1	Title
2	Constitutively enhanced genome integrity maintenance and direct stress
3	mitigation characterize transcriptome of extreme stress-adapted Arabidopsis
4	halleri
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27	Running title
28	Intra-species comparative transcriptomics

# 30 Abstract

Heavy metal-rich toxic soils and ordinary soils are both natural habitats of Arabidopsis halleri. The 31 molecular divergence underlying survival in sharply contrasting environments is unknown. Here we 32 comparatively address metal physiology and transcriptomes of A. halleri originating from the most 33 highly heavy metal-contaminated soil in Europe, Ponte Nossa (Noss/IT), and from non-metalliferous 34 (NM) soil. Noss exhibits enhanced hypertolerance and attenuated accumulation of cadmium (Cd), 35 36 and transcriptomic Cd responsiveness is decreased, compared to plants of NM soil origin. Among 37 the condition-independent transcriptome characteristics of Noss, the most highly overrepresented functional class of "meiotic cell cycle" comprises 21 transcripts with elevated abundance in 38 39 vegetative tissues, in particular Argonaute 9 (AGO9) and the synaptonemal complex transverse 40 filament protein-encoding ZYP1a/b. Increased AGO9 transcript levels in Noss are accompanied by decreased long terminal repeat retrotransposon expression, and are shared by plants from milder 41 metalliferous sites in Poland and Germany. Expression of Iron-regulated Transporter (IRT1) is very 42 low and of Heavy Metal ATPase 2 (HMA2) strongly elevated in Noss, which can account for its 43 specific Cd handling. In plants adapted to the most extreme abiotic stress, broadly enhanced functions 44 45 comprise genes with likely roles in somatic genome integrity maintenance, accompanied by few alterations in stress-specific functional networks. 46 47

48 Keywords: heavy metal, metal hyperaccumulation, edaphic adaptation, extremophile,

49 Brassicaceae, meiosis, transposable element, LTR-TE

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# 52 Introduction

Heavy metals, such as zinc (Zn), cadmium (Cd) and lead (Pb), are naturally omnipresent in the 53 biosphere at very low levels. Their concentrations can be regionally elevated and are extremely high 54 locally at rare sites as a result of geological anomalies. Human activities, for example ore mining, 55 metallurgical processing and sewage sludge deposition, contribute to anthropogenic contamination 56 of the biosphere with heavy metals, threatening environmental and human health (Nriagu and Pacyna, 57 1988, Lamas et al., 2016). Heavy metal-enriched habitats often host characteristic ecological 58 59 communities, especially where human activities have introduced extremely high, toxic levels of 60 heavy metals only recently after the beginning of the industrial revolution (Ernst, 1974). Here we use 61 comparative transcriptomics to uncover the molecular basis of local adaptation to an extremely highly 62 heavy metal-contaminated soil in a land plant as a complex multi-cellular eukaryotic organism.

The Brassicaceae species Arabidopsis halleri, in the sister clade of the genetic model plant 63 Arabidopsis thaliana, is an emerging perennial model plant (Krämer, 2015, Honjo and Kudoh, 2019, 64 Nagano et al., 2019). A. halleri, a perennial stoloniferous obligate outcrosser, has repeatedly 65 colonized highly heavy metal-contaminated, so-called metalliferous (M) soils (Ernst, 1974, Bert et 66 67 al., 2000, Stein et al., 2017). Natural populations of A. halleri are also found on non-contaminated (non-metalliferous, NM) soils. Irrespective of its habitat soil type, A. halleri is a Zn and Cd 68 69 hyperaccumulator (Ernst, 1974, Bert et al., 2000, Stein et al., 2017). The about 750 known hyperaccumulator plant species are land plants of which at least one individual was identified to 70 accumulate a metal or metalloid in its above-ground tissues to concentrations more than one order of 71 72 magnitude above critical toxicity thresholds of ordinary plants, at its natural site of growth in the field 73 (Reeves et al., 2018). Hyperaccumulation in plants can act as an elemental defense against biotic 74 stress (Kazemi-Dinan et al., 2014), and the associated species-wide heavy metal tolerance can 75 apparently facilitate the colonization of M soils by A. halleri (Pauwels et al., 2005, Meyer et al., 76 2010).

Cross-species comparative transcriptomics studies of A. halleri and A. thaliana established tens of 77 78 candidate metal homeostasis genes for roles in metal hyperaccumulation or metal hypertolerance, 79 which encode various transmembrane transporters of metal cations and isoforms of a metal chelator biosynthetic enzyme (Becher et al., 2004, Weber et al., 2004, Talke et al., 2006). Although the 80 generation of transgenic plants remains technically demanding and time-consuming in A. halleri, 81 subsequent work demonstrated functions in metal hyperaccumulation or hypertolerance for some of 82 these genes. The key locus making the largest known contribution to both metal hyperaccumulation 83 and hypertolerance in A. halleri is Heavy Metal ATPase 4 (HMA4), which encodes a plasma 84 85 membrane P<sub>1B</sub>-type metal ATPase mediating cellular export for xylem loading of Zn and Cd in the root (Talke et al., 2006, Hanikenne et al., 2008). Transcript levels of HMA4 are substantially higher 86

in A. halleri than in A. thaliana independently of cultivation conditions, as was also observed for tens 87 of other candidate genes. A combination of modified *cis*-regulation and gene copy number expansion 88 89 accounts for high expression of HMA4 (Hanikenne et al., 2008). Examples of other candidate genes with experimentally demonstrated functions in A. halleri include Nicotianamine Synthase 2 (NAS2) 90 (Deinlein et al., 2012) contributing to Zn hyperaccumulation, Metal Transport Protein 1 (MTP1) 91 acting in Zn tolerance (Dräger *et al.*, 2004) and  $Ca^{2+}/H^+$  exchanger 1 (CAX1) functioning to enhance 92 93 Cd tolerance (Baliardini *et al.*, 2015). While metal hyperaccumulation and hypertolerance are 94 species-wide traits in A. halleri, there is additionally a large extent of within-species variation in the 95 levels of metal accumulation, metal tolerance and gene expression (Meyer et al., 2015, Stein et al., 96 2017, Corso et al., 2018, Schvartzman et al., 2018). 97 Within-species transcriptomic differences between A. halleri populations originating from M and NM soils can provide insights into the molecular and physiological alterations associated with the 98

natural colonization of M soils, but they have hardly been explored thus far. In order to address 99 100 adaptation to extremely high heavy metal levels in a metalliferous soil in A. halleri, we focused here on the population at the most highly heavy metal-contaminated A. halleri site in Europe at Ponte 101 102 Nossa (Noss/IT) according to a large-scale field survey of 165 European populations (Stein et al., 2017). Noss individuals were more Cd-tolerant and accumulated lower levels of Cd than both closely 103 104 related A. halleri from a population on NM soil in the vicinity, Paisco Loveno (Pais), and more distantly related A. halleri from Wallenfels (Wall) on NM soil in Germany. Further contrasting with 105 the less Cd-tolerant plants of NM soil origin, transcriptomic Cd responses including the activation of 106 107 Fe deficiency responses were attenuated in the highly Cd-tolerant population. Instead, a large number of transcripts differed in abundance in Noss (M soil origin) from both Pais and Wall plants (NM soil 108 109 origins) irrespective of cultivation conditions. Overrepresentation analysis indicated that differences comprised primarily the global activation of meiosis- and genome integrity maintenance-related 110 functions in somatic tissues of Noss, accompanied by pronouncedly altered levels of few metal 111 112 homeostasis transcripts known for central roles in Cd accumulation and basal Cd tolerance of A. 113 thaliana. Our results suggest the possibility of roles in somatic tissues of A. halleri (Noss) for some 114 genes functions known to operate in meiosis of A. thaliana. This work provides insights into how land plants cope with rapid anthropogenic environmental change and extreme abiotic stress levels. 115

116

#### 117 Materials and Methods

118 For detailed Materials and Methods see Supplemental Information.

# 119 Plant material and growth conditions

120 Cuttings were made of A. halleri ssp. halleri O'Kane & Al-Shehbaz individuals originating from the

121 field (Stein et al., 2017), followed by hydroponic pre-cultivation for 4 weeks to obtain rooted

vegetative clones. Experiments were conducted in 1x modified Hoagland's solution (Becher et al., 122 2004) with weekly exchange of solutions. In Cd tolerance assays, plants were sequentially exposed 123 to step-wise increasing concentrations of CdSO<sub>4</sub> (0, 25, 50, 75, 100, 125, 150, 175, 200, 250, 300, 124 350, 400 and 450  $\mu$ M) once per week in a growth chamber (10-h light at 90  $\mu$ mol photons m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>, 125  $22^{\circ}$ C/14-h dark at 18°C, 65% constant relative humidity; n = 6 to 9 per population, with one to three 126 vegetative clones for each of three to six genotypes per population). Cd tolerance index was 127 quantified as  $EC_{100}$ , the effective Cd concentration causing 100% root growth inhibition (Schat and 128 Ten Bookum, 1992). For transcriptome sequencing and multi-element analysis (Table S4), 1x 129 modified Hoagland's solution was supplemented with either 2 or 0 (control)  $\mu$ M CdSO<sub>4</sub>, with 130 cultivation in 16-h light (90 µmol photons m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>, 22°C)/ 8-h dark (18°C) cycles at 60% constant 131 relative humidity for 16 d. 132

### 133 Multi-element analysis and transcriptome sequencing

For multi-element analysis, apoplastically bound metal cations were desorbed from freshly harvested 134 roots (Cailliatte et al., 2010)(see Supplemental Information). All tissues were washed twice in ddH2O 135 before drying, digestion and multi-element analysis as described (Stein et al., 2017). For 136 137 transcriptome sequencing, root and shoot tissues were harvested separately 7 h after the onset of the light period, frozen immediately in liquid nitrogen, pooled from six replicate clones per genotype, 138 139 treatment and experiment, and stored at -80°C. Total RNA was extracted from aliquots of tissue homogenates using the RNeasy Plant Mini Kit (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany). One µg of total RNA was 140 used in NEBNext Ultra II RNA Library Prep Kit for Illumina (New England Biolabs, Frankfurt, 141 142 Germany), followed by sequencing to obtain 14 to 29 mio. 150-bp read pairs per sample that passed quality filters (Novogene, Hongkong). 143

# 144 Sequence data analysis

Reads were mapped to the A. halleri ssp. gemmifera (Matsumura) O'Kane & Al-Shehbaz accession 145 Tada mine (W302) reference genome (Briskine et al., 2017) using HISAT2 version 2.1.0 (Kim et al., 146 147 2015). This reference genome contains a more complete set of A. halleri coding regions than the A. 148 lyrata reference genome, and its use resulted in considerably higher mapping rates. After multiple 149 mapping error correction according to COMEX 2.1 (Pietzenuk et al., 2016), the number of fragments per gene were determined using Qualimap2 (Okonechnikov et al., 2016), followed by principal 150 component analysis (PCA) and differential gene expression analysis using the R package DESeq2 151 (Love et al., 2014). Clustering was performed using the R package pheatmap. For gene ontology 152 153 (GO) term enrichment analyses A. halleri gene IDs were converted into A. thaliana TAIR10 AGI 154 codes, which were then used in hypergeometric distribution estimation through the function g:GOSt 155 built in g:Profiler (Reimand *et al.*, 2016). Transposable element (TE) transcript levels were quantified 156 based on Reads Per Kilobase per Million reads (Mortazavi et al., 2008) after mapping to the

157 Arabidopsis lyrata MN47 reference genome with TE annotations (Pietzenuk et al., 2016). This was 158 necessary because the A. halleri ssp. gemmifera reference genome lacks contiguity outside coding 159 sequences and in repetitive regions and its TE annotations are less thoroughly curated. Reads were 160 used to reconstruct cDNA variants with Integrated Genome Viewer (Robinson et al., 2017). Multiple 161 comparisons of means were conducted using the stats and agricolae, with normality and 162 homoscedasticity tests in the car, packages in R (R\_Core\_Team, 2013).

## 163 Validation by RT-qPCR and immunoblots

164 We used aliquots of homogenized tissues as frozen during harvest. Real-time RT-qPCR reactions 165 were run in a 384-well LightCycler®480 II System (Roche Diagnostics, Mannheim, Germany) using 166 the GoTaq qPCR Mastermix (Promega, Walldorf, Germany) and cDNAs synthesized from DNase-167 treated total RNA using the RevertAid First Strand cDNA Synthesis Kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Schwerte, Germany). Immunoblots were carried out following SDS-PAGE (Lämmli, 1970) using 168 anti-AtIRT1 (AS11 1780, Lot number 1203; Agrisera, Vännas, Sweden), HRP-conjugated secondary 169 170 antibodies (Thermo Fisher Scientific) and detection using the ECL Select Western Blotting Detection Reagent (GE Healthcare, Little Chalfont, England) and a Fusion Fx7 GelDoc (Vilber Lourmat, 171 172 Eberhardzell, Germany).

173

### 174 Results

#### 175 Choice of populations and comparative physiological characterization

In a field survey of 165 Arabidopsis halleri sites across Europe, average soil Cd concentrations were 176 177 by far the highest at Ponte Nossa/IT (Noss) in both the total and hydrochloric acid-extractable soil fractions (900 and 203 mg Cd kg<sup>-1</sup> soil, respectively; second highest were soils of far lower 178 179 concentrations of 130 and 87 mg Cd kg<sup>-1</sup> soil, respectively)(Stein *et al.*, 2017). Therefore, we chose the A. halleri population at this M site as the focal population in this comparative study, in 180 combination with two populations at NM sites for comparison, one from the geographically closest 181 182 site near Paisco Loveno (Pais/IT) approximately 38 km northeast of Noss, and one near Wallenfels 183 (Wall/DE) about 520 km to the North. Average soil total Cd concentrations in close proximity of the 184 A. halleri individuals studied here were 700-fold higher at Noss than at Pais (Table S1). Earlier comparative transcriptomics studies of Zn/Cd hyperaccumulator plant species included individuals 185 originating from geographically distant M sites only, for example in Italy and Poland for A. halleri, 186 and they were not designed to compare between M and NM sites (Corso et al., 2018, Schvartzman 187 188 et al., 2018, Halimaa et al., 2019). In order to test for adaptation of the Noss population to locally extremely high soil Cd levels, we 189

quantified Cd tolerance of individuals collected at each of the three sites in hydroponic culture system
in a growth chamber. Based on the proportion of individuals maintaining root growth in a sequential

exposure test with stepwise increasing Cd concentrations, individuals from Noss were the most 192 tolerant of the three tested populations (Fig. 1a, Table S2, Fig. S1). Following a different approach 193 for quantifying metal tolerance (Schat and Ten Bookum, 1992), mean EC<sub>100</sub>, the effective Cd 194 concentration causing 100% root growth inhibition in a given individual, was significantly higher for 195 Noss  $(344 \pm 98 \mu M \text{ Cd})$  than for Pais  $(219 \pm 66 \mu M \text{ Cd})$  and Wall  $(221 \pm 56 \mu M \text{ Cd})$  (Fig. 1b). In 196 line with species-wide Cd hypertolerance of A. halleri, 100% root growth inhibition was previously 197 198 reported to occur approximately at 30 µM Cd in A. thaliana (Becher, 2003). 199 In natural populations in the field, Cd concentrations accumulated in leaves of A. halleri at Noss were 200 at least 20-fold higher than at Pais and 3-fold higher than at Wall (Table S1)(Stein *et al.*, 2017). By 201 contrast, Zn concentrations in leaves of field-collected individuals were similar in all three 202 populations, despite vastly differing soil Zn levels (see Table S1) (Stein et al., 2017). The leaf:soil 203 ratio of Cd concentrations (Cd accumulation efficiency) in the field was highest in the Wall population from north of the Alps and lowest in Noss, suggesting attenuated leaf Cd accumulation at 204 205 Noss compared to both Pais and Wall (Fig. 1c). Upon exposure to a sub-toxic concentration of  $2 \mu M$ CdSO<sub>4</sub> in hydroponic culture for 16 d, Cd concentrations in roots of Noss (140  $\pm$  74 µg Cd g<sup>-1</sup>DW) 206 were only 43% and 40% of those in Pais and Wall, respectively (Fig. 1d, Table S3). Leaf Cd 207 concentrations were also lower in Noss (160  $\pm$  74 µg Cd g<sup>-1</sup> DW) than in Wall (about 52% of Wall; 208 P < 0.05), and at about 76% of those in Pais (n.s.). We additionally observed between-population 209 differences in the accumulation of other nutrients (Fig. S2). Upon Cd exposure, Cu concentrations 210 211 were higher, and Mn concentrations were lower than under control conditions in roots of Pais and 212 Wall, but not in roots of Noss (Fig. S2a and d). Fe concentrations were higher in roots of Noss and 213 increased further following exposure to Cd, in contrast to the two populations from NM soils (Fig. S2e). In shoots of Noss, Fe concentrations were about twice as high (*ca*. 75  $\mu$ g Fe g<sup>-1</sup> DW) than in 214 the shoots of the other two populations under both control and Cd exposure conditions (Fig. S2e). 215 Taken together, these results showed that the Noss population of A. halleri is more tolerant to Cd 216 217 than both Pais and Wall, supporting adaptation to the composition of its local soil. This was 218 accompanied by attenuated Cd accumulation and a distinct profile of tissue concentrations of 219 micronutrient metals in Noss under standardized growth conditions in hydroponic culture.

220

#### 221 Comparative transcriptomics

Transcriptome sequencing was carried out for a total of 72 samples, with three independent repeats of each experiment comprising root and shoot tissues of two genotypes from each of the three populations grown in control and Cd-amended medium for 16 d (0 and 2  $\mu$ M CdSO<sub>4</sub>; Table S4; note that this Cd concentration is far sub-toxic in all *A. halleri* populations under investigation and was chosen to elicit possible responses without causing any toxicity symptoms). Principal component

227 analysis (PCA) suggested predominant differences between root and shoot transcriptomes (Fig. S3a). 228 In both roots and shoots, transcriptomes of the geographically neighboring populations Noss and Pais 229 grouped closer together in the first principal component by comparison to the geographically distant Wall population (Fig. S3b and c). This suggested that individuals from Noss and Pais are genetically 230 more closely related to one another than either of these to individuals from Wall. Based on 231 genotyping-by-sequencing of more than 800 European A. halleri individuals, we established that 232 233 Noss and Pais are both in the Central Alpine clade of A. halleri, whereas Wall is in the distinct Central 234 European clade (Anderson et al., manuscript in preparation).

- 235 Upon long-term exposure to a low level of Cd as applied here, transcriptomic differences compared to controls untreated with Cd comprised a few hundred genes in both the Pais and the Wall population 236 237 originating from NM sites (Fig. 2a and b, Figs. S4 and S5, Dataset S1). By contrast, in the more Cd-238 tolerant population Noss, no single transcript responded in abundance to Cd exposure under the employed conditions in either roots or shoots. This observation is relevant because it argues against 239 240 the possible hypothesis that adaptation of A. halleri to high-Cd soils involves an enhanced sensitivity of transcriptional responsiveness to Cd. In order to identify candidate transcripts that may contribute 241 242 to the ability of the Noss population to persist on extremely highly heavy metal-contaminated soil, we next examined the genes showing differential expression between populations (Fig. 2c and d, 243 Dataset S2). As an initial set of candidate genes, we focused on those transcripts showing differential 244 abundance between Noss (M) and both of the populations from NM soils, Pais and Wall. This 245 246 comparison identified differential transcript levels for as many as 1,617 genes (801/599/217, higher 247 in Noss/lower in Noss/intermediate in Noss) in roots and 1,638 genes (797/604/237) in shoots under 248 control conditions (under Cd exposure 848/697/236 and 1140/707/339 in roots and shoots, 249 respectively) (surrounded by a red line in Fig. 2c and d).
- 250

#### 251 Candidate genes differentially expressed in Noss

252 We subjected the genes expressed either at higher or lower levels in Noss compared to both Pais and 253 Wall (DEGs; 0 µM Cd; Dataset S3) to a Gene Ontology Term (GO) enrichment analysis (Dataset 254 S4). Meiotic cell cycle (GO:0051321) was the most significantly enriched in the group of genes that 255 are more highly expressed in both root and shoot of Noss (Fig. 3a and b, Table 1). Among the genes 256 within the GO term meiotic cell cycle, transcript levels of ARGONAUTE 9 (AGO9) were substantially 257 higher in both root and shoot tissues of the Noss in comparison to both the Pais and Wall populations 258 (Fig. 3c and d, Table S5;  $Log_2FC = 6.6$  and 4.4 to 4.6 in root and shoot, respectively; see Dataset S2). By contrast, present knowledge suggests that the expression of AGO9 in A. thaliana is restricted to 259 only a few cells during the early stages of meiotic megaspore formation (Duran-Figueroa and Vielle-260 261 Calzada, 2010, Olmedo-Monfil et al., 2010). Amino acid sequence alignment of AGO proteins in A.

*halleri* and *A. thaliana* (Fig. S6) confirmed that *Ah*AGO9 is the closest *A. halleri* homologue of *At*AGO9 in clade 3 of ARGONAUTE proteins (AGO4, -6, -8 and -9)(Vaucheret, 2008). Sequence read coverage for *AGO9*, obtained from gDNA of Noss and Pais, suggested that *AGO9* is a singlecopy gene (Table S6).

In the GO class meiotic cell cycle, transcript levels of the two gene copies of ZIPper I (ZYP1a and 266 ZYP1b) were also substantially higher in Noss than in both Pais and Wall (Fig. 3e and f, Tables S5 267 268 and S6). Amino acid sequences of AtZYP1a and b are highly similar and conserved in AhZYP1a and 269 b (Fig. S7). We validated sequencing-based transcriptomic data by reverse-transcription quantitative real-time PCR for a representative set of genes including AGO9 and ZYP1a/b (Table S8, Fig. S9). 270 An additional 15 genes in roots and 10 genes in shoots of the GO meiotic cell cycle showed elevated 271 272 transcript levels in Noss compared to both populations of NM soil (see Fig. 3a and b, Dataset S4). 273 The partly overlapping categories homologous recombination (GO:0035825), reciprocal meiotic recombination (GO:0007131), meiosis I cell cycle process (GO:0061982) and condensed 274 275 chromosome (GO:0000793) were also enriched among transcripts of increased abundance in roots of Noss. Among a total of 23 genes that were more highly expressed in either roots or shoots of Noss 276 277 compared to both Pais and Wall as well as grouped in over-represented GO terms related to meiotic cell cycle and homologous/meiotic recombination, homologs of eight genes (35%) were previously 278 shown to have roles or implicated in somatic DNA repair in A. thaliana (Table 1). Furthermore, sulfur 279 compound metabolic process (GO:0006790), glucosinolate biosynthetic process (GO:0019761) and 280 281 plastid (GO:0009536) were enriched among transcripts of decreased abundance in shoot tissues of 282 Noss (see Dataset S4).

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# 284 Differential abundance of metal homeostasis-related transcripts between populations

Next, we sought to identify metal homeostasis candidate genes contributing to the observed 285 286 differences in Cd tolerance and accumulation between Noss and the two other populations. For this 287 purpose, we intersected a manually curated list of metal homeostasis genes with the list of candidate 288 transcripts (see Fig. 3e-g,  $|Log_2FC| > 1$ , mean normalized counts across all samples > 2; Dataset S3, 289 Table S7). Transcript levels of *Heavy Metal ATPase 2 (HMA2)* and two ZRT/IRT-like Protein genes, ZIP2 and ZIP6, were higher in roots of Noss than Pais and Wall (Fig. 3e). Root transcript levels of 290 Iron-Regulated Transporter 1 (IRT1), Plant Cadmium Resistance 9 (PCR9) and ZIP10 were lower 291 in Noss (Fig. 3f). In shoots of Noss, transcript levels of PCR8, HMA2 and Cation/H<sup>+</sup> Exchanger 2 292 293 (CHX2) were higher than in both Pais and Wall (Fig. 3g). The IRT1 transmembrane transport protein is known as the high-affinity root iron (Fe<sup>2+</sup>) uptake 294

system of dicotyledonous plants as well as the predominating path for inadvertent uptake of  $Cd^{2+}$  in

Arabidopsis (Vert *et al.*, 2002). Compared to Pais and Wall, an 84% to 92% lower expression of *IRT1* 

297 in Noss (see Fig. 3f) would provide an intuitive adaptive route towards plant Cd tolerance via 298 exclusion (see Fig. 1d, Fig. S8). In A. thaliana, IRT1 expression is under complex regulation at both the transcriptional and post-transcriptional levels (Kerkeb et al., 2008). To test whether reduced IRT1 299 protein levels accompany low IRT1 transcript abundance in Noss, we carried out immunoblot 300 detection using an anti-AtIRT1 antibody in subsamples of root tissues from the same experiments. 301 Note that amino acid sequences of IRT1 proteins of A. halleri Noss, Pais and Wall individuals as 302 303 well as of A. thaliana are identical in the region corresponding to the peptide used to generate the 304 anti-AtIRT1 antibody (Fig. S8, boxed). At the size corresponding to IRT1 of Fe-deficient A. thaliana 305 (Fig. 3h, right lane), we observed weak bands in both Pais and Wall cultivated under both control 306 and 2 µM Cd exposure conditions, but no band was visible in Noss, in agreement with our 307 observations at the transcript level (see also Fig. S9c for confirmation). Note that we loaded lower total protein from Fe-deficient A. thaliana in order not to overload the detection with a very strong 308 signal and also because it served merely as a size marker. Note also that the extremely low levels of 309 310 IRT1 protein under our non-Fe-deficient conditions can favor the detection of non-specific bands which do not appear when IRT1 protein levels are very high. Additional bands observed in A. halleri 311 312 at higher molecular masses are likely to constitute non-specific cross-reactions of the antibody (44 kDa). The sizes of bands at approximately 48 and 56 kDa are also consistent with multiply 313 314 ubiquitinated forms of IRT1, respectively, previously reported at distances of multiples of ~9 kDa from IRT1 (Fig. 3h)(Barberon et al., 2011, Callis, 2014). In A. thaliana, the ubiquitination of IRT1 315 leads to its deactivation by removal from the plasma membrane through endocytosis (Barberon *et al.*, 316 317 2011). Taking these data together, the absence of a signal corresponding to the size of functional IRT1 in Noss on immunoblots, as well as low IRT1 signals in Pais and Wall, with no changes upon 318 319 cultivation in 2 µM Cd, were in full agreement with the between-population differences observed for IRT1 transcript levels using RNA-seq and RT-qPCR (see Fig. 3f, Fig. S9a). 320

321

# **322** Cd exposure elicits transcriptional Fe deficiency responses in both populations from NM sites

323 In the less Cd-tolerant populations, upon exposure to Cd, we found differential transcript abundance 324 for 210 genes (upregulated 53, downregulated 157) in shoots and of 428 genes (upregulated 143, 325 downregulated 285) in roots of Pais. A similar number of 197 (upregulated 65, downregulated 132) 326 in roots and 243 (upregulated 98, downregulated 145) in shoots responded to Cd in Wall (see Fig. 2a and b, Dataset S5). Of these, the responses of 44 genes in roots and of 84 genes in shoots were shared 327 between both populations from NM soil, a larger number than expected by chance ( $P < 10^{-50}$ , 328 hypergeometric test). Transcriptomic Cd responses of both Pais and Wall were enriched in Fe 329 deficiency responses (Fig. 4, Dataset S6). The associated enriched GO categories included cellular 330 response to iron ion starvation (GO:0010106) among the upregulated transcripts, as well as 331

intracellular sequestering of iron ion (GO:0006880) and ferroxidase activity (GO:0004322) among

the downregulated transcripts in both roots and shoots.

Among transcripts known to increase in abundance in *A. thaliana* under iron deficiency, transcript

levels of *Popeye (PYE)*, *Basic Helix-Loop-Helix 38/39/100/101 (bHLH38/39/100/101)* transcription
factors, *Brutus (BTS)* and *Brutus-like 1 (BTSL1)*, as well as *Ferric Reduction Oxidases (FRO1* and

soo nactors, brands (bro) and brands the r (brobri), as were as rerive reduction ownades (river and

337 FRO3), Nicotianamine Synthase 4 (NAS4), Zinc Induced Facilitator 1 (ZIF1), Oligopeptide

338 Transporter 3 (OPT3) and Natural Resistance-Associated Macrophage Protein 3 (NRAMP3)

increased under Cd exposure (Table S9a). A number of genes have roles in iron storage/sequestration,

and their transcript levels are downregulated under iron deficiency in *A. thaliana*. Of these, *Ferritin* 

341 (FER1, FER3 and FER4) and Vacuolar iron Transporter-Like protein (VTL1 and VTL5) transcript

levels were downregulated in Cd-exposed Pais and Wall plants (Table S9b).

Further GOs enriched among transcripts downregulated in abundance in response to Cd were 343 response to reactive oxygen species (GO:0000302), photosynthesis (GO:0015979), and chloroplast 344 345 thylakoid membrane (GO:0009535). The gene content of these, however, is less compelling in implicating the respective biological processes (see Table S9b; Datasets S5 and S6). Chloroplast 346 347 thylakoid membrane is a child term of plastid (GO:0009536), which was enriched among transcripts present at lower levels in Noss than in both Pais and Wall. Six genes were in common between these 348 (Table S10), of which only one, Light Harvesting Complex of photosystem II (LHCB4.2), appears to 349 function directly in photosynthesis. A more extensive search for transcripts that are Cd-responsive in 350 both Pais and Wall as well as differentially expressed in the Noss population identified *Bifunctional* 351 352 inhibitor/lipid-transfer protein/seed storage 2S albumin superfamily protein in the root and NAD(P)-353 binding Rossmann-fold superfamily protein in the shoot (Table S11). Finally, metal homeostasis 354 protein-encoding transcripts upregulated in abundance upon Cd exposure in Pais or Wall were generally less abundant in Noss regardless of Cd treatment (Fig. S10, cluster R5 and S5). Conversely, 355 metal homeostasis protein-coding transcripts that were decreased in abundance under Cd exposure 356 357 in Pais or Wall were generally present at higher levels in Noss (Fig. S10, cluster R2 and S2). These 358 between-population differences primarily comprised genes associated with Fe deficiency responses 359 of A. thaliana as described above (see Fig. 4, Table S9), thus indicating against a constitutive proactive activation in more Cd-tolerant Noss of the transcriptional Cd responses observed here in 360

the less Cd-tolerant Pais and Wall populations. These results suggested that transcriptional symptoms elicited by Cd exposure were observed already at far-subtoxic Cd concentrations, which neither caused growth impairment nor chlorosis, in the two less Cd-tolerant populations originating from NM soils.

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# 366 Lower transcript levels of long terminal repeat retrotransposons in Noss

Comparative transcriptomics suggested that in particular, AGO9 transcript levels were higher in Noss 367

- compared to both Pais and Wall, with the largest quantitative difference within its functional context 368
- 369 (see Table 1, Fig. 3c and d). If this were indeed the case, then we would expect that long terminal
- repeat retrotransposons (LTR-TEs), target loci known to be transcriptionally silenced dependent on 370
- AGO9 in A. thaliana, are less transcriptionally active in A. halleri from Noss than A. halleri from 371
- Pais and Wall (Duran-Figueroa and Vielle-Calzada, 2010). In Noss, transcript levels derived from 372
- 373 LTR-TEs were indeed lower in shoot tissues by comparison to both Pais and Wall and also lower in
- 374 root tissues than in Pais (Fig. 5, Fig. S11, Dataset S7).
- 375

#### 376 Elevated AGO9 transcript levels in A. halleri originating from European M sites

377 In A. halleri, M sites were apparently colonized by individuals from neighboring NM sites (Pauwels 378 et al., 2005). We identified two additional A. halleri population pairs combining a highly metalcontaminated (M) site and a non-contaminated (NM) site in a joint geographic region (Stein et al., 379 2017). For each of the three M-NM population pairs, clones of two individuals available in our 380 laboratory (Stein et al., 2017) were cultivated hydroponically, and AGO9 transcript levels were 381 quantified in leaves by RT-qPCR. Within each of the three pairs, AGO9 transcript levels were 382 significantly higher in A. halleri of M soil origin than of NM soil origin (Fig. 6; see Fig. 3d, Dataset 383 S2). Among individuals from M sites, there was strong quantitative variation in AGO9 transcript 384 abundance, but all means were higher than the means of individuals from the corresponding NM site 385 386 of the same population pair. Taking into account the spatial heterogeneity of M habitats and the 387 genetic diversity within outcrossing A. halleri (Krämer, 2018), we conclude that elevated expression 388 of AGO9 is common among individuals from M site populations in several regions of Europe.

389

#### Discussion 390

#### 391 Divergent transcript levels between populations arise more abundantly than divergent 392 transcriptomic responses to Cd

393 To globally identify molecular alterations associated with plant adaptation to extreme abiotic stress, 394 we conducted comparative transcriptomics of A. halleri populations from contrasting environments of origin (Fig. 2). In line with their origin from the most highly Cd-contaminated A. halleri site known 395 396 in Europe, our results support environment-dependent phenotypic differentiation in A. halleri and adaptation to extremely high soil Cd levels at Noss (Fig. 1). Transcript levels of a few hundred genes 397 398 differed between Cd-exposed and unexposed A. halleri plants from the two populations originating from NM soils. Pais and Wall. Thus, these less Cd-tolerant plants attained a different transcriptomic 399 state in the presence of Cd through a process that must involve the initial interaction of Cd<sup>2+</sup> with 400 401 primary Cd-sensing or -sensitive sites, of which the molecular identities are yet unknown. By contrast,

in A. halleri from the more Cd-tolerant Noss (M) population, there was no single gene of which 402 403 transcript levels differed between the Cd and the control treatment (Fig. 2). This implies that in Noss, Cd<sup>2+</sup> was either effectively kept away from all Cd-sensing and -sensitive sites (Krämer, 2018), which 404 is likely, or alternatively  $Cd^{2+}$  did not result in any transcriptomic adjustment within a timeframe 405 relevant for our harvest after 16 d of exposure. Given that Noss is more Cd-tolerant than both Pais 406 and Wall (see Fig. 1), the molecular mechanisms conferring tolerance must then either be active also 407 408 in the absence of Cd, or alternatively their implementation must operate entirely downstream of 409 transcript levels, for example at the translational or post-translational level.

410 Several thousand transcripts differed in abundance between the Noss (M) population of A. halleri 411 and either one of the two populations originating from NM sites irrespective of Cd exposure (Fig. 2; 412 see also Fig. S10). This suggests that between-population transcriptomic divergence is substantial 413 even among the geographically proximal and phylogenetically closely related A. halleri populations Noss and Pais (Figs. S3, S11; Anderson et al., manuscript in preparation), by comparison to between-414 415 population differences in the responses to Cd exposure. Similarly, earlier cross-species comparative transcriptomics studies identified responses to metal exposure in A. thaliana, a species with only 416 417 basal metal tolerance, whereas there were no remarkable additional species-specific responses among metal homeostasis genes in the metal-hypertolerant species A. halleri (Talke et al., 2006, Weber et 418 419 al., 2006). Instead, tens of genes with predicted roles in metal homeostasis were more highly expressed in A. halleri compared to A. thaliana irrespective of the growth conditions. 420

421

#### 422 Constitutive global activation of meiosis-related genes

423 Meiosis is essential for sexual reproduction in eukaryotes and occurs exclusively in male and female 424 gametophyte precursor cells during the reproductive phase of the life cycle (Mercier et al., 2015). 425 Yet, in somatic tissues we observed an overrepresentation of the Gene Ontology Term (GO) "meiotic cell cycle" among transcripts of higher abundance in Noss by comparison to both Pais and Wall (Fig. 426 427 3, Table 1, Dataset S4). This included genes functioning during entry into meiosis (AGO9, SWI1), 428 cohesion complex (SMC3), synaptonemal complex (ZYP1a/b), recombination and its control (PRD3, 429 BRCA2B, MHF2, MSH5, FLIP), for example, in A. thaliana (Mercier et al., 2015). In addition to its role during meiosis, DNA double-strand break repair (DSBR) through homologous recombination 430 431 (HR) functions to maintain genome integrity following DNA damage in somatic cells (Schuermann et al., 2005). Exposure of plants to an excess of aluminum, boron or heavy metal ions can cause DNA 432 433 damage (Kovalchuk et al., 2001, Rounds and Larsen, 2008, Sakamoto et al., 2011, Morales et al., 434 2016). Of the meiosis-related genes identified here, there is evidence for an additional involvement 435 in somatic HR-mediated DSBR for BRCA2 (Seeliger et al., 2012), EMEIA/B (Geuting et al., 2009), 436 HEB2 (Sakamoto et al., 2011), FLIP (Bouyer et al., 2018, Fernandes et al., 2018), RPA2B (Liu et al.,

2017) and *ERCC1* (Dubest *et al.*, 2004) in *A. thaliana* (Table 1; Dataset S4). *ERCC1* was also
implicated in non-HR nucleotide excision repair (Hefner *et al.*, 2003).

439 The two most strongly differentially expressed meiosis-related genes, AGO9 and ZYP1a/b, were so far thought to function exclusively in reproductive development of A. thaliana. AGO9 is required 440 pre-meiotically to prevent the formation of excessive gametophytic precursor cells and expressed in 441 a single layer of somatic companion cells surrounding the megaspore mother cell, as well as in pollen 442 443 in A. thaliana (Olmedo-Monfil et al., 2010). AtAGO9 was proposed to act in the silencing of 444 pericentromeric TEs, predominantly long terminal repeat retrotransposons (LTR-TEs), in the ovule 445 through the interaction with 24-nucleotide small RNAs (Duran-Figueroa and Vielle-Calzada, 2010). 446 Like other organisms, plants generally inactivate TEs in order to maintain genomic stability. 447 Exposure to abiotic stress, including also heavy metal exposure, can result in the expression and transposition of some TEs, especially LTR-TEs, in plants (Grandbastien, 2015) and other organisms 448 (Horvath et al., 2017). In A. halleri from Noss elevated expression of AGO9 in somatic cells may 449 450 serve to counteract LTR-TE activation as an adaptation to their high-stress natural environment. Consistent with this hypothesis, transcripts derived from LTR-TEs were present at overall lower 451 452 levels in both root and shoot tissues of Noss compared to Pais (Fig. 5).

We detected no global increase in the levels of transcripts derived from LTR-TEs or any other TEs 453 at 2 µM Cd compared to control conditions. It is possible that an increase in TE expression is locus-454 specific, or occurs at different times after the onset of Cd exposure or at higher levels of Cd exposure 455 456 which plants might encounter at the Noss site at least temporarily (Krämer, 2018), or in response to 457 other abiotic stresses or combined stress exposure, in nature (see Table S1). Published circumstantial 458 evidence has implicated AGO9 in DNA damage repair in seedlings of A. thaliana, i.e. at the 459 vegetative stage (Oliver et al., 2014). Available antibodies against A. thaliana AGO9 and ZYP1 did not detect specific bands in immunoblots of floral buds in our hands, as established by comparing 460 wild-type Arabidopsis with the corresponding mutants (data not shown). Future work will address 461 462 the biological functions of AGO9 in somatic tissues of A. halleri.

463 We propose that our results reflect a constitutive transcriptional activation of genome integrity 464 maintenance in vegetative tissues as a component of extreme abiotic stress adaptation of A. halleri at Noss. The genes newly implicated here in somatic genome integrity maintenance (Table 1) may have 465 466 remained unidentified in the past because their functions in somatic cells are specific to A. halleri or because extremely low general expression levels may be sufficient to accomplish a possible somatic 467 468 DNA repair function in A. thaliana. It should be noted that Cd is not the only abiotic stress factor at 469 the Noss site in the field, where soil concentrations of Zn, Pb and Cu are also extremely high (Stein 470 *et al.*, 2017).

471 Of the meiosis genes showing elevated transcript levels in A. halleri from Noss (see Table 1), the 472 four genes ZYP1a/b, PRD3 and SMC3 were among a total of eight meiosis genes identified to be 473 under selection in autotretraploid Arabidopsis arenosa, for which there is no information on transcript levels to date (Yant et al., 2013). The predicted amino acid substitutions reported as hallmarks of 474 475 tetraploidy in A. arenosa, when also divergent from diploid A. thaliana (Col), were all absent in A. halleri individuals from both Noss and Pais (data not shown). Moreover, all known A. halleri are 476 477 diploid, including all populations of this study (Anderson *et al.*, manuscript in preparation). We 478 conclude that the alterations in meiosis gene expression in plants adapted to an extreme environment 479 reported here are unrelated to published work on the adaptation of meiosis to tetraploidy that was 480 initially conducted in A. arenosa (Bomblies et al., 2015).

481

# 482 Large alterations in only few metal homeostasis functions in *A. halleri* from Noss

483 Attenuated Cd accumulation in A. halleri from Noss (see Fig. 1) observed here in hydroponics is 484 consistent with earlier results from the cultivation of Noss and Wall on an artificially Cd-485 contaminated soil (Stein et al., 2017) and with observations in hydroponic culture on accessions 486 collected nearby (Meyer et al., 2015, Corso et al., 2018). Among metal homeostasis genes, we observed substantially lower IRT1 expression in roots of Noss compared to both Pais and Wall at 487 both the transcript (Fig. 3f) and protein levels (Fig. 3h, Fig. S9c). This can account for both enhanced 488 Cd hypertolerance and attenuated Cd accumulation in A. halleri from Noss, considering that IRT1 is 489 the primary route for non-specific uptake of toxic Cd<sup>2+</sup> into A. thaliana (Vert et al., 2002). Taking 490 491 our data together, comparably high tissue levels of iron (Fig. S2e) in Noss plants appear to arise 492 independently of IRT1 (Fig. 3h), which warrants further study.

493 ZIP2 is another member of the same protein family as IRT1 and could mediate the influx of divalent 494 metals into the cytosol (Shanmugam et al., 2013). In A. thaliana, transcript levels of ZIP2 were 495 decreased under Mn and Fe deficiency (Milner et al., 2013). Upon Cd exposure, concentrations of 496 Mn and Fe were lowered in roots of the both populations from NM sites compared to Noss (Fig. S2d, 497 e). Based on its enhanced transcript levels in Noss, ZIP2 could be a potential candidate gene for a role in root Fe and Mn uptake in Noss (Fig. 3e). In the Wall and Pais populations originating from 498 NM soils, Fe levels were comparable under both treatment conditions, which was probably a result 499 500 of compensation through Fe deficiency responses, by contrast to Mn concentrations which were decreased under Cd exposure in both populations originating from NM sites. 501

502 Distinctly higher transcript levels of *HMA2* in both roots and shoots of Noss (Fig. 3e and g) when 503 compared to both the Pais and the Wall populations suggest that enhanced cellular export of Cd 504 contributes to enhanced Cd hypertolerance in this population. Alongside HMA4, the plasma 505 membrane efflux pump HMA2 mediates root-to-shoot translocation of Zn in *A. thaliana* and can also

transport chemically similar  $Cd^{2+}$  ions (Hussain *et al.*, 2004). The *HMA2* transcript is present in roots of Zn-deficient *A. thaliana*, in particular (Sinclair *et al.*, 2018). A possible role of *HMA2* in the adaptation of *A. halleri* to local soil composition in Noss must involve functional alterations compared to *A. thaliana*.

510

#### 511 Cd exposure induces Fe deficiency responses in both populations from NM sites

512 In the less Cd-tolerant Wall and Pais populations originating from NM soils, we observed Fe 513 deficiency response-like transcriptomic changes upon exposure to 2 µM Cd for 16 d (Fig. 4; Table 514 S9). Plants that are non-hypertolerant to metals, for example A. thaliana, activate aspects of Fe 515 deficiency responses when exposed to an excess of heavy metals, for example Cd (Leskova et al., 516 2017). Previously published results in A. thaliana were from heavy metal treatment conditions 517 causing a mix of possible toxicity symptoms and acclimation responses. By contrast, in this present study the Cd treatment condition was far below toxicity thresholds of A. halleri that is known for 518 519 species-wide Cd hypertolerance (see Fig. 1). Our data suggest that even under exposure to very low sub-toxic Cd concentrations, transcriptional responses of A. halleri reflect symptoms of nutrient 520 521 imbalances caused by Cd. However, these responses to Cd are not associated with evolutionary 522 adaptation to high-Cd soil in *A. halleri*.

523 A transcriptomics study reported Fe deficiency responses in *A. halleri* from the Polish M site PL22, but not in the I16 population from a metalliferous site close to Noss (M), in response to high-Zn 524 525 exposure (Schvartzman et al., 2018). A highly Cd-hyperaccumulating accession of Noccaea 526 *caerulescens* exhibited a Cd-induced Fe deficiency response, by contrast to a low Cd-accumulating 527 accession (Halimaa et al., 2019). Both of these earlier studies were lacking the comparison with a 528 neighboring population from an NM soil environment that is likely to reflect the most recent 529 environment in evolutionary history, different from the work presented here. Consequently, central aspects of the heavy metal responses relating to Fe acquisition systems and tissue Fe contents 530 531 according to this study cannot be directly compared to these earlier studies (Fig. S1, Table S9). A 532 study that has just appeared online compares different A. halleri individuals from around Noss with 533 A. halleri from a non-contaminated site around Lozio/IT (Stein et al., 2017, Corso et al., 2021). Corso et al. (2021) independently support between-population differential transcript levels of IRT1, ZIP9, 534 535 ZIP6, HMA2 and FER4 (see Fig. 3 and S10). According to normalized transcript levels in the dataset of Corso et al. (2021), shoot AGO9 and ZYP1b transcript levels were on average 1.7-fold and 4.6-536 537 fold higher, respectively, in A. halleri of M origin compared to NM origin.

538

In summary, this comparative study of *A. halleri* populations from different soil types of origin identifies transcriptomic alterations in plants that are adapted to an extreme environment, highly heavy metal-contaminated soil, which has arisen through rapid anthropogenic environmental change.

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556

#### 557 Author Contribution

Designed research: UK, GL, JQ, JEA, BP; conducted experiments: GL, JQ, HA, VP, LS; analyzed
data: GL, UK, JQ, HA, NJ, BP, LS; wrote paper: GL, UK, with contributions from JQ, HA, BP,
VP.

561

# 562 Figure Legends

Fig. 1. Cadmium tolerance and accumulation in three populations of A. halleri. (a) Proportion of 563 564 individuals maintaining root growth (elongation) as a function of Cd concentration. Dashed vertical 565 lines indicate ED<sub>50</sub>, the effective dose required to reach a proportion of 50% according to a dose-566 response model (see Table S2, Fig. S1). (b) Cd tolerance index. Bars represent mean  $\pm$  SD of EC<sub>100</sub> (effective Cd concentration causing 100% root growth inhibition) in a given plant individual (Schat 567 and Ten Bookum, 1992). Plants were sequentially exposed to stepwise increasing concentrations of 568 CdSO<sub>4</sub> in hydroponic culture every week (n = 6 to 9 per population, with one to three vegetative 569 570 clones of each three to six genotypes per population; (a, b)). (c) Cd accumulation efficiency at the site of origin calculated from published field survey data (bars represent means  $\pm$  SD of n = 11 to 12 571 individuals in the field; units employed,  $\mu g \operatorname{Cd} g^{-1} dry$  biomass in leaves,  $\mu g$  total Cd  $g^{-1} dry$  mass in 572 573 soil; data from Stein et al. 2017). (d) Cd concentration in root and shoot tissues of hydroponically

cultivated plants. Shown are mean  $\pm$  SD (n = 12 to 20 clones per population comprising both genotypes, from all three replicate experiments; see Table S1). Four-week-old vegetative clones were exposed to 0 (-Cd) and 2  $\mu$ M CdSO<sub>4</sub> (+Cd) in hydroponic culture for 16 d alongside the plants cultivated for RNA-seq. Different characters denote statistically significant differences between means based on two-way ANOVA, followed by Tukey's HSD test (Log-transformed data were used in (c)) (P < 0.05; see Table S3, for nested ANOVA of genotypes within a population (D)).

580

581 Fig. 2. Between-population differences according to transcriptome sequencing. (a, b) Venn diagrams show the numbers of genes exhibiting differential transcript abundances under exposure to Cd (+Cd) 582 583 compared to control conditions (-Cd) for the three populations Noss (N), Pais (P) and Wall (W) in 584 root (a) and shoot (b) tissues. Upregulation (red):  $Log_2$ (fold change +Cd vs. -Cd) =  $Log_2FC > 0.5$ ; 585 downregulation (blue):  $Log_2FC < -0.5$ ; all with adjusted *P*-value < 0.05. (c, d) Venn diagrams show the numbers of genes exhibiting differential transcript abundance between populations in root (c) and 586 587 shoot (d) tissues of plants cultivated under Cd exposure (violet) or control conditions (orange)  $(|Log_2FC| > 0.5; adjusted P-value < 0.05)$ . Red lines surround genes differentially expressed between 588 589 Noss and both populations of NM soils (Pais and Wall). Four-week-old vegetative clones were exposed to 2  $\mu$ M Cd or 0  $\mu$ M Cd (controls) in hydroponic culture for 16 d before harvest. Data are 590 from three independent experiments (repeats), with two genotypes per population and material 591 pooled from six replicate vegetative clones (three hydroponic culture vessels) per genotype in each 592 593 experiment.

594

595 Fig. 3. Candidate genes differentially expressed in Noss compared to both other populations Pais and 596 Wall. (a, b) Significantly enriched gene ontology (GO) categories for roots (a) and shoots (b) of plants 597 cultivated in 0 µM Cd (see Fig. 2c and d, Dataset S3). Genes differentially expressed between Noss from M soil and both Pais and Wall from NM soils were subjected to a GO term enrichment analysis. 598 599 The number of genes in each over-represented category is shown inside bars (see Dataset S4 for all 600 genes). (c, d) Relative transcript levels of the top three genes (largest between-population differences) 601 taken from (a) and (b) in the over-represented GO category meiotic cell cycle, for roots (c) and shoots 602 (d). (e-g) Relative transcript levels of metal homeostasis genes of which transcript levels are high (e, g) and low (f) in Noss (N) compared to both Pais (P) and Wall (W), for roots (e, f) and shoots (g) 603 (top three genes from Table S7). Bars show means  $\pm$  SD (n = 6) of normalized counts, which were 604 605 additionally normalized per kilobase of gene length (NCPK). Different characters represent statistically significant groups based on two-way ANOVA, followed by Tukey's HSD test (P < 0.05, 606 607 see Table S5, for details). Data are from the same experiment as shown in Fig. 2. (h) Immunoblot of 608 IRT1. Total protein extracts (40 µg) from roots of Noss 05, Pais 09 and Wall 07 were separated on

a denaturing polyacrylamide gel, blotted, and detection was carried out using an anti-IRT1 antibody.

Total protein extract (10 μg) from roots of Fe- and Zn-deficient A. thaliana (Ath, right lane) served

as a positive control, with IRT1 detected as a single band at *ca*. 31 kDa. In *A. halleri*, additional bands

at ca. 44, 48 and 56 kDa are likely to constitute non-specific ross-reactions of the antibody.

613 Coomassie Blue (CB) stained membrane is shown as a loading control.

614

Fig. 4. Functional classification of the transcriptional Cd responses in less metal-tolerant populations from NM sites. Significantly enriched GO categories among the transcriptional responses to Cd common in both the Pais and Wall populations for roots (a) and shoots (b) (see Fig. 2a and b, Dataset S6). The numbers of genes in each over-represented category are shown inside bars. Data are from the same experiment as shown in Fig. 2.

620

Fig. 5. Genome-wide sum of transcript levels contributed by different types of transposable elements in Noss, Pais and Wall. (a-d) Bars show means  $\pm$  SD (n = 6) of transcript levels of transposable elements (TEs), corresponding to the sum total of RPKM for LTR (Long terminal repeat) retrotransposons (a, b) and non-LTR TEs (c, d) in root (a, c) and shoot (b, d), with RPKM  $\geq$  7 per locus. Different characters represent statistically significant differences based on one-way ANOVA, followed by Tukey's HSD test (P < 0.05).

627

Figure 6. ARGONAUTE 9 (AGO9) transcript levels in A. halleri individuals originating from 628 629 geographically paired metalliferous and non-metalliferous sites in Italy, Poland and Germany. 630 Bargraphs show mean  $\pm$  SD (n = 4) of relative AGO9 transcript levels quantified by RT-qPCR in 631 leaves of 5.5-week-old vegetative clones cultivated hydroponically (two independent PCR runs on each of two independently synthesized cDNAs from a homogenized pool of six replicate clones; all 632 PCR reactions were conducted in hexuplicate). Data are shown relative to the constitutively 633 634 expressed gene *Helicase* (*HEL*). Asterisks represent statistically significant differences between M 635 and NM site of each pair, based on one-way ANOVA of Log-transformed data, followed by Tukey's HSD test (\*\*\*, P < 0.001). For details on collection sites and individuals see Stein et al. (2017). 636

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	Description	AGI	Aha Id.	GOª	Somatic DNA repair in <i>A. thaliana</i>	log₂FC <sup>b</sup>	
Name						Max	Min
AGO9	Argonaute 9	AT5G21150	g12002	Meiosis	Oliver et al., 2014	6.57 ***	3.88 ***
ZYP1a	Zipper-like 1a	AT1G22260	g13785	Meiosis/HR	n.i.c	4.84 ***	1.55 **
ZYP1b	Zipper-like 1b	AT1G22275	g13782	Meiosis/HR	n.i.	3.73 ***	2.44 ***
EMB2656	Embryo defective 2656	AT5G37630	g20599	HR	n.i.	3.31 ***	1.01 ***
SMC2	Structural maintenance of chromosomes 2	AT3G47460	g12815	Meiosis	n.i.	1.98 ***	1.12 *
SWI1	SWITCH1	AT5G51330	g08416	Meiosis	n.i.	1.89 **	1.08 *
ERCC1	DNA excision repair protein ERCC-1	AT3G05210	g06284	Meiosis	Dubest <i>et al.,</i> 2004	1.63 ***	0.56 *
MSH5	MUTS-homologue 5	AT3G20475	g11121	Meiosis/HR	n.i.	1.60 ***	1.04 **
PRD3	Putative recombination initiation defects 3	AT1G01690	g01742	Meiosis	n.i.	1.60 ***	1.05 *
EME1A	Essential meiotic endonuclease 1A	AT2G21800	g23988	Meiosis	Geuting et al., 2009	1.59 ***	0.72 *
BRCA2B	Breast cancer susceptibility 2 homolog B	AT5G01630	g27928	Meiosis/HR	Kumar et al., 2019; Seeliger et al., 2012	1.54 ***	-0.91 ***
NA	WEB family protein	AT3G02930	g31838	Meiosis/HR	n.i.	1.47 ***	0.55 ***
NA	Eisosome protein	AT1G04030	g02033	Meiosis	n.i.	1.39 ***	0.80 **
RPA2B	Replication protein A, subunit RPA32	AT3G02920	g02469	Meiosis/HR	Liu <i>et al.,</i> 2017	1.37 ***	0.98 ***
MHF2	MPH1-associated histone-fold protein 2	AT1G78790	g01439	Meiosis	n.i.	1.32 ***	0.58 *
CAP-D3	Condensin-2 complex subunit D3	AT4G15890	g20215	Meiosis/HR	n.i.	1.26 *	0.94 *
МСМ8	Minichromosome maintenance 8	AT3G09660	g06091	Meiosis	n.i.	1.21 **	0.82 *
ATK1	Arabidopsis thaliana knotted-like 1	AT4G21270	g29731	Meiosis/HR	n.i.	1.15 ***	0.70 **
SMC3	Structural maintenance of chromosome 3	AT5G48600	g15955	Meiosis	n.i.	1.13 ***	0.46 *
FLIP	Fidgetin-like-1 interacting protein	AT1G04650	g02098	Meiosis	Fernandes et al., 2018; Bouyer et al., 2018	1.06 **	0.93 *
HEB2	Hypersensitive to excess boron 2	AT3G16730	g06531	HR	Sakamoto <i>et al.</i> , 2011	0.88 ***	0.40 *
ESP	Extra spindle poles	AT4G22970	g14375	Meiosis	n.i.	0.82 **	0.42 *
EME1B	Essential meiotic endonuclease 1B	AT2G22140	g28064	Meiosis	Geuting et al., 2009	0.70 ***	0.35 **

815 **Table 1.** List of genes in overrepresented meiosis- and homologous recombination-related GOs (see Fig. 3a, b).

<sup>a</sup>Meiosis, meiotic cell cycle or meiosis I cell cycle process; HR, homologous recombination (reciprocal meiotic recombination).

<sup>b</sup>Maximum and minimum of Log<sub>2</sub>(fold change Noss vs. any population from an NM site) across all tissues and conditions (adjusted *P*-value < 0.001, \*\*\*; < 0.01, \*\*; <

818 0.05, \*). °Not identified.

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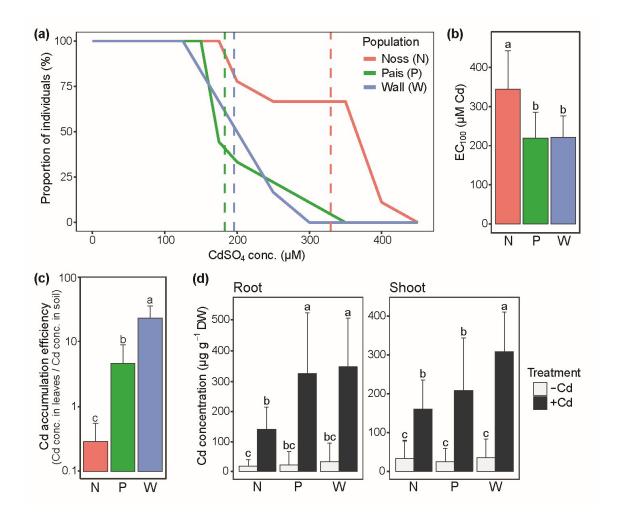
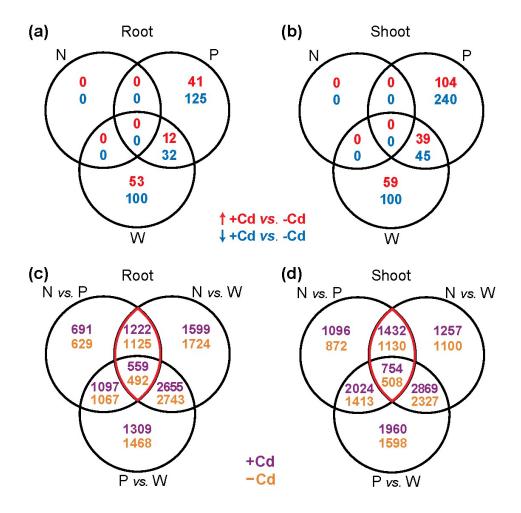


Figure 1. Cadmium tolerance and accumulation in three populations of A. halleri. (a) Proportion of individuals maintaining root growth (elongation) as a function of Cd concentration. Dashed vertical lines indicate ED<sub>50</sub>, the effective dose required to reach a proportion of 50% according to a dose-response model (see Table S2, Figure S1). (b) Cd tolerance index. Bars represent mean  $\pm$  SD of EC<sub>100</sub> (effective Cd concentration causing 100% root growth inhibition) in a given plant individual (Schat and Ten Bookum, 1992). Plants were sequentially exposed to stepwise increasing concentrations of CdSO<sub>4</sub> in hydroponic culture every week (n = 6 to 9 per population, with one to three vegetative clones of each three to six genotypes per population; (a, b)). (c) Cd accumulation efficiency at the site of origin calculated from published field survey data (bars represent means  $\pm$  SD of *n* = 11 to 12 individuals in the field; units employed,  $\mu$ g Cd g<sup>-1</sup> dry biomass in leaves, µg total Cd g<sup>-1</sup> dry mass in soil; data from Stein et al. 2017). (d) Cd concentration in root and shoot tissues of hydroponically cultivated plants. Shown are mean  $\pm$  SD (n = 12 to 20 clones per population comprising both genotypes, from all three replicate experiments; see Supplemental Table 1). Four-week-old vegetative clones were exposed to 0 (-Cd) and 2 µM CdSO<sub>4</sub> (+Cd) in hydroponic culture for 16 d alongside the plants cultivated for RNA-seq. Different characters denote statistically significant differences between means based on twoway ANOVA, followed by Tukey's HSD test (Log-transformed data were used in (c)) (P < 0.05; see Supplemental Table 3, for nested ANOVA of genotypes within a population (d)).



**Figure 2.** Between-population differences according to transcriptome sequencing. (a, b) Venn diagrams show the numbers of genes exhibiting differential transcript abundances under exposure to Cd (+Cd) compared to control conditions (-Cd) for the three populations Noss (N), Pais (P) and Wall (W) in root (a) and shoot (b) tissues. Upregulation (red):  $Log_2$ (fold change +Cd *vs.* –Cd) =  $Log_2FC > 0.5$ ; downregulation (blue):  $Log_2FC < -0.5$ ; all with adjusted *P*-value < 0.05. (c, d) Venn diagrams show the numbers of genes exhibiting differential transcript abundance between populations in root (c) and shoot (d) tissues of plants cultivated under Cd exposure (violet) or control conditions (orange) ( $|Log_2FC| > 0.5$ ; adjusted *P*-value < 0.05). Red lines surround genes differentially expressed between Noss and both populations of NM soils (Pais and Wall). Four-weekold vegetative clones were exposed to 2  $\mu$ M Cd or 0  $\mu$ M Cd (controls) in hydroponic culture for 16 d before harvest. Data are from three independent experiments (repeats), with two genotypes per population and material pooled from six replicate vegetative clones (three hydroponic culture vessels) per genotype in each experiment.

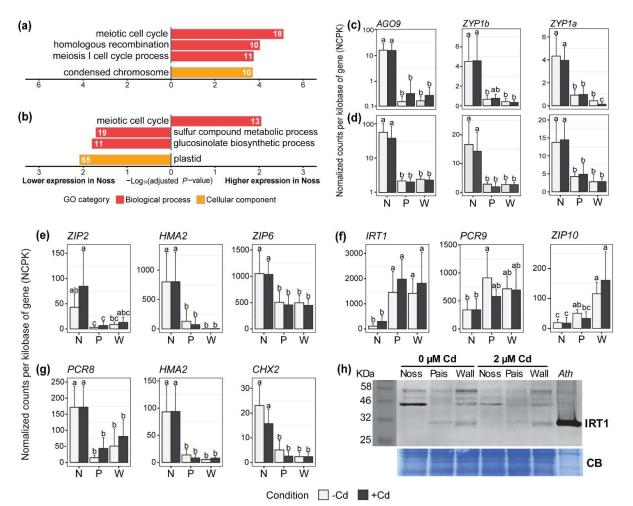
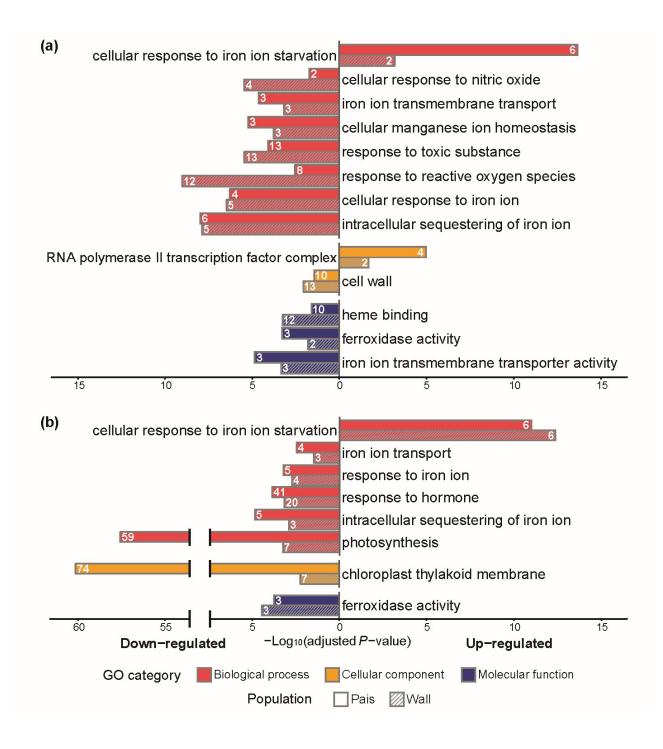
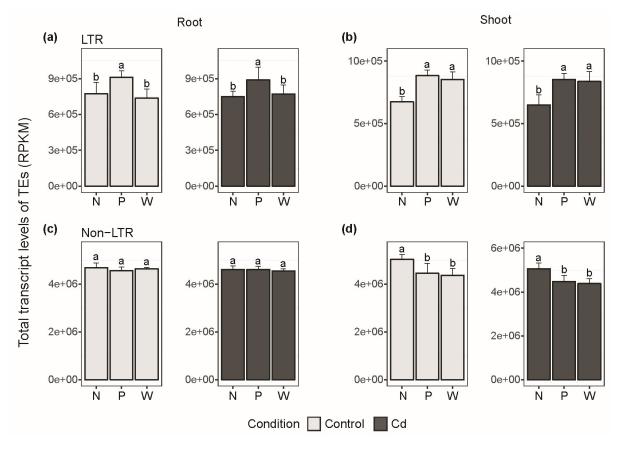


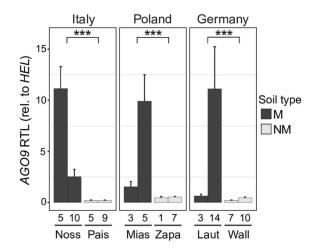
Figure 3. Candidate genes differentially expressed in Noss compared to both other populations Pais and Wall. (a, b) Significantly enriched gene ontology (GO) categories for roots (a) and shoots (b) of plants cultivated in 0 µM Cd (see Figure 2c and d, Dataset S3). Genes differentially expressed between Noss from M soil and both Pais and Wall from NM soils were subjected to a GO term enrichment analysis. The number of genes in each over-represented category is shown inside bars (see Dataset S4 for all genes). (c, d) Relative transcript levels of the top three genes (largest between-population differences) taken from (a) and (b) in the overrepresented GO category meiotic cell cycle, for roots (c) and shoots (d). (e-g) Relative transcript levels of metal homeostasis genes of which transcript levels are high (e, g) and low (f) in Noss (N) compared to both Pais (P) and Wall (W), for roots (e, f) and shoots (g) (top three genes from Table S8). Bars show means ± SD (n = 6) of normalized counts, which were additionally normalized per kilobase of gene length (NCPK). Different characters represent statistically significant groups based on two-way ANOVA, followed by Tukey's HSD test (P < 0.05, see Table S6, for details). Data are from the same experiment as shown in Figure 2. (H) Immunoblot of IRT1. Total protein extracts (40 µg) from roots of Noss 05, Pais 09 and Wall 07 were separated on a denaturing polyacrylamide gel, blotted, and detection was carried out using an anti-IRT1 antibody. Total protein extract (10 µg) from roots of Fe- and Zn-deficient A. thaliana (Ath, right lane) served as a positive control, with IRT1 detected as a single band at ca. 31 kDa. In A. halleri, additional bands at ca. 44, 48 and 56 kDa are likely to constitute non-specific ross-reactions of the antibody. Coomassie Blue (CB) stained membrane is shown as a loading control.



**Figure 4.** Functional classification of the transcriptional Cd responses in less metal-tolerant populations from NM sites. Significantly enriched GO categories among the transcriptional responses to Cd common in both the Pais and Wall populations for (a) roots and (b) shoots (see Figure 2a and b, Dataset S6). The numbers of genes in each over-represented category are shown inside bars. Data are from the same experiment as shown in Figure 2.



**Figure 5.** Genome-wide sum of transcript levels contributed by different types of transposable elements in Noss, Pais and Wall. (a-d) Bars show means  $\pm$  SD (n = 6) of transcript levels of transposable elements (TEs), corresponding to the sum total of RPKM for LTR (Long terminal repeat) retrotransposons (a, b) and non-LTR TEs (c, d) in root (a, c) and shoot (b, d), with RPKM  $\geq$  7 per locus. Different characters represent statistically significant differences based on one-way ANOVA, followed by Tukey's HSD test (P < 0.05).



**Figure 6.** ARGONAUTE 9 (AGO9) transcript levels in *A. halleri* individuals originating from geographically paired metalliferous and non-metalliferous sitess in Italy, Poland and Germany. Bargraphs show mean  $\pm$  SD (*n* = 4) of relative AGO9 transcript levels quantified by RT-qPCR in leaves of 5.5-week-old vegetative clones cultivated hydroponically (two independent PCR runs on each of two independently synthesized cDNAs from a homogenized pool of six replicate clones; all PCR reactions were conducted in hexuplicate). Data are shown relative to the constitutively expressed gene *Helicase (HEL)*. Asterisks represent statistically significant differences between M and NM site of each pair, based on one-way ANOVA of Log-transformed data, followed by Tukey's HSD test (\*\*\*, *P* < 0.001). For details on collection sites and individuals see Stein et al. (2017).