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Running head: Arabidopsis ZIFL2 mediates Cs^+ and K^+ homeostasis

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The Major Facilitator Superfamily transporter ZIFL2 modulates cesium and potassium homeostasis in *Arabidopsis*

Running head: Arabidopsis ZIFL2 mediates Cs^+ and K^+ homeostasis

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Abbreviations: β-glucuronidase (GUS); Columbia ecotype (Col-0); green fluorescent protein (GFP); Major Facilitator Superfamily (MFS); Murashige and Skoog medium (MS medium); reverse transcription-PCR (RT-PCR); Transfer DNA (T-DNA); untranslated region (UTR); yellow fluorescent protein (YFP).

Abstract

Potassium (K⁺) is an essential mineral nutrient for plant growth and development, with numerous membrane transporters and channels having been implicated in the maintenance and regulation of its homeostasis. The cation cesium (Cs⁺) is toxic for plants but shares similar chemical properties to the K⁺ ion and hence competes with its transport. Here, we report that K⁺ and Cs⁺ homeostasis in *Arabidopsis thaliana* also requires the action of ZIFL2 (Zinc-Induced Facilitator-Like 2), a member of the Major Facilitator Superfamily (MFS) of membrane transporters. We show that the *Arabidopsis* ZIFL2 is a functional transporter able to mediate K⁺ and Cs⁺ influx when heterologously expressed in yeast. Promoter-reporter, RT-PCR and fluorescent protein fusion experiments indicate that the predominant ZIFL2.1 isoform is targeted to the plasma-membrane of endodermal and pericyle root cells. *ZIFL2* loss of function and overexpression respectively exacerbate and alleviate plant sensitivity upon Cs⁺ and excess K⁺ supply, also influencing Cs⁺ whole-plant partitioning. We propose that the activity of this *Arabidopsis* MFS carrier promotes cellular K⁺ efflux in the root, thereby restricting Cs⁺/K⁺ xylem loading and subsequent root-to-shoot translocation under conditions of Cs⁺ or high K⁺ external supply.

Keywords: *Arabidopsis thaliana*; heterologous expression; MFS transporter; potassium and cesium homeostasis; root; *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*.

Introduction

1 In plants, potassium (K^{+}) is a macronutrient essential for optimal growth and development. In fact, it 2 represents the most abundant inorganic cation in these organisms, comprising up to 10% of their dry 3 weight (Leigh and Jones 1984). Involved in enzyme activation, protein charge neutralization and 4 maintenance of the photosynthetic apparatus, K⁺ plays a key role in cellular metabolism (Marschner 5 2012). Owing to its high mobility, K⁺ also acts as a major osmoticum driving plant movements, such as 6 tropisms or stomatal opening/closure, and promoting shoot cellular expansion and axial growth, but 7 also regulates membrane potential and cytoplasmic pH homeostasis (Maathuis 2009). Last but not 8 least, K^{+} serves as a mobile energy source for photosynthate translocation through the phloem 9 (Gajdanowicz et al. 2011) as well as a major signaling component mediating plant stress responses 10 (Amtmann et al. 2008).

11 K^{+} is primarily acquired from the soil as a monovalent cation that, once absorbed into the root 12 epidermis, moves both apoplastically and symplastically through the adjacent cell layers to reach the 13 stele. After secretion into the stellar apoplast and subsequent loading into the xylem vessels for 14 translocation to the shoot via root pressure and the transpiration stream, K^{+} is delivered to the leaf 15 apoplastic space outside the bundle sheath. It is then transferred to the phloem sap before allocation 16 to aerial sink organs or recycling back to the root, the amount of recirculated K^+ ultimately tuning up K^+ 17 root absorption and xylem loading. Besides cell-to-cell movements, intracellular K⁺ homeostasis also 18 relies largely on vacuolar partitioning (recently reviewed in Ahmad and Maathuis 2014).

19 All steps in plant K⁺ homeostasis, from initial root acquisition to subsequent distribution among 20 different tissues and subcellular trafficking, require the concerted action of multiple K⁺ membrane 21 transport systems. Such carriers, either secondary active transporters or channels, have been 22 primarily characterized in Arabidopsis thaliana and belong to nine major families (reviewed in Aleman 23 et al. 2011; Anschutz et al. 2014; Sharma et al. 2013; Szczerba et al. 2009): (i) Shaker-type K⁺ 24 channels (nine members); (ii) Tandem-pore K^+ channels (TPK; six members); (iii) Cation/ H^+ 25 antiporters (CPA) subfamily 1 or Na⁺/H⁺ exchangers (NHX; six members); (iv) CPA subfamily 2 or 26 Cation/H⁺ exchangers (CHX; 28 members); (v) K⁺ uptake permeases/High-affinity K⁺ transporters/K⁺ 27 transporters (KUP/HAK/KT; 13 members); (vi) High-affinity K⁺ transporter (HKT; 1 member); (vii) K⁺

efflux antiporters (KEA; six members); (viii) Cyclic-nucleotide-gated channels (CNGC; 20 members);
(ix) Glutamate receptors (GLR; 20 members).

30 Although numerous of the above carriers indeed exhibit K⁺ transport activity, relatively few have 31 been assigned in planta functions. As expected, K⁺ transporters/channels are primarily involved in K⁺ 32 cellular homeostasis and whole-plant distribution, mediating K^+ uptake under both K^+ -replete and K^+ 33 starvation conditions (HAK5 and AKT1, Gierth et al. 2005; Hirsch et al. 1998; Nieves-Cordones et al. 34 2010; Pyo et al. 2010; Qi et al. 2008; Rubio et al. 2008; CHX17, Cellier et al. 2004; CHX13, Zhao et al. 35 2008; GCNG10, Borsics et al. 2007), K⁺ vacuolar partitioning (TPK1, Gobert et al. 2007; NHX1 and 36 NHX2, Barragan et al. 2012; Bassil et al. 2011; NHX3, Liu et al. 2010), K⁺ xylem loading (SKOR, 37 Gaymard et al. 1998) or regulation of K⁺ nutrient status (HKT1, Rus et al. 2004). On the other hand, K⁺ 38 transport activity of many carriers has been diverted to ensure such fundamental processes as guard 39 cell osmoregulation (GORK, Hosy et al. 2003; KUP6/KUP8, Osakabe et al. 2013; CHX20, 40 Padmanaban et al. 2007; TPK1, Gobert et al. 2007; KAT1, Kwak et al. 2001), response to water stress 41 (AKT1, Nieves-Cordones et al. 2012), salt stress tolerance (GCNG10, Guo et al. 2008), reproduction 42 (SKIP, Mouline et al. 2002; CHX21 and CHX23, Evans et al. 2012; Lu et al. 2011; TPK4, Becker et al. 43 2004), germination (CNGC3, Gobert et al. 2006), sugar loading into the phloem (AKT2/3, Deeken et al. 44 2002), energy generation (AKT2, Gajdanowicz et al. 2011), cellular expansion (KUP2, Elumalai et al. 45 2002; AKT1, Desbrosses et al. 2003), and polar transport of the phytohormone auxin (TRH1, Rigas et 46 al. 2001; Vicente-Agullo et al. 2004).

47 We recently reported the functional characterization of a novel transporter from the Major Facilitator 48 Superfamily (MFS), Zinc-Induced Facilitator-Like 1 (ZIFL1), which exhibits H⁺-coupled K⁺ transport 49 activity (Remy et al. 2013b), pointing to a previously unrecognized role for this superfamily in K⁺ 50 transport. Interestingly, our work revealed that alternative splicing of the corresponding gene 51 determines a dual function for this carrier - the full-length ZIFL1.1 protein is a root tonoplast-localized 52 transporter involved in shootward auxin transport, while the truncated ZIFL1.3 splice form is targeted 53 to the plasma membrane of guard cells where it regulates stomatal closure and hence plant drought 54 tolerance (Remy et al. 2013b). By contrast, one of the two closest ZIFL1 homologs in Arabidopsis, 55 ZIF1 (Zinc-Induced Facilitator 1), was described as a tonoplast-localized transporter promoting zinc

56 (Zn) tolerance by affecting vacuolar partitioning of nicotianamine, a low molecular mass chelator with 57 high affinity for a range of transition metals (Haydon and Cobbett 2007; Haydon et al. 2012).

In the present study, we investigated the *in vivo* roles of the second closest homolog of the ZIFL1 transporter in *Arabidopsis*, ZIFL2. By combining functional analyses in *A. thaliana* and heterologous expression in *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*, we provide evidence that unlike ZIF1 and ZIFL1 this carrier plays a role in both K⁺ and cesium (Cs⁺) homeostasis.

62 Results

63 The predominant ZIFL2 transcript is ubiquitously expressed in Arabidopsis

64 According to the current genome annotation (TAIR10, www.arabidopsis.org), the Arabidopsis ZIFL2 65 gene (At3g43790) contains 18 exons (Fig. 1A) and generates three distinct transcripts (Fig. 1B). The 66 ZIFL2.1 (At3g43790.1) and ZIFL2.2 (At3g43790.2) transcripts are identical except for the presence of 67 a 18-nt long stretch at the end of the sixteenth exon in ZIFL2.2, while the ZIFL2.2 and ZIFL2.3 68 (At3g43790.3) splice variants share an identical coding sequence and differ solely in their 3' 69 untranslated region (UTR). According to bioinformatics software predictions (TMHMM Server v2, 70 www.cbs.dtu.dk/services/TMHMM-2.0; Krogh et al. 2001), the three ZIFL2 transcripts encode full-size 71 carriers displaying the typical MFS transporter signature motif that includes two transmembrane 72 domains, each consisting of six membrane-spanning segments, delimiting a central hydrophilic loop.

To initiate the characterization of the *ZIFL2* gene, we examined its tissue- and organ-specific expression patterns by reverse transcription-PCR (RT-PCR). As shown in Figure 1C, *ZIFL2* transcript levels were globally low but the gene was ubiquitously expressed throughout plant development, albeit to a lesser extent at early development stages. Importantly, in all tissues analyzed, the *ZIFL2.1* transcript made the primary contribution to total *ZIFL2* expression, in particular in seedlings and roots, while expression of the alternative *ZIFL2.2* and *ZIFL2.3* transcripts was barely detectable. This indicated that the two alternative splicing events are not favored under optimal growth conditions.

We next monitored the *ZIFL2* organ- and tissue-specific expression patterns by means of reporter
 gene experiments. Following staining of transgenic lines stably expressing a green fluorescent protein
 - β-glucuronidase (GFP-GUS) fusion under the control of the native *ZIFL2* promoter, homogenous
 GUS coloration restricted to the endodermal and pericycle cell layers was observed from the

hypocotyl-root junction throughout the primary root (Fig. 1D). Despite various attempts, we were unable to detect any staining in either lateral roots or other plant tissues, namely flowers and mature green organs – stems, leaves and siliques. In addition, *ZIFL2* promoter activity was insufficient to allow detection of the GFP signal in any of the tissues tested, including roots. Taken together, these results indicated that the ZIFL2 transporter, albeit generally lowly expressed, may exert a prominent role in roots.

90 The Arabidopsis ZIFL2 transporter is targeted to the plasma membrane

91 To determine the subcellular localization of the ZIFL2 transporter, we generated C-terminal yellow 92 fluorescent protein (YFP) or GFP fusions with the ZIFL2.1 isoform under the control of the 35S 93 promoter. Confocal microscopy analysis of the YFP signal upon transient expression in Arabidopsis 94 protoplasts suggested that the carrier localizes to the plasma membrane (Fig. 2A, B). In order to 95 further ascertain the site of action of ZIFL2, we performed co-localization experiments in tobacco leaf 96 epidermal cells using specific tonoplast and plasma-membrane mCherry markers (Nelson et al. 2007). 97 As seen in Figure 2C-Q, the ZIFL2.1-GFP fusion protein co-localized exclusively with the plasma 98 membrane marker, whereas it did not match the distribution of the tonoplast marker, confirming that 99 the ZIFL2 transporter is targeted to the plasma membrane of plant cells.

100 The ZIFL2 carrier catalyzes proton-coupled potassium transport activity

101 The identification of the physiological substrate(s) of a membrane transporter is of prime importance in 102 dissecting the precise molecular mechanisms underlying its function. In a first attempt to identify the 103 substrate(s) of the ZIFL2 carrier, we explored its transport properties by means of heterologous 104 expression in S. cerevisiae. Correct expression of the GFP-ZIFL2.1 fusion protein in the Δtpo1 deletion 105 mutant, which lacks the MFS carrier Transporter of Polyamines 1 (Tpo1) conferring yeast resistance to 106 range of ionic and chemical stresses (Saccharomyces genome database, а wide 107 www.yeastgenome.org; do Valle Matta et al. 2001), was confirmed by immunoblotting (Fig. 3A). 108 Subcellular localization studies further suggested that the plant transporter is targeted to the yeast 109 plasma membrane (Fig. 3A), in agreement with the localization observed in planta (see Fig. 2). As 110 shown in Fig. 3B, and in striking similarity with ZIFL1 (Remy et al. 2013b), expression of the ZIFL2 111 transporter confers slightly enhanced yeast resistance to two weak acids, malate and acetate, as well 112 as to the metal ion thallium (TI³⁺), while dramatically reducing and increasing sensitivity to the metal

ions aluminum (Al³⁺) and Cs⁺, respectively. However, and in contrast to ZIFL1, ZIFL2 was unable to
modulate yeast auxin sensitivity (data not shown).

115 Cs⁺ ions share physicochemical properties with K⁺ ions, rendering them potent inhibitors of at least 116 some of the plant K⁺ transport systems (Hampton et al. 2004; White and Broadley 2000; Zhu and 117 Smolders 2000). We therefore decided to investigate whether the ZIFL2 transporter can also influence 118 K^{+} delivery to the yeast cell, by evaluating its capacity to rescue the deficient growth under limiting K^{+} 119 supply of the $\Delta q dr 2$ deletion mutant, which lacks the MFS transporter Quinidine Resistance 2 (Qdr2) 120 (Vargas et al. 2007). As shown in Figure 3C, expression of the GFP-ZIFL2.1 fusion protein was able to 121 markedly alleviate the pronounced growth defect induced by loss of Qdr2 at low K⁺ concentrations to 122 the same extent as the ZIFL1.1 transporter, strongly suggesting that the Arabidopsis ZIFL2 carrier also 123 possesses K⁺ transport activity.

124 As MFS transporters are single-polypeptide secondary carriers capable only of transporting small 125 solutes in response to chemiosmotic ion gradients, catalyzing uniport, symport or antiport activities 126 (Pao et al. 1998), we also analyzed the proton-dependence of ZIFL2 activity in yeast. In S. cerevisiae, 127 intracellular pH regulation is essentially sustained by the action of the plasma membrane H⁺-ATPase 128 Pma1 (Serrano 1978). The activity of this proton pump and the passive proton influx through the yeast 129 plasma membrane can be estimated by monitoring the pH of the external medium, so we compared 130 the acidification curves of *Aqdr2* cells expressing the ZIFL2 or ZIFL1 transporters under growth-limiting 131 K⁺ conditions. Low K⁺ levels were previously shown to lead to a reduced rate of extracellular medium 132 acidification by yeast cells lacking Qdr2 when compared to the wild-type strain (Vargas et al. 2007). 133 Figure 3D shows that expression of the GFP-ZIFL2.1 and GFP-ZIFL1.1 fusion proteins significantly 134 and similarly increased the rate of H⁺ efflux in $\Delta q dr^2$ mutant cells grown in medium with low K⁺, 135 demonstrating that, at least in yeast, the two Arabidopsis transporters share H⁺-coupled K⁺ transport 136 activity.

137 Loss of ZIFL2 function affects potassium and cesium sensitivity in Arabidopsis

To gain insight into the *in vivo* function(s) of the ZIFL2 transporter, we isolated one mutant allele (SALK_059052) carrying a Transfer DNA (T-DNA) insertion in the *ZIFL2* gene and designated *zifl2-1* in accordance to Haydon and Cobbett (2007). Sequence analysis of the genomic DNA/T-DNA junctions determined that the insertion is located in the tenth exon of *ZIFL2* (see Fig. 1A). RT-PCR

analysis of *ZIFL2* expression in *zifl2-1* homozygous seedlings using primers annealing upstream of the insertion site revealed transcript levels comparable to wild-type plants, but no expression was detected when primers flanking or annealing downstream of the T-DNA segment were used (Fig. 4A). Thus, the mutant allele produces a truncated *ZIFL2* transcript that lacks the sequence encoding most of the central loop along with the entire second transmembrane domain and is thus unlikely to encode a functional membrane transporter (Shin et al. 2004). This strongly suggested that *zifl2-1* is a true lossof-function mutant.

149 We then carried out a detailed phenotypical analysis of the zifl2-1 mutant. When grown in vitro 150 under optimal conditions (~20 mM K⁺), zifl2-1 mutant seedlings appeared morphologically 151 indistinguishable from the corresponding wild type (Columbia ecotype; Col-0), showing normal shoot 152 growth, chlorophyll content and primary root elongation (Table 1). Unlike the *zifl1-2* mutant, which is 153 defective in lateral root system development and drought stress tolerance (Remy et al. 2013b), zifl2-1 154 exhibits normal lateral root emergence and elongation (Table 1) and transpiration rates 155 (Supplementary Fig. S1A). Moreover, the sensitivity of the *zifl2-1* mutant was unaltered upon extended 156 challenge with exogenous auxins (Supplementary Fig. S1B, Table 2) or in the presence of excessive 157 amounts of Zn (Supplementary Fig. S2, Table 2) in clear contrast to the zifl1-2 or zif1-2 mutants, 158 respectively (Haydon and Cobbett 2007; Remy et al. 2013b).

159 Prompted by the ZIFL2 heterologous expression results obtained in yeast (see Fig. 3) and given 160 the Cs⁺ resistance phenotype previously observed in the *zifl1* mutant background (Remy et al. 2013b), 161 we next sought to evaluate the response of *zifl2-1* mutant seedlings to Cs⁺ toxicity. In the presence of 162 excessive Cs⁺ amounts, Arabidopsis seedlings develop toxicity symptoms, typically including shoot 163 growth retardation, leaf chlorosis and inhibition of primary root elongation (Hampton et al. 2004; Kanter 164 et al. 2010; Fig. 4B, C). Following exposure to a wide Cs⁺ toxicity range, the inhibitory effect that this 165 ion exerts on primary root elongation was substantially attenuated in the zifl2-1 mutant (Fig. 4B, C), to 166 a much greater extent than in the zifl1-2 mutant (Table 2; Remy et al. 2013b). Remarkably, the two 167 other Cs⁺ toxicity hallmarks, shoot growth retardation and chlorosis, were visibly exacerbated in zifl2-1 168 when compared to the wild type (Fig. 4B, C). The non-essential heavy metal Cs has been observed to 169 severely inhibit K^+ assimilation, so that Cs^+ stress, along with the effects of its own toxicity, is 170 perceived by plant root cells as a K⁺ deficiency (Hampton et al. 2004; White and Broadley 2000; Zhu

171 and Smolders 2000). As no significant differences in primary root elongation were observed between 172 *zifl2-1* and wild-type seedlings under conditions of K^+ deficiency, even when assayed on media with 173 global low cation content (Supplementary Fig. S3), we also examined the response of zifl2-1 mutant 174 seedlings to excess K⁺ (Fig. 4B, C). As expected, a moderate increase in environmental K⁺ availability 175 improves photosynthesis rates, which in turn allows more effective shoot biomass production, while 176 concomitantly restraining primary root elongation. However, when provided at very high levels, K⁺ 177 becomes deleterious to global plant growth (Hampton et al. 2004; Liu and Zhu 1997; Sahr et al. 2005). 178 Noticeably, *zifl2-1* roots displayed significantly improved tolerance to inhibitory K⁺ concentrations, 179 while the mutant behaved as the wild type regarding shoot growth and chlorophyll content over a 180 range of elevated K⁺ supplies (Fig. 4B, C). As expected from publicly available microarray data 181 (http://www.genevestigator.com; Zimmermann et al., 2004), we found that ZIFL2 expression was 182 unresponsive to exogenous Cs⁺ or high K⁺ in *Arabidopsis* roots (Supplementary Fig. S4). Collectively, 183 these results indicated that the ZIFL2 carrier might play a role in Cs⁺ and K⁺ homeostasis in plant root 184 cells.

185 The Arabidopsis ZIF1, ZIFL1 and ZIFL2 transporters are not functionally redundant

To further investigate the physiological roles of the ZIFL2 transporter and address the possibility of functional redundancy between the *Arabidopsis ZIF1*, *ZIFL1* and *ZIFL2* genes, we phenotypically compared the corresponding single mutants, along with the *zif1-2 zifl2-1* (Haydon and Cobbett 2007) and *zifl1-2 zifl2-1* (this study) double mutants. Because *ZIF1* (At5g13740) and *ZIFL1* (At5g13750) are tandem genes, obtaining the respective double mutant by regular crosses is likely improbable, as already noted by Haydon and Cobbett (2007).

192 None of the three single or two double mutants displayed significant differences from the wild type 193 at the level of shoot growth, chlorophyll content or primary root elongation rate under control conditions 194 (Table 1). As expected, lateral root development was similarly affected in the zifl1-2 and zifl1-2 zifl2-1 195 mutants, whereas it remained unaltered in all other mutant backgrounds. Similarly, reduced tolerance 196 to Zn toxicity was restricted to the zif1-2 and zif1-2 zifl2-1 mutants, while sensitivity to exogenous 197 auxins and resistance to high K⁺ were confined to the *zifl1-2/zifl1-2 zifl2-1* mutants and *zifl2-1/zifl1-2* 198 zifl2-1 mutants, respectively (Table 2). Moreover, the Cs⁺ resistance phenotype displayed by the zifl2-199 1 mutant, also detected in the *zifl1-2* mutant background albeit to a lesser extent, was not further

exacerbated in the *zifl1-2 zifl2-1* double mutant background. In agreement with previous findings (Haydon and Cobbett 2007; Remy et al. 2013a), these results strongly suggest that the ZIF1, ZIFL1 and ZIFL2 carriers do not fulfill overlapping functions and act in distinct physiological or metabolic processes.

ZIFL2 overexpression in Arabidopsis confers opposite phenotypes to zifl2-1 upon cesium and
 potassium challenges

206 To obtain further clues on the physiological relevance of the ZIFL2 transporter in Cs⁺ and K⁺ 207 homeostasis, we selected two transgenic lines expressing the ZIFL2.1-GFP cDNA under the control of 208 the 35S promoter in the wild-type background (ZIFL2.10X1 and ZIFL2.10X2). In order to exclude the 209 possibility that the observed zifl2-1 mutant phenotype results from disruption of another gene, we also 210 selected two such lines after transformation of the zifl2-1 mutant (zifl2-1/ZIFL2.1OX1 and zifl2-211 1/ZIFL2.10X2). All these transgenic lines similarly displayed a significant increase in ZIFL2 expression 212 levels when compared to the wild type (Fig. 5A), with no obvious phenotypical alterations being 213 detected between wild-type and ZIFL2.1-overexpressing seedlings under optimal growth conditions 214 (Table 1). However, ZIFL2.1 overexpression visibly exacerbated the detrimental effects of excessive 215 Cs⁺ on primary root elongation over a broad range of Cs⁺ supplies, while substantially attenuating 216 them at the level of both shoot growth and chlorophyll content (Fig. 5B, C). As for elevated K⁺ 217 supplies, ZIFL2.1 overexpression also conferred significantly enhanced sensitivity to the transgenic 218 roots, but development of the shoot and its chlorophyll content remained unaffected (Fig. 5B, C). 219 Therefore, the Cs⁺- and K⁺-related phenotypes of ZIFL2.1-overexpressing lines were strikingly 220 opposite to those displayed by the *zifl2-1* loss-of-function mutant, confirming the implication of ZIFL2 221 transport activity in plant Cs⁺ and K⁺ homeostasis.

222 Activity of the Arabidopsis ZIFL2 carrier affects cesium whole-plant partitioning

As an initial step towards unraveling the mechanisms by which the ZIFL2 transporter influences Cs⁺ and K⁺ homeostasis in *Arabidopsis*, we determined the Cs and K concentrations in shoot tissues from seedlings grown under control conditions (~20 mM K⁺) or in the presence of moderate Cs⁺ (2 mM) or K⁺ (60 mM) stress (Fig. 6). As previously reported (Adams et al. 2013; Hampton et al. 2004), seedlings challenged with Cs⁺ accumulated a non negligible amount of Cs in their above-ground parts (Fig. 6A), which concomitantly accumulated significantly less K when compared to their Cs-free counterparts

229 (Fig. 6B). Importantly, Cs⁺-treated *zifl2-1* mutant and *ZIFL2.1*-overexpressing shoots concentrated on 230 average 30% more and 20% less Cs than wild-type shoots, respectively (Fig. 6A). By contrast, their 231 shoot K concentration was reduced to the same extent as in the wild type (Fig. 6B). Similarly, and 232 despite that as expected shoot K accumulation increased with the external K⁺ concentration (Hampton 233 et al. 2004; Kanter et al. 2010), the shoot K concentration quantified in seedlings challenged with high 234 K⁺ was globally comparable in all genotypes (Fig. 6B). These results are in clear agreement with the 235 gathered physiological data (see Figs. 4 and 5) and strongly suggest that ZIFL2 transport activity 236 influences Cs⁺ but not K⁺ whole-plant partitioning.

237 Discussion

238 Since the identification of AKT1 and KAT1, two members of the Arabidopsis Shaker-like channel 239 family, as the two first plant K⁺ channels (Anderson et al. 1992; Sentenac et al. 1992), several carriers 240 from well-established channel or transporter families have been linked to plant K^+ homeostasis and to 241 a lesser extent also to Cs⁺ homeostasis. To the best of our knowledge, the present study is the first to 242 functionally implicate an MFS transporter in such fundamental physiological processes, further hinting 243 at a broader role for this class of transporters in plant heavy-metal and ion homeostasis. Indeed, the 244 few plant MFS carriers functionally characterized so far are mainly involved in sugar (Buttner 2007). 245 nitrate/oligopeptide (Tsay et al. 2007) and phosphate (Nussaume et al. 2011) transport, while only two, 246 ZIF1 (Haydon and Cobbett 2007) and more recently ZIF2 (Remy et al. 2014), have been shown to 247 contribute to Arabidopsis Zn tolerance.

248 Several lines of evidence indicate that indeed the Arabidopsis ZIFL2 transporter plays a significant 249 role in K⁺ and Cs⁺ homeostasis. First, our heterologous expression studies show that ZIFL2 is able to 250 mediate K⁺ influx into yeast cells without requiring additional plant-specific factors. Potassium transport 251 activity of most Arabidopsis carriers has been demonstrated through functional complementation of 252 yeast mutant strains defective in K⁺ uptake, including Shaker-like (Anderson et al. 1992; Becker et al. 253 1996), TPK (Becker et al. 2004) and CNGC (Ali et al. 2006; Gobert et al. 2006; Kohler et al. 1999) 254 channels or CHX (Chanroj et al. 2011; Evans et al. 2012; Maresova and Sychrova 2006; Padmanaban 255 et al. 2007; Quintero and Blatt 1997; Zhao et al. 2008) and HAK/KT/KUP (Ahn et al. 2004; Fu and 256 Luan 1998; Kim et al. 1998; Rigas et al. 2001; Rubio et al. 2000) transporters. Furthermore, our yeast

257 experiments show that ZIFL2-mediated K⁺ transport activity is proton coupled, in agreement with its 258 classification as a member of the MFS that groups proton motive force-driven secondary carriers (Pao 259 et al. 1998). Besides K^+ channels, which facilitate K^+ passive diffusion across membranes down its 260 concentration gradient, all the K⁺ carriers characterized to date mediate active K⁺ transport coupled to 261 the passive diffusion of protons down their electrochemical transmembrane gradient, generated 262 primarily by either plasma membrane H⁺-ATPases or vacuolar H⁺-pyrophosphatases. While K⁺ 263 transporters from the HAK/KUP/KT and HKT/TRK families are K^+/H^+ symporters, those from the CHX, 264 NHX and KEA families catalyze K^+/H^+ antiport activities (Ashley et al. 2006), as ZIFL2 appears to. 265 Importantly, ZIFL2 activity also markedly exacerbates yeast sensitivity to Cs⁺, consistent with this ion 266 representing a competitive or opportunistic substrate of some plant K⁺ transport systems, such as the 267 high-affinity K⁺ transporters HAK5 (Qi et al. 2008; Rubio et al. 2000), KAT1 (Schachtman et al. 1992) 268 and KUP9 (Kobayashi et al. 2010). It should be noted that the effect of ZIFL2 expression is not 269 restricted to K⁺ and Cs⁺, influencing also yeast responses to two weak acids (malate and acetate) and toxic ions (Al³⁺ and Tl³⁺). Hence, and except for auxins, ZIFL2 and its closest homolog ZIFL1 share the 270 271 exact same transport properties at least when expressed in yeast (Remy et al. 2013b), suggesting that 272 their distinct in planta roles stem primarily from their different subcellular and tissue distribution.

273 A second line of evidence corroborating a role for the ZIFL2 transporter in plant Cs⁺ homeostasis 274 comes from our functional analysis of ZIFL2 loss-of-function and ZIFL2.1 overexpression lines. In 275 agreement with our physiological data - i.e. ZIFL2 loss-of-function and ZIFL2.1 overexpression 276 respectively enhancing and reducing Cs⁺ sensitivity at the level of shoot biomass production and 277 chlorophyll content -, shoots of zifl2-1 mutant and ZIFL2.1-overexpressing seedlings exposed to Cs⁺ 278 stress accumulate significantly more and less Cs, respectively, than those from the wild type. 279 Importantly, reduced shoot K concentration of the mutant and transgenic lines following Cs⁺ exposure 280 was not further affected as compared to the wild type. This indicates that the phenotypical alterations 281 induced by ZIFL2 loss-of-function and ZIFL2.1 overexpression in Arabidopsis above-ground tissues 282 are most likely linked to Cs^+ toxicity itself rather than to a concomitant change in K^+ supply, in 283 agreement with Cs⁺ toxicity not being solely perceived as K⁺ starvation (Hampton et al. 2004; White 284 and Broadley 2000; Zhu and Smolders 2000) and with the fact that we did not observe a zifl2-1 285 phenotype under K⁺ deficiency. Remarkably, the opposite trend was detected in root tissues, which

286 exhibit exacerbated tolerance and sensitivity to the inhibitory effect that Cs⁺ exerts on primary root 287 elongation in the zifl2-1 and ZIFL2.1-overexpression backgrounds, respectively. Together these 288 findings indicate that ZIFL2 function influences Cs⁺ whole-plant partitioning. Cs⁺ ions are believed to 289 be acquired at the root-soil interface through the K^+ uptake systems, before they move symplastically 290 until the xylem and translocate to the plant aerial tissues (Hampton et al. 2004; White and Broadley 291 2000). Uptake of K⁺ ions by Arabidopsis root cells is chiefly dominated by activity of the AKT1 channel 292 and the HAK5 transporter (Gierth et al. 2005; Pyo et al. 2010; Rubio et al. 2008). While AKT1 does not 293 significantly contribute to root Cs⁺ influx (Broadley et al. 2001), the HAK5 transporter mediates 294 substantial uptake and accumulation of this ion upon K⁺ starvation (Qi et al. 2008), hitherto 295 representing the only carrier functionally implicated in Cs⁺ homeostasis in *Arabidopsis*. Interestingly, 296 we recently reported that ZIFL1.1 activity negatively regulates Cs⁺ tolerance at the level of primary root 297 inhibition, while excess Cs⁺ suppresses lateral root emergence and elongation defects induced by both 298 ZIFL1 loss-of-function and ZIFL1.1 overexpression (Remy et al. 2013b). Nevertheless, because the 299 corresponding single mutations do not have additive or synergistic effects, the ZIFL2 and ZIFL1.1 300 transporters are unlikely to be functionally redundant in Cs⁺ homeostasis.

301 In plants, Cs⁺ ions are not relevant for any cellular or physiological process and therefore most 302 likely constitute an opportunistic rather than the natural substrate of the ZIFL2 transporter. In support 303 of this notion, our plant functional data also point to a role for the ZIFL2 carrier in K⁺ homeostasis. 304 Primary root tolerance to adverse effects induced by a very high external K⁺ supply is negatively 305 affected by ZIFL2 transport activity, in a similar trend as for Cs⁺. Nonetheless, unlike with Cs⁺, ZIFL2 306 activity appears insufficient to engender long-distance K⁺ transport alterations. We propose that this is 307 due to the essential nature of K^+ , for which plants have developed a very tightly controlled homeostatic 308 network aimed primarily at ensuring an adequate K⁺ supply while preventing its toxic build-up at both 309 the whole-plant and cellular levels. This network is likely to involve at least partially functionally 310 redundant K⁺ carriers, whose activity most certainly compensates for altered ZIFL2 levels.

Our transient expression assays in isolated *Arabidopsis* protoplasts indicate that, in contrast to its ZIF1 and ZIFL1 homologs but in agreement with bioinformatics predictions (WoLF PSORT, <u>http://wolfpsort.seq.cbrc.jp</u>), the ZIFL2 transporter is targeted to the plasma membrane of plant cells. Unfortunately, we were unable to visualize any GFP signal in transgenic roots expressing ZIFL2.1-

GFP, despite detailed analysis of a large number of independent transformants. Nevertheless, the GFP-tagged ZIFL2.1 isoform was functionally active, as its overexpression was able not only to rescue the defects but also to induce exact opposite phenotypes to those observed in the *zifl2-1* mutant. The failure to detect the GFP signal *in planta* could be due to the orientation of the ZIFL2 transporter in the plasma membrane, i.e. N- and C-terminal extremities facing the acidic apoplasm, as both the absorbance and the fluorescence of the GFP protein are greatly sensitive to low pH (Kneen et al. 1998; Ward 1982).

322 Considering also the preferential expression of the ZIFL2 transporter in endodermal and pericycle 323 cells of the mature root zone, the *zifl2-1* phenotype is consistent with ZIFL2 activity promoting (i) 324 Cs^+/K^+ retention in the root, thereby restricting Cs^+/K^+ xylem loading and subsequent root-to-shoot 325 translocation; or (ii) Cs⁺/K⁺ xylem retrieval, as hypothesized for the Na⁺/K⁺ channel CNGC10 whose 326 loss of function results in the same whole-plant partitioning trend as the *zifl2-1* mutation except that for 327 Na⁺ instead of Cs⁺ ions (Guo et al. 2008). However, the H⁺-coupled K⁺ transport activity of the ZIFL2 328 carrier is incompatible with it promoting cellular K⁺ influx from the acidic xylem sap, while in agreement 329 with it driving active cellular K^+ efflux to the apoplastic space under conditions of high external K^+ 330 supply. Being an essential ion, the cytosolic concentrations of K⁺ need to be maintained within narrow 331 limits regardless of external K^+ abundance. Besides K^+ import/export at the tonoplast, intracellular K^+ 332 homeostasis is tightly controlled via the integrated regulation of K⁺ influx and efflux at the plasma 333 membrane (White and Karley 2010). To date, two root plasma-membrane K⁺ channels have been 334 shown to mediate K⁺ efflux in Arabidopsis: GORK in root hairs (Ivashikina et al. 2001) and SKOR in 335 the stele (Gaymard et al. 1998). Though likely also controlled by other channels, K⁺ loading into the 336 xylem is largely sustained by the activity of SKOR, whose deletion triggers a significant reduction in 337 shoot K accumulation due to lower K⁺ delivery to the xylem sap (Gaymard et al. 1998). We propose 338 that under Cs⁺/K⁺ excess, ZIFL2 efflux activity counteracts Cs⁺/K⁺ entry into the xylem by releasing it 339 into the surrounding apoplasm of the endodermis and pericycle, thus preventing too much Cs⁺/K⁺ from 340 reaching the shoot. We have recently shown that alternative splicing dictates a dual function for the 341 ZIFL2 closest homolog, ZIFL1 (Remy et al. 2013b), and plays a key role in regulating the activity of the 342 ZIF2 transporter (Remy et al. 2014). Functional and molecular characterization of the ZIFL2.2 and

343 *ZIFL2.3* splice variants should uncover the full extent of ZIFL2's role in the regulation of plant Cs^+/K^+ 344 homeostasis.

345 Material and methods

346 Plant materials and growth conditions

347 The A. thaliana ecotype Col-0 was used in this study. T-DNA insertion mutants zif1-2 (SALK_011408), 348 zifl1-2 (GABI_052H08) and zifl2-1 (SALK_059052) were obtained from the Nottingham Arabidopsis 349 Stock Centre (Nottingham, UK). The exact T-DNA insertion site in the zifl2-1 mutant was confirmed 350 using primers annealing at the T-DNA borders and gene-specific primers (Supplementary Table S1), 351 which also allowed PCR-based genotyping to identify homozygous lines. The zif1-2 zifl2-1 double 352 mutant (Haydon and Cobbett 2007) was kindly provided by Scott Sinclair (Ruhr University Bochum, 353 Germany), and the zifl1-2 zifl2-1 double mutant was generated through genetic crossing of the two 354 single mutant lines. Plant transformation was achieved by the floral-dip method (Clough and Bent 355 1998) using Agrobacterium tumefaciens strain EHA105.

Seeds were surface-sterilized and sown on Murashige and Skoog (1962) medium (MS medium) supplemented with 0.1 g I^{-1} *myo*-inositol and 0.5 g I^{-1} MES, adjusted to pH 5.7 and solidified with 0.8% phyto agar (Duchefa Biochemie B.V., Haarlem, The Netherlands). After 3 d of stratification, seeds were placed in a growth chamber and seedlings transferred to soil after 2-3 weeks. Plants were cultivated under long-day conditions (16-h light, 22°C/8-h dark, 18°C; 60% relative humidity).

361 Gene expression analyses

Total RNA was extracted from seedlings or tissues harvested from 8-wk old plants using TRIzol[®] reagent (Invitrogen, Life Technologies, Carlsbad, CA, USA) or the innuPREP Plant RNA kit (Analytik Jena, Jena, Germany) according to the manufacturers' instructions. RNA samples were treated with DNAse I (Promega, Madison, WI, USA) and phenol-chloroform purified before reverse transcription using M-MLV reverse transcriptase (Promega) following the protocol provided. First-strand cDNA was used as a template for semi-quantitative PCR amplification with primers designed to detect *ZIFL2*, *CYCLOPHILIN* (*ROC1*) and *UBIQUITIN10* (*UBQ10*) expression (Supplementary Table S1).

369 For native *ZIFL2* promoter reporter gene experiments, a fragment encompassing the 2383 bp 370 immediately upstream of the start codon was PCR-amplified (Supplementary Table S1) from genomic

DNA and inserted via the *Sacl/Sacl* restriction sites into the pKGWFS7 plasmid containing a GFP-GUS fusion (Karimi et al. 2002). After introduction of the corresponding *ProZIFL2:GFP-GUS* construct into wild-type plants, two independent transformants showing similar tissue-specific GUS expression patterns were selected. Histochemical staining of GUS activity was performed as described by Sundaresan et al. (1995).

376 Generation of ZIFL2-overexpressing lines and subcellular localization studies

377 To generate ZIFL2.1 protein fusions with the YFP and GFP reporters, the ZIFL2.1 transcript (5'UTR 378 plus the coding sequence except the stop codon) was PCR-amplified (Supplementary Table S1), using 379 root cDNA as a template, and inserted under the control of the 35S promoter into the YFP- or GFP-380 tagged versions of the pBA002 vector via the Xhol/Pacl restriction sites. Two transgenic lines 381 displaying significant ZIFL2.1 overexpression were recovered upon transformation of either wild-type 382 or zifl2-1 mutant plants with the resulting Pro35S:ZIFL2.1-YFP construct. This construct was also 383 transfected by polyethylene glycol transformation (Abel and Theologis 1994) into Arabidopsis 384 protoplasts generated as described by Yoo et al. (2007). Transient co-expression of the 385 Pro35S:ZIFL2.1-GFP construct with the tonoplast marker γ-Tonoplast Intrinsic Protein (TIP)-mCherry 386 or the plasma membrane marker Plasma membrane Intrinsic Protein 2A (PIP2A)-mCherry (Nelson et 387 al. 2007) and the pBIN-NA construct (Silhavy et al. 2002) in leaf abaxial epidermal cells of Nicotiana 388 tabacum was performed via the agroinfiltration procedure described by Voinnet et al. (2003) using A. 389 tumefaciens strain GV3101.

390 Yeast manipulations

391 The S. cerevisiae deletion mutant strains BY4741_ Δ tpo1 (MATa, his3 Δ 1, leu2 Δ 0, met15 Δ 0, ura3 Δ 0, 392 YLL028w::kanMX4) BY4741_*Δqdr2* (*MATa*, his3∆1, leu2∆0, and *met15∆0*, *ura3∆0*, 393 YIL121W::kanMX4) were used in this study. The Arabidopsis ZIFL2.1 coding sequence was cloned 394 into the pGREG576 vector (Jansen et al. 2005), and expression of the corresponding GFP fusion 395 protein was verified by western blotting and fluorescence microscopy as described in Cabrito et al. 396 (2009). Strains and vector were acquired from the Euroscarf collection (Frankfurt, Germany). 397 Susceptibility of the $\Delta tpo1$ mutant to chemical stresses was assessed by spot assays carried out as 398 previously described (Cabrito et al. 2009) in minimal MMB-U agarized medium supplemented with 399 Al₂(SO₄)₃, TICl₃, L-malic acid, acetic acid or CsCl at the specified concentrations (pH was adjusted to 4

for the weak acids). Growth of the $\Delta q dr^2$ mutant under K⁺ limitation was evaluated by spot assays on agarized ammonium phosphate basal medium (KNA) supplemented with 0.2 or 2 mM KCl as previously described (Vargas et al. 2007). The *in vivo* active proton export of the $\Delta q dr^2$ mutant was evaluated by monitoring the external medium pH as in Vargas et al. (2007) using liquid KNA medium supplemented with 0.5 mM of KCl.

405 Phenotypical assays

406 All assays were performed in a climate-controlled growth cabinet under long-day conditions. After 5 d 407 of vertically-oriented growth on control medium (~20 mM K⁺), seedlings were transferred to fresh 408 medium containing the indicated compound (Sigma-Aldrich, Saint-Louis, PO, USA) at the specified 409 concentrations, with Zn²⁺, Cs⁺ and K⁺ ions provided as ZnCl₂, CsCl or KCl. Primary root elongation and 410 lateral root parameters, i.e. density and total length, were measured on scanned images using the 411 ImageJ software (http://rsbweb.nih.gov/ij) after an additional 8 and 14 d of growth, respectively. Shoot 412 biomass along with chlorophyll content were determined (Fankhauser and Casal 2004) after an 413 additional two weeks of growth. Water loss and hypocotyl elongation assays were performed as 414 described previously (Remy et al. 2013b).

415 Microscopy

Differential interference contrast and confocal images were obtained with a DM LB2 microscope (Leica, Solms, Germany) and an LSM 510 laser scanning microscope equipped with a Meta detector (Zeiss, Jena, Germany), respectively. Excitation/detection wavelengths used to detect fluorescence were 488/500-550 nm for GFP, 514/535-590 nm for YFP, 543/565-615 nm for mCherry and 458/>560 nm for autofluorescence.

421 Potassium and cesium measurements

To measure plant K and Cs concentrations, pooled shoot tissues from 3-wk old seedlings grown on control medium (~20 mM K⁺) or medium supplemented with 2 mM Cs⁺ or 40 mM K⁺ were processed as previously described (Remy et al. 2012). The K and/or Cs concentration of the digests was quantified by Atomic Emission Spectrometry - Flame (AAnalyst 300, Perkin-Elmer, Waltham, MA, USA) at the Laboratório de Análises, Instituto Superior Técnico (Lisbon, Portugal) according to methods SMEWW 3500-K B and SMEWW 3500-Cs, respectively, described by Eaton et al. (2005). K

- 428 and Cs standards for analytical calibration were from Merck KGaA (Darmstadt, Germany). Four
- 429 independent samples were processed per genotype.

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Conflicts of interest: No conflicts of interest declared.

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	Shoot parameters		Root parameters		
	FW	сс	PRE	LRD	TLRL
Genotype	(mg/plant)	(mg/mg plant)	(cm)	(LR/cm)	(cm)
Col-0	35.51 ± 6.65	1.13 ± 0.18	3.73 ± 0.52	2.02 ± 0.49	3.44 ± 0.31
zifl2-1	34.58 ± 4.82 (0.384)	1.16 ± 0.14 (0.370)	3.94 ± 0.50 (0.134)	1.85 ± 0.22 (0.218)	3.89 ± 1.46 (0.220
zif1-2	36.28 ± 6.55 (0.416)	1.22 ± 0.19 (0.199)	3.83 ± 0.28 (0.273)	1.94 ± 0.33 (0.365)	3.60 ± 0.43 (0.219
zifl1-2	34.76 ± 4.09 (0.402)	1.16 ± 0.20 (0.391)	3.69 ± 0.33 (0.397)	1.27 ± 0.16 (8.9e ⁻⁴)	2.08 ± 1.00 (2.1e ⁻³
zif1-2 zifl2-1	35.06 ± 7.62 (0.454)	1.20 ± 0.29 (0.303)	3.52 ± 0.27 (0.089)	2.11 ± 0.43 (0.347)	3.52 ± 1.27 (0.436
zifl1-2 zifl2-1	34.45 ± 6.98 (0.387)	1.19 ± 0.15 (0.272)	3.83 ± 0.28 (0.279)	1.13 ± 0.09 (1.7e ⁻⁴)	2.32 ± 0.79 (1.7e ⁻³)
<i>zifl2-1/ZIFL2.1</i> 0X1	32.88 ± 8.16 (0.259)	1.04 ± 0.18 (0.168)	3.80 ± 0.36 (0.341)	1.94 ± 0.52 (0.397)	3.60 ± 1.03 (0.352)
zifl2-1/ZIFL2.10X2	34.26 ± 7.82 (0.376)	1.28 ± 0.17 (0.072)	3.42 ± 0.62 (0.071)	2.12 ± 0.36 (0.334)	3.33 ± 0.97 (0.393
<i>ZIFL2.1</i> 0X1	35.03 ± 6.06 (0.444)	1.22 ± 0.18 (0.187)	3.69 ± 0.31 (0.397)	1.89 ± 0.56 (0.338)	3.56 ± 1.38 (0.410)
ZIFL2.10X2	37.16 ± 5.40 (0.309)	1.13 ± 0.20 (0.493)	3.52 ± 0.33 (0.093)	2.02 ± 0.37 (0.500)	3.35 ± 0.51 (0.354)

Table 1 Growth parameters under control conditions of the different plant lines used in this study

Shoot biomass (fresh weight, FW), chlorophyll content (CC), primary root elongation (PRE), lateral root density (LRD) and total lateral root length (TLRL) of 8-d (PRE), 14-d (LRD, TLRL) or 21-d (FW, CC) old seedlings from the wild type (Col-0), the *zifl2-1, zif1-2, zif1-2, zif1-2 zifl2-1* and *zifl1-2 zifl2-1* mutants, and two independent complementation (*zifl2-1/ZIFL2.1OX1* and *zifl2-1/ZIFL2.1OX2*) and *ZIFL2.1*-overexpressing (*ZIFL2.1OX1* and *zIFL2.1OX2*) lines grown on control (~20 mM K⁺) medium (means \pm SD, *n*=8 for FW, CC, LRD and TLRL and *n*=16 for PRE). Numbers between parentheses indicate the *P* value (comparison with the wild type) obtained by Student's *t*-test.

Genotype	250 μM Zn ²⁺	0.03 μM 2,4-D	0.075 μM IAA	3 mM Cs⁺	60 mM K⁺
Col-0	79.40 ± 8.52 (a)	54.94 ± 8.40 (a)	65.31 ± 9.60 (a)	55.70 ± 11.9 (a)	63.67 ± 11.8 (a)
zif1-2	54.00 ± 8.68 (b)	55.34 ± 8.35 (a)	65.05 ± 9.02 (a)	57.52 ± 10.3 (a)	62.89 ± 5.49 (a)
zifl1-2	78.75 ± 7.52 (a)	40.67 ± 6.00 (b)	43.76 ± 7.03 (b)	62.13 ± 9.19 (b)	65.69 ± 6.53 (a)
zifl2-1	78.61 ± 11.4 (a)	54.10 ± 8.97 (a)	66.41 ± 7.83 (a)	70.96 ± 7.34 (c)	78.26 ± 7.11 (b)
zif1-2 zifl2-1	52.13 ± 3.93 (b)	56.49 ± 7.10 (a)	66.88 ± 9.91 (a)	69.66 ± 8.74 (c)	79.27 ± 9.43 (b)
zifl1-2 zifl2-1	75.21 ± 10.1 (a)	39.60 ± 7.20 (b)	42.16 ± 11.3 (b)	67.52 ± 8.78 (c)	77.15 ± 7.13 (b)
zif1-2 zif11-2 zif12-1 zif1-2 zif12-1 zif11-2 zif12-1	54.00 ± 8.68 (b) 78.75 ± 7.52 (a) 78.61 ± 11.4 (a) 52.13 ± 3.93 (b) 75.21 ± 10.1 (a)	55.34 ± 8.35 (a) 40.67 ± 6.00 (b) 54.10 ± 8.97 (a) 56.49 ± 7.10 (a) 39.60 ± 7.20 (b)	65.05 ± 9.02 (a) 43.76 ± 7.03 (b) 66.41 ± 7.83 (a) 66.88 ± 9.91 (a) 42.16 ± 11.3 (b)	57.52 ± 10.3 (a) 62.13 ± 9.19 (b) 70.96 ± 7.34 (c) 69.66 ± 8.74 (c) 67.52 ± 8.78 (c)	62.89 ± 5.49 (a) 65.69 ± 6.53 (a) 78.26 ± 7.11 (b) 79.27 ± 9.43 (b) 77.15 ± 7.13 (b)

Table 2 Functional redundancy between the Arabidopsis ZIF1, ZIFL1 and ZIFL2 genes

Primary root elongation of 8-d old seedlings from the wild type (Col-0) and the *zif1-2*, *zifl1-2*, *zifl2-1*, *zifl2-1* and *zifl1-2 zifl2-1* mutants upon Zn, 2,4-D, IAA, Cs and K challenges (means \pm SD, *n* = 16). Results are representative of three independent experiments. Letters between parentheses indicate statistically significant differences between genotypes (*P*<0.001; Student's *t*-test).

Figure Legends

Fig. 1 Structure and expression pattern of the *Arabidopsis ZIFL2* gene. (A) exon/intron organization of the *ZIFL2* gene and T-DNA insertion site in the *zifl2-1* mutant. Boxes and lines between boxes denote exons and introns, respectively. The large open triangle depicts the site of the T-DNA insertion. F1, F2, F3, R1, R2 and R3 indicate the location of the primers used to detect *ZIFL2* expression. Scale bar, 200 bp. (B) Structure of the predicted alternative *ZIFL2* transcripts (current genome annotation, TAIR10). Boxes indicate exons with UTRs in grey, and lines between boxes represent introns. Transcript lengths are indicated. Scale bar, 200 nt. (C) RT-PCR profile of *ZIFL2* expression in different *Arabidopsis* wild-type (Col-0) tissues. The location of the F2, R2, F3, R3, F4, R4 and R4' primers used is shown in (A). Expression of the *ROC1* gene was used as a loading control. Results are representative of three independent experiments. (D) Differential interference contrast microscopy images of GUS-stained primary roots of a wild type (left panel) or a transgenic plant carrying the Pro*ZIFL2:GFP: GUS* reporter construct (right panel). Scale bar, 50 μm.

Fig. 2 Subcellular localization of the *Arabidopsis* ZIFL2.1 transporter. (A-B) Confocal laser scanning microscopy images of wild-type *Arabidopsis* mesophyll protoplasts transiently expressing either YFP alone (A) or the ZIFL2.1-YFP fusion (B) under the control of the 35S promoter. The YFP and chloroplast autofluorescence signals are visualized by green and red coloration, respectively. Scale bars, 10 μ m. (C-Q) Confocal laser scanning microscopy images of tobacco leaf epidermal cells transiently co-expressing the ZIFL2.1-GFP fusion (C, F, I, L, O) with the tonoplast marker γ -TIP-mCherry (D, G, J) or the plasma membrane marker PIP2A-mCherry (M, P) under the control of the 35S promoter. Merged images of whole-cell views (E, N) or close-ups (H, K, Q) are shown. Arrowheads point to transvacuolar strands and asterisks indicate fluorescence signals approaching the nucleus only on the side facing the exterior of the cell. The GFP and mCherry signals are visualized by green and red coloration, respectively. Scale bars, 20 μ m (C, F, L) and 10 μ m (I, O).

Fig. 3 Heterologous expression of the *Arabidopsis* ZIFL2.1 transporter in *S. cerevisiae*. (A) Fluorescence microscopy images of exponential-phase yeast $\Delta tpo1$ mutant cells harboring either the cloning vector *pGREG576* (background fluorescence) or the *pGREG576_ZIFL2.1* plasmid after induction of recombinant protein production (upper panels) and corresponding immunoblot analysis of

the GFP-ZIFL2.1 fusion protein using anti-GFP antibodies (lower panel). A representative image of wild-type cells expressing a GFP fusion of the yeast plasma membrane localized Qdr2 transporter is shown as a control. Scale bars, 2 μ m. (B) Susceptibility to acetate, malate, TI³⁺, AI³⁺ and Cs⁺ of yeast $\Delta tpo1$ mutant cells harboring either the cloning vector *pGREG576* or the *pGREG576_ZIFL2.1* plasmid, as determined by spotting dilution series of cell suspensions (1, 1:5 and 1:10). Results are representative of three independent experiments. (C) Susceptibility to low K⁺ growth conditions of yeast $\Delta qdr2$ mutant cells harboring either the cloning vector *pGREG576* or the *pGREG576_ZIFL2.1* or *pGREG576_ZIFL1.1* plasmids, as determined by spotting dilution series of cell suspensions (1, 1:5 and 1:10). Results are representative of three independent experiment by spotting dilution series of cell suspensions (1, 1:5 and 1:10). Results are *pGREG576_ZIFL2.1* or *pGREG576_ZIFL1.1* plasmids, as determined by spotting dilution series of cell suspensions (1, 1:5 and 1:10). Results are representative of three independent experiments. (D) External medium acidification promoted by energized yeast $\Delta qdr2$ mutant cells harboring either the cloning vector *pGREG576_CIFL1.1* plasmids. Results are representative of three independent experiments. (D) External medium acidification promoted by energized yeast $\Delta qdr2$ mutant cells harboring either the cloning vector *pGREG576* or the *pGREG576_ZIFL2.1* or *pGREG576_ZIFL1.1* plasmids. Results are representative of three independent experiments.

Fig. 4 Cesium- and potassium-related phenotypes of an *Arabidopsis ZIFL2* loss-of-function mutant. (A) RT-PCR analysis of *ZIFL2* expression in 14-d old wild-type (Col-0) and *zifl2-1* mutant seedlings. The location of the F1, R1, F2, R2, F4, R4 and R4' primers used is shown in Fig 1A. Expression of the *UBQ10* gene was used as a loading control. (B) Representative images of 10-d old wild-type (Col-0) and *zifl2-1* mutant seedlings grown on control medium (~20 mM K⁺) or under Cs⁺ or excess K⁺ supply. (C) Effect of Cs⁺ (left panels) and K⁺ (right panels) toxicity on shoot biomass (upper panels), chlorophyll content (middle panels) and primary root (PR) elongation (lower panels) of wild-type (Col-0) and *zifl2-1* mutant seedlings (means \pm SD, n = 8 for shoot biomass./chlorophyll content and n = 16 for PR elongation). Results are representative of three independent experiments. Asterisks denote statistically significant differences between the two genotypes (* *P*<0.05, ** *P*<0.01, *** *P*<0.001; Student's *t*-test).

Fig. 5 Cesium- and potassium-related phenotypes of transgenic *Arabidopsis* lines overexpressing *ZIFL2.1*. (A) RT-PCR analysis of *ZIFL2* expression in 14-d old seedlings of the wild type (Col-0) and of two independent complementation (*zifl2-1/ZIFL2.1*OX1 and *zifl2-1/ZIFL2.1*OX2) and *ZIFL2.1*-overexpressing (*ZIFL2.1*OX1 and *ZIFL2.1*OX2) lines. The location of the F2 and R2 primers used is shown in Figure 1*A*. Expression of the *UBQ10* gene was used as a loading control. Results are representative of three independent experiments. (B) Representative images of 10-d old seedlings of

the wild type (CoI-0) and of two independent complementation (*zifl2-1/ZIFL2.1*OX1 and *zifl2-1/ZIFL2.1*OX2) and *ZIFL2.1*-overexpressing (*ZIFL2.1*OX1 and *ZIFL2.1*OX2) lines grown on control medium (~20 mM K⁺) or under Cs⁺ or excess K⁺ supply. (C) Effect of Cs⁺ (middle panels) and K⁺ (right panels) toxicity on shoot biomass (upper panels), chlorophyll content (middle panels) and primary root (PR) elongation (lower panels) of seedlings of the wild type (CoI-0) and of two independent complementation (*zifl2-1/ZIFL2.1*OX1 and *zifl2-1/ZIFL2.1*OX2) and *ZIFL2.1*-overexpressing (*ZIFL2.1*OX1 and *ZIFL2.1*OX1 and *ZIFL2.1*OX2) lines (means ± SD, *n* = 8 for shoot biomass/chlorophyll content and *n* = 16 for PR elongation). Results are representative of three independent experiments. Asterisks denote statistically significant differences from the wild type under each condition (* *P*<0.05, ** *P*<0.01, *** *P*<0.001; Student's *t*-test).

Fig. 6 Cesium and potassium content of *Arabidopsis* wild-type, *zifl2-1* mutant and *ZIFL2.1*ovexpressing lines. (A) Total Cs accumulation, expressed on a dry weight (DW) basis, in the shoot of seedlings of the wild type (Col-0) and the *zifl2-1* mutant as well as of two independent complementation (*zifl2-1/ZIFL2.1*OX1 and *zifl2-1/ZIFL2.1*OX2) and one *ZIFL2.1*-overexpressing (*ZIFL2.1*OX1) lines grown under 2 mM Cs⁺ supply. Bars represent means \pm SD, *n* = 4. Different letters indicate statistically significant differences between genotypes (*P*<0.05; Student's *t*-test). (B) K concentration, expressed on a dry weight (DW) basis, in the shoot of 21-d old seedlings of the wild type (Col-0) and the *zifl2-1* mutant as well as of two independent complementation (*zifl2-1/ZIFL2.1*OX1 and *zifl2-1*/*ZIFL2.1*OX2) and one *ZIFL2.1*-overexpressing (*ZIFL2.1*OX1) lines grown on control medium (~20 mM K⁺) or under Cs⁺ or excess K⁺ supply. Bars represent means \pm SD, *n* = 4. Different letters indicate statistically significant differences between genotypes under each condition (*P*<0.05; Student's *t*-test).



















Fig. S1 Drought- and auxin-related phenotypes of an *Arabidopsis ZIFL2* lossof-function mutant. (A) Water loss rates of rosette leaves detached from 5week-old irrigated plants of the wild type (Col-0) and the *zifl2-1* and *zifl1-2* mutants (means ± SD, n = 3). Results are representative of two independent experiments. (B) Effect of IAA and 2,4-D on hypocotyl elongation of 7-d-old dark-grown seedlings of the wild type (Col-0) and the *zifl2-1* and *zifl1-2* mutants (means ± SD, n = 40-60). Results are representative of two independent repetitions. Asterisks denote statistically significant differences between the two genotypes (*** *P*<0.001; Student's *t*-test).



Fig. S2 Zinc-related phenotype of an *Arabidopsis ZIFL2* lossof-function mutant. Effect of Zn toxicity on shoot biomass (upper panel), chlorophyll content (middle panel) and primary root (PR) elongation (lower panel) of seedlings from the wild type (Col-0) and the *zifl2-1* and *zif1-2* mutants. Results are representative of two independent experiments (means ± SD, n = 8 for shoot biomass/chlorophyll content and n = 16 for PR elongation). Asterisks denote statistically significant differences from the wild type (* *P*<0.05; *** *P*<0.001; Student's *t*-test).



Fig. S3 Potassium deficiency-related phenotype of an *Arabidopsis ZIFL2* lossof-function mutant. Effect of K⁺ deficiency under different MS strengths on PR elongation of wild-type (Col-0) and *zifl2-1* mutant seedlings. Results are representative of two independent experiments and values represent means ± SD (*n*=8). No statistical differences between mutant and wild type were detected under each condition (*P*>0.05; Student's *t*-test).



Fig. S4 RT-PCR analysis of *ZIFL2* expression in 7-d old wild-type (Col-0) seedlings grown under control conditions (~20 mM K⁺) or challenged for 48h with various Cs⁺ or K⁺ supplies. The location of the F2 and R2 primers used is shown in Figure 1A. Expression of the *UBQ10* gene is shown as a loading control. Results are representative of two independent experiments.

PRIMER NAME	SEQUENCE (5' to 3')			
Expression analyses				
F1	TCATCAACCAGTCCGA			
F2	GTCTATGCTACTGCGGTTCTC			
F3	CCCGCCATTGGAGAA			
F4	GGTGTTGAATTTGGTACAGC			
R1	AAGCAGCCAAGAAGAAA			
R2	GAAACACCAGAAGCCCAAG			
R3	TCATCACATGGTGCAAAAA			
R4	CCGAATCATAGAGAAACACA			
R4'	CGTGCGTCGTGACAACT			
ROC1-F	GTCTGATAGAGATCTCACGT			
ROC1-R	AATCGGCAACAACAACAGGC			
UBQ10-F1	GATCTTTGCCGGAAAACAATTGG			
UBQ10-R1	TAGAAAGAAAGAGATAACAGG			
Cloning of ProZIFL2:GUS-GFP construct				
ProZIFL2-F	TT <u>GAGCTC</u> AACTGTAAAATCGTCGTGAA			
ProZIFL2-R	TT <u>CCGCGG</u> GATCGGAACCACTGAGTC			
Cloning of Pro35S:ZIFL2.1-YFP and Pro35S:ZIFL2.1-GFP constructs				
ZIF2YFP-F	TT <u>CTCGAG</u> TTGGAATGAAATAAAAAT			
ZIF2YFP-R	TT <u>AATTAA</u> CTGGATTTGGGAAATGT			

Table S1 Sequences of the primers used in this study.

Restriction sites are shown in italics and underlined.