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Fate of ZnO nanoparticles in soils and cowpea (Vigna unguiculata)

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1 Abstract

The increasing use of zinc oxide nanoparticles (ZnO-NPs) in various commercial products is prompting 2 3 detailed investigation regarding the fate of these materials in the environment. There is, however, a lack of information comparing the transformation of ZnO-NPs with soluble Zn^{2+} in both soils and plants. 4 5 Synchrotron-based techniques were used to examine the uptake and transformation of Zn in various 6 tissues of cowpea (Vigna unguiculata (L.) Walp.) exposed to ZnO-NPs or ZnCl₂ following growth in either solution or soil culture. In solution culture, soluble Zn (ZnCl₂) was more toxic than the ZnO-NPs, 7 8 although there was substantial accumulation of ZnO-NPs on the root surface. When grown in soil, however, there was no significant difference in plant growth and accumulation or speciation of Zn 9 10 between soluble Zn and ZnO-NP treatments, indicating that the added ZnO-NPs underwent rapid 11 dissolution following their entry into the soil. This was confirmed by an incubation experiment with two 12 soils, in which ZnO-NPs could not be detected after incubation for 1 h. The speciation of Zn was similar 13 in shoot tissues for both soluble Zn and ZnO-NPs treatments and no upward translocation of ZnO-NPs 14 from roots to shoots was observed in either solution or soil culture. Under the current experimental conditions, the similarity in uptake and toxicity of Zn from ZnO-NPs and soluble Zn in soils indicates that 15 16 the ZnO-NPs used in this study did not constitute nano-specific risks. 17

18 Keywords: ZnO nanoparticles, uptake, toxicity, transformation, soil, plant, zinc

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19 **INTRODUCTION**

Engineered nanoparticles (ENPs) are being developed and incorporated into a variety of industrial, 20 21 commercial, and medicinal products. Zinc oxide nanoparticles (ZnO-NPs) are among the most commonly 22 used ENPs in personal care products (e.g. sunscreens, cosmetics), textiles, paintings, industrial coatings, dye-sensitized solar cells, antibacterial agents, and optic and electronic materials.¹ In addition, ZnO-NPs 23 have been proposed as an effective Zn fertilizer to alleviate Zn deficiency in soils.² While some of these 24 25 commercial applications, and their relative exposure pathways (e.g. through the wastewater treatment 26 process), are unlikely to lead to the direct release of ZnO-NPs to the environment, others (e.g. fertilisers) could lead to their direct release to the soil. As a novel and emerging class of products, the ecological risk 27 28 of ZnO-NPs is an important topic that is receiving increased scrutiny from both the scientific and 29 regulatory viewpoints.

30

Plants are an important component of the ecological system and serve as a potential pathway for the 31 transportation and accumulation of ENPs into the food chain.³⁻⁵ There is evidence that particles up to 20 32 nm are taken up by plant cells through plasmodesmata and endocytosis.⁶ Indeed, some studies have 33 demonstrated the uptake of ENPs by plants grown in solution culture. For example, Lin and Xing⁷ used 34 35 transmission electron microscopy (TEM) to show that ZnO-NPs passed through the epidermis and cortex of roots of Lolium perenne L. (ryegrass), but did not examine if they are present within the shoots. Zhu et 36 al.³ used magnetization to show the uptake and subsequent transport of magnetite Fe₃O₄-NPs by 37 38 *Cucurbita maxima* (pumpkin) grown in solution culture. However, no Fe₃O₄-NPs (i.e. magnetic signals) were detected in shoots of soil-cultured plants. This is similar to other soil- or sand-based studies, which 39 were unable to detect plant uptake of NPs. For example, no ZnO-NPs were detected in either roots⁸ or 40 shoots ⁹ of wheat (*Triticum aestivum* L.) or in stems and pods of soybean (*Glycine max* (L.) Merr.)¹⁰, and 41 no CeO₂ NPs were detected in leaves of maize (Zea mays L.).¹¹ These findings suggest that the growth 42 43 matrix affects the uptake of NPs, but, to our knowledge, there are no data quantifying the differences in the uptake and transformation (i.e. the chemical form) of ZnO-NPs in various tissues of plants grown in 44 45 different growth matrices.

46 The absence of ZnO-NPs in shoots may be explained by their attachment to the soil particles or the rapid 47 48 dissolution and transformation of ZnO-NPs upon entering the soil. Indeed, it has been suggested that ZnO-NPs undergo quick dissolution/transformation upon their release into the environment.¹²⁻¹⁵ Although 49 most ZnO-NPs released from consumer products are likely converted to other species before entering the 50 soil as applied biosolids,¹³ the application of ZnO-NPs as a Zn fertilizer (including as a foliar fertilizer) 51 has also been proposed.² Indeed, there is growing interest in the use of ZnO-NPs as fertilizers as Zn 52 deficiency is by far the most widespread micronutrient deficiency limiting crop production in the world.¹⁶ 53 In the case of soils, however, little is known about the fate of ZnO-NPs over time. 54 55 The aims of this study were (i) to compare the uptake and toxicity (and subsequent transformation) of 56 57 ZnO-NPs and ZnCl₂ to inform the associated environmental risks, and (ii) to determine if there are any 58 differences between the uptake of the Zn in soil or solution culture. In this study, we examined the 59 speciation of Zn within various tissues of plants exposed to ZnO-NPs or ZnCl₂ in solution or soil culture and assessed the fate of ZnO-NPs over time in two soils (differing in chemical and physical properties). 60 61 62 MATERIALS AND METHODS 63 **Zinc Oxide Nanoparticles.** The ZnO-NP dispersion, synthesized by the hydrolysis of a zinc salt in a polyol medium heated to 160 °C, was purchased from Sigma Aldrich (catalog No. 721077). This product 64

65 has a reported particle size < 100 nm measured by dynamic light scatting (DLS) and an average particle

size < 35 nm measured using an aerodynamic particle sizer (APS) spectrometer. Our analyses of the 66

suspensions used for the experiments by DLS using a Zetasizer Nano (Malvern Instruments, 67

68 Worcestershire, UK) gave an average number-weighted particle size of 67 ± 2 nm and zeta potential of

69 $+46.1 \pm 1.5$ mV. Images analysed by field emission scanning electron microscopy (SEM, JEOL JSM

70 6400 F) indicated a crystallite size range of 20-30 nm.

71

Plant Growth Conditions. Both solution and soil culture experiments were conducted simultaneously in a semi-controlled glasshouse in full sunlight at The University of Queensland, St Lucia, Australia. The temperature was maintained at ca. 28°C during the day and 20°C during the night. Relative humidity typically ranged between 25 and 50% during the day and 60 to 80% during the night.

76

Solution Culture. Seeds of cowpea (Vigna unguiculata (L.) Walp. cv. Red Caloona) were germinated in 77 travs covered with paper towel moistened with tap water. After 2 d, seedlings were transferred to 78 containers with 11 L of nutrient solution (μ M): 800 NO₃⁻-N, 120 NH₄⁺-N, 650 Ca, 100 Mg, 300 K, 550 79 SO₄²⁻-S, 140 Cl, 10 P, 10 Fe (supplied as Fe(III)CDTA), 3.0 B, 1.0 Mn, 0.05 Cu, 0.01 Zn, and 0.02 Mo. 80 81 Solution pH was not adjusted but averaged pH 6.1. After a further 3 d, four seedlings were transferred to 82 four replications of 11 L solutions (as above) containing no added Zn (control) or with Zn added as either ZnO-NPs or ZnCl₂ to achieve a final concentration of 25 mg Zn L^{-1} (38.2 μ M). This Zn concentration has 83 been shown to reduce root growth by approximately 70%¹⁷ and is within the range found in soil 84 solutions.¹⁸ Solutions were continuously aerated and renewed every 4 d, with plants harvested after 4 85 86 weeks. At harvest, the roots were washed with flowing deionized water for ca. 1 min and blotted dry with 87 filter paper, before the roots, stems, and leaves were separated. Subsamples of each tissue were immersed 88 in liquid nitrogen and immediately stored in a dry shipper cooled with liquid nitrogen for later analysis 89 using X-ray absorption spectroscopy (XAS). The remaining tissues were oven-dried for analysis using inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry (ICP-MS) (details provided below). 90

91

Soil Culture. An Oxisol (US Soil Taxonomy) with pH 6.7 and a sandy clay texture, collected from a site near Toowoomba, Queensland (Table S1), was air-dried and sieved to < 2 mm. The soil was amended with either ZnO-NPs or ZnCl₂ with a target concentration of 500 mg Zn kg⁻¹ soil as used by Priester et al.¹⁹ This concentration is far in excess of that expected under a fertilisation scenario and could only be conceived to result from an unintentional spill of concentrated ZnO-NP solutions. However, this is the highest concentration used by Priester et al.¹⁹ reporting a negative impact of ENPs on soil fertility and soybean growth. As pointed out by Lombi et al.²⁰, the above-mentioned article did not include a soluble

99 Zn treatment and it was therefore not possible to draw any definitive conclusion regarding any nano-100 specific effects with regard to toxicity. In this article, we provide such comparison which is essential in 101 the context of the debate regarding the environmental consequence of nanotechnologies. To ensure even distribution of Zn in the soil, the ZnO-NP suspensions or ZnCl₂ solutions (20 mg Zn mL⁻¹) were diluted 102 103 with deionized water to a volume of 50 mL and sprayed over 2 kg dry soil which was then mixed 104 thoroughly by hand. A control (no added Zn) was also included by spraying with the same volume of 105 deionized water. Each treatment was replicated three times with 2.0 kg soil in each 4 L plastic pot. Soils 106 were watered to 60% of water holding capacity and equilibrated for 1 d prior to planting. Six 3-d old 107 seedlings were transferred to each pot and three seedlings harvested after 4 weeks. The shoots were rinsed 108 with deionized water and separated into stems and leaves. The root system was removed by carefully 109 breaking apart the soil and then rinsing with deionized water for ca. 1 min, blotted dry, and separated into 110 roots and nodules. Samples of each tissue were immersed in liquid nitrogen and stored in a dry shipper for 111 later analysis using XAS. The remaining samples were oven-dried for analysis using ICP-MS. The 112 remaining three plants in each pot were harvested at maturity (ca. 80 d after planting) and samples of 113 seeds ground to fine powder for later analysis using XAS and ICP-MS. 114

115 Soil Incubation Experiment. The fate of ZnO-NPs following addition to soil was investigated in the 116 Oxisol (described above) and in an Ultisol (US Soil Taxonomy) collected from the Central Highlands of 117 Queensland. This soil is an acidic (pH 5.0) sandy loam soil (Table S1). Two replicates (100 g) of both soils were amended with ZnO-NPs or ZnCl₂ to a target concentration of 500 mg kg⁻¹ soil as described 118 119 above, placed in 300 mL beakers, and deionized water added to 60% of soil water holding capacity. Each 120 beaker was covered and sealed with plastic film with small holes to maintain relatively constant moisture; 121 deionized water was added every 4 d if necessary. Soils were incubated in the dark at $25 \pm 2^{\circ}$ C, and 122 samples collected after 1 h, 1 d, 5 d, and 15 d, immediately frozen (ca. -20°C), and later freeze-dried for 123 analysis using XAS.

124

Bulk XAS. Zinc K_{α} -edge X-ray absorption near edge structure (XANES) and extended X-ray absorption 125 126 fine structure (EXAFS) spectra were collected at the XAS Beamline at the Australian Synchrotron, Melbourne as described by Kopittke et al.²¹ The energy of each spectrum was calibrated by simultaneous 127 measurement in transmission mode of a metallic Zn foil reference (K_{α} -edge at 9,659 eV). The spectra 128 129 were collected in fluorescence mode with a 100-element solid-state Ge detector. To prepare samples, ca. 1-2 g frozen plant tissues were homogenized in an agate mortar and pestle continuously cooled with 130 liquid nitrogen.¹⁷ Soil and seed samples were ground using a mortar and pestle and sieved to $< 250 \mu m$ 131 132 using a stainless steel sieve. A total of 29 Zn standards was also examined, including six aqueous compounds ²¹ and 23 finely ground powder spectra ¹³. The aqueous standards were used for fitting Zn 133 134 ligands in plant tissues and the solid standards for Zn ligands in soils. Due to the low concentration of Zn 135 in some fresh plant samples, only XANES spectra were collected for plant samples, while both XANES 136 and EXAFS spectra were collected for soil samples. The spectra (average of three scans) were energy normalized using Athena software.²² Principal component analysis (PCA) of the normalized sample 137 138 spectra was used to estimate the likely number of species contained in the samples, while target 139 transformation (TT) was used to identify relevant standards for linear combination fitting (LCF) of the sample spectra.²³ PCA and TT were undertaken using SixPack.²⁴ For both XANES (-20 to +30 E, eV) and 140 EXAFS (2.5 to 9 k, $Å^{-1}$), LCF was performed using Athena. 141

142

X-ray Fluorescence Microscopy (μ-XRF). Elemental μ-XRF maps were collected at the XFM Beamline
at the Australian Synchrotron ²⁵ using roots exposed to 25 mg Zn L⁻¹ as ZnO-NPs or ZnCl₂ for 1 d. In
addition, mature seeds of plants grown in the Oxisol amended with ZnO-NPs or ZnCl₂ were
longitudinally sliced (ca. 200 μm) for μ-XRF analysis. The XRF spectra were analyzed using GeoPIXE ²⁶
and the images were generated using the Dynamic Analysis method.²⁷
Digestion and Analysis of Total Zn. Dry plant tissues were placed into 50 mL conical flasks and

digested using 10 mL 5:1 HNO₃:HClO₄. Following digestion, the samples were diluted to 10 mL using

deionized water before analysis by ICP-MS. Soil samples were digested with aqua regia (1:3 HCl:HNO₃)

and analyzed for total Zn by ICP-MS. Quality control measures included the use of procedural blanks and

153 repeat analysis of a certified reference.

154

155 Statistical Analysis. Treatment-differences were tested for significance (p < 0.05) using a one-way

analysis of variance (ANOVA) performed with IBM SPSS Statistics 20.

157

158 **RESULTS**

159 ZnO-NPs and Soluble Zn Effects on Plants. In solution culture, the addition of Zn reduced plant growth

160 compared to that in the control (basal nutrient solution), with toxicity more severe in ZnCl₂ solutions than

161 with those containing ZnO-NPs (Table S2). In contrast, there were no significant effects (p > 0.05) on

162 plant growth between the control and the ZnO-NP and ZnCl₂ treatments in soil culture.

163

After 4 weeks in solution culture, Zn concentration in roots exposed to ZnO-NPs (44,700 μ g g⁻¹ dry mass, 164 DM) was 4.6-times higher than those exposed to $ZnCl_2$ (9,650 µg g⁻¹ DM). Concentrations in stems (487 165 and 584 μ g g⁻¹ DM) and leaves (119 and 139 μ g g⁻¹ DM) were similar between the ZnO-NP and ZnCl₂ 166 167 treatments (Table S3). As a consequence, the Zn transfer coefficient (i.e. the ratio of Zn in the leaf 168 relative to the root) was 4.7-times lower in the ZnO-NP treatment (0.003) compared to that in the ZnCl₂ 169 treatment (0.014). This similarity indicated that the increased accumulation of Zn in roots exposed to ZnO-NPs in solution culture is likely due to either an increased adhesion or limited transport of ZnO-NPs 170 171 to the shoot. In the case of soil culture, there were no significant differences (p > 0.05) in Zn concentrations of roots (1,003 and 1,180 μ g g⁻¹ DM), stems (108 and 118 μ g g⁻¹ DM), leaves (155 and 172 181 μ g g⁻¹ DM), or seeds (43.3 and 55.7 μ g g⁻¹ DM) between the ZnO-NP and ZnCl₂ treatments (Table 173 S3). Transfer coefficients in soil culture (0.155 and 0.154) were substantially higher than those in solution 174 175 culture.

176

Zinc Speciation and Distribution in Plant Tissues. The Zn XANES spectrum for ZnO-NPs (Figure 1)
is readily identified due to its unique features, particularly the shoulder at 9,780 eV, and is similar to

- 179 previously-reported spectra for this material.^{13, 14} The Zn XANES spectra for all other standards, while
- 180 different from each other, were substantially different from that of ZnO-NPs.
- 181

182 Overall, it was apparent that the XANES spectra of roots exposed to ZnO-NPs in solution culture were 183 markedly different from that obtained for the ZnCl₂-exposed roots, with the spectrum for ZnO-NP-184 exposed roots resembling that of the ZnO-NPs themselves (Figure 1A). It would appear that ZnO-NPs 185 were the primary form of Zn in these samples – this being supported by the distribution of Zn using μ -186 XRF. Zinc was largely located on the root surface, most likely due to the adhesion and aggregation of 187 ZnO-NPs (Figure 2A). Indeed, LCF revealed that ca. 65% of the Zn in these ZnO-NP-exposed roots was 188 present as ZnO-NPs, with 32% associated with histidine (Table 1). In contrast, roots exposed to ZnCl₂ in 189 solution culture accumulated Zn in the root apex (i.e. meristematic zone) (Figure 2A). This Zn was found 190 to be associated with histidine (49%) and polygalacturonic acid (Zn-PGA, 32%), and Zn-phosphate (19%). 191 192 Interestingly, and in contrast to the solution culture results, the XANES spectra of roots grown in soil 193 were similar regardless of whether the roots were exposed ZnO-NPs or ZnCl₂ (Figure 1B). Using LCF, 194 the Zn in roots from these ZnO-NP and ZnCl₂ treatments was found to be associated with citrate (average 195 51%), histidine (28%), and phytate (20%) (Table 1). Given the similar concentration of Zn in roots 196 exposed to ZnO-NPs and ZnCl₂ (Table S3), it is possible that the ZnO-NPs underwent dissolution in the 197 soil. 198 199 The XANES spectra obtained for the stems and leaves from the ZnO-NP and ZnCl₂ treatments in both

solution and soil culture were visually similar to the spectrum of Zn citrate (Figure 1). This observation
was confirmed by LCF, with the Zn in these tissues mainly associated with citrate (50%), histidine (26%),
and phytate (24%) (Table 1). In the root nodules, Zn was associated with citrate (37%), phytate (38%),

and cysteine (27%) (Table 1).

204

205 The XANES spectra for seeds of plants grown in the ZnO-NP and ZnCl₂ treatments in soil showed a 206 characteristic broader double-peaked feature, which resembled the Zn phytate spectrum in some regards 207 (Figure 1B). However, the best fits using LCF included association with three components, histidine 208 (50%), cysteine (30%) and phosphate (20%) (Table 1). Even if Zn phytate was included as one of the 209 standards in the LCF, only 16-33% was calculated to be presented as Zn phytate, with the remainder of 210 Zn present associated with cysteine (40-47%) and histidine (26-37%) (the R-factors increasing by 50 to 211 100% compared to the best fits). Therefore, ca. 70 to 80% of the Zn in the seeds was associated with 212 amino acids (i.e. histidine and cysteine), with 20 to 30% bound to phosphate such as $Zn_3(PO_4)_2$ or as Zn 213 phytate. The spatial distribution of Zn within the seeds determined using μ -XRF was found to be similar 214 in the ZnO-NP and ZnCl₂ treatments. A high concentration of Zn was evident in the outer layer of 215 cotyledon and the hypocotyl, with low Zn concentration in the seed coat (testa) and the inner cotyledon 216 (Figure 2B).

217

218 Zinc Speciation in Soils.

219 Across the incubation periods examined, both XANES and EXAFS spectra were similar regardless of 220 whether the soils were amended with ZnCl₂ or ZnO-NPs (Figure 3 and Table 2), indicating a rapid 221 dissolution of the ZnO-NPs and that incubation for up to 15 d did not substantially change the speciation 222 of Zn in either soil. In the Oxisol with ZnCl₂, LCF using the XANES spectra indicated that the Zn was 223 present as Zn sorbed ferrihydrite (54%), ZnAl-layered double hydroxide (ZnAl-LDH) (22%), and ZnSO₄ 224 (23%). In the case of the Ultisol, 35% of the Zn was calculated to be in a form resembling hopeite 225 $(Zn_3(PO_4)_2)$, with Zn also present as ZnAl-LDH (14%), Zn-humic acid (21%), and ZnSO₄ (30%) (Figure 226 3 and Table 2). These results regarding the presence of ZnAl-LDH and ZnSO₄ were reinforced by 227 analysis of the EXAFS spectra (Table 2). Indeed, for both soils, LCF of the EXAFS spectra indicated that 228 the Zn was present as 43% of hemimorphite (Zn₄Si₂O₇(OH)₂·H₂O), 29% as ZnAl-LDH, and 28% as 229 ZnSO₄ (Table 2). The slight discrepancy between XANES and EXAFS LCF results has been reported previously^{28, 29} and could be related to the lower sensitivity of EXAFS to metals bound to matrices 230 231 composed of light elements or organic matter.²⁸

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Even when ZnO-NPs were added into the soil, almost all of the Zn was present in the same forms as when ZnCl₂ was added (Figure 3 and Table 2). The LCF of the XANES spectra for both soils revealed that no Zn could be detected in the form of ZnO-NPs after 1 h incubation. These results suggest that the large majority of the added ZnO-NPs underwent rapid dissolution following their entry into the soils. It should be noted, however, that changes in Zn speciation may have occurred during the time between the samples being transferred to -20 °C and their freezing.

239

240 **DISCUSSION**

241 In solution culture, soluble Zn (ZnCl₂) was more toxic than ZnO-NPs to the growth of cowpea (Table S2) 242 despite the apparent accumulation of ZnO-NPs on the root surface (Figure 2 and Table S3). Interestingly, 243 however, when grown in soil, there was no difference in plant growth between the ZnCl₂ and ZnO-NP 244 treatments (Table S2). This difference between solution and soil culture highlights the importance of the 245 growth matrix in plant culture experiments. Importantly, it was noted that there was also no significant 246 difference in Zn concentration in shoots between the $ZnCl_2$ and ZnO-NPs treatments (Table S3) and we 247 did not detected the upward translocation of ZnO-NPs from roots to shoots of plants grown in either 248 solution or soil culture (Table 1 and Figure 1). Under the current experimental conditions, the ZnO-NPs 249 added to the soil were rapidly converted to the same forms as when ZnCl₂ was added (Figure 3 and Table 250 2). This indicates that even at the high rate of ZnO-NPs added in the current study, no nano-specific effects (toxicity, uptake, speciation, and distribution) could be observed when plants were grown in soils. 251 Thus, whilst Priester et al.¹⁹ reported that the use of ZnO-NPs may result in "agriculturally associated 252 253 human and environmental risks", our data suggest that these risks for ZnO-NPs, under the current 254 experimental conditions, would not different from those of soluble Zn. It is noteworthy that Priester et 255 al.¹⁹ did not include a soluble Zn control in their study.

256

In solution culture, accumulation of Zn in roots exposed to ZnO-NPs was 4.6-times higher than that in the ZnCl₂ treatment, but toxicity was more severe in solutions with ZnCl₂ (Tables S2 and S3). The majority

259 of the Zn in roots exposed to ZnO-NPs was on the root surface due to their adhesion and aggregation (Figure 2A). Indeed, the XAS analyses indicated that ca. 65% of Zn in these roots was present as ZnO-260 261 NPs (Table 1 and Figure 1). In addition, the speciation of Zn was similar in the shoots for both ZnCl₂ and 262 ZnO-NP treatments and no ZnO-NPs were detected in shoot tissues despite the substantial accumulation 263 of ZnO-NPs on the root surface (Table 1 and Figure 1). These observations indicate that the Zn uptake 264 and toxicity was due to particle dissolution in the bulk nutrient solution and particle adhesion onto the 265 root surface, rather than the uptake of nanoparticles. These findings are in accordance with previous reports^{12, 30-32} which concluded that the toxicity of ZnO-NPs is due solely to solubilized Zn^{2+} . 266

267

268 In soil culture, there was no significant difference in plant growth or uptake of Zn between the two Zn 269 treatments (Table S2 and S3). There was rapid equilibration through adsorption and precipitation 270 reactions upon addition of soluble ZnCl₂ or ZnO-NPs to soil. This could be seen by the presence of ZnAl-271 LDH, hopeite, and hemimorphite (Table 2), the formation of which substantially reduced the toxicity of 272 Zn to the plants. In addition, the phytotoxicity of Zn in soils depends on a range of soil properties (including pH and cation exchange capacity [CEC]). Indeed, Smolders et al.³³ reported that the EC10 273 274 (10% effective concentration) values for *Triticum aestivum* grown in a range of soils varied from 9 to 1,231 mg kg⁻¹ (cf. 500 mg kg⁻¹ used in pot experiment with a pH-neutral soil). The application of ZnO-275 NPs to the Oxisol (pH-neutral) and Ultisol (acidic) had similar effects to that of ZnCl₂ with no ZnO-NPs 276 277 detected after incubating for 1 h (Table 2 and Figure 3). This finding suggests a rapid dissolution of ZnO-NPs in these soils, most likely driven by sorption of solubilized Zn^{2+} found in previous studies.^{13, 14, 34-36} 278 For example, Lombi et al.¹³ found that ZnO-NPs in sewage sludge were converted to ZnS within 1 d. 279 Similarly. Scheckel et al.¹⁴ found that the addition of a clay mineral (kaolinite) resulted in the dissolution 280 281 of ZnO-NPs within 1 d due to their sorption to the negative charge of the clay (78% of the ZnO-NPs 282 sorbed within 1 h). Given that kaolinite has a similar (or lower) CEC (ca. 1-5 cmol_c/kg) relative to the 283 soils used in the present study (2.3 or 13 cmol_c/kg , see Table S1), the observation that the ZnO-NPs 284 underwent rapid dissolution upon their addition to the soils is in accordance with previous findings. 285 However, it seems that the speed of dissolution of ZnO-NPs depends upon soil properties (particularly pH)

and the method used to add ZnO-NPs to the soil. For example, in contrast to the present study where
ZnO-NPs could not be detected after 1 h in acidic soils, Collins et al.³⁶ found that dissolution of the ZnONPs required 30 d after sprinkling nanoparticles on the surface of an alkaline soil (pH 7.5). Similarly,
using flow field-flow fractionation, Gimbert et al.³⁷ was still able to detect ZnO-NPs in suspensions of an
alkaline soil (pH 9.0) spiked with 12,000 mg Zn kg⁻¹ after 14 d incubation.

291

In the present study, no ZnO-NPs were detected in any shoot tissues regardless of growth matrix (Table 1 and Figure 1), indicating no transfer of ZnO-NPs from roots to shoots. This finding is in keeping with recent studies in which no ZnO-NPs could be detected in shoots of soil-grown soybean using XAS; rather, Zn was associated with citrate in the stem and seed pod¹⁰. Additionally, Zn phosphate was present in the shoots of wheat grown with added ZnO-NPs in sand culture.⁹

297

298 In roots exposed to ZnCl₂ in solution culture, the majority of the Zn was observed in the meristemic 299 region (Figure 2A) and LCF analysis indicated that the Zn was primarily associated with histidine, with 300 slightly smaller contributions from polygalacturonic acid (the main component of pectin in the cell wall) 301 and precipitated as Zn-phosphate (Table 1). This suggests that histidine and the cell wall play important roles in Zn homeostasis and detoxification in roots. Similarly, Salt et al.³⁸ reported that the majority of the 302 303 intracellular Zn in roots of *Thlaspi caerulescens*, a Zn hyperaccumulator, grown in solution culture was 304 coordinated with histidine, with the remainder complexed to the cell wall. In the present study, however, 305 no Zn was found to be present as Zn-phosphate within roots when grown in soil culture, but rather was 306 associated with citrate, histidine, and phytate (Table 1). Zinc-phosphate precipitates have been observed at the surface of roots grown in solution culture^{39, 40}, being most likely related to the low transfer 307 coefficients of Zn from root to shoot (Table S3). This is consistent with the observations by Sarret et al.⁴¹ 308 309 with Zn in Arabidopsis halleri grown in solution culture.

310

Organic acids including citrate, malate, and oxalate are primarily located in the vacuoles⁴² and are often found to chelate Zn in leaves ⁴³ and as found by Salt et al.³⁸ with citrate in shoots of *T. caerulescens*. In

the present study, we found that the chemical forms of Zn were similar in all stem and leaf tissues regardless of Zn-treatments, with Zn mainly bound to citrate, histidine, and phytate (Table 1). It is not possible to exclude the presence of other compounds with carboxyl groups (e.g. malate), but our results support the role of carboxyl groups as important ligands involved in the transport and storage of Zn in shoots.^{38, 43}

318

319 Surprisingly, there is comparatively little information regarding the speciation of Zn in seeds. The LCF 320 results revealed that ca. 80% of the Zn was coordinated with amino acids such as histidine and cysteine, 321 with a smaller proportion precipitated with phosphate (Table 1). Phytic acid has been found to be the main storage form of P in cereals⁴⁴, and that phytate has a high affinity for Zn, Fe, and other trace 322 elements.⁴⁵ The co-localization of phytate with these elements⁴⁶ seems to support the hypothesis that 323 324 phytate plays an important role in the storage of Zn in the seeds or grains. However, LCF results in the 325 present study (Table 1) showed that Zn was predominantly associated with amino acids (histidine and 326 cysteine). Indeed, the importance of amino acids (c.f. phytate) for Zn storage has been reported previously in barley (*Hordeum vulgare* L.) grain. For example, Persson et al.⁴⁷ incubated barley grain with phytase 327 328 which degrades phytate, a treatment that doubled the extraction efficiency of P but have no effect on that 329 of Zn. Rather, Zn was found to be bound mainly to peptides as measured using SEC/IP-ICP-MS. Similarly, in a study with low-phytate barley grain mutants, Hatzack et al.⁴⁸ found that impaired phytate 330 331 accumulation did not influence Zn storage capacity in the grains. 332 Limitations of the XAS techniques employed in this study include uncertainty in species of ca. 5% of the 333 total amount of the target element ^{49, 50} which may result in the XAS analysis being insufficiently 334

sensitive to identify small amounts of ZnO-NPs in plants and in soils.

336

337 In summary, we have not detected the translocation of ZnO-NPs from roots to shoots of plants grown in

either solution or soil culture, although there was a substantial quantity of ZnO-NPs on the surface of

roots exposed to ZnO-NP in solution culture. Even though large quantities of pristine NPs were applied

| 340 | directly to the soil with which they were mixed thoroughly, the ZnO-NPs appeared to be completely |
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| 341 | dissociated after 1 h incubation and transformed in similar manner to the ZnCl ₂ treatment. Indeed, there |
| 342 | was no significant difference between the ZnO-NP and $ZnCl_2$ treatments in plant growth, Zn |
| 343 | accumulation, or Zn speciation in plant tissues. We conclude, therefore, that under the current |
| 344 | experimental conditions, there were no nano-specific effects on plants grown in soil, and that this finding |
| 345 | needs to be considered in environmental risk assessment and management strategies. |
| 346 | |
| 347 | ASSOCIATED CONTENT |
| 348 | Supporting Information |
| 349 | Additional information is available regarding the characteristics of soils used in this study, cowpea |
| 350 | biomass, Zn concentration in various plant tissues, results of the PCA analysis, target transformation |
| 351 | SPOIL values of reference spectra, and the Fourier Transform of EXAFS spectra for all soil samples. This |
| 352 | material is available free of charge via the Internet at http://pubs.acs.org. |
| 353 | |
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| 357 | |
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| | Nodule | | Root | | Stem | | Le | Leaf | | Seed | |
|-------------------------|----------|----------|----------|-------------------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|--|
| | ZnO-NP | $ZnCl_2$ | ZnO-NP | ZnCl ₂ | ZnO-NP | $ZnCl_2$ | ZnO-NP | $ZnCl_2$ | ZnO-NP | $ZnCl_2$ | |
| Solution culture | | | | | | | | | | | |
| ZnO-NPs (%) | | | 65 (1.1) | | | | | | | | |
| Zn-PGA (%) ^c | | | | 32 (0.7) | | | | | | | |
| Zn-citrate (%) | | | | | 76 (0.6) | 63 (1.0) | 60 (1.2) | 75 (1.0) | | | |
| Zn-histidine (%) | | | 32 (0.9) | 49 (1.7) | 14 (1.0) | 17 (1.5) | 25 (1.9) | 10 (1.5) | | | |
| Zn-phytate (%) | | | | | 10 (1.2) | 20 (2.0) | 15 (2.4) | 15 (1.9) | | | |
| Zn-cysteine (%) | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Zn-phosphate (%) | | | 3 (0.7) | 19 (3.0) | | | | | | | |
| R-factor ^b | | | 0.0001 | 0.0002 | 0.0001 | 0.0003 | 0.0005 | 0.0003 | | | |
| Soil culture | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Zn-citrate (%) | 42 (1.5) | 31 (1.2) | 59 (0.8) | 43 (0.8) | 27 (1.1) | 34 (1.9) | 50 (0.9) | 41 (0.7) | | | |
| Zn-histidine (%) | | - (-) | 25 (1.2) | 30 (1.2) | 38 (1.6) | 34 (2.9) | 43 (1.4) | 27 (1.1) | 56 (1.3) | 45 (1.4) | |
| Zn-phytate (%) | 38 (2.1) | 37 (1.4) | 16 (1.4) | 27 (1.5) | 35 (2.1) | 32 (3.6) | 7 (1.8) | 32 (1.4) | () | () | |
| Zn-cysteine (%) | 22 (0.9) | 32 (0.7) | () | × , | () | × , | | () | 24 (1.1) | 36 (1.1) | |
| Zn-phosphate (%) | | × / | | | | | | | 20(1.7) | 19 (1.8) | |
| R-factor ^b | 0.0006 | 0.0003 | 0.0002 | 0.0002 | 0.0004 | 0.0005 | 0.0003 | 0.0002 | 0.0003 | 0.0004 | |

Table 1. Distributions of Zn species in various tissues of cowpea grown in either solution culture or soil culture^a

^aData are presented as percentages and the values in brackets show the percentage variation in the calculated values. ^bR factor = $\sum (\text{experimental} - \text{fit})^2 / \sum (\text{experimental})^2$, where the sums are over the data points in the fitting region. ^cPGA: polygalacturonic acid.

| | | XA | EXAFS | | | | | | |
|------------------------|----------|----------------------------|----------|-------------------|-----------------------|----------|--------------|-------------------|-----------------------|
| | ZnAl-LDH | Zn-sorb ferr. ^c | | ZnSO ₄ | R-factor ^b | ZnAl-LDH | hemimorphite | ZnSO ₄ | R-factor ^b |
| Oxisol | | | | | | | | | |
| ZnO-NPs 1h | 30 (1.0) | 45 (0.6) | | 25 (1.2) | 0.0003 | 38 (5.2) | 44 (1.6) | 18 (5.5) | 0.057 |
| ZnO-NPs 1d | 24 (1.1) | 44 (0.6) | | 32 (1.2) | 0.0003 | 26 (5.4) | 48 (1.6) | 26 (5.6) | 0.063 |
| ZnO-NPs 5d | 28 (1.1) | 41 (0.6) | | 31 (1.3) | 0.0004 | 36 (5.1) | 41 (1.5) | 23 (5.3) | 0.057 |
| ZnO-NPs 15d | 24 (1.2) | 43 (0.7) | | 33 (1.4) | 0.0004 | 27 (5.4) | 45 (1.7) | 28 (5.7) | 0.066 |
| ZnCl ₂ 1 h | 23 (1.5) | 55 (0.8) | | 22 (1.7) | 0.0007 | 24 (5.5) | 47 (1.7) | 29 (5.7) | 0.081 |
| ZnCl ₂ 1 d | 22 (1.4) | 53 (0.8) | | 25 (1.6) | 0.0005 | 29 (5.7) | 47 (1.7) | 24 (5.9) | 0.082 |
| ZnCl ₂ 5 d | 21 (1.6) | 55 (0.9) | | 24 (1.8) | 0.0004 | 22 (6.9) | 53 (2.1) | 25 (7.2) | 0.096 |
| ZnCl ₂ 15 d | 22 (1.4) | 54 (0.8) | | 24 (1.6) | 0.0006 | 22 (5.9) | 45 (1.8) | 33 (6.1) | 0.088 |
| | ZnAl-LDH | HA-Zn | hopeite | ZnSO ₄ | | | | | |
| Ultisol | | | | | | | | | |
| ZnO-NPs 1h | 15 (0.7) | 29 (1.8) | 17 (1.4) | 40 (2.3) | 0.0001 | 31 (6.5) | 36 (2.0) | 33 (6.7) | 0.079 |
| ZnO-NPs 1d | 16 (0.8) | 27 (1.8) | 16 (1.4) | 41 (2.4) | 0.0001 | 31 (6.3) | 35 (1.9) | 34 (6.6) | 0.076 |
| ZnO-NPs 5d | 12 (0.9) | 27 (2.2) | 15 (1.7) | 46 (2.9) | 0.0002 | 36 (5.1) | 41 (1.5) | 23 (5.3) | 0.058 |
| ZnO-NPs 15d | 9 (0.9) | 28 (2.2) | 15 (1.7) | 49 (2.9) | 0.0002 | 27 (5.4) | 45 (1.7) | 28 (5.7) | 0.066 |
| ZnCl ₂ 1 h | 10 (0.9) | 21 (2.1) | 19 (1.7) | 50 (2.9) | 0.0002 | 26 (7.5) | 32 (2.3) | 42 (7.8) | 0.097 |
| $ZnCl_2$ 1 d | 13 (1.1) | 10 (0.8) | 26 (2.0) | 51 (3.5) | 0.0002 | 18 (6.5) | 35 (2.0) | 47 (6.8) | 0.080 |
| $ZnCl_2$ 5 d | 16(1.1) | 24 (2.4) | 50 (1.9) | 10 (3.3) | 0.0002 | 34 (7.2) | 46 (2.2) | 20 (7.6) | 0.109 |
| $ZnCl_2$ 15 d | 16 (1.2) | 27 (2.6) | 47 (2.0) | 10 (3.5) | 0.0003 | 32 (8.4) | 45 (2.6) | 23 (8.8) | 0.140 |

Table 2. Best fit speciation of Zn in soils as identified by linear combination fitting (LCF) of K_{α} -edge XANES and EXAFS spectra^a

^aData are presented as percentages and the values in brackets show the percentage variation in the calculated values. ^bR factor = $\sum (\text{experimental} - \text{fit})^2 / \sum (\text{experimental})^2$, where the sums are over the data points in the fitting region. ^cZn sorbed ferrihydrite.

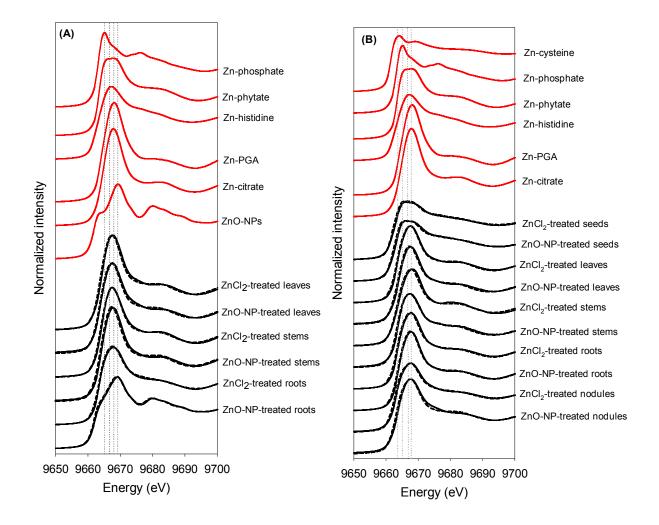


Figure 1. Normalized Zn K_{α} -edge XANES spectra for various tissues of cowpea exposed to ZnO-NPs or ZnCl₂ in solution culture (A) or soil culture (B). Data are also presented for the standard compounds determined in the LCF solutions. Dotted lines show the best fits of reference spectra obtained using LCF as presented in Table 1.

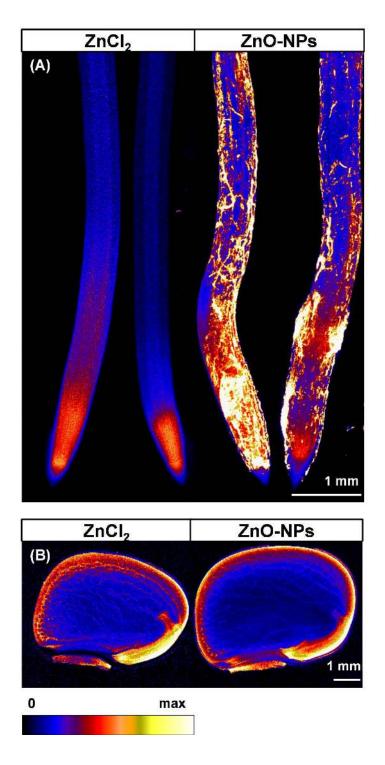


Figure 2. (A) Imaging of Zn in cowpea roots exposed for 1 d to 25 mg Zn L^{-1} as ZnO-NPs or ZnCl₂ in solution culture using μ -XRF. (B) Imaging of Zn in cowpea seeds grown in the Oxisol amended with ZnCl₂ or ZnO-NPs using μ -XRF. All samples were enclosed in 4 μ m-thick Ultralene films and scanned simultaneously allowing valid comparisons between treatments. Brighter colors correspond to higher Zn concentrations.

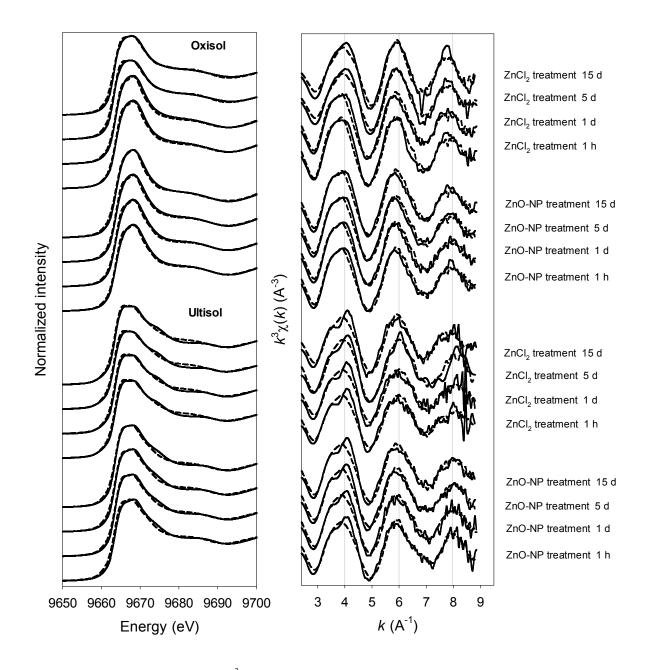
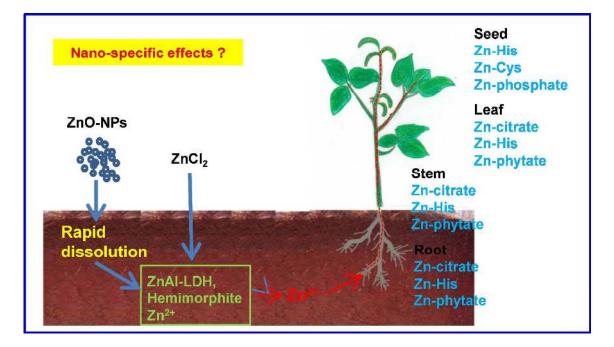


Figure 3. Zn K_{α} -edge XANES and k^3 -weighted EXAFS spectra of two soils (Oxisol and Ultisol) amended with 500 mg Zn kg⁻¹ as ZnCl₂ or ZnO-NPs incubated for 1 h, 1 d, 5 d, and 15 d. Dotted lines show the best fits of reference spectra obtained using LCF as presented in Table 2.



TOC Graphic Image