

Control of Vacuolar Dynamics and Regulation of Stomatal Aperture by Tonoplast Potassium Uptake

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Stomatal movements rely on alterations of guard cell turgor. This requires massive K⁺ fluxes across the plasma and tonoplast membranes. Although ion influx into the cytosol of guard cells represents only a transit step to the vacuole, the transporters mediating K⁺ uptake into the vacuole remain to be identified. Here, we report that tonoplast-localized K⁺/H⁺ exchangers are pivotal in the vacuolar accumulation of K⁺ of guard cells and that Arabidopsis *nhx1 nhx2* mutant lines are dysfunctional in stomatal regulation. Hypomorphic and complete-loss-of-function double mutants exhibited distinctly impaired stomatal opening and closure responses. Abrogation of K⁺ accumulation in guard cells correlated with more acidic vacuoles and the disappearance of the highly dynamic remodelling of vacuolar structure associated with stomatal movements. These results establish extensive flux of K⁺ into vacuoles not only as a physicochemical requisite for stomatal opening, but also as a critical component of the K⁺ homeostasis that is needed for stomatal closure. Moreover, our data suggest vacuolar K⁺ fluxes as crucial determinants of vacuolar dynamics that underlie stomatal movements.

Stomata | Vacuole | Potassium | Luminal pH control | Arabidopsis

Introduction

The rapid accumulation and release of K⁺ and of organic and inorganic anions by guard cells, controls the opening and closing of stomata and, thereby, gas exchange and transpiration of plants. The intracellular events that underlie stomatal opening start with plasma membrane hyperpolarization caused by the activation of H⁺-ATPases, which induces K⁺ uptake through voltage-gated inwardly rectifying K⁺_{in} channels (1). Potassium uptake is accompanied by the electrophoretic entry of the counterions chloride, nitrate and sulfate, and by the synthesis of malate. These osmolytes, together with sucrose accumulation, increase the turgor in guard cells and thereby drive stomatal opening. Stomatal closure is initiated by activation of the plasma membrane localized chloride and nitrate efflux channels SLAC1 and SLAH3 that are regulated by the SnRK2 protein kinase OST1 and the Ca²⁺-dependent protein kinases CPK21 and 23 (2, 3). CPK6 also activates SLAC1 and coordinately inhibits rectifying K⁺_{in} channels to hinder stomatal opening (4, 5). Sulfate and organic acids exit the guard cell through R-type anion channels. The accompanying reduction in guard cell turgor results in stomatal closure (1).

Despite the established role of plasma membrane transport in guard cell function and stomatal movement, ion influx into the cytosol represents only a transit step to the vacuole since more than 90% of the solutes released from guard cells originate from vacuoles (6). In contrast to the plasma membrane, knowledge of the transport processes occurring in intracellular compartments of guard cells during stomatal movements is less advanced (7). Only recently, AtALMT9 has been shown to act as a malate-induced chloride channel at the tonoplast that is required for stomatal opening (8). Vacuoles govern turgor-driven changes in guard cell volumes by increases and decreases in vacuolar volume

during stomatal opening and closure, respectively, by more than 40% (9, 10). Monitoring the dynamic changes in guard cell vacuolar structures revealed an intense remodeling during stomatal movements (11, 12). Pharmacological and genetic approaches indicated that dynamic changes of the vacuole are crucial for achieving the full amplitude of stomatal movement (12-14). However, so far no specific tonoplast transport proteins or processes have been functionally linked to vacuolar dynamics during guard cell movements.

Cation channel activities mediating K⁺ release and stomatal closure have been characterized at the tonoplast, including fast vacuolar (FV), slow vacuolar (SV) and K⁺-selective vacuolar (VK) cation channels (7, 15). Genetic inactivation of K⁺-release channels leads to slower stomatal closure kinetics (7, 16). By contrast, the transporters responsible for the uptake of K⁺ into vacuoles against the vacuolar membrane potential that drive the stomatal aperture have remained unknown. We have recently reported that the tonoplast-localized K⁺,Na⁺/H⁺ exchangers NHX1 and NHX2 from Arabidopsis are involved in the accumulation of K⁺ into the vacuole of plant cells thereby increasing their osmotic potential and driving the uptake of water that generates the turgor pressure necessary for cell expansion and growth (17). The involvement of K⁺,Na⁺/H⁺ exchangers in the regulation of plant transpiration was also proposed since the *nhx1 nhx2* mutant exhibited enhanced transpirational water loss compared with wild type when subjected to osmotic stress. Here, to resolve whether active K⁺ uptake at the tonoplast directly regulates stomatal activity by mediating K⁺ accumulation in the

Significance

Rapid fluxes of K⁺ and other osmolytes in guard cells control the opening and closing of stomata, and thereby gas exchange and transpiration of plants. Despite the well established role of the plasma membrane of guard cells in stomatal function, osmolyte uptake into the cytosol represents only a transient step to the vacuole since more than 90% of the solutes accumulate in these organelles. We show that the tonoplast-localized K⁺/H⁺ exchangers mediate the vacuolar accumulation of K⁺ in guard cells and that activity of these transporters not only controls stomatal opening but also stomatal closure. We also establish vacuolar K⁺/H⁺ exchange as a critical component involved in vacuolar remodelling and the regulation of vacuolar pH during stomatal movements.

Reserved for Publication Footnotes

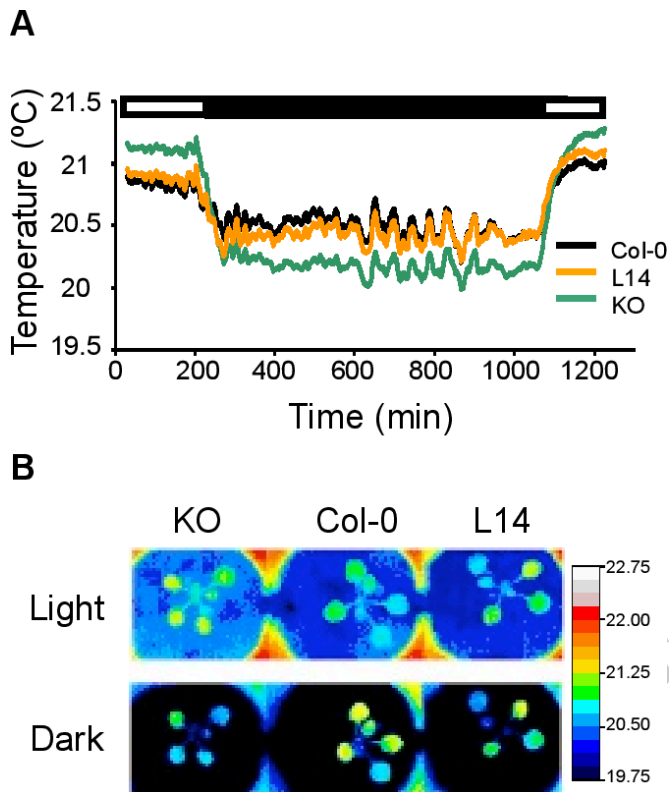


Fig. 1. Thermal imaging suggests that stomata of *nhx1 nhx2* mutants display abnormal behaviour.(A) Data represent the average temperature of two leaves per plant from three different plants of Col-0, L14 and KO lines along light (white box) and dark (black box) periods at one-minute intervals. Error bars have been omitted for clarity; see Table 1 for a statistical analysis. (B) Representative pseudocolored infrared images of leaf temperature of Col-0, L14 and KO lines at the light and dark periods.

vacuole of guard cells, we analyzed the stomatal movements of *nhx1 nhx2* double mutant lines using a range of physiological, molecular and imaging-based approaches. Moreover, we have developed a non-invasive, fluorescence ratiometric method to measure vacuolar pH (pH_v) in guard cells using the H⁺-sensitive and cell-permeant dye Oregon Green and epidermal peels. Our data establish that i) the capacity for K⁺ accumulation into guard cell vacuoles is essential for stomatal activity by facilitating not only stomatal aperture but also closure, ii) K⁺/H⁺ exchange at the guard cell tonoplast mediates the luminal pH_v shifts associated to stomata opening, and iii) the dynamic morphological changes that guard cell vacuoles undergo during stomatal movements are brought about by the uptake of K⁺ into the vacuole.

Results

Vacuolar K⁺ content and morphology of guard cells.

Two *Arabidopsis* double mutant lines were used in this study, the *nhx1-2 nhx2-1* complete loss-of-function mutant (which we refer to from now onwards as 'KO' line) and line L14 carrying the hypomorphic allele *nhx1-1* together with the null allele *nhx2-1* (17). These knock-out and knock-down mutant lines are useful to learn how varying gene expression levels translate into discernible phenotypical variations. Indeed, the phenotype of the L14 line is similar to, but less severe than that of the KO line due to residual expression of *NHX1*, whereas single *nhx1-2* or *nhx2-1* mutants exhibited negligible growth disturbances (17).

Genes *NHX1* and *NHX2* are preferentially expressed in stomata compared to epidermal and mesophyll cells of leaves (17, 18). As highlighted by SEM images, the stomata of KO plants appeared consistently more open than those of the wild type

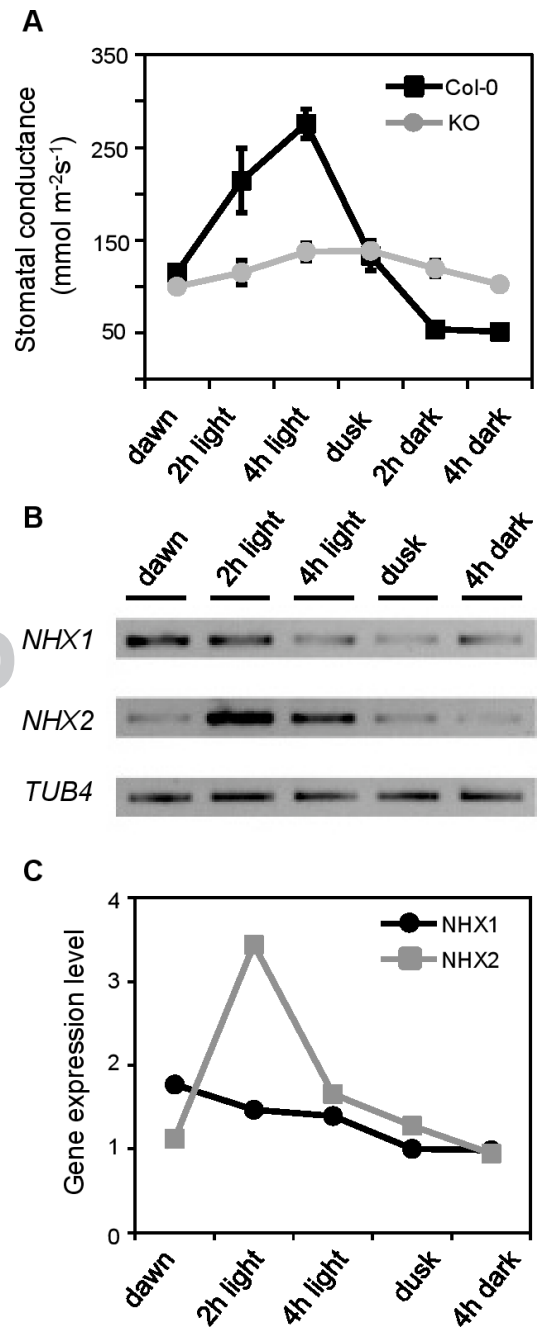


Fig. 2. Diurnal rhythms of stomatal conductance and *NHX* transcript abundance.(A) *In planta* stomatal conductance measurements in Col-0 and KO leaves at different time points of the day/night cycle. Dawn and dusk samples were collected 15 minutes before light was switched on and off, respectively. Data represent mean and SE of 3 plants per line. Mean values were statistically different between wild type and the KO line at $p < 0.05$ in pairwise comparison at each time point by the Tukey's HSD test, except for values at the onset of light and at dusk. (B) RT-PCR analysis of *NHX1* and *NHX2* mRNA expression levels in whole leaves at different time points of the day/night cycle. The gene *TUB4* encoding β -tubulin-4 was used as loading control. (C) Relative *NHX1* and *NHX2* gene expression level at different time points of the day/night cycle calculated by densitometry analysis of the bands shown in (B). Each point represents the mean of three different samples per line calculated after normalization to *TUB4*. Arbitrary units of gene expression are relative to transcript abundance at 4h of darkness.

(Supplemental Figure 1A) and, with a frequency that varied among samples, guard cells in mutant plants presented aberrant

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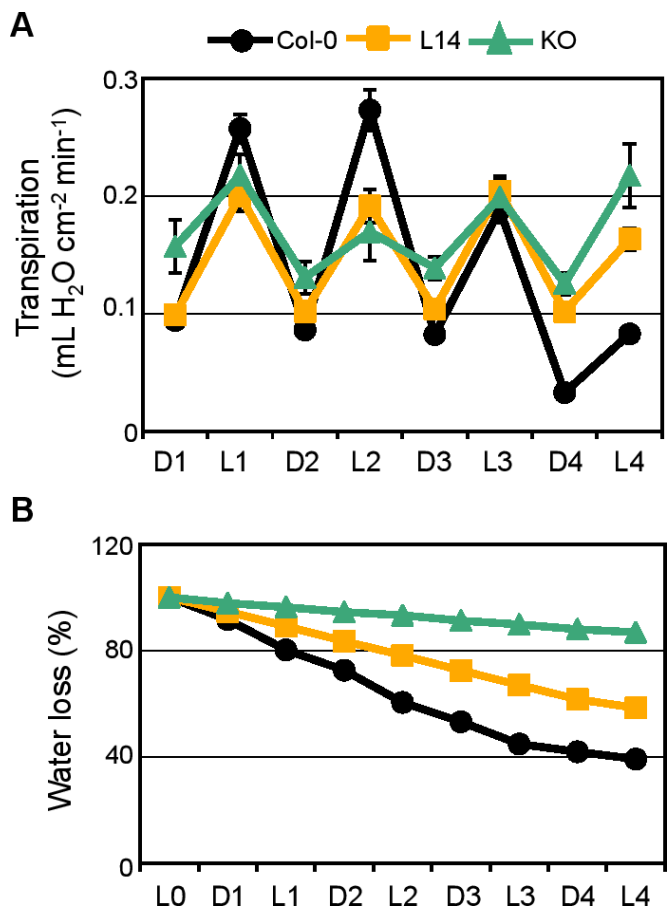


Fig. 3. Reduced water use of *nhx1 nhx2* mutants. (A) Transpiration measurements of Col-0, L14 and KO plants during 4 days of drought stress. Pots were weighed twice daily, at the start of the dark period (D) and at the onset of the light period (L), and transpiration was calculated as the amount of water loss per area unit in each time interval (16 h dark/ 8 h light). Data represent the mean and SE of at least 7 plants in individual pots per genotype. (B) Percentage of water loss along the drought assay in pots with Col-0, L14 and KO plants. Data represent mean and SE of at least 7 plants per genotype. To quantify the background water evaporation from the soil, identical pots without plants were used as control.

morphologies and appeared deflated, suggesting that the lack of NHX function compromised the turgor of these guard cells and hindered their swelling capacity. Moreover, the KO mutant line had pavement cells that presented a more heterogeneous cell size distribution than the wild type (Supplemental Figure 1A). To assess whether stomatal lineage and development of guard cells was affected in the null *nhx1 nhx2* plants, epidermal pavement cell and stomatal density were recorded on impressions of the leaf abaxial surface using dental resin. The KO line had significantly less pavement cells than the wild type, but here also the number of stomata per area unit was proportionally lower (Supplemental Figure 1B). Consequently, wild type and mutant lines had similar stomatal indexes, implying that the absence of NHX proteins does not alter the early development of guard cells.

Guard cells of open stomata accumulate large amounts of K⁺ in comparison to neighboring epidermal cells (17, 19). The size of the vacuolar K⁺ pool was estimated from freeze-fractured leaves exposing the interior of guard cells as described elsewhere (17, 20). Samples were collected 1-2 hours after dawn. The percent of K⁺ counts relative to total elemental counts in guard cells of wild type and L14 plants were 1.20 and 0.55, respectively (*p* < 0.05 by the LSD method). The K⁺ vacuolar content of guard cells in the KO line could not be reliably determined, presumably because of

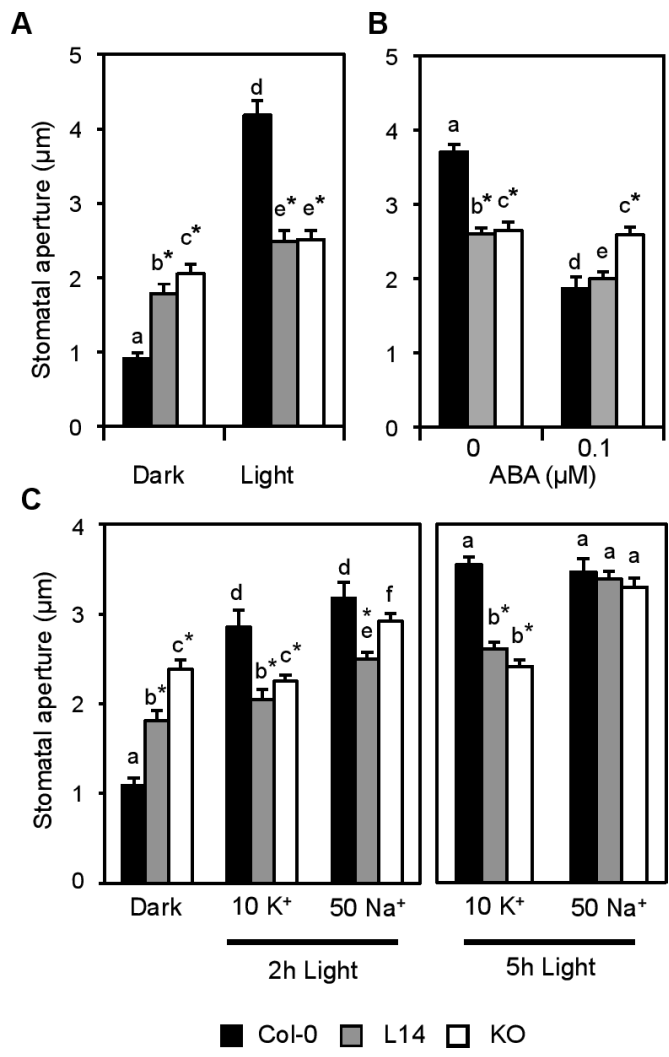


Fig. 4. Defective opening and closure of mutant stomata. (A) Light-induced stomatal opening. (B) ABA-induced stomatal closure. (C) Light-induced stomatal bioassays in the presence of 10 mM KCl or 50 mM NaCl. Data represent the mean and SE of the absolute values of aperture of at least 40 stomata per line and per treatment. Asterisks indicate statistically significant differences relative to the wild type for each treatment at *p* < 0.001 in pairwise comparison by the Tukey's HSD test. Letters indicate statistically significant differences between treatments for each line at *p* < 0.001 in pairwise comparison by the Tukey's HSD test.

the profoundly altered vacuolar structure in guard cells of the KO plants (see below). These results imply that K⁺/H⁺ exchange by NHX proteins represents the main pathway for the K⁺ uptake into the vacuoles of guard cells.

Infrared thermography reveals altered transpiration rates in nhx1 nhx2 mutants

To investigate how impaired vacuolar K⁺ uptake impinged on stomatal function, transpiration rates of whole plants were analyzed by thermal imaging in a light-dark cycle under regular, non-stress growth conditions (21, 22). The leaf temperature of the wild type and of the mutant lines L14 and KO was recorded by obtaining thermal images of 3 to 4-week old plants at 1-min intervals in a 3.5/14/2.5 h light/dark/light cycle. As depicted in Figure 1, during the first light period the leaf temperature in L14 and KO double mutant lines was, on average, significantly elevated compared with wild type (see Supplemental Table S1 for statistical analysis). These results suggested that mutant plants were transpiring less than the wild type, although temperature

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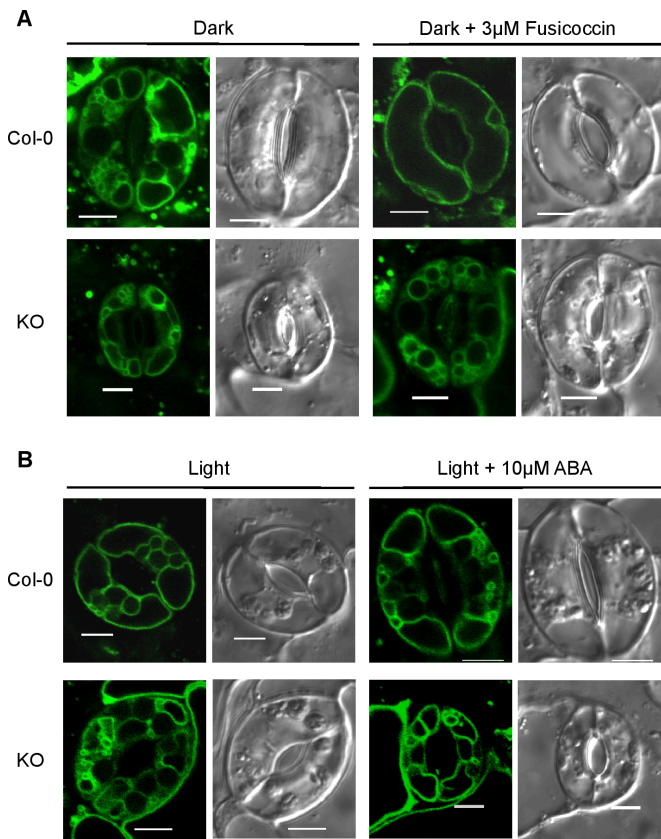


Fig. 5. Vacuolar morphology of guard cells during stomatal movements.(A) Vacuolar structure of Col-0 and KO guard cells visualized with TIP1;1:GFP after dark incubation for 2h (left) and 3 µM fusicoccin treatment for 2h (right). (B) Vacuolar structure of Col-0 and KO guard cells visualized with TIP1;1:GFP after illumination for 2h (left) and followed by 10 µM ABA treatment (right). Right and left panels show bright field and GFP images of TIP1;1:GFP, respectively. Scale bar: 5 µm.

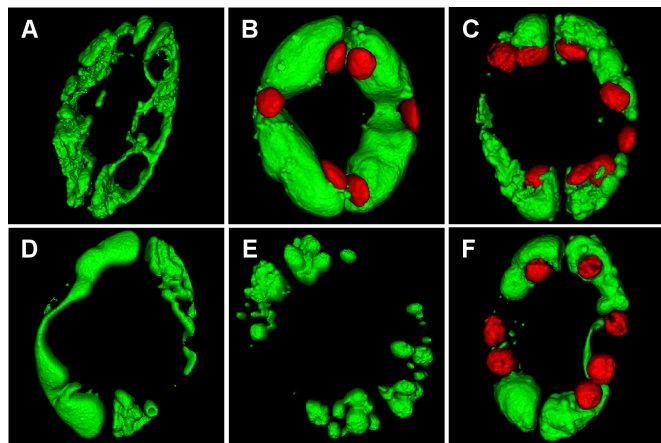


Fig. 6. Three-dimensional projections of vacuolar morphology.(A) Surface rendering of guard cells vacuoles loaded with the BCECF-AM in closed stomata of wild-type plant. (B) Vacuolar morphology in open stomata of wild type. Autofluorescence signal of chloroplasts was also captured and shown in red. (C) to (F) Light-treated stomata of *nhx1 nhx2* mutant plant. Chloroplasts are shown in red (C and F) or have been omitted (D and E).

differences could be explained by dissimilar transpiration rates per area unit, unequal leaf sizes, or a combination of the two. However, the opposite trend was observed during the dark period. The leaves of L14 plants were cooler than wild-type leaves

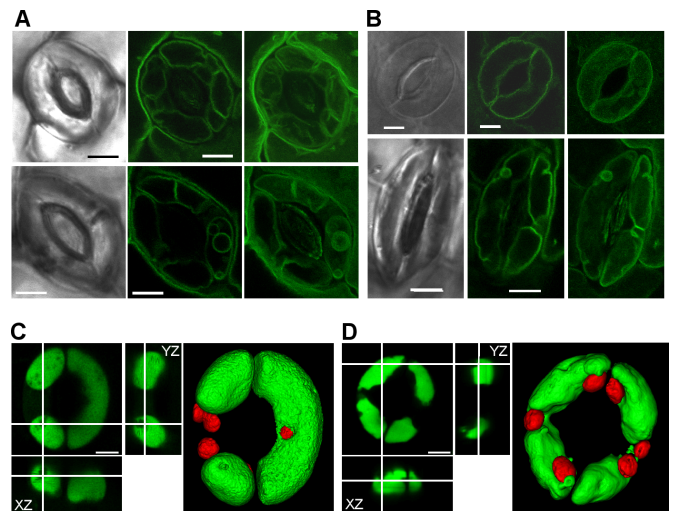


Fig. 7. Alleviation of vacuolar dysfunction by sodium.(A) Vacuolar structure of *nhx1 nhx2* guard cells visualized with TIP1;1:GFP during stomatal opening. Pictures were taken after illumination for 2h in the presence of 10 mM KCl (upper row panels) or 50 mM of NaCl (lower row panels). Left, middle and right column panels show bright field, GFP images, and a 3-D projection of Z-axis images of TIP1;1:GFP, respectively. Scale bar: 5 µm. (B) Vacuolar structure in guard cells of the transgenic line expressing NHX2:GFP after illumination for 2h (upper row panels) and after to 2 h of incubation in darkness (lower row panels). The incubation buffer contained 10 mM KCl. Left, middle and right column panels show bright field, GFP images, and a 3-D projection of Z-axis images of NHX2:GFP, respectively. Scale bar: 5 µm. (C) Orthogonal views and 3-D surface rendering of Z-axis images of the wild type guard cell vacuoles loaded with 10 µM of BCECF-AM. Pictures were taken after illumination for 3h in the presence of 50 mM of NaCl. Scale bar: 5 µm. (D) Orthogonal views and 3-D surface rendering of Z-axis images of the *nhx1 nhx2* guard cell vacuoles loaded with 10 µM of BCECF-AM. Pictures were taken after illumination for 3h in the presence of 50 mM of NaCl. Scale bar: 5 µm.

at the beginning of the dark period (Table S1, periods 2 and 3) but progressively reached wild-type values before the onset of the next light period (Table S1, periods 4 and 5). This result indicated that the hypomorphic mutant line L14 retained the ability to close its stomata at night, albeit more slowly than the wild type. By contrast, leaves of the KO mutant remained cooler than the wild type during the whole dark period (Table S1, periods 2-5), presumably due to the inability of the KO mutant to close its stomata in response to darkness. After the dark/light transition the values observed were similar to those of the first light period (Table S1, period 6).

Disruption of vacuolar K⁺ uptake affects the diurnal cycles of stomatal movements

Stomatal movement is one of the many physiological processes controlled by the circadian clock. Opening starts shortly before dawn and closure anticipates dusk to optimize the gas exchange and photosynthetic carbon fixation while preventing undesired water loss (23). To investigate how disruption of vacuolar K⁺ uptake influenced stomatal responses to diurnal cycles, stomatal conductance was measured in leaves of single mutants (*nhx1-2; nhx2-1*), the double mutant (KO line), and in wild type plants at six different time points in a short-day diurnal period (8h day/16h night). The stomatal conductance of Col-0 leaves increased after dawn and reached a maximum at midday. No significant differences in conductance were found between the wild type and single null mutants *nhx1-2* and *nhx2-1* (Supplemental Figure 2A). By contrast, the stomatal conductance of KO plants exhibited a strongly impaired and delayed response during the day and reached a plateau at dusk, when stomatal conductance in the wild type had already declined (Figure 2A).

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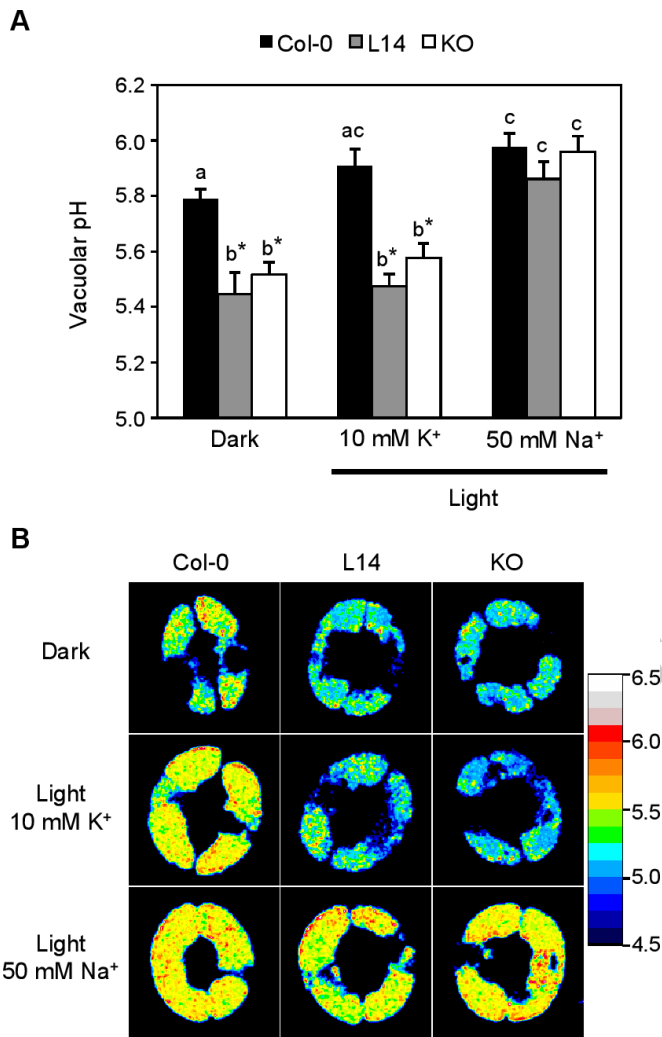


Fig. 8. Acidification of vacuolar pH in mutant guard cells.(A) Vacuolar pH measured after light-induced stomatal opening in the presence of 10 mM KCl or 50 mM NaCl in guard cells loaded with the pH-sensitive dye Oregon Green. Data represent the mean and SE of vacuolar pH values of at least 20 stomata per line and per treatment. Asterisks indicate statistically significant differences relative to the wild type for each treatment at $p < 0.001$ in pairwise comparison by the Tukey's HSD test. Letters indicate statistically significant differences between treatments for each line at $p < 0.001$ in pairwise comparison by the Tukey's HSD test. (B) Representative ratiometric images of wild-type and *nhx1 nhx2* mutant guard cells generated by dividing the emission images obtained in the 488 nm channel by those acquired in the 458 nm channel.

After 2h of darkness the stomatal conductance of the wild type was further reduced, whereas the conductance of the KO mutant slowly declined during the dark period to reach values similar to those found at dawn. These data indicate that not only the amplitude of the stomatal movement was lower in the absence of active K⁺ uptake at the tonoplast, but also that stomatal opening and closure in the mutant were more prolonged and delayed compared with the wild type.

Transcripts of *NHX1*, and to a lesser extent *NHX2*, have been reported to undergo circadian regulation in *Arabidopsis* (24, 25). To corroborate the microarray data, expression of *NHX1* and *NHX2* genes in the course of a light/dark cycle was determined by RT-PCR at five time points of the diurnal cycle in whole leaves (Figure 2B). The abundance of *NHX1* transcript was high before dawn and then declined steadily under daylight (Figure 2C). By contrast, the *NHX2* transcript abundance was low before

dawn, climbed to a maximal 3.5-fold upregulation after 2 h of light and then declined steadily to basal levels under darkness. Although the RT-PCR data reflect the transcript abundance in whole leaves and not only guard cells, the diurnal variation of *NHX2* mRNA abundance resembled the dynamics of stomatal conductance (Figure 2A,C). However, the stomatal conductance of the single mutant *nhx2-1* was largely similar to that of the wild type, which could be due to the ca. 40% increase in *NHX1* transcript abundance in the *nhx2-1* mutant under light (Supplemental Figure 2). No compensatory upregulation of *NHX2* was found in the reciprocal single mutant *nhx1-2*.

Transpiration and soil water consumption of nhx1 nhx2 mutants

Regulation of transpiration is critical for plant water relations and adaptation to water deficit. To study the physiological relevance of stomatal behavior in whole the *nhx1 nhx2* mutant plants, transpiration and water consumption were measured in 7-week old Col-0, L14 and KO plants growing in soil and subjected to water withdrawal. During the first two days without watering the KO mutant showed higher transpiration rates during the dark periods than the Col-0 and L14 lines (Figure 3A). This is in accord with thermography (Figure 1) and stomatal conductance (Figure 2) measurements. By contrast, the two mutant lines exhibited less transpiration than the wild type during the first and second light periods. These results demonstrate that the L14 mutant is more affected in stomatal opening than in stomatal closure whereas the KO mutant is impaired in both processes. The transpiratory oscillations of the wild type changed toward lower transpiration values as the soil dried and plants started to wilt (Supplemental Figure 3A). Wild-type plants first showed wilting symptoms at day 2 after stopping watering, L14 plants after 4 days, and the KO mutant started to shrivel after 2 weeks. The latter survived for more than 25 days. Gravimetric measurements showed that pots with wild type plants had lost 60% of the soil water in 4 days, and that the KO mutant used negligible amounts of water (Figure 3B). Compared to the wild type, mutant lines presented lower K⁺ contents in the aerial parts that correlated proportionally with shoot biomass (Supplemental Figure 3B). By contrast, when plants of wild-type and mutant lines were let to compete for soil water, no differences in survival were found (Supplemental Figure 3C). These results indicate that the amount of K⁺ that plants were able to collect and store, and not water availability, limited the growth of the *nhx1 nhx2* mutants.

Stomatal movements are severely impaired in nhx1 nhx2 mutant lines.

To better understand guard cell behavior when energetically uphill vacuolar K⁺ accumulation is compromised, stomatal responses to light and ABA were investigated on peels of the lower epidermis of wild type and mutant lines. Wild-type stomata were 4.6-fold more open under light than in the dark (Figure 4A). In marked contrast, both dark-induced closure and light-induced stomatal opening were significantly impaired in the L14 and KO lines compared to the wild type. Stomatal apertures in mutant plants kept in the dark were 2-fold that of the wild type, and increased only ~20-30% upon transfer to light. Together, these data indicate that both stomatal closure and stomatal opening processes were affected by mutations *nhx1 nhx2*. An impaired response was also observed when ABA-induced closure of light-opened stomata was tested (Figure 4B). Here, it is noteworthy that while there was a detectable 23% reduction in the stomatal pore in the L14 line after ABA application, the stomata in the KO line were largely unresponsive to the hormonal treatment.

Both ABA and external Ca²⁺ cause increases in cytosolic levels of Ca²⁺ that further relay the signal to downstream responses (1). Because ABA-induced changes in cytosolic pH precede long-term Ca²⁺ transients (26-28) and tonoplast K⁺/H⁺ exchange might indirectly affect cytosolic pH (29), Ca²⁺-induced stomatal closure bioassays were conducted to test signal relay

681 downstream ABA-induced cytosolic alkalinization. In this assay, 749
682 stomata of L14 plants were again less responsive than the wild 750
683 type (Supplemental Figure 4A), suggesting that the *nhx1 nhx2* 751
684 plants are affected in events that lead to stomata closure further 752
685 downstream of Ca^{2+} transients. 753

686 Despite K^+ being the main cation in guard cell vacuoles 754
687 in most plant species, Na^+ may substitute for K^+ in stomatal 755
688 opening, albeit higher concentrations are usually needed to reach 756
689 the same outcome (30, 31). Accordingly, light-induced stomatal 757
690 aperture in wild-type plants was sequentially higher with increas- 758
691 ing Na^+ concentrations in the incubation buffer, with 50 mM 759
692 NaCl being required to match the aperture attained with 10 mM 760
693 of KCl (Supplemental Figure 4B). While mutant plants failed 761
694 to open their stomata in 10 mM KCl, they were responsive to 762
695 light in 50 mM NaCl (Figure 4C). Light-induced aperture of 763
696 mutant stomata in 50 mM NaCl was significantly higher than in 764
697 10 mM KCl after 2h, and stomata reached full aperture after 5 765
698 h incubation. Wild type and mutants alike failed to close Na^+ - 766
699 opened stomata when treated with 1 μM ABA for 1 h under 767
700 light. (Supplemental Figure 4C). Previous research has shown 768
701 that, in Arabidopsis, stomatal closure is impaired after aperture in 769
702 NaCl because vacuolar Na^+ cannot be readily excreted (32, 33). 770
703 Together, these results demonstrate that the vacuolar uptake of 771
704 inorganic cations is a principal component of guard cell expansion 772
705 and that NHX exchangers play a specific and essential role in the 773
706 stomatal movements by taking K^+ into the vacuole of guard cells 774
707 of Arabidopsis. By contrast, they appear to be dispensable for 775
708 Na^+ accumulation. 776

709 *Cation uptake is required for accurate regulation of vacuolar* 777
710 *dynamics in guard cells.* 778

711 Guard cell vacuoles undergo dramatic morphological and vol- 779
712 ume changes that coincide with aperture and closure of stomata 780
713 (11-13). In fully opened stomata a large vacuole occupies most 781
714 of the cellular volume whereas in closed stomata the vacuole 782
715 forms a shrunk and convoluted, but mostly continuous structure. 783
716 Although the rapid vacuolar dynamics of guard cells must some- 784
717 how rely on fast changes in water potential, no specific osmolyte 785
718 flux or transport protein have been experimentally linked to 786
719 this process. To assess whether vacuolar K^+ uptake affects the 787
720 vacuolar dynamics in guard cells, transgenic lines of Col-0 and 788
721 *nhx1 nhx2* knockout mutant expressing the tonoplast intrinsic 789
722 protein TIP1;1 fused to GFP were created. Epidermal peels were 790
723 harvested at the end of the night period and stomatal opening 791
724 was induced chemically by adding 3 μM fusicoccin while keeping 792
725 the epidermal strips in the dark for 2 hours. Closed stomata 793
726 from untreated Col-0 epidermal peels exhibited the expected 794
727 fragmented vacuolar pattern in confocal planes (Figure 5A). 795
728 Three-dimensional rendering of guard cell vacuoles loaded with 796
729 the vacuolar dye BCECF-AM revealed however that the vacu- 797
730 ole was mostly a continuous structure (Figure 6A). Fusicoccin- 798
731 treated (Figure 5A) and light-opened stomata (Figure 5B, Figure 799
732 6B) appeared completely open in the wild type, and guard cells 800
733 displayed just one or two large vacuoles occupying the entire 801
734 cell. The stomatal aperture in the KO line after fusicoccin or 802
735 light treatments was significantly smaller than the wild type and 803
736 vacuoles showed the convoluted vacuolar structure indicative of 804
737 closed stomata (Figure 5A, Figure 6C,D). Remarkably, vacuoles 805
738 of mutant guard cells were often split into a large number of 806
739 smaller structures of a vesicular morphology, indicating that vac- 807
740 uolar integrity or the coalescence of endosomal compartments 808
741 into larger vacuoles was impaired in these plants (Figure 6E). In 809
742 converse experiments, light-opened stomata showed TIP1;1:GFP 810
743 fluorescence in a small number of large vacuoles in the wild type 811
744 (Figure 5B) whereas guard cells of the KO line exhibited distinct 812
745 or loosely connected compartments (Figure 6F). When wild- 813
746 type stomata were forced to close by application of ABA, large 814
747 vacuolar compartments disaggregated and numerous invaginated 815
748

749 structures appeared (Figure 5B). By contrast, guard cell vacuoles 750
751 of the KO mutant remained unaltered and unresponsive to ABA. 751
752 Together, these findings reveal that vacuolar dynamics during 752
753 stomatal movements is strictly linked to the function of the NHX 753
754 exchangers and active K^+ uptake at the tonoplast. 754

755 The vacuolar dynamics in guard cells during stomatal move- 755
756 ments was also monitored in leaf discs instead of epidermal peels 756
757 because the stomata remain viable for longer when the pavement 757
758 epidermal cells are intact, in contrast to epidermal peels where 758
759 pavement epidermal cells have been disrupted (34, 35). More- 759
760 over, stomatal movement was suggested to be mechanically 760
761 coupled to leaf turgor and to the water status of neighboring cells 761
762 (34, 36). Leaf discs of transgenic Col-0 and KO lines expressing 762
763 the tonoplast marker TIP1;1:GFP were incubated 2 h under light 763
764 to induce stomatal opening and then mounted in stomatal buffer 764
765 containing 10 μM of ABA for time-lapse confocal microscopy. 765
766 Wild-type stomata were completely open prior to ABA applica- 766
767 tion and fluorescence was observed on the vacuolar membrane 767
768 of a single, large compartment that occupied most of the guard 768
769 cell volume (Supplemental Figure 5). After 30 minutes, wild- 769
770 type stomata were completely closed and vacuoles were parti- 770
771 tioned into several compartments and invaginations, as observed 771
772 in confocal planes. By contrast, in the KO mutant the stomatal 772
773 aperture and the vacuolar morphology did not change at any 773
774 time before or after ABA application and the vacuolar structures 774
775 appeared wrinkled and invaginated in smaller compartments 775
776 (Supplemental Figure 5). Stomatal opening induced with 3 μM of 776
777 fusicoccin recapitulated, in reverse, the dynamics observed during 777
778 stomata closure (Supplemental Figure 6). Again, the guard cells 778
779 of the KO mutant were largely unresponsive to the treatment and 779
780 the vacuolar structures presented many tonoplast invaginations 780
781 and smaller compartments. These observations demonstrate that 781
782 vacuolar dynamics, which coincide with stomatal movements, 782
783 are severely impaired in plants lacking K^+/H^+ exchangers and 783
784 establish an essential function of K^+ transport for the accurate 784
785 regulation of vacuolar dynamics during guard cell movements. 785
786 These results also suggest that the process of vacuolar remodeling 786
787 is autonomous in guard cells and not significantly dependent on 787
788 external effectors originated in neighboring cells since vacuolar 788
789 dynamics in guard cells were virtually identical in epidermal peels 789
790 and in leaf discs. 790

791 Together, the above data support the conclusion that rapid 791
792 and drastic changes in vacuolar morphology are crucial mech- 792
793 anisms for guard cell regulation and strongly suggest causality 793
794 between defective ion uptake at the tonoplast and the absence 794
795 of vacuolar dynamics. To test if restoration of stomatal aperture 795
796 in the KO mutant by Na^+ supplementation (Figure 4C) was ac- 796
797 companied with normal vacuolar dynamics, epidermal strips were 797
798 incubated for 2h under light in buffer containing 10 mM K^+ or 50 798
799 mM Na^+ . Figure 7A shows that, in contrast to the dysfunctional 799
800 process driven by K^+ , the stomatal aperture of the mutant plant in 800
801 the presence of Na^+ correlated with the re-establishment of vac- 801
802 uolar dynamics. The structure of Na^+ -filled vacuoles was however 802
803 slightly different from that observed under K^+ supplementation. 803
804 When Na^+ was used as osmoticum, the structure of the vacuolar 804
805 compartment in both the wild type and the mutant was more 805
806 intricate, with the presence of what appeared to be intravacuolar 806
807 vesicles that were recalcitrant to BCECF-AM loading (Figure 807
808 7C). Sodium-loaded vacuoles in the KO line had a wavy surface 808
809 compared to the wild type (Figure 7D). These findings highlight 809
810 the importance of cellular turgor adjustment as prerequisite for 810
811 allowing the dynamic reorganization of vacuolar morphology and 811
812 volume changes that accompany guard cell movements. 812

813 Light-induced stomatal opening and dark-induced closure 813
814 stomatal bioassays on epidermal peels of the Col-0 line express- 814
815 ing the NHX2 protein fused to GFP revealed that NHX2:GFP 815
816 fluorescence was mainly observed on the vacuolar membrane 816

when stomata were fully open (Figure 7B). However, NHX2:GFP fluorescence was observed in several tonoplast invaginations and vesicles in closed stomata, recapitulating what had been observed with the TIP1;1:GFP marker. These results indicate that NHX activity at the tonoplast is directly related to the vacuolar dynamics associated to stomata movements.

Guard cell vacuoles are more acidic in the nhx1 nhx2 mutant than in the wild type.

To determine the vacuolar pH (pH_v) of wild-type and mutant guard cells, we established a novel fluorescence ratiometric method using the H⁺-sensitive and cell-permeant dye Oregon Green 488 carboxylic acid diacetate in epidermal peels. Oregon Green, which has been used successfully to measure pH in endomembrane compartments in animal cells and fungi (37, 38), loaded specifically the vacuolar lumen of Arabidopsis guard cells (Supplemental Figure 7A). The ratiometric nature of this pH indicator avoids undesired effects caused by unequal loading depending on the compartment size or by differential concentration of the dye at different stages of the vacuolar re-structuration, while the measured fluorescence ratios can be converted to pH values using an in situ calibration curve (Supplemental Figure 7B). Ratiometric fluorescence imaging of guard cell vacuoles in dark-closed stomata showed that the mutant lines had a significantly more acidic vacuolar lumen (Figure 8). Light-induced stomatal opening in the presence of 10 mM KCl elicited a statistically significant alkalization of wild-type vacuoles by 0.15-0.25 units, depending on the experiment, while the response in mutant vacuoles was curtailed, as was stomatal aperture itself. Notably, substituting NaCl for KCl in the incubation buffer enhanced the aperture of mutant stomata and brought the pH_v to wild-type values. The results indicate that K⁺/H⁺ exchange by NHX proteins is essential to maintain the correct pH in guard cell vacuoles and that restoration of stomatal opening by NaCl in the mutant correlates with the re-establishment of wild-type pH_v values.

Discussion

Stomatal movements rely on turgor and volume changes in the guard cells. The main solutes involved in guard cell osmoregulation are K⁺ and sucrose, and accompanying anions (chloride, nitrate, sulfate and malate), depending on the environmental conditions and the time of the day (7, 39, 40). Due to the high mobility of K⁺ and because it is an energetically cheap solute, guard cells accumulate K⁺ salts in large amounts, mainly in the vacuole, to open the stomata (41). Accumulation of K⁺ into the vacuole against the electrochemical gradient is necessary to generate sufficient turgor for stomatal opening, and this uphill K⁺ transport has to be mediated by secondary active carriers (34, 42). Here, we show that this critical function is carried out by vacuolar K⁺/H⁺ antiporters. Light- and fusicoccin-induced stomatal opening was severely impaired in *nhx1 nhx2* mutants in the presence of KCl (Figures 4 and 5) and fully restored by NaCl (Figure 4). The restoration of vacuolar dynamics and wild-type pH_v by incubation in NaCl strongly indicates that stomatal movement defects are not due to a general mechanical failure of mutant guard cells, but are linked to a process that is dependent on the ability to accumulate alkali cations in the vacuole. Mutant plants exhibited reduced stomatal conductance (Figure 2) and transpiration (Figure 3) compared with the wild type during the light photoperiod when the stomata open. The 50% reduction in maximal transpiration rate of the KO mutant relative to the wild type (Figure 2) was twice as large as the reduction in stomatal density (Supplemental Figure 1), indicating that the KO mutant had not only fewer stomata per leaf area unit but also that their aperture was compromised. Thermal imaging and stomatal bioassays showed that the leaky mutant presented a less severe stomatal dysfunction than the null double mutant. Presumably

the activity of NHX1 remaining in the hypomorphic *nhx1-1* allele allowed some accumulation of K⁺ into the vacuoles, thereby allowing stomatal opening and closure. This is consistent with the relative K⁺ contents of these mutant lines (Supplemental Figure 3B). It is worth noting that the curtailed and delayed responses of stomata in the null mutant in daily cycles led to the counterintuitive finding that mutant plants survived longer under water deprivation because the plants were not only smaller but they also transpired less per leaf area unit during the day, thus consuming less soil water. Water loss at night in the mutant was greater compared to the wild type, but this was apparently compensated by diurnal water savings (Figure 3). However, when wild type and mutant plants shared the soil and competed for water, the mutant plants had no selective advantage and wilted at the same rate than the wild type (Supplemental Figure 3C).

Although full stomatal opening was impaired in *nhx1 nhx2* mutant plants, their stomata retained a limited response to diurnal cycles (Figure 2 and 3). The lowest limit for vacuolar K⁺ concentration appears to be 10 to 20 mM, which is thought to reflect equilibrium with the cytosol at a maximum trans-tonoplast voltage of 40 to 60 mV (42, 43). Systems modeling of guard cell transport and volume control suggested that bidirectional K⁺ flux (i.e., including K⁺ uptake for stomata opening) across the tonoplast was largely mediated by the TPK channel, with only minor contributions of the FV and TPC channels (44). Our data indicate however that tonoplast K⁺ channels facilitated minimal K⁺ uptake into the vacuole of guard cells, that was by itself insufficient to promote full stomatal aperture in the *nhx1 nhx2* mutants. The more acidic pH_v in the mutant relative to the wild type is also in agreement with a substantial K⁺/H⁺ exchange by NHX proteins at the tonoplast thereby recycling H⁺ toward the cytosol. Sucrose and other organic osmolytes also accumulate in the vacuole of guard cells during stomatal opening and could explain the limited stomatal opening capacity observed in KO plants. However, the photosynthesis-dependent accumulation of sucrose mainly occurs during the late light period, when K⁺ concentrations have already decreased (39, 40). Prior K⁺ accumulation to drive the rapid stomatal opening at dawn is an essential prerequisite for the sucrose-dominated phase, indicating that in the afternoon sucrose replaces K⁺ for turgor maintenance instead of just enhancing stomatal opening. Our results are consistent with the two-phase osmoregulation in guard cells of Arabidopsis (19). Stomatal conductance increased sharply in wild-type plants but it progressed at a slow pace in the KO mutant, reaching its maximum by the end of the day presumably due to the comparatively slow accumulation of photosynthesis-dependent organic solutes (Figure 2). The slow closure at night likely reflects the release of the less mobile sucrose in the mutant. Therefore, NHX proteins are directly involved in the K⁺ accumulation that drives the rapid stomatal opening that takes place at the start of the light period, but their lack also irreparably affects the succeeding sugar-dependent phase.

Unexpectedly, stomata closure was also affected in *nhx1 nhx2* mutants. Stomatal closure is largely dependent on the activation of ion efflux channels in the vacuolar and plasma membranes (7). Arabidopsis plants lacking the vacuolar K⁺-release channel TPK1 display slower stomatal closure but normal opening kinetics (16), whereas inactivation of the plasma membrane anion release channel SLAC1 impaired both stomatal closure and opening (45, 46). The impairment of *slac1* mutant on stomatal opening is due to the reduction of inward K⁺ channel activity and enhancement of outward K⁺ currents by a compensatory feedback control that is triggered by the increase of cytosolic Ca²⁺ and of 0.2 pH_{cyt} units in the *slac1* mutant (45, 46). Impairment of stomatal closure in the *nhx1 nhx2* mutants suggests that the requirement for active K⁺ uptake at the tonoplast represents not simply the end point in the process of stomatal opening. Instead, this finding implies that

953 the K^+ status of guard cells feeds-back on the closure of stomata
954 by a yet unknown mechanism. Mechanistically, this inhibition of
955 stomatal closure might be mediated the combination of the 2-fold
956 reduction in vacuolar K^+ content (this work) and of enhanced
957 K^+ cytosolic accumulation in the *nhx1 nhx2* mutant (17) that
958 together could compromise depolarization of the tonoplast by
959 vacuolar K^+ efflux prior to stomatal closure. A similar mechanism
960 has been suggested for the slightly impaired stomatal closure
961 observed in *Arabidopsis* lacking the vacuolar anion/ H^+ exchanger
962 AtCLCc (34, 47). Notably, the vacuolar chloride-uptake channel
963 AtALMT9 is required for fast and complete stomatal opening but
964 has no effect on stomata closure (8), in contrast to defective K^+
965 uptake.

966 Guard cell vacuoles undergo remarkable morphological
967 changes that contribute to stomatal opening and closure move-
968 ments (13). Vacuole remodeling allows a swift and dramatic
969 reduction in cell volume for stomatal closure while maintain-
970 ing the total membrane surface area that is essential for rapid
971 stomatal reopening (11, 13, 48). Here, we have investigated the
972 role of vacuolar K^+ uptake in guard cell vacuolar dynamics dur-
973 ing stomatal movements using *Arabidopsis* Col-0 and null *nhx1*
974 *nhx2* plants expressing TIP1;1:GFP fusion. Three-dimensional
975 reconstruction of wild-type vacuoles revealed a single or a few
976 main continuous vacuolar compartments that appeared deflated
977 and convoluted in closed stomata, and that expanded to form a
978 readily detectable single vacuole in open stomata. Compared with
979 control plants, null mutants were unable to merge and expand
980 the smaller vacuolar compartments resulting in the failure of
981 stomatal opening. Under stomata-closing conditions, guard cells
982 of the KO plants contained several compartments that appeared
983 to be smaller, and tonoplast invaginations and a wavy vacuolar
984 surface that changed little over the time course of the treatment.
985 This lack of vacuolar motility correlated with the inability of
986 the null mutant to fully open and close the stomata. One of
987 the mechanisms proposed for vacuolar expansion in guard cells
988 consists of passive fusion of endosomes due to physical contact
989 between neighboring vesicles that increase their size by accumu-
990 lating ions and water (13). This may explain why the lack of K^+
991 uptake at the tonoplast affected the vacuolar morphology. The
992 null mutant could not accumulate enough K^+ and the subsequent
993 water entry into the vesicles was impaired. Consequently, small
994 vacuoles could not enlarge and fuse to each other. This conclu-
995 sion is supported by the restoration of vacuolar dynamics and
996 stomatal opening in the KO mutant when Na^+ replaced K^+ as
997 the main osmoticum in the assay. Another not mutually exclusive
998 mechanism could be provided by vesicle fusion caused by pH
999 changes in the lumen of the vesicles and in their surrounding cy-
1000 toplasm. In *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*, the endosomal $Na^+, K^+/H^+$
1001 antiporter homologous to the *Arabidopsis* NHX1 and NHX2
1002 proteins regulates vesicle fusion by controlling the luminal pH
1003 through its ion exchange activity (49). The K^+/H^+ antiporter
1004 activity of the NHX proteins coupled to V-ATPase and V-PPases
1005 activities would drive these pH changes in plants. The vacuolar
1006 lumen is more acidic in guard cells of *nhx1 nhx2* null mutants
1007 than in wild type (Figure 8) whereas the opposite was found
1008 in *Arabidopsis* mutants with defective vacuolar proton pumps
1009 VHA and VHP that had delayed ABA-induced stomatal closure
1010 (12). The lack of tonoplast K^+/H^+ exchangers could therefore
1011 impair stomatal function by affecting pH-dependent processes
1012 in addition to their contribution to the purely physicochemical
1013 component of turgor-driven stomatal movements. Acidification
1014 of the vacuolar lumen inhibits the opening of the tonoplast efflux
1015 channel TPC1 (50), which may contribute further to the inhibition
1016 of stomatal closure in *nhx1 nhx2* plants. Taken together, these
1017 data suggest a two-tier contribution of K^+/H^+ exchangers in the
1018 stomatal movements in *Arabidopsis*. Ensuing the generation of
1019 proton gradients by the activation of the plasma membrane and
1020

tonoplast H^+ -pumps, the NHX proteins couple two simultaneous
processes: the alkalization of the endosomal compartments to
initiate vacuolar fusion which results in an increase of vacuolar
surface area and volume, and the accumulation of osmotically
active K^+ with the subsequent entry of water and increase of cell
turgor.

In summary, our results establish that the large uptake flux
of K^+ at the tonoplast of guard cells is not only a physicochem-
ical requisite for stomatal opening, but also a critical step to
sustain the K^+ homeostasis that is needed for stomatal closure.
Moreover, this study reveals that ion transport activity by NHX
proteins represents the basis for the intense remodeling of the
vacuoles and associated endosomes that take place concurrently
with stomatal movements.

Materials and Methods

Plant material and growth conditions

Single and double mutant lines of *Arabidopsis thaliana* carrying alleles
nhx1-1, *nhx1-2* and *nhx2-1* have been described elsewhere (17). Plants
of were grown on soil in a Sanyo MLR-351 plant growth chamber under the
day/night regime: 23/19°C, 60-70% relative humidity, 8/16 h illumination, and
250 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ photosynthetically active radiation (PAR).

Gene constructs for plant transformation

NHX2:GFP and TIP1;1:GFP translational fusions were created using the
GFPmut1 variant with enhanced fluorescence and optimized for translation
in eukaryotic cells (51), and the cDNAs of the NHX2 (At3g05030) and TIP1;1
(At2g36830) genes. Detailed information on primers, plasmid constructs, and
production of transgenic lines is given in Supplemental Methods.

Thermal imaging

Thermal images of 3-4 week-old plants were obtained using a Thermo-
Cam SC5000 infrared camera (Inframetrics, FLIR Systems) placed in a chamber
with constant humidity (70%), temperature (21°C) and light intensity (90
 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$). Images were obtained at 1-minute intervals in a 3,5/14/2,5h
light/dark/light cycle. Leaf temperature was calculated as the average tem-
perature of the pixels contained into a standard area drawn on leaves using
the FLIR Altair software. Data represent the temperature moving average
of two leaves per plant from three different plants per line. Representative
images were saved as 8-bit TIFF files and treated with the analysis program
ImageJ (National Institutes of Health, USA; <http://rsbweb.nih.gov/ij/>).

Stomatal conductance measurements

Leaf gas exchange was determined using the steady state porometer
LI-1600 (LI-COR). Stomatal conductance rate ($\text{mmol of water m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$) was
measured in 6 to 7-week-old plants. Measurements were recorded at six
different points of the day: light onset, 2h and 4h of light, dusk, 2h and 4h
after darkness. A total of 3 measurements for each genotype (3 plants per
line) were recorded and mean and standard error calculated.

Stomatal bioassays

Light-induced stomatal opening bioassays were done on leaves of 4-6
week-old-plants. Strips of leaf abaxial epidermis were harvested at the end
of the night period and incubated for 2 h in darkness in stomatal incubation
buffer containing 10 mM MES-KOH, 10 mM KCl, 50 $\mu\text{M CaCl}_2$, pH 6.5 and then
for 2 h under light (250 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$) at 22°C (16, 50, 52). In Na^+ -supported
stomatal opening bioassays KCl was replaced by NaCl (30, 50 or 75 mM) in
the stomatal incubation buffer. Images were captured with a CCD digital
camera connected to a Zeiss Axioskop microscope and stomatal apertures
were measured with the AxioVision software (Zeiss). For fusicoccin-induced
stomatal opening experiments, abaxial epidermal peels were pre-incubated
for 2 h in the dark before treatment with 3 μM fusicoccin from *Fusicoccum*
amygdali (Sigma) for another 2 h in darkness (11). For Ca^{2+} - and ABA-induced
stomatal closure experiments, epidermal strips were pre-incubated for 2 h
under light. Then, 2 mM and 5 mM of $CaCl_2$ or 0.1 μM of ABA were added,
and stomatal closure was measured 2 h after treatment. Four different plants
were used for each experiment, taking one leaf of each plant per treatment.
Stomatal apertures were determined by measuring the inner width of the
stomatal pore from captured photographs of a minimum of 40 stomata
per line and condition. Stomatal bioassays were performed three times and
measured as blind experiments.

Confocal microscopy of vacuolar dynamics

To monitor the vacuolar dynamics in guard cells during stomatal move-
ments, bioassays were performed using the transgenic lines expressing
TIP1;1:GFP and NHX2:GFP proteins as described above but using 10 μM
of ABA to promote stomatal closure and 3 μM of fusicoccin to stimulate
stomatal opening. Images were taken with a FluoView FV1000 Confocal
Microscope (Olympus) using a 488-nm Ar/ArKr laser and a 60X objective with
emission signals being collected at $525 \pm 50 \text{ nm}$. Images were analyzed with
the FluoView 2.1 software (Olympus). For time-lapse experiments, leaf discs
were pre-incubated in stomatal incubation buffer for 2h in the dark or under
light, to close and open the stomata respectively. Then, microscope samples
were prepared adding the stimulus (3 μM of fusicoccin to open the closed
stomata or 10 μM of ABA to close the open stomata) and immediately images

of single stomata at different times were taken. Interval times were the same for wild-type and mutant lines. Three-dimensional renderings of guard cell vacuoles loaded with BCECF-AM were done as described (53, 54) using the ImageJ plugin 3-D Viewer.

Vacuolar pH measurement

Guard cell-vacuolar pH of epidermal peels was determined using the fluorescent cell-permeant dye Oregon Green 488 carboxylic acid diacetate (OG-CADA, Molecular Probes). Loading of the dye was performed by floating the epidermal peels in liquid media containing 1 mM KCl, 10 mM MES-KOH (pH 5.8), and 50 μ M CaCl₂ in the presence of 10 μ M OG-CADA and 0.01% Pluronic F-127 (Molecular Probes). The low-toxicity dispersing agent Pluronic facilitated cell loading of the membrane-permeant ester OG-CADA and OG was subsequently accumulated into vacuoles upon hydrolysis of the esterified groups by intracellular esterases (38) with little or no fluorescence in the cytosol (Supplemental Figure 7A). After 90 min of staining at 22 °C in darkness, the epidermal peels were washed twice for 10 min in dye-free buffer. Then, the epidermal peels were incubated for 3 h, and exposed to different stimuli, in 10 mM KCl, 10 mM Mes-KOH (pH 6.5), and 50 μ M CaCl₂. Fluorescence microscopy was performed on a Leica SP5II confocal laser scanning microscope equipped with an inverted DMI6000 microscope stand and a HCX PL APO x63 water immersion objective. The fluorophore was excited at 488 and 458 nm, respectively, and the emission was detected between 510 and 550 nm. To obtain the ratio values the images were processed as described (54). The ratio was then used to calculate the pH on the basis of a calibration curve (Supplemental Figure 7B). In situ calibration of OG-CADA was performed in epidermal peels, which were loaded with the dye as mentioned above. Then, epidermal peels were incubated for 90 min in liquid media containing 10 mM KCl, 10 mM MES-KOH (pH 6.5). Twenty minutes before measurements the peels were incubated in pH equilibration buffers containing 50 mM citrate buffer-BTP (pH 4.5-5.0) or 50 mM MES-BTP (pH 5.5 – 6.5) and 50 mM ammonium acetate. Ratio values were plotted against the pH and the calibration curves were generated using a sigmoidal Boltzmann fit.

Drought assay and transpiration measurements

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Seven-week old Col-0, L14 and KO plants were subjected to the same watering regime during the plant growth phase and pots were covered with plastic film to avoid water evaporation from the soil. Prior to initiate the drought phase, pots were well watered until the soil reached the field capacity and the surplus water drained away. The start of the drought tolerance assay coincided with the beginning of the dark period. Pots were weighed at dusk and at the light onset during four consecutive days and transpiration (mL H₂O cm⁻² min⁻¹) was calculated. At least 7 plants per line were used and their foliar area was calculated with the AxioVision software (Zeiss) from images of their rosettes to determine the transpiration rate per area unit. Five days after stress imposition plants were sampled (3-4 plants per line) and the dry weight and K⁺ and water contents were determined as described (20). Images of the plants were taken at different time points until all plants died.

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SUPPORTING INFORMATION

This section contains 7 Supplementary Figures and 1 Table, with the corresponding Supplementary Methods.

TEXT S1*Elemental X-ray analysis*

To estimate the size of the vacuolar K⁺ pool in guard cells, freeze-fractured leaves of L14 plants grown in LAK medium with 1 mM K⁺ were analyzed in a Scanning Electron Microscope fitted with Energy Dispersive X-Ray Spectroscopy (SEM-EDX) as described by (1). Potassium contents in plant tissues were determined by measuring fresh- and dry-weight after drying samples at 70 °C for 48 h in a forced-air oven to obtain water contents (g water per g dry weight). Potassium was extracted by autoclaving finely ground material and then measured by atomic absorption spectrophotometry (Perkin-Elmer 1100B, Norwalk, CT, USA).

Gene constructs and transgenic lines

The C-terminus of the NHX2 and the N-terminus of the GFP polypeptides were modified by PCR using oligonucleotides NHX2-*Ngo*MIV: 5'-ACCTCCGCCGGCAGGTTTACTAAGATC-3' and GFP-*Ngo*MIV: 5'-GCCGGCGGAGGTGTGAGCAAGGGCGAGG-3'. *Ngo*MIV digestion of amplified sequences and subsequent ligation generated an in-frame fusion of GFP to the C-terminus of NHX2 that was cloned into the *Eco*RV site of the pBluescript polylinker. Next, the NHX2:GFP construct was moved as a 2998 bp *Xho*I-*Bam*HI fragment to the plant transformation plasmid pBI321 (2). The C-terminus of TIP1;1 and the N-terminus of the GFP polypeptides were modified by PCR using oligonucleotides TIP-Not: 5'-CCACCGCCGGCCGTAGTCTGTGGTTGGGAG-3' and GFP-Not: 5'-GCTGGCCGGCCGGTGGTGTGAGCAAGGGCGAGGAGCTG-3'. *Not*I digestion of amplified sequences and ligation generated an in-frame fusion of GFP to the C-terminus of TIP1;1. Plasmid pBI321Kan-TIP:GFP was constructed by cloning the TIP1;1:GFP translational fusion into pBI321 as a 1497 bp *Xho*I-*Bam*HI fragment. Plasmids pBI321Kan-TIP:GFP and pBI321-NHX2:GFP were used to transform Col-0 wild-type plants. Single-copy homozygous transformants in Col-0 were selected after three cycles of self-crossing from a T₁ population that exhibited a 3:1 segregation of the Kan^R marker. Null *nhx1 nhx2* mutant plants were both recalcitrant to transformation and resistant to kanamycin due to the mutagenic T-DNA insertions (1). Therefore, a hemizygote of genotype *nhx1-2/nhx1-2 NHX2/nhx2-1* was transformed with the pBI321Hyg-TIP:GFP plasmid carrying the hygromycin resistance marker. This plasmid was obtained by replacing the *NOS-NPTII-NOS* expression cassette of pBI321Kan-TIP:GFP with a *NOS-HptII-NOS* cassette using the *Clal/PmeI* sites. Hygromycin-resistant segregants carrying

the TIP1;1:GFP construct were screened by diagnostic PCR with allele-specific primers designed to amplify wild-type or mutant *NHX2* alleles to identify homozygous *nhx1-2 nhx2-1* null mutants. *Agrobacterium tumefaciens*-mediated transformation was according to (3) and transgenic plants were selected on half-strength MS medium containing hygromycin (20 mg L⁻¹) or kanamycin (50 mg L⁻¹).

Semiquantitative RT-PCR

To study the transcriptional regulation of *NHX1* and *NHX2* genes along a day/night cycle, leaves of 6-week old Col-0 plants were harvested and frozen in liquid nitrogen at different time points: light onset, 2h and 4h of light, dusk, and 4h in the dark. Total RNA from leaves was extracted using TRIsureTM reagent according to the manufacturer's instructions (Bioline, London, UK). Reverse transcription was performed on 1 µg of total RNA using the QuantiTect[®] Reverse Transcription Kit following the manufacturer's instruction (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany). PCR was performed with specific primers for *NHX1* (forward 5'-GTATCTATGGCTCTTGCATACAAC-3' and reverse 5'-ATCAAAGCTTTTCTTCCACGTTACCC-3'), *NHX2* (forward 5'-CAGGGCACACAGAATTGCGCGGGAATG-3' and reverse 5'-GTCACCATAAGAGGGAAGAGCAAG-3') and β -*Tubulin-4* (*TB4*) (forward 5'-CAGTGTCTGTGATATTGCACC-3' and reverse 5'-GACAACATCTTAAGTCTCGTA-3'). Densitometry analysis of the bands in ethidium bromide-stained agarose gels was performed with the software Quantity One[®] (Bio-Rad). The ratio between the *NHX1/2* and *TB4* transcripts was calculated to normalize for initial variations in sample concentration. Mean and standard error of the three replicas were calculated after normalization to *TB4*.

Real-Time RT-PCR

Total RNA was extracted from Arabidopsis leaves using the RNeasy plant mini kit (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany) and reverse transcription was performed on 1 µg of total RNA using the QuantiTect[®] Reverse Transcription Kit following the manufacturer's instruction (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany). Real-time PCR was performed using iTaq Universal SYBR Green Supermix (Bio-Rad), and the signals were detected on an iCYCLER (Bio-Rad). The cycling profile consisted of 95°C for 10 min followed by 45 cycles of 95°C for 15 s and 60°C for 1 min. A melting curve from 60 to 90°C was run following the PCR cycling to confirm the specificity of the primers. The expression levels of *NHX1* and *NHX2* genes were normalized to the constitutive *UBQ10* gene (*At4g05320*) by subtracting the cycle threshold (CT) value of *UBQ10* from the CT value of the gene (Δ CT). The fold change was calculated as $2^{-(\Delta$ CT mutant - Δ CT wild type)}. The results shown are from three technical replicates of three independent RNA samples obtained from three different plants per genotype. Samples were obtained at two different time points of the day/night cycle from the same plants used for determining stomatal conductance of *nhx1-2* and *nhx2-1* single

mutants. Primers used for qRT-PCR were: *NHX1qRT* 5'- GAGGTCGTGGCTTTGTACCC-3',
NHX1rtR 5'- ATCAAAGCTTTTCTTCCACGTTACCC-3', *NHX2qRT* 5'-
 GACTGAGAGAAGCAGCCATGA-3', *NHX2rtR* 5'- GTCACCATAAGAGGGAAGAGCAAG-3',
UBQ10F 5'- GGCCTTGATAATCCCTGATGAATAAG-3', *UBQ10R* 5'-
 AAAGAGATAACAGGAACGGAAACATAGT-3'

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LEGENDS TO SUPPORTING FIGURES

Figure S1. Altered morphology of stomata and leaf epidermis in the *nhx1 nhx2* mutant

(A) SEM images of leaves from Arabidopsis Col-0 and the KO line grown in hydroponic culture with LAK medium at 1 mM KCl. Upper panels, appearance of the lower epidermis, scale bars: 200 μ m; note the irregular distribution of cell sizes in the mutant. Middle panels, groups of stomata in the abaxial epidermis, scale bars: 50 μ m; note the deflated appearance of the stomata show in the inset. Lower row panels, close up images of stomata, scale bars: 20 μ m. (B) Epidermal cell density (left panel), stomatal density (middle) and stomatal index (right) calculated from dental resin impression images. Data represent means and SE from of least 42 images per line. Asterisks indicate statistically significant differences at $p < 0.05$ in pairwise comparison by the Tukey's HSD test.

Figure S2. Stomatal conductance and transcript abundance in single *nhx1* and *nhx2* mutants

(A) Stomatal conductance measurements in leaves of Col-0 and single mutant lines *nhx1-2* and *nhx2-1* at different time points of the day/night cycle. Dawn and dusk samples were collected 15 minutes before light was switched on and off, respectively. Data represent mean and SE of 3 plants per line. (B) Quantitative RT-PCR analysis of *NHX1* and *NHX2* mRNA expression levels in whole leaves at different time points of the day/night cycle. Samples were collected from plants shown in (A), with 3 technical replicas each ($n = 9$), at time points 2 h after the onset of light and after 4 hours in darkness. The transcript levels were normalized to the constitutive *UBQ10* gene. Data shown are the means \pm SE and represent the transcript levels of *NHX1* in the *nhx2-1* mutant plants and of *NHX2* in *nhx1-2* plants, relative to the transcript levels obtained for the wild-type Col-0 in the dark.

Figure S3. Plant growth and K⁺ content under water stress.

(A) Col-0, L14 and KO plants growing in individual pots, before treatment and after 2, 4, 12 and 25 days after drought stress. (B) Shoot biomass and K⁺ content on a dry matter basis of wild type plants (Col-0), the *nhx1-1 nhx2-1* mutant line (L14), and the *nhx1-2 nhx2-1* null mutant line (KO) grown in individual soil pots for 5 days without watering. The data correspond to plant samples (3-4 plants per line) of the experiment shown in (A). (C) Drought tolerance test of wild type Col-0 (W), L14 (L) and KO plants (K) growing in the same soil tray. Plants were grown for 6 weeks in short day conditions (upper panel) and then subjected to drought stress by ceasing watering for 12 days (lower panel).

Figure S4. Stomatal response to calcium and sodium salts.

(A) Calcium-induced stomata closure. Data represent the mean and SE of the absolute values of aperture of at least 150 stomata per line and treatment. Letters indicate statistically significant differences between treatments for each line at $p < 0.001$ in pairwise comparison by the Tukey's

HSD test. **(B)** Stomatal opening in the presence of sodium. Light-induced stomatal opening bioassays with wild-type Col-0 plants were conducted in buffers containing 10 mM KCl or NaCl at 30, 50 and 75 mM. Data represent the mean and SE of the stomatal apertures of at least 40 stomata per treatment. Asterisks indicate statistically significant differences relative to the K⁺ treatment at $p < 0.001$ in pairwise comparison by the Tukey's HSD test. **(C)** Reversal of sodium-driven stomatal opening by ABA. Light-induced stomatal opening in 50 mM NaCl for 4 h was followed by treatment with 1 μ M ABA for one additional hour. Data represent the mean and SE of the stomatal apertures of at least 50 stomata per treatment.

Figure S5. Time-lapse of vacuolar dynamics in leaf discs during stomatal closure.

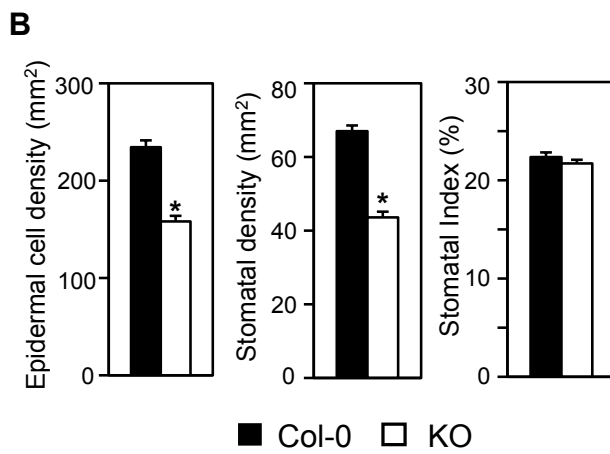
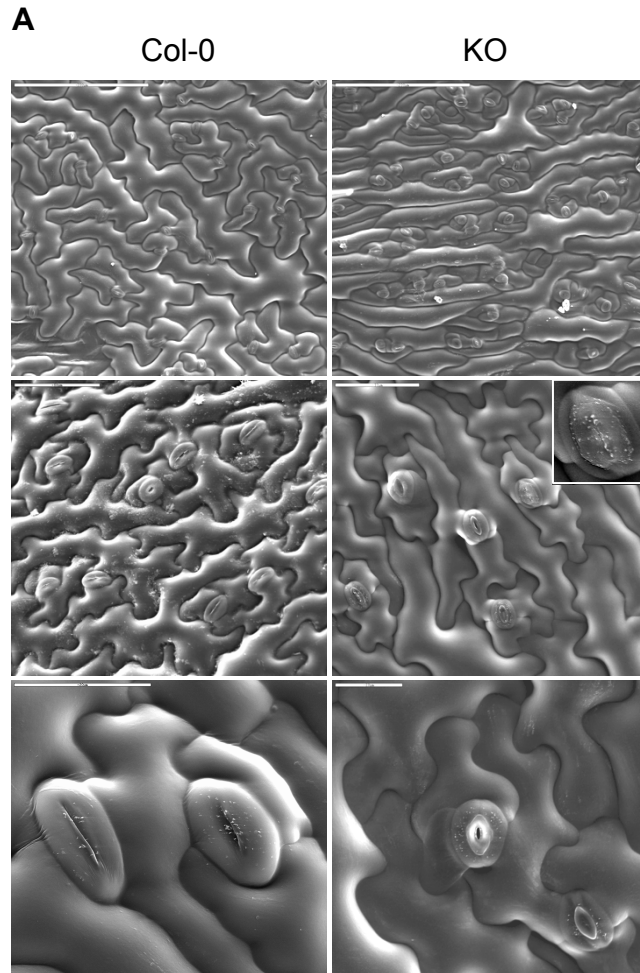
Vacuolar structure of Col-0 and KO guard cells visualized in leaf discs with TIP1;1:GFP at different time points after 10 μ M ABA treatment. Left and right panels show bright field and GFP images of TIP1;1:GFP, respectively. Scale bar: 5 μ m.

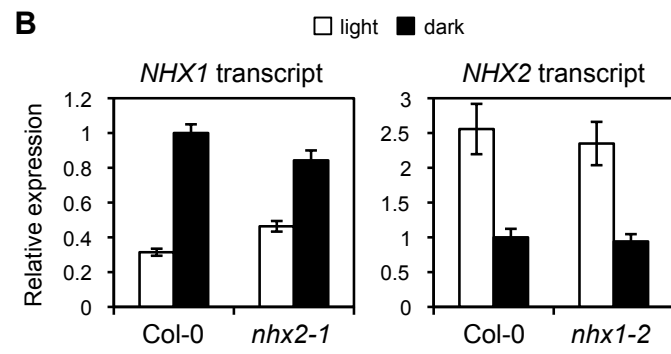
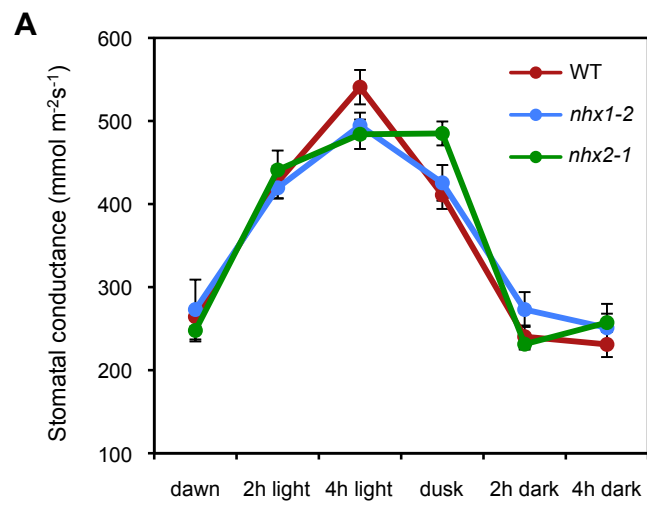
Figure S6. Time-lapse of vacuolar dynamics in leaf discs during stomatal opening.

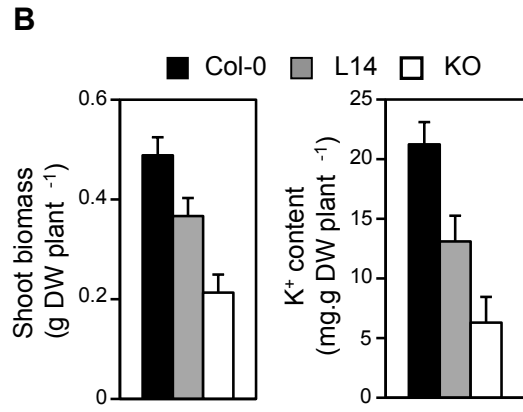
Vacuolar structures in guard cells of Col-0 and KO plants visualized with TIP1;1:GFP at different time points after 3 μ M fusicoccin treatment. Left and right panels show bright field and fluorescence images of TIP1;1:GFP, respectively. Scale bar: 5 μ m.

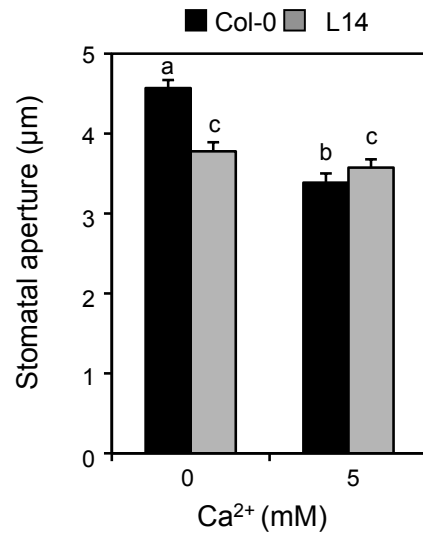
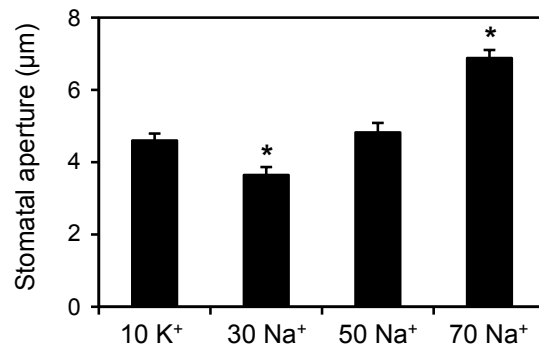
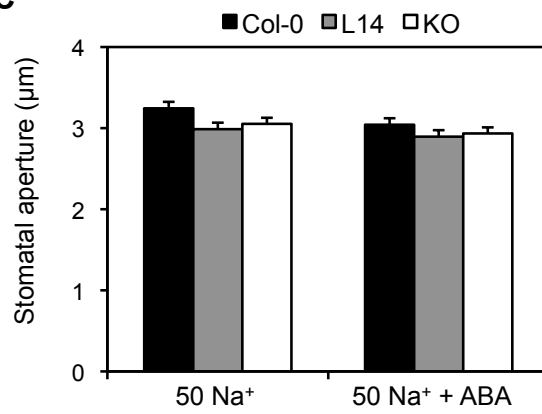
Figure S7. Vacuolar compartmentation of the dye and ratiometric pH calibration curve.

(A) Vacuolar lumen of open (upper panel) and closed (lower panel) wild-type stomata loaded with the pH-sensitive dye Oregon Green. Left and right panels show bright field and 488-nm-excited images, respectively. Scale bar: 5 μ m. **(B)** The mean ratios obtained from dividing the pixel density of 488-nm-excited images by the pixel density of 458-nm-excited images from guard cell vacuoles loaded with the pH-sensitive dye Oregon Green were plotted against the pH of the equilibration buffer. Data represent means and SE from at least 20 stomata per treatment.



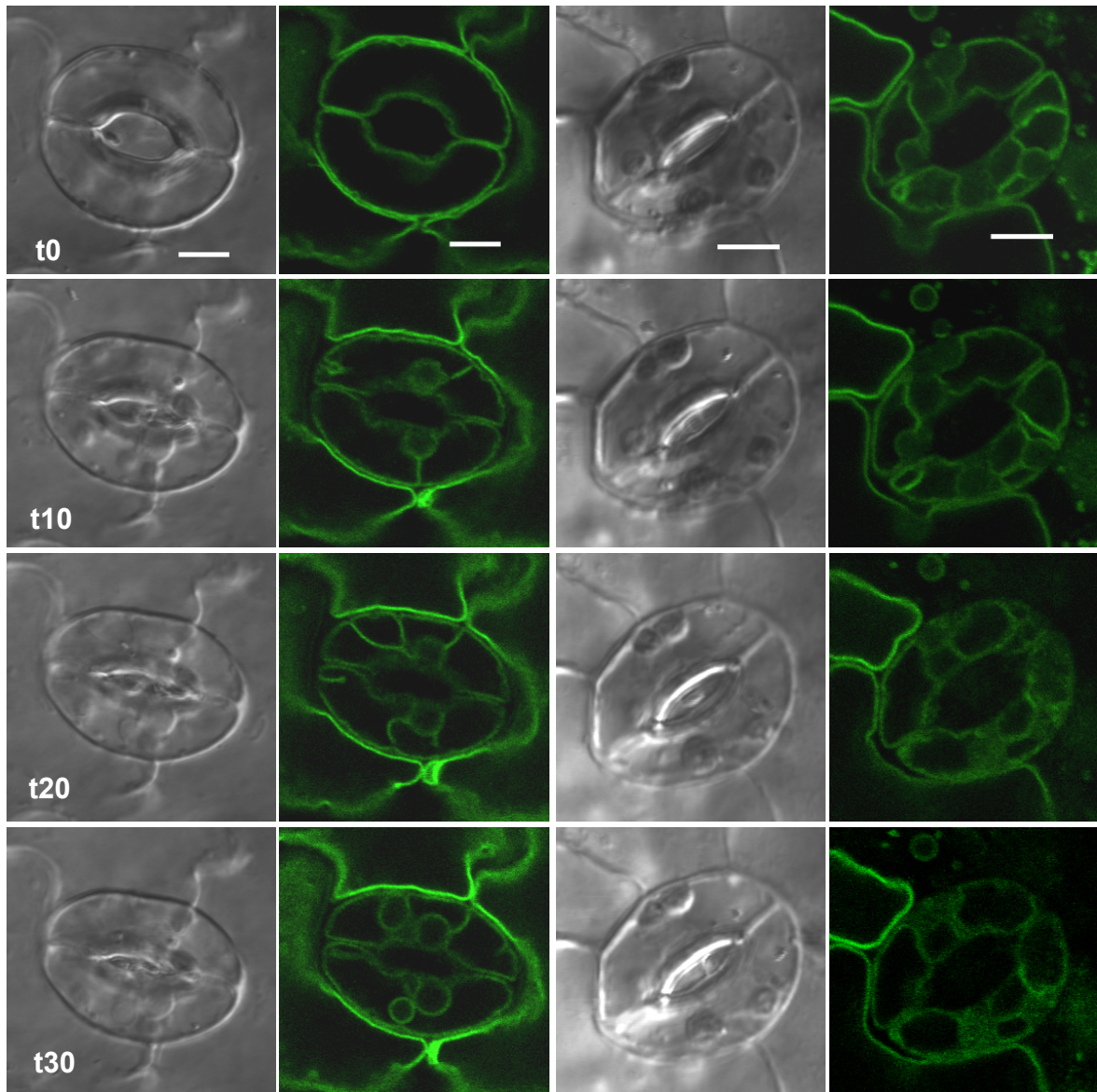




A**B****C**

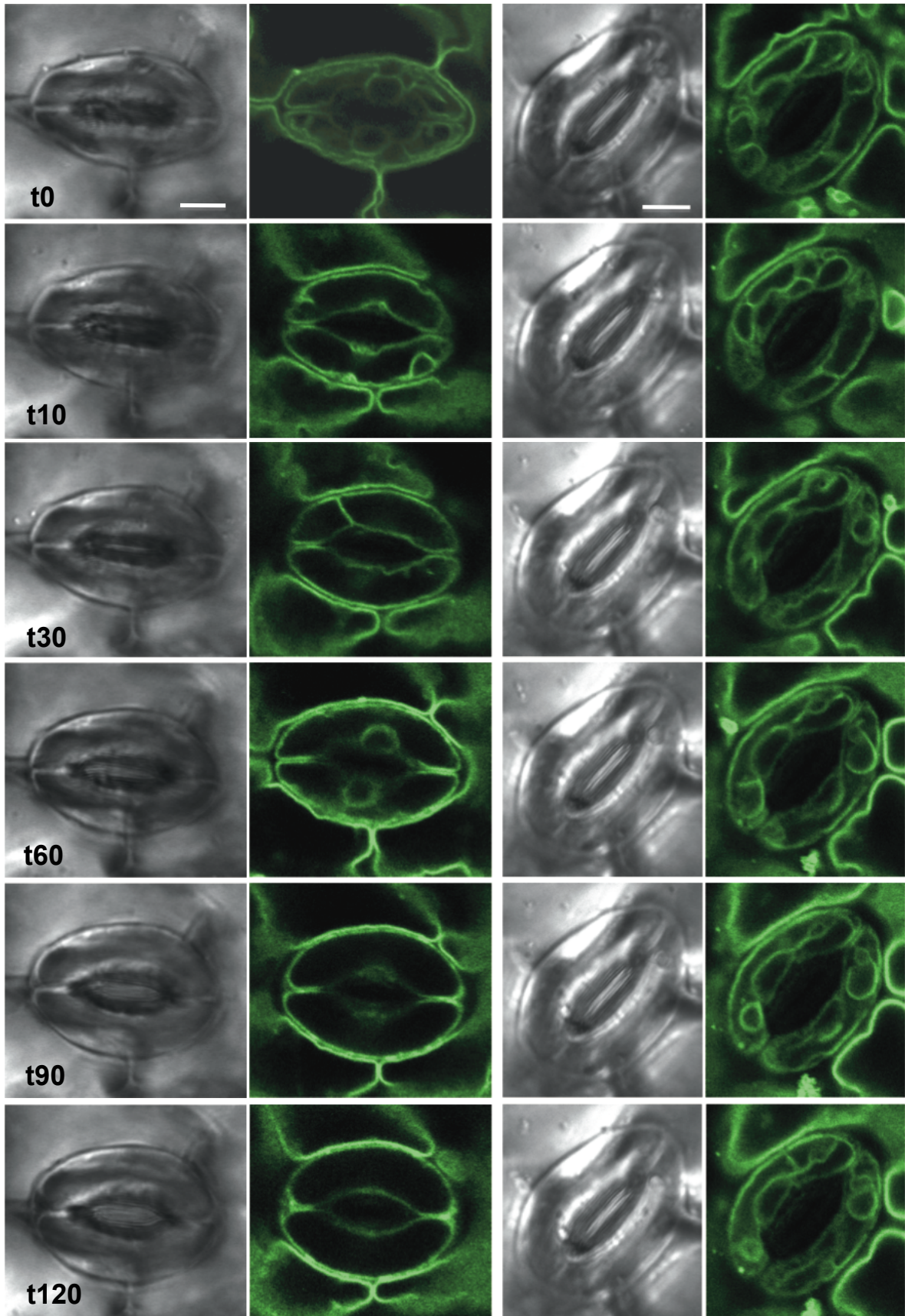
Col-0

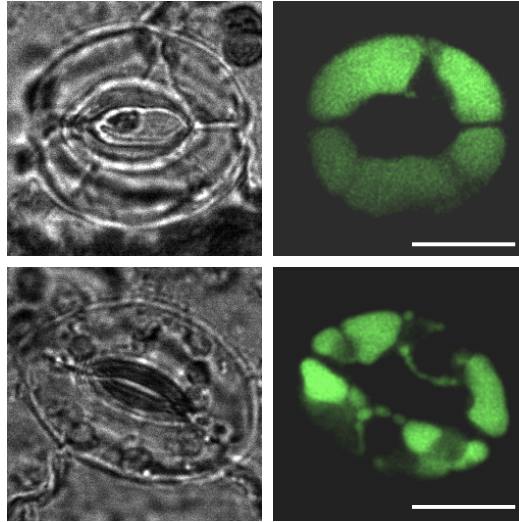
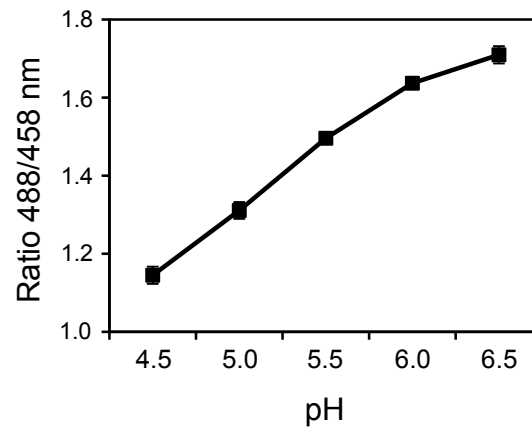
KO



Col-0

KO



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SUPPLEMENTARY TABLE

Table S1. Mean temperatures determined by thermal imaging of wild-type plants and *nhx1 nhx2* mutant lines at different day and night periods. Statistical significance of differences in mean temperatures between the wild type and mutant lines was determined by the Student's *t*-test. ** $P < 0.001$, * $P < 0.05$, and ns = no significant difference.

Period (minutes)	Line	Mean \pm SD ($^{\circ}$ C)	Paired differences Mean \pm SD ($^{\circ}$ C)
P1 (40-170) Day	Col-0	20.822 \pm 0.266	
	L14	20.880 \pm 0.253	0.058 \pm 0.022**
	KO	21.110 \pm 0.187	0.288 \pm 0.084**
P2 (300-400) Night	Col-0	20.512 \pm 0.229	
	L14	20.416 \pm 0.226	0.097 \pm 0.042**
	KO	20.222 \pm 0.171	0.290 \pm 0.070**
P3 (600-700) Night	Col-0	20.522 \pm 0.366	
	L14	20.429 \pm 0.355	0.092 \pm 0.037**
	KO	20.158 \pm 0.273	0.363 \pm 0.111**
P4 (800-900) Night	Col-0	20.464 \pm 0.363	
	L14	20.455 \pm 0.353	0.009 \pm 0.036*
	KO	20.189 \pm 0.272	0.276 \pm 0.105**
P5 (950-1050) Night	Col-0	20.406 \pm 0.165	
	L14	20.403 \pm 0.170	0.002 \pm 0.028 ^{ns}
	KO	20.147 \pm 0.126	0.259 \pm 0.055**
P6 (1100-1227) Day	Col-0	20.984 \pm 0.144	
	L14	21.073 \pm 0.139	0.089 \pm 0.019**
	KO	21.197 \pm 0.129	0.213 \pm 0.069**