

Assessing the impacts of sewage sludge amendment containing nano-TiO2 on tomato plants: A life cycle study

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1 2	Assessing the impacts of nano-TiO ₂ on tomato plants in a sewage sludge amended soil: A life cycle study	
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28 Abstract

Increasing evidence indicates the presence of engineered nanoparticles (ENPs) in sewage 29 sludge derived from wastewater treatment. Land application of sewage sludge is, therefore, 30 31 considered as an important pathway for ENP transfer to the environment. The aim of this 32 work was to understand the effects of sewage sludge containing nano-TiO₂ on plants (tomato) 33 when used as an amendment in agricultural soil. We assessed developmental parameters for the entire plant life cycle along with metabolic and bio-macromolecules changes and titanium 34 35 accumulation in plants. The results suggest that the sewage sludge amendment containing nano-TiO₂ increased plant growth (142% leaf biomass, 102 % fruit yield), without causing 36 changes in biochemical responses, except for a 43% decrease in leaf tannin concentration. 37 38 Changes in elemental concentrations (mainly Fe, B, P, Na, and Mn) of plant stem, leaves and, 39 to a lesser extent fruits were observed. Fourier-transformed infrared analysis showed 40 maximum changes in plant leaves (decrease in tannins and lignins and increase in carbohydrates) but no change in fruits. No significant Ti enrichment was detected in tomato 41 fruits. In conclusion, we evidenced no acute toxicity to plants and no major implication for 42 food safety after one plant life cycle exposure. 43

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52 1. Introduction

Engineered nanoparticles (ENPs, particle having at least one external dimension between 1-53 54 100 nm) have many industrial applications ranging from food packaging to remediation of groundwater, wastewater and soil^{1,2}. Among all ENPs, nano-TiO₂ are one of the most 55 56 produced alongside with Ag and ZnO³. Their photocatalytic activity, high stability and anticorrosion properties make them suitable for a wide range of applications^{4–6}. Nano-TiO₂ 57 can be used in cosmetics and skin care products like sun blocks, toothpastes, food, 58 pharmaceuticals, paints, water treatment processes and cleaning air products⁷⁻¹⁰. As bulk 59 60 material (possibly containing a fraction of ENPs), TiO₂ is widely used as a pigment⁷. With a constant rise in the production of ENPs, they will unavoidably make their way to the 61 62 environment. Agricultural soil, in particular, is a very sensitive compartment and a main sink for ENPs³. Two major pathways are responsible for ENP input into agricultural soil: firstly, 63 ENPs contained in sewage sludge applied as fertilizer in agriculture results^{11,12}. Indeed, many 64 65 studies have already evidenced ENP presence in wastewater treatment plants^{13,14} and further in biosolids¹⁰. Secondly, the use of ENPs in plant protection products (nanoencapsulated 66 67 pesticides, nanoformulations and nano-based carrier systems) leads to their intentional input in soil^{15–18}. A probabilistic material flow analysis predicted nano-TiO₂, among other ENPs, to 68 be present in the highest concentrations in the environment³. In particular, the modelled 69 concentration of nano-TiO₂ in sewage sludge is predicted to be 1.60 g/kg while for sludge 70 71 amended soil the concentration is estimated up to 61 mg Ti/kg. This study indicates that the concentrations of nano-TiO₂ in biosolids and effluent treated soils have increased 30–40 times 72 between 2005 and 2012³, highlighting the importance of studying the fate of nano-TiO₂ in 73 74 sewage sludge fertilized soil.

75 Sewage sludge is widely used in agricultural fields as an alternative to chemical fertilizers due to its high nutrient quality. This use of sewage sludge represents a highly sustainable 76 77 strategy, since it addresses two important global challenges: efficient agriculture 78 production thanks to inputs in micro and macronutrients and organic matter, as well as 79 disposal of large quantities of waste. However, this entails the risk of toxicity and food chain contamination due to the presence of heavy metals and organic pollutants in the sewage 80 sludge¹⁹. The European Union (Directive 86/278/EEC) and the U.S.A. (Title 40 Code of Federal 81 Regulations, Part 503) have legislations defining permissible limits for heavy metal in sewage 82 sludge used for land application^{20,21}. While ENPs are emerging as possible pollutant with 83 unknown risks, no regulation exists so far for governing their release in the environment²²⁻ 84 24 85

86 Despite the risk of food chain transfer and biomagnification through uptake, translocation 87 and accumulation of ENPs in plants and the wide use of sewage sludge as amendments, there 88 is limited research on the impact of ENPs on plants through application of sewage sludge amended soil. Recently, several studies have investigated the phytotoxicity of pristine nano-89 TiO₂ on plants^{9,25–29}. Du et al. (2011)³⁰ observed that nano-TiO₂ decreased plant biomass in 90 91 wheat and penetrated cell walls, plant epidermis via apoplastic pathway and inhibited soil enzyme activity. Servin et al. (2013)³¹ reported root-to-fruit translocation of nano-TiO₂ in 92 cucumber grown on a spiked soil. More recently, we observed no acute phytotoxicity in terms 93 94 of growth, biomass and chlorophyll concentration on wheat plants grown in nano-TiO₂ spiked soil, but a significant Ti uptake in sandy soils³². While some studies have explored the toxicity 95 of nano-TiO₂ on soil related organisms, studies investigating the impacts of nano-TiO₂ 96 97 resulting from sewage sludge applications on sewage sludge microbial communities, soil macro-organisms and plants are very few³³⁻³⁵. Thus, the predicted increase in nano-TiO₂ 98

production volumes³⁶ warrants further investigations on fate of nano-TiO₂ in sewage sludge
 and associated implications for food safety.

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The objective of the present study was to develop a realistic exposure scenario simulating the 102 103 growth of edible plants on agricultural soil treated with sewage sludge containing nano-TiO₂. Sewage sludge was produced in a pilot wastewater treatment plant treating municipal 104 105 wastewater at the Swiss Federal Institute of Aquatic Science and Technology (EAWAG, 106 Dubendorf, Switzerland). Monitoring the entire life cycle of tomato plants grown on this 107 sewage sludge amended soil, we investigated the impact on (i) plant growth and development 108 (ii) biochemical responses (iii) changes in biomacromolecules (lipids, proteins, carbohydrates) using Fourier Transformed Infra-Red spectroscopy (FTIR) (iv) effect on plant elemental 109 concentrations and (v) Ti accumulation by inductively coupled plasma-optical emission 110 111 spectrometry (ICP-OES).

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113 2. Materials and Methods

114 **2.1. Soil and sewage sludge description**

The sewage sludge was produced in a pilot wastewater treatment plant at EAWAG³⁷. This 115 sludge comes from the Dubendorf city, a suburban town of Zurich in Switzerland. During a 116 117 previous experiment, nano X-ray fluorescence (XRF) performed on ID16 beamline at the 118 European synchrotron radiation facility (ESRF) evidenced the presence of micro- and nano- TiO_2 in the sewage sludge (26% ENPs)³⁸. X ray absorption spectroscopy (XANES) performed 119 on ID21 (ESRF) showed that Ti was present in the sludge as $55 \pm 1\%$ anatase and $45 \pm 2\%$ rutile. 120 The top layer (0–30 cm) of a loamy soil (38% sand, 42% silt and 20 % clay) was collected at La 121 Côte Saint-André (Isère, France) from a field under permanent pasture to serve as "control 122

soil". Control soil contained 37 ± 2% anatase, 49 ± 7% rutile and 14 ± 6% amorphous TiO₂³⁸. Both sludge and soil were previously characterized³⁹ and the main physico-chemical properties are given in supplementary information (SI). A mixture of soil and sewage sludge (w/w) was prepared in the ratio of 1:10 (sludge: soil). This was considered as "sludge amended soil". In this condition, 20% of the Ti was in nanoparticulate form (<100 nm) and about 50% in the 100-300 nm range³⁸.

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130 2.2. Plant exposure

131 Twelve experimental units were filled with 200 g of sludge amended soil or control soil (six 132 biological replicates per condition). Seeds of tomato plants (Solanum lycopersicum, var. Red Robin, provider: Germinance) were sown and grown until the ripening of tomato fruits with 133 134 watering ad libitum. This tomato variety was selected because of its small size (dwarf variety) 135 and short life cycle. All experiments were carried out in a growth chamber under controlled 136 conditions: day/night photoperiod (16/8 h), 100 µmol/m²/s, day/night temperature (24/20±1 °C), and day/night relative humidity (70/75%). The development parameters (number of 137 138 leaves, flowers, fruits, plant height) were monitored throughout the whole plant life cycle. Chlorophyll level was assessed everyday (SPAD-502 chlorophyll meter, Minolta Camera Co., 139 Japan). After 4 months (120 days), plants were harvested, fresh biomass was recorded and 140 141 plants were split in three. Fresh leaves for biochemical analyses were weighed, immediately 142 frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at -80°C until analysis. The remaining leaves along with stems and fruits were dried and ground for determination of elemental concentration by ICP-143 OES. Finally, for the assessment of biomacromolecular changes by FTIR the dried samples 144 were further grinded using a Fast Prep[®] grinder. 145

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147 **2.3. Analysis of biochemical responses**

Tomato leaves were analysed for six different biomarkers. Three biochemical responses were 148 investigated which were oxidative stress (lipid peroxidation), photosynthesis (chlorophyll a, 149 b) and secondary metabolites (phenolic compounds, tannins and flavonoids). Lipid 150 peroxidation was assessed according to Hodges et al. (1999)⁴⁰. Chlorophyll a and b 151 concentrations were determined by the method given by Lichtenthaler (1987)⁴¹. Phenolic 152 compounds were estimated following Ainsworth and Gillespie (2007)⁴². Flavonoids were 153 determined according to Settharaksa et al. (2014)⁴³ and tannins following El Euch et al. 154 (2015)⁴⁴. Detailed methods are described in SI. 155

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157 2.4. FTIR analysis

FTIR was used to probe molecular vibrations in plant samples and thus gain information on 158 the biochemical composition (lipids, carbohydrates, proteins). Dried plant stems, leaves and 159 fruits were analysed on ID21 beamline at ESRF. Each powdered sample was analysed in ATR-160 161 mode using a diamond crystal (Thermo Nicolet, Nexus, Smart Orbit). Three independent 162 technical replicates from each sample (6 biological replicates per treatment) were acquired. One spectrum is an average of 64 scans per sample, over a range of 4000 to 400 cm⁻¹ and 163 with a spectral resolution of 4 cm⁻¹. The full experimental setup for FTIR acquisition is given 164 165 in SI. OMNIC software was used to export experimental spectra.

FTIR data treatment was performed using Orange software⁴⁵. Briefly, data were preprocessed which implies selection of the region of interest (here 1755 - 455 cm⁻¹ range which contained most of the variability by looking at the average and standard deviation of the absorbance), vector normalization and smoothing by Savitzky-Golay filter. Principal

component analyses (PCA) were performed to visualize the data in a new coordinate space
 optimized for detection of differences between groups. Second derivative was performed to
 highlight spectral differences detected using PCA.

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174 **2.5.** Elemental concentration in soil, sewage sludge and plants

175 ICP-OES was used to measure Ti and other micro and macro-elements in plant leaves, stems 176 and fruits as well as in soils according to Larue et al. (2018)³². Blank (only chemicals) and 177 standard reference material (NIST 1573a, tomato leaves) were used as controls in the 178 digestion process.

Soil exchangeable and extractable Ti concentrations were determined through BaCl₂ and HCl extractions, respectively. Briefly, for soil exchangeable elements, 3 g of soil were mixed with 10 mL of unbuffered 0.01 M BaCl₂, shaken horizontally at 150 rpm overnight at room temperature. For extractable elements, 1 g of dry soil was extracted with 10 ml of 0.1M HCl, shaken horizontally at 150 rpm for 30 min at room temperature. Soil mixtures were then filtered through Whatman filter paper, dried and digested before analysis. Analyses were performed on an ICP-OES Spectro Arcos (Ametek).

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187 **2.6. Statistical analysis**

Data reported were averages of six biological replicates ± standard deviations (SD). Data were checked for normality (Shapiro's test) and homoscedacity (Bartlett's test). When assumptions were met for parametric analyses, a Student *t*-test was used. Otherwise, a Wilcoxon test was applied. In all cases the statistical significance was based on a p value < 0.05. Additionally, ICP-OES results were analysed using PCA to identify different profiles. All statistical analyses were performed using the R statistical software (version 3.1.3)⁴⁶ and vegan package⁴⁷ for PCA.

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195 3. Results and Discussion

196 **3.1. Titanium concentration in soil**

197 Titanium concentration for the sludge amended soil was $819 \pm 62 \text{ mg/kg}$ and for control soil 198 $801 \pm 102 \text{ mg/kg}$ (Figure S1 for other element concentrations). The exchangeable Ti 199 concentration for control soil and sludge amended soil was 0.004% and 0.006%, respectively. 200 The extractable soil fraction for both soils was 0.08%. No significant difference was found 201 between the control and sludge amended soil for the total, extractable and exchangeable Ti 202 (p>0.05).

Despite the fact that the control soil and sludge amended soil had similar Ti concentrations, Ti origin was different for both. While the control soil had geogenic Ti concentration from natural soil, the sludge amended soil had 9/10 natural Ti and 1/10 coming from the sludge which was most probably engineered TiO₂. Those two Ti forms might have different behaviour in the environment and different toxicity potentials. Indeed, natural TiO₂ has a rough surface and is included in organo-mineral soil aggregates (with Si, Al, Fe), whereas TiO₂ observed in the sludge is composed of homo and heteroaggregates dominated by organic matter³⁸.

Properties such as organic matter content and soil texture (clay content) have been cited as important parameters controlling ENP behaviour in soil, influencing their mobility⁴⁸. The presence of high organic matter content in the soil (8.8%) and in the sludge amended soil (10.9%) thus is a probable explanation for low fractions of both exchangeable and extractable Ti in the two media. Also, the agricultural soil was rich in clay fraction (20%) which further elucidates our results. Indeed, in our recent work investigating TiO₂ ENP fate in 4 different types of soil (from sandy to clayey); clay content and organic carbon were found to influence the transfer of Ti, with the soil with highest clay content (42%) displaying no ENP mobility compared to sand and silty sand soils³². Likewise, Gogos et al. $(2016)^{49}$ reported that leached Ti amount in a brown earth soil (sandy loamy to loamy fine fraction) was found to be 10^{-4} % of the initial spiked Ti amount even at the highest concentration of 1000 mg/kg.

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3.2. Plant growth and developmental parameters:

Plants grown in sewage sludge amended soil significantly increased biomass production for 223 all organs (stem: +92 %, leaves: +142% and fruits: +102 %, p<0.050) as well as the number of 224 225 leaves (20 per plant for sludge amended soil vs. 15 for control soil: +33%, p=0.047) and flowers (23 per plant in amended soil vs. 10 for control soil: +130%, p=0.012) compared to plants 226 grown in the control soil (Figure 1A, B). Fruit yield was also significantly increased with an 227 average of 4.4 fruits per plant amounting for 21.50 g in the sludge amended soil and 2.2 fruits 228 per plant for a total weight of 10.63 g in the control soil (p=0.010 for fruit number and p=0.005 229 230 for fruit biomass). The average plant height for sludge amended soil was 20.68 ± 1.42 cm 231 which was 43% higher than plants grown in the control soil (14.46 ± 0.45 cm, p=0.012, data not shown). The monitoring of developmental parameters through the entire plant life cycle 232 233 showed that after an average of 50 days of experiment, plants in the amended soil started exhibiting greater development compared to the control plants (Figure S2A, B, C). 234

In this study, we found that sewage sludge amendment containing nano-TiO₂ stimulated plant growth and tomato yield. Sewage sludge was rich in organic matter and contained substantial amount of nutrients. Total carbon, nitrogen, phosphorus and sulphur concentrations in sludge amended soil were multiplied by 3.4, 6.8, 1.8 and 23.6, respectively in comparison with control soil, thereby contributing to the fertilizer effect. The fact that sewage sludge

application is an effective mean for improvement of plant vegetative growth and soil
 properties has been widely reported ^{50–52}.

Some studies in the literature have explored the phytotoxicity of nano-TiO₂ using 242 developmental parameters with contrasting results. nano-TiO₂ were found to induce longer 243 roots in cucumber plants at a concentration of 750 mg/L³¹ as well as increased germination 244 rates in Arabidopsis thaliana seedlings (500 mg/L)⁵³. However, Song et al. (2013a)⁵⁴ found no 245 effects of nano-TiO₂ treatment on oilseed rape, lettuce and kidney bean at concentration 246 range of 100 to 5000 mg/L. More recently, we evidenced no impact on wheat seedlings grown 247 on different types of soils after exposure to 500 mg/kg³². Finally, in a sewage sludge study, 248 Josko and Oleszczuk (2013)¹⁹ reported that inclusion of 10 mg/kg TiO₂ ENPs in sewage sludge 249 250 amended sandy soil inhibited root growth in plants Lepidium sativum and Sinapis alba.









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256 Still it is unclear how TiO₂ ENPs affect plants; it seems that in most studies there was no clear 257 dose-response effects and that those effects are modulated by the soil properties. However, 258 bulk Ti has been considered as a biostimulant for a long time and has been used in 259 commercial foliar fertilizers for improving plant growth and development⁵⁵. For instance, use of Tytanit[®], a Ti based foliar fertilizer, significantly improved the fruit yield of tomato at 960
g Ti /ha⁵⁶. In our study we concluded that the overall improved yield of tomato plants after
sewage sludge amendment was attributed to the nutritive value of sludge, while we cannot
be certain on the positive or negative effects of nano-TiO₂.

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265 3.3. Biochemical responses

No significant difference was observed in leaves for all the biomarkers related with secondary metabolites except tannins (Table 1). Leaf tannins significantly decreased from 3.09 ± 0.95 in control to 1.77 ± 0.13 mg CE/g f.wt in plants exposed to sewage sludge (p=0.022). Flavonoid concentration in control soil was 13.24 ± 5.04 and in sludge amended soil 12.02 ± 0.23 mg CE/g f.wt. The concentration for phenolic compounds for control soil and sludge amended soil was 10.54 ± 4.48 and 10.79 ± 3.56 µg GAE/g f.wt. respectively.

272 Among secondary metabolites, tannins, flavonoids and phenolic compounds are widely 273 distributed in plants, and play a prominent role in general defence strategies (against 274 herbivores, microbes, viruses, or competing plants), as well as contributing to food quality⁵⁷. 275 Usually, a high tannin concentration favours plant growth in poor soil, in which the same plant species with a low tannin concentration could not grow^{58,59}. A decrease in secondary 276 metabolites might weaken the defence system of the plants and be a threat to plant survival 277 278 in a more competitive environment (vs. in growth chamber). So far a very limited number of 279 studies have investigated the impact of ENPs in general, and nano-TiO₂ in particular, on secondary metabolites. 280

281

282 Table 1: Values for flavonoids, phenolic compounds, tannins, chlorophylls a, b and 283 malondialdehyde (MDA) in leaves of tomato plants grown for 120 days on control and sludge

amended soils. Asterisks represent significant difference (p<0.05) as indicated by Student T

285 test (n=6). CE: catechin equivalent, GAE: gallic acid equivalent

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Biomarker	Control soil	Sludge amended soil
Flavonoids	13.24 ± 5.04	12.02 ± 0.23
(mg CE/g f.wt.)		
Phenolic compounds	10 54 +4 48	10.79 ± 3.56
(ug GAE/g f.wt.)	10.54 ±4.40	
Tannins	2 00 + 0 05	1.77 ± 0.13*
(mg CE/g f.wt.)	5.09 ± 0.95	
Chlorophyll a	1.37 ± 0.31	1.62 ± 0.62
(mg/g f.wt.)		
Chlorophyll b	0. 89 ± 0.20	1.20 ± 0.40
(mg/g f.wt.)		
MDA	3.84 ± 2.43	4.86 ± 1.64
(nmol/g f.wt.)		

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For photosynthesis assessment, SPAD chlorophyll meter measurements recorded along plant growth revealed no major difference in chlorophyll content (data not shown). This result was further confirmed by assessing photosynthetic pigments in plant leaves at the end of plant exposure: the average concentration of chlorophyll a and b was 1.53 ± 0.52 (p=0.520) and 0.97 ± 0.34 mg/g f.wt. (p=0.623) respectively. Previous studies have also reported similar results where chlorophyll content in wheat⁶⁰ and tomato⁶¹ was not impacted by TiO₂ ENP treatment.

Finally, oxidative stress was assessed through lipid peroxidation: leaf malondialdehyde (MDA) concentration in leaves did not change significantly (p=0.572) with values from 3.84 ± 2.43 in control plants to 4.86 ± 1.64 nmol/g f.wt in plants grown on sludge amended soil. Likewise, Koce et al. $(2014)^{62}$ found no significant effect on anti-oxidative enzymes (glutathione 300 reductase, ascorbate peroxidase, guaiacol peroxidase, catalase) and lipid peroxidation levels 301 in Allium cepa in a 24 hr study using a wide range of nano-TiO₂ concentration (0.1-1000 mg/L). 302 MDA is the ultimate product of lipid peroxidation damage caused by generation of free 303 radicals. Flavonoids and tannins are reported to exert inhibition of lipid peroxidation and scavenging of oxygen radicals⁵⁸. Therefore, a decrease in tannin and flavonoid concentrations 304 and a subsequent increase in MDA content might be indicative of a correlation between 305 306 decreasing scavenging activity and increasing reactive oxygen species (ROS) concentration. 307 Tomato plants might thus have gone through a moderate oxidative stress during plant growth 308 as suggested by the significant decreased in tannin concentration and trend in increased MDA 309 content (however, not significant upon harvest). The lack of biochemical response might also be associated with the duration of exposure. Indeed, a longer contact duration has been 310 311 found to favour interactions between ENPs and sewage sludge components (e.g. organic 312 matter) thereby reducing their bioavailability (and toxicity) through adsorption or aggregation^{19,63}. Also it is possible that initially plants might have experienced stress but later 313 adapted to it such that no significant difference was observed later. Dosing of ROS and 314 315 antioxidative enzymes during exposure would be interesting to further understand implied processes. 316

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318 **3.4. Impact on plant biomacromolecules: FTIR analysis**

In this study, FTIR was used to identify changes in specific functional groups in tomato plants grown in control soil and sludge amended soil (Figure 2A, B, C and Figure S3). During data preprocessing, on the absorbance spectra, it was noted that most of the variability observed in the average spectra of each group arose from the carbohydrate/protein/aromatic/saccharide region (1755-455 cm⁻¹), while the PCA on the lipid region (between 3000 and 2800 cm⁻¹) failed

to separate the groups in this region and the region in-between (2800-1755 cm⁻¹) was mainly
 background noise.

We thus selected the range from 1755 to 455 cm⁻¹, also known as fingerprint region, for 326 further processing. After PCA treatment, PC1 (62%) separated clusters corresponding to the 327 328 stems, leaves and fruits, while on PC4 (5%) data segregated clearly in two groups (control vs. sludge amended soil) for leaf samples, to a lesser extent for stem samples but not for fruits 329 330 (Figure 2A). These results highlight thus no impact of the sewage sludge treatment on the biomacromolecules of the edible part of tomato. Also, when comparing the average 331 332 absorbance of control and sludge amended soil for the fruits (Figure S3), there is no clear 333 difference between the spectra, as reflected in the PCA analysis. Excluding the fruits from the analysis, leaves and stems were further investigated to identify the main spectral differences. 334 As previously mentioned, the major difference between control and sludge was found in the 335 336 leaves. These differences were highlighted with PC1 explaining 79% of the variance between 337 leaf samples, and changes were evidenced in the second derivative (Figure 2B). The majority of the differences were associated with spectral bands of carbohydrate (900-1200 cm⁻¹) 338 339 attributed to C-O stretching vibrations and OH deformation vibrations. Differences were also detected in the region 1480-1180 cm⁻¹ where CH₂ wagging vibrations occur that may 340 correspond to aromatic and ring vibrations, followed by changes in the amide, phenolic and 341 aromatic band contributions (1700-1500 cm⁻¹)⁶⁴ where compounds such as lignin or tannin 342 (that are mainly aromatic) could be highly contributing. Indeed, the band at 1515 cm⁻¹ is quite 343 characteristic of lignin⁶⁵. 344

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Figure 2: (A) PCA including FTIR spectra from all samples (leaves, stems, fruits) of tomato plants grown for 120 days on control soil and sludge amended soil. FTIR absorbance (upper panel), loadings (in black upper panel) and second derivative (lower panel) spectra of (B) leaves and (C) stems. The shading of the spectra represents the standard deviation.

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In particular in leaves, the relative intensities of bands 1029, 1050, 1075 and 1144 cm⁻¹ mainly characteristic of carbohydrates were increased in sludge plants while bands for lignin (666, 760, 780, 1260, 1315, 1370, 1416, 1515, 1540, 1606 cm⁻¹) were stronger in control plants. The spectral region 1200-1610 cm⁻¹ contains many contributions that are characteristic of tannins⁶⁶ and lignin⁶⁷. This result is in agreement with the decrease of tannins observed when measuring biochemical biomarkers.

358 In stems, the differences were significantly smaller (Figure 2C), to separate the control from 359 the sludge condition, it was necessary to look into the loadings of the PC4 explaining 10.6% 360 of the variance of the samples. The major differences occured in the amide, aromatic regions (1680-1500 cm⁻¹) and in the 1500-1300 cm⁻¹ region, typical of polysaccharides and cellulose. 361 362 A decrease at 1417 and 1372 cm⁻¹ and a slight shift from 1614 to 1620 cm⁻¹ was observed in the sludge condition. This decrease may also be reflecting the changes in concentration of 363 364 tannin and lignin but in a less evident manner. Indeed, when looking at the band at 1515 cm⁻ 365 ¹, no apparent change is observed.

With all these observations in mind, we can state that fruits were not affected by the exposure to the sewage sludge treatment, while some changes were observable in the stems and leaves. Changes are in the same spectral regions, but the differences are greater in the leaves. Those results imply that impact of TiO₂ ENP contamination on food nutritional value of leafy crop should be investigated more closely. Additionally, impact on fruits cannot be excluded since a study from Servin et al. $(2013)^{65}$ evidenced changes in cucumber fruits upon TiO₂ ENP exposure.

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374 **3.5. Effect on plant elemental concentrations**

Plant macro (S, Ca, Mg, P, K) and microelements (Al, B, Cu, Fe, Mn, Na, Si, Zn) were determined
in the different organs, to assess the impact of sewage sludge amendment on plant ionome
(Figure S4A, B, C). Tomato leaves were again found to be the most impacted plant organ which
is in line with the above discussed FTIR results.

379 Sewage sludge amendment significantly increased the translocation (concentration in the leaves/concentration in the soil) of Fe, B, and Na in all plant organs (stem, leaves, fruits) while 380 S, P increased only in leaves and stem (Figure 3A, B, C). Mn and Si translocation was also 381 382 consistently lower in sewage sludge exposed plants. Those elements are of primary importance for plant development. For instance, B is an essential micronutrient influencing 383 384 good seed set and fruit development as it plays a vital role in growth of the pollen tube during flower pollination⁶⁸. Na is a functional nutrient regulating stomatal opening and closing⁶⁹. 385 Sulfur is also a key component of defense compounds cysteine, glutathione (GSH) and 386 387 phytochelatins (PCs) where it appears in the sulfhydryl (-SH or thiol) group. These thiol compounds synthesised in plants under metal stress represent a very important 388 detoxification pathways for plant tolerance and survival⁷⁰. Also, according to Amtmann and 389 Armengaud (2009)⁷¹ changes in nutrient content can impact the overall plant nutritional 390 quality and taste of crops. 391

Studies in the literature report both sewage sludge⁷² and Ti as stimulants of increased nutrient
 absorptions in plants⁵⁶. While it is likely that the increase in many elements in plants is due to

the effect of the sludge, it can partly also be associated with the presence of TiO_2 functioning as promoter of plant nutrition.

396



398 Figure 3: Principal component analysis (PCA) based on elemental translocation factors 399 (concentration in the plant organ/concentration in the soil) in (A) stem (B) leaves and (C)

400 fruits for tomato plants grown for 120 days on control soil and sludge amended soil, as 401 determined by ICP-OES.

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In particular, TiO₂ ENPs have been reported to increase P uptake in several studies on different plant species (lettuce⁷³, wheat⁷⁴, tomato⁷⁵). Likewise, Ti has also been associated with enhancement of Fe uptake⁵⁵. In a hydroponic study of two weeks, nano-TiO₂ (concentration of 0.5 to 2 g/L) also significantly increased S, Mg and Fe contents in tomato leaves and roots⁷⁵. Similarly, application of Ti in the form of Tytanit[®] foliar fertilizer increased the N, Ca, and Mg content of tomato plants⁵⁶. The decrease in Mn concentration after TiO₂ ENP application has also been evidenced before⁷⁶.

Therefore, we assume the elemental impacts to be a cumulative effect of both sludge and nano- TiO_2 . More studies are needed to distinguish the sludge from the ENP effect, for example by spiking different concentrations of TiO_2 ENPs in the sewage water before treatment.

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415 **3.6. Presence of Ti in plant parts**

Ti concentrations were 1.19 ± 0.51 and 1.03 ± 0.35 mg/kg in stems, 2.59 ± 1.62 and 1.14 ± 0.31 mg/kg in leaves, and 2.31 ± 1.67 and 0.88 ± 0.30 mg/kg in fruits for plants grown on control soil and sludge amended soil, respectively (Figure 4). While Ti concentration was similar for both soils Ti uptake was reduced in plant organs in sludge amended soil with significant reduction in leaves (p=0.032). Further μ XRF analysis was performed to investigate Ti distribution in leaf cross sections (Figure S5). However, Ti was below the detection limit in both samples (description of the experimental set-up and results in SI).

Our results are in agreement with the literature that has reported low uptake of Ti based ENPs
from soil. Du et al. (2011)³⁰ in their study of 7 months on wheat found no significant difference
in the Ti content of wheat grain between nano-TiO₂ treated soil (10 g/kg TiO₂) and control soil
classified as loamy clay. Burke et al. (2014)⁷⁷ also found very low levels of Ti (<2.5 mg/kg) in
the above ground tissue of soybean and maize plants after six week exposure to 200 mg/kg
TiO₂ ENPs.

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430

Figure 4: Ti concentrations in in the stems, leaves and fruits for tomato plants grown for 120
days on control soil and sludge amended soil. Asterisks indicate significant difference (p<0.05)
as indicated by Student T test (n=6).

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The lower translocation of Ti in the leaves of plants grown on sewage sludge amended soil might be due to the presence of a significantly higher amount of organic matter (+24%) consisting of functional groups that readily form complexes with ENPs, compared to the control soil, thereby possibly, reducing the bioavailability of Ti. Indeed, studies have reported that pH and organic matter directly influence the bioavailability of ENPs in soil⁷⁸. Similarly, we
evidenced that Ti exhibited no significant root internalization and no upward translocation to
leaves in wheat plants grown in soils with organic matter content above 1.5%.

So far there is no defined range for deficiency, sufficiency or toxicity for Ti in plants⁷⁹. However, Kabata-Pendias and Pendias $(2001)^{80}$ suggested that Ti content ranging from 50 to 200 mg kg⁻¹ in mature leaves of plants could be excessive or toxic while Lyu et al. $(2017)^{55}$ proposed a Ti threshold of 50 mg kg⁻¹ in leaf tissues. So, based on our results, Ti concentrations in plant parts were far lower than these proposed concentrations, thus suggesting no risk of toxicity.

Another issue to consider is that nano-TiO₂ exhibit a high potential to adsorb toxic metals on 448 their surfaces as well as nutrients^{81–83}. Over the years, repeated applications of nano-TiO₂ 449 through sewage sludge might lead to the release of metals sorbed on ENP surface into the 450 environment becoming readily available for crop plants¹⁰ and the decreased bioavailability of 451 nutrients such as Ca and Fe⁸⁴. According to Hartmann and Baun (2010)⁸⁵ the interaction 452 between ENPs and toxic compounds in environmental mixtures can either amplify or alleviate 453 toxicity. But it is still unclear whether the co-contamination of ENPs and metals would lead to 454 455 an enhance toxicity of the mixture (Trojan horse effect) or rather a decreased one.

456

Our results indicate that sewage sludge amendment containing nano-TiO₂ improved the plant yield due to its high organic matter and nutrient content and did not lead to significant changes in the edible part of tomato. However, over time nano-TiO₂ in sewage sludge is expected to increase while organic matter content may decrease if the sludge application

- 461 stops. This may affect Ti availability in the long run. Another aspect to take into consideration
 462 is the impact of such amendment on soil bacterial communities along time.
- 463

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