

Nickel hyperaccumulation mechanisms: a review on the current state of knowledge

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Abstract

Background Hyperaccumulator plants are unusual plants that accumulate particular metals or metalloids, such as nickel, zinc, cadmium and arsenic, in their living tissues to concentrations that are hundreds to thousands of times greater than what is normal for most plants. The hyperaccumulation phenomenon is rare (exhibited by less than 0.2% of all angiosperms), with most of the ~500 hyperaccumulator species known globally for nickel.

Scope This review highlights the contemporary understanding of nickel hyperaccumulation processes, which include root uptake and sequestration, xylem loading and transport, leaf compartmentation and phloem translocation processes.

Conclusions Hyperaccumulator plants have evolved highly efficient physiological mechanisms for taking up nickel in their roots followed by rapid translocation and sequestration into the aerial shoots. The uptake of nickel is mainly involved with low affinity transport systems, presumably from the ZIP family. The presence of high concentrations of histidine prevents nickel sequestration in roots. Nickel is efficiently loaded into the xylem, where it mainly presents as Ni^{2+} . The leaf is the main storage organ, which sequesters nickel in non-active sites, e.g. vacuoles and apoplast. Recent studies show that phloem translocates high levels of nickel, which has a strong impact on nickel accumulation in young growing tissues.

Nickel hyperaccumulator plants: Discovery and application

Nickel (Ni) is the latest element to be considered essential for higher plants (Brown et al. 1987; Marschner 1995; Gerendas et al. 1999), due to its key role in urease, an enzyme that is widely distributed in higher plants (Hogan et al. 1983). The presence of urease prevents the accumulation of urea, which is generated during metabolic processes and is toxic to plants when presents in high concentrations. Apart from its function in urease activation, other physiological functions of Ni are poorly understood in higher plants (Gerendas et al. 1999). Although Ni is an essential micronutrient, its physiological requirement is extremely low. It is shown that 0.1 mg kg⁻¹ or lower is sufficient for seed germination and plant growth (Brown et al. 1987; Gerendas et al. 1999). Hence, Ni deficiency in naturally-grown plants rarely occurs, and the only known case is for the pecan (Wood et al. 2004). Plants usually contain low concentrations of Ni, normally ranging from 0.01–5 mg kg⁻¹ (Welch 1981). In contrast to the low Ni accumulation in normal plants, there is a group of plant species (hyperaccumulators) that can accumulate exceptional concentrations of Ni (>1000 mg kg⁻¹ dry weight) in their living shoots without symptoms of toxicity (Brooks et al. 1977). Amazingly, up to 60.2 and 66.7 g kg⁻¹ foliar Ni concentrations in the Ni hyperaccumulator *Phyllanthus × pallidus* from Cuba and *Alyssum cassium* from Turkey have been recorded (Reeves et al. 1996; Reeves and Adıgüzel 2008); while 25% Ni is found in the latex of the New Caledonian tree *Pycnanandra acuminata*, and 16.9% Ni in the phloem sap exudates of the Malaysian tree *Phyllanthus balgooyi* (Jaffre et al. 1976; van der Ent and Mulligan 2015). At least 450 different Ni hyperaccumulating species have been discovered globally so far, most of which occur on tropical and subtropical ultramafic soils (Fig. 1) (van der Ent et al. 2013).

The extreme metal accumulation capability of hyperaccumulator plants spawned the concept of phytoextraction for remediating contaminated soils (Chaney 1983), which has attracted much research effort (Chaney et al. 1997; Salt et al. 1998; Pilon-Smits 2005; van der Ent et al. 2013). Hyperaccumulator plants also have potential for ‘phytomining’ which utilizes hyperaccumulators as ‘metal crops’ to sequester Ni in harvestable biomass that can then be used to produce fine Ni chemicals or ecocatalysts (Chaney 1983; Li et al. 2003; Zhang et al. 2014; van der Ent et al. 2015; Nkrumah et al. 2016). Phytomining of Ni is especially promising, due to the high market price of Ni, the large variety of hyperaccumulating species adapted to a wide climatic range, and numerous tracts of suitable application areas, e.g. natural ultramafic soils (van der Ent et al. 2015). Phytomining has been demonstrated at field scale in a few countries around the world (Nicks and Chambers 1995; Robinson et al. 1997a; Robinson et al. 1997b; Li et al. 2003; Bani et al. 2007; Bani et al. 2015).

The optimization of phytomining/phytoextraction technologies requires in-depth knowledge of the metal uptake and transport mechanisms in hyperaccumulator plants. For example, unravelling the pathways associated with Ni uptake will allow for a better application of specific soil amendments to increase the Ni extraction yield in metal crops. Furthermore, insight into the physiological mechanisms of metal hyperaccumulation has important implications for advancing the understanding of the uptake and transport of trace elements in ‘normal plants’ such as food crops (Bai et al. 2007; White and Broadley 2011).

Nickel hyperaccumulation mechanisms

Recent decades have witnessed much progress in our understanding of the physiology of hyperaccumulator plants, mainly focusing on Zn and Cd hyperaccumulation processes in Brassicaceae (Krämer 2010). The hyperaccumulation mechanisms generally include stimulated metal absorption in roots, reduced metal sequestration in root vacuoles, efficient xylem loading and xylem transport, strong metal sequestration and compartmentation in leaves (Milner and Kochian 2008; Verbruggen et al. 2009) (Fig. 2). Less is known regarding the physiology of Ni hyperaccumulator plants. The Ni hyperaccumulation mechanisms share

similarities with those of Zn, while also having distinct characteristics. Here we will review contemporary knowledge on root uptake, root sequestration, xylem loading, leaf compartmentation and phloem translocation processes of Ni hyperaccumulator plants.

Nickel uptake processes

Indirect evidence has suggested that hyperaccumulator plants absorb Ni mainly as Ni²⁺, which is the same as non-hyperaccumulators. For example, the addition of chelating agents (citric acid, EDTA, NTA, DTPA, etc.) reduces the uptake of Ni by *Berkheya coddii* in spite of an increase in the available Ni content in soils (Robinson et al. 1997a; Robinson et al. 1999), which is presumably due to a reduction of the Ni²⁺ concentration in the soil solution. Likewise, halving the Ni²⁺ activity in hydroponic culture solutions results in a 50% reduction of the Ni uptake rate in the roots of *Noccaea goesingense* (Puschenreiter et al. 2005).

Few studies have been conducted to investigate the Ni²⁺ uptake kinetics. For non-hyperaccumulators, Ni absorption in roots has been found to be metabolic- dependent, which can be inhibited by low temperature, metabolic inhibitors and anaerobic conditions (Aschmann and Zasoski 1987). Nickel uptake has been suggested to be a kinetic process, which fits the Michaelis-Menten kinetics, with Michaelis-Menten constant values (Km) ranging from 0.51–379 μM (Cataldo et al. 1978; Aschmann and Zasoski 1987; Zhang et al. 2001; Redjala et al. 2010). The relatively high Km values indicate that Ni²⁺ is mainly absorbed via low-affinity transport systems in the plants (soybean, oat plant, mung bean, maize, etc.). The interaction between Ni²⁺ and other divalent cations has been observed during the root uptake process. For example, competition kinetic studies show that Cu²⁺ and Zn²⁺ competitively inhibited Ni²⁺ influx, while Ca²⁺ and Mg²⁺ were non-competitive inhibitors of Ni²⁺ in soybean and barley (Cataldo et al. 1978; Körner et al. 1987). In *Arabidopsis thaliana*, Fe deficiency results in Ni accumulation in roots (Nishida et al. 2011). Molecular studies show that Ni²⁺ can be absorbed via the ferrous transporter IRT1 in *A. thaliana* (Nishida et al. 2011; Nishida et al. 2012), due to the lack of substrate specificity of AtIRT1 (Schaaf et al. 2006). These results suggest that in non-hyperaccumulators, Ni may be mainly absorbed via the low-affinity transport systems of other divalent micro-nutrient elements, e.g. Zn, Fe and Cu. A similar Ni²⁺ uptake pattern seems to exist in Ni hyperaccumulator plants. For the Zn/Ni hyperaccumulator *Noccaea pindica*, Ni uptake is inhibited by the addition of Zn²⁺ in hydroponic culture solution, whereas Ni has little effect on Zn uptake (Taylor and Macnair 2006). Likewise, even the Ni- hyperaccumulating populations of *N. caerulescens* still preferred Zn over Ni (Assunção et al. 2001). These results suggest that the Zn/Ni hyperaccumulating *Noccaea* species possess both Zn-specific high-affinity uptake systems, functioning on Zn²⁺ absorption which cannot be affected by Ni²⁺, and low-affinity Zn/Ni up- take systems, which functions on both Zn²⁺ and Ni²⁺ absorption. Isotope fractionation study has shown that the Zn/Ni hyperaccumulator *N. caerulescens* and the Ni hyperaccumulator *Alyssum murale* share similar Ni isotope fractionation patterns, which enriched light Ni isotopes; while Zn can compete with Ni during the uptake process, which severely reduces Ni concentrations in plants and decreases the extent of Ni isotope fractionation (Deng et al. 2014). This suggests that although *A. murale* is not a Zn hyperaccumulator, it may also take up Ni²⁺ via the low-affinity transport systems of Zn²⁺. Ni uptake also seems to involve Fe transporter(s). For example, in the Ni hyperaccumulator *Alyssum inflatum*, Fe accumulation in roots was stimulated by elevated Ni concentrations (Ghasemi et al. 2009). Far less is known on the molecular basis of Ni²⁺ uptake processes. SOLiD high-throughput sequencing of the root transcriptomes in *N. caerulescens* has shown that Ni exposure can stimulate the gene expression of both the Fe²⁺ transporter IRT1 and the Zn transporter ZIP10, which suggests that Ni uptake may be involved with low-affinity transporters from the ZIP family (Halimaa et al. 2014). To the best of our knowledge, no high-affinity Ni influx transporter(s) have been identified in hyperaccumulators, or in other higher plants.

Root sequestration processes

On reaching root symplast, metal ions are rapidly complexed by organic ligands to alleviate toxicity (Haydon and Cobbett 2007). Amino acids are favourable for metal complexation under the alkaline conditions of cytoplasmic matrix (Harris et al. 2012). Histidine concentrations are found to be constitutively high in roots of the Ni hyperaccumulator *Alyssum lesbiacum* in comparison to the non-hyperaccumulator *Brassica juncea* (Kerkeb and Krämer 2003), which results from the overexpression of the histidine biosynthetic pathway in this species (Ingle et al. 2005). Interestingly, Ni²⁺ chelation with histidine can suppress Ni sequestration into root vacuoles, and thus enhance Ni mobility and facilitate its radial transport in root symplast, which is quite similar to that of Zn (Richau et al. 2009; Kozhevnikova et al. 2014b). Supplying histidine to hyperaccumulators can increase Ni tolerance and root- shoot transport simultaneously (Krämer et al. 1996; Kerkeb and Krämer 2003). Therefore, histidine acts as a Ni transport facilitator in the cytoplasmic matrix of root cells. However, carboxylic acids may still be the main chelators for Ni in roots, in particular when relatively high concentration of Ni is sequestered into root vacuoles after long cultivation periods (Montargès-Pelletier et al. 2008).

Xylem loading and transport processes

On reaching xylem parenchyma, Ni is loaded from root symplast to xylem vessels. Both hyperaccumulator and non-hyperaccumulators may possess similar efflux transporter(s) during the xylem loading processes, as the root to shoot Ni translocation rates are the same in both species (Krämer et al. 1997b). Antagonistic effects between Ni and Zn were found during the root-shoot transport of the Ni hyperaccumulating populations of *N. caerulescens* (Assunção et al. 2001). In addition, Ni can inhibit root-shoot translocation of Fe in the Ni hyperaccumulator *A. inflatum* (Ghasemi et al. 2009). These results indicate that Ni may be partly loaded by Zn/Fe efflux transport systems. However, no specific Ni efflux transporter has as yet been identified. When entering xylem vessels, Ni transport is mainly driven by leaf transpiration (Robinson et al. 2003; Centofanti et al. 2012). The Ni speciation in xylem sap has been studied in a number of hyperaccumulator plants. In *A. lesbiacum*, 48% Ni in xylem sap remains in the form of free hydrated cation, while other Ni is chelated by histidine (19%), glutamine (15%), citrate (9%) and malate (3%) (Krämer et al. 1996). Nicotianamine-bound Ni comprises a small fraction (8.5%) of the total Ni in xylem sap of *N. caerulescens* (Mari et al. 2006). A field investigation has shown that Ni in the xylem sap of *Alyssum serpyllifolium* subsp. *lusitanicum* mainly exists as free hydrated cation (about 70%), or complexes with carboxylic acids, e.g. citric acid (18%) (Alves et al. 2011). It is demonstrated that the concentrations of organic ligands are too low to account for complete Ni chelation in xylem sap, suggesting that most of the Ni in xylem sap remains as hydrated cation (Centofanti et al. 2013). This is a reasonable finding as Ni²⁺ is quite stable in acidic xylem sap (pH 5–6), and xylem vessels are non-living cells which should not be affected by high concentrations of Ni²⁺.

Xylem unloading and leaf compartmentation processes

On reaching leaves, the main storage organ, Ni is then transferred across the whole apoplastic space via leaf veins. Here, Ni is either absorbed by leaf cells (symplast), or remains in the apoplast. Firstly, Ni absorption by leaf cells may involve transporters from the ZIP family, e.g. ZNT1 and ZNT2, as the gene expression of these transporters can be up regulated by Ni exposure (Visioli et al. 2014). Nickel is preferentially distributed in epidermal cells, the least active tissue of leaf symplast (Küpper et al. 2001; Tappero et al. 2007), while palisade mesophyll cells become an increasingly important compartment as Ni concentrations in leaves increase (Broadhurst et al. 2004). At the subcellular level, Ni is mainly accumulated in leaf vacuoles (Krämer et al. 2000; Robinson et al. 2003). Molecular studies have shown that cation efflux transporters, e.g. MTP1 (in *N. goesingense*) or IREG1 (in *Psychotria gabriellae*), are highly expressed in the tonoplast of leaf cells (Persans et al. 2001; Merlot et al. 2014); while Ni²⁺/nH⁺ antiport activity driven by V-ATPase, is also found at

the tonoplast of *A. lesbiacum* (Ingle et al. 2008), whose function is to transport Ni into leaf vacuoles. Ni in leaf cells is generally complexed by carboxylic acids. For example, citric acid is the main ligand for Ni in several woody hyperaccumulators from New Caledonia (Lee et al. 1977, 1978; Callahan et al. 2012). While in the herbaceous *Alyssum* species, Ni is principally associated with malic and malonic acids (Brooks et al. 1981; Montargès-Pelletier et al. 2008). Secondly, leaf apoplast also acts as an important sink for redundant Ni, in particular when large amounts of Ni²⁺ are transported to leaves from the xylem. For example, cell walls, cuticles, epidermal trichomes can store high concentrations of Ni (Krämer et al. 1997a; Krämer et al. 2000; Robinson et al. 2003). In addition, Ni enrichment is also observed in leaf tips, probably resulting from the release of excess Ni with guttation fluids (McNear et al. 2005).

Phloem translocation processes

From the studies on non-hyperaccumulators, Ni is known to be relatively mobile in phloem and can be readily transferred from sources (generally mature leaves) to sinks (young growing tissues) (Neumann and Chamel 1986; Page and Feller 2005; Page et al. 2006). Phloem translocation is bidirectional, which includes both downward and upward movements. Results showed that radioactive ⁶³Ni fed into the leaf lamina of wheat, lettuce, radish and bean, can be rapidly transferred up to younger leaves and seeds, and down to roots (Fismes et al. 2005; Riesen and Feller 2005). The only study regarding Ni speciation in phloem sap found that in *Ricinus communis*, Ni is mainly bound to organic compounds with a molecular weight in the range of 1000–5000 (Wiersma and van Goor 1979). The phloem translocation process in hyperaccumulator plants has long been ignored, since heavy metals are considered to be ‘firmly’ sequestered in leaves. However, field surveys have already shown that seeds and flowers of hyperaccumulator plants can accumulate Ni as high as that in leaves (Zhang et al. 2014; Groeber et al. 2015). As reproductive organs are the main sink of phloem translocation, this circumstantial evidence indicates that hyperaccumulator plants can translocate substantial amount of Ni via phloem. As a matter of fact, Ni enrichment in phloem has been documented in a number of woody hyperaccumulators growing on tropical ultramafic soils. For example, 3.1% Ni is found in the phloem sap of *Euphorbia helenae* subsp. *grandifolia* from Cuba (Reeves et al. 1996). Recent field investigation reveals that *Phyllanthus balgooyi* from Sabah, Malaysia, has an exceptionally Ni-rich phloem sap exudates that contains up to 16.9% Ni (van der Ent and Mulligan 2015; Mesjasz-Przybyłowicz et al. 2016). In the herbaceous hyperaccumulator *N. caerulescens*, both Ni and Zn are found to be enriched in leaf phloem exudates of the Zn/Ni hyperaccumulator (Deng et al. 2016). Taken together, these results indicate that hyperaccumulator plants have strong Ni phloem loading capabilities.

Ni speciation in phloem is quite different from that in xylem. For example, in *P. balgooyi*, Ni in phloem is mainly complexed by citrate (van der Ent et al. 2017). While in *N. caerulescens*, malate is the dominant organic acids and is considered to be the main chelator for phloem Ni (Deng et al. 2016). Therefore, it seems that Ni translocation in phloem is facilitated by carboxylic acids. For bidirectional translocation in phloem, Deng et al. (2016) found that 89% of the Ni exported from old leaves of *N. caerulescens* is translocated upward to young leaves, whereas only 11% moves downward to roots. This result suggests that upward movement is the dominant direction for phloem translocation, and that young leaves and reproductive organs are the main sink for phloem-based Ni. Also, Estrade et al. (2015) found that Ni isotope fractionation between leaves and flowers does occur in early growing stages of *A. murale* as a result of net Ni transfer to leaves. While at full flowering stage, Ni isotope compositions between leaves and flowers are leveled up, which indicates that intense phloem redistribution occurs at this stage. Given that phloem sap contains high concentration of Ni, phloem translocation can have great impact on the Ni accumulation of the young growing tissues (young leaves, flowers, seeds, etc.) of hyperaccumulator plants. A conceptual model for Ni hyperaccumulation mechanisms is proposed in Fig. 3, and consists of nine physiological processes, as follows:

Rhizospheric Ni^{2+} is efficiently absorbed into root symplast via low-affinity transport systems, which mainly belong to Zn and Fe transporters. In root cytoplasm, assimilated Ni ions are readily chelated by organic compounds, e.g. histidine. Due to the weak sequestration capacity of root vacuoles, most Ni will then be transferred radially from epidermis to pericycle.

Nickel is then efficiently exported from xylem parenchyma and loaded into xylem vessels, which may be due to the high expression of Ni efflux transporter(s) at parenchyma cell membranes.

Nickel moves up to shoots following the xylem flow, most of which find their final destination in mature leaves due to the strong transpiration in these tissues, while young leaves receive relatively small proportion of Ni in xylem. Nickel is present mainly in the form of free hydrated cations during xylem transport. As xylem flow reaches minor veins and fills in the apoplastic space in leaves, Ni is then unloaded into the leaf symplast, or remains in apoplast.

Nickel assimilated by leaf symplast is readily transferred into vacuoles, in particular in epidermis cells. Nickel in vacuoles is mainly chelated by carboxylic acids. Phloem companion cells, which are soaked in Ni-rich apoplastic fluid, may express highly-efficient Ni influx transporters, which absorb large quantities of Ni^{2+} into the cytosols. The assimilated Ni^{2+} is chelated by a variety of carboxylic acids, e.g. malate or citrate.

Nickel-ligand complexes are then transferred from companion cells to phloem sieve elements via plasmodesmata. Nickel moves passively in sieve elements, following the phloem flow, which is mainly driven by osmotic pressure generated by photosynthate (mainly sucrose) concentration gradients between sources and sinks. Upward movement appears to be the main direction for phloem translocation. When reaching sink organs (young growing tissues), Ni may be exported out from phloem tissues to the apoplast again, which is then taken up by the surrounding cells.

Knowledge gaps and scope for future research

On the basis of the current state of knowledge, a picture emerges of the Ni uptake and transport in hyperaccumulator plants. However, more details are waiting to be explored, in particular on the molecular and genetic level. Open questions include:

What Ni transporter(s) are involved during the root uptake processes?

Nickel is found to be absorbed mainly via low-affinity transporters of Zn and Fe in the Ni hyperaccumulating and Zn-non-accumulating plant species. Do distinct Ni influx transporters exist in these species and how is the expression of the genes regulated?

How can Ni be efficiently loaded into xylem?

Hyperaccumulator plants must possess efficient Ni efflux transporters in xylem parenchyma. However, little is known about these transporters and whether they are Ni-specific or can bind to a range of divalent cations.

How is Ni loaded and unloaded into phloem?

Phloem translocation in hyperaccumulator plants has yet to be studied in depth. In order to identify the Ni phloem loading and unloading process, the connection between phloem tissue and phloem parenchyma (e.g. mesophyll cells) must be clarified. For some species, such as *A. thaliana*, the phloem tissues are separated from surrounding cells due to the lack of plasmodesmata connections (Haritatos et al. 2000), and thus metals are loaded into and unloaded from phloem via apoplast. In some other species, there are numerous

plasmodesmata at the interface between phloem tissues and surrounding cells (Taiz and Zeiger 2010), which can transfer metals from mesophyll into sieve element–companion cell complex symplastically, and vice versa. However, the phloem structure of Ni hyperaccumulator plants is largely unknown. If apoplastic loading/unloading of Ni is the dominant process, then the identification of Ni transmembrane transporters on sieve element and companion cells is of particular interest.

To what extent does phloem translocation of Ni play a role in Ni hyperaccumulation?

Phloem translocation is a bidirectional movement which transfers phloem fluids up to growing tissues (young leaves, flowers, seeds, etc.), and down to roots. If large quantities of Ni are transported back to roots and/or soils, that would have great significance for the Ni uptake in hyperaccumulator plants. Thus, it is relevant to quantify the fluxes of Ni from phloem sources to sinks.

What are the physiological differences within hyperaccumulator species?

Nickel hyperaccumulator plants are widely distributed, both geographically and across phylogenies, suggesting that physiological processes of hyperaccumulation have evolved independently and may therefore differ in their function between species. For example, citrate is the main chelator for Ni in leaves and phloem of tropical woody Ni hyperaccumulator plants, while this is malate for herbaceous species. Moreover, green-colored phloem sap which is highly Ni-enriched has been found in a number of tropical species, such as *P. balgooyi*, but as yet not in other herbaceous Ni hyperaccumulators, e.g. *A. murale* or *N. caerulescens*, or any other higher plants. Thus, the differences within Ni hyperaccumulator species warrant further investigation.

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FIGURES AND TABLES

Fig 1. Distribution of the nickel hyperaccumulator plants used in physiological studies.

Fig 2. General mechanisms involved in metal hyperaccumulation, which includes (i) stimulated metal absorption in roots; (ii) reduced metal sequestration in root vacuoles; (iii) efficient xylem loading and xylem transport; (iv) strong metal sequestration and compartmentation.

Fig 3. Conceptual model for Ni hyperaccumulation mechanisms processes in hyperaccumulator plants. (i) root uptake; (ii) root sequestration and radial transport; (iii) xylem loading; (iv) xylem transport; (v) xylem unloading; (vi) leaf sequestration; (vii) phloem loading; (viii) phloem translocation; (ix) phloem unloading.

FIGURE 1

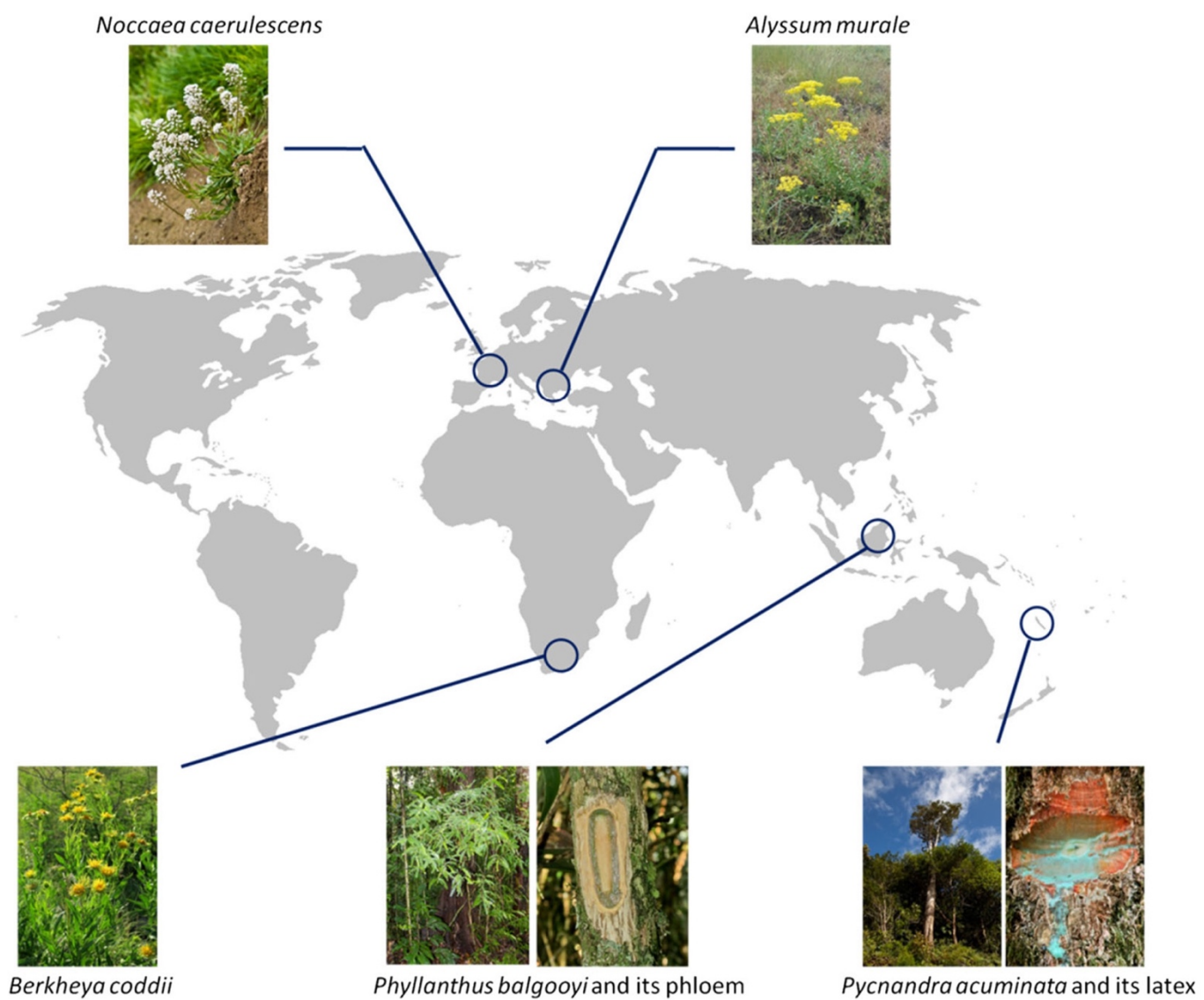


FIGURE 2

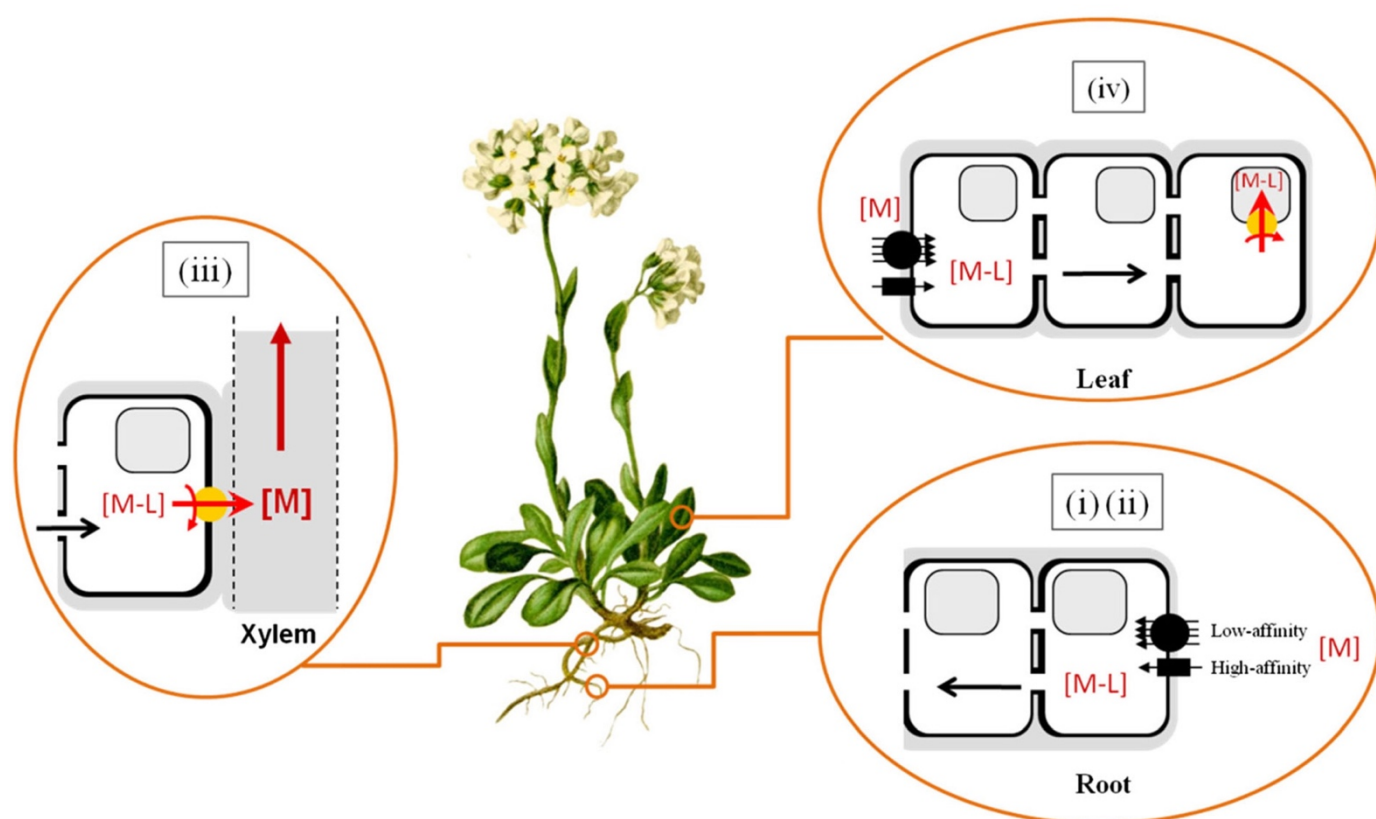


FIGURE 3

