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# 1 Identification of candidate genes for calcium and magnesium 2 accumulation in *Brassica napus* L. by association genetics

3  
4 **Running title: Calcium and magnesium accumulation candidates**

5  
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19 **Keywords: Associative transcriptomics, GWAS, *Brassica napus*, Calcium, Magnesium,  
20 Biofortification, Nutrient use efficiency.**

## 21 22 **Abstract**

23  
24 Calcium (Ca) and magnesium (Mg) are essential plant nutrients and vital for human and animal  
25 nutrition. Biofortification of crops has previously been suggested to alleviate widespread  
26 human Ca and Mg deficiencies. In this study, new candidate genes influencing the leaf  
27 accumulation of Ca and Mg were identified in young *Brassica napus* plants using associative  
28 transcriptomics of ionomics datasets. A total of 247 and 166 SNP markers were associated with  
29 leaf Ca and Mg concentration, respectively, after false discovery rate correction and removal  
30 of SNPs with low second allele frequency. Gene expression markers at similar positions were  
31 also associated with leaf Ca and Mg concentration, including loci on chromosomes A10 and  
32 C2, within which lie previously identified transporter genes *ACA8* and *MGT7*. Further  
33 candidate genes were selected from seven loci and the mineral composition of whole  
34 *Arabidopsis thaliana* shoots were characterised from lines mutated in orthologous genes. Four  
35 and two mutant lines had reduced shoot Ca and Mg concentration, respectively, compared to  
36 wild type plants. Three of these mutations were found to have tissue specific effects; notably  
37 reduced silique Ca in all three such mutant lines. This knowledge could be applied in targeted  
38 breeding, with the possibility of increasing Ca and Mg in plant tissue for improving human and  
39 livestock nutrition.  
40

## 41 **1 Introduction**

42  
43 Calcium (Ca) and magnesium (Mg) are essential plant nutrients and vital for human and animal  
44 nutrition (Broadley and White, 2010; White and Brown, 2010). In plants, most Ca is  
45 extracellular, where it is a key strengthening component in cell walls (Grusak *et al.*, 2016). It  
46 also has an important role in plant-cell signalling. Calcium enters root cells through a variety  
47 of Ca<sup>2+</sup>-permeable cation channels (Karley and White, 2009; White and Broadley 2003; White,  
48 2015). The opening of these channels must be tightly controlled, as changes in cytosolic Ca<sup>2+</sup>  
49 concentrations coordinate numerous developmental and environmental stress responses

50 (McAinsh and Pittman, 2009). The accumulation of Ca at tissue- and cellular-levels is  
51 dependent on the expression of transport proteins (Conn and Gilliam, 2010; Rios *et al.*, 2012).  
52 After uptake from soil by roots, Ca travels via either apoplastic or symplastic pathways to the  
53 xylem, through which, in the form of either Ca<sup>2+</sup> or complexed with organic acids, it is  
54 transported to the shoot. Calcium is immobile in the phloem, and as such, tissues with low  
55 transpiration rates (including fruits, seeds and tubers) often have low Ca concentrations (Karley  
56 and White, 2009). Among plant nutrients, Ca is required in relatively large amounts. However,  
57 concentrations vary amongst taxa, typically ranging from ~0.1 % to 4.4 % dry matter (Broadley  
58 *et al.*, 2003). Calcium deficiencies are relatively rare in field-grown crops, but can occur in  
59 crops grown in acidic or leaching prone soils. Where Ca supply is insufficient to meet growth  
60 requirements, costly symptoms can ensue. For instance, fruits lacking in Ca are prone to  
61 cracking, as a direct result of weakness in the cell wall (White, 2015).

62  
63 Magnesium is essential for photosynthesis, forming the central atom of chlorophyll molecules.  
64 It also has a key role in protein synthesis by functioning as a bridging element for the  
65 aggregation of ribosome subunits, as well as in photophosphorylation and generation of  
66 reactive oxygen species in plants (Cakmak and Yazici, 2010). Magnesium is taken up by roots  
67 as Mg<sup>2+</sup>. Control of influx across the plasma membrane is dominated by members of the  
68 MGT/MRS2 family of transport proteins and potentially Mg<sup>2+</sup>-permeable cation channels  
69 (Karley and White, 2009; Lenz *et al.*, 2013). One member of the MGT gene family in  
70 *Arabidopsis thaliana*, *MAGNESIUM TRANSPORTER 1 (MGT1)*, encodes a protein localised  
71 to the plasma membrane (Li *et al.*, 2001), suggesting its importance in the import and/or export  
72 of Mg in cells. Like Ca, Mg is transported from root to shoot cells through the xylem either as  
73 Mg<sup>2+</sup> or complexed with organic acids. However, Mg is a phloem-mobile element, and is  
74 readily translocated to fruit, seeds and tubers (White and Broadley, 2009). Shoot Mg  
75 concentrations are typically lower than shoot Ca concentrations across plant taxa, and vary  
76 between ~0.1 % to ~1.0 % dry matter (White *et al.*, 2015).

77  
78 In humans and animals, Ca is associated with the formation and metabolism of bone as well as  
79 being crucial for mediating vascular contraction and vasodilation, muscle function, nerve  
80 transmission, intracellular signalling and hormonal secretion (Catharine, 2011). Based on food  
81 supply data, it was estimated that half of the population worldwide was at risk of Ca deficiency  
82 in 2011, with significant deficiency risks across all continents (Kumssa *et al.*, 2015a).  
83 Magnesium is needed for over 300 biochemical reactions. It helps to maintain muscle function,  
84 prevents an irregular heartbeat, and is involved in protein synthesis (Yardley, 2009). Based on  
85 food supply data, <1% of the global population appeared to be at risk of dietary Mg deficiency  
86 in 2011 (Kumssa *et al.*, 2015b). However, these data do not account for inhibitors of Mg  
87 adsorption, household waste, or distribution within countries and it is likely that significant  
88 deficiency risks exist within some populations. Magnesium deficiency risks are also likely to  
89 be greater in higher-income groups consuming processed foods, because Mg is among the  
90 nutrients commonly lost in processing (Broadley and White, 2010; Kumssa *et al.*, 2015b;  
91 Swaminathan, 2003). Biofortification of crops has been previously suggested as a suitable  
92 approach for alleviating human deficiencies in a number of mineral nutrients, including Ca and  
93 Mg (White and Broadley, 2009; White and Broadley, 2005).

94  
95 Previous analyses of variation in mineral concentrations across a wide range of plant species  
96 have shown that tissue Ca and Mg concentrations are inherently high in Brassicaceae compared  
97 most other taxa (Broadley *et al.*, 2004; White *et al.*, 2015). These traits have proven to be  
98 heritable in *Brassica oleracea* (Broadley *et al.*, 2008), *B. rapa* (Graham *et al.*, 2014), and *B.*  
99 *napus* (Thomas *et al.*, 2016). Thus, *Brassica* spp. are potentially good targets for understanding

100 genetic bases of leaf Ca and Mg accumulation, and for potentially increasing dietary intakes of  
101 Ca and Mg in humans and animals. Expression quantitative trait locus (eQTL) analyses in *B.*  
102 *rapa* previously led to the discovery of Ca responsive genes which may prove useful in marker-  
103 assisted selection for increased Ca concentration in shoot tissue (Graham *et al.*, 2014). These  
104 include orthologues of *A. thaliana* Ca<sup>2+</sup> transporter genes *CATION EXCHANGER 1 (CAX1)*  
105 and *AUTOINHIBITED CA<sup>2+</sup> ATPASE, ISOFORM 8 (ACA8)*, and subsequent work showed that  
106 allelic variants of the former gene in *B. rapa* influenced Ca accumulation. *B. napus* includes  
107 oilseed types, swedes and fodder crops, and is widely cultivated globally. It is an amphi-diploid  
108 species that likely originated from multiple spontaneous hybridisations between *B. rapa* (A  
109 genome; turnip rape) and *B. oleracea* (C genome; cabbage, kale) and contains a full set of  
110 chromosomes from each (Chalhoub *et al.*, 2014; Iniguez-Luy and Federico, 2011). This  
111 complexity has previously hindered the genetic study of this and other polyploid crops.  
112 However, recent and ongoing advances in sequencing and genome mapping technologies have  
113 allowed the rapid genotyping of multiple accessions at a fraction of the cost of older  
114 technologies. This has improved the feasibility of using a large diversity population over  
115 traditional mapping populations in genetic studies of crop species (Trick *et al.*, 2009).

116  
117 Associative transcriptomics (Harper *et al.*, 2012) focusses on the analysis of transcribed  
118 sequences (mRNA-seq) across diversity populations to identify high-resolution loci  
119 influencing complex traits. An advantage using of RNA over DNA sequences in association  
120 studies is the ability to develop markers based on both single-nucleotide polymorphisms  
121 (SNPs) and transcript abundance (gene-expression markers; GEMs; Harper *et al.*, 2012). Gene  
122 expression levels may be particularly important in the control of traits in polyploid species in  
123 which gene duplication may have led to unequal expression (Adams *et al.*, 2003). Associative  
124 transcriptomics has been recently used in *B. napus* to identify genes underlying control of seed  
125 glucosinolate content (Harper *et al.*, 2012; Lu *et al.*, 2014) and anion homeostasis (Koprivova  
126 *et al.*, 2014). The former two studies utilised panels of 84 and 101 genotypes, respectively.  
127 Despite the relatively small population sizes, a number of loci associated with seed  
128 glucosinolate concentrations were identified. Most notable associations include loci containing  
129 orthologues of *A. thaliana* *HIGH ALIPHATIC GLUCOSINOLATE 1* and *3 (HAG1* and *HAG3)*,  
130 known to regulate aliphatic glucosinolate biosynthesis (Sønderby *et al.*, 2010). Koprivova *et*  
131 *al.* (2014), also made use of the panel of 84 genotypes and identified a number of loci associated  
132 with leaf nitrate, phosphate and sulphate. Within these loci were a number of clear candidate  
133 genes, including a calcium-activated chloride channel previously shown to control nitrate  
134 levels in *A. thaliana* (De Angeli *et al.*, 2006) which was associated with leaf nitrate  
135 concentration and a hypothetical phosphate/phosphoenolpyruvate translocator associated with  
136 leaf phosphate concentration.

137  
138 Leaf Ca and Mg concentrations were previously characterised in a diversity population of ~400  
139 genotypes of *B. napus* in a broad-spectrum mineral analysis (Thomas *et al.*, 2016). This  
140 population is likely to capture most of the species-wide variation, comprising oilseed, swede  
141 and fodder types. In this study, we perform associative analyses on this data using  
142 transcriptome sequences from 383 genotypes to identify genes influencing Ca and Mg  
143 accumulation. Candidate genes could be applied in marker assisted breeding in this and other  
144 *Brassica* crops, with the possibility of improving nutrient use efficiency of the crop and  
145 increasing available nutrients in edible plant tissue for improving human and livestock  
146 nutrition.

## 147 148 **2 Materials and methods**

149

## 2.1 Characterisation of leaf Ca and Mg concentration

This study used the Renewable Industrial Products from Rapeseed (RIPR) diversity population of inbred lines of *Brassica napus* genotypes (Thomas *et al.*, 2016). These were developed from the ERANET-ASSYST consortium diversity population (Bus *et al.*, 2014; Bus *et al.*, 2011; Körber *et al.*, 2015; Körber *et al.*, 2012) with further lines included. A subset of 383 genotypes were selected, comprising 160 winter-, 127 spring-, and seven semiwinter-oilseed rape (OSR), 35 swede, 15 winter fodder, and 39 exotic/unspecified habits. These were previously characterised for leaf mineral concentrations by inductively coupled plasma-mass spectrometry (ICP-MS) of polytunnel-grown plants sampled at the rosette stage (typically 6-8 true leaves showing; Thomas *et al.*, 2016). The full leaf mineral dataset is available at the Brassica Information Portal (BIP; <https://bip.earlham.ac.uk/>; The Earlham Institute, Norwich, UK) and at doi:10.5281/zenodo.59937.

## 2.2 Associative analyses

### 2.2.1 Transcriptome sequencing and population structure analysis

Extraction of RNA, quality checking and Illumina transcriptome sequencing were carried out as described by He *et al.* (2016). Tissue samples for RNA extraction were prepared from second true leaves, harvested when they reached ~3 cm in diameter. RNA-seq data from each accession was mapped using methods described by Bancroft *et al.* (2011) and Higgins *et al.* (2012) onto ordered *Brassica* A and C genome-based pan-transcriptomes developed by He *et al.* (2015). Transcriptome sequencing was performed by the Earlham Institute (formerly The Genome Analysis Centre; Norwich, UK). Across the 383 accession panel, 46,307 single SNPs and 309,229 hemi-SNPs were detected and scored of which 256,397 SNPs had a population second allele frequency (saf) > 0.01. Transcript abundance was quantified and normalised as reads per kb per million aligned reads (RPKM) for each accession for 116,098 coding DNA sequence (CDS) models of the pan-transcriptome reference. Significant expression (mean >0.4 RPKM) was detected for 53,889 CDS models. Inference of population structure by Q-matrix was obtained by Population Structure Inference using Kernel-PCA and Optimization (PSIKO; Popescu *et al.*, 2014). A heatmap illustrating the relatedness of all genotypes in this study can be found in Supplementary Figure 1. Transcriptome sequences are deposited within the Sequence Read Archive (Leinonen *et al.*, 2011) under accession number PRJNA309367.

### 2.2.2 Associative transcriptomics

Associative transcriptomics was performed using SNPs, Q-matrix and trait data in a compressed mixed linear model approach (Zhang *et al.*, 2010) implemented in the GAPIT R package (Lipka *et al.*, 2012) in R 3.2.0 (R Core Team, 2015). The association analysis between gene expression markers (GEMs) and traits was performed by using fixed effect linear modelling in R with RPKM values and Q-matrix data as the explanatory variables and trait score the response variable, with scripts developed by Harper *et al.* (2012). Coefficients of determination ( $R^2$ ), constants and significance values were calculated for each regression. Manhattan plots were generated using graph functions in R. SNPs with low second allele frequency (<0.01) were filtered from the dataset prior to generating plots. In total 256,397 SNPs and 53,889 GEMs were plotted. False Discovery Rate (FDR; Benjamini and Hochberg, 1995) and Bonferroni (Dunn, 1961) corrections were used to set significance thresholds at  $P < 0.05$ . Due to sequence similarity between *B. napus* A and C genomes, assignment to a specific genome was not possible for all SNP markers; such markers are plotted in grey and appear in

200 both positions on Manhattan plots. See Supplementary Figures 2-5 for quartile-quartile (QQ)  
 201 plots of each association analysis.

202

### 203 **2.2.3 Candidate gene identification**

204

205 Ordered pan-transcriptome data based on *Brassica* A and C genomes from *B. rapa*, *B. napus*,  
 206 and *B. oleracea* CDS gene models (He *et al.*, 2015) were used to identify candidate genes.  
 207 Candidate genes were selected based on *Arabidopsis thaliana* annotated functions of *Brassica*  
 208 orthologues within estimated linkage disequilibrium decay of significantly associated markers  
 209 (around 1-2 cM on average; Ecke *et al.*, 2010). Further information relating to candidate gene  
 210 predicted function was obtained from genome browsers comprising sequences of *B. rapa* (A  
 211 genome, Chiifu-401-41; Wang *et al.*, 2011) and *B. oleracea* (C genome, TO1000DH3; Parkin  
 212 *et al.*, 2014) at Ensembl Plants (Kersey *et al.*, 2016). *A. thaliana* functional information were  
 213 obtained from The Arabidopsis Information Resource (TAIR; Huala *et al.*, 2001). Further  
 214 resources used to aid with selection of candidates included *A. thaliana* gene expression data at  
 215 The Bio-Analytic Resource for Plant Biology (Waese and Provart 2017) and ionic data at  
 216 the Purdue Ionomics Information Management System (PIIMS; Baxter *et al.*, 2007).

217

## 218 **2.3 Experiments using *Arabidopsis thaliana* mutants**

219

### 220 **2.3.1 Plant material and genotyping**

221

222 Seed of 15 *Arabidopsis thaliana* mutant lines representing 10 candidate genes were acquired  
 223 from the Nottingham Arabidopsis Stock Centre (Nottingham, UK). These comprised SALK  
 224 (Alonso *et al.*, 2003) and SAIL (Sessions *et al.*, 2002) T-DNA lines and are summarised in  
 225 Table 1. *Arabidopsis thaliana* ecotype Columbia-0 (Col-0) was used as the wild type control  
 226 in all experiments. Plants were by genotyped for homozygous T-DNA insertions by  
 227 conventional PCR. Genotyping primers are summarised in Table 1. Left border primers used  
 228 were SALK LBb1 and SAIL LB1 for SALK and SAIL lines respectively.

229

### 230 **2.3.2 Preliminary phenotyping**

231

232 Seeds from homozygous mutant lines and Col-0 were sterilized in bleach, then washed in H<sub>2</sub>O  
 233 and 70% ethanol prior to sowing on plates containing 1% agar containing 0.4 g L<sup>-1</sup> Hoagland's  
 234 solution (Hoagland and Arnon 1950; ¼ strength). Plates were stored in darkness at 4°C for 24  
 235 h, and then moved to a controlled environment growth chamber set to 23°C (~30 W m<sup>-2</sup>  
 236 continuous light). After seven days, plants were transferred to pots containing Levington M3  
 237 compost (ICL Specialty Fertilizers, Ipswich, Suffolk, UK) plus T34 biocontrol (Fargro Ltd,  
 238 Arundel, West Sussex, UK) and placed on flow benches in a glasshouse with 18°C heating,  
 239 venting at 20°C, with 16 hour supplementary lighting (76 W m<sup>-2</sup>). Flow bench automatic  
 240 irrigation operated once daily. After 10 days of establishment, six plants of each line were  
 241 chosen randomly and transferred to individual wells in 16 well trays in a six block, using a one-  
 242 way randomised design generated in GenStat (17<sup>th</sup> edition; VSN International, 2014) in which  
 243 plants of each line were represented once per block and randomised within each block  
 244 (Supplementary Table 1). In total, each line was represented six times. ARACON systems  
 245 (Betatech BVBA, Gent, Belgium) were used to keep plants separate. At mid-flowering, whole  
 246 shoots were harvested by cutting them below the rosette. Shoots were dried at 50°C for at least  
 247 two days, and then crushed by hand within paper bags. Shoot subsamples (~0.10 g DW) were  
 248 digested using a microwave system comprising a Multiwave 3000 platform with a 48-vessel  
 249 MF50 rotor (Anton Paar GmbH, Graz, Austria). Digestion vessels were perfluoroalkoxy (PFA)

250 liner material and polyethylethylketone (PEEK) pressure jackets (Anton Paar GmbH). Leaf  
251 material was digested in 2 mL 70% Trace Analysis Grade HNO<sub>3</sub>, 1 mL Milli-Q water (18.2  
252 MΩ cm; Fisher Scientific UK Ltd, Loughborough, UK), and 1 mL H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> with microwave  
253 settings as follows: power = 1400 W, temp = 140 °C, pressure = 2 MPa, time = 45 min. Two  
254 operational blanks and duplicate samples of certified reference material (CRM; Tomato SRM  
255 1573a, NIST, Gaithersburg, MD, USA) were included in each digestion run. Following  
256 digestion, each tube was made up to a final volume of 15 mL by adding 11 mL Milli-Q water  
257 and transferred to a 25 mL universal tube (Sarstedt Ltd., Nümbrecht, Germany) and stored at  
258 room temperature. Leaf digestates were diluted 1-in-5 using Milli-Q water prior to broad-  
259 spectrum elemental analysis by ICP-MS as described previously (Thomas *et al.*, 2016). For  
260 each data-point, an element-specific operational blank concentration (mean of each ICP-MS  
261 run) was subtracted. Data were then multiplied by initial sample volume, divided by the initial  
262 dry mass of plant material, and converted to mg element kg<sup>-1</sup> of dry leaf or seed material. The  
263 CRM Ca and Mg recovery averaged 99 and 89% respectively.

264

### 265 2.3.4 Tissue partitioning experiment

266

267 Based on results from preliminary phenotyping, lines At2g13610.2, At5g07320.2 and  
268 At5g48650.2 were found to have significantly lower shoot Ca or Mg concentrations than wild  
269 type plants and hence were selected for further characterisation. Individual seed from these  
270 lines and Col-0 were sown into 12 well trays containing Levington M3 compost plus T34  
271 biocontrol and placed on flow benches in a glasshouse with 18°C heating, venting at 20°C,  
272 with 16 hour supplementary lighting (76 W m<sup>-2</sup>). Flow bench automatic-irrigation operated  
273 once daily. After successful establishment, 12 plants per genotype were selected randomly and  
274 transplanted into individual 9 cm pots. These were arranged in a 12 block, one-way randomised  
275 design generated in GenStat in which each genotype was represented once per block and  
276 genotypes randomised within each block (Supplementary Table 2). At mid-flowering (40 days  
277 after sowing), entire shoots were harvested. Shoots were partitioned into rosette leaves, stem,  
278 stem leaves, and siliques. Tissue samples were dried at 50°C for six days, and then samples  
279 from plants in blocks 1-4, 5-8, and 9-12 were pooled into the four genotypes to ensure enough  
280 sample was available for mineral analysis. Pooled samples were crushed by hand, and then  
281 microwave digested prior to mineral analysis by ICP-MS as described above. Digestates were  
282 diluted 1-in-10 prior to mineral analysis. The recovery of Ca and Mg from the CRM averaged  
283 96 and 88% respectively.

284

### 285 2.3.5 Statistical analyses

286

287 Data from experiments using *A. thaliana* mutants were analysed using one-way ANOVA in  
288 GenStat (17<sup>th</sup> edition; VSN International, 2014) with block design included in the model.  
289 Tissue Ca and Mg concentration data were analysed separately in each case, and tissue types  
290 were analysed using separate ANOVA tests in the tissue partitioning experiment. For the  
291 preliminary phenotyping experiment, six replicate plants were analysed for each genotype. For  
292 the tissue partitioning experiment, three samples, each comprising pooled samples from four  
293 replicate plants, were analysed for each genotype. Means of different *A. thaliana* genotypes  
294 were compared using Least Significant Difference (LSD) functions in GenStat with differences  
295 considered significant at  $P < 0.05$ . Further LSD tests were conducted at  $P < 0.01$  and  $P < 0.001$   
296 levels.

297

## 298 3 Results

299

### 3.1 Variation in leaf Ca and Mg concentration in the RIPR diversity population

The leaf concentrations of 21 mineral elements including Ca and Mg in the RIPR diversity population were previously determined by Thomas *et al.* (2016). Leaf Ca concentrations varied over 3-fold across the population, from 5,838 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> to 18,752 mg kg<sup>-1</sup>. Leaf Mg concentrations were of a similar order of magnitude and varied over 2-fold, from 5,118 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> to 13,429 mg kg<sup>-1</sup>. The frequency distribution of these two elements approximated a normal distribution (Supplementary Figure 6). Leaf Ca and Mg concentrations were among the highest, positively correlated elements measured across genotypes and tissues, with an *r* value of 0.87 ( $P < 0.001$ ). Leaf Ca and Mg concentrations varied between crop type, with higher concentrations of both elements in leaves of spring and semiwinter OSR than in winter OSR, winter fodder, and swede types.

### 3.2 Associative transcriptomics suggest flowering time regulators are important markers for leaf Ca and Mg concentrations

To identify candidate loci, SNPs and GEMs were used separately in analyses. A total of 1295 and eight SNPs were found to be significantly associated with *B. napus* leaf Ca concentration after FDR and Bonferroni corrections, respectively. After removing SNPs with low second allele frequency, this was reduced to 247 and five SNPs respectively across all chromosomes. Visually determined association peaks on Manhattan plots were observed on chromosomes A3, A6, A7, A10, C2, C3 and C9 (Fig 1A). The most well defined peak was located on chromosome A10 and contained four out of the five SNPs above the Bonferroni corrected significance threshold ( $P = 0.05$ ). The fifth SNP above this threshold fell in a peak on chromosome C9, in a region known to share sequence homology with parts of chromosome A10 (Chalhoub *et al.*, 2014). A total of 5557 and 141 GEMs were identified as significantly associated with leaf Ca concentration after FDR and Bonferroni corrections respectively (Fig 1B). Notable peaks were observed on chromosomes A2 and C2. Single, associated GEMs were found at similar locations to SNP association peaks on chromosomes A3 and C2. The *A. thaliana* orthologue of *B. napus* genes corresponding to both these GEMs is At5g10140, which encodes FLOWERING LOCUS C (FLC), a transcription factor important for controlling flowering time (Michaels and Amasino 1999). A further associated GEM was found in a region of chromosome A10, close to a SNP peak associated with leaf Ca concentration. Other single GEMs associated with leaf Ca concentration were observed on chromosomes A5, A6, C4 and C6. *B. napus* genes corresponding to these GEMs on chromosomes A5 and C4 are orthologous to *A. thaliana* At2g45660, which encodes SUPPRESSOR OF OVEREXPRESSION OF CO 1 (SOC1), another flowering time regulator (Lee *et al.*, 2000).

The SNP and GEM associations for leaf Mg concentration were similar to those described for leaf Ca concentration. A total of 1012 and one significant SNP(s) were found after FDR and Bonferroni corrections, respectively. After removing SNPs with low second allele frequency, this was reduced to 166 and zero SNPs respectively across all chromosomes. Of these 166 SNPs, 86 were identical to SNPs identified as significantly associated with leaf Ca concentration after FDR correction and removal of SNPs with low second allele frequency, indicating the potential of similar mechanisms to partly regulate accumulation. Visually determined association peaks largely co-localised to those associated with leaf Ca concentration, specifically on chromosomes A3, A7, A10, C2, C3 and C9 (Fig 1C). The most well defined peak was again on chromosome A10, and as before, a region on chromosome C9 with sequence homology to this region also contained associated SNPs. An association peak on chromosome A2 was also particularly well defined, containing 15 SNPs above the FDR



350 corrected significance threshold. A total of 12973 and 1489 GEMs were identified as  
 351 significantly associated with leaf Mg concentration after FDR and Bonferroni corrections  
 352 respectively across all chromosomes (Fig 1D). Of these, 5160 and 131 were also significantly  
 353 associated with leaf Ca concentration after FDR and Bonferroni corrections respectively.  
 354 Notable peaks were again observed on chromosomes A2 and C2. The most highly associated  
 355 GEMs on A3 and C2 were identical to those associated with leaf Ca concentration which  
 356 correspond to *A. thaliana FLC*, and an associated GEM on C4 is identical to the GEM  
 357 associated with leaf Ca concentration corresponding to *SOCI*.

358

### 359 **3.3 Genes encoding previously identified Ca and Mg transporters are within linkage** 360 **disequilibrium of highly associated markers for leaf Ca and Mg concentration**

361

362 Linkage disequilibrium (LD) describes the non-random association of alleles at different loci  
 363 (Slatkin, 2008). Genes located physically near to each are generally inherited together, and  
 364 hence are often in very strong LD. It is therefore feasible that any number of genes within LD  
 365 of SNPs significantly associated with a trait may be controlling such associations. Based on  
 366 associative transcriptomics results, seven loci were focussed on for the identification of  
 367 candidate genes. These comprised regions of chromosomes A2, A3, A5, A6, A10, C2 and C4.  
 368 A total of 17 *B. napus* candidate genes orthologous to 15 *A. thaliana* genes are summarised in  
 369 Table 2. Four candidate genes were selected based on direct GEM hits as described above.  
 370 These are Cab002472.4 and BnaC02g00490D (on chromosomes A3 and C2 respectively)  
 371 encoding orthologues of *A. thaliana* At5g10140 (*FLC*), and Cab025356.1 and Bo4g024850.1  
 372 (on chromosomes A5 and C4 respectively) encoding orthologues of *A. thaliana* At2g45660  
 373 (*SOCI*). One and two candidate genes on chromosomes A2 and C2 respectively are  
 374 orthologous to *A. thaliana* MAGNESIUM TRANSPORTER 7 (*MGT7/MRS2-7*). This was  
 375 previously characterised in *Arabidopsis thaliana* as an Mg transporter important for Mg uptake  
 376 at low external concentrations (Gebert *et al.*, 2009). A further candidate gene on chromosome  
 377 A10 is orthologous to *A. thaliana* AUTOINHIBITED  $Ca^{2+}$ -ATPASE, ISOFORM 8 (*ACA8*).  
 378 This was previously characterised as a plasma membrane-localised  $Ca^{2+}$  transporting ATPase  
 379 in *A. thaliana* (Bonza *et al.* 2000) and was identified as Ca responsive in *B. rapa* (Graham *et*  
 380 *al.*, 2014). The functions of the remaining nine candidate genes were selected based on  
 381 sequence homology and annotations of *A. thaliana* orthologues and are either uncharacterised,  
 382 or have not previously been experimentally shown to be involved in plant Ca or Mg  
 383 accumulation (Table 2). These and At2g45660 (*SOCI*) were used for the selection of *A.*  
 384 *thaliana* mutants.

385

### 386 **3.4 Four mutant *A. thaliana* lines have reduced shoot Ca and Mg concentration compared** 387 **to wild type and effects are tissue specific**

388

389 Shoot Ca concentrations in a preliminary *A. thaliana* phenotyping experiment varied three-fold  
 390 between individual plants, from 8,684 to 26,387 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> dry weight (DW; Supplementary  
 391 Table 3). Much of this variation was observed within genotypes, with the largest variation  
 392 observed in lines At5g7320.1 and At5g08670.1. Four mutant lines had significantly lower  
 393 mean shoot Ca concentrations than wild type plants. These were At2g13610.2 ( $P < 0.05$ ),  
 394 At5g07320.2 ( $P < 0.01$ ), At5g08670.1 ( $P < 0.05$ ) and At5g48650.2 ( $P < 0.01$ ; Fig 2A). Leaf Mg  
 395 concentrations varied less, with two-fold variation from 8,189 to 16,186 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> DW observed  
 396 between individual plants. Much of this variation was between genotypes. Two mutant lines  
 397 had lower mean shoot Mg concentration than wild type plants. These were At2g13610.1  
 398 ( $P < 0.05$ ) and At5g48650.2 ( $P < 0.05$ ; Fig 2B). Based on these data, lines At2g13610.2,

399 At5g07320.2 and At5g48650.2 were selected for characterisation of tissue specific leaf Ca and  
400 Mg concentration.

401

402 Calcium concentrations varied over eight-fold between tissues and pooled tissue samples,  
403 ranging from 4,998 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> DW in stems to 40,536 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> DW in cauline leaves (Fig 3A-D,  
404 Supplementary Table 4). Cauline and rosette leaf Ca concentrations were similar, ranging from  
405 32,966 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> DW in rosette leaves to 40,536 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> DW in cauline leaves. Mean silique Ca  
406 concentrations were lower in lines At2g13610.2, At5g07320.2 and At5g48650.2 than wild type  
407 plants ( $P < 0.01$ ; Fig 3B). Mean stem Ca concentrations were lower in lines At5g07320.2 and  
408 At5g48650.2 than wild type plants ( $P < 0.05$ ; Fig 3C). Mean stem leaf Ca concentration was  
409 lower in line At5g48650.2 than wild type plants ( $P < 0.05$ ; Fig 3D). Mg concentrations varied  
410 over nine-fold between tissues and pooled samples, ranging from 2,608 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> DW in stems  
411 to 23,999 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> DW in rosette leaves (Fig 4A-D). Cauline leaf and rosette leaf Mg  
412 concentrations had a similar range, from 18,026 to 21,328 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> DW and from 19,240 to  
413 23,999 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> DW respectively. Lines At2g13610.2 and At5g48650.2 had lower mean silique  
414 Mg than wild type plants ( $P < 0.05$ ; Fig 4B). Line At5g48650.2 also had lower mean stem Mg  
415 than wild type plants. Finally, and comparable with results from cauline leaf Ca concentration  
416 analysis, mean cauline leaf Mg concentration was lower in line At5g48650.2 than in wild type  
417 plants ( $P < 0.05$ ; Fig 4D).

418

419 In summary, data from *A. thaliana* experiments identified four and two mutant lines with lower  
420 shoot Ca and Mg concentrations than wild type plants respectively and three of these mutations  
421 have tissue specific phenotypes. The main tissue specific effects were observed in silique  
422 tissue, with lower silique Ca concentrations in all three mutant lines investigated in the tissue  
423 partitioning experiment.

424

## 425 **4 Discussion**

426

### 427 **4.1 SNP based association analyses identify novel and confirm pre-determined candidate** 428 **loci for leaf Ca and Mg concentrations**

429

430 Leaf Ca concentration was highly associated with loci on chromosomes A3, A6, A7, A10, C2,  
431 C3 and C9 (Fig 1A). Similar loci were associated with leaf Mg concentration, specifically in  
432 regions of chromosomes A3, A7, A10, C2, C3 and C9 (Fig 1C). The most highly associated  
433 SNP for leaf Ca concentration was located on chromosome A10 (Fig 1A). This co-localises  
434 with associated markers on C9 and markers on A10 and C9 for leaf Mg concentration. Co-  
435 localisation of association peaks and associated markers for both mineral elements is  
436 unsurprising, as leaf Ca and Mg concentration data used in this study were very highly  
437 correlated ( $r = 0.87$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ; Thomas *et al.*, 2016) and may reflect the relative lack of  
438 selectivity between these and other group II elements during accumulation within the plant  
439 (White, 2001). Such correlations between shoot Ca and Mg concentration have been previously  
440 shown in *B. oleracea* (Broadley *et al.*, 2008) and a number of other angiosperm species  
441 (Broadley *et al.*, 2004). Bus *et al.* (2014) previously investigated the genetic control of shoot  
442 ionome traits across 505 lines of *B. napus* using 3,910 SNPs in association analyses. Results  
443 showed two associations at a locus on chromosome C9 for shoot Ca and Mg concentration with  
444 a further association on chromosome C7 for shoot Ca concentration. The detection of an  
445 association locus on C9 is consistent with co-localised associations identified in this study.  
446 These results are also consistent with earlier findings by Broadley *et al.* (2008) who identified  
447 significant QTL for shoot Ca and Mg in *B. oleracea* on chromosomes C2, C6, C7, C8, and C9.  
448 Together, these results indicate the importance of loci on chromosomes A10 and C9 for Ca and

449 Mg accumulation. The QTL identified for shoot Mg in *B. oleracea* on chromosome C2 by  
 450 Broadley *et al.* (2008) is also consistent with findings in the present study that a locus on C2 is  
 451 highly associated with leaf Mg concentration in *B. napus*. However, further work is required  
 452 to confirm whether the loci are in close proximity to one another. To our knowledge, the  
 453 remaining loci identified in this study have not been previously identified as important QTL  
 454 for leaf Ca and Mg concentration in *Brassica* spp.

455

#### 456 **4.2 FLC and SOC1 GEM associations may be linked to variation in leaf Ca and Mg** 457 **concentrations between spring and winter *B. napus* types in the RIPR panel**

458

459 GEM analyses associated markers corresponding to *FLC* and *SOC1* with both leaf Ca and Mg  
 460 concentrations. In *A. thaliana*, *FLC* is a repressor of flowering (Michaels and Amasino 1999)  
 461 and it has been previously shown that *FLC* transcript concentration correlates with  
 462 vernalisation requirements (Sheldon *et al.* 2000). Expression levels of *SOC1* also correlate with  
 463 flowering time in *A. thaliana*; in lines which flower later, *SOC1* expression is very low (Lee *et*  
 464 *al.*, 2000). It is thought that *SOC1* expression is repressed by *FLC*, indicating the tight  
 465 regulatory links between these genes and flowering time. Leaf Ca and Mg concentration data  
 466 used in this study were obtained from analysis of plants in the RIPR panel (Thomas *et al.*,  
 467 2016) which includes a large number of spring and winter *B. napus* varieties. Thomas *et al.*  
 468 (2016) observed differences in leaf Ca and Mg concentrations between these types, with higher  
 469 mean concentrations of both leaf Ca and Mg in spring OSR compared to winter OSR and winter  
 470 fodder types. Since winter OSR types are generally considered to have longer vernalisation  
 471 requirements than spring types, it is possible that the association of *FLC* and *SOC1* with leaf  
 472 Ca and Mg concentration observed in this study was a result of differences in vernalisation  
 473 requirement between these groups rather than direct genetic control of Ca and Mg uptake. It is  
 474 worth noting that the association of GEMs with a trait does not indicate the causative  
 475 polymorphism/s, only genes in which expression level is associated with variation in the trait.  
 476 The causative polymorphism/s may lie in the promotor sequence of such genes, or localise  
 477 somewhere upstream in the pathway. Hence, in the case of the flowering time genes identified  
 478 here, it is unclear whether or not the observed associations with leaf Ca and Mg concentration  
 479 are directly caused by changes in expression of *FLC* and *SOC1*. Despite this, their expression  
 480 appears to be a suitable marker for the concentrations of these elements in *B. napus*. Further to  
 481 this, the concentrations of a number of other mineral elements measured in the study of Thomas  
 482 *et al.* (2016) were found to vary between crop types with typically different flowering times  
 483 and vernalisation requirements. Most notably, leaf concentrations of Mo, Na, P and S were  
 484 higher in spring OSR than winter OSR types. This suggests that flowering time, or the upstream  
 485 mechanisms leading to changes in flowering time, has an effect on the concentrations of a  
 486 number of nutrients in *B. napus*, though the pathway/s that lead to these differences remain  
 487 unclear.

488

#### 489 **4.3 ACA8 and MGT7 are among genes within linkage disequilibrium of associated loci**

490

491 Identification of high-resolution loci influencing leaf Ca and Mg concentrations enabled locus-  
 492 specific exploration of the *Brassica* pan-transcriptomes and other genome resources for  
 493 candidate genes within LD of SNPs. LD is especially relevant to the efficacy of associative  
 494 transcriptomics in the absence of a marker in a trait-controlling gene. LD decays relatively  
 495 quickly in *B. napus* (Harper *et al.*, 2012; Ecke *et al.*, 2010), and this helps to reduce the number  
 496 of possibilities when searching for candidate genes. However, in this study, typically hundreds  
 497 of genes were still within previously estimated LD decay (around 1-2 cM on average; Ecke *et*  
 498 *al.*, 2010) of most candidate loci. Fortunately, well annotated browsers of *Brassica* A and C

499 genomes are available at Ensembl Plants (Kersey *et al.*, 2016), which enabled rapid  
 500 identification of nearby genes in the reference sequences with links to functional annotation of  
 501 *A. thaliana* orthologues.

502

503 Most notable genes identified using this workflow include an orthologue of *A. thaliana* *ACA8*  
 504 near markers associated with leaf Ca on chromosome A10 and two orthologues of *A. thaliana*  
 505 *MGT7* near markers associated with leaf Mg on chromosomes A2 and C2. *ACA8* encodes a  
 506 Ca<sup>2+</sup> transporting ATP-ase localised to the plasma membrane (Bonza *et al.*, 2000). A *B. rapa*  
 507 orthologue of *A. thaliana* *ACA8* was previously identified under an eQTL hot spot on  
 508 chromosome A3 (Graham *et al.*, 2014). The eQTL associated with this gene was defined as  
 509 Ca-responsive, i.e. the direction of the eQTL changed under high Ca supply. The *A. thaliana*  
 510 orthologue of *ACA8* was further investigated *in silico* in the same study using publically  
 511 available phenotypic data at the PIIMs database (Baxter *et al.*, 2007). This led to the  
 512 identification of *ACA8* T-DNA knockout mutants with greater shoot Ca concentrations than  
 513 control plants in over 50% of mutant samples, indicating the ability of this gene to influence  
 514 Ca accumulation in *Brassica*. *MGT7* is a member of the MGT/MRS2 Mg transport family. This  
 515 was previously characterised as a key transporter for Mg uptake at low external Mg  
 516 concentrations by Gebert *et al.* (2009). *Arabidopsis thaliana* T-DNA knockout mutants were  
 517 severely retarded in development when grown at low external Mg concentrations, but were  
 518 visually unaffected when grown at higher external Mg concentrations. Both *ACA8* and *MGT7*  
 519 are very promising candidate genes for the control of Ca and Mg accumulation in *B. napus*.  
 520 The presence of these genes within LD of highly associated SNPs demonstrates the  
 521 effectiveness of associative transcriptomics in candidate gene identification. Since *ACA8* and  
 522 *MGT7* knockout mutants had previously been characterised in *A. thaliana*, they were not  
 523 included in further experiments in this study.

524

#### 525 **4.4 *Arabidopsis thaliana* mutant phenotyping reveals new candidates for Ca and Mg** 526 **accumulation**

527

528 The preliminary *A. thaliana* phenotyping experiment identified four mutant lines with lower  
 529 shoot Ca concentrations and two with lower shoot Mg concentrations than wild type plants.  
 530 The most notable of these was At5g48650.2, the only line in which both shoot Ca and Mg was  
 531 affected. The gene mutated in this line encodes NUCLEAR TRANSPORT FACTOR 2  
 532 (NTF2). This protein is proposed to function in the import of RAN, a multifunctional GTPase  
 533 involved in nucleocytoplasmic transport (Zhao *et al.*, 2006). It is the first time that it has been  
 534 characterised with a shoot Ca and Mg phenotype in *A. thaliana*. Further investigation of this  
 535 line showed that it had lower Ca and Mg concentration than wild type plants in all tissues  
 536 except rosette leaves, suggesting it could be a promising candidate for manipulating the  
 537 translocation of Ca and Mg to specific tissues in crop plants. At5g07320 encodes the ATP-  
 538 Mg/Pi transporter APC3. Despite being annotated as an Mg/Pi transporter, mutants in this gene  
 539 were only found to have reduced shoot Ca concentration. Tissue specific characterisation of  
 540 this line showed silique and stem Ca concentrations were lower than wild type plants. This  
 541 suggests that, at least in these conditions, the effects of the mutation are limited. However,  
 542 effects at different external Ca or Mg concentrations might be different. A further line mutated  
 543 in a gene encoding an ABC transporter was found to have both lower Ca and Mg concentrations  
 544 in siliques compared to wild type plants. Identifying candidate genes controlling silique  
 545 nutrient traits is particularly important in *B. napus*, which is mostly grown for the harvest of  
 546 seeds which have a secondary use in animal feed. All *A. thaliana* experiments in this study  
 547 took place using a high-nutrient compost. This could have masked the phenotypes of mutations  
 548 in a number of candidate genes which may have been able to maintain normal Ca and Mg

549 concentrations due to sufficient soil concentrations. In addition, it is possible that the mutations  
550 characterised here would show greater defects in shoot Ca and Mg concentrations when grown  
551 in nutrient limiting conditions. As well as this, all plants in both *A. thaliana* experiments were  
552 harvested at a single growth stage and other phenotypes might be seen at other growth stages.  
553 Despite this, four candidate genes analysed here have proven to be potential targets for altering  
554 Ca and Mg concentrations in *B. napus*. These are orthologues of the *Arabidopsis thaliana* genes  
555 At2g13610, At5g07320, At5g08670 and At5g48650.

556

## 557 **5 Summary and potential applications**

558

559 In this study, we have identified a number of genetic loci associated with leaf Ca and Mg  
560 concentration in *B. napus*. Within these loci, several novel candidate genes together with genes  
561 previously shown to influence or respond to Ca and Mg concentrations in this and closely  
562 related *Brassica* spp. were localised. Most well defined loci included regions on chromosomes  
563 A2, A10, C2 and C9, close to the known Ca and Mg transporters *ACA8* and *MGT7*.  
564 Experiments in *A. thaliana* T-DNA knockouts confirmed that a further four candidate genes  
565 influence shoot Ca and Mg concentrations. This study used *B. napus* associative  
566 transcriptomics followed by an *A. thaliana* T-DNA knockout workflow to identify and test  
567 candidate genes quickly and efficiently. Due to similar phylogeny, genes characterised here in  
568 *A. thaliana* are likely to have additive effects in *B. napus*. However, further study of candidate  
569 genes in *B. napus* is required to confirm *A. thaliana* gene functions observed here and in  
570 previous studies are conserved. Both *ACA8* and *MGT7* are good targets for this, especially  
571 since *ACA8* has previously exhibited Ca-responsiveness in *B. rapa* (Graham *et al.*, 2014), and  
572 since the effects of mutations in *A. thaliana* *MGT7* are so marked. Selection of *B. napus*  
573 genotypes with different alleles of target genes may lead to improved ability to grow in the  
574 presence of low soil Ca or Mg concentrations. The development of high Ca and Mg  
575 accumulating lines in edible portions of *Brassica* spp. also has the potential to reduce nutrient  
576 deficiencies in humans and livestock across the world.

577

## 578 **Conflict of interest statement**

579

580 The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

581

## 582 **Author contributions**

583

584 MB, IB, PW, TA and NG conceived the project and contributed to experimental design. TA  
585 analysed associative transcriptomics data and performed and analysed *A. thaliana* mutant  
586 experiments. LH and ZH prepared functional genotypes and performed associative  
587 transcriptomics. TA and NG wrote the manuscript. All authors contributed to and have read  
588 and approved the final version of the manuscript.

589

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598

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602

### 603 **Supplementary material**

604

605 Supplementary Table 1: Block design of preliminary *Arabidopsis thaliana* phenotyping  
 606 experiment.

607 Supplementary Table 2: Block design of *Arabidopsis thaliana* tissue partitioning phenotyping  
 608 experiment.

609 Supplementary Table 3: Shoot Ca and Mg concentration data from preliminary *Arabidopsis*  
 610 *thaliana* phenotyping experiment.

611 Supplementary Table 4: Shoot Ca and Mg concentration data from *Arabidopsis thaliana* tissue  
 612 partitioning phenotyping experiment.

613

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- 796

797 Table 1. Summary of *Arabidopsis thaliana* T-DNA insertion lines acquired for characterisation  
 798 including primers used for genotyping. NASC stock code shown for reordering.  
 799

Line Name	SALK/SAIL code	NASC stock code	Forward primer	Reverse primer
At2g05120.1	SALK_119762	N619762	TTCTGGAGAA ACAAGGTCCA A	ATGGCAGCAA GTTTTTCACC
At2g13610.1	SALK_074250	N574250	CGATTTGCCG AAAAGAAAAA	GTTTCCTCCAC CGTAAGCAA
At2g13610.2	SALK_074250C	N681303	CGATTTGCCG AAAAGAAAAA	GTTTCCTCCAC CGTAAGCAA
At2g45660.1	SALK_138131	N638131	GGTTCTTCCTT TCGCAGAGA	CCACAAAAGG CCAATCAAAT
At5g03960.1	SALK_138382	N638382	TGGTTGAGGA AGCAAGAAGG	TGTGCTCTGCC TCCTTTGTA
At5g06530.1	SALK_024391	N524391	TTCCCCAAAG GTATCGATTCT A	TCGAACAAC GGGATTGACA
At5g06530.2	SALK_076250	N576250	TTCCCCAAAG GTATCGATTCT A	CGGGCATTTG ATAGCACTTT
At5g07320.1	SALK_037517	N537517	CGCTGCATAT GAAACGCTAA	TCAATGATCG CAACAAAACA A
At5g07320.2	SALK_037517C	N683966	CGCTGCATAT GAAACGCTAA	CCATAAAAAT ATATGTCCCA ATTTCA
At5g08670.1	SALK_083107	N583107	CGATGTTCCC AACATTTGAA	AACAGAGACC GGCGAGACTA
At5g10520.1	SALK_019299	N519299	TATTTTCATGCA CGGCATTGT	GGGTTGGAAA TGTGGAAGAA
At5g10520.2	SALK_053754	N553754	CCGTTTCGTCT TCTCACCAT	ACATGGTGAG GCCAGTTCTC
At5g14040.1	SALK_105845	N605845	CCCTTACTTTT CGGAGCATTC	TTGCACTTGAC GAGATCGAG
At5g48650.1	SALK_027468	N527468	GCGGTAGCTG AGGGTACATC	CCACCATCAA GCCAAAGACT
At5g48650.2	SAIL_64_G12	N803057	GCCCAATAGG CAAACAAATG	AAGTCTGGGA CCAACAATGG

800  
801

802 Table 2. Summary of candidate genes selected from associative transcriptomics outputs.  
 803 Putative functions obtained from The Arabidopsis Information Resource (TAIR; Huala *et al.*  
 804 2001).  
 805

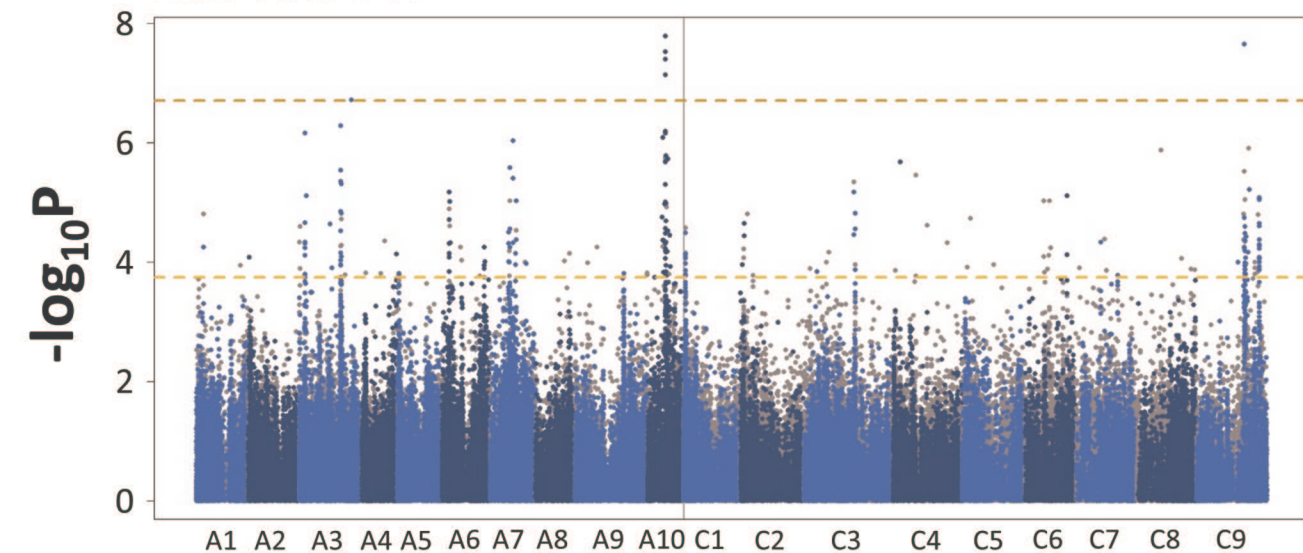
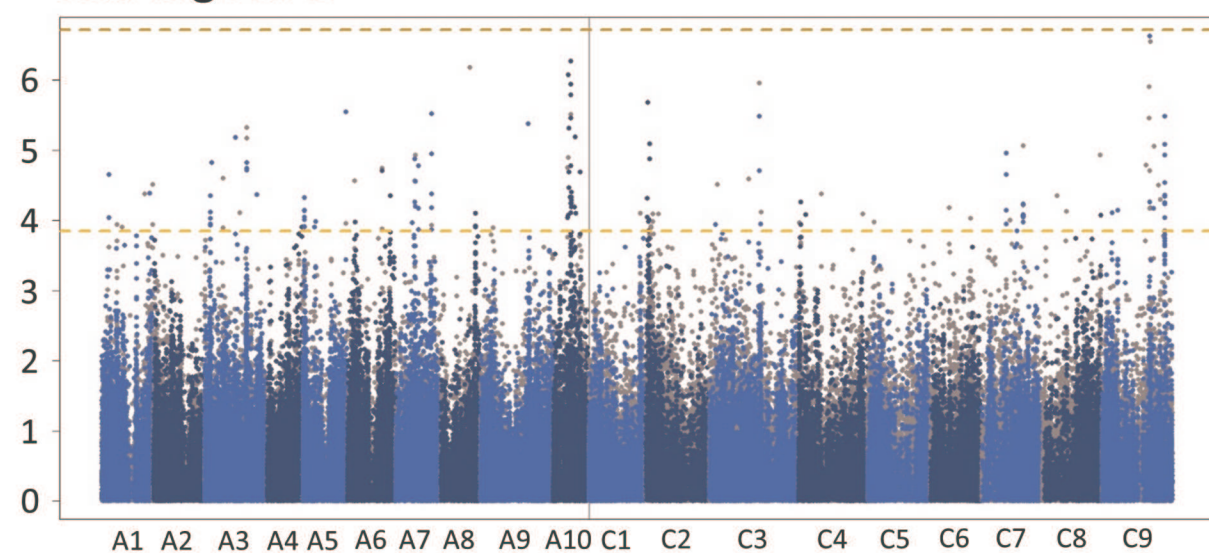
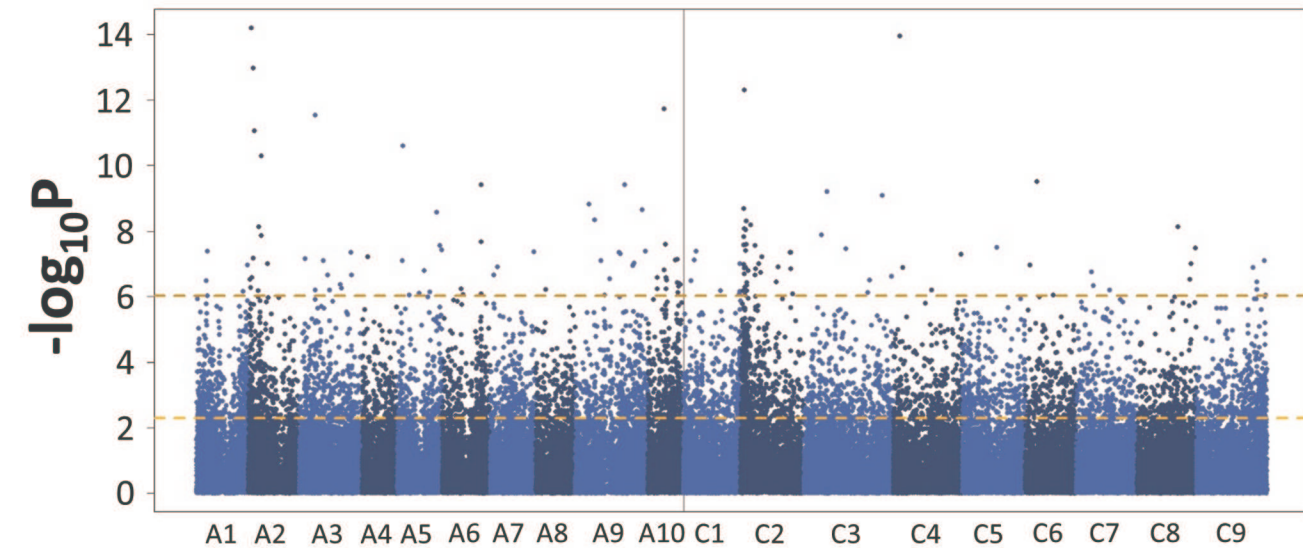
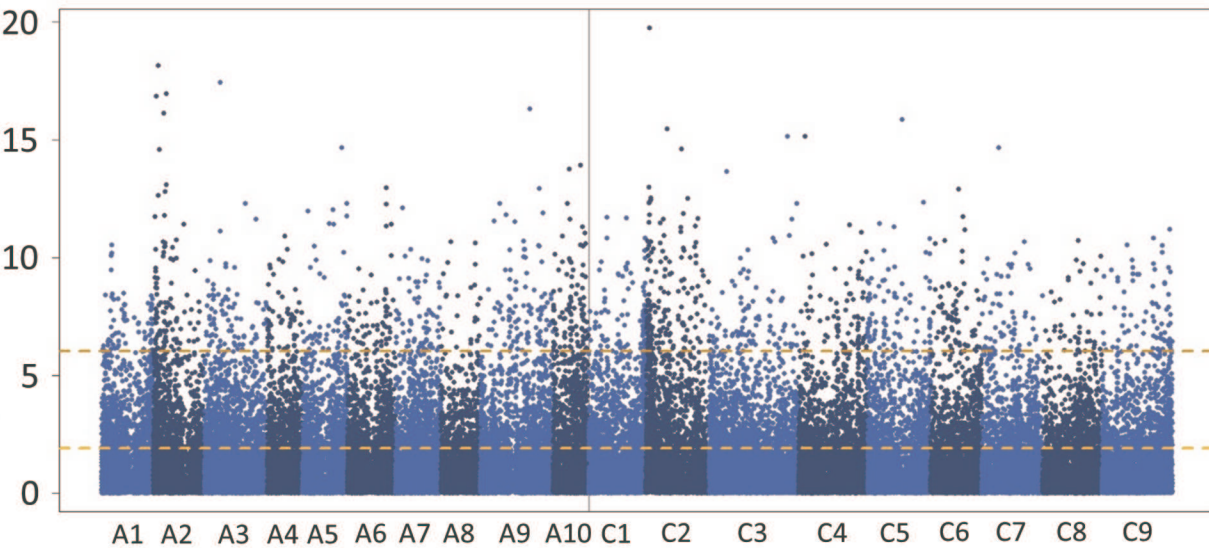
Candidate gene	Chromosome	<i>A. thaliana</i> orthologue	Putative function
Cab036107.1	A2	At5g09690	Mg transporter - MGT7
Cab039480.1	A2	At5g03960	IQ-domain - IQD12
Cab002472.4	A3	At5g10140	Flowering Locus - FLC
Cab001235.1	A3	At2g05120	Nucleoporin - NUP133
Cab001274.1	A3	At2g13610	ABC transporter - ABCG5
Cab025356.1	A5	At2g45660	Suppressor of overexpression of CO - SOC1
Cab007043.1	A6	At5g48650	Nuclear transport factor - NTF2
Cab017470.1	A10	At5g57110	Ca transporting ATPase - ACA8
BnaC02g00490D	C2	At5g10140	Flowering Locus - FLC
Bo2g007260.1	C2	At5g06530	ABC transporter - ABCG22
Bo2g008580.1	C2	At5g07320	ATP-Mg/Pi transporter - APC3
Bo2g009200.1	C2	At5g08670	Mitochondrial ATP synthase beta-subunit
Bo2g009480.1	C2	At5g09710	Mg transporter - MGT7
Bo2g009490.1	C2	At5g09690	Mg transporter - MGT7
Bo2g009910.1	C2	At5g10520	ROP Binding Protein Kinase - RBK1
Bo2g011650.1	C2	At5g14040	Phosphate transporter - PHT3;1
Bo4g024850.1	C4	At2g45660	Suppressor of overexpression of CO - SOC1

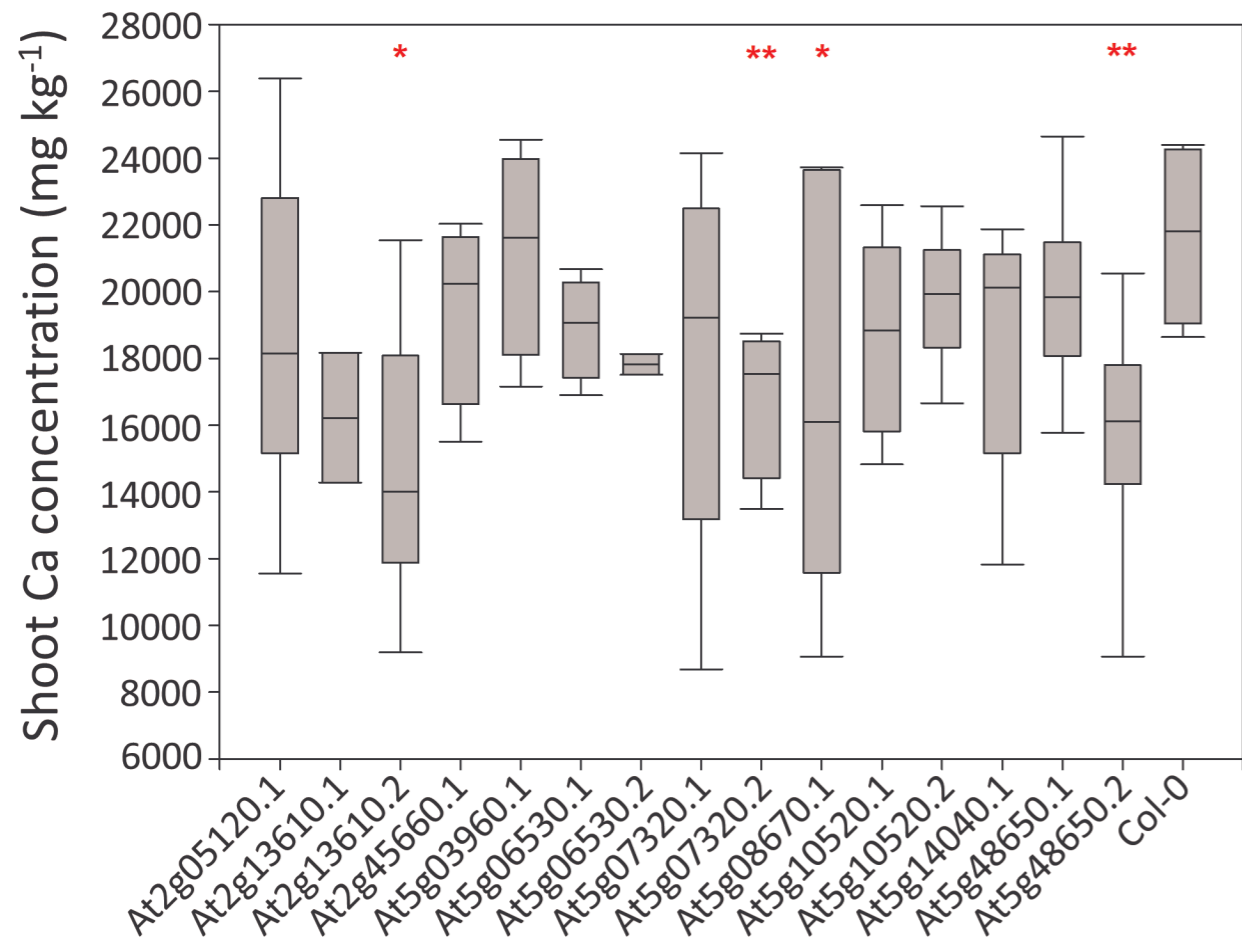
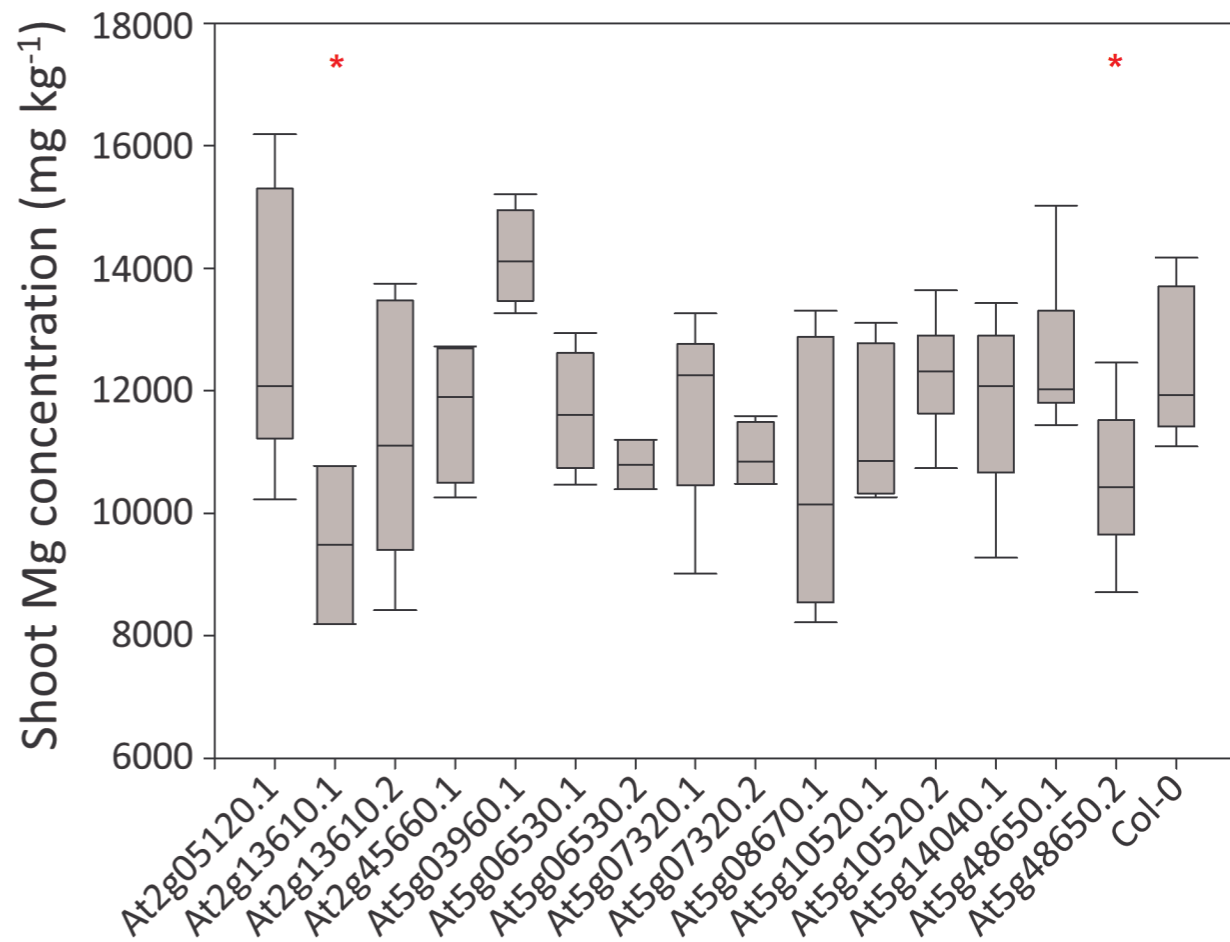
806  
 807 Fig 1.  $-\log_{10}P$  values of SNPs and GEMs associated with leaf Ca concentration (panels A and  
 808 B respectively) and leaf Mg concentration (panels C and D respectively) in order of markers  
 809 within the *B. napus* pan-transcriptome. Upper, gold, dashed line represents Bonferroni  
 810 corrected significance threshold; lower, yellow, dashed line represents FDR corrected  
 811 significance threshold ( $P=0.05$ ).  
 812

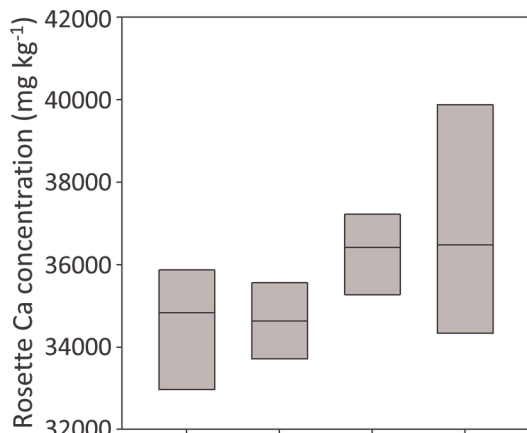
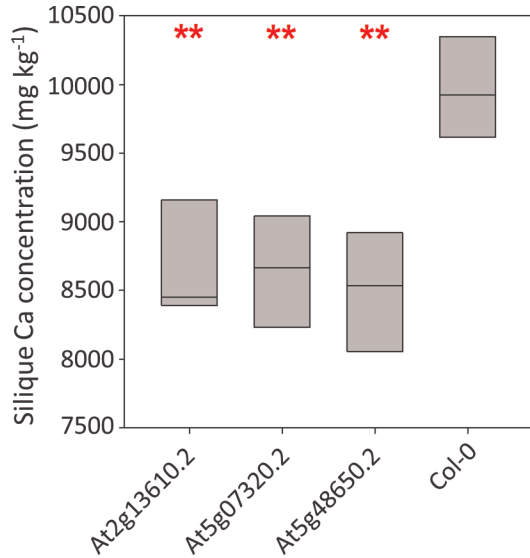
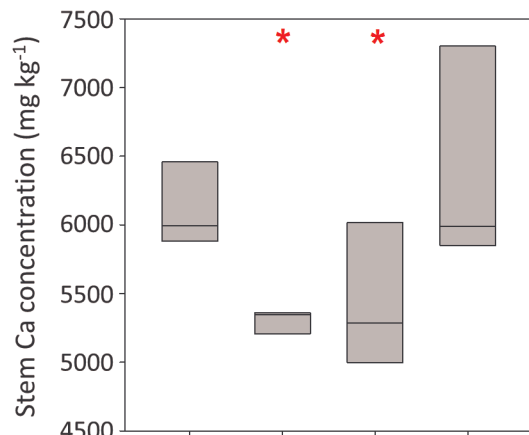
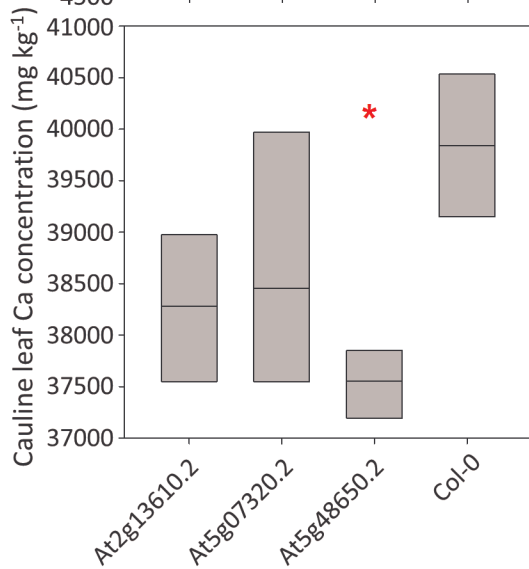
813 Fig 2. Shoot Ca (panel A) and Mg (panel B) concentrations across 15 mutant *A. thaliana* lines  
 814 and wild type (Col-0) plants. Boxes represent the mid two quartiles with the median drawn;  
 815 whiskers are the 95% confidence limits. Single and double stars above boxes represent  
 816 significance at  $P<0.05$  and  $P<0.01$  respectively compared to wild type (Col-0) plants.  
 817

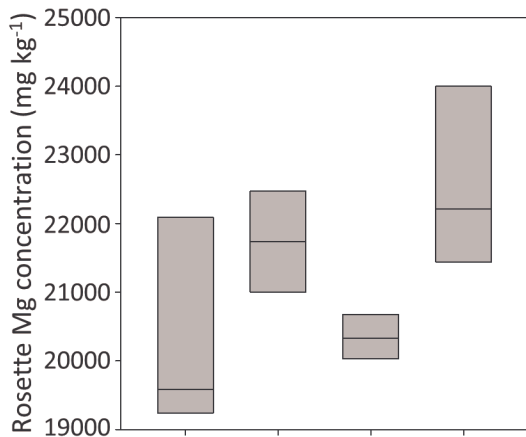
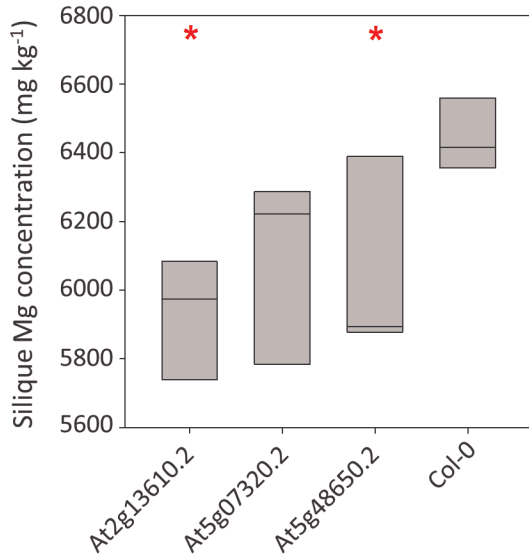
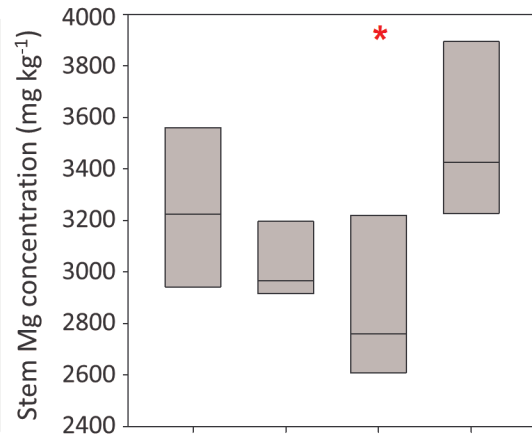
818 Fig 3. Rosette leaf (panel A), silique (panel B), stem (panel C) and cauline leaf (panel D) Ca  
 819 concentrations across three mutant *A. thaliana* lines and wild type (Col-0) plants. Boxes  
 820 represent full range of values with the median drawn. Single and double stars above boxes  
 821 represent significance at  $P<0.05$  and  $P<0.01$  respectively compared to wild type (Col-0)  
 822 plants.  
 823

824 Fig 4. Rosette leaf (panel A), silique (panel B), stem (panel C) and cauline leaf (panel D) Mg  
 825 concentrations across three mutant *A. thaliana* lines and wild type (Col-0) plants. Boxes  
 826 represent full range of values with the median drawn. Single and double stars above boxes  
 827 represent significance at  $P<0.05$  and  $P<0.01$  respectively compared to wild type (Col-0)  
 828 plants.

**A****Leaf Ca SNPs:****C****Leaf Mg SNPs:****Leaf Ca GEMs:****Leaf Mg GEMs:****Markers arranged in *B. napus* chromosomal order****B****D**

**A****B**

**A****B****C****D**

**A****B****C****D**