

1 **TITLE**

2 Zinc isotopic fractionation in *Phragmites australis* in response to toxic levels of
3 zinc.

4

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24 **RUNNING HEAD**

25 Isotopic fractionation in plants under Zn excess.

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35 **ABSTRACT**

36 Stable isotope signature of Zn have shown great promise in elucidating
37 changes in uptake and translocation mechanisms of this metal in plants during
38 environmental changes. Here we tested this potential by investigating the effect of
39 high Zn concentrations on the isotopic fractionation patterns of *Phragmites*
40 *australis* (Cav.) Trin. ex Steud. Plants were grown for 40 d in a nutritive solution
41 containing 3.2 μ M (sufficient) or 2 mM (toxic) Zn. The Zn isotopic composition
42 of roots, rhizomes, shoots and leaves was analysed. Stems and leaves were
43 sampled at different heights to evaluate the effect of long-distance transport on Zn
44 fractionation.

45 During Zn sufficiency, roots, rhizomes and shoots were isotopically heavy
46 ($\delta^{66}\text{Zn}_{\text{JMC-Lyon}} = 0.2\text{‰}$) while the youngest leaves were isotopically light (-0.5 ‰).
47 During Zn excess, roots were still isotopically heavier ($\delta^{66}\text{Zn} = 0.5 \text{‰}$) and the
48 rest of the plant was isotopically light (up to -0.5 ‰). The enrichment of heavy
49 isotopes at the roots was attributed to Zn uptake mediated by transporter proteins
50 under Zn-sufficient conditions and to chelation and compartmentation in Zn
51 excess. The isotopically lighter Zn in shoots and leaves is consistent with
52 long-distance root-to-shoot transport. The tolerance response of *P. australis*
53 increased the range of Zn fractionation within the plant and with respect to the
54 environment.

55

56 **KEYWORDS**

57 Metals; isotope fractionation; MC-ICP-MS; metallomics; nutrition; *Phragmites*
58 *australis*; reed.

59

60 **ABBREVIATIONS**

61 A_s

62 light-saturated net CO₂ assimilation rate

63 BCF

64 bioconcentration factor

65 C_i

66 intercellular CO₂ concentration

67 DR

68 dead roots, HL, high leaves, HS, high shoot, LL, low leaves, LS, low

69 shoots, LR, living roots, RZ, rhizomes, YL, youngest leaves.

70 E

71 transpiration rate

72 ETR

73 electron transport rate

74 F_v/F_m

75 maximum quantum yield

76 F_v'/F_m'

77 relative quantum yield

78 g_s

79 stomatal conductance

80 ICP-AES

81 Inductively Coupled Plasma Atomic Emission Spectrometer

82 IRCC

83 Index of Relative Chlorophyll Content

84 MC-ICP-MS

85	Multicollector Inductively-Coupled Plasma Mass-Spectrometry
86	qN, NPQ
87	non-photochemical quenching
88	qP
89	photochemical
90	Φ PSII
91	quantum yield of PSII photochemistry
92	Φ CO ₂
93	quantum yield of CO ₂ fixation
94	$\Delta^{66}\text{Zn}$
95	isotopic discrimination with respect to the growth medium
96	$\delta^{66}\text{Zn}$
97	isotopic signature
98	$\Delta\delta^{66}\text{Zn}_{i-j}$
99	isotopic fractionation between sections i and j,
100	

101 **INTRODUCTION**

102 Increasing Zn environmental pollution is originated from several anthropogenic
103 sources (Popovic et al., 2001; Konstantinou and Albanis, 2004; Mathur et al.,
104 2005; Pruvot et al., 2006; Kong and White, 2010). Zinc is a micronutrient
105 essential for plants at trace levels, but high concentrations can be toxic
106 (Marschner, 1995). Toxicity symptoms in plants include stunting, chlorosis,
107 induced Fe deficiency, leaf folding, and stem splitting (Rosen et al., 1978; Davis
108 and Parker, 1993).

109 In spite of the increasing concern about Zn pollution, the mechanisms of Zn
110 uptake, transport and tolerance remain poorly understood. In this scenario, the
111 Multicollector Inductively-Coupled Plasma Mass-Spectrometry (MC-ICP-MS)
112 appears as a valuable tool to explore plant metallomics (von Blanckenburg et al.,
113 2009). Plants discriminate the stable isotopes of a variety of elements, i.e. C, N, O
114 and S, a capacity that has been widely utilized to investigate the physiology and
115 responses of plants to the environment (Monaghan et al., 1999; Yun and Ro,
116 2008; Cabrera-Bosquet, et al., 2009). The MC-ICP-MS has allowed to extend the
117 research on stable isotopes to heavier elements like Zn, opening a field of new
118 possibilities. The study of the isotopic fractionation of essential elements like Cu,
119 Fe and Zn can make a substantial contribution to developing plant metallomics,
120 by helping to unravel the mechanisms of uptake, distribution and
121 compartmentation of metabolically relevant metals.

122 Zinc has four stable isotopes, ^{64}Zn , ^{66}Zn , ^{67}Zn and ^{68}Zn . Their average relative
123 abundances in naturally occurring Zn are 48.98 %, 27.81 %, 4.11 % and 18.57 %,
124 respectively (Rosman and Taylor, 1998). Processes at equilibrium, like adsorption
125 to a surface or the formation of covalent bounds, favour the accumulation of the

126 heavier isotopes in the reaction product, whereas kinetic processes like
127 diffusion-mediated transport discriminate against the heavy isotope (Criss, 1999;
128 Rodushkin et al., 2004). Weiss et al. (2005) performed the first analyses of Zn
129 isotopes in plants, and found that shoots were isotopically lighter with respect to
130 roots, and roots isotopically heavier with respect to solution. They attributed these
131 effects to root-to-shoot passive transport, cell wall binding of heavy Zn or
132 preferential diffusion of light Zn into root cells. Gélabert et al. (2006) reported the
133 enrichment in heavy isotopes of Zn adsorbed to diatoms with respect to solution.
134 John et al. (2007) showed that this was removed by washing the Zn adsorbed onto
135 diatom surface, and that desorbed cells were impoverished in ^{66}Zn . The magnitude
136 of fractionation changed with increasing Zn supply from -0.2 ‰ to -0.8 ‰,
137 corresponding to the switch from high to low-affinity Zn transport into the cell.
138 Viers et al (2007) studied several plant species in a pristine watershed, and found
139 a significant fractionation between species and between plant organs of the same
140 species, which they ascribed to root uptake from soil and translocation within the
141 plants. The leaves of the tallest species had the most negative isotopic signatures,
142 and they hypothesized a correlation between the length of the plants and the
143 extent of Zn fractionation. This was confirmed by Moynier et al. (2009), who
144 described lower $\delta^{66}\text{Zn}_{\text{leaves}}$ in bamboo than in lentils. Bamboo leaves were also
145 enriched in light isotopes as a function of the distance from the root. Finally,
146 Arnold et al. (2010a) found that rice shoots were isotopically heavier in Zn
147 deficiency, due to Zn uptake mediated by phytosiderophores.

148 These findings suggest that isotopes can be used: (i) to detect physiological
149 responses to environmental changes (i.e. different amounts of available Zn), and
150 (ii) to identify potential changes in uptake or transport mechanisms. However,

151 current research on plants is focused on Zn isotopic discrimination under normal
152 or Zn-deficient conditions. We still need to endeavour the use of isotopes to
153 recognise the activation of tolerance mechanisms in response to high levels of Zn,
154 e.g. extrusion, sequestration by metal-binding compounds or subcellular
155 compartmentation. The aim of this study was to demonstrate that the
156 physiological mechanisms of response to toxic levels of Zn are able to
157 discriminate between Zn isotopes.

158 *Phragmites australis* (Cav.) Trin. ex Steud. was chosen as model plant because it
159 is tolerant to toxic Zn concentrations, and responds accumulating excess Zn
160 mainly in the roots and restricting its uptake and transport to the shoots (Weis and
161 Weis, 2004). The specific objectives of this research were 1) to test whether the
162 exposure to toxic Zn levels causes any alteration in the Zn fractionation pattern of
163 *P. australis*, 2) to check the hypothesis proposed by Moynier et al. (2009) and
164 Viers et al. (2007) that there is a correlation between the height of leaves and the
165 Zn isotopic fractionation and 3) to examine the usefulness of the technique to
166 study the physiology of Zn toxicity.

167

168 **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

169 **Plant material**

170 *Phragmites australis* (Cav.) Trin. ex Steud plants were purchased from a local
171 nursery (Bioriza, Breda, Spain). Plants were root-washed in tap water to remove
172 the original peat-vermiculite substrate, weighed, and placed in a pure hydroponics
173 system in individual pots. The nutritive solution comprised: 130.25 mg L⁻¹ NO₃⁻,
174 5.5 mg L⁻¹ NH₄⁺, 28.5 mg L⁻¹ PO₄²⁻, 35.5 mg L⁻¹ K⁺, 24.5 mg L⁻¹ Ca²⁺, 4 mg L⁻¹
175 Mg²⁺, 14.25 mg L⁻¹ SO₄²⁻, 0.325 mg L⁻¹ Fe, 0.240 mg L⁻¹ Mn, 0.09 mg L⁻¹ Zn,

176 0.030 mg L⁻¹ B, 0.090 mg L⁻¹ Cu, 0.028 mg L⁻¹ Mo, and 0.005 mg L⁻¹ Co. The pH
177 was adjusted to 6.5. Plants were allowed to acclimate to hydroponics for 27 d,
178 until they recovered a vigorous growth, and then selected within a small range of
179 fresh weight of 161.2 ± 5.0g (FW ± SE; n = 16). There were two Zn treatments:
180 Control (3.2 µM Zn), where plants were grown in the same nutritive solution as
181 during acclimation, and Zn⁺ (2 mM Zn), where the nutritive solution was
182 amended with ZnSO₄·7H₂O (Sigma-Aldrich, 99% ACS reagent) to reach the
183 desired concentration. Eight plants per treatment were randomly distributed and
184 grown under glasshouse conditions for 40 d (29th April to 13th July 2009).
185 Previous research proved that this time span allows for enough Zn accumulation
186 and fractionation (Weiss et al., 2005). The temperature was 23.1 ± 0.3 °C (mean ±
187 SE), the relative humidity 53.6 ± 1.3 %, and the transmission of the greenhouse
188 covers 51 %. Nutritive solution was renewed every 3 to 4 d and deionised water
189 was added daily to compensate the loss due to evaporation and transpiration.
190 Plants were then thoroughly washed in tap water, bathed 30 min in ice-cold 1 mM
191 LaCl₃ and 0.05 mM CaCl₂ to remove adsorbed and apoplastically-bound Zn
192 (following Weiss et al. 2005), and rinsed in deionised water. The isotopic
193 composition of absorbed Zn depends on the physicochemical characteristics of the
194 solution and the adsorbent surface rather than on biologically regulated processes
195 (Gélabert et al., 2006), and will not be considered in this study. The isotopic
196 fractionation of Zn adsorbed on iron oxides or onto biological surfaces leads to
197 the enrichment of the heavy isotopes (Pokrovsky et al., 2005; Gélabert et al.,
198 2006; John et al., 2007). This approach was selected to allow for the comparison
199 between studies, even with species that show no metal plaques.

200 Plant height was recorded and eight samples were collected from each plant:
201 living roots (LR), dead roots (DR), rhizomes (RZ), low shoots (LS), low leaves
202 (LL), high shoot (HS), high leaves (HL) and youngest leaves (YL). Stems were
203 collected at distances from the root: between 5 to 12 cm for the low shoots and
204 between 20 to 27 cm for the high shoots. Leaves growing at these two different
205 height intervals were named low and high leaves, respectively. The three last
206 leaves of each stem were labelled as youngest leaves. Each two plants were
207 pooled together. Fresh samples were oven-dried at 60 °C until constant weight,
208 and ground with a ball mill.

209

210 **Photosynthetic performance**

211 The chlorophyll content and fluorescence and the gas exchange of leaves was
212 measured 1 to 2 d before the end of the experiment. Chlorophyll content on leaf
213 area basis was obtained using a portable chlorophyll meter (SPAD-502 Minolta,
214 Illinois, USA), following Krugh et al. (1994). This device provides an indexed
215 relative chlorophyll content (IRCC) ranging from 0 to 99.9. Always the third
216 fully-developed leaves at 2.5 cm of the leaf base were measured on five
217 representative pre-bloom leaves per plant.

218 Photosynthetic gas exchange and chlorophyll fluorescence were determined in the
219 third last fully expanded leaf of each plant using a LI-COR 6400 Portable
220 Photosynthesis System (LI-COR Inc., Lincoln, NE, USA), with a saturating light
221 (photosynthetic photon flux density of 1200 $\mu\text{mol photons m}^{-2}\text{s}^{-1}$), 400 $\mu\text{mol mol}^{-1}$
222 of CO_2 , and air temperature of $25.9 \pm 0.1^\circ\text{C}$. Leaves were previously dark-adapted
223 for 30 min to measure maximum quantum yield (F_v/F_m). The same leaves were
224 then re-acclimated to environmental light to determine relative quantum yield

225 (F_v'/F_m'), quantum yield of PSII photochemistry (Φ_{PSII}) (Genty et al., 1989),
226 quantum yield of CO₂ fixation (Φ_{CO_2}), electron transport rate (ETR, $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2}\text{s}^{-1}$),
227 photochemical (qP) and non-photochemical quenching (qN, NPQ), light-saturated
228 net CO₂ assimilation rate (A_s , $\mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2}\text{s}^{-1}$), stomatal conductance to water
229 (g_s , $\text{mol H}_2\text{O m}^{-2}\text{s}^{-1}$), intercellular CO₂ concentration (C_i , $\mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ mol air}^{-1}$), and
230 transpiration rate (E , $\text{mmol H}_2\text{O m}^{-2}\text{s}^{-1}$).

231

232 **Zinc content**

233 Plant samples were digested in two steps, first overnight at 90 °C in HNO₃:H₂O₂
234 (1:1 v/v), then added 0.5 mL HF and digested 2 h at 90 °C. Digests were
235 evaporated to dryness on a hotplate at 120 °C and the residues were re-dissolved
236 in 3 ml of 7 M HCl. Each solution was split into three aliquots: 1 ml for Zn
237 concentration measurements, 1 ml for Zn isotope analysis and 1 ml for archive.
238 The first aliquot was made up to 3.5 ml 1 M HCl prior to concentration
239 measurements on a Varian VISTA PRO (Palo Alto, USA) ICP-AES (Inductively
240 Coupled Plasma Atomic Emission Spectrometer), for which analytical errors were
241 0.4 to 5 % of the measured values. Per each 12 samples, a blank and a sample of
242 either olive leaves (*Olea europaea* L., BCR-62), aquatic plant (*Lagarosiphon*
243 *major* [Ridl.] Moss, BCR-60), light sandy soil (BCR-142R), or lichen (BCR-482)
244 certified reference material from the Community Bureau of Reference (BCR®)
245 were processed in the same way and analysed (Table 1). Digestions were carried
246 out in the clean laboratory of the Department of Earth Science and Engineering
247 (Imperial College of London). Zinc content determination was performed in the
248 research facilities of the Natural History Museum (London, UK).

249 The bioconcentration factor for Zn (BCF) was calculated following Ali et al.
250 (2004):

$$251 \quad BCF = \frac{[Zn_p]}{[Zn_s]}$$

252 where $[Zn_p]$ is the Zn concentration of the plant sample ($\mu\text{g g}^{-1}$ DW), and $[Zn_s]$ is
253 the Zn concentration of the nutritive solution ($\mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$).

254

255 **Zinc isotopic signature**

256 Zinc isotopes were analysed on the second aliquot. An isotope spike enriched in
257 ^{64}Zn , ^{66}Zn and ^{67}Zn was added to the sample aliquot to achieve a total of 1000 ng
258 Zn and a spike:sample mass ratio of 1 (Arnold et al., 2010b). Zinc was separated
259 from the matrix using anion exchange chromatography as detailed in Arnold et al.
260 (2010a). Zinc fractions were re-dissolved in 0.1 M HNO_3 for the subsequent
261 isotope ratio analysis using a HR Nu Plasma MC-ICP-MS (Multi-Collector
262 Inductively Coupled Plasma Mass Spectrometer, Nu Instruments, Wrexham, UK).
263 Isotope ratios are reported in δ -notation:

$$264 \quad \delta^{66}\text{Zn}_{\text{JMCLyon}} = \left[\frac{\left(\frac{^{66}\text{Zn}}{^{64}\text{Zn}} \right)_{\text{sample}}}{\left(\frac{^{66}\text{Zn}}{^{64}\text{Zn}} \right)_{\text{JMCLyon}}} - 1 \right] \times 10^3$$

265

266 where $(^{66}\text{Zn}/^{64}\text{Zn})_{\text{sample}}$ is the isotope ratio of the sample and $(^{66}\text{Zn}/^{64}\text{Zn})_{\text{JMCLyon}}$ is
267 the isotope ratio of the standard reference solution used, i.e. JMC 3-0749L.
268 Accuracy of the isotope measurements was assessed by the analysis of two
269 in-house single element solutions (Romil Zn, London Zn) and two natural
270 standard reference materials (Ryegrass BCR-281 and Blend ore BCR-027). As

271 shown in Table 2, data from this study agree within error with previously
272 published values for the in-house standards, the rye grass BCR-281 and for the
273 blend ore BCR-027 (Mason et al., 2004; Chapman et al., 2006; Peel et al., 2008;
274 Arnold 2009).

275 Precision of the isotope measurements was estimated from replicate analysis of
276 the BCR-281 standard (see Table 2). The typical error (expressed as 2σ standard
277 deviation) was ± 0.12 ‰. Procedural blank contributions were around 4 ng of Zn.
278 All mineral acids were sub-boiled in a quartz still and diluted using 18 MΩ grade
279 Millipore system (Bedford, MA, USA).

280 To further assess the effect of the treatment on the distribution of isotopes across
281 plant sections, the fractionation between sections was calculated following
282 Moynier et al. (2009) as:

$$283 \quad \Delta\delta^{66}\text{Zn}_{i-j} = \delta^{66}\text{Zn}_i - \delta^{66}\text{Zn}_j$$

284

285 Where $\Delta\delta^{66}\text{Zn}_{i-j}$ is the fractionation between sections i and j, and $\delta^{66}\text{Zn}_i$ and
286 $\delta^{66}\text{Zn}_j$ are the isotopic signature of section i and j respectively. The discrimination
287 with respect to the growth medium was calculated according to the equation
288 (Farquhar, 1989):

289

$$290 \quad \Delta^{66}\text{Zn} = \frac{(\delta^{66}\text{Zn}_{so} - \delta^{66}\text{Zn}_p)}{\left(1 + \frac{\delta^{66}\text{Zn}_p}{10^3}\right)}$$

291

292 Where $\delta^{66}\text{Zn}_{so}$ is the isotopic signature of the source, in this case the nutritive
293 solution, and $\delta^{66}\text{Zn}_p$ is the isotopic signature of the plant sample.

294

295 **Statistical Methods**

296 Two-way ANOVA was carried out to evaluate the effect of plant section, Zn
297 treatment and their interaction with Zn concentration, and $\delta^{66}\text{Zn}$. Logarithmic
298 transformation was performed when data did not meet the assumption of equal
299 variances. To determine which groups were significantly different from each other
300 we selected the post-hoc test that best separated the groups, either
301 Student-Neuman-Keules or Duncan. Student's t-test was chosen for mean
302 comparisons between treatments for the photosynthetic parameters (A_s , g_s , C_i ,
303 F_v/F_m , F_v'/F_m' , ΦPSII , ΦCO_2 , ETR, qP, qN, NPQ, E) and Zn isotopic fractionation
304 between sections ($\Delta \delta^{66}\text{Zn}_{i,j}$). Pearson's correlation was employed to test whether
305 there was a linear relationship between $\delta^{66}\text{Zn}$ and photosynthetic performance.
306 Statistical analyses were done with the software SPSS (Statistical Package for the
307 Social Sciences) 2005 v14.0 for Windows. Sigma Plot software 2006 (v10.0) was
308 used for graphic edition.

309

310 **RESULTS**

311 **Photosynthetic performance and growth**

312 There was a substantial reduction of plant height and chlorophyll content due to
313 Zn exposure (Table 3). The A_s , g_s and E decreased a 50 % in Zn+ plants while no
314 changes in C_i occurred. In the dark-adapted leaves of both treatments F_v/F_m
315 remained stable. In contrast, F_v'/F_m' , ΦPSII , ΦCO_2 , qP and ETR showed a clear
316 decrease in Zn+ light-adapted leaves. This was accompanied by an increase of qN
317 and NPQ.

318

319 **Zn content**

320 The Zn content of all plant sections increased with increasing Zn supply (Table 4).
321 The Zn concentration of plant samples was higher than that of the growth
322 solution, but the BCF was much reduced in Zn⁺ plants (Table 4). Plants grown at
323 different Zn concentrations differed in the distribution pattern of Zn (and
324 consequently BCF). In controls, living roots achieved the highest Zn levels,
325 whereas dead roots had the lowest. Oppositely, in Zn⁺ plants dead and living
326 roots achieved the highest levels, whereas leaves, shoots and rhizomes contained
327 little Zn in comparison. All Zn⁺ emerged sections had very similar Zn
328 concentration except high and youngest leaves, where it was lower.

329

330 **Zinc isotopes**

331 The $\delta^{66}\text{Zn}$ varied between plant sections (Fig. 1). In the control experiment, only
332 the youngest leaves were significantly different from the rest of plant sections,
333 showing a lighter isotopic signature. The shoots were slightly heavier than the
334 leaves. The Zn⁺ treatment altered the fractionation pattern (Fig. 1). Shoots of Zn⁺
335 plants were lighter than the leaves, whereas the root samples were heavier than the
336 shoots and the youngest leaves. However, only the rhizomes and the shoots were
337 significantly different among treatments, and much isotopically lighter in Zn⁺
338 plants. The isotope signature of youngest leaves was similar in both treatments,
339 although the shoots of Zn⁺ plants were shorter. There was no significant
340 difference detectable between low and high shoot or between low and high leaves
341 in any of the treatments either.

342 The $\Delta\delta^{66}\text{Zn}_{i-j}$ was calculated between adjacent sections and between the roots and
343 the youngest leaves or the high shoots (Table 5). The $\Delta\delta^{66}\text{Zn}_{\text{leaves-shoots}}$ as well as
344 $\Delta\delta^{66}\text{Zn}_{\text{RZ-LR}}$, and $\Delta\delta^{66}\text{Zn}_{\text{HS-LR}}$ were significantly affected by Zn⁺ treatment. In

345 contrast, high Zn did not modify the $\Delta\delta^{66}\text{Zn}$ between stem or leaf samples
346 collected at different heights. Also there was no influence of the treatments on the
347 fractionation between the roots and the youngest leaves. In agreement with the
348 previous results, the controls discriminated against the light isotope except in
349 youngest leaves, whereas the Zn+ discriminated in favour of the lighter isotope
350 except in roots (Fig. 2). Both treatments differed significantly in the $\Delta^{66}\text{Zn}$ of
351 rhizomes, shoots and leaves. Plants caused the enrichment in heavy isotopes of the
352 nutritive solution, which was more evident in high Zn solutions.

353

354 **Correlation between $\delta^{66}\text{Zn}$ and plant height or photosynthetic parameters**

355 Plant height showed a strong and positive linear correlation with $\delta^{66}\text{Zn}$ of high
356 shoot ($r = 0.972$, Sig. = 0.001) and low shoot ($r = 0.929$, Sig. = 0.007), and a
357 weaker one with rhizome ($r = 0.813$, Sig. = 0.049). The correlations of plant
358 height with the rest of plant sections were not significant. The gas exchange and
359 chlorophyll fluorescence were correlated with $\delta^{66}\text{Zn}$ of high leaves where
360 measurements were performed, belonging to control and Zn+ plants. The
361 relationships found significant are shown in Table 6. The results are consistent
362 with the effect of the treatments on the photosynthetic performance parameters
363 seen above. High values of $\delta^{66}\text{Zn}$ in high leaves (as shown by controls) were
364 associated with a higher g_s , ΦPSII , ΦCO_2 , and with a lower NPQ.

365 Finally, the concentration of Zn showed a negative linear correlation with $\delta^{66}\text{Zn}$,
366 which was strong in the sections low shoots ($r = -0.964$, Sig. = 0.002) and high
367 shoots ($r = -0.971$, Sig. = 0.001), and weaker in high leaves ($r = -0.828$, Sig. =
368 0.042).

369

370 **DISCUSSION**

371 **Photosynthetic performance and growth**

372 The results evidenced a clear toxic effect of Zn⁺ treatment on *P. australis*:
373 growth, photosynthesis and gas exchange were impaired. Thus the Zn⁺
374 fractionation data are representative of Zn-stressed plants. Chlorophyll
375 fluorescence and gas exchange data are examined to discuss the possible causes of
376 the A_s decrement. In Zn⁺ plants, g_s and E decreased a 50 % indicating a strong
377 inhibition of stomata aperture. A limited gas exchange can affect A_s by restricting
378 the uptake of both C from the atmosphere and nutrients from the growth solution.
379 In the present experiment, Zn⁺ plants did not show a reduction of C_i. Hence CO₂
380 availability was not the limiting factor for A_s in Zn⁺ plants, because the C demand
381 for assimilation was lower. Nevertheless, chlorophyll fluorescence was unchanged
382 in dark-adapted leaves, where F_v/F_m remained stable, showing that PSII was
383 functional. Only when leaves were transferred to the light, F_v'/F_m', ΦPSII and
384 ΦCO₂ showed a clear decrease in Zn⁺ plants. This was accompanied by a
385 reduction on qP and ETR, and an increase in qN and NPQ. All these data put
386 together suggest that whereas PSII remained mainly unaffected, Zn impaired the
387 efficiency of electron transport downstream, causing PSII to become easily
388 saturated by light. This explains the slow C assimilation and the decrease of
389 ΦCO₂. Therefore, the present data suggest that the inhibition of transpiration was
390 not the direct cause of the reduced C fixation. Zinc has been reported to inhibit or
391 damage almost every point of the photosynthetic apparatus, i.e. chlorophyll
392 synthesis, PSII, oxygen evolving complex, plastoquinone pool, PSI and Rubisco
393 (Prasad, 2004). Many of these effects could cause the observed decreased
394 photosynthetic performance. In addition, stomatal closure could reduce the

395 nutrient uptake. The deficiency of N can lead to an indirect impairment of
396 photosynthetic apparatus, and limit A_s . This is consistent with the decay of total
397 chlorophyll content indicated by decreased IRCC figures. Decreased N content
398 has also been associated in literature with the inhibition of Rubisco and the dark
399 phase of photosynthesis (Ciompi et al., 1996).

400 The strong positive correlation of $\delta^{66}\text{Zn}_{\text{HL}}$ with g_s , ΦPSII , ΦCO_2 , and negative
401 correlation with NPQ indicates that $\delta^{66}\text{Zn}_{\text{HL}}$ could be an interesting parameter to
402 assess the inhibition of photosynthesis due to the toxic effect of excess Zn.
403 Nevertheless, results must be taken with caution due to the low number of
404 replicates.

405

406 **Zn content**

407 *P. australis* has innate tolerance to Zn and other metals (Ye et al. 1997). The
408 lower BCF, the accumulation of Zn in roots, and the limitation to Zn export to the
409 green tissues compose an avoidance response that confers increased tolerance to
410 Zn excess (Denny and Wilkins, 1987; Maestri et al., 2010). The higher BCF of
411 dead roots in Zn^+ is consistent with the use of root senescence to release Zn, an
412 excretion mechanism of tolerant plants (Duarte et al. 2010). The Zn levels
413 achieved by leaves and shoots are far of reaching the 1 % Zn in leaf dry matter
414 generally accepted as the threshold to reach Zn hyperaccumulation (Verbruggen et
415 al., 2009). The Zn concentrations of the different tissues (12-14 mg g^{-1} dw in
416 roots, 2-3 in shoots, and 0.5-3 in leaves) were comparable to those of Jiang and
417 Wang (2008) study (14 mg g^{-1} dw in roots, 0.95 shoots, 1.5 leaves), who used the
418 same species and Zn supply. The small discrepancies in the Zn content of shoots

419 and leaves can be easily explained, as we sampled at specific heights instead of
420 taking samples representative of the whole stem.

421

422 **Zinc isotopes**

423 *Mechanisms explaining the isotopic fractionation pattern under normal Zn supply*

424 Under Zn sufficient conditions, all the plant tissues except the youngest leaves are
425 enriched in the heavier isotopes compared to the nutrient solution. The $\delta^{66}\text{Zn}$ of
426 the youngest leaves is isotopically lighter than the rest of sections. Mature leaves
427 are slightly lighter isotopically than roots and shoots. These observations are in
428 line with field observations of Viers and co-workers (2007). They found that only
429 *Megaphrynium macrostachyum* (Benth.) Milne-Redh among the four species
430 analysed showed a significant fractionation between root and shoot. The most
431 negative $\delta^{66}\text{Zn}$ values measured along the plant were found in leaves (Viers et al.,
432 2007; Moynier et al., 2009). By contrast, different degrees of root-to-shoot
433 fractionation were described in crops like tomato, lettuce and rice under different
434 experimental conditions (Weiss et al., 2005; Arnold et al., 2010a). This suggests
435 that the mechanisms of Zn uptake and transport are highly species-specific and
436 conditioned by the physiological status of the plant. Here, we propose that the
437 isotopic distribution of controls comes from the combination of two processes: i)
438 the enrichment in heavy isotopes generated by Zn uptake in roots and ii) the
439 enrichment in light isotopes during the long-distance transport of free Zn ions in
440 the plant.

441 The observed pattern is consistent with the uptake of Zn by root cells facilitated
442 by transmembrane transporters, as previously suggested by Weiss et al. (2005).

443 Various members of the ZIP family of proteins (Zinc-Iron Permeases) are located

444 on the plasmatic membrane and facilitate Zn uptake (Grotz and Guerinot, 2006).
445 Alternatively, the chelation of Zn by ligands and its subsequent transport in the
446 complexed form could cause the observed enrichment in the heavier isotopes. We
447 refuse this explanation because Zn is mostly taken up and transported as Zn^{2+}
448 (Marschner, 1995). Other mechanisms favouring the heavy isotopes are in
449 disagreement with the observations reported here, like adsorption onto root
450 surface, binding to the cell walls, and compartmentation in cell organelles. All of
451 them imply the retention of the heavier isotopes in the roots, preventing its
452 transport to other reservoirs. The $\delta^{66}Zn_{root}$ would be more positive than the rest of
453 the plant, in discrepancy with the present results. The protocol used to remove the
454 root-adsorbed and apoplastically-bound Zn was thus apparently efficient. The
455 obtained data ($\delta^{66}Zn_{root} = 0.18 \text{ ‰}$) are in line with previous experiments (Weiss et
456 al., 2005), where a similar root-desorption protocol was used for tomato, rice and
457 lettuce ($\delta^{66}Zn_{root} = 0.15, 0.15$ and 0.2 ‰ , respectively).

458 The youngest leaves of controls were more negative than the rest of the plant. The
459 transport of Zn^{2+} along the shoot has been suggested as the cause for the
460 enrichment in light isotopes of shoots and leaves with height (Moynier et al.,
461 2009), in agreement with the present results. There was a positive correlation
462 between plant height and $\delta^{66}Zn$ of transporting tissues, as previously suggested by
463 Viers et al. (2007). The correlation was stronger as the samples were higher (high
464 shoots>low shoots>rhizomes). The fractionation between low and high leaves was
465 not statistically significant in this experiment ($\Delta\delta^{66}Zn_{HL-LL} = -0.090 \text{ ‰}$). However,
466 the results are consistent with the small distance that separates the samples. The
467 fractionation per distance was of -0.005 ‰ cm^{-1} , very similar to -0.006 ‰ cm^{-1}
468 calculated from Moynier et al. (2009) in bamboo. In the same direction, the leaves

469 of controls were slightly lighter than the shoots at the same height, probably due
470 to the translocation of Zn from the shoot along the leaves. Thus, the present data
471 are consistent with an enrichment of lighter isotopes with distance from the root,
472 but this can only be assessed if there is enough separation between samples.

473

474 *The isotopic fractionation pattern reflects the tolerance response to high Zn*
475 *concentrations*

476 The protective mechanisms activated by plants under high-Zn stress disrupt the
477 Zn uptake, accumulation, distribution and transport routes, which translated into a
478 completely different fractionation pattern in this experiment.

479 There is little information about the regulation of ZIP transporters under excess
480 Zn in plants. However, experiments in yeast demonstrated that ZRT1 is
481 inactivated by high Zn supply (Gitan et al., 1998), limiting Zn influx into the cell.
482 The activity of the transporters is probably inhibited in Zn⁺ plants, as shown by
483 the decreased BCF. Thus, we consider that Zn uptake mediated by transporters is
484 not the cause for the enrichment in heavy isotopes of Zn⁺ roots.

485 Excess Zn is mainly accumulated in roots and localised in cell walls, intercellular
486 spaces and vacuoles (Heumann, 2002; Li et al., 2006; Jian and Wang, 2008). In
487 the present experiment, $\delta^{66}\text{Zn}$ was less negative in roots than in the rest of the
488 organs, and Zn translocation from root to shoot was lower in Zn⁺ plants. This
489 indicates that heavy Zn is effectively retained in roots, and the isotopically lighter
490 sap is transported to the above-ground tissues. The youngest leaves of Zn⁺ plants
491 have a $\delta^{66}\text{Zn}$ similar to controls, even if their shoots were shorter and Zn was
492 transported a smaller distance (106.0 ± 3.5 cm for controls, 78.6 ± 3.1 for Zn⁺,

493 means \pm SE, n = 4). In opinion of the authors, this is because the xylem sap of
494 Zn⁺ plants had from the root a more negative $\delta^{66}\text{Zn}$ than that of controls.

495 When examined in detail, all the known mechanisms for Zn sequestration in roots
496 are likely to select the heavy isotopes. Zinc probably forms covalent bounds with
497 carboxyl and hydroxyl groups of pectin and with hydroxyl groups of cellulose in
498 the cell walls (Straczek et al., 2008), and precipitates with insoluble phosphates or
499 silicon in the apoplast (Neumann and zur Nieden, 2001; Straczek et al., 2008). In
500 the cell, Zn binds to various ligands and is stored in subcellular organelles to keep
501 Zn²⁺ low in the cytosol. Zinc is transferred into the vacuoles by metal tolerance
502 proteins (MTP) localised to the tonoplast (Blaudez et al., 2003; Dräger et al.,
503 2004; Desbrosses-Fonrouge et al., 2005; Arrivault et al., 2006; Gustin et al.,
504 2009). The tonoplast transporter AtZIF1 is also involved in Zn sequestration,
505 probably by transporting either organic Zn ligands or Zn-ligand complexes into
506 the vacuole (Haydon and Cobbett, 2007b). Different authors expect Zn to be
507 chelated in the vacuoles by various ligands like organic acids (OA), proteins, and
508 phytate (Van Steveninck et al., 1987; Salt et al., 1999; Tennstedt et al., 2009). The
509 best candidates for Zn ligands in the vacuole are OA like citrate and malate, which
510 are the most abundant metal ligands in plants and accumulate mainly in the
511 vacuoles, the same as excess metals. In agreement, the optimal stability of
512 OA-metal complexes is achieved at vacuolar pH (Haydon and Cobett, 2007a).

513 Besides, metal-binding peptides and proteins have been described to chelate Zn.
514 Phytochelatins are glutathione oligomers synthesised in response to metals, that
515 chelate and detoxify Cd and As (Jabeen et al., 2009). Recent advances established
516 that Zn promotes the synthesis of PCs, which are essential for Zn detoxification
517 and contribute to Zn accumulation (Tennstedt et al., 2009). Cadmium complexed

518 with PCs is pumped and sequestered into the vacuole (Salt et al., 1995; Cobbett
519 and Goldsbrough, 2002). It is probable that PC-Zn complexes follow the same
520 route, but direct evidence is missing. Metallothioneins are cysteine-rich low
521 molecular weight proteins found in plants, animals and fungi, and able to chelate
522 Zn and many other metals. They are involved in Zn homeostasis and/or tolerance,
523 but their exact function is yet unknown (Rodríguez-Llorente et al., 2010). Finally,
524 phytate is a P storage molecule that can bind to Zn as a mechanism for Zn storage
525 or immobilisation. Phytate-Zn complexes are found in roots (Van Steveninck et
526 al., 1987 and 1993; Terzano et al., 2008), and in seeds (Otegui et al., 2002;
527 Rodrigues-Filho et al., 2005), either compartmented in the vacuoles or forming
528 insoluble precipitates.

529 All three processes, Zn binding to cell walls, precipitation in intercellular spaces
530 and sequestration in the vacuole are mass-dependent and thus expected to favour
531 the heavy isotope. It is difficult from the present design to tell which process was
532 chiefly responsible of the enrichment in heavy isotopes of Zn⁺ roots. The
533 youngest leaves of Zn⁺ were more negative than the rest of leaves. Similarly to
534 controls, the fractionation between low and high leaves was not statistically
535 significant in this experiment ($\Delta\delta^{66}\text{Zn}_{\text{HL-LL}} = -0.011 \text{ ‰}$). The calculated
536 $\Delta\delta^{66}\text{Zn}_{\text{HL-LL}}$ obtained from the linear regression of Zn⁺ leaves (Fig. 3) is of
537 -0.090‰ , very different from the observed but similar to that of controls. This
538 evidences the restriction of long-distance transport under toxic Zn levels. Both
539 linear regressions for controls and Zn⁺ have a very similar slope, but Zn⁺ plot is
540 biased to the negative side. The youngest leaves of Zn⁺ have a $\delta^{66}\text{Zn}$ similar to
541 controls, in spite of plants being shorter. The correlation between plant height and

542 the intensity of Zn fractionation in leaves proposed by Viers et al. (2007) can thus
543 be modified by Zn status.

544 The enrichment in heavy isotopes of the nutritive solutions with time is coherent
545 with plants taking up preferably Zn by bulk flow, favouring the light isotopes, and
546 with the higher biomass of above-ground tissues in this species (Ye et al., 1997).
547 Also the Zn⁺ solution was more enriched in heavy isotopes than the control
548 solution, as expected from the discrimination pattern observed for each treatment.

549

550 CONCLUSIONS

551 We have proved that the study of Zn isotopes has a great potential to investigate
552 the mechanisms of tolerance to Zn excess in plants. We have demonstrated that *P.*
553 *australis* is able to discriminate Zn isotopes, and that the magnitude and sign of
554 the resultant fractionation depends on Zn-status and organ. We have shown that
555 under Zn sufficient levels, roots and shoots are enriched in the heavier Zn isotopes
556 as compared to the source ($\delta^{66}\text{Zn} = 0.2 \text{ ‰}$) and the youngest leaves are
557 impoverished (-0.5 ‰), whilst under Zn excess roots are enriched in the heavy
558 isotopes (0.5 ‰) and the rest of the plant is isotopically lighter (up to -0.5 ‰). We
559 have exposed that Zn uptake by plants causes the enrichment in heavy isotopes of
560 the nutritive solutions, which was stronger in Zn⁺ treatment ($\Delta\delta^{66}\text{Zn}_{\text{control}} = 0.3$
561 ‰ , $\Delta\delta^{66}\text{Zn}_{\text{Zn}^+} = 0.6 \text{ ‰}$). In conclusion, the tolerance response of *P. australis*
562 increased the range of Zn fractionation within the plant and with respect to the
563 environment.

564 An outline of the fractionation mechanisms compatible with the observed
565 response was also provided. The enrichment in heavy isotopes of the roots was
566 attributed to Zn uptake under Zn-sufficient conditions and to chelation and

567 compartmentation in Zn excess. The enrichment in light isotopes of shoots and
568 leaves is consistent with long-distance root-to-shoot transport, in accord with the
569 observations by Viers et al., (2007), and Moynier et al., (2009). Further research
570 needs to be conducted to confirm these hypotheses and establish what molecules
571 or processes are responsible for the described pattern.

572

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Table 1. Zinc content of the standards used in ICP-AES analyses. Data are represented as means \pm SE.

Reference	Sample type	Zn content ($\mu\text{g g}^{-1}$)		
		Certified	Measured	% Recovery
BCR-142R	Light sandy soil	93 ± 3	91 ± 14	98
BCR-482	Lichen	101 ± 2	91 ± 9	91
BCR-60	<i>Lagarosiphon major</i> (Ridl.) Moss	313 ± 8	309 ± 13	98
BCR-62	<i>Olea europaea</i> L.	16.0 ± 0.7	13 ± 3	82

Table 2. Isotopic signature of the standards used in this study. Samples were double-spiked and analysed by MC-ICP-MS (see “Materials and Methods”), using the standard reference solution JMC 3-0749L. Data are compared with literature, $\delta^{66}\text{Zn}$ expressed in ‰ and displayed as means \pm 2SD.

Reference material	Publication	$\delta^{66}\text{Zn}_{\text{JMC Lyon}}$	n
BCR-027 (Blend Ore)	Chapman et al. (2006)	0.33 ± 0.07	8
	Arnold (2009)	0.23 ± 0.06	4
	This study	0.34 ± 0.08	9
BCR-281 (Rye Grass)	Arnold (2009)	0.38 ± 0.09	7
	This study	0.5 ± 0.1	5
Romil	Mason et al. (2004)	-9.01 ± 0.08	6
	Weiss et al. (2007)	-8.98 ± 0.07	unknown
	Arnold (2009)	-9.0 ± 0.1	unknown
	This study	-9.1 ± 0.1	12
London	Arnold (2009)	0.08 ± 0.04	10
	This study	0.10 ± 0.06	9

Table 3. Effect of Zn levels on plant growth and photosynthetic traits of *Phragmites australis*. Plants were grown in 3.2 μM (Controls) or 2 mM Zn (Zn+). Data represent means \pm SE, where n = 8 for plant height and IRCC (df = 14), and n = 6 for the rest of parameters (df = 10). The variable g_s was log-transformed. T-test value (t) is indicated as significant at $P < 0.05$ (*) or $P < 0.01$ (**)[†].

Parameter	Control	Zn+	t
Plant height (cm)	106 \pm 4	79 \pm 3	5.8**
IRCC	38.0 \pm 1.2	32.6 \pm 1.1	4.0**
A_s ($\mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2}\text{s}^{-1}$)	14 \pm 3	7.0 \pm 1.3	2.7*
g_s ($\text{mol H}_2\text{O m}^{-2}\text{s}^{-1}$)	0.18 \pm 0.05	0.08 \pm 0.01	2.4*
C_i ($\mu\text{mol CO}_2 \text{ mol air}^{-1}$)	246 \pm 7	246 \pm 11	0.0
F_v/F_m	0.80 \pm 0.01	0.79 \pm 0.01	0.8
F_v'/F_m'	0.46 \pm 0.02	0.37 \pm 0.01	4.2**
ΦPSII	0.24 \pm 0.02	0.15 \pm 0.02	3.7**
ΦCO_2	0.014 \pm 0.002	0.008 \pm 0.001	2.8*
qP	0.52 \pm 0.02	0.39 \pm 0.04	2.6*
qN	0.81 \pm 0.02	0.88 \pm 0.01	-4.1**
NPQ	2043 \pm 127	2652 \pm 141	-3.1*
ETR ($\mu\text{mol m}^{-2}\text{s}^{-1}$)	122 \pm 9	75 \pm 9	3.7**
E ($\text{mmol H}_2\text{O m}^{-2}\text{s}^{-1}$)	3.9 \pm 0.8	1.9 \pm 0.3	2.6*

[†] SE: standard error, df: degrees of freedom, IRCC: index of relative chlorophyll content, A_s : light-saturated net CO_2 assimilation rate, g_s : stomatal conductance to water, C_i : intercellular CO_2 concentration, F_v/F_m : maximum quantum yield, F_v'/F_m' : relative quantum yield, ΦPSII : quantum yield of PSII photochemistry, ΦCO_2 : quantum yield of CO_2 fixation, qP: photochemical quenching, qN and

NPQ: non-photochemical quenching, ETR: electron transport rate, E: transpiration rate.

Table 4. Concentration of Zn achieved in different plant sections. Plants were grown in 3.2 μM (Controls) or 2 mM Zn (Zn+). Data represent means \pm SE[†] (n = 4). The effect of plant section, Zn treatment and their interaction was significant (P<0.001) according to two-way ANOVA (results not shown). Different letters indicate different groups according to Duncan post-hoc test on the log-transformed variables.

Plant section	Zn content (mg g ⁻¹)		BCF	
	Controls	Zn+	Controls	Zn+
Roots				
Living	0.09 \pm 0.04 ^d	12 \pm 6 ^h	960 \pm 167 ^l	93 \pm 19 ^p
Dead	0.02 \pm 0.01 ^a	14 \pm 7 ^h	268 \pm 27 ⁱ	105 \pm 27 ⁿ
Rhizomes	0.02 \pm 0.01 ^a	2.7 \pm 1.4 ^g	274 \pm 46 ⁱ	21 \pm 5 ^m
Shoots				
Low	0.04 \pm 0.02 ^b	3 \pm 2 ^g	433 \pm 46 ^j	25 \pm 3 ^o
High	0.06 \pm 0.03 ^c	2.3 \pm 1.1 ^g	640 \pm 40 ^k	17.2 \pm 1.3 ^p
Leaves				
Low	0.05 \pm 0.03 ^{bc}	4 \pm 2 ^g	583 \pm 79 ^{jk}	27 \pm 5 ^o
High	0.04 \pm 0.02 ^{bc}	1.1 \pm 0.6 ^f	490 \pm 48 ^{jk}	8.7 \pm 0.4 ^o
Youngest	0.04 \pm 0.02 ^b	0.5 \pm 0.2 ^e	389 \pm 8 ^j	3.7 \pm 0.2 ^o

[†] SE: standard error, BCF: bioconcentration factor

Table 5. Fractionation between plant sections. Fractionation was calculated as $\Delta\delta^{66}\text{Zn}_{i-j} = \delta^{66}\text{Zn}_j - \delta^{66}\text{Zn}_i$. Data represent means \pm SE[†] (n = 3). T-test value (t) is indicated as significant at P<0.05 (*) or P<0.01 (**).

Sample	$\Delta\delta^{66}\text{Zn}_{i-j}$		t(df)
	Control	Zn+	
DR-LR	0.02 \pm 0.03	-0.5 \pm 0.2	1.91(2.1)
RZ-DR	0.03 \pm 0.01	-0.3 \pm 0.2	2.03(4)
LS-RZ	0.05 \pm 0.04	-0.2 \pm 0.1	1.40(4)
LL-LS	-0.2 \pm 0.1	0.19 \pm 0.07	-3.15(4)*
HS-LL	0.2 \pm 0.1	-0.30 \pm 0.01	3.50(4)*
HL-HS	-0.25 \pm 0.05	0.29 \pm 0.08	-5.68(4)**
YL-HL	-0.41 \pm 0.05	-0.28 \pm 0.03	-2.27(4)
RZ-LR	0.05 \pm 0.04	-0.7 \pm 0.3	3.11(4)*
HS-LS	-0.08 \pm 0.06	-0.11 \pm 0.07	0.33(4)
HL-LL	-0.09 \pm 0.08	-0.01 \pm 0.08	-0.68(4)
YL-LR	-0.64 \pm 0.05	-1.0 \pm 0.1	2.73(4)
HS-LR	0.02 \pm 0.08	-1.0 \pm 0.2	4.57(4)*

[†] SE: standard error, df: degrees of freedom, LR: living roots, DR: dead roots, RZ: rhizomes, LS: low shoots, LL: low leaves, HS: high shoots, HL: high leaves, YL: youngest leaves.

Table 6. Pearson's Correlation between $\delta^{66}\text{Zn}$ and some photosynthetic performance parameters. The $\delta^{66}\text{Zn}$ was measured in high leaves. Correlation coefficient (r) is indicated as significant at $P < 0.05$ (*) or $P < 0.01$ (**).

$\delta^{66}\text{Zn}$	g_s^\dagger	F_v'/F_m'	ΦCO_2	qN	NPQ
r	0.921(*)	0.921(*)	0.883(*)	-0.944(*)	-0.974(**)
Sig. (bilateral)	0.027	0.026	0.047	0.016	0.005
n	5	5	5	5	5

$^\dagger F_v'/F_m'$: relative quantum yield, ΦCO_2 : the quantum yield of CO_2 fixation, qN and NPQ: non-photochemical quenching, g_s : stomatal conductance to water.

Fig. 1. Isotopic signature of the studied plant sections compared to solutions.

Plants were supplied with 3.2 μM (Control, A) or 2mM Zn (Zn^+ , B). Data represent means \pm SE (n = 3), $\delta^{66}\text{Zn}$ is expressed in ‰.

Fig. 2. Isotopic discrimination of the studied plant sections with respect to nutritive solutions.

Plants were supplied with 3.2 μM (Control) or 2 mM (Zn^+) Zn. Data represent means \pm SE (n = 3). The $\Delta^{66}\text{Zn}$ is expressed in ‰ and was calculated as $\Delta^{66}\text{Zn} = (\delta^{66}\text{Zn}_{\text{source}} - \delta^{66}\text{Zn}_{\text{sample}}) / (1 + \delta^{66}\text{Zn}_{\text{sample}} / 10^3)$. T-test value (t) is indicated as significant at $P < 0.05$ (*) or $P < 0.01$ (**). LR: living roots, DR: dead roots, RZ: rhizomes, LS: low shoots, LL: low leaves, HS: high shoots, HL: high leaves, YL: youngest leaves.



