

BOTANICAL BRIEFING

K⁺ Nutrition and Na⁺ Toxicity: The Basis of Cellular K⁺/Na⁺ Ratios

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The capacity of plants to maintain a high cytosolic K^+/Na^+ ratio is likely to be one of the key determinants of plant salt tolerance. Important progress has been made in recent years regarding the identification and characterization of genes and transporters that contribute to the cytosolic K^+/Na^+ ratio. For K^+ uptake, K^+ efflux and K^+ translocation to the shoot, genes have been isolated that encode K^+ uptake and K^+ release ion channels and K^+ carriers that are coupled to either a H^+ or Na^+ gradient. Although the picture is less clear for the movement of Na^+ , one pathway, in the form of non-selective ion channels, is likely to play a role in Na^+ uptake, whereas Na^+ efflux and compartmentation are likely to be mediated by H^+ -coupled antiport. In addition, several proteins have been characterized that play prominent roles in the regulation of K^+ and/or Na^+ fluxes. In this Botanical Briefing we will discuss the functions and interactions of these genes and transporters in the broader context of K^+ nutrition and Na^+ toxicity.

Key words: Salinty, K^+/N^+ ratio, transporter, membrane.

INTRODUCTION

Plant growth depends on the supply of inorganic nutrients. Typically, plants are exposed to nutrient levels that vary widely in both time and space. To cope with such fluctuating environments plants have developed high levels of plasticity both at the individual level and within species and ecotypes. Nevertheless, extreme nutrient conditions will cause deficiency or toxicity to a varying extent for different plant species. This notion is clearly exemplified in the different degrees of salinity tolerance found in various plant species. Significant entry of Na⁺ will result in severe growth reduction or death in salt sensitive or glycophytic species, but may benefit halophytes.

Salt tolerance is not exclusively correlated with adaptations to Na⁺ toxicity *per se* but also reflects adaptations to secondary effects of salinity such as water deficit and impaired nutrient acquisition (Flowers, Troke and Yeo, 1977; Greenway and Munns, 1980). The latter is particularly pertinent where the acquisition of K⁺ is concerned due to the physicochemical similarities between Na⁺ and K⁺. The capacity of plants to counteract salinity stress will strongly depend on the status of their K⁺ nutrition. Conversely, although most plants can cope (i.e. show no symptoms of either deficiency or toxicity) with external K⁺ concentrations ranging from low μ M to tens of mM, the physiological 'window' of optimum K⁺ concentrations narrows in the presence of increasing amounts of Na⁺ (Marschner, 1995).

 K^+ is essential to all plant life, and in most terrestrial plants K^+ is the major cationic inorganic nutrient. The cellular roles that K^+ plays have been frequently reviewed

and can roughly be summarized as: (1) charge balancing in the cytoplasm, where K⁺ is the dominant counterion for the large excess of negative charge on proteins and nucleic acids; (2) activation of crucial enzymatic reactions such as occurring in the formation of pyruvate; and (3) a substantial contribution to the osmotic pressure of the vacuole and hence to cell turgor which endows non-lignified plant cells with structural rigidity. In contrast, Na⁺ is only essential for a number of C₄ species (for the translocation of pyruvate across the chloroplast envelope) where it functions as a micronutrient. In most other species Na⁺ does not act as a nutrient in the sense that it is strictly required for growth, but its addition to the growth medium may promote growth of many plants when the K⁺ supply is limited (Flowers and Läuchli, 1983) and in particular the growth of salt tolerant and halophytic plants by contributing to turgor formation. Although the availability of Na⁺ as a 'cheap' osmoticum

(e.g. Kochian and Lucas, 1988; Maathuis and Sanders, 1996)

Although the availability of Na⁺ as a 'cheap' osmoticum is generally beneficial, a large excess of Na⁺ ions over K⁺ is not, for several reasons. Firstly, the similar physicochemical structures of Na⁺ and K⁺ mean that Na⁺ competition at transport sites for K⁺ entry into the symplast may result in K⁺ deficiency. Secondly, cytoplasmic Na⁺ competes for K⁺ binding sites and hence inhibits metabolic processes that crucially depend on K⁺. Clearly, Na⁺ in the cytosol has to be restricted by limiting Na⁺ entry and/or operating an efficient system for Na⁺ efflux into the vacuole or the apoplast. Therefore, as has been pointed out by many authors (e.g. Yeo, 1998), one of the key elements in salinity tolerance is the capacity to maintain a high cytosolic K⁺/Na⁺ ratio.

In animal cells, K^+/Na^+ ratios of around 20 are maintained by strict regulation of cytosolic K^+ around 100 mM and Na^+ around 5 mM. Both ions are actively transported via the action of the K^+ -Na⁺ ATPase that moves K^+ into the cell

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FIG. 1. Key processes in plants that contribute to the establishment of cytoplasmic K^+/Na^+ ratios: (1) influx and efflux at the root/soil boundary; (2) translocation between root and shoot; (3) compartmentation e.g. into the vacuole.

and extrudes Na⁺. As in animal cells, cytosolic K⁺ is under close homeostatic control in plant cells with 'set point' values of 100–150 mM (Walker, Leigh and Miller, 1996). Estimates of cytosolic levels of Na⁺ in plant cells are based on X-ray analysis (Hajibagheri *et al.*, 1988) or the use of Na⁺-selective electrodes (Amtmann and Gradmann, 1994; Carden *et al.*, 1998) and range from low millimolar levels to around 100 mM. Therefore, a K⁺/Na⁺ ratio of around 1 provides a minimum value. Although lower than in animal cells, this value is many times higher than that found in saline external media. For instance, the K⁺/Na⁺ ratio of seawater is 0·02.

The K⁺/Na⁺ ratio that ultimately prevails in plant cells will depend on the concerted action of transport systems located at plasma and vacuolar membranes and probably involves K⁺ selective, Na⁺ selective and non-selective pathways. Key steps (Fig. 1) in the overall process can be identified at: (1) the soil/root-symplast interface where membranes of epidermal and cortical cells 'determine' which ion enters the symplast and to what extent; (2) the root/xylem interface in the form of xylem parenchyma cells where a second level of control can be exerted to adjust ion translocation to the shoot; and (3) partitioning, which may occur at a cellular level, between cytoplasm and vacuole, and at a tissue level, e.g. recirculation of Na⁺ and K⁺ between old and young leaves. In addition, there is the possibility of Na⁺ efflux into the root medium. However, in contrast to yeast (Rodriguez-Navarro, Quintero and Garciadeblas, 1994) and some halophytic algae (Katz *et al.*, 1991), there are no observations that indicate the presence of a Na⁺ efflux pump in higher plants, although there is circumstantial evidence for Na⁺/H⁺ antiport activity in some species (e.g. Wilson and Shannon, 1995).

Underlying all these processes is the activity of transport proteins in the membranes for which three main classes can be distinguished: (1) pumps: transporters fuelled by metabolic energy and able to transport substrates against an electrochemical gradient. Turnover rates are low, around 10^2 per second. A prime example is the ubiquitous H⁺-ATPase. No pumps have been identified in higher plants that directly transport K⁺ or Na⁺; (2) carriers: transport proteins that undergo specific conformational changes during substrate transport. They generally function in transport of substrates against a gradient, are energized via coupling to an electrochemical gradient and have turnovers of 10^2-10^3 per second. In plants, 'uphill' (high affinity) accumulation of K^+ is energized through coupling to the 'downhill' trans-membrane movement of H^+ , proceeding via a H^+ - K^+ symporter; (3) ion channels: proteins that catalyse the rapid 'downhill' dissipation of trans-membrane ionic gradients. Turnover rates are 10^6 - 10^8 per second and controlled via opening/closing (gating) of the channel. Channel gating is often under control of the membrane potential. The predominant type of channel found in plant membranes is K^+ selective: e.g. in guard cell membranes for the rapid release of K^+ during stomatal closure.

In this Botanical Briefing we will collate current data on the presence and regulation of individual membrane transporters for K^+ and/or Na⁺ and their impact on the cytoplasmic K^+/Na^+ ratio. We focus mainly on the soil/root interface since most knowledge regarding the molecular mechanisms of K^+ and, to a lesser extent, Na⁺ transport deals with the uptake of K^+ and Na⁺ into roots. In addition, since apoplastic loading of the xylem is low in most species (Yeo, 1998) the soil/root boundary ultimately determines the quantity and quality of the ionic species that enters the symplast.

CARRIERS INVOLVED IN K⁺ AND NA⁺ UPTAKE

High affinity potassium carriers

In most conditions K⁺ uptake from micromolar external concentrations is 'uphill' and mediated by a carrier (but see below) with a high affinity for K⁺ (10–50 μ M, Table 1). Two such mechanisms have been identified genetically in plant roots. Members of the plant *KUP-HAK* gene family (Fig. 2) were identified on the basis of homology to known genes from bacteria and fungi whereas *HKT1* was cloned by complementation of a yeast strain defective in K⁺-uptake with wheat root cDNA (Schachtman and Schroeder, 1994).

Members of the KUP-HAK gene family in plants were recently identified in barley (Santa-Maria et al., 1997) and Arabidopsis thaliana (Quintero and Blatt, 1997; Fu and Luan, 1998; Kim et al., 1998) by using RT-PCR. So far, at least two homologous genes have been found in barley (HvHAK1 and 2) and four in Arabidopsis (AtKT¹ or AtKUP 1-4). The Rb⁺ and K⁺ transport capacity of HAK-KUP gene products was analysed in yeast (Santa-Maria et al., 1997; Fu and Luan, 1998), in E. coli, or after overexpression in Arabidopsis cell suspension cultures (Kim et al., 1998). KUP-HAK transporters mediate K⁺ and Rb⁺ uptake with $K_{\rm m}$ values in the μ M range, similar to the values that are found for Rb⁺ uptake in intact plants. The exact mechanism by which these transporters move K⁺ is still under investigation but is believed to be via coupling to the H⁺ gradient (Santa-Maria et al., 1997). This would agree with an earlier conclusion, based on patch clamp studies, that high affinity K^+ transport in *Arabidopsis* root cells is H⁺-coupled (Maathuis and Sanders, 1994). KUP-HAK transporters are extremely selective for K^+ (K^+/Na^+ ratio of 1000) and are competitively blocked by Na⁺ when present in mM concentrations (Fig. 2, Santa-Maria *et al.*, 1997). This clearly creates the potential for severe K^+ depletion when external K^+/Na^+ ratios are low. Some studies report a lowaffinity component for AtKUP1-mediated K^+ transport (Quintero and Blatt, 1997; Fu and Luan, 1998). This issue remains ambiguous however, since the dissection of indigenous background fluxes from those induced by the expressed transporter are difficult in the low affinity range. Expression patterns of AtKUP1 differ in various reports and expression of at least one isoform (AtKUP3) is upregulated upon K⁺-starvation (Kim *et al.*, 1998).

The HKT1 gene product (Schachtman and Schroeder, 1994) shows weak homology to the TRK transporters of yeast as well as several genes from other fungi and bacteria involved in K⁺ transport. So far, HKT1 plant homologues have been found in rice (Golldack et al., 1997), barley (Wang et al., 1998) and Arabidopsis (Schachtman and Schroeder, 1994). Heterologous expression of HKT1 in Xenopus oocytes allowed its functional characterization (Rubio, Gassmann and Schroeder, 1995): HKT1-mediated K⁺ transport depends on the presence of Na⁺ with two K⁺ transported per one Na⁺. The K⁺ binding site has a $K_{\rm m}$ of about 3 μ M and the Na⁺ binding site a K_m of about 200 μ M. High affinity transport is highly selective for K⁺ compared to Cs⁺ and Li⁺. Rb⁺ permeability in the high affinity range can be detected but is much smaller (approx. 1:15) than K⁺ permeability. Although the expression of HKT1 in wheat and barley is induced by K⁺-starvation (Wang et al., 1998) the physiological relevance of the suggested high affinity K⁺ transport function of HKT1 remains controversial. Evidence from studies on various species, including wheat and Arabidopsis, supports the conclusion that the presence of external Na⁺ is not essential for either plant growth or highaffinity K^+ transport (Maathuis *et al.*, 1996) and it was concluded that Na⁺-coupled K⁺ transport has no or limited physiological relevance in terms of K⁺ uptake.

At higher ambient Na⁺ concentrations, both HKT1 binding sites are occupied by Na⁺. Hence, HKT1 type systems may be relevant for Na⁺ uptake rather than K⁺ uptake. Interestingly, HKT1 expression in rice is depressed during salt stress and a salt-sensitive rice variety was shown to maintain higher levels of HKT1 expression than a salttolerant variety (Golldack *et al.*, 1997). It can be summarized that HKT1 represents a putative pathway for high-affinity K⁺ uptake and low-affinity Na⁺ uptake, but its role in uptake of both ions is probably minor compared to other systems functioning in plants and may be limited to special cell types.

Low-affinity cation carriers

Together with *HKT1*, *LCT1* was cloned from wheat by complementation of yeast (Schachtman *et al.*, 1997). In contrast to HKT1, which restored yeast growth at micromolar K^+ concentrations, LCT1 rescued the yeast cells only on media containing low millimolar concentrations of K^+ , indicating that LCT1 may be involved in low affinity K^+ transport. The LCT1 sequence does not show any homology to known proteins but LCT1 transformed yeast cells show

¹ This nomenclature is no longer used; the AtKT genes are part of the KUP/HAK family.

Gene		Expression		Putative			
product	Species	pattern	$K_{ m m}$	localization	Putative function	Coupling	Reference
HvHAK	H. vulgare	Root	$K^+ = 27 \ \mu M$ $Rb^+ = 18 \ \mu M$	Plasma membrane	High-affinity uptake of K ⁺	K ⁺ -H ⁺ symport	Santa-Maria et al., 1977
AtKUP1	A. thaliana	Stem, leaves and flowers	$Rb^+ = 22 \mu M$	Plasma membrane	High-affinity K ⁺ uptake	K^+-H^+ symport	Kim et al., 1998
		Root and stem	$Rb^+ = 44 \ \mu m/11 \ mm$		Dual affinity K ⁺ uptake		Fu and Luan, 1998
HKT1	T. aestivum	Root cortex, leaves (around vascular tissue)	$K^+ = 3 \ \mu M$ $Rb^+ = 15 \ \mu M$ $Na^+ = 175 \ \mu M$	Plasma membrane	High-affinity K ⁺ uptake	K ⁺ -Na ⁺ symport	Rubio et al., 1995
			$Na^+ = 4.6 \text{ mm}$		Low-affinity Na ⁺ uptake	Na ⁺ -Na ⁺ symport	Gassmann, Rubio and Schroeder, 1996
LCT1	T. aestivum	Root and leaves	mM for K^+ , Rb^+ and Na^+	Plasma membrane	Low-affinity K^+ , Na^+ and Ca^{2+} ,	Uniport?	Schachtman et al., 1997
AtNHX	A. thaliana	Root, stem, leaves flowers		Tonoplast	uptake Na ⁺ accumulation in the vacuole	Na ⁺ -H ⁺ antiport	Clemens <i>et al.</i> , 1998 Apse <i>et al.</i> , 1998

TABLE 1. Gene	products involved	in	carrier-mediated	transport	of	K^{+}	and Na ⁺
	1						



FIG. 2. Carrier and channel transport systems that are involved in influx, efflux, translocation and compartmentation of K⁺ and Na⁺. Negative signs denote inhibition, positive signs denote activation. For details see text.

increased low-affinity uptake of Rb^+ as well as Na^+ , consistent with a non-selective pathway. Rb^+ uptake was strongly reduced by external Ca^{2+} , an ion that also permeates LCT1. Ca^{2+} inhibition of low-affinity Na^+ uptake in plants has been frequently reported and it is tempting to speculate that LCT1 may play a significant role as a pathway for Na^+ uptake in high-salt conditions. Complementation studies in a yeast strain with a deletion in *mid1*, a putative yeast Ca^{2+} channel subunit (Clemens *et al.*, 1998), suggest that LCT1 may also function in Ca^{2+} transport.

CHANNELS INVOLVED IN K⁺ AND Na⁺ UPTAKE

Three types of ion channel have been implicated in the transport of monovalent cations (Fig. 2). They can be distinguished by their ion selectivity and gating behaviour. The proportion of time that so-called KIRCs (K^+ inward rectifying channels) spend in the open state (expressed by their open probability) increases whenever the membrane voltage becomes more negative. And, since channel ac-

tivation usually occurs at voltages more negative than the equilibrium potential for K+, KIRCs only allow movement of K⁺ into the cell. KORCs (K⁺ outward rectifying channels) have opposite gating characteristics and thus favour K⁺ efflux. The open probability of VICs (voltage independent channels) does not change with voltage. All three classes are capable, at least to some extent, of transporting K⁺ and Na⁺.

KIRCs

Characterization of KIRCs in plant cell membranes is based on a vast amount of electrophysiological data (for review see Maathuis et al., 1997). KIRCs were the first plant ion channels to be identified at a molecular level (Table 2; Anderson et al., 1992; Sentenac et al., 1992). In spite of mediating inward current, KIRCs show a high degree of homology to animal Shaker-channels which are exclusively outward rectifying. KIRCs have been found in most plant cell types and are involved in many physiological processes; in particular KIRCs in the plasma membrane of root epidermal and cortical cells have been shown to be the main pathway for low-affinity K⁺ uptake by plants (Gassmann, Ward and Schroeder, 1993; Maathuis and Sanders, 1995). Most KIRCs are highly selective for K⁺ over Na⁺ as well as divalent cations but usually allow considerable passage of Rb^+ and NH_{A^+} (for a detailed list of K^+/Na^+ permeability ratios of KIRCs see Amtmann and Sanders, 1999) and it is concluded that in general the contribution of KIRCs to lowaffinity Na⁺ uptake is minor.

With the molecular identification of KIRCs and other transport systems, their functional characterization becomes ever more urgent. In planta, the production of null mutants (knock-out mutants) where a specific gene is disrupted is an elegant approach. The isolation of akt1-1 (an Arabidopsis AKT1 null mutant; Hirsch et al., 1998) has revealed that the simple division of carrier-mediated K⁺ transport with a high affinity, and channel-mediated K⁺ transport with a low affinity may be an oversimplification. Although AKT1 is believed to play a major role in root K⁺ uptake (Lagarde et al., 1996), akt1-1 showed diminished K⁺ uptake from micromolar external concentrations but not from millimolar concentrations. These results indicate that AKT1 may play a role in high affinity K^+ uptake and that an alternative pathway for low affinity K⁺ transport is available (e.g. via other KIRCs or VICs, see below). The akt1-1 null mutant showed similar salt sensitivity as the wildtype (Hirsch et al.,

1998) suggesting no or a minor role for AKT1 in Na⁺ uptake.

KORCs

KORCs have been characterized by patch-clamp experiments in many different plant species and tissues (for a list of K⁺/Na⁺ permeability ratios of KORCs see Amtmann and Sanders, 1999). The main function of KORCs is assumed to be in stabilizing the membrane potential and/or providing a K⁺ release pathway. Nevertheless it is worth considering KORCs with respect to cation uptake by plants. Although K⁺ uptake via KORCs is unlikely, the driving force for Na⁺ may be directed inward when these channels are open and Na⁺ permeable KORCs could therefore provide a pathway for Na⁺ uptake. However, quantitative modelling of KORC Na⁺-currents on the basis of typical features of KORC selectivity and gating (Amtmann and Sanders, 1999) as well as comparison of KORCs in saltsensitive and tolerant wheat varieties (Schachtman, Tyerman and Terry, 1991) do not support this hypothesis.

VICs

VICs were first analysed in lipid bilayers containing plant plasma membrane fractions (White and Tester, 1992) and were subsequently observed in patch clamp experiments on protoplasts of various tissue origin (for review see Amtmann and Sanders, 1999) including wheat and maize roots. In general VICs are non-selective amongst monovalent and in some cases even divalent cations. Calculations of K⁺ and Na⁺ currents through an ensemble of KIRCs and VICs based on typical characteristics of both channel types leads to the conclusion that the contribution of VICs to K⁺ influx is negligible since they are usually present in very small numbers compared to KIRCs. However, in conditions with high external Na^+/K^+ ratios such as a typical saline environment, VICs, if open, would allow massive influx of Na⁺ into the cell over a wide range of voltages (Amtmann and Sanders, 1999).

Physiological evidence for a role of VICs in low affinity Na⁺ uptake stems from the remarkable agreement between Ca²⁺ inhibition of Na⁺ permeation through VICs, with the effect of Ca²⁺ on Na⁺ influx into intact tissue (see below). Additional proposed roles for VICs include the stabilization of membrane potential and fast adaptation to osmotic stress. Also, it is speculated that this type of channel

to shoot

Gene	Species	Type	Expression	Inhibitors	Function	Reference
AKT1	A. thaliana	KIRC	Root cortex	Cs ⁺ /TEA/Ba ²⁺	Low and high affinity K ⁺ uptake	Hirsch et al., 1998
AKT2	A. thaliana	KIRC	Leaves	?		Cao et al., 1995
KAT1	A. thaliana	KIRC	Guard cell	Cs^+/Ba^{2+}	Stomatal opening	Anderson et al., 1992
SKT1	S. tuberosum	KIRC	Root Leaf epidermis	Cs ^{+'}	Root K ⁺ uptake	Zimmermann et al., 1998
KST1	S. tuberosum	KIRC	Guard cells	Cs^+/Ba^{2+}	Stomatal opening	Müller-Röber et al., 1995
SKOR	A. thaliana	KORC	Root pericycle	Ba ²⁺ /TEA	Translocation	Gaymard et al., 1998

TABLE 2. Genes encoding ion channels involved in K^+ transport

participates in the uptake of NH_4^+ (Tyerman, Whitehead and Day, 1995; White, 1996).

CARRIERS INVOLVED IN Na⁺ COMPARTMENTATION

Intracellular compartmentation of toxic solutes is a prerequisite for maintaining cellular integrity. Compartmentation of Na⁺ in the vacuole avoids build up of cytoplasmic Na⁺ (Fig. 2), raises the cytoplasmic K^+/Na^+ ratio and contributes to the vacuolar osmotic potential. In a number of species a Na⁺/H⁺ antiport is present in the tonoplast which allows accumulation of Na⁺ in the vacuole by using the trans-tonoplast H⁺ gradient as driving force [see Barkla and Pantoja (1996) for review]. Na⁺/H⁺ antiport exhibits K_m values in the mM region and is sometimes inhibited by amiloride. In Arabidopsis the genes for AtNHX1-3 were cloned and all show high homology with yeast and mammalian Na⁺/H⁺ antiporters (Apse et al., 1998). Expression is observed in all tissues, although functional analysis of the AtNHX products have not yet been carried out and physiological role as well as membrane location are yet to be established.

In general, tonoplast Na⁺/H⁺ antiport activity is induced by growth in NaCl (Barkla and Pantoja, 1996). Activity has only been reported for salt tolerant species such as red beet, sugar beet, barley and *Plantago maritima*, but appears absent in salt sensitive species such as *Plantago media*. The functioning of Na⁺/H⁺ antiport is therefore likely to be important in halotolerance and it is unclear whether glycophytes contain alternative Na⁺ accumulating mechanisms or rely solely on passive Na⁺ distribution over the tonoplast.

K⁺ AND Na⁺ TRANSLOCATION TO THE SHOOT

Growing plants with a shoot/root ratio > 1 will translocate most K^+ that enters the root symplast to the shoot. Yet, the majority of glycophytes tend to exclude Na⁺ from the shoot by retaining it in the root and lower stem. The latter strategy is only successful at low to moderate external concentrations of Na⁺ and relies on the selective release of Na⁺ into the xylem and its resorption from the xylem stream. Several transport mechanisms that contribute to the translocation of K⁺ and Na⁺ and some aspects of their regulation have now been identified.

The Arabidopsis gene SKOR (Gaymard et al., 1998) encodes a channel protein which is also a member of the Shaker family but displays gating characteristics that favour outward K⁺ flux. SKOR has an important role in the translocation of K⁺ to the shoot. GUS constructs with the SKOR promoter show high levels of expression in the root pericycle (Gaymard et al., 1998). The SKOR expression pattern agrees with results from patch clamp experiments on maize roots which showed large K⁺ outward currents in root stelar protoplasts as opposed to K⁺ inward currents in cortical protoplasts (Roberts and Tester, 1995). Furthermore ABA, a plant hormone involved in drought-response of plants (Behl and Jeschke, 1981), reduces both outward currents in maize stelar protoplasts (Roberts, 1998) and SKOR expression levels (Gaymard *et al.*, 1998). Transgenic *Arabidopsis* with knock-out mutations of SKOR display decreased shoot K^+ contents (Gaymard *et al.*, 1998) confirming its role in K^+ translocation to the shoot.

In addition to KORCs which are highly selective for K⁺ over Na⁺ (including KORCs in maize and barley stelar protoplasts and SKOR), a second type of outward-rectifying channel which does not discriminate between monovalent cations (NORC) has been found in patch clamp experiments on barley xylem parenchyma protoplasts (Wegner and Raschke, 1994; Wegner and De Boer, 1997). Opening of this channel requires μ M concentrations of cytoplasmic Ca²⁺ and creates a potential passage for Na⁺ release into the xylem. NORC remains to be identified at the gene level and its exact role is not yet clear. However, data suggest a regulatory role for cytoplasmic Ca²⁺ in Na⁺ compartmentation between root and shoot and this process may involve a NORC-mediated Na⁺ release pathway into the stele.

A xylem parenchyma KIRC (Wegner and Raschke, 1994) with relatively low cation selectivity may also be implemented in Na⁺ compartmentation (Fig. 2), since it potentially functions in basal parts of the xylem in Na⁺ resorption (Maathuis *et al.*, 1997).

MODULATION OF K⁺/Na⁺ RATIO BY EXTERNAL Ca²⁺

Application of external Ca^{2+} has long been known to ameliorate salinity stress symptoms in many species. Although this effect is probably based on several phenomena (Kinraide, 1998), a clear physiological basis is now available from the many studies on the impact of Ca^{2+} on ion channels. Several KIRCs are blocked by external Ca^{2+} but such blockage is usually very weak (e.g. Roberts and Tester, 1995). External Ca^{2+} has also been described to affect the open probability of KORCs in tobacco culture cells. A 100fold increase in Ca^{2+} from 0·1 to 10 mM led to a three-fold reduction in KORC mediated current (Murata *et al.*, 1998).

A direct effect of Ca^{2+} on the movement of Na^+ is manifested in VICs: VIC-mediated Na^+ currents in wheat and maize root protoplasts were strongly reduced by external Ca^{2+} in the range of 0.01 to 1 mM. K_d s of Ca^{2+} inhibition in patch clamp experiments (around 300 μ M; Roberts and Tester, 1997; Tyerman *et al.*, 1997) agree perfectly with K_d s for Ca^{2+} inhibition of Na⁺ flux measurements in intact roots (Zidan *et al.*, 1991; Davenport, Reid and Smith, 1997; Tyerman and Skerrett, 1999). Such findings not only implicate VICs as a major pathway for Na⁺ uptake but provide an explanation of how increased external Ca^{2+} leads to lower Na⁺ uptake and therefore helps to establish a high K⁺/Na⁺ ratio. Therefore, down-regulation of this channel type must be crucial for salt-tolerance.

Apart from its direct effects, external Ca^{2+} also interferes with signalling cascades that involve cytoplasmic Ca^{2+} . This was clearly demonstrated for the *Arabidopsis* salt oversensitive (sos3) mutant where the salt sensitive phenotype was reverted by increased external Ca^{2+} (Liu and Zhu, 1997, see below). TABLE 3. Genes products involved in K^+/Na^+ ratio

Gene product	Species	Action	Reference
SOS3	A. thaliana	Affects both K ⁺ and Na ⁺ movement, possibly via Ca ²⁺ , calmodulin and calcineurin	Liu and Zhu, 1998
KNA1	T. aestivum	K ⁺ and Na ⁺ partitioning in leaves	Dubcovsky et al., 1996
SAL1	S. tuberosum	Regulation of Na ⁺ and Li ⁺ fluxes, possibly via inositol phosphate signalling	Quintero et al., 1996
HAL1	S. cerevisiae	Promotes Na^+ efflux and restricts K^+ efflux	Bordas et al., 1997



FIG. 3. Putative signalling pathway that impacts on transport of K^+ and Na^+ . Na^+ stress initiates a rise in cytoplasmic Ca^{2+} which in turn activates calmodulin (CAM). Subsequent binding of calmodulin and Ca^{2+} to calcineurin (CN, a Ca^{2+} /calmodulin dependent phosphatase) leads to modulation of transcription factors and/or direct modulation of K^+ and Na^+ transport systems. Negative signs denote inhibition. Tfp, Trifluoperazine.

GENES THAT AFFECT K⁺ / Na⁺ RATIOS

Plant membranes contain a large number of transporters that contribute to the movement of K^+ and Na^+ . The relative magnitudes of influx, efflux and translocation ultimately determine the steady state levels of both ions (Fig. 1). Little is known about the regulation of these transport systems and how cells sense cytoplasmic ion levels. For K^+ , it has been proposed that part of the regulation stems from allosteric feedback that ensures down-regulation of K^+ uptake when cytoplasmic K^+ is

abundant (Glass and Fernando, 1992), but split root experiments have shown that long distance signals must also play a role (Marschner, 1995). Whatever the exact process is, since plants strictly control their cytoplasmic K^+ , this almost certainly implies the presence of a K^+ sensing mechanism. On the other hand 'Na⁺ sensing' may be limited to general perception of ionic/drought stress and/or K^+ deficiency. Nevertheless, several genes have now been identified in yeast and plants that appear to be involved in ionic homeostasis by modulating the movement of K^+ and Na⁺ (Table 3). As a second messenger, Ca^{2+} is involved in signalling cascades that modify transport activities. Studies on yeast cells showed Ca^{2+} , and calmodulin-based signalling pathways that affect uptake ratios of K⁺ and Na⁺. One pathway of Na⁺ stress perception in yeast mediates a raise in cytoplasmic Ca^{2+} , subsequently leading to activation of the phosphatase calcineurin which in turn modifies the action of both Na⁺ efflux and K⁺ influx systems (Bressan, Hasegawa and Pardo, 1998). Calcineurin activates ENA¹ pumps that are responsible for Na⁺ efflux. At the same time, the main K⁺ uptake system TRK1 is switched from a rather nonselective mode (low K⁺/Na⁺ selectivity) to a K⁺-selective mode. Both processes tend to reduce the cytoplasmic Na⁺ load and increase the K⁺/Na⁺ ratio.

An analogous signalling cascade appears to be present in plants (Fig. 3). From a NaCl based mutant screen in Arabidopsis, SOS3, a locus involved in hypersensitivity to Na⁺ and Li⁺, was identified (Liu and Zhu, 1997). In addition to salt over-sensitivity, sos3 plants are unable to grow on low K⁺. Both components of the phenotype, Na⁺ oversensitivity and reduced high affinity K⁺ transport, were partly suppressed by increased (> 3 mM) levels of external Ca²⁺. The nature of the link between external Ca²⁺ and SOS3 was only revealed after the gene was sequenced: SOS3 codes for a protein that shows 27-31% sequence identity with the B subunit of the Ca2+ dependent calcineurin and a neuronal Ca2+ sensor (Liu and Zhu, 1998). As in yeast, cytosolic Ca²⁺ in plants is increased in response to salinity shock (Knight, Trewavas and Knight, 1997) and, similar to the pathway in yeast (Mendoza et al., 1994), a calcineurin-like phosphatase in plants may impact on the K^+/Na^+ ratio. This could occur directly by modifying transport activities or indirectly via the activation of transport specific transcription factors.

Increasing additional support for the signalling pathway described above is emerging: transformation of tobacco with a constitutively activated yeast calcineurin conferred salt tolerance to several transgenic lines (Pardo *et al.*, 1998). Also, growth experiments with wildtype *Arabidopsis* plants exposed to various antagonists of the proposed signalling cascade show that the calcineurin inhibitor cyclosporin and the calmodulin antagonist trifluoperazine have little effect on plant growth in the absence of Na⁺ but greatly reduce growth in the presence of Na⁺ (C. Elphick and F. Maathuis unpubl. res.).

Other plant and yeast genes have been isolated that alter the cellular K⁺/Na⁺ ratio and impact on salt tolerance. In yeast, expression of HAL1 is induced by salt and causes a rise in cellular K⁺ and a decrease in Na⁺ (Gaxiola *et al.*, 1992). Transcription of *HAL1* induces ENA1 expression in a calcineurin independent way and hence favours Na⁺ extrusion. HAL1 also restricts K⁺ efflux through a hitherto unknown pathway (Bordas *et al.*, 1997). The combined effects of HAL1 effectively increase the intracellular K⁺/Na⁺ ratio from 1 to 4 (Gaxiola *et al.*, 1992). The *HAL1* gene is conserved in plants, and transformation of melon with HAL1 produced a higher degree of salt tolerance in transgenic than in untransformed cultured shoots.

The yeast gene *HAL2* encodes a salt-sensitive enzyme in yeast sulphur metabolism and homologous genes have been identified in *Arabidopsis* (SAL1) and rice (Quintero, Garciadeblas and Rodriguez-Navarro, 1996). Although the exact role of *SAL* type genes remains to be elucidated, it is speculated that the product of SAL1 is involved in a signalling pathway that affects Na⁺ fluxes.

In hexaploid wheat, more K^+ and less Na⁺ is accumulated in young expanding leaves compared to tetraploid wheat (Dubcovsky *et al.*, 1996). The resulting higher leaf K^+/Na^+ ratio in the hexaploid variety is reflected in its greater salt tolerance. This trait was found to be controlled by a single locus KNA1. Although it is not known what KNA codes for, it does not resemble any transport protein. However, KNA might encode a regulatory protein that affects resorption of K^+ and/or Na⁺ from the leaf xylem, the recycling of either ion through the leaf phloem, or both processes.

The overall picture that emerges from reports on genes involved in K⁺/Na⁺ homeostasis suggests that genes such as SOS, KNA and SAL are involved in modulation of K⁺ and/or Na⁺ transporter activities. Modulation of transport activity may occur directly if genes are part of a signalling cascade that, for instance, affects transporter phosphorylation status via phosphatases and kinases. This is exemplified by the phophoinositide and phosphatase activities of SAL and SOS genes, respectively. Alternatively, geneproducts of SOS, KNA and SAL may be, or act on, transcription factors that affect expression levels of specific transporters as is the case in yeast where salt stress stimulates over expression of the Na⁺ extrusion pump.

CONCLUSIONS

The capacity of plants to maintain a high cytosolic K^+/Na^+ ratio is likely to be one of the key determinants of plant salt tolerance. The overall K⁺/Na⁺ ratio is heritable in species such as wheat but not in others such as rice (Garcia et al., 1997), and probably involves the contribution of different genes in different species. The steady state levels of both ions will be a function of many transport steps involved in the uptake, efflux, translocation and compartmentation. The influx of K^+ at the root boundary has now, to a large extent, been characterized for both high and low affinity uptake. Far less clear is how Na⁺ enters the root symplast, although there is accumulating evidence that non-selective VICs play a substantial role. As a generalization, it can be concluded that K^+ uptake at the root/soil boundary is via highly K^+ selective pathways whereas Na⁺, at least in part, appears to move through less selective systems which in some cases are blocked by Ca²⁺.

In addition, we now partially understand the underlying processes and genes that are involved in K⁺ translocation to the shoot and compartmentation of Na⁺ in the vacuole. Further identification and functional characterization of genes such as *SOS*, *KNA* and *SAL* will increasingly show us how plants modulate K⁺ and Na⁺ transport activities in order to establish ionic homeostasis.

 $^{^1}$ Efflux of Na+: these are ATP-fuelled pumps that extrude Na+ in yeast.

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