropping systems
612 on the health of the local communities, the investigation on the eating habits of the populations living
613 in contaminated areas is fundamental. The areas where the populations mainly practice subsistence
614 farming and the food products are self-consumed would be in fact the most affected. Among the
615 examined field-scale experiments, the few authors that carried out nutritional surveys among local
616 rural populations highlighted a significant contribution of the fluoride contaminated foods to the risk
617 of overcoming the recommended dose enhancing the hazard of incurring fluorosis diseases.
618 In particular, in our opinion, field studies oriented to assess the extent of the fluoride contamination
619 in the food chain would deserve greater investigation efforts in some seriously affected regions so far
620 neglected. In fact, the majority of the field studies that were found through our analyses were located
621 in Asia (India ~ 42% and China ~ 32%), while very few field experiments were found for Africa and
622 South America despite in these regions the environmental fluoride contamination is serious and well
623 documented.
624 Even though, as reported above, it is not possible to associate the levels of fluoride reached by crops
625 with a predetermined level of risk, recommendation on the choice of the species to be grown in
626 contaminated areas can however be based on the degree of fluoride mobility from the soil to the edible
627 plant parts which is commonly measured through the BCF.
628 In contaminated areas, therefore, the cultivation of crops with the lowest BCFs in the edible parts is
629 the most advisable. On the contrary, the planting of crops such as tea and sugar cane, which have
630 found to be strongly fluoride hyper-accumulators ($BCF > 1$), should be likely avoided.

631

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637

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1000

1001 **Figure legends**

1002 Figure 1 - The PRISMA flow diagram illustrating the number of records related to each phase of the

1003 systematic review (adapted from Moher, et al. (2009)).....6

1004 Figure 2 - Fluoride in agro-ecosystems: geographical distribution of the investigated areas (map was

1005 created using Mapline online free trial version: <https://mapline.com>). 7

1006

1007 **Supplemental Files**

1008 Supplemental File 1 (SF1) - Review Protocol

1009 Supplemental File 2 (SF2) - List of publications included in the Systematic Review

1010 Supplemental File 3 (SF3) - Over-sized Tables

Table 1 - Inclusion and exclusion criteria

Inclusion criteria	Exclusion criteria
Every kind of study assessing: - the effects of soil and water fluoride on quali-quantitative characteristics of crop production - fluorine uptake capacity of different kind of crops cultivated in soils and/or irrigated with water characterized by various levels of fluoride - articles focusing only on adults plants - microcosm, mesocosm and field-scale trials	First and second stages (screening title and abstract): - Not on topic (misclassified) - No relevant population (e.g. animals, humans, seedlings) - No relevant exposure (e.g. airborne contamination) - Methodological articles (e.g. procedures for determination of fluoride in soil or plant material) - Full text not available - Not in English Third stage (assessing full text): - Same criteria of the first and second stages - No relevant outcome - Other reasons

Table 2 - Qualitative information extracted from the studies

Variable	Description
Country	Country where the study was conducted
Zone	Specific study area (village or town, city, district, province etc.)
Type of experiment	Pot/Field/Hydroponic (P/F/H)
Growing conditions	Greenhouse/Open field/Growth Chamber (G/O/GC)
Source of Exposure	Soil/Water (S/W)
Pollutant	Natural pollution, NaF, KF, NH ₄ F etc.
Other factors and levels	Other factors considered in the cases of factorial experiments and respective levels
Fertilization or amendment management	Type and doses of fertilizers/amendments applied
Species of plant	Scientific name of the studied plants
Variety	Varieties of the studied plants, if available
Phenology stage	Phenology stage at which plant where harvested
Accumulation pathway	Fluoride accumulation pathway among different plant organs
Effects of fluoride on plants	Visible injuries, oxidative stress, enzymatic activity etc.

Table 3 - Quantitative information extracted from the studies

Kind of information extracted	Description
Sample size	Number of replicates per each treatment
Levels of fluoride exposure	Different levels of concentration of fluoride in water or soil
Levels of fluoride in different plant tissues	Different levels of concentration of fluoride in different plant parts (roots, stem, leaves, fruits, seeds etc.)
Yield of different plant parts	Dry matter of different plant parts or the entire plant biomass
Morphological traits	Morphological traits of the considered plant species (plant height, trunk diameter, leaf area, shoot length, root length, pod length, ear length, n. of leaves, n. of branches, n. of tillers, n. of ears, n. of flowers, n. of pods, n. of seeds, n. of seed pod ⁻¹ , n. of flowers ear ⁻¹ etc.)
Oxidative stress indicators	Oxidative stress indicators (H ₂ O ₂ : hydrogen peroxide, LP: lipid peroxidation, EL: electrolyte leakage, TBARS: thiobarbituric acid reactive substances, MDA: malondialdehyde, GSH: glutathione, AA: ascorbic acid, Flav: total flavonoid, Phe: total polyphenol content)
Antioxidant enzymes activity	Activity of the antioxidant enzymes (SOD: superoxide dismutase, CAT: catalase, GPOX: glutathione peroxidase and APX: ascorbate peroxidase)
Content of photosynthetic pigments	Content of photosynthetic pigments (chlorophyll a, chlorophyll b, carotenoids)
Nutrients uptake	Uptake rates of different nutrient elements (P, Ca, Mg, K, Al, S, Zn, Fe)
Content of free amino acids, proline, betaine and soluble sugars	Content of free amino acids, proline, betaine and soluble sugars
Content of protein, nitrogen, ash, fat and fibre	Content of protein, nitrogen forms (total nitrogen, protein nitrogen, nitrate nitrogen), ash, fat and fibre

Table 4 - Number of studies collected per each category of experiment type and kind of extractable data.

Type of experiments conducted in the included studies	N. of studies that reported data exclusively on F accumulation	N. of studies that reported data or results exclusively on the effects of F on plants	N. of studies that reported both kind of data
Field-scale	34	2	3
Pot	10	10	19
Hydroponic	0	2	4
Field + Pot	1	0	0
Field + Hydroponic	1	0	0
Pot + Hydroponic	0	0	1

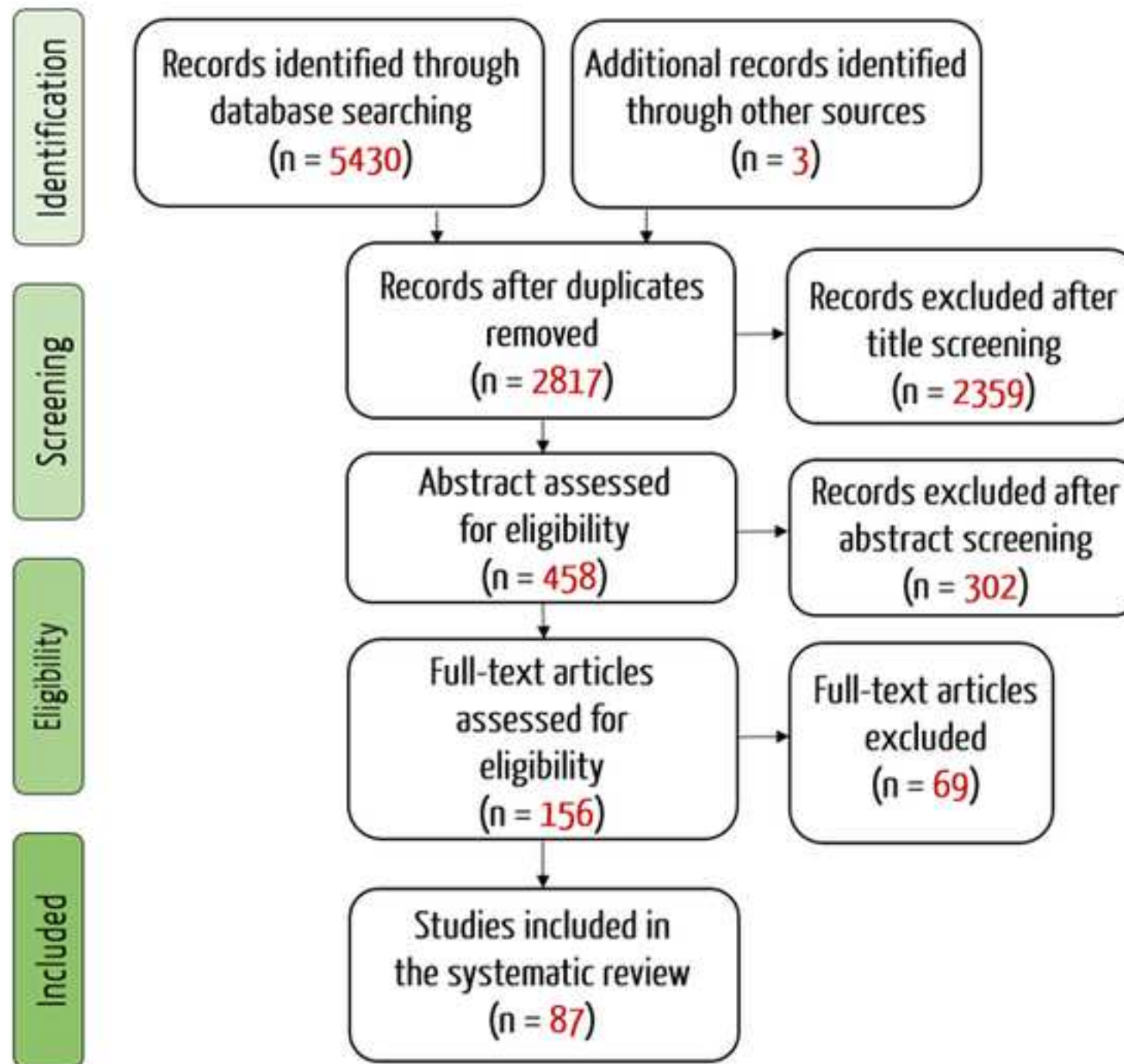


Figure 2

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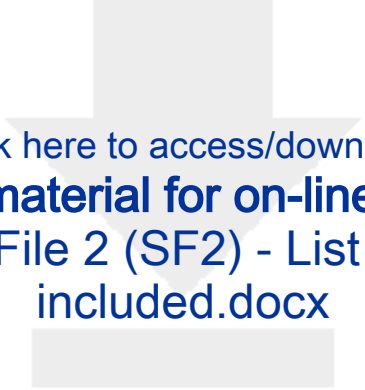




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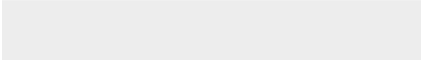
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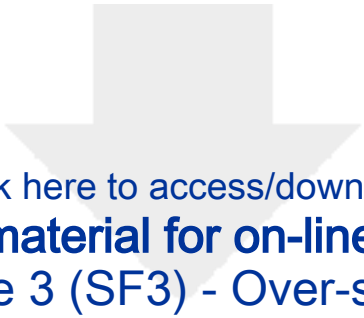




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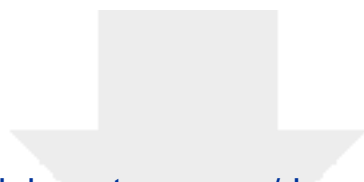




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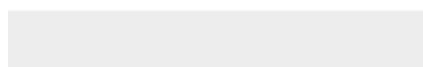
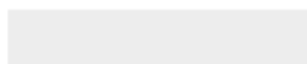
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Declaration of interests

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