1 2 2	The distribution of Rare Earth Elements in <i>Vitis vinifera L.</i> discriminates the substrate of growth
3 4	Marcella Barbera <sup>1, 2</sup> , Pierpaolo Zuddas <sup>2</sup> , Eristanna Palazzolo <sup>1</sup> , Filippo Saiano <sup>1</sup>
5 6 7	<sup>1</sup> Dipartimento SAAF, Università degli Studi di Palermo, Viale delle Scienze ed.4, 90128, Palermo, Italy <sup>2</sup> Sorbonne Université, METIS, 4 place Jussieu, 75005, Paris, France
8	
9	Highlights
10 11 12 13 14 15	Rare Earth Element pattern in <i>Vitis vinifera L.</i> plants discriminate natural from contaminated soils Roots primary accumulate REE from contaminated soils The mass of <i>Vitis vinifera L plant</i> in not affected by REE contaminated soils
16	Abstract
17	
18	Sustainable agricultural, food-related strategies and geographic traceability require understanding of the
19	plant physiological response to stress potentially generated by contaminated soils. Here, the effect of
20	contaminated substrate on growth of Vitis vinifera L. plants was investigated analysing the distribution of full
21	Rare Earth Elements (REE) spectra in different parts of the plant. Experiments were carried out using pristine
22	plants growing in a handmade substrate (blank experiments) and REE artificially-enriched soil (spiked
23	experiments). We found that both plant mass and REE amount in leaves are not influenced by the substrate
24	enrichment while roots are by one order of magnitude enriched for three orders of magnitude enhancement
25	of the soil substrate, indicating that soil contamination does not significantly influence the REE amount in the
26	plant aerial parts. However, the REE distribution spectra reveal that Light-REE (LREE) and Heavy-REE (HREE)
27	behave differently as a function of the soil conditions: we found that the $\Sigma$ LREE/ $\Sigma$ HREE ratio in the spiked
28	experiment is by one order of magnitude higher compared to blank experiments. We propose that REE
29	distribution discriminates the substrate of growth of Vitis vinifera L thus providing a helpful tool for the
30	geographical tracing of agri-food products.
21	

#### 33 1. Introduction

34 The identification of foodstuff provenance is of significant importance for quality control, food safety and adulteration pushing consumers and legislators for clear identification of the food geographical origin 35 36 (Richter et al 2019). The social and economic extent questioned also the European Union that estimates the 37 cost of food fraud by 8–12 billion euro per year (European Commission, 2019) advocating the urgency of food 38 authenticity and product quality (Brunner et al., 2010; Drivelos and Georgiou, 2012; Marchionni et al., 2016). 39 We focused on Vitis vinifera L. growth because grapevine cultivated worldwide for fruits, wine and juice 40 (Laucou et al., 2018; Vivier et al., 2002) adapts in different soils and climates (Soneji et al., 2011). We 41 questioned the plant physiological response to Rare Earth Elements (REE) contaminated soil evaluating the 42 transport from soil to plant in view of discriminating polluted soil from the 'natural' one. REE consist of 14 43 unique elements from <sup>58</sup>Ce to <sup>71</sup>Lu (Lanthanide series) that associated with Y and La are characterised by the 44 progressive filling of the 4f orbitals. REE have similar chemical and geochemical behaviour in solids while are 45 governed by interface processes in liquid-surface reactions both with inorganic and organic materials (Censi 46 et al., 2015; Vermeire et al., 2016). The REE spectra may also reflect complex reaction mechanisms of soil-47 plant transfer (Brioschi et al., 2013; Liang et al., 2008; Tyler, 2004) making then potential tracers for food-48 product quality (Aceto et al., 2013; Bertoldi et al., 2009, 2011; Bettinelli et al., 2005; Censi et al., 2014; 49 Oddone et al., 2009; Pepi et. al 2016, 2017, 2018; Pisciotta et al., 2017; Punturo et al., 2018;).

In plants, the distribution of REE is of potential interest for identifying the geographical origin of agri-food products as these trace-metals are emerging environmental contaminants resulting from increasing technological uses and agricultural practices (Li et al., 2013; Miao et al., 2011 Pagano et al., 2015a). A relation between REE content in plant and human body transfer is not completed established while the toxic effect of REE has been identified in bacteria, animals and humans (Censi et al., 2011; Durães et al., 2014; Feng et al., 2006; Jiang et al., 2012; Krzciuk and Gałuszka, 2019; Pagano et al., 2015b; Turra et al., 2018; Wang et al., 2017).

57 REE behaviour in plants was generally investigated in dose-response studies during hydroponic growth 58 making critical the extension to real-growth situations (Thomas et al., 2014). For this purpose, we 59 investigated the REE distribution in different parts of the plant during one-year long experiments using two

60 different substrates: one with a handmade substrate (blank experiments) and another with the same 61 substrate but artificially enriched in REE (spiked experiments). We questioned if during growth an enriched 62 substrate could influence the mass of Vitis vinifera L. and metal accumulation in the different plant organs. 63 Evaluating the REE transport from roots to the aboveground organs using the full REE distribution spectra, 64 we want to evaluate if the different soils of growth can be discriminated by the analysis of the final product. 65 Pioneer works on Vitis vinifera L. adopted a multivariate statistic approach (Aceto et al., 2013; Bertoldi et al., 66 2011) while recently the REE properties were proposed as a possible tracer of soil-grape reactions (Censi et 67 al., 2014; Pisciotta et al., 2017). We focused on a controlled experimental approach and report evidence of 68 REE fractionation between native soils and plant organs establishing possible discrimination of the growth 69 environmental conditions of Vitis vinifera L.

70

# 71 2. Materials and methods

## 72 1.1. Experimental set-up

73 Thirty pristine Vitis vinifera L. individual plants (Moscato d'Asti, rootstock 1103 P) of one year in age from 74 native soils were used in an off-soil experiment at the Department of Agricultural Food and Forest Sciences 75 of the University of Palermo (Italy). The choice of experimental substrate is fundamental because REE 76 mobility depends on complexation reactions with the main substrate components and root exudates. We 77 selected a gravel and peat substrate constituted by humic acids meanly and low REE content (REE values are 78 lower than the quantification limit (LOQ). See Supplementary Material). We assessed the plant physiological 79 response to contaminated soils (spiked experiments) enriching by 3 orders of magnitude the experimental 80 substrate (blank experiment). REE determined in the experimental substrate are lower than 0.9 nmol/kg (maximum value of the quantitation limit). Therefore, the addition of 2.5  $\mu mol$  per Kg of each REE 81 82 corresponds to an enrichment of at least 3 orders of magnitude. (REE quantitation limit values are reported 83 in the supplementary materials).

Pristine plants were put into polyurethane pots with 5 Kg of a homemade substrate with a peat-gravel ratio
of 2:3 w/w. Before planting, the root length was uniformed to 10 cm to assure an equivalent development.

- 86 Two different growth conditions were investigated: one using the homemade substrate (blank experiment)
  - Spiked Blank Blank Spiked Sampling Time Experiment Experiment Samples Samples (months) St1 ĕ Ž Budding-flowering St2 Fruit Setting lution St3 Veraison harvesting St5 post-harveting

Figure 1. The off-soil experimental system

and another adopting the same substrate spiked with 2.5 µmol per Kg of each REE (spiked experiment) (Fig.1).

88 89

90 In both experimental conditions, plants were homogeneously irrigated avoiding material loss by leaching and 91 stress while not disease spray was used. Sampling was carried out at five different growth stages (St) selected 92 according to the different plant-life periods: budding-flowering (2 months), fruit-setting (3 months), veraison 93 (5 months), harvesting (8 months), post-harvesting (10 months). Each sampling was replicated three times 94 and for every sampling time plants were separated in roots and aerial parts. Roots were in turn separated in 95 woody ( $\emptyset \ge 2$ mm), middle (1mm  $\le \emptyset \le 2$ mm) and fine-roots ( $\emptyset \le 1$ mm), while aerial parts consist in leaves 96 and herbaceous shoot, petioles, wood shoot (one year old), wood shoot (two years old). The REE determination was performed for every sampled part. The experiment was conducted in a green-house, 97 98 therefore the potential influence of particulate contamination was not considered (Bargagli, 1998). The 99 influence of the atmospheric fallout on leaves was recently observed (Censi et. al., 2017) and contamination 100 was identified in areas with a high anthropogenic impact (oil refineries and power stations).

- 101
- 102 1.2. Analysis
- 103

## 1.2.1. Sample preparation

104 Ultrapure grade reagent, nitric acid (65%), hydrogen peroxide (30%) and standard solutions (yttrium, 105 lanthanides and rhenium, each 1000 ± 5mg/L), were purchased from BDH, Merck and CPI International (Italy) 106 while ultrapure water 18.2 MW cm<sup>-1</sup>, produced with an EASYpureII (Thermo, Italy), was used. Every part of 107 the plant was weighed, chopped, dried (105°C for 24h), grounded in an agate mortar and stored in a PE

vessel. 0.500 g (DW, dried weight) of each sample was transferred in a Teflon vessel with 4.5 ml of 2:1 v/v mixture of HNO<sub>3</sub>:H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> and put in a microwave-assisted oven. After digestion, the extracts were quantitatively transferred into a graduate polypropylene test tubes and diluted with ultrapure water to 10 mL. The substrate samples were dried in an oven at 105°C, gently crushed, sieved (Ø 0.5 mm) and homogenized. Aliquots of 0.250 g (DW) were digested in a microwave system. After digestion, the extracts were quantitatively transferred to a graduated polypropylene test tube and diluted with ultrapure water to 100 mL. Each analytical sequence included a procedural blank (ultrapure water digested as the other samples).

- 115
- 116

## 1.2.2. Chemical measurements

REE concentration was measured by Inductively Coupled Plasma Mass Spectrometry (ICP-MS) using the 117 Agilent Technologies 7500ce Series Spectrometer using forward power: 1550 W; nebulizer gas flow: 1.00 118 119 L/min; auxiliary gas flow: 0.85 L/min and plasma gas flow: 15 L/min. The acquisition time was 180 s and three 120 replicates were realised. Analyses were carried out with an external calibration method in the range between 1.0 and 10.000 pg/mL, for every investigated element (<sup>139</sup>La, <sup>140</sup>Ce, <sup>141</sup>Pr, <sup>146</sup>Nd, <sup>147</sup>Sm, <sup>151</sup>Eu, <sup>158</sup>Gd, <sup>159</sup>Tb <sup>163</sup>Dy, 121 <sup>89</sup>Y, <sup>165</sup>Ho, <sup>167</sup>Er, <sup>169</sup>Tm, <sup>172</sup>Yb, <sup>175</sup>Lu) while <sup>187</sup>Re (1000 pg/mL) was used as the internal standard. The stability 122 test was performed before each analysis monitoring <sup>7</sup>Li, <sup>59</sup>Co, <sup>89</sup>Y, <sup>140</sup>Ce, and <sup>205</sup>Tl masses and adopting at least 123 2% of precision. The oxide and doubly charged ion interferences were controlled verifying that CeO<sup>+</sup>/Ce<sup>+</sup> and 124 125 Ce<sup>2+</sup>/Ce<sup>+</sup> ratios were less than 0.5%. The eventual spectral interferences of polyatomic barium ions on the 126 europium isotopes estimation was evaluated using the certified standard INCT-OBTL-5 Oriental Basma 127 Tobacco Leaves (Samczynski et al., 2012).

- 128
- 129

## 1.2.3. Data quality assurance

The quality of the REE analytical determination, linearity, precision, sensitivity and recovery of the method was evaluated. Specifically, linearity (regression coefficient and dynamic range) was evaluated by a duplicate of eight standard solutions. The correlation coefficient was higher than 0.99 for all REE in the 0.001 - 10 μg/L working range. The precision (repeatability), expressed as relative standard deviation percentage (RSD%), was determined by six repetitions of each calibration level while RSD% was less than 5% for all measured elements. The detection limit (DL) and quantification limit (QL) were determined by six repetitions of calibration blank solution (1% ultra-pure HNO<sub>3</sub>) through the following relations:

$$DL = \mu b + 3 \sigma b$$
 1  
 $QL = \mu b + 10 \sigma b$  2

where μb is the blank signal and σb is the deviations standard of the blank. The recovery was estimated by the INCT-OBTL-5 Oriental Basma Tobacco Leaves certified standard material (Samczynski et al., 2012) and values lower than QL were not considered. The recovery percentage ranged between 85% and 111% (data reported in supplementary material) while the error was estimated by the following propagation Eqn3 (Ambrus et al., 2004):

142 
$$\frac{\sigma Q}{Q} = \sqrt{\left(\frac{\sigma a}{a}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\sigma b}{b}\right)^2 + \dots + \left(\frac{\sigma x}{x}\right)^2}$$
 3

143 where  $\sigma$  is the standard deviation associated with the measured value (a,b,x), expressed as relative 144 percentage uncertainty, and Q is the uncertainty of measurement.

145

#### 146 1.3. Data processing

The overall plant development was evaluated by the variation of the dried mass during growth. Possible accumulation of REE in organs was estimated by the concentration in roots and the aerial parts. The Translocation Factors (TF), corresponding to the ratio between the REE concentration in aerial parts and roots (Krzciuk and Gałuszka, 2015) was evaluated according to Eq.4:

151 
$$TF = \frac{[REE]_{aerial \ part}}{[REE]_{roots}}$$

152 Where:  $[REE]_{aerial part}$  and  $[REE]_{roots}$  are the REE concentration (µmol/g) in both aerial part and root 153 respectively. When TF<1, metal accumulate preferentially in roots, when TF>1, metal accumulate 154 preferentially in aerial part, while when TF < 0.1, the plants tend to exclude the metal (Wang et al 2012).

4

155 The variation of REE abundance in different parts of the plant was estimated by the ratio between the sum

of light REE ( $\Sigma$ LREE) and the sum of heavy REE ( $\Sigma$ HREE) through the following equations:

158 
$$\left[\frac{\sum LREE^{*}}{\sum HREE^{*}}\right]_{aerial \ part/UCC} = \frac{\frac{\sum LREE_{aerial \ part}}{\sum HREE_{aerial \ part}}}{\frac{\sum LREE_{UCC}}{\sum HREE_{UCC}}}$$

$$\left[\frac{\Sigma LREE^*}{\Sigma HREE^*}\right]_{Roots/UCC} = \frac{\frac{\Sigma LREE_{Roots}}{\Sigma HREE_{Roots}}}{\frac{\Sigma LREE_{Roots}}{\Sigma HREE_{UCC}}}$$
6

160

159

where ∑LREE is the sum concentration of the elements from La to Gd, and ∑HREE is the sum concentration of the elements from Yb to Lu plus Y. The subscript "UCC" (Upper Continental Crust) corresponds to the average lithospheric reference. "Aerial part" and "roots", correspond to the REE concentration (nmol/kg) in aerial part and roots respectively. For every sample, the distribution pattern of REE was evaluated normalizing the relative abundance of REE in the different plant organs to the lithological reference (UCC) (Laveuf and Cornu, 2009; Pisciotta et al., 2017).

168 
$$[REE^*]_{native \ soil} = \frac{REE_{native \ soil}}{REE_{UCC}}$$
7

169 
$$[REE^*]_{roots} = \frac{REE_{roots}}{REE_{UCC}}$$
 8

170 
$$[REE^*]_{aerial part} = \frac{REE_{aerial part}}{REE_{UCC}} \qquad 9$$

171

The REE distribution pattern allows promptly evaluates an enrichment or depletion of a group or an individual REE relative to the others. These relative differences are called respectively fractionations or "anomalies", whose intensities are further expressed by ratios (Laveuf and Cornu, 2009). The possible REE anomalies (Censi et al., 2014) has been estimated by the following Eqns. 10 and 11 :

176 
$$\left[\frac{REE}{REE^*}\right]_{shoots/roots} = \frac{\left(\frac{REE}{REE_{shoots}}\right)_i^2}{\left[\left(\frac{REE_{shoots}}{REE_{roots}}\right)_{i+1}\left(\frac{REE_{shoots}}{REE_{roots}}\right)_{i-1}\right]}$$
10

177

178 
$$\left[\frac{REE}{REE^*}\right]_{shoots/UCC} = \frac{\left(\frac{REE_{shoots}}{REE_{UCC}}\right)_i^2}{\left[\left(\frac{REE_{shoots}}{REE_{UCC}}\right)_{i+1} \left(\frac{REE_{shoots}}{REE_{UCC}}\right)_{i-1}\right]}$$
11

where the subscript "UCC", "aerial part", "roots" correspond to the REE concentration in the reference
material, in aerial part and roots respectively. The subscript "i" indicates every REE of the series, whereas "(i
- 1)" and "(i + 1)" are its immediate neighbour, before and after within the series (Censi et al., 2014; Laveuf
and Cornu, 2009).

184

#### 185 2. Results and Discussions

186 2.1. Overall transport of REE in *Vitis vinifera L.* 

We have initially evaluated the plant mass variation along the 10 months of growth. Fig. 2 shows that in the first eight months, plant weight progressively increased by 4 times in both spiked and blank experiments while later decreased for both experimental conditions reflecting the period of rest corresponding to leave fall. During the time of the investigation, we did not find either plant mass changing between spiked and blank experiments or visible disease such as growth accidents.

192



193

Figure 2. Total Weight (TW) of the plants in Blank and Spiked Experiment (BE and SE respectively) as a functionof the time of growth

This indicates that the substrate enrichment does not significantly influence the growth of *Vitis vinifera L.*confirming the behaviour of other plants such as Arabidopsis thaliana, corn (Zea mays) and mungbean Vigna
radiate during growth in soils enriched in Ce and La (Diatloff et al., 2008; He and Loh, 2000). However, our
results show that in roots the total REE concentration in the spiked experiment is by one order of magnitude

201 higher compared to the blank suggesting the possible filter role of this parts of the plant (Brioschi et al.,

202 2013).

.

- 203
- 204

205





Figure 3.  $\Sigma$ REE concentration (µmols/g) in plants organs during plant growth. a)  $\Sigma$ REE concentration Fine Roots (FR), Middle Roots (MR), Woody Roots (WR) and in Whole plants (WP) in the blank experiment. b)  $\Sigma$ REE concentration Fine Roots (FR), Middle Roots (MR), Woody Roots (WR) and in Whole plants (WP) in Spiked experiment. c)  $\Sigma$ REE concentration in leaves in blank and spiked experiments.

213 Fig. 3 (a and b) shows that the highest REE concentration in whole roots is found in the initial stage (St1) at  $0.33 \pm 0.04$  and  $2.67 \pm 0.88 \mu$ mol/g for blank and spiked conditions, respectively, while from S1 to S5 the REE 214 215 concentration decreases by 2 times in both experimental conditions. The higher value found in the first stage 216 of growth has been found in fine roots more than middle or woody-roots. The preferential enrichment of 217 REE in roots observed in our experiment is in agreement with fine root enrichment in U and Nd found in Scots 218 pine spruce, beech and oak growing from polluted soils (Brioschi et al., 2013; Thiry et al., 2005) and 219 interpreted as corresponding to the greater ability of the fine roots to produce radical exudates compared 220 to medium and large ones (Walker et al., 2003). It is like that through exudation, roots may regulate soil 221 microbial community influencing the chemical and physical soil properties that in turn may affect trace 222 element mobilization from soil to plant (Antoniadis et al., 2017). In leaves, the REE concentration increases linearly during plant's growth spanning from 0.004 (± 0.001) to 0.010 (± 0.002) µmol/g for blank experiments 223 224 and from 0.0038 ( $\pm$  0.0004) to 0.007 (0.004)  $\mu$ mol/g for spiked experiments (Fig. 3c).

225 These values are, however, significantly lower compared to that found in roots. Highest amounts were found 226 after eight months of growth (St4), corresponding to the last stage before leaves fall. REE concentrations are 227 on the same order of magnitude in the two investigated conditions despite REE concentration in roots is by 228 one order of magnitude higher in the spiked experiment. Therefore, it appears that Vitis vinifera L. limits the 229 transfer of REE maintaining low levels in the aerial parts. REE transfer efficiency in the aerial part of Vitis 230 vinifera L. has been evaluated for every specific REE at every stage of the growth in the different plants' 231 organs. We found that TF, calculated for both experimental conditions (Fig. 4a, b), is lesser than one for all 232 elements meaning that REE accumulation is greater in roots in comparison with the aerial part.



234

239 Specifically, TF is by 3 to 15 times lower in spiked experiment compared to the blank one. It is important to 240 highlight that in the spiked condition the higher REE amount uptake from roots produces a less transfer capacity to the aerial parts of the plants. This may correspond to a possible detoxification mechanism 241 242 developed by Vitis vinifera L to answer to non-essential, toxic trace element exposures (Pourrut et al., 2011). 243 REE are considered non-essential trace elements entering into plant tissues passively because of their similarity with essential ions (Yuan et al., 2017; Kabata-Pendias and Pendias 2001; Whang et al., 2008). This 244 245 detoxification process by endodermis cells should correspond to the earlier proposed, i.e., for lead in 246 different species of plants (Pourrut et al., 2011). Vitis vinifera L. can transfer even lower amounts of trace

<sup>235</sup> Figure 4. Translocation Factor (TF). a) ratio between REE concentration (µmols/g) in aerial part and roots at each Sampling Time (St1, St2, St3, St4, St5) in the blank experiment. b) ratio between REE concentration in 236 237 aerial part and roots at each Sampling Time (St1, St2, St3, St4, St5) in the spiked experiment. 238

elements as Cu, Zn, Pb or nutrients (N) into berries than in leaves (Araujo et al., 1995; Chopin et al. 2008;
Kabata-Pendias and Pendias 2001; Kment et al., 2005). Globally, even if the REE amount transferred is
different between the two experimental conditions, the results of our experimental investigation show that
the substrate enrichment in REE does not influence the plant physiological response to environmental stress. *Vitis vinifera L.* preferably accumulates REE in fine roots with a likely accumulation strategy governed by
processes of exclusion compatible the mass development.

- 253
- 254 2.2. REE fractionation in *Vitis vinifera L.*

The transfer of REE in the overall plant has been initially estimated by the relative fractionation of REE group using the ratio between Light-REE and Heavy-REE ( $\Sigma LREE / \Sigma HREE$ ). Fig. 5 shows that the  $\Sigma LREE / \Sigma HREE$  ratio remains constant for every experimental condition and single lines can be parametrised for every condition.



258



Figure 5. Normalized  $\Sigma LREE / \Sigma HREE$  in plants organs during different growing stages

260

We found that the ∑LREE/∑HREE ratio in the spiked experiment is by 1 order of magnitude higher compared
to the blank indicating the answer of the plant to REE enrichment in the soil. If this enrichment may be

- explained by a possible enhancement of complexation reaction between the REE free ions added related to
  the different apparent REE stability constants (Byrne et al., 1995), the ∑LREE/∑HREE ratio of the entire plant
  does not appear to give operative information discriminating different growth conditions. We, thus, focused
  on the content in the different organs.
- Figs 6 shows the distribution of REE normalised pattern in roots and aerial part for the two different experimental conditions.



270



Figure 6. Distribution of REE normalised pattern in plant organ and native soil. a) UCC distribution and REE normalized spectra of native soil and roots for each phenological phases in the blank experiment. b) UCC distribution and REE normalized spectra of native soil and roots for each phenological phases in the blank experiment. c) REE normalized spectra in aerial part and fine roots during fruit-setting (st2) in the blank experiment. d) REE normalized spectra in aerial parts and fine roots during veraison-period (St3) in the blank experiment. e) REE normalized spectra in aerial parts and fine roots during harvesting-period (st4) in blank
experiment. f) REE normalized spectra in aerial parts and fine roots during fruit-setting (st2) in spiked
experiment. g) REE normalized spectra in aerial and fine roots during veraison-period (St3) in spiked
experiment. h) REE normalized spectra in aerial parts and fine roots during harvesting-period (St4) in spiked
experiment. h) REE normalized spectra in aerial parts and fine roots during harvesting-period (St4) in spiked
experiment.

281

282 We found that for the blank experiment (Fig. 6a) REE pattern is characterised by a constant decreasing from 283 LREE to HREE reflecting the pristine soil of plant nursery (before being transferred to our experimental pots) 284 as peat-gravel is an inert substrate. Roots, here, have accumulated REE proportionally to the amount of REE 285 of native soil while the higher LREE level compared to HREE may correspond to the enhanced LREE mobility 286 by humic matter in the soil (Coppin, 2002; Ma et al., 2002). Differently, in spike experiment (Fig. 6b), the root 287 REE pattern displays increasing from LREE to HREE with a 'zig-zag' shape. Here, the root pattern does not 288 correspond to native soil and is symmetrical to the UCC distribution in agreement with the equimolar plant 289 absorption of REE. Our results indicate that the REE transport in Vitis vinifera L. is not selective depending 290 mainly on the amount of REE that is present in the growth substrate: in the blank experiment, roots reflect 291 the native soil, in spiked experiment mirror UCC. In the blank experiment (Figs 6 c,d,e,), the REE pattern in 292 aerial part displays the general constant decreasing from LREE to HREE in agreement with root pattern with 293 the revealed Eu positive anomaly (Table 1).

- 294
- 295

Eu anomaly	St1	St2	St3	St4	St5
$\left[\frac{Eu}{Eu^*}\right]_{roots/UCC}$	0.72	0.74	0.73	0.66	0.79
$\left[\frac{Eu}{Eu^*}\right]_{aerial \ part \ /UCC}$	1.32	1.33	1.46	1.19	1.13
$\frac{Eu}{Eu^*}\Big]_{aerial part /roots}$	6.42	6.23	5.09	4.49	3.21

296

Table 1. REE anomalies calculated by Eqns. 10 and 11 in the blank experiment, at each sampling time (St1,
St2, St3, St4, St5).

- 299
- 300

The identified positive Eu-anomaly of our laboratory-controlled growth may correspond to that found during natural growth conditions by Pisciotta et al., (2017) and attributed to the possible physiological Eu–Ca substitution during the metabolic reactions (Brioschi et al., 2013). In the spiked experiment (Figs 6 f,g,h), the REE pattern in aerial part still presents the "zig-zag" shape with the typical increasing from LREE to HREE. Irrespective of the spiked conditions, we found that the REE pattern of the aerial parts reflects the roots spectra remaining unchanged during the plant's growth indicating that *Vitis vinifera L.* does not significantly fractionate REE during complex reaction mechanism of metal uptakes and transfer. We observed that different normalised REE patterns are thus related to substrate variability. We propose that the REE distribution pattern discriminates the soil of growth: in the natural substrate (blank conditions), the distribution of REE reflects the relative abundance of native soils while in the spiked substrate, the REE distribution pattern reflects the UCC distribution.

312

## 313 Implication and conclusion

314 Despite the weak toxicity of REE, new applications and developing technologies in the agricultural, 315 automotive and telecommunication sectors may increase the environmental levels of various REE, and in 316 turn, the concentrations exposed to plants. These emerging new source of pollution are still associated in 317 several areas of the world to mining conventional pollution and leaching of REE waste minerals. The results 318 of our experimental investigation reveal that in the case of Vitis vinifera L. the transfer efficiency of REE from 319 roots to leaves is lower in polluted substrates compared to unpolluted one, although the roots of polluted 320 substrates are by one order of magnitude enriched in REE. We propose that possible REE pollution in soil 321 should not significantly determine the amount of REE transferred to the aerial parts indicating that grapevine 322 products obtained by Vitis vinifera L. cultivations should have a very low amount of REE. The results obtained 323 in this experimental simulation do know to show clear evidence of REE possible competition with calcium in 324 calcium-mediated biological processes which could account for some of the plant toxicity.

Evaluating plant physiological response to REE contaminated soil we found that the REE transport in *Vitis vinifera L.* is not selective depending mainly on the level of REE in the substrate of growth. REE distribution pattern keeps unaltered in plant organ: in the unpolluted substrate (blank experiment), roots and aerial part reflect native soil, while in polluted soils (spiked experiment) mirror the UCC. We finally believe that the full REE normalized spectra are a promising helpful tool able to discriminate the substrate of *Vitis vinifera L.* growth meaning that REE may provide an estimation of the geographical origin of this kind of food.

331

# 332 Acknowledgement

This work is part of the doctoral thesis of the first author and supported by Università degli Studi di Palermo
and the Sorbonne Université Paris. We wish to thank Dr N. Pisciotta for experimental assistance and Dr L.
Oddo for advice.

336

# 337 Reference

338

Aceto, M., Robotti, E., Oddone, M., Baldizzone, M., Bonifacino, G., Bezzo, G., 2013. A traceability study on the Moscato wine chain. Food. Chem. 138, 1914–1922.

341

345

349

351

355

358

361

365

369

Antoniadis, V., Levizou, E., Shaheen, S.M., Ok, Y.S., Sebastian, A., Baum, C., Rinklebe, J., 2017. Trace elements
in the soil-plant interface: Phytoavailability, translocation, and phytoremediation–A review. Earth Sci. Rev.
171, 621-645.

Araujo, F., Williams, L.E., Matthews, M.A., 1995. A comparative study of young 'Thompson Seedless'
grapevines (Vitis vinifera L.) under drip and furrow irrigation. II. Growth, water use efficiency and nitrogen
partitioning. Sci. Hortic. 60(3-4), 251-265.

Bargagli, R., (1998). Trace elements in terrestrial plants. Springer.

Bertoldi, D., Larcher, R., Bertamini, M., Otto, S., Concheri, G., Nicolini, G., 2011. Accumulation and distribution
pattern of macro- and microelements and trace elements in Vitis vinifera L. cv. chardonnay berries. Journal
of Agriculture and Food Chem. 59, 7224–7236.

Bertoldi, D., Larcher, R., Nicolini, G., Bertamini, M., Concheri, G., 2009. Distribution of rare earth elements in
Vitis vinifera L. 'Chardonnay' berries. Vitis J. Grapevine Res. 48, 49–51.

Bettinelli, M., Spezia, S., Baffi, C., Beone, G.M., Rocchetta, R., Nassisi, A., 2005. ICP-MS determination of REE
in tomato plants and related products: a new analytical tool to verify traceability. At. Spectrosc. 26, 41-50.

Brioschi, L., Steinmann, M., Lucot, E., Pierret, M.C., Stille, P., Prunier, J., 2013. Transfer of rare earth elements
(REE) from natural soil to plant systems: implications for the environmental availability of anthropogenic REE.
Plant Soil. 366(1-2), 143-163.

Brunner, M., Katona, R., Stefánka, Z., Prohaska, T., 2010. Determination of the geographical origin of
processed spice using multielement and isotopic pattern on the example of Szegedi paprika. Eur. Food Res.
Technol. 231(4), 623-634.

Byrne, R.H., Li, B.-, 1995. Comparative complexation behaviour of the rare earths. Geochim. Cosmochim.
Acta. 59, 4575 - 4589.

Censi, P., Cibella, F., Falcone, E. E., Cuttitta, G., Saiano, F., Inguaggiato, C., Latteo, V., 2017. Rare earths and
trace elements contents in leaves: A new indicator of the composition of atmospheric
dust. Chemosphere. 169, 342-350.

375

379

Censi, P., Cangemi, M., Brusca, L., Madonia, P., Saiano, F., Zuddas, P., 2015. The behaviour of rare-earth
elements, Zr and Hf during biologically-mediated deposition of silica-stromatolites and carbonate-rich
microbial mats. Gondwana Res. 27, 209-215.

Censi, P., Saiano, F., Pisciotta, A., Tuzzolino, N., 2014. Geochemical behaviour of rare earths in Vitis Vinifera
 grafted onto different rootstocks and growing on several soils. Sci. of Total. Environ. 473, 597-608.

386

390

393

399

402

405

408

- Censi, P., Tamburo, E., Speziale, S., Zuddas, P., Randazzo, L.A., Punturo, R., Cuttitta, A., Aricò, P., 2011. Yttrium
  and lanthanides in human lung fluids, probing the exposure to atmospheric fallout. J. Hazard. Mater. 186,
  1103–1110.
- Chopin, E.I.B., Marin, B., Mkoungafoko, R., Rigaux, A., Hopgood, M.J., Delannoy, E., Laurain, M., 2008. Factors
  affecting distribution and mobility of trace elements (Cu, Pb, Zn) in a perennial grapevine (Vitis vinifera L.) in
  the Champagne region of France. Environ. Pollut. 156, 1092-1098.
- Coppin, F., Berger, G., Bauer, A., Castet, S., Loubet, M., 2002. Sorption of lanthanides on smectite and kaolinite. Chem. Geol. 182, 57–68.
- Diatloff, E., Smith, F.W., Asher, C.J., 2008. Effects of lanthanum and cerium on the growth and mineral nutrition of corn and mungbean. Ann. Bot. 101, 971–982.
- 396
  397 Drivelos, S.A., Georgiou, C.A. 2012. Multi-element and multi-isotope ratio analysis to determine the
  398 geographical origin of foods in the European Union. Trend. Anal. Chem. 40, 38–51.
- European Commission. 2019. Knowledge centre for food fraud and quality. Retrieved January 13, 2019,
  https://ec.europa.eu/jrc/en/food-fraud-and-quality.
- Feng, L., Xiao, H., He, X., Li, Z., Li, F., Liu, N., Zhao, Y., Huang, Y., Zhang, Z., Chai, Z., 2006. Neurotoxicological
  consequence of longterm exposure to lanthanum. Toxicol. Lett. 165, 112–120.
- He, Y.W., Loh, C.S., 2000. Cerium and lanthanum promote floral initiation and reproductive growth of
  Arabidopsis thaliana. Plant Sci. 159, 117–124.
- 409 Kabata-Pendias, A., Pendias, H., 2001. Trace elements in soils and plants–CRC Press. Boca Raton.
- 410
  411 Kment, P., Mihaljevič, M., Ettler, V., Šebek, O., Strnad, L., Rohlová, L.,2005. Differentiation of Czech wines
  412 using multielement composition–A comparison with vineyard soil. Food Chem..91, 157-165.
- 413
  414 Krzciuk, K., Gałuszka, A., 2019. Seasonal changes in concentrations of trace elements and rare earth elements
  415 in shoot samples of Juncus effusus L. collected from natural habitats in the Holy Cross Mountains, south416 central Poland. Chemosphere. 219, 954-960.
- 417
  418 Laucou, V., Launay, A., Bacilieri, R., Lacombe, T., Adam-Blondon, A.F., Berard, A., Le Paslier, M.C., 2018.
  419 Extended diversity analysis of cultivated grapevine Vitis vinifera with 10K genome-wide SNPs. PLoS One,
  420 13(2), e0192540.
- 422 Laveuf, C., Cornu, S., 2009. A review on the potentiality of rare earth elements to trace pedogenetic 423 processes. Geoderma. 154, 1–12.
- 424
  425 Li, X., Chen, Z., Chen, Z., & Zhang, Y., 2013. A human health risk assessment of rare earth elements in soil and
  426 vegetables from a mining area in Fujian Province, Southeast China. Chemosphere, 93 1240-1246.
- 427

- Liang, T., Ding, S., Song, W., Chong, Z., Zhang, C., Li, H., 2008. A review of fractionations of rare earth elements
  in plant. J. Rare Earths, 26, 7–15.
- 430
  431 Miao, L., Ma, Y., Xu, R., Yan, W., 2011. Environmental biogeochemical characteristics of rare earth elements
  432 in soil and soil-grown plants of the Hetai goldfield, Guangdong Province, China. Environ. Earth Sci. 63, 501–
  433 511.
- 434

- Oddone, M., Aceto, M., Baldizzone, M., Musso, D., Osella, D., 2009. Authentication and traceability study of
  hazelnuts from Piedmont, Italy. J. of Agricult. Food Chem. 579 3404-3408.
- 437

443

447

451

454

458

- Pagano, G., Guida, M., Tommasi, F., Oral, R., 2015a. Health effects and toxicity mechanisms of rare earth
  elements Knowledge gaps and research prospects. Ecotoxicol. Environ. Saf. 115, 40–48.
- 441 Pagano, G., Aliberti, F., Guida, M., Oral, R., Siciliano, A., Trifuoggi, M., Tommasi, F., 2015b. Rare earth 442 elements in human and animal health: state of art and research priorities. Environ. Res. 142, 215-220.
- Pepi, S., Coletta, A., Crupi, P., Leis, M., Russo, S., Sansone, L., 2016. Geochemical characterization of elements
  in Vitis Vinifera cv. Negroamaro grape berries grown under different soil managements. Environ. Monit.
  Assess. 188, 211.
- Pepi, S., Grisenti, P., Sansone, L., Chicca, M., Vaccaro, C., 2018. Chemical elements as fingerprints of
  geographical origin in cultivars of Vitis vinifera L. raised on the same SO4 rootstock. Environ. Sci. Pollut. Res.
  25, 490-506.
- 452 Pepi, S., Sansone, L., Chicca, M., Vaccaro, C., 2017. Relationship among geochemical elements in soil and 453 grapes as terroir fingerprintings in Vitis vinifera L. cv."Glera". Chem. Erde. 77,121-130.
- Pisciotta A., Tutone L., Saiano F., 2017. Distribution of YLOID in soil-grapevine system (Vitis vinifera L.) as tool
  for geographical characterization of agro-food products. A two years case study on different grafting
  combinations. Food Chem. 221, 1214-1220.
- 459 Pourret, O., Davranche, M., Gruau., G., Dia, A., 2007. Rare earth elements complexation with humic acid.
  460 Chem. Geol. 243,128 141.
- Pourrut, B., Shahid, M., Dumat, C., Winterton, P., Pinelli, E., 2011. Lead uptake, toxicity, and detoxification
  in plants. In Reviews of Environmental Contamination and Toxicology Volume 213, 113-136. Springer, New
  York, NY.
- 464

470

473

476

- Punturo, R., D'Antone, C., Pepi, S., Vaccaro, C., 2018. Rare earth elements absorption patterns in grapevine
  "Vitis vinifera L." cultivated in carbonate terrains (south-eastern Sicily, Italy). Environ. Earth Sci. 77, 801.
- 468 Richter, B., Gurk, S., Wagner, D., Bockmayr, M., Fischer, M., 2019. Food authentication: Multi-elemental 469 analysis of white asparagus for provenance discrimination. Food Chem. 286, 475-482.
- 471 Soneji, J.R., Nageswara-Rao, M., 2011. Basic Botany of the Species. Wild Crop Relatives: Genomic and 472 Breeding Resources: Temperate Fruits. 6, 223. Springer, New York, NY.
- Tang, J., Johannesson, K.H., 2010. Rare earth elements adsorption onto Carrizo sand: Influence of strong
  solution complexation. Chem. Geol. 279 120-133.
- Thiry, Y., Schmidt, Pò., Van Hees, Mò., Wannijn, J., Van Bree, P., Rufyikiri, G., Vandenhove, H., 2005. Uranium
  distribution and cycling in Scots pine (Pinus sylvestris L.) growing on a revegetated U-mining heap. J. Environ.
  Radioact. 81, 201–219.
- Thomas, P.J., Carpenter, D., Boutin, C., Allison, J.E., 2014. Rare earth elements (REEs): effects on germination
  and growth of selected crop and native plant species. Chemosphere, 96, 57-66.
- 483
  484 Turra, C., 2018. Sustainability of rare earth elements chain: from production to food–a review. Int. J. of
  485 Environ. Health Res. 28, 23-42.
- 486

- 487 Tyler, G., 2004. Rare earth elements in soil and plant systems a review. Plant Soil. 267, 191–206.
- US Environmental Protection Agency, 2012. Rare Earth Elements: A Review of Production, Processing,
   Recycling, and Associated Environmental Issues. EPA 600/R-12/572. (www.epa.gov/ord).
- 491
  492 Vermeire, M.L., Cornu, S., Fekiacova, Z., Detienne, M., Delvaux, B., Cornélis, J.T., 2016. Rare earth elements
  493 dynamics along pedogenesis in a chronosequence of podzolic soils. Chemical Geology. 446, 163-174.
- Vivier, M.A., Pretorius, I.S.,2002. Genetically tailored grapevines for the wine industry. Trends Biotechnol. 20,
  472-478.

- Walker, T.S., Bais, H.P., Grotewold, E., & Vivanco, J.M., 2003. Root exudation and rhizosphere biology. Plant
  Physiol. 132, 44-51.
- Wang, Y., Yan, A., Dai, J., Wang, N., Wu, D., 2012. Accumulation and tolerance characteristics of cadmium in
  Chlorophytum comosum: a popular ornamental plant and potential Cd hyperaccumulator. Environ Monit.
  Assess, 184, 929–37.
- Wang, L., He, J., Xia, A., Cheng, M., Yang, Q., Du, C., Zhou, Q., 2017. Toxic effects of environmental rare earth
  elements on delayed outward potassium channels and their mechanisms from a microscopic perspective.
  Chemosphere. 181, 690-698.
- 509 Wang, L., Huang, X., Zhou, Q., 2008. Effects of rare earth elements on the distribution of mineral elements 510 and heavy metals in horseradish. Chemosphere. 73(3), 314-319.
- 511
  512 Yuan, M., Guo, M.N., Liu, W.S., Liu, C., van der Ent, A., Morel, J.L., Huot, H., Zhao, W.Y., Wei, X.G., Qiu, R.L.,
  513 Tang, Y.T., 2017. The accumulation and fractionation of Rare Earth Elements in hydroponically grown
  514 Phytolacca americana L. Plant Soil. 421, 67-82.

- 526 Supplementary material

REE Quantification limits																
	REE	Y	La	Ce	Pr	Nd	Sm	Eu	Gd	Tb	Dy	Но	Er	Tm	Yb	Lu
	LOQ	0,9	0,9	0,9	0,3	0,6	0,2	0,2	0,2	0,1	0,2	0,1	0,2	0,1	0,1	0,2