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***Phragmites australis* as a dual indicator (air and sediment) of trace metal pollution in wetlands – the key case of Flix reservoir (Ebro river).**

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3 ***Phragmites australis* as a dual indicator (air and sediment) of trace metal**
4 **pollution in wetlands – the key case of Flix reservoir (Ebro River)**

5

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18 **Short title:** *Phragmites* as a dual indicator of trace metals

20 **Abstract**

21 Evaluation of trace metal pollution in an environmentally complex context may require the use
22 of a suite of indicators. Common reed, *Phragmites australis*, is a well-known biomonitor of
23 sediment pollution. Here, we show its potential for also assessing air pollution. The plant
24 panicles, holding silky hairs with high surface to volume ratio, are appropriate collectors of
25 atmospheric contaminants, which perform independently from root bioconcentration. We
26 applied the dual value of common reed as an indicator of trace metal pollution to the case of a
27 chlor-alkali plant in the Ebro river bank (Spain). This factory had historically dumped waste to the
28 shallow Flix reservoir. Extensive common reed meadows are growing on the top of the waste, in
29 a nearby nature reserve across the reservoir and a meander immediately downriver. Three
30 replicated individuals from a total of 11 sites were sampled, and the trace metal content
31 measured in the main plant compartments (roots, rhizomes, stems, leaves, and panicles).
32 Panicles and roots showed a much larger concentration of trace metals than the other plant
33 compartments. Levels of Hg, Cu, and Ni were markedly higher in panicles at the factory and
34 nearby points of the reserve and lowered at the meander. In contrast, Cd, Zn, and Mn in roots
35 increased from the factory to the meander downriver. We conclude that panicles show recent
36 (less than a year) airborne pollution, whereas roots indicate the long-term transport of
37 pollutants from the waste in the shoreline of the factory to downriver sedimentation hotspots,
38 where they become more bioavailable than in the factory waste. The Hg spatial patterns in
39 panicles agree with air measurements in later years, therefore, confirming the panicles
40 suitability for assessing airborne pollution and, consequently, *Phragmites* as a potential dual
41 biomonitor of air and sediments.

42 **Keywords:** common reed, airborne Hg, panicles, Cd dispersion, roots, metal bioavailability

43

44 **1. Introduction**

45 The use of selected organisms as biomonitors facilitates the assessment of trace metal pollution,
46 bioavailability, and comparison among sites. The choice of species is crucial for pollution
47 detection and quantification and depends on the question, habitat, and time scales considered
48 (Soto et al. 2011). The evaluation of different pollution sources (e.g., air, water, sediment,
49 suspended material, or other organisms) requires a suite of indicators with complementary
50 properties (Luoma and Rainbow 2008). In wetlands, an organism's exposure to pollutants differ
51 between aerial and aquatic media and, consequently, different biomonitors could be selected.
52 However, helophytes — plants with perennial parts in the mud below the water level, and aerial
53 stems, leaves, and inflorescences — are present in both media. We suggest that this feature can
54 be exploited for dual assessment of air and sediment pollution. In particular, here we introduce
55 the case of the common reed (*Phragmites australis* (Cav.) Trin. Ex Steud): an emergent aquatic
56 plant, which is common in wetlands, the littoral of ponds and lakes, riverbanks, and even
57 marginal wet habitats in urban areas. Common reed shows a worldwide distribution, being
58 native of the Northern Hemisphere has become invasive across all continents. This feature, not
59 particularly satisfactory for biodiversity conservation, becomes an attractive property for
60 environmental bioassessments

61 The plant shows erect stems, linear leaves, and bushy panicles as inflorescences. Flowering
62 typically occurs in late summer. The plant withstands extreme environmental conditions,
63 including the exposure and accumulation of toxic pollutants such as Cd, Hg, Cu, Mn, Zn, Ni, Cr, Pb
64 and As (Batty and Younger 2004; Bragato et al. 2009; Lominchar et al. 2015); thus it is used for
65 detoxification and stabilization of metal sludge (Bonanno et al. 2017). Common reed metal
66 bioconcentration mainly occurs in the roots (i.e. Weis and Weis 2004; Bonanno 2011). There is
67 abundant literature proving quantitative relations between this plant part and the environment
68 (Eid and Shaltout 2014; Phillips et al. 2015; Eid et al. 2020, among others); consequently, the

69 common reed is a well-accepted trace metal biomonitor of sediment pollution (Bonanno and Lo
70 Giudice 2010; Yuan et al. 2016). Trace metal bioavailability and bioconcentration depend on
71 environmental properties such as temperature, season, salinity, oxygen demand, pH and metal
72 concentration (Bonanno and Lo Giudice, 2010; Vymazal and Brezinova 2016) as well as plant age.
73 Interestingly, the metal translocation from roots to the other plant parts (i.e., leaves, rhizomes,
74 and stems) is usually low (Bonanno et al. 2017). For this reason, leaves were tentatively
75 proposed as potential indicators of air pollution (Bonanno and Pavone 2015). However, the
76 accumulation in the inflorescences (i.e., panicles) has not been assessed yet, but there is no
77 reason to expect a higher internal transport from roots than to the other parts of the plant. The
78 physical structure of the panicles with flowers surrounded by abundant silky hairs offer much
79 surface for direct trapping of air pollutants. Consequently, we hypothesized that common reed
80 panicles could be useful for monitoring air contamination around industrial areas, performing
81 similarly as mosses and lichens (Calasans and Malm 1997; Lodenius 1998; Fernandez et al. 2000),
82 in which adsorption and absorption may occur.

83 The aim of this study, therefore, was to test for the potential dual role of *P. australis* as an
84 indicator of airborne and sediment trace metal pollution. For this assessment, we used the case
85 study of a chlor-alkali plant in the Ebro river bank (Spain) with a long history of environmental
86 pollution (Palanques et al. 2014). We measured trace metal concentrations in several parts of
87 the same plant individuals and analyzed the coherence of the patterns observed with the
88 assumption of transport from sediments to roots and from there to other plant compartments
89 but with low transfer ratios. We expected panicles to show discrepancies with this assumption if
90 affected directly by airborne pollution. In this case, panicles should show a trace metal
91 composition different from that in the sediment and roots, and, in our study case, spatial
92 patterns coherent with air pollution transport from a specific point source, the factory.

93 **2. Material and methods**

94 **2.1 Study area and sampling**

95 The lower Ebro River basin (Spain) shows a Mediterranean climate with high seasonal variation
96 in precipitation, with dry, hot summers and wet, cold winters. The average annual temperature
97 is 16 °C and rainfall 560 L m⁻² in the study area. The Flix reservoir (41.23 N; 0.53 E) is small (area:
98 3.2 km², volume: 11 x 10⁶ m³), shallow (maximum depth 10 m), and with a short water residence
99 time (0.3 days; Navarro et al., 2006). Its riverbanks show contrasting characteristics (Fig. 1). The
100 chlor-alkali plant locates on the southern side —right side according to the river flow — and, in
101 front of the factory, there is a large waste area accumulated over 100 years (EU 2007) on top of
102 which common reed was growing. On the northern side, there is a wildlife reserve that includes
103 a large wetland area dominated by common reed. Immediately after the reservoir dam, the river
104 meanders, and a large population of common reed develops there (Fig. 1b). Common reed areal
105 plant biomass at the factory (2.43 ± 0.6 kg DW m⁻²) did not significantly differ from the reserve
106 (mean 4.59 ± 4.35 kg DW m⁻², ANOVA $p > 0.05$). Unfortunately, we do not have biomass data for
107 the meadows at the meander but was similarly high.

108 A major restoration started in 2012 that removed the highly polluted sludge from the southern
109 reservoir shoreline. Our study was conducted previously to the waste removal and considered
110 the three main common reed areas, namely, the factory waste (F), the reserve (R), and the
111 meander (M). Three (R and M) to five (F) sampling points were selected in each site of an
112 approximate 4 m² area (Fig. 2).

113 In May 2006, three young green individual plants were collected in each sampling point to
114 measure trace metal accumulation in all plant compartments, including panicles from the
115 previous growing season (i.e., late summer-fall 2005) and corresponding to brown, older
116 individuals that have been exposed to airborne pollution for about one year. Samples were
117 collected using gloves, sorted in plant parts, namely, leaf, stems, rhizomes, roots, and panicles,
118 stored in polypropylene plastic bags, and frozen immediately in the field. All parts were wiped,

119 except panicles, because their fragility and aim to measure the entire trace metal content
120 trapped in these hairy structures. At the lab, the samples were freeze-dried before further
121 processing. Some extra samples were collected and dried at 60 °C to assess the aboveground
122 biomass as dry weight.

123 **2.2 Trace metals analysis**

124 Plant material was ground with a mortar (Retsch RM200) before metal extraction. Three
125 replicates of 50-100 mg of each sample powder were acid digested in 60-ml closed Teflon vessels
126 under microwaves and high-pressure (15 min, 200 °C), following the DIN 38414-S7 method.
127 Extracts were diluted with HNO₃ 0.5 M to 50 ml and trace metals (Cr, Mn, Fe, Ni, Cu, Zn, As, Se,
128 Cd, Hg, and Pb) analyzed by inductively coupled plasma - mass spectrometry (ICP-MS; Perkin-
129 Elmer Elan-6000). Analytical accuracy was assessed by including three blanks and three samples
130 of reference material (i.e., hay powder - IAEA-V-10) in every extraction and digestion. Recovery
131 efficiency for all metals is shown in Table A.1, although, eventually, results were not corrected by
132 recovery efficiency. Levels of As, Se, and Hg of the reference material were below the detection
133 limit; therefore, we estimate the analytical performance based on the above detection limit
134 replicated samples from the study (Table A.1). All reagents used were Merck Suprapur.
135 Detection limits in the extracts were 5.00 µg L⁻¹, Fe; 1.00 µg L⁻¹, Se; 0.25 µg L⁻¹, Zn and Cr; 0.10 µg
136 L⁻¹, As, Hg and Ni; 0.05 µg L⁻¹ Cu, Mn, and Pb; 0.03 µg L⁻¹ Cd.

137 **2.3 Numerical methods**

138 We used Statistica for descriptive statistics and Primer-Permanova v6 for principal component
139 analysis (PCA) of the metal composition in the different plant parts. Data were log-transformed
140 and standardized before multivariate analysis. Since metal concentration in plant tissues did not
141 show homoscedasticity, we used Wilcoxon and Kruskal-Wallis to tests for differences. Spearman
142 rank correlation was used to assess the influence of distance to the pollution focus in the metal

143 content in roots and exponential fitting to assess the decay in the metal content of the panicles
144 from the factory downwards.

145 Bioconcentration factors (BCF) — percentual ratios of each trace metal between roots and
146 sediment —were estimated using sediment data collected in the same study area and time
147 (Bosch et al. 2009). Translocation factors (TF) were calculated as the ratio among plant parts and
148 root trace metal content. We did not measure metal content in wiped panicles; therefore, we
149 cannot estimate TF for panicles, although there is no reason that could be higher than for other
150 plant parts (e.g., leaves).

151 **3. Results**

152 **3.1 Trace metal distribution across sites and compartments**

153 The highest Hg levels in each plant compartment were found at the factory site, particularly in
154 the panicles (Fig. 3; Table A.2). Panicles were also highly loaded with Ni, Cu, and Cr at this site
155 (Fig. 3; Table A.2). In contrast, the highest levels of Cd and Zn in roots, and Se in all plant parts
156 were found at the meander (Fig. 3; Table A.2). At the reserve, roots and rhizomes were
157 particularly rich in As (Fig. 3; Table A.2).

158 The PCA ordination of all common reed metal samples showed the existence of strong gradients
159 in roots and panicles across sites (Fig. A.1). The rest of the plant compartments showed lower
160 variation and were more homogeneous among sites. The first PCA axis ordered the samples
161 following the absolute metal load (PC1 54.5% variance), which was low in all compartments
162 except for roots and panicles, as mentioned above. The second axis (PC2 14% variance)
163 differentiated panicles from roots. The former were rich in Hg, Ni, and Cr, particularly at the
164 factory, while roots showed a more heterogeneous metal content and variation among sites,
165 being notably different those at the reserve rich in As, Fe and Mn (Fig. A.1).

166 **3.2 Translocation factors between compartments**

167 The translocation factors between roots and other compartments were, in general, low, well
168 below 1 (Table A.3). This feature was particularly outstanding in the case of the rhizome, with
169 the only exception for selenium. Indeed, Se showed consistent translocation factors from roots
170 to other compartments around 0.5 or higher. Other trace metals showed less coherent
171 translocation factors between roots and other compartments.

172 Mn showed translocation factors above one from roots to leaves but below 0.3 to stem and
173 rhizome. The rest of trace metals did not exceed root levels in other compartments in any case,
174 and in general, were rather low ($\ll 0.2$) except for Cu and Zn, as expected for micronutrients.
175 The translocation factor of metals between stems to leaves was >1 in most cases (up to 5.4),
176 differentiating the transport nature of stems from that of leaves as final end-points.

177 **3.3 Roots biomonitoring**

178 Concerning roots, there were Hg high levels and broad dispersion at the factory (Fig. 3). Arsenic,
179 in contrast, was much higher at the reserve, although also showing large variation between
180 points and individuals (Fig. 3). The roots in the meander were significantly enriched in Cd and Se,
181 while Fe and Mn were significantly low at the factory (Fig. 3; Table A.2).

182 The PCA of the root samples (Fig. A.2) showed an increasing gradient in Cd and Pb levels from
183 individuals at the factory to those at the meander (PC1 38.8% variance). Also, a strong gradient
184 of As occurred, with maximum values at the reserve and opposed to Se levels (PC2 25.3%
185 variance). The third axis, not shown, indicated high Hg levels in roots at the factory and some
186 points nearby the reserve and lower at the inner reserve and meander (PC3 12.5% variance).

187 Some metals were unexpectedly lower in reed roots on the top of the waste than downriver in
188 the meander. The pattern was a linearly increasing tendency with distance, significant for Mn,
189 Cd, and Zn (Table 1) within the study area. Nonetheless, R^2 values were low, because the highest

190 values were found in the first point in the meander (point 9, Fig. 2), just after the reservoir dam
191 and declined in the two following sampling points downstream.

192 The BCFs for Hg were very high in roots at the factory and reserve, the sites closest to the waste
193 (Table 2). Arsenic highly concentrated in the roots of the reserve, concomitant with the high
194 levels in sediment (Table 2). Roots at the meander registered the highest BCF for the other trace
195 elements even though their levels in sediment were less concentrated than at the factory and
196 the reserve (Table 2).

197 **3.4 Panicles as indicators of airborne metal pollution**

198 Mercury levels in panicles differed between the tree sites significantly (Table A.2). There were
199 much higher Hg levels at the factory (Fig. 3) —note the logarithmic scale in the figure— followed
200 by the reserve and low levels at the meander. Cd showed a similar trend but smoother and with
201 only significantly lower values at the meander. In contrast, the meander showed significantly
202 higher levels of Mn and Fe (Table A.3). The rest of trace metals (Se, Cr, Zn, Ni, As, and Pb)
203 showed high variation within sites and non-significant differences among them. The PCA of
204 metals in panicles summarized these patterns (Fig. A.2). The main variation was associated with
205 Hg (PC1 58.4% variance) with higher values at the factory and in one sampling site in the reserve
206 (point 7, Fig. 2). The second axis related to Se, which showed a marked gradient at the meander
207 (PC2 16.6% variance).

208 Assuming that the factory is the current point source and transport by air diffusion, it could be
209 expected an exponential decline in panicles trace metal content with increasing distance to that
210 point source. Indeed, the levels of Hg, Cu, Ni, and Cd experienced an exponential decline from
211 the closest sampling points to the factory to those far away in the meander (Table 1 and Fig. 4a).

212 **4. Discussion**

213 **4.1 Flix hotspot of pollution**

214 In the Flix and meander reservoir system, *Phragmites australis* presented the highest Hg levels in
215 roots - and also high Cr, Cu, Cd and As - compared to other polluted wetlands and
216 phytoremediation areas up to now studied (Weis & Weis 2004; Vymazal and Březinová 2016;
217 Cicero-Fernández and Fernández 2016; 2017). These results confirm that Flix was a Hg hotspot of
218 pollution in Spain and other aquatic areas of the EU (Esbri et al. 2015) and strongly support the
219 decision to remove the toxic waste from the reservoir - which has brought to one of the major
220 operations of environmental and ecological restoration in Europe (EU, 2007) - and also to stop
221 the activity of the old chlor-alkali plant in 2020.

222 **4.2 Downriver transport and bioavailability**

223 The spatial pattern of trace metal content in plant roots was complex. At the factory, Hg reached
224 the highest levels consistent with the too high concentration found in the waste upper layer
225 (Bosch et al. 2009). Differently, Cd, Se, Zn, and Cu in roots reached its maximum at the meander,
226 despite being extremely concentrated at sub-superficial layers of the factory deposits (Palanques
227 et al. 2014). This is coherent with previous studies indicating erosion and downstream transport
228 of polluted sediments and further accumulation of suspended material in the depositional areas
229 of the meander (Tena and Batalla 2013; Palanques et al. 2019), and with the different
230 biogeochemical conditions in both areas.

231 At the factory, the wastes were extremely oxidant because they contained NaClO (Palanques et
232 al. 2014), which prevented vertical metal mobility but not the most recent accumulation of Hg in
233 the upper sediment layer. At the meander, the conditions of high oxygen demand in wetland
234 sediments, particularly in this slow flow area, and the enrichment in the organic component of
235 the sediment (Bosch et al. 2009) likely favored trace metal mobility and bioavailability to roots.
236 This view is supported by the highest bioaccumulation of all trace metals in this meander zone,
237 except Hg, even though the levels in sediments were lower than at the factory. More specifically,
238 the existence of high levels of Mn may displace Cd bound to organic matter and fine sediments

239 (Argüello et al. 2019), thus promoting the bioavailability of Cd as seen for the high levels in roots,
240 and toxicity assays (see Bosch et al. 2009). Interestingly, although downriver transport of Hg in
241 sediment particles has been reported (Carrasco et al. 2008; Tena and Batalla 2013; Palanques et
242 al. 2019), the Hg levels were relatively low in the roots at the meander and inversely related to
243 high Se levels, which acts antagonistically, declining Hg bioavailability as well as organic matter
244 (Dang et al. 2019).

245 At the wildlife reserve, roots showed high As which is coherent with baseline levels in the Ebro
246 catchment (Carbonell unpublished results) and local conditions for high bioavailability when iron
247 is abundant (Bidone et al. 2018). The BCFs from sediment to roots were large, more than 50%,
248 but the TF from the roots to the other plant compartments were lower than one. Only leaves
249 tended to accumulate As from stems. The relatively low Cd and other trace metals in *P. australis*
250 roots at the reserve indicates that the river flow prevents metal transport across the reservoir,
251 washing out suspended material and pollutants downriver.

252 **4.3 Trace metal bioconcentration**

253 Despite the high concentrations of trace metals recorded in the sediment and roots of *P.*
254 *australis* at Flix, the BCFs were of the same order or even lower than in other localities.
255 Specifically, there was a relatively low bioavailability of metals such as Hg, Cr, Ni, and As in Flix
256 compared to coastal wetlands (Bonnano et al. 2018). Adaptations for salt tolerance in varieties
257 inhabiting coastal zones, which may interfere with metal toxicity, may be the explanation (Anjun
258 et al. 2014).

259 Multifactorial mechanisms determine trace metal bioavailability to roots in wetland plants. *P.*
260 *australis* was found to bioconcentrate the most among many other wetland species in a coastal
261 lagoon (Bonnano et al. 2018), but in other systems, e.g., lake Burrus, bioaccumulation of Cd, Zn,
262 Cu and Ni in *Typha dominguensis* (Eid et al. 2020b) was more substantial. The estimated transfer
263 of metals from roots to the other plant compartments at Flix was also in general much lower

264 than in *P. australis* from coastal lagoons suggesting that marine influence (i.e., salinity) promotes
265 the transfer of Hg, Cd, Cr, Pb and As from roots to leaves in common reed as described for Cu, Zn
266 and Cr in intertidal marshes (Du Laing et al. 2009). Transfer of Mn, Zn, Cu, and Ni remained at
267 similar levels at Flix than in the coastal wetland study of (Bonnano et al. 2018). Accordingly, trace
268 metals in common reed would be less transferred to aerial food webs (e.g., by bird seed-feeding)
269 in freshwaters, such as in Flix, than in coastal marshes provided that biomass per unit area is
270 similar. Our results confirm the complex and often weak relationship between root metal
271 content and overall plant bioaccumulation (Vymazal and Březinová 2016). The complexity and
272 variability of trace metal bioaccumulation in common reed modify its potential for sediment
273 bioremediation depending on the environmental conditions. As a biomonitor of trace metal in
274 sediments, our results suggest a need for distinguishing between salty and freshwater
275 environments in case of global comparisons.

276 **4.4 Common reed as a dual indicator**

277 The potential of *P. australis* as a dual indicator of sediment and airborne pollution is evidenced
278 by the sharp contrast in metal content between plant roots and panicles across the three study
279 sites. The other plant compartments (i.e., leaves, stems, and rhizomes) showed a relatively
280 homogenous and low trace metal content, in agreement with a low transfer of metals from roots
281 to the other plant parts, which is interpreted as a mechanism to prevent toxicity (Weis and Weis
282 2004; Bonanno 2011; Phillips et al. 2015).

283 In panicles, the content of Hg, Cu, Ni, and Cd experienced an exponential decline at increasing
284 distance from the chlor-alkali plant, with extremely high concentrations at the points closer to
285 the factory chimney — which included points at the reserve— and low values at the meander;
286 thus clearly showing the accumulation of recently airborne contaminants from the factory in this
287 hairy plant compartment. In this rural area, there is no other source point of atmospheric
288 mercury that could provide an alternative explanation. In the following year to our study and for

289 five years, López Berdonces et al (2017) measured air Hg around the factory. The air Hg spatial
290 pattern that they found was very consistent with our measurements in panicles (Fig. 4).
291 Furthermore, the levels encountered in the thalli of the lichen *Xanthoria parietina*, between the
292 years 2007 to 2012 in the same study, showed the same range that our panicles' data, sampled
293 just a year before. Hg in *Xanthoria* correlated to air Hg significantly. Therefore, panicles of *P.*
294 *australis* appear to be as good as lichens to assess Hg contamination, with the advantage of
295 being much more abundant in wetland areas. Beyond Hg, panicles also showed that Cu, Ni, and
296 Cd experienced aerial dispersion similar to Hg in the studied area, which were not measured in
297 López Berdonces et al (2017).

298 On the view of these results, we propose *P. australis* panicles as a potential new system for the
299 biomonitoring of airborne pollution useful for periods from months to a year, which corresponds
300 to the growing period and presence (even when dry) of the reproductive organs of *P. australis*.
301 The panicle temporal exposure can be approximately assessed using the changes in color
302 through its development; that is, pale green (days), purple (weeks), and brown (months).
303 Although slow-growing lichens or mosses are commonly used for air trace metal biomonitoring,
304 their presence may be restricted in certain landscapes (e.g., Mediterranean wetlands) and
305 present limitations for encountering the same species over distant locations and large regions
306 (Szczepaniak and Biziuk 2003). The widespread common reed might provide a useful
307 complementary system to include in the toolbox for biomonitoring air pollution.

308 In our case study, the dual indicator capacity of *P. australis* has allowed disentangling a complex
309 mosaic of industrial pollution resulting from the combination of heavily polluted waste and
310 sediments accumulated at the Flix reservoir throughout many years and the ongoing air
311 emissions of the chlor-alkali plant. The airborne pollution affects the areas closest to the focus at
312 the southern side of the river bank and also across the river at the natural reserve where
313 autochthonous horses are raised. Interestingly, this pollution pattern is different from the one

314 detected by roots in the sediments, in which the meander is a hotspot of several toxic metals as
315 a result of upstream waste erosion plus sediment conditions enhancing their bioavailability.

316 **4.5 Concluding remarks**

317 Altogether our results show that the use of the cosmopolitan wetland plant species *Phragmites*
318 *australis* can be an excellent tool for assessing airborne and sediment trace metal pollution. We
319 suggest its use in the Flix area after finishing the ongoing environmental restoration.

320 Nonetheless, further work is needed across different sites to definitively establish and
321 quantitatively calibrate the common reed panicles as air biomonitor. Significantly, better
322 knowledge of the mechanisms of bioaccumulation adsorption and absorption and variation
323 with the panicle aging and environmental circumstances will facilitate their optimal application
324 and, also, its performance comparison with other air biomonitors (e.g., lichens, mosses, trees).
325 Common reed panicles are likely to offer complementary options rather than competing
326 alternatives. Aside from its role in biomonitoring, common reed panicles are a source of food for
327 part of the rich fauna in wetlands (e.g., birds and insects). Therefore, it has to be considered as a
328 potential source of trace metal contamination for those organisms, another line of further
329 investigation.

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470

471 Table 1: Functions for the concentration of trace metals in roots (a) and panicles (b) of P.
 472 australis at a distance (x) from the focus of contamination: the toxic waste at the factory
 473 reservoir site (a) and the factory chimney of the chlor-alkali plant (b). Metal concentration
 474 in mg kg⁻¹ DW and distance in m.

475

a) Metals in roots	R ²	F	p
[Mn] = 95.99 + 0.043 x	0.353	14.77	< 0.001
[Cd] = 0.228 + 0.0003 x	0.224	7.81	< 0.01
[Zn] = 38.57 + 0.0075 x	0.181	5.98	< 0.05
b) Metals in panicles	R ²	F	p
[Hg] = 1.058 e ^{-0.0001x}	0.732	73.95	< 0.0000
[Cu] = 14.06 e ^{-0.0005x}	0.502	27.28	< 0.0000
[Cd] = 0.319 e ^{-0.0008x}	0.326	14.03	< 0.001
[Ni] = 13.65 e ^{-0.0003x}	0.206	7.025	< 0.02

476

477 Table 2: Bioconcentration factors (BCF) for *Phragmites australis* roots.

Metals in sediments (mg Kg FW ⁻¹)		Cr	Ni	Cu	Zn	As	Cd	Hg
Upstream	S1	118	320	34	124	17	0.40	0.50
Factory	S2	178	63	41	125	20	0.90	3.00
Near Dam	S3	306	94	47	127	23	1.40	15.10
Meander	S4	34	23	16	61	8	0.60	2.80
Metals in roots (mg Kg FW ⁻¹)		Cr	Ni	Cu	Zn	As	Cd	Hg
Reserve	S1	2.25	2.27	3.57	27.86	9.56	0.06	0.15
Factory	S2	1.29	1.78	2.70	27.73	1.98	0.12	1.73
Near Dam	S3	2.34	3.37	2.26	20.76	1.54	0.21	0.13
Meander	S4	2.84	3.18	4.56	41.28	3.27	0.93	0.15
BCF (%)		Cr	Ni	Cu	Zn	As	Cd	Hg
Reserve	S1	1.9	0.7	10.5	22.5	56.3	15.8	29.6
Factory	S2	0.7	2.8	6.6	22.2	9.9	13.3	57.5
Near Dam	S3	0.8	3.6	4.8	16.3	6.7	14.9	0.8
Meander	S4	8.4	13.8	28.5	67.7	40.9	155.2	5.4

478 Trace metal concentrations in sediments from Bosch *et al.* (2009) were used in the BCF estimation. Correspondence between sediment and rood data was
479 established as follows: Bosch *et al.*'s Station S1 was used for reserve samples; for the factory, two areas were considered (Station S2 for sampling points 1, 2,
480 and station S3 for points 4 and 5); station S4 for the meander. Trace metal content in roots was averaged accordingly, and the bioconcentration factors
481 calculated as $BCF = [Metal]_{root} / [Metal]_{sediment} * 100$.

482

483

484 Figure 1. North (a) and South (b) shores of the Flix reservoir in May 2006, at the time when the
485 sampling took place, before the restoration operation.

486 Figure 2. Air view of the study area in 2006 and the sampling points corresponding to the three
487 sites, namely: Factory (points 1 to 5), Sebes Natural Reserve (points 6, 7, 8), and Meander (points
488 9, 10, 11).

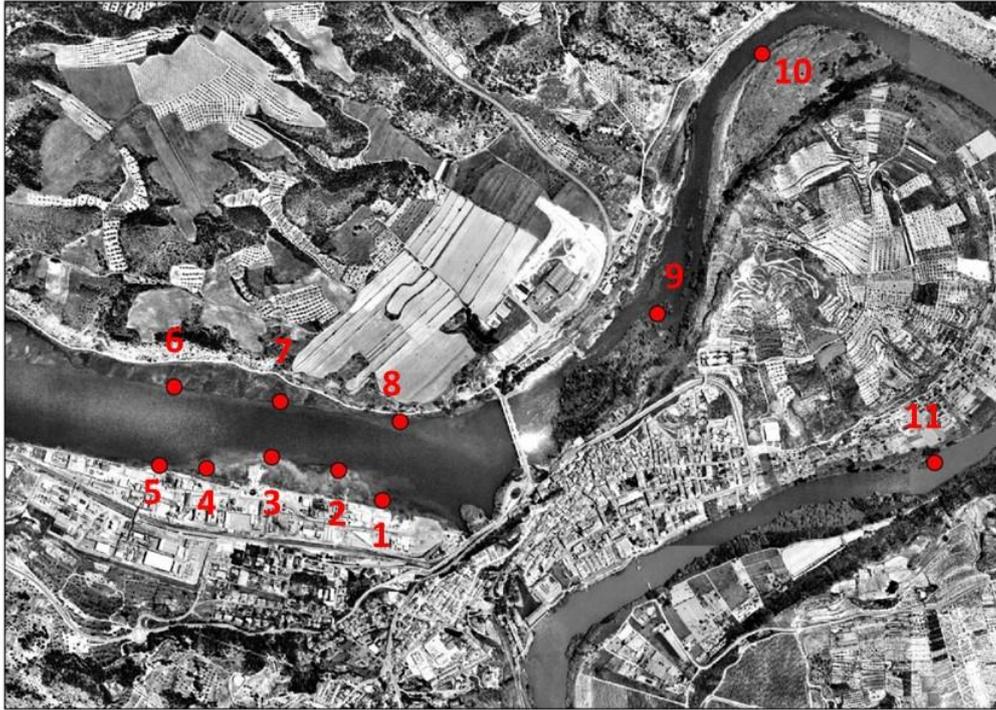
489 Figure 3. Trace metal (Hg, Se, Cd, Zn, Cr, Cu, Ni and As) variation in *Phragmites australis* plant
490 compartments (P= panicles, L= leaves, S= stems, Rh= rhizomes, R= roots) among sites (Factory =
491 dark grey, Meander = light grey, and Reserve = white). Boxplots with boxes encompassing 25 and
492 75% percentiles, and showing the median; whiskers indicate 5 and 95% percentiles. Upper
493 characters indicate sites that are significantly different at $p > 0.01$. Metal concentrations are in mg
494 kg^{-1} DW.

495 Figure 4. Total mercury concentration in common reed panicles (a) and air (b) according to the
496 distance to the chlor-alkali plant in the Flix area. Atmospheric data were extracted from López-
497 Berdonces et al. (2017).

498

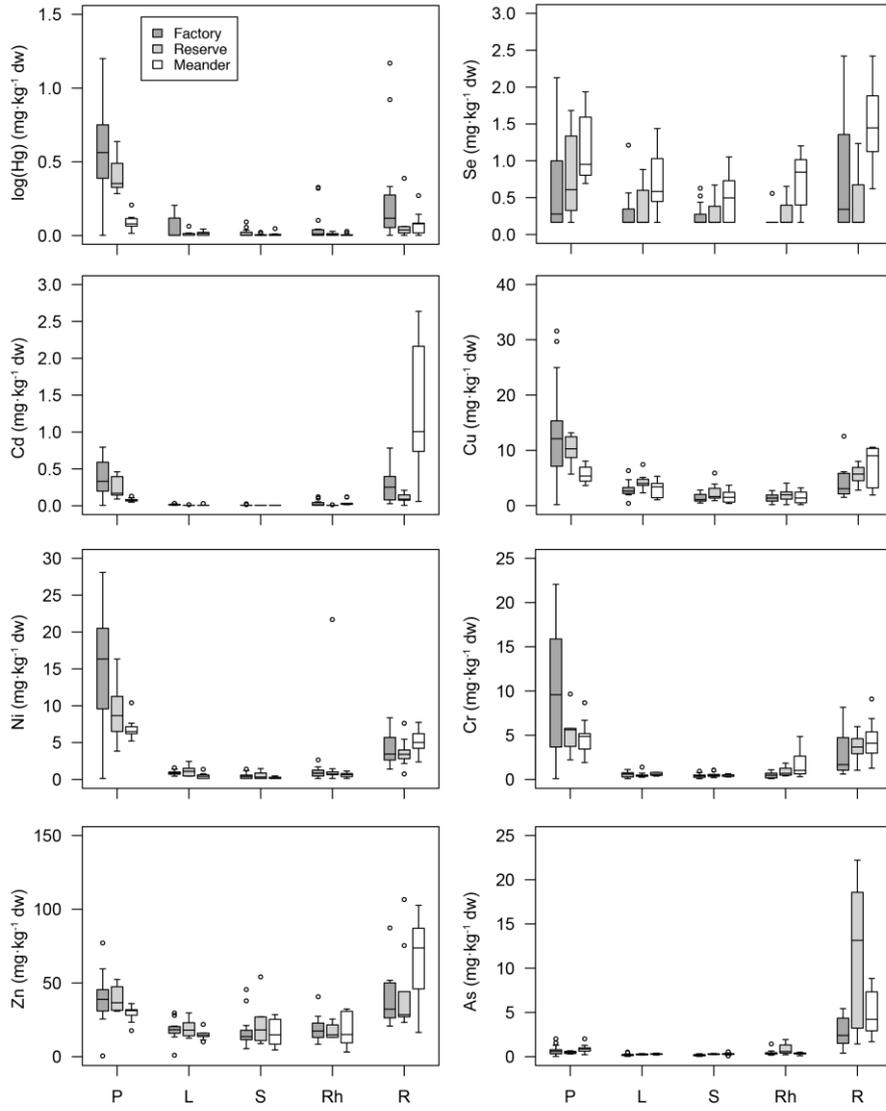


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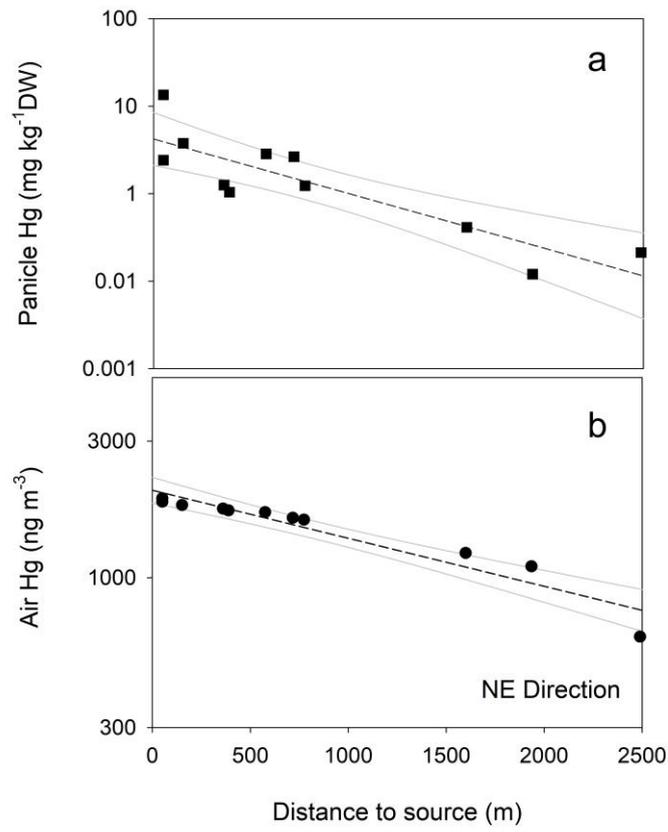


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SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL

***Phragmites australis* as a dual indicator (air and sediment) of trace metal pollution in wetlands – the key case of Flix reservoir (Ebro River)**

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Table A.1. Average recovery efficiency (%) and coefficient of variation (CV) based on three reference samples per digestion and eight digestion runs. Levels of As, Se, and Hg of the reference material were below the detection limit (b.d.), and we estimated a pseudo CV* based on the sample replicates above the detection limit.

	Se	Mn	Zn	Cu	Ni	Cd	Hg	As	Cr	Pb	Fe
Recovery (%)	b.d.	88.5	92.9	88.7	71.4	92.1	b.d.	b.d.	92.7	88.1	90.2
CV	0.18*	0.03	0.04	0.03	0.06	0.08	0.07*	0.06*	0.05	0.05	0.05

Table A.2: Mean and standard deviation (sd) of the trace metal content in plant compartments (PC) of *Phragmites australis* from the three study sites: Factory (F), Reserve (R), and Meander (M). Data are in mg kg⁻¹ DW. Varying superscripts indicate significant differences among sites after Kruskal Wallis test and Wilcoxon comparisons per plant compartment.

PC	Site	Hg		Se		Cd		Zn		Cu		Ni		As		Cr		Pb		Mn		Fe	
		mean	sd	mean	sd	mean	sd	mean	sd	mean	sd	mean	sd	mean	sd	mean	sd	mean	sd	mean	sd	mean	sd
Leaves	F	0.16	0.21	0.31	0.16	0.02 ^a	0.01	18.16	5.16	2.91	0.66	0.90 ^a	0.30	0.21	0.08	0.55	0.32	0.16	0.17	127.67	67.15	77.5 ^a	28.8
	R	0.03	0.04	0.34	0.31	0.01 ^b	0.00	19.37	6.17	4.30	0.86	1.08 ^a	0.55	0.26	0.04	0.50	0.22	0.10	0.05	180.00	146.67	77.6 ^{ab}	80.5
	M	0.03	0.03	0.71	0.15	0.01 ^b	0.00	14.78	3.05	3.02	1.75	0.48 ^b	0.15	0.28 ^a	0.02	0.64	0.15	0.11	0.06	149.35	27.62	93.9 ^b	84.3
Stems	F	0.08	0.11	0.29	0.12	0.01	0.01	19.14	13.37	1.09	0.48	0.58	0.28	0.16 ^a	0.06	0.45	0.27	0.09	0.08	33.16	23.96	30.3 ^a	19.6
	R	0.02	0.02	0.41	0.21	0.01	0.00	17.40	9.90	1.52	0.66	0.45	0.09	0.25 ^b	0.07	0.47	0.12	0.05	0.03	33.10	28.23	30.1 ^{ab}	15.1
	M	0.01	0.01	0.51	0.15	0.01	0.00	10.74	6.21	1.26	0.69	0.20	0.05	0.19 ^b	0.06	0.39	0.05	0.03	0.00	34.17	3.54	59.4 ^b	42.4
Rhizomes	F	0.19	0.32	0.19 ^a	0.06	0.03 ^a	0.03	18.80	5.82	1.46	0.73	0.94	0.67	0.42	0.18	0.48	0.28	0.12	0.12	28.36 ^a	12.21	53.6 ^a	25.0
	R	0.02	0.02	0.29 ^{ab}	0.21	0.01 ^b	0.00	17.93	2.38	1.95	0.89	0.71	0.06	0.83	0.70	0.91	0.30	0.09	0.05	29.01 ^{ab}	20.31	576.3 ^b	746.8
	M	0.02	0.02	0.68 ^b	0.27	0.04 ^a	0.04	16.89	13.40	1.59	1.14	0.62	0.31	0.34	0.09	1.81	1.32	0.09	0.09	35.29 ^b	12.13	106.5 ^{ab}	61.6
Roots	F	1.74	3.19	0.65 ^{ab}	0.58	0.25 ^a	0.16	39.91	12.29	4.04	2.06	3.86	2.08	2.89	1.45	2.74	1.73	2.18	2.14	93.46 ^a	58.77	914.8 ^a	416.7
	R	0.24	0.28	0.45 ^a	0.49	0.10 ^a	0.02	44.58	26.88	5.71	1.29	3.63	0.30	15.30	9.26	3.60	0.99	6.19	6.35	154.82 ^{ab}	104.19	5382.4 ^b	1787.7
	M	0.24	0.23	1.50 ^b	0.14	1.49 ^b	1.14	65.05	27.60	7.29	4.26	5.09	1.92	5.23	2.14	4.55	2.08	5.44	4.36	224.53 ^b	96.77	2771.6 ^{bc}	915.0
Panicles	F	4.82 ^a	4.95	0.75	0.33	0.45 ^a	0.20	42.96	7.09	15.06 ^a	7.95	18.98	6.91	0.79	0.48	12.46	6.82	2.85	1.33	30.59 ^a	39.78	740.9 ^a	463.8
	R	1.57 ^a	0.75	0.75	0.61	0.30 ^a	0.17	42.43	10.53	10.22 ^a	0.81	9.14	3.48	0.50	0.09	5.34	0.81	2.26	0.31	28.54 ^a	9.58	549.2 ^a	103.3
	M	0.25 ^b	0.15	1.18	0.44	0.08 ^b	0.03	29.11	4.38	5.58 ^b	1.28	6.89	0.98	0.89	0.46	4.71	1.84	2.22	0.66	127.80 ^b	81.26	1906.9 ^b	653.8

Table A.3: *Phragmites australis* transfer factors (TF) among plant compartments for the trace metals measured at the three sampling areas

(F= Factory, R= Reserve, and M= Meander).

	TF	Hg	Se	Cd	Zn	Cu	Ni	As	Cr	Pb	Mn	Fe
Leaf/root	F	0.09	0.48	0.08	0.46	0.72	0.23	0.07	0.20	0.07	1.37	0.08
Leaf/root	R	0.13	0.76	0.10	0.43	0.75	0.30	0.02	0.14	0.02	1.16	0.02
Leaf/root	M	0.13	0.47	0.01	0.23	0.41	0.09	0.05	0.14	0.02	0.67	0.05
	average	0.11	0.57	0.06	0.37	0.63	0.21	0.05	0.16	0.04	1.06	0.05
Stem/root	F	0.05	0.45	0.04	0.48	0.27	0.15	0.06	0.16	0.04	0.35	0.03
Stem/root	R	0.08	0.91	0.10	0.39	0.27	0.12	0.02	0.13	0.01	0.21	0.01
Stem/root	M	0.04	0.34	0.01	0.17	0.17	0.04	0.04	0.09	0.01	0.15	0.02
	average	0.06	0.57	0.05	0.34	0.24	0.10	0.04	0.13	0.02	0.24	0.02
Leaf/Stem	F	2.00	1.07	2.00	0.95	2.67	1.55	1.31	1.22	1.78	3.85	2.56
Leaf/Stem	R	1.50	0.83	1.00	1.11	2.83	2.40	1.04	1.06	2.00	5.44	3.15
Leaf/Stem	M	3.00	1.39	1.00	1.38	2.40	2.40	1.47	1.64	3.67	4.37	2.27
	average	2.17	1.10	1.33	1.15	2.63	2.12	1.28	1.31	2.48	4.55	2.66
Rhizome/root	F	0.11	0.29	0.12	0.47	0.36	0.24	0.15	0.18	0.06	0.30	0.06
Rhizome/root	R	0.08	0.64	0.10	0.40	0.34	0.20	0.05	0.25	0.01	0.19	0.11
Rhizome/root	M	0.08	0.45	0.03	0.26	0.22	0.12	0.07	0.40	0.02	0.16	0.04
	average	0.09	0.46	0.08	0.38	0.31	0.19	0.09	0.28	0.03	0.22	0.07

Figure A.1: Principal Component Analysis of trace metal content in *Phragmites australis* plant compartments (L, leaves; S, stems; Rh, rhizomes; R, roots; and P, panicles) and sampling sites (F, Factory; R, Natural Reserve; M, Meander). Variance explained by PC1 = 54.5 %, PC2 = 14.0 %, and PC3 = 8.6 %.

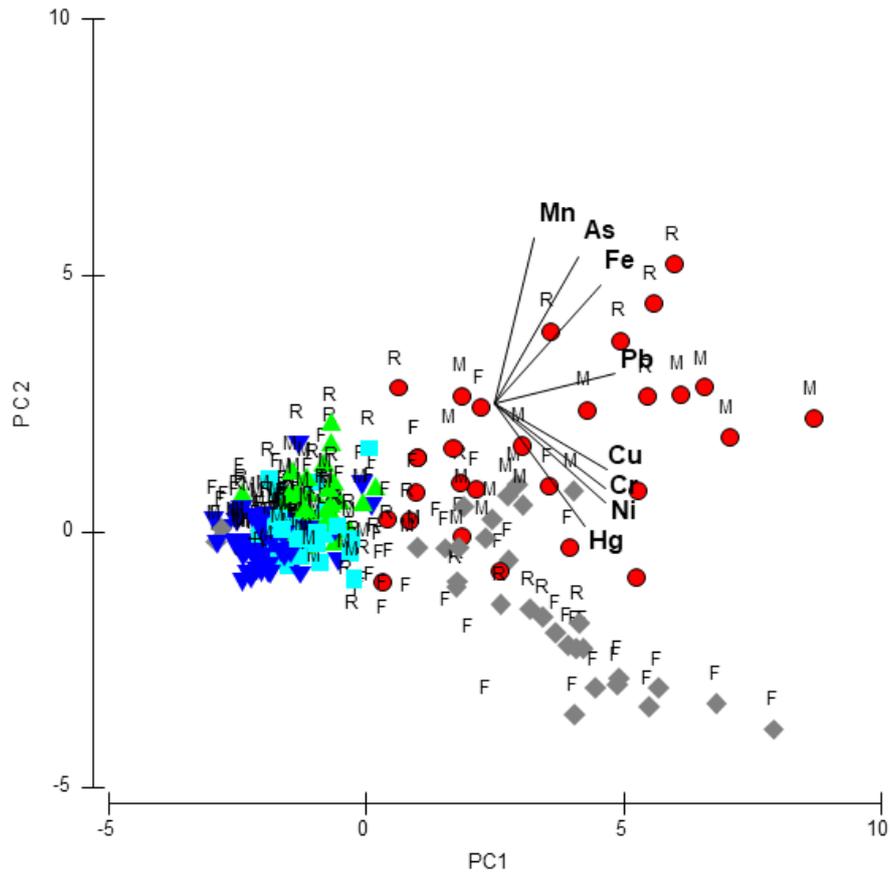


Figure A.2: Principal Component Analysis of trace metal concentrations *Phragmites australis* roots and panicles. Sampling sites: Factory (red dot), Natural Reserve (green square), and Meander (grey diamond).

