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CRedit author statement

Belén Heredia: Conceptualization, Methodology, Investigation, Formal analysis, Writing-Original draft, Visualization. **Raul Tapia:** Conceptualization, Investigation, Methodology.

Brian Jonathan Young: Conceptualization, Methodology, Writing- Review and Editing.

Paul Hasuoka: Investigation. **Pablo Pacheo:** Investigation. **Gonzalo Roqueiro:** Conceptualization, Methodology, Resources, Project administration, Funding acquisition, Supervision.

Waste from an abandoned gold mine



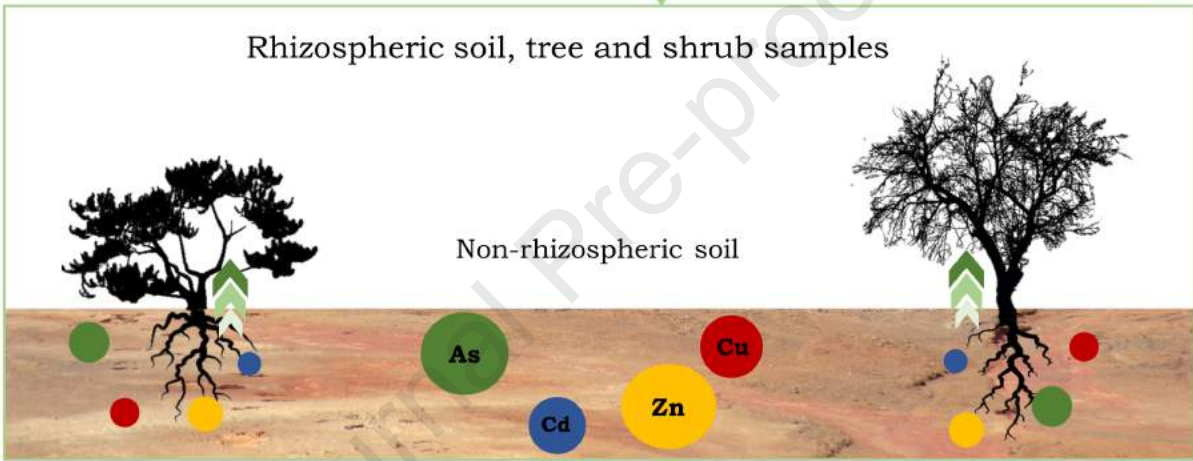
Non-Rhizospheric soil samples

↑ As, Cu, Cd and Zn
EC

↓ pH
N, P, K



Rhizospheric soil, tree and shrub samples



Phytoextraction of Cu, Cd, Zn and As in four shrubs and trees growing on soil contaminated with mining waste

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1 Abstract

2 Mining activity has degraded large extensions of soil and its waste is composed of metals, anthropogenic
3 chemicals, and sterile rocks. The use of native species in the recovery of polluted soils improves the
4 conditions for the emergence of other species, tending to a process of ecosystem restoration. The objective
5 of this study was to evaluate the bioaccumulation of metal(loid)s in four species of native plants and the
6 effect of their distribution and bioavailability in soil with waste from an abandoned gold mine. Soil samples
7 were taken from two sites in La Planta, San Juan, Argentina: Site 1 and Site 2 (mining waste and reference
8 soil, respectively). In Site 1, vegetative organ samples were taken from *Larrea cuneifolia*, *Bulnesia retama*,
9 *Plectrocarpa tetracantha*, and *Prosopis flexuosa*. The concentration of metal(loid)s in soil from Site 1 were
10 Zn>As>Cu>Cd, reaching values of 7123, 6516, 240 and 76 mg kg⁻¹, respectively. The contamination
11 indices were among the highest categories of contamination for all four metal(loid)s. The spatial
12 interpolation analysis showed the effect of the vegetation as the lowest concentration of metal(loid)s were
13 found in rhizospheric soil. The maximum concentrations of As, Cu, Cd and Zn found in vegetative organs
14 were 371, 461, 28, and 1331 mg kg⁻¹, respectively. *L. cuneifolia* and *B. retama* presented high
15 concentrations of Cu and Zn. The most concentrated metal(loid)s in *P. tetracantha* and *P. flexuosa* were
16 Zn, As and Cu. Cd was the least concentrated metal in all four species. The values of BAF and TF were
17 greater than one for all four species. In conclusion, the different phytoextraction capacities and the
18 adaptations to arid environments of these four species are an advantage for future phytoremediation
19 strategies. Their application contributes to the ecological restoration and risk reduction, allowing the
20 recovery of ecosystem services.

21

22 Keywords

23 Phytoremediation, metal, bioavailability, bioaccumulation, soil pollution, abandoned mine.

24 1. Introduction

25 Mining has degraded large areas of land on a global level, as consequence of environmentally
26 unsustainable mining model (Keesstra et al., 2017). In particular, abandoned metal mines leave behind
27 waste compose of anthropogenic chemicals, metals and sterile rocks (Golui et al., 2019). Metals are non-
28 biodegradable elements with enduring persistence in the environment (Bader et al., 2019). Metals can be
29 bioaccumulated in living organisms and, therefore, be transferred to different trophic levels (Modabberi et
30 al., 2018; O'Connor et al., 2020; Raj and Maiti, 2019). This causes an imbalance in the functionality of the
31 ecosystem, producing losses to ecosystem services and risks to human health (Sivarajasekar et al., 2018).

32 In recent years, phytoremediation technologies have been implemented with the aim of recovering
33 polluted soils. Phytoremediation consists of employing plants in soil decontamination and its effectiveness
34 depends on the plants ability to absorb, transfer, stabilize, concentrate and/or destroy contaminants (Favas
35 et al., 2018; Lam et al., 2017). Plants called metallophytes are used for the remediation of soils contaminated
36 with metals and/or metalloids. These plants can be either indicator, excluding or hyperaccumulator species
37 (Kataweteetham et al., 2020; Zalewska and Danowska, 2017). Indicator plants concentrate metals in aerial
38 organs indicating their presence in soil; excluders restrict the entry of metals into different tissues. Whereas
39 hyperaccumulator plants have the ability to grow in soil with high concentrations of metals and accumulate
40 them in their tissues (Baker and Walker, 1990).

41 The phytoremediation abilities derive from the anatomic, structural, physiological and biochemical
42 adaptations that different species have developed to survive in extreme environments (Muszyńska et al.,
43 2019). In comparison with conventional methods, such as vitrification, electrokinetics and soil washing
44 technic, among others, phytoremediation is less costly, environmentally sustainable, socially acceptable,
45 and can be applied to several organic and inorganic contaminants (Jiang et al., 2018; Ramezani et al., 2021;
46 Yan et al., 2020). Many plants with the ability to accumulate heavy metals cannot withstand environmental
47 conditions such as high temperatures, low rainfall, salinity, that contaminated sites may present (Wei et al.,
48 2021). Therefore, the evaluation of phytoremediation techniques should not only consider the plant
49 accumulation capacity, but also their adaptation to local climate conditions (Arreghini et al., 2017). Trees

50 with rapid growth, woody deep root systems, and resistance to extreme conditions (e.g., metals in soil,
51 drought) are generally preferred for soil restoration in mining areas (Tozser et al., 2017). Several species of
52 trees and shrubs have been used in dendroremediation processes, such as Eucalyptus, Populus and Acer,
53 (Bandyopadhyay and Maiti, 2019; Kataweteetham et al., 2020). However, dendroremediation primarily
54 considers the economical aspects of phytoremediation without taking into account ecological aspects, such
55 as the introduction of exotic species. In this sense, the dendro-ecological study considers the economical
56 aspects of introducing an exotic species over a native one (Hartman and McCarthy, 2007).

57 The use of native woody species in phytoremediation processes generates advantages due to their capacity
58 to explore soils at greater depths, due to the growth of their root system and greater biomass production.
59 Particularly, native species of arid zones have developed several adaptations that allow them to resist stress
60 factors. Their implementation for the recovery of polluted soils generates better conditions for the
61 emergence of other species by natural succession, tending to a process of ecosystem restoration (Villagra
62 et al., 2021).

63 Mining is the main economic activity in the province of San Juan, Argentina. In particular, soil pollution in
64 the town of Planta was caused by an abandoned gold mine, characterized by an inappropriate waste
65 management and lack of implementation of mitigation measures. The area is inhabited by a human
66 population, who carry out subsistence economic activities, mainly goat raising. Therefore, the presence of
67 mining waste and their potential dispersion by different erosive agents presents a great risk to human health.
68 Native species of trees and shrubs that grow in this contaminated soil has been identified. Given the need
69 to study the soil pollution level to evaluate future phytoremediation strategies in this arid region, the aims
70 of the present study were to evaluate a) the metal(loid)s bioaccumulation capacity of *Larrea cuneifolia*,
71 *Bulnesia retama*, *Plectrocarpa tetraacantha*, and *Prosopis flexuosa*, and b) the effect of spatial distribution
72 patterns and the bioavailability of metal(loid)s in soil with (rhizospheric) and without (non-rhizospheric)
73 vegetation.

74

75 **2. Materials and Methods**

76 2.1 Area of Study and Sampling

77 The area of study is located in La Planta town, department of Caucete, southeastern of San Juan
78 province, Argentina. It is located between the parallels 31°10'24.38" S, 67°52'57.26" W and 31°10'55.83"
79 S, 67°24'38.04" W, bordered on the east by the Valle Fértil and La Huerta mountains, and on the west by
80 the Pie de Palo mountain chain (Fig. 1). The Papagayos River, a seasonal river, runs near the abandoned
81 mining infrastructure in La Planta. Environmentally the region is considered part of the Monte
82 phytogeographic province that spans almost the entirety of the arid belt of Argentina (Villagra et al., 2004).
83 The climate is characteristically hot and dry, with rainfall varying between 80 and 200 mm annually, and
84 temperatures can reach up to 46 °C (Magliano et al., 2015). The soil is of alluvial origin, poorly developed,
85 and saline with high electrical conductivity values, due to shallow groundwater depths and high evaporation
86 rates (Villagra et al., 2021). The vegetation in this area is uniform, in both its physiognomy and richness,
87 composed by xerophytic woody vegetation. The area is composed of a shrub steppe of *Larrea cuneifolia*,
88 *Larrea divaricata*, *Tricomaria usillo*, *Atriplex lampa* and *Suaeda divaricata*, and open forests predominated
89 by species such as *Prosopis flexuosa* and *Bulnesia retama* (Dalmaso and Anconetani, 1993; Villagra et al.,
90 2011). Approximately 60 years ago, a gold extraction plant operated in La Planta. Rocks from different
91 mining deposits were transported to this town. The extractions were first carried out with mercury and later
92 with cyanide. The site belonged to different private companies which left the infrastructure in a state of
93 abandonment and to date no mitigation measures have been implemented. In preliminary studies, an
94 analysis of the different chemical elements found high concentrations of As, Cu, Cd and Zn in this mining
95 waste (Table Suppl. 1).

96

97 *Insert Figure 1*

98

99 Two sampling sites were selected: abandoned mining waste site (Site 1) and a reference site (Site
100 2) used as a control. The site defined as a reference is located approximately 1 km from the contaminated
101 site on the opposite side of the Papagayos River. The selection of the reference site took into account the

102 slope and the direction of the prevailing winds. Samples were taken from the rhizospheric and non-
103 rhizospheric soils at depths of 0-20 cm. The non-rhizospheric soil samples were taken randomly in both
104 sites to determine the distribution of the metal(loid)s in soil without vegetation (n=10 per sampling site).
105 Rhizospheric soil samples were taken only from Site 1 to understand the effects of vegetation on the
106 concentration and bioavailability of metal(loid)s in soil with mining waste. Each rhizospheric soil sample
107 was composed of four soil subsamples taken from each of the studied species (n=12 samples).

108 Samples of the vegetative organs from four native species were taken to determine their
109 metal(loid)s bioaccumulation capacity (Table Suppl. 2). The sampling species included, three shrubs
110 belonging to the Zygophyllaceae family: 1) *Larrea cuneifolia*, a resinous xerophilous shrub with perennial
111 leaves and a woody stem that grows up to 2 m; 2) *Bulnesia retama* that reaches up to 3 m, with striated
112 growth patterns (sharpened stems) and branches and young stems with a white waxy covering; and 3)
113 *Plectrocarpa tetracantha*, a poorly studied woody species, grows up to 2 m, with propagative roots,
114 perennial leaves and clustered thorns and *Prosopis flexuosa* (Fabaceae family) a tree that reaches up to 10
115 m, with deciduous leaves and thorns that can access the groundwater table in extremely dry environments
116 Three samples for each species were taken from adult plants (n=12), including leaves, branches, stems,
117 cortex and roots. Adult plants were considered to be those capable of completing their phenological cycle,
118 similar height and stem with a basal diameter greater than 7 cm. The leaf and branch samples were cut with
119 pruning shears, while the trunk and root samples were obtained from a v-cut made with a saw. The bark
120 was extracted by gently peeling it off by hand. The samples were placed in paper bags for transfer to the
121 laboratory.

122

123 2.2 Soil and Vegetation Analysis

124 Physicochemical variables measured in soil included pH (paste), electrical conductivity (EC;
125 saturation extract), organic matter (OM; Walkley-Black method), total Kjeldahl nitrogen (TKN), available
126 phosphorous (carbon extraction method, 1:50 ratio w:v), interchangeable potassium (ammonium acetate
127 method), cations (Ca^{+2} , Mg^{+2} , Na^{+}) and anions (HCO_3^- , Cl^- , SO_4^{-2}) (saturation extract). Soil samples were

128 dried at room temperature, sifted through a 2 mm mesh, and treated using three extraction agents to measure
129 the total, mobilizable and soluble concentrations of Cu, Cd, Zn and As. The treatments were performed
130 according to the following procedures: 1) Microwave digestion: A microwave digester Milestone Start-D
131 (Soriso, Italy) was used to digest the soil sample to obtain the total fraction of metal(loid)s. 0.25 g sample,
132 4 mL of HNO₃ at 65%, 1 mL of H₂O₂ at 30%, and 3 mL of HF at 40% in a polytetrafluoroethylene (PTFE)
133 reactor. Dissolution was then carried out by steadily increasing the temperature in 10 min up to 200 °C and
134 maintaining it constant for a further 20 min. The microwave potential reached up to 1000 W (Martínez et
135 al., 2018); 2) Diethylenetriaminepentaacetic acid (DTPA, metal chelating agent): The mobilizable fraction
136 was determined by mixing a soil sample with a DTPA extracting solution (0.005 M DTPA, 0.01 M CaCl₂
137 and 0.1 M triethanolamine (TEA)) in a 1:2 ratio w:v, and filtering the supernatant after 2 h of agitation
138 (Lindsay and Norvell, 1969; Maiz et al., 1997); and 3) Deionized water (aqueous extract): A soil sample
139 was mixed with deionized water in a 1:4 ratio w:v for 30 min and the supernatant was filtered after a further
140 60 min (USEPA, 1998). The extract obtained was used to determine the soluble fraction of metal(loid)s,
141 pH and EC.

142 Previous to preparation, the vegetation samples were rinsed with tap water and subsequently with
143 deionized water to assure that no soil particles remained on the organs (Poschenrieder et al., 2001). Samples
144 were dried in a stove at 70 °C for 48 h until reaching constant weight, and then they were pulverized in a
145 FW100 high-speed universal disintegrator. A 0.05 g sample of the pulverized material was digested with 1
146 mL of HNO₃ and 0.5 mL of H₂O₂, then placed in a thermal bath at 60 °C for 90 min and concluded with
147 the addition of 100 µL de HF. After that, Milli Q quality water was added to the digested samples until they
148 reached a total volume of 6 mL, which was centrifuged at 1,250 rpm for 5 min. Finally, the supernatant was
149 extracted to determine the metal(loid)s content. The digestion method was validated by comparison with
150 microwave acid digestion using quantitative recoveries.

151 The concentration of Cu, Cd, Zn and As in soil fractions and vegetation extracts were measured
152 using a mass spectrometer (ICP-MS), with a detection limit of 0.001 mg kg⁻¹. The methodology was
153 validated by analyzing 3 certified reference materials: NIST SRM 2709 San Joaquín soil; NIST SRM 2711

154 Montana soil and NIST SRM 1570a Trace Elements in Spinach leaves. The recoveries for the analyzed
155 elements ranged from 95.9 to 102.4 %.

156 The soil contamination generated by mining waste was determined by calculating the Geoaccumulation
157 Index (I_{geo}) (Muller, 1969), the Contamination Factor (CF) for each metal(loid)s and the overall
158 Contamination Degree (Cdeg) (Hakanson, 1980).

$$I_{geo} = \log_2 (MC / (1.5 * RC)) \quad \text{Eq. 1}$$

159 Where MC is the concentration of a particular metal(loid) in soil with mining waste (Site 1), and RC is the
160 concentration of this metal(loid) in soil from the reference site (Site 2). The factor 1.5 is added to minimize
161 the possible variations in the base levels attributable to lithogenic effects.

$$CF = MC / RC \quad \text{Eq. 2}$$

162 Where MC is the metal(loid) content in the contaminated site and RC is the concentration in the reference
163 site.

$$Cdeg = \sum CF \quad \text{Eq. 3}$$

164 Where Cdeg is the sum of the measured CF.

165 Bioaccumulation Factor (BAF) and Translocation Factor (TF) were calculated for each organ of
166 the studied species to evaluate their phytoremediation potential. BAF relates the concentration of a specific
167 metal(loid) in each organ with the total concentration of this metal(loid) in rhizospheric soil (Yoon et al.,
168 2006). TF is the relation of the concentration of a specific metal(loid) in different aerial organs and the
169 concentration of that metal(loid) at the root (Cui et al., 2007).

170

171 2.3 Data Analysis

172 The data of the concentration of metal(loid)s in the soil fractions and vegetative organs were
173 compared using one-way ANOVA followed by the Tukey post-hoc test. If the assumption of normality and
174 the homogeneity of variance were not met, the data were transformed logarithmically or non-parametric
175 statistics were applied. Multivariate analyses were conducted using the total, soluble and mobilizable

176 concentrations of metal(loid)s, pH and EC, which included Principal Component Analysis (PCA) and
177 Spearman correlation analysis. A spatial interpolation was conducted using the data of the total
178 concentration of metal(loid)s in rhizospheric and non-rhizospheric soil of Site 1 (Qgis software version
179 3.16.4). Data analyses were carried out using R version 2.1.

180

181 **3. Results**

182 3.1 Physicochemical Soil Characterization

183 The non-rhizospheric and rhizospheric soil of Site 1 showed an acidic pH that varied between 2
184 and 4.4 (Table 1). A neutral pH similar to those obtained in Site 2 was recorded in the rhizospheric soil of
185 *L. cuneifolia*. The highest EC values were found in the non-rhizospheric soil (41.2 and 5.9 mS cm⁻¹),
186 whereas the lowest ones were found in the rhizospheric soil of *L. cuneifolia* and the reference soil. The
187 macronutrients (N, P and K) showed higher values in the rhizospheric and reference soil. The OM content
188 was low in all the soil samples, and the texture was Loamy-Sand and Sandy-Loam.

189

190 *Insert Table 1*

191

192 3.2 Concentration of Metal(loid)s in Soil

193 The concentrations of Cu, Cd, Zn and As measured in the soil are shown in Table 2. These results
194 were contrasted with the established guidelines for residential and agricultural use in Argentina (Federal
195 Law 24,051) and with the Canadian soil quality guidelines for environmental health-SQGE (Canadian
196 Council of Ministers of the Environment, 2007). The concentration of the four metal(loid)s in Site 2 were
197 below the established guideline values for Argentina and Canada with the exception of As. It was 1.7 times
198 above the recommended values for agricultural use in Argentina and residential use in Canada. The
199 concentrations of all four metal(loid)s found in the non-rhizospheric soil in Site 1 were higher than the
200 recommended levels for agricultural and residential use for both countries. The concentrations of Cu and

201 Zn in the rhizospheric soil were lower than the established levels for Argentina, but the concentration of all
202 four metal(loid)s were higher than the Canadian guidelines.

203

204 *Insert Table 2*

205

206 The highest concentration of As and Zn were found in the non-rhizospheric soil of Site 1 (6516.3
207 and 7122.6 mg kg⁻¹, respectively), followed by the rhizospheric soil of *P. flexuosa*, *B. retama* and *P.*
208 *tetracantha*. By contrast, the lowest concentration of As and Zn were found in the reference site (20.3 mg
209 kg⁻¹ and 78.19 mg kg⁻¹, respectively), followed by the rhizospheric soil of *L. cuneifolia*. The highest
210 concentration of Cu was recorded in the non-rhizospheric and rhizospheric soil of *B. retama* and *L.*
211 *cuneifolia* (p<0.001), while the lowest concentration was found in the rhizospheric soil of *P. flexuosa*.
212 Significant differences were only found in the concentration of Cd of Site 1 and 2 (p<0.001; Table 2).

213 The mobilizable and soluble concentrations of all four metal(loid)s were significantly higher in the
214 non-rhizospheric soil (p<0.001), whereas they were lower than 1% in the rhizospheric soil. Mobilizable
215 fractions accounted for between 7% and 38% of the total concentration of metal(loid)s recorded in the non-
216 rhizospheric and reference soil. Values higher than 1% in the soluble fractions were found for Cu, Cd and
217 Zn in non-rhizospheric soil (up to 46%), and only for Zn in the reference soil.

218

219 3.3 Soil Contamination Indices

220 Results of the Igeo values showed that the rhizospheric soil was categorized in the lowest
221 contamination level (Table 3). The exception was the Cd value that corresponded to the categories 5
222 (“strongly contaminated”) and 6 (“strong to very strong contamination”). In the non-rhizospheric soil, the
223 values for As, Cd, and Zn indexed at greater than 5, which corresponds to the highest category of
224 contamination (“very strong contamination”), according to Förstner et al. (1990). Only the level of Cu
225 corresponded to one of the lowest categories (“uncontaminated to moderately contaminated”).

226

227 *Insert Table 3*

228

229 Analysis of the Contamination Factor (CF) showed that the level of Cd present in the rhizospheric
230 soil of all four species corresponded to category 6 (“very strong contamination”), while the rest of the
231 metal(loid)s had values that varied between category 1 (“moderate contamination”) to category 6 (Table 4).
232 The CF values for the non-rhizospheric soil corresponded to the category 6 for all four metal(loid)s. The
233 Cdeg values for all the soil samples in Site 1 indicated a high grade of contamination (highest category).

234 The PC1 (87%) and PC2 (11%) of the PCA explained 98% of the total data variability (Fig. 2). The
235 total, soluble and mobilizable concentrations of metal(loid)s, Igeo, CF and EC were all associated with the
236 non-rhizospheric soil (nr). The correlation analysis showed a positive correlation between the metal(loid)s
237 of the three specified fractions ($R > 0.7$; $p < 0.001$; Table Suppl. 3). The values of EC showed a positive
238 correlation with the majority of the specified variables ($R > 0.7$; $p < 0.001$). On the other hand, a negative
239 correlation of pH was observed with the total As, extractable As and Zn, and Igeo and CF of As ($R > -0.7$;
240 $p < 0.001$).

241

242 *Insert Figure 2*

243

244 3.4 Spatial Interpolation

245 The spatial interpolation analysis displays the distribution of the total concentration of all four
246 metal(loid)s in the rhizospheric and non-rhizospheric soil (Fig. 3). It shows how the concentration of the
247 metal(loid)s decreases around the vegetation. The highest values for the four elements were found in the
248 non-rhizospheric soil that also coincided with the lowest pH values. It can be observed that the soil
249 associated with vegetation growth presented a pH higher than that in non-rhizospheric soil.

250

251 *Insert Figure 3*

252

253 3.5 Concentration of Metal(loid)s in Vegetative Organs

254 The metal(loid)s were found to be most concentrated in the leaves of *L. cuneifolia*, in the branches
255 and roots of *B. retama*, in the leaves and stem of *P. tetracantha*, and in stem of *P. flexuosa* where Cu and
256 Zn reach concentrations of 123-461 mg kg⁻¹ of Cu and 82-1331 mg kg⁻¹ of Zn (Fig. 4). Additionally, the
257 cortex of *P. flexuosa* accumulated up to 371 mg kg⁻¹ of As (p<0.001). In all four species Cd was the least
258 concentrated metal(loid).

259

260 3.6 Bioaccumulation and Translocation Factors

261 All four studied species presented BAF and TF values greater than one, with variations depending
262 on the vegetative organ (Table 5). Significant differences in the BAF values between metal(loid)s (p<0.001)
263 were observed in *L. cuneifolia* reaching a value of up to 6.7 for Cu in the leaves. For the same species, the
264 TF was also greater than one and significant differences were observed between metal(loid)s (p<0.001), the
265 highest value being Zn (6.3). For *B. retama*, Cu was the only metal that had BAF values lower than one in
266 the photosynthetic branches and stem, with statistically significant differences between metal(loid)s
267 (p<0.001). The TF was greater than one for As, Cu and Zn in both organs, without statistically significant
268 differences (p>0.05). The values of BAF in *P. tetracantha* did not show statistically significant differences
269 between metal(loid)s, reaching values greater than one for Cu and Cd in all vegetative organs and for As
270 and Zn only in the leaves and roots. For this species, TF values greater than one were only found for As
271 and Zn in the leaves, but no statistically significant differences were observed between metal(loid)s
272 (p>0.05). *P. flexuosa* showed BAF values greater than one for Cu, Cd and Zn (p<0.001), while TF showed
273 values greater than one for all four metal(loid)s in the leaves and cortex (p>0.05).

274

275 *Insert Table 5*

276

277 4. Discussion

278 Based on the results obtained in our study, the town of La Planta is contaminated with at least Cu,
279 Cd, Zn and As as a by-product of waste from an abandoned gold mine. The presence of these metal(loid)s
280 is considered a health liability because they are hazardous to humans and persist in the environment (Lee
281 et al., 2006; Li et al., 2014; Ozden et al., 2018). The concentrations of metal(loid)s reported in our study
282 not only exceed the established guideline levels for residential and agricultural use in Argentina, but also
283 those set for other countries, such as Canada. The values of the Igeo, CF and Cdeg obtained for the four
284 metal(loid)s in the non-rhizospheric soil samples from Site 1 correspond to the highest contamination
285 categories. The Igeo values in the rhizospheric soil, however, vary between the moderately to strongly
286 contaminated categories. These results are similar to, and in some cases higher than, those reported in other
287 studies such as those found in an abandoned As mine in China (Ran et al., 2021) and an Ag mine in Peru
288 (Cruzado-Tafur et al., 2021). Even when the values of CF and Cdeg for the rhizospheric soil corresponded
289 to the highest contamination categories, they are still lower than those reported in the non-rhizospheric soil.
290 Nevertheless, the values obtained in this study indicate a very high grade of contamination in the soil in La
291 Planta with and without vegetation.

292 The accumulation of mining waste has acidified the soil and reduced the nutrient content in the
293 contaminated site. Similar results were found in other mining areas worldwide, such as those reported for
294 Ag ore deposits in Argentina (Kirschbaum et al., 2012) and Peru (Cruzado-Tafur et al., 2021), and Cu mines
295 in China (Wang et al., 2019) and Brazil (Alfonso et al., 2020). Soil polluted by environmental mining
296 liabilities causes toxicity to plants, giving origin to large extensions of bare soil. In La Planta we found
297 higher total concentration of metal(loid)s than those reported in similar cases. For instance, the maximum
298 values of Zn and Cd recorded in a small-scale gold mine in Nigeria were 286 and 3 mg kg⁻¹, respectively,
299 in comparison with 7122.6 mg kg⁻¹ of Zn and 75.9 mg kg⁻¹ of Cd, found in the non-rhizospheric soil in this
300 study (Okonkwo et al., 2021). However, the concentration of Cu in the rhizospheric and non-rhizospheric
301 soil was similar to those reported in studies conducted in Cu mines (Afonso et al., 2020; Wang et al., 2021;
302 Wu et al., 2021).

303 Soil acidity triggers the release of metal(loid)s from soil particles, which result in a negative
304 correlation between their availability and the pH value (Rosselli et al., 2003). However, we only found a
305 negative correlation between the pH and the mobilizable fractions of As and Zn. Availability depends on
306 certain soil characteristics, such as the OM content and the presence of salts like calcium carbonate, that
307 increase adsorption and diminish availability (Wenzel, 2012). Even though As was the second most
308 concentrated element in both the rhizospheric and non-rhizospheric soil, the mobilizable and soluble
309 fractions were less than 10% of the total fraction. Authors demonstrated the time-dependent metal
310 availability in soil, which is higher in recently contaminated soil (Wijayawardena et al., 2015). This process,
311 called aging, is the result of the decrease in the available fraction of metal causing stronger adsorption to
312 the soil particles. On the other hand, it has been shown that the availability of As is limited with the presence
313 of Fe (iron) (Wenzel, 2012). In a preliminary study carried out in the town of La Planta, they recorded 3740
314 mg kg⁻¹ of Fe. This could explain the low availability of As, due to the adsorption by this element to Fe.

315 Despite the extreme conditions present in the studied site, some plant species are adapted to this
316 hostile environment and successfully completed their life cycle. Although several species have been
317 previously identified as capable of remediating soils contaminated by mining waste (Afonso et al., 2020),
318 native plants growing in contaminated sites are strong potential candidates for phytoremediation (Cruzado-
319 Tafur et al., 2021; Marchiol et al., 2013). Native species have an advantage for survival, growth and
320 reproduction due to their adaptation to local climate conditions (Gajić et al., 2018). Authors have reported
321 the use of Argentine native species from the Monte phytogeographic region for the restoration of
322 environments impacted by mining activity (Dalmaso, 2010), including *Prosopis flexuosa* which was used
323 for reforestation of an area contaminated by hydrocarbons and had a survival rate higher than 75%. The
324 adaptations of native species to stressful conditions, such as salinity, water deficit, among others, allow
325 them to face the challenges presented by the environments to be remediated, beyond the presence of
326 metal(loid)s. Their extensive roots allow them to reach a greater exploration of the soil and accumulate
327 metal(loid)s in their different organs.

328 The highest concentrations of metal(loid)s were found in leaves and roots. Candra et al. (2017) also
329 reported that the leaves and roots of shrub species are the principal accumulating organs. High
330 concentrations of Zn and Cu were found in the vegetative organs for all four species. These metals are
331 essential micronutrients for plants that contribute to their development and metabolism, and form part of
332 many regulatory enzymes and proteins (Ghori et al., 2019; Mengel and Kirkby, 1987). However, high
333 concentrations of Zn and Cu can alter the metabolism in plants (Guo et al., 2020). The species evaluated in
334 our study achieved reproduction despite the high concentrations of metal(loid)s. Therefore, future studies
335 could investigate the physiological and epigenetic mechanisms underlying adaptation to this polluted
336 environment.

337 The concentrations of Cu found in all four species were more than three times those concentrations
338 accumulated in two species of trees, *Pinnus massoniana* and *Pinus Yunnanensis*, that were found to grow
339 in soil contaminated with mining waste (Wang et al., 2019). These authors reported higher Cu
340 concentrations in the aerial organs of the pine species than in the roots, and were similar to those found in
341 the tree and shrub species studied here. In contrast, other species such as *Baccharis dracunculifolia*
342 previously used for phytoremediation accumulate Cu only in the roots (Afonso et al., 2020). In comparison
343 with this species, the plants used in our study translocated Cu highlighting their capacity for
344 phytoextraction.

345 Zn was the most concentrated metal in the soil and vegetative organs for all four species studied.
346 Shrub species like *Baccharis amdatensis* that grow in soil with concentrations of Zn between 58 and 18,610
347 mg kg⁻¹ can accumulate more than 2,000 mg kg⁻¹ in the leaves (Bech et al., 2017), a value close to what
348 we found in the cortex and roots of *P. flexuosa*.

349 After Zn, As was the most concentrated metal(loid) in the soil but the second least accumulated in
350 the plants. Although no function of As has been identified in plants, some tree species may accumulate up
351 to 43.1 mg kg⁻¹, such as *Azadirachta indica* and *Tectona grandis* (Patel et al., 2015). We found
352 concentrations of As up to 370.5 mg kg⁻¹, which are higher than those reported for other species used in
353 phytoremediation.

354 Cd also does not seem to have any biological function in plants. In our study, Cd was the least
355 concentrated metal(loid) in the soil and plants. The low bioaccumulation of this metal could be attributable
356 to the limited absorption of Cd by high concentrations of Zn, according to Zhou et al. (2019). Furthermore,
357 it was observed that the presence of Zn coincided with a decrease in the toxicity of Cd in wheat crops as
358 the elements compete for membrane transports (Hart et al., 2002; Zhou et al., 2019).

359 BAF and TF are used to determine the bioaccumulation capacity of plants, which indicate the
360 phytoremediation efficiency (Cioica et al., 2019). Several authors propose that species with BAF and TF
361 values greater than one could be used for phytoextraction and those with $BAF > 1$ and $TF < 1$ can be used for
362 phytostabilization (Buscaroli, 2017; Yang et al., 2015). The species evaluated in our study showed BAF
363 and TF values greater than one for all four metal(loid)s, although low concentrations of Cd and As were
364 found in some of the vegetative organs. Plants can use several mechanisms to reduce toxicity triggered by
365 metal(loid)s, such as amino acids, glutathione, phytochelatins, metallothioneins and involve enzymes such
366 as superoxide dismutase and peroxide (Ghori et al., 2019; Shang et al., 2020). Plants that employ these
367 mechanisms survive in environments with high concentrations of metal(loid)s (Pandey et al., 2016; Wu et
368 al., 2021).

369 In summary, the acid pH and the high concentrations of metal(loid)s produced by mining waste in
370 La Planta demonstrate as need to implement remediation strategies. Future actions could be taken to
371 improve the soil quality by increasing the pH and decreasing the availability of metal(loid)s, creating
372 conditions that encourage microbial diversity and plant growth. Additionally, we specifically recommend
373 the use of *P. flexuosa*, *B. retama*, *L. cuneifolia* and *P. tetraacantha* for phytoremediation due to their
374 metal(loid)s bioaccumulation capacity. The bioaccumulation potential shown by the species evaluated in
375 the present study allows us to think about the application of remediation strategies aimed at environmental
376 restoration. The capabilities of each species could act synergistically allowing not only the effective soil
377 decontamination, but also improving the environmental conditions, thus promoting the installation of new
378 species. Further studies should focus on the physiological, biochemical and epigenetics mechanisms
379 underlying the phytoextraction of metal(loid)s in this highly polluted environment.

380

381 **5. Conclusions**

382 A small scale gold mine, as a consequence of the lack of implementation of mitigation measures,
383 has polluted the soil in La Planta town with mining waste, characterized by low pH values, high
384 concentrations of Cu, Cd, Zn and As, and salinity. The highest categories of the contamination indexes
385 were found in the non-rhizospheric soil in the following order: As>Cd>Zn>Cu and to a lesser extent in the
386 rhizospheric soil. The concentration of metal(loid)s in the soil exceed the guideline levels for residential
387 and agricultural areas in different countries (e.g., Argentina and Canada).

388 We identify *P. tetracantha*, *L. cuneifolia* and *P. flexuosa* as bioaccumulators of As; all four species
389 as bioaccumulators of Cu; *P. tetracantha* as the only bioaccumulator of Cd; and *P. flexuosa*, *P. tetracantha*
390 and *L. cuneifolia* as bioaccumulators of Zn. The adaptations of these tree and shrub species allow them to
391 survive the adverse environmental conditions of the arid and semi-arid ecosystems, such as limited rainfall,
392 high temperatures, and poorly developed soils. These characteristics and the different phytoextraction
393 capacities presented by the four species should be taken advantage of in phytoremediation strategies, as
394 they contribute to the ecological restoration of the system. The presence of vegetation would prevent the
395 spread of pollutants by different erosive agents. These plants also provide ecosystem services and improve
396 soil quality, promoting the growth of new species. Considering that the main subsistence productive activity
397 in the area is extensive goat farming, a complete remediation of the contaminated site would provide an
398 enlarged area available for livestock feed.

399

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409

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Table 1. Physicochemical parameters of rhizospheric and non-rhizospheric soil samples from the contaminated (Site 1) and reference site (Site 2).

| | Site 1 | | | | | Site 2 |
|-------------------------------------|-----------------------|-------------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|
| | Non-rhizospheric soil | Rhizospheric soil | | | | |
| | | <i>Lc</i> | <i>Br</i> | <i>Pt</i> | <i>Pf</i> | |
| EC (mS cm⁻¹) | 41.2 | 5.9 | 28.9 | 14.6 | 27.9 | 5.4 |
| pH | 2.6 | 7.2 | 3.7 | 4.4 | 2.0 | 7.5 |
| Cations [mg kg⁻¹] | | | | | | |
| Ca⁺² | nd | 418.8 | 124.3 | 186.4 | nd | 1787.6 |
| Mg⁺² | nd | 383.0 | 3167.7 | 681.0 | 1095.3 | 73.0 |
| Na⁺ | 128.8 | 662.4 | 430.1 | 1078.7 | 719.9 | 4046.8 |
| SAR | 757.2 | 5.2 | 2.9 | 7.8 | 4.1 | 281.3 |
| Anions [mg kg⁻¹] | | | | | | |
| HCO₃⁻ | 13538.1 | 176.9 | 73.2 | 54.9 | nd | 12226.4 |
| Cl⁻ | 18981.7 | 719.8 | 4531.8 | 2563.8 | 2624.04 | 2801.3 |
| SO₄⁻² | nd | 2780.9 | 8525.3 | 1873.2 | 2305.4 | 96.06 |
| N [mg kg⁻¹] | 256.0 | 268.8 | 355 | 297.0 | 361.8 | 241.0 |
| P [mg kg⁻¹] | 6.0 | 20.0 | 13.3 | 16.7 | 12.3 | 46.0 |
| K [mg kg⁻¹] | 34.0 | 90.7 | 65.7 | 71.33 | 21.0 | 160.0 |
| OM [%] | 0.99 | 0.7 | 1.2 | 0.8 | 1.0 | 0.2 |
| C/N | 22.0 | 15.8 | 13.1 | 15.6 | 16.2 | 4.0 |
| Texture | sandy loam | loam sandy | loam sandy | loam sandy | loam sandy | sandy loam |

Lc: *Larrea cuneifolia*, *Br*: *Bulnesia retama*, *Pt*: *Plectrocarpa tetracantha*, *Pf*: *Prosopis flexuosa*

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Table 2. Mean (\pm SD) total, mobilizable and soluble concentration of metal(loid)s in soil (mg kg^{-1}).

| | Site 1 | | | | Site 2 | Guideline Values | | | | |
|--------------------------------|----------------------------------|--------------------------------|---------------------------------|---------------------------------|--------------------------------|-------------------------------|--------------------|--------------------|--------------------|--------------------|
| | non-rhizospheric soil | Rhizospheric soil | | | | Residential use | Agricultural use | | | |
| | | <i>L. cuneifolia</i> | <i>B. retama</i> | <i>P. tetraacantha</i> | | | | | <i>P. flexuosa</i> | |
| Total metal(loid) | | | | | | | | | | |
| As | 6516.3 \pm 3136.4 ^a | 23.5 \pm 7.2 ^{cd} | 188.9 \pm 173.7 ^{bc} | 164.6 \pm 196.9 ^{bc} | 344.7 \pm 174.1 ^b | 20.3 \pm 14.02 ^d | 30 ⁽¹⁾ | 12 ⁽²⁾ | 20 ⁽¹⁾ | 12 ⁽²⁾ |
| Cu | 239.5 \pm 137.7 ^a | 71.2 \pm 18.3 ^{ab} | 82.3 \pm 48.6 ^{ab} | 36.2 \pm 48.2 ^{bc} | 12.2 \pm 7 ^c | 17.7 \pm 6.0 ^{bc} | 100 ⁽¹⁾ | 63 ⁽²⁾ | 150 ⁽¹⁾ | 63 ⁽²⁾ |
| Cd | 75.9 \pm 61.8 ^a | 20.1 \pm 16.4 ^a | 34.6 \pm 13 ^a | 21.0 \pm 16.5 ^a | 26.6 \pm 18.7 ^a | 0.8 \pm 0.7 ^b | 5 ⁽¹⁾ | 10 ⁽²⁾ | 3 ⁽¹⁾ | 1.4 ⁽²⁾ |
| Zn | 7122.6 \pm 6102.3 ^a | 337.3 \pm 184.2 ^b | 450.6 \pm 92.6 ^b | 278.3 \pm 214.8 ^{bc} | 323.5 \pm 295.6 ^c | 78.2 \pm 84.9 ^c | 500 ⁽¹⁾ | 200 ⁽²⁾ | 600 ⁽¹⁾ | 200 ⁽²⁾ |
| Mobilizable metal(loid) | | | | | | | | | | |
| As | 464.4 \pm 467.6 ^a | nd | 0.03 \pm 0.04 ^c | nd | 0.01 \pm 0.01 ^c | 2.4 \pm 1.8 ^b | | | | |
| Cu | 91.2 \pm 85.2 ^a | 0.010 \pm 0.003 ^c | 0.04 \pm 0.06 ^c | 0.01 \pm 0.01 ^c | 0.02 \pm 0.01 ^c | 2.4 \pm 2.1 ^b | | | | |
| Cd | 28.9 \pm 25.7 ^a | 0.002 \pm 0.002 ^c | 0.012 \pm 0.004 ^c | 0.002 \pm 0.001 ^c | 0.02 \pm 0.01 ^c | 0.3 \pm 0.3 ^b | | | | |
| Zn | 1511.7 \pm 966.0 ^a | 0.1 \pm 0.1 ^c | 1.1 \pm 0.9 ^{bc} | 0.3 \pm 0.1 ^c | 1.9 \pm 1.7 ^c | 28.3 \pm 11.7 ^b | | | | |
| Soluble metal(loid) | | | | | | | | | | |
| As | 16.1 \pm 8.3 ^a | 0.003 \pm 0.003 ^b | 0.02 \pm 0.02 ^b | 0.010 \pm 0.002 ^b | 0.01 \pm 0.01 ^b | nd | | | | |
| Cu | 83.8 \pm 84.1 ^a | 0.001 \pm 0.001 ^c | 0.04 \pm 0.06 ^b | 0.01 \pm 0.01 ^{bc} | 0.02 \pm 0.02 ^b | nd | | | | |
| Cd | 34.9 \pm 26.3 ^a | 0.001 \pm 0.001 ^b | 0.070 \pm 0.003 ^b | 0.004 \pm 0.004 ^b | 0.02 \pm 0.02 ^b | nd | | | | |
| Zn | 2152.5 \pm 940.0 ^a | 0.01 \pm 0.01 ^d | 0.8 \pm 0.8 ^{bc} | 0.3 \pm 0.5 ^{cd} | 2.1 \pm 2.8 ^{bc} | 3.1 \pm 2.4 ^b | | | | |

Different letters indicate significant differences ($p < 0.001$) between soil samples. References used as guide values: 1) Argentine Law 24051, 2) SQGE: Soil quality guideline for environmental health established by the Canadian Council of Ministers of the Environment (CCME). nd = not detected.

Table 3. Mean (\pm SD) of the Geoaccumulation Index in samples of rhizospheric and non-rhizospheric soil.

| Soil | I_{geo} | | | |
|----------------------|----------------|---------------|----------------|---------------|
| | As | Cd | Cu | Zn |
| Rhizospheric | | | | |
| <i>L. cuneifolia</i> | -0.4 \pm 0.5 | 3.6 \pm 1.5 | 1.4 \pm 0.4 | 1.3 \pm 0.9 |
| <i>B. retama</i> | 2.0 \pm 1.7 | 4.8 \pm 0.6 | 1.1 \pm 1.7 | 1.9 \pm 0.3 |
| <i>P. tetracanta</i> | 1.6 \pm 2.0 | 3.7 \pm 1.6 | -0.6 \pm 2.1 | 0.9 \pm 0.2 |
| <i>P. flexuosa</i> | 3.3 \pm 0.9 | 4.2 \pm 1.0 | -1.3 \pm 0.9 | 0.9 \pm 1.2 |
| Non-rhizospheric | | | | |
| | 7.6 \pm 0.7 | 5.7 \pm 0.9 | 3.0 \pm 0.7 | 5.5 \pm 1.1 |

References: $I_{geo} \leq 0$: class 1, “practically unpolluted”; $0 < I_{geo} < 1$: class 2, “unpolluted to moderately polluted”; $1 < I_{geo} < 2$: class 3, “moderately polluted”; $2 < I_{geo} < 3$: class 4, “moderately to strongly polluted”; $3 < I_{geo} < 4$: class 5, “strongly polluted”; $4 < I_{geo} < 5$: class 6, “strongly to very strongly polluted”; $I_{geo} > 5$: class 7, “very strongly polluted”, according to Förstner et al. (1990).

Table 4. Mean (\pm SD) of Contamination Factor (CF) per metal(loid) for rhizospheric soil of the four species and soil without vegetation, and the Degree of Contamination (DC).

| Soil | Contamination Factor | | | | Degree of Contamination |
|----------------------|----------------------|-----------------|----------------|-----------------|-------------------------|
| | As | Cd | Cu | Zn | |
| Rhizospheric soil | | | | | |
| <i>L. cuneifolia</i> | 1.2 \pm 0.4 | 25.2 \pm 20.6 | 4.0 \pm 1.0 | 4.3 \pm 2.4 | 34.7 \pm 11.1 |
| <i>B. retama</i> | 9.3 \pm 8.6 | 43.4 \pm 16.3 | 4.7 \pm 2.8 | 5.8 \pm 1.2 | 63.1 \pm 18.5 |
| <i>P. tetraantha</i> | 8.1 \pm 9.7 | 26.3 \pm 20.7 | 2.0 \pm 2.7 | 3.6 \pm 2.8 | 40.0 \pm 11.2 |
| <i>P. flexuosa</i> | 17.0 \pm 8.6 | 33.4 \pm 23.6 | 0.7 \pm 0.4 | 4.1 \pm 3.8 | 55.2 \pm 14.8 |
| Non-rhizospheric | 321.1 \pm 154.6 | 95.3 \pm 77.5 | 13.5 \pm 7.8 | 91.1 \pm 78.0 | 521.0 \pm 132.7 |

References: CF<1: low contamination factor; 1 \leq CF<3: moderate contamination factor, 3 \leq CF<6 high contamination factor, CF \geq 6 very high contamination factor, according to Hakanson (1980). DC< 6 low degree of contamination, 6 \leq DC<12 moderate degree of contamination, 12 \leq DC<24 high degree of contamination, DC \geq 24 very high degree of contamination, according to Hakanson (1980).

Table 5. Mean (\pm SD) of Bioaccumulation Factor (BAF) and Translocation Factor (TF), obtained for the different vegetative organs of the four species studied.

| Species | Organ | As | | Cu | | Cd | | Zn | |
|------------------------|--------|----------------------------|----------------------------|------------------------------|----------------------------|------------------------------|----------------------------|-----------------------------|----------------------------|
| | | BAF | TF | BAF | TF | BAF | TF | BAF | TF |
| <i>L. cuneifolia</i> | Leaves | 1.1 \pm 0.7 ^b | 2.4 \pm 1.6 ^b | 6.7 \pm 1.6 ^a | 1.6 \pm 0.2 ^b | 0.2 \pm 0.2 ^b | 1.4 \pm 1.0 ^b | 0.7 \pm 0.6 ^b | 6.3 \pm 2.0 ^a |
| | Stem | 0.6 \pm 0.4 ^b | 1.4 \pm 0.7 | 4.9 \pm 1.1 ^a | 1.1 \pm 0.1 | 0.1 \pm 0.1 ^b | 1.3 \pm 1.1 | 0.2 \pm 0.1 ^b | 1.8 \pm 0.7 |
| | Root | 0.4 \pm 0.2 ^b | | 4.3 \pm 1.2 ^a | | 0.2 \pm 0.2 ^b | | 0.1 \pm 0.1 ^b | |
| <i>B. retama</i> | Branch | 0.3 \pm 0.2 ^b | 1.2 \pm 0.3 ^a | 1.4 \pm 0.1 ^a | 1.6 \pm 0.2 ^a | 0.04 \pm 0.01 ^b | 0.4 \pm 0.3 ^a | 0.1 \pm 0.04 ^b | 2.1 \pm 2.9 ^a |
| | Stem | 0.3 \pm 0.2 ^b | 1.5 \pm 0.2 ^a | 1.1 \pm 0.2 ^a | 1.1 \pm 0.3 ^a | 0.2 \pm 0.2 ^b | 0.6 \pm 0.4 ^a | 0.1 \pm 0.05 ^b | 2.2 \pm 3.0 ^a |
| | Root | 0.2 \pm 0.2 ^b | | 0.8 \pm 0.1 ^a | | 0.2 \pm 0.2 ^b | | 0.2 \pm 0.1 ^b | |
| <i>P. tetraacantha</i> | Leaves | 1.2 \pm 1.1 ^a | 1.5 \pm 1.0 ^a | 7.0 \pm 5.4 ^a | 0.7 \pm 0.2 ^a | 2.4 \pm 4.0 ^a | 0.8 \pm 0.6 ^a | 2.4 \pm 2.2 ^a | 4.7 \pm 5.8 ^a |
| | Stem | 0.4 \pm 0.3 ^a | 0.5 \pm 0.4 ^a | 8.2 \pm 9.0 ^a | 0.7 \pm 0.3 ^a | 2.4 \pm 4.0 ^a | 0.6 \pm 0.5 ^a | 0.5 \pm 0.6 ^a | 0.6 \pm 0.6 ^a |
| | Root | 1.4 \pm 1.9 ^a | | 11.6 \pm 10.1 ^a | | 3.1 \pm 3.5 ^a | | 1.6 \pm 1.9 ^a | |
| <i>P. flexuosa</i> | Leaves | 0.2 \pm 0.1 ^b | 0.7 \pm 0.7 ^a | 10.6 \pm 6.1 ^a | 1.2 \pm 0.5 ^a | 0.2 \pm 0.2 ^b | 1.1 \pm 1.2 ^a | 1.4 \pm 1.3 ^b | 1.3 \pm 1.3 ^a |
| | Stem | 0.1 \pm 0.1 ^b | 0.5 \pm 0.3 ^a | 6.7 \pm 3.2 ^a | 0.8 \pm 0.4 ^a | 0.2 \pm 0.1 ^b | 1.7 \pm 2.5 ^a | 0.9 \pm 0.7 ^b | 1.2 \pm 1.6 ^a |
| | Cortex | 1.2 \pm 0.4 ^c | 4.3 \pm 3.8 ^a | 14.6 \pm 3.7 ^a | 2.0 \pm 1.2 ^a | 0.5 \pm 0.1 ^d | 2.8 \pm 2.7 ^a | 4.4 \pm 0.6 ^b | 4.6 \pm 5.3 ^a |
| | Root | 0.6 \pm 0.7 ^b | | 8.8 \pm 4.6 ^a | | 0.3 \pm 0.2 ^b | | 2.5 \pm 2.3 ^{ab} | |

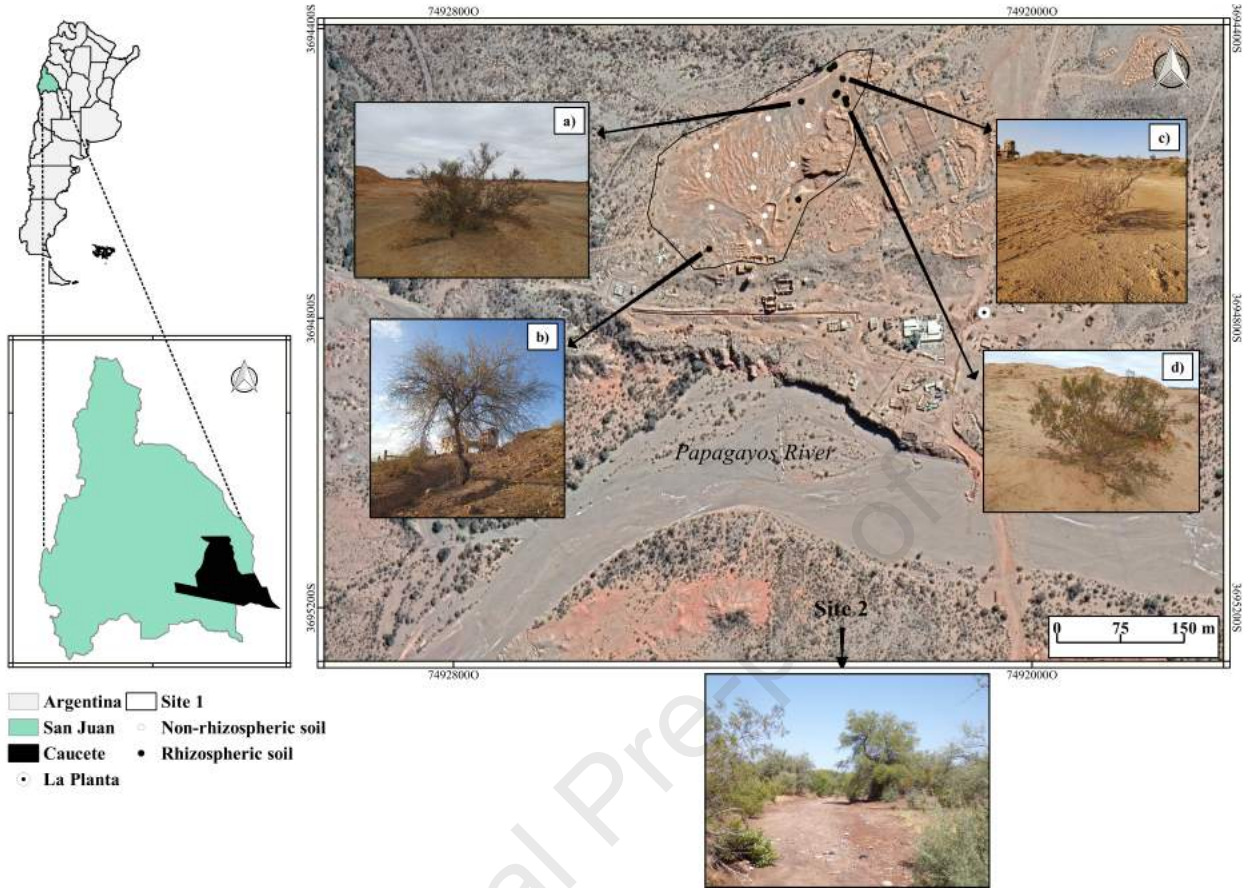
Different letters indicate significant differences ($p < 0.001$) between metal(loid)s.

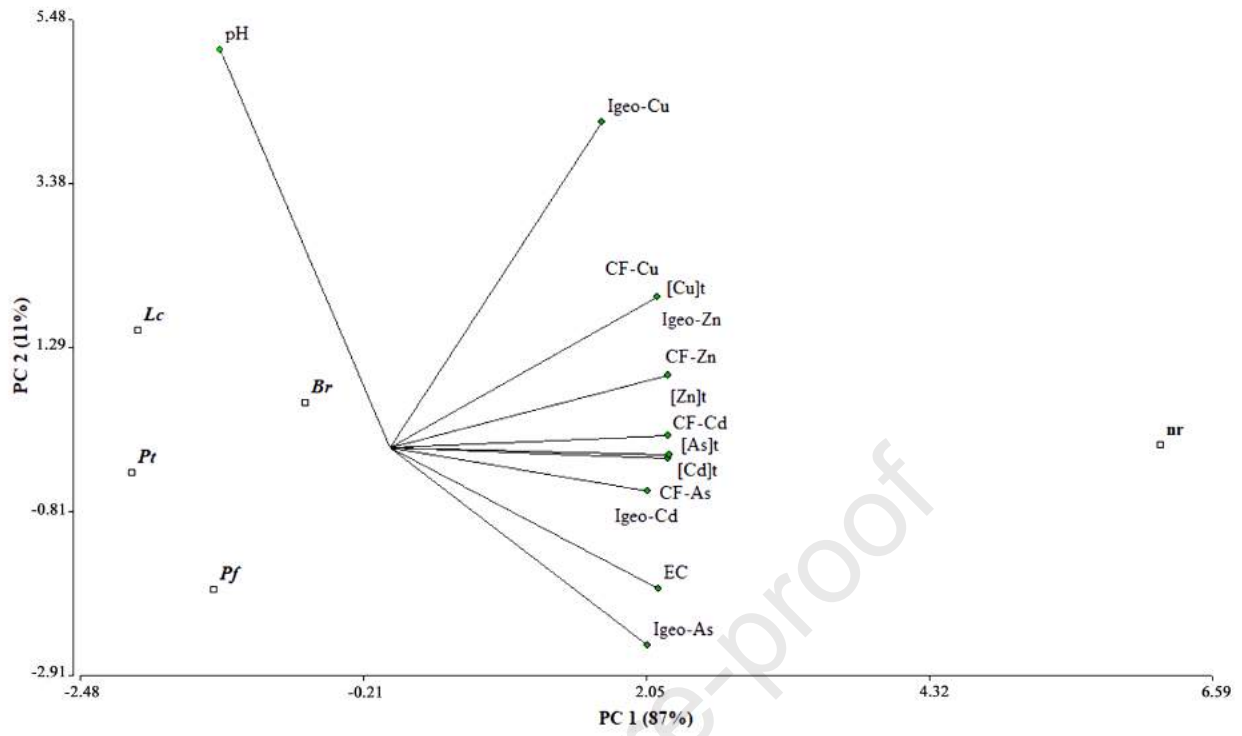
Figure 1. Study area located in La Planta, San Juan, Argentina. Site 1: soil with mining waste, and Site 2: reference soil. a) *Bulnesia retama*, b) *Prosopis flexuosa*, c) *Plectrocarpa tetracantha*, d) *Larrea cuneifolia*.

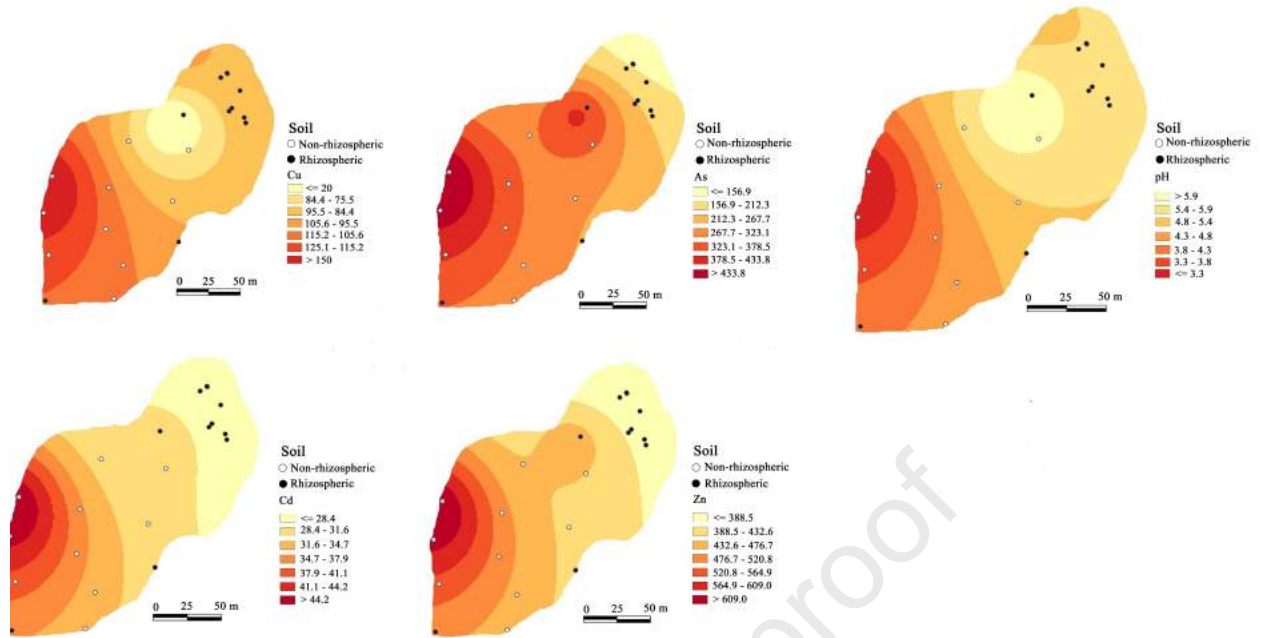
Figure 2. Principal component analysis of the variables measured in soil (Site 1). Nr: Non-rhizospheric, Lc: *Larrea cuneifolia*, Br: *Bulnesia retama*, Pt: *Plectrocarpa tetracantha*, Pf: *Prosopis flexuosa*, Igeo: Geoaccumulation Index, CF: Contamination Factor, [As]t: total concentration of As, [Cu]t: total concentration of Cu, [Cd]t: total concentration of Cd, [Zn]t: total concentration of Zn.

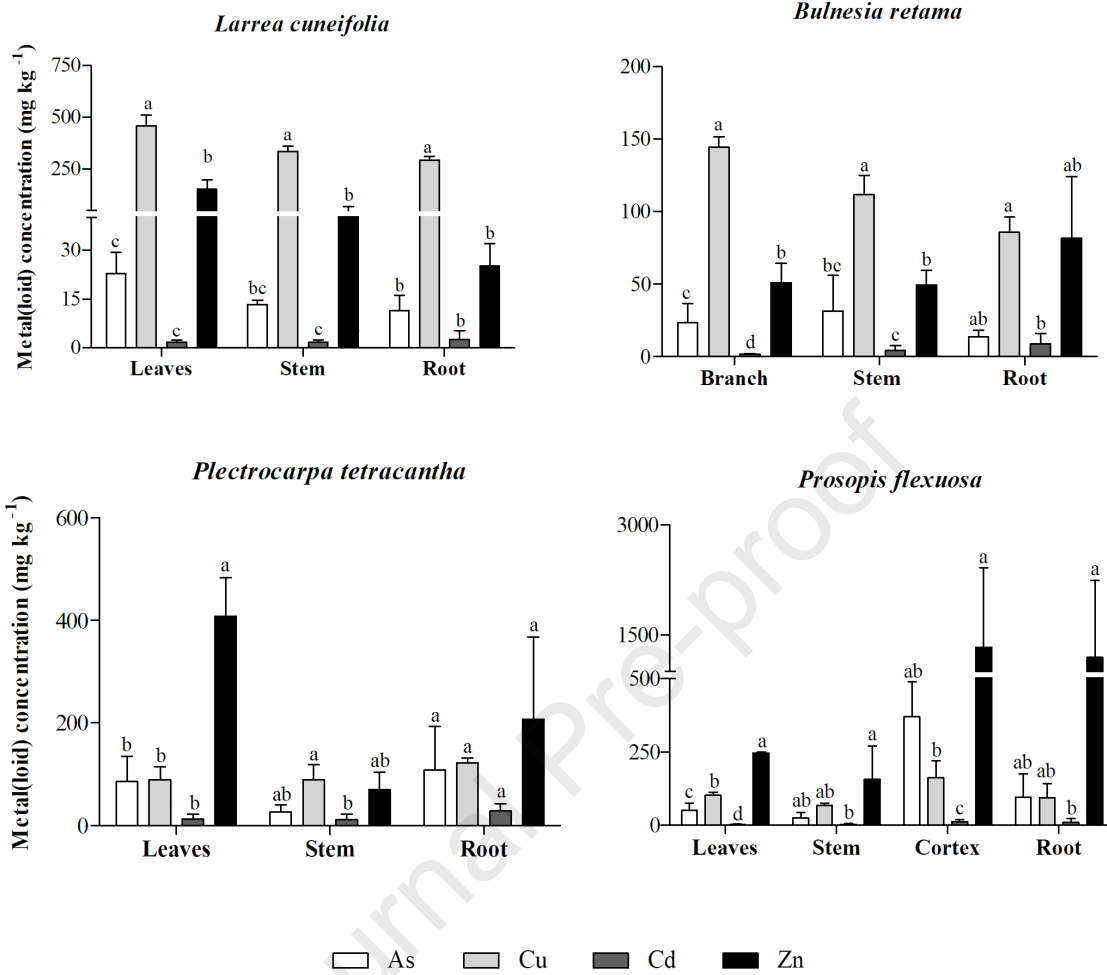
Figure 3. Spatial interpolation of the metal(loid) concentration in rhizospheric and non-rhizospheric soil at Site 1.

Figure 4. Mean concentration (\pm SD) of metal(loid)s in vegetative organs. Different letters indicate significant differences ($p < 0.001$) between metal(loid)s. Bars represent standard deviation.









Highlights

- Mining waste caused acidification and high accumulation of metal(loid)s in soil.
- The presence of vegetation decreases the available fractions of metal(loid)s.
- *P. tetraacantha* is a potential hyper-accumulator of Cd.
- Roots and cortex of *P. flexuosa* presented the highest concentration of Zn and As.
- The four native species could be used in remediation plans for contaminated soil.

Journal Pre-proof

Declaration of interests

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

The authors declare the following financial interests/personal relationships which may be considered as potential competing interests:

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