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1	Extraordinarily high leaf seleniu	um to sulphur ratios define "Se-accumulator" plants							
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Abstract

- Background: Selenium (Se) and sulphur (S) exhibit similar chemical properties.
 In flowering plants (angiosperms) selenate and sulphate are acquired and assimilated by common transport and metabolic pathways. It is hypothesized that most angiosperm species show little or no discrimination in the accumulation of Se and S in leaves when their roots are supplied a mixture of selenate and sulphate, but some, termed Se-accumulator plants, selectively accumulate Se in preference to S under these conditions.
 - *Methods:* This paper surveys Se and S accumulation in leaves of 39 angiosperm species, chosen to represent the range of plant Se accumulation phenotypes, grown hydroponically under identical conditions.
 - Results: The data show that, when supplied a mixture of selenate and sulphate, (1) plant species differ in both their leaf Se ([Se]_{leaf}) and leaf S ([S]_{leaf}) concentrations, (2) most angiosperms show little discrimination for the accumulation of Se and S in their leaves and, in non-accumulator plants, [Se]_{leaf} and [S]_{leaf} are highly correlated, (3) [Se]_{leaf} in Se-accumulator plants is significantly greater than other angiosperms, but [S]_{leaf}, although high, is within the range expected for angiosperms in general, and (4) the Se/S quotient in leaves of Se-accumulator plants is significantly higher than other angiosperms.
 - Conclusion: The traits of extraordinarily high [Se]_{leaf} and leaf Se/S quotients define the distinct elemental composition of Se-accumulator plants.

Key words: Angiosperm, *Astragalus*, *Brassica*, leaf, mineralogy, selenium, sulphur.

INTRODUCTION

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3 Sulphur (S) and selenium (Se) are both naturally occurring Group VIA elements and 4 exhibit similar chemical properties (Dhillon and Dhillon, 2003; Sors et al., 2005b; 5 Broadley et al., 2006; White et al., 2007). Although S is an essential element for plant 6 nutrition (Mengel and Kirkby, 2001), Se does not appear to be required for plant growth 7 or reproduction, and excessive Se concentrations can be toxic (Dhillon and Dhillon, 8 2003; White et al., 2004, 2007; Broadley et al., 2006). 9 Species of flowering plants (angiosperms) differ in their abilities to accumulate S 10 (Hurd-Karrer, 1937; Willey and Wilkins, 2006) and Se (Rosenfeld and Beath, 1964; 11 Brown and Shrift, 1982; Dhillon and Dhillon, 2003; White et al., 2004). For example, 12 brassicas and alliums accumulate unique organo-S compounds in their tissues and, 13 consequently, have higher tissue S concentrations than many other plants grown under 14 the same conditions (Mengel and Kirkby, 2001; Willey and Wilkins, 2006). Similarly, 15 although there is little variation in shoot Se concentrations ([Se]_{shoot}) between angiosperm orders, there is considerable variation in [Se]_{shoot} between plant species within orders 16 17 (White et al., 2004). Indeed, angiosperms have been divided into three ecological types of 18 'non-accumulator', 'Se-indicator' and 'Se-accumulator' plants (Rosenfeld and Beath, 19 1964; Shrift, 1969; Brown and Shrift, 1982; Dhillon and Dhillon, 2003; White et al., 2004). Non-accumulator plants are unable to grow on seleniferous soils and Se is toxic at 20 tissue concentrations as low as 10 - 100 µg Se g⁻¹ dry matter (Rosenfeld and Beath, 1964; 21 22 White et al., 2004), whereas Se-indicator plants can colonise both non-seleniferous and

seleniferous soils and tolerate tissue Se concentrations approaching 1000 µg Se g⁻¹ dry

1 matter (Rosenfeld and Beath, 1964; Moreno Rodriguez et al., 2005). The distribution of 2 Se-accumulator plants is generally restricted to seleniferous soils, where their shoots can contain up to 20 - 40 mg Se g⁻¹ dry matter (Rosenfeld and Beath, 1964; Brown and Shrift, 3 4 1982). However, this ecological classification confounds the traits of Se accumulation 5 and Se tolerance. A recent meta-analysis of literature data (White et al., 2004) suggests that [Se]_{shoot} exhibits a continuous distribution among angiosperm species and, although 6 7 Se accumulator plants generally have a higher [Se]_{shoot} than other angiosperm species, it 8 is unclear whether they form a discrete subset of angiosperm [Se]_{shoot} consistent with the 9 epithet "Se-accumulator plants". Plants acquire Se primarily as selenate (SeO₄²⁻), which enters root cells through 10 high affinity sulphate transporters (HASTs) in their plasma membrane (Terry et al., 2000; 11 12 White et al., 2004, 2007; Sors et al., 2005b). The genome of the model plant, Arabidopsis 13 thaliana, contains 14 genes encoding sulfate transporters, and a similar number are 14 present in the genomes of other plant species (Hawkesford, 2005; Hawkesford and De 15 Kok, 2006). Several sulphate transporters appear to contribute to selenate uptake and 16 accumulation. Circumstantial evidence suggests that these sulphate transporters differ in 17 their selectivity between selenate and sulphate. Not only do different plant species 18 (Rosenfeld and Beath, 1964; Bell et al., 1992; Galeas et al., 2007) and ecotypes of plant 19 species (Feist and Parker, 2001) have contrasting shoot Se/S quotients when grown under 20 the same conditions, but also the shoot Se/S quotients of a single plant genotype, such as 21 Arabidopsis thaliana accession Col-5 gl1, changes with its complement of root HASTs 22 (White et al., 2004). It is thought that Se-accumulator plants, such as Astragalus 23 bisulcatus and Stanleya pinnata, always have shoot Se/S quotients greater than those in

1 the rhizosphere solution (Bell et al., 1992; Feist and Parker, 2001; Ellis and Salt, 2003; 2 Galeas et al., 2007), whereas all other angiosperms have similar or lower shoot Se/S 3 quotients than those of the rhizosphere solution (Hurd-Karrer, 1937; Bell et al., 1992; 4 Barak and Goldman, 1997; Kopsell and Randle, 1997, 1999; Feist and Parker, 2001; 5 Grieve et al., 2001; Suarez et al., 2003; White et al., 2004; Galeas et al., 2007). It is, 6 therefore, hypothesized that the dominant HASTs of Se-accumulator plants are selective 7 for selenate, whereas those in other angiosperm species are selective for sulphate (White 8 et al., 2004; Sors et al., 2005b; Broadley et al., 2006). These distinct phenotypes have 9 been reported for only a limited number of plant species, but, if the observation and 10 hypothesis are correct, then the protein structure of the HASTs from Se-accumulator 11 plants could be used to identify the elusive molecular determinant for the anionic 12 selectivity of sulphate transporters. 13 In the present study, 39 plant species chosen to represent the range and 14 distribution of [Se]_{shoot} estimated for 185 angiosperm species in a previous literature 15 survey (White et al., 2004) were grown hydroponically in a glasshouse in a solution with 16 a complete mineral complement containing 910 μM sulphate and 0.63 μM selenate. 17 Preliminary experiments suggested that this selenate concentration was unlikely to result 18 in toxic tissue Se concentrations. Leaf Se concentrations ([Se]_{leaf}) were determined to test 19 whether the [Se]_{leaf} of Se-accumulator plants was distinct from the [Se]_{leaf} of other 20 angiosperms, and leaf S concentrations ([S]_{leaf}) were determined to assess whether [S]_{leaf} 21 or leaf Se/S quotients differed between Se-accumulator plants and other angiosperms. 22 From these new analyses, it was concluded that, when grown hydroponically at low, non-23 toxic Se concentrations: (1) [Se]_{leaf} was significantly greater in Se-accumulator plants than in other angiosperms, (2) [S]_{leaf}, although high in Se-accumulator plants, is within

2 the range expected for angiosperms in general, and (3) the leaf Se/S quotient had a

discontinuous distribution among angiosperm species, with the Se/S quotients in leaves

of Se-accumulator plants being significantly greater than those in other angiosperms. The

latter, discrete compositional trait could be used to identify Se-accumulator species for

subsequent molecular studies.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Thirty nine plant species were grown in this study (Table 1). These were chosen to represent the range and distribution of relative shoot Se concentrations ([Se]_{shoot}) estimated for 185 angiosperm species in a previous literature survey (White *et al.*, 2004). Seeds of *Astragalus glycyphyllos* and *Astragalus racemosus* were obtained from B and T World Seeds (Paguignan, France). Seeds of *Atriplex hortensis*, *Beta vulgaris*, *Bouteloua gracilis*, *Cucumis sativa*, *Helianthus annuus*, *Linum usitatissimum*, *Oryza sativa*, *Oryzopsis hymenoides*, *Raphanus sativa*, *Solanum melongena*, *Sporobolus airoides*, *Trifolium pratense* and *Trifolium repens* were obtained from Chiltern Seeds (Ulveston, UK). Seeds of *Agrostis stolonifera*, *Brassica arvense*, *Brassica juncea*, *Brassica nigra*, *Bromopsis inermis*, *Cynodon dactylon*, *Dactylis glomerata*, *Holcus lanata*, *Lolium multiflorum*, *Medicago lupulina*, *Medicago sativa*, *Panicum miliaceum*, *Sinapis alba*, *Sorghum bicolor* and *Trifolium subterraneum* were obtained from Herbiseed (Twyford,

UK). Solanum tuberosum was obtained from Higgins Agriculture (Doncaster, UK). Seeds

of Brassica carinata, Brassica oleracea, Hordeum vulgare and Lycopersicon pennellii 1 2 were obtained from Horticulture Research International (Wellesbourne, UK). Seeds of 3 Machaeranthera bigelovii were obtained from Rocky Mountain Rare Plants (Franktown, 4 USA). Seeds of Astragalus sinicus were obtained from Sheffield's Seed Company 5 (Locke, USA). Seeds of Machaeranthera tanacetifolia and Stanleya pinnata were 6 obtained from Western Native Seed (Coaldale, USA). Seeds were germinated, seedlings 7 were weaned, and plants were grown in a hydroponic system using a nutrient film 8 technique essentially as described by Broadley et al. (2003, 2004). The experiment was 9 performed between July and August 2004. All seeds were germinated in the dark on filter 10 paper moistened with deionized water at either 25 °C or 4 °C. Once a radicle was 11 observed, individual seedlings were transplanted to rockwool plugs (2.5 x 2.5 x 4 cm; 12 Grodan, Hedehusene, Denmark), which were placed in plastic trays containing tap water 13 in a weaning room at 25 °C. Three to five days after transplanting, rockwool plugs 14 containing individual plants were transferred to a hydroponic system in a glasshouse at 15 Wellesbourne, UK. The hydroponic system comprised six covered gullies (5.15 m length x 0.11 m width x 0.05 m depth) constructed from flat-bottomed PVC guttering. The 16 17 gullies were spaced 0.26 m apart (centre-to-centre). Circular holes were cut with equal 18 spacing in the covers of the gulleys and two rockwool plugs, containing plants of the 19 same species, were placed in each hole such that their bases rested directly on the bottom 20 of the gully. The statistical design allocated all 39 species to each gulley in a random 21 order. A nutrient solution made up in deionized water and containing 2 mM Ca(NO₃)₂, 2 22 mM NH₄NO₃, 0.75 mM MgSO₄, 0.5 mM KOH, 0.25 mM KH₂PO₄, 0.1 mM FeNaEDTA, 23 30 μM H₃BO₃, 0.03 mM CaCl₂, 10 μM MnSO₄, 3 μM CuSO₄, 1 μM ZnSO₄, 0.5 μM

Na₂MoO₄ and 0.63 µM Na₂SeO₄ (0.05 mg Se L⁻¹), adjusted daily to pH 6-6.4 using 1 H₂SO₄, was circulated through the gulleys from a 200 litre tank. The total sulphate 2 concentration in the nutrient solution approximated 910 µM (29.18 mg S L⁻¹). Solutions 3 4 were replaced weekly. Analysis of fresh and spent nutrient solutions indicated that there 5 were no significant reductions in Se or S concentrations during the experiment. The 6 glasshouse was set to maintain temperatures of 25 °C by day and 15 °C at night using 7 automatic vents and supplementary heating. Plant shoots from the 39 plant species were 8 harvested during vegetative growth. Plant material from the same hole was bulked. 9 Shoots were separated into leaves and stems, where possible, and the fresh weight (FW) 10 of each was recorded. Samples were dried in paper bags for 72 h in a fan-assisted oven 11 set to 80 °C. The dry weight (DW) of leaves and stems was measured and dry leaf tissue 12 was subsequently milled to a powder. Powdered samples (0.3 – 1.0 g DW) were digested 13 with nitric acid in closed vessels using a microwave digester. Total Se and S contents of 14 dry leaf tissue were determined using inductively-coupled plasma emission 15 spectrophotometry (JY24, Jobin-Yvon ISA, France). Plant material was analysed in batches and, in each batch, a sample spiked with 1 mg Se kg⁻¹ DW of a calibration 16 17 standard Se solution (Fisher Scientific, Loughborough, UK) served as an internal control 18 for the analytical protocol. The recovery of exogenous Se was $103 \pm 1\%$ (mean \pm SE, n = 19 30 samples). A preliminary examination of the data suggested that the mean values of leaf Se/S quotients were approximately normally distributed, whereas those of [Se]_{leaf} and 20 [S]_{leaf} were approximately log-normally distributed. The appropriate distributions were 21 22 fitted using GenStat Version 8 (VSN International Ltd, Oxford, UK) with parameter 23 estimates of mean and standard deviation (SD). The log-normal transformations were done to the base e. The goodness of fit was tested using a quantile-quantile plot with

2 simultaneous 95 per cent confidence bands using the statistic given by Michael (1983).

The expectation is that if the experimental data truly fit the distribution then all the data

in 95 per cent of such plots will fall entirely within the confidence bands. In all cases

there were significant deviations from the ideal when all plant species were included in

the analysis. The species with the highest values were sequentially removed from all

three distributions until there were no significant improvements in the goodness of fit.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Thirty nine plant species were chosen to represent the range and distribution of relative [Se]_{shoot} estimated for 185 angiosperm species in a previous literature survey (White *et al.*, 2004). When these species were grown hydroponically in the same glasshouse environment, there were marked differences between plant species in their mean [Se]_{leaf} (Table 1, Fig. 1). The mean [Se]_{leaf} of 37 species (mg Se kg⁻¹ DW) appeared to show a log-normal distribution (Fig. 2A, mean = 2.35 ± 0.08 , SD = 0.496 ± 0.058 , n = 37). There were small but significant deviations (P<0.05) from this distribution, but further removal of species with the highest mean [Se]_{leaf} from the analysis did not continue to improve the fit. The low probabilities of the two plant species with the highest mean [Se]_{leaf} being part of this distribution, *Astragalus racemosus* (P<0.0001) and *Stanleya pinnata* (P<0.0001), suggests the occurrence of at least two distinct phenotypes for [Se]_{leaf}. Even if these two species were to be included in the fitting procedure, the probabilities of observing such

1 extreme values remain low (Astragalus racemosus, P<0.0001; Stanleya pinnata

2 P=0.011). This is consistent with previous studies leading to the hypothesis that Se non-

accumulator and Se accumulator plants come from distinct populations, rather than there

4 being a single, continuous distribution of [Se]_{leaf} among angiosperm species.

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The rank order for mean [Se]_{leaf} of the 39 species grown hydroponically in the present study was not identical to their rank order of relative [Se]_{shoot} estimated from a previous literature survey (Fig. 1). For both the hydroponic study and the literature survey it was assumed that selenate was the only form of Se taken up by the plant. The underlying reasons for the lack of concordance between this hydroponic experiment and the literature survey are likely to reflect these facts: (1) In the present study all plant species were assayed under identical conditions, whereas the meta-analysis performed in the literature survey integrated data from many studies performed under contrasting environmental conditions (White et al., 2004). The rank order of species for [Se]_{shoot} in the literature survey could be confounded by several factors. (a) Plant species might show different Michaelis-Menten type relationships between selenate concentration in the rhizosphere and [Se]_{shoot} and, if they did, the rank order of species for [Se]_{shoot} might differ between experiments performed at contrasting rhizosphere selenate concentrations. (b) The uptake of selenate by different plant species might show contrasting sensitivities to environmental factors such as temperature, pH and redox conditions of the rhizosphere or the presence of competing anions like sulphate and phosphate, and, if this were true, the rank order of species for [Se]_{shoot} could be influenced by growth substrate and/or composition of the rhizosphere solution. (c) In some experimental systems, Se might be present in chemical forms other than selenate, such as selenite and/or organoselenium

1 compounds that are taken up by roots by transport proteins other than HASTs, and the 2 rank order of species for [Se]_{shoot} might then reflect the complement of these transport 3 proteins in different plant species. (2) When Se is supplied as selenate, there is 4 considerable variation in [Se]_{shoot} between ecotypes of wild plants (Davis 1972; Feist and 5 Parker, 2001; Zhang et al., 2006a, b) and varieties of crop plants (Bañuelos et al., 1997, 6 2003; Kopsell and Randle, 1997; Pezzarossa et al., 1999; Lyons et al., 2005). 7 Nevertheless, in both the hydroponic study reported here and in the literature survey, 8 Stanleya pinnata and Astragalus racemosus were consistently observed to have 9 extremely high mean [Se]_{leaf}. Intriguingly, the lack of concordance of the rank order of 10 angiosperm species for [Se]_{shoot} in the hydroponic study and the literature survey reported 11 here contrasts sharply with a similar comparison of the rank order of angiosperm species 12 for [Ca]_{shoot} between a hydroponic study and a literature survey (Broadley et al., 2003), 13 which might reflect (a) the quasi-linear increase of [Ca]_{shoot} with increasing rhizosphere Ca²⁺ (White, 2001) and (b) the likelihood that Ca is taken up by plants solely as Ca²⁺ 14 15 (White and Broadley, 2003). Significant differences in mean [S]_{leaf} were observed among plant species grown 16 hydroponically in the same glasshouse environment (Table 1). The mean $[S]_{\text{leaf}}$ (g S kg-1 17 18 DW) of the 39 species studied here appeared to belong to a log-normal distribution (Fig. 19 2B, mean = 1.87 ± 0.08 ; SD = 0.52 ± 0.06 , n = 39). This is consistent with the 20 distribution of relative [S]_{shoot} in 121 angiosperm species obtained in a recent literature 21 survey (Willey and Wilkins, 2006). Although not as extreme as for [Se]_{leaf}, there were 22 significant deviations from the log-normal distribution (P<0.01). The two species with 23 the highest mean [Se]_{leaf}, Astragalus racemosus and Stanleya pinnata, also had the third

1 and second highest mean [S]_{leaf}, respectively. Brassica oleracea had the highest mean 2 [S]_{leaf}. Exclusion of these three species from the fitting resulted in a log-normal 3 distribution with no significant deviations (mean = 1.78 ± 0.07 , SD = 0.41 ± 0.05 , n = 4 36). Based on this distribution, the probabilities of observing the three highest mean [S]_{leaf} were P=0.008, 0.0015 and 0.0019 respectively. In general, plant species with 5 greater mean [Se]_{leaf} also had greater mean [S]_{leaf}, and the leaf Se/S quotient for most 6 7 plant species was similar (Fig. 3C). However, although Se-accumulator plants had 8 extraordinarily high mean [Se]_{leaf}, this was not reflected in their mean [S]_{leaf} and there appeared to be a limit to [S]_{leaf} of about 20 mg g⁻¹ DW (Fig. 3). This is consistent with the 9 10 observations of Hurd-Karrer (1937) and Rosenfeld and Beath (1964). Consequently, the leaf Se/S quotients (mg Se g-1 S) in Se-accumulator species were greater than those of 11 12 other angiosperm species (Fig. 3), and there was little probability that the Se/S quotients 13 of Stanleya pinnata (P<0.0001) or Astragalus racemosus (P<0.0001) leaves belonged to 14 the normal distribution of leaf Se/S quotients shown by the other 37 angiosperm species 15 studied (Fig. 2; mean = 1.72 ± 0.04 , SD = 0.237 ± 0.028 , n = 37). These observations are 16 consistent not only with the strong correlation between shoot Se and S concentrations amongst angiosperm species grown under the same conditions when the analysis is 17 18 restricted to Se-nonaccumulator crop plants (e.g. Hurd-Karrer, 1937; Bañuelos et al., 19 2005) but also with the lack of correlation between shoot Se and S concentrations when 20 the analysis is broadened to include Se-accumulator plants (Rosenfeld and Beath, 1964; 21 Feist and Parker, 2001). They indicate the occurrence of at least two distinct phenotypes 22 for leaf Se/S quotient within the angiosperms. Interestingly, the mean leaf Se/S quotient for the 37 non-accumulator plants (1.72 mg Se g⁻¹ S) approximated the Se/S quotient in 23

the mineral nutrient solution (1.71 mg Se g⁻¹ S), suggesting no selectivity in the accumulation of S over Se in leaves of most angiosperm species.

It is noteworthy that all Brassicales species had high mean [Se]_{leaf} and mean [S]_{leaf} 3 4 (Table 1), which is consistent with their unique S metabolism (Mengel and Kirkby, 2001; 5 Willey and Wilkins, 2006) and extensive screens of angiosperms for phytoremediation of 6 Se-laden soils, which has identified various Brassica species, such as Indian mustard 7 (Brassica juncea), canola (B. napus) and broccoli (B. oleracea) as being particularly useful (Bañuelos et al., 1997, 2003, 2005; Terry et al., 2000; Wu, 2004; Bañuelos, 2002, 8 9 2006; Bañuelos and Lin, 2005). These species not only tolerate high tissue Se 10 concentrations and accumulate biomass rapidly, but can also volatilise Se (Zayed et al., 11 1998; Terry et al., 2000; Bañuelos et al., 2005). 12 Ecological studies suggest that Se-accumulator plants include members of the 13 Brassicaceae (Stanleya pinnata), Fabaceae (Astragalus bisulcatus, A. racemosus) and 14 Asteraceae (Aster occidentalis, Machaeranthera ramosa). In the present study, Stanleya 15 pinnata and Astragalus racemosus had significantly greater mean [Se]_{leaf}, mean [S]_{leaf} and leaf Se/S quotients than other angiosperms (Table 1). The mean [Se] $_{leaf}$ and leaf Se/S 16 17 quotient were lower in Stanleya pinnata than Astragalus racemosus, which is consistent 18 with studies comparing the [Se]_{leaf} of Stanleya pinnata with Astragalus species that 19 hyperaccumulate Se (Goodson et al., 2003; Freeman et al., 2006; Galeas et al., 2007). 20 Among the other Brassicaceae assayed, only Brassica oleracea had an abnormally high mean [Se]_{leaf} and mean [S]_{leaf}, but this species had a leaf Se/S quotient similar to other 21 angiosperms (1.51 \pm 0.014 mg Se g⁻¹ S, n = 6). These traits are shared with other 22 members of the Brassica genus that can accumulate high [Se]_{leaf} and [S]_{leaf}, but generally 23

1 have leaf Se/S quotients lower than those in the rhizosphere solution (Bell et al., 1992; 2 Feist and Parker, 2001; Ellis and Salt, 2003). This suggests that the trait of a high leaf 3 Se/S quotient evolved within the Brassicaceae family. Neither Astragalus glycyphyllos 4 nor A. sinicus had greater mean [Se]_{leaf}, mean [S]_{leaf} or leaf Se/S quotients than other 5 angiosperms (Table 1). These observations are consistent with previous studies of Se 6 accumulation in Astragalus species (Rosenfeld and Beath, 1964; Shrift, 1969; Davis, 7 1972, 1986; Sors et al., 2005a) and suggest that the trait of Se accumulation evolved 8 independently within this genus also. Neither Aster occidentalis nor Machaeranthera 9 ramosa were assayed in the present study, but neither Machaeranthera bigelovii nor 10 Machaeranthera tanacetifolia showed abnormally high mean [Se]_{leaf}, mean [S]_{leaf} or leaf 11 Se/S quotients. This suggests that the trait of Se accumulation evolved within the 12 Machaeranthera genus and is consistent with previous observations (Rosenfeld and 13 Beath, 1964). Taken together, these data support the hypothesis that the trait of Se 14 accumulation evolved by convergent evolution of appropriate biochemical pathways in 15 disparate angiosperm clades (Brown and Shrift, 1982). It is most likely that the distinct leaf Se/S quotients found in Se-accumulator and 16 17 non-accumulator plants result from differences in the selectivity of Se and S delivery to 18 the xylem in the root (White et al., 2004; Sors et al., 2005b; Broadley et al., 2006), 19 although selective redistribution of organic Se and S compounds from the shoot to the 20 root via the phloem might also be envisaged (Bell et al., 1992). It is unlikely that the 21 distinct leaf Se/S quotients of Se-accumulator and non-accumulator plants result from 22 differences in Se volatilization since, although species differ in their ability to volatilize 23 both Se and S (Zayed et al., 1998; Terry et al., 2000; Bañuelos et al., 2005), even Indian

mustard, which volatilises more Se than most plants, volatilises amounts equivalent to only about 2% of the Se accumulated in shoots when grown hydroponically in a solution containing 20 µM Se (Terry et al., 2000). Assuming that Se and S move symplastically across the root and that selenate and sulphate are loaded into the xylem, then the leaf Se/S quotient can be influenced by these processes of root cells: (1) selective uptake of selenate or sulphate across the plasma membrane, (2) selective metabolism of selenate or sulphate into other chemical forms, (3) selective sequestration of Se or S metabolites in the vacuole or (4) selective efflux of selenate or sulphate across the plasma membrane into the xylem. These processes can be differentiated on the basis of their predicted effects on root Se and S accumulation. Assuming that there is fixed Se:S stoichiometry for uptake across the plasma membrane, which reflects the Se/S quotient in the rhizosphere solution, an abnormally high Se/S quotient in roots of Se-accumulator plants would indicate that the selective uptake of selenate across the plasma membrane of root cells determined their high leaf Se/S quotient, whereas, if the Se/S quotient in roots of Seaccumulator plants was abnormally low, then the process impacting most on leaf Se/S quotient would not be the selective uptake of selenate by root cells. Since the Se/S quotients in roots of Se-accumulator plants are not abnormally low, and the percentage translocation of Se and S from roots to shoots appears similar across taxa (Bell et al., 1992), it can be concluded that differences in the selectivity of uptake of selenate and sulphate underlie differences in the leaf Se/S quotient of Se-accumulator and nonaccumulator plants. This conclusion is consistent with the hypothesis that the dominant HASTs of Se-accumulator plants are selective for selenate, whereas those in other angiosperm species are selective for sulphate (White et al., 2004; Sors et al., 2005b;

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1	Broadley et al., 2006). A comparison of the protein structure of HASTs present in the
2	plasma membrane of epidermal and/or cortical root cells of Se-accumulator and non-
3	accumulator plants would allow the molecular basis of anion selectivity of HASTs to be
4	determined. Thereafter, appropriate allelic variation in the domain(s) conferring
5	selenate/sulphate selectivity, combined with transcriptional control of HAST expression,
6	could be used to produce crops with increased [Se] _{shoot} and leaf Se/S quotients plants
7	through either conventional or GM approaches.
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FIGURE LEGENDS

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3 **Figure 1.** Leaf Se concentrations of 36 angiosperm species grown hydroponically in a 4 complete mineral nutrient solution containing 910 µM sulphate and 0.63 µM selenate, 5 ranked according to their relative shoot Se concentrations estimated from a meta-analysis 6 of literature data (White et al., 2004). The species numbers are: (1) Sorghum bicolor, (5) 7 Bromopsis inermis, (8) Panicum miliaceum, (14) Atriplex hortensis, (19) Trifolium 8 subterraneum, (23) Lolium multiflorum, (30) Dactylis glomerata, (34) Lycopersicon 9 pennellii, (40) Medicago sativa, (43) Medicago lupulina, (50) Trifolium pratense, (56) 10 Bouteloua gracilis, (60) Solanum tuberosum, (65) Hordeum vulgare, (70) Holcus lanata, 11 (80) Cynodon dactylon, (84) Sinapis alba, (86) Beta vulgaris, (93) Astragalus sinicus, (104) Astragalus glycyphyllos, (112) Agrostis stolonifera, (123) Sporobolus airoides, 12 13 (135) Solanum melongena, (142) Raphanus sativa, (153) Cucumis sativa, (163) Brassica 14 oleracea, (168) Helianthus annuus, (169) Oryzopsis hymenoides, (171) Linum 15 usitatissimum, (172) Brassica juncea, (174) Oryza sativa, (175) Stanleya pinnata, (176) Brassica nigra, (179) Trifolium repens, (180) Brassica carinata, (181) Astragalus 16 17 racemosus.

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Figure 2. Frequency distributions of (A) the natural log of leaf Se concentrations (mg Se kg⁻¹ DW), (B) the natural log of leaf S concentrations (g Se kg⁻¹ DW) and (C) leaf Se/S quotients (mg Se g⁻¹ S) in 39 angiosperm species grown hydroponically in a complete mineral nutrient solution containing 910 μM sulphate and 0.63 μM selenate. Lines indicate the log-normal (A, mean = 2.35; SD = 0.496, n = 37; B, mean = 1.87, SD =

2	from either all species or the 37 species with the lowest leaf Se concentrations.
3	
4	Figure 3. (A) The relationship between leaf Se concentration and leaf S concentration in
5	39 angiosperm species, including two species with extreme leaf Se concentration, grown
6	hydroponically in a complete mineral nutrient solution containing 910 μM sulphate and
7	0.63 μM selenate. The line indicates a leaf S concentration of 20 g kg ⁻¹ DW. (B) The
8	relationship between leaf Se concentration and leaf Se/S quotient in these 39 angiosperm
9	species. The line indicates the Se/S in the nutrient solution supplied to the plants (1.71 mg
10	S g ⁻¹ Se). (C) The relationships between leaf Se concentration and leaf S concentration
11	(closed circles) or leaf Se/S quotient (open circles) in a subset of 37 of these species. The
12	horizontal line indicates the Se/S quotient in the nutrient solution supplied to the plants
13	The sloping line indicates the regression between leaf Se concentration (mg kg ⁻¹ DW) and
14	leaf S concentration (% DW) in these 37 species ($y = 0.0567x + 0.053$, $R^2 = 0.946$).
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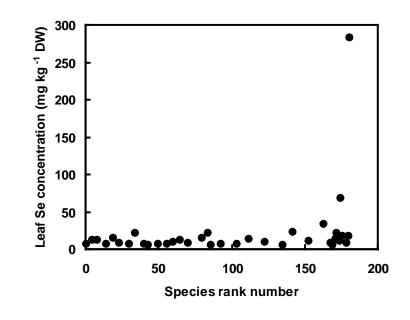
0.520, n = 39) or normal (C, mean = 1.72, SD = 0.240, n = 37) distributions fitted to data

Table 1. Phylogenetic classification, durations of growth in hydroponics prior to harvest, dry weights (DW) of leaf tissue at harvest, dry weight / fresh weight (DW/FW) quotients of harvested leaves, leaf selenium concentrations, leaf sulphur concentrations and leaf Se/S quotients (expressed as mg Se g^{-1} S) of 39 angiosperm species supplied with a complete mineral nutrient solution containing 910 μM sulphate and 0.63 μM selenate. Species were ranked according to their relative shoot Se concentrations estimated from a meta-analysis of literature data (White *et al.*, 2004). (SE=standard error of the mean; n=number of samples). Three species with extreme shoot Se or S concentrations are indicated in bold type.

			Grow th	Leaf DW (g)		<u>Leaf</u> <u>DW/FW</u> (%)		Leaf Se (mg kg ⁻¹ DW)		Leaf S (g kg ⁻ 1 DW)		Se/S (1 g ⁻¹		
Ra nk	Species	<u>Order</u>	<u>Perio</u> <u>d (d)</u>	<u>me</u> <u>an</u> 1.4	<u>S</u> <u>E</u> 0.	mean	<u>SE</u> 0.3	mean	<u>SE</u>	mea n	<u>SE</u>	mea n	<u>SE</u> 0.1	<u>n</u>
1	Sorghum bicolor Bromopsis	<u>Poales</u>	<u>24</u>	1.4 7 1.4	<u>0.</u> 16	<u>9.71</u>	<u>0.5</u> <u>0</u>	<u>7.1</u>	0.53	4.2	0.08	1.67	<u>0.1</u> <u>0</u>	<u>6</u>
<u>5</u>	<u>inermis</u> Panicum	<u>Poales</u>	<u>35</u>	1.4 8 1.8	0.	13.49	0.1	12.7		<u>6.6</u>		<u>1.91</u>	0.1	1
<u>8</u>	<u>miliaceum</u>	Poales Caryoph	<u>28</u>	5 0.9	2 <u>5</u> 0.	8.48	$\frac{0.1}{2}$ 0.0	<u>11.9</u>	0.23	<u>5.4</u>	0.18	2.21	<u>0.1</u> <u>0</u> 0.0	<u>6</u>
<u>14</u>	Atriplex hortensis Trifolium	<u>yllales</u>	<u>27</u>	6 0.3	37 0.	8.69	8 0.5	<u>6.5</u>	0.28	<u>4.6</u>	0.07	<u>1.41</u>	8 0.0	<u>3</u>
<u>19</u>	<u>subterraneum</u> Lolium	<u>Fabales</u>	<u>27</u>	6 1.8	03 0.	<u>17.25</u>	$\frac{0.5}{3}$ 0.1	<u>14.6</u>	0.33	<u>8.3</u>	0.12	<u>1.76</u>	<u>5</u> 0.0	<u>6</u>
<u>23</u>	multiflorum Dactylis	<u>Poales</u>	<u>28</u>	5 0.8	11 0.	12.75	<u>6</u> 1.1	<u>7.5</u>	0.28	4.5	0.11	1.65	$\frac{3}{0.0}$	<u>6</u>
<u>30</u>	glomerata Lycopersicon	Poales Solanale	<u>28</u>	6 0.4	19 0.	<u>16.18</u>	2 0.1	<u>7.1</u>	0.50	<u>3.9</u>	0.12	<u>1.80</u>	$\frac{9}{0.0}$	<u>6</u>
<u>34</u>	<u>pennellii</u>	<u>S</u>	<u>28</u>	5 0.5	13 0.	12.32	<u>9</u> 1.2	21.2	0.72	12.0	0.44	1.77	<u>3</u> 0.0	<u>6</u>
<u>40</u>	<u>Medicago sativa</u> Medicago	<u>Fabales</u>	<u>27</u>	$\frac{0}{0.4}$	08 0.	<u>16.81</u>	8 0.8	<u>6.0</u>	0.60	4.2	0.23	1.41	7 0.0	<u>6</u>
<u>43</u>	<u>lupulina</u>	<u>Fabales</u>	<u>27</u>	7 0.4	04 0.	16.62	6 0.5	<u>5.7</u>	0.30	3.5	0.06	1.64	7 0.0	<u>6</u>
<u>50</u>	<u>Trifolium pratense</u>	<u>Fabales</u>	<u>27</u>	<u>0</u> 0.7	05 0.	14.98	9 0.7	6.4	0.34	4.2	0.28	1.53	9 0.1	<u>6</u>
<u>56</u>	<u>Bouteloua gracilis</u> <u>Solanum</u>	Poales Solanale	<u>57</u>	<u>2</u> 1.2	$\frac{21}{0}$.	<u>25.66</u>	$\frac{1}{0.2}$	<u>6.9</u>	<u>0.64</u>	<u>3.7</u>	0.17	1.87	<u>0</u> 0.1	<u>6</u>
<u>60</u>	<u>tuberosum</u>	<u>S</u>	<u>27</u>	<u>2</u> 1.0	<u>21</u> <u>0.</u>	<u>8.66</u>	<u>8</u> <u>0.6</u>	9.8	0.48	<u>4.8</u>	0.08	2.02	<u>0</u> 0.0	<u>6</u>
<u>65</u>	<u>Hordeum vulgare</u>	<u>Poales</u>	<u>30</u>	<u>9</u> <u>0.7</u>	<u>47</u> <u>0.</u>	9.83	<u>7</u> <u>0.2</u>	12.3	0.79	<u>7.1</u>	0.47	1.73	<u>3</u> <u>0.0</u>	<u>5</u>
<u>70</u>	<u>Holcus lanata</u>	<u>Poales</u>	<u>28</u>	<u>5</u> 2.4	11 0.	13.25	<u>9</u> <u>0.2</u>	<u>8.7</u>	0.54	<u>5.1</u>	0.32	<u>1.70</u>	<u>6</u> 0.0	<u>6</u>
<u>80</u>	Cynodon dactylon	Poales Brassical	<u>35</u>	<u>0</u> 2.5	28 0.	13.84	1 0.1	<u>14.1</u>	0.54	7.2	0.39	1.97	<u>5</u> <u>0.0</u>	<u>4</u>
<u>84</u>	<u>Sinapis alba</u>	<u>es</u> <u>Caryoph</u>	<u>27</u>	<u>2</u> <u>0.5</u>	<u>62</u> <u>0.</u>	<u>11.60</u>	<u>8</u> <u>0.2</u>	<u>21.9</u>	0.67	12.9	0.36	<u>1.70</u>	<u>3</u> <u>0.0</u>	<u>6</u>
<u>86</u>	<u>Beta vulgaris</u>	<u>yllales</u>	<u>33</u>	<u>9</u> <u>0.4</u>	<u>20</u> <u>0.</u>	9.83	<u>3</u> <u>0.0</u>	<u>5.6</u>	0.30	<u>4.1</u>	0.16	<u>1.36</u>	<u>6</u> <u>0.1</u>	<u>6</u>
93 10	Astragalus sinicus Astragalus	Fabales	<u>35</u>	<u>5</u> <u>0.2</u>	<u>29</u> <u>0.</u>	14.37	<u>5</u> <u>1.2</u>	<u>6.9</u>	1.00	4.1	0.30	1.68	<u>2</u> <u>0.2</u>	2
<u>4</u> <u>11</u>	glycyphyllos Agrostis	<u>Fabales</u>	<u>26</u>	<u>4</u> <u>0.5</u>	<u>17</u> <u>0.</u>	18.48	<u>2</u> <u>0.3</u>	<u>7.0</u>	<u>1.47</u>	<u>6.3</u>	0.26	1.12	<u>4</u> <u>0.0</u>	<u>6</u>
<u>2</u> <u>12</u>	<u>stolonifera</u> <u>Sporobolus</u>	Poales	<u>28</u>	<u>3</u> <u>0.3</u>	<u>07</u> <u>0.</u>	13.57	<u>5</u> <u>0.7</u>	13.8	0.59	7.3	0.25	1.90	<u>4</u> <u>0.1</u>	<u>6</u>
<u>3</u> <u>13</u>	<u>airoides</u> <u>Solanum</u>	Poales Solanale	<u>42</u>	<u>4</u> <u>2.6</u>	<u>07</u> <u>0.</u>	16.91	<u>5</u> <u>0.2</u>	8.8	0.95	<u>5.4</u>	0.25	1.60	<u>2</u> <u>0.0</u>	<u>6</u>
5 14 2	<u>melongena</u>	<u>s</u> <u>Brassical</u>	<u>35</u>	<u>4</u> <u>4.5</u>	<u>20</u> <u>0.</u>	9.08	<u>5</u> <u>0.3</u>	<u>5.8</u>	0.08	3.3	0.06	1.80	<u>5</u> <u>0.0</u>	<u>6</u>
<u>15</u>	Raphanus sativa	es Cucurbit	<u>27</u>	<u>5</u> 3.8	<u>42</u> <u>1.</u>	8.06	<u>3</u> <u>0.4</u>	22.2	0.62	11.6	0.39	1.93	<u>4</u> <u>0.0</u>	<u>6</u>
<u>3</u> <u>16</u>	Cucumis sativa	ales Brassical	<u>23</u>	1 6.2	<u>07</u> <u>0.</u>	10.76	<u>4</u> <u>0.1</u>	10.4	0.49	6.5	0.31	1.62	<u>3</u> <u>0.0</u>	<u>6</u>
<u>3</u> <u>16</u>	Brassica oleracea Helianthus	<u>es</u>	<u>28</u>	<u>7</u> <u>5.1</u>	16 0.	<u>8.53</u>	$\frac{1}{0.3}$	33.0	0.75	21.8	0.40	1.51	$\frac{1}{0.0}$	<u>6</u>
8 16 9	annuus Oryzopsis hymenoides	<u>Asterales</u> Poales	<u>22</u> 52	$\frac{4}{0.2}$	<u>50</u>	11.29 25.41	<u>3</u>	7.6 5.5	0.30	<u>4.7</u> <u>3.6</u>	0.18	1.61 1.53	<u>3</u>	<u>5</u> <u>1</u>
_		1 00100	<u> </u>	_		20111		0.0		5.0		1.00		-

<u>17</u>	<u>Linum</u>	<u>Malpighi</u>		<u>1.1</u>	<u>0.</u>		0.3						0.0	
<u>1</u>	usitatissimum	ales	<u>27</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>04</u>	14.09	<u>0.3</u> <u>7</u>	13.4	0.92	7.1	0.45	1.90	<u>0.0</u> <u>2</u>	6
		Brassical		0.9	<u>0.</u>		0.7						0.0	
2	Brassica juncea	es	30	<u>1</u>	19	11.24	<u>0.7</u> <u>3</u>	21.0	2.68	13.0	1.75	1.63	<u>0.0</u> <u>3</u>	3
17	, and the second													
4	Oryza sativa	Poales	<u>42</u>	0		18.61		11.3		5.3		2.12		1
17	•	Brassical		0.1	0.		0.3						0.4	
5	Stanleya pinnata	es	28	3	<u>0.</u> <u>03</u>	12.76	$\frac{0.3}{7}$	68.6	12.70	20.1	1.46	3.27	<u>0.4</u> <u>6</u>	6
<u>17</u>		Brassical		3.6	0.		0.4						0.4	
$\begin{array}{c} 17 \\ 2 \\ 17 \\ 4 \\ 17 \\ \underline{5} \\ 17 \\ \underline{6} \\ 17 \\ \underline{9} \\ 18 \\ \underline{0} \\ \end{array}$	Brassica nigra	es	<u>27</u>	$ \begin{array}{r} $	<u>0.</u> <u>25</u>	9.36	<u>1</u>	17.9	0.89	8.4	1.04	2.37	$\frac{0.4}{2}$	6
17				0.4	<u>0.</u>								0.0	
9	Trifolium repens	<u>Fabales</u>	<u>27</u>	<u>1</u>	08	11.16	<u>0.4</u> <u>7</u>	7.5	0.48	4.7	0.23	1.62	<u>0.0</u> <u>7</u>	6
18		Brassical		6.9	<u>0.</u>		0.1						0.0	
0	Brassica carinata	es	<u>27</u>	6.9 7	<u>0.</u> 85	9.85	<u>0.1</u> <u>9</u>	17.0	0.29	9.9	0.14	1.72	$\frac{0.0}{2}$	<u>6</u>
18	<u>Astragalus</u>			0.0	<u>0.</u>		1.5						2.2	
18 1	racemosus	<u>Fabales</u>	<u>52</u>	<u>0.0</u> <u>7</u>	<u>0.</u> <u>02</u>	21.87	1.5 6	282.8	48.48	19.5	0.88	14.14	<u>2.2</u> <u>9</u>	<u>6</u>
		Brassical		3.5	0.		0.1						0.0	
Ξ	Brassica arvense	<u>es</u>	<u>27</u>	3.5 5	<u>0.</u> <u>40</u>	8.07	<u>1</u>	24.4	0.89	14.0	0.60	1.75	<u>0.0</u> <u>3</u>	<u>6</u>
	Machaeranthera			0.3	<u>0.</u>								0.1	
=	<u>bigelovii</u>	Asterales	<u>36</u>	0	07	15.34	<u>0.6</u> <u>3</u>	5.7	0.46	3.8	0.17	1.51	1	6
	Machaeranthera			0.3 0 0.2 5	<u>0.</u>		0.7						0.1	
=	tanacetifolia	Asterales	<u>28</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>0.</u> 05	12.37	<u>0.7</u> <u>8</u>	15.2	0.86	8.5	0.47	1.81	<u>0.1</u> <u>4</u>	<u>5</u>
_			_	_	_		_						_	_

Figure 1



1 2

Figure 2

