

Confocal Volumetric μ XRF and Fluorescence Computed μ -Tomography Reveals Arsenic Three-Dimensional Distribution within Intact Pteris vittata Fronds

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1	Confocal volumetric µXRF and fluorescence computed
2	µ-tomography reveals arsenic three-dimensional distribution
3	within intact <i>Pteris vittata</i> fronds
4	
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32 ABSTRACT

33 The fern Pteris vittata has been the subject of numerous studies because its extreme arsenic 34 hyperaccumulation characteristics. However, information on the arsenic chemical speciation and 35 distribution across cell types within intact frozen-hydrated Pteris vittata fronds is necessary to better 36 understand the arsenic biotransformation pathways in this unusual fern. While 2D X-ray absorption 37 spectroscopy imaging studies show that different chemical forms of arsenic – As(III) and As(V) – 38 occur across the plant organs, depth-resolved information of arsenic distribution and chemical 39 speciation in different cell types within tissues of *Pteris vittata* have not been reported. By using a 40 combination of planar and confocal µ-X-ray fluorescence imaging and fluorescence computed µ-41 tomography, this study reveals the localization of Arsenic in the endodermis and pericycle surrounding the vascular bundles in the rachis and the pinnules of the fern. Arsenic is also 42 43 accumulated in the vascular bundles connecting into each sporangium, and in some mature sori. The 44 use of 2D X-ray absorption near edge structure imaging allows for deciphering arsenic speciation 45 across the tissues, revealing arsenate in the vascular bundles and arsenite in the endodermis and pericycle. This study demonstrates how different advanced synchrotron X-ray microscopy 46 47 techniques can be complementary in revealing, at tissue and cellular levels, elemental distribution 48 and chemical speciation in hyperaccumulator plants.

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50 **Keywords:** *chemical speciation; elemental distribution; hyperaccumulator; fern.*

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53 1. INTRODUCTION

54 Hyperaccumulator plants are able to regulate potentially toxic concentrations of trace elements in their living tissues^{1,2,3}. Arsenic hyperaccumulation has been described for a number of pteridophytes 55 (ferns) from the genus Pteris (Pteridaceae), most notably Pteris vittata, which accumulates up to 56 22 600 μ g g⁻¹ As^{4,5} and *Pitvrogramma calomelanos* which accumulates up to 16 400 μ g g⁻¹ As^{6,7} in 57 fronds. Phytoextraction with P. vittata has been successfully applied in the remediation of soil and 58 groundwater As^{8,9,10}. The As hyperaccumulation mechanisms of *P. vittata* have elicited intensive 59 research^{11,12,13,14}. Arsenic content in *P. vittata* follows the order of pinnae > stipe > root, with most 60 61 As distributed in the pinnae (78–96%). The concentration of As in the pinnae decreases from the base to the apex of the fronds, and As concentrations in midribs is much lower than in the pinnae¹⁵. 62 The As concentration was relatively high in the midrib compared to the surrounding tissues, and 63 there could be an unloading process of As from midrib to mesophyll tissues¹⁶. An interesting finding 64 is that As concentrations in spores were far lower than in the pinnae, indicating that P. vittata tends 65 to keep As away from reproductive organelles¹⁵. At the cellular level, energy dispersive X-ray 66 spectroscopy combined to scanning electron microscopy (SEM-EDS) identified that As is primarily 67 distributed within the upper and lower epidermis of the pinna in P. $vittata^{15}$. Analysis with X-ray 68 fluorescence imaging (µXRF) led to the reporting of even higher As concentration in trichomes 69 compared that prevailing As concentrations in the epidermis¹⁷. At the subcellular level, As was 70 mainly stored in the cytoplasmic supernatant fraction, accounting for 78% of As in the pinnae¹⁸. 71 72 Therefore, As compartmentalisation in trichomes and vacuoles was suggested as a detoxification mechanism in *P. vittata*^{15,17}. Recently, localization of As in the apoplast near the midrib, in fronds of 73 P. vittata was reported¹⁹. A similarity between the As and K distribution at both cellular and 74 subcellular level was found^{15,20}, implying that K^+ may act as a counterbalance to $As^VO_4^{3-}$ anions. 75

76

Pteris vittata contains As predominantly as inorganic As species²¹. Regardless of whether As(III) or 77 78 As(V) was supplied to the plants, the oxidized form As(V) dominated in the roots while As(III) dominated in the rhizomes and fronds^{15,21,22,23,24,25}, suggesting that the reduction of As(V) to As(III) 79 occurs during As translocation. Furthermore, X-ray absorption spectroscopy indicated that, in the 80 pinnae, As(III) was predominantly coordinated with $oxygen^{22,25}$. The precise location where As(V) is 81 82 reduced to As(III) is still unknown. The reduction of As(V) to As(III) was firstly considered to occur in the pinnae as it was found that As in xylem sap was mainly $As(V)^{21,23}$. It was proposed that As(V)83 is transported through the vascular tissue from the roots to the fronds, where it is reduced to As(III) 84 and stored at high concentrations²⁵. As(V) is reduced mainly in roots and not in the fronds^{22,24} and 85 root extracts from the *P. vittata* were able to reduce As(V) to $As(III)^{26}$. The reduction of As mainly 86

occurs in the endodermis of roots²⁷. Arsenic is transported in the xylem sap of *P. vittata* 87 predominantly (93-98%) as As(III), regardless of whether As(V) or As(III) was supplied to the 88 plants, implying that the roots are the main site of As(V) reduction in *P. vittata*²⁹. Similar reduction 89 of another metalloid, antimony (Sb), from pentavalent Sb to trivalent Sb has been reported in the 90 roots of *P. vittata*³⁰. However although clearly As(V) is reduced most effectively in root endodermis 91 92 and then As(III) is transported most effectively in xylem, the identification of As(V) in other tissues 93 means that not all of it is reduced in the root and the As(III) tris-glutathione [As(SR)₃] form found in 94 the surroundings of the vasculature suggests that reduction can occur also outside the root 25 .

95 Despite all the previously cited publications, no study to date has revealed the As-distribution at the 96 cellular-scale in the P. vittata fronds, and previous data has only shown planar views of As (projected onto a 2D plane). As such no depth information is currently available and the in situ 3D 97 98 distribution of As needs to be investigated and confirm the 2D visualisation. It is possible that observed differences in As speciation across tissues are due to spatial variations of As in different 99 cell types^{27,31}. Pickering *et al.*²⁵ examined both the gametophyte generation and the sporophyte 100 generation, and found discrete speckles of arsenate localized in parenchymal cells (possibly in 101 102 vacuoles) in the gametophytes. Another study on a related As-hyperaccumulating fern (*Pityrogramma calomelanos*) by Kachenko *et al.*⁷ showed substantial tissue-level differentiation in 103 104 As accumulation but could not reveal As chemical speciation.

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106 Conventional synchrotron (planar or 2D) μ XRF of plant leaves (whole leaves or cross sections) is a 107 projection of all elements in a sample. As such, a planar view of a plant leaf reveals the elements 108 contained in the adaxial and abaxial epidermis and mesophyll together in a 'compressed' projected 109 2D plane. Several methods are available for revealing the detailed 3D elemental distributions 110 relevant to complex biological samples. In this article we employ three complementary approaches to 111 access the 3D elemental distributions: mechanical sectioning to access the distributions within a 112 single plane, X-ray fluorescence μ -computed tomography (XFM- μ CT) to determine volumetric 113 distributions from a series of projection images without sample sectioning, and confocal imaging to directly access elemental distributions within targeted regions within the specimen. Although we 114 describe these methods here, a more detailed comparison can be found in de Jonge & Vogt³² and van 115 der Ent *et al.*³³. 116

117

118 Confocal optics enable a direct-space approach to deliver 3D resolution. A confocal optic confines 119 the field of view of the energy-dispersive detector so that the signal derives from only a small portion of the illuminated column^{34,35,36}. The probe volume is thereby reduced to a spheroid and elemental distribution is mapped in three dimensions by scanning the specimen through the probe volume. The use of confocal X-ray fluorescence methods for the investigation of biological samples has been limited to date, probably due to the increased X-ray dose associated with the confocal geometry in most situations₃₇. Such an approach was, however, successfully utilized to decipher the distribution and chemical speciation of selenium in zebrafish larvae³⁸.

126

127 Another approach to obtain information on the internal elemental distribution in physically intact 128 samples is X-ray fluorescence µ-computed tomography (XFM-µCT). This technique enables 129 reconstruction of 2D or 3D elemental data from a rotation series of projection images. For typical 130 measurement modalities, µCT requires the measurement of projection images from multiples view 131 around a fixed rotation axis. In order to avoid issues with self-absorption and to simplify the 132 measurement, XFM-µCT is limited to measurements of specimen that are relatively thin in the two dimensions around the rotation axis, such as roots^{39,40}, stems and narrow leaves⁴¹ and seeds⁴², 133 134 although µCT laminography could be used in flatter objects such as leaves. The confocal approach is 135 more tolerant to self-absorption effects, and especially well-suited to measure depth profiles in 136 extended planar objects such as leaves. Further, the confocal measurement enables direct access to 137 small volumes within a specimen and so is amenable to direct and *in situ* spectroscopic (XANES) 138 measurements.

139

140 Self-absorption is a combination of two effects that reduce the quantitative nature of reconstructions 141 obtained by XFM-µCT and affect the visualization of element distribution: the absorption of the 142 incident X-ray photons and the re-absorption of the fluorescent X-ray photons (in particular lowenergy photons) by the specimen (for a review see Vogt & de Jonge³²). Self-absorption is usually 143 144 dominated by the latter of these effects, and this in turn has a greater impact on the quantitative 145 determinations of the elements with low energy x-ray photons for K-shell emission this corresponds 146 to with lower-Z elements. Self-absorption places a practical upper limit on the specimen dimensions, 147 so that, for example, Ni can be mapped in hydrated biological samples up to $\sim 800 \ \mu m$ thick with 148 reasonable accuracy (K α line at 7.47 keV), but this increases up to ~1500 μ m for As (K α line at 149 10.54 keV) assuming a tolerable limit of 50% self-absorption.

150

X-ray fluorescence microscopy (XFM) beamlines also offer the unique ability to perform *in situ* Xray absorption spectroscopy (XAS) to obtain information on the chemical speciation of elements (As

in this case) in plant tissues without preparations and avoiding the possibility for artefacts resulting from those preparations. Moreover, the use of confocal optics allows examination of As chemical speciation at depth in distinct cell types within intact plant tissues and hence elucidation of the spatially resolved chemical speciation and elemental distribution in physically intact samples without the need for destructive sample preparation^{33,43}.

158

159 The complexity of As distribution and chemical speciation requires a range of different 160 methodological approaches to understand the 3D distribution at the cellular level and also for the 161 speciation. This study uses a combination of different synchrotron X-ray methodological approaches 162 to interrogate As distribution and chemical speciation in *Pteris vittata* tissues, which are summarised 163 in Table 1. To date, depth-resolved information has not been available, and this study aims not only 164 to unravel the As pathway in the As hyperaccumulating fern *Pteris vittata*, but also to demonstrate 165 how a set of advanced synchrotron X-ray microscopy techniques can be complementary in revealing, 166 at tissue and cellular levels, the distribution and chemical speciation of As in this hyperaccumulator plant. 167

168

169 2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

170

171 **2.1** Cultivation and collection of plant tissues and soils

172 Tissue samples were obtained in one of two ways. Cultured tissue samples were obtained from P. vittata grown in soil at the University of Queensland. The potting mix was spiked with an As(V) 173 174 solution supplied as Na₂HAsO₄·7H₂O prior to transplanting (dose rate was 1000 mg kg⁻¹ as As). The plants were grown in a greenhouse for two months with an 11-hr daily photoperiod, a photon flux of 175 176 $>370 \text{ }\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$, a day-night temperature range of 20–29°C and relative humidity of \sim 70%. Tissue 177 samples of P. vittata were also collected from a contaminated site in Shimen, Hunan Province in 178 south China. This site is heavily contaminated by As due to realgar ore smelting activities in the past $(N29^{\circ}39'33.88'' E111^{\circ}2'43.1'')$ with a soil As concentration of 313 µg g⁻¹. The live plants, together 179 180 with the soil attached to the roots, were transported from Hunan to Beijing, and maintained in the 181 laboratory in Beijing. Tissue samples intended for synchrotron XFM analysis were excised with a 182 razor blade and immediately shock-frozen using the metal mirror freezing technique (n which the 183 sample is rapidly pressed against a block of solid copper cooled by at -196°C liquid N₂. The samples 184 were then wrapped in Al-foil and transported in a cryogenic container (at least -190°C) for storage and transport. Samples were also freeze-dried in a freeze-dryer (LABCONCO FreeZone 6) starting at 185 186 -50°C until room temperature in 48 hours. Slow freeze-drying has been shown to avoid, or at least,

reduce elemental re-distribution and tissue shrinkage^{44,45} but may cause subcellular migration of dissolved elements to the nearest solid surface. The influence of freeze-drying on element chemical speciation is still contentious and depends on several factors such as the element itself, its chemical speciation and initial oxidation state^{46,47}.

191

Some physical cross-sections were prepared from the cultivated *P. vittata* fronds. After shock freezing (as described earlier), the samples were cryo-transferred on dry ice (-80°C) into the cryochamber of the microtome (maintained at -30°C) and mounted on a plate by application of chilled (-8°C) polypropylene glycol for physical support. The fronds were then cut to 30 μ m sections using a cooled blade (-20 °C), and the sections transferred to pre-cooled 1 mL cryo-containers and freezedried.

198

199 **2.2 Plant tissue bulk analysis**

Plant tissue samples for bulk chemical analysis were gathered from the cultured ferns after two months, and from the freeze-dried fern samples from China. The samples were dried at 70°C for five days in a dehydrating oven, subsequently ground and a 200-mg fraction digested using 4 mL concentrated nitric acid (70%) and 1 mL hydrogen peroxide (30%) in a digestion microwave oven (Milestone Start D) for a 45-minute programme. After cooling, the sample was diluted to 30 mL with TDI water. The aliquots were analysed on ICP-AES (Varian Vista Pro II) for P, Mg, Ca, K, S and As.

207

208 **2.3** Histochemistry and bright field microscopy

Frond samples were fixed in 3% glutaraldehyde (in PBS), sectioned with a vibratome (Leica VT1000s) and stained with Toluidine Blue. The sections (20–40 µm thickness) were then examined and photographed with bright field microscope (Nikon Diskovery Spinning Disk Confocal with Andor Zyla 4.2 camera).

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214 **2.4 Scanning Electron Microscopy with X-ray microanalysis (SEM-EDS)**

Freeze-dried leaf samples were sputter-coated with carbon (25 nm) and mounted on stubs. The samples were then imaged with Scanning Electron Microscopy (SEM) with X-ray microanalysis (Energy dispersive X ray spectroscopy or EDS) on a JEOL JSM-6610 instrument. Images were obtained for 100–1000 x magnifications at 5–15 kV with lower accelerator energies for imaging with secondary electrons only and higher accelerator energies for imaging using backscattered electrons.

221 **2.5** X-ray fluorescence microscopy (XFM)

222 The X-ray fluorescence microscopy (XFM) beamline of the Australian Synchrotron employs an in-223 vacuum undulator to produce a brilliant X-ray beam of 4.1-20 keV with a focus down to 1000 nm. A Si(111) monochromator and a pair of Kirkpatrick-Baez (KB) mirrors deliver a monochromatic 224 focused incident beam onto the specimen⁴⁸. The P06 beamline of PETRA III (Deutsches Elektronen-225 Synchrotron; DESY) is also equipped with Si(111) monochromator and KB mirrors⁴⁹ producing X-226 227 ray beam of 5-23 keV with a focus down to 300 nm. Both beamlines are equipped with a Maia 228 detector consisting of a large detector array to maximize the detection of fluorescence signal. The 229 Maia detector allows for high overall count-rates and uses an annular detector geometry, where the beam passes though the detector and strikes the sample at normal incidence^{50,51}. This geometry 230 enables a large solid angle (1.2 steradian) to maximize detected signal and reducing the dose and 231 potential damage to a specimen⁵². Maia is designed for event-mode data acquisition, where each 232 detected X-ray event is recorded, tagged by detector number in the array, position in the scan and 233 other metadata⁵³. This approach eliminates readout delays and enables short pixel times (typically 234 235 down to 0.1 ms) and large pixel counts to be achieved for high definition imaging (typically 10-100 236 M pixels). The confocal experiment used a custom-made polycapillary collimating optic (XOS, input focal distance 2.5 mm, input field of view 10.0 µm, transmission efficiency optimized for 17.4 keV 237 radiation) fitted on a Vortex SDD detector (Hitachi Vortex EM-90, 80mm², minimum energy of 1.6 238 keV, energy resolution 120 eV, operated in 90-degree geometry). The experimental setup at the 239 240 XFM beamline the Australian Synchrotron, showing both the Maia detector and SDD detector with 241 confocal optic, is shown in Fig 1.

242

243 On the XFM beamline, the confocal µXRF and µXAS experiments used a polycapillary optic fitted 244 on the SDD detector allowing for a depth resolution (dz) of $\sim 10 \,\mu m$ (energy and hence element-245 dependant), while the beam spot size using the KB mirrors was $\sim 2 \mu m$. The resolution of the 246 polycapillary optic limits the z-resolution (along beam axis) of confocal tomography, while the beam 247 spot size limits the x-y-resolution. Accordingly, samples can be raster imaged with an effective probe volume probe of volume of $\sim 10 \times 2 \times 2 \mu m$. The scan was carried out in the x-z plane which samples 248 249 the two smallest dimension of the pinnule - a virtual section - so that the y-axis is not probed, with a 250 1 second per pixel dwell time. The confocal µ-XRF images were recorded using a beam incident 251 energy of 15.8 keV

252

The fluorescence 2D XANES imaging at the XFM beamline was performed on a portion of a frozenhydrated pinnule, spanning the midvein and one margin containing sporangia. The fluorescence 2D 255 XANES imaging consisted of forming 'stacks' of µXRF images by scanning the sample area 256 multiple times at successive incident energies. As such, the sample was raster-scanned over a 2.380 257 \times 1.295 mm window with a 5 µm step size, resulting in a µ-XANES image stack of 477 \times 260 258 pixels. The sample was scanned over the As K-edge (11 877 eV) at 112 energies from 11 800 to 12 259 100 eV using 2 eV steps across the pre-edge region (11 800 to 11 855 eV), 0.5 eV steps across the 260 XANES region (11 855 to 11 900 eV) and 20 eV across the post-edge region (11 900 to 12 100 eV). 261 The μ -XANES spectra were measured using the Maia detector array with a ~1.7 ms per pixel dwell 262 time.

263

264 Arsenic 'hotspots' were identified from the confocal µXRF images as regions of interest for 265 volumetric XANES point measurements. Of particular interest is the reduction of arsenate to arsenite 266 as As species cross from the vascular system to the leaf tissues, so regions were selected in the 267 (tissues listed in decreasing proximity to main vascular system) midvein, endodermis, mesophyll and 268 epidermis as well as regions in the secondary veins (vein bundles and surrounding protective 269 sheaths) and sporangia (reproductive parts of the fern). In order to obtain spatial coordination, first 270 coarse confocal µXRF maps were made of the sample. Volumetric XANES point measurements 271 were acquired using the confocal optic attached to a Vortex SDD detector (as described above) and 272 measured across the As K-edge (11 877 eV) at 100 energies spanning the energy range 11 802 to 273 12 017 eV in 0.25 eV steps with 0.5s dwell.

274

Energy calibration at the XFM beamline was achieved using a sample of solid sodium arsenite diluted in boron nitride. The "white line" peak energy of this sample was assumed to be 11874.4 eV.

277

278 The 2D μ XRF and single-slice μ XRF tomography measurements carried out in the microprobe of 279 P06 at DESY were performed with a beam size of 532×444 nm at an incident energy of 14 keV. 280 Considering a minimum step size of 0.5 µm and comparing it to the size of the beam, the resolution 281 of the resulting images can be treated as being equal to the step size. Samples consisted of a free-282 standing rachis and two pinnule margins, one mounted between Ultralene films for 2D measurements 283 and the other mounted inside a Kapton capillary for tomography. All scans were conducted in 284 continuous-scanning mode to minimize dead-time between the exposures with dwell times between 1 285 ms and 10 ms. In the case of single-slice tomography, the rotation stage was the slow scanning axis 286 and the longer scans of the rachis were divided into eight interlaced sub-scans to account for possible 287 vertical drift of the sample. All the samples were either freeze-dried (rachis) or dehydrated (pinnule 288 margin) and so a cryo-stream was not employed.

289 **2.6 Sample preparation and measurement conditions**

- 290 All frozen-hydrated samples were scanned in using a cryo-stream, whereas the freeze-dried samples 291 were scanned at room temperature (20°C). Individual freeze-dried pinnules were glued to carbon 292 sticks with cyanoacrylate (Fig 1b,c), but larger samples (*i.e.* the intact 'fresh/live' frond) were 293 sandwiched between two sheets of Kapton thin film (4 µm) stretched over a Perspex frame (Fig 1d) 294 magnetically attached to the x-y motion stage at atmospheric temperature ($\sim 20^{\circ}$ C). The samples were 295 scanned 'on-the-fly' with a 1-5 ms per pixel dwell at an incident energy of 15.8 keV. The frozen-296 hydrated samples were transferred under the N₂ cryo-stream (-100°C) and were maintained at dry ice 297 temperature during transfer - as such they were kept under cryogenic conditions from collection 298 through to the completion of measurement.
- 299

300 2.7 Data analysis

The Maia X-ray fluorescence data were analysed using GeoPIXE^{54,55}, and images were generated using the Dynamic Analysis method^{56,57}. Unfortunately, due to a technical error associated with the data writing to the cluster storage the raw data of a number of 2D μ XRF elemental maps were irretrievably lost. However, real-time (RT) processing data from GeoPIXE were locally retained, and the corresponding pseudo-elemental maps are included in the Supplementary Information.

306

307 Self-absorption, which can lead to inaccuracy in the determination of elemental concentration by 308 XRM, especially in 'thicker' samples, depends on the composition of the material, on the thickness 309 of the sample, on the localisation of the element to be detected and on the element itself (energy of 310 its X-ray fluorescence lines), on the distance between sample and the detector, on the energy of the 311 incident beam. Assuming that fern tissue has a similar composition and density to that of cellulose 312 $(C_6H_{10}O_5)$ with an average thickness of 300 µm (a pinnule blade is somewhat thinner at ~80 µm whereas a rachis is thicker at \sim 500 µm) and a density of 1.0 g cm⁻³ then it is assumed that the As 313 fluorescence (K_{alpha} line et 10.5 KeV) maximum absorption on escape is ~10%. 314

315

Confocal XRF imaging data were analysed with MAPS. Because the (element-dependant) transmission efficiency of the polycapillary optic is not known, and because of the different geometric orientations of the sample (resulting in varying X-ray flux on the sample), the confocal elemental maps were not quantified with respect to concentrations of particular elements. The concentrations are hence plotted on a relative scale.

Analysis of the XFM-µCT data was achieved by alignment steps using consistency and crosscorrelation methods to correct for horizontal drift in the sinograms followed by a tomographic reconstruction step. The high angular sampling of the rachis allowed reconstruction using a filtered back-projection algorithm. However, the pinnule sinograms were recorded with lower angular sampling and so were reconstructed with a maximum-likelihood expectation-maximization algorithm based on the functions of the *scikit-image* image processing library.

328

329 Fluorescence-XANES mapping gave a 3D image stack of spatial dimensions (x, y) and an X-ray 330 incident energy-resolved dimension E. Initially, the XANES images were aligned using a well-331 featured spectator element. Alternatively, one could consider each pixel (x, y) of the 477 \times 260-pixel 332 image stack to be associated with a unique XANES spectrum. The energy variation in the 333 fluorescence spectra were identified using principal component analysis (PCA) allowing for up to six 334 principal components, with the calculations performed using the Multivariate ANalysis Tool for 335 Spectromicroscopy (MANTiS, Lerotic). Pixels possessing similar spectra were grouped together by 336 k-means clustering, identifying three distinct clusters associated with the leaf, vein and image 337 background (Figure 10). The cluster associated with the background of the image has been 338 subtracted from composite image in Figure 10.

339

340 3. RESULTS.

341

342 **3.1 Bulk chemistry and anatomical features**

Although P. vittata can reach up to 22 600 μ g g⁻¹ As dry weight in its fronds⁴, the cultured plants 343 display 1354 μ g g⁻¹ and field collected plants from China have 8580 μ g g⁻¹ As on a dry weight basis 344 (Table 2). The concentration of Ca is relatively high in the pinnae with up to 10 300 μ g g⁻¹, whereas 345 the K concentration is extremely high in both the pinnae and rachis ranging from 12 300 to 33 000 346 $\mu g g^{-1}$. The concentration of P is exceptionally high, especially in the samples from China with up to 347 $62~700~\mu g~g^{-1}$ in the pinnae and up to $67~000~\mu g~g^{-1}$ in the rachis. Concentrations of Cu, Zn and Fe are 348 unremarkable. Toluidine blue stained P. vittata sections of the rachis (Fig. 2) show the typical 349 350 anatomy of a pteridophyte with the C-shaped elliptical vascular bundles surrounded by three-cell 351 thick pericycle and endodermis cells. The mesophyll is not differentiated into palisade and spongy 352 parenchyma, and mesophyll is absent from the mid-rib. Scanning Electron Microscopy (SEM) 353 images show details of the sporangium with sporophytes (Fig. 3). Each sorus contains clusters of 354 sporangia protected by the upper indusial flap ('false indusium') that is formed by the margins of the

pinnule. The abundant presence of fertile cells is evident with the sporangium showing individualsori enclosed by large annulus cells.

357

358 **3.2** Planar elemental imaging, confocal 'virtual' and computed tomography slices

359 The 2D projection µXRF elemental maps of the live frond (Fig. 4) show substantial enrichment of 360 As in the vascular bundles, particularly in the rachis, but also in the veins of the pinnule. There is a 361 depletion of As in the interveinal areas of the pinnule. The localisation of K is similar except that its 362 concentration in the rachis is higher than the mean As concentration in fronds. In contrast, Ca is 363 depleted in the rachis, but enriched in the veins of the pinnule particularly towards the terminal ends. 364 Calcium is also enriched in damaged (chloric) parts of the fronds, mainly along the margins. These 365 differences are more pronounced in the high-resolution scans of the pinnule apex (Fig. 5), with Ca 366 depleted in the veins but enriched along the pinnule margins. The distribution of As and K are again 367 similar although the distribution of K extends into the lamina. In the freeze-dried pinnule portion 368 towards the terminus (Suppl. Fig. S1 A, B), the distribution of As mirrors that of the frozen-hydrated 369 samples with substantial enrichment in the vascular bundles, especially in the central vein. In fertile 370 pinnules (Suppl. Fig. 1, C, D) strong accumulation of As in the sorus and sporangia is visible. 371 Further detail can be gleaned from scans of the sori (Suppl. Fig. 2). Apart from As enriched in the 372 indusium, the strongest accumulation occurs in the annulus of each sporangium. Some of the 373 individual spores are also rich in As (see top-right panel, Fig. 9), as are hairs in the sorus (for 374 example bottom right panel Fig. 9). Enrichment in the hairs that guard the sporangium at the margin of the fronds has been noted previously 25 . 375

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Higher resolution 2D μ XRF images (up to 0.5 μ m) were collected of the (freeze-dried) pinna margin containing the indusium covering the sporangia, which reveals that As is enriched predominantly in the vascular bundles connecting to the sporangia, but little in the sori themselves (Suppl. Figs. 6, 7, and 8). K is enriched along the indusium edge, and Zn highly localised in the mature sori. Fluorescence computed μ -tomography slices and projections of an intact pinna (Fig. 8 and 9, 0.5 μ m pixels) similarly reveal As enrichment in the vascular structures, especially in nodes, but also in some sori.

384

Elemental maps of As, Br, Ca and Rb obtained from confocal 'virtual' cross-sections of a pinnule are shown in Suppl. Fig. 9. The self-absorption effect as a function of element z is clearly visible from the Ca elemental map with a 'shadow' evident behind the thicker midrib. For that reason, we have plotted maps of (high Z) Rb and Br to serve as proxies for K and Cl respectively. The elemental

389 distribution of Rb is similar to As, which was expected on the basis of the earlier observed 390 similarities between As and K. Arsenic is localised in the adaxial (upper) epidermis extending into 391 the palisade mesophyll. Arsenic is also strongly enriched in the phloem of the (sub)lateral veins. 392 Confocal cross-sections of the central part of the pinnule with the midrib reveal that As is strongly 393 accumulated in the endodermis and pericycle surrounding the phloem (Fig. 6). Arsenic is also 394 strongly enriched in abaxial (lower) epidermal cells of the midrib (but not extending to the lamina). 395 Detailed confocal scans of the pinnule margins show accumulation of As in the indusium as well as 396 in the sporangia, particularly the annulus (Suppl. Fig 10).

397

398 The elemental distribution of As in freeze-dried physical cross-sections scanned in 2D (Suppl. Fig. 399 3-4) also shows strong enrichment in the endodermis and pericycle surrounding the vascular 400 bundles, as well as in the hypodermis extending into the cortex, ostensibly in the apoplastic space 401 between the cells. Again, As is accumulated in the indusium and in the annulus of the sporangia. A 402 scan of a physically sectioned freeze-dried rachis (Suppl. Fig. 5) shows the accumulation of As in the 403 endodermis and pericycle surrounding the phloem. Fluorescence computed µ-tomography with 0.5 404 um pixel size was undertaken on a freeze-dried rachis (Fig. 7) and reveals a very similar As 405 enrichment pattern in the endodermis and pericycle surrounding the vascular bundles.

406

407 **3.3 XANES imaging and volumetric XANES spot analysis**

2D XANES imaging was performed on a frozen-hydrated pinnule. In addition, volumetric XANES
measurements were acquired from spatial regions of interest in pinnae in both freeze-dried samples
recorded at room temperature (Suppl. Figs. 11 and 12) and frozen-hydrated state under a cryostream
using a confocal optic.

412

413 The cluster spectra associated with the pinnule and vascular bundle areas respectively were 414 compared to reference spectra of relevant As standards (figure 10C). On the basis of the energy 415 position of the absorption maxima, and comparison to the spectrum of solid sodium arsenite recorded 416 during the same beamtime run, cluster 1 and 2 spectra were assumed to correspond to As(III) (as 417 arsenite) and As(V) (as arsenate), respectively. Both spectra are slightly broadened in comparison with reference spectra reproduced from previous $study^{25}$ that were recorded with higher energy 418 resolution (0.2 instead of 0.5 eV). However, the spectrum extracted from cluster 2 in Fig 10, 419 420 primarily representing the main vascular bundle zone, displays an even broader absorption edge, 421 displaying a shoulder at lower energy consistent with the peak energy of the arsenite model

- 422 spectrum. This broadening is likely due to the presence of a mixture of As(III) and (V) species in the
- 423 vascular bundles, where the relative abundance of each species is consistent across the cluster.
- 424

425 Volumetric XANES point measurements from a selection of different anatomical features returned 426 spectra that were distinct from the model compound spectra. Absorption peak energies were aligned 427 more closely to those of the As(III) standards, even in tissues where As(V) would be expected from 428 previous work and from the 2D XANES imaging in this work (Figure 10). For instance, it is 429 expected that the vascular bundles (regions G and H, Suppl Fig. 11) would exhibit As(V) prior to 430 crossing the endodermis, however these bundles display reduced As(III) as stated from the peak 431 energy. The peak height to background edge jump ratio in several of the volumetric XANES spectra 432 is drastically attenuated relative to the model spectra. The results of the volumetric XANES analysis 433 suggest that this approach delivers too high of a radiation dose to the sample to be reliable in 434 determining the speciation of As in the specimen without drastic photoreduction, even in samples 435 cooled under a liquid N₂ cryostream. In fact, point XANES spectra from freeze-dried tissues (Suppl Fig 12), which should be less susceptible to photoreduction due to the absence of water, show higher 436 437 peak energies in some cases compared to those spectra from frozen tissue, strongly implicating 438 photodamage in the unusual appearance of these spectra.

439

The XANES spectra collected using either 2D XANES imaging or confocal point XANES are compared below to model As compound spectra previously reported²⁵. We note that the spectral resolution of the beamline used in this work is significantly poorer than that from the previous work; as such, any comparison should be interpreted with caution as the spectra from this study will be broadened significantly compared to the model compound spectra.

445

446 **4. DISCUSSION**

447 The use of confocal optics has made it possible to examine As in the depth profile of the tissues in 448 physically intact samples with high aspect ratio, without the need for destructive sample preparation, 449 and this approach has provided new information on the mechanisms underlying As 450 hyperaccumulation in P. vittata. Confocal cross-sections of the central part of the pinnule with the 451 midrib have revealed that As is strongly accumulated in the endodermis and pericycle surrounding 452 the phloem. XFM µ-CT revealed a very similar As enrichment pattern in the endodermis and 453 pericycle surrounding the vascular bundles. As such, the various technical approaches lead to 454 conclusions that are entirely consistent with each other.

456 Confocal optics also offer the ability to perform volumetric XANES to obtain spatially resolved 457 information on the chemical speciation within intact tissues. However, it eventuated that volumetric 458 XANES causes substantial photodamage due to the very high radiation dose of this approach (60s 459 total exposure per point), even if the sample is cryogenically cooled. Therefore, observations indicate 460 that significant interpretation regarding As chemical form should not be drawn from the confocal 461 volumetric XANES measurements, and reiterate the utility of 2D XANES imaging to provide 462 chemical information with lower X-ray dose (0.0017s total exposure per pixel, or ~300 less than then 463 confocal XANES measurements), albeit without the capacity to provide information in the third 464 dimension in this case. The results of the 2D XANES imaging are congruent with previous knowledge of As speciation in *P. vittata*²⁵, which in part validates the novel confocal imaging in this 465 work as it demonstrates that the sample preparation has not modified the distribution of the primary 466 467 arsenic species in the tissues. Published 2D XANES imaging studies showed that different chemical forms of As (As(III) and As-(V)) occur across the plant organs²⁵. Depth information of As chemical 468 469 speciation in different cell types within tissues of *P. vittata* was not available and the knowledge of the distribution across different cells types within the fronds and rachis was limited²⁸. In this work 470 we have demonstrated that observed differences in As speciation across tissues are related to spatial 471 472 variation of As concentration in different cell types.

473

After the Zn-Ni-Cd hyperaccumulator *Noccaea caerulescens*, *P. vittata* is the most well-studied hyperaccumulator. As a consequence, much is now known about the uptake and metabolic regulation of As in this species^{19,21,22,26,25,28,31,30}. Nevertheless, many open questions remain, specifically surrounding the adaptive advantages for As hyperaccumulation in this species, and about the physiological functions of As(V) to As(III) conversion for storage and translocation in the fronds.

479

480 Author contributions

481 M.L and X-M.W collected the *P. vittata* samples in the field in China. A.vdE cultivated live *P.* 482 *vittata* in Australia. X-M.W prepared freeze-dried samples for the synchrotron analysis. A.vdE, 483 M.dJ, E.M-P, G.E. and H.H.H conducted the synchrotron XFM experiments. M.dJ, R.MP and H.H.H 484 analysed the XFM and XAS data. A.vdE performed the SEM-EDS and light microscopy 485 experiments. A.vdE, K.M.S and D.B performed the synchrotron μ XRF tomography experiments. 486 K.M.S analysed the μ XRF tomography spectra. D.B reconstructed the μ XRF tomograms. All authors 487 contributed to writing the manuscript.

- 488
- 489

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- 726 FIGURE CAPTIONS
- 727

Figure 1. Experimental setup at the XFM beamline of the Australian Synchrotron: **[A]** Schematic diagram of confocal probe, SDD – silicon drift detector (image by Gary Ruben) **[B]** frozen-hydrated sample under the cryo-stream in front of the Maia detector; **[C]** Frozen-hydrated samples probed with the confocal optic; **[D]** Maia planar imaging at room temperature of a large live frond still attached to the plant (with rhizome in pouch with moist cotton). Typical dimensions of the probe beam are ~1 μ m, those of the confocal field of view are ~10 um, and the specimen thickness is in the >100 μ m domain.

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Figure 2. Toluidine blue stained *Pteris vittata* sections: [clockwise from top left] section of the
rachis; section of the central part of the frond; unstained and stained sections of the sporophytes
attached to the frond. Abbreviations: *LE* lower epidermis, *UE* upper epidermis, *C* cortex, *P* pamenta, *VB* vascular bundle, *Ct* cuticle, *H* hypodermis, *M* mesophyll, *X* xylem, *E* endodermis, *Pe* pericycle, *Ph* phloem, *R* receptacle, *I* false indusium, *Ha* hair, *Ys* young sporangium, *Ms* mature sporangium, *A*annulus, *S* stomium.

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Figure 3. Scanning Electron Microscopy (SEM) images of *Pteris vittata* tissues: [A] sporangium
enclosures within the margin of the frond (indusium); [B] detail of sporophytes showing [C] vascular
bundles of the rachis; [D] detail of central xylem bundles.

746

Figure 4. Planar µXRF maps of Ca, K and As of a live *Pteris vittata* frond examined at room
temperature. Relative concentrations are depicted by shading with brighter colours equating to higher
concentrations ('heatmap').

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Figure 5. Planar µXRF maps of Ca, K, As and Compton Scatter of the terminal ends of a live *Pteris vittata* frond examined at room temperature. Relative concentrations are depicted by shading with
brighter colours equating to higher concentrations ('heatmap').

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Figure 6. Confocal µXRF virtual section elemental maps of As in *Pteris vittata* fronds (central

part/rachis). Panels: [A] freeze-dried f examined at room temperature; [B] frozen-hydrated examined

under the cryostream; [C] freeze-dried f examined at room temperature; [D] frozen-hydrated

examined under the cryostream. Relative concentrations are depicted by shading with brighter

colours equating to higher concentrations ('heatmap').

- Figure 7 Single-slice µXRF tomogram of a freeze-dried *Pteris vittata* rachis examined at room
 temperature showing As and Compton signals. Relative concentrations are depicted by shading with
 brighter colours equating to higher concentrations ('heatmap').
- 763

Figure 8. Single-slice µXRF tomograms of a freeze-dried *Pteris vittata* pinnule margin inside a
Kapton capillary examined at room temperature showing As and Compton signals. Relative
concentrations are depicted by shading with brighter colours equating to higher concentrations
('heatmap').

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Figure 9. 2D µXRF maps of a freeze-dried *Pteris vittata* pinnule margin inside a Kapton capillary
examined at room temperature showing As and Compton signals from different angles. Relative
concentrations are depicted by shading with brighter colours equating to higher concentrations
('heatmap').

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774 Figure 10. Left: As elemental map of a portion of Pteris vittata pinnule including midvein and leaf 775 margin, taken at the top energy of the 2D XANES imaging scan (12.1 keV). Middle: composite of 776 cluster maps generated by k-means clustering analysis with k = 3. Cluster 1 is shown and blue and 777 cluster 2 is shown in red, the third cluster associated with the image background has been set to 778 white. Right: the spectra of cluster 1 and cluster 2 reconstructed from principal components 779 compared to reference As standards. The sample is frozen-hydrated examined under the cryostream. 780 Relative concentrations are depicted by shading with brighter colours equating to higher 781 concentrations ('heatmap').

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787 TABLE CAPTIONS

788

789 Table 1. Comparison of synchrotron X-ray methodological approaches that are available to an 790 experimenter at XFM beamlines to interrogate As distribution and chemical speciation in Pteris 791 vittata tissues. The exact values will change with the beamline.

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Table 2. Bulk elemental concentrations in fronds of *Pteris vittata* (values as ranges and means in μ g g⁻¹ dry weight) with ICP-AES.

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- 797 Supporting Information
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799 Planar µXRF maps of As distribution in dehydrated Pteris vittata pinnule (Figure S1). Planar µXRF 800 maps of As distribution in dehydrated Pteris vittata pinnule (Figure S2). Planar µXRF maps of As 801 and K of a dehydrated cross-sectioned Pteris vittata pinnule (central portion) (Figure S3). Planar 802 µXRF maps of As and K of a dehydrated cross-sectioned *Pteris vittata* pinnule (Figure S4). Planar 803 µXRF maps of As and K of a dehydrated cross-sectioned Pteris vittata rachis (Figure S5). Planar 804 µXRF maps of the K, As, Zn and Compton signals of a dehydrated Pteris vittata pinnule margin 805 (Figure S6). Planar µXRF maps of the K, As, Zn and Compton signals of a dehydrated Pteris vittata 806 pinnule margin (Figure S7). Planar µXRF maps of the K, As, Zn and Compton signals of a 807 dehydrated Pteris vittata pinnule margin (Figure S8). Confocal µXRF maps of As, Br, Ca and Rb in 808 a freeze-dried Pteris vittata pinnule showing the varying degrees of self-absorption depending on 809 element z (Figure S9). Confocal μ XRF maps of As in *Pteris vittata* pinnule (terminal 810 end/sporangium) (Figure S10). As fluorescence map from confocal µXRF imaging of P. vittata 811 sporangia recorded using the Vortex SDD from an incident beam energy of 15.8 keV, showing the 812 locations of the volumetric XANES measurements taken at the sporangia, As fluorescence map from 813 confocal µXRF imaging of P. vittata midvein, volumetric XANES spectra taken from the ROIs 814 identified (Figure S11). Supplementary Figure 12. As fluorescence map from confocal µXRF 815 imaging of P. vittata sporangia, volumetric XANES spectra taken from the ROIs identified (Figure 816 S12). Bright-field microscopy images of transversely cut sections of Pteris vittata samples (Figure 817 S13).

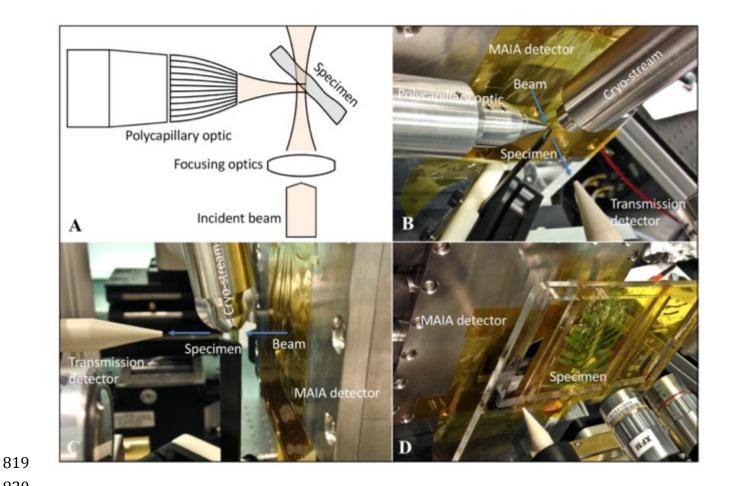


Figure 1. Experimental setup at the XFM beamline of the Australian Synchrotron: [A] Schematic diagram of confocal probe, SDD – silicon drift detector (prepared by Gary Ruben) [B] frozenhydrated sample under the cryo-stream in front of the Maia detector; [C] Frozen-hydrated samples probed with the confocal optic; [D] Maia planar imaging at room temperature of a large live frond still attached to the plant (with rhizome in pouch with moist cotton). Typical dimensions of the probe beam are ~1 μ m, those of the confocal field of view are ~10 um, and the specimen thickness is in the >100 μ m domain.

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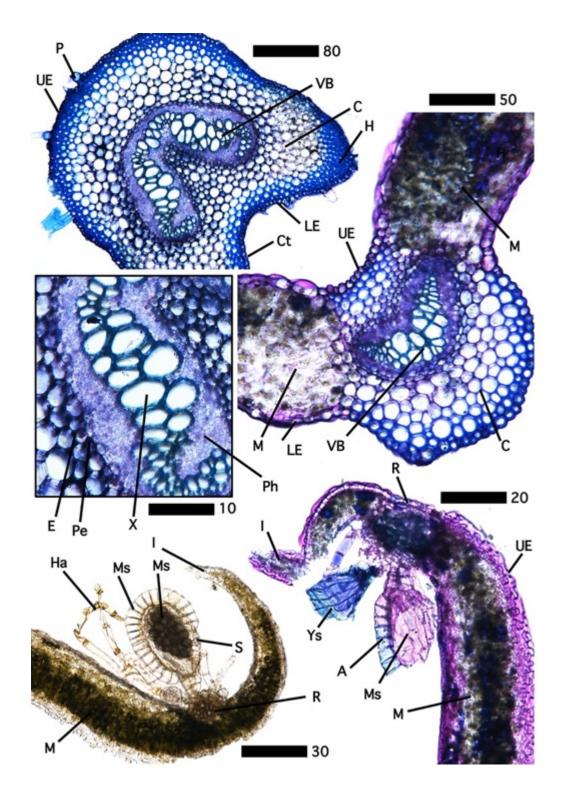
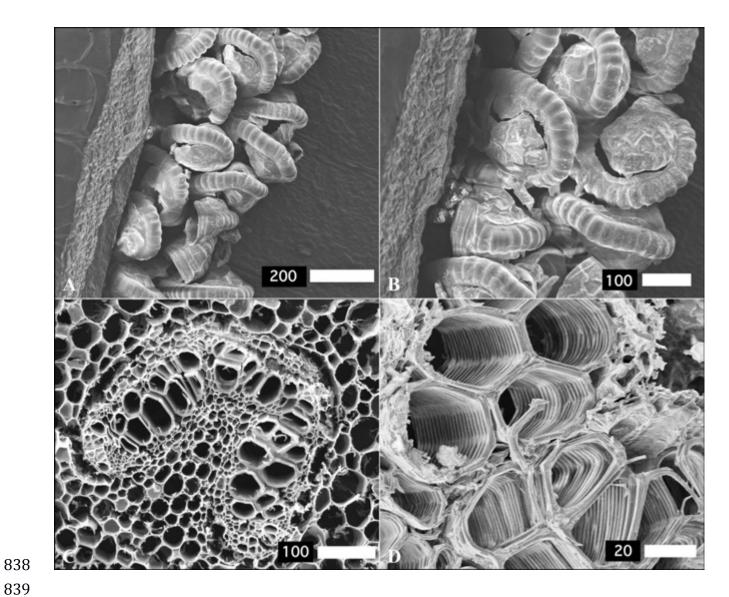


Figure 2. Toluidine blue stained *Pteris vittata* sections: [clockwise from top left] section of the
rachis; section of the central part of the frond; unstained and stained sections of the sporophytes
attached to the frond. Abbreviations: *LE* lower epidermis, *UE* upper epidermis, *C* cortex, *P* pamenta, *VB* vascular bundle, *Ct* cuticle, *H* hypodermis, *M* mesophyll, *X* xylem, *E* endodermis, *Pe* pericycle, *Ph* phloem, *R* receptacle, *I* false indusium, *Ha* hair, *Ys* young sporangium, *Ms* mature sporangium, *A*annulus, *S* stomium. Scale bars denote μm.



- Figure 3. Scanning Electron Microscopy (SEM) images of *Pteris vittata* tissues: [A] sporangium
- enclosures within the margin of the frond (indusium); [B] detail of sporophytes showing [C] vascular
- bundles of the rachis; [D] detail of central xylem bundles. Scale bars denote μm .

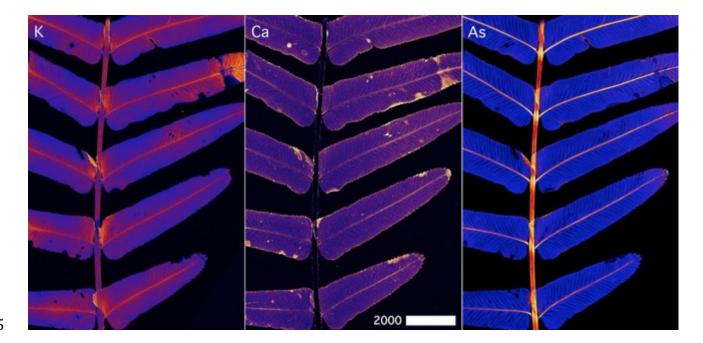




Figure 4. Planar μXRF maps of Ca, K and As of a live *Pteris vittata* of a partial frond with pinnae
examined at room temperature. Relative concentrations are depicted by shading with brighter colours
equating to higher concentrations ('heatmap'). Scale bars denote μm.

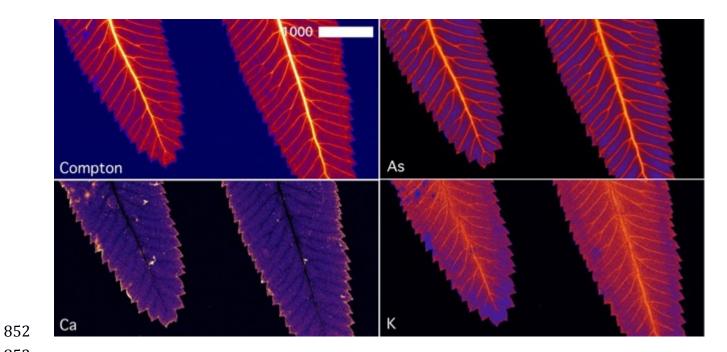


Figure 5. Planar µXRF maps of Ca, K, As and Compton Scatter of the terminal ends of a live *Pteris* vittata pinnules examined at room temperature. Relative concentrations are depicted by shading with brighter colours equating to higher concentrations ('heatmap'). Scale bars denote µm.

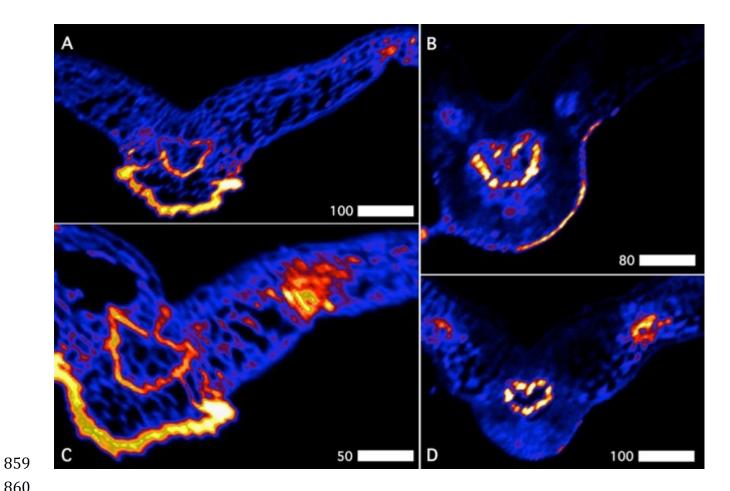


Figure 6. Confocal µXRF virtual section elemental maps of As in Pteris vittata pinnules (central part/rachis). Panels: [A] freeze-dried f examined at room temperature; [B] frozen-hydrated examined under the cryostream; **[C]** freeze-dried f examined at room temperature; **[D]** frozen-hydrated examined under the cryostream. Relative concentrations are depicted by shading with brighter colours equating to higher concentrations ('heatmap'). Scale bars denote µm.

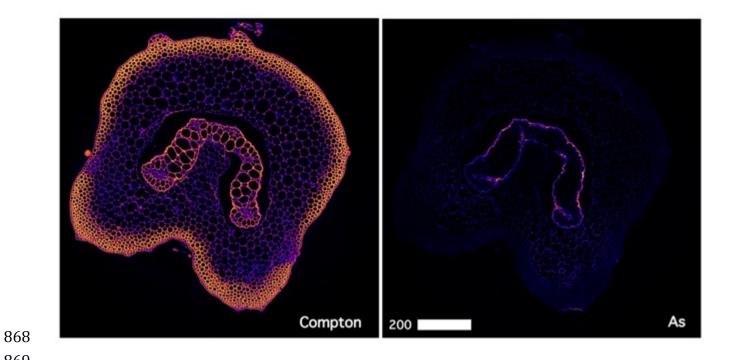




Figure 7 Single-slice µXRF tomogram of a freeze-dried *Pteris vittata* rachis examined at room

temperature showing As and Compton signals. Relative concentrations are depicted by shading with brighter colours equating to higher concentrations ('heatmap'). Scale bars denote μm .

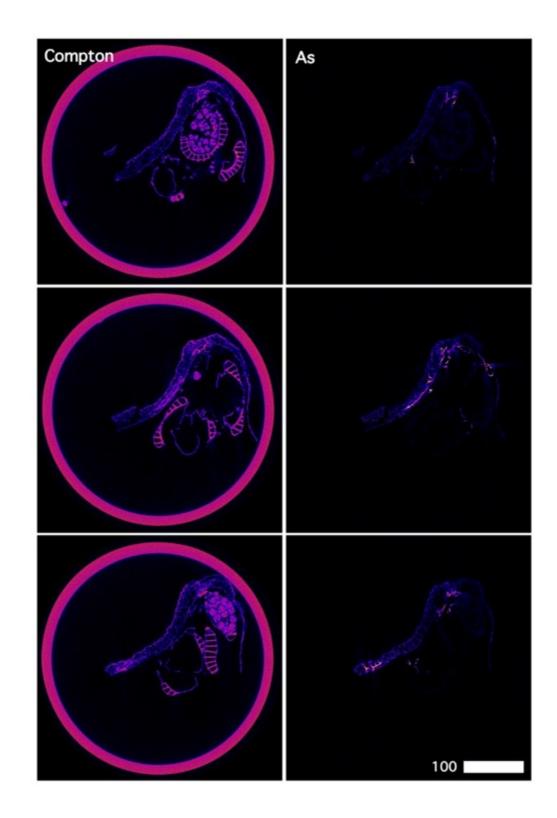


Figure 8. Single-slice µXRF tomograms of a freeze-dried *Pteris vittata* pinnule margin inside a
Kapton capillary examined at room temperature showing As and Compton signals. The same sample
at different depths is shown. Relative concentrations are depicted by shading with brighter colours
equating to higher concentrations ('heatmap'). Scale bars denote µm.

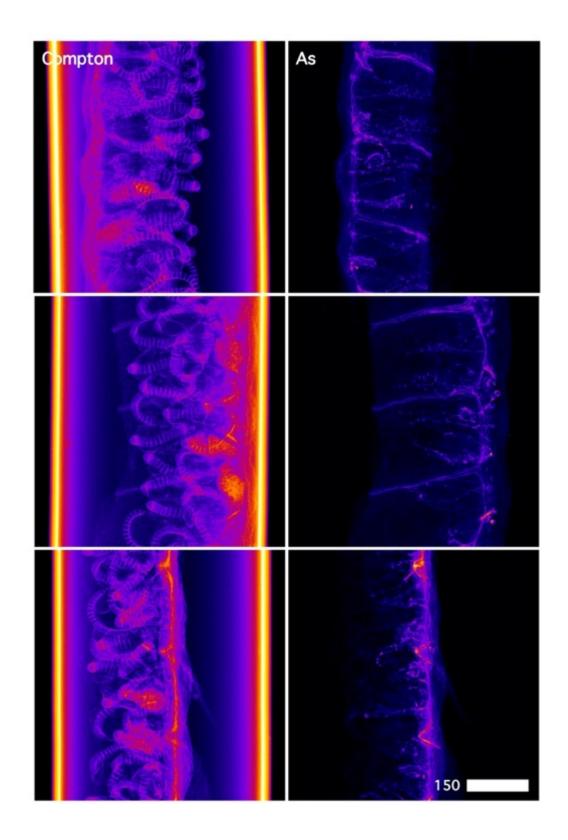
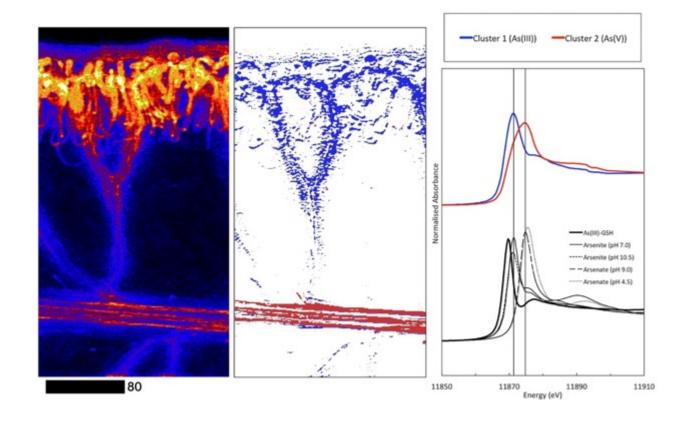


Figure 9. 2D μXRF maps of a freeze-dried *Pteris vittata* pinnule margin inside a Kapton capillary
examined at room temperature showing As and Compton signals from different angles. Relative
concentrations are depicted by shading with brighter colours equating to higher concentrations
('heatmap'). Scale bars denote μm.



890 Figure 10. Left: As elemental map of a portion of Pteris vittata pinnule including midvein and leaf 891 margin, taken at the top energy of the 2D XANES imaging scan (12.1 keV). Middle: composite of cluster maps generated by k-means clustering analysis with k = 3. Cluster 1 is shown and blue and 892 893 cluster 2 is shown in red, the third cluster associated with the image background has been set to 894 white. Right: the spectra of cluster 1 and cluster 2 reconstructed from principal components 895 compared to reference As standards. As the energy calibration of the standards was not performed at 896 the beamline, both cluster spectra have been shifted down in energy by 1 eV to align the peaks more 897 closely with those of the standards. The sample is frozen-hydrated examined under the cryostream. 898 Relative concentrations are depicted by shading with brighter colours equating to higher 899 concentrations ('heatmap'). Scale bars denote µm.

Analysis Type	Specimen preparation	Specimen state	Imaging Modality	X, Y, (Z) resolution [µm]	Positive aspects	Negative aspects		
	Sections	Dry or Frozen- hydrated	Projection imaging	2, 2, (30)	Fast acquisition Section thickness can match cellular length-scales	Disruptive preparation due to freeze-drying and/or sectioning		
	Intact tissues	Frozen- hydrated	Projection imaging	2, 2, (none)	Fast acquisition Full specimen immobilisation	Narrow field of view depending on cryogenic implementation No depth information		
μXRF	Intact tissues	Live hydrated	Projection imaging	0.5, 0.5, (none)	Fast acquisition Potential for sample evolution and degradation during analysis	Potential for radiation damage No depth information		
μλκι	Intact tissues	Live hydrated / Dry	3D tomography	5, 5, 5	Ability to obtain 3D models of intact specimen	Potential for radiation damage Only for narrow specimen		
	Intact tissues	Live hydrated / Dry	2D (single-slice) tomography	0.5, 0.5, 0.5	Acquisition of a single high- resolution virtual slice	Potential for radiation damage Only for narrow specimens		
	Intact tissues	Frozen- hydrated	Confocal imaging	2, 2, 10	Direct access to internal volumes within extended specimens	Slower acquisition Increased radiation dose		
NANDO			XANES imaging	2, 2, (none)	Overall low radiation dose	No depth information		
XANES			Confocal XANES	2, 2, 10	Directly probes chemical speciation within internal volume	High radiation dose can result in photo-reduction		

Table 1. Comparison of synchrotron X-ray methodological approaches that are available to an experimenter at XFM beamlines to interrogate As distribution and chemical speciation in *Pteris vittata* tissues. The exact values will change with the beamline.

Tissue	Origin	Sample preparation	As	Ca	Cu	Fe	K	Mg	Na	Р	S	Zn
Pinnae	China	Freeze-dried	6130	4420	21	309	32 100	3650	3960	62 700	4410	93
Pinnae	China	Freeze-dried	8580	4620	29	281	33 000	4290	7190	55 000	4920	35
Pinnae	Cultured	Freeze-dried	777	6700	7.5	390	16 300	2620	1320	17 000	3070	28
Pinnae	Cultured	Freeze-dried	1130	10 300	8.3	203	12 300	3680	927	12 000	3100	40
Rachis	Cultured	Freeze-dried	1080	923	10	142	25 000	715	7702	37 600	1520	48
Rachis	Cultured	Freeze-dried	1350	924	10	171	24 300	682	7900	35 400	1440	34
Rachis	Cultured	Freeze-dried	1140	1620	8.2	145	27 300	1020	6570	34 200	2100	48
Rachis	China	Freeze-dried	4530	5760	16	313	24 900	4110	6740	67 000	3790	93
Whole frond	Cultured	Analysed living	5170	2180	15	152	33 000	2440	4440	27 300	2630	27

Table 2. Bulk elemental concentrations in fronds of *Pteris vittata* (values as ranges and means in $\mu g g^{-1}$ dry weight) with ICP-AES.