

1 **Disruption of *AtHAK/KT/KUP9* enhances plant cesium accumulation under low potassium supply.**

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10

11 **ABSTRACT**

12 Understanding molecular mechanisms which underlie transport of cesium (Cs<sup>+</sup>) in plants is important  
13 to limit entry of its radioisotopes from contaminated area to the food chain. The potentially toxic  
14 element Cs<sup>+</sup>, which is not involved in any biological process, is chemically closed to the macronutrient  
15 potassium (K<sup>+</sup>). Among the multiple K<sup>+</sup> carriers, the high-affinity K<sup>+</sup> transporters family HAK/KT/KUP is  
16 thought to be relevant in mediating opportunistic Cs<sup>+</sup> transport. On the 13 *KUP* identified in  
17 *Arabidopsis thaliana*, only *HAK5*, the major contributor to root K<sup>+</sup> acquisition under low K<sup>+</sup> supply, has  
18 been functionally demonstrated to be involved in Cs<sup>+</sup> uptake *in planta*. In the present study, we showed  
19 that accumulation of Cs<sup>+</sup> increased by up to 30% in two *A. thaliana* mutant lines lacking *KUP9* and  
20 grown under low K<sup>+</sup> supply. Since further experiments revealed that Cs<sup>+</sup> release from contaminated  
21 plants to the external medium is proportionally lower in the two *kup9* mutants, we proposed that *KUP9*  
22 disruption could impair Cs<sup>+</sup> efflux. By contrast, we did not measure significant impairment of K<sup>+</sup> status  
23 in *kup9* mutants suggesting that *KUP9* disruption does not alter substantially K<sup>+</sup> transport in  
24 experimental conditions used here. Putative primary role of *KUP9* in plants is further discussed.

25 **Keywords:** cesium accumulation, potassium transporters, root, phytoremediation.

## 26 INTRODUCTION

27 Cesium is an alkali metal occurring generally at low concentration in soil solution where it is present  
28 predominantly as the monovalent cation  $\text{Cs}^+$  (Greenwood & Earnshaw, 1984). Although it has not been  
29 involved in any biological process to date,  $\text{Cs}^+$  is taken up by plants and can even be toxic (Hampton et  
30 al., 2004). Due to its low environmental concentration, the chemical toxicity of stable  $\text{Cs}^+$  is rarely  
31 relevant in natural conditions (White & Broadley, 2000). By contrast, the radiological threat of  $^{134}\text{Cs}$   
32 and  $^{137}\text{Cs}$ , two radioisotopes of  $\text{Cs}^+$  originated from nuclear activities, is a concern for environment and  
33 human health in contaminated areas. These two  $\beta$ - and  $\gamma$ -emitting radionuclides were among those  
34 unintentionally released at harmful levels during nuclear accidents including those at Fukushima  
35 (Japan, 2011) and Chernobyl (Ukraine, 1986) (Steinhauser, Brandl & Johnson, 2014) and remained  
36 monitored due to their relative long half-lives (2.06 and 30.17 years for  $^{134}\text{Cs}$  and  $^{137}\text{Cs}$  respectively).  
37 Contaminated food is regarded as a major source of radionuclides exposure for humans after the initial  
38 phase of a nuclear accident (Hamada & Ogino, 2012). Therefore, understanding transfer of  
39 radiocesium in plants remains a challenging question for reducing its transfer into the food chain  
40 through development of “safe crops” which accumulate less amounts of radionuclides, or through  
41 phytoremediation strategies to remove  $\text{Cs}^+$  from soils (White & Broadley, 2000).

42 To date, it is commonly admitted that plants do not discriminate significantly stable and radioactive  
43 isotopes of  $\text{Cs}^+$  (White & Broadley, 2000) which are used indifferently for uptake experiments.  $\text{Cs}^+$   
44 shares closed chemical properties with the macronutrient  $\text{K}^+$  (Bowen, 1979) and early studies  
45 demonstrated that mechanisms underlying  $\text{Cs}^+$  and  $\text{K}^+$  uptake in plants were also similar (Collander,  
46 1941; Epstein & Hagen, 1952). As for  $\text{K}^+$ ,  $\text{Cs}^+$  uptake in plants can be divided into two major systems: a  
47 high-affinity transport system (HATS) operating for external  $\text{Cs}^+$  concentration in the micromolar range  
48 and a low-affinity transport system (LATS) operating in the millimolar range (Bange & Overstreet, 1960;  
49 Shaw & Bell, 1989). In addition, several studies on different plant species described a competitive  
50 effect of external  $\text{K}^+$  on  $\text{Cs}^+$  uptake (Kondo et al., 2015; Middleton, Handley & Overstreet, 1960; Sacchi,

51 Espen, Nocito & Cocucci, 1997; Smolders, Kiebooms, Buysse & Merckx, 1996). Since Cs<sup>+</sup> has no relevant  
52 physiological role in plants and given the above-mentioned evidences suggesting that K<sup>+</sup> and Cs<sup>+</sup> share  
53 the same transport mechanisms, it is generally assumed that Cs<sup>+</sup> entry in plants is mainly mediated  
54 through K<sup>+</sup> transporters (White & Broadley, 2000).

55 Multiple transport systems are involved in plant K<sup>+</sup> acquisition and contribution of each individual  
56 system depends on the external K<sup>+</sup> concentration (Alemán, Nieves-Cordones, Martínez & Rubio, 2011).  
57 In the same way, K<sup>+</sup> supply also affects contribution of each pathway mediating Cs<sup>+</sup> uptake. In the  
58 model plant *Arabidopsis thaliana*, Non-selective Cation Channels (NSCC) are assumed to mediate a  
59 significant part of Cs<sup>+</sup> uptake under sufficient K<sup>+</sup>-supply (Hampton, Broadley & White, 2005; White &  
60 Broadley, 2000). The *Arabidopsis* Zinc-Induced-Facilitator-Like-2 (ZIFL2) carrier is also involved in Cs<sup>+</sup>  
61 partitioning in K<sup>+</sup>-replete plants (Remy et al., 2015). In contrast, the Shaker channel AKT1 which is a  
62 major contributor of K<sup>+</sup> uptake in roots of *A. thaliana* (Hirsch, Lewis, Spalding & Sussman, 1998), is Cs<sup>+</sup>-  
63 sensitive (Bertl, Reid, Sentenac & Slayman, 1997) but is not relevant for plant Cs<sup>+</sup> uptake (Broadley,  
64 Escobar-Gutiérrez, Bowen, Willey & White, 2001).

65 In K<sup>+</sup>-starved plants, transporters encoded by the *HAK/KT/KUP* genes family (named *KUP* in the  
66 following) have been pointed out as a relevant pathway for Cs<sup>+</sup> (Rubio, Guillermo & Rodríguez-Navarro,  
67 2000; White & Broadley, 2000). This statement is supported by several evidences among those the  
68 role of bacterial KUP transporters in Cs<sup>+</sup> uptake (Bossemeyer, Schlösser & Bakker, 1989), the  
69 demonstration that Cs<sup>+</sup> uptake in maize roots is mediated by K<sup>+</sup> HATS (Sacchi et al., 1997) which involve  
70 members of the *KUP* family (Alemán et al., 2011), the transport of Cs<sup>+</sup> through plants KUP transporter  
71 expressed in yeast (*AtHAK5*, Rubio et al., 2000) and in bacteria (*AtKUP9*, Kobayashi, Uozumi, Hisamatsu  
72 & Yamagami, 2010).

73 In *A. thaliana*, 13 genes encode for KUP transporters (Mäser et al., 2001) among those only the high-  
74 affinity K<sup>+</sup> transporter HAK5 (Gierth, Mäser & Schroeder, 2005; Rubio et al., 2000) has been  
75 demonstrated to be functionally involved in Cs<sup>+</sup> uptake (Qi et al., 2008). In the present study, we

76 investigated the role of the KUP9 transporter in Cs<sup>+</sup> accumulation in *A. thaliana*. Although this  
77 transporter has been demonstrated to be involved in Cs<sup>+</sup> influx when expressed in an *Escherichia coli*  
78 mutant defective in K<sup>+</sup> transport systems (Kobayashi et al., 2010), no role in plant Cs<sup>+</sup> accumulation has  
79 been reported for KUP9 up to now. Using *A. thaliana* mutants disrupted in *KUP9* gene, we provide *in*  
80 *planta* evidence that KUP9 play a significant role in Cs<sup>+</sup> accumulation whereas its disruption does not  
81 alter substantially K<sup>+</sup> homeostasis.

82

## 83 MATERIAL & METHODS

### 84 Plant material

85 *Arabidopsis thaliana* ecotype Columbia-0 (Col-0) was used as the wild-type. Consequences of a  
86 disruption of *KUP9* was studied using two independent *kup9* T-DNA insertion lines obtained from the  
87 SAIL (N862313) and the SALK (N670022) collections respectively. T-DNA insertion was checked and  
88 homozygous lines were identified using combination of T-DNA border primers and gene specific  
89 primers as outlined in the online protocol “Screening SALK T-DNA mutagenesis lines” (University of  
90 Wisconsin, Madison Knockout Facility and Ohio State University, Arabidopsis Biological Resource  
91 Center [https://www.mcdb.ucla.edu/Research/Goldberg/Hc70AL\\_S06/pdf/Expt6protocol.pdf](https://www.mcdb.ucla.edu/Research/Goldberg/Hc70AL_S06/pdf/Expt6protocol.pdf)). In the  
92 following, the SALK\_108080C mutant line with T-DNA insertion located in exon 9 and the SAIL\_211\_E04  
93 mutant line with T-DNA insertion located in intron 2 are named respectively *kup9-1* (Tenorio-Berrío et  
94 al., 2018) and *kup9-3* (Fig. 1).

95

### 96 Growth conditions

97 *Arabidopsis* seeds were surface-sterilized using a mix of 70% ethanol (v/v) / 0.05% SDS (v/v) and rinsed  
98 in ethanol 96% before sowing in Petri dishes (120 mm \* 120 mm) on a half-strength Murashige and

99 Skoog medium (MS½, Murashige & Skoog, 1962) containing 1% (w/v) agar and 1% (w/v) sucrose. The  
100 sowing boxes were placed at 4 °C during 48 h before transfer in a growth chamber set to 23 °C, 50%  
101 relative humidity with 8 h/16 h day/night cycle. Then, 7 days-old seedlings were transferred on sand  
102 (Zolux) watered with a solution (pH 5.8) containing 1.1 mM MgSO<sub>4</sub>, 805 µM Ca(NO<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub>, 2 mM KNO<sub>3</sub>, 60  
103 µM K<sub>2</sub>HPO<sub>4</sub>, 695 µM KH<sub>2</sub>PO<sub>4</sub> and micronutrients (3.6 µM MnSO<sub>4</sub>, 74 nM (NH<sub>4</sub>)<sub>6</sub>Mo<sub>7</sub>O<sub>24</sub>, 3 µM ZnSO<sub>4</sub>,  
104 9.25 µM H<sub>3</sub>BO<sub>3</sub>, 785 nM CuSO<sub>4</sub>, 20 µM Na<sub>2</sub>EDTA and 20 µM FeSO<sub>4</sub>). Finally, 21 days-old plants were  
105 transferred on 1 L of this solution during 3-5 days for acclimation to hydroponics growing.

106 In subsequent experiments, basic composition of the nutritive media with controlled K<sup>+</sup> and Cs<sup>+</sup>  
107 content is: 0,75 mM MgSO<sub>4</sub>, 2 mM Ca(NO<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub>, 0,5 mM H<sub>3</sub>PO<sub>4</sub>, 3,5 mM MES, 10 µM Fe-EDTA, 3,6 µM  
108 MnSO<sub>4</sub>, 74 nM (NH<sub>4</sub>)<sub>6</sub>Mo<sub>7</sub>O<sub>24</sub>, 3 µM ZnSO<sub>4</sub>, 9,25 µM H<sub>3</sub>BO<sub>3</sub>, 785 nM CuSO<sub>4</sub>, pH adjusted to 5.8 with  
109 NMDG (and 1% (w/v) agar for agar plates only). K<sup>+</sup> and Cs<sup>+</sup> concentrations on the different conditions  
110 were adjusted with KCl and CsCl.

111

#### 112 K<sup>+</sup>, Rb<sup>+</sup> and Cs<sup>+</sup> accumulation in seedlings

113 Accumulation experiments in plants were performed in hydroponics conditions with the nutritive  
114 solution described above. Protocol for long-term Cs<sup>+</sup> accumulation assays in hydroponics conditions is  
115 described elsewhere (Genies et al., 2017). Briefly, after acclimation to hydroponics, 25 days-old (± 1  
116 day) plants were grown in 10 or 3000 µM K<sup>+</sup>- solution during 5 days and then exposed for 7 days to 1  
117 µM Cs<sup>+</sup>. In order to alleviate detrimental effects of changing the solution composition, K<sup>+</sup> concentration  
118 remained the same before and during exposure to Cs<sup>+</sup>. Some plants remained in the Cs<sup>+</sup>-free solution  
119 to analyse K<sup>+</sup>-content after growing in 10, 100 or 3000 µM K<sup>+</sup>-solution. Renewing of the solutions was  
120 performed every 2-3 days to avoid significant depletion in the medium due to uptake by plants.

121 For Rb<sup>+</sup> uptake experiments, 30 days-old plants supplied with 10 μM K<sup>+</sup>-solution during 7 days were  
122 transferred in 20 mL of a K<sup>+</sup>-free solution containing 50 μM RbCl. After 7 h, roots were rinsed with Rb<sup>+</sup>-  
123 free solution to remove adsorbed Rb<sup>+</sup>.

124

#### 125 Cs<sup>+</sup> toxicity assay

126 For evaluation of Cs<sup>+</sup> effects on cotyledons development, surface-sterilized *Arabidopsis* seeds of Col-0,  
127 *hak5-3* (Qi et al., 2008), *kup9-1* and *kup9-3* were sown on 2 mL of nutritive solution containing 10 μM  
128 or 1000 μM K<sup>+</sup>. After 48h at 4 °C, 1 mL of nutritive solution contaminated with CsCl (final concentration  
129 ranging from 0 to 300 μM) was added and plants were allowed to grow during 7 days in growth  
130 chamber.

131 For evaluation of Cs<sup>+</sup> effects on roots elongation, surface-sterilized *Arabidopsis* seeds of Col-0, *hak5-3*  
132 (Qi et al., 2008), *kup9-1* and *kup9-3* were sown and allowed to grow in MS½ agar plates vertically  
133 oriented during 4 days. Seedlings were then transferred under sterile conditions on different agar  
134 media containing K<sup>+</sup> (10 or 1000 μM) and Cs<sup>+</sup> (0, 10, 100, 300 or 500 μM). Primary root elongation was  
135 measured after 7 days on these plates, oriented vertically.

136

#### 137 Cs<sup>+</sup> fluxes between seedlings and external solution

138 Protocol for Cs<sup>+</sup> depletion experiments was adapted from Rb<sup>+</sup> depletion experiments described in  
139 Rubio et al. (2008). Thirty days-old plants, supplied with 10 μM K<sup>+</sup>-solution during 7 days to stimulate  
140 Cs<sup>+</sup> uptake, were transferred in 20 mL of a K<sup>+</sup>-free solution containing 60 μM CsCl. Cs<sup>+</sup> depletion was  
141 followed taking up 100 μL of the solution at different time points during 24 h. Then, Cs<sup>+</sup> contaminated  
142 plants were transferred in 20 mL of a 10 μM K<sup>+</sup>- nutrient solution containing no Cs<sup>+</sup> after prior rinsing  
143 in this solution to remove adsorbed Cs<sup>+</sup> bound to the roots. At different time points, 100 μL of the  
144 solution were taken to follow Cs<sup>+</sup> released from plants to the external medium.

145

#### 146 Measure of Cs<sup>+</sup>, K<sup>+</sup> and Rb<sup>+</sup>

147 Plants and aliquots of exposure solutions and of agar media were analysed for measuring and verifying  
148 K<sup>+</sup>, Cs<sup>+</sup> and Rb<sup>+</sup> concentrations. For plant samples, roots and shoot were separated, blotted on  
149 Benchkote paper and then oven dried (3-5 days at 50-60 °C). Aliquots (5 mL) of agar media and plants  
150 dried matters were mineralized in HNO<sub>3</sub> 65% (5 or 10 mL for plants and agar media respectively) and  
151 H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> 30% (1.5 or 3 mL) at 100-150 °C on a sand bath. Mineralisates were evaporated to dryness and  
152 redissolved in HNO<sub>3</sub> 2% v/v prior to analysis.

153 In all substrates, Rb<sup>+</sup> and Cs<sup>+</sup> were quantified by ICP-MS (Inductively Coupled Plasma-Mass  
154 Spectrometry, PQ Excell Thermo Electron with S-Option, detection limit 5 ng.L<sup>-1</sup>) and K<sup>+</sup> content by ICP-  
155 AES (-Atomic Emission Spectrometry, OPTIMA 8300, Perkin Elmer, quantification limit 10 µg.L<sup>-1</sup>).

156

#### 157 Statistical analyses

158 ANOVA analyses were performed in the R environment (version 3.5.1) to evaluate effects of the  
159 different treatments on plant K<sup>+</sup>, Rb<sup>+</sup> and Cs<sup>+</sup> content and on root elongation separately (NS, Non-  
160 Significant and \*, \*\*, \*\*\* Significant at the  $\alpha = 0.05$ , 0.01 and 0.001 level respectively). In tables,  
161 different letters in bold indicate significant differences between means (Tuckey post-hoc test, p-value  
162 < 0.05).

163

#### 164 Spatial transcription profiling of *KUP9*

165 The fragment of 2745 bp upstream of the start-codon of *KUP9* gene was PCR amplified (forward  
166 primer: CCAATGTAACGAGGGAAGAGACT, reverse primer: CAGGGGAATTTTCGAGTTCTTTTGT) and then  
167 inserted into pCR-XL-TOPO<sup>®</sup> vector. This first step allowed us to enhance subsequent amplification



168 with *attB* primers (*attB1* forward primer:  
169 *GGGGACAAGTTTGTACAAAAAGCAGGCTATTGTAACGAGGGAAGAGACTTG*, *attB2* reverse primer  
170 *GGGGACCACTTTGTACAAGAAAGCTGGGTCTTTTGTACAAAAGAAGCTCGAAATTC*) for *KUP9* promoter  
171 cloning using Gateway® technology. Following the manufacturer's instructions, *KUP9* promoter was  
172 introduced into the entry vector pDONR221™ and then cloned in pBGWFS7 plasmid containing a *GFP*-  
173 *GUS* fusion. The construct was introduced into *Agrobacterium tumefaciens* (C58C1) and transformed  
174 into Col-0 plants using the floral dip method (Clough & Bent, 1998). Staining of GUS activity was  
175 performed on T3 homozygous transgenic plants incubating tissues on a fixation solution (50 mM NaPO<sub>4</sub>  
176 buffer-30 mM Na<sub>2</sub>HPO<sub>4</sub> + 20 mM NaH<sub>2</sub>PO<sub>4</sub><sup>-</sup>, 2 mM potassium ferricyanide, 2mM potassium  
177 ferrocyanide, 0,05% Triton X-100, 1 mg mL<sup>-1</sup> X-Gluc, pH 7).

178

#### 179 Protein localisation analysis

180 *KUP9* protein fusion with the GFP reporter was generated to localise the *KUP9* transporter. The coding  
181 sequence of *KUP9* was PCR amplified (forward primer: ATGGCGAAAGAGTCGAAGCATC, reverse  
182 primer: CTAAACATAAAAGACTTGTCCAACG) on Col-0 cDNA synthesized from 1 µg RNA with  
183 SuperScript™ III kit (Invitrogen). Sequencing of PCR products (GATC Biotech, Konstanz, Germany)  
184 reveals that the amplified fragments correspond to the splicing variant named At4g19960.2 in TAIR  
185 database. This coding sequence was inserted into PCR-XL-TOPO optimizing this way its further  
186 insertion into the entry vector pDONR P2r-P3 (*attB2r* forward primer:  
187 *GGGGACAGCTTTCTTGTACAAAGTGGTCATGGCGAAAGAGTCGAAG*, *attB3* reverse primer:  
188 *GGGGACAACCTTTGTATAATAAAGTTGCCTAAACATAAAAGACTTGTCCAACG*) for cloning using Gateway®  
189 technology. One LR recombination was performed following the manufacturer's instructions to  
190 combine simultaneously pDONR P2r-P3 containing the *KUP9* CDS, pDONR221 containing *GFP* CDS,  
191 pDONRP4-P1R containing either the *35S* promoter or the *KUP9* native promoter and the destination

192 vector pB7m34GW. Transgenic *Arabidopsis* plants carrying the resulting pro35S:*GFP-KUP9* and  
193 pro*KUP9*:*GFP-KUP9* constructs were obtained using the floral dip method (Clough & Bent, 1998).

194

## 195 **RESULTS**

### 196 *KUP9* is preferentially expressed in roots and pollen and is affected by K<sup>+</sup> supply

197 Reporter gene experiments were performed to determine spatial expression pattern of *KUP9* in plants.

198 Transgenic *Arabidopsis* lines expressing a GFP-GUS fusion protein under the control of the native *KUP9*

199 promoter (Pro*KUP9*:*GFP-GUS*) were generated. Following staining of different plant parts (**Fig. 2**), GUS

200 coloration was observed mainly in 7 days-old seedlings roots and mature plants flowers. In leaves, GUS

201 coloration was not detected in most cases or was restricted to small areas often close to the base of a

202 trichome.

203 In roots, GUS coloration was notably stronger in seedlings growing in nutritive solution containing low

204 level of K<sup>+</sup> (**Fig. 2.A and C**) suggesting that K<sup>+</sup> supply affects *KUP9* transcription in 7 days-old *Arabidopsis*

205 seedlings. This result was verified by quantitative PCR which indicated that *KUP9* expression is 1.4 fold

206 higher (p-value 0.005) in Col-0 grown in low K<sup>+</sup> supply compared to sufficient K<sup>+</sup> condition (**Fig. S1**).

207

### 208 *KUP9* transporter localises to the cell membrane

209 Cellular localisation of the *KUP9* transporter was achieved generating transgenic *A. thaliana* which

210 expressed N-terminal GFP fusions with *KUP9* transporter under the control of the 35S promoter.

211 Confocal microscopy analysis of the GFP signal in transgenics lines revealed that *KUP9* transporter is

212 likely addressed to the plasma membrane (**Fig. 3**).

213 As for Pro*KUP9*:*GFP-GUS*, GFP signal was not detected in Pro*KUP9*:*GFP-KUP9* transgenic lines

214 suggesting that the *KUP9* promoter activity was not sufficient.

215

216 *kup9* mutants do not display defective K<sup>+</sup> homeostasis

217 Different members of the *KUP/HAK/KT* family have been shown to be involved in K<sup>+</sup> transport in *A.*  
218 *thaliana*. In the case of *AtKUP9*, there is no evidence *in planta* but it likely mediates K<sup>+</sup> influx when  
219 expressed in an *Escherichia coli* mutant strain which lacks its three major K<sup>+</sup> uptake systems (Kobayashi  
220 et al., 2010). To further understand its role in plant K<sup>+</sup> transport, *kup9 Arabidopsis* mutant lines were  
221 compared to wild-type plants for their K<sup>+</sup> status under three different levels of K<sup>+</sup> supply (**Fig.4**).

222 Under low (10 μM) and sufficient (3000 μM) K<sup>+</sup> supply, shoot K<sup>+</sup> content tended to be higher in *kup9*  
223 mutant lines compared to Col-0 whereas K<sup>+</sup> content in roots were nearly the same for the three lines  
224 in all tested levels of K<sup>+</sup> supply. In addition, there were no significant differences for Rb<sup>+</sup> (used as a K<sup>+</sup>  
225 tracer) influx in plants lacking *KUP9* compared to wild-type (**Table 1**). Taking together these results  
226 suggest that, in our conditions (30 days-old plants grown in nutrient solution containing 10, 100 or  
227 3000 μM K<sup>+</sup> during 7 days), disruption of *KUP9* does not significantly impaired K<sup>+</sup> homeostasis (uptake  
228 and distribution).

229

230 *kup9* mutants are more sensitive to Cs<sup>+</sup>

231 Based on a previous work showing that a K<sup>+</sup> transport-deficient *E. coli* mutant expressing *AtKUP9* was  
232 able to take up Cs<sup>+</sup> (Kobayashi et al., 2010), we wondered whether *kup9 Arabidopsis* mutants differed  
233 from wild-type in their response to Cs<sup>+</sup>. Cotyledon development and primary root elongation of wild-  
234 type and of the two mutant lines disrupted in *AtKUP9* were compared on media containing low (10  
235 μM) or high (1000 μM) level of K<sup>+</sup> and a range of Cs<sup>+</sup> concentrations (**Fig.5**). A mutant lacking *AtHAK5*  
236 previously screened in similar experiments (Qi et al., 2008) was used to validate our results.

237 Cotyledons of seedlings grown in liquid media bleached in presence of toxic concentrations of Cs<sup>+</sup>  
238 **(Fig.5.A)**. Conversely to plants grown in media containing 1000 μM K<sup>+</sup>, the different lines displayed  
239 different sensitivities to Cs<sup>+</sup> when grown in 10 μM K<sup>+</sup>. For *kup9* mutant lines supplied with low amount  
240 of K<sup>+</sup>, bleaching occurs at 10 μM of Cs<sup>+</sup> whereas cotyledons of wild-type remain green. Increasing  
241 concentrations of Cs<sup>+</sup> (100 μM), cotyledons of wild-type turned completely bleached whereas those of  
242 *hak5-3* remain partly green.

243 In vertical plates containing low amount of K<sup>+</sup> (10 μM), primary root elongation of both *kup9* mutant  
244 lines was significantly lower than those of wild-type plants when Cs<sup>+</sup> concentration reached 100 μM  
245 **(Fig.5.B)**. Thus, plants lacking *KUP9* appeared more sensitive to Cs<sup>+</sup> when grown under low K-supply.  
246 Conversely, *HAK5* disruption enhanced Cs<sup>+</sup> tolerance under this same condition which is consistent  
247 with its role in Cs<sup>+</sup> uptake. Discrepancies in Cs<sup>+</sup> toxicity between the different lines were not visible in  
248 plants grown in higher amount of K<sup>+</sup> (1000 μM).

249

#### 250 *kup9* mutants accumulate more Cs<sup>+</sup>

251 Toxicity of Cs<sup>+</sup> in plants may originate from K<sup>+</sup> starvation caused by the presence of Cs<sup>+</sup> in the  
252 rhizosphere (Maathuis & Sanders, 1996) and is related to the Cs<sup>+</sup>:K<sup>+</sup> concentration ratio at tissue level  
253 (Hampton et al., 2004). Since *KUP9* disruption does not alter negatively K<sup>+</sup> status but does increase  
254 sensitivity to Cs<sup>+</sup>, we wondered whether it affects Cs<sup>+</sup> accumulation *in planta*. Cs<sup>+</sup> accumulation was  
255 compared in Col-0 wild-type and *kup9* mutant lines exposed to 1 μM CsCl during 7 days in hydroponics  
256 conditions **(Fig.6.A)**. A *hak5* mutant line was also used to validate our experiments. In plants grown  
257 with sufficient K<sup>+</sup> supply (3000 μM), disruption of *KUP9* and *HAK5* had no significant effect in Cs<sup>+</sup>  
258 accumulation. When K<sup>+</sup> supply was low (10 μM), Cs<sup>+</sup> accumulation increased with different extent  
259 depending on the plant line. As expected under low K<sup>+</sup> supply, plants lacking *HAK5* accumulated 50%  
260 less of Cs<sup>+</sup> than the wild-type. In the same condition, disruption of *KUP9* had the opposite effect  
261 resulting in a higher accumulation of Cs<sup>+</sup> than the wild-type (around 30% more). This is consistent with

262 a recently published experiment performed in liquid media containing 500  $\mu\text{M}$   $\text{K}^+$  and 300  $\mu\text{M}$   $\text{Cs}^+$   
263 showing that *kup9-1* seedlings accumulate more  $\text{Cs}^+$  than the wild-type Col-0 (Adams, Miyazaki & Shin,  
264 2019).

265 Examining separately shoot and roots  $\text{Cs}^+$  contents (**Table 2**), it appeared that  $\text{Cs}^+$  distribution remained  
266 globally unchanged in *kup9* mutant lines compared to wild-type. Interestingly, when  $\text{K}^+$ -supply was low  
267 (10  $\mu\text{M}$ ), *hak5-3* mutants displayed a divergent pattern of  $\text{Cs}^+$  distribution with a greater part of  $\text{Cs}^+$   
268 allocated to shoot. An impairment of the systems involved in  $\text{Cs}^+$  translocation or redistribution in  
269 plants lacking *HAK5* seems unlikely since *HAK5* transporter has been demonstrated to be involved in  
270 roots  $\text{Cs}^+$  influx (Qi et al., 2008). Therefore, this result could be due to the overall decrease of  $\text{Cs}^+$   
271 accumulation described above in *hak5-3* mutants.

272 To further investigate mechanisms leading to an increase of  $\text{Cs}^+$  accumulation in plants lacking *KUP9*,  
273 fluxes of  $\text{Cs}^+$  between roots and the external medium were measured in wild-type and in *kup9* mutant  
274 lines (**Fig.6**). First,  $\text{K}^+$ -starved plants were exposed to a  $\text{K}^+$ -free solution containing  $\text{Cs}^+$ . In 24 h, amount  
275 of  $\text{Cs}^+$  in this solution decreased by 74 to 85% in *kup9* mutant lines whereas only 30% was taken up by  
276 wild-type plants. Divergences between lines appeared within the first three hours but are not clear  
277 during the first hour suggesting that effects of *KUP9* disruption on  $\text{Cs}^+$  transport is not immediate.  
278 Contaminated plants were then transferred in a  $\text{Cs}^+$ -free solution in which  $\text{Cs}^+$  release was followed.  
279 Significant amount of  $\text{Cs}^+$  was detected in the external medium from the first hour suggesting that  $\text{Cs}^+$   
280 is quickly released by plants. After 24 h, the initially  $\text{Cs}^+$ -free solution contained 2.71  $\mu\text{M}$  ( $\pm 0.57$ ), 4.07  
281  $\mu\text{M}$  ( $\pm 0.39$ ) and 3.47  $\mu\text{M}$  ( $\pm 1.15$ ) of  $\text{Cs}^+$  for Col-0, *kup9-3* and *kup9-1* respectively. Interestingly, it was  
282 noticed that *kup9* lines released less  $\text{Cs}^+$  than wild-type in proportion when amount of  $\text{Cs}^+$  released in  
283 the solution was normalized by amount of  $\text{Cs}^+$  accumulated in plants at the beginning of experiment.

284

285 **DISCUSSION**

286 KUP9 prevents Cs<sup>+</sup> accumulation in plants

287 Cs<sup>+</sup> accumulation in plants depends on the level of K<sup>+</sup>-supply and several K<sup>+</sup> transporters have been  
288 shown to mediate opportunistic Cs<sup>+</sup> fluxes (**Fig. 7**). Role of HAK5 (Qi et al., 2008) and NSCC (Hampton  
289 et al., 2005; White & Broadley, 2000) in root Cs<sup>+</sup> uptake and regulation of Cs<sup>+</sup> content in xylem by ZIFL2  
290 (Remy et al., 2015) have partly deciphered the molecular entities involved in Cs<sup>+</sup> transport. In contrast,  
291 identities of carriers involved in Cs<sup>+</sup> transport from cytosol to intracellular compartments as well as  
292 mechanisms underlying Cs<sup>+</sup> release from root cells to the external medium remain unknown. In the  
293 present study, analysis of *kup9* mutant lines provide several points of evidence involving KUP9  
294 transporter in the limitation of Cs<sup>+</sup> accumulation under low K<sup>+</sup>-supply condition in *A.thaliana*.

295 First, *kup9* mutant lines display higher sensitivity to Cs<sup>+</sup> which is reflected by cotyledons bleaching and  
296 reduced root elongation for lower Cs<sup>+</sup> concentrations compared to wild-type. When used in the  
297 millimolar range, Cs<sup>+</sup> induces K<sup>+</sup> decrease in shoots of intoxicated plants (Hampton et al., 2004). In our  
298 test, micromolar Cs<sup>+</sup> concentrations were sufficient to point out the higher sensitivity to Cs<sup>+</sup> in *kup9*  
299 mutant lines and we did not measure significant decrease of K<sup>+</sup> status in shoot of Cs<sup>+</sup>-intoxicated plants  
300 in these conditions (**Fig.S2**). Higher toxicity of Cs<sup>+</sup> in *kup9* mutant lines is therefore likely linked to the  
301 toxicity of Cs<sup>+</sup> itself rather than to a concomitant alteration of K<sup>+</sup> status in shoot. This is supported by  
302 the second point showing the role of KUP9 in Cs<sup>+</sup> transport, which is the higher accumulation of Cs<sup>+</sup> in  
303 *kup9* mutant lines. Conversely to results showing that *AtKUP9* mediates Cs<sup>+</sup> uptake when expressed in  
304 *E. coli* mutants (Kobayashi et al., 2010), our results demonstrate therefore that *KUP9* is not directly  
305 involved in Cs<sup>+</sup> influx in roots of *A. thaliana* but participate to the limitation of Cs<sup>+</sup> accumulation in  
306 plants. Such discrepancies between heterologous and *in planta* analyses have been discussed  
307 elsewhere and imputed for instance to artificial interactions with heterologous structures or to the  
308 lack of regulatory proteins from the native organism (Dreyer et al., 1999).

309 Level of K<sup>+</sup>-supply has a major effect on Cs<sup>+</sup> accumulation in plants. This is linked to several factors such  
310 as the competition between the two cations for the same transport systems and the control of

311 transporter expression by K<sup>+</sup>-supply. In our study, *kup9* mutants displayed enhanced Cs<sup>+</sup> accumulation  
312 only when supplied with low level of K<sup>+</sup>. We suggest that, at sufficient K<sup>+</sup>-supply (mM range), relative  
313 lower transcription of *KUP9* in wild-type plants and higher external Cs<sup>+</sup> dilution may blur discrepancies  
314 between *kup9* and wild-type Cs<sup>+</sup> accumulation.

315 In the present study, we have shown that Cs<sup>+</sup> release from roots to external solution is proportionally  
316 two times lower in plants lacking *KUP9* compared to wild-type. Taking this result together with the  
317 localisation of *KUP9* transporter in root cells of *pro35S:GFP-KUP9* transgenic lines, we propose that  
318 *KUP9* participate to the efflux of cations from roots (**Fig. 7**). This is supported by similar results  
319 suggesting that the *KUP6* sub-family, i.e. *KUP6*, *KUP8* and *KUP2* (**Fig. 8**), may participate with the Shaker  
320 channel *GORK* in the efflux of K<sup>+</sup> from roots during K<sup>+</sup> starvation (Osakabe et al., 2013).

321

#### 322 Primary plant role of *KUP9*

323 Cs<sup>+</sup> has no relevant functions in plants suggesting that transport of Cs<sup>+</sup> through *KUP9* transporter is  
324 more probably a non-specific process. In *A. thaliana*, *KUP9* belongs to the *KUP/HAK/KT* family  
325 organized in 4 clades (**Fig. 8**) and the others *KUP* transporters have been related to various biological  
326 processes such as roots K<sup>+</sup> acquisition (*HAK5*, Gierth et al., 2005; Rubio et al., 2000) and translocation  
327 (*KUP7*, Han, Wu, Wu & Wang, 2016) or growth and development (*KUP4*, Rigas et al., 2001 and *KUP2*,  
328 Elumalai, Nagpal & Reed, 2002, *KUP6* and *KUP8*, Osakabe et al., 2013). In *E. coli* mutants defective for  
329 constitutive K<sup>+</sup> transport systems, heterologous expression of *AtKUP9* is able to mediate K<sup>+</sup> uptake  
330 (Kobayashi et al., 2010) but there is no published *in planta* evidence involving *KUP9* in *A. thaliana* K<sup>+</sup>  
331 homeostasis to our knowledge. In others plant species, such as the extremophytes *Schrenkiella*  
332 *parvula*, *A. lyrata* and *A. arenosa*, it is thought that higher expression strength and single-nucleotide  
333 polymorphism affecting *KUP9* homologs might be related to an adjustment in K<sup>+</sup> transport supporting  
334 plants adaptation to soils containing challenging ions concentrations (Arnold et al., 2016; Oh et al.,  
335 2014; Turner, Bourne, Von Wettberg, Hu & Nuzhdin, 2010). For *A. thaliana* tested under experimental

336 conditions described here, however, there were no significant effects of *KUP9* disruption in  $K^+$   
337 homeostasis. At the contrary of  $Cs^+$ ,  $K^+$  is involved in many biological processes and  $K^+$  homeostasis is  
338 tightly regulated. Therefore, compensatory mechanisms through redundant functions of  $K^+$  carriers  
339 could be induced in the tested *kup9* mutant lines blurring potential discrepancies with wild-type plants.  
340 Based on the phylogenetic relationship between KUP9, KUP10 and KUP11 (**Fig. 8**) it could be interesting  
341 to investigate the triple mutant as it has been done for KUP2, KUP6 and KUP8 pointing out their role  
342 in  $K^+$  efflux (Osakabe et al., 2013).

343 Primary plant role of KUP9 could also be significant in other plant stages not tested in this study.  
344 Activity of GUS reporter in transgenic plants carrying the *ProKUP9:GFP-GUS* construct reveals  
345 expression of *KUP9* in certain pollen grains (**Fig. 2D**). This is consistent with previous transcriptome  
346 analyses showing the late pollen-expression pattern of *KUP9* which differs from the other *KUP* on this  
347 point (Bock et al., 2006). Functions of potassium transporters are crucial for pollen tube growth  
348 (Mouline et al., 2002) and it could be interesting to further investigate the role of *KUP9* in pollen  
349 development.

350

## 351 **CONCLUSION**

352 The use of plants for remediation of radiocesium-contaminated soils as well as development of “safe  
353 crops” receive considerable interest since few decades (White et al., 2003; Zhu & Shaw, 2000).  
354 However, the fact that  $Cs^+$  enters plants through  $K^+$  transport system is a major constraint for  
355 phytoremediation strategies. Controlling expression of major potassium transporters, such as HAK5,  
356 to increase/decrease plant  $Cs^+$  acquisition without disturbing  $K^+$  nutrition may imply to modulate their  
357 specificity (Alemán et al., 2014). By contrast, the two *kup9* mutant lines tested in the present study  
358 display higher  $Cs^+$  accumulation without significant alteration of  $K^+$  status when supplied with low level  
359 of  $K^+$ . We proposed that KUP9 may prevent  $Cs^+$  accumulation releasing it from root cells and that the  
360 potential role of KUP9 in  $K^+$  homeostasis appears to be minor in experimental conditions used here.



361 Manipulating expression of such minor K<sup>+</sup> transporters, whose disruption does not alter plant K<sup>+</sup>  
362 acquisition but does enhance substantially Cs<sup>+</sup> accumulation, may offer a valuable alternative for  
363 phytoremediation strategies.

364

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369

#### 370 **CONFLICT OF INTEREST**

371 We have no conflicts of interest to disclose.

372

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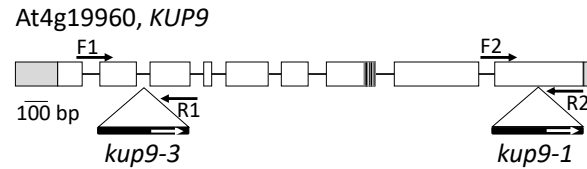
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504

505 **Figure 1:** T-DNA insertion sites in *kup9-1* (SALK\_108080C) and *kup9-3* (SAIL\_211\_E04) mutant

506 lines. White boxes represent exons whereas dark lines between boxes denote introns of

507 *AtKUP9* gene. Splicing variant is depicted by a grey box in exon 7. T-DNA insertions are outlined

508 by large triangle and black arrows represent gene specific primers used for mutant lines

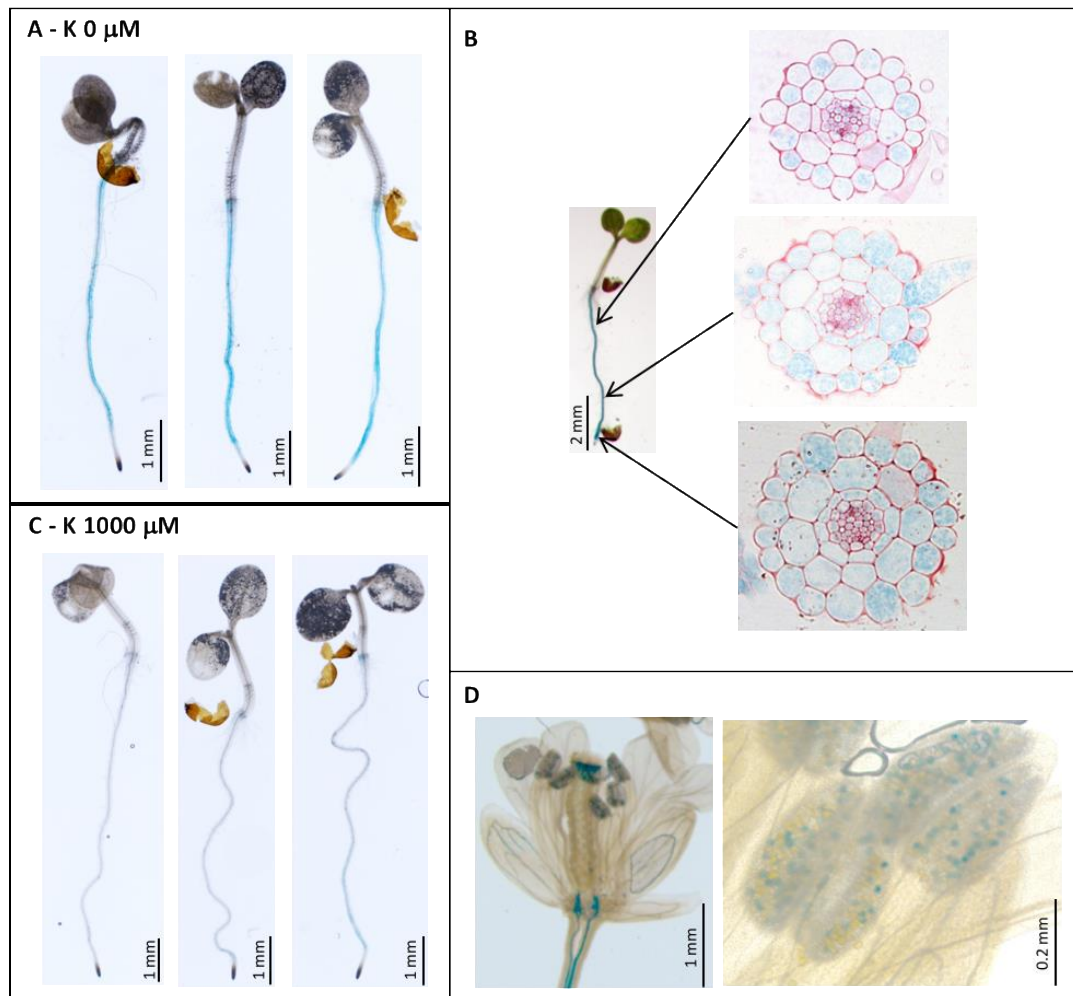
509 checking (F1: GGAGATTTAGGGACGTCTCCATTGTATGTG, R1: TCCTCATCACTACGGTGCTGATTCG; F2:

510 CCTACAGCAGCACGTATTCCGTCAAC, R2: CGGTGTTCCCCATTATATGAACAACACCTG).

511



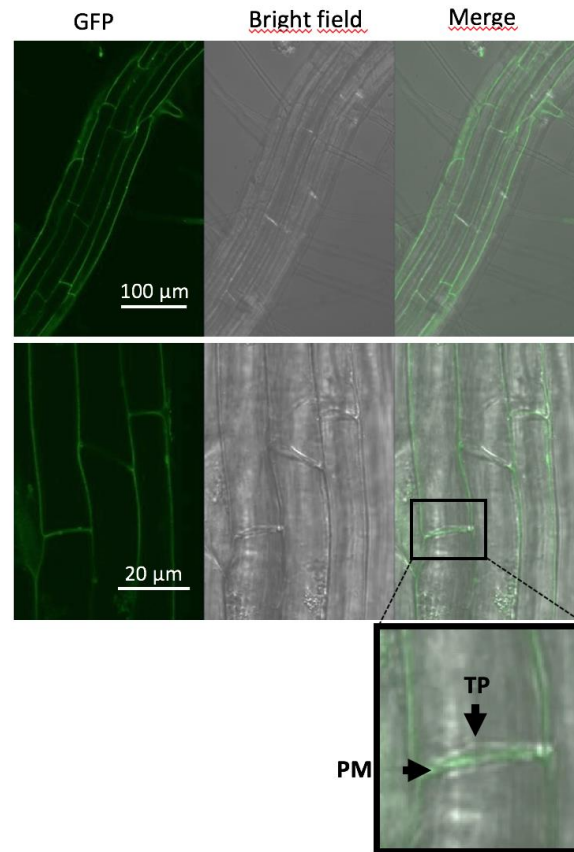
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513

514 **Figure 2:** Spatial transcription pattern of *KUP9* determined in *ProKUP9:GFP-GUS* transgenic *A. thaliana*  
515 plants. GUS staining of (A) Roots of 7 days-old seedlings grown in nutritive solution containing no  $\text{K}^+$ ,  
516 (B) and cross section of a stained root, (C) Roots of 7 days-old seedlings grown in nutritive solution  
517 containing 1000  $\mu\text{M}$   $\text{K}^+$ , (D) Flower and anthers of mature plants grown in sufficient  $\text{K}^+$ -conditions.

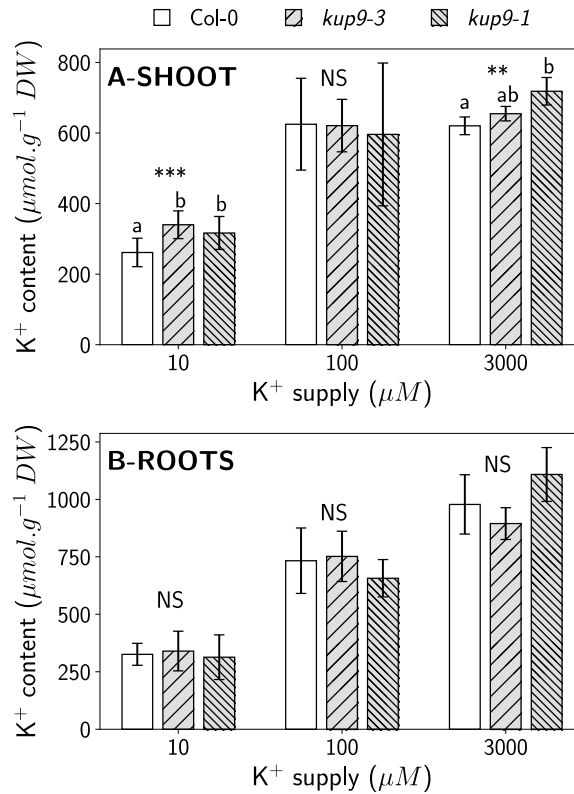
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519

520 **Figure 3:** Localisation of KUP9 transporter observed in transgenic *A. thaliana* plants expressing the  
521 fusion *GFP-KUP9* under the control of the *35S* promoter. KUP9 transporter localises to the roots and is  
522 likely addressed to the plasma membrane. Arrows indicate the plasma membrane (PM) and tonoplast  
523 (TP).

524



525

526 **Figure 4:** K<sup>+</sup> content in 30 days-old plants supplied during 12 days with a nutrient solution containing  
527 10, 100 or 3000 μM K<sup>+</sup>. Data for (A) Shoot and (B) Roots are means ± SD (n=11-12). ANOVA analyses  
528 were performed to compare K<sup>+</sup> content between lines for each level of K<sup>+</sup> supply (NS, Non-Significant;  
529 \*\* and \*\*\* Significant at the α = 0.01 and 0.001 level respectively). Different letters indicate significant  
530 differences between means (Tuckey post-hoc test, p-value < 0.05).

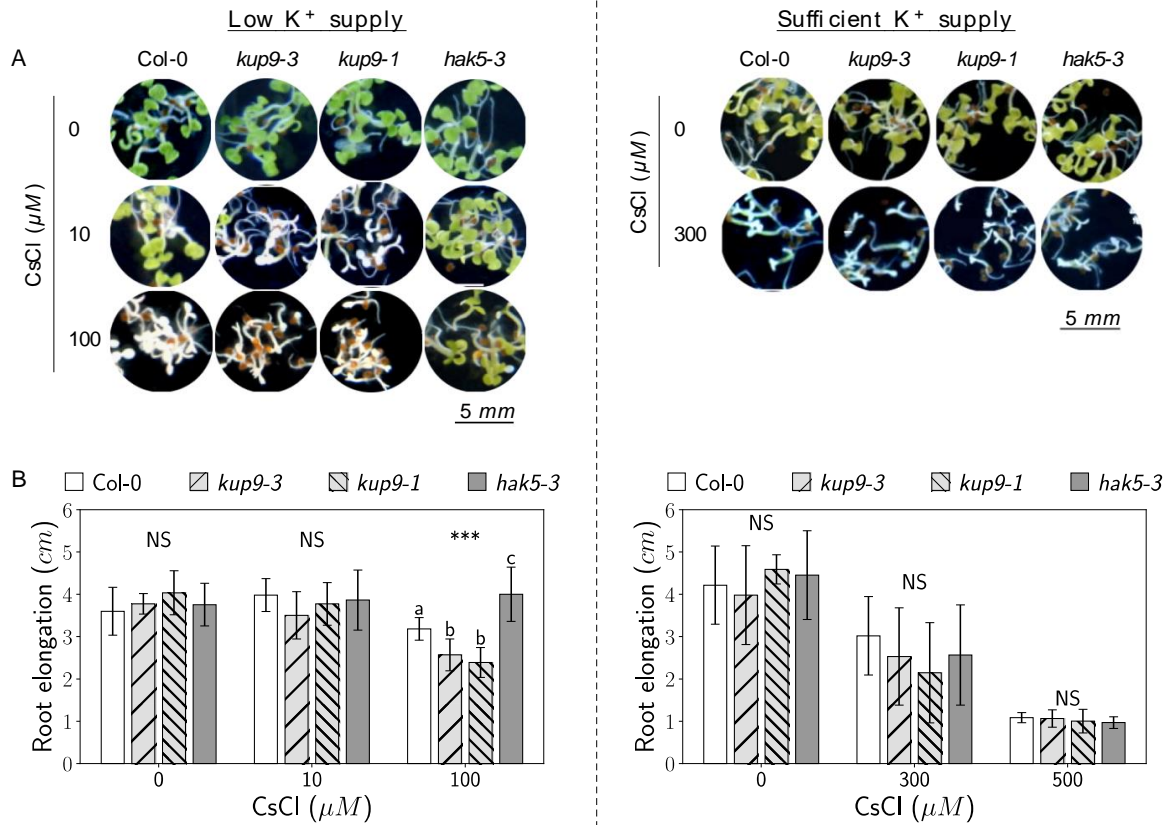
531

532 **Table 1:** Rb<sup>+</sup> accumulation in 30 days-old *A. thaliana* plants exposed during 7 h to 20 mL of a K<sup>+</sup>-free  
533 nutrient solution containing 50 μM RbCl. Before experiment, plants were supplied with a 10 μM K<sup>+</sup>  
534 nutrient solution during 5 days to enhance subsequent Rb<sup>+</sup> uptake. Data are means ± SD (n=5).  
535 Different letters indicate significant differences between means.

Lines	Shoot Rb <sup>+</sup> content (μmol g <sup>-1</sup> DW)	Roots Rb <sup>+</sup> content (μmol g <sup>-1</sup> DW)
Col-0	0.55 ± 0.20 (a)	5.13 ± 0.95 (b)
<i>kup9-1</i>	0.75 ± 0.30 (a)	5.37 ± 1.37 (b)
<i>kup9-3</i>	0.73 ± 0.30 (a)	6.63 ± 0.95 (b)

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539 **Figure 5:** Sensitivity to Cs<sup>+</sup> in *kup9* mutant lines. **(A)** 10 days-old seedlings grown in 8 mL of low K<sup>+</sup> (10

540  $\mu M$ ) or sufficient K<sup>+</sup> (1000  $\mu M$ ) nutritive solution and containing Cs<sup>+</sup>. **(B)** Primary root elongation of 11

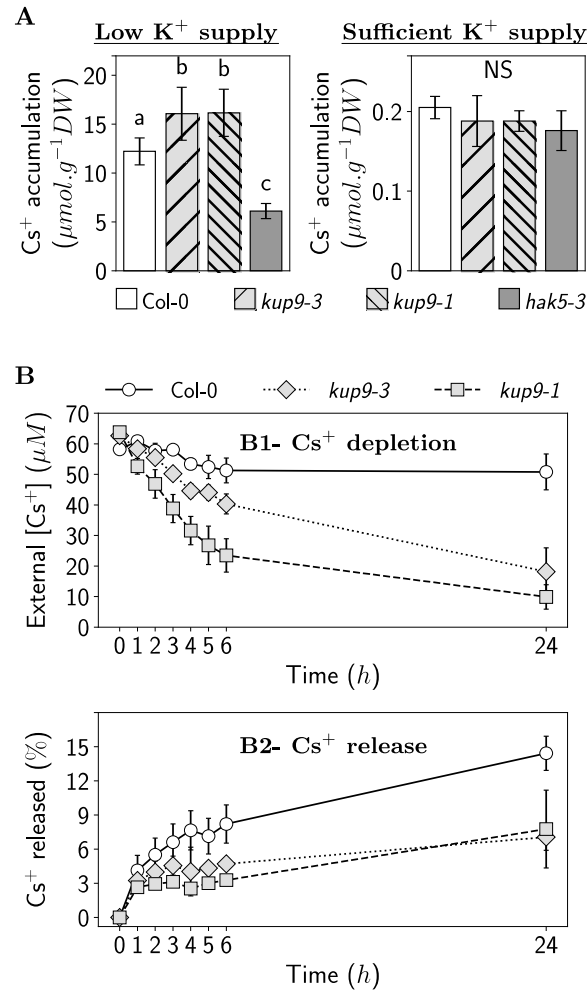
541 days-old seedlings grown in agar plates in the presence of Cs<sup>+</sup> and 10  $\mu M$  K<sup>+</sup> or 1000  $\mu M$  K<sup>+</sup>. Plants were

542 allowed to grow on MS $\frac{1}{2}$  agar plates during 4 days before transfer on Cs<sup>+</sup>. Data are means  $\pm$  SD (n=10-

543 16).

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547 **Figure 6:** Accumulation of Cs<sup>+</sup> in *kup9* mutant lines. **(A)** Cs<sup>+</sup> accumulation in 30 days-old plants exposed  
548 during 7 days to a nutrient solution containing 1  $\mu\text{M}$  Cs<sup>+</sup> and 10  $\mu\text{M}$  K<sup>+</sup> or 3000  $\mu\text{M}$  K<sup>+</sup>. Data are means  
549  $\pm$  SD (n=6-8). **(B)** Cs<sup>+</sup> exchanges between 30 days-old plants and the external solution. External Cs<sup>+</sup>  
550 concentrations were followed by taking up small samples of the solution. Data are means  $\pm$  SD (n=5).  
551 (B1) Cs<sup>+</sup> depletion due to uptake by plants in a K<sup>+</sup>-free solution. Before the experiment, plants were  
552 grown with low K<sup>+</sup>-supply (10  $\mu\text{M}$ ) during 7 days to improve Cs<sup>+</sup> influx. (B2) Cs<sup>+</sup> released from  
553 contaminated plants to a Cs<sup>+</sup>-free solution.

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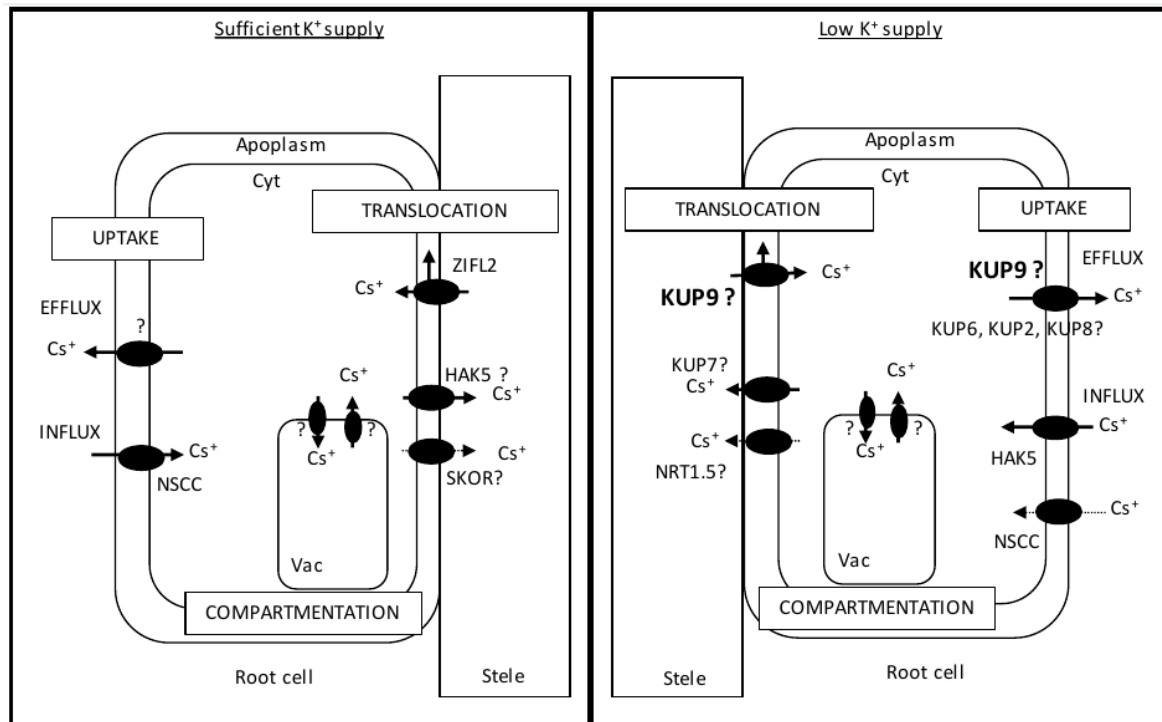
555 **Table 2** : Cs<sup>+</sup> roots:shoot concentration ratio in plants exposed during 7 days to a nutrient solution  
556 containing 1 μM CsCl and 10 μM K<sup>+</sup> or 3000 μM K<sup>+</sup>. Data are means ± SD (n=6-8).

Lines	Cs <sup>+</sup> Root:Shoot concentration ratio	
	Low K <sup>+</sup> supply (10 μM)	Sufficient K <sup>+</sup> supply (3000 μM)
Col-0	16.7 ± 4.9	1.4 ± 0.1
<i>kup9-3</i>	19.9 ± 3.0	1.5 ± 0.4
<i>kup9-1</i>	15.9 ± 2.6	1.2 ± 0.2
<i>hak5-3</i>	3.8 ± 0.8	1.2 ± 0.2

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561 **Figure 7:** Model for Cs<sup>+</sup> transport in roots of *A. thaliana* depending on the level of K<sup>+</sup> supply. INFLUX.

562 As for other cations, Cs<sup>+</sup> taken up by plants from the soil solution is transported across the root mainly

563 through the symplastic pathway. Non-selective Cation Channels (NSCC, Hampton et al., 2005; White &

564 Broadley, 2000) and the high-affinity K<sup>+</sup> transporter HAK5 (Qi et al, 2008) are thought to mediate the

565 major part of Cs<sup>+</sup> influx in sufficient (mM range) and low (μM range) K<sup>+</sup> conditions respectively.

566 TRANSLOCATION. Cs<sup>+</sup> is highly mobile within plants. From the roots, Cs<sup>+</sup> is loaded into the xylem and

567 distributed towards the aerial parts through yet unidentified transport systems. In this way, further

568 investigations are needed to determine roles of transport systems involved in K<sup>+</sup> translocation such as

569 the stellar K<sup>+</sup> outward-rectifying channel SKOR (Drechsler et al., 2015; Gaymard et al., 1998), the nitrate

570 transporter1/peptide transporter NRT1.5 (Drechsler et al., 2015; Li et al., 2017), the K<sup>+</sup> transporters

571 KUP7 (Han et al., 2016) and HAK5 (Nieves-Cordones et al., 2019). The Major Facilitator Superfamily

572 transporter ZIFL2 has been proposed to prevent Cs<sup>+</sup> xylem loading mediating Cs<sup>+</sup> release into the

573 apoplasm of endodermis and pericycle, under Cs<sup>+</sup> and K<sup>+</sup> excess (Remy et al., 2015).

574 COMPARTMENTATION. Regarding its intracellular distribution, analyses of contaminated plant cells

575 revealed that Cs<sup>+</sup> is not limited to the cytosol but is also found in vacuole and probably chloroplasts



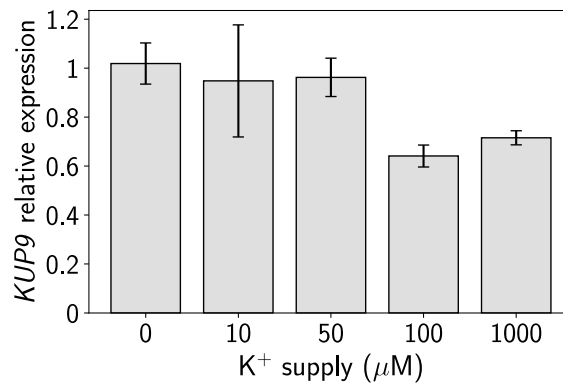
576 (Akamatsu et al., 2014; Le Lay et al., 2006). Identities of transport systems involved in these  
577 mechanisms are unknown. EFFLUX. Our results suggest that KUP9 prevents plant Cs<sup>+</sup> accumulation  
578 promoting its release from root cells. This is supported by a previous analysis of the triple mutant  
579 *kup268* which suggests that these KUP might be involved in root K<sup>+</sup> efflux. Similarly to the ZIFL2  
580 transporter in sufficient K<sup>+</sup> condition, KUP9 could also participate to Cs<sup>+</sup> release into the apoplasm  
581 before release into the external medium in low K<sup>+</sup> condition.

582 Cyt: cytosol, Vac: Vacuole.

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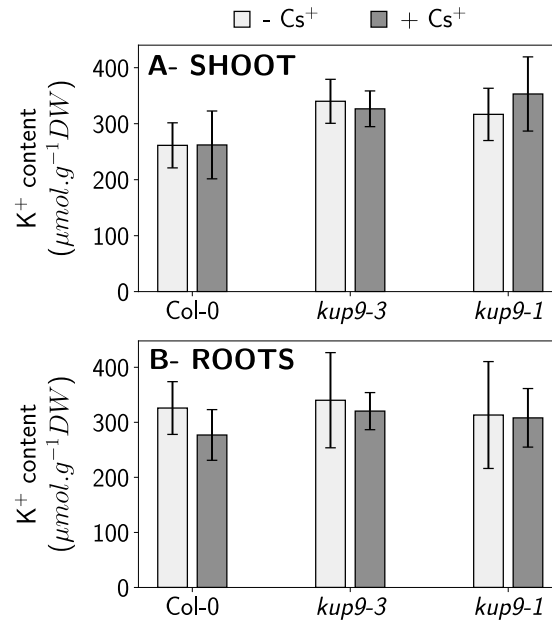
597 **SUPPLEMENTAL FIGURES**



598

599 **Figure S1:** *KUP9* relative expression measured in RT-qPCR. Total RNA of roots from Col-0 supplied with  
600 different amount of K<sup>+</sup> (0, 10, 50, 100 or 1000 μM) was extracted using the RNeasy™ kit (QIAGEN)  
601 according to the manufacturer's instructions. Reverse transcription of mRNA was performed over 1 μg  
602 of total RNA using SuperScript™ Vilo™ kit (Invitrogen) with oligo(dT)<sub>20</sub> primers. The synthesized cDNAs  
603 were analysed by quantitative real-time PCR using SYBR® Green I Master mix on a LightCycler® 480  
604 (Roche). PCR amplifications of a *KUP9* fragment (forward primer: AGAGGAGGAGGAGACGGATGAG,  
605 reverse primer: GCCCTACAAATCTTAGCAAG) were performed at 95°C for 10 sec (45 cycles) and 60°C  
606 for 10 sec. Relative quantitative results were calculated after normalization to ROC3. Data are mean  
607 +/- SD of a pool of three plants analysed three times.

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610 **Figure S2:** K<sup>+</sup> content in Cs<sup>+</sup>-exposed plants. K<sup>+</sup> content was measured in 30 days-old plants supplied  
611 during 12 days with a nutrient solution containing 10 μM K<sup>+</sup> and exposed during 7 days to 1 μM Cs<sup>+</sup> (+  
612 Cs<sup>+</sup>) or not exposed (- Cs<sup>+</sup>). Data for (A) Shoot and (B) Roots are means ± SD (n=11-12). ANOVA analyses  
613 performed to compare K<sup>+</sup> content between lines for each level of K<sup>+</sup> supply revealed no significant  
614 differences.

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