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1	The tolerance of growth and clonal propagation of Phragmites australis
2	(common reeds) subjected to lead contamination under elevated CO_2
3	condition
4	Na Zhang ¹ , Jixiang Lin (Co-first author) ² , Yuheng Yang ¹ , Zhuolin Li ³ , Ying Wang ⁴ ,
5	Luyao Cheng ¹ , Yujie Shi ¹ , Yuting Zhang ¹ , Junfeng Wang ¹ & Chunsheng Mu ^{1*}
6	¹ Key Laboratory of Vegetation Ecology, Ministry of Education, Institute of Grassland
7	Science, Northeast Normal University, Changchun 130024, China.
8	² Key laboratory of Saline-alkali Vegetation Ecology Restoration in Oil Field Ministry
9	of Education, Alkali Soil Nature Environmental Science Center, Northeast Forestry
10	University, Harbin 150040, China.
11	³ Department of Environmental Science, East China Normal University, Shanghai
12	200241, China
13	⁴ Key Laboratory of Songliao Aquatic Environment, Ministry of Education, Jilin
14	Jianzhu University, Changchun 130118, China.
15	
16	* Corresponding author
17	Chunsheng Mu
18	Key Laboratory of Vegetation Ecology, Ministry of Education, Institute of Grassland
19	Science, Northeast Normal University, Changchun 130024, China.
20	Tel: +86 431 85098113
21	Fax: +86 431 85687517
22	Email: mucs821@nenu.edu.cn (CSM)

23 ABSTRACT

Phragmites australis is a rhizomatous perennial plant with extensive distribution and 24 25 tolerance. To explore plant growth and clonal propagative tolerance to lead 26 contamination under elevated CO₂, they were exposed to combinations of five Pb levels (0, 300, 500, 1500, 3000 mg kg⁻¹) and two CO₂ concentrations (380 ± 20 and 27 $760 \pm 20 \ \mu \text{ mol mol}^{-1}$) in phytotron. Biomass, photosynthetic parameters and rhizome 28 29 growth were significantly inhibited, while number of axillary shoot buds and daughter 30 apical rhizome shoots were increased by Pb additions. ~80% of daughter shoots was 31 from daughter axillary shoots, representing a phalanx growth pattern. Under elevated CO₂, photosynthetic parameters (excluding stomatal conductance and transpiration 32 rate), growth of clonal modules were increased, facilitating plant biomass 33 34 accumulation, phalanx growth and spreading strategy. The results suggest that 35 elevated CO₂ might improve growth and clonal propagative resistance to Pb contamination through increasing photosynthetic, phalanx growth and population 36 expansion of *Phrgagmites australis*. 37

38 Keywords: Phragmites australis; Elevated CO2; Pb contamination; Biomass;

- 39 Photosynthesis; Clonal propagation
- 40
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45 Introduction

Due to deforestation and sustained use of fossil fuels, the concentration of 46 atmospheric CO₂ has increased from pre-industrial levels of 280 ppm to 47 approximately 380 ppm, and is predicted to be possibly doubled by the end of the 21st 48 century.^{1,2} Elevated CO₂ generally causes reduction in stomatal conductance (g_s) and 49 transpiration rate (E), but increases water use efficiency (WUE) and net 50 photosynthetic rate (P_n) .^{3,4,5} However, it has been ambiguous about the results 51 regarding effects of elevated CO₂ on plant biomass allocation. Numerous researches 52 have demonstrated that elevated CO₂ leads to increased photosynthetic production 53 54 allocation to roots by increase in branched root systems, which may stimulate water and nutrient absorption by plant.^{6,7,8} Inversely, some scholars have suggested that 55 elevated CO₂ promotes biomass accumulation in stems and leaves instead of root 56 systems.⁹ 57

In recent decades, heavy metals contaminations have been a serious problem 58 59 around the world. The levels of heavy metal contaminations in soils range from trace to as high as 100,000 mg kg^{-1.10} Among the heavy metal-contaminated soils, lead (Pb) 60 is one of the most toxic ones and its phytotoxicity may cause a wide range of adverse 61 62 effects on the plant growth and physiology. Photosynthesis is considered as one of the 63 most sensitive metabolic processes to Pb toxicity. Substantial literatures have shown that the reasons for inhibitory effects of Pb on photosynthesis include stamotal closure, 64 damaged chloroplast ultrastructural organization, restrained synthesis of chlorophyll, 65 obstructed electron transport, and inhibited activities of Calvin cycle enzymes.^{11,12} 66

67 Such changes of key processes may eventually lead to an inhibition in plant growth and biomass production.¹³ It is noteworthy that, under global elevated CO₂ scenario, 68 69 the effects of heavy metals on the plant physiology, growth and development may alter. Elevated CO₂ has been shown to alleviate the adverse damage induced by metals 70 71 through increasing antioxidant enzyme activity and photosynthesis, which increases biomass accumulation.^{14,15,16} Biomass accumulation exhibits plant growth, but 72 73 biomass allocation is an important strategy that is used to maintain and extend plant population and to fight against stress or bad environment.^{17,18,19} Therefore, it is 74 necessary to focus on biomass allocation of plants subjected to heavy metals under 75 76 atmosphere elevated CO₂ scenario, and on what the causes of that biomass changes could be. 77

78 The above-ground shoots origin from below-ground bud bank for perennial plants that have predominantly clonal reproduction. The best strategy to resist various 79 disturbances is that they can produce more ramets (daughter shoots) through clonal 80 propagation or below-ground bud bank to increase plant productivity.^{20,21,22} Zhang et 81 82 al. (2015)²³ regarded that the *Phragmites australis* in well-watered environment had 83 stronger clonal propagative ability, exhibiting in more number of buds and daughter 84 shoots. Several scholars have studied effects of elevated CO_2 on the plant clonal growth, and they found that elevated CO₂ improved vegetative propagative ability 85 through enhancing rhizome elongation and growth of tiller ramets.^{24,25} However, lack 86 research attention to data that have focused on the combined impacts of elevated CO_2 87 and heavy metals on below-ground buds or clonal propagation of perennial plants. 88

89	In addition, the heavy metal accumulation in plant organs might be altered by
90	atmosphere elevated CO ₂ . Several literatures have demonstrated that elevated CO ₂ has
91	stimulatory effects on heavy metal accumulation. ^{26,27} Some recent researches however
92	have documented that elevated CO_2 has no effect or reduce heavy metal uptake by
93	plants. ^{14,26} It is so far not agreement on the effects of elevated CO ₂ on heavy metal
94	accumulation of plants.

95 Phragmites australis is a typical rhizomatous perennial plant with high biomass production and phytoremediation ability of heavy metal.^{28,29} Its population expansion 96 mainly depends on clonal propagation (e.g. vegetation tillering and rhizome spread), 97 because seeding establishment occurs rarely in the field.³⁰ It remains unclear and has 98 99 not been reported so far that how P. australis grown in Pb contaminated soil will respond to elevated CO₂ in term of biomass allocation, photosynthesis and clonal 100 101 reproduction. In addition, for soils with pH > 6.5, the toxicity threshold of soil Pb is 500 mg kg⁻¹, according to the environmental quality standard for soil, GB15618-1995, 102 103 issued by the State Environmental Protection Administration of China. Typically, each 104 plant species' tolerance of Pb can be best assessed with toxicity assays across a range of concentrations.³¹ Thus, we designed pot experiments to imitate Pb contamination 105 with a gradient of five Pb concentrations (0, 500, 1000, 1500 and 3000 mg kg⁻¹), and 106 two CO₂ concentrations (380 \pm 20 and 760 \pm 20 μ mol mol⁻¹) in artificial climate 107 108 chambers. The objective of present study is to investigate the tolerance of growth and 109 clonal propagation of P. *australis* exposed to Pb contamination under elevated CO₂, 110 measuring the biomass, photosynthesis and clonal propagation parameters as well as

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Pb accumulation in organs. We hypothesized that (i) elevated CO₂ might promote photosynthesis and change biomass allocation on organs of P. *australis* subjected to Pb contamination; (ii) to adapt to Pb contaminated environment, some clonal reproduction strategy might be adopted by P. *australis* under elevated CO₂ condition

115 (iii) elevated CO₂ might change the Pb translocation or allocation to organs.

116 Materials and methods

117 **Preparation of Pb contaminated soils**

118 Soil for use in the pot experiment was collected from the surface layer (0-20 cm) in 119 grassland near the Northeast Normal University field experiment station, located in 120 Changling County, Jilin Province, China (123° 44'E, 44° 44'N, 167 m a.s.l.). Its total 121 nitrogen (N) was 6.9 %, organic carbon was 0.4 %, pH was 8.6, electric conductivity was 91μ s cm⁻¹, field capacity was 200 g kg⁻¹, and Pb concentration was 5.9 mg kg⁻¹. 122 123 The fresh, collected soil was mixed homogeneously and allowed to air dry. It was then passed through a 1-mm sieve, after which it was divided into 3-kg subsamples. 124 125 Specified concentrations of Pb $(NO_3)_2$ solution (520 ml) were added and thoroughly 126 mixed into the soil subsamples to obtain five levels of Pb contamination: 0, 300, 500, 1500, 3000 mg Pb kg⁻¹. The relative water content of the spiked soils reached 127 128 precisely 70 % of field capacity. The contaminated soil subsamples were transferred 129 into plastic pots (16 cm diameter × 14 cm height). All the soil-filled pots were placed in a room with ventilation in darkness for 45 days (from June 1 to July 15, 2013). At 130 131 the time, a small amount of spiked soils was sampled randomly and analyzed for Pb 132 concentrations. The concentrations of Pb in the artificially contaminated soils was 5.9

133 \pm 0.2, 304 \pm 4.38, 508 \pm 7.89, 1513 \pm 37.28, 3020 \pm 120.41 mg kg⁻¹, respectively,

134 which was very close to the five targeted levels of added Pb.

135 Plant cultures and treatments

136 Seeds of *P. australis* were collected from mature wild plants in a wetland, where is located west of Changchun city, Jilin province, China (125° 1' E, 43° 56' N, 188 m 137 138 a.s.l.). Seeds were sown in plastic tanks ($80 \times 50 \times 30$ cm) that contained 20 cm of 139 humus soil, which was watered daily to keep it moist. The tanks were housed in a greenhouse at 14-24 °C, on the campus of Northeast Normal University, Jilin City, 140 141 China (43° 51'N, 125° 19'E, 236 m a.s.l.). After 50 days had elapsed since sowing 142 (from May 26 to July 15, 2013), uniform plants ~8 cm high, with 3 or 4 leaves, were 143 transplanted into the pots, and then placed in the artificial climate chamber 144 (LT/ACR-2002 Phytotron System, E-Sheng Tech., Beijing, China). Knowing that 145 some weak seedlings were unlikely to survive being transplanted, we initially placed 146 twenty seedlings into each pot, and allowed them to grow for 5 days under weak light. 147 Then, the weakest plants were removed to keep 10 strong seedlings in each pot.

These pots with 10 strong seedlings were placed randomly and equally in two phytotrons. There were five levels of Pb treatments for a total of 30 pots (6 replicated pots per treatment) per phytotron. One phytotron was maintained ambient CO₂ at 380 $\pm 20 \mu$ mol mol⁻¹. The other phytotron was assigned to a doubled level at 760 $\pm 20 \mu$ mol mol⁻¹. The CO₂ was supplied from a steel can and delivered through 0.64 cm tubing, and the concentrations were monitored every 5 s and adjusted every 10 s for the whole day. The light and temperature regimes in the phytotrons were set according

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155 to the diurnal/nocturnal periods and temperature changes of June to September in Northeast China.³² The high-stress sodium lamps (Philips) with photosynthetically 156 active radiation provided light at a rate of 500 m mol m^{-2} s⁻¹ from 5:30-19:30 for 14 h 157 158 per day, and they were shut in other time. The relative humidity was maintained at 40-60 % in the phytotrons. The temperature regimes were 22 °C from 5:30-8:30, 25 ° 159 C from 8:30-11:30, 28 ° C from 11:30-14:30, 25 ° C from 14:30-17:30, 22 ° C 160 17:30-19:30 and 18 ° C from 19:30-5:30. Air temperature in each chamber was 161 162 monitored and adjusted every 10 s for 24 h a day, and maintained within $\pm 1^{\circ}$ C of set points. The pots were watered to $3.42 \sim 3.48$ kg using an electronic scale (KaiFeng 163 164 group co. Ltd, ACS-30, China) at 5:00 pm each day, to maintain the soil water content 165 at 70-80 % of field capacity. In order to ensure that each plant experienced similar 166 light conditions, the pot positions were randomly changed every 2 d in the same 167 phytotron during the treatment period. Furthermore, since there were no chamber 168 replicates in this study, we switched the pots between the two chambers every 2 weeks, 169 changing the environmental settings so that all pots were undergo as similarly as 170 possible during the experiment. The total time of CO₂ enrichment was 60 days (from 171 July 20 to September 19, 2013).

172 **Determination of photosynthetic parameters**

Before sampling, photosynthetic parameters were measured with an LI-6400 gas exchange system (LI-6400XT, Li-Cor, Inc., Lincoln, NE, USA) on the youngest available fully expanded leaves (3 leaves per pot, 6 pots per treatment). The net photosynthetic rate (P_n), intercellular CO₂ concentration (C_i), stomatal conductance

177 (g_s) and transpiration rate (E) were determined under ambient CO₂ (380 μ mol mol⁻¹) 178 and elevated CO₂ (760 μ mol mol⁻¹) under a light intensities of 500 μ mol m⁻² s⁻¹ to 179 equal the light of the phytotron. Leaves were allowed to acclimate for a few minutes 180 until the P_n stabilized and the coefficient of variation was below 0.5. The water use 181 efficiency (*WUE*) was calculated from the ratios of P_n to *E*.

182 Classification of below-ground buds and above-ground daughter shoots

In this study, plants developed from seeds were defined as "parent shoots", and those that resprouted from buds of rhizomes or basal nodes of parent shoots were considered as "daughter shoots".

As proposed by Zhang et al. (2009),³³ the three categories of below-ground buds 186 were (i) axillary shoot buds, (ii) axillary rhizome buds, and (iii) apical rhizome buds; 187 188 The three categories of daughter shoots were (i) daughter axillary shoots, (ii) daughter 189 axillary rhizome shoots, and (iii) daughter apical rhizome shoots. The axillary shoot 190 bud at a basal node of a shoot can grow upwards to form a daughter axillary shoot, or 191 horizontally into a rhizome. The axillary rhizome buds attached to rhizome nodes 192 grow upwards to form daughter axillary rhizome shoots, or horizontally into rhizomes. 193 The apical rhizome buds originating from the end of a rhizome grow upwards to form 194 a daughter apical rhizome shoot, or continue to horizontally extend the rhizome.

195 Measurement of clonal parameters and biomasses

Each plant per pot was separated from the contaminated soil along with its root systems. We then immediately counted the number of each type of bud > 1mm in length, the number of each type of daughter shoot and the number of rhizomes, and

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measured the total length of rhizomes. The rhizome length and number of buds, daughter shoots and rhizomes were expressed per parent shoot. Finally, each plant was washed gently with tap water, three times with deionized water, and then divided into leaves, stems and root systems (including root and rhizome) before being oven-dried at 75 °C to a constant weight. The dry weights were measured, and the dried tissues then were ground into fine powder by ball mill (Retsch, MM400,

205 Germany) for Pb concentration measurement.

206 Measurement of Pb concentration

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207 The homogeneous soil samples and plant powder (0.15 g) were digested in a 208 microwave oven (ANALYX, CEM Mars5, USA) with solution of 5:1 HNO3:HF and 209 HNO_3 : HCLO₄ (v/v) for 120 minutes respectively until clear and transparent liquid. 210 Then, they were continued to digest in electronic heating digestion apparatus 211 (LabTech, DigiBlock ED36, USA) until approximate 0.5 cm height of solutions under high temperature 180 ° C. The cooled solutions were added up to 50 ml of total 212 213 volume respectively. Concentrations of Pb were determined using a Graphite Furnace 214 Atomic Absorption Spectrometer (Varian, SpectrAA Z220, USA). The detection limits 215 for Pb are from 10 - 100 ppm, and some extracts were further diluted for 216 determination of Pb concentrations within the detection limits.

217 Statistical analysis

We used two-ways ANOVA to evaluate the response of plants to Pb, CO_2 concentrations and their interaction. Data were analyzed as a split-plot design with CO_2 treatments being the main plot and Pb concentrations being the subplot. As the

221	two-ways ANOVA showed significant effects of Pb and CO_2 treatments, a separate
222	ANOVA was used to evaluate the effects of Pb under the same CO_2 level, with Pb as a
223	fixed factor. An independent sample T-test was used to evaluate the effect of CO_2 on
224	these parameters under the same Pb level, using CO ₂ levels as a grouping variable.
225	Before the ANOVA was conducted, data were checked for their normality and
226	homogeneity of variance, and were squared root-transformed as necessary to meet
227	those assumptions. Multiple comparisons of means were performed using LSD tests at
228	α =0.05 when ANOVA results were significant. All statistical analyses were performed
229	with the SPSS v.13.0 statistical package (SPSS Inc., Chicago, USA), and figures were
230	plotted with SIGMAPLOT 11.0 (Systat Software, Inc., San Jose, CA, USA).
231	Results
231 232	Results Biomasses in organs
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242 P_{n} , g_s , C_b , E, WUE were significantly reduced by Pb treatments (Fig. 2). When

compared with the ambient CO_2 control, elevated CO_2 increased P_n , C_i and WUEsignificantly, but decreased g_s , and E significantly at the same Pb level. The increased or reduced percentages tended to drop with increasing Pb concentrations in soils (Fig. 246 2).

247 **Clonal parameters**

248 CO₂ and Pb concentrations showed remarkable effects on number of axillary shoot 249 buds, axillary rhizome buds and total number of buds as well as number and length of 250 rhizomes (Table 1). We observed different responses of various types of buds and 251 daughter shoots to Pb additions. Number of axillary shoot buds was increased firstly, 252 then decreased along with increasing soil Pb contamination, and was still greater at 253 highest Pb level than control. The similar changes occurred in number of daughter 254 axillary shoots, causing that its proportions (in total number of daughter shoots) were 255 increased by Pb additions. Increasing soil Pb concentrations caused a continuous 256 increase in daughter apical rhizome shoots, but decreased the number of axillary and 257 apical rhizome buds and total number of buds significantly (Table 2). There was no 258 daughter axillary rhizome shoots that originated from axillary rhizome buds, but 259 daughter axillary shoots accounted for ~80% of total number of daughter shoots at 260 each Pb level. Elevated CO₂ triggered an increase in number of each type of buds and 261 daughter shoots, especially for axillary shoot buds of plants grown in higher Pb 262 concentrations in soils and for axillary rhizome buds of plants grown in lower Pb 263 treatments, resulting in a significant increase in total number of buds (Table 2).

At each CO₂ level, the number and length of rhizomes were significantly decreased

with increasing soil Pb concentrations. At lower levels of Pb contaminations, elevated CO₂ increased number of rhizomes significantly (Fig. 3*a*). Rhizome length was increased significantly by elevated CO₂ at each Pb (< 3000 mg kg⁻¹) level, and the increases were promoted with increasing Pb concentration (Fig. 3*b*).

269 **Pb concentrations in organs**

Under either ambient or elevated CO_2 , Pb concentrations in stems, leaves and root systems were significantly increased due to Pb additions in soils, particularly at Pb levels of 1500 and 3000 mg kg⁻¹. The Pb concentration in root systems was greater than that in stems and leaves at the same level of Pb treatments (Fig. 4). Elevated CO_2 triggered a vast amount of Pb accumulation in root systems, but its transportation to above-ground organs was inhibited (Fig. 4).

276 **Discussion**

A large body of literatures has shown that elevated CO₂ increases C_i , WUE and P_n 277 significantly,^{3,4,5} while the presence of Pb has the reverse effects.^{11,12} These were 278 similar to our results (Fig. 2a, c, e). The increasing P_n means that elevated CO₂ 279 enhances the capacity of carbon assimilation,³⁴ which might cause a significant 280 281 increasing biomass accumulation of leaves where are main photosynthetic organ at lower levels of Pb concentrations (Fig. 1b). Simultaneously, the increasing P_n due to 282 elevated CO₂ also promoted photosynthetic production allocation to below-ground 283 284 parts (Fig. 1c), which might enhance resources uptake and storage in plants. It is 285 because that plants mainly obtain water and nutrient through roots, and rhizomes are considered to be main storage organs.5,24,35 We also found that the increase in 286

287 photosynthesis due to relative higher C_i could offset the decreasing carbon assimilation caused by reduced g_s (Fig. 2b,d).³⁶ In addition, the decreased percentages 288 of g_s were smaller at higher Pb levels than at lower Pb levels under elevated CO₂ 289 290 condition (Fig. 2b). This might be because both elevated CO_2 and Pb concentrations 291 caused a reduction in g_s to limit E, and elevated CO₂ had a minimum effect on g_s at 292 higher Pb levels in order to maintain photosynthesis. We can conclude that elevated 293 CO₂ could improve plant growth resistance to Pb contaminated environments through 294 biomass allocation to photosynthetic and below-ground resource absorbing organs (i.e. 295 leaves and root systems) due to increasing photosynthesis. 296 For perennial plants, below-ground bud bank may be a main source for vegetative 297 propagation maintaining population maintenance, because germination and population establishment from seeds happen rarely.^{20,37,38} Meanwhile, the ability of bud 298 299 emergence is also a main factor that might influence above-ground population density and productivity.³⁹ The research of Zhang et al. (2015)²³ has indicated that higher 300 301 clonal propagative ability plays a critical role in maintaining population stability and 302 expansion of P. australis exposed to Pb stress under well-watered condition. Only a 303 few of scholars has reported effects of elevated CO_2 on plant clonal growth. They 304 regarded that ele ative ability through 305 increasing rhizon Clonal modules (e.g. 306 below-ground bud l plants subjected to CO_2 . However, there is 307 heavy metal stress

regarded that elevated CO ₂ might improve clonal propagative ability through
increasing rhizome length and daughter shoot growth. ^{24,25} Clonal modules (e.g.
below-ground bud bank) and clonal propagation of perennial plants subjected to
heavy metal stress might be affected partly by global elevated CO ₂ . However, there is
no report regarding the combined effects of elevated CO2 and heavy metal
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309	contamination on below-ground bud bank or clonal reproduction of perennial plants.
310	Previous and our present researches observed that daughter axillary shoots were the
311	main source of above-ground population density.33 We also observed that the
312	proportions of daughter axillary shoots (in total number of daughter shoots) were
313	increased by Pb additions at the same CO ₂ level (Table 2), which exhibited a phalanx
314	growth pattern. ⁴⁰ The daughter axillary shoots (tiller-based ramets) contribute more to
315	population maintenance for rhizomatous clonal plants. ^{41,42} According to the
316	cost-benefit hypothesis,43 as axillary shoot buds are attached to basal nodes of stem,
317	their emergence into daughter shoots may incur lower cost. ⁴⁴ In contrast, not only do
318	plants supply energy to rhizome elongation and development of rhizome buds from
319	the deep soil layer, but also their high rate of respiration should deplete much of their
320	available energy under anoxic conditions, giving rise to higher cost when rhizome
321	buds emerge from the soil surface. ^{44,45} Therefore, a propagative strategy developed by
322	P. australis, which has dominated clonal propagation, was that they produced more
323	axillary shoot buds and daughter axillary shoots (i.e. phalanx growth form) which
324	incurs lowest coast, in order to maintain population stability under Pb contamination
325	condition. Meanwhile, the increased number of axillary shoot buds due to Pb
326	contamination would contribute more to phalanx growth form during the fowling year
327	under elevated CO ₂ condition, because each bud can potentially emerge into daughter
328	shoots. ⁴⁶ We also found that the number of daughter apical rhizome shoots tended to
329	increase with increasing soil Pb contamination, particularly at highest Pb level in both
330	ambient and elevate CO ₂ environment (Table 2). Meanwhile, the rhizome length was

331 significantly increased by elevated CO₂ at each Pb level (Fig. 3b). The Rhizome-based 332 ramets (e.g. daughter apical rhizome shoots) contribute more to plant population expansion.^{41,42} The spreading rhizome might provide more space and resources that 333 could be mobilized for bud emergence and regrowth of daughter shoots.⁴⁷ So, the 334 expanding strategy was also adopted by *P. australis* to adapt to Pb contamination, 335 336 especially under elevated CO_2 condition. In addition, we also discovered that there 337 was no daughter axillary rhizome shoots that originated from axillary rhizome buds, and similar results were also obtained in previous researches.^{23,48} We can conclude 338 339 that axillary rhizome buds mainly grew horizontally into rhizomes in order to 340 continue their expansion, rather than grew upwards to form daughter shoots. This may 341 be related to biological characteristics of *P. australis*; the growth space must first be expanded, before the number of daughter rhizome shoots can increase.⁴⁹ In short, P. 342 343 australis had higher tolerance of clonal propagataion to cope with Pb contamination by the phalanx growth and spreading strategy, particularly in elevated CO₂ 344 345 environment.

Pb accumulation in plants was enhanced with increasing soil Pb concentrations, and the majority of absorbed Pb was retained in below-ground part of *P. australis* (Fig. 4). These results were in line with findings of previous researches.^{28,50,51,52} Although a large amount of Pb was accumulated in below-ground organs of *P. australis*, below-ground biomass accumulations were still increased by elevated CO₂ at each Pb level (Fig. 3*c*, 4*c*). This indicated that below-ground organs had stronger tolerance under elevated CO₂ condition. In addition, elevated CO₂ inhibited Pb translocation to

above-ground stems and leaves (Fig. 4a,b). The above-ground shoots are considered as the important parts where plants conduct photosynthesis and other metabolisms. Therefore, the Pb allocation form might protect photosynthetic tissues and promote photosynthesis, improving biomass accumulation under elevated CO₂ condition. The Pb allocation strategy can be considered as an adaptive mechanism of plants responded to Pb contamination under elevated CO₂.

359 Previous work has shown that increasing heavy metal uptake in roots under 360 elevated CO₂ condition is correlated to high metals bioavailability. The high bioavailability is attributed to the decreasing soil pH caused by greater root exudation 361 362 of carbonic acid, and to the increasing dissolved organic carbon (DOC) concentration released from plant roots due to elevated CO₂;^{16,27,53} More amounts of heavy metals 363 364 were released from sediments and soil both through DOC-metal complexation 365 reaction and through reducing absorption of heavy metals into soil organic matter as well as clay mineral particles due to reduced pH.^{54,55} These two processes account for 366 367 increasing metals bioavailability leading to more heavy metals uptake by root system under elevated CO_2 condition. Furthermore, Guo et al. $(2011)^{26}$ regarded that elevated 368 369 CO₂ increased Cd uptake by rice and wheat, but reduced Cu accumulation. Conversely, several scholars suggested that Cd concentrations in Lolium mutiforum and Lolium 370 perenne were reduced due to elevated CO₂.¹⁴ Li et al. (2010)⁵⁶ discovered that various 371 372 Cd accumulation patterns occurred in different varieties of rice, and they ascribed this variation to difference in exudation rates and spectrum of organic acids released by 373 plants. We concluded that the inconsistency in heavy metal absorption or 374

accumulation under elevated CO_2 condition might be closely related to various factors, including plant species and growth media, types of metals and their concentrations in soils, as well as the composition and quantity of plant exudates, etc.

378 In short, a propagative strategy adopted by P. australis to resist high Pb 379 contaminations was that they could develop phalanx growth pattern through 380 increasing formation and output of axillary shoot buds which incurs lowest coast to 381 maintain population stability. Elevated CO₂ might enhance clonal propagation and 382 space expansion of P. australis population in Pb contaminated environment through 383 increasing phalanx growth and spreading strategy. Meanwhile, the inhibiting Pb 384 translocation to photosynthetic organs could be beneficial to photosynthesis, promoting biomass allocation to leaves and root system under elevated CO₂ condition. 385

386 **Conclusions**

387 The phalanx growth form would help P. australis resist to Pb contamination. Elevated 388 CO₂ tended to increase photosynthesis, leading to increasing biomass of leaves and 389 root systems. Elevated CO_2 also stimulated increase in number of various types of 390 buds and daughter shoots, enhancing clonal propagative ability of *P. australis* grown 391 in Pb contaminated soils. Clearly, elevated CO₂ could ameliorate Pb toxicity and 392 improve resistance capacity of *P. australis* to Pb contamination. This study would help 393 us better understanding how rhizomatous perennial plants respond to heavy metal 394 contaminations and climate changes. To the best of our knowledge, our experiment 395 represents the first study of the combined effects of elevated CO₂ and Pb stress on 396 clonal propagation of *P. australis*.

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- 485 Table 1 Analysis of variance to assess the impacts of Pb, CO₂ and their interaction on biomasses,
- 486 photosynthetic parameters, no. of buds and daughter shoots and rhizome growth of *Phragmites*
- *australis*.

	CO ₂		Pb		$CO_2 \times Pb$	
	F-value	Р	F-value	Р	F-value	Р
Biomass						
Stem	1.66	0.21 ^{ns}	2.69	0.05*	0.13	0.97 ^{ns}
Leaf	11.03	0.00***	6.37	0.00***	2.73	0.06 ^{ns}
Below-ground	3.73	0.02*	9.74	0.00***	0.74	0.57 ^{ns}
Total	18.30	0.00***	19.83	0.00***	3.14	0.04*
Photosynthetic parameters						
P_n	108.60	0.00***	87.79	0.00***	1.98	0.14 ^{ns}
<i>g</i> s	10.39	0.00***	2.44	0.04*	0.17	0.95 ^{ns}
C_i	249.20	0.00****	39.66	0.00****	6.54	0.00***
Ε	158.81	0.00***	3.79	0.02*	0.10	0.98 ^{ns}
WUE	139.20	0.00****	5.19	0.00****	0.70	0.60 ^{ns}
No. of buds and daughter shoots						
Axillary shoot buds	24.76	0.00***	8.80	0.00***	1.64	0.20 ^{ns}
Axillary rhizome buds	9.02	0.01*	8.85	0.00****	1.65	0.20 ^{ns}
Apical rhizome buds	3.30	0.08 ^{ns}	27.51	0.00****	0.18	0.95 ^{ns}
Total	19.53	0.00***	25.94	0.00***	1.90	0.15 ^{ns}
Daughter axillary shoots	0.04	0.84 ^{ns}	1.26	0.32 ^{ns}	0.50	0.74 ^{ns}
Daughter apical rhizome shoots	1.33	0.26 ^{ns}	5.90	0.00****	0.26	0.90 ^{ns}
Total	0.49	0.49 ^{ns}	1.62	0.21 ^{ns}	0.34	0.85 ^{ns}
Rhizome						
No. of rhizomes	4.75	0.04*	15.29	0.00***	0.36	0.83 ^{ns}
Rhizome length	17.42	0.00****	34.44	0.00***	0.77	0.56 ^{ns}

488 Note: * = significance at P \leq 0.05; ** = significance at P \leq 0.01; *** = significance at P \leq 0.001; ns = no significance.

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Table 2 Effects of elevated CO_2 and Pb concentration on the no. of buds and daughter shoots of

502 Phragmites australis.

	Pb concentration (mg kg ⁻¹)				
No. of buds and daughter shoots					
(no.plant ⁻¹)	Control	300	500	1500	3000
Ambient CO ₂					
Axillary shoot buds	0.29±0.06b	0.36±0.07ab	0.43±0.03ab	0.51±0.07a	0.30±0.06b
Axillary rhizome buds	2.97±0.19a	2.57±0.32a	1.73±0.20b	1.42±0.19b	1.33±0.29b
Apical rhizome buds	1.87±0.24a	1.57±0.04ab	1.20±0.20b	0.72±0.14bc	0.53±0.07c
Total	5.12±0.28a	4.49±0.28a	3.37±0.13b	2.66±0.06bc	2.07±0.18c
Daughter axillary shoots	0.80±0.15a	1.17±0.18a	1.32±0.12a	1.19±0.15a	1.04±0.10a
Daughter apical rhizome shoots	0.23±0.04b	0.40±0.06ab	0.50±0.12ab	0.50±0.06ab	0.63±0.07a
Total	1.39±0.20b	1.70±0.00ab	1.80±0.12a	1.69±0.12ab	1.43±0.09ab
Elevated CO ₂					
Axillary shoot buds	0.38±0.05b	0.43±0.12b	0.73±0.09a*	0.87±0.09a*	0.57±0.09b*
Axillary rhizome buds	3.60±0.55a*	3.41±0.38a*	3.20±0.55a*	1.97±0.52ab	1.40±0.29b
Apical rhizome buds	2.20±0.20a	1.81±0.23ab	1.32±0.06b	0.84±0.15bc	0.67±0.15c
Total	6.18±0.43a*	5.65±0.38a*	5.25±0.55a*	3.67±0.72b	2.30±0.31b
Daughter axillary shoots	1.10±0.22a	1.30±0.06a	1.30±0.21a	1.25±0.28a	1.17±0.20a
Daughter apical rhizome shoots	0.34±0.08b	0.51±0.11ab	0.52±0.06ab	0.54±0.06ab	0.67±0.09a
Total	1.39±0.17a	1.68±0.27a	1.82±0.06a	1.76±0.26a	1.77±0.20a

503 Different letters indicate significant differences (P≤0.05) between different Pb levels (within CO₂

504 one level), and an asterisk indicates significant difference (P≤0.05) between elevated CO₂ and

505 ambient CO₂ control (within one Pb level).



519 Fig. 1 Effects of elevated CO₂ and Pb contamination on biomass in organs of *Phragmites australis*.

520 (A) indicates stem biomass; (B) indicates leaf biomass; (C) indicates below-ground biomass; (D) 521 indicates total biomass. Different letters indicate significant differences ($P \le 0.05$) between 522 different Pb levels (within CO₂ one level), and an asterisk indicates significant difference ($P \le 0.05$)

between elevated CO₂ and ambient CO₂ control (within one Pb level).

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545	Ambient CO2Elevated CO2Ambient CO2Elevated CO2
546	Fig. 3 Effects of elevated CO_2 and Pb contamination on rhizome growth of <i>Phragmites australis</i> .
547	(A) indicates the number of rhizomes; (B) indicates the rhizome length. Different letters indicate
548	significant differences (P \leq 0.05) between different Pb levels (within CO_2 one level), and an
549	asterisk indicates significant difference (P \leq 0.05) between elevated CO_2 and ambient CO_2 control
550	(within one Pb level).
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Fig. 4 Pb concentrations in organs of *Phragmites australis* grown in Pb contaminated soils under two CO₂ levels. (A) indicates Pb concentration in stems; (B) indicates Pb concentration in leaves; (C) indicates Pb concentration in roots; (D) indicates total Pb concentration. Different letters indicate significant differences (P \leq 0.05) between different Pb levels (within CO₂ one level), and an asterisk indicates significant difference (P \leq 0.05) between elevated CO₂ and ambient CO₂ control (within one Pb level).