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1 **Alternating Water Sources to Minimize Contaminant Accumulation in Food Plants from**
2 **Treated Wastewater Irrigation**

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22 **Abstract**

23 The use of treated wastewater (TWW) for agricultural irrigation is a critical measure in
24 advancing sustainable water management and agricultural production. However, TWW irrigation
25 in agriculture serves as a conduit to introduce many contaminants of emerging concern (CECs)
26 into the soil-plant-food continuum, posing potential environmental and human health risks.
27 Currently, there are few practical options to mitigate the potential risk while promoting the safe
28 reuse of TWW. In this greenhouse study, the accumulation of 11 commonly occurring CECs was
29 evaluated in three vegetables (radish, lettuce, and tomato) subjected to two different irrigation
30 schemes: whole-season irrigation with CEC-spiked water (FULL), and half-season irrigation
31 with CEC-spiked water, followed by irrigation with clean water for the remaining season
32 (HALF). Significant decreases (57.0-99.8%, $p < 0.05$) in the accumulation of meprobamate,
33 carbamazepine, PFBS, PFBA, and PFHxA in edible tissues were found for the HALF treatment
34 with the alternating irrigation scheme. The CEC accumulation reduction was attributed to
35 reduced chemical input, soil degradation, plant metabolism, and plant growth dilution. The
36 structural equation modeling showed that this mitigation strategy was particularly effective for
37 CECs with a high bioaccumulation potential and short half-life in soil, while less effective for
38 those that are more persistent. The study findings demonstrate the effectiveness of this simple
39 and on-farm applicable management strategy that can be used to minimize the potential
40 contamination of food crops from the use of TWW and other marginal water sources in
41 agriculture, while promoting safe reuse and contributing to environmental sustainability.

42

43 **Keywords:** Contaminants of emerging concern; PFAS; Wastewater irrigation; Plant uptake and
44 accumulation; Water reuse

45 **1. Introduction**

46 Treated municipal wastewater (TWW) is a promising alternative water resource for
47 augmenting agricultural irrigation and conserving freshwater, especially in arid and semi-arid
48 regions (Shi et al., 2022; Singh, 2021; Sokolow et al., 2019). However, despite the increasing
49 need for reuse of TWW and other marginal water for agricultural irrigation, the potential risks
50 associated with contaminants in TWW remain a significant challenge for the broader adoption of
51 this practice (Carter et al., 2019; Natasha et al., 2023; Ruan et al., 2023). Due to industrial
52 activities, household consumption of pharmaceuticals and personal care products (PPCPs), and
53 other chemicals lead to the accumulation of these contaminants in municipal wastewater, and
54 they may appear in treated wastewater due to incomplete removal (Lin et al., 2020; Rogowska et
55 al., 2020; Tran et al., 2018). Many contaminants of emerging concern (CECs), including PPCPs,
56 per- and polyfluoroalkyl substances (PFAS), flame retardants, and plasticizers, are known to
57 have biological activity and may have adverse ecological and human health effects at
58 environmentally relevant concentrations (Anderko and Pennea, 2020; Christou et al., 2017a;
59 Sharma et al., 2019; Tang et al., 2020; Yang et al., 2022).

60 The ubiquitous occurrence of CECs in agricultural fields receiving TWW irrigation has been
61 increasingly documented (Ben Mordechay et al., 2022; Biel-Maeso et al., 2018; Christou et al.,
62 2017b; LeFevre et al., 2017; Pullagurala et al., 2018). For example, concentrations of CECs in
63 samples of food crops, collected from 445 commercial fields, varied among plant species and
64 organs (Ben Mordechay et al., 2021). In general, leaves exhibited the highest accumulation,
65 ranging from <0.1 to 2,470 ng/g, while median concentrations of <10 ng/g were found in roots,
66 fruits, or tubers (Ben Mordechay et al., 2021). Martínez-Piernas et al. (2019) analyzed 74
67 frequently occurring CECs in TWW and found 12 of the target compounds in lettuce and radish,

68 at concentrations of 0.03-57.6 ng/g. Under field conditions, the total concentrations of 19 PPCPs
69 in the edible tissues of vegetables irrigated with TWW ranged from 0.01 to 3.87 ng/g (Wu et al.,
70 2014). Although our understanding of plant accumulation of CECs has improved greatly over the
71 last decade, research on mitigation strategies to minimize the potential accumulation of CECs in
72 food crops is limited. The lack of practical management strategies hinders the broader adoption
73 of TWW irrigation in agriculture.

74 A potentially effective and on-farm applicable mitigation strategy is a hybrid or alternating
75 irrigation scheme, e.g., TWW irrigation for the first part of the growing season, followed by
76 freshwater (FW) irrigation for the remaining season. Conceptually, the use of TWW irrigation
77 only for the first part of the growing season reduces the chemical input and allows time for the
78 attenuation of CECs through processes such as soil degradation, plant metabolism, and plant
79 growth dilution. In a preliminary study, we used hydroponic cultivation to demonstrate this
80 concept, and observed reductions ranging from 52.0-96.6% for select CECs in lettuce and tomato
81 grown in nutrient solutions (Shi et al., 2023b). However, the TWW-soil-plant continuum
82 represents a much more complex system than hydroponic cultivation, and processes such as
83 adsorption/desorption and rhizosphere microbial degradation likely play important roles in
84 influencing plant accumulation of CECs (Mei et al., 2021; Sutherland and Ralph, 2019; Yu et al.,
85 2021). To further advance this concept for eventual field implementation, we carried out
86 greenhouse experiments, in which three common vegetables were grown in soil. Radish, lettuce,
87 and tomato were chosen as model food plants in this study, as they represent root, leafy, and fruit
88 vegetables. We hypothesized that when irrigation with TWW is discontinued, CECs dissipate in
89 the soil-plant system due to rhizosphere degradation, plant metabolism, and growth dilution,
90 leading to reductions in CEC accumulation in the edible tissue at maturity. Structural equation

91 modeling (SEM) was further used to explore the contribution of various factors to the reduced
92 CEC accumulation. The findings of this study are expected to solidify alternating irrigation as a
93 feasible mitigation practice, contributing to an increased acceptance of TWW and other marginal
94 waters to sustain agriculture and the environment.

95 **2. Materials and Methods**

96 **Chemicals**

97 Eleven compounds were selected in this study based on their occurrence and generally high
98 levels in TWW. The selected test compounds included acetaminophen, caffeine, meprobamate,
99 ibuprofen, naproxen, carbamazepine, atenolol, fluoxetine, perfluorobutanesulfonic acid (PFBS),
100 perfluorobutanoic acid (PFBA), and perfluorohexanoic acid (PFHxA), covering a range of
101 chemical classes and physicochemical properties (Table S1). The sources of chemical standards
102 are provided in Text S1. Stock solutions of all target compounds were prepared in methanol and
103 stored at -20°C prior to use. The QuEChERS extraction kit containing 6 g magnesium sulfate
104 (MgSO₄) and 1.5 g sodium acetate (NaOAc) and cleanup kit containing 400 mg of primary
105 secondary amine (PSA), 400 mg of bulk carbograph, and 1200 mg of magnesium sulfate were
106 purchased from Agilent (Santa Clara, CA). High-purity Fisher HPLC grade solvents were used
107 for all extractions and analyses (Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA). Deionized (DI) water was
108 produced in-house using a Barnstead E-Pure water purification system (Thermo Scientific,
109 Dubuque, IA) for all analysis.

110 **Soil properties**

111 The soil was collected from a field at the University of California, Riverside Agricultural
112 Operations and sieved through a 2-mm mesh after air drying. Particle size distribution was
113 determined by the 12-h hydrometer method (Klute, 1986). The soil was classified as a sandy

114 loam based on the texture (51.9% sand, 43.5% silt, and 4.6% clay). A soil pH of 6.5 was
115 measured using the soil slurry method (Donohue, 1992). Total carbon and nitrogen contents were
116 determined using a FlashEA NC Analyzer (Thermo Fisher, Waltham, MA), while the major
117 elements were characterized by inductively coupled plasma-optical emission spectroscopy (ICP-
118 OES) (PerkinElmer Optima 7300DV). Specific soil properties are summarized in Table S2. In
119 addition, degradation and adsorption of CECs in the soil were measured for individual CECs
120 using batch incubation or batch equilibration methods (Xu et al., 2009), from which half-life
121 ($T_{1/2}$) values and adsorption coefficients (K_d) were derived and used for data interpretation and
122 model prediction.

123 **Greenhouse experiments**

124 Three vegetable species, i.e., radish (*Raphanus sativus* L.), lettuce (*Lactuca sativa* L.), and
125 tomato (*Solanum lycopersicum* L.), were selected as they represent leaf, root, and fruit
126 vegetables, respectively. The seeds of these vegetables were first germinated on wet filter paper
127 (Cytiva, MA) until the root had emerged. Then, 3 seedlings were transferred to polypropylene
128 pots (17 cm height, 10 cm top diameter, 7 cm bottom diameter) containing moist soil (1.2 kg dry
129 weight). Deionized water was periodically added to each container to maintain a water content of
130 75% of the soil's maximum water-holding capacity, to compensate for the water loss from
131 evapotranspiration. This ensured that the plants received sufficient water for growth, while
132 preventing water from leaching from the bottom of the containers. The plants were grown in a
133 greenhouse receiving full sunlight, with a daily temperature variation of 15 to 40 °C and a
134 relative air humidity of 30 to 60%.

135 When the cotyledons had developed, each container was thinned to one plant and subjected
136 to one of the following two irrigation treatments: the FULL treatment received irrigation with

137 CEC-spiked water (5 $\mu\text{g/L}$ of each CEC in DI water) throughout the entire growth period, while
138 the HALF treatment received CEC-spiked water for the first half of the growth period and then
139 received only DI water for the second half. Plant-free and CEC-free controls were included to
140 monitor the background levels of CECs in soil and plant tissues. Since daily watering needs
141 varied for the different plant species, the same total volume of spiked water was added to each
142 container daily, while any additional watering needs were accounted for with DI water. In
143 addition, the amount of water applied was increased to accommodate plant growth during the
144 second half of the growing season. To supplement nutrients, a water-soluble fertilizer (Peters
145 Professional 20-20-20 General Purpose Fertilizer) was applied along with the irrigation water
146 once a week at 125 mg/L.

147 Triplicates from each treatment group of each plant species were sacrificed at four different
148 time points: 1/4, 2/4 (water source switch point for HALF treatment), 3/4, and 4/4 (harvest point)
149 of the total growth period. The total growth durations for radish, lettuce, and tomato were 37, 49
150 and 93 days, respectively, when they reached maturity or market-ready state. For the HALF
151 treatment, the irrigation water was switched from CEC-spiked solution to fresh water at the
152 middle point, or day-17 and day-25 for the radish and lettuce, respectively. For the tomato, the
153 water source switch was at day-42, when the fruit began to develop. The control treatment
154 groups were sampled only at the end of the growing season, i.e., harvest point. The growth
155 period and sampling time points for each vegetable are shown in Figure S1.

156 For sampling, the entire plant was carefully removed from the soil and separated into roots
157 and shoots (and fruits for tomato) after being carefully rinsed with DI water. The collected soil
158 was thoroughly homogenized, and a small fraction was used for subsequent chemical analysis.

159 All plant and soil materials were stored in a $-80\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ freezer prior to sample preparation and
160 chemical analysis.

161 **Chemical extraction and analysis**

162 Soil samples were freeze-dried for 72 h and then ground into fine particles using a mortar and
163 pestle. A 2.0-g aliquot of soil was weighed into a 15 mL polypropylene centrifuge tube (Sigma,
164 St. Louis, MO). Each soil sample was spiked with 50 μL of a mixture of isotope-labeled CECs (2
165 mg/L stock solution in methanol) as the recovery surrogate. The soil samples were extracted and
166 analyzed according to a modified AOAC method (Lehotay et al., 2007). Briefly, 2 mL of DI
167 water and 5 mL of acetonitrile containing 1% acetic acid were added to the sample tube and the
168 mixture was vortexed for 1 min, then shaken at 200 rpm for 5 min. The slurry was added with 2 g
169 of anhydrous MgSO_4 and 0.5 g of NaOAc, and the sample tube was shaken at 200 rpm for
170 another 5 min, followed by centrifugation at 3500 rpm for 20 min.

171 The freeze-dried plant tissues were homogenized into powder with a stainless-steel grinder,
172 before weighing a 0.5-g aliquot into a 50 mL polypropylene centrifuge tube and spiking with 50
173 μL of a mixture of isotope-labeled CECs. The plant tissue extraction procedure was similar to
174 that of the soil samples, with 4 mL of DI water, 10 mL of acetonitrile (1% acetic acid), 6 g of
175 MgSO_4 , and 1 g NaOAc. The supernatant was collected in a 15 mL centrifuge tube containing 1
176 g d-SPE cleanup sorbents (200 mg PSA, 200 mg bulk carbograph, 600 mg MgSO_4). The samples
177 were vortexed for 1 min, followed by centrifugation at 3500 rpm for 20 min.

178 The supernatant was collected after centrifugation, dried under nitrogen, and reconstituted
179 with 1 mL water/methanol (1/1, v/v) for both soil and plant samples. All extracts were
180 transferred into 2 mL polypropylene microcentrifuge tubes and centrifuged at 15000 rpm for 15

181 min. The supernatant was then transferred to a 300- μ L polypropylene vial for instrumental
182 analysis.

183 Concentrations of the target CECs were determined on a Waters ACQUITY
184 ultraperformance liquid chromatograph (UPLC) in tandem with a Micromass triple quadrupole
185 (TQD) mass spectrometer with an electrospray ionization source (Waters, Milford, MA).
186 Additional details on LC-MS/MS analysis can be found in Text S2 and Table S3.

187 **Quality Assurance/Control and Statistical Analysis**

188 Confirmation of the target CECs was achieved using the observed ion transitions and
189 comparison against peak retention times of authentic standards in mass spectrometry and
190 chromatography. Matrix blanks were obtained from non-spiked plants grown in CEC-free
191 growth media for each species. Solvent blanks (1:1, v/v methanol/water), matrix blanks, and
192 matrix spike analyses were included to monitor for method variation and background
193 contamination. Stable isotope-labeled surrogates (deuterium or ^{13}C) were included in all samples
194 to determine analyte recoveries, correct matrix effects, and instrument response shifts. Limits of
195 quantification (LOQ) and recoveries were established for each analyte through preliminary
196 experiments and are summarized in Table S4. An analytical precision measurement was
197 performed by analyzing one sample of the calibration standard in triplicate for every 10-20
198 samples analyzed, and a <20% relative standard deviation was observed throughout the study.

199 Data analysis and post-processing were performed using GraphPad Prism (La Jolla, CA). To
200 evaluate the difference between the FULL and HALF treatments, statistical analyses including
201 one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) and Student's t-test were performed, with a significance
202 level of $p < 0.05$. The partial least square Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) analysis was
203 used to evaluate the relationships between reduction factor (RF) in different plant compartments

204 and various physiochemical properties, i.e., $\log K_{ow}$, K_d , solubility, root concentration factor
205 (RCF), and translocation factor (TF). In this study, WarpPLS 8.0 (ScriptWarp Systems, Laredo,
206 TX) software was employed to generate the model using the robust maximum likelihood method.

207 **3. Results and Discussion**

208 **3.1 CEC accumulation in plant tissues**

209 In this study, the effect of irrigation alternation on the plant accumulation of CECs was
210 characterized in three different vegetable species grown in soil under greenhouse conditions. To
211 monitor changes in CEC concentrations in plant tissues and soil, samples of soil and plant tissues
212 were collected for each vegetable species at four different time points, i.e., the water source
213 switch point, harvest point, and two midway time points (Figure S1). The plants grown under the
214 two irrigation schemes showed no significant differences in their biomass ($p > 0.05$). For the
215 same treatment, there were significant variations among the different CECs in their levels in the
216 plant tissues and soil, even though the same nominal concentration (5 $\mu\text{g/L}$) was used for all
217 CECs (Figures 1 and 2, Figures S2 and S3). For example, at the time of harvest, PFBA ($227.1 \pm$
218 82.8 ng/g), PFHxA ($26.2 \pm 7.7 \text{ ng/g}$) and meprobamate ($10.6 \pm 1.9 \text{ ng/g}$) were detected in the
219 radish root (edible tissue) for the FULL treatment. A similar pattern was observed in the edible
220 tissues of lettuce (lettuce shoot) and tomato (tomato fruit). In contrast, acetaminophen, ibuprofen,
221 caffeine, and meprobamate were infrequently detected, or detected at much lower levels.

222 When detected, the CEC accumulation in plants from the HALF treatment was significantly
223 lower ($p < 0.05$) than that from the FULL treatment, and the difference was observed in both
224 edible and non-edible tissues (Figures 3 and S4). For example, in radish tuber at harvest, the
225 levels of PFBA, PFBS, and carbamazepine were 227.1 ± 82.8 , 28.0 ± 11.2 , and $26.5 \pm 0.6 \text{ ng/g}$,
226 respectively, for the FULL treatment, which decreased to 67.4 ± 42.7 , 10.5 ± 4.3 and 4.2 ± 3.1

227 ng/g, respectively, for the HALF treatment. A similar trend was observed in lettuce, with PFBA
228 having the greatest shoot accumulation at 3926.1 ± 284.5 ng/g at harvest for the FULL treatment,
229 while the concentration was 1189.6 ± 75.1 ng/g under the HALF irrigation scheme. Tomato
230 fruits from the FULL treatment showed a significant accumulation of PFBA and PFHxA at
231 2595.7 ± 550.9 and 637.2 ± 149.9 ng/g, respectively, while the corresponding levels were 612.5
232 ± 196.6 and 130.3 ± 81.2 ng/g for the HALF treatment.

233 It can also be noted that despite being in direct contact with the soil, radish tuber
234 accumulated significantly less CECs than lettuce shoot or tomato fruit on a dry biomass basis.
235 The differences may be due to the upward translocation of these mobile compounds driven by
236 plant transpiration. For example, the concentrations of PFAS in radish shoots in the FULL
237 treatment ranged from 565.7 to 7239.5 ng/g, which were an order of magnitude higher than those
238 in the tuber. A similar trend was observed in lettuce and tomato whole plants. For example,
239 carbamazepine and PFBA were detected at 40.7 ± 6.4 and 282.1 ± 110.2 ng/g, respectively, in
240 lettuce roots at harvest in the FULL treatment, which were significantly lower than those
241 detected in the lettuce shoot (336.4 ± 26.3 and 3926.1 ± 384.5 ng/g, respectively). Likewise, the
242 levels of PFBA and PFHxA in tomato roots at harvest were 69.2 ± 43.4 and 33.0 ± 17.6 ng/g,
243 respectively, while the levels in tomato shoots were 1536.0 ± 137.8 and 440.5 ± 71.6 ng/g, and
244 the respective values for tomato fruit were 2596.7 ± 551.0 and 637.2 ± 150.0 ng/g (Figure 3 and
245 Figure S4). A high percentage of water taken up by the tomato plant is used for fruit
246 development, as compared with the amount of water that transpires (Fitter and Hay, 2012;
247 Yakushiji et al., 1998). Observations from this and other studies suggest that for highly mobile
248 compounds such as short chain PFAS, upward translocation is an important process contributing
249 to their accumulation in above-ground tissues, including the fruit.

250 To characterize the translocation of CECs in plants after root uptake, translocation factor
251 (TF) was calculated as the ratio of the chemical concentration in the shoot (aboveground part) to
252 that in the root ($C_{\text{shoot}}/C_{\text{root}}$). Acetaminophen, meprobamate, carbamazepine, and all three PFAS
253 compounds showed a strong tendency for upward movement, with $TF > 1$, while other CECs
254 showed limited translocation (Figure S5). Compounds with moderate $\log K_{ow}$ (1 to 3) exhibited
255 high TFs, as observed with acetaminophen, meprobamate, and carbamazepine, which could be
256 attributed to their ability to move through the xylem vessels (Miller et al., 2016; Roberts and
257 Oparka, 2003; Tester and Leigh, 2001). PFAS compounds with relatively short carbon chains are
258 hydrophilic and recalcitrant to microbial degradation and plant metabolism, and can readily
259 penetrate roots and translocate upward, which may have contributed to their high accumulation
260 in the above-ground parts (Jiao et al., 2020; Zhang et al., 2019). It is worth noting that even
261 though PFBA and PFBS have the same carbon chain length, their different functional groups led
262 to distinctly different accumulation patterns, with PFBS consistently exhibiting greater
263 accumulation in above-ground tissues among the different plant species (Dal Ferro et al., 2021).

264 The uptake and translocation of CECs in plants appeared to be influenced by their
265 physiochemical properties. Previous studies suggested a positive correlation between root uptake
266 and pH-adjusted $\log K_{ow}$ for neutral compounds and a negative correlation with translocation due
267 to hydrophilicity-regulated transport via xylems (Wu et al., 2013). In the soil porewater (pH =
268 6.5) under the experimental conditions, only acetaminophen and carbamazepine were expected
269 to remain primarily in the neutral form, while ibuprofen, naproxen, PFBS, PFBA, and PFHxA
270 mostly existed as anionic species. Over 90% of caffeine, meprobamate, atenolol, and fluoxetine
271 were present as cationic species. Nonionic compounds with moderate hydrophobicity ($2 < \log$
272 $K_{ow} < 5$) are known to diffuse readily across root cell membranes (Briggs et al., 1982; Trapp,

273 2009), while cationic chemicals can be attracted via electrostatic interaction (Inoue et al., 1998;
274 Trapp, 2009), explaining the high accumulation of carbamazepine and atenolol in roots.
275 Conversely, the limited uptake of anionic ibuprofen and naproxen may be attributed to their
276 negative charge, limited lipophilic binding, and short half-life in soil and plants (Schopfer and
277 Brennicke, 2010). The observed PFAS uptake and translocation differed from the other CECs,
278 likely because of their amphiphilic characteristics (Gredelj et al., 2020). In addition to dislocating
279 the negative charge due the strong electron-withdrawing effect of fluorine atoms, the relatively
280 high accumulation of PFBA in roots may also be ascribed to its ability to bypass the Casparian
281 strip and accumulate in vascular tissues (Felizeter et al., 2012).

282 **3.2 CEC residues in soil**

283 The concentrations of most CECs in soil were found to decrease over time after switching to
284 a clean water source for the HALF treatments (Figure 2), which may be attributed to microbial
285 degradation and phytoextraction (Clarke and Cummins, 2015; Shi et al., 2023a; Yakushiji et al.,
286 1998). Acetaminophen and naproxen were present only at trace levels (<1 ng/g) throughout the
287 cultivation period, suggesting rapid degradation in soil (Patel et al., 2019; Phong Vo et al., 2019).
288 A previous study using ¹⁴C labeling showed that a significant portion (73.4–93.3%) of
289 acetaminophen formed non-extractable or bound residues in soil (Li et al., 2014). This was
290 consistent with the estimated short half-life ($T_{1/2} = 0.95$ days) for acetaminophen in this study.
291 Among the 11 targeted chemicals, acetaminophen, caffeine, ibuprofen, and naproxen showed
292 short persistence ($T_{1/2} < 7$ days) in the soil, while carbamazepine ($T_{1/2} = 293$ days) and PFAS
293 compounds ($T_{1/2} > 10$ years) were found to be persistent. Plant uptake may also have contributed
294 to the dissipation of CECs in the soil, especially in a soil container system (Shi et al., 2023a). For
295 instance, PFHxA and PFBA exhibited high soil concentrations for the first half of the growth

296 period which decreased in both the FULL and HALF treatments during the second half of the
297 growth period, along with a decrease in the total amount of chemical accumulated in the plant
298 tissue. The observed decreases suggest the removal of persistent compounds by plants, while
299 compounds with short half-lives were likely removed by degradation in soil.

300 In soil, a chemical is distributed between water and the soil solid phase, and the partition
301 coefficient K_d regulates the level of CECs in the soil porewater that is potentially available for
302 root uptake. As shown in Table S1, K_d varied over three orders of magnitude for the CECs
303 considered in this study. Chemicals with high K_d values are more likely to adsorb to soil
304 particles, resulting in lower porewater concentrations, and hence limited uptake into the root (Li
305 et al., 2019). For instance, fluoxetine ($K_d = 214.5$ mL/g) exhibited the highest accumulation in
306 roots among a select group of CECs under hydroponic conditions (Shi et al., 2023b), while
307 negligible accumulation in the root was observed in the soil-plant systems considered in this
308 study. In general, chemicals with large $T_{1/2}$ and small K_d values, such as carbamazepine and the
309 three PFAS compounds (Table S1), consistently showed greater plant uptake and translocation,
310 as well as accumulation in the edible tissues at harvest.

311 **3.3 Reduction in CEC accumulation with irrigation alternation**

312 At harvest, only a handful of the target CECs were found above the detection limits in the
313 edible tissues. For the detected CECs, significant reductions in accumulation ($p < 0.05$) were
314 consistently observed for meprobamate, carbamazepine, PFBS, PFBA and PFHxA in the edible
315 part of the plants from the HALF treatment as compared to the FULL treatment. To
316 quantitatively evaluate the effect of the alternating irrigation scheme on CEC accumulation, a
317 reduction factor (RF) was calculated as follows (Table 1):

$$318 \quad RF = \frac{C_{\text{FULL}} - C_{\text{HALF}}}{C_{\text{FULL}}} \times 100\%$$

319 where C_{FULL} and C_{HALF} were the CEC concentrations in specific plant tissue with FULL and
320 HALF treatments at the harvest time, respectively. The RF values were not derived for those
321 CECs with levels below the limit of detection. The RF serves to demonstrate the decrease in
322 CEC accumulation in the edible part of plants resulting from the switch from irrigation with
323 contaminated water to clean water. While the RF does not provide a direct comparison of CEC
324 reduction under equal exposure conditions—due to the FULL and HALF treatments receiving
325 different amounts of CECs—it allows for an evaluation of the effectiveness of the alternating
326 irrigation scheme in practical settings, where contaminant mass loadings are expected to differ
327 due to the different irrigation intervals of contaminated water such as TWW.

328 Among the edible tissues, CEC levels were reduced by 27.5-100% for radish root, 9.3-98.9%
329 for lettuce shoot, and 57.9-99.8% for tomato fruit in the HALF treatment. Among the different
330 CECs with significant accumulations, the reduction for meprobamate and carbamazepine were
331 higher, ranging from 81.0% to 99.8%, as compared to those for PFAS compounds, which varied
332 between 57.0% and 93.3%. In non-edible tissues from the HALF treatments, high reduction rates
333 were also observed. For example, in lettuce roots, the level of meprobamate, naproxen and
334 fluoxetine decreased by 98.4, 94.3 and 93.6% in the HALF treatment, respectively. In tomato
335 roots, the corresponding reductions were 99.5, 98.4, and 82.6%, while they were 97.1, 100.0, and
336 91.8% for tomato leaves. Likewise, in radish shoots, the reductions for these compounds were
337 88.2, 100.0, and 92.1%, respectively. The concurrent reductions in non-edible tissues suggest
338 that the decreased uptake into the plant root, metabolism after uptake, and growth dilutions due
339 to increases in biomass contributed to the decreased accumulation in the edible tissues at the end
340 of the study. For the same CECs, quantitative differences were observed in the reduction of
341 atenolol among plant species; the RF value was 66.9% in radish roots, compared to over 85% in

342 both lettuce and tomato roots. This disparity may be attributed to longer growth durations and
343 more pronounced translocation stemming from higher transpiration rates.

344 For the HALF treatments, the source of irrigation was changed at approximately the middle
345 point of each plant species' growth duration. Additionally, more water was added to each plant
346 species during the second half of the growth period to account for the larger biomasses resulting
347 from plant growth. For radish, lettuce, and tomato plants, the quantities of irrigation water were
348 0.96, 1.25, and 4.25 L per plant container before the point of switch, which accounted for 31.4,
349 34.2, and 30.7% of the total amount of water that each plant species received for the entire
350 season. Therefore, the total chemical input for the HALF treatment was 68.6, 65.8 and 69.3%
351 less than that of the FULL treatment for radish, lettuce, and tomato, respectively. The reduced
352 chemical input in the HALF treatment group played a major role in the overall reductions in
353 CEC accumulation in the tissues at harvest. However, the changes in chemical input alone could
354 not explain the overall reductions. For example, additional reductions in radish roots and lettuce
355 shoots were observed for meprobamate, carbamazepine, and fluoxetine, with 81.0-98.9% less
356 accumulation in the HALF treatment. In the tomato fruit, a significant ($p < 0.01$) difference
357 between the HALF and FULL treatments was observed for meprobamate, carbamazepine, PFBS,
358 PFBA and PFHxA, as the concentration decreased by 76.4-99.8% with the alternation.
359 Therefore, other processes and factors, such as degradation in soil, adsorption/desorption, plant
360 metabolism, and growth dilution, likely also contributed to the ultimate reductions in CEC
361 accumulation in edible tissues at harvest. In contrast, the reductions of persistent chemicals,
362 exemplified by PFAS accumulation in the edible part of radish (57.0-70.3%) and lettuce (65.0-
363 69.7%), were somewhat similar to the reduction in their chemical loads between the two
364 treatments. Therefore, the reduction due to irrigation water alternation for persistent chemicals

365 was more effective for fruit vegetables than leafy or root vegetables. In general, greater
366 reductions were observed for unstable CECs with a short soil half-life, such as meprobamate and
367 fluoxetine, suggesting that their accumulation in plants would be more responsive to the change
368 in irrigation water sources.

369 Soil served as a sink for CECs introduced by irrigation water. Chemical residues in the soil
370 continued to be available for plant uptake after the chemical input was stopped at the switch
371 point. This was evidenced by the increase in the total chemical mass accumulation after the
372 change of water sources in the HALF treatment (Figure S6). For example, at the 3/4 time point,
373 the total amount (the product of chemical concentration multiplied by the total biomass) of
374 PFHxA in radish was significantly greater ($p < 0.05$) at 559.9 ± 174.0 ng, as compared to that at
375 the switch point (225.5 ± 67.0 ng). The total accumulated amount of PFHxA continued to
376 increase over time and reached 828.0 ± 196.5 ng at the time of harvest. It must be noted that the
377 PFAS compounds considered in this study were short-chain PFAS with high mobility and
378 bioavailability. As the chain length increases, plant uptake and translocation of PFAS generally
379 decrease. More PFAS compounds, including those with different functional groups as well as
380 PFAS precursors, should be evaluated to gain a more complete understanding of PFAS
381 accumulation by food crops and the potential dietary intakes through human consumption.

382 In this study, we tested the alternating irrigation scheme by choosing the middle growth point
383 as the water source switch point. Different degrees of reductions in contaminant accumulation
384 may be expected when irrigation water is changed at other time points during plant growth.
385 Future research should consider the influence of the timing of irrigation water source change on
386 contaminant accumulation in edible tissues. In addition, to better delineate the contribution of
387 soil degradation, plant metabolism, and growth dilution, the same chemical mass loading may be

388 used in treatments with different irrigation schedules. Therefore, future studies examining the
389 interplay among irrigation scheduling, mass loading, and target crops are warranted to improve
390 our understanding and ability to optimize this mitigation strategy.

391 **3.4 Structural equation modeling analysis**

392 In recent years, SEM has been frequently used as an effective approach to quantify the
393 nonlinear relationship of multiple variables (Li et al., 2020b; Neo et al., 2017). For example, Li
394 et al. (2020b) utilized SEM to understand the contribution of environmental factors on
395 sulfamethoxazole attenuation in natural water samples. This statistical approach was also
396 employed to evaluate diverse climatic and soil factors on temperature sensitivity of soil
397 respiration at global and regional scales (Li et al., 2020a). In this study, SEM was applied to
398 better understand the factors influencing the reduction of CEC accumulation in plant tissues
399 through the alternating irrigation scheme, including the interactions between the degree of
400 reduction in plant tissues and a chemical's hydrophobicity, solubility, soil-water partition, and
401 plant metabolism (Figure 4). The applicability of the model was evaluated based on 10 global
402 model fit and quality indices, as detailed in Table S5, which yielded highly significant values
403 within acceptable ranges, indicating a favorable fit. The β -values in Figure 4 represent the path
404 coefficients, and the p -values indicate their level of significance. The effect sizes (ES) indicate
405 the significance of the independent variable's impact on the dependent variable, calculated as the
406 absolute value of the individual contribution to the R-squared (R^2) coefficients of the latent
407 variable. The R^2 values, indicating the percentage of variability explained by the hypothesized
408 independent latent variables, demonstrate the strength of the predictors' explanatory power in the
409 model.

410 The results showed that among the physiochemical properties, $\log K_{ow}$ had a significant effect
411 on RCF ($\beta = 0.40, p < 0.01$), which suggests that hydrophobic compounds are more likely to have
412 a greater root accumulation (Akenga et al., 2021; Wu et al., 2013). Conversely, the weak
413 correlation between TF and $\log K_{ow}$ indicated that the translocation of compounds in vegetables
414 is primarily mediated by transpiration-driven water movement (Chuang et al., 2019). This was
415 also evident in the significant positive relation ($\beta = 0.68, p < 0.001$) between TF and solubility
416 ($ES = 0.54$), which was consistent with previous studies showing that water solubility facilitates
417 a chemical's translocation in plants (Kinney and Heuvel, 2020). As plants were grown in soil in
418 this study, K_d was found to have a negative relation with RCF ($\beta = -0.27, p = 0.056$) with a
419 marginal significance and a small effect ($ES = 0.05$), which underscored the above assumption
420 that chemicals strongly adsorbed to soil generally exhibit a lower bioavailability for plant uptake.

421 The reduction of CEC accumulation in each plant compartment could be decided by the input
422 (RCF for root, TF for shoot) and output (TF for root and metabolism for all tissues), following
423 the mass balance principle. A significant positive effect of TF ($\beta = 0.51, p < 0.001$) on reduction
424 in root and a marginally negative impact on reduction in shoot ($\beta = -0.28, p = 0.053$) were
425 observed. This finding indicated that strong translocation of CECs promoted their accumulation
426 in plant shoots as an input route while facilitating their reduction in plant roots as an output
427 route. Additionally, RCF showed a significant positive relation with reduction in root
428 accumulation of CECs ($\beta = 0.36, p < 0.05$). For instance, meprobamate (RCF > 215) and PFBA
429 (RCF > 35) demonstrated great bioaccumulation potential across all three plant species, with
430 large reductions in root concentrations from the alternating irrigation scheme, ranging from 88.2-
431 99.8% and 70.3-94.2%, respectively. This was in agreement with previous studies showing that
432 smaller reductions were seen for those CECs with limited plant accumulation, while reductions

433 were greater for CECs with significant accumulation (Shi et al., 2023b). The analysis further
434 showed a significant positive correlation between the percentage of reduction in CEC
435 accumulation between root and shoot ($\beta = 0.55, p < 0.001$), likely due to the intrinsically similar
436 metabolism potential for the same chemical in different plant tissues. Soil half-life was found to
437 have a significant negative effect on the reduction of CECs in the root ($\beta = -0.46, p < 0.001$).
438 Chemicals with shorter half-lives in the soil underwent rapid degradation, which decreased the
439 uptake of the CECs by plants when irrigation with TWW was stopped, resulting in a more
440 pronounced reduction in their accumulation in plant roots. For example, the relatively short half-
441 lives of meprobamate, naproxen, and fluoxetine in soil (29.7, 2.7, and 55.6 d, respectively),
442 combined with their relatively high plant metabolism potential (Wu et al., 2016, 2013), likely
443 resulted in greater reductions for the plants considered in this study. Among the three factors,
444 soil half-life showed a slightly greater contribution ($ES = 0.21$) than RCF ($ES = 0.17$) or TF (ES
445 $= 0.19$) to the CEC reduction in roots, underlying the importance of the persistence of CECs in
446 soil in governing their overall fate in the TWW-soil-plant continuum.

447 The SEM model explained up to 57% of the variability in the reduction of CEC accumulation
448 caused by the alternating irrigation treatment in the root, and 52% in the shoot. However, $\log K_{ow}$
449 and K_d explained a relatively small percentage of the variability (19%), suggesting that the
450 influence of physicochemical properties such as K_{ow} was indirect and likely complex (Akenga et
451 al., 2021). The reduction in CEC accumulation in plants due to the alternating irrigation scheme
452 appeared to be better related to the plant's uptake and translocation potential of the chemical, as
453 well as the chemical's plant metabolism potential. For example, the relatively small reduction in
454 PFAS levels could primarily be ascribed to their long half-lives in soil ($T_{1/2} > 10$ years) and high
455 translocation potential. In contrast, the relatively short half-lives of meprobamate, naproxen, and

456 fluoxetine in soil, combined with their relatively high plant metabolism potential (Wu et al.,
457 2016, 2013) resulted in more effective reductions in plant accumulation in response to the
458 alternating irrigation strategy. Taken together, our findings demonstrated that the alternating
459 irrigation scheme was generally effective for a wide range of CECs but was particularly effective
460 for CECs with a higher bioaccumulation potential and shorter half-life in soil. Contaminants with
461 a greater mobility and persistence (e.g., short chain PFAS) pose a more pressing concern for
462 accumulation in food crops, and additional mitigation strategies need to be explored for such
463 CECs.

464 **4. Conclusions**

465 This greenhouse study demonstrated that a simple change in irrigation scheme may be
466 effective at reducing the accumulation of many CECs in food crops from TWW irrigation. The
467 reduction in CEC accumulation as the result of the alternating irrigation scheme may be
468 attributed to reduced chemical input in the soil-plant system, as well as attenuation caused by soil
469 degradation, plant metabolism, and growth dilution. The alternating irrigation scheme was
470 particularly effective for CECs with a high bioaccumulation potential and short half-life in soil.
471 For persistent compounds such as PFAS with a high accumulation potential, a substantial
472 decrease in their accumulation in the edible tissue at maturity was also observed due to the
473 reduced chemical input, adsorption in soil, and plant growth dilution. Among the different plant
474 species considered in this study, fruit vegetables (tomato) appeared to respond to the alternating
475 irrigation scheme more effectively than leafy or root vegetables.

476 This study marks a significant stride in understanding the impact of an alternating irrigation
477 scheme on the accumulation of CECs in food plants under environmentally relevant conditions.
478 This advancement is valuable for ensuring the safety and sustainability of agricultural practices

479 using recycled water. Although only a small set of CECs were considered in this study, the same
480 strategy could be adapted for other non-traditional water sources and a wider range of
481 contaminants. The systematic assessment of potential human exposure risk to CECs aims to
482 enhance public awareness and promote the safe use of marginal waters, providing a foundation
483 for future research and policy development. However, it must be noted that the current study was
484 conducted under controlled conditions with relatively high CEC concentrations (5 µg/L) and
485 limited growth space. In agricultural fields, additional factors may influence the accumulation
486 and reduction of CECs in soil and plants, such as more abundant microbial activity, earthworm
487 function, leaching to deeper soil layers, and surface runoff, among others. Therefore, studies
488 conducted under realistic field conditions using treated wastewater are necessary to further
489 demonstrate the feasibility and efficacy of this strategy for reducing plant accumulation of CECs.
490 Modifications to existing infrastructure to create flexible irrigation systems that can
491 accommodate alternation between TWW and conventional water sources are also necessary for
492 the broad implementation of this management strategy.

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496

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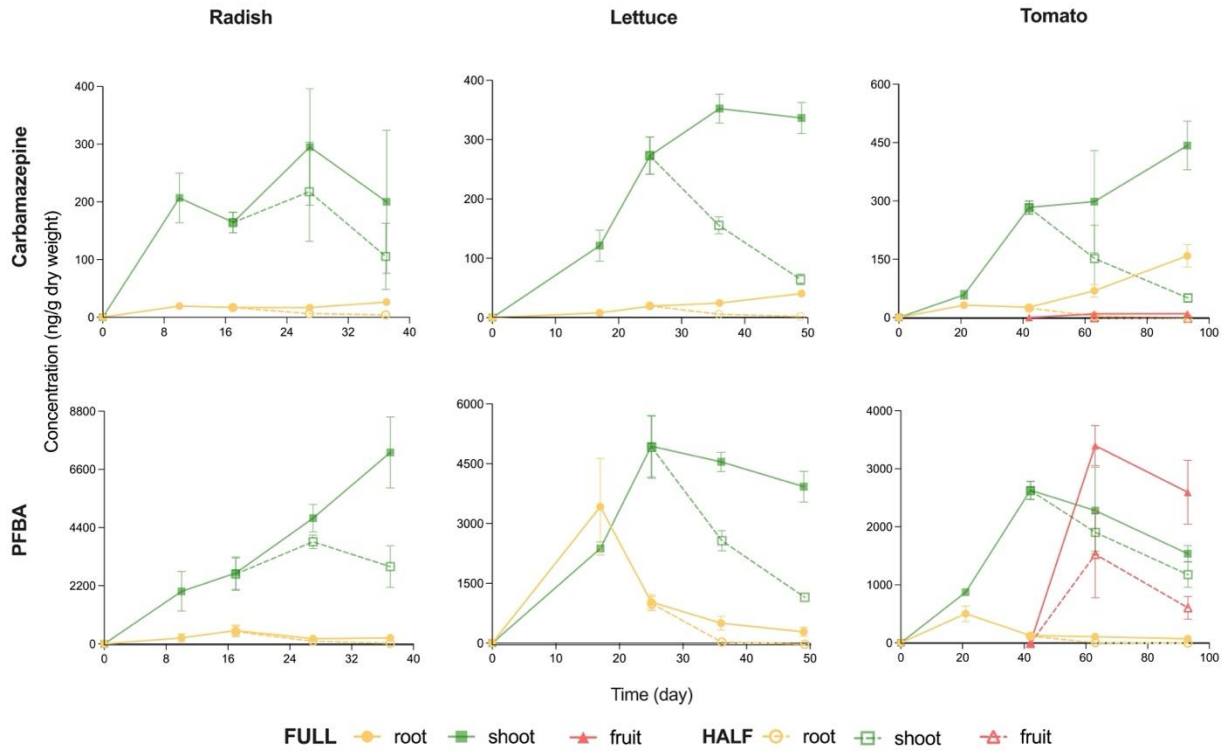
690 **Tables and Figures**691 **Table 1.** Reduction Factors (RF) for Target CECs in Different Compartments of Radish, Lettuce
692 and Tomato

Chemical	Radish		Lettuce		Tomato		
	root	shoot	root	shoot	root	shoot	fruit
	(%)	(%)	(%)	(%)	(%)	(%)	(%)
Acetaminophen	27.5	27.5	64.0	22.9	61.0	-12.6	ND
Caffeine	48.4	69.5	77.8	48.0	74.6	21.1	ND
Meprobamate	94.3	88.2	98.4	98.9	99.5	97.1	99.8
Ibuprofen	ND	41.8	ND	9.3	56.0	ND	57.9
Naproxen	100.0	100.0	94.3	ND	98.4	100.0	ND
Carbamazepine	84.2	47.2	96.7	81.0	99.2	88.1	95.5
Atenolol	66.9	55.7	85.0	10.9	85.6	76.9	ND
Fluoxetine	92.3	92.1	93.6	94.1	82.6	91.8	66.8
Perfluorobutanesulfonic acid	62.5	63.9	52.4	65.0	93.5	43.5	93.3
Perfluorobutanoic acid	70.3	59.1	94.2	69.7	91.7	22.8	76.4
Perfluorohexanoic acid	57.0	66.0	69.9	65.8	93.7	42.4	79.6

693 ND: The RF values were not derived for those CECs with levels below the limit of detection

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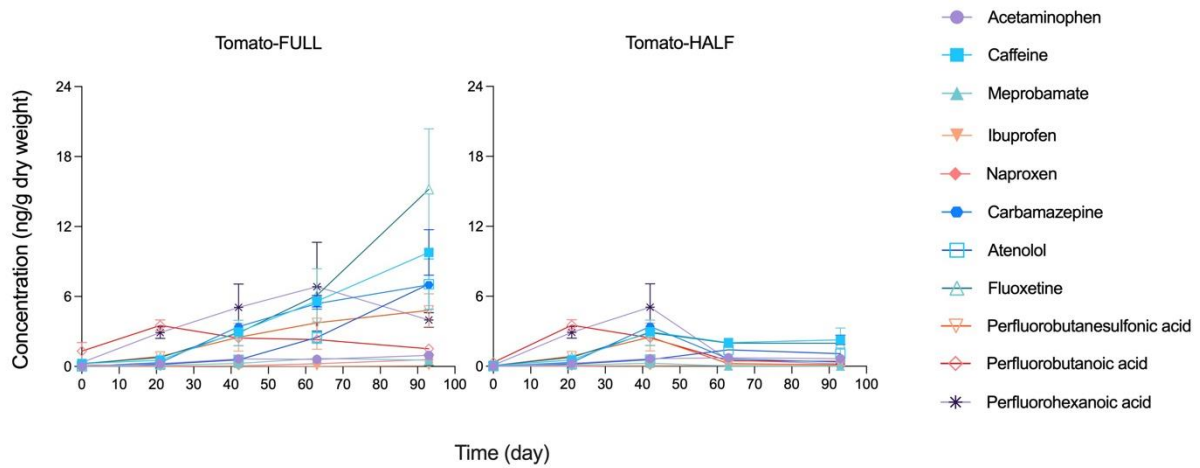
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697 **Figure 1.** Temporal variations in carbamazepine and perfluorobutanoic acid (PFBA)
698 concentrations in various plant tissues under FULL and HALF treatments. Each data point
699 represents the arithmetic mean concentration of triplicate samples (n = 3). The error bar
700 represents the standard deviation.

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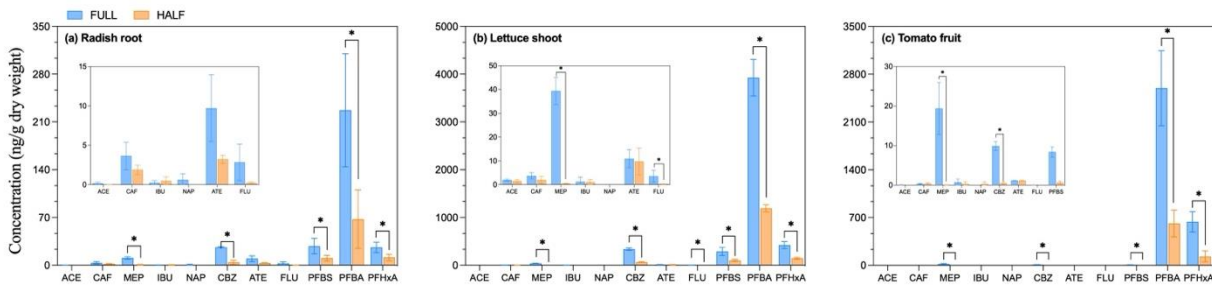
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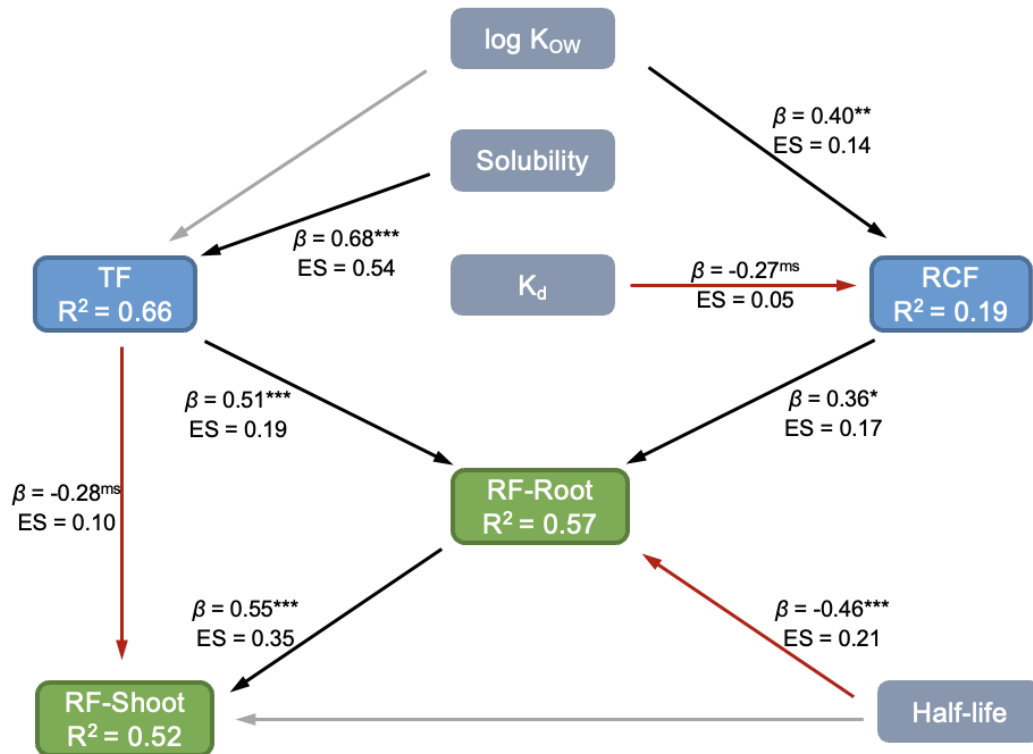
705 **Figure 2.** Temporal variations of target CEC concentrations in the soil during tomato growth
706 under FULL and HALF treatments. Each data point represents the arithmetic mean concentration
707 of triplicate samples (n = 3). The error bar represents the standard error.



708

709 **Figure 3.** Accumulation of target CECs in edible parts of radish (a), lettuce (b), and tomato (c) at
710 harvest point under FULL and HALF irrigation schemes. Radish, lettuce, and tomato were
711 harvested 37, 49 and 93 days after planting. ACE, acetaminophen; CAF, caffeine; MBP,
712 meprobamate; IBU, ibuprofen; NAP, naproxen; CBZ, carbamazepine; ATE, atenolol; FLU,
713 fluoxetine; PFBS, perfluorobutanesulfonic acid; PFBA, perfluorobutanoic acid; PFHxA,
714 perfluorohexanoic acid.

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716

717 **Figure 4.** Structural equation models showing the relationship between compound
718 physiochemical properties and reduction factors of plant tissue. Black lines indicate positive
719 relationships, while red lines indicate negative relationships. R^2 is the coefficient of
720 determination indicating the variability explained for each dependent variable. β -values indicate
721 the path coefficients. The level of significance is indicated by ^{ms} (marginal significance)
722 ($p \approx 0.05$), * ($p < 0.05$), ** ($p < 0.01$), and *** ($p < 0.001$). The effect size (ES) categorizes the
723 influence of an independent variable on a dependent variable: <0.02 (weak), 0.02 (small), 0.15
724 (medium), and 0.35 (large). TF, translocation factor; RCF, root concentration factor, $\log K_{ow}$,
725 water partition coefficient; K_d , adsorption coefficient.

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