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1 **Bioavailability of Cerium Oxide Nanoparticles to**
2 ***Raphanus sativus* L. in Two Soils**

3
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25 **Abstract**

26 Cerium oxide nanoparticles (CeO₂ NP) are a common component of many
27 commercial products. Due to the general concerns over the potential toxicity of
28 engineered nanoparticles (ENPs), the phytotoxicity and *in planta* accumulation of CeO₂
29 NPs have been broadly investigated. However, most previous studies were conducted in
30 hydroponic systems and with grain crops. For a few studies performed with soil grown
31 plants, the impact of soil properties on the fate and transport of CeO₂ NPs was generally
32 ignored even though numerous previous studies indicate that soil properties play a critical
33 role in the fate and transport of environmental pollutants. The objectives of this study
34 were to evaluate the soil fractionation and bioavailability of CeO₂ NPs to *Raphanus*
35 *sativus* L (radish) in two soil types. Our results showed that the silty loam contained
36 slightly higher exchangeable fraction (F1) of cerium element than did loamy sand soil,
37 but significantly lower reducible (F2) and oxidizable (F3) fractions as CeO₂ NPs
38 concentration increased. CeO₂ NPs associated with silicate minerals or the residue
39 fraction (F4) dominated in both soils. The cerium concentration in radish storage root
40 showed linear correlation with the sum of the first three fractions ($r^2 = 0.98$ and 0.78 for
41 loamy sand and silty loam respectively). However, the cerium content in radish shoots
42 only exhibited strong correlations with F1 ($r^2 = 0.97$ and 0.89 for loamy sand and silty
43 loam respectively). Overall, the results demonstrated that soil properties are important
44 factors governing the distribution of CeO₂NPs in soil and subsequent bioavailability to
45 plants.

46

47 **Keywords:** cerium oxide nanoparticles, radish, bioavailability, soil fractionation

48 **Introduction**

49 As the world's most abundant rare earth element, cerium is widely used in
50 industries both in free metal and oxide form (Naumov, 2008; Masui et al., 2002). Thanks
51 to the large specific surface area and rich redox chemistry, cerium oxide nanoparticles
52 (CeO_2 NPs) have been used as catalysts, electrolyte materials and fuel additives (Zhang et
53 al., 2002). The increasing popularity of CeO_2 NPs in industry has caused concern over
54 their potential toxicity in the environment. There have been many reports that indicate
55 potential toxicity of CeO_2 NPs to bacteria, fish, and mammalian cells (Pelletier et al.,
56 2010; Rosenkranz et al., 2012). The potential risks of CeO_2 NPs to plants, a critical food
57 source for humans, have also been investigated. However, previous studies were mainly
58 focused on the uptake and accumulation of CeO_2 NPs by grain crops and aboveground
59 vegetables in hydroponic systems. For instance, López-Moreno et al. (López-Moreno et
60 al., 2010) showed that intact CeO_2 NPs were taken up by soybean roots in hydroponic
61 systems without subsequent biotransformation. Zhang et al. (Zhang et al., 2011) also
62 reported that cucumber (*Cucumis sativus* L.) root could take up CeO_2 NPs and transport
63 them to the shoots. However, later investigations suggested that CeO_2 NPs may release
64 Ce^{3+} on root surface and uptake of Ce^{3+} rather than CeO_2 NPs might be the primary
65 pathway for plant uptake of CeO_2 NPs (Rui et al., 2015; Ma et al., 2015; Schwabe et al.,
66 2015). Although hydroponic studies provide valuable information on the potential
67 mechanisms of plant uptake and accumulation of CeO_2 NPs, increasing efforts are
68 dedicated to elucidating the fate and impact of CeO_2 NPs in soil to obtain a more realistic
69 understanding of the fate and impact of CeO_2 NPs.

70 For example, after tomato plants were irrigated with 0.1 to 10 mg/L of CeO_2 NPs

71 solutions, Wang et al. (Wang et al., 2012) reported that Ce was accumulated in tomato
72 (*Solanum lycopersicum* L.) roots and shoots, including the edible tissues, with the root
73 being the primary tissue of accumulation. Zhao et al. (Zhao et al., 2015) also reported low
74 translocation of CeO₂ NPs from root to shoot in corn plants (*Zea mays* L.) and noticed
75 that 800 mg/kg CeO₂ NPs did not affect plant photosynthesis throughout the exposure but
76 significantly reduced the corn yield. Another recent study demonstrated that CeO₂ NPs
77 did not affect the growth of lettuce (*Lactuca sativa* L.) at low concentrations (50 mg/kg
78 and 100 mg/kg) in potting soil, but significantly inhibited biomass production and
79 disrupted plant stress responses at 1000 mg/kg (Gui et al., 2015). While these soil-based
80 studies provide significant new information on the fate and impact of CeO₂ NPs in the
81 ecosystem, none of the previous studies has closely examined the impact of soil
82 properties on the toxicity and bioavailability of CeO₂ NPs to terrestrial plants. Plant
83 uptake of metals in soil depends on both the soluble fraction of total metal and the
84 capability of soil to release the metals and both factors are considerably affected by the
85 soil properties (Backes et al., 1995). Previous research has shown that metal mobility in
86 soil is governed by many factors including the soil characteristics (e.g. soil texture, pH,
87 and organic matter content); the nature of the contaminants (e.g. the chemical forms of
88 pollutants and the binding state); and the environmental conditions (e.g. acidification,
89 redox processes, temperature, and water regime) (Sahuquillo et al., 2003).

90 In recent decades, several extraction methods have been developed to evaluate the
91 mobility of metals in soil. Sequential selective extraction is defined as the use of a series
92 of selective reagents to solubilize the solid material successively into specific fractions
93 (Gleyzes et al., 2002). A three-step sequential extraction procedure for soil and sediment

94 analysis known as the BCR (Bureau Commune de Reference of the European
95 Commission) method, proposed in 1993 (Ure et al., 1993) and later modified by Rauret et
96 al in 1999 (Rauret et al., 1999) is widely used for the determination of extractable trace
97 metals in soils and sediments. This three-step sequential extraction method separates the
98 metal of interest into four fractions: the exchangeable, water/acid soluble metal (F1); the
99 metal bound to Fe-Mn oxides (F2); the metal bound to organic matter (F3) and the metal
100 bound to silicate minerals in the residual fraction (F4) (Rao et al., 2010; Sahuquillo et al.,
101 2003; Li et al., 2010). According to the research of Li et al. (Li et al., 2010), F1
102 represents the most active, mobile and bioavailable phase of the metal. These authors
103 used the BCR method to study the bioavailability of Zn, Cu, Pb Cd, Hg, and As in topsoil
104 and found that soil physicochemical properties (e.g. pH, organic matter, and clay content)
105 affected metal fractionation in soil and their bioavailability to plants. Zhong et al. (Zhong
106 et al., 2011) suggested that the first three fractions of the metals in soil were the
107 potentially bioavailable and hazardous fractions to plants. The successful application of
108 the BCR method to estimate the bioavailability of heavy metals in soil to plants provides
109 a potentially useful method to evaluate the availability of engineered metallic
110 nanoparticles under similar exposure scenarios.

111 Radish (*Raphanus sativus* L.) is a popular vegetable with high global
112 consumption and can mature in three to four weeks under favorable growth conditions.
113 Radish is also an underground vegetable, with its edible tissues directly exposed to CeO₂
114 NPs in soil. Therefore, radish may accumulate high concentrations of ENPs in their
115 edible tissues. A previous study indeed demonstrated that the radish tubes grown in a
116 loamy sand soil with 250 and 500 mg/kg of CeO₂ NPs accumulated high concentrations

117 of Ce, posing potential risks for human exposure (Corral-Diaz et al., 2014). However,
118 detailed distribution of Ce in the tubes and the role of soil properties were not reported in
119 that study. The objectives of this investigation were to (1) use the BCR sequential
120 extraction method to evaluate the fractionation of CeO₂ NPs in two types of soil, (2)
121 assess the bioavailability of CeO₂ NPs to radish roots and (3) determine the impact of soil
122 type on the root to shoot translocation of CeO₂ NPs and their distribution in plant tissues.

123

124 **Materials and Methods**

125 **Chemicals**

126 A dispersion of bare CeO₂ NPs (10 wt. % in H₂O, <25 nm particle size) was
127 purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (St. Louis, MO). The shape, size and size distribution
128 were determined by a Tecnai G2 F20 transmission electron microscope (TEM) (FEI,
129 Hillsboro, Oregon) and are shown in Figure 1. Most of the nanoparticles had quadrilateral
130 or polygonal shapes and fell in the size range of 10-25 nm in diameter with an average
131 nanoparticle size of 19.1 nm. The size distribution was obtained by measuring 112
132 individual nanoparticles on the TEM image with ImageJ. The hydrodynamic diameter
133 and zeta potential of CeO₂ NPs at 500 mg/L in water were 107.3 nm and 45±0.41 mV
134 respectively, as measured by a dynamic light scattering instrument (Malvern Zetasizer
135 Nano-ZS90, Westborough, MA). The surface speciation of CeO₂ NPs was investigated
136 with an X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) (Omicron multiprobe MXPS system,
137 Scienta Omicron, Germany). The XPS spectra of the surface of CeO₂ NPs was shown in
138 Figure 1c. The results indicated that 12.4% of Ce on the surface was in the form of Ce³⁺,
139 as calculated through the XPS peak fitting software XPSPEAK 4.1.

140 Quarter and half strength Hoagland solution were prepared by dissolving an
141 appropriate amount of the modified Hoagland's basal salt mixture purchased from
142 Phytotechnology Laboratories (Lenexa, KS) in deionized (DI) water.

143 **Soil characterization**

144 Two types of soil were used in this study: (1) commercially-purchased topsoil
145 (Timberline Top Soil, Oldcastle Inc., Atlanta, GA); (2) an agricultural soil collected from
146 a farmland associated with Southern Illinois University (Carbondale, IL). Due to the
147 different weight percentages of sand, silt and clay in these two soils, the topsoil was
148 classified as loamy sand and the local soil was classified as silty loam according to the
149 USDA soil texture classification. The weight percentages of sand, silt, and clay were
150 determined through wet sieve analysis and hydrometer test (Bouyoucos, 1962). The
151 results for both soils are shown in Supplementary Table 1.

152 The Deutsches Institut für Normung (DIN) 19684-1 method was adopted for the
153 measurement of soil pH. One hundred mL deionized water was mixed with 40 g of air-
154 dried soil at the speed of 250 rpm (solid-liquid mass ratio 1:2.5). The mixture was shaken
155 for five minutes and allowed to settle for two hr. The pH was then measured with a pH
156 meter (Thermo Scientific Orion ROSS Ultra pH/ATC Triode, Orion Star A325). The pH
157 of loamy sand was 6.87 and the pH of silty loam was 6.58.

158 The ASTM D 2974 method (Standard Test Methods for Moisture, Ash, and
159 Organic Matter of Peat and Organic Soils) was used to determine the content of organic
160 matter in soil. The soil was first dried in an oven at 105 °C for 24 h. The dry soil was
161 weighed and then combusted at 440 °C for 24 h. The loss in mass was assumed to be due
162 entirely to oxidation of organic matter. Three replicates were prepared for each type of

163 soil. The average organic matter contents were $11.87\% \pm 0.56\%$ for loamy sand and
164 $2.21\% \pm 0.04\%$ (average \pm standard error, $n=3$) for silty loam.

165 **Experimental Setup**

166 **Soil preparation**

167 The growing pots were established by adding 150 g of dry soil to a plastic
168 container (~266 mL total volume). CeO₂ NPs dispersion and deionized water were added
169 to the container in different proportions so that the soil was saturated to 100% of field
170 capacity and at the same time reached the targeted concentration of CeO₂ NPs
171 homogeneously. Four concentrations of CeO₂ NPs were prepared for each type of soil:
172 control (no treatment), 100, 500 and 1000 mg Ce /kg dry soil. The concentrations were
173 chosen based on the most frequently used concentrations in the literature for the fate and
174 phytotoxicity study of metal oxide nanoparticles to terrestrial plants (Holden et al., 2014).
175 Each treatment had six replicates. Altogether, 24 such containers were prepared for each
176 soil. The soil were incubated for one day before radish seeds were sowed.

177 **Seed germination and growth conditions**

178 Radish seeds [Cherriette (F1)] were purchased from Johnny's Selected Seeds
179 (Winslow, ME). Three seeds were placed approximately 15 mm beneath the soil surface
180 in each container with soils containing different concentrations of CeO₂ NPs. After
181 germination, each container was thinned to one seedling.

182 Plants were irrigated with quarter strength Hoagland's solution to a constant mass
183 (230 g after irrigation) daily from Day 6 to Day 15 after sowing. The soil was then
184 irrigated to the same constant mass with half strength Hoagland's solution until harvest
185 (Day 31). Plants were incubated on a growth cart with a 16 h photoperiod at 28 °C and

186 ambient humidity. The growth cart was equipped with four T5 fluorescent bulbs,
187 providing a light intensity of approximately $104 \text{ } \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ at the height of plant shoots.
188 Relative chlorophyll content was measured with a SPAD 502 Plus Chlorophyll Meter at
189 Day 26 and was expressed as a percentage of the control plants.

190 **Cerium fractionation in soil**

191 At harvest, plants were gently removed from the soil for further analysis (details
192 described below). The soil was homogenized and then three samples were randomly
193 collected from three containers in each treatment and extracted with the modified BCR
194 method to determine the fractionation of CeO_2 NPs in soil. The sample was first
195 extracted with 20 mL of 0.11 M acetic acid solution by shaking at 250 rpm for 16 hours
196 at $22 \pm 5 \text{ } ^\circ\text{C}$ and centrifuged at 3,000 g for 20 minutes to obtain the exchangeable fraction
197 (F1). The residue was then resuspended and extracted by 20 mL of 0.5 M hydroxylamine
198 hydrochloride solution at pH 1.5 and shaken at 250 rpm for 16 hours at $22 \pm 5 \text{ } ^\circ\text{C}$. The
199 mixture was centrifuged similarly as described above to obtain the reducible fraction
200 (F2). The residue was then resuspended and mixed with 30% H_2O_2 and shaken at 250
201 rpm for 1 hour at room temperature, followed by another hour of shaking at 250 rpm at
202 $85 \pm 2 \text{ } ^\circ\text{C}$ with a closed cap. The volume of the mixture was reduced to less than 1.5 mL
203 by further heating at the same temperature without cap. Following the volume reduction,
204 an aliquot of 5 mL of 30% w/v H_2O_2 was added and the heating process was repeated
205 until the volume was reduced to about 0.5 mL. Afterwards, 25 mL of 1 M ammonium
206 acetate solution at pH 2 was mixed with the residue for 16 hours at $22 \pm 5 \text{ } ^\circ\text{C}$ and the
207 mixture was centrifuged at 3,000 g for 20 minutes to extract the oxidizable fraction (F3).
208 The residue fraction (F4) was extracted by aqua regia following the ISO 11466 protocol;

209 4.5 mL of HCl (12.0 M) and 1.5 mL of HNO₃ (15.8 M) was added drop-wise to 0.5 g of
210 residue from the third fraction. The mixture was left at room temperature for 16 hours
211 and then was transferred to a 50 mL reaction vessel connected to a reflux condenser. The
212 reaction vessel was heated until reflux conditions were reached and was continuously
213 heated for 2 hours (the condensation zone is lower than 1/3 of the height of the
214 condenser). The condenser was further rinsed with 10 mL HNO₃ (0.5 M) and the rinsing
215 solution and additional HNO₃ (0.5 M) were collected and added to the reaction vessel
216 until they reached the 50 mL scale line. The supernatant solution of each fraction was
217 analyzed for Ce by an Agilent 7500ce Inductively Coupled Plasma Mass Spectrometry
218 (ICP-MS, Santa Clara, CA).

219 **Scanning electron microscope characterization of cerium in soil**

220 To determine the physicochemical characteristics of CeO₂ NPs in soil, air dried
221 control and 1000 mg/kg treated loamy sand and silty loam soils were fixed on a double-
222 sided adhesive tape, which was adhered to the specimen holder, and were analyzed using
223 FEI Quanta FEG450 scanning electron microscope (SEM) equipped with an Energy
224 Dispersive X-ray Spectroscopy (EDS). The SEM imaging of soil samples was performed
225 by applying accelerating voltages of 10 kV. The concentration of 1000 mg/kg CeO₂ NPs,
226 the highest concentration used in this study, was selected to ensure the detectability of
227 CeO₂ NPs by SEM.

228 **Plant uptake and accumulation of cerium**

229 After plants were carefully removed from the soil, they were separated into
230 shoots, storage root (the edible radish bulb) and fine roots. The separated tissues were
231 rinsed with DI water to remove all adhering soil particles and dried in an oven at 105 °C

232 for 30 minutes, then at 75 °C for seven days prior to dry weight determination. After
233 drying in the oven, three replicates in each treatment were randomly chosen. The dried
234 shoot, storage root, and fine root tissues were ground into fine powders and digested in 4
235 mL of 70% (v/v) nitric acid. The nitric acid digest was heated at 95 °C for 20 minutes and
236 then at 45 °C for 4 minutes. The cycle was repeated until all the dry tissues was
237 dissolved. Afterwards, 2 mL of H₂O₂ was added to the mixture. The mixture was heated
238 using the same temperature cycle until the solution was clear. The digest solutions of
239 storage roots and shoots were then analyzed by ICP-MS. The digest solution of fine roots
240 was analyzed by a Thermal Scientific iCAP 6500 Inductively Coupled Plasma Optical
241 Emission Spectrometry (ICP-OES) due to the high cerium concentration in the fine root
242 tissue.

243 **Distribution of cerium in radish shoots and storage roots**

244 Three replicates from the control and 500 mg/kg treatment group grown in both
245 soils were used as representatives to illustrate the cerium localization in the radish storage
246 roots and shoots. The whole storage root was divided into three layers with a precision
247 knife: the periderm (Peri), the intermediate layer (L1), and the inner layer (L2). The
248 thicknesses of the periderm and the intermediate layer were approximately 1 mm and 5
249 mm respectively (Figure 2). Each shoot was divided into two sections: the edges (S1) and
250 the main leaf area (S2). The width of the edges was about 5- 7 mm (Figure 2). The
251 subsections of the storage roots and shoots were oven dried and digested as described
252 above for the whole tissues. The digest solutions were analyzed by ICP-MS.

253 **Data analysis**

254 The statistical analysis of experimental data was performed by means of one-way

255 and two-way ANOVA using IBM SPSS Statistics 20.0. The Duncan test was conducted
256 for post hoc comparisons. A student t test was conducted to determine the significance of
257 soil impact at the same concentration. Statistical significance was accepted when $p < 0.05$.

258 **Results**

259 **Plant physiological status**

260 The dry biomass of storage roots and shoots are shown in Supplementary Figure
261 1. For both soils, treatment with 100 and 500 mg/kg CeO₂ NPs did not cause any
262 significant differences between the treated plants and their controls. Exposure to 1000 mg
263 /kg CeO₂ NPs resulted in significantly greater dry biomass of the storage root than all
264 other treated and control plants in loamy sand. The same treatment, however, led to
265 significantly lower dry biomass of storage roots than that of 500 mg/kg treated radishes in
266 silty loam. When the biomass of radishes grown in two soils at the same concentration
267 was compared, the storage roots of control, 100 mg/kg, and 500 mg/kg CeO₂ NPs treated
268 radishes were significantly greater in silty loam than in loamy sand. At the highest
269 concentration, the difference of the storage root biomass between the two soils was not
270 significant.

271 In contrast to the storage root biomass, the shoot biomass was not affected by
272 CeO₂ NPs exposure for either soil. However, significant differences were noticed
273 between the soil types at control and 100 mg/kg treatment. Radishes grown in silty loam
274 soil from the two concentration groups had significantly higher shoot biomass than the
275 plants grown in loamy sand. The relative chlorophyll contents, expressed as percentages
276 of controls, are shown in Supplementary Table 2. No significant differences were
277 observed across the treatments.

278 **Cerium fractionation in soil**

279 The percentage of each fraction in the two soils is illustrated in stacked columns
280 in Figure 3. F4 was the dominant fraction of CeO₂ NPs in both soils, and the percentage
281 was invariably higher in silty loam (60.8-78.2%) than in loamy sand (58.6-70.5%) at the
282 same concentration. F1 was the smallest fraction and accounted for less than 0.11% in
283 loamy sand and 0.22% in silty loam. While the relative percentage of F2 was comparable
284 between the two soils, the loamy sand always contained higher oxidizable fraction (F3)
285 than silty loam at the same concentration (15.8-17.8% for loamy sand vs. 9.07-11.8% for
286 silty loam). The distribution of CeO₂ NPs among these four fractions changed with
287 concentration. In general, with the increase of concentration, the percentage of F1 and F2
288 decreased while the percentage of F4 increased in both soils. The percentage of F3 was
289 relatively stable across the concentration ranges employed in this study.

290 The actual concentrations of each individual fraction are presented in
291 Supplementary Figure 2. As the most abundant rare earth element on the earth's crust,
292 both soils contained high background concentration of cerium. The total background
293 cerium was 52.5 ± 1.87 mg/kg dry soil in the loamy sand and 77.2 ± 5.25 mg/kg dry soil
294 in the silty loam. Due to the high background concentrations of cerium, the fractionation
295 of dosed CeO₂ was calculated by subtracting the cerium concentration in each individual
296 fraction of the control soil from the concentrations in the corresponding fractions of the
297 treated soil. The results are presented in Figure 4. Both the dosing concentration and soil
298 characteristics were significant factors affecting the fractionation of CeO₂ NPs in soil
299 according to the two-way ANOVA analysis. In general, the silty loam contained higher
300 F1 than the loamy sand and the difference was significant for 500 mg/kg treatment

301 (Figure 4a). The silty loam contained significantly lower F2 and F3 than the loamy sand
302 in 500 and 1000 mg/kg treatment. The silty loam had significantly higher F4 than the
303 loamy sand in 100 mg/kg but the differences in F4 were not significant in higher
304 concentrations (Figure 4d). It has been reported that CeO₂ NPs cannot be fully dissolved
305 in aqua regia (Antisari et al., 2011). Therefore, it is likely that some cerium residues
306 remained in the soil and was not included in the four fractions reported here.

307 To further probe the differences of CeO₂ NPs behaviors in the two soils, SEM
308 analysis was conducted. The SEM images shown in Figure 5 were acquired with samples
309 from control and 1000 mg/kg treatment. EDS analysis was conducted in the selected area
310 (red frames in the images) to detect the component elements. The main components of
311 the two soils were silica and oxygen. In control samples from both soil types, no cerium
312 was detected by the EDS even though ICP-MS analysis showed that both soils contained
313 high background cerium. However, in 1000 mg/kg treatment, the cerium weight
314 percentages were 7.23% and 8.05% in loamy sand and silty loam, respectively. The
315 cerium signals in both soil indicate that the CeO₂ NPs were mainly attached to the edge
316 of soil particles. Individual particle aggregates could be seen in the treated loamy sand,
317 but not in the silty loam soil.

318 **Cerium uptake and accumulation**

319 Cerium was detected in all plant tissues even though the total accumulation of
320 cerium in plant biomass was relatively small compared with the total cerium added to the
321 system. The concentrations and the total mass of cerium in different plant tissues are
322 presented in Supplementary Figure 3. Due to the high background cerium concentration
323 in control plants, the accumulation of the dosed cerium in different plant tissues was

324 calculated by subtracting the cerium concentration in different plant tissues of the control
325 plants from the corresponding tissues of treated ones and the results are presented in
326 Figure 6. Even though the accumulation of cerium in all tissues increased with
327 increasing concentration in general, a dose response relationship was not apparent,
328 especially for the shoot tissues.

329 The comparison of cerium accumulation by plants grown in two soil types
330 indicated that the radish fine roots and storage root from the loamy sand usually
331 possessed higher cerium concentration than the same tissues collected from the silty
332 loam. Interestingly, the cerium concentration in the shoot showed opposite trend between
333 these two soils. However, none of these differences were significant except for the
334 cerium in the fine roots from 100 mg/kg treatment.

335 **Cerium localization in radish storage roots and shoots**

336 The cerium concentrations in different sections of radish storage roots and shoots
337 are shown in Table 1. The average cerium concentration in the periderm (Peri) of radish
338 storage roots from 500 mg/kg was more than ten times higher than that of control in both
339 soils. However, large variations were observed between replicates from the same
340 treatment group. Cerium concentrations in the intermediate layer (L1) and the inner layer
341 were comparable to the control plants in both soils. In radish leaves, the cerium
342 concentrations in the edge section (S1) of treated and control plants were similar for both
343 soils. However, the average cerium concentration in the main leaf area (S2) was
344 significantly higher (almost three times) from 500 mg/kg treated radish than from control
345 plants in the silty loam. No difference was observed for the main leaf area in control
346 plants and 500 mg/kg treated plants in loamy sand.

347

348 **Discussion**

349 Although plant uptake of CeO₂ NPs from soil has been observed previously (Rico
350 et al., 2013; López-Moreno et al., 2010; Wang et al., 2012; Wang et al., 2013; Zhang et
351 al., 2011), the influence of soil properties on CeO₂ NPs bioavailability has not been
352 examined. However, once cerium enters soil through wastewater irrigation or biosolid
353 amendment, particle bioavailability may depend heavily on the physical and chemical
354 properties of soil, as noted for other elements (Ernst, 1996). The results of this study
355 confirmed that the accumulation and translocation of CeO₂ NPs in plant tissues depend
356 heavily on soil type due to the impact of soil on CeO₂ NPs fractionation.

357 Even though CeO₂ NPs are generally perceived as stable in the environment,
358 dissolution does occur and Cornelis et al. (Cornelis et al., 2011) reported that about
359 0.25% of total CeO₂ NPs in soil was released as ions at pH 7 and 9 in soil. The presence
360 of chelating agents in the soil may further enhance the dissolution by forming complexes
361 with Ce³⁺ on the surface of CeO₂ NPs (Schwabe et al., 2014). F1 was considered to
362 include both the dissolved ions and dissolved nanoparticles. Due to the low solubility of
363 CeO₂ NPs and possibly the rapid adsorption of dissolved ions to the solid phase, F1
364 represented a negligible fraction in both soils in this study even though the concentration
365 of F1 increased with concentrations (<0.16% for the dosed CeO₂ NPs). Water soluble
366 cerium at low concentration is generally not considered as toxic and is sometimes used as
367 fertilizer (Hu et al., 2002). The F1 in silty loam was invariably higher than that in loamy
368 sand at the same concentration. Therefore, the differences of F1 may partially explain the
369 generally higher dry biomass of radish storage roots and shoots in silty loam than in

370 loamy sand (Supplementary Figure 1).

371 Fe-Mn oxides, considered as secondary minerals, exist primarily in the clay
372 (Allen and Hajek, 1989; Fieldes and Swindale, 1954; Post, 1999). Therefore, the higher
373 reducible CeO₂ (F2) in silty loam with higher clay content may be expected.

374 Interestingly, the expectation was only consistent with the observations at lower
375 concentrations (<100 mg/kg). At higher concentrations (500 and 1000 mg/kg), the
376 opposite trend was observed. Two processes may have contributed to the seemingly
377 inconsistent observations of CeO₂ NPs fractionation in these two soils. Firstly, the CeO₂
378 NPs used in this study were positively charged, as indicated by their surface zeta
379 potential. At neutral pH, the surface charges of quartz and feldspars, which are the main
380 components of sand and silt, are negative (Jada et al., 2006; Yin and Drelich, 2008).

381 Previous research showed that electrons can accumulate at the edges of clay particles
382 (Bolland et al., 1976). Therefore, CeO₂ NPs can be electrostatically attracted to the
383 electrons on clay edges and precipitate (Cornelis et al., 2011). The strong affinity
384 between CeO₂ NPs and some soil particles is supported by the SEM images (Figure 5).

385 The electrostatic forces present may therefore restrain the direct contact of CeO₂ NPs
386 with Fe-Mn oxides in the clay. Secondly, the extractant (hydroxylamine hydrochloride)
387 used to recover F2 may lead to higher cerium concentration in loamy sand due to its high
388 reducing capacity. It has been reported that hydroxylamine hydrochloride can reduce
389 Ce⁴⁺ in CeO₂ to Ce³⁺ ions ($2\text{CeO}_2 + \text{NH}_2\text{OH} + \text{NH}_3\text{OH}^+ + 2\text{H}_2\text{O} \rightarrow 2\text{Ce}(\text{OH})_3 + \text{NO}_2^- +$
390 $\text{NH}_4^+ + \text{H}^+$. $E^\circ = 0.232\text{V}$) (Tamilmani et al., 2003). The reaction might be stronger
391 between the extractant and the more mobile CeO₂ NPs in the loamy sand, leading to high
392 measurement of F2 in the loamy sand than in silty loam. This hypothesis needs further

393 evaluation. Different hydrodynamic sizes of CeO₂ NPs at different concentrations might
394 also affect their precipitation and association with different fractions of soil particles.
395 Future studies should aim to characterize ENPs in the actual environment in addition to
396 the characterization of primary particles.

397 The oxidizable fraction (F3) of CeO₂ is believed to be associated with organic
398 matter in soil. The higher organic matter content in loamy sand soil is consistent with the
399 generally higher F3 in this soil than in the silty loam. Natural organic matter can enhance
400 the mobility of NPs in porous media by increasing charge and steric stabilization (Lin et
401 al., 2010). Zhao et al. (Zhao et al., 2012) studied the uptake of CeO₂ NPs by corn grown
402 in soils and concluded that organic matter improved the mobility and bioavailability of
403 CeO₂ NPs to corn, resulting in higher accumulation of Ce in corn roots. The consistently
404 higher cerium concentration in the fine roots and storage roots of radish grown in loamy
405 sand was consistent with the relative organic matter contents in these two soils. These
406 findings support the theory that natural organic matter plays an important role in
407 regulating the mobility and bioavailability of engineered nanoparticles to plants (Antisari
408 et al., 2011).

409 One intriguing observation of this study was the disparity of roots and shoots with
410 regard to CeO₂ NPs accumulation from different soils. As described above, the radish
411 storage roots and fine roots generally contained higher cerium concentration in loamy
412 sand. However, the concentrations of cerium in shoot tissues followed the opposite trend
413 between the soils. It is postulated that the low translocation of cerium in the loamy sand
414 is associated with the low F1 in that soil. Previous research suggested that engineered
415 nanoparticles in plant roots are translocated up through the xylem tissues along with

416 water (Allen and Hajek, 1989), which makes the water soluble fraction more readily
417 transferred to the shoot tissues. A recent study also demonstrated that negatively charged
418 humus colloids in soil could chelate with positively charged CeO₂ NPs and reduce their
419 mobility and bioavailability in soil (Majumdar et al., 2015). Consequently, the upward
420 transport of CeO₂ NPs from root to shoot will be limited in soil grown plants and the
421 extent of transport may depend significantly on the amount of water soluble fraction. Our
422 results agreed with the observation of the low root to shoot translocation of CeO₂ NPs in
423 organic matter enriched soil, but contradicted a previous study which indicated that
424 organic matter enriched soil facilitated the uptake and translocation of CeO₂ NPs by corn
425 (Zhao et al., 2012). The discrepancies may derive from the use of different CeO₂ NPs and
426 different plant species and require further investigation.

427 Following the uptake of cerium, we further evaluated whether the different soil
428 fractionation would affect the distribution of cerium in different plant tissues. Consistent
429 with our previous investigation (Zhang et al., 2015), cerium was predominantly
430 accumulated in the pigmented periderm of radish storage roots for both soils (Table 1).
431 Another recent study on the interactions between CeO₂ NPs and carrot (*Daucus carota*
432 L.) also reported that the accumulation of cerium element principally in the taproot peel
433 and the shoots, with significantly lower cerium concentration in the edible flesh (Ebbs et
434 al., 2015). Notably, even though the average concentration in the periderm was ten times
435 higher in the 500 mg/kg treated radish than the control radish in this study, high
436 variability between the replicates of treated radish was noticed (51.7-217 mg/kg dry
437 tissue for loamy sand and 45.5-236 mg/kg dry tissue for silty loam). It is likely that the
438 high variability was due to the unequal adsorption of CeO₂ NPs on the skin surface of the

439 storage root and the rinsing process during harvest. The similar cerium concentration in
440 the intermediate and inner layers of the treated and control plants suggested that cerium
441 accumulation in the flesh is limited. Altogether, the results indicate that a primary
442 pathway for cerium accumulation in radish storage roots was physical adsorption on the
443 surface and radial diffusion toward the center which is minimal in this study.
444 Interestingly, the cerium concentration in S2 section of the shoot tissue grown in silty
445 loam was three times higher than their corresponding controls, but such difference was
446 not observed in the sandy loam. Our finding is consistent with the higher shoot
447 concentration in CeO₂ NPs treated radish in silty loam and substantiates our earlier
448 contention that F1 was more readily translocated from radish roots to shoots. A previous
449 study indicated that the cerium taken up from roots is transported to leaves through leaf
450 vein vasculature with the transpiration stream (Zhao et al., 2013) and our results appeared
451 to support that conclusion. It is yet to know, however, whether the translocated cerium
452 was in the CeO₂ NPs form or other chemical forms.

453 In summary, soil characteristics were shown to be an important factor affecting
454 the soil fractionation and subsequent bioavailability of CeO₂ NPs to plants. The
455 accumulation of cerium in radish belowground tissues correlated well with the sum of the
456 first three fractions, suggesting that these fractions were bioavailable to plant roots.
457 However, only the exchangeable fraction correlated well with the element amounts
458 shown to transport from roots to shoots. In addition to their bioavailability, the
459 distribution of cerium in different plant tissues was also affected by the physicochemical
460 properties soils, indicating that the specific soil properties must be an important
461 consideration in the assessment of the fate and transport of engineered nanoparticles in

462 the environment.

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469 **Author's Contribution**

470 X.M conceived and supervised the experiment. W. Z and Q. W conducted the experiment

471 and W. Z also prepared the first draft of the manuscript. C. M conducted ICP-MS

472 analysis. J.W., P. S., S. E, and X. M contributed to data analysis and interpretation and X.

473 M also contributed to the writing of the manuscript. All authors read and approved the

474 final version of the manuscript.

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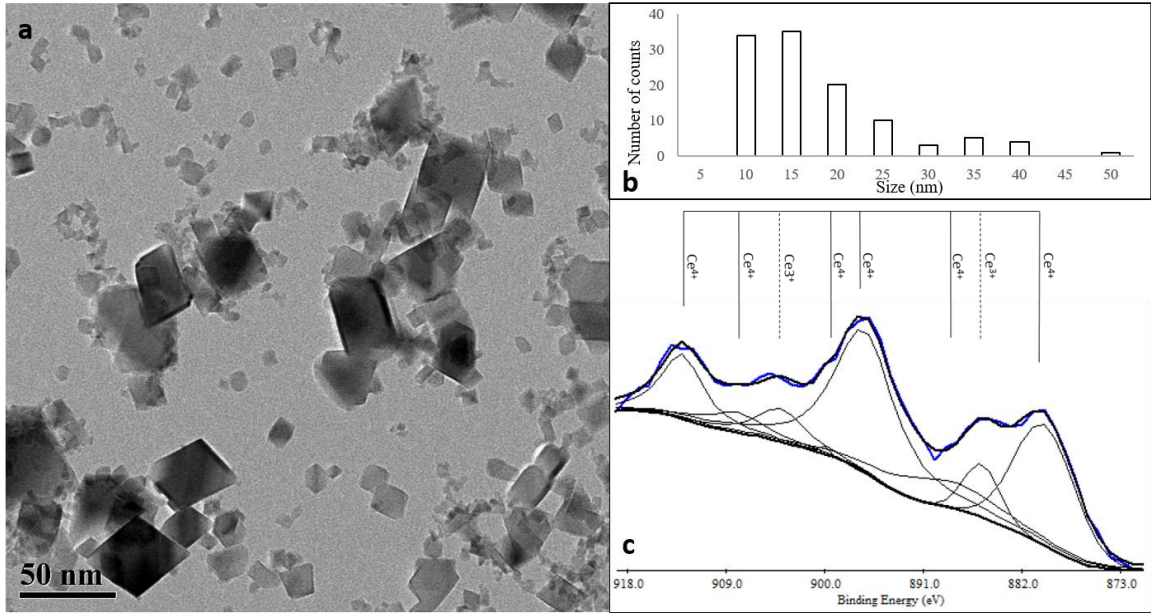
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676 **Figure 1:** Characterization of CeO₂ NPs. (a) TEM image of CeO₂ NPs; (b) The size
 677 distribution of the NPs; and (c) The XPS spectra of cerium on the surface of CeO₂ NPs.

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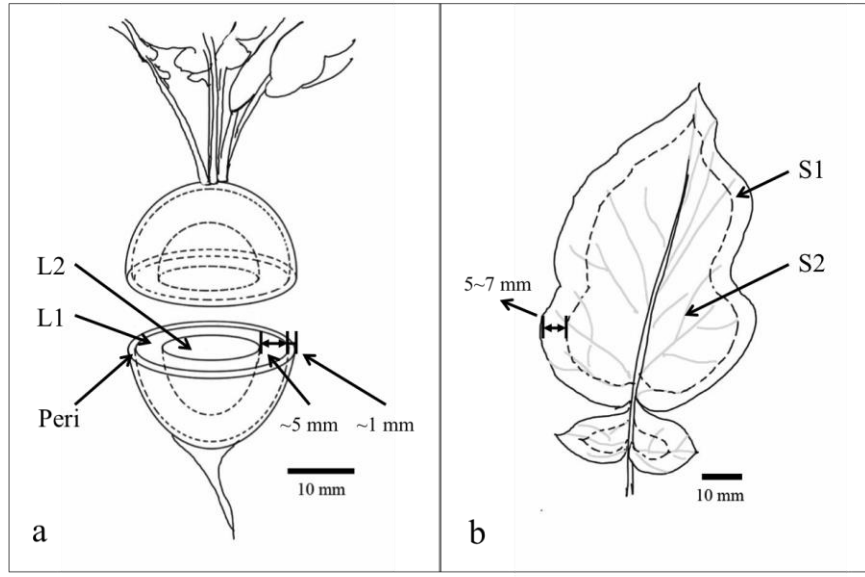
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Figure 2: Schematic illustration of the cutting method of the radish storage root and shoot used for cerium uptake distribution.

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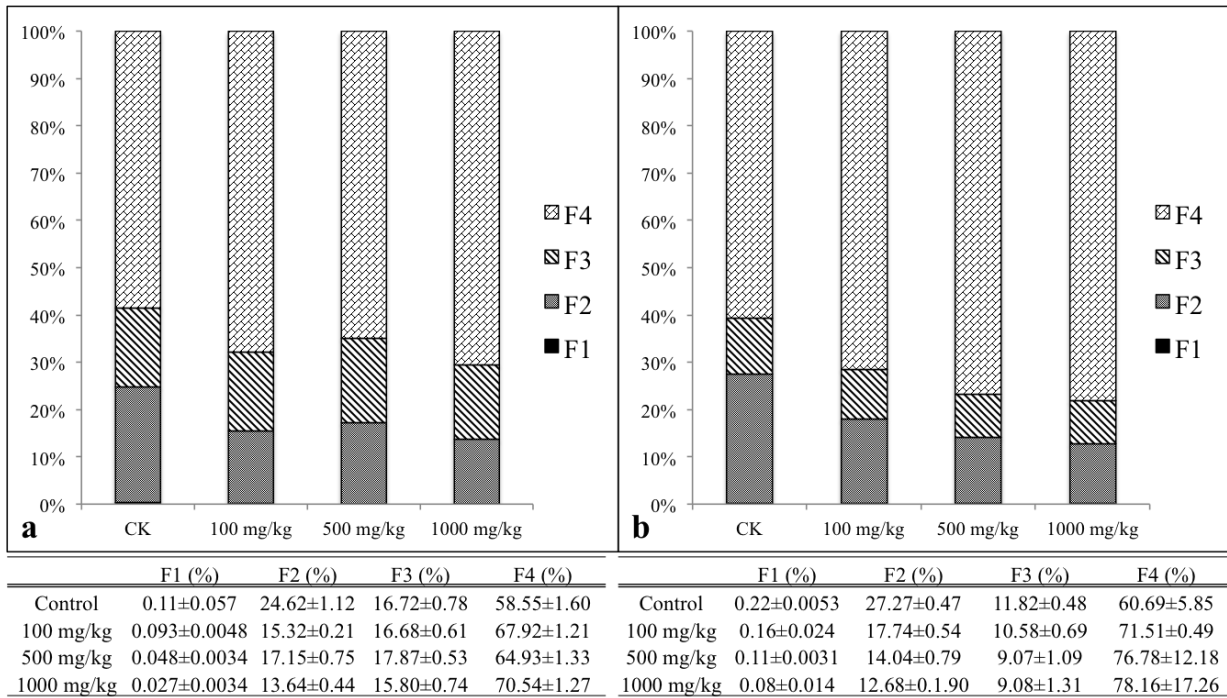
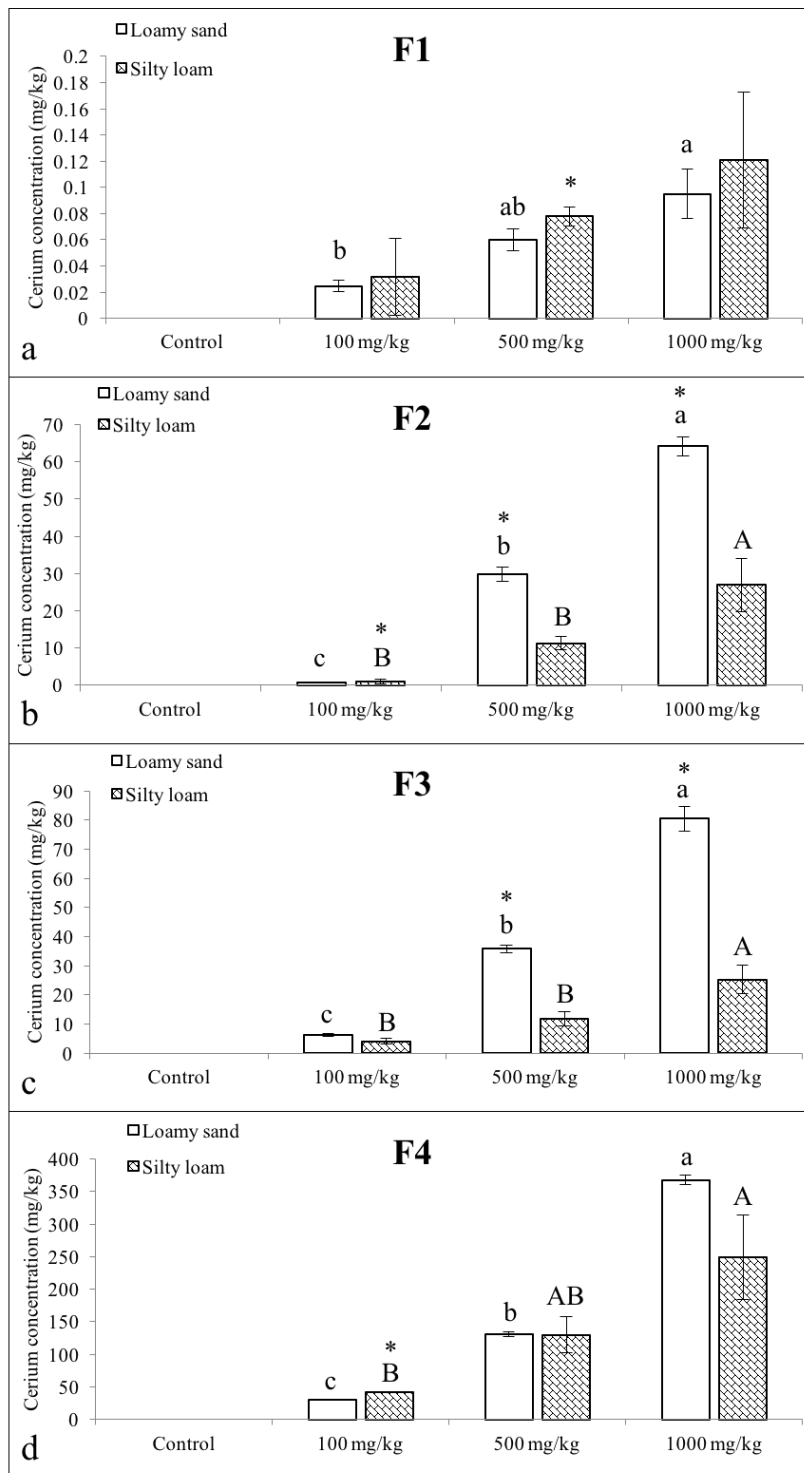


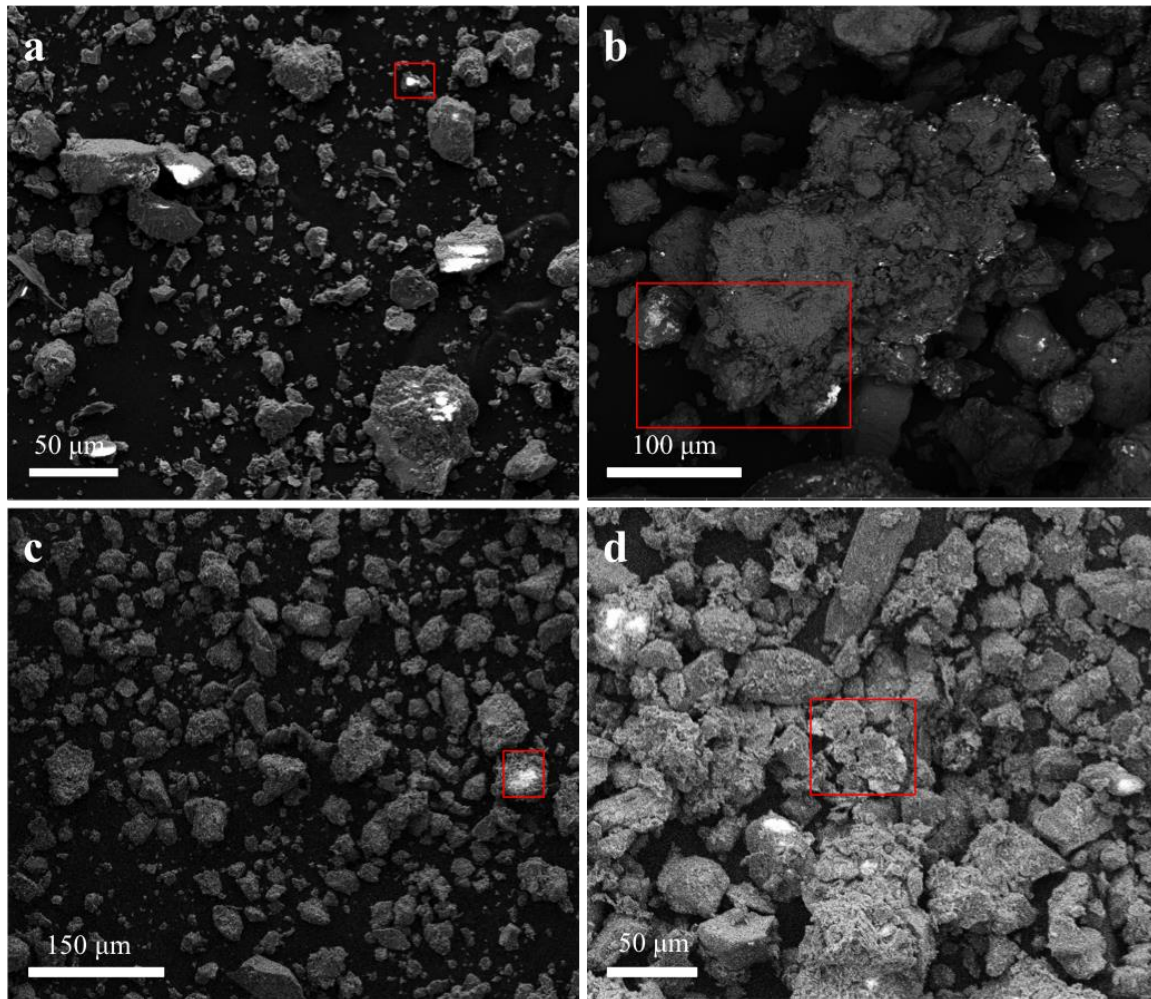
Figure 3: Percentage of cerium fractionation in (a). loamy sand and (b). silty loam determined by the modified BCR sequential extraction procedure. The results shown on the table beneath the figures represent the average and standard error of three replicates.

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Figure 4: Adjusted cerium concentrations in different soil fractions. The error bars represent standard error (n=3). Different letters in lower case and upper case represent significant differences between the treatments in loamy sand and silty loam respectively (p<0.05). Asterisks indicate significant differences between two soils at the same CeO₂ dosing concentration (p<0.05).



Element	Weight% in a	Weight% in b	Weight% in c	Weight% in d
O	61.56	56.49	62	55.32
Al	2.48	4.04	4.85	4.43
Si	34.85	28.65	30	30.03
K	N/A	0.73	3.15	0.72
Ca	N/A	0.76	N/A	N/A
Fe	1.11	2.1	N/A	1.45
Ce	N/A	7.23	N/A	8.05
Total	100	100	100	100

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749 **Figure 5:** SEM images of soil samples of. (a): loamy sand control; (b): loamy sand 1000
 750 mg/kg; (c): silty loam control; (d): silty loam 1000 mg/kg. Table below images shows the
 751 weight percentage of detected elements in selected area (red frames in images)

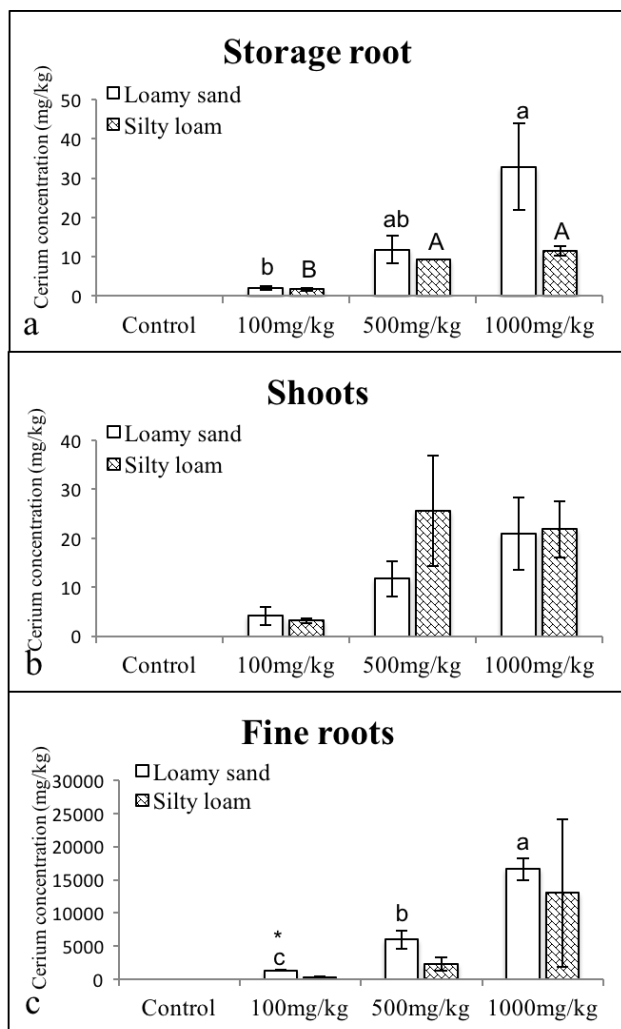
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Figure 6: Modified cerium concentrations in different radish tissues after the background cerium concentrations in the control plants were subtracted from the corresponding tissues of treated plants. The error bars represent standard error (n=3). Samples without error bars indicate that the error bars are too small to see on the figures. Different letters in lower case and upper case represent significant differences between the treatments in loamy sand and silty loam respectively (p<0.05). Asterisks indicate significant differences between two kinds of soil at same CeO₂ NPs dosing concentration (p<0.05).

776 **Table 1:** The cerium concentration in different parts of radish, data represented the mean
 777 and standard error (n=3). Different letters represent significant differences between the
 778 treatments
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Soil Type	Treatment	Peri (mg/kg)	L1 (mg/kg)	L2 (mg/kg)	S1 (mg/kg)	S2 (mg/kg)
Loamy sand	Control	11.4±3.06	7.45±1.38	11.09±1.83	18.83±1.67	8.85±0.42 ^{ab}
	500 mg/kg	112.9±52.35	10.88±1.61	9.4±1.67	23.12±0.49	9.81±1.57 ^{ab}
Silty loam	Control	8.91±0.76	10.43±2.09	8.07±2.97	22.9±4.23	7.00±0.52 ^b
	500 mg/ kg	127.06±56.25	11.49±1.18	8.61±0.32	18.26±3.14	20.58±7.29 ^a

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