

1 Environ Geochem Health (2020) 42, 2305–2319

2

3 Physiological response of *Cistus salviifolius* L. to high arsenic  
4 concentrations

5 Luísa C. Carvalho<sup>a,\*</sup>, Cláudia Vieira<sup>a</sup>, Maria Manuela Abreu<sup>a</sup>, Maria Clara F.

6 Magalhães<sup>b</sup>

7 <sup>a</sup>Universidade de Lisboa, Instituto Superior de Agronomia, Linking Landscape, Environment,

8 Agriculture and Food Research Centre (LEAF), Lisboa, Portugal

9 <sup>b</sup>Departamento de Química and CICECO-Aveiro Institute of Materials, Universidade de Aveiro,

10 3810-193 Aveiro, Portugal

11 Corresponding author: [lcarvalho@isa.ulisboa.pt](mailto:lcarvalho@isa.ulisboa.pt); +351213653300

12

13 **Keywords** ascorbate- chlorophyll – glutathione – phytostabilization - oxidative stress

14

15 The final publication is available at <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10653-019-00389-1>

16 **Abstract**

17 Arsenic is a trace element found in the environment which can be particularly toxic to living  
18 organisms. However, some plant species such as those of the genus *Cistus* are able to grow in soils  
19 with high As concentrations and could be used in the sustainable rehabilitation of mining areas  
20 through phytostabilization. In this work, the growth and the physiological response of *Cistus*  
21 *salviifolius* L. to As induced oxidative stress at several concentrations (reaching 30 mg L<sup>-1</sup>) in an  
22 hydroponic system were evaluated for 30 days. Several growth parameters, chlorophyll content,  
23 chemical composition, one indicator of oxidative stress (H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>) and two of the major anti-oxidative  
24 metabolites (ascorbate and glutathione) were analyzed.

25 The toxic effect of As was better perceived in the plants submitted to treatments with concentrations  
26 of 20 and 30 mg As L<sup>-1</sup>. Plants subjected to these treatments had higher concentration of As in roots  
27 and shoots. The concentrations of Ca, Mg, K and Fe in the plants, as well as a large part of the  
28 evaluated growth parameters were also affected. Arsenic did not interfere with the ability of the plant  
29 to perform photosynthesis, as there were no significant differences in the contents of chlorophyll *a*, *b*  
30 and total between the different treatments. Plants from all treatments accumulated higher amount of  
31 As in roots than in shoots, and it was also in the roots that the concentrations of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, AsA and GSH  
32 were higher. *Cistus salviifolius* showed high tolerance to As up to the concentration of 5 mg L<sup>-1</sup>,  
33 which makes it a species with high potential to be used in the phytostabilization of soils contaminated  
34 with As and presenting high concentrations of the element in the soil solution.

35

36

## 37 **Introduction**

38 Plants are, during their life span, exposed to a countless variety of abiotic stresses, as widespread and  
39 diverse as drought, salinity, high or low temperatures, soil pH, lack of nutrients and potentially  
40 hazardous elements in excess (Mittler et al. 2004). In fact, the mere location of a plant can cause stress  
41 if the plant does not adapt to changes in the environment or if those changes occur fast or forcefully.  
42 One important abiotic stress factor is the presence of metal(loid)s in excess in the plant's environment.  
43 An element that is present in small concentrations (<100 mg/kg) in living organisms is termed trace  
44 element (Alloway 2013). Despite their occurrence at such small concentration, they may affect  
45 biological processes both positively as well as deleteriously depending on the element essentiality  
46 threshold limit and organism (Robinson et al. 2006). Some potentially hazardous elements that are  
47 not necessary for plants to complete their life cycle, such as As, are toxic even in minute quantities.  
48 In fact, As is one of the contaminants found in the environment which is particularly toxic to man and  
49 other living organisms (Chutia et al. 2009) and its toxicity depends on the species of As present.  
50 However, according to some authors As, in very low concentrations, seems to be beneficial for plants  
51 (Evans et al. 2005) and essential for animals (Uthus 1992). The soil properties as pH, redox  
52 conditions, mineral composition, and microbial activity influence the oxidation state and whether As  
53 is in the organic or inorganic form. The predominant species of As in the environment are the  
54 inorganic species arsenate(III) and arsenate(V), although the organic forms may also exist  
55 (Andrianisa et al. 2008). Usually, inorganic species of As are considered more toxic than the organic  
56 forms (Chutia et al. 2009; Vaclavikova et al. 2007) although the trivalent methylated arsenic species  
57 are in fact more toxic than inorganic As species because they are highly harmful to DNA  
58 (Vaclavikova et al. 2007). The As(V) is also less toxic than As(III), but it is able to endure longer in  
59 the environment, easily accumulating to toxic levels because it is more stable and it is also  
60 carcinogenic to humans (Yusof and Malek 2009).

61 Potentially hazardous elements occur naturally in soil derived from volcanoes and continental  
62 dusts to processes of weathering of parent materials, but their levels are low ( $<1000 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$ ) and  
63 rarely attain toxic values (Wuana and Okieimen 2011). According to Kabata-Pendias (2011), the  
64 concentration of As considered normal for leaves of most plants is  $1\text{--}1.7 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$ , while  
65 concentrations in the range of  $5\text{--}20 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$  are considered as phytotoxic. When the internal  
66 concentration of an element, even if essential, exceeds a threshold limit, it becomes toxic to the plant  
67 and can stimulate the production of ROS (Reactive Oxygen Species; Rout et al. 2014). The symptoms  
68 of As toxicity observed in plants range from internerval chlorosis, followed by foliar necrosis (Melo  
69 et al. 2007) to the decrease in plant growth and fruit size (Carbonell-Barrachina et al. 1995; Kabata-  
70 Pendias 2011; Sneller et al. 1999); discoloration and root plasmolysis, wilting and necrosis of leaf  
71 tips and margins (Kabata-Pendias 2011); decrease in leaf area and photosynthetic capacity (Marin et  
72 al. 1993); leaf blight and reddening (Sneller et al. 1999). Because As is an analogue of P, it can enter  
73 the plant and be translocated using phosphate carriers, leading to phosphate deficiencies (Meharg and  
74 Hartley-Whitaker 2002; Tu and Ma 2003).

75 Mediterranean shrub species such as *Erica andevalensis* Cabezudo and Rivera and *Erica*  
76 *australis* L. have been found to be tolerant to As and low soil pH values, typical in mining areas  
77 (Abreu et al. 2008; Márquez-García et al. 2012). Species such as *Cistus ladanifer* L., *Cistus*  
78 *monspeliensis* L., *Daphne gnidium* L., *Rumex induratus* Boiss. & Reut. and *Genista hirsutus* Vahl are  
79 also tolerant and are indicated as potential phytostabilizing plants (Anawar et al. 2011, Abreu and  
80 Magalhães 2009, Carvalho et al. 2019). The concentration of As in the tissues of these plants is  
81 significantly lower than that present in the soil, although it exceeds the toxic limit for other species.  
82 Several studies point to the possible use of *Cistus salviifolius* L. in the phytostabilization of degraded  
83 and contaminated areas, as is the case of mining areas, due to its tolerance to high concentrations of  
84 metals and metalloids (Santos et al. 2011; Abreu et al. 2012a,b).

85       The present work aims to understand the ability of *C. salviifolius* to withstand high  
86 concentrations of As and to evaluate its potential to be used in phytostabilization programs in areas  
87 contaminated with As and having high concentrations of the element in the soil solution, particularly  
88 those in the vicinity of mines. To assess this, the species germination capacity, growth parameters  
89 and physiological response were evaluated in a hydroponic system with aqueous solutions containing  
90 different As concentrations and low pH values.

91

## 92 **Material and Methods**

### 93 Experimental material

94 *Cistus salviifolius* L. seeds were collected in the mining area of São Domingos (SE of Portugal). The  
95 seeds undertook a treatment to break their dormancy that consisted of 10 min heating at 100 °C. The  
96 seeds were disinfected with 5% sodium hypochlorite for 5 min under agitation at 300 rpm and then  
97 washed with distilled water.

### 98 Germination treatments

99 Two germination experiments were performed, the first in aqueous solutions at different pH values  
100 of the acid range and the other in aqueous solutions at different As concentrations. The pH treatments  
101 were the following: 2.5, 3.0, 4.0, 5.0, 6.0 and 7.2. Solutions were prepared from dilutions of a sulfuric  
102 acid solution with distilled water except the last one that corresponds to water alone. Arsenic  
103 treatments were the following: 0.0, 0.025, 0.1, 0.5, 1.0, 1.5, 3.0 and 5.0 mg L<sup>-1</sup>. Solutions were  
104 prepared from dilutions of Na<sub>2</sub>HAsO<sub>4</sub>·7H<sub>2</sub>O in distilled water and set to pH 4. The last one was the  
105 control. In both experiments 25 seeds were placed in Petri dishes of 11 cm Ø, over three leaves of  
106 filter paper Whatmann n°1, previously autoclaved and soaked with 5 mL of the aqueous solution to  
107 test. For each pH value and As concentration four Petri dishes were used. The seeds were placed to  
108 germinate in a growth chamber with 16/8 h photoperiod and 25/22 °C temperature, under a light  
109 intensity of 50 ± 5 µmol quanta m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>. The number of germinated seeds was registered every other  
110 day for 21 days (pH treatment) or 30 days (As treatment), at which moment the roots, shoots and  
111 largest leaf were measured in all germinated seedlings.

### 112 Experimental set-up and monitoring

113 After performing the germination treatments the As concentrations and pH values for the hydroponic  
114 experiment were chosen. Seeds were germinated on 1.5 mL Eppendorf tubes with the lids and bottoms

115 removed. The tubes were filled with enough rock wool to hold five seeds. Germination occurred in a  
116 passive hydroponic system with deionized water at pH 4 adjusted with sulphuric acid, in a growth  
117 chamber (500L Aralab, Porto Salvo, PT) with 70% humidity 12/12 h photoperiod, 25/22 °C and 130  
118  $\pm 5 \mu\text{mol quanta m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ . After individuals had reached a height of 2 cm (*circa* two weeks) they were  
119 moved to the hydroponic system with nutrient solution (Rossini et al. 2010) and forced air provided  
120 by aquarium pumps. When plants reached 3 cm the hydroponic system with the As treatments began,  
121 with one plant per Eppendorf tube and 20 plants per treatment. Growth conditions were the same as  
122 described for germination. The treatments had a 30 day duration and sampling of four plants per  
123 treatment took place every ten days (d0, d10, d20 and d30) and the As treatments were obtained by  
124 applying As, in the form of  $\text{Na}_2\text{HAsO}_4 \cdot 7\text{H}_2\text{O}$  in the concentrations of 0.0 (As0, control), 0.5 (As0.5),  
125 1.5 (As1.5), 5.0 (As5), 20 (As20) and 30 (As30)  $\text{mg L}^{-1}$  to the nutrient solution.

126 On d0, d10 and d20 four plants were harvested, separated in roots and shoots, frozen in liquid  
127 nitrogen and kept at  $-80 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$  in a deep-freezer for determination of pigments,  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$ , ascorbate and  
128 glutathione. Four plants were monitored every ten days during the whole assay for leaf area, shoot  
129 height, root length and fresh biomass and returned to the assay. At the end of the assay, the remaining  
130 eight plants were harvested and the shoots were separated from the roots, and height, fresh biomass  
131 and leaf area of four individuals were quantified. Roots and shoots were washed with tap water  
132 followed by distilled water, they were then dried at  $60 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$  and finely ground for determination of  
133 multielemental concentration. The roots and shoots of the remaining four plants were frozen in liquid  
134 nitrogen and kept at  $-80 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$  in a deep-freezer for determination of pigments, hydrogen peroxide  
135 ( $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$ ), ascorbate and glutathione.

#### 136 Growth analysis

137 Plant height was measured with a ruler, fresh biomass was obtained by weighting the plants in an  
138 analytical scale (Mettler Toledo) after removing surface excess water with paper towels and dry  
139 biomass was quantified in the same scale after drying in a chamber at  $56 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$  until constant weight was

140 obtained. Leaf area was obtained by measuring the length and width of five leaves and applying the  
141 equations of Nakamura et al. (2005). Leaf area ratio (LAR) is defined as the leaf area (in m<sup>2</sup>) that is  
142 used to produce one gram of dry biomass and was calculated by dividing the measured leaf area by  
143 the quantified dry biomass.

#### 144 Multielemental concentration in *C. salviifolius* plants

145 Samples of shoots and roots were digested with ultrapure concentrated nitric acid (69%) under  
146 pressure in a microwave digester (CEM MDS 2000) at 650 W using three phases of pressure (45 Psi  
147 for 6 min, 90 Psi for 6 min and 150 Psi for 10 min), with a total duration of circa 45 min. After  
148 digestion in a fume hood, samples were diluted to 10 mL with deionized water. Extracts were then  
149 analysed for concentrations of total As and other elements (Ca, Cu, P, Fe, K, Mg, Mn, B, Al, Zn, Mo  
150 and Na) by Inductively Coupled Plasma-Mass spectrometry (ICP-MS) (Thermo X Series). Certified  
151 reference samples of bush branches and leaves (NCSDC73348) and blanks were used to test the  
152 accuracy of the method.

#### 153 Quantification of pigments, antioxidants and H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>

154 In order to quantify pigments (chlorophylls and carotenoids), the frozen leaf samples were macerated  
155 in acetone: Tris-HCl 100 mM (80:20). Chlorophyll *a* (chl<sub>a</sub>), chlorophyll *b* (chl<sub>b</sub>), total chlorophyll  
156 (chl<sub>t</sub>) and carotenoids (car) concentrations were analysed by spectrophotometry in a microplate reader  
157 (Sinergy HT, Biotec, Winooski, USA) at 537, 647, 663 and 470 nm, using the equations described by  
158 Porra et al. (1989) and expressed according to Richardson et al. (2002).

159 In roots and shoots, hydrogen peroxide production was assayed following the method described  
160 by Jiang et al. (1990) using the peroxide-mediated oxidation of Fe<sup>2+</sup>, followed by the reaction of Fe<sup>3+</sup>  
161 with xylenol orange. This method produces reproducible results in the 0.1–1 mM H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> concentration  
162 range. For the determination of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, 500 μL aliquots of the extracted material were added to 500  
163 mL of the reaction mixture, which contained 500 mM ammonium ferrous sulphate, 50 mM sulphuric

164 acid, 200 mM xylenol orange, and 200 mM sorbitol. After 45 min at room temperature, the changes  
165 in A560 were evaluated.

166 Reduced (GSH) and oxidised (GSSG) glutathione were analysed colorimetrically by the 2-  
167 vinylpyridine method described by Anderson et al. (1992) using frozen leaf and root material (0.1 g)  
168 ground in the presence of liquid nitrogen. Absorbance was recorded at 412 nm in a microplate reader  
169 The percentage of reduction corresponds to the percentage of GSH in the total glutathione pool and  
170 is defined as  $GSH/(GSH + GSSG) \times 100$ .

171 Ascorbic (AsA) and dehydroascorbic (DAsA) acids were assayed using a method adapted from  
172 Okamura (1980) by Carvalho and Amâncio (2002) using frozen leaf and root material (0.1 g) ground  
173 in the presence of liquid nitrogen. Absorbance was recorded at 525 nm in a microplate reader.  
174 Standard curves of AsA in the range of 10–60 mM were prepared in 5 % metaphosphoric acid. The  
175 concentration of DAsA was calculated by subtracting the AsA concentration measured from the total  
176 ascorbate assayed.

#### 177 Data analysis

178 Quality control of the analysis was made by analytical replicate samples (technical triplicates of four  
179 biological replicates), use of certified standards solutions and reference plant samples. For statistical  
180 purposes, the results below the detection limit were assumed as half of the detection limit.

181 Results were analyzed for a confidence level of 95% ( $p < 0.05$ ) through *One-way* ANOVA  
182 followed by the *post-hoc* test Tukey HSD when the sample distribution was found to be normal  
183 (Kolmogorov-Smirnova test with Lilliefors and Shapiro-Wilk correction). For non-parametric  
184 samples, the Kruskal-Wallis test was performed, followed by the non-parametric Wilcoxon-Mann-  
185 Whitney test for average comparisons.

186 Spearman non-parametric correlations were used to correlate the concentrations of As and other  
187 elements in shoots and roots as well as the physiological characteristics (correlations were found  
188 significant at the 0.05 level).

189           The translocation coefficient ( $\text{TranslC} = [\text{total element in shoots}] / [\text{total element in roots}]$ ) was  
190   calculated in order to characterize the translocation capacity of an element from roots to leaves  
191   (Huang and Cunningham, 1996).

192

## 193 **Results**

### 194 Germination of *Cistus salviifolius* at different pH values and arsenic concentrations

195 Germination rates, presented in Table 1, were in general low. When considering germination at  
196 different pH values, rates were highest at pH 5.0 and lowest at pH 3.0 while As concentrations of 0.5  
197 mM (at pH 4.0) were the most favorable for germination while the highest concentrations and the  
198 controls showed very low germination rates.

### 199 Arsenic and nutrients concentration in plants of *Cistus salviifolius*

200 The concentration of As in roots and shoots of plants subjected to the As treatments and in controls  
201 at the beginning and at the end of the treatments is shown in Fig. 1. Arsenic concentration was higher  
202 in roots than in shoots in all treatments and increased steadily with As concentration in the hydroponic  
203 solution. In control plants, the As concentration in roots and shoots decreased from the beginning  
204 (As0, d0) to the end (As0, d30) of the treatment. With the exception of the control, all As  
205 concentrations in shoots are considered toxic (5 to 20 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> leaf dry weight; Kabata-Pendias 2011).  
206 In fact, in As20 and As30 values were above 30 mg kg<sup>-1</sup>, the value considered as the maximum  
207 tolerable level for cattle ingestion (Mendez and Maier 2008). Table 1 shows the concentration of the  
208 studied macro- and micronutrients in roots and shoots of plants subjected to the As treatments and in  
209 controls at the end of the treatments. All nutrients are present at higher concentrations in roots than  
210 in shoots with the exception of Mg and K that have higher concentrations in shoots and Mn that has  
211 similar values in roots and shoots (Table 1).

### 212 Growth and visual symptoms of As toxicity in plants

213 Plants growing in the hydroponic solutions of As30 showed clear visual symptoms of toxicity,  
214 beginning as early as ten days of growth, where it is already possible to see dead small leaves and dry  
215 tips of the larger leaves (Fig. 2, white arrows). At the end of the As30 treatment, some plants were  
216 dead, as the one shown in Fig. 2. In fact, the death rate in As30 on d30 was 80%. The treatment As20

217 also had high death rate but the surviving plants only had visible symptoms beginning on d20 (Fig.  
218 2, red arrows). The surviving plants in those two treatments did not grow at all (in shoot height, root  
219 length and biomass) nor did their leaf area increase (Fig. 3), while plants from the other As treatments  
220 showed similar shoot height and root biomass than the control. Arsenic at 0.5 mM actually stimulated  
221 shoot biomass while at 5 mM root growth was slightly increased by As. Leaf area also increased  
222 steadily from the control up to As5 and then abruptly declined to values lower than in the control.

223 Arsenic at the concentration of 0.5 mM also stimulated the production of chlorophyll, with a  
224 slight shift towards *chl<sub>b</sub>* (Fig. 4A). Also As20 showed an increase in chlorophyll quantity (Fig. 4 and  
225 image of d30 in Fig. 2), while As30 had the lowest values and the lowest *chl<sub>a</sub>/chl<sub>b</sub>* ratio (Fig. 4B).  
226 Carotenoids content followed the same trend as that of total chlorophyll (Fig. 4C), making the ratio  
227 *chl/car* relatively stable throughout the treatments (Fig. 4D).

#### 228 Oxidative stress and antioxidative defense

229 Control plants had higher content of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> in roots than in shoots, with some oscillation during the  
230 treatments but no significant differences (Fig. 5). In shoots, H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> content did not increase much from  
231 the control with the exception of As30 on d20. Conversely, in roots, H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> content was significantly  
232 lower than the control in As0.5 and increased on d10 of As1.5 and As5, decreasing thereafter in those  
233 two treatments. Only in As20 did H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> content increase significantly, on d10 and d20 while on d30  
234 it regained control values. The same occurred on As30, but with slightly lower values than the  
235 previous treatment.

236 Ascorbate and glutathione contents were significantly higher in roots than in shoots, especially  
237 in plants at the beginning of the treatments (Fig. 6 and 7). In control roots, ascorbate decreased  
238 significantly on d10, increased again and attained very low values on d30 while in shoots, it decreased  
239 steadily until d30. In the treatments up to As5, ascorbate increased slightly with time, in roots while  
240 in shoots it decreased. In As 20 and As30, ascorbate increased significantly and was kept high for the

241 duration of the treatments, with the exception of As20 on d30. In the shoots of As1.5 to As20  
242 ascorbate reduction increased with time while in roots this was only true for As1.5, in the other  
243 treatments ascorbate reduction decreased with time.

244 On average, glutathione content was three fold higher in roots than in shoots. Values increased  
245 slightly with time, in control plants while in the roots of the As treatments, from As0.5 to As20, it  
246 decreased steadily with time. In shoots, glutathione levels were higher on d10 in all treatments.  
247 Despite the great variation in reduced and oxidized glutathione contents, the redox state of glutathione  
248 was kept very constant in shoots, with treatments from As0.5 to As5 showing %reduction of *circa*  
249 85% at all time points. In As20 and As30, however, %reduction decreased significantly. In roots, the  
250 reduction of glutathione oscillated more with time but As20 and As30 also had significantly lower  
251 values than the other treatments.

252

253 **Discussion**

254 *Cistus salvifolius* is a species that can withstand high total metal(loid) concentrations in soil,  
255 accumulating some of these elements in their tissues but without showing significant symptoms of  
256 toxicity (Abreu et al. 2012a; 2012b). We set out to understand the physiological mechanisms  
257 underlying this ability and to assess the potential of using *C. salvifolius* in phytostabilization  
258 programs of areas contaminated with As, particularly in the vicinity of mines and containing high As  
259 concentrations in the soil available fraction. In order to try to unravel the resilience of this species  
260 and also the maximum levels of contamination it can withstand, we evaluated its germination, growth,  
261 development and physiological response in an hydroponic system with different As concentrations  
262 and the acid pH typical of As contaminated soils.

263 Seed of the genus *Cistus* are characterized by their small size and mass and by physical dormancy  
264 (Troumbis and Trabaud 1986), which is usually broken by high temperatures generated by fire  
265 (Ferrandis et al. 2001; Bastida and Talavera 2002). At ambient temperatures seed germination is low  
266 (Scuderi et al. 2010; Luna and Chamorro 2016). In this experiment, seed germination at various acid  
267 pH values gave rise to germination rates that were relatively average, with a maximum at pH 5.0,  
268 what can be justified by the fact that low pH may help break the testa of the seeds, replacing high  
269 temperatures. Significant increases of germination ratio were also found by Trigueros-Vera et al.  
270 (2010) for seeds of *Erica australis* at pH 4.0, however in *Erica andevalensis*, pH 3.5 did not stimulate  
271 germination (Rossini et al. 2009), indicating a strong species specific response. At low concentrations  
272 As may have a stimulation effect on plant growth and this was observed in this experiment at  
273 concentrations up to 0.5 mM. At higher As concentrations its toxicity led to decreased germination  
274 rates.

275 The concentration of As in the roots was significantly higher than in shoots, as also reported by  
276 Abreu et al. (2012a; 2012b) who found that *C. salvifolius* growing in soils from mine areas did not  
277 translocate As to shoots, storing it mainly in the roots, suggesting a mechanism of tolerance to As

278 that inhibits the translocation above a certain threshold. Arsenic accumulation in roots was higher  
279 than that reported by Carvalho et al. (2019) in *Cistus monspeliensis* L., for the same As treatments.  
280 In As5 roots accumulated 452 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> As while Carvalho et al (2019) reported 254 mg kg<sup>-1</sup>. This can  
281 be an effect of the hydroponic system, which makes elements more readily available for plants.  
282 However, As translocation to the shoots was much lower than observed in Carvalho et al. (2019).  
283 Thus, As can accumulate in roots, in organelles where damage can be restrained, such as vacuoles, or  
284 immobilized through complexation in forms that are less harmful such as phytochelatins (Hartley-  
285 Whitaker et al. 2002) or metallothioneins (Hall 2002). However, for higher As values these tolerance  
286 mechanisms are no longer effective and there is a significant increase of As in shoots (high values of  
287 translocation ratio), which induces leaf necroses followed by the death of the plant, as in As30.  
288 Considering the low values of the translocation ratio of As (roots to shoots) and the As concentrations  
289 in shoots, *C. salviifolius* is not an As hyperaccumulator (Rascio and Navari-Izzo 2011; Sarma 2011).

290 In As20 and As30 treatments there was a significant increase in the concentration of Ca in the  
291 roots, above the reference average concentration (1 to 50 g kg<sup>-1</sup> dry weight; Kirkby and Pilbeam  
292 1984). Under oxidative stress the amount of free cytosolic Ca<sup>2+</sup> increases with the increase of ROS,  
293 because Ca is responsible for a stress response signaling system that triggers systemic molecular  
294 responses in the target organs and contributes to plant tolerance to stress (Choh et al. 2014; Mittler  
295 and Blumwald 2015; Steinhorst and Kudla 2013). In view of the above, the significant increase of Ca  
296 may have been an attempt to respond to the oxidative stress generated by the high concentrations of  
297 As. Also, the significant decrease of K in the roots of As20 and As30 can be a result of the increase  
298 of Ca (Marschner 2012; Silva and Trevizam 2015). In fact, in those two treatments K concentration  
299 was below the values considered adequate (20 to 50 g kg<sup>-1</sup> dry weight; Varennes 2003), although still  
300 within the average range (1 to 50 g kg<sup>-1</sup> dry weight; Kirkby and Pilbeam 1984).

301 Arsenic is an analog of P and therefore competes for the same uptake carriers in the roots  
302 (Meharg and Hartley-Whitaker 2002). In fact, As actually led to an increase in the uptake of P at  
303 concentrations lower than 5 mM because at low As concentrations, arsenate can replace P in the

304 unavailable fraction of the soil, thus increasing the available P for the plant (Gao and Mucci 2001).  
305 However, at the highest As concentrations P uptake decreased, as expected, because As is unable to  
306 actually substitute for P in its physiological roles in energy transfer (Tuand Ma 2003; Madeira et al.  
307 2012), leading to toxicity and decreased growth, as seen on As20 and As30. Iron concentrations were  
308 significantly higher in roots (especially in As1.5 and As5) but even the much lower Fe concentrations  
309 in shoots were above the reference values (0.05 to 0.10 g kg<sup>-1</sup> dry weight in shoots; Mengel and  
310 Kirkby 2001). Abreu et al. (2012a) also obtained values of Fe between 0.160 and 0.247 g kg<sup>-1</sup> dry  
311 weight in *C. salviifolius* from contaminated and uncontaminated areas, without symptoms of toxicity,  
312 and de la Fuente et al. (2010) reported values of 0.330 g kg<sup>-1</sup> dry weight for the same species in mine  
313 areas, which are in accordance with the ones obtained in this work, with the exception of As30, that  
314 had an extremely high Fe concentration (1.27 g kg<sup>-1</sup>).

315 In As30 the mortality rate was high and the surviving plants had severe symptoms of toxicity,  
316 with internerval chlorosis and leaf necrosis (Kabata-Pendias 2011). Root length and dry weight were  
317 significantly affected at As20 and above, as expected (Sneller et al. 1999). Shoot length was only  
318 affected in As30, as those plants were unable to grow and had height similar to the control at the  
319 beginning of the treatments, while dry weight was affected also in As20, common growth  
320 impairments under As toxicity (Carbonell-Barrachina et al. 1995; Kabata-Pendias 2011). In natural  
321 conditions, leaf area can vary with the season, usually lower in the summer to minimize transpiration  
322 (Correia and Ascenção 2017). In *C. salviifolius* leaf area can change between 1.43 cm<sup>2</sup> in winter and  
323 0.67 cm<sup>2</sup> in summer, with a year average of 1.06 cm<sup>2</sup> (Correia and Ascenção 2017). The present work  
324 was performed under artificial conditions, with plentiful water availability and constant temperature  
325 and the leaf area reached a maximum of 3.1 cm<sup>2</sup> in As5, a value that is close to the one observed by  
326 Puglielli et al. (2017) in *C. salviifolius* growing under high solar exposure (2.77 cm<sup>2</sup>). In As20 and  
327 As30 there was a decrease in leaf area probably related to the accumulation of As in the plant that  
328 reached a limit that became toxic with a consequent decrease in leaf area and photosynthetic capacity  
329 (Marin et al. 1993).

330 Similarly to leaf area, also chlorophyll concentration is seasonal, with total chlorophyll in *C.*  
331 *salviifolius* varying between 50.1  $\mu\text{g cm}^{-2}$  in winter and 25.9  $\mu\text{g cm}^{-2}$  in summer, with a yearly average  
332 of 38.3  $\mu\text{g cm}^{-2}$  (Correia and Ascensão 2017). Unexpectedly, the highest value observed was in As20,  
333 with 90  $\mu\text{g cm}^{-2}$  while the lowest was quantified in As30 (9  $\mu\text{g cm}^{-2}$ ), totally in accordance with the  
334 visual symptoms of toxicity in this treatment. At the end of the experiment, chlorophyll concentration  
335 was higher than at the beginning, in the control and in As0.5 due to the natural growth of the plants  
336 and the increase in light intensity (Puglielli et al. 2017). However, As toxicity over chlorophyll began  
337 to be noticed as soon as on As1.5 and affecting mostly Chla. The Chla/Chlb ratio was similar to the  
338 ones found by Nuñez-Oliveira et al. (1996) in *Cistus ladanifer* L. in uncontaminated soils of the  
339 Iberian Peninsula (between 1.72 and 4.91) and by Arenas-Lago et al. (2016), who measured 1.86 in  
340 *Cistus monspeliensis* L. also in uncontaminated soils. Therefore, with the exception of the values  
341 obtained in As30, all the others are within the range reported for some species (genus *Cistus*) of the  
342 Cistaceae family.

343 Exposure to As usually leads to ROS production, with the ensuing oxidative stress production  
344 (Hartley-Whitaker et al. 2001b). One such ROS is  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  which production leads to the onset of the  
345 antioxidative response at the enzyme and metabolite levels (Finnegan and Chen 2012; Meharg and  
346 Hartley-Whitaker 2002). The concentration of  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  in the shoots of the control had a significant  
347 increase followed by a decrease at the end of the experiment, suggesting that a factor other than As  
348 was responsible for these changes, such as an initial oxidative stress caused by the transfer to a  
349 hydroponics system under higher irradiance that was later overcome with the acclimatization of  
350 plants, as in *Nicotiana benthamiana* Domin. and *Solanum lycopersicon* L. after transfer from *in vitro*  
351 to *ex vitro* under four fold higher irradiance where increased ROS ( $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  and  $\text{O}_2^{\cdot-}$ ) production was  
352 observed, followed by a decrease that indicated recovery from oxidative stress (Carvalho et al. 2008).  
353 On the other hand, the plant itself can undergo fluctuations in  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  concentration that are unrelated  
354 to oxidative stress, but linked to the formation of new structures (Carvalho et al. 2006).

355 At the end of the experiment, H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> concentration in shoots did not vary significantly between  
356 treatments and in some cases was even lower than on d20, which suggests that the plant was able to  
357 contain the production of H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> at a nontoxic level in most treatments. However, the toxicity  
358 symptoms and the mortality rate in As30 point to a different scenario in this treatment; probably in  
359 this situation, oxidative stress is due to the presence of other ROS, such as O<sub>2</sub><sup>•-</sup>, HO<sup>•</sup> and <sup>1</sup>O<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup>. Of these  
360 ROS, O<sub>2</sub><sup>•-</sup> is the most stable and is usually dismutated to H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> by SODs, something that may not have  
361 occurred at a sufficient rate further enhancing oxidative stress (Apel and Hirt 2004) and the observed  
362 symptoms.

363 Under oxidative stress, mechanisms of ROS removal, in which ascorbate and glutathione are  
364 involved, are triggered (Anjum et al. 2012, Apel and Hirt 2004). Besides their involvement in the  
365 ascorbate-glutathione cycle, they are also separately responsible for detoxification, such as the role  
366 of GSH in reducing arsenate(V) to arsenate(III) through a non enzymatic reaction (Meharg and  
367 Hartley-Whitaker 2002). Ascorbate was high at the beginning of the experiment and decreased with  
368 time and As concentration, with the exception of As20 and As30, where both AsA and DAsA levels  
369 were kept high, in roots and shoots. Arenas-Lago et al. (2016) also reported high values of AsA in  
370 shoots of *C. monspeliensis* subjected to Zn toxicity. The percentage reductions of ascorbate were low  
371 at the beginning of the experiment and increased with time in all treatments, indicating an acclimation  
372 to the stress conditions, leading to more efficient ROS removal (Mittler 2002), and that is in  
373 accordance with the H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> levels measured. This may be an indication that *C. salviifolius* is more  
374 resilient than *C. monspeliensis* and can withstand higher As concentrations in the soil, as Carvalho et  
375 al. (2019) reported that ROS scavenging systems were only able to cope with the oxidative stress  
376 caused by As toxicity at concentrations of 10000 μM or lower.

377 Glutathione increased more rapidly than ascorbate with As concentration, and its levels were  
378 higher in all treatments on d10. With time, they decreased but GSH% did not, an indication that the  
379 high amounts of GSH reported on d10 were probably not joining the ascorbate-glutathione cycle but  
380 were the start material for the production of phytochelatin (Hartley-Whitaker et al. 2002) and for the

381 reduction of arsenate(V) to arsenate(III) (Meharg and Hartley-Whitaker 2002). Brossa et al. (2015)  
382 reported an increase in glutathione in leaves of *Cistus albidus* L. subjected to drought while Carvalho  
383 et al. (2019) found a decrease in GSH and in the expression levels of the *GOR* gene in *C.*  
384 *monspeliensis* roots subjected to 15000  $\mu\text{M}$  As. This is an indication that the production of  
385 phytochelatins was not a priority in that situation and this difference may be an explanation for the  
386 apparently higher tolerance to toxic levels of As shown in the present work for *C. salviifolius*.

387

### 388 **Conclusions**

389 The uptake of As kept increasing with its concentrations in the solution, leading to severe toxicity  
390 above 20 mg As L<sup>-1</sup> while in treatments with lower As concentration plant growth and physiological  
391 behavior were not significantly impaired. Plants subjected to 20 and 30 mg As L<sup>-1</sup> had high  
392 concentration of As in roots and shoots. The concentrations of Ca, Mg, K and Fe in those plants, as  
393 well as several growth parameters were also affected. Taking the values of chlorophylls into account,  
394 it is possible to infer that As did not interfere significantly in the photosynthetic capacity of the plants.  
395 In all treatments plants accumulated higher amounts of As and H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> in roots than in shoots, and it  
396 was in roots that the concentrations of anti-oxidative metabolites (AsA and GSH) were higher. *Cistus*  
397 *salviifolius* showed high tolerance to As up to the concentration of 5 mg L<sup>-1</sup>, which makes it a species  
398 with high potential to be used in the phytostabilization of soils that contain high concentrations of  
399 this element in the soil solution.

400

### 401 **Author contributions**

402 MMA and LC designed the set-up; CV and LC performed the experiments; CV performed the  
403 statistical analysis; LC wrote the paper; MMA and MCM edited the manuscript. Principal  
404 investigators: MMA and MCM.

405

### 406 **Funding**

407 The authors wish to thank Fundação para a Ciência e Tecnologia (FCT) for financial research support  
408 for LEAF (Linking Landscape, Environment, Agriculture and Food; FCT-UID/AGR/04129/2013),  
409 CICECO-Aveiro Institute of Materials (FCT-UID/CTM /50011/2013), financed by national funds  
410 through the FCT/MEC and when appropriate co-financed by FEDER under the PT2020 partnership  
411 agreement. FCT also financed a post-doctorate grant to LC (SFRH/BPD/109428/2015).  
412

413       **References**

- 414       Abreu, M. M., Tavares, M. T., & Batista, M. J. (2008). Potencial use of *Erica andevalensis* and *Erica*  
415       *australis* in phytoremediation of sulphide mine environments: São Domingos, Portugal. *Journal*  
416       *of Geochemical Exploration*, 96, 210-222.
- 417       Abreu, M. M., & Magalhães, M. C. F. (2009). Phytostabilization of Soils in Mining Areas. Case  
418       Studies from Portugal. In Aachen, L., Eichmann, P. (Eds.), *Soil Remediation*. Nova Science  
419       Publishers, Inc. NY. Pp 297-344.
- 420       Abreu, M. M., Santos, E., Ferreira, M., & Magalhães, M. (2012a). *Cistus salviifolius* a promising  
421       species for mine wastes remediation *Journal of Geochemical Exploration*, 113, 86-93.
- 422       Abreu, M. M., Santos, E., Magalhães, M., & Fernandes, E. (2012b). Trace elements tolerance,  
423       accumulation and translocation in *Cistus populifolius*, *Cistus salviifolius* and their hybrid growing  
424       in polymetallic contaminated mine areas. *Journal of Geochemical Exploration*, 123, 52-60.
- 425       Alloway, B. J. (2013). Sources of Heavy Metals and Metalloids in Soils. In Alloway, B.J. (ed.), *Heavy*  
426       *Metals in Soils. Trace Metals and Metalloids in Soils and their bioavailability*. Environmental  
427       Pollution 22. Third edition. Springer Science and Business Media, Dordrecht., The Netherlands  
428       pp 11-50.
- 429       Anawar, H., Freitas, M., Canha, N., & Regina, I. (2011). Arsenic, antimony, and other trace element  
430       contamination in a mine tailings affected area and uptake by tolerant plant species. *Environmental*  
431       *Geochemistry and Health*, 33, 353–362.
- 432       Anderson, J., Chevone, B., & Hess, J. (1992). Seasonal variation in the antioxidant system of eastern  
433       white pine needles: evidence for thermal dependence. *Plant Physiology*, 98, 501–508.
- 434       Andrianisa, H. A., Ito, A., Sasaki, A., Aizawa, J., & Umita, T. (2008). Biotransformation of Arsenic  
435       Species by Activated Sludge and Removal of Bio-Oxidised Arsenate from Wastewater by  
436       Coagulation with Ferric Chloride. *Water Research*, 42, 4809–4817.

437 Anjum, N., Ahmad, I., Mohmood, I., Pacheco, M., Duarte, A., Pereira, E., Umar, S., Ahmad, A.,  
438 Khan, N., & Iqbal, M. (2012). Modulation of glutathione and its related enzymes in plants'  
439 responses to toxic metals and metalloids – A review. *Environmental and Experimental Botany*,  
440 75, 307–324.

441 Apel, K., & Hirt, H. (2004). Reactive oxygen species: Metabolism, oxidative stress, and signal  
442 transduction. *Annual Review of Plant Biology*, 55, 373–399.

443 Arenas-Lago, D., Carvalho, L. C., Santos, E., & Abreu, A. (2016). The physiological mechanisms  
444 underlying the ability of *Cistus monspeliensis* L. from São Domingos mine to withstand high Zn  
445 concentrations in soils. *Ecotoxicology and Environmental Safety*, 129, 219–227.

446 Bastida, F., & Talavera, S. (2002). Temporal and spatial patterns of seed dispersal in two *Cistus*  
447 species (*Cistaceae*). *Annals of Botany*, 89, 427–434.

448 Brossa, R., Pintó-Marijuan, M., Francisco, R., Lopez-Carbonell, M., Chaves, M., & Alegre, L. (2015).  
449 Redox proteomics and physiological responses in *Cistus albidus* shrubs subjected to long-term  
450 summer drought followed by recovery. *Planta*, 241, 803–822.

451 Carbonell-Barrachina, A., Burlo-Carbonell, F., & Mataix-Beneyto, J. (1995). Arsenic uptake,  
452 distribution, and accumulation in tomato plants: effects of arsenite on plant growth and yield.  
453 *Journal of Plant Nutrition*, 18, 1237–1250.

454 Carvalho, L. C., & Amâncio, S. (2002). Antioxidant defence system in plantlets transferred from *in*  
455 *vitro* to *ex vitro*: Effects of increasing light intensity and CO<sub>2</sub> concentration. *Plant Science*, 162,  
456 33-40.

457 Carvalho, L. C., Vilela, B., Vidigal, P., Mullineaux, P. & Amâncio, S. (2006). Activation of the  
458 ascorbate–glutathione cycle is an early response of micropropagated *Vitis vinifera* L. explants  
459 transferred to *ex vitro*. *International Journal of Plant Sciences*, 167, 739–750.

460 Carvalho, L. C., Santos, S., Vilela, B. & Amâncio, S. (2008). *Solanum lycopersicon* Mill. and  
461 *Nicotiana benthamiana* L. under high light show distinct responses to anti-oxidative stress.  
462 *Journal of Plant Physiology*, 165, 1300–1312.

463 Carvalho, L. C., Santos, E., & Abreu, M. M. (2019). Unraveling the crucial role of the ascorbate-  
464 glutathione cycle in the resilience of *Cistus monspeliensis* L. to withstand high As concentrations.  
465 *Ecotoxicology and Environmental Safety*, *171*, 389–397.

466 Choi, W., Toyota, M., Kim, S., Hilleary, R., & Gilroy, S. (2014). Salt stress-induced Ca<sup>2+</sup> waves are  
467 associated with rapid, long-distance root-to-shoot signaling in plants. *Proceedings of the National*  
468 *Academy of Sciences*, *111*, 6497–6502.

469 Chutia, P., Kato, S., Toshinori Kojima, & Satokawa, S. (2009). Arsenic Adsorption from Aqueous  
470 Solution on Synthetic Zeolites. *Journal of Hazardous Materials*, *162*, 440–447.

471 Correia, O., & Ascensão, L. (2017). Summer semi-deciduos species of the mediterranean landscape.  
472 A winning Strategy of *Cistus* Species to face the Predicted Changes of the Mediterranean Climate.  
473 In Ansari, A., Gill, S., Abbas, Z., Naeem, M., (Eds.), *Plant biodiversity: monitoring, assessment*  
474 *and conservation*. CAB International.

475 De la Fuente, V., Rufo, L., Rodríguez, N., Amils, R., & Zuluaga, J. (2010). Metal accumulation  
476 screening of the Río Tinto flora (Huelva, Spain). *Biological Trace Element Research*, *134*, 318–  
477 341.

478 Evans, G., Evans, J., Redman, A., Johnson, N., & Foust Jr, R. D. (2005). Unexpected Beneficial  
479 Effects of Arsenic on Corn Roots Grown in Culture. *Environmental Chemistry*, *2*, 167-170.  
480 <https://doi.org/10.1071/EN05046>.

481 Ferrandis, P., de las Heras, J., Martínez-Sánchez, J. J., & Herranz, J. M. (2001). Influence of a low-  
482 intensity fire on a *Pinus halepensis* Mill. forest seed bank and its consequences on the early stages  
483 of plant succession. *Israel Journal of Plant Sciences*, *49*, 105–114

484 Finnegan, P. M., & Chen, W. (2012). Arsenic toxicity: the effects on plant metabolism. *Frontiers in*  
485 *Physiology*, *3*, 182. [doi.org/10.3389/fphys.2012.00182](https://doi.org/10.3389/fphys.2012.00182).

486 Gao, Y., & Mucci, A. (2001). Acid base reactions, phosphate and arsenate complexation, and their  
487 competitive adsorption at the surface of goethite in 0.7 M NaCl solution. *Geochimica et*  
488 *Cosmochimica Acta*, *65*, 2361–2378.

489 Hall, J. (2002). Cellular mechanisms for heavy metal detoxification and tolerance. *Journal of*  
490 *Experimental Botany*, 53, 1–11.

491 Hartley-Whitaker, J., Ainsworth, G., Voos, R., Ten Bookum, W., Schat, H., & Meharg, A. (2001a).  
492 Phytochlatins are involved in differential arsenate tolerance in *Holcus lanatus*. *Plant Physiology*,  
493 126, 299–306.

494 Hartley-Whitaker, J., Ainsworth, G., & Meharg, A. (2001b). Copper and arsenate induced oxidative  
495 stress in *Holcus lanatus* L. clones with differential sensitivity. *Plant Cell and Environment*, 24,  
496 713–722.

497 Huang, J. W., & Cunningham, S. D. (1996). Lead phytoextraction: Species variation in lead uptake  
498 and translocation. *New Phytologist*, 134, 75–84.

499 Jiang, Z. J., Woollard, A. C. S., & Wolff, S. P. (1990). Hydrogen peroxide production during  
500 experimental protein glycation. *FEBS Letters*, 268, 69–71.

501 Kabata-Pendias, A. (2011). Trace Elements in Soils and Plants. 4th edition. CRC Press, Taylor &  
502 Francis Group. Boca Raton.

503 Kirkby, E., & Pilbeam, D. (1984). Calcium as a plant nutrient. *Plant Cell and Environment*, 7, 397–  
504 405.

505 Luna, B., & Chamorro, D. (2016). Germination sensitivity to water stress of eight *Cistaceae* species  
506 from the Western Mediterranean. *Seed Science Research*, 26, 101–111.  
507 doi:10.1017/S096025851600009

508 Madeira, A.C., de Varennes, A., Abreu, M.M., Esteves, C., & Magalhães, M.C.F. (2012). Tomato  
509 and parsley growth, arsenic uptake and translocation in a contaminated amended soil. *Journal of*  
510 *Geochemical Exploration*, 123, 114–121.

511 Marin, A., Pezashki, S., Masschelen, P., & Choi, H. (1993). Effect of dimethylarsenic acid (DMAA)  
512 on growth, tissue arsenic, and photosynthesis of rice plants. *Journal of Plant Nutrition*, 16, 865–  
513 880.

514 Márquez-García, B., Pérez-López, R., Ruíz-Chancho, M., López-Sánchez, J., Rubio, R., Abreu, M.,  
515 Nieto, J., & Córdoba, F. (2012). Arsenic speciation in soils and *Erica andevalensis* Cabezudo &  
516 Rivera and *Erica australis* L. from São Domingos Mine area, Portugal. *Journal of Geochemical*  
517 *Exploration, 119-120*, 51–59.

518 Marschner, P. (2012). Mineral nutrition of higher plants. 3<sup>rd</sup> ed. Elsevier, 672 p.

519 Meharg, A., & Hartley-Whitaker, J. (2002). Arsenic uptake and metabolism in arsenic resistant and  
520 nonresistant plant species. *New Phytologist, 154*, 29–43.

521 Melo, R., Dias, L., Assis, I., & Faria, A. (2007). Influência do arsênio e fósforo sobre o crescimento  
522 de duas essências florestais. XXXI Congresso Brasileiro de Ciência do Solo. Centro de  
523 Convenções Serrano. Gramado. RS, Brazil.

524 Mendez, M., & Maier, R. (2008). Phytoremediation of mine tailings in temperate and arid  
525 environments. *Reviews in Environmental Science and Bio/Technology, 7*, 47–59.

526 Mengel, K., & Kirkby, E. A. (2001). Principles of plant nutrition. 5<sup>th</sup> ed. Kluwer Academic Publishers,  
527 Dordrecht.

528 Mittler, R. (2002). Oxidative stress, antioxidants and stress tolerance. *Trends in Plant Science, 7*,  
529 405–410.

530 Mittler, R., & Blumwald, E. (2015). The Roles of ROS and ABA in Systemic Acquired Acclimation.  
531 *The Plant Cell, 27*, 64–70.

532 Mittler, R., Vanderauwera, S., Gollery, M., & Van Breusegem, F. (2004). Reactive Oxygen Gene  
533 Network of Plants. *Trends in Plant Science, 9*, 490–498.

534 Nakamura, S., Nitta, Y., Watanabe, M., & Goto, Y. (2005). Analysis of leaflet shape and area for  
535 improvement of leaf area estimation method for sago palm (*Metroxylon sagu* Rottb.). *Plant*  
536 *Production Science, 8*, 27–31.

537 Nuñez-Oliveira, E., Martínez-Abaigar, J., & Escudero, J. (1996). Adaptability of leaves of *Cistus*  
538 *ladanifer* to Widely Varying Environmental Conditions. *Functional Ecology, 10*, 636–646.

539 Okamura, M. (1980). An improved method for determination of L-ascorbic acid and L-  
540 dehydroascorbic acid in blood plasma. *Clinica Chimica Acta*, 103, 259–268.

541 Porra, R.J., Thompson, W.A., & Kriedemann, P.E. (1989). Determination of accurate extinction  
542 coefficients and simultaneous equations for assaying chlorophylls *a* and *b* extracted with four  
543 different solvents: verification of the concentration of chlorophyll standards by atomic absorption  
544 spectrometry. *Biochimica et Biophysica Acta*, 975, 384–394.

545 Puglielli, G., Varone, L., Gratani, L., & Catoni, R. (2017). Specific leaf area variations drive  
546 acclimation of *Cistus salvifolius* in different light environments. *Photosynthetica*, 55, 31–40.

547 Rascio, N., & Navari-Izzo, F. (2011). Heavy metal hyperaccumulating plants: How and why do they  
548 do it? And what makes them so interesting? *The Plant Science*, 180, 169–181.

549 Richardson, A., Duigan, S., & Berlyn, G. (2002). An evaluation of noninvasive methods to estimate  
550 foliar chlorophyll content. *New Phytologist*, 153, 185–194.

551 Robinson, B., Bolan, N., & Mahimairaja, S. (2006). Bioaccumulation of Trace Elements : Abiotic  
552 Processes in the Rhizosphere. In M. N. V. Prazad, K. S. Sajwan, & R. Naidu (Eds.), *Trace elements  
553 in the Environment, Biogeochemistry, Biotechnology, and Bioremediation*. (pp. 93–106). Taylor  
554 & Francis.

555 Rossini, S.O., Mingorance, M., Valdés, B., & Leidi, E. (2010). Uptake, localization and physiological  
556 changes in response to copper excess in *Erica andevalensis*. *Plant and Soil*, 328, 411–420.

557 Rossini, S.O., Leidi, E.O., & Valdés, B. (2009). Germination responses of *Erica andevalensis* to  
558 different chemical and physical treatments. *Ecological Research*, 24, 655–661

559 Santos, E., Ferreira, M., & Abreu, M. M. (2011). Contribuição de *Cistus ladanifer* L. e *Cistus  
560 salviifolius* L. na recuperação de áreas mineiras da Faixa Piritosa Ibérica. *Revista de Ciências  
561 Agrárias*, 34, 21–31.

562 Sarma, H. (2011). Metal hyperaccumulation in plants: A review focusing on phytoremediation  
563 technology. *Journal of Environmental Science and Technology*, 4, 118–138.

564 Scuderi, D., Di Gregorio, R., Toscano, S., Cassaniti, C., & Romano, D. (2010). Germination  
565 behaviour of four mediterranean *Cistus* L. species in relation to high temperature. *Ecological*  
566 *Questions*, 12, 175 – 186. DOI: 10.2478/v10090-010-0011-2

567 Silva, M., & Trevizam, A. (2015). Interações iônicas e seus efeitos na nutrição das plantas. Inf.  
568 *Agronomy*, 149, 10–16.

569 Sneller, F., Heerwaarden, L., Kraaijeveld-Smit, F., Bookum, W., Koevoets, P., Schat, H., & Verkleij,  
570 J. (1999). Toxicity of arsenate in *Silene vulgaris*, accumulation and degradation of arsenate-  
571 induced phytochelatin. *New Phytologist*, 144, 223–232.

572 Steinhorst, L., & Kudla, J. (2013). Calcium and Reactive Oxygen Species Rule the Waves of  
573 Signaling. *Plant Physiology*, 163, 471–485.

574 Troumbis, A., & Trabaud, L. (1986). Comparison of reproductive biological attributes of two *Cistus*  
575 species. *Acta Oecologica/Oecologia Plantarum*, 7, 235–250.

576 Tu, C., & Ma, L. (2003). Effects of arsenate and phosphate on their accumulation by an arsenic-  
577 hyperaccumulator *Pteris vittata* L. *Plant and Soil*, 249, 373–382.

578 Uthus, E.O. (1992). Evidence for arsenic essentiality. *Environmental Geochemistry and Health*, 14,  
579 55–58.

580 Vaclavikova, M., Gallios, G.P., Hredzak, S., & Jakabsky, S. (2007). Removal of Arsenic from Water  
581 Streams: An Overview of Available Techniques. *Clean Technologies and Environmental Policy*,  
582 10, 89–95.

583 Varennes, A. (2003). Produtividade dos solos e ambiente. Escolar Editora, Lisboa.

584 Wuana, R., & Okieimen, F. E. (2011). Heavy Metals in Contaminated Soils: A Review of Sources,  
585 Chemistry, Risks and Best Available Strategies for Remediation. *International Scholarly*  
586 *Research Notices: Ecology*, 2011, 1–20.

587 Trigueros-Vera, D., Martín, R.P., & Rossini, S.O. (2010). Effect of chemical and physical treatments  
588 on seed germination of *Erica australis*. *Annales Botanici Fennici*, 47, 353–360.

589 Yusof, A.M., & Malek, N.A. (2009). Removal of Cr(VI) and As(V) from Aqueous Solutions by  
590 HDTMA-Modified Zeolite Y. *Journal of Hazardous Materials*, 162, 1019–1024.  
591

592 **Figure Legends**

593 **Fig. 1** Arsenic concentrations ( $\text{mg kg}^{-1}$  dry weight) in the shoots and roots of *Cistus salviifolius*  
594 subjected to the control (C) and the As treatments (As0.5, As1.5, As5, As20 and As30). Inset:  
595 Concentration of As in the shoots and roots of plants up to As1.5 under a different scale, for clarity  
596 purposes. In roots and shoots an \* indicates significant differences between C0 and any other  
597 treatment ( $p < 0.05$ ) while different letters indicate significant differences between treatments on d30  
598 ( $p < 0.05$ ).

599 **Fig. 2** A representative plant subjected to the control (C) and the As treatments (As0.5, As1.5, As5,  
600 As20 and As30) monitored every ten days until d30. White arrows: dead leaves on As30, beginning  
601 on d10; red arrows: dead young leaves on As20, beginning on d20.

602 **Fig. 3** Shoot height and root length (cm, A), dry biomass production (g, B), leaf area ( $\text{cm}^2$ , C) and  
603 leaf area ratio (LAR, D) of *Cistus salviifolius* control plants on the beginning of the treatments (C0)  
604 and of plants after 30 days of growth under control conditions (C30) and subjected to the As  
605 treatments (As0.5, As1.5, As5, As20 and As30). Values for each parameter followed by a different  
606 letter are significantly different ( $p < 0.05$ ).

607 **Fig. 4** Chlorophyll *a* and *b* (A) and carotenoids (B) contents and chl*a*/chl*b* (C) and chl/car (D) ratios  
608 in shoots of *Cistus salviifolius* control plants on the beginning of the treatments (C0) and in plants  
609 after 30 days of growth under control conditions (C30) and subjected to the As treatments (As0.5,  
610 As1.5, As5, As20 and As30). Values for each parameter followed by a different letter are significantly  
611 different ( $p < 0.05$ ).

612 **Fig. 5** Hydrogen peroxide concentration in the shoots and roots of *Cistus salviifolius* subjected to the  
613 control (C) and the As treatments (As0.5, As1.5, As5, As20 and As30) measured every ten days until  
614 d30. In roots and shoots lower case letters indicate significant differences between time points for

615 each treatment ( $p < 0.05$ ) while different upper case letters indicate significant differences between  
616 treatments for each time point ( $p < 0.05$ ).

617 **Fig. 6** Concentration of reduced (AsA) and oxidised (DAsA) ascorbate in the roots (A) and shoots  
618 (B) of *Cistus salviifolius* subjected to the control and the As treatments (As0.5, As1.5, As5, As20 and  
619 As30) and percentage reduction of AsA (C, roots; D, shoots) for each As treatment, measured every  
620 ten days until d30. In roots and shoots lower case letters indicate significant differences between time  
621 points for each treatment ( $p < 0.05$ ) while different upper case letters indicate significant differences  
622 between treatments for each time point ( $p < 0.05$ ).

623 **Fig. 7** Concentration of reduced (GSH) and oxidised (GSSG) glutathione in the roots (A) and shoots  
624 (B) of *Cistus salviifolius* subjected to the control and the As treatments (As0.5, As1.5, As5, As20 and  
625 As30) and percentage reduction of GSH (C, roots; D, shoots) for each As treatment, measured every  
626 ten days until d30. In roots and shoots lower case letters indicate significant differences between time  
627 points for each treatment ( $p < 0.05$ ) while different upper case letters indicate significant differences  
628 between treatments for each time point ( $p < 0.05$ ).

629

630

**Table 1** Average germination rates ( $\pm$  standard error) of *C. salviifolius* from As and pH treatments (As treatments expressed in mM As).

pH treatment (21 days)	germination rate (%)
pH 2.5	39.0 $\pm$ 8.2 ac
pH 3.0	20.0 $\pm$ 3.3 b
pH 4.0	31.0 $\pm$ 2.0 ac
pH 5.0	45.0 $\pm$ 13.6 c
pH 6.0	37.3 $\pm$ 19.7 ac
pH 7.2	29.0 $\pm$ 8.2 ab
As treatment (30 days)	germination rate(%)
0.0	17 $\pm$ 12.8 a
0.025	10 $\pm$ 12.0 a
0.1	32 $\pm$ 21.4 ab
0.5	45 $\pm$ 18.7 b
1.0	18 $\pm$ 11.5 a
1.5	24 $\pm$ 8.0 ab
3.0	21 $\pm$ 5.0 ab
5.0	12 $\pm$ 8.0 a

Values followed by different letters in each treatment indicate significant differences between As concentrations or pH values ( $p < 0.05$ ).

632

633

634

635

**Table 2** Concentrations of macro- and micronutrients in the roots and shoots of *C. salviifolius* from As treatments (n=4); (treatments expressed in mM As).

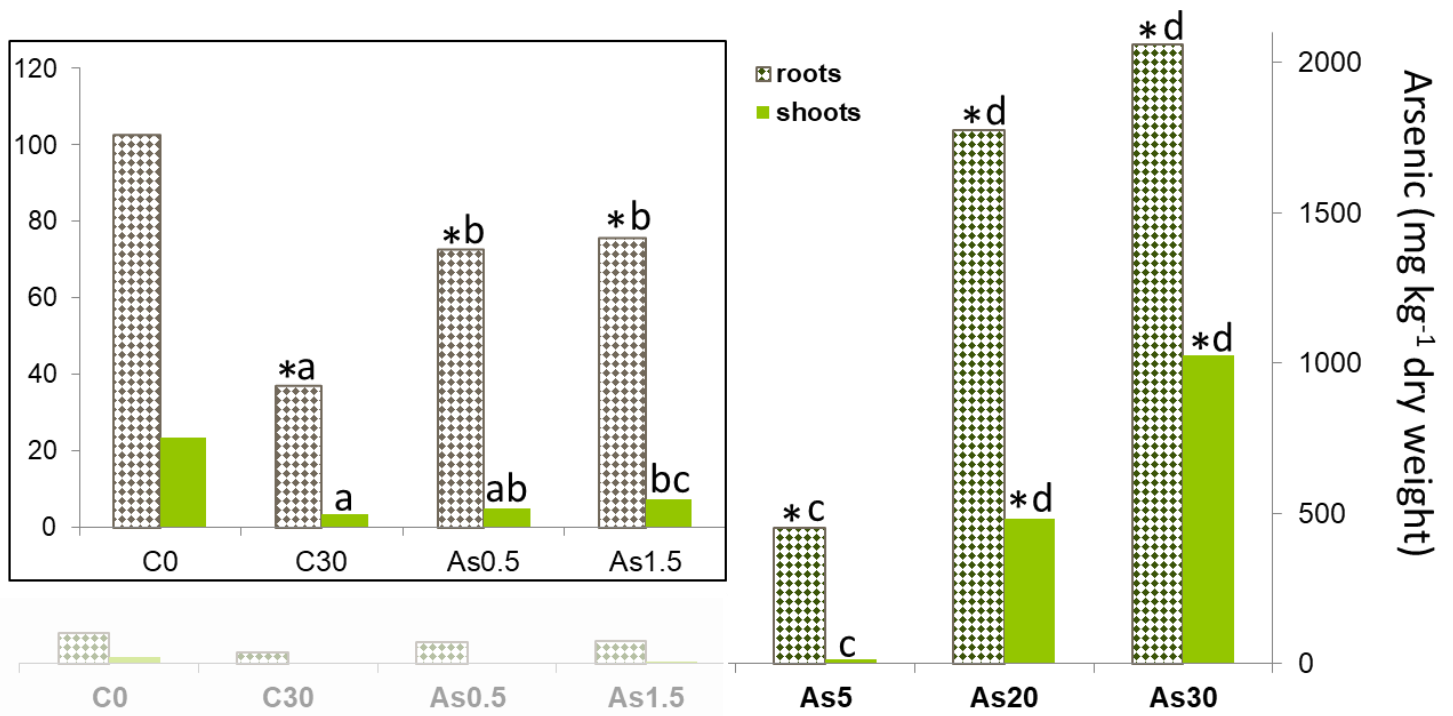
<b>Treatment</b>	<b>Ca (g kg<sup>-1</sup>)</b>	<b>Cu (mg kg<sup>-1</sup>)</b>	<b>Fe (g kg<sup>-1</sup>)</b>	<b>K (g kg<sup>-1</sup>)</b>	<b>Mg (g kg<sup>-1</sup>)</b>	<b>Mn (g kg<sup>-1</sup>)</b>	<b>P (g kg<sup>-1</sup>)</b>	<b>Zn (mg kg<sup>-1</sup>)</b>
<b>Roots</b>								
<b>C0</b>	51.89b	102.59b	12.78ab	19.20ab	3.19	0.22	10.53a	265.62c
<b>C30</b>	35.00b	37.22a	18.01b	30.99b	2.33	0.19	10.93a	104.24b
<b>As0.5</b>	41.26b	35.67a	18.71b	34.64b	3.62	0.25	16.43ab	107.13b
<b>As1.5</b>	18.96a	14.91a	26.21c	28.22b	2.60	0.25	13.40a	71.37a
<b>As5</b>	21.66a	23.39a	60.61d	55.29c	4.63	0.33	21.35b	124.52b
<b>As20</b>	125.20c	89.18b	17.94b	11.00a	2.80	0.16	11.11a	170.66c
<b>As30</b>	178.25c	150.00b	7.77a	13.24a	3.32	0.25	10.71a	210.94c
<b>Shoots</b>								
<b>C0</b>	33.45b	30.03c	5.04d	47.78b	7.82c	0.30b	4.94b	131.97c
<b>C30</b>	11.57a	10.14b	0.32b	38.79a	3.73b	0.22ab	3.72ab	90.60b
<b>As0.5</b>	11.06a	5.43a	0.28ab	28.82a	3.25ab	0.17a	3.03a	56.20a
<b>As1.5</b>	9.74a	6.25a	0.25a	31.07a	2.99a	0.14a	2.83a	59.82a
<b>As5</b>	10.75a	5.49a	0.29ab	35.91a	4.10b	0.19ab	4.73b	76.26b
<b>As20</b>	12.70a	3.21a	0.22a	50.58b	3.85b	0.26b	2.99a	66.65a
<b>As30</b>	45.82b	15.15b	1.27c	59.09b	9.13c	0.26b	10.48c	227.34d

Values of the same element and plant part followed by different letters indicate significant differences between treatments ( $p < 0.05$ ). No significant differences were registered for Mg and Mn in roots.

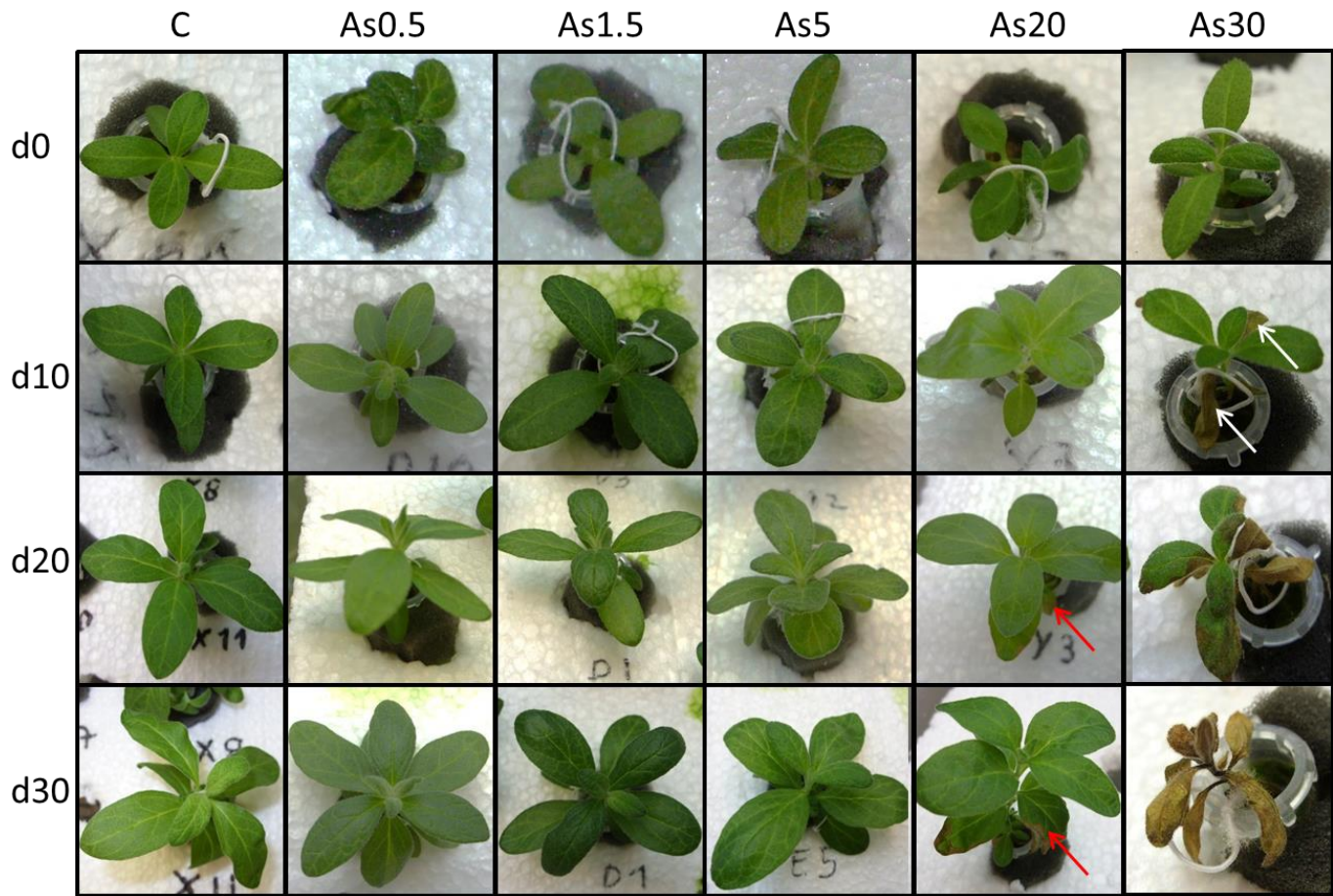
**Table 3** Translocation coefficient of macro- and micronutrients and of As in *C. salviifolius* control (C0 and C30) and at the end of the As treatments (treatments expressed in mM As).

<b>Treatment</b>	<b>As</b>	<b>Ca</b>	<b>Cu</b>	<b>Fe</b>	<b>K</b>	<b>Mg</b>	<b>Mn</b>	<b>P</b>	<b>Zn</b>
<b>C0</b>	0.23b	0.64c	0.29b	0.39b	2.49b	2.45c	1.36b	0.47a	0.50a
<b>C30</b>	0.09a	0.33b	0.27b	0.02a	1.25a	1.60b	1.16b	0.34a	0.87ab
<b>As0.5</b>	0.07a	0.27b	0.15ab	0.01a	0.83a	0.90a	0.68a	0.18a	0.52a
<b>As1.5</b>	0.10a	0.51c	0.42c	0.01a	1.10a	1.15a	0.56a	0.21a	0.84ab
<b>As5</b>	0.03a	0.50c	0.23b	0.00a	0.65a	0.89a	0.58a	0.22a	0.61a
<b>As20</b>	0.27b	0.10a	0.04a	0.01a	4.60c	1.38b	1.63	0.27a	0.39a
<b>As30</b>	1.99c	0.26b	0.10a	0.16b	4.46c	2.75c	1.04b	0.98b	1.08b

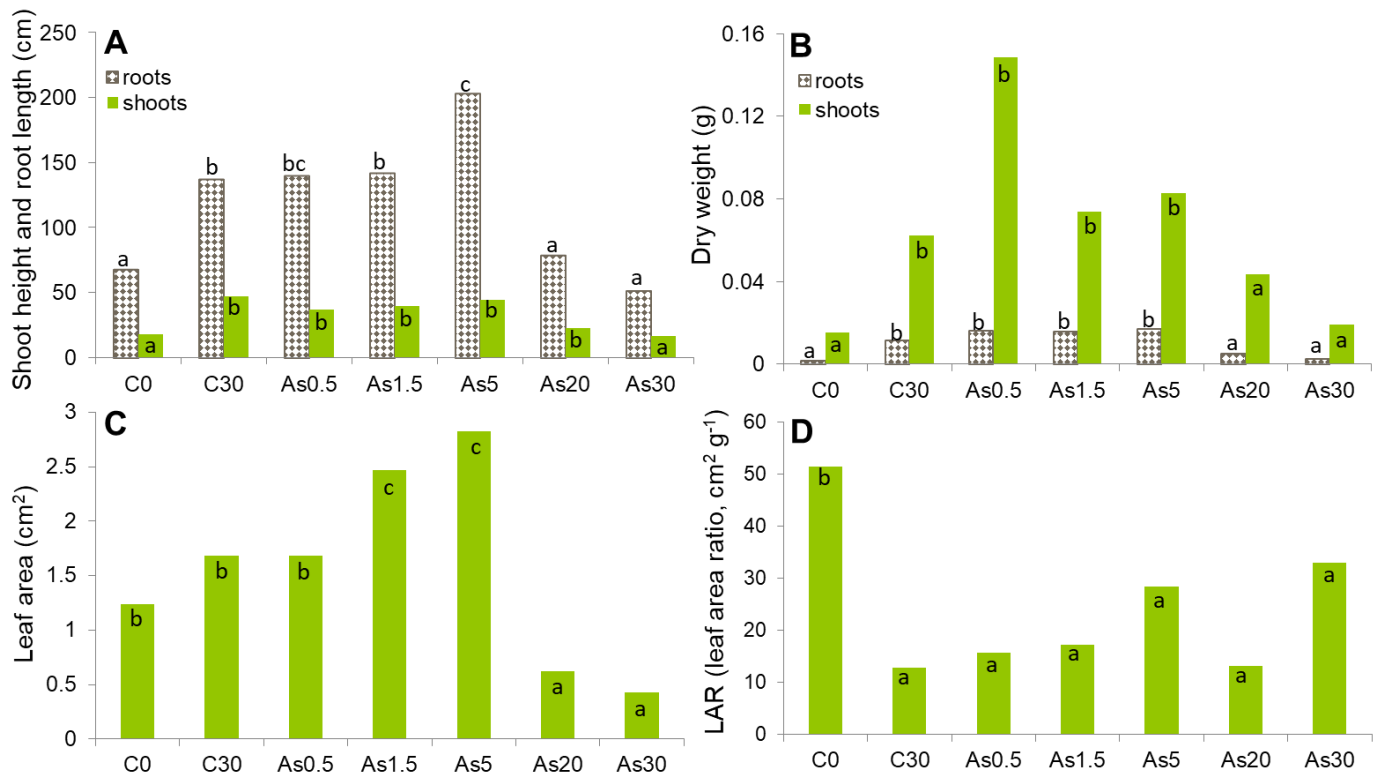
Values of the same element and plant part followed by different letters indicate significant differences between treatments ( $p < 0.05$ ).



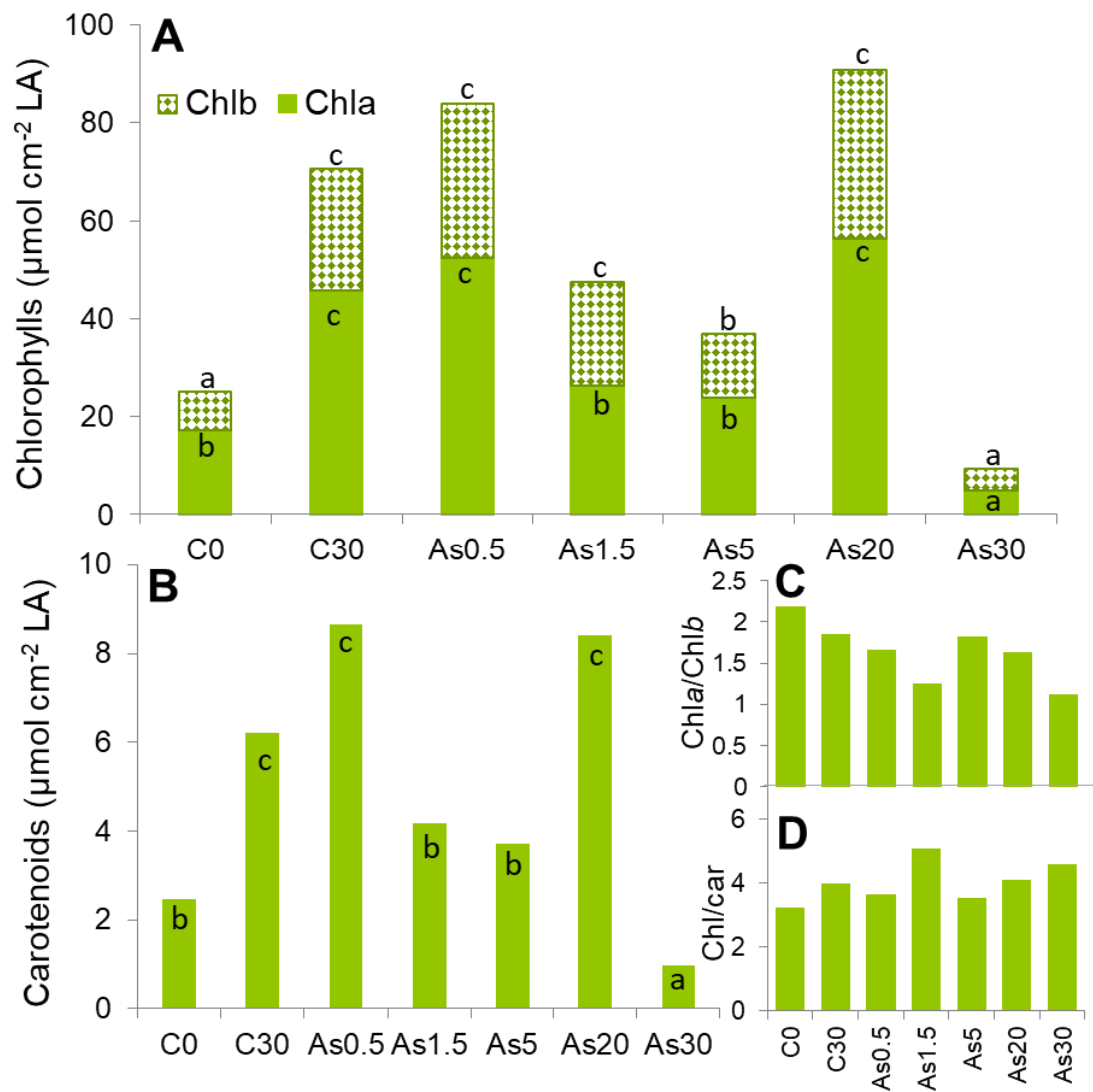
**Fig. 1** Arsenic concentrations (mg kg<sup>-1</sup> dry weight) in the shoots and roots of *Cistus salviifolius* subjected to the control (C) and the As treatments (As0.5, As1.5, As5, As20 and As30). Inset: Concentration of As in the shoots and roots of plants up to As1.5 under a different scale, for clarity purposes. In roots and shoots an \* indicates significant differences between C0 and any other treatment ( $p < 0.05$ ) while different letters indicate significant differences between treatments on d30 ( $p < 0.05$ ).



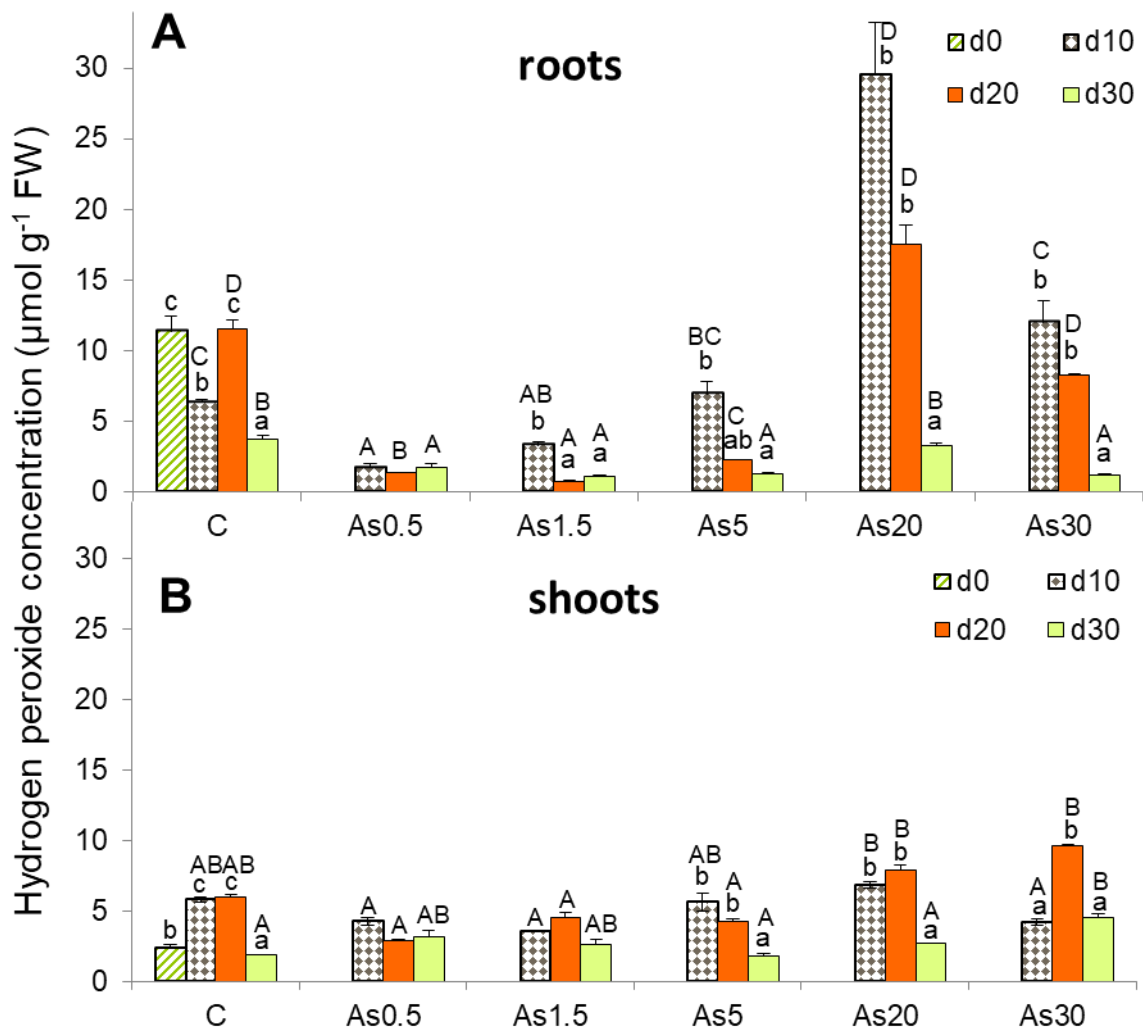
**Fig. 2** A representative plant subjected to the control (C) and the As treatments (As0.5, As1.5, As5, As20 and As30) monitored every ten days until d30. White arrows: dead leaves on As30, beginning on d10; red arrows: dead young leaves on As20, beginning on d20.



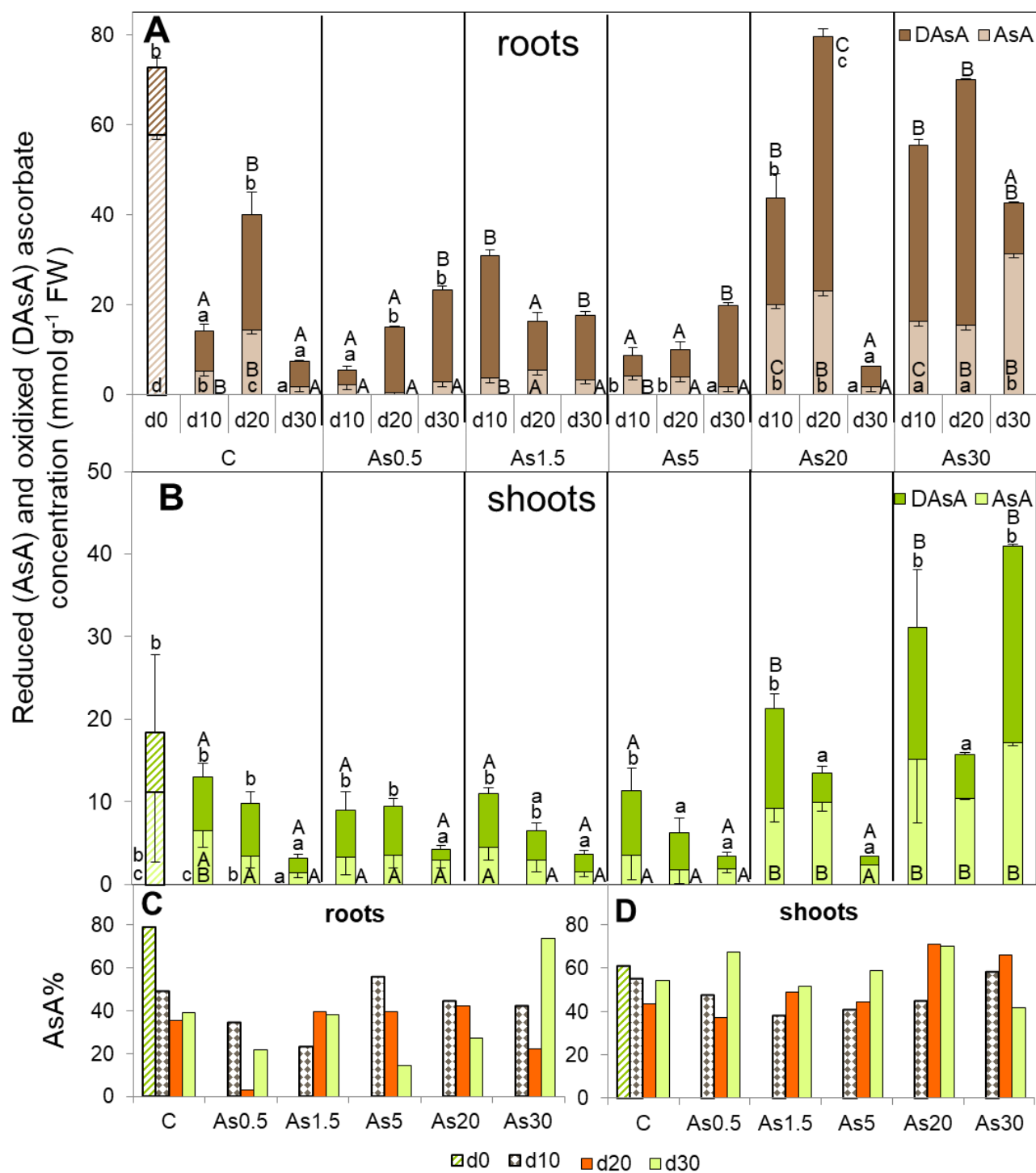
**Fig. 3** Shoot height and root length (cm, A), dry biomass production (g, B), leaf area (cm<sup>2</sup>, C) and leaf area ratio (LAR, D) of *Cistus salviifolius* control plants on the beginning of the treatments (C0) and of plants after 30 days of growth under control conditions (C30) and subjected to the As treatments (As0.5, As1.5, As5, As20 and As30). Values for each parameter followed by a different letter are significantly different ( $p < 0.05$ ).



**Fig. 4** Chlorophyll *a* and *b* (A) and carotenoids (B) contents and *chl*/*chl**b* (C) and *chl*/*car* (D) ratios in shoots of *Cistus salviifolius* control plants on the beginning of the treatments (C0) and in plants after 30 days of growth under control conditions (C30) and subjected to the As treatments (As0.5, As1.5, As5, As20 and As30). Values for each parameter followed by a different letter are significantly different ( $p < 0.05$ ).

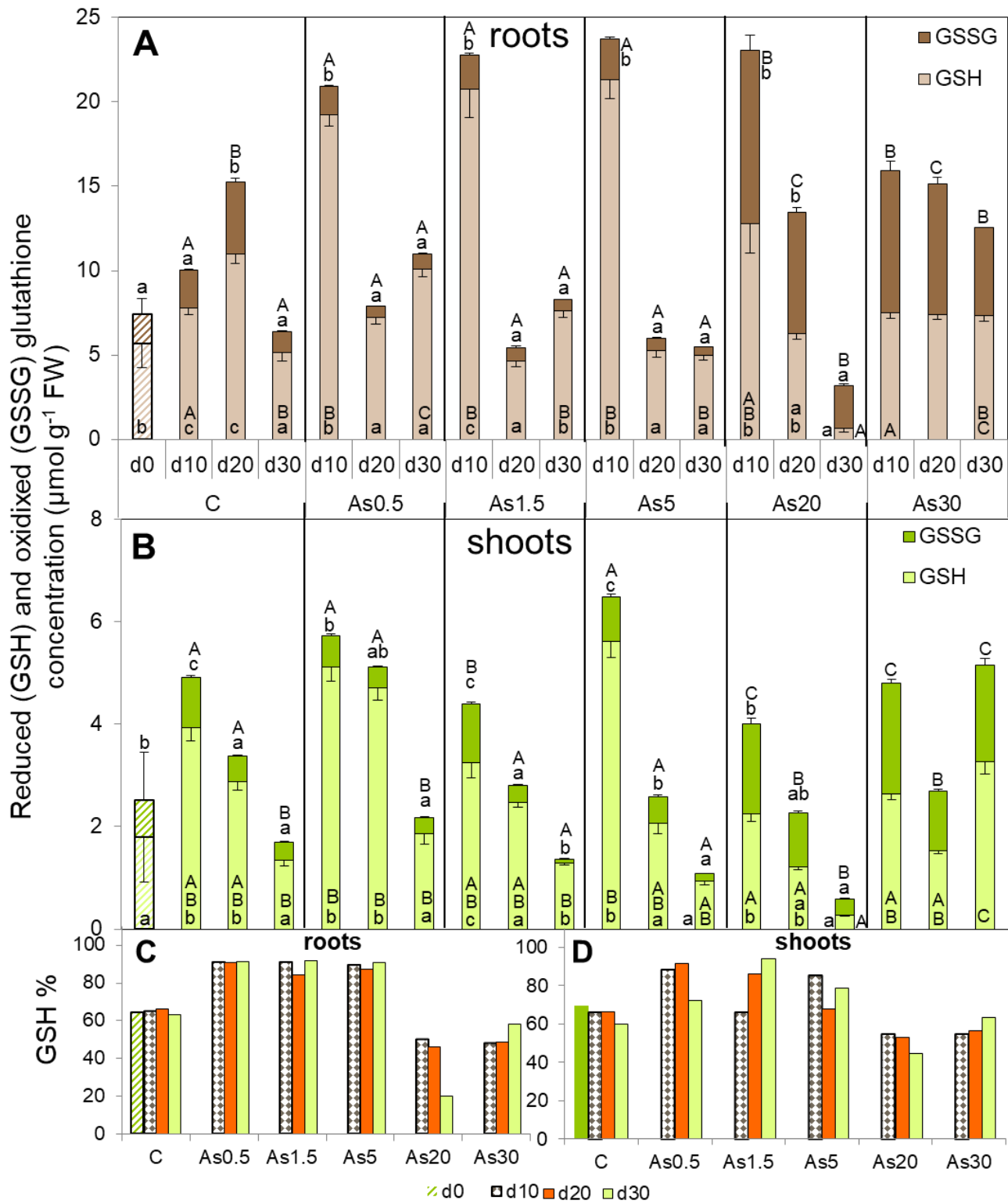


**Fig. 5** Hydrogen peroxide concentration in the shoots and roots of *Cistus salviifolius* subjected to the control (C) and the As treatments (As0.5, As1.5, As5, As20 and As30) measured every ten days until d30. In roots and shoots lower case letters indicate significant differences between time points for each treatment ( $p < 0.05$ ) while different upper case letters indicate significant differences between treatments for each time point ( $p < 0.05$ ).



**Fig. 6** Concentration of reduced (AsA) and oxidised (DAsA) ascorbate in the roots (A) and shoots (B) of *Cistus salvifolius* subjected to the control and the As treatments (As0.5, As1.5, As5, As20 and As30) and percentage reduction of AsA (C, roots; D, shoots) for each As treatment, measured every

ten days until d30. In roots and shoots lower case letters indicate significant differences between time points for each treatment ( $p < 0.05$ ) while different upper case letters indicate significant differences between treatments for each time point ( $p < 0.05$ ).



**Fig. 7** Concentration of reduced (GSH) and oxidized (GSSG) glutathione in the roots (A) and shoots (B) of *Cistus salviifolius* subjected to the control and the As treatments (As0.5, As1.5, As5, As20 and

As30) and percentage reduction of GSH (C, roots; D, shoots) for each As treatment, measured every ten days until d30. In roots and shoots lower case letters indicate significant differences between time points for each treatment ( $p < 0.05$ ) while different upper case letters indicate significant differences between treatments for each time point ( $p < 0.05$ ).