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Synthesized TiO₂ nanoparticles mitigating salinity stress in okra plants via foliar application

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Abstract: Titanium dioxide nanoparticles (TiO₂ NPs) are increasingly recognized for their potential to enhance plant growth under abiotic stress conditions. In this study, TiO₂ NPs were synthesized via a modified sol–gel method. The successful formation of anatase TiO₂-NPs with uniformly quasi-spherical morphology was confirmed using multiple characterization techniques, including X-ray diffraction, field emission scanning electron microscopy, energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscopy, and Raman spectroscopy. Furthermore, we investigated the effects of foliar application of prepared TiO₂ NPs at 100 and 150 ppm on okra (*Abelmoschus esculentus*) grown under salt stress (100 ppm NaCl). The target variables evaluated included plant height, number of leaves, fresh and dry biomass, chlorophyll a, chlorophyll b, total chlorophyll, carotenoids, sugar content, and proline accumulation to determine the role of TiO₂ NPs in salt stress mitigation. Salinity negatively affected all measured agronomic and physiological traits; however, treatment with TiO₂ NPs mitigated these adverse effects. Treated plants exhibited improved plant growth and yield-related characteristics, alongside higher concentrations of chlorophyll a, chlorophyll b, total chlorophyll, and carotenoids. Among the tested concentrations, 150 ppm TiO₂ NPs showed the most pronounced improvement in growth, photosynthetic pigments, and yield performance under saline conditions. These findings indicate that foliar application of TiO₂ NPs, particularly at 150 ppm, may play an important role in alleviating the detrimental effects of salinity stress on okra. Statistical analysis was performed using two-way ANOVA to assess the effects of variety, treatment, and their interaction, followed by Tukey's HSD test for mean separation at $p \leq 0.05$ using IBM SPSS Statistics.

Keywords: TiO₂ nanoparticle; salinity stress; foliar spray; nano-fertilizer; crop quality and yield

1. Introduction

Titanium dioxide nanoparticles (TiO₂ NPs) are among the most widely studied nanomaterials globally. They are considered environmentally friendly because of their stability, relatively low toxicity, and photocatalytic activity [1]. These characteristics of TiO₂ NPs have attracted significant consideration in agriculture, in particular, for improving plant growth and tolerance against abiotic stresses such as salinity. Because of its high surface-to-volume ratio, anatase TiO₂-NPs are the most stable and reactive phase [2]. Modern-day synthesis techniques, including sol–gel, hydrothermal, solvothermal, and co-precipitation methods, enable precise control over particle size, shape, and crystallinity to enhance performance [3].

In the field of agriculture, TiO₂-NPs are considered multifunctional agents to improve crop growth, yield, and resistance against salinity. A literature study indicates that they can enhance photosynthesis, improve nitrogen metabolism, promote seed germination, and increase chlorophyll and protein content in various crops such as spinach, rice, sunflower, maize, and coriander [4]. In addition, TiO₂-NPs have been reported to increase the antioxidant defense system and regulate reactive oxygen species (ROS) production. Therefore, they reduce oxidative damage in crops under salinity stress conditions. While enhancing biomass and crop productivity, the antibacterial properties of TiO₂-NPs contribute to reducing plant disease [5]. Additionally, TiO₂-NPs can mitigate numerous environmental stresses, such as salinity, drought, and heavy metal contamination, by strengthening antioxidant defense and regulating ROS [6]. However, their mitigating effects are strongly concentration-dependent. For example, at low to moderate doses (2–300 mgL⁻¹), TiO₂-NPs generally promote plant growth and yield. In contrast, they may inhibit photosynthesis and induce oxidative stress at higher concentrations (>1000 mgL⁻¹) [7]. Interestingly, such stress may also trigger beneficial antioxidant responses that strengthen the plant defense system [8].

Among several abiotic stresses, soil salinity is counted as one of the severest constraints affecting agricultural productivity globally, particularly in arid and semi-arid areas [9]. Salinity stress badly affects plant growth by escalating osmotic pressure, limiting water uptake, and interrupting nutrient balance [10]. These adverse effects lead to ROS, ion toxicity, membrane damage, metabolic disturbances, and eventually reduced crop yield [11,12]. Globally, about 23% of cultivated land is saline, while approximately 37% is sodic [13,14]. Salinity may develop naturally via long-term environmental processes or be enhanced by anthropogenic activities such as poor drainage and improper irrigation [14]. To live longer under saline conditions, plants adopt various adaptive mechanisms such as salt elimination, intracellular ion compartmentalization, osmotic tuning, and activation of antioxidant defense systems [11,13,15,16]. Nevertheless, continued exposure to salinity brutally spoils physiological and biochemical processes, by this means restraining plant productivity.

Okra (*Abelmoschus esculentus*) is an important vegetable crop in subtropical regions, not only as a vegetable but also for its wide range of uses. Its seeds are used to produce oil, protein, and even coffee substitutes. Additionally, its leaves and stems can be processed into biomass, paper, or fuel. With a nutritional value index of 3.21, okra holds high nutritional value and is cultivated across Asia, Africa, and the Americas [17,18]. Despite its nutritional value, okra growth and productivity are highly sensitive to salinity stress, which drastically reduces its agronomic performance. TiO₂-NPs have been explored in numerous crops; however, studies concerning their effects on okra are very limited. Additionally, the potential of TiO₂-NPs to alleviate salinity-induced stress in okra under saline conditions via foliar application has not been sufficiently explored, particularly in relation to agronomic and physiological responses.

Due to the significant role of TiO₂-NPs in sustainable agriculture, this study aimed to explore the potential of TiO₂-NPs to improve okra growth under salt stress conditions through foliar application. In this regard, TiO₂-NPs was synthesized via a sol-gel method and characterized by various techniques, such as X-ray Diffraction

(XRD), Scanning Electron Microscopy (SEM), Energy Dispersive X-ray (EDX), photoluminescence, and Raman spectroscopy. Aqueous solutions (100 and 150 ppm) of as-prepared TiO₂-NPs were applied as foliarly to two okra varieties: Sabaz Pari (V1) and Savanta (V2), grown under 100 mM saline stress. Agronomic and physiological parameters were assessed to determine the usefulness of TiO₂-NPs in mitigating salinity stress in okra.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Preparation of TiO₂-NPs

TiO₂-NPs were synthesized using the sol–gel method. Briefly, 8.4 mL of titanium isopropoxide was mixed with 24 mL of isopropanol under continuous stirring for 10 min. A solution of 2 mL of distilled water and 1 mL of isopropanol was then added dropwise, and the mixture was stirred for 24 h to form a gel. The gel was oven-dried at 100 °C in an oven, calcined in a furnace at 500 °C for 2 h at a heating rate of 5 °C/min, finely ground, and stored for further use.

2.2. Characterization of the TiO₂-NPs

The as-prepared TiO₂-NPs were characterized using various techniques to elucidate their morphological, structural, and compositional properties. The surface morphology and microstructural features of the prepared TiO₂-NPs were examined by field-emission scanning electron microscopy (FESEM, Magellan 400, FEI, USA). Energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDX) was used to investigate the elemental composition of TiO₂-NPs. The crystalline phase structures of the TiO₂ sample were determined using X-ray diffraction (XRD, Rigaku D/MAX 2500 V diffractometer) with Cu K α radiation operated at 40 kV. Raman spectroscopy (LabRAM HR Evolution, Horiba Scientific, France) was performed at room temperature to further analyze the vibrational modes, phase purity, and structure of as-synthesized TiO₂-NPs.

2.3. Experimental layout

To examine the usefulness of as-prepared TiO₂-NPs in salt stress mitigation, the experiments were carried out during the cropping season of 2024 in Lalqilla, Dir Lower, Pakistan (34.66925 ° N, 72.06124 ° E; 2349 ft elevation). Two native okra varieties, Sabaz Pari (V1) and Savanta (V2), were obtained from the Agricultural Institute in Tarnab, Peshawar, Pakistan. Before sowing, seeds were surface sterilized with 50% ethanol, followed by 5% sodium hypochlorite, and then rinsed three times with distilled water to ensure purity. The sterilized seeds were then sown in soil and kept under open-field conditions throughout the study. During the entire experimental period, the average ambient temperature ranged from 24–30 °C, relative humidity ranged from 60–70%, and plants were exposed to a natural photoperiod of approximately 12 h light/12 h dark cycle with average sunlight intensity of approximately 400–500 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$. The soil used for this experiment was the naturally existing field soil of the experimental site in Lalqilla Dir Lower, Pakistan. The soil possessed a sandy loam texture with a pH of 7.5 and electrical conductivity (EC) of 1.1 dS m⁻¹. The soil was first air-dried, sieved, and homogenized to ensure

uniform physicochemical properties throughout the experiment, and then the seeds of the selected okra varieties were sown.

A Completely Randomized Block Design (CRBD) with three replications per treatment was employed, as shown in the **Table 1**.

Table 1. Experimental setup for evaluating the salinity-mitigating effect of TiO₂-NPs foliar spray on okra plants.

Symbolic representation	Treatments	Number of experiments
T0	Controle	3 times
T1	Saline (100 mM solution)	3 times
T2	Saline stress (100 mM NaCl solution) and TiO ₂ -NPs foliar spry (100 mgL ⁻¹ solution)	3 times
T3	Saline stress (100 mM NaCl solution) and TiO ₂ -NPs foliar spry (150 mgL ⁻¹ solution)	3 times

All plants were maintained under uniform conditions. Control plants (T0) were irrigated daily with distilled water, whereas plants in treatments T1–T3 were subjected to saline stress (100 mM NaCl). The synthesized TiO₂-NPs were dispersed in distilled water and stirred at high speed for 30 min to obtain a stable suspension before spraying. The TiO₂-NPs suspensions (100 and 150 ppm) were applied to T2 and T3 plants, respectively, by a hand-held atomizer sprayer at three-day intervals. Approximately 15–20 mL suspension per plant was applied consistently onto the leaf surfaces until near overflow. The data were analyzed using IBM SPSS Statistics software. A two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed to evaluate the effects of variety, treatment, and their interaction on sugar content, chlorophyll a (ChlA), chlorophyll b (ChlB), carotenoids (Carot), total chlorophyll (TChl), and proline. When significant differences were detected, treatment means were separated using Tukey's Honestly Significant Difference (HSD) test at the 5% probability level ($p \leq 0.05$). Results are presented as mean values, and treatments sharing different letters were considered significantly different.

2.4. Agronomic traits

Morphological parameters, including fresh and dry biomass, root length, and shoot length, were recorded. Leaf Area Ratio (LAR) was calculated using Equation 1.

$$LAR = \frac{\text{leaf area (cm}^2\text{)}}{\text{final dry weight}} \quad (1)$$

2.5. Physio-biochemical analyses

2.5.1. Sugar estimation

Fresh leaves (0.5 g) were homogenized in 10 mL of distilled water using a mortar and pestle, and centrifuged at 3000 rpm for 5 min. From the supernatant, 0.1 mL was taken and mixed with 1 mL of 80% phenol, followed by incubation at room temperature for 4 h. Subsequently, 5 mL concentrated H₂SO₄ was added, and absorbance was measured at 420 nm using a spectrophotometer. Total soluble sugar

content was estimated following the phenol–sulfuric acid method described by Dubois et al. [19].

Sugar concentration was calculated using Equation 2.

$$\text{Sugar concentration (mgg}^{-1}\text{)} = \frac{A \times K \times DF}{W} \quad (2)$$

Where A is the absorbance, W is the weight of the sample, K is a constant, and its value is 20, and DF is the dilution factor, and its value is 10.

2.5.2. Photosynthetic pigments

Photosynthetic pigments were determined by the 80% acetone extraction method [20]. Fresh leaf samples (0.5 g each) were homogenized in 10 mL of 80% acetone and kept in the dark at room temperature. After centrifugation (2000 rpm, 5 min), the supernatant was collected, and absorbance was recorded at 663, 645, and 470 nm against an 80% acetone blank. Pigment concentrations were calculated using Equations 3–5.

$$\text{hlo "a" mgmL}^{-1} = 12.7 \times A_{663} - 2.69 \times A_{645} \quad (3)$$

$$\text{Chlo "b" mgmL}^{-1} = 22.9 \times A_{645} - 4.68 \times A_{663} \quad (4)$$

$$\text{Total Carotenoids mgL}^{-1} = \frac{1000A_{470} - 2.27(\text{Chlo a}) - 81.4(\text{Chlo b})}{198} \quad (5)$$

2.5.3. Proline estimation

Proline content was quantified following the method of Bates et al. (1973). Leaf tissue (0.5 g) was homogenized in 10 mL of 3% sulphosalicylic acid and filtered. 2 mL of the filtrate were mixed with the solution of 4 mL of glacial acetic acid and 4 mL of 20% ninhydrin. The mixture was then incubated at 100 °C for 1 h, cooled, and extracted with 4 mL toluene. Absorbance was measured at 520 nm, and proline concentration was calculated using Equation 6.

$$\text{Proline content (}\mu\text{gg}^{-1}\text{)} = \frac{A \times K \times DF}{W} \quad (6)$$

Where A is the absorbance of the sample, W is the weight of the sample, K is a constant and its value of 17.52, and DF is the dilution factor, and its value of 2.

3. Results

3.1. Characterization of TiO₂ NPs

To study the morphology of TiO₂NPs, FE-SEM analysis was performed. The FE-SEM images (**Figure 1a,b**) exhibit that the prepared TiO₂-NPs show a relatively uniform, quasi-spherical morphology with slight agglomeration. The average particle size was quantified by measuring particles from a high-magnification FE-SEM image using image analysis software. The obtained histogram (**Figure 1c**) showed that maximum particles were dispersed within the range of 50–77 nm, thus, presenting a relatively narrow and homogenous size distribution. The average particle size was found to be 67.5 nm.

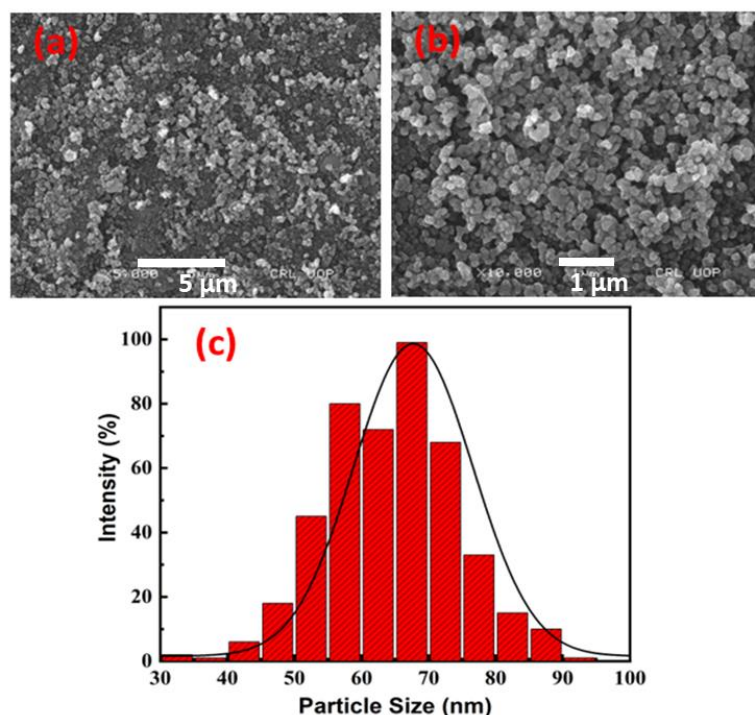


Figure 1. (a, b) Field Emission Scanning Electron Microscopic images of TiO₂-NPs, and (c) particle size distribution histogram of TiO₂-NPs.

EDX spectroscopic analysis was carried out to determine the elemental composition of the prepared TiO₂-NPs, and the corresponding EDX spectrum is presented in **Figure 2**. The results confirmed the presence of titanium (Ti) and oxygen (O) as the main constituent elements, consistent with the stoichiometry of TiO₂-NPs. In addition to these elements, a minor peak consistent with carbon was also observed.

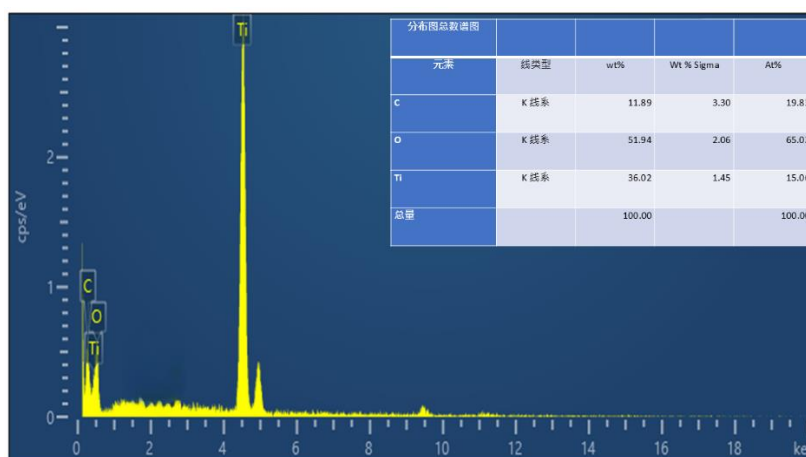


Figure 2. Energy Dispersive X-ray spectrum of as-prepared TiO₂-NPs.

Figure 3a illustrates the XRD pattern of TiO₂ NPs. The diffraction peaks appear at 2θ values of 25.36°, 36.95°, 37.81°, 38.57°, 48.09°, 53.97°, 55.21°, 62.71°, 68.75°, 70.30°, 75.10°, and 82.68°, can be indexed to the (101), (103), (004), (112), (200), (105), (211), (204), (116), (220), (215), and (224) planes, respectively. The average crystallite size of the as-prepared TiO₂-NPs was calculated using the Scherrer equation, and was typically found in the range of 15–25 nm.

Raman spectroscopy was utilized to evaluate the structural integrity and phase composition of TiO₂-NPs. As demonstrated in **Figure 3b**, the TiO₂-NPs shows four well-defined Raman active modes sited at ~144, ~398, ~518, and ~642 cm⁻¹. These bands are allotted to the E_g, B_{1g}, A_{1g}, and E_g vibrational modes, respectively. These bands are characteristic of the anatase phase of TiO₂ NPs.

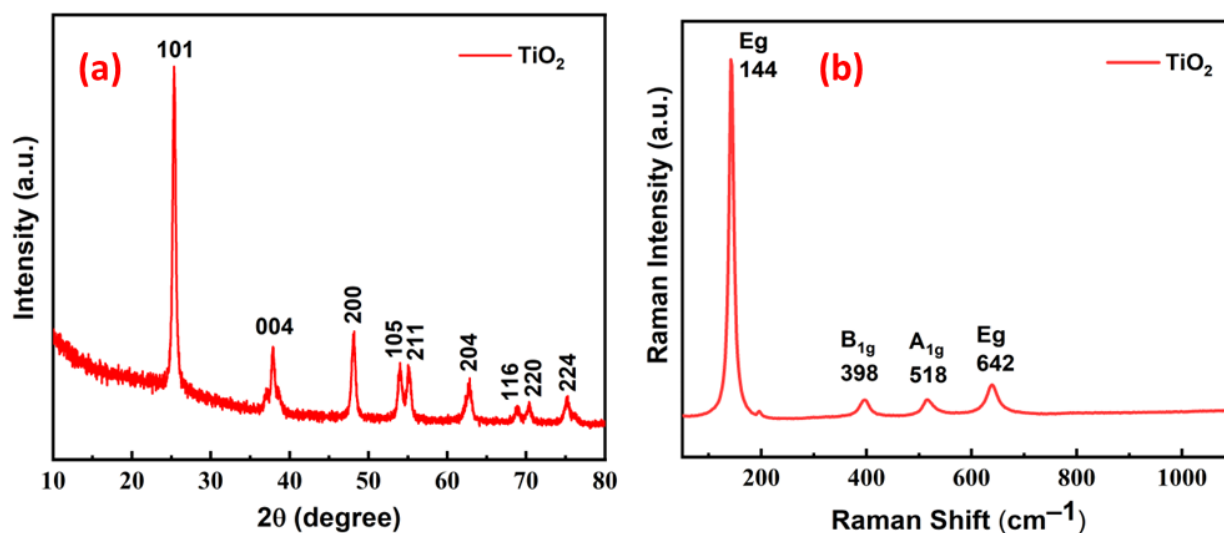


Figure 3. (a) X-ray Diffraction pattern and (b) Raman spectrum of TiO₂ nanoparticles.

3.2. Agronomic study of experimental plants

The growth performance of the two okra varieties is summarized in **Table 1**. Under saline stress (T1), plants exhibited marked reductions in root length, shoot length, leaf area, total weight, and dry weight compared with the control (T0). Application of TiO₂-NPs sprays (T2 and T3), however, enhanced plant growth, with values approaching or even exceeding those of the control. Notably, the 100 ppm TiO₂-NPs treatment yielded better results than the 150 ppm treatment. Overall, these findings indicate that TiO₂-NPs supports okra growth under salinity stress, although higher concentrations may exert adverse effects.

Table 1. Foliar application effects of TiO₂-NPs on the root and shoot length, leaf area, total weight and dry weight of the okra plant under induced saline stress.

Treatment	Root length (cm)		Shoot length (cm)		Leaf area (cm ²)		Total weight (g)		Dry weight (g)	
	V1	V2	V1	V2	V1	V2	V1	V2	V1	V2
T ₀	15.95 ± 1.17	24.5 ± 0.50	41 ± 0.33	44.66 ± 0.50	216.3 ± 3.0	314 ± 1.88	33.32 ± 0.32	68.9 ± 0.49	4.78 ± 0.10	8.67 ± 0.15
T ₁	13.5 ± 0.19	16 ± 0.50	30 ± 0.66	32.5 ± 0.92	82.7 ± 1.06	82.5 ± 1.17	6.72 ± 0.13	30.4 ± 1.13	0.91 ± 0.04	4.57 ± 0.01
T ₂	16.75 ± 0.09	22.5 ± 0.50	42.33 ± 0.62	58.66 ± 0.50	189.37 ± 2.06	328 ± 3.77	21.15 ± 0.54	60.09 ± 0.89	3.33 ± 0.08	7.69 ± 0.05
T ₃	10.5 ± 0.33	25.5 ± 0.50	41.83 ± 0.41	59.66 ± 0.50	112.5 ± 0.70	115 ± 2.35	22.75 ± 0.11	22.7 ± 3.91	2.50 ± 0.15	2.86 ± 0.01

3.3. Photosynthetic pigments

Photosynthetic pigments are a useful indicator of how plants respond to environmental stress, as changes in their levels often reflect reduced photosynthetic efficiency and visible stress symptoms. The photosynthetic pigments of the control and treated plants were measured and the results are displayed in **Table 2**.

Table 2. Estimation of Sugar, Chlorophyll a, Chlorophyll b, Carotenoid, and Proline content of okra plant under induced saline stress and foliar application of TiO₂.

Parameter	T0		T1		T2		T3			
	V1	V2	V1	V2	V1	V2	V1	V2		
Verities	reps	mean	reps	mean	reps	mean	reps	mean	reps	mean
Sugar (mg g ⁻¹)	90.64, 84.48, 89.76	97.85, 91.2, 96.9	80.34, 74.88, 79.56	87.55, 81.6, 86.7	123.6, 85.28, 115.2, 120.4	139.05, 129.6, 137.7	115.88, 108.0, 114.75	128.75, 120.0, 127.5	125.42	
Chlorophyll a (mg mL ⁻¹)	0.227, 0.211, 0.224	0.258, 0.24, 0.255	2.16, 2.02, 2.14	2.37, 2.11, 2.21, 2.31	2.99, 2.78, 2.96	3.19, 2.91, 2.98, 3.11	2.41, 2.25, 2.39	2.45, 2.28, 2.43	2.39	
Chlorophyll b (mg mL ⁻¹)	0.978, 0.912, 0.969	1.08, 1.01, 1.07	1.17, 1.09, 1.16	1.29, 1.2, 1.27	1.75, 1.63, 1.73	2.01, 1.7, 1.87, 1.99	1.24, 1.15, 1.22	1.49, 1.39, 1.48	1.45	
Total carotenoids (mg mL ⁻¹)	1.18, 1.1, 1.17	1.34, 1.25, 1.33	3.4, 3.17, 3.37	3.71, 3.46, 3.67	4.79, 3.61, 4.46, 4.74	5.25, 4.66, 4.9, 5.2	3.91, 3.65, 3.88	4.89, 4.56, 4.84	4.76	
Total Chlorophyll (mg g ⁻¹)	9.89, 9.22, 9.79	11.12, 10.37, 11.02	8.76, 8.16, 8.67	9.79, 8.53, 9.12, 9.53	15.35, 14.3, 14.95	19.05, 17.76, 18.87	28.12, 26.21, 27.85	30.9, 28.8, 30.6	30.1	
Proline (μg g ⁻¹)	22.66, 21.12, 22.44	24.72, 23.04, 24.48	31.93, 29.76, 31.62	36.05, 31.1, 33.6, 35.7	82.4, 35.12, 76.8, 81.6	97.85, 80.27, 91.2, 96.9	58.71, 54.72, 58.14	72.1, 67.2, 71.4	70.23	

3.3.1. Chlorophyll a (mg/g)

In both okra varieties (*Sabaz Pari* and *Savanta*), chlorophyll a was measured at the vegetative stage under saline stress with TiO₂ NP foliar sprays. The highest chlorophyll levels were recorded in T2 and T3, while T1 showed lower values. This indicates that TiO₂ application supports the maintenance of chlorophyll a under stress conditions.

3.3.2. Chlorophyll b (mg/g)

For chlorophyll b, no clear difference was observed between T0 and T1. However, both varieties showed noticeable improvement in T2 and T3, with T3 recording the maximum value. These findings suggest that TiO₂-NPs sprays aid in sustaining chlorophyll b even under salinity stress.

3.3.3. Total chlorophyll (mg/g)

Total chlorophyll content increased in both *Sabaz Pari* and *Savanta* under T2 and T3, whereas T0 and T1 remained at similar levels. These results highlight the overall positive impact of TiO₂-NPs spray on chlorophyll accumulation during stress.

3.4. Carotenoids (mg/g)

Carotenoid levels in both varieties also improved under T2 and T3 compared with other treatments **Table 2**. This suggests that TiO₂-NPs sprays not only enhance chlorophyll but also increase carotenoid content, thereby supporting plant tolerance to stress.

3.5. Osmolytes

To better understand stress responses, osmolytes such as proline and soluble sugars were also analyzed, as they are key markers of tolerance mechanisms in plants. The osmolytes results are depicted in **Table 2**.

3.5.1. Proline (µg/g)

Both okra varieties accumulated higher proline levels in T0 and T1, whereas levels declined in T2 and T3. This reduction suggests that TiO₂-NPs foliar application alleviated stress, thereby reducing the need for high proline accumulation.

3.5.2. Soluble sugars (µg/g)

Soluble sugar content varied significantly across treatments. Clear differences were observed among T0, T1, T2, and T3, indicating that TiO₂-NPs foliar application influenced sugar metabolism under salinity stress.

3.6. Statistical analysis

Two-way ANOVA revealed significant effects of treatment on all measured parameters, including sugar content, chlorophyll a (ChlA), chlorophyll b (ChlB), carotenoids (Carot), total chlorophyll (TChl), and proline ($p < 0.001$; **Table 3**). Variety also significantly influenced all measured traits, although the magnitude of the effect varied among parameters. The interaction between variety and treatment was significant for ChlB, Carot, TChl, and proline, indicating that treatment responses differed between varieties. In contrast, the interaction effect was not significant for sugar content and ChlA, suggesting a consistent treatment response across varieties for these traits. Post-hoc comparison using Tukey's HSD test demonstrated significant differences among treatments for all evaluated parameters (**Table 4**). For sugar content, ChlA, ChlB, and proline, treatment T2 produced the highest mean values, followed by T3, T0, and T1. For carotenoids and total chlorophyll, treatment T3 resulted in the highest values, whereas T0 and T1 generally produced the lowest responses. The grouping of treatments based on Tukey's HSD test confirmed distinct treatment effects, with treatments assigned different significance letters where statistically significant differences occurred ($p \leq 0.05$). Overall, the results indicate that treatment application substantially improved physiological and biochemical traits compared with the control, with T2 and T3 generally producing the most favorable responses across the measured parameters. All the statistical analysis details are provided in the supplementary files.

Table 3. Results of two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) evaluating the effects of variety, treatment, and their interaction on sugar content, chlorophyll a (ChlA), chlorophyll b (ChlB), carotenoids (Carot), total chlorophyll (TChl), and proline. F-values and corresponding significance levels (*p*-values) are presented for each source of variation.

Parameter	Variety <i>F</i>	Variety <i>p</i>	Treatment <i>F</i>	Treatment <i>p</i>	Interaction <i>F</i>	Interaction <i>p</i>
Sugar	39.876	<0.001	176.559	<0.001	1.503	0.252
ChlA	11.951	0.003	1239.957	<0.001	2.039	0.149
ChlB	39.876	<0.001	272.407	<0.001	3.834	0.030
Carot	64.619	<0.001	1238.148	<0.001	22.537	<0.001
TChl	58.890	<0.001	1057.893	<0.001	5.027	0.012
Proline	90.816	<0.001	1086.967	<0.001	13.093	<0.001

Table 4. Mean responses of sugar content, chlorophyll a (ChlA), chlorophyll b (ChlB), carotenoids (Carot), total chlorophyll (TChl), and proline under different treatments. Different lowercase letters within a parameter indicate significant differences among treatments according to Tukey's honestly significant difference (HSD) test at $p \leq 0.05$.

Parameter	T0	T1	T2	T3
Sugar	c	d	a	b
ChlA	d	c	a	b
ChlB	d	c	a	b
Carot	c	c	b	a
TChl	c	d	b	a
Proline	d	c	a	b

4. Discussion

The FE-SEM analysis illustrated that the prepared TiO₂-NPs possesses relatively uniform, quasi-spherical morphology with slight agglomeration. The histogram (**Figure 1c**) exhibited that the maximum number of particles was dispersed within the range of 50–77 nm, thus, depicting a relatively narrow size distribution. The average particle size was found to be 67.5 nm. The agglomeration may be due to the high surface energy and interparticle attraction among the TiO₂-NPs, which is commonly observed in nanostructured metal oxides due to their high surface energy that promotes strong interparticle interactions. Such agglomeration is a typical characteristic of sol-gel method synthesized TiO₂-NPs [21].

The diffraction peaks appear at 2θ values of 25.36°, 36.95°, 37.81°, 38.57°, 48.09°, 53.97°, 55.21°, 62.71°, 68.75°, 70.30°, 75.10°, and 82.68°, can be indexed to the (101), (103), (004), (112), (200), (105), (211), (204), (116), (220), (215), and (224) planes, respectively [22,23]. The crystalline phase of the synthesized TiO₂-NPs was identified by matching the XRD diffraction peaks with standard JCPDS data. The observed diffraction peaks tally well with JCPDS Card No. 21-1272, corresponding to the anatase phase of TiO₂. The observed reflections at 2θ values corresponding to main planes (101), (004), (200), (105), (211), and others confirmed the formation of highly crystalline anatase TiO₂ phase. No impurity peaks associated with rutile or brookite phases were detected, thus showing the high phase purity of the synthesized TiO₂-NPs

[23,24]. The average crystallite size of the as-prepared TiO₂-NPs was calculated using the Scherrer equation, and was typically found in the range of 15–25 nm. However, the particle size obtained from FE-SEM was larger than the crystallite size estimated from XRD analysis. This variance appears because XRD determines the size of single crystalline domains, although FE-SEM measures the size of complete NPs or their clustered structures. Therefore, a single particle observed in FE-SEM may comprise numerous smaller crystallites combined, leading to a comparatively larger particle size. The calculated crystallite size (15–25 nm) from XRD data is consistent with reported values for anatase nanostructures prepared by a sol–gel method [25,26].

Furthermore, the Raman spectroscopic analysis also confirmed that the prepared TiO₂-NPs exist in the anatase phase, with the Eg mode at ~144 cm⁻¹ serving as a fingerprint for high-quality anatase phase, as widely reported in the literature [27–29]. The absence of vibrational modes corresponding to rutile or brookite in the Raman spectrum of as-prepared TiO₂-NPs supports the XRD findings. Similar Raman signatures of anatase TiO₂-NPs were reported by many researchers [30,31]. The strong intensity of the Eg peak reflects low defect density and high phase purity, which are essential for photocatalytic efficiency.

EDX analysis confirmed the elemental composition of the synthesized TiO₂-NPs without detectable impurities, in agreement with previous reports on sol–gel derived TiO₂-NPs [24]. In addition to these elements, a minor peak consistent with carbon was also observed. This observed carbon peak in the EDX spectrum may be attributed to the conductive carbon tape used during sample preparation and/or to surface contamination caused by adsorbed atmospheric hydrocarbons present in the dust [32].

Salinity is a key abiotic stress that restrains seed germination, plant growth, and overall productivity in crops, including okra [33]. In the present work, salinity significantly reduced the growth performance of okra (*Abelmoschus esculentus*). This reduction is primarily linked with osmotic stress and ionic toxicity, which mess up water uptake, metabolic activity, and cellular growth progressions. In our study, this was evidently revealed by a substantial decrease in plant height, fresh and dry biomass, and root length under salt stress (**Table 1**). Salinity stress also triggered a noticeable decline in photosynthetic pigments in okra. The decrease in chlorophyll and carotenoids may be due to sodium-induced disruption of chloroplast and pigment biosynthesis. Meanwhile, carotenoids play an important role in defending photosynthetic machinery against oxidative damage; their reduction additionally strengthens stress sensitivity in the plants [34,35]. Consistently, in our experiment, plants with NaCl exhibited a clear reduction in chlorophyll a, chlorophyll b, and total carotenoids (**Table 2**), proving weakened photosynthetic efficiency under stress circumstances.

In the present study, foliar application of as-prepared TiO₂-NPs substantially mitigated the adverse effects of salt stress. Treated plants exhibited enhanced chlorophyll content, good physiological performance, and improved accumulation of osmolytes such as soluble sugars and proline. These compounds subsidize membrane stability, osmotic adjustment, and protection of cellular proteins under stressful circumstances. In our results, TiO₂-NPs-treated okra plants under saline stress displayed higher root and shoot length, as well as increased leaf area, dry and total weight (**Table 1**). Similarly, the treated plants also showed significantly higher

chlorophyll content, amplified proline buildup, and improved soluble sugar levels compared to untreated stressed plants (**Table 2**), demonstrating effective stress alleviation. These findings are consistent with previous literature on okra, reporting that TiO₂-NPs improve physiological and biochemical performance in stress environments. For instance, the combined use of sewage sludge and TiO₂-NPs enhanced yield and antioxidant activity in okra, although decreasing heavy metal uptake [36]. Likewise, nano-TiO₂ fertilizer exposure altered oxidative responses and stress enzymes in okra [37]. In addition, the incorporation of nano-urea, TiO₂-NPs, significantly improved the growth and yield qualities of okra under field conditions [38].

The enhancements observed under TiO₂-NPs foliar application can be elucidated through multiple mechanisms reported in the relevant literature. TiO₂-NPs boost light absorption efficiency, help electron transport in chloroplasts, and amend nitrogen metabolism. These modifications collectively sustain photosynthetic efficiency under stress situations. Additionally, TiO₂-NPs intensify antioxidant defense systems, thus reducing ROS buildup and restraining lipid peroxidation [39–41]. In addition, salinity-induced oxidative damage is primarily characterized by higher malondialdehyde levels and membrane destabilization. However, TiO₂-NPs application alleviates these adverse effects by strengthening enzymatic and non-enzymatic antioxidant systems. By this means, TiO₂-NPs protect cellular structures and maintain metabolic homeostasis [42–47].

5. Conclusion

Homogeneously dispersed quasi-spherical TiO₂-NPs with anatase phase crystallinity were successfully produced using the sol-gel method, as confirmed by XRD, Raman spectroscopy, EDX, and FE-SEM analyses. Salinity stress poses a major constraint to okra growth during the vegetative stage, where it markedly disrupts physiological functions and inhibits overall development. Evidence from the present study suggests that these detrimental effects can be mitigated through the foliar application of TiO₂-NPs, with the benefits being particularly pronounced in sensitive varieties. The varieties under investigation demonstrated distinct patterns of response to salinity, which can largely be attributed to modifications in their biochemical and physiological processes. The application of TiO₂-NPs appeared to enhance these processes by promoting improved tolerance mechanisms, ultimately supporting better growth and performance under saline conditions. In this study, the TiO₂-NPs as nano-fertilizers suggest their noteworthy potential in improving nutrient uptake and salinity tolerance in okra plants. Thus, the incorporation of TiO₂-NPs into a sustainable agricultural system may offer an effective approach for enhancing okra productivity and resistance under salty environments.

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