

# Mitigating cadmium exposure risk in rice with foliar nano-selenium: Investigations through Caco-2 human cell line in-vivo bioavailability assay

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1	Mitigating cadmium exposure risk in rice with foliar nano-selenium:
2	Investigations through Caco-2 human cell line in-vivo bioavailability assay
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#### Abstract

The contamination of paddy fields by cadmium and lead is a major issue in China. 24 The consumption of rice grown in heavy metals contaminated areas poses severe health 25 risks to humans, where bioavailability and bioaccessibility remains the critical factor 26 for risk determination. Selenium nanoparticles (Se-NPs) can mitigate the toxicity of 27 heavy metals in plants. However, there exists limited information regarding the role of 28 Se-NPs in dictating cadmium (Cd) toxicity in rice for human consumption. Moreover, 29 the impact of Se-NPs under simultaneous field and laboratory controlled conditions is 30 rarely documented. To address this knowledge gap, a field experiment was conducted 31 followed by laboratory scale bioavailability assays. Foliar application of Se-NPs and 32 selenite (at 5, 10 mg L<sup>-1</sup>) was performed to assess their efficiency in lowering Cd 33 accumulation, promoting Se biofortification in rice grains, and evaluating Cd exposure 34 risk from contaminated rice. Obtained results indicate that foliar treatments 35 significantly reduced the heavy metal accumulation in rice grains. Specifically, Se-NP 36 10 mg L<sup>-1</sup> demonstrated higher efficiency, reducing Cd and Pb by 56 and 32 % 37 respectively. However, inconsistent trends for bioavailable Cd (0.03 mg kg<sup>-1</sup>) and 38 bioaccessible (0.04 mg kg<sup>-1</sup>) were observed while simulated human rice intake. 39 Furthermore, the foliage application of Se-NPs and selenite improved rice quality by 40 elevating Se, Zn, Fe, and protein levels, while lowering phytic acid content in rice 41 grains. In summary, this study suggests the promising potential of foliage spraying of 42 Se-NPs in lowering the health risks associated with consuming Cd-contaminated rice. 43 Keywords: Cadmium, Caco-2 cell line, In-vitro assays, Laboratory try-out, 44

45 Nanoparticles, Selenium.

#### 46 **1. Introduction**

Currently, the contamination of heavy metals, specifically cadmium (Cd) and lead 47 (Pb) in Chinese soils has reached a critical level. The national soil pollution survey of 48 China (2014) indicated that approximately 19% of soils are contaminated with heavy 49 metals, exceeding the established soil quality standards. It is widely recognized that 50 plant roots can easily absorb soil-available Cd and Pb, which are subsequently 51 transported to above-ground parts, posing a potential threat to human health via food 52 chain (Lin et al., 2022; Xiao et al., 2024). Rice is a staple food for over 50 % of the 53 global community, with the capacity to assimilate heavy metals in paddy fields, thereby 54 transferring them to grains even at low concentrations (Hamid et al., 2023). The 55 56 accumulation of Cd and Pb in edible parts of crops presents a potential risk to human health (Zhang et al., 2022). 57

Selenium (Se) is a crucial micronutrient known for its essential role in various 58 functions across humans, animals, and other organisms. (Islam et al., 2020; Wang et al., 59 2023). Its deficiency in soils leads to insufficient intake of Se, resulting in a variety of 60 diseases, including cancer, heart diseases, Kashin-Beck disease, and compromised 61 immunity among individuals residing in Se-deficient regions (Fang et al., 2019). Se 62 deficiency affects 72 % of China's overall land area, with rice grains showing a reduced 63 Se content of about 20 µg kg<sup>-1</sup> (Dinh et al., 2018; Song et al., 2023). Consequently, 64 Chinese individuals have an average daily Se intake (26-34 µg) that falls significantly 65 below the recommended range of 55-85 µg for adults (Ramakrishnan et al., 2022). 66

Previous studies have demonstrated that Se has the potential to alleviate the toxic effects of heavy metals in plants (Hussain et al., 2020; Kieliszek and Sandoval, 2023).
For example, Se application in a hydroponic experiment prominently reduced the Cd concentration in rice plants (Zhao et al., 2023), simultaneously, reducing the accumulation of the heavy metals in rice grains cultivated in contaminated farmland (Li et al., 2022).

Nanotechnology has emerged as an evolving and swiftly advancing tool kit with 73 novel applications in food science, agriculture and medicine (Usman et al., 2020; Zhu 74 et al., 2022). For instance, foliage application of nano-Se has shown potential in 75 effectively reducing the Cd accumulation in pepper and brassica nappus plant by 76 inhibiting the Cd translocation in solution culture experiments (li et al., 2022; Zhu et al., 77 2022). It has been documented that nano-Se possesses remarkable bioavailability and 78 lower toxicity compared to selenite or selenate, proving to be a promising material for 79 utilization in both biological and nano-technological realms, particularly for enhancing 80 crop nutrition and protection, as well as increasing Se bioavailability with its foliar 81 application (Hussain et al., 2020). Se-NPs have garnered attention for their role in 82 mitigating the effects of heavy metals through various physiological processes 83 (Kamran et al., 2020). The Se fertilizer can mitigate the negative effects caused by 84 reactive oxygen species by enhancing the defense mechanisms (Ran et al., 2024). 85 Barman and Kundu, (2023) reported that Se supplementation resulted in reduced Cd 86 concentration and oxidative damage in plants by enhancing antioxidant enzymatic 87 activity. Meanwhile, examinations numerous have reported that foliage 88

supplementation of Se-NPs down regulates the Cd transporter proteins in rice leaves 89 and peduncles (Wang et al., 2020). Foliage supplementation of Se down-regulates 90 OsLCT1, osNramp5 expressions and up-regulates the OsHMA3 proteins to detoxify Cd 91 in vacuolar (Nedjimi, 2024). The Cd transporter proteins, including OsLCT1, OsCCx2, 92 and OsHMA2 in leaves and peduncles, were down regulated with increasing Se-NPs 93 and Si concentrations (Barman and Kundi, 2023). 94

However, significant research gaps exist regarding the effects of nano-fertilization 95 of Se on Se and Cd bioavailability in human simulated model (Caco-2 cells approach), 96 97 as well as reduced Cd toxicity in rice grains, particularly under field conditions followed by laboratory bioaccessibility/bioavailability assay. Although, in vivo studies 98 are ideal for addressing the Se and Cd bioavailability in human body, their intricate 99 nature and high cost restricts their large-scale applications (Khanum and Platel, 2019). 100 Therefore, to overcome the cost issue, an in vitro/Caco-2 approach can more accurately 101 depict the actual availability of Se and Cd to humans, serving as an alternative to in vivo 102 studies. Lin et al. (2022) found that foliar supplementation of nano-Zn to rice crops 103 decreased the potential health hazards associated with Cd pollution, as demonstrated by 104 in vitro bioaccessibility and in vivo bioavailability assessments. 105

Therefore, a field study was conducted to evaluate the impact of various dosages of 106 foliar-applied sodium selenite (Na<sub>2</sub>SeO<sub>3</sub>) and laboratory-prepared Se-NPs on heavy 107 metal accumulation in rice grown in contaminated farmland. This study aims to (i) 108 reduce the accumulation of Cd and Pb in rice grains while simultaneously enhancing Se 109 biofortification, (ii) comparatively assess the effectiveness of selenite and Se-NPs on 110

111	Se	and	Cd	bioavailability	in	rice	grains	(evidenced	through
112	bioa	ccessibi	lity/bio	availability assay	), and	(iii)	compare	the response o	of sodium
113	seler	nite and	Se-NPs	s on Cd and Pb tran	slocati	on fro	m flag lea	ves to rice grains	, and their
114	impa	ict on th	e orgar	nic and in-organic	Se proj	portion	ns in rice g	grains.	

115

### 2. Materials and methods

### 116 2.1 Synthesis and characterization of selenium nanoparticles(Se-NPs)

Se-NPs were synthesized by a chemical reduction approach, following a slightly 117 modified protocol from Hussain et al. (2020). In summary, a 0.01 M solution of sodium 118 119 dodecyl sulfate (SDS) was formulated in ultra-pure water to ensure a final concentration at maximum capacity. While selenous acid was prepared by dissolving 120 SeO<sub>2</sub> (Sigma) and the reducing agent was made by dissolving Na<sub>2</sub>S<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>.5H<sub>2</sub>O in the 121 SDS solution, with a 5.20 mM concentration. To examine the effect of varying 122 concentrations of different reducing agents on particle size, a concentration of 156 mM 123 for the reducing agent was tested. The reducing agent was slowly added drop by drop to 124 125 the selenous acid solution and the resulting mixture was then allowed to completely reduce for a sufficient time after each reaction. The solution was consistently stirred 126 with a magnetic stirrer throughout the reduction reaction. 127

The size of various Se-NPs was assessed through transmission electron microscopy
(TEM, USA). To eliminate excess compounds like SDS, the colloids underwent initial
flocculation treatment. The elemental analysis of various colloids was conducted using
EDX spectroscopy (X'Pert PRO, Netherlands).

132 The NanoPlus (Zeta Potential & particle size estimation Analyzer, Norcross GA, USA)

was utilized to assess the zeta potential of Se-NPs. In summary, the sample was diluted 133 and sonicated for a sufficient amount of time to optimize particle dispersion. 134 Subsequently, the samples were transferred to the electrode cell, and measurements 135 were performed at a 90° angle with 25°C temperature. 136

2.2 Site description 137

A field experiment was conducted in the Qujiang county, Zhejiang China (30°35'19" N, 138 114°55'28" E), which experiences an average annual temperature of 17.31°C and 139 annual rainfall of 1665.6 millimeters. The soil in this area has been contaminated with 140 Cd due to waste water flooding and continuous use of chemical fertilizers. Total Cd and 141 Pb contents in soil were 0.83 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> and 104.46 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> respectively (Lin et al., 2024), 142 exceeding the standard parameters of the Soil Environmental Quality Standards of 143 China. Standard procedures for soil analysis as described by (Bao, 2008), were 144 followed and are outlined in Table 1. 145

#### 2.3 Experimental design 146

The experiment was arranged in a (RCBD) layout with plot sizes of 20 m<sup>2</sup>, 147 consisting of three replications. Seedlings of the late rice variety SM-728 were cultured 148 by the end of May and transplanted after one month of growth. Uniform fertilizer 149 application and cultural practices were maintained across all plots throughout the 150 experiment. Se treatments comprised of lab-prepared Se-NPs and selenite, each 151 administered at two doses of 5 mg L<sup>-1</sup> and 10 mg L<sup>-1</sup> (Se-NPs 5, Se-NPs 10, selenite 5, 152 and selenite 10), along with a control (CK). Foliar application was performed twice 153 using a motorized boom sprayer at the tillering and booting stages on the plant surface, 154

 $m^2$ /plot) were assessed in the field at the time of harvesting. Plant samples were rinsed

157 twice with ulta-pure water and then separated into roots, shoots, and grains for 158 subsequent laboratory analysis.

159 **2.4 Plant analysis** 

155

156

The total contents of Cd and Pb in grains, shoots and roots were determined by digesting 0.2 g of ground samples with a mixture of HNO<sub>3</sub> and HClO<sub>4</sub> (5:1, v/v) for 6 h at 150°C. The mixture was then cooled, diluted to 25 mL with ultra-pure water and the concentration of heavy metals, as well as macro and micro-nutrients (Cu, Fe, Mg, Mn, and Zn) was measured using ICP-MS (Bao, 2008).

### 165 **2.5 Determination of Se contents in grains**

The determination of the total Se contents in the rice grains was assessed by 166 digesting dried rice powder (0.2 g) with HNO<sub>3</sub>-HClO<sub>4</sub> (4:1) at 60°C for 30 min, 167 followed by an additional 60 min at 100°C. Subsequently, 2.5 mL of the acid mixture 168 was added and heated to 150°C until a brown fog initially appeared, followed by the 169 later emergence of a white fog in the tubes. The tubes containing digestion mixture was 170 cooled to 100°C and 6 mM HCl (2.5 mL) was added to convert SeO42- to SeO32-, 171 followed by further heating at 100°C until the disappearance of the brown fog. The 172 volume was calibrated and analyzed using AFS for Se determination (Sun et al., 2013). 173 The concentrations of inorganic and organic Se in rice grains were determined by 174 mixing 1 g of grain flour with 30 mL of distilled water in an Erlenmeyer flask, 175 sonicated for 30 min and subsequently centrifuging for 10 min at 5000 rpm. The 176

supernatant liquid was gathered and 5 mL of cyclohexane was introduced to the 177 solution, after 4 h water phase was collected in a beaker. The 6 mM HCl was introduced 178 to the solution and heated for 2-3 min. Subsequently, the solution was diluted with 179 distilled water to achieve a final volume of 10 mL and underwent to AFS for Se 180 determination (Hussain et al., 2020). 181

The total concentration of Se in soil was measured using a similar methodology to that 182 used for rice grains, except for the use of HNO<sub>3</sub>-HClO<sub>4</sub> (in a ratio of 3:2, v/v) for 183 digestion. 184

#### 2.6 Cd and Se bioavailability assays 185

Recently, in vivo/in vitro procedures to examine the gastrointestinal digestion, nutrient 186 and contaminants absorption in the human intestine through physiological oriented 187 extraction assays and human cell line (Caco-2) have gained attraction (Tang et al., 188 2020). 189

#### In vitro-digestion of rice sample: 190

Cd and Se bio-accessibility in rice grains was evaluated using an in vitro 191 bioaccessibility assay with slight modifications (Lin et al., 2023). The rice powder (5g) 192 was immersed in 15 mL of buffer solution and the pH was adjusted to 2. It was then 193 incubated for 2 h at 37°C for complete digestion of rice powder, followed by the 194 addition of 0.5 mL pepsin solution. 195

Prior to start gastrointestinal digestion of the rice samples the pH was raised to 5 by 196

adding 1 M sodium bicarbonate. A solution containing 2.5 mL of pancreatin bile was 197

then supplemented in the samples, followed by another 2h of incubation. Subsequently, 198

199	the pH was adjusted to 7.2 with 0.5 M sodium hydro-oxide. After digestion, the
200	samples were centrifuged at 3500 rpm for 1 h at 4°C, and the supernatant was gathered,
201	filtered, and stored at -20°C for subsequent analysis.
202	The Se concentrations in the samples were measured using AFS, while the Cd
203	concentration was measured using ICP-MS. Subsequently, the bioaccessibility was
204	calculated using the formula described by Hussain et al. (2020):
205	Bioaccesibility (%)
206	$= \left[\frac{(\text{Se or Cd Conc.})\text{in vitro digestion sol.} \times \text{Vol.} (\mu g)\text{total vol of in vitro digestion sol.}}{(\text{Se &Cd Conc.})\text{cooked polished rice} \times \text{Weight of cooked rice}(\mu g)}\right] \times 100$

207 *Cell Culture:* 

The assay employed Caco-2 cells, purchased from the cell biology institute (Shanghai, China), which had undergone 10-14 aisles of growth. After culturing the cells in 25 cm<sup>2</sup> flasks with specialized growth medium (Aziz et al., 2015), they were subjected to incubation with 5 % carbon dioxide at 37°C and after every 48 h, the growth medium was changed.

For the bioavailability of Se and Cd, Caco-2 cells were sub-cultured in 6 trans-well 213 plates treated with trypsin solution. 2.5 mL of complete DMEM was added to the 214 basolateral compartment and 1.5 mL were added to the permeable polycarbonate filters 215 (0.4 um pore size). The Caco-2 cell cultures were maintained for 10 days to achieve a 216 217 stable growth for optimal functional differentiation, with the medium being refreshed every 2 days. Before the uptake experiment, the cultured medium was replaced, both 218 the mono and basolateral compartments were rinsed twice with phosphate-buffered 219 saline at 37°C to remove unattached adherent cells from the layer. 220

221	Rice grain solution 1.5 mL was introduced into the apical compartment and 2.5 mL of
222	standard solution was added to the basolateral part. The solution from the basolateral
223	compartment was collected after 2 h of incubation to determine the Se and Cd in the
224	transport solution. The biovailability in the Caco-2 cells was calculated (Aziz et al.,
225	2015) as follows.
226	Bioavailability(%)
227	= 1
228	$-\left[\frac{(SeorCdConc.) apical chmaber after transp. \times Vol. (\mu g) washing sol.}{(Se\&CdConc.) apical chamber before transp. \times Vol. added digestion sol. (\mu g)}\right]$
229	$\times$ 100 $\times$ Bioaccessibility
230	The concentration of Cd in cell retention samples was analyzed using ICP-MS (Hussain
231	et al., 2020), while the Se concentration was assessed using AFS.
232	2.7 Rice quality parameters
233	Phytic acid was quantified using the method established by Hussain et al. (2020)
234	with specific modifications. A 0.5 g sample of rice flour was subjected to extraction
235	with 10 mL of 0.2 M HCl, the mixture was shaken for 2h on a rotary shaker and then
236	centrifuged for 10 min at 10,000 rpm. The supernatant solution of 2.5 mL was then

mixed with 2mL of 0.2% iron chloride, after heating on a water bath for 30 min, the

solution was cooled and centrifuged at 10000 rpm for 15 min.

The upper layer of liquid was discarded and the remaining residue washed thrice with distilled water. Subsequently, 3 mL of 1.5 M sodium hydo-oxide was added and centrifuged. The supernatant was discarded and the residue was then subjected to 3 mL of 0.5 M hydro chloride to solubilize the residues. The volume was adjusted to 10 mL

243	by diluting with ultra-pure water. The Fe contents were analyzed using ICP-MS. The
244	phytic acid content was determined by multiplying the Fe content by a factor of 4.2.
245	The Kjeldahl method, based on total nitrogen, was employed to determine the protein
246	content in rice powder, following the protocol described by Lin et al. (2023).
247	2.8 Metal translocation factors
248	The factor of translocation for heavy metals was computed using the formula outlined
249	by Hamid et al. (2019).
251	Translocation factor (TF %) (Shoot – Grain) = $\frac{\text{Cd or Pb conc. in grains}}{\text{Cd or Pb conc. in shoot}} X 100$
250	
252	Translocation factor(TF %)(Root – Shoot) = $\frac{\text{Cd or pb conc. in shoot}}{\text{Cd or Pb conc. in roots}} X 100$
253	2.9 Statistical analysis
254	The data were analyzed using Excel software and presented as the means of three
255	replicates ( $\pm$ SE). Treatment means were distinguished through one-way ANOVA with
256	LSD's test ( $P < 0.05$ ). Principal component analysis (PCA) and correlations were
257	systematically performed by using R studio (version 6) to elucidate the relationship of
258	the dataset. Graphical representations were generated using Origin Pro 24.
259	3. Results and discussion
260	3.1 Characterization of Se-NPs
261	The TEM images (Fig 1A) revealed an average particle size diameter of $18.74 \pm 3.2$
262	nm. Moreover, EDX analysis illustrated the elemental proportions in the final
263	suspension (Fig 1B-I), which accounted for carbon (C) at 27 %, oxygen (O) at 25%, Ca
264	at 0.05 %, Mg at 0.1 %, and Se at 25.55 %. The dots indicate the presence of elements in

265 distinct colors.

The zeta potential (ZP) for the Se-NPs varied between -15 to 35 mV, indicating that the produced NPs are highly stable particles. Particles with a ZP ranging from -30 to +30 are considered as highly stable (Arshad et al., 2024).

### 269 **3.2 Grain and biological yield of rice**

The foliar application of selenite and Se-NPs had a non-significant effect on the biological yield of rice (Figure 2). The average biological yield was 8381 kg ha<sup>-1</sup>, with the highest recorded at 8575 and 8440 kg ha<sup>-1</sup> for Se-NPs 10 and Se-NPs 5, respectively,

while the CK showed lowest biological yield (8305 kg ha<sup>-1</sup>).

The application of Se-NPs 10 and selenite 10 resulted in a significant increase of 9% 274 and 5%, respectively, in rice grain yield. The maximum grain yield was recorded with 275 the Se-NPs 10 treatment (6183 kg ha<sup>-1</sup>), where as CK had the lowest grain production of 276 5663 kg ha<sup>-1</sup>. The non-significant effects of foliar treatments on the biological yield of 277 rice are consistent with previous experiments conducted in hydroponic culture, where 278 Se application to the nutrient solution did not improve the biomass of rice seedlings 279 (Farooq et al., 2022). Nevertheless, Yan et al. (2024) indicated an increase in grain yield 280 following the supplementation of Se at the dough stage of wheat. Our study results 281 revealed a significant increase in rice grain yield with the foliage application of 282 Se-NPs10 compared to the control (CK), highlighting the positive impact of Se 283 application on grain yield (Hussain et al., 2020). Moreover, a substantial correlation 284 was noted between the Se concentration and grain yield, which was also confirmed by 285 PCA analysis, indicating a positive relationship between these parameters (Figure 8, 9). 286

In a recent study, Wang et al. (2023) also demonstrated an increase in rice yield with the application of optimized Se during vegetative growth. Therefore, foliar application of Se fertilizers has a beneficial effect on grain yield, with no observable impact on the biological yield.

### 291 **3.3** Cd and Pb uptake and accumulation in different parts of rice

The results regarding the Cd and Pb accumulation in rice roots showed 292 non-significant effects with Se-NPs and selenite application (Figure 3B & 3C). The 293 average concentration of Cd and Pb concentration in rice roots were 4.65 and 15.27 mg 294 kg<sup>-1</sup>, respectively. Meanwhile, foliar applications of Se-NPs and selenite led to decrease 295 Cd and Pb accumulation in both leaves and rice grains (Figure 3A). Specifically, foliar 296 application of Se-NPs 10 tended to reduce the accumulation of Cd and Pb in grains by 297 56% and 32%, respectively and leaves by 37% and 26%, respectively, compared to CK. 298 Furthermore, selenite 10 exhibited higher efficiency in effectively reducing Pb contents 299 in leaves, achieving a reduction of 29% compared to the CK. 300

301 It is widely acknowledged that studying the accumulation and translocation of Cd and Pb in rice can contribute significantly to understanding the mechanisms of heavy 302 metals accumulation in plants, especially with the application of foliar treatments at 303 various plant growth stages (Huang et al., 2022). Therefore, the results of 304 comprehensive investigations into the application of foliar Se at critical growth stages 305 of rice plants, such as tillering and booting, revealed a significant decrease in Cd 306 content in rice tissues, particularly with Se-NPs 10 and Se-NPs 5 (Fig. 3). With Se 307 treatment, there was a noticeable downward trend in Cd and Pb accumulation in the 308

roots as compared to the CK, indicating a greater retention of these metals in the roots
(Fig.4). Furthermore, the proportion of Cd and Pb in leaves and polished grains was
lower than in the CK after Se treatment (Fig. 4), suggesting that Se might inhibit the
translocation of Cd and Pb to aboveground plant parts.

Excessive Pb has been reported to potentially exert negative effects on the activity 313 of defensive enzymes and the production of ROS species in plants. Consequently, this 314 may result in an increased production of ROS, serving as a protective mechanism 315 against Pb accumulation (Li et al., 2019). Furthermore, elevated levels of Pb can 316 influence oxidative stress by promoting the formation of hydroxyl radicals, H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> and 317 ROS (Alyemni et al., 2018). Se has the ability to reduce Pb accumulation in plants by 318 alleviating oxidative stress. For instance, Tang et al. (2020) reported foliage 319 supplementation of Se decreased the Cd and Pb levels in water spinach by reducing the 320 production the free radicals and H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>. Similarly, Hussain et al. (2020) supplemented 321 the rice with Se and observed a 52.9% reduction in Pb concentration, thus mitigating 322 oxidative stress. Moreover, Se supplementation significantly reduced Pb accumulation 323 in sage (Bakhtiari et al., 2023), highlighting the beneficial effect of Se in mitigating 324 heavy metals toxicity (Zhu et al., 2022). The combination of Se and Si applied to 325 foliage exhibited a reduction in Pb accumulation by alleviating oxidative stress 326 (Alyemeni et al., 2018). This suggests the necessity for further research to explore the 327 inhibitory or regulatory role of Se in gene expression. 328

#### 329 **3.4** Effects of foliar treatments on translocations of metals

The translocation (TFs) of Cd and Pb in different parts of plants varied with foliar

treatments (Figure 4). The highest TF (root-shoot) was observed in CK, followed by 331 selenite 10. In the case of Cd TF (shoot-grain), selenite 10 exhibited the highest 332 translocation by 38.2%, while Se-NP10 showed 19% translocation for Cd. However, 333 there was no significant difference in Pb translocation among different foliar treatment 334 and CK. It was observed that TF root-shoot and accumulation factor exhibited a 335 declining trend for both heavy metals (Figure 4), suggesting the inhibited translocation 336 of Cd and Pb to aboveground tissues of rice. Rice tends to accumulate higher levels of 337 Cd and Pb when cultivated in contaminated soil. However, foliar treatment with 338 Se-NP10 and Se-NP5 has demonstrated effectiveness in retaining Cd in the shoot, 339 functioning as a measure to reduce the excessive movement of Cd in rice grains (Lian et 340 al., 2022). Our findings also indicated a decrease in Cd and Pb translocation to rice 341 grains with foliar application, thereby suggesting mechanism for alleviating heavy 342 metals accumulation, such as enrichment in roots and inhibition of their translocation to 343 aboveground plant parts. 344

345 In this study, we noted that the foliar supplementation of Se-NP inhibits the movement of heavy metals from root to shoots, as well as from shoots to the rice grains. 346 Nano Se may sequester Cd and Pb in the plant tissue, reducing their mobility and 347 availability (Zhu et al., 2022). Consequently, Nano Se lowers the accumulation of these 348 metals in edible plant parts, thus reducing associated health risks for humans (Wang et 349 al., 2023). These findings are directly linked to phytoremediation of the heavy metals, 350 involving plants removing heavy metals form soil and sequestering them within plant 351 cells by forming complexes or immobilizing them in plant cell wall (Tang et al., 2020). 352

The effect of Se-NPs is that they can enhance the effectiveness of phytoremediation 353 efforts, with inhibition of translocation being a crucial mechanism for reducing the 354 bioavailability of these heavy metals in plants. This mitigates the impact of heavy 355 metals on humans and thus reduces the health risk associated with Cd exposure. 356 Coupling phytoremediation with agro-production represents a significant advancement 357 in sustainable agriculture and environmental management. This offers a dual benefit, 358 farmers generate revenue through agro-production, while the environment benefits 359 from natural remediation as it cleans up contaminated soils and simultaneously 360 enhances agricultural productivity. 361

### 362 **3.5** Se concentration and speciation in rice grains

The Se contents in brown rice increased dramatically in a dose dependent manner 363 with foliar application of various treatments (Figure 5). The Se concentration in brown 364 rice was 0.29 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> for Se-NP10 and 0.02 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> in the control (CK). It was 365 observed that the total concentration of organic Se in brown rice increased with higher 366 Se contents of foliar treatments. However, no notable difference in inorganic Se 367 concentration was observed among all treatments except CK. It was found that CK 368 exhibited the highest inorganic Se concentration at 35%. The results showed that 369 approximately 80% of the absorbed Se was in the form of organic Se in all treatments 370 except CK, suggesting that the species derived from foliar fertilizer have a significant 371 impact on the Se contents (Deng et al., 2017). Foliar application of Se-NPs during the 372 heading stage has been shown to transform inorganic Se into organic Se, thereby 373 increasing Se contents in cereal crops like rice and wheat grains (Hussain et al., 2020; 374

### Viltres-Portales et al., 2024). However, there are reports indicating that the primary 375 portion of Se, assimilated from the soil to the plant, remains inorganic (Kieliszek and 376 377 Serrano-Sandoval, 2023). Se is absorbed by rice plants form soil, organic Se is primarily retained in the roots, 378 whereas SeIV and SeVI are transferred to the shoots (Kong et al., 2023). The primary 379 component of organic Se is selenomethionine, which constitutes 61-98 % of the total 380 absorbed organic Se (Zeng et al., 2023). The presence of organic Se in the edible 381 portion of plant is of significant importance, as Se is an essential micronutrient for 382 various biological functions in living organisms (Kushwaha et al., 2021). 383 Selenomethionine is a crucial component of antioxidant enzymes like glutathione 384 peroxidase which safeguards body cells from the oxidative damage (Wang et al., 2024). 385 Furthermore, Se-met also plays an important role in thyroid function, immune function, 386 maintaining reproductive health, improving heart health and preventing cancer risk 387 (Kieliszek and Serrano-Sandoval, 2023). 388

### 389 **3.6** Cd and Se bioavailabilty/bioaccessibilty in caco-2 cells

Se bioaccessibility in the rice grains ranged between 43.02% and 55.32% with different treatments (Fig. 6A and 6B). The highest bioaccessibility of Se was achieved with selenite10 and Se-NPs10, indicating the impact of dosages on Se bioaccessibility. In their study, Tokalıoğlu et al., (2014) observed that Se from selenite-based nutritional supplements exhibited the highest *in vitro* bioaccessibility compared to other Se-based supplements. Significantly, a higher bioaccessibility of Cd (58.04 to 72.23%) was observed with foliar Se-NPs and selenite treatments. These findings are consistent with

the observations of Mao et al. (2022), who noted an increase in the Cd bioaccessibility 397 in rice grains during gastric and intestinal digestion, this phenomenon might be 398 attribute to the highly acidic gastric juice (pH=1.5) containing active pepsin, which 399 demonstrates a substantial ability to release and dissolve bioaccessible Cd from rice 400 (Zhuang et al., 2016). This higher bioaccessibility of selenite compared to other Se 401 treatments may be attributed to the enrichment of untransformed Se (IV) in selenite 402 treated Se, leading to its increased bioaccessibility (Zhoua et al., 2021). Another 403 potential explanation could be that the proportion of Se protein-bound and other easily 404 extractable component-bound Se in selenite-treated samples might be higher than in 405 other Se treatments, thereby facilitating its release into gastrointestinal fluids (Zhoua et 406 al., 2021). 407

Subsequently, the bioaccessibe soluble fractions were used to evaluate the Caco-2 408 cells' uptake and transport of Cd (Fig. 6a and 6b). The bioavailable Cd concentration in 409 grains of CK treatment remained at  $0.07 \pm 0.0014$  mg kg<sup>-1</sup>, illustrating highest 410 reduction of  $0.03 \pm 0.0016$  mg kg<sup>-1</sup> for Se-NPs10 supplementation. Meanwhile, the 411 bioavailable Se concentration was ranged from  $0.01 \pm 0.0011$  mg kg<sup>-1</sup> to  $0.14 \pm 0.0015$ 412 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> in CK and Se-NP10 treatment, respectively. Interestingly, highest bioavailable 413 Se in rice grains was achieved with foliar supplementation of Se-NP10. However, no 414 significant difference in Se bioavailability was observed between Se-NP5 and selenite 415 5 applications. The transport of different forms of Se from the apical chamber to the 416 basolateral portion across the mono layer of Caco-2 cells depends on the organic 417 percentage present in the form like selenomethionine, nano Se and all of which are 3 418

fold more effective than selenite and it is suggested that a selenium form capable of
secretion from both sides could be generated, contrasting with selenite (Delaqua et al.,
2022; Xiong et al., 2023).

In the current study, the application of Se-NPs and selenite resulted in a reduced 422 total Cd concentration in grains, which was below the Chinese environmental quality 423 standards (0.2 mg kg<sup>-1</sup>). Nonetheless, it was observed that Se-NP10 and selenite 10 424 were the most effective foliar treatments in lowering Cd levels in rice grains. Previous 425 studies have reported that the bioavailable Cd concentration in all treatments remained 426 below the permissible level of dietary intake due to non-dissolution of Cd in digestive 427 juice (Zheng et al., 2022; Lin et al., 2023). However only the bioavailable fraction of 428 Cd can be taken up by the human body and may have detrimental effects on vulnerable 429 organs (Beri et al., 2020). The Caco-2 bioavailability of Cd in Se-NPs and selenite is 430 significantly lower than control treatment. Therefore, these treatments can lower the 431 associated health risks with the ingestion of contaminated rice. Lowering the 432 bioavailability of Cd in contaminated rice also reduces the risk of diseases associated 433 with Cd toxicity, such as kidney damage, cardiovascular diseases and bone disorders 434 (Wang et al., 2023). Our results reveal fascinating findings concerning the Cd 435 bio-accessibility in rice grains, which were coincided with the total Cd contents. 436 Recently, Tang et al. (2020) also reported analogous findings, that supplementation of 437 Se and Zn led to decrease in total, and bioavailable fractions of Cd and Pb in spinach. 438 Hence, to assess the associated health risks with ingestion of contaminated rice, we 439 suggest using an in vitro treatment in minimizing Cd exposure in humans. 440

### 441 **3.7 Effects of foliar treatments on nutritional quality of rice**

The application of various treatments resulted in a significant reduction in phytate 442 content in rice grains (Figure 7B). The results revealed that the concentration of phytic 443 acid varied from 2.33 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> (Se-NP10) to 2.9 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> in the CK, while Se-NPs10 and 444 selenite10 led to a significant reduction by 19% and 15%, respectively. These findings 445 indicate that both Se-NPs and selenite contributed in reducing the phytic acid in rice 446 grains, with the most pronounced effect observed with foliar application of Se-NPs10. 447 The reduction in phytic acid contents is a positive indicator for rice quality, as it 448 enhances the bioaccessibility of micronutrients, particularly Zn and Fe, as observed in 449 cereals (Lin et al., 2023). Previous reports have also indicated that a decrease in phytic 450 acid content could lead to the increased uptake and accumulation of Zn and Fe in wheat 451 452 (Lian et al., 2023).

The current study investigated the effects of foliar Se treatments on micronutrients, 453 revealing a significant improvement in the nutritional quality of rice through improved 454 contents of micronutrients (Zn, Fe, and Mn in rice grains (Table 2). The foliage 455 supplementation of Se-NPs10 resulted in the highest increase in Zn, Fe, and Mn 456 concentration which is consistent with the findings of Lian et al. (2023) indicating that a 457 decrease in phytic acid contents contributes to the higher levels of micronutrient in rice 458 grains. The protein content in rice grains were substantially raised with foliar 459 treatments of Se-NPs and selenite, indicating an increment of 13% with the foliar 460 application of Se-NPs 10 (Figure 7A). It is noteworthy that rice serves as the staple food 461 for over 50 % of the global community. Therefore, even a slight increase in protein 462

463 content or nutritional quality of rice can have a substantial impact on individuals who464 solely rely on it (Lian et al., 2023).

The increased levels of micronutrients and decreased phytic acid have significant 465 implication for human's health and dietary practices. Micronutrients are essential for 466 various physiological functions in the human's body, such as metabolism, immune 467 functions and cognitive development. Foliar application of Se-NPs and selenite 468 increases the absorption of micronutrients by reducing the phytic acid content. Phytic 469 acid binds to the minerals like Zn, Fe and Mn reducing their bioavailability and 470 inhibiting their absorption in the human body (Lin et al., 2023). This can lead to 471 deficiencies of these essential micronutrients, impacting overall health and well-being. 472 The results of current study reveal that foliar supplementation of Se-NPs and selenite 473 has significant potential to impact human health by improving micronutrients intake, 474 enhancing antioxidants properties and reducing phytic acid content, all of which 475 contribute to food security and nutrition efforts. 476

#### 477 **3.9** Correlations between Se and other heavy metals and nutrients concentration

A direct relationship was observed between the Se concentration in polished rice grains and both grain yield and elemental concentrations within the grains, as evidenced by the correlation between grain Se and Zn, Fe, Mn, and protein concentration (Figure 8). Conversely, a strong negative correlation was noted between phytic acid contents, shoot Cd, grain Cd, Pb contents and Se concentration, consistent with findings of (Hussain et al., 2020). This negative association between Se and Cd in the rice grains is of significant important for food safety. Higher Se levels reduce the

uptake and accumulation of toxic heavy metals in rice grains. The decreased uptake of
heavy metals might be linked with to the higher Se levels in plant, as it down regulates
the Cd transporter proteins in rice, ultimately leading to decreased Cd accumulation in
rice grains (Zhu et al., 2022).

While a strong positive correlation was observed between grain Se concentration 489 and grain Zn, Fe, protein content. Se is considered essential for various ecological 490 processes, including plant development and growth, and the health of human and 491 animals. The positive correlation of Se with essential micronutrients in rice grains 492 suggests a rich ecological environment capable of supporting fauna and flora. The 493 enhancement in the essential micronutrients may be linked to higher Se levels, as Se has 494 been shown to decrease the phytic acid and improves the accumulation and 495 bioavailability of micronutrients (Lian et al., 2023). Additionally, Tang et al. (2020) 496 recently reported similar positive effects of Se on elemental concentrations. The results 497 of principal component analysis (PCA) examining the relationship between foliar 498 treatments and concentrations of other elements, as well as depiction of heavy metals, 499 revealed that PC1 and PC2 explained 58.65% and 16.02% of the variation, respectively 500 (Figure 9). This analysis confirms the positive association between Se and grain Zn and 501 Fe concentrations. Additionally, foliar application of Se led to a decrease in Cd 502 concentrations of both in grain and shoot of rice. 503

504 **4.** Conclusions

505 The study exhibited that foliage application of Se-NPs and selenite to late rice, 506 cultivated in moderately co-contaminated Cd and Pb soil, improved the crop yield,

507	increased the levels of essential micronutrients, facilitated Se biofortification, and
508	reduced the uptake or toxicity of heavy metals. Our findings highlight the prominent
509	impact of Se-NPs application in lowering Cd levels in rice grains, as well as Cd
510	bioavailability in Caco-2 cells. Among the treatments, Se-NPs10 exhibited lowest
511	bioaccessible and bioavailable fractions of Cd, coupled with enhanced Se bioavailable
512	concentration. Furthermore, foliar treatments exhibited significant variation in total and
513	bioavailable Cd in rice grains, emphasizing the necessity of assessing Cd
514	bioavailability through in vivo assays. However, additional research is necessary to
515	systematically clarify the fundamental mechanisms responsible for the decrease in Cd
516	concentration in rice grains and the effect of Se-NPs treatments on the bioavailability of
517	Cd to humans.
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Properties	Values
Soil type	Red earth
pH	$5.05 \pm 0.17$
Organic matter (%)	6.45 ± 0.12
Total N (g kg <sup>-1</sup> )	$1.47 \pm 0.08$
Available P (mg kg <sup>-1</sup> )	65.48 ± 2.46
Available K (mg kg <sup>-1</sup> )	$159.73 \pm 4.39$
Total Cd (mg kg <sup>-1</sup> )	$0.83 \pm 0.09$
Available Cd (mg kg <sup>-1</sup> )	$0.38 \pm 0.01$
Total Pb (mg kg <sup>-1</sup> )	$104.46\pm4.03$
Available Pb (mg kg <sup>-1</sup> )	$24.09 \pm 1.92$
Total Se (mg kg <sup>-1</sup> )	$0.23 \pm 0.02$

**Table 1.** Basic physico-chemical properties of the soil used in the experiment.

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**Table. 2.** Macro and micro-elemental concentrations in the rice grain. Data are means  $\pm$  SD (n = 3). Different letters within same column represent the significant difference between treatments at *P* < 0.05 level

Treatments	Cu (mg kg <sup>-1</sup> )	Fe (mg kg <sup>-1</sup> )	Mn(mg kg <sup>-1</sup> )	Zn (mg kg <sup>-1</sup> )	N (g kg <sup>-1</sup> )	P (g kg <sup>-1</sup> )	K (g kg <sup>-1</sup> )
СК	$2.60 \pm 0.173$ a	$37.50 \pm 0.935 \text{ b}$	$20.06 \pm 0.52$ a	$19.77 \pm 0.81 \text{ b}$	16.63 a	2.81 a	3.08 a
Se-NP5	$2.38 \pm 0.071 \ ab$	$45.81~\pm~3.85~b$	$16.89 \pm 0.07 \ cd$	$22.74 \pm 1.16 \text{ b}$	16.04 a	2.75 a	3.28 a
Se-NP10	$2.04~\pm~0.173~ab$	$60.51 \pm 2.21$ a	$18.35\pm0.42~\text{bc}$	$26.94 \pm 0.87$ a	16.98 a	2.98 a	3.65 a
Selenite 5	$2.15~\pm~0.214~ab$	$35.50~\pm~1.45~b$	$15.37 \pm 0.47 \text{ d}$	$21.37 \pm 0.52$ b	16.77 a	2.39 a	3.19 a
Selenite 10	$1.86 \pm 0.066 \ ab$	$45.43 \pm 2.59 \text{ b}$	$16.24 \pm 0.13 \text{ d}$	$22.15 \pm 0.59 \text{ b}$	16.71 a	2.41 a	3.25 a
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### Figures



**Fig.1.** Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) images of selenium nanoparticles Se-NPs suspension and corresponding energy dispersive X-ray spectra (EDS) representing the percentage of element (C–I) in final suspension.



**Fig. 2.** Biological and grain yields of rice were assessed following foliar treatments. Presented values are means of three replicates while error bar represents the standard error of the replicates. Different letters represent the significant difference between treatments at P < 0.05 level. Here Se-NPs5: Selenite 5 =5mg L<sup>-1</sup> and Se-NPs 10: Selenite 10 =10 mg L<sup>-1</sup>



**Fig.3.** Cd and Pb concentrations in the grain (A) root, shoot and flag leaf (B, C) for rice following foliar treatments. Presented values are means of three replicates while error bar represents the standard error of the replicates. Different letters represent the significant difference between treatments at P < 0.05 level. Here Se-NPs5: Selenite 5 =5mg L<sup>-1</sup> and Se-NPs 10: Selenite 10 =10 mg L<sup>-1</sup>. Maximum permissible concentration in China (MPCC)



**Fig.4.** Total Cd and Pb accumulation in the root, shoot, and grains of rice and translocation factor (%) from root-shoot and shoot to grains following foliar treatments. Presented values are means of three replicates. Here Se-NPs5: Selenite  $5 = 5 \text{mg L}^{-1}$  and Se-NPs 10: Selenite  $10 = 10 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ .



**Fig.5.** Selenium concentration and speciation in rice grains following foliar treatments. Presented values are means of three replicates while error bar represents the standard error of the replicates. Different letters represent the significant difference between treatments at P < 0.05. Here Se-NPs5: Selenite 5 =5mg L<sup>-1</sup> and Se-NPs 10: Selenite 10 = 10 mg L<sup>-1</sup>.



**Fig.6.** Bioaccessible and bioavailable Cd and Se concentrations (A, B) respectively in rice grains following foliar treatments. Presented values are means of three replicates while error bar represents the standard error of the replicates. Different letters represent the significant difference between treatments at P < 0.05. Here as Se-NP5: Selenite  $5 = 5 \text{mg L}^{-1}$  and Se-NP10: Selenite  $10 = 10 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$ .



**Fig.7.** Rice nutritional quality protein content (A) and phytic aicd (B) respectively in rice grains following foliar treatments. Presented values are means of three replicates while error bar represents the standard error of the replicates. Different letters represent the significant difference between treatments at P < 0.05. Here as Se-NPs5: Selenite  $5 = 5 \text{mg L}^{-1}$  and Se-NPs 10: Selenite 10 = 10 mg L<sup>-1</sup>.

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**Fig.8.** Pearson correlation between rice grains Se concentration and root, shoot and grains Cd, grains Pb, phytic acid and protein content, micronutrients Zn, Fe and Mn.

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**Fig.9.** Principal component analysis of 15 samples corresponding to 5 treatments to the first (PC1) and second (PC2) principal components.

### Highlights

- Foliar application of Se-NPs and selenite effectively achieved the safe rice production
- Se-NPs and selenite have shown potential in reducing the bioavailability of Cd in Caco-2 cells
- Se-NPs and selenite improved the rice quality and promoted the Se biofortification
- Se-NPs restricted the heavy metals translocation between the plant parts

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### **Declaration of interest's**

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

□The authors declare the following financial interests/personal relationships which may be considered as potential competing interests:

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