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## Nano-Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> as a tool to restore plant growth in contaminated soils – Assessment of potentially toxic elements (bio)availability and redox homeostasis in *Hordeum vulgare* L

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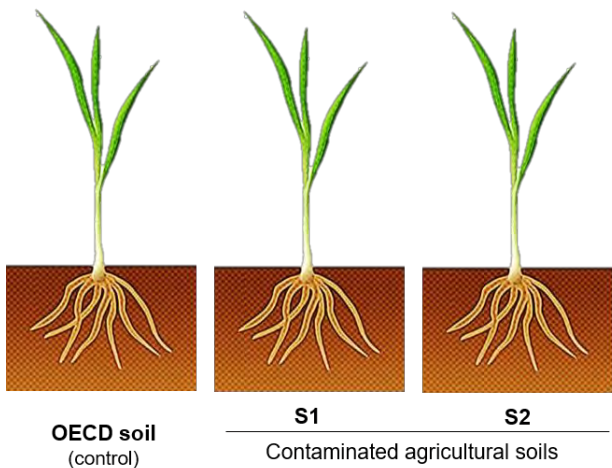
**Author's Accepted Manuscript**

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Can **nano-Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>** protect plant growth in **contaminated soils**?

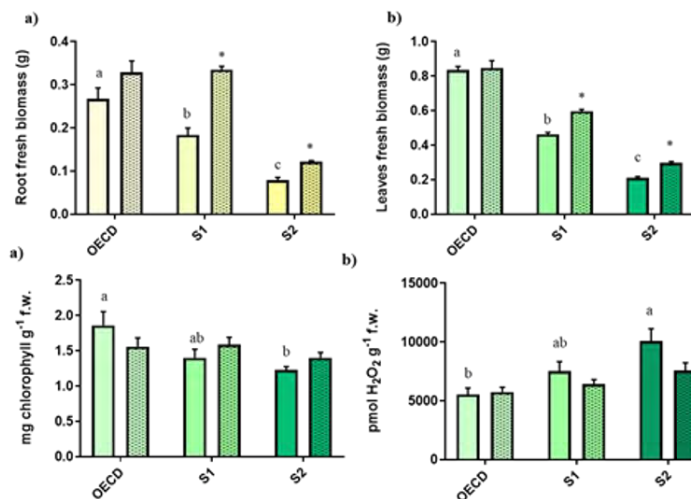
### PTEs immobilization & bioaccumulation

Addition of **nano-Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>** to S1 and S2 ➔ **Mixed effects on elements' availability**

However:

The **nano-Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>** amendment **did not majorly change** the **accumulation pattern of PTEs**

### Plant growth and redox status



Bars with pattern → + nano-Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>

**S1 and S2**

- Reduced growth performance;
- Decrease of total chlorophylls and increase of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> levels.

↓

**OXIDATIVE STRESS**  
(especially in S2)

**+ nano-Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>**

**Alleviation of the negative effects**, with a better growth capacity of both leaves and roots.

**Highlights:**

- The two contaminated soils greatly impaired plant growth.
- Nano-Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> can protect the growth of barley plants under contaminated soils.
- A better physiological performance accompanied the positive effects on growth.
- The application of nano-Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> helped to limit the oxidative damage.
- Plants increased their antioxidant response when grown in soils treated with nano-Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>.

1           **Nano-Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> as a tool to restore plant growth in contaminated soils - assessment of**  
2 **potentially toxic elements (bio)availability and redox homeostasis in *Hordeum vulgare* L.**

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19 **Abstract:** This work aimed to evaluate the potential of Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> nanoparticles (nano-Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>) to alleviate  
20 potentially toxic elements (PTEs) - induced stress in barley plants (*Hordeum vulgare* L.), focusing on  
21 bioaccumulation patterns and on plant growth and redox homeostasis. To achieve this goal, plants grew  
22 in two agricultural soils, contaminated by different levels of PTEs, collected from an industrial area,  
23 previously amended, or not, with 1% (w/w) nano-Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>. After 14 d of growth, biometric parameters were  
24 evaluated, along with the analysis of PTEs bioaccumulation and biochemical endpoints. After exposure  
25 to contaminated soils, plant development was greatly affected, as evidenced by significant decreases in  
26 root length and biomass production. However, upon co-treatment with nano-Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, lower inhibitory  
27 effects on biometric parameters were observed. Regarding the oxidative damage, both soils led to  
28 increases in lipid peroxidation and superoxide anion concentration, though hydrogen peroxide levels were  
29 only increased in the most contaminated soil. In general, these changes in the oxidative stress markers  
30 were accompanied by an upregulation of different antioxidant mechanisms, whose efficiency was even  
31 more powerful upon soil amendment with nano-Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, thus lowering PTEs-induced oxidative damage.  
32 Altogether, the present study revealed that nano-Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> can protect the growth of barley plants under  
33 contaminated soils.

34

35 **Keywords:** abiotic stress; soil contamination; bioaccumulation; nanomaterials, soil functions

## 36 **1. Introduction**

37 Industrial and commercial activities are the second source of soil contamination in the European Union  
38 (EU), with adverse effects on nearby aquatic and terrestrial ecosystems, and subsequent impacts on human  
39 health (Panagos et al. 2013). Due to the lack of environmental guidelines or mismanagement practices,  
40 industrial wastes and gas emissions were released to the surrounding environments during decades without  
41 any environmental management (Wuana and Okieimen 2011; Panagos et al. 2013).

42 Multiple techniques have been developed to reduce soil contamination, such as phytoremediation,  
43 excavation, and transport to landfill sites, soil washing or electrokinetic remediation (Komárek et al. 2013).  
44 However, chemical immobilization has been pointed out as a very suitable technique for soil rehabilitation,  
45 due to its practical and cost-effective features, being regarded as a more environmentally friendly practice  
46 for reducing contaminants' availability through co-precipitation, complexation. or sorption mechanisms  
47 (Komárek et al. 2013; Arenas-Lago et al. 2016, 2019; Rizwan et al. 2019).

48 For several years, organic amendments have been widely used for these purposes, but nanotechnology  
49 applications, such as the use of nanomaterials (NMs), are becoming increasingly popular due to their low  
50 cost and higher effectiveness for potentially toxic elements (PTEs) immobilization in multi-contaminated  
51 soils and to improve plant growth in these phytotoxic soils, thus recovering soil production function  
52 (Komárek et al. 2013; Gil-Díaz et al. 2016, Rizwan et al. 2019; Soares et al. 2018a; Song et al. 2019).

53 Among all metal-based NMs, Fe-NMs (nano- $\text{Fe}_x\text{O}_y$ ) are one of the most applied, being able to interact  
54 directly with other PTEs, such as As, Cd, Cr, Cu, Pb or Zn. Moreover, as reviewed by Tripathi et al. (2017),  
55 nano- $\text{Fe}_x\text{O}_y$  are narrowly absorbed by plants and barely translocated to aerial parts, preventing the over-  
56 accumulation of Fe along food chains, as well as Fe-induced toxicity in plants. Up to now, studies have  
57 focused on the advantages of Fe-NMs as nanofertilizers (Ruttikay-Nedecky et al. 2017; Hussain et al. 2019;  
58 Rizwan et al. 2019), but information about their impact on plant abiotic stress responses, namely on  
59 reducing PTEs uptake and bioaccumulation, along with their interference on the redox metabolism, is still  
60 limited (Ruttikay-Nedecky et al. 2017; Song et al. 2019). Regarding this aspect, it has recently been shown  
61 that Zn oxide (nano-ZnO) and Fe oxide (nano- $\text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4$ ) could be used to improve plant growth under Cd-  
62 induced toxicity (Hussain et al. 2018; Rizwan et al. 2019), by reducing metal bioaccumulation and by  
63 improving the overall physiological status of plants.

64 In response to plant exposure to any type of abiotic stress, including exposure to PTEs, plants usually  
65 undergo a state of oxidative stress, in which overproduction of reactive oxygen species (ROS) and  
66 subsequent damage in biomolecules take place (Soares et al. 2019a). In order to counteract the toxic effects  
67 of ROS, plants have evolved a powerful and complex antioxidant system, whose action depends on both  
68 enzymatic (e.g. superoxide dismutase – SOD, EC1.15.1.1; catalase – CAT, EC 1.11.1.6; ascorbate  
69 peroxidase – APX, EC 1.11.1.11) and non-enzymatic (e.g., ascorbate – AsA; glutathione – GSH; proline –  
70 Pro) players (Soares et al. 2019a). In this sense, pinpointing the regulation of redox homeostasis of plants  
71 under stress can provide important clues regarding the responses to PTEs exposure, as well as concerning  
72 the potential of NM-based amendments to reduce PTEs-induced stress. However, such studies are still in  
73 the beginning, since they have mostly been performed under controlled conditions with spiked artificial  
74 soils, or by simulating single contamination scenarios (Komárek et al. 2013; Ruttkay-Nedecky et al. 2017;  
75 Song et al. 2019).

76 In this way, this study aims to go one step forward by evaluating the ability of hematite NMs (nano-  
77 Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>) to immobilize PTEs present in natural contaminated soils, while also contributing for a better crop  
78 performance in areas affected by industrial activities. To achieve this, the bioavailability of PTEs was  
79 studied using two chemical extractions methods (CaCl<sub>2</sub> and EDTA), and through bioaccumulation assays  
80 with barley plants (*Hordeum vulgare* L.). To understand if the application of nano-Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> is also able to  
81 decrease PTEs-exposure and subsequent induced stress, biometric parameters, along with the physiological  
82 performance and redox homeostasis of barley plants, were evaluated. Since oxidative stress occurrence is  
83 a common feature of PTEs phytotoxicity, special attention was paid to the oxidative metabolism, by the  
84 quantification of oxidative stress markers (lipid peroxidation and ROS levels) and by the evaluation of the  
85 non-enzymatic and enzymatic antioxidant system components.

## 86 **2. Materials and Methods**

### 87 *2.1. Sampling area, soil samples and characterization of studied soils.*

88 The Estarreja Chemical Complex (ECC), located in northwestern Portugal (Figure S1 in Supplementary  
89 Material), includes one of the largest companies in the Iberian Peninsula that produces aniline and chlor-  
90 alkali products. During decades and up to the 90s of the last century, these industries released wastewater  
91 directly into a nearby lagoon (Lagoon of Aveiro) through a system of channels and pipes that cross  
92 agricultural fields and contained several inorganic and organic contaminants (Costa and Jesus-Rydin 2001;  
93 Pereira et al. 2009; Inácio et al. 2014). As a result, a large amount of solid wastes, rich in PTEs, was



94 stockpiled during decades without any impermeabilization measures (Costa and Jesus-Rydin 2001), and  
95 high levels of PTEs in soils located near the ECC have been reported, especially close to the wastewater  
96 channels used to transport effluents (e.g., Batista et al. 2002; Cachada et al. 2009; Inácio et al. 2014).

97 For the present study, two agricultural soils (S1 and S2) were collected near a channel that was formerly  
98 used to transport untreated effluents from the ECC (Figure S1). Once in the laboratory, samples were air-  
99 dried, passed through a 2 mm (for physical-chemical properties) or a 4 mm sieve (for plant assays), and  
100 homogenized before the experimental analyses. Soil pH and electrical conductivity were measured in 1:5  
101 (w/v) soil-deionized water suspension. The maximum soil water holding capacity ( $WHC_{max}$ ) was  
102 determined according to ISO 11268-2 (ISO, 2012). The organic matter was measured according to, the loss-  
103 on-ignition method (450 °C, 8 h) (British Standards 2000), while soil texture was analyzed using the pipette  
104 method (Gee and Bauder, 1986). The pseudo total content of As, Ba, Cd, Cr, Cu, Fe, Mg, Ni, Pb, Sb, Zn  
105 and P was measured after using a mixture of nitric acid and hydrochloric acid 3:1 (v/v) for a wet digestion  
106 of soil samples in a microwave (Ethos 1; Milestone), following the method 3051A from USEPA (USEPA,  
107 2007). The determination of PTEs and P content in the extracts was carried out by Inductively Coupled  
108 Plasma Optical Emission Spectroscopy (ICP-OES) (PE 4300 DV). The accuracy and the precision of the  
109 analytical method included replicates, procedure blanks, and NIST SRM 2711a as certified reference  
110 material. Replicate analysis of the soil gave an uncertainty <10%. The results of blank analysis were always  
111 below the detection limit, and reference material recoveries were within the certified value.

## 112 *2.2. Soil amendment with hematite NM and assessment of the immobilization effectiveness*

113 The hematite NM (nano- $Fe_2O_3$ ) was purchased from IOLITEC (Ionic liquids Technologies GmbH,  
114 Germany). The selected NM is a powder, with semi-spherical form particles, dark brown color, 98% purity,  
115 a diameter between 20 and 40 nm, and a surface area between 40–60  $m^2 g^{-1}$ , corroborating the  
116 manufacturer's characteristics. The shape, size, surface area and chemical composition were verified by  
117 HR-TEM/EDS analysis (CACTI, UVigo, Spain). More details about their characterization can be found in  
118 Arenas-Lago et al. (2019).

119 To assess the immobilization efficiency of this NM, the studied soils (S1 and S2) were spiked with a  
120 suspension of the NM to obtain a dose of 1% (w/w) in the soil, since this is the optimal concentration for  
121 stabilization of PTEs from soil, according to Komárek et al. (2013) and Martínez-Fernández et al. (2015).  
122 The experiments for the soil amended with hematite were performed by following the methodology

123 indicated by Arenas-Lago et al. (2016, 2019) and Rodríguez-Seijo et al. (2020). Briefly, a suspension of  
124 the hematite NM was prepared in distilled water ( $5 \text{ g L}^{-1}$ ). Sodium citrate (5 mM) was added as a stabilizer,  
125 and the final pH obtained was  $7.10 \pm 0.15$ . After that, 10 g of each studied soil were treated with 20 mL of  
126 the NM suspension in polypropylene tubes. Control samples (non-amended soils) were also prepared, using  
127 the same amount of soil and distilled water. Three replicates were prepared for both treatments (non- and  
128 amended with nano- $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ ). After shaking the soil suspensions during 24 h at 120 rpm in an orbital platform  
129 shaker, they were kept in darkness, at room temperature, for 10 d of stabilization. Then, samples were dried  
130 at  $30 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$  and homogenized to assess the chemical available content of PTEs.

### 131 *2.2.1. Available contents of PTEs for non- and amended soil samples.*

132 The effect of soil amendment on the chemical availability of PTEs was evaluated for non- and amended  
133 soil samples using calcium chloride ( $\text{CaCl}_2$ ) [0.01 M, 2 h of shaking, 1:10 (w/v) (Houba et al. (2000))] and  
134 ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid (EDTA) [0.05 M at pH 7, 1 h of shaking, 1:10 (w/v) (Quevauviller (1998))].  
135 After shaking, the soil suspensions were centrifuged (1937 g for 30 min), the supernatants were separated  
136 and acidified, followed by the determination of PTEs concentration by ICP-MS. The extraction efficiency  
137 (EE) was calculated for each extractant in each soil before and after treatment with nano- $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3$  (Equation  
138 1):

$$139 \text{ Extraction efficiency (EE)} = [100 \times (C_e/C_t)] \quad (\text{Equation 1})$$

140 where  $C_e$  and  $C_t$  are the concentration of the element extracted (with  $\text{CaCl}_2$  or EDTA) and the pseudo total  
141 content of each PTEs ( $\text{mg kg}^{-1}$ ), respectively.

### 142 *2.3. Test-species, plant growth conditions and experimental design*

143 To test the effectiveness of nano- $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3$  to reduce the bioavailability of PTEs, and consequently their  
144 bioaccumulation and phytotoxicity, a seedling emergence and growth test with barley plants (*Hordeum*  
145 *vulgare* L.) was performed, following the OECD 208 (2006) guidelines. Before the beginning of the assay,  
146 seeds purchased from a local supplier were surface sterilized [10 min in 70% (v/v) ethanol; 7 min in 20%  
147 (v/v) sodium hypochlorite (5% (v/v) active chlorine) containing 0.05% (w/v) Tween-20] and washed with  
148 multiple cleanups using deionized water. Then, plastic pots (0.3 L) were filled with 200 g dry weight (dw)  
149 of each studied soil (S1 and S2), previously amended, or not, with 1% of nano- $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3$  (as detailed in section  
150 2.2.). In parallel, an artificial soil (herein named as OECD soil) with 5% (w/w) organic matter and pH  $6.0$   
151  $\pm 0.5$  (OECD, 2006) was used as control. All soil samples (S1, S2 and OECD) were manually mixed to

152 obtain a homogeneous mixture (Gil-Díaz et al. 2016; Arenas-Lago et al. 2019) and eight pots were  
153 considered for each experimental group (48 pots in total). The pots were filled with each soil and wetted  
154 with the nanomaterial suspension until the soil had a value of 50% of the water holding capacity and were  
155 kept in the dark at  $20 \pm 2$  °C for 48 h to allow an initial stabilization of the mixtures (Gil-Díaz et al. 2016;  
156 García-Gómez et al. 2018). After this period, 20 barley seeds were placed in each pot. At the beginning of  
157 the assay, a commercial fertilizer (NPK 6-3-7), diluted according to supplier instructions, was added to a  
158 cup placed below each pot, being the communication between both ensured by a cotton rope to allow the  
159 nutrients solution and then the water to ascend by capillarity. After seed germination, only 7 plantlets were  
160 left to grow for additional 14d to avoid intraspecific competition. The experiment was performed in a  
161 growth chamber under controlled conditions (temperature:  $22 \pm 1$  °C; photoperiod: 16 h light/8 h dark; light  
162 intensity:  $120 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ ). During the growth period, the water level was adjusted whenever needed with  
163 deionized water, to guarantee the necessary conditions of soil moisture. At the end of the experiment, four  
164 replicates of each treatment, randomly selected, were used for the evaluation of biometric parameters and  
165 PTEs bioaccumulation. In the other four replicates, the leaves were separated from roots, washed with  
166 deionized water, and immediately frozen under liquid nitrogen and stored at -80 °C until posterior use for  
167 biochemical assays. For all biochemical assays (2.5.1-2.5.4), frozen leaf samples from at least 3  
168 experimental replicates were analyzed independently.

#### 169 *2.4. Biometric parameters and bioaccumulation of PTEs in barley*

170 After the growth period, plants were thoroughly washed several times, firstly with tap water, and secondly  
171 with distilled water, to remove as much as possible soil particles adhered to their surface. After that, the  
172 biomass (fresh mass) of leaves and roots was recorded for each replicate. The root length was also recorded  
173 for each plantlet in each replicate.

174 Afterwards, roots and leaves from each plant from four experimental replicates were dried in an oven  
175 at 60 °C until reaching constant mass. Finally, after weighting the dry biomass, leaves were grounded and  
176 used for the analysis of PTEs. For each replicate, around 0.2 g of sample were digested with  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  and  
177  $\text{HNO}_3$  [1:3 (v/v)] in a heating block (DigiPREP MS, SCP Science). The digests were diluted to 50 mL with  
178 Milli-Q water, and the PTEs content was determined by Inductively Coupled Plasma Mass Spectrometry  
179 (ICP-MS) (Agilent 7700). Each extraction batch included the analysis of blanks (always below detection  
180 limit) and a reference material (ERM-CD200), for which the recoveries were within the certified value.

181 Besides, the bioconcentration factor (BCF) was calculated for plants collected from S1 and S2 soils  
182 amended and non-amended with the hematite NM. These analyses were not conducted in the OCED soils.  
183 The BCF in plants was determined by calculating the ratio between the concentration of a given PTE in the  
184 plant ( $C_p$ ) to that in the soil ( $C_{so}$ ), as given below (Equation 2):

$$185 \quad \text{BCF} = C_p / C_{so} \quad (\text{Eq. 2})$$

## 186 *2.5. Biochemical parameters*

### 187 *2.5.1 Quantification of photosynthetic pigments*

188 The extraction and quantification of photosynthetic pigments (total chlorophylls and carotenoids) was  
189 performed in frozen aliquots of leaves (ca. 200 mg) based on the protocol of Lichtenthaler (1987) and the  
190 results expressed as  $\text{mg g}^{-1}$  fresh mass (f.m.).

### 191 *2.5.2. Assessment of oxidative stress markers: ROS levels and lipid peroxidation (LP)*

192 The determination of reactive oxygen species (ROS) included the determination of superoxide anion ( $\text{O}_2^{\cdot-}$ )  
193 and hydrogen peroxide ( $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$ ) contents. For both analyses, samples of leaves (200 mg) were used. Levels  
194 of  $\text{O}_2^{\cdot-}$  were spectrophotometrically quantified according to the methods of Gajewska and Skłodowska  
195 (2007). Results were expressed in terms of  $\text{Abs}_{580 \text{ nm}} \text{ h}^{-1} \text{ g}^{-1} \text{ f.m.}$  Regarding  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$ , its content was quantified  
196 by a colorimetric method as described by Jana and Choudhuri (1982) and the results were expressed as  
197  $\text{pmol H}_2\text{O}_2 \text{ g}^{-1} \text{ f.m.}$  Lipid peroxidation (LP), evaluated by the quantification of malondialdehyde (MDA),  
198 was performed according to, the protocol of Heath and Packer (1968). MDA content of each sample was  
199 expressed as  $\text{nmol g}^{-1} \text{ f.m.}$  More details on each protocol can be found in Soares et al. (2019b).

### 200 *2.5.3. Quantification of non-enzymatic antioxidants: proline, glutathione and ascorbate*

201 The levels of proline and glutathione were spectrophotometrically quantified based on the ninhydrin (Bates  
202 et al. 1973) and Ellman's reagent colorimetric assay, respectively, following the exact procedure detailed  
203 by Soares et al. (2019b). Concerning ascorbate, its total, reduced (AsA) and oxidized (dehydroascorbate –  
204 DHA) content were determined in leaves as described by Gillespie and Ainsworth (2007), using the 4,4'-  
205 bipyridyl (BIP) colorimetric method. Results were expressed in  $\mu\text{g g}^{-1} \text{ f.m.}$  (Pro) and  $\mu\text{mol g}^{-1} \text{ f.m.}$  (AsA and  
206 GSH).

### 207 *2.5.4. Quantification of enzymatic antioxidants – SOD, APX and CAT activity*

208 The extraction of the main antioxidant enzymes was performed as previously reported (Soares et al. 2019b).  
209 After centrifugation, the supernatant of each sample was used for total protein quantification (Bradford  
210 1976) and the determination of SOD, CAT and APX activity. In the case of SOD,  $\text{NaN}_3$  was added to a  
211 final concentration of 10  $\mu\text{M}$ . The total activity of SOD, APX and CAT were evaluated according to, the  
212 original protocols developed by Donahue et al. (1997), Nakano and Asada (1994) and Aebi (1984),  
213 respectively. SOD was expressed in terms of units SOD  $\text{mg}^{-1}$  protein, being one SOD unit defined as the  
214 amount of enzyme that inhibits by 50% the photochemical reduction of NBT. CAT was expressed in  $\text{nmol}$   
215  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2 \text{ min}^{-1} \text{ mg}^{-1}$  protein, while APX activity values were reported as  $\mu\text{mol DHA min}^{-1} \text{ mg}^{-1}$  protein. A  
216 detailed description of each assay can be found in Soares et al. (2019b).

## 217 *2.6. Statistical analyses*

218 Results from all biometric and biochemical parameters were expressed as the mean  $\pm$  standard deviation  
219 (SD). After verifying the homogeneity of the variances (Levene test), a bi-factorial analysis of variance  
220 (two-way ANOVA) was performed, defining as fixed factors the soil and the hematite amendment, and  
221 assuming a significance value of 0.05. In cases of significant differences for any of the factors, a one-way  
222 ANOVA was performed to test for significant differences between amended soils; when the interaction  
223 between factors was significant, the one-way ANOVA was performed with correction for the simple main  
224 effects. All statistical procedures were performed in Prism 8 (GraphPad Software Inc, USA) and IBM SPSS  
225 Statistics v23 (IBM®, USA).

## 226 **3. Results**

### 227 *3.1 Physicochemical properties of soils*

228 The properties of the studied soil samples are shown in Table 1. Results revealed a very strong acidic (S1)  
229 to slightly acid (S2) pH, low (S1) to medium (S2) content of organic matter and low electrical conductivity  
230 values (Zdruli et al. 2004; Costa 2011; Soil Science Division Staff 2017). The soil texture was sandy loam,  
231 according to USDA classification, for both samples (Soil Science Division Staff 2017). The mean values  
232 of the pseudo total concentration of PTEs are also shown in Table 1. Comparing with the guideline values  
233 from Portugal and Canada, S2 showed high levels of As, Ba, Cu, Pb, and Zn, while S1 displayed low levels  
234 of PTEs, all below the guidelines, except for As.

235 **[Table 1]**

236 *3.2. Available content of PTEs in soils: the effect of hematite NM amendment*

237 The available content of the studied PTEs in the soils was assessed by two single extractions (CaCl<sub>2</sub> and  
238 EDTA). Additionally, the extraction efficiency (EF) was calculated for each extractant in each soil before  
239 and after soils amendment with nano-Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> (Table 2). In the non-amended soils (S1 and S2) the CaCl<sub>2</sub>-  
240 extractable concentrations of PTEs were low (<7 % of the pseudo total content), except for Cd in S1. The  
241 amendment of soils with nano-Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> significantly increased the CaCl<sub>2</sub>-extracted concentrations of Mn (S1  
242 and S2), Mg (S1), Ba (S2) and Sb (S2), but decreased the available Zn (S1). The EDTA-extractable PTEs  
243 were higher than the CaCl<sub>2</sub>-extractable levels, in both non-amended soils, but in particular for Cd, Cu, Pb  
244 and Zn. The amendment of soils with the NM significantly decreased the EDTA extractable concentration  
245 of Cd, Cu, K, Mg, Ni, Sb, Pb and Zn (in S2), but increased the availability of other elements, such as Mn  
246 (S1 and S2) (Table 2).

247 **[Table 2]**

248 *3.3. Accumulation of PTEs by plants in non- and amended soils with nano-Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>*

249 The amendment of soils with the NM did not majorly contribute to reduce the PTEs accumulation by leaves  
250 of barley plants, except for Cd and Zn in plants from S1 and Sb in plants from S2. In parallel, plants grown  
251 in the OECD soil amended with the NM presented a significant increment of Fe levels (Table 3). Regarding  
252 BCF values, a significant reduction was also observed for Ni and Sb in S2, and Zn in S1. Besides, BCF  
253 values of studied elements in leaves of barley were less than 1, except for Cd, Mn and Zn in S1, indicating  
254 that these elements were not accumulated in the aerial parts of plants (Table 3).

255 **[Table 3]**

256 *3.4. Biometric parameters and biomass production*

257 Root length and fresh biomass of leaves and roots were affected by both factors (soil type and hematite  
258 amendment), which showed a significant interaction between each other (Tables S3 and S4). As can be  
259 observed in Figure 1, when plants were grown in S1 and S2, the root length was reduced by 55 and 75%,  
260 respectively, in comparison with those grown in OECD artificial soil (control). This pattern was also  
261 observed for biomass production, especially in S2, where root and leaf growth were inhibited up to 75% in  
262 relation to the OECD soil. However, when soils were amended with nano-Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, a high average root length  
263 (73% and 54% high in S1 and S2, respectively) was registered, in comparison with the non-amended soils.

264 Roots and leaves biomass were also stimulated by the application of the NM, with significant increases in  
265 comparison with their non-amended counterparts.

266 **[Figure 1]**

### 267 *3.5. Photosynthetic pigments – total chlorophylls and carotenoids*

268 According to the statistical analysis, only the type of soil (OECD, S1 and S2) significantly affected the  
269 levels of total chlorophylls (a + b) and carotenoids (Tables S3 and S4). When barley plants were exposed  
270 to S2, total chlorophylls were reduced by 34%, in relation to the OECD soil (Figure 2). Regarding S1, no  
271 statistical differences from the control soil were recorded (Figure 2).

272 **[Figure 2]**

### 273 *3.6 Oxidative stress markers – ROS levels and LP*

274 The modulation of O<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> levels by the soil amendment with nano-Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> was dependent on the soil (Tables  
275 S3 and S4). Although no changes were found between non-amended soils and the control, the application  
276 of nano-Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> displayed a tendency to decrease the accumulation of this ROS in plants grown in S1 (34%)  
277 and in S2 (41%), in comparison with their non-amended counterparts (Figure 3a). Concerning H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>,  
278 significant differences were only detected between soils (Tables S3 and S4), with plants growing in S2  
279 showing an increase up to 82% when comparing with OECD grown plants (Figure 3b). Moreover, although  
280 not statistically significant, the application of the NM lowered the levels of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, especially in plants grown  
281 in S2 (Figure 3b). Likewise, LP was only changed in response to the type of soil (Tables S3 and S4). As  
282 documented in Figure 3c, MDA levels of S1- and S2-exposed plants were higher (S1: 28%; S2: 50%) than  
283 those grown in OECD soil, although statistical relevance was only achieved for S2.

284 **[Figure 3]**

### 285 *3.7. Non-enzymatic antioxidant system – Proline, AsA and GSH*

286 A significant interaction between the soil and the application of nano-Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> was found for proline levels  
287 (Tables S3 and S4). More precisely, plants grown in S2 had a higher proline content (134% increase) than  
288 those grown in S1 and OECD soil (Figure 4a). However, when S2 was amended with the NM, proline levels  
289 were reduced by 60% (Figure 4a). For the other soils, the application of nano-Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> did not change the  
290 accumulation of this osmolyte (Figure 4a).

291 The content of GSH is presented in Figure 4b and as shown, no statistical differences were observed for  
292 any of the factors (Tables S3 and S4). However, in a general way, plants exposed to S2 displayed a tendency  
293 for having higher levels of GSH, being this effect even more pronounced after the amendment with nano-  
294 Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>.

295 In what regards the redox balance of AsA, its total content, as well as its reduced (AsA) and oxidized  
296 (DHA) forms, were significantly affected by both factors, but no significant interaction between them was  
297 found (Tables S3 and S4). As illustrated in Figure 4c, plants from S2 had a higher content (62%) of total  
298 AsA than those from OECD soil. Moreover, in general, the amendment of soil with nano-Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> further  
299 increased the levels of this antioxidant, especially in OECD (42%) and S1 (43%), in relation to the non-  
300 amended soils. Concerning the AsA and DHA ratios, significant differences were found for both forms  
301 (Tables S3 and S4) between soils and upon application of nano-Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>. From what can be observed,  
302 AsA/Total AsA quotient was maximum in plants from S1, especially when the soil was amended with the  
303 NM, whilst the opposite was registered for DHA (Figure 4d).

304 **[Figure 4]**

### 305 *3.8. Enzymatic antioxidant system – SOD, CAT and APX*

306 The analysis of the total SOD activity revealed that this enzyme was affected by both factors, with a  
307 significant interaction between them (Tables S3 and S4). The results showed that S1-exposed plants  
308 exhibited higher activity levels (37%) than the control plants, while no change in control were detected  
309 when plants were exposed to S2 (Figure 5a). Moreover, the amendment of soil with nano-Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> stimulated  
310 the activity of this enzyme, especially in plants grown in S1 and S2 by 30 and 74%, respectively, in  
311 comparison with their non-amended counterparts (Figure 5a).

312 Regarding CAT, different responses were obtained between soils and with the NM amendment (Tables  
313 S3 and S4). As can be observed in Figure 5b, an increase of the activity of this enzyme was observed in  
314 plants exposed to S2 (almost 60% comparing with the OCDE-grown plants). In what concerns the effects  
315 of nano-Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, differences were observed only for OECD-grown plants (rise of 55% in amended soil)  
316 (Figure 5b).

317 APX activity was only changed in response to the type of soil (Tables S3 and S4), with an increase in  
318 activity of this enzyme by 62% in S2, when compared with plants grown in the artificial OECD soil (Figure  
319 5c).



[Figure 5]

320

321 **4. Discussion**

322 *4.1. Pseudo total and available contents of PTEs in soils*

323 The levels of the studied elements were high, mainly in S2, with some of them overpassing the reference  
324 values proposed by the Portuguese Environmental Agency (APA, 2019) and the Canadian guideline values  
325 (CCME, 2007; 2018) for agricultural soils (Table 1). These results are in line with what has been reported  
326 in previous studies for soils surrounding the Estarreja Chemical Complex (Cachada et al. 2009; Reis et al.  
327 2009; Inácio et al. 2014).

328 The studied soils were developed over a parent material mainly formed by beach and river terrace  
329 deposits (Cachada et al. 2009), with a sandy texture, acidic pH values and low to medium organic matter  
330 content (Table 1). These properties usually offer a reduced sorptive capacity, as shown by the extraction  
331 methods applied for evaluating the availability of PTEs. Despite the CaCl<sub>2</sub>-extractable PTE contents were  
332 very low for the great majority of PTEs, a higher availability was observed when EDTA extraction was  
333 performed (Table 2). Single extraction procedures are one of the main approaches used to obtain  
334 information about metals' availability in soils and also to infer about their potential bioavailability (Rao et  
335 al. 2008; Arenas-Lago et al. 2016; Almendros et al. 2020). Weak and unbuffered salt solutions as CaCl<sub>2</sub> are  
336 usually used to mimic raining events and their contribution to remove metals that are weakly retained by  
337 electrostatic forces in organic and inorganic sites of soil components (Rao et al. 2008). Generally, this  
338 fraction accounts for less than 2% of PTEs in soils, except for some elements as Mg, Mn, and K (Emmerson  
339 et al. 2000). This was, in fact, what was recorded in our study, except for Cd and Zn in the S1. However,  
340 despite the high extraction efficiencies, the CaCl<sub>2</sub>-extracted concentrations of these elements were very low  
341 (Table 2). The EDTA is a strong chelating reagent that can displace PTEs from insoluble organic and  
342 organometallic complexes, as well as those adsorbed to inorganic soil components such as oxides and clay  
343 minerals (Rao et al. 2008). Synthetic chelators as EDTA may mimic the role of many natural chelants that  
344 result from the decomposition of organic matter (e.g., organic acids and humic acids), rendering metals  
345 available to plants. Organic acids, for example, which can have different origins in soils, including being  
346 components of plant exudates, may chelate metals, modulating their cationic characteristics, and making  
347 them more available to plants (Adeleke et al. 2017). Based on this similarity as well as on positive  
348 correlations found between the content of metals in EDTA extracts and plant tissues (e.g., Gupta and Sinha,  
349 2007; Almendros et al. 2020), this extractant has been considered representative of the metal's fractions in

350 soils available to plants, although it is well known that this depends on the plant species as well (e.g., Gupta  
351 and Sinha, 2007; Agrelli et al. 2020; Almendros et al. 2020). Taking this into account, the analysis of S1  
352 and S2 EDTA-extractants suggest that some PTEs, such as Cd, Cu and Pb have more potential to become  
353 available, representing a possible risk to crop species that may be cultivated in these soils (Table 2).

#### 354 *4.2. The effect of nano-Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> on the PTEs availability and soil-plant transfer*

355 Fe-based NMs have strong redox and sorption properties and can act as analogues of ubiquitous natural soil  
356 Fe phases, being involved in oxidation-reduction reactions with PTEs ions, formation of amorphous iron-  
357 PTEs or can simultaneously sorb both cationic (Cd, Cu, Pb or Zn) or anionic (As, Sb) elements (e.g.,  
358 Komárek et al. 2013; Arenas-Lago et al. 2019; Rodríguez-Seijo et al. 2020). Although some authors showed  
359 an immobilization efficiency of studied PTEs by Fe-based NMs over 70% (e.g., Komárek et al. 2013; Gil-  
360 Díaz et al. 2016, 2017; Arenas-Lago et al. 2019; Wan et al. 2020; Rodríguez-Seijo et al. 2020), in our case,  
361 the effectiveness of the nano-Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> for chemical immobilization has been moderate and only recorded for  
362 Cd, Cu, Pb, Sb and Zn in S2, when EE (%) was compared between the non- and the amended soil samples  
363 (Table 2). As indicated by Gil-Díaz et al. (2016, 2017) or Rodríguez-Seijo et al. (2020), the presence of  
364 several PTEs with different chemical behavior can induce competition for sorption sites, with a reduction  
365 in immobilization efficiency for some elements. Besides, some studies with higher efficiencies were usually  
366 made with single contamination exposure or elements with similar chemical properties (e.g., Pb/Zn vs.  
367 As/Sb) - thus not mimicking element mixtures like in this study (e.g., Huang et al. 2018; Hussain et al.  
368 2019; Rizwan et al. 2019) - artificial or metal spiked soils (e.g., Gil-Díaz et al. 2016), the use of other types  
369 of Fe-NMs (e.g., Komárek et al. 2013; Gil-Díaz et al. 2016, 2017; Wan et al. 2020), and/or higher doses of  
370 the NMs than those herein used (e.g., Gil-Díaz et al. 2014; 2016, Wan et al. 2020), that could explain these  
371 differences regarding the metal reduction efficiency. In fact, in future studies, a given percentage of nano-  
372 Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> should not be assumed based on previous reports, as the behavior of this NM in the soil, as well as  
373 its adsorption capabilities, may also depend on soil properties. Therefore, a pilot study similar to the one  
374 performed in this study, should be carried out, in order to determine the best dose of the hematite NMs to  
375 be applied in each case.

376 The amendment of the soils with the NMs also did not contribute to reducing the bioavailable content  
377 of metals in the aerial parts of plants, except for Zn in plants grown in S1 and for Sb in plants grown in S2  
378 (Table 3). In what regards the PTEs at highest levels in the leaves of plants (As, Ba, Cu, Fe and Mn), no

379 significant differences were recorded between plants from non-amended and amended soils (Table 3). Sun  
380 et al. (2012) made an analysis of available ecotoxicity data and estimated HC5 values for As (hazard  
381 concentration for 5% of plant species) both based on EC<sub>10</sub> and EC<sub>50</sub> of 7.83 and 25.27 mg kg<sup>-1</sup>, respectively.  
382 The total concentration of As found in S1 and S2 clearly surpassed these values, they were accumulated by  
383 the plants as well, and the amendment with NM did not reduce their availability. Thus, As is expected to  
384 be one of the elements involved in the phytotoxicity of these soils. Regarding Ba, a PNEC value of 314.9  
385 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> was proposed by ECHA for soil organisms ([https://echa.europa.eu/registration-dossier/-/registered-](https://echa.europa.eu/registration-dossier/-/registered-dossier/15037/6/1)  
386 [dossier/15037/6/1](https://echa.europa.eu/registration-dossier/-/registered-dossier/15037/6/1)) although it was highlighted by this agency that there are no reliable data for plants.  
387 Regarding Cu, Caetano et al. (2016) recorded EC50 values for plants varying between 89 and 290.5 mg kg<sup>-1</sup>.  
388 Only the pseudo-total concentration of this PTE surpassed this toxicity thresholds.

389 Barley plants have defense mechanisms to reduce or limit the transfer of PTEs from the soil to the aerial  
390 part. This so-called root barrier could explain why no differences in the studied elements were observed  
391 between non-amended and amended soils with nano-Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> (Soriano-Disla et al. 2014). In this study, the  
392 concentration of Fe in the leaves was not changed in both soils after amendment with hematite (Table 3),  
393 which indicates that Fe added to soils in the nano form, was not up taken and translocated by the roots of  
394 plants to the aerial parts as indicated by other researchers for nano-Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub> amendment (Tombuloglu et al.  
395 2017; de Souza et al. 2019). However, more analyses, such as transmission electron microscopy, should be  
396 carried out to assess the potential root-to-shoot translocation of this NM.

#### 397 *4.3. Nano-Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> improves the growth performance and physiological status of barley plants exposed to S1* 398 *and S2 soils*

399 The results herein obtained point towards a toxic effect of both studied soils (S1 and S2) on plant growth  
400 and development, when compared to plants grown in the OECD artificial soil. For all parameters studied,  
401 inhibition values up to 75% were recorded for roots and leaves (Figure 1), unequivocally suggesting the  
402 phytotoxicity of these soils, with the observed effects being dependent not only on the degree of  
403 contamination of the tested soils, but also on the mixture effects and/or the characteristics of the soil itself.  
404 Although PTEs are identified as more hazardous (As, Cu, Pb, and Zn), with high concentrations especially  
405 in S2, they can quickly induce toxicity both at the macroscopic and cellular level (Seneviratne et al. 2017;  
406 Singh et al. 2016), it must be highlighted that, for S1, the recorded phytotoxicity may arise not only from  
407 the presence of these mixtures of PTEs, but also from the low pH of the soil (pH < 5), and its low organic

408 matter content (<3.4% OM) (Zdruli et al. 2004), within other properties or contaminants that were not  
409 analysed in this study. The problems associated to soil acidity can be linked to scenarios of nutrient  
410 deficiency (namely P, and Mg), which is unlikely to happened here given the recorded values of these  
411 elements in S1-exposed plants, or metal toxicity (especially Mn and Al). In fact, it is known that, under pH  
412 < 5.5, the mobility and solubility of Al is increased, occurring mainly as Al<sup>3+</sup>, its most phytotoxic form,  
413 which greatly impacts plant growth and development (Wang et al. 2006). Curiously, among all cereals,  
414 barley is the most susceptible species to Al toxicity (Ma et al. 2014; Wang et al. 2006). Thus, although there  
415 might be other factors (e.g., PTEs mixture effects and low organic matter content) behind S1-mediated  
416 toxicity in *H. vulgare*, the effects of Al and acidity may have also played an important role.

417         Despite the high degree of phytotoxicity recorded, when soils were amended with nano-Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, the  
418 growth performance of barley plants was stimulated in comparison with the non-amended soils, especially  
419 in S1 (Figure 1). Besides being an essential micronutrient, thereby contributing to a better nutritional status,  
420 it is recognized that Fe can act as a metal scavenger, reducing the uptake of PTEs. Indeed, in line with the  
421 findings of the current study, the application of nano-Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> was found to improve plant abiotic stress  
422 tolerance, mitigating metal phytotoxicity (Konate et al. 2017; Hussain et al. 2019).

423         As reviewed by Zuverza-Mena et al. (2017), Fe-based nanomaterials are barely up taken by plants,  
424 being assumed to remain in the soil, given their insolubility and adherence to soil particles. Therefore, it  
425 can be hypothesized that the recorded positive influence of nano-Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> in barley growth is much likely  
426 related to the behavior and influence of the NM on soil properties and element availability rather than on  
427 its uptake and effects on roots and shoots. Indeed, it has been demonstrated that NM exceeding 20 nm  
428 cannot penetrate the cell walls (Rico et al. 2013, Martínez-Fernández et al. 2016, Zuverza-Mena et al. 2017),  
429 being their effects strongly linked to particle aggregation on the root surface and their binding to cation  
430 exchange sites (Trakal et al. 2015). In line with this premise, leaf levels of Fe did not change upon nano-  
431 Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> application on S1 and S2, though an increment was observed in plants grown in OECD soil (Table  
432 3). Several explanations could be hypothesized to explain this result, but any of them could be confirmed.  
433 However, when comparing plants from all the soils (without the amendment), it is possible to see that those  
434 grown in the OECD soil had the lowest Fe levels in the leaves. The scarcity of Fe in OECD soil and the  
435 addition of hematite to the soils may have triggered deeply studied biochemical reactions and mechanisms  
436 which evolved in plants to make iron available for uptake (Connorton et al. 2017). Furthermore, and  
437 supporting our main hypothesis – that Fe is acting as nano-adsorbent for many PTEs – the available fraction

438 of Fe ions to be uptaken by plants is reduced in the contaminated soils (S1 and S2) than in OECD, which  
439 can partially explain the higher levels of Fe in OECD soil-grown plants. Moreover, other soil properties,  
440 such as pH and OM, could have also played a role in this phenomenon.

441 As important as understanding the role of nano-Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> in enhancing the growth of PTEs-exposed  
442 plants, it is to perceive and unravel how the redox homeostasis of exposed plants is modulated. One of the  
443 most common symptoms of PTEs phytotoxicity is the occurrence of tissue chlorosis, suggestive of pigment  
444 losses (Sharma et al., 2019; 2020a). Here, barley plants exposed to S1 and S2 exhibited leaf chlorosis,  
445 especially in the younger leaves (data not shown). In fact, it has been shown that several metals are able to  
446 affect photosynthesis in different dimensions, inducing changes from the molecular and biochemical levels  
447 to the functional and metabolic ones (Paunov et al., 2018). Despite carotenoid levels remained unchanged  
448 among treatments, our data showed that both test soils led to reductions of chlorophylls content, being this  
449 reduction more accentuated in plants exposed to S2 (Figure 2). In fact, and as an example, As is known to  
450 reduce the photosynthetic yield, lowering the chlorophyll levels, and hampering the electron transport chain  
451 and photosystem II activity (Finnegan and Chen 2012). Losses in chlorophyll content are usually  
452 accompanied by a deregulation of the whole photosynthetic process, culminating in great metabolic  
453 disorders with pronounced consequences for plant growth (Sharma et al., 2019). With effect, metals have  
454 been found to reduce the number and size of chloroplasts and to inhibit the biosynthesis of chlorophylls,  
455 especially by degrading their biosynthetic enzymes (Sharma et al. 2019; 2020b)

456 Regarding nano-Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> application, no differences were registered between non- and amended soils,  
457 though a tendency for increased chlorophyll values was noticed when plants were exposed to the NM  
458 amended soils. However, based on the hypothesis that NMs were not able to reach, at least substantially,  
459 the aerial parts of the plants, the partial recovery of chlorophylls is not directly related to Fe's role, but  
460 rather to other induced metabolic adjustments, namely a more balanced nutrient uptake and reduced PTEs  
461 accumulation. Actually, and corroborating this hypothesis, the amendment of S1 with nano-Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> resulted  
462 in a slight increase in nutrients bioavailability (Table 2), probably due to an increment of soil pH after NMs  
463 amendment. Indeed, the pH of S1 increased to 5.9 upon nano-Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> amendment, concomitant with a  
464 significant decrease in Al toxicity and in the PTEs availability, possibly explaining the better growth  
465 performance of barley recorded in S1 amended with the NMs (Table 2). Previous studies conducted with  
466 Fe oxides NMs also reported an increase of soil pH upon soil amendments (e.g. Gil-Díaz et al. 2014; 2017;  
467 2018; Rodríguez-Seijo et al. 2020), lowering the phytotoxicity of PTEs to common vetch, barley and wheat

468 (e.g. Gil-Díaz et al. 2014, 2018; Rizwan et al. 2019) and the immobilization of some metal cations, such as  
469 Pb ions, through processes of ion exchange and surface complexation (Gil-Díaz et al. 2014; 2018; Arenas-  
470 Lago et al. 2019; Rodríguez-Seijo et al. 2020).

#### 471 *4.4. Oxidative stress markers*

472 The occurrence of oxidative stress is one of the most preserved and common responses to all types of abiotic  
473 stress (reviewed by Soares et al. 2019a). Therefore, the evaluation of different components of the redox  
474 metabolic pathways can provide objective clues on the cellular state upon exposure to adverse growth  
475 conditions, like soil degradation by PTEs contamination (Figure 3). Although in general both S1 and S2  
476 induced the accumulation of ROS in barley plants in comparison with the OECD soil, subtle differences  
477 were recorded between the two contaminated soils. While in S1 only H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> was increased, in S2 both  
478 analyzed ROS were enhanced in leaves of barley plants (Figure 3). These differences may arise because of  
479 the differences between both soils, since S2 shows a higher contamination degree than S1. Even though  
480 ROS production can result from the interference of the metallic ions with several electron transport chains  
481 (ETC), especially those present in chloroplasts and mitochondria, the overproduction of ROS induced by  
482 PTEs is dependent on different factors, including the concentration of the element itself (Shahid et al. 2014),  
483 as well as possible synergistic or antagonistic effects. Concomitantly to this overproduction of ROS, the  
484 levels of MDA increased upon exposure to S1 and S2 (Figure 3), strongly indicating the consequent  
485 induction of oxidative stress effects in leaves of barley plants grown under PTEs excess, as observed in  
486 previous studies (Soares et al. 2016, 2018; Sousa et al. 2020.). Actually, and recalling the excessive levels  
487 of some of these PTEs in S1 and S2, the observed redox disbalance was not surprising. In fact, although a  
488 multi-contaminated soil can lead to distinct effects compared to those caused by individual PTEs, the  
489 involvement of As, Cu, Pb and Zn in inducing oxidative disturbances in plant cells is well-documented  
490 (e.g., Branco-Neves et al. 2017; Kostecka-Gugała and Latowski 2018; Lin and Aarts 2012; Ravet and Pilon  
491 2013; Sousa et al. 2020), and their single and combined effects can translate into oxidative stress in plants.

492 Given the positive influence of nano-Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> on the growth performance of barley exposed to S1 and  
493 S2, it was hypothesized that the application of these NM could decrease the oxidative stress imposed by  
494 PTEs in plant cells. Accordingly, although not always statistically meaningful, the presence of nano-Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>  
495 in the soil helped to reduce the overproduction of ROS, especially in S2, where the maximum damage was  
496 recorded (Figure 3). As can be observed, in S1, a tendency of decreasing levels of O<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup>, H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> and LP was  
497 found, suggesting a positive effect of nano-Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> amendment in S1. In parallel, despite LP did not change

498 in response to the NM amendment, levels of both ROS were diminished in leaves of plants grown in S2  
499 previously amended with nano-Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> (Figure 3). In agreement, the supplementation of nano-Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> to the  
500 nutritive medium helped to reduce the oxidative damage induced by As in *Brassica juncea* (L.) Czern.,  
501 limiting the occurrence of LP (Praveen et al. 2018). Furthermore, Hussain et al. (2019), in a study conducted  
502 with *Triticum aestivum* L., also reported that nano-Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, applied as a foliar spray or added to the soil, was  
503 able to reduce Cd-induced oxidative stress, lowering the electrolyte leakage of biological membranes.  
504 Despite no PTEs' bioaccumulation was observed (Table 3) at the leaf level, the application of nano-Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>  
505 showed beneficial effects recorded on oxidative stress biomarkers, suggesting that they are somehow  
506 contributing for better plant growth performance, especially in contaminated soils. Actually, it has been  
507 shown that Cu and Zn oxide NMs can cause significant changes in roots, which further translate in modified  
508 transcriptional patterns related to metal-tolerance in shoots, where NP were not detected in their surfaces  
509 (Anderson et al. 2017). Moreover, other hypothesis that cannot be completely excluded is the potential of  
510 nano-Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> to reduce the bioaccumulation of PTEs in the root tissues, thereby promoting a better growth  
511 and physiological performance of barley plants. Though this data would be important, methodologies  
512 providing real and feasible results concerning the fraction of PTEs adsorbed to the root tissue or  
513 bioaccumulated are difficult to implement, given that a considerable amount of soil particles and NMs can  
514 remain adsorbed to the root system, being hard to evaluate with accuracy the fraction of PTEs really  
515 accumulated by plant roots.

#### 516 *4.5. Response of the plant antioxidant system*

517 In order to overcome constant fluctuations of the abiotic environment and to face biotic interactions, plants  
518 have developed an efficient antioxidant system, composed by enzymatic and non-enzymatic players that  
519 act synergistically to counteract the toxic effects of ROS (as reviewed by Soares et al. 2019a). Thus, when  
520 evaluating the potential of nano-Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> to reduce the phytotoxicity of metal-contaminated soils, it is also  
521 important to analyze the antioxidant response, either by the direct quantification of several metabolites,  
522 such as proline, GSH, and AsA, but also by the evaluation of the catalytic action of important enzymes, as  
523 SOD, CAT, and APX.

524 Proline, a proteinogenic amino acid formerly known as an active osmolyte, is now also considered as  
525 a powerful antioxidant, which accumulates in plant cells under stressful conditions (Soares et al. 2019a).  
526 Proline can serve as a metal chelator and is able to stimulate the synthesis of other important compounds,  
527 such as phytochelatins (Hayat et al. 2012). Our results showed that proline accumulation did not change

528 when plants were exposed to S1, however, a substantial increase of its levels was detected upon exposure  
529 to S2, strengthening the premise that this soil shows a higher phytotoxic potential than S1 (Figure 4).  
530 Furthermore, since proline can act as a membrane stabilizer, it can be suggested that the observed increase  
531 of its content was not enough to neutralize the toxic effects of ROS on lipid peroxidation, whose levels  
532 remained higher in the leaves of plants grown in S2. Once again, the addition of nano-Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> to S2 was also  
533 found to alleviate the observed toxicity, since proline levels decreased to values identical to those found in  
534 plants grown in OECD soil. Accordingly, Praveen et al. (2018) reported that As-induced overaccumulation  
535 of proline was reduced by the application of nano-Fe<sub>3</sub>O<sub>4</sub>.

536 Besides proline, AsA and GSH are two of the most relevant plant antioxidants, capable of directly  
537 interacting with ROS and/or serving as substrates for different antioxidant enzymes. The results revealed  
538 that GSH did not majorly change upon treatments, though a tendency for plants grown in S2 to exhibit  
539 increased values of this metabolite was found. As in the case of GSH, AsA cellular homeostasis depends  
540 on the balance between its reduced (AsA) and oxidized (DHA) forms. As can be seen, both studied soils  
541 contributed to the accumulation of this antioxidant in leaves of *H. vulgare*, being this increased content  
542 related to a higher abundance of AsA in comparison with DHA. Indeed, it is known that both AsA and GSH  
543 function as cellular buffers, contributing to the maintenance of the cellular redox balance (Soares et al.  
544 2019a).

545 Over the last years, the involvement of several metal oxide NMs on the stimulation of the plant  
546 antioxidant system has been described (Soares et al. 2018a, 2018b). Here, upon application of nano-Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>,  
547 levels of AsA were further enhanced when compared to the non-amended soils, with an even higher  
548 proportion of AsA in relation to DHA (Figure 4). This observation suggests a higher ability of plants grown  
549 under NM-amended soils to enhance their antioxidant potential to minimize the phytotoxic effects of both  
550 S1 and S2. Moreover, knowing that AsA is capable of directly neutralize H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, it can also be suggested  
551 that the observed decreased values of this ROS can be related to the antioxidant activity of AsA. Indeed,  
552 more than being APX's substrate, AsA is described as the most powerful antioxidant in plants, playing  
553 multiple roles in the redox system, namely on ROS scavenging (Soares et al. 2019a).

554 In what concerns the enzymatic component of the plant antioxidant system, an integrative insight into  
555 the main antioxidant enzymes was performed. Leaves of barley plants grown in S1 showed increased  
556 activity of SOD, but neither CAT nor APX were affected; on the other hand, SOD remained unchanged in  
557 plants exposed to S2, but the activity of CAT and APX was significantly enhanced (Figure 5). When



558 discussing the involvement of these three enzymes in the cellular redox homeostasis, it is important to take  
559 a look at the measured levels of  $O_2^{\cdot-}$  and  $H_2O_2$ . Indeed, while SOD, considered as the first enzymatic line  
560 of the antioxidant defense system, is responsible for the dismutation of  $O_2^{\cdot-}$  into  $H_2O_2$  and  $O_2$ , both CAT  
561 and APX play important role in  $H_2O_2$  cellular detoxification (Soares et al. 2019a). Thus, the tendency for  
562 S1-exposed plants to exhibit lower values of  $O_2^{\cdot-}$  is much likely related to the higher activity of SOD; in  
563 contrast, since SOD did not change in S2-exposed plants, the levels of  $O_2^{\cdot-}$  were kept high (Figures 3 and  
564 5). Regarding  $H_2O_2$ , the observed rise of its levels in plants grown in S1 can be a result of the maintenance  
565 of CAT and APX activity, while in S2-exposed plants, the increment of these two enzymes was not enough  
566 to prevent the overaccumulation of this ROS (Figures 3 and 5). The modulation of enzyme activity by stress  
567 factors, including PTEs and soil acidity/alkalinity, is well described in the literature, being recognized that  
568 both stress (e.g., type of stressor, magnitude, repeated exposures) and genotype characteristics can lead to  
569 distinct effects on enzymes' performance (Soares et al. 2019a).

570 The effects of nano-based formulations of Fe on the antioxidant system are barely known and require  
571 additional studies. In the current study, SOD activity was found to be positively affected by the application  
572 of nano- $Fe_2O_3$ , since increased levels of activity of this enzyme were found in leaves of plants grown under  
573 contaminated soils amended with the NM. In parallel, a recent work with wheat seedlings found that SOD  
574 activity was enhanced upon application of nano- $Fe_3O_4$  (2000 mg  $L^{-1}$ ), ameliorating the toxic effects  
575 imposed by different metals (1 mM) supplemented to the nutrient solution (Konate et al. 2017). This finding  
576 is quite curious and may reflect the role of nano- $Fe_2O_3$  in modulating Fe metabolism in plants, probably  
577 stimulating enzymes that use this element as co-factor, such as Fe-SOD. However, it should not be  
578 discarded that the upregulation of SOD in plants exposed to the NM can also be the result of other isoforms  
579 of the enzyme, differing in the metal present in its active site, such as Cu/Zn- and Mn-SOD. Regarding  
580 CAT and APX, in general, the addition of nano- $Fe_2O_3$  to S1 and S2 did not majorly change their activity  
581 patterns (Figure 5), revealing that, at least under the experimental conditions herein described, nano- $Fe_2O_3$   
582 did not contribute for a better performance of these two antioxidants enzymes.

583 The application of nano- $Fe_2O_3$  to metal-contaminated soils allowed to reduce, at least to some extent,  
584 the phytotoxic effects on the growth of barley plants. Moreover, physiological and biochemical analyses  
585 showed that both tested soils, especially S2, imposed a severe oxidative stress condition in *H. vulgare*, by  
586 the overproduction of ROS and subsequent induction of LP in the leaves; however, soil amendment with

587 nano-Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, by preventing PTEs toxicity and altering soil properties (e.g., pH), contributed for a better  
588 performance of the plant antioxidant system, thereby reducing the degree of oxidative damage.

589 In conclusion, this work provides practical knowledge on the use of iron-based NMs to alleviate the  
590 toxicity of PTEs in multi-contaminated agricultural soils as an effective and sustainable tool to enhance  
591 plant productivity under adverse growth conditions in soils with their production function impaired. In the  
592 future, studies should explore the effects of other types and concentrations of NMs on the modulation of  
593 soil properties and functions, giving particular attention to the impacts on relevant crop species, including  
594 monocot and dicot plants, and studies with longer exposure periods.

595

596 **Supplementary Materials:** Figure S1 and Tables S1-S4

597

598 **Data availability:** All data generated or analyzed during this study are included in this article.

599

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871 **Figure captions**

872 **Figure 1.** Root length (a) and root (b) and leaves (c) biomass of *H. vulgare* L. plants in different soils  
873 (OECD, S1 and S2), amended (bars with pattern) and non-amended (bars without pattern) with 1% (w/w)  
874 nano-Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>. Data presented are mean ± SD (n ≥ 3). Different letters above bars indicate significant  
875 differences between soils (OECD, S1 and S2) at  $p \leq 0.05$ ; \* above bars denote significant differences  
876 between non- and amended soils at  $p \leq 0.05$ . *The results of two- and one-way ANOVA are shown in*  
877 *supplementary material (Tables S3 and S4).*

878 **Figure 2.** Total chlorophylls (a) and carotenoids (b) in leaves of *H. vulgare* L. plants grown in different  
879 soils (OECD, S1 and S2), amended (bars with pattern) and non-amended (bars without pattern) with 1%  
880 (w/w) nano-Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>. Data presented are as mean ± SD (n ≥ 3). Different letters above bars indicate significant  
881 differences between soils (OECD, S1 and S2) at  $p \leq 0.05$ ; \* above bars denote significant differences  
882 between non-amended and amended soils at  $p \leq 0.05$ . *The results of two- and one-way ANOVA are shown*  
883 *in supplementary material (Tables S3 and S4).*

884 **Figure 3.** O<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup> (a), H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> (b) and MDA (c) levels in leaves of *H. vulgare* L. plants grown in different soils  
885 (OECD, S1 and S2), amended (bars with pattern) and non-amended (bars without pattern) with 1% (w/w)  
886 nano-Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>. Data presented are as mean ± SD (n ≥ 3). Different letters above bars indicate significant  
887 differences between soils (OECD, S1 and S2) at  $p \leq 0.05$ ; \* above bars denote significant differences  
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889 *supplementary material (Tables S3 and S4).*

890 **Figure 4.** Proline (a), GSH (b), total ascorbate (c) and relative AsA and DHA (d) levels in leaves of *H.*  
891 *vulgare* L. plants grown in different soils (OECD, S1 and S2), amended (bars with pattern) and non-  
892 amended (bars without pattern) with 1% (w/w) nano-Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>. Data presented are as mean ± SD (n ≥ 3).  
893 Different letters above bars indicate significant differences between soils (OECD, S1 and S2) at  $p \leq 0.05$ ;  
894 \* above bars denote significant differences between non- and amended soils at  $p \leq 0.05$ . *The results of two-*  
895 *and one-way ANOVA are shown in supplementary material (Tables S3 and S4).*

896 **Figure 5.** SOD (a), CAT (b) and APX (c) activity levels in leaves of *H. vulgare* L. plants grown in different  
897 soils (OECD, S1 and S2), amended (bars with pattern) and non-amended (bars without pattern) with 1%  
898 (w/w) nano-Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>. Data presented are as mean ± SD (n ≥ 3). Different letters above bars indicate significant

899 differences between soils (OECD, S1 and S2) at  $p \leq 0.05$ ; \* above bars denote significant differences  
900 between non- and amended soils at  $p \leq 0.05$ . *The results of two- and one-way ANOVA are shown in*  
901 *supplementary material (Tables S3 and S4).*

**Table 1.** Physical and chemical properties of the OECD, S1 and S2 soil samples prepared in the laboratory and collected nearby the Estarreja Chemical Complex (ECC), Portugal.

Soil properties	Units	OECD soil	S1	S2
<b>Physicochemical properties</b>				
pH <sub>H2O</sub>		6.09 ± 0.23	4.69 ± 0.05	6.22 ± 0.07
Electrical conductivity	mS/m	-	0.4 ± 0.12	0.22 ± 0.09
Organic matter	%	4.48 ± 0.34	2.54 ± 0.42	5.73 ± 0.78
Water Holding Capacity	%	29.2 ± 4.1	34.3 ± 0.8	40.2 ± 2.0
Soil texture		Sandy loam	Sandy loam	Loamy fine sand
Sand	%	77.2 ± 1.5	75.9 ± 1.2	87.3 ± 1.5
Silt	%	15.3 ± 2.1	16.6 ± 1.3	3.50 ± 1.17
Clay	%	7.53 ± 0.81	7.45 ± 0.70	7.97 ± 0.45
<b>Pseudo total contents (mg kg<sup>-1</sup>)</b>				
Element	S1	S2	PT-RV	CDN-SQG
Al	6788 ± 1063	8150 ± 208	-	-
As	<b>59.8 ± 13.3</b>	<b>1344 ± 75</b>	11	12
Ba	19.4 ± 3.0	286 ± 5	390	750
Cd	0.14 ± 0.07	0.91 ± 0.10	1	1.4
Cr	6.26 ± 1.37	12.1 ± 0.3	160	64
Cu	14.6 ± 2.6	<b>202 ± 2</b>	140	63
Fe	4316 ± 992	8366 ± 86	-	-
K	920 ± 121	1269 ± 17	-	-
Mg	1142 ± 92	1083 ± 39	-	-
Mn	46.9 ± 18.4	43.2 ± 0.6	-	-
Ni	4.57 ± 0.93	8.41 ± 0.14	100	45
P	278 ± 116	653 ± 39	-	-
Pb	22.6 ± 2.9	<b>490 ± 22</b>	46	70
Sb	< 0.02	6.14 ± 0.09	7.5	20
Zn	58.2 ± 5.8	<b>309 ± 7</b>	340	250

Data presented are mean ± SD (standard deviation) (n ≥ 3) for physicochemical parameters.

PT-RV Reference values for soils < 2m deep (agricultural), recommended by the Portuguese Environmental Agency (APA 2019); CDN-SQG Canadian Soil Quality Guidelines according to the agricultural land use (CCME 2007, 2018). Bold numbers highlight values that are above the Portuguese and/or the Canadian guidelines for agricultural soils.

**Table 2.** Available contents of analyzed elements from studied soils: Non-amended and amended with nano-Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> and corresponding extraction efficiencies (EE%).

Element	CaCl <sub>2</sub> -extractable (mg kg <sup>-1</sup> )							
	S1				S2			
	Non-amended	EE (%)	nano-Fe <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	EE (%)	Non-amended	EE (%)	nano-Fe <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	EF (%)
<b>Al</b>	4.85 ± 0.16	0.07	2.42 ± 0.07*	0.04*	2.27 ± 0.19	0.03	1.99 ± 0.32	0.02
<b>As</b>	0.06 ± 0.01	0.10	<i>b.d.l.</i>	-	4.11 ± 0.41	0.31	5.37 ± 0.44	0.40
<b>Ba</b>	0.38 ± 0.01	1.94	0.41 ± 0.01	2.11	6.48 ± 0.65	2.27	12.1 ± 0.1*	4.24*
<b>Cd</b>	0.03 ± 0.01	23.1	0.03 ± 0.01	24.0	0.03 ± 0.01	3.60	0.02 ± 0.01	2.41
<b>Cr</b>	<i>b.d.l.</i>	-	<i>b.d.l.</i>	-	<i>b.d.l.</i>	-	<i>b.d.l.</i>	-
<b>Cu</b>	<i>b.d.l.</i>	-	<i>b.d.l.</i>	-	0.32 ± 0.03	0.16	0.45 ± 0.04	0.22
<b>Fe</b>	0.40 ± 0.24	0.01	0.44 ± 0.01	0.02	4.50 ± 0.40	0.05	3.68 ± 0.55	0.03
<b>K</b>	5.3 ± 2.6	0.58	10.1 ± 1.4*	1.09	88.5 ± 8.7	6.98	68.0 ± 2.1*	5.36
<b>Mg</b>	21.0 ± 0.7	1.84	83.1 ± 2.7*	7.28*	51.4 ± 5.2	4.75	57.8 ± 3.8	5.34
<b>Mn</b>	0.80 ± 0.02	1.71	12.2 ± 0.3*	26.0*	0.33 ± 0.04	0.77	6.37 ± 0.05*	14.8*
<b>Ni</b>	0.10 ± 0.02	2.21	0.08 ± 0.01	1.72	0.23 ± 0.02	2.72	0.04 ± 0.01*	0.42*
<b>P</b>	<i>b.d.l.</i>	-	<i>b.d.l.</i>	-	0.98 ± 0.12	0.15	1.75 ± 0.43	0.27
<b>Pb</b>	0.03 ± 0.02	0.14	<i>b.d.l.</i>	-	0.45 ± 0.04	0.09	0.25 ± 0.20	0.05
<b>Sb</b>	<i>b.d.l.</i>	-	<i>b.d.l.</i>	-	0.06 ± 0.01	0.99	0.09 ± 0.01*	1.52*
<b>Zn</b>	3.52 ± 0.04	6.06	1.72 ± 0.04*	2.96*	5.73 ± 0.58	1.85	2.16 ± 0.05*	0.70*

Element	EDTA-extractable (mg kg <sup>-1</sup> )							
	S1				S2			
	Non-amended	EE (%)	nano-Fe <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	EE(%)	Non-amended	EE (%)	nano-Fe <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	EE (%)
<b>Al</b>	172 ± 5	2.54	157 ± 28	2.31*	217 ± 17	2.66	185 ± 28	2.22
<b>As</b>	9.56 ± 0.08	16.0	7.3 ± 1.2*	12.3	141 ± 16	10.5	124 ± 20.0	9.21
<b>Ba</b>	1.57 ± 0.05	8.11	1.67 ± 0.20	8.63	60.5 ± 4.4	21.2	64.1 ± 8.2	22.4
<b>Cd</b>	0.06 ± 0.01	44.7	0.05 ± 0.01	36.1	0.43 ± 0.03	47.3	0.30 ± 0.03*	33.1*
<b>Cr</b>	0.15 ± 0.03	2.46	0.24 ± 0.03	3.86	0.32 ± 0.02	2.66	0.30 ± 0.02	1.66
<b>Cu</b>	3.47 ± 0.09	23.8	3.55 ± 0.55	24.3	99.7 ± 7.1	49.3	59.1 ± 6.3*	29.2*
<b>Fe</b>	455 ± 9	10.6	463 ± 76	10.7	544 ± 55	6.50	510 ± 72	6.10
<b>K</b>	<i>b.d.l.</i>	-	<i>b.d.l.</i>	-	101 ± 6	7.93	31.2 ± 3.4*	2.46*
<b>Mg</b>	20.0 ± 1.3	1.75	38.8 ± 8.2*	3.40	118 ± 12	10.9	72.4 ± 7.4*	6.68
<b>Mn</b>	4.72 ± 0.10	10.1	9.7 ± 1.4*	20.6*	11.2 ± 1.2	25.9	18.0 ± 1.8*	41.7*
<b>Ni</b>	0.31 ± 0.03	6.69	0.25 ± 0.04	5.51	0.66 ± 0.05	7.91	0.41 ± 0.01*	3.21*
<b>P</b>	58.9 ± 1.1	21.2	51.0 ± 7.2	18.3	91.4 ± 5.7	14.0	79.4 ± 9.3	12.2
<b>Pb</b>	9.72 ± 0.39	43.0	8.3 ± 1.1	36.8	206 ± 29	41.9	132 ± 17*	27.0*
<b>Sb</b>	<i>b.d.l.</i>	-	<i>b.d.l.</i>	-	0.59 ± 0.06	9.64	0.43 ± 0.06*	7.01*
<b>Zn</b>	7.93 ± 0.55	13.6	4.22 ± 0.79*	7.26	90.2 ± 6.5	23.2	52.6 ± 5.3*	17.0*

Data presented are mean ± SD (n ≥ 3); *b.d.l.* Below detection limit,. \* denote significant differences between non- and amended soils at  $p \leq 0.05$ .

**Table 3.** Contents and bioconcentration factor (BCF) of analyzed elements in leaves of barley plants exposed to studied soils (OECD soil as control, S1 and S2): non-amended and amended with nano-Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>.

Element	Units	OECD soil		S1		S2	
		Non-amended	nano-Fe <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	Non-amended	nano-Fe <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	Non-amended	nano-Fe <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>
<b>Leaves contents</b>							
Al	mg kg <sup>-1</sup>	40 ± 17	35 ± 10	41.7 ± 5.1	39 ± 12	34 ± 14	30 ± 15
As	mg kg <sup>-1</sup>	0.81 ± 0.15	0.35 ± 0.16*	5.2 ± 1.3	5.4 ± 1.4	20 ± 14	22 ± 9
Ba	mg kg <sup>-1</sup>	4.64 ± 0.93	4.4 ± 1.4	5.3 ± 1.15	5.51 ± 0.74	27.5 ± 9.2	30.9 ± 4.4
Cd	mg kg <sup>-1</sup>	<i>b.d.l.</i>	<i>b.d.l.</i>	0.26 ± 0.02	0.20 ± 0.03*	0.14 ± 0.06	0.14 ± 0.03
Cr	mg kg <sup>-1</sup>	0.58 ± 0.13	0.62 ± 0.29	0.77 ± 0.18	1.36 ± 0.95	3.44 ± 1.97	1.79 ± 0.88
Cu	mg kg <sup>-1</sup>	5.71 ± 0.79	6.3 ± 2.0	7.11 ± 0.34	7.9 ± 1.0	6.4 ± 2.3	8.6 ± 1.4
Fe	mg kg <sup>-1</sup>	59 ± 16	102 ± 9*	122 ± 29	95 ± 10	74 ± 8	90 ± 28
K	g kg <sup>-1</sup>	59.4 ± 7.1	52.6 ± 5.5	53.2 ± 5.5	48.4 ± 3.1	47 ± 10	54 ± 13
Mg	g kg <sup>-1</sup>	2.06 ± 0.36	2.03 ± 0.54	1.89 ± 0.58	1.90 ± 0.66	1.52 ± 0.29	1.62 ± 0.26
Mn	mg kg <sup>-1</sup>	51 ± 12	40 ± 24	74.7 ± 5.6	70.7 ± 7.1	15.5 ± 2.6	17.9 ± 2.3
Ni	mg kg <sup>-1</sup>	0.14 ± 0.04	0.17 ± 0.10	0.32 ± 0.07	0.25 ± 0.03	0.23 ± 0.01	0.16 ± 0.06
P	g kg <sup>-1</sup>	5.0 ± 1.0	4.2 ± 1.4	4.2 ± 1.1	3.58 ± 0.76	4.2 ± 1.9	2.60 ± 0.54
Pb	mg kg <sup>-1</sup>	0.40 ± 0.20	0.40 ± 0.12	0.51 ± 0.35	0.25 ± 0.10	1.4 ± 1.0	1.08 ± 0.42
Sb	mg kg <sup>-1</sup>	0.06 ± 0.06	0.02 ± 0.01	0.04 ± 0.01	0.05 ± 0.01	0.22 ± 0.01	0.03 ± 0.01*
Zn	mg kg <sup>-1</sup>	48.2 ± 6.8	48 ± 12	67.2 ± 4.2	47.7 ± 5.8*	50.2 ± 14	59 ± 12
<b>Element</b>		<b>Bioconcentration factor (BCF)</b>					
Al		n.d.	n.d.	0.01 ± 0.01	0.01 ± 0.01	0.01 ± 0.00	0.01 ± 0.00
As		n.d.	n.d.	0.09 ± 0.02	0.09 ± 0.02	0.01 ± 0.01	0.02 ± 0.01
Ba		n.d.	n.d.	0.27 ± 0.06	0.28 ± 0.04	0.10 ± 0.03	0.11 ± 0.02
Cd		n.d.	n.d.	1.53 ± 0.30	1.17 ± 0.39	0.16 ± 0.07	0.15 ± 0.03
Cr		n.d.	n.d.	0.12 ± 0.03	0.16 ± 0.16	0.28 ± 0.16	0.15 ± 0.07
Cu		n.d.	n.d.	0.49 ± 0.02	0.54 ± 0.07	0.03 ± 0.01	0.04 ± 0.01
Fe		n.d.	n.d.	0.03 ± 0.01	0.02 ± 0.00	0.01 ± 0.00	0.01 ± 0.00
Mn		n.d.	n.d.	1.59 ± 0.12	1.51 ± 0.15	0.36 ± 0.06	0.31 ± 0.21
Ni		n.d.	n.d.	0.07 ± 0.02	0.06 ± 0.01	0.03 ± 0.00	0.01 ± 0.01*
Pb		n.d.	n.d.	0.02 ± 0.02	0.01 ± 0.00	0.01 ± 0.00	0.01 ± 0.00
Sb		n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	n.d.	0.04 ± 0.00	0.01 ± 0.00*
Zn		n.d.	n.d.	1.16 ± 0.07	0.82 ± 0.10*	0.16 ± 0.04	0.19 ± 0.04

Data presented are mean ± SD. *n.d.* Not determined. *b.d.l.* Below detection limit. \* denote significant differences between non- and amended soils for each element at  $p \leq 0.05$ . The results of two-way ANOVA are shown in the supplementary material (Tables S1 and S2).



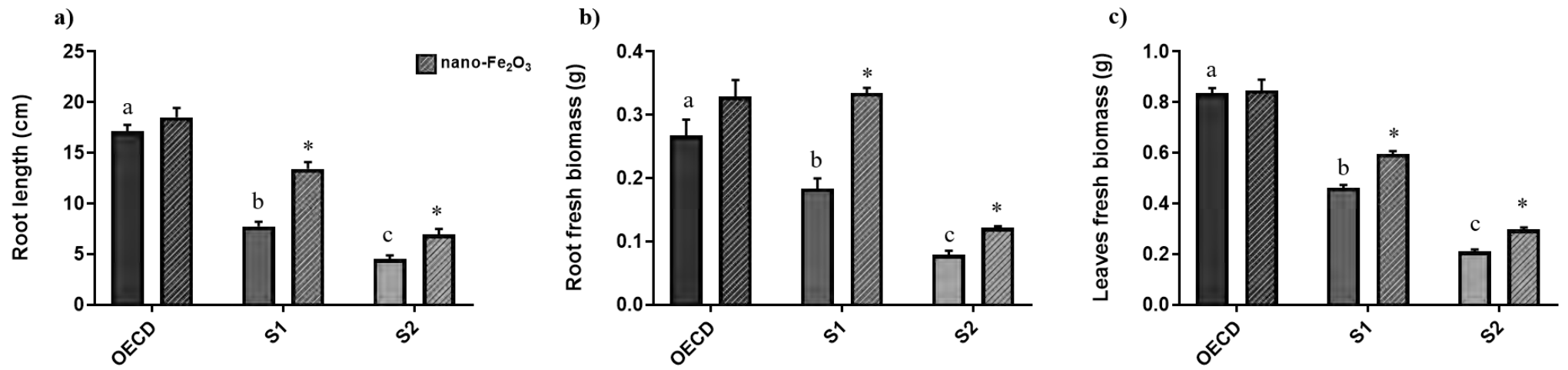


Figure 1.

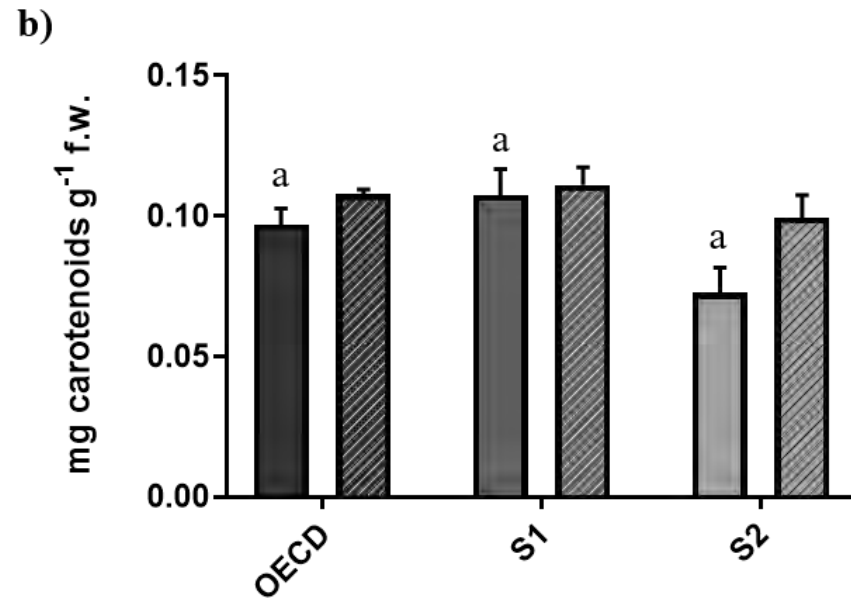
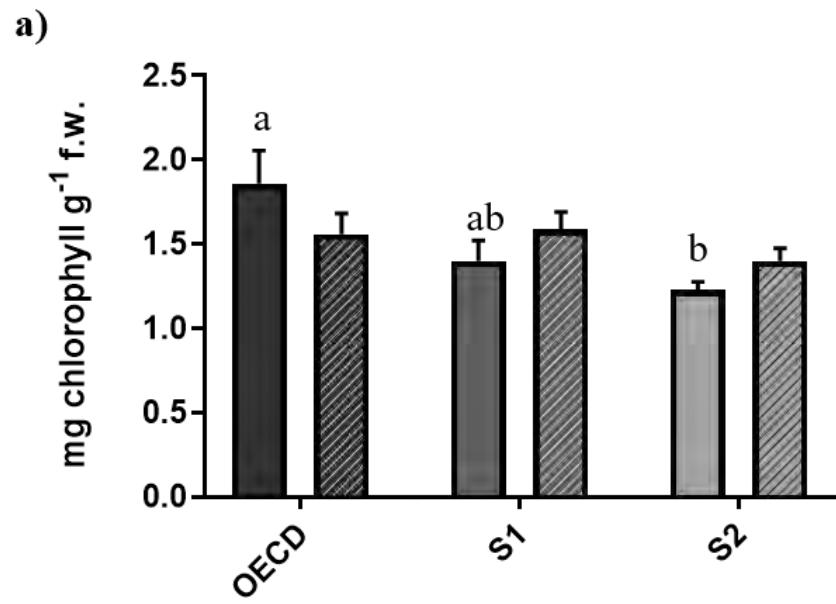


Figure 2.

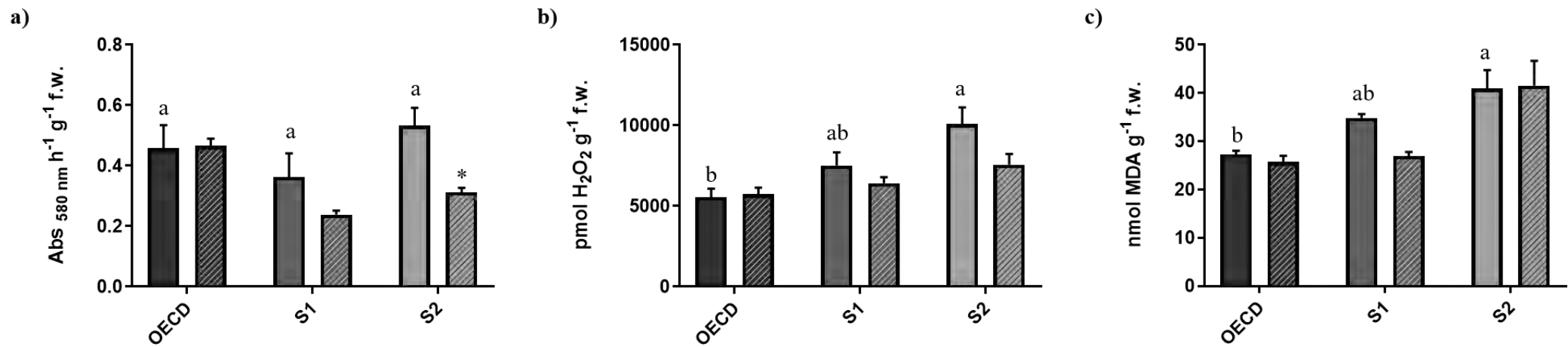
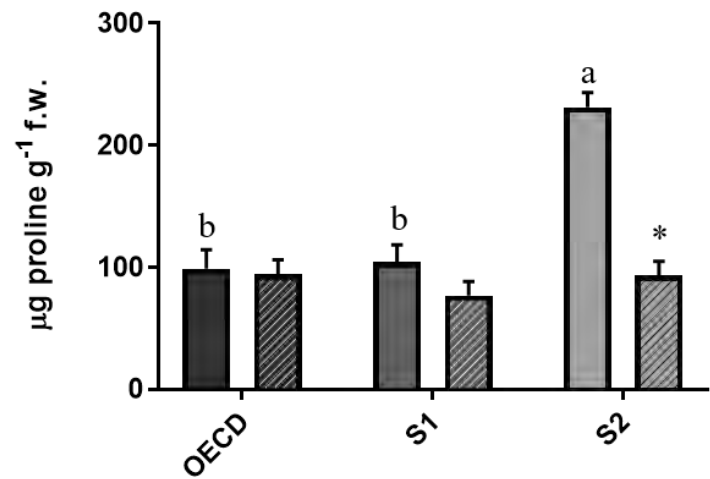
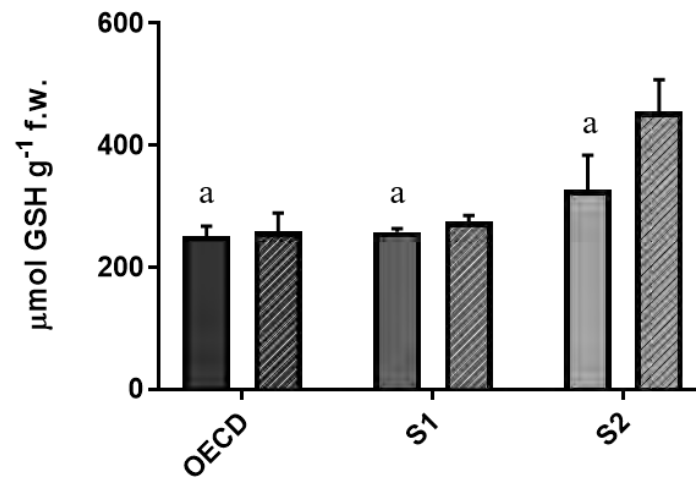


Figure 3.

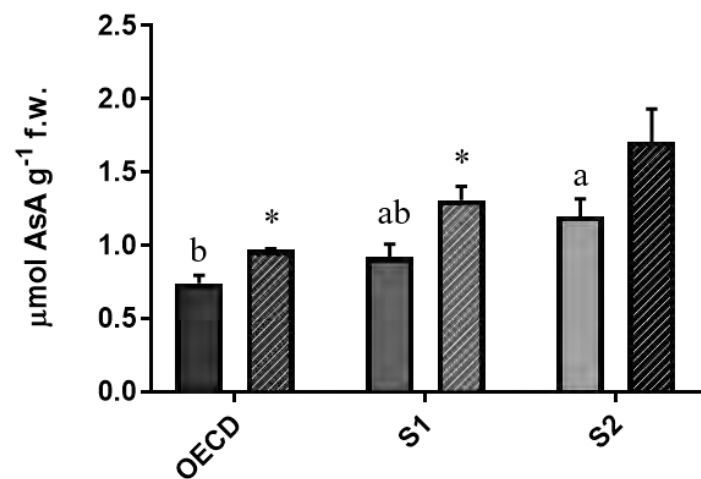
a)



b)



c)



d)

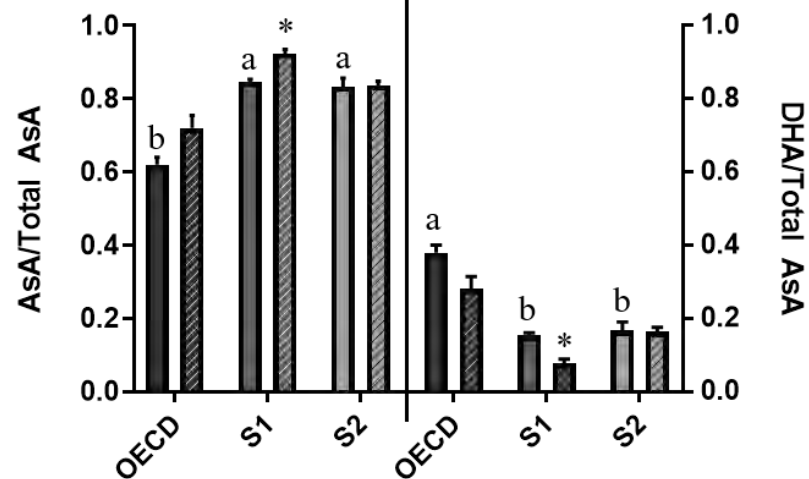


Figure 4.

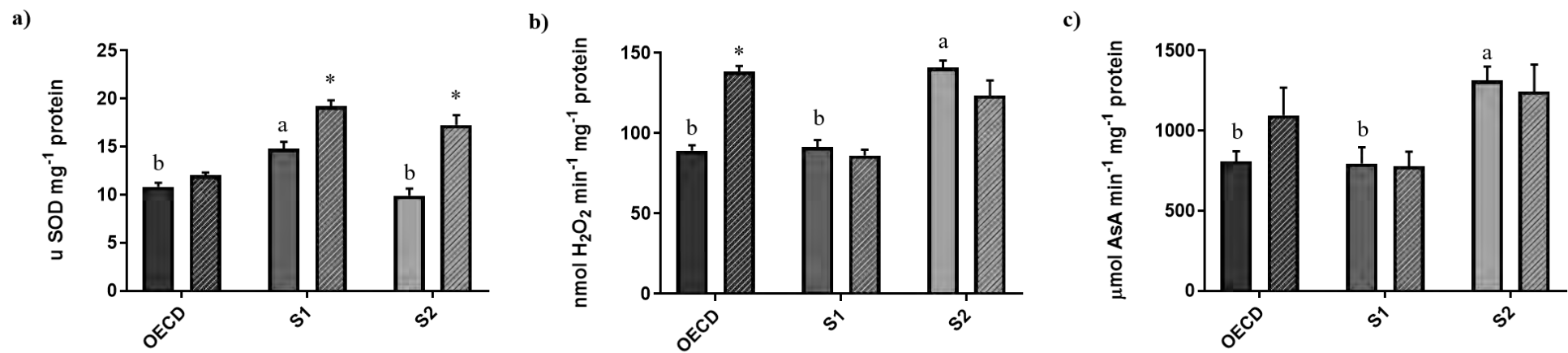


Figure 5.

## SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL

### **Nano-Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> as a tool to restore plant growth in contaminated soils - assessment of potentially toxic elements (bio)availability and redox homeostasis in *Hordeum vulgare* L.**

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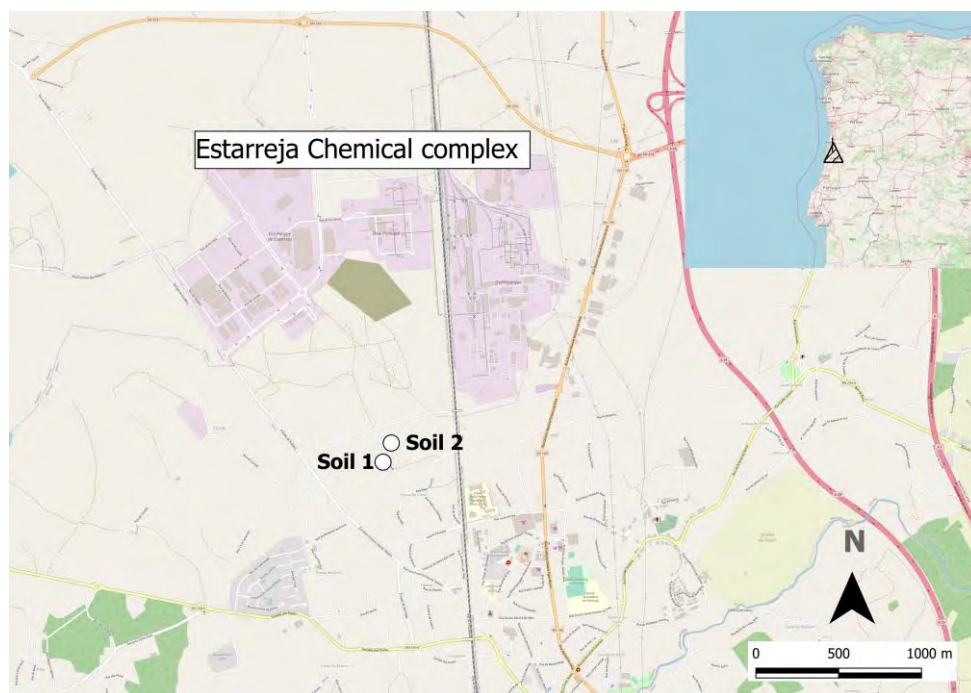
Andrés Rodríguez-Seijo ([andres.seijo@fc.up.pt](mailto:andres.seijo@fc.up.pt))

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**Figure S1.** Location of the Estarreja Chemical Complex and of the sampling sites



**Table S1.** Summary of two-way ANOVA statistical data with type of substrate and application of nano-Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> defined as fixed factors for PTEs contents in leaves. Significant effects are highlighted at bold.

Element	Factors		Interaction
	Type of substrate	Application of nano-Fe <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	
Al	F (2, 17) = 0.829 ; p = 0.4531	F (1, 17) = 0.424 ; p = 0.5235	F (2, 17) = 0.015 ; p = 0.9850
As	<b>F (2, 20) = 22.91 ; p &lt; 0.0001</b>	F (1, 20) = 0.04545 ; p = 0.833	F (2, 20) = 0.0734 ; p = 0.9295
Ba	<b>F (2, 19) = 92.36 ; p &lt; 0.0001</b>	F (1, 19) = 0.4364 ; p = 0.5168	F (2, 19) = 0.4633 ; p = 0.6362
Cd	<b>F (2, 20) = 132.3 ; p &lt; 0.0001</b>	<b>F (1,20) = 4.427 ; p = 0.0482</b>	F (2, 20) = 3.175 ; p = 0.0634
Cr	<b>F (2, 15) = 9.619 ; p = 0.0021</b>	F (1, 15) = 0.774 ; p = 0.3918	F (2, 15) = 2.828 ; p = 0.0908
Cu	F (2, 18) = 2.755 ; p = 0.0904	F (1, 18) = 3.811 ; p = 0.0667	F (2, 18) = 0.6195 ; p = 0.5493
Fe	<b>F (2, 21) = 4.210 ; p = 0.0290</b>	F (1, 21) = 1.440 ; p = 0.2428	<b>F (2, 21) = 5.003 ; p = 0.0167</b>
K	F (2, 18) = 1.126 ; p = 0.346	F (1, 18) = 0.2065 ; p = 0.6550	F (2, 18) = 1.770 ; p = 0.1987
Mg	F (2, 23) = 2.378 ; p = 0.1152	F (1, 23) = 0.029 ; p = 0.8655	F (2, 23) = 0.0498 ; p = 0.951
Mn	<b>F (2, 16) = 26.8 ; p &lt; 0.0001</b>	F (1, 16) = 0.5192 ; p = 0.4816	F (2, 16) = 0.4502 ; p = 0.6453
Ni	<b>F (2, 14) = 7.24 ; p = 0.0069</b>	F (1, 14) = 1.235 ; p = 0.283	F (2, 14) = 1.281 ; p = 0.3084
P	F (2, 19) = 2.25 ; p = 0.1318	F (1, 19) = 4.298 ; p = 0.0520	F (2, 19) = 0.4215 ; p = 0.6614
Pb	<b>F (2, 17) = 9.262 ; p = 0.0019</b>	F (1, 17) = 1.139 ; p = 0.3008	F (2, 17) = 0.30 ; p = 0.7381
Sb	<b>F (2, 13) = 16.39 ; p = 0.0003</b>	<b>F (1, 13) = 31.04 ; p &lt; 0.0001</b>	<b>F (2, 13) = 20.11 ; p = 0.0001</b>
Zn	F (2, 16) = 2.116 ; p = 0.1530	F (1, 16) = 0.8497 ; p = 0.3703	<b>F (2, 16) = 4.306 ; p = 0.0319</b>



**Table S2.** Summary of one-way ANOVA statistical data performed for each factor (type of substrate and application of nano-Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>) and for leaves contents. Significant effects are highlighted at bold. Empty spaces represent cases where 2-way ANOVA did not reveal significant differences for each factor. In cases where a significant interaction was found, the F value was adjusted to analyze the simple main effects of each fixed factor.

Element	Type of substrate	Application of nano-Fe <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>		
		OECD	S1	S2
Al	F (2,8) = 0.3314; p = 0.7273	F (1,6) = 0.223; p = 0.653	F (1,5) = 0.101; p = 0.763	F (1,6) = 0.130; p = 0.731
As	<b>F (2,9) = 6.56 ; p = 0.017</b>	<b>F (1,6) = 16.975 ; p = 0.006</b>	F (1,7) = 0.054 ; p = 0.822	F (1,7) = 0.66 ; p = 0.804
Ba	<b>F (2,9) = 23.56 ; p &lt; 0.0001</b>	F (1,6) = 0.092 ; p = 0.771	F (1,6) = 0.136 ; p = 0.725	F (1,7) = 0.544 ; p = 0.485
Cd	<b>F (2,9) = 58.92 ; p &lt; 0.0001</b>	-	<b>F (1,6) = 17.22 ; p = 0.006</b>	F (1,6) = 0.045 ; p = 0.839
Cr	<b>F (2,9) = 8.546 ; p = 0.010</b>	F (1,6) = 0.050 ; p = 0.830	F (1,6) = 1.612; p = 0.260	F (1,4) = 1.757 ; p = 0.256
Cu	F (2,9) = 0.967 ; p = 0.416	F (1,6) = 0.318 ; p = 0.593	F (1,6) = 2.326 ; p = 0.178	F (1,6) = 2.431 ; p = 0.170
Fe	F (2,9) = 7.63 ; p = 0.0083	<b>F (1,6) = 21.573 ; p = 0.04</b>	F (1,7) = 3.014 ; p = 0.126	F (1,8) = 0.778 ; p = 0.404
K	F (2,9) = 2.41 ; p = 0.145	F (1,6) = 2.298 ; p = 0.180	F (1,6) = 2.284 ; p = 0.181	F (1,6) = 0.771 ; p = 0.414
Mg	F (2,9) = 1.74; p = 0.219	F (1,8) = 0.012 ; p = 0.916	F (1,8) = 0.002 ; p = 0.967	F (1,7) = 0.334 ; p = 0.582
Mn	<b>F (2,7) = 37.442 ; p &lt; 0.0001</b>	F (1,6) = 0.08 ; p = 0.787	F (1,5) = 0.636 ; p = 0.461	F (1,4) = 1.420 ; p = 0.299
Ni	<b>F (2,9) = 9.079 ; p = 0.022</b>	F (1,5) = 0.269 ; p = 0.626	F (1,5) = 2.814; p = 0.154	F (1,4) = 2.151 ; p = 0.216
P	F (2,9) = 0.473 ; p = 0.638	F (1,6) = 0.906 ; p = 0.378	F (1,6) = 0.761; p = 0.416	F (1,7) = 3.008 ; p = 0.126
Pb	F (2,9) = 3.093 ; p = 0.101	F (1,6) = 0.000 ; p = 0.984	F (1,6) = 1.925 ; p = 0.215	F (1,5) = 0.357 ; p = 0.576
Sb	<b>F (2,9) = 17.775 ; p = 0.002</b>	F (1,6) = 0.762 ; p = 0.447	F (1,6) = 1.944 ; p = 0.222	<b>F (1,2) = 330.882 ; p = 0.003</b>
Zn	<b>F (2,9) = 5.95 ; p = 0.026</b>	F (1,6) = 0.01; p = 0.974	<b>F (1,6) = 29.376 ; p = 0.002</b>	F (1,4) = 0.692 ; p = 0.452

**Table S3.** Summary of two-way ANOVA statistical data with type of substrate and application of nano-Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> defined as fixed factors for the biochemical parameters. Significant effects are highlighted at bold.

Parameter	Factors		
	Type of substrate	Application of nano-Fe <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	Interaction
Root length	<b>F (2, 40) = 188.8; p &lt; 0.0001</b>	<b>F (1, 40) = 39.73; p &lt; 0.0001</b>	<b>F (2, 40) = 6.622; p = 0.0033</b>
Root biomass	<b>F (2, 24) = 77.00; p &lt; 0.0001</b>	<b>F (1, 24) = 38.01; p &lt; 0.0001</b>	<b>F (2, 24) = 5.837; p = 0.0086</b>
Leaf biomass	<b>F (2, 26) = 317.9; p &lt; 0.0001</b>	<b>F (1, 26) = 16.56; p = 0.0004</b>	<b>F (2, 26) = 3.712; p = 0.0382</b>
Total chlorophylls	<b>F (2, 14) = 4.941; p = 0.0238</b>	F (1, 14) = 0.04963; p = 0.8269	F (2, 14) = 2.560; p = 0.1129
Carotenoids	<b>F (2, 12) = 5.640; p = 0.0188</b>	<b>F (1, 12) = 5.586; p = 0.0358</b>	F (2, 12) = 1.391; p = 0.2862
H <sub>2</sub> O <sub>2</sub>	<b>F (2, 15) = 9.426; p = 0.0022</b>	F (1, 15) = 3.520; p = 0.0802	F (2, 15) = 1, 698; p = 0.2164
O <sub>2</sub> <sup>-</sup>	<b>F (2, 13) = 4.718; p = 0.0288</b>	<b>F (1, 13) = 6.604; p = 0.0233</b>	F (2, 13) = 2.306; p = 0.1390
Lipid peroxidation	<b>F (2, 20) = 16.97; p &lt; 0.0001</b>	F (1, 20) = 1.874; p = 0.1862	F (2, 20) = 1.323; p = 0.2885
Proline	<b>F (2, 20) = 14.26; p = 0.0001</b>	<b>F (1, 20) = 22.02; p = 0.0001</b>	<b>F (2, 20) = 12.47; p = 0.0001</b>
Total ascorbate	<b>F (2, 13) = 12.88; p = 0.0008</b>	<b>F (1, 13) = 14.68; p = 0.0021</b>	F (2, 13) = 0.7102; p = 0.5096
Relative AsA	<b>F (2, 12) = 60.49; p &lt; 0.0001</b>	<b>F (1, 12) = 12.90; p = 0.0037</b>	F (2, 12) = 3.040; p = 0.0855
Relative DHA	<b>F (2, 12) = 60.49; p &lt; 0.0001</b>	<b>F (1, 12) = 12.90; p = 0.0037</b>	F (2, 12) = 3.040; p = 0.0855
GSH	<b>F (2, 19) = 7.305; p = 0.0044</b>	F (1, 19) = 2.153; p = 0.1587	F (2, 19) = 1.424; p = 0.2654
SOD	<b>F (2, 13) = 35.51; p &lt; 0.0001</b>	<b>F (1, 13) = 60.66; p &lt; 0.0001</b>	<b>F (2, 13) = 9.828; p = 0.0025</b>
CAT	<b>F (2, 11) = 33.28; p &lt; 0.0001</b>	F (1, 11) = 3.874; p = 0.0748	<b>F (2, 11) = 19.01; p = 0.0003</b>
APX	<b>F (2, 11) = 9.975; p = 0.0034</b>	F (1, 11) = 0.5086; p = 0.4906	F (2, 11) = 1.267; p = 0.3197

**Table S4.** Summary of one-way ANOVA statistical data performed for each factor (type of substrate and application of nano-Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>) the biochemical parameters. Significant effects are highlighted at bold. Empty spaces represent cases where 2-way ANOVA did not reveal significant differences for each factor. In cases where a significant interaction was found, the F value was adjusted to analyze the simple main effects of each fixed factor.

Parameter	Type of substrate	Application of nano-Fe <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>		
		OECD	S1	S2
<b>Root length</b>	<b>F<sub>adj</sub> (2, 19) = 100.242; p &lt; 0.0001</b>	F <sub>adj</sub> (1, 11) = 2.154; p = 0.17	<b>F<sub>adj</sub> (1, 14) = 45.27; p &lt; 0.0001</b>	<b>F<sub>adj</sub> (1, 15) = 8.799; p &lt; 0.0001</b>
<b>Root biomass</b>	<b>F<sub>adj</sub> (2, 12) = 45.00; p &lt; 0.0001</b>	<b>F<sub>adj</sub> (1, 8) = 9.00; p = 0.017</b>	<b>F<sub>adj</sub> (1, 8) = 57.00; p &lt; 0.0001</b>	F <sub>adj</sub> (1, 7) = 5.00; p = 0.06
<b>Leaf biomass</b>	<b>F<sub>adj</sub> (2, 13) = 177.67; p &lt; 0.0001</b>	F <sub>adj</sub> (1, 9) = 0.00; p = 0.1	<b>F<sub>adj</sub> (1, 9) = 16.3; p &lt; 0.029</b>	<b>F<sub>adj</sub> (1, 8) = 5.6; p &lt; 0.045</b>
<b>Total chlorophylls</b>	<b>F (2, 7) = 5.392; p = 0.038</b>	-	-	-
<b>Carotenoids</b>	F (2, 6) = 4.848; p = 0.056	F (1, 4) = 3.334; p = 0.142	F (1, 4) = 0.108; p = 0.759	F (1, 4) = 4.897; p = 0.091
<b>H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub></b>	<b>F (2, 8) = 6.424; p = 0.022</b>	-	-	-
<b>O<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup></b>	F (2, 7) = 1.545; p = 0.278	F (1, 4) = 0.008; p = 0.931	F (1, 4) = 2.517; p = 0.188	<b>F (1, 5) = 9.870; p = 0.026</b>
<b>Lipid peroxidation</b>	<b>F (2, 10) = 9.264; p &lt; 0.005</b>	-	-	-
<b>Proline</b>	<b>F<sub>adj</sub> (2, 17) = 49.19; p &lt; 0.0001</b>	F <sub>adj</sub> (1, 6) = 0.032; p = 0.860	<b>F<sub>adj</sub> (1, 4) = 2.52; p = 0.19</b>	<b>F<sub>adj</sub> (1, 6) = 78.52; p &lt; 0.0001</b>
<b>Total ascorbate</b>	<b>F (2, 7) = 5.559; p = 0.036</b>	<b>F (1, 4) = 16.514; p = 0.015</b>	<b>F (1, 4) = 9.428; p = 0.037</b>	F (1, 5) = 4.725; p = 0.082
<b>Relative AsA</b>	<b>F (2, 6) = 47.478; p &lt; 0.0001</b>	F (1, 4) = 6.122; p = 0.069	<b>F (1, 4) = 31.118; p = 0.005</b>	F (1, 4) = 0.016; p = 0.905
<b>Relative DHA</b>	<b>F (2, 6) = 47.478; p &lt; 0.0001</b>	F (1, 4) = 6.122; p = 0.069	<b>F (1, 4) = 31.118; p = 0.005</b>	F (1, 4) = 0.016; p = 0.905
<b>GSH</b>	F (2, 6) = 4.210; p = 0.072	-	-	-
<b>SOD</b>	<b>F<sub>adj</sub> (2, 6) = 14.14; p = 0.005</b>	F <sub>adj</sub> (1, 4) = 1.511; p = 0.28	<b>F<sub>adj</sub> (1, 5) = 22.92; p = 0.0049</b>	<b>F<sub>adj</sub> (1, 4) = 65.73; p = 0.0013</b>
<b>CAT</b>	<b>F<sub>adj</sub> (2, 6) = 29.95; p = 0.0008</b>	<b>F<sub>adj</sub> (1, 3) = 34.09; p = 0.0043</b>	<b>F<sub>adj</sub> (1, 4) = 0.47; p = 0.530</b>	F <sub>adj</sub> (1, 4) = 5.26; p = 0.08
<b>APX</b>	<b>F (2, 6) = 16.349; p = 0.004</b>	-	-	-