

# Transfer and Ecotoxicity of Titanium Dioxide Nanoparticles in Terrestrial and Aquatic Ecosystems: A Microcosm Study

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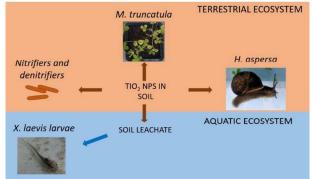
#### Transfer and Ecotoxicity of Titanium Dioxide Nanoparticles in the Terrestrial and Aquatic Ecosystems: A Microcosm Study

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3 4	Vinita Vijayaraj, <sup>†</sup> Clarisse Liné, <sup>†</sup> Stéphanie Cadarsi, <sup>†</sup> Clément Salvagnac, <sup>†</sup> David Baqué, <sup>†</sup> Arnaud Elger, <sup>†</sup> Maialen Barret, <sup>†</sup> Florence Mouchet, <sup>†</sup> and Camille Larue <sup>*,†</sup>
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**ABSTRACT:** With the advancement in nanotechnology, particularly the use of TiO<sub>2</sub> 13 14 nanoparticles (NPs), there is a need to study their release into the environment and assess the 15 related risk in an environmentally relevant contamination scenario. In the present study, the 16 transfer and toxicity of TiO<sub>2</sub> NPs in microcosms mimicking a terrestrial and an aquatic 17 ecosystems were evaluated. The contaminated soil was prepared by spiking natural soils and 18 used as the basis for all exposure systems including preparation of soil leachates for amphibian 19 exposure. Results demonstrated significant reductions in bacterial (-45%) and archaeal (-36%) nitrifier abundance; significant translocation of Ti to M. truncatula leaves (+422%); significant 20 21 reductions in plant height (-17%), number of leaves (-29%), and aboveground biomass (-53%); 22 non-significant Ti uptake in snail foot and viscera, and excretion in feces; and genotoxicity to X. 23 *laevis* larvae (+119% micronuclei). Our study highlights a possible risk of engineered TiO<sub>2</sub> NPs 24 in the environment in terms of trophic transfer and toxicity in both terrestrial and aquatic 25 environments.

### 26 INTRODUCTION

Nanoparticles (NPs) are particles with at least one dimension smaller than 100 nm.<sup>1</sup> Compared 27 with their micro/macro particle counterparts, NPs have a larger surface area over volume ratio, $^2$ 28 and number of surface atoms, which results in increased surface energy and reactivity.<sup> $\frac{3}{2}$ </sup> The 29 30 understanding of their unique properties has rendered them indispensable in several fields of 31 science and technology. Although not all NPs may be toxic, because they are manufactured in a variety of sizes and shapes for use in a multitude of products and industrial processes,  $\frac{4}{2}$  they 32 could pose different potential hazards. $\frac{5.6}{2}$  Despite the recommendation by the National Organic 33 Standards Board in 2010, products containing NPs are still being manufactured worldwide.<sup>4</sup> It is 34 35 therefore necessary to understand the risks associated with their release in the environment.

Among the most widely used NPs are silver and titanium dioxide (TiO<sub>2</sub>) NPs.<sup>7</sup> TiO<sub>2</sub> NPs are 36 commonly known for their photocatalytic applications and used as semiconductors,  $\frac{8}{3}$  additives in 37 food,<sup>9</sup> and in cosmetic products.<sup>10</sup> Ti is also a widespread element in the environment, with 38 concentrations in soils ranging for instance from 43 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> in sand to 1671 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> in clayey 39 soil.<sup>11</sup> The concern, however, is the increase in this background concentration beyond an 40 41 environmentally safe threshold, in addition to the potential toxicity of these NPs, on their own, 42 due to the differences in their properties and behavior when compared with natural Ti. Ultimately these NPs will reach the environment.<sup>12</sup> In wastewater treatment plants, NPs partition 43 between treated water and sludge effluents. Through the discharge of treated water, NPs can 44 reach aquatic ecosystems. But the majority  $(99\%)^{13}$  that remains in sewage sludge is dispersed 45 into agricultural fields as fertilizer.<sup>14</sup> Runoff from these polluted soils can in turn reach water 46 bodies. A recent study by Sun *et al.*<sup>15</sup> predicted the concentrations of TiO<sub>2</sub> NPs in surface waters 47 to be ~ 2.17  $\mu$ g L<sup>-1</sup>, in sludge 1.60 g kg<sup>-1</sup>, and in sludge-treated soils 61.10 mg kg<sup>-1</sup>. An 48

49 accumulation in both terrestrial and aquatic organisms could be carried upward into the food50 chain by primary and secondary consumption routes.

51 Negative effects have already been noticed, as a result of NP exposure, in terrestrial and aquatic organisms at the single-organism scale,  $\frac{16}{16}$  but the study of NP effects in a simplified food web is 52 53 not very common. Suggestions have been made that certain NPs can bioaccumulate and possibly bio-magnify in the trophic chain.  $\frac{17,18}{12}$  Yeo and Nam<sup>19</sup> compared the bioaccumulation of TiO<sub>2</sub> NPs 54 55 and carbon nanotubes in a paddy ecosystem, and observed a bioaccumulation from plankton to ricefish. In a microcosm containing soil, lettuce, crickets, and lizards, Servin *et al.*<sup>20</sup> 56 57 demonstrated that the availability of CuO NPs to terrestrial organisms can be modified by 58 weathering. Using leaf litter decomposition as a functional marker for ecotoxicity in freshwater mesocosms, Bour *et al.*<sup>21</sup> showed that this ecosystem function was not impacted by CeO<sub>2</sub> NP 59 60 exposure, in line with the absence of significant differences in numbers, growth, or development 61 of chironomid larvae. However, studies are lacking in terms of a real-life scenario where transfer of TiO<sub>2</sub> NPs occurs from the soil into the water compartment and their impact on, and uptake by, 62 63 relevant organisms of these environments.

In the present study, the aim was to combine two microcosms mimicking both terrestrial (soil, soil microbial communities, alfalfa plants, and snails) and aquatic (soil leachates and amphibian larvae) compartments to (a) determine whether there is a transfer of Ti within and between these two compartments and (b) evaluate the toxicity of TiO<sub>2</sub> NPs to soil microbial communities (total abundance and abundance of functional guilds), plant (height, number of leaves, aboveground biomass, chlorophyll), snail (mortality, avoidance behavior), and amphibian larvae (mortality, growth, and genotoxicity). Our study contributes valuable data in terms of the impact of TiO<sub>2</sub> NPs on environmentally relevant bioindicators of pollution and provides an insight into
implications for food safety and ecotoxicological risk assessment.

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## 1. MATERIALS AND METHODS

75  $1.1. \text{ TiO}_2 \text{ NP}$  characterization and suspension preparation

TiO<sub>2</sub> NPs used in this study were provided by Sigma-Aldrich (P25); they have been widely used in ecotoxicological studies, permitting easy comparisons. They consist of 80% anatase and 20% rutile with a nominal diameter of  $25.0 \pm 5.7$  nm; are polyhedral, uncoated, with a specific surface area of  $46 \pm 1 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$  and zeta potential in ultrapure water of  $-10.5 \pm 2.6 \text{ mV}$  (File S1).<sup>22</sup> The TiO<sub>2</sub> NP suspension was freshly prepared before soil contamination (10000 mg L<sup>-1</sup>); it was vortexed for 30 s and agitated while pipetting to keep it homogenized.

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#### 83 1.2. Terrestrial exposure

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#### 1.2.1. Exposure medium preparation

The two main conditions in this study were the control soil and the spiked soil, from which all conditions were derived. Soils were silty sand (Lufa Speyer 2.1; File S2) prepared with 20% (w/w) commercial compost to sustain proper plant growth (final soil mixture pH: 5.3, organic matter content: 12.6%). For the spiked soil, 500 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> of TiO<sub>2</sub> NPs were added to mimic several years of sewage sludge spreading on agricultural soils.<sup>15</sup> Both control and spiked soils were mixed with either Millipore water or with NP suspension at a ratio of 1: 1 (w:w). After shaking at 100 rpm for 2 h, soils were filtered to eliminate excess water, dried, and transferred to 92 small plastic pots,  $7 \times 7 \times 6.4$  cm (Soparco, France). This mixing procedure was chosen to 93 ensure a homogenous contamination of the soil matrix.

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#### 1.2.2. Medicago truncatula exposure to TiO<sub>2</sub> NPs

Medicago truncatula (ecotype A17) is a model for legume plants,<sup>23</sup> chosen for their implication 96 in the nitrogen cycle.<sup> $\frac{24}{2}$ </sup> Seeds were kindly provided by Dr. Manuel Gonzalez-Guerrero, 97 98 Universidad Politécnica de Madrid, Spain. They were first scarified and soaked overnight in 99 water, in the dark. They were then placed in Petri dishes (6 to 7 seeds/Petri dish) with Hoagland 100 agar medium for germination at 4°C for 72 h, before transferring to the soil pots. Seedlings (n =101 10 per condition) were biomonitored every day for the number of leaves, height, and chlorophyll 102 levels using a SPAD-meter (SPAD-502 chlorophyll meter, Minolta Camera Co., Japan). After 60 103 days, plants were harvested. Dry weights were recorded after 48 h at 60°C prior to Ti 104 quantification in leaves.

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#### 6 1.2.3. Impact of $TiO_2$ NPs on soil microbial communities

107 The microbiological analysis focused on soil nitrifiers and denitrifiers to further investigate NP 108 impact on the nitrogen cycle. Upon plant harvest, three cores of whole-depth bulk soil, deprived 109 of roots (and without further processing), were collected at 3 cm from the stem axis from 110 individual soil pots (n = 6 per condition). The three cores were homogenized, and 300 mg 111 composite subsamples were stored at -20°C until DNA isolation. The FastDNA SPIN Kit for 112 Soil was used according to the manufacturer's instructions (MP Biomedicals laboratories, Unites 113 States). The quality and quantity of DNA extracts were determined using a NanoDrop 114 spectrophotometer. Quantitative PCR (qPCR) was used to measure the abundance of total soil bacteria targeting the universal 16S rRNA gene as well as archaeal ammonia monooxygenase A genes (*amoA*) for ammonia oxidizing archaea (AOA, nitrifiers), bacterial *amoA* for ammonia oxidizing bacteria (AOB, nitrifiers), and the bacterial nitrite reductase (*nirK* and *nirS*) and the nitrous oxide reductase (*nosZ*) genes for denitrifiers.<sup>25</sup> For more details about the experimental procedure, see File S3.

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#### 1.2.4. *Helix aspersa* exposure to TiO<sub>2</sub> NPs

122 Snails were chosen for this experiment as sensitive bioindicators of pollution in the environment.<sup>26</sup> They were obtained from a snail breeding farm to ensure homogeneity. After a 48 123 124 h depuration step, they were transferred to clean boxes containing 5 g of dry soil (after plant 125 harvest) mixed with 3 mL of Millipore water (n = 6 per condition). Soil moisture was set high 126 (189% of the water holding capacity), to sustain high hygrometry in microcosms and thus snail 127 activity. The experimental model included only soil exposure, which was renewed each day for 128 10 days; snail feces were collected daily. After removal, soils were dried and weighted to 129 determine the quantity consumed by each snail over 24 h. Following 72 h of depuration, snails 130 were rinsed and stored at  $-20^{\circ}$ C. Snail foot and viscera were separated and dried prior to Ti quantification.<sup>26</sup> 131

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#### 133 1.3. Aquatic exposure

134 1.3.1. Exposure media for amphibian larvae

Exposure media for amphibian larvae were prepared using a new batch of control and spiked soils. Soils (1 kg of dry matter) were mixed with 10 volumes (ratio 1:10) of mineral water (Volvic®; Ti under detection limit of inductively coupled plasma–optical emission spectroscopy

- 138 [ICP-OES]) according to the adapted static leaching procedure of the French norm XP 31-210
- 139 (AFNOR, 1992) without filtration.<sup>29</sup> After 24 h of stirring, the mixtures were allowed to settle for
- 140 2 h, and the supernatant suspensions were collected by siphoning into glass flasks. Ten different
- 141 exposure conditions were set up (Table 1).
- 142
- 143 Table 1: Amphibian larvae exposure conditions (CS : control soil, SS : spiked soil)

Condition	Preparation	
NC	Pure Volvic® water	
PC	40 mg L <sup>-1</sup> cyclophosphamide in Volvic® water	
ICP equiv of CS	3.6 mg $L^{-1}$ TiO <sub>2</sub> NPs in Volvic® water	
CS Raw	Raw leachates from control soil	
CS50	50% raw leachates from control soil + 50% Volvic® water	
CS25	25% raw leachates from control soil + 75% Volvic® water	
ICP equiv SS	12.3 mg L <sup>-1</sup> TiO <sub>2</sub> NPs in Volvic® water	
SS Raw	Raw leachates from spiked soil	
SS50	50% raw leachates from spiked soil + 50% Volvic® water	
SS25	25% raw leachates from spiked soil + 75% Volvic® water	
NC = negative control; PC = positive control (genotoxicity assay); ICP equiv of CS = equivalent Ti concentration of CS in Volvic®; ICP equiv SS = ICP equivalent Ti concentration of SS in		

Volvic<sup>®</sup>.

145 1.3.2. Impact of TiO<sub>2</sub> NPs on *Xenopus laevis* 

X. *laevis*, a widely used model in ecotoxicology,  $\frac{27,28}{2}$  are filter-feeders, and can be contaminated 146 via skin contact, water filtration via gills, and breeding exposure. X. laevis larvae (stage 50 of the 147 development table of Nieuwkoop & Faber<sup>30</sup>) were exposed in semi-static conditions based on 148 modified ISO 21427-1.<sup>31</sup> The larvae (n = 15 per condition) were taken from the same hatch to 149 150 reduce inter-animal variability. They were submitted to daily renewal of media and fed with fish 151 food TetraPhyll®. After 12 days of exposure, mortality was recorded and larvae anaesthetized 152 (MS222, Sandoz, France) to take pictures and evaluate growth inhibition (Image J). Genotoxicity was assessed through the micronucleus test $\frac{31}{2}$ : blood was extracted from the heart of each 153 154 anesthetized larva, and micronucleated erythrocytes per thousand cells (ME‰) were counted 155 under optical microscope following hematoxylin-eosin staining.

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#### 157 1.4. Ti uptake: acid digestion and ICP-OES

Acid digestion was done in a DigiPrep® heating system, using HNO<sub>3</sub>, NH<sub>4</sub>F, and HClO<sub>4</sub> as well as H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, with a temperature of 100°C and several evaporation steps.<sup>11</sup> Digested samples were diluted in 5% HNO<sub>3</sub>. For soil, a filtration step was necessary (0.45  $\mu$ m syringe filters). The samples were then analyzed by ICP-OES with control samples (blanks with only chemicals and standard reference material NIST 1573a: tomato leaves) (IRIS Intrepid II XDL, Thermo Scientific, United States). Ti recovery from TiO<sub>2</sub> NPs has been calculated to be 88.2 ± 2.1%.<sup>11</sup>

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#### 165 1.5. Statistical Analysis

166 Data were checked for homoscedacity and normality. When assumptions were met for 167 parametric analyses, a Welsh *t*-test or a one way ANOVA were used. Otherwise, a Wilcoxon test or a Kruskal-Wallis test followed by a Dunn's post hoc test were applied. A principal component analysis (PCA) was carried out on plant elemental content to investigate  $TiO_2 NP$  impact on plant nutrition. All statistical analyses were performed using the R statistical software (version 3.1.3),<sup>32</sup> with car,<sup>33</sup> multcompView,<sup>34</sup> pgirmess,<sup>35</sup> and lsmeans<sup>36</sup> packages (all results are gathered in Table S4). Data is displayed as median  $\pm$  interquartile range, average is shown by a red dot.

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### 175 2. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

176 2.1. Terrestrial ecosystem

177 2.1.1. Ti concentration in soil

As expected, the addition of TiO<sub>2</sub> NPs lead to a significant increase in Ti concentration in spiked soil in comparison with the control soil (p = 0.01). The average concentration in the control soil was  $278.0 \pm 13.4$  mg kg<sup>-1</sup>, while that in spiked soil was  $341.7 \pm 12.2$  mg kg<sup>-1</sup> (see File S5A).

Although the soils were spiked with 500 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> TiO<sub>2</sub> NPs (300 mg Ti kg<sup>-1</sup> equivalent), the average increased concentration of Ti in spiked soils after leaching was below 300 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> Ti. Considering that the soil used in this study was 88% sandy, this could be explained as a loss of Ti into the water compartment during the leaching procedure, as suggested by our previous results.<sup>11</sup>

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#### 2.1.2. TiO<sub>2</sub> NP phytotoxicity and uptake by *Medicago truncatula*

188 After 60 days of exposure, plants grown in the spiked soil were significantly smaller than those 189 grown in the control soil (p < 0.001) with average heights of  $4.3 \pm 0.3$  cm and  $6.2 \pm 0.3$  cm,

190 respectively (Figure 1A). Plant heights were similar until day 12, after which exposed plants had 191 a 17% smaller size (File S5B). Along the development, non-exposed plants produced 192 significantly more leaves (p = 0.01) with *ca*. seven against five leaves for exposed plants (Figure 193 1B). A significant reduction in aboveground biomass (-53%) was also observed for exposed 194 compared to non-exposed plants (p < 0.001; File S5C). Chlorophyll levels tended to be lower in 195 the spiked conditions than in the control conditions, but no significant difference was detected 196 (File S5D). In terms of Ti uptake, concentration in the exposed leaves was significantly higher 197 compared to the non-exposed leaves (p < 0.01) with respective concentrations of 196.6 ± 53.1 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> and 37.6  $\pm$  7.9 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> (Figure 1C). Exposure to TiO<sub>2</sub> NPs tended to impact plant 198 199 ionome: exposed plants were significantly enriched in zinc, lead, sodium, manganese, 200 phosphorus but contained less copper, iron, potassium, sulfur, molybdenum, and boron (Figure 201 1D).

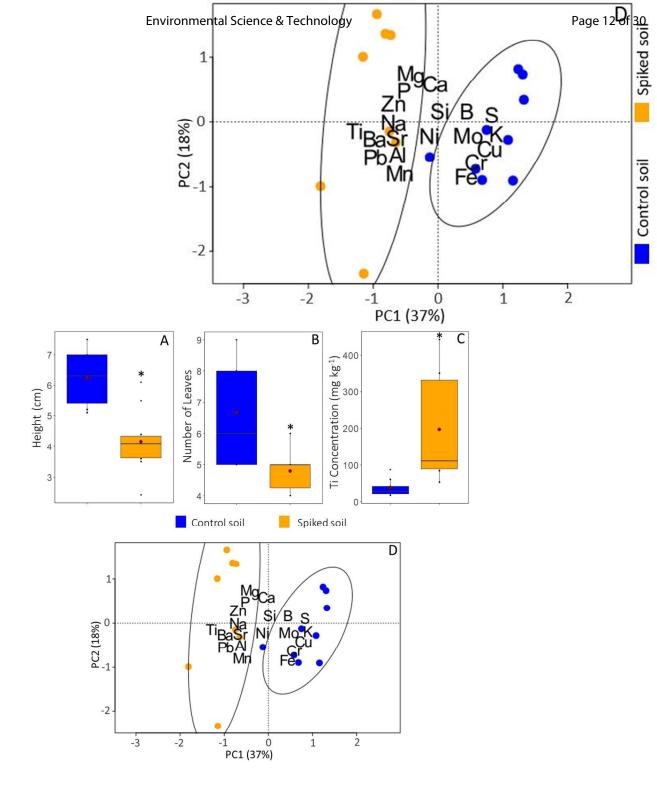


Figure 1: A: Impact of TiO<sub>2</sub> NPs on plant (*M. truncatula*) growth; B: Impact of TiO<sub>2</sub> NPs on the number of plant leaves; C: Ti concentrations measured by ICP-OES in the aboveground biomass of plants; D: Principal component analysis indicating the impact of TiO<sub>2</sub> NPs on the elemental content in the leaves. Asterisks represent significant differences (p < 0.05). Average Ti concentrations in spiked soil =  $341.7 \pm 12.2 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$ ; average Ti concentrations in control soil =  $278.0 \pm 13.4 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$ . Exposure: 60 days; n = 10.

210 The significant differences between non-exposed and exposed plants indicate an impact of TiO<sub>2</sub> NPs tending to inhibit plant growth and shoot biomass. Rafique *et al.*<sup>37</sup> showed that TiO<sub>2</sub> NP 211 concentrations of 20 to 60 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> (sandy loam) led to a dose-related increase in root and shoot 212 213 length and biomass in wheat plants exposed for 60 days. However, they demonstrated that concentrations of 80 to 100 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> gradually inhibited root and shoot length and reduced plant 214 biomass. In our study, Ti concentrations were fivefold higher in the plants exposed (341.7 mg kg<sup>-</sup> 215 <sup>1</sup>) for 60 days when compared with the non-exposed plants. Our results also conform to those 216 217 obtained in a recent study by Larue et al., which showed that wheat plants exposed for 3 weeks to sandy soils spiked with 500 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> of TiO<sub>2</sub> NPs took up significantly more Ti than the 218 control.<sup>11</sup> In addition, plants initially developing at the same rate began to show a consistent 219 220 change in growth rate by the beginning of the third week of exposure. We hypothesize that one 221 reason for the significant difference in plant development is the impact of TiO<sub>2</sub> NPs on plant 222 ionome. Among the deficient elements in plants grown in TiO<sub>2</sub> NP-spiked soils is potassium, which is essential for plant growth, development, regulation, and crop yield.<sup>38</sup> Maathuis<sup>39</sup> posited 223 224 that at low potassium levels, sodium can replace potassium due to its structural similarity, which 225 is evidenced in our study, where the plants deficient in potassium are enriched, instead, in sodium. Pi et al.<sup>40</sup> showed that when plants were exposed to stress (K deficient environment), 226 they replaced  $K^+$  with  $Na^+$ , but did not recover to the same extent as the control group, which 227 228 could explain why the exposed plants were significantly smaller and less productive—with a 229 deficiency in potassium-than the non-exposed plants. However, contrary to our results, Servin et al.<sup>41</sup> demonstrated an increase in potassium in cucumber plants exposed to TiO<sub>2</sub> NPs. This 230 difference might be attributed to the plant models used. Also in line with our results, Rafique et 231  $al.^{42}$  showed an increase in phosphorus availability in wheat plants exposed to TiO<sub>2</sub> NPs. In 232

addition, ICP analysis showed that spiked soil plants were deficient in other micronutrients, such
 as boron, copper, iron, and molybdenum, which are necessary for the plant physiological
 processes<sup>43</sup> and, therefore, could be explanative of the significant reduced development of the
 exposed plants.

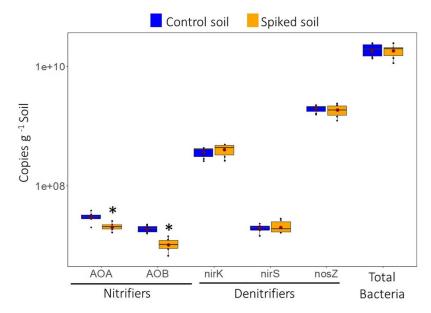
- 237
- 238 2.1.3. Impact of TiO<sub>2</sub> NPs on soil microbial communities

There was no difference between the abundance of the total bacteria (16S rRNA) in the control and spiked soils (p = 0.74), with the average number of gene copies per gram of soil being  $1.92 \times 10^{10} \pm 1.95 \times 10^9$  and  $1.83 \times 10^{10} \pm 1.97 \times 10^9$ , respectively (Figure 2).

242 Evaluation of amoA genes, both for AOA and AOB, indicated a significant decrease in 243 abundance in the spiked soil (p = 0.007 and p = 0.001, respectively). The average number of gene copies/g soil was  $2.97 \times 10^7 \pm 2.48 \times 10^6$  for non-exposed AOA and  $2.07 \times 10^7 \pm 1.31 \times 10^6$ 244 for exposed AOA, while those for non-exposed AOB and exposed AOB were  $1.90 \times 10^7 \pm 1.04$ 245  $\times 10^{6}$  and  $1.05 \times 10^{7} \pm 1.11 \times 10^{6}$ , respectively (Figure 2). 246 247 In the case of the denitrifying genes *nirK*, *nirS*, and *nosZ*, no significant difference was found between the control and spiked soils (p = 0.49, p = 0.76, and p = 0.67, respectively). The average 248 number of gene copies/g soil obtained for *nirK*, *nirS*, and *nosZ* were  $3.81 \times 10^8 \pm 3.47 \times 10^7$ , 2.00 249

250  $\times 10^7 \pm 1.80 \times 10^6$ , and  $1.91 \times 10^9 \pm 1.52 \times 10^8$ , respectively (Figure 2).

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Figure 2: Impact on bacterial nitrifier and denitrifier genes. Nitrifier genes include the ammonia oxidizing archaea (AOA) and the ammonia oxidizing bacteria (AOB) ammonia monooxygenase A gene (*amoA*). The denitrifier genes include the bacterial nitrite reductase genes (*nirK* and *nirS*) and the bacterial nitrous oxide reductase gene (*nosZ*) for denitrification. Values on the y axis are expressed on the logarithm scale. Asterisks represent significant differences (p < 0.05). Average Ti concentrations in spiked soil = 341.7 ± 12.2 mg kg<sup>-1</sup>; average Ti concentrations in control soil = 278.0 ± 13.4 mg kg<sup>-1</sup>. Exposure: 60 days; n = 6.

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262 The literature concerning the impact of  $TiO_2$  NPs on the soil microbial communities is scarce. Ge et  $al.\frac{44,45}{4}$  and Simonin et  $al.\frac{46}{4}$  showed reductions in bacterial biomass and shifts in the 263 community structure at high to very high  $TiO_2$  NP concentrations (up to 20 g kg<sup>-1</sup>). In our 264 265 experiment, the total bacterial abundance was not affected probably because the  $TiO_2$  NP 266 concentration was lower. However, the relative abundance of some taxa decreased (soil nitrifiers 267 vs. denitrifiers), suggesting potential consequences on bacterial community functionalities. Interestingly, Simonin *et al.* evidenced a lack of the classical dose-response relationship.<sup>46</sup> This 268 phenomenon was explained by the concentration-dependent modifications of NP properties 269 involved in their bioavailability and ecotoxicity.<sup>25</sup> Simonin *et al.*<sup>46</sup> showed a 40% reduction in 270 AOA abundance at TiO<sub>2</sub> NP concentrations from 0.05 to 500 mg kg<sup>-1</sup>. The magnitude of AOA 271 decrease in our experiment was  $35.9 \pm 4.5\%$ , which is in agreement. In the case of AOB, 272

Simonin *et al.*<sup>46</sup> evidenced an unusual "U" shape for dose response, with intermediate 273 274 concentrations of TiO<sub>2</sub> NPs significantly decreasing the AOB abundance, and the lowest and 275 highest concentrations showing no significant decrease. Based on the model derived from their experimental data ( $y = 0.009 \text{ x} \ln ([\text{TiO}_2])^2 - 0.0215 \text{ x} \ln ([\text{TiO}_2]) - 0.26$ ), the estimation of AOB 276 decrease at 341 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> would be 6.5%. In our study, we measured a higher decrease:  $44.9\% \pm$ 277 7.3%. While Simonin et  $al^{\frac{46}{1}}$  attributed the unusual dose-response relationships to the 278 279 modification of TiO<sub>2</sub> NP properties based on their concentrations (e.g., aggregation of TiO<sub>2</sub> NPs 280 at intermediate and higher concentrations), the discrepancy between results for AOB obtained in 281 their study and ours might be explained by the difference between soil types and thereby between soil–NP interactions. Simonin *et al.*<sup>46</sup> used silty clay, whereas our study used silty sand, 282 highlighting the importance to consider soil type when studying NP fate in the environment. 283 Bissett et al.<sup>47</sup> discussed the relative insensitivity of denitrifiers to environmental toxicants, and 284 285 attributed the resistance of this functional guild to their high functional redundancy, niche 286 breadth, and adaptive ability compared with the soil nitrifiers, which have limited phylogenic 287 diversity. In terms of relationship between plants and soil bacteria, we hypothesize that another 288 reason for the inhibition in plant development, and the delay of this impact until the third week, 289 could be an indirect effect of TiO<sub>2</sub> NPs on the soil nitrifier community. Indeed, Van Der Heijden<sup>48</sup> discussed how soil bacteria indirectly affect plant productivity by altering nutrition and 290 291 resource availability.

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#### 2.1.4. Toxicity and uptake of Ti by *H. aspersa*

No difference in snail mortality was detected along the exposure period. The analysis of total soilconsumption by snails from day 1 to day 10 did not reveal any significant difference between

296 treatments (p = 0.56): the average daily soil consumed by snails amounting to  $1.36 \pm 0.17$  g for 297 spiked soil and to  $1.23 \pm 0.01$  g for control soil (data not shown). Ti concentration in snail foot, 298 viscera, and feces did not show significant difference (p = 0.78, 0.49, 0.88, respectively). Ti uptake in the non-exposed snail foot was  $0.33 \pm 0.03$  mg kg<sup>-1</sup> and in the exposed snail foot was 299  $0.86 \pm 0.30$  mg kg<sup>-1</sup> (Figure 3A), while for the viscera, the average Ti concentrations after 300 deputation were  $0.39 \pm 0.12 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$  and  $0.28 \pm 0.08 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$  for non-exposed and exposed 301 snails, respectively (Figure 3A). Average Ti concentrations in feces were  $367.78 \pm 52.41 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$ 302 for non-exposed snails and  $377.51 \pm 38.88 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$  for exposed snails (Figure 3B). 303

304

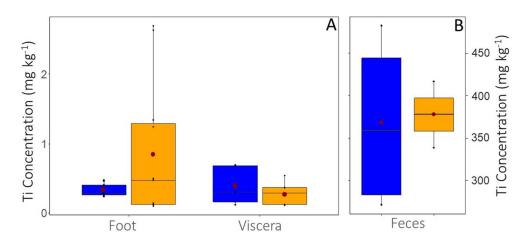


Figure 3: A: Ti uptake in snail (*H. aspersa*) foot and viscera; B: Ti concentration in snail feces, measured by ICP-OES. Average Ti concentrations in spiked soil =  $341.7 \pm 12.2 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$ ; average Ti concentrations in control soil =  $278.0 \pm 13.4 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$ . Snails were exposed to 5 g each of control or spiked soils every day. Exposure: 10 days; n = 6.

The total soil consumed by snails in the two treatments was not significantly different, which highlights that there was no behavior of avoidance of the contaminated soil. There was also no significant difference in sequestration of Ti from soil into snail foot and viscera, or in the excretion in feces. Concentrations in the snail feces show that Ti was quickly eliminated from the snail body via feces. The higher concentrations of Ti in the feces of both the control and spiked

316 conditions compared to the soil concentrations is presumably due to the digestion of soil organic 317 matter, and thus to a concentration of its mineral fraction. While results on the effects on land snails are in lack. Yeo and Nam<sup>19</sup> performed a paddy microcosm study, in which TiO<sub>2</sub> NPs were 318 319 found to transfer from prey to consumer (biofilm/water dropwort to nematodes/snail) within a 320 period of 17 days, highlighting the potential for bioaccumulation in the food chain. In 2006, Scheifler *et al.*<sup>49</sup> evaluated the transfer of several heavy metals in a soil-plant-invertebrate 321 322 microcosm, using lettuce as primary producer and the snail H. aspersa as primary consumer. 323 They demonstrated that while copper and nickel were not accumulated in the snail body, there 324 was a gradual increase in cadmium and zinc, and a rapid accumulation of lead in snails, but more 325 than 80% of this accumulation was contributed from soil exposure rather than plant exposure. 326 Similarly, other studies have demonstrated significant increases in concentrations of metals such as chromium and platinum from contaminated food in *H. aspersa* after 56 days<sup>50</sup>. Although our 327 328 results did not show any significant uptake in snail, there was a trend for higher Ti 329 concentrations in snail foot under NP exposure, *ca.* two-fold higher on average than in controls. 330 The absence of a significant effect may be due to the high variability in the concentrations 331 measured, reducing statistical power. Including more replicates and a longer exposure period 332 may be needed to reach a conclusion.

333

#### 334 2.2. Aquatic ecosystem

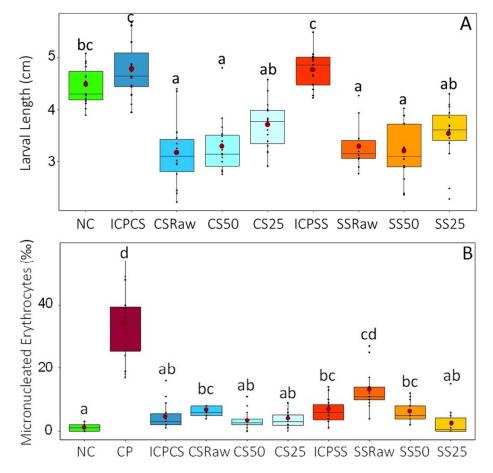
335 2.2.1. Ti in amphibian exposure medium

Titanium in the amphibian exposure media showed a higher concentration of  $12.3 \pm 0.15 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ in the raw spiked soil leachates compared to  $3.6 \pm 0.18 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$  in the raw control soil leachates (*p*  338 = 0.01). Whereas the ratio of Ti found in control soil versus spiked soil was 1:1.3, the ratio of Ti
339 found in control soil leachates versus spiked soil leachates was 1:3.4.

340 In the present study, a real environmental exposure model in the aquatic system was designed, 341 taking into account an approximation of expected percentage of TiO<sub>2</sub> NP concentrations coming 342 from the leaching of an agricultural soil into surface waters. Leachate Ti concentrations were much higher than the predicted concentrations of 2.17  $\mu$ g L<sup>-1</sup> TiO<sub>2</sub> NPs in surface waters by Sun 343 344 et al. (2016), which is attributed to the high concentration of soil spiking in our study. The 345 increased ratios of Ti in the spiked soil leachates compared with the control soil leachates mean 346 that more Ti from the spiked soil moved into the water compartment during the preparation of soil leachates than from the control soil. Gogos *et al.*<sup>51</sup> showed a significantly lower transfer of 347 348 Ti from contaminated soil to soil leachate (0.001% vs. 26% in our study) but with a different 349 leaching procedure (filtration of the NP suspension through the soil layer vs. run-off simulation 350 over a soil including soil particles with no filtering step).

- 351
- 352 2.2.2. Impact of TiO<sub>2</sub> NPs on *Xenopus laevis* larvae

There was no significant mortality (<20%) among amphibian larvae exposed to TiO<sub>2</sub> NPs. A comparison of the larval lengths after 12 days of exposure showed a significant difference among groups (p < 0.0001) (Figure 4A). There was no significant decrease in the length of the larvae exposed to the ICP equivalents of both the spiked and control soil leachates compared to the negative control larvae (4.77 ± 0.09 cm and 4.77 ± 0.14 cm, respectively, *vs.* 4.46 ± 0.09 cm). Larvae exposed to raw spiked and control soil leachates (3.31 ± 0.14 cm and 3.17 ± 0.17 cm, respectively) and 50% diluted spiked and control leachates (3.21 ± 0.14 cm and 3.30 ± 0.13 cm, 360 respectively) showed significant lower size compared to the negative control larvae and to the 361 both ICP equivalents. Larvae exposed to 25% diluted spiked and control soil leachates also 362 showed a significantly reduced size  $(3.54 \pm 0.14 \text{ cm} \text{ and } 3.70 \pm 0.11 \text{ cm}, \text{ respectively})$  compared 363 to both the ICP equivalents, but no significant lower length compared to the negative control 364 larvae. In addition, the larval size tended to increase with the leachate dilution. There was a 365 significant genotoxicity (p < 0.0001 among groups) in larvae exposed to the ICP equivalent of 366 the spiked soil leachate (6.60  $\pm$  0.97 micronuclei), to the spiked and control soil raw leachates 367  $(13.15 \pm 1.81 \text{ and } 6.08 \pm 0.49 \text{ micronuclei}$ , respectively), and to the 50% diluted spiked soil 368 leachate (6.07  $\pm$  0.90 micronuclei), compared to the negative control larvae (1.07  $\pm$  0.30 369 micronucleus) (Figure 4B). There was no significant genotoxicity in larvae exposed to the ICP 370 equivalent of the control soil leachate  $(4.73 \pm 1.09 \text{ micronuclei})$ , to the 50% diluted control soil 371 leachate  $(3.42 \pm 0.82 \text{ micronuclei})$ , and to the 25% diluted spiked and control soil leachates (2.57) 372  $\pm$  1.11 and 3.50  $\pm$  0.81 micronuclei, respectively) compared to the negative control larvae.



373 374 Figure 4: A: Impact of Ti on amphibian (X. laevis) larval length; B: Percentage of micronucleated erythrocytes (ME‰). Average Ti concentration in the control soil leachates was 375 3.6 mg L<sup>-1</sup> and that in the spiked soil leachates was 12.6 mg L<sup>-1</sup>. Exposure: 12 days; n = 15. NC = 376 negative control; PC = positive control; ICP CS = ICP equivalent of control soil leachates (3.6)377 378 mg L<sup>-1</sup> TiO<sub>2</sub> NPs in Volvic®); CS Raw = raw control soil leachates; CS 50% = 50% diluted control soil leachates in Volvic®; CS 25% = 25% diluted control soil leachates in Volvic®; ICP 379 SS = ICP equivalent of spiked soil leachates (12.6 mg  $L^{-1}$  TiO<sub>2</sub> NPs in Volvic®); SS Raw = raw 380 381 spiked soil leachates; SS50% = 50% diluted spiked soil leachates in Volvic®; SS 25% = 25%diluted spiked soil leachates in Volvic® water. Alphabets represent statistically different groups 382 (p < 0.05).383

Our results demonstrated the inhibition potential of soil leachates on larval growth, and a 384 genotoxicity of both soil leachates and TiO<sub>2</sub> NPs. Mouchet *et al.*<sup>29</sup> already demonstrated a 385 toxicity of leachates from contaminated soil to amphibian larvae. Although Chenon et al.<sup>52</sup> 386 387 showed that sludge-amended soil leachates, including non-lethal dilutions, lead to a decrease in 388 size of amphibian larvae, in our study, the impact of raw control soil leachates was an

389 unexpected finding. Therefore, we performed an ICP-OES analysis separately on the compost for 390 elemental concentrations. The results showed an average lead concentration of 9.8 mg kg<sup>-1</sup>, which might have resulted in a cocktail effect with TiO<sub>2</sub> NPs, as Mouchet *et al.*<sup>53</sup> found lead 391 concentrations from 1 mg  $L^{-1}$  to be genotoxic to amphibian larvae. In addition, according to 392 Bekaert et al.,<sup>54</sup> pollutants adsorbed onto soil particles may be biologically active when 393 394 compared with those on filtrates, and as a result, in our study, the presence of soil particles may 395 have contributed to the impact on amphibian growth. The genotoxic potential of TiO<sub>2</sub> NPs was 396 evidenced by the increase in the number of micronucleated erythrocytes in larvae exposed to the ICP equivalent of/and the raw spiked soil leachates. Bacchetta et  $al.^{55}$  also demonstrated the 397 398 toxicity of TiO<sub>2</sub> NPs in X. laevis when exposed for 96 h to concentrations ranging from 10 to 500  $mg L^{-1}$ , resulting in deformities in embryo development. Previous studies have already shown the 399 negative effects of TiO<sub>2</sub> NPs on aquatic organisms such as X. laevis<sup>56</sup> and Danio rerio,<sup>57</sup> causing 400 deformities and death, while Federici *et al.*  $\frac{58}{58}$  showed that TiO<sub>2</sub> NPs had toxic effects in rainbow 401 trout at concentrations  $<1.0 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ , which could indicate a difference in sensitivities among 402 403 species. The ICP equivalents of both the raw control soil and raw spiked soil leachates had half 404 or less than half the micronucleated erythrocytes compared with both the raw leachates, 405 respectively, which, again, could be due to a cocktail effect resulting from the presence of lead in 406 the compost.

407 Our study highlights the potential risks of  $TiO_2$  NPs in the environment, showing an upward 408 transfer of Ti in the terrestrial ecosystem, from soil to plants, and a downward transfer of Ti from 409 soil to the amphibian exposure medium. The inhibition of nitrifiers due to the presence of  $TiO_2$ 410 NPs can have far-reaching consequences, especially for soil fertility, global ecosystem 411 functions/services, and crop production. The indirect effect of nitrifiers on crop production, and

412 the uptake of Ti by alfalfa plants, lead to the question of food security. Although we did not find 413 significant uptake of Ti by snails, the concentration-dependent sequestration of Ti in snail foot 414 deserves some attention with the possibility for transfer up the food chain and bioaccumulation 415 over the years. Finally, runoff from contaminated soils ends up in freshwater ecosystems and can 416 be genotoxic to amphibian larvae. By focusing on several experimental models rather than a 417 single-species study, we provide data concerning the distribution of TiO<sub>2</sub> NPs between the 418 terrestrial and aquatic ecosystems, the levels of the terrestrial ecosystem that are most affected— 419 soil bacteria and primary producers—and the risk of toxicity in aquatic ecosystems by leaching 420 of Ti from soil. Three-fourths of our experimental models have been affected by TiO<sub>2</sub> NPs, 421 which is sufficient to acknowledge that precautionary standards for TiO<sub>2</sub> NPs are required. These 422 ecotoxicological effects can be used in future studies to identify safe threshold values of TiO<sub>2</sub> 423 NPs in the environment and suitable waste disposal methods to ensure that NPs do not reach 424 such high concentrations as identified to be toxic in our study.

425

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429

#### 430 Supporting Information Available

431 This information is available free of charge via the Internet at http://pubs.acs.org.

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