1 Short title: GWAS of Arabidopsis phosphate starvation tolerance

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- 14 Diverse phosphate and auxin transport loci distinguish phosphate tolerant from sensitive
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- 26 The author responsible for distribution of materials integral to the findings presented in this article
- 27 in accordance with the policy described in the Instructions for Authors
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29 **One-Sentence Summary:**

- 30 A series of insertion/deletion nucleotide polymorphisms at PHOSPHATE TRANSPORTER1 and
- 31 *PIN-LIKES7* loci confer natural variation in low phosphate tolerance in 200 Arabidopsis accessions.

32 Footnotes:

- ¹ Author contributions: R.J. and J.W. conceived the project. C.Y., X.W. and Q.C. characterized the
- 34 phosphate starvation response of accessions. D.C. conducted the ICP-MS analyses. C.Y. carried
- 35 out phosphate and anthocyanin assays, performed GWAS analyses, genotyped T-DNA mutants,
- 36 generated transgenic germplasm and characterized lines on a molecular and physiological level.
- 37 C.Y., A.F.-L., J.W. and R.J. interpreted results and drafted the manuscript. All authors reviewed the
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43 Abstract

44 Phosphorus is an essential element for plant growth often limiting agroecosystems. To 45 identify genetic determinants of performance under variable phosphate supply, we conducted 46 genome-wide-association studies on five highly predictive phosphate starvation response traits in 47 200 Arabidopsis (Arabidopsis thaliana) accessions. Phosphate concentration in phosphate-limited 48 organs had the strongest, and primary root length had the weakest genetic component. Of 70 trait-49 associated candidate genes, 17 responded to phosphate withdrawal. The PHOSPHATE 50 TRANSPORTER1 gene cluster on chromosome 5 comprised PHT1;1, PHT1;2 and PHT1;3 with 51 known impact on phosphorus status. A second locus featured uncharacterized endomembrane-52 associated auxin efflux carrier encoding PIN-LIKES7 (PILS7) which was more strongly suppressed 53 in phosphate-limited roots of phosphate-starvation sensitive accessions. In the Col-0 background, 54 phosphate uptake and organ growth were impaired in both phosphate-limited pht1;1 and two pils7 55 T-DNA insertion mutants, while phosphate-limited *pht1:2* had higher biomass and *pht1:3* was 56 indistinguishable from wild type. Copy number variation at the PHT1 locus with loss of the PHT1;3 57 gene and smaller scale deletions in PHT1;1 and PHT1;2 predicted to alter both protein structure 58 and function suggest diversification of *PHT1* is a key driver for adaptation to phosphorus limitation. 59 Haplogroup analysis revealed a phosphorylation site in the protein encoded by the PILS7 allele 60 from stress-sensitive accessions as well as additional auxin-responsive elements in the promoter 61 of the 'stress tolerant' allele. The former allele's inability to complement the *pils7-1* mutant in the 62 Col-0 background implies the presence of a kinase signaling loop controlling PILS7 activity in 63 accessions from phosphorus-rich environments, while survival in phosphorus-poor environments 64 requires fine-tuning of stress-responsive root auxin signaling.

66 Introduction

67 Phosphorus (P) is an essential macronutrient for plant growth and development. However, in 68 most soils, the concentration of Pi is limiting due to its low solubility and mobility (Raghothama, 69 1999). Pi deficiency commonly impairs plant growth and affects about 70% of cultivated land 70 globally (Cakmak, 2002; Hinsinger, 2001; López-Arredondo et al., 2014). Thus, P-containing 71 chemical fertilizers are essential to sustain sufficient plant growth, as well as high grain quality and 72 vield in most agroecosystems. Plants have evolved an array of strategies to cope with variable Pi 73 environments, including remodeling of root system architecture (RSA) and metabolic adjustments 74 (Bhosale et al., 2018; Plaxton & Tran, 2011; Shahzad & Amtmann, 2017). Auxin plays an important 75 role in altering root system architecture. Application of auxin mimics the root's response to low Pi 76 supply, with a shorter primary root, and increased lateral root and root hair elongation (Bates & 77 Lynch, 1996; Nacry et al., 2005). This phenotype was abolished in the auxin signaling mutants 78 auxin resistant (axr)1-7, axr2-1 and axr4-1, auxin response factor (arf)7, arf19 and transport 79 inhibitor response (tir)1 (Huang et al., 2018; Nacry et al., 2005; Perez-Torres et al., 2008). Plants 80 grown under P-limiting conditions not only accumulate more auxin in roots but are also more 81 responsive to auxin (López-Bucio et al., 2002; Nacry et al., 2005; Perez-Torres et al., 2008). 82 The molecular mechanisms by which plants respond to Pi limitation are well studied. They 83 consist of MYB transcription factor PHOSPHATE STARVATION RESPONSE1 (PHR1), microRNA 84 MIR399, E2 ubiquitin conjugase PHOSPHATE2 (PHO2), Pi exporter PHOSPHATE1 (PHO1) and 85 the PHOSPHATE TRANSPORTER1 (PHT1) family – often referred to as the PHO regulon (Aung 86 et al., 2006; Hamburger et al., 2002; Muchhal et al., 1996; Rubio et al., 2001). Auxin affects Pi 87 starvation signaling by regulating the expression of PHR1, which is the transcriptional master 88 regulator of phosphate starvation response (PSR) (Huang et al., 2018). Exogenous auxin 89 application induces PHR1 expression while auxin transport inhibitors suppress it. Phosphate 90 transporters are responsible for Pi acquisition from the environment and translocation between 91 organs, cell types or organelles. In Arabidopsis (Arabidopsis thaliana), nine plasma membrane 92 located PHT1 family members have been characterized, and at least eight of them are expressed 93 in P-limited roots (Mudge et al., 2002; Shin et al., 2004). PHT1;1, PHT1;2, PHT1;3 and PHT1;6 are

94 collocated in a gene cluster on chromosome 5 indicating a series of recent gene duplication events 95 (Ayadi et al., 2015). Amongst PHT1 genes, PHT1;1 shows the highest expression in P-replete 96 organs, suggesting an important role in bulk Pi uptake. The *pht1;1* mutant shows a 60% reduction 97 of Pi uptake by P-replete roots. Compared to PHT1;1, both PHT1;2 and PHT1;3 have lower 98 transcript abundance in Pi-rich media but are highly transcribed under Pi starvation (Shin et al., 99 2004). PHT1;2 and PHT1;3 together contribute about 30% of the Pi uptake in P-limited roots, while 100 PHT1;1 contributes between 15 to 20% (Ayadi et al., 2015). 101 Genome-Wide Association Studies (GWAS) are a powerful tool for identifying genetic

102 variants associated with phenotypic traits. Several GWAS have investigated traits related to plant 103 nutrition (Bouain et al., 2019; Jia et al., 2019; Kawa et al., 2016; Kisko et al., 2018; Rosas et al., 104 2013; Satbhai et al., 2017). PHO1 was associated with root plasticity in heterogeneous 105 environments, impacting the distribution of lateral roots along the primary axis (Rosas et al., 2013). 106 Given the importance of the PHO regulon in regulating Pi acquisition and use in the A. thaliana 107 reference accession Col-0, it is quite surprising that no natural genetic variation in PHT1 or PHO1 108 transporters has been directly associated with adaptation to variable P environments thus far. 109 In this study, we investigate the genetic basis of the response to changes in Pi availability 110 among 200 highly diverse ecotypes of the model plant Arabidopsis thaliana. Focusing on 111 physiological (organ biomass and primary root length) and metabolic traits (organ Pi, shoot 112 anthocyanin and shoot elemental composition), we test the expectation that variation in PSR is 113 primarily mediated by allelic variation at transporter-encoding loci. We leverage the power of 114 GWAS combined with haplogroup structure analysis and functional validation to establish PHT1 115 and PILS7 as important loci underlying natural variation in low phosphate tolerance.

116 Results

117 *Arabidopsis thaliana* accessions display highly diverse responses to Pi withdrawal

The accessions used in this study were selected based on a previous study (Li et al., 2010) to minimize genetic redundancy and family relatedness of accessions and to ensure maximum genetic diversity within the population (Supplemental Table 1). We first assessed the impact of 121 varying Pi supply on critical growth parameters using developmentally synchronized seedlings 122 (Materials and Methods, Supplemental Figure 1). We observed reductions in organ biomass, organ 123 Pi concentration, and primary root growth as well as anthocyanin accumulation in P-limited shoots 124 (Figure 1, Supplemental Tables 2 and 3) and altered shoot elemental composition (Supplemental 125 Figure 2A, Supplemental Table 2). Within these general trends, accessions showed large 126 qualitative and quantitative differences in the degree of PSR (Figure 1, Supplemental Tables 2 and 127 3). For instance, on average, Pi withdrawal resulted in a 42% reduction of shoot fresh weight, while 128 it only conferred a 12% reduction of root fresh weight. Pi concentrations in P-limited organs ranged 129 from 0.73 to 4 µmol g⁻¹ FW in shoots, and from 0.6 to 5.3 µmol g⁻¹ FW in roots (Figures 1C and 1D). 130 Total P (*i.e.*, the sum of inorganic and organic P) concentration in P-limited shoots ranged from 3 to 131 30 µmol g⁻¹ FW (Supplemental Figure 2A, Supplemental Table 2). Large variation in shoot 132 anthocyanin concentration reflected differences in P-limited shoot P status (Figure 1F). The 133 variation in Pi concentration of P-limited organs was largely due to higher Pi acquisition in Preplete condition, with Pi concentrations ranging from 5.5 to 39.6 µmol g⁻¹ FW in P-replete shoots, 134 135 and from 3.7 to 19.1 µmol g⁻¹ FW in P-replete roots (Figures 1C and 1D, Supplemental Table 2). 136 Total P concentration in P-replete shoots ranged from 12 to 55 µmol g⁻¹ FW (Supplemental Figure 137 2A). An inhibition of primary root growth, often described as a generalized response of A. thaliana 138 roots to Pi limitation (Gutiérrez-Alanís et al., 2018), was not universal across accessions. Similar to 139 findings by Chevalier and colleagues (2003), some accessions did not arrest their primary root 140 growth upon Pi withdrawal and 30 accessions even showed increased root growth (Figures 1A and 141 1E, Supplemental Tables 2 and 3). By contrast, a reduction in shoot biomass was always observed 142 across all accessions in the P-limited treatment (Figure 1B). Thus, shoot -P/+P biomass ratio was 143 positively correlated with Pi concentration in P-limited shoots (r = 0.29, p = 3.21E-4, Supplemental 144 Figure 2B). Accessions with the lowest shoot total P levels in P-limited conditions generally also 145 had the highest iron concentration in leaves (Supplemental Figure 2A, Supplemental Table 2). 146 Counter-intuitively, -P/+P root biomass ratio and Pi concentration in P-limited roots were negatively 147 correlated (r = -0.21, p = 2.52E-3). This is most likely due to dilution of the root Pi pool by lateral 148 root growth, resulting in lower root and higher shoot Pi concentration. Together, these data show 149 that P resources accumulated during seedling establishment are crucial to support RSA changes

151 significant, correlations were very low overall, again indicating strong variability between152 accessions.

153 Overall, the considerable variation of quantified traits across accessions allowed for a highly154 resolved genetic analysis of underlying determinants by GWAS.

155 GWAS reveals candidate genes involved in a more efficient Pi starvation response

156 To identify genes regulating individual PSR traits, we performed GWAS using SNP data from 157 the RegMap panel and the 1001 Genome Project (Materials and Methods; Alonso-Blanco et al., 158 2016; Horton et al., 2012). Using the 1001 Genome SNP panel, we identified 154 significant SNPs 159 $(-\log_{10}(P) \ge 7)$ that showed strong genetic association with Pi concentration in P-limited roots and 160 shoots, anthocyanin concentration in P-limited shoots, and effective primary root length under P-161 replete conditions (Supplemental Figure 3, Supplemental Table 4). Using the RegMap panel SNPs, 162 we identified seven significant SNPs for two PSR traits ($-\log_{10}(P) > 6.4$), including one genomic 163 region associated with root biomass ratio (-P/+P). SNPs in the same genomic region were also 164 associated with root biomass ratio with the 1001 Genome SNP panel but fell just below the 165 selection threshold (-log₁₀(*P*) of 6.95 and 6.83, respectively; Supplemental Figure 3; Supplemental 166 Table 4). These significant SNPs resided in 70 candidate genes (Supplemental Figure 3; 167 Supplemental Table 4). To narrow down the candidate list, we cross-referenced the expression 168 profile of these candidate genes using published RNA-seq data (Linn et al., 2017, Supplemental 169 Table 5). A combination of SNP P value, SNP impact, trait-of-interest and RNA-seq expression 170 profile of associated genes was considered to select two loci for further analyses: Five SNPs with 171 significant association to Pi concentration in P-limited shoots were located on chromosome 5 172 (Figure 2A to 2C). This locus contains four PHT1 genes (PHT1;6, PHT1;1, PHT1;3, and PHT1;2), 173 with the latter three genes in the 12 kb region surrounding the lead SNP. We will therefore refer to 174 this locus as the PHOSPHATE TRANSPORTER1 (PHT1) locus. In agreement, reverse 175 transcription quantitative PCR (RT-qPCR) confirmed that all three genes were significantly induced 176 in P-limited Col-0 roots (2-fold induction of PHT1;1, 85-fold induction of PHT1;2, 354-fold induction 177 of PHT1;3; Figure 2D). Another locus on chromosome 5 was associated with Pi concentration in P-

178 limited roots, a trait that is of great interest due to its negative correlation with -P/+P root biomass 179 ratio and its wider implications for RSA (Supplemental Figure 2B). This locus contains two Pi 180 starvation responsive genes: one encodes a putative auxin efflux carrier family protein, PIN-181 LIKES7 (PILS7), and the other one encodes the amino acid transporter protein AMINO ACID 182 VACUOLAR TRANSPORTER3 (AVT3) (Figure 2E to 2G). A third gene of unknown function, 183 AT5G66000, showed no transcriptional response to Pi withdrawal (Figure 2H, Supplemental Table 184 5). RT-qPCR confirmed that PILS7 is suppressed and AVT3 is induced in P-limited over P-replete 185 Col-0 roots (Figure 2H). We will refer to this locus as PILS7 because nine out of 11 significant 186 SNPs are in the genomic sequence of PILS7 (Supplemental Table 4). Considering the important 187 roles of both Pi and auxin transport for P status, organ growth and RSA (Bhosale et al., 2018; 188 Perez-Torres et al., 2008), we focused on PHT1 and PILS7 loci for further analysis of causal 189 mechanisms.

Loss-of-function alleles of *PHT1;1*, *PHT1;2*, and *PILS7* in Col-0 affect plant growth and organ Pi levels

192 To characterize the impact of genes in the PHT1 and PILS7 loci on acclimation of the Col-193 0 reference genotype to low Pi supply, T-DNA insertion mutants of the five PSR genes (PHT1;1, 194 PHT1:2, PHT1:3, PILS7, AVT3) were tested for their Pi starvation response (Supplemental Figure 195 4, Material and Methods). In agreement with a previous study (Shin et al., 2004), the *pht1;1* mutant 196 showed a significant reduction in shoot fresh weight compared to that of wildtype in both Pi 197 conditions (Figures 3A). Pi concentrations in P-replete *pht1;1* roots and shoots were significantly 198 reduced by 35 % and 70 % compared to wildtype, respectively, reaffirming the prominent role of 199 PHT1;1 in Pi uptake (Figures 3C and 3D). The pht1;2 mutant had the opposite effect on growth as 200 its shoot biomass was significantly higher than that of wildtype under P-replete conditions, as was 201 root biomass under P-limiting conditions (Figures 3A and 3B). However, there was no significant 202 difference in organ Pi accumulation between pht1;2 and wildtype (Figures 3C and 3D). Loss of 203 function in Pi transporters causes retarded plant growth (Nagarajan et al., 2011; Remy et al., 2012), 204 so enhanced organ biomass of the *pht1;2* mutant suggests that PHT1;2 may either be a Pi 205 exporter, expressed in cell types associated with Pi translocation or have functions beyond Pi

206 transport. The *pht1*;3 mutant showed no trait difference compared to wildtype. Across accessions, 207 the PHT1 locus was associated with Pi concentration in P-limited shoots (Figure 2), however, in 208 the Col-0 background, there was no significant difference in shoot Pi concentrations between P-209 limited *pht1* mutants and the control. Knock-out of *PHT1;1* seemed to impact P status of P-replete 210 seedlings instead (Figures 3C and 3D). In line with the GWAS results, the pils7-1 allele caused 211 higher Pi accumulation in P-limited roots (25 %, Figure 3D). Both P-replete PILS7 loss-of-function 212 mutants showed significant reductions in root biomass (32 %) and root Pi concentration (20 %, 213 Figures 3B and 3D). The avt3 mutant did not display any P status-dependent physiological 214 changes compared to wildtype. These data suggest that *PILS7* is associated with Pi concentration 215 in P-limited roots, and that impaired PILS7 activity leads to reduced Pi uptake and / or Pi 216 translocation from root to shoot.

217 *pht1;1* and *pils7* mutant alleles are impaired in Pi acquisition

218 To determine whether changes in organ Pi accumulation were a result of altered Pi uptake 219 by roots, we conducted a Pi depletion assay using PHT1 and PILS7 locus mutants and compared 220 those to the *pho2-2* / *ubc24-1* (SAIL_47_E01) (Aung et al., 2006) and *phr1-2* (SALK_067629C) 221 mutants (Nilsson et al., 2007). Consistent with the earlier reports, the pho2-2 mutant exhibited 222 significantly enhanced Pi uptake, while uptake tended to be lower in the phr1-2 mutant compared 223 to wildtype (Figure 3E). Similar to results by Shin and colleagues (2004), Pi uptake capacity of P-224 limited *pht1;1* was reduced to 70% of that of wildtype under P-limited conditions, but we did not 225 observe significant differences compared to wildtype in P-replete condition. The pht1;2 and pht1;3 226 mutants behaved like wildtype (Figure 3E), as did the avt3 mutant. Both pils7 mutant alleles 227 showed impaired Pi uptake under P limitation, with P-limited pils7-1 and pils7-2 having only 71% 228 and 70% of the wildtype uptake capacity, respectively (Figure 3E). Similar Pi uptake capacity 229 between pht1;1, pils7 mutants and wildtype under P-replete conditions clashes with the 230 observation of a lower Pi concentration in P-replete pht1;1 and pils7 roots (Figure 3D). This could 231 be other Pi transporters compensating for the *pht1;1* knockout in the short term (Pi depletion from 232 the media in Figure 3E was measured after 8 h), but not in the long term (accumulative effect in

233 Figure 3D was measured seven days after transfer). In P-replete *pils7* mutants this effect could

either be achieved by impairing PHT1;1 function, or by altering root-to-shoot Pi translocation.

Large scale rearrangement of the *PHT1* locus corresponds with lower Pi concentration in P limited shoots of haplogroup 2 accessions

237 Next, we assessed how the allelic variation in *PHT1;1*, *PHT1;2* or *PHT1;3* identified by 238 GWAS is causal of the variation in shoot Pi concentration across the 200 accessions under low Pi 239 supply. Using the RegMap panel's 250K SNP data, we performed a haplotype analysis on the 240 genomic region encompassing PHT1;1, PHT1;3 and PHT1;2 (Figure 4A). The two haplogroups 241 showed significant difference in the Pi concentrations in P-limited shoots, with Pi levels in 242 haplogroup 1 accessions higher than those in haplogroup 2 (p = 0.00632, Figure 4B, Supplemental 243 Table 6). SNP patterns of those accessions that were sequenced by the 1001 Genome Project 244 revealed many variants segregating among accessions from haplogroup 2 compared to those of 245 haplogroup 1 as well as the Col-0 reference allele (Figure 4A). For both the PHT1;1 and PHT1;2 246 coding regions, one SNP shared by representative accessions of haplogroup 2 led to a 247 conservative amino acid change in each (Figure 4A). Strikingly, representative haplogroup 2 248 accessions featured deletions in promoters, exons and introns (grey bars in Figure 4A, dotted red 249 boxes in Supplemental Figures 4A and 4C). Consequences of these SNPs and deletions for the 250 amino acid composition of PHT1;1 and PHT1;2 proteins from haplogroup 2 accessions and their 251 predicted membrane topology are presented in Supplemental Figure 5: Exon 2 deletions in 252 haplogroup 2 alleles of *PHT1;1* and *PHT1;2* cause a loss of the second last extracellular loop at 253 the transporters' C-termini which will dramatically alter overall membrane topology. Given that the 254 C-terminus contains two phosphorylation sites (S514 and S520 of PHT1;1) that affect 255 PHOSPHATE TRANSPORTER TRAFFIC FACILITATOR (PHF1)-mediated PHT1 exit from the 256 endoplasmic reticulum (ER), as well as the predicted ER exit site itself (Bayle et al., 2011), these 257 deletions are expected to dramatically affect PHT1 activity and / or regulation. The PHT1;1 allele is 258 likely to be further functionally compromised due to two deletions in transmembrane domain VII 259 and the preceding cytoplasmic loop (dotted grey boxes in Supplemental Figure 5B). In haplogroup 260 2 accessions, PHT1;2 would be the only remaining, fully functional Pi transporter of the PHT1

In conclusion, copy-number variation with loss of *PHT1;3* and major rearrangement of the
remaining two *PHT1* genes in haplogroup 2 accessions dramatically reduces Pi acquisition
resulting in lower shoot Pi concentration and higher sensitivity to Pi limitation. Differences in *PHT1*gene content and sequence variation may reflect adaptations of haplogroups to Pi availability in
their habitats with haplogroup 2 most likely originating from a P-rich environment.

271 Allelic variation at the *PILS7* locus is associated with root Pi concentration in P-limited

272 accessions

273 For the PILS7 locus, the Pi concentration in P-limited roots of haplogroup 1 accessions was 274 significantly lower than that of haplogroup 2 accessions (Figure 4D, Supplemental Table 6). Due to 275 the negative correlation between Pi concentration in P-limited roots and root biomass ratio 276 (Supplemental Figure 2B), haplogroup 1 accessions are likely to be more tolerant to Pi withdrawal 277 than those of haplogroup 2. To identify causal sequence polymorphisms, we compared 1001 278 Genome Project derived PILS7 locus SNP information for select accessions in two contrasting 279 haplogroups: Across the genomic region haplogroup 2 accessions harbor 22 common SNPs that 280 are absent from those of haplogroup 1 (Figure 4C). Of the SNPs in the PILS7 coding region, eight 281 reside in exons and seven in introns of the haplogroup 2 allele (Figure 4C). Of the eight exonic 282 SNPs, only one leads to a non-synonymous change from alanine (Ala) to threonine (Thr). The 283 other seven SNPs are silent mutations (Figure 4C). Sanger sequencing of genomic PILS7 284 sequences PCR-amplified from representative haplogroup 1 accession HSm and haplogroup 2 285 accession Liarum confirmed these SNP locations (Supplemental Figure 6). It furthermore revealed 286 extensive insertions and deletions within the promoter and the 1st intron of these two *PILS7* alleles 287 (blue boxes in Supplemental Figure 6).

288 There is very little information available on functional domains within PILS proteins, but 289 transmembrane helices are highly conserved among PILS family members, and thus may have 290 central roles in auxin carrier function. The cytosolic loops display a lesser degree of conservation 291 and may have regulatory functions (Barbez et al., 2012). The non-synonymous amino acid change 292 is located in the longest cytosolic loop of PILS7 (Supplemental Figure 7). Substitution of the Ala 293 residue at position 197 with Thr in group 2 accessions may change the regulation of PILS7, 294 possibly through protein phosphorylation at Thr¹⁹⁷. This posttranslational modification could alter 295 PILS7 activity or turnover, subsequently affecting auxin sequestration in the endoplasmic reticulum 296 (ER) and nuclear auxin signaling (Beziat et al., 2017; Feraru et al., 2019). Changes in auxin 297 gradients would then impact lateral root and root hair formation, and either directly or indirectly 298 impact on Pi uptake and / or Pi translocation.

SNPs and indels in the promoter and 1st intron could alter the expression and / or splicing of 299 300 PILS7, resulting in altered PILS7 protein abundance. Promoter analysis using PlantPAN 3.0 (Chow 301 et al., 2019) identified a key transcription factor (TF) binding region (Supplemental Figure 6, 302 Supplemental Table 7) that was unique to the HSm (haplogroup 1) PILS7 allele. It featured binding 303 sites for transcription factors of the APETALA2 (AP2) / ETHYLENE RESPONSE FACTOR (ERF) 304 and AUXIN RESPONSE FACTOR (ARF) families. AP2/ERF transcription factors have been 305 associated with auxin-sensitive abiotic stress signaling in roots promoting the transcription of ARF-306 family AUXIN / INDOLE ACETIC ACID (Aux/IAA) repressors in response to desiccation and 307 osmotic stress (Shani et al., 2017). All of the ARF transcription factors predicted to bind to the HSm 308 PILS7 promoter (ARF2, ARF4, ARF5, ARF6, ARF7, ARF8 and ARF11, Supplemental Table 7) 309 have been associated with auxin-controlled root hair as well as primary and lateral root 310 development (Choi et al., 2018; Dastidar et al., 2019; Santos Teixeira & Ten Tusscher, 2019; Yin 311 et al., 2020). While ARF5 and ARF11 stimulated root hair elongation, ARF2 and ARF4 acted as 312 repressors (Choi et al., 2018). ARF7 – together with ARF19 – targets the PHR1 promoter which 313 features three auxin-response elements that confer auxin-stimulated lateral root formation and 314 increased Pi uptake in P-limited A. thaliana seedlings (Huang et al., 2018). These findings suggest 315 increased auxin-sensitive abiotic stress responsiveness of the HSm (haplogroup 1) but not the 316 Liarum (haplogroup 2) PILS7 allele. We therefore measured PILS7 expression in roots of select

317 haplogroup 1 and 2 accessions under P-replete and P-limiting conditions (Supplemental Figure 8). 318 While across accessions, expression was higher in P-replete and lower in P-limited roots, PILS7 319 transcripts were significantly less abundant in P-limited roots of haplogroup 2 accessions by about 320 2-fold. Thus, the additional TF binding site in the haplogroup 1 / HSm allele may help sustain 321 PILS7 expression in P-limited roots. To test whether differential PILS7 expression was associated 322 with expression changes in genes associated with Pi uptake or translocation, PHT1;1, PHT1;4, 323 PHO1 and MIR399D transcript profiles were also determined (Supplemental Figure 8). The four 324 genes showed the typical expression profile reported for P-limited Col-0 roots, with strong induction 325 of MIR399D and PHT1;4, moderate induction of PHT1;1 and no change in PHO1 expression. None 326 of these genes showed differences in expression between haplogroups, indicating that observed 327 changes were PILS7 specific.

Taken together, extensive allelic variation across the entire *PILS7* genomic sequence leads to altered *PILS7* abundance and possibly altered post-translational regulation which would affect root auxin signaling under stressful versus non-stressful conditions and cause the observed natural variation in root Pi concentration and organ growth. It is unlikely that altered transcript expression of PHO regulon components is responsible for trait variation.

333 Elemental composition differs in the two contrasting haplogroups associated with *PHT1* 334 and *PILS7* loci

335 Shoot elemental composition data for each accession (Supplemental Figure 2A, 336 Supplemental Table 2) offered the opportunity to investigate the interaction of P with other 337 nutrients across the contrasting P-related haplogroups. Across accessions, the PHT1 locus was 338 associated with variation of Pi concentration in P-limited shoots (Figure 4B). The elemental profiles 339 showed that total P (sum of inorganic and organic P) levels in P-limited shoots were similar 340 between haplogroups. However, P-replete haplogroup 1 accessions had higher leaf Pi and total P 341 concentration than haplogroup 2 accessions (Supplemental Figure 9A). This may suggest that due 342 to their three functional PHT1 paralogs, haplogroup 1 accessions are able to build up higher 343 organic P pools to boost growth under Pi limiting conditions.

344 For the PILS7 locus, P-limited haplogroup 1 accessions had lower root Pi concentration 345 (Figure 4D). These accessions also have higher Pi concentration in P-replete organs and higher 346 root biomass irrespective of Pi supply (Supplemental Figure 9B). Total elemental composition 347 analysis revealed that their P-replete shoots also had higher total P levels (Supplemental Figure 348 9B), again suggesting higher mobilization capacity upon Pi withdrawal. Unlike PHT1 locus 349 associated haplogroups, contrasting PILS7 haplogroup accessions also differed in their leaf iron 350 and copper content. In P-limited environments, root architecture is also modified by iron and 351 copper availability (Perea-Garcia et al., 2013; Ward et al., 2008). Higher iron content in P-limited 352 leaves of haplogroup 2 accessions is consistent with lower shoot Pi and total P levels and confirms 353 their higher sensitivity to Pi withdrawal (Supplemental Figure 9B). Irrespective of P status, copper 354 concentration is always higher in leaves of haplogroup 2 accessions which can be an indicator of 355 altered PIN1-mediated auxin distribution (Yuan et al., 2013). High copper concentrations cause 356 primary root length inhibition via auxin depletion of the root apical meristem, a phenotype similar to 357 that seen here for *pils7* mutants (Figure 3B).

358 Despite similar nutrient allocation profiles, overlap in accessions between haplogroups 1 and 359 2 of PHT1 and PILS7 loci was low - with only three out of the 23 and 19 accessions shared in 360 haplogroup 1, and eight out of 30 and 29 accessions shared in haplogroup 2, respectively 361 (Supplemental Table 6). This would indicate that there has been no common selection for these 362 genetic marks.

363

The PILS7 allele of haplogroup 2 accessions fails to complement PILS7 knockout in Col-0

364 To further assess the impact of the contrasting Hsm and Liarum alleles on PILS7 function, 365 their genomic sequences were used for the complementation of the *pils7-1* mutant (Supplemental 366 Figure 10A). The CaMV 35S promoter-driven coding sequence of the Col-0 allele of PILS7 was 367 also transformed into the *pils7-1* mutant background for comparison. The latter construct resulted 368 in strong (at least 435-fold) PILS7 overexpression compared to Col-0 (Supplemental Figure 10B). 369 35S::PILS7^{Col-0} overexpression led to poor seedling and lateral root development as well as 370 stronger anthocyanin accumulation in shoots (Supplemental Figure 11E and 11F). Ectopic 371 expression of PILS7 which - under its native promoter - is much more strongly expressed in Col-0 372 roots than shoots (Supplemental Figure 11G), thus appears to severely impair root auxin

373 distribution, perception or signaling, leading to growth impairment.

374 Across all progeny obtained for the two haplogroup alleles, the haplogroup 1 allele PILS7^{HSm} led to distinctly higher expression than the haplogroup 2 allele *PILS7^{Liarum}* (Supplemental Figures 375 376 10C and 10D). With each T1 line representing an independent T-DNA insertion, this could already 377 be an indication of differences in the relative promoter strengths of these two alleles. For each 378 allele, we chose two complementation lines for further characterization (high-lighted in 379 Supplemental Figures 10C and 10D). While *pils7-1* mutants expressing the haplogroup 1 allele 380 PILS7^{HSm} to similar levels as the wild type allele in Col-0 were able to restore organ biomass and 381 Pi concentration of the *pils7-1* mutant back to Col-0 levels, the haplogroup 2 allele *PILS7^{Liarum}* failed 382 to complement the *pils7-1* mutant when expressed at levels similar to the wild type allele or at 383 more than 150-fold higher levels (Figure 6; Supplemental Figure 10D). Despite strong 384 overexpression, the latter complementation line did also not lead to the retarded growth phenotype observed in the 35S::PILS7^{Col-0} lines. 385

These results demonstrate that the two contrasting alleles not only have different promoter strengths, but also result in functionally distinct PILS7 proteins. Genetic differences between them are likely the result of adaptation to local P environments with haplogroup 1 *PILS7* alleles providing improved auxin signaling in roots. This promotes more vigorous (lateral) root growth and higher Pi uptake capacity enabling plants to actively seek out and exploit P-rich topsoil patches.

391 Discussion

392 Complexity of genome-wide associations with key PSR traits

In this study, we performed a GWAS on a number of traits associated with acclimation to low
Pi availability using *Arabidopsis thaliana* accessions of high genetic diversity (Li et al., 2010).

395 Unlike other studies that germinate seeds on media with contrasting Pi levels, our experimental

design aimed at identifying key determinants of more efficient Pi acquisition and utilization in the

397 presence of Pi, as seedlings were established on P-replete media prior to transfer to either low or

- 398 high Pi media. The selected traits showed variation across accessions, but only five traits showed
- 399 significant association with SNPs (Figure 2, Supplemental Figure 3, Supplemental Table 4). One

400 explanation for the limited number of associations with some traits might be that these are 401 controlled by a large number of genetic variants, each with only a modest contribution to the total 402 phenotypic variation. These minor-effect loci are only detectable when the size of study population 403 is big enough (Visscher et al., 2017). The fact that we found strong genetic determinants of root but 404 not shoot biomass ratio in P-limited over P-replete plants came as a surprise, given that root 405 growth relies on exported assimilate from shoots, and in non-stressed plants, a strong genetic 406 coupling between root and shoot growth has been found (Bouteillé et al., 2012). The requirement 407 to respond to environmental challenges would have made this relationship more complex over time. 408 The resulting complex genetic architecture of shoot growth can be a major challenge for GWAS 409 (Bouteillé et al., 2012; Marchadier et al., 2019). Nutrient limitation causes the strongest allocation 410 responses, with large increases in root biomass at the expense of stem and leaf biomass and no 411 significant difference between species from nutrient-poor and nutrient-rich habitats (Poorter et al., 412 2012). The lack of variability in shoot biomass reduction across P-limited A. thaliana accessions 413 found in this study supports this hypothesis.

Variation in copy number and protein topology of Pi transporters as potential sources of adaptation to low phosphorus conditions

416 Pi transporters of the PHT1 family are essential for Pi acquisition and Pi translocation, 417 however studies on their function have so far focused on the A. thaliana accession Col-0. Here, we 418 detected an association between the PHT1 locus on chromosome 5 and Pi concentration in P-419 limited shoots across 200 A. thaliana accessions. The locus identified on chromosome 5 contains 420 four PHT1 paralog genes, most likely derived from a series of duplication events (Poirier & Bucher, 421 2002). From an evolutionary standpoint, gene duplication events in rate-limiting ion transporter 422 families, such as the PHT transporters, are sometimes associated with increased dosage, but 423 many are subjected to stronger purifying selection in the long term (Hudson et al., 2011). However, 424 so called 'fate determining mutations' can sub- or neofunctionalize duplicates and reduce selection 425 pressure whilst maintaining the original functional copy (Carretero-Paulet & Fares, 2012; Fournier-426 Level et al., 2011; Innan & Kondrashov, 2010). Copy-number variants have been detected in 427 Arabidopsis accessions (Bush et al., 2014; Göktay et al., 2021; Jiao & Schneeberger, 2020; Long

428 et al., 2013; Zmienko et al., 2020). The most recent study of 1135 whole-genome sequenced 429 accessions from the 1001 Genomes Project identified copy-number variants associated with 18.5 % 430 of protein-coding regions, in particular regions of tandem duplications (Zmienko et al., 2020). Loss 431 of PHT1;3 has been captured as CNV_18358. In haplogroup 2 accessions, the loss of PHT1;3 and 432 substantial deletions in promoter and exon regions of PHT1;1 and PHT1;2 associated with 433 progressive loss of function could be an adaptation to environments with reliable Pi availability 434 (Figures 4A and 5, Supplemental Figure 5). Our finding that these accessions have lower Pi and 435 total P levels in P-limited shoots than those of haplogroup 1 confirms their reduced Pi uptake 436 capacity and higher sensitivity to Pi starvation (Supplemental Figure 9). In high P environments, 437 the PHT1;3 gene might not be under the same selection pressure as in low P environments, and 438 its loss in haplogroup 2 accessions does not impact in situ performance (Supplemental Figure 9A). 439 The extra control loop that prevents hyperaccumulation of Pi in variable P environments by 440 phosphorylating the C-terminus of excess PHT1 proteins and retaining them in the ER (Bayle et al., 441 2011) is not needed in habitats with more readily available Pi that incur only a moderate 442 expression of PHT1 protein in the first place (Supplemental Figure 5). In Col-0, PHT1;2 and 443 PHT1;3 are considered redundant (Ayadi et al., 2015) but only PHT1;3 has been lost in haplogroup 444 2 accessions. We found that unlike other Pi transporter mutants in Col-0, pht1;2 had higher organ 445 biomass than P-replete wildtype, and higher root biomass in P-limited conditions (Figure 3). Its 446 retention may therefore be due to its positive impact on plant growth. In wheat, the expression of Pi 447 transporters, and in particular TaPHT1:2, in response to Pi limitation differed between P-448 acquisition-efficient and -inefficient cultivars, which also showed marked differences in organ- and 449 tissue-specific PSR traits (Aziz et al., 2014; de Souza Campos et al., 2019). In summary, 450 haplogroup 2 accessions carry genome modifications that are likely to reduce overall PHT1 451 transporter abundance at the plasma membrane as a reflection of adaptation to their local 452 environment.

453 Hormonal signaling during PSR-induced changes in root system architecture

454 Several phytohormones are involved in PSR, for example auxin, jasmonic acid and ethylene 455 (Bhosale et al., 2018; Borch et al., 1999; Khan et al., 2016; Perez-Torres et al., 2008;). Recent 456 studies show that auxin signaling is crucial for Pi starvation induced modifications of root system 457 architecture (Bhosale et al., 2018; Huang et al., 2018). The PIN-LIKES (PILS) family of auxin 458 transporters is comprised of seven members (PILS1 to PILS7) (Barbez et al., 2012). Individual 459 members of this family have recently been functionally characterized as ER-localized auxin carriers 460 that sequester auxin in the ER (Feraru et al., 2019), which in turn promotes auxin conjugation and 461 dampens nuclear auxin signaling. PILS2 to PILS7 transcript abundance increased with external 462 auxin application (Barbez et al., 2012). Overexpression of PILS1 or PILS3 led to shoot 463 developmental defects and dwarf plants. Knock-out of PILS2 and PILS5 promoted hypocotyl, 464 primary and lateral root growth (Barbez et al., 2012). This and other studies support a role of PILS 465 proteins as negative regulators of plant growth and development (Barbez et al., 2012; Beziat et al., 466 2017; Feraru et al., 2019). By contrast, our results suggest that PILS7 is a positive regulator of 467 organ growth and Pi allocation as well as Pi acquisition by P-limited roots (Figure 3). Lack of 468 complementation of the *pils7-1* mutant by constitutive *PILS7* expression suggests a highly dose-469 dependent, stress- and / or cell-specific role. Given its role in nuclear auxin depletion, PILS7 470 function could be associated with short-distance auxin transport and signaling during abiotic stress 471 (Korver et al., 2018). Its function could be to establish the cytokinin-dependent auxin minimum 472 needed to promote root cell differentiation and / or auxin oscillations required for lateral root 473 formation (De Rybel et al., 2010; Di Mambro et al., 2017). Similar to pils7 mutants (Figure 6), 474 haplogroup 2 accessions have lower PILS7 expression (Supplemental Figure 8) and higher Pi 475 concentration in P-limited roots (Figures 4D and Supplemental Figure 9B). The PILS7 protein of 476 haplogroup 2 is furthermore predicted to carry an extra phosphorylation site in its central 477 cytoplasmic loop (Supplemental Figure 7). These genomic modifications render the haplogroup 2 478 PILS7 allele incapable of rescuing the *pils7-1* mutant in the Col-0 background (Figure 6). The 479 negative correlation between P-limited root Pi concentration and root biomass ratio (-P/+P) 480 (Supplemental Figure 2B) would suggest that haplogroup 2 accessions come from P-rich habitats 481 and are more sensitive to Pi limitation. This is supported by their reduced capacity to take up Pi in 482 replete condition and the higher iron accumulation in P-limited shoots (Supplemental Figure 9B). 483 Selection pressure to sustain stress responsive PILS7 promoter activity in these habitats may have 484 been low. The phosphorylation site in the haplogroup 2 PILS7 protein may be part of an additional

485 kinase/phosphatase signaling loop to help regulate auxin transporter activity in response to other 486 environmental or developmental clues. Haplogroup 1 accessions are more stress tolerant and 487 maintain higher organ Pi levels in P-replete conditions to support root growth upon Pi withdrawal 488 (Supplemental Figure 9B). The haplogroup 1 PILS7 allele can complement the pils7-1 mutant in 489 the Col-0 background (Figure 6). Unlike the Col-0 allele, its promoter is targeted by stress 490 responsive CBFs/ERFs and early ARF-dependent auxin signaling modules for lateral root 491 development (Santos Teixeira & Ten Tusscher, 2019) that help to sustain PILS7 expression upon 492 Pi withdrawal (Supplemental Figure 8). The regulatory elements involved would suggest that - in 493 stress tolerant haplogroup 1 accessions - PILS7 is part of the TIR1- and ARF19-dependent 494 signaling cascade that stimulates the first asymmetric divisions in pericycle cells to promote lateral 495 root formation upon Pi withdrawal (Perez-Torres et al., 2008). How exactly PILS7 activity impacts 496 on nuclear auxin levels and ARF-dependent auxin and PSR signaling to promote root hair and 497 lateral root growth remains to be elucidated.

498 Conclusion

499 The results of this study revealed that higher Pi acquisition, Pi translocation from shoot to 500 root and higher investment in root biomass are critical for successful adaptation to a low Pi 501 environment. A switch in PHT1 isoform use, together with altered transcriptional and post-502 translational regulation of PHT1 isoforms and PILS7 are tightly associated with these traits. 503 Interactions between these two loci are complex, however, with only a limited number of either 504 phosphate limitation tolerant or sensitive accessions sharing both genetic marks. The initial SNP 505 association led to the identification of more substantial genomic variation in alleles of individual 506 accessions that allowed us to identify additional aspects in the regulation of known players (PHT1 507 isoforms) and another player (PILS7) as key determinants of P efficiency that can inform plant 508 selection and improve fertilizer use in agronomic production systems.

509 Materials and Methods

510 Plant materials and growth conditions

511 The 200 Arabidopsis (Arabidopsis thaliana) accessions were kindly provided by Justin 512 Borevitz (Research School of Biology, The Australian National University, Canberra, Australia). In 513 order to identify differences in PSR without interference from seed quality, accessions were 514 propagated in the same temperature-controlled glasshouse and seeds were harvested from 515 individual plants showing the expected growth habit according to the germplasm details provided 516 by The Arabidopsis Information Resource (www.arabidopsis.org). Accessions requiring 517 vernalization (Supplemental Table 1) were transiently transferred to a temperature-controlled 518 cabinet for cold treatment. Names and identities of accessions as well as vernalization information 519 are provided in Supplemental Table 1.

520 T-DNA insertion lines were obtained from the Nottingham Arabidopsis Stock Centre (pht1;2/ 521 SALK_110194C; pht1;3 / GK-557C09; pils7-1 / GK-768F05; pils7-2 / SALK_069485; avt3 / 522 SALK_010447C). Genotyping was carried out using primer combinations listed in Supplemental 523 Table 8A. T-DNA insertion sites in either the first or second exon of each mutant were confirmed 524 by Sanger sequencing (Supplemental Figure 4). Transcript abundance was determined via RT-525 qPCR (Supplemental Figure 4). Previously published mutants, pht1;1-2 (SALK_088586C, Shin et 526 al., 2004), phr1-2 (SALK_067629C, Nilsson et al., 2007) and pho2-2/ubc24-1 (SAIL_47_E01, Aung 527 et al., 2006) and Col-0 (N70000) were used as controls in the phenotyping experiments.

Plants for genotyping and propagation were grown in soil with 0.5 L coarse Vermiculite, 0.33 L Perlite, 33 g NutricoteTM controlled-release fertilizer, 28 g ammonium nitrate, 25 g water-holding granules, 15 g trace elements, and 7 g garden lime added per kg of standard potting mix (Van Schaik's BioGro, Australia) under a 16-/8-hour light-dark cycle with 120 µmol m⁻² s⁻¹ light intensity, at 22°C/19°C (light/dark), and 55 % relative humidity.

For the accession screen as well as phenotyping of T-DNA mutants and transgenic lines,
seeds were sterilized with chlorine gas for 2 hours, and then stratified at 4°C for 2 days in the dark.
Seedlings were germinated and grown on 10-cm square Petri dishes filled with 50 mL agarsolidified Murashige & Skoog (MS) medium (Murashige & Skoog, 1962). After sowing of seeds, the

Petri dishes were placed in a near vertical position. The environmental settings were the same as for soil-grown plants. The MS medium had the following composition: 0.61 g L⁻¹ MS Modified Basal Salt mixture (M407; Phytotech Laboratories), 20.6 mM NH₄NO₃, 18.8 mM KNO₃, 1 mM KH₂PO₄, 0.1% (w/v) MES, and 0.9% (w/v) DifcoTM Granulated Agar (LOT 6173985). For Pi depletion, 1 mM KH₂PO₄ were replaced by 1 mM KCl. The solution was adjusted to pH 5.8 using 5 M KOH. The

residual Pi concentration of the agar used was 6.5 µM.

543 Accessions were established on MS medium, before seedlings with 2-cm-long primary roots 544 were transferred to either P-replete (1 mM Pi) or P-limited (6.5 µM Pi) medium and assessed after 545 seven days of growth (Supplemental Figure 1). Using seedlings of similar size across accessions 546 aimed at reducing the bias arising from maternal effects around seed quality and / or inherent 547 genetic differences in germination. Following an initial growth study, accessions were put into eight 548 groups defined by the number of days after sowing when the primary root length reached 549 approximate 2 cm (Supplemental Table 1). The seedlings were established for 4+x days in P-550 replete medium, with x equaling the group number. To characterize T-DNA mutants in the Col-0 551 background, as well as PILS7 overexpression and pils7-1 complementation lines, seedlings were 552 established in P-replete medium until the primary root length reached approximate 2 cm, and then 553 transferred to either P-replete or P-limited medium and grown for another seven days prior to 554 harvesting root and shoot material.

555 **Tissue collection**

542

556 In the accession screen, one plate containing ten seedlings constituted one biological 557 replicate. Most accessions had three biological replicates per treatment and genotype, and a few 558 accessions only had two biological replicates due to poor germination (Supplemental Table 3). For 559 each plate, seedlings were separated into root and shoot for harvesting. Five individual shoots and 560 ten roots were combined into one sample for measuring Pi and anthocyanin (shoots only) 561 concentrations. For the characterization of transgenic lines, one plate containing eight seedlings 562 constituted one biological replicate. Each genotype had three biological replicates per treatment 563 and fresh weights were recorded for all samples, prior to shock-freezing in liquid N₂ and storing at -564 80°C.

565 **Primary root length measurement**

566 Primary root length was determined as described earlier (Linn et al., 2017). Root images 567 were analyzed in the ImageJ software using the SmartRoot plugin (Lobet et al., 2011). The 568 effective primary root length was calculated by subtracting root length before transfer from root 569 length at final harvest. The effective primary root lengths of P-replete or P-limited seedlings was 570 used for GWAS.

571 Determination of Pi and anthocyanin concentration

572 To determine Pi and anthocyanin concentration, the frozen plant samples were ground and 573 extracted with 1% (v/v) acetic acid at 4°C in the dark. Pi concentration was measured using the 574 colorimetric ammonium molybdate assay as described earlier (Jost et al., 2015). Anthocyanin 575 concentration in leaf samples was determined using a pH-differential method as described 576 previously (Wrolstad et al., 2005).

577 Total P and elemental composition analysis

Accessions were grown as described (Supplemental Figure 1). Three shoot replicates were pooled to generate sufficient dry weight for acid digestion. The method for elemental analysis was adapted from Foroughi and colleagues (2014). Dry shoot material (ca. 10 mg) was digested with $300 \ \mu L \text{ of HCI} : \text{HNO}_3$ (3:1) at 70°C for 3 hours. Tomato (*Lycopersicon esculentum*) leaf reference material (Sigma Aldrich, NIST1573A) was used to validate the method accuracy. The digested samples were adjusted to a final volume of 10 mL of Milli-Q water and quantified by inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry (ICP-MS).

585 **Correlation analysis**

586 The average of each measured trait was used for the correlation analysis, with two to three 587 biological replicates for each accession (Supplemental Table 2). Correlation coefficients between 588 the traits were calculated using the 'cor' function for Pearson's correlation in R (www.r-project.org). 589 *p* values were calculated using 'cor_pmat' function in the ggcorrplot package (Version 0.1.3) in R.

590 **Pi depletion assay**

Seedlings were grown on P-replete MS medium for seven days and transferred to P-replete
or P-limited medium for another seven days. Seedlings were then transferred to 2.5 mL of liquid Preplete MS medium in 24-well plates (Greiner CELLSTAR®, M9312), with five seedlings in each
well. Aliquots of 200 μL MS medium were sampled prior to and eight hours after seedling addition.
The Pi concentration of the medium was measured as described above to calculate the amount of
Pi absorbed by the plants.

597 Statistical analysis of the measured traits

To account for possible batch effects, the best linear unbiased prediction (BLUP) of the phenotypic data was obtained, and the linear mixed effect function 'Imer' in the Ime4 package of R (version 3.5.3) was used to fit the model (Borevitz et al., 2002). The model for the phenotypic trait was $Y_{ij}=u + Group_i + Genotype_j + e_{ij}$, where *u* is the total mean, *Group_i* is the random group effect of the *i*th group, *Genotype_j* is the random genetic effect of *j*th genotype, *e_{ij}* is a random error. The genotypic (breeding) value for each accession was computed as the Best Linear Unbiased Predictor (BLUP) of the genotype effect.

605 Genome wide association analysis

606 Out of the 200 accessions used in this study, 194 were covered by the RegMap panel and 607 104 by the 1001 Genome Project (Alonso-Blanco et al., 2016; Horton et al., 2012). BLUP values 608 for each trait were used as phenotypic input for the GWAS analysis. GWAS was performed on the 609 easyGWAS website (https://easygwas.ethz.ch) using the Efficient Mixed-Model Association 610 eXpedited (EMMAX) algorithm that accounts for population structure (Grimm et al., 2016; Kang et 611 al., 2010; Yu et al., 2006). SNPs with a minor allele frequency (MAF) of less than 0.05 were 612 excluded from the analysis. The effective number of independent SNPs was calculated using a 613 method described by Li and colleagues (2012). The effective number of independent SNPs for this 614 study was calculated as 461,582 and 126,433 for the 1001 Genome Project and RegMap panel, 615 respectively. A significance threshold of $\alpha = 0.05$ was used after Bonferroni correction for multiple

616 testing. Manhattan plots were generated using the qqman package in R (version 3.5.3). The

617 location of genes closest to these significant SNPs were visualized by PhenoGram (Wolfe et al.,

618 2013).

619 Haplotype analysis

Haplotype analysis was performed as described previously (Li et al., 2014). Briefly, for the
194 accessions from the RegMap panel, SNPs located in the *PHT1* loci (from *PHT1;1* to *PHT1;3*)
and *PILS7* genes including a 3 kb promoter region were extracted (Horton et al., 2012). These
SNPs were used as the input for fastPHASE version 1.4.0 (Scheet & Stephens, 2006). The results
were analyzed and visualized in R (version 3.5.3).

625 Analysis of public sequencing data

626 Raw sequencing data of accessions (Ag-0, Wt-5, Do-0, Kelsterbach-4, and Sorbo) were

627 download from the NCBI Sequence Read Archive (Leinonen et al. & International Nucleotide

628 Sequence Database, 2011, <u>https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/sra/?term=SRP056687</u>). Sequencing

629 adapters and low-quality reads were trimmed with Trimmomatic (Version 0.32) (Bolger et al., 2014).

630 The trimmed reads were mapped to the A. thaliana reference accession Col-0 genome (TAIR

631 version 10) using HISAT2 (Version 2.1.0) and sorted using Samtools (Version 1.6) (Kim et al.,

632 2015; Li et al., 2009). The aligned sequences of Bay-0 (TAIR version 10) were downloaded from

the 1001 Genome project data center (Alonso-Blanco et al., 2016,

634 <u>http://1001genomes.org/projects/JGIHeazlewood 2008/</u>). Aligned sequences were

635 visualized using the Integrative Genomics Viewer (IGV) (Thorvaldsdottir et al., 2013).

636 Plasmid construction and plant transformation

637 To generate 35S::PILS7 overexpression lines, binary plasmids were constructed using

638 GATEWAY® cloning technology (ThermoFisher Scientific, Karimi et al., 2007). The coding

639 sequence without the PILS7 stop codon was amplified from Col-0. Transgenic plants were selected

640 on MS medium containing 50 μ g mL⁻¹ kanamycin.

641 For complementation of the *pils7-1* mutant, the Gibson Assembly Cloning Kit (New England 642 Biolabs) was used for all constructs (Gibson et al., 2009). The *PILS7* gene, along with a 1928 bp 643 promoter fragment according to the Col-0 reference genome, was amplified from HSm and Liarum 644 aenomic sequences. Primers used for cloning and sequencing of PILS7 genomic sequences from 645 these two accessions are listed in Supplemental Table 8C. The amplified genomic fragments were 646 assembled into the binary vector pCAMBIA1300 (Hajdukiewicz et al., 1994) linearized with EcoRI 647 and *HindIII* (New England Biolabs). Transgenic plants were selected on 20 µg mL⁻¹ hygromycin-648 containing MS medium (Harrison et al., 2006).

All binary vector constructs were verified by sequencing (primers listed in Supplemental
Table 8C) and transformed into *Agrobacterium tumefaciens* strain GV3130. The floral dipping
technique was used to introduce all of the above constructs into the *pils7-1* mutant (Clough & Bent,
1998).

653 **Promoter analysis**

To identify binding motifs for *A. thaliana* transcription factors, promoter sequences of HSm and Liarum *PILS7* alleles obtained from amplified genomic fragments (see cloning section above) were used as input for the promoter analysis tool from PlantPAN 3.0 (Chow et al., 2019). Binding motifs located on the sense strand of indels that discriminated between haplogroup alleles were chosen for downstream analyses.

659 RNA Isolation and Reverse Transcription Quantitative PCR

660 Total RNA was isolated from root and shoot samples using the Spectrum Plant Total RNA kit 661 with on-column DNasel digest according to the manufacturer (Sigma-Aldrich). The Tetro cDNA 662 Synthesis Kit (Bioline) was used for cDNA synthesis using 1 µg of total RNA as input. Quantitative 663 PCR was performed in a total reaction volume of 10 µL on the QuantStudio[™] 12K Flex Real-Time PCR system (Applied Biosystems). UBIQUITIN CONJUGATING ENZYME9 (UBC9, AT4G27960) 664 665 and UBC21 (AT5G25760) were used as reference genes. Relative expression level was calculated 666 using the 40-ACt method (Bari et al., 2006). Primers used for RT-qPCR are listed in Supplemental 667 Table 8B.

668 Statistical analysis

- 669 Statistical analyses were performed in R (version 3.5.3) using ANOVA, followed by Tukey's
- 670 pairwise multiple comparison of means. Unless stated otherwise, differences were considered
- 671 significant at p < 0.05, detailed statistical reports can be found in Supplemental Table 9.

672 Accession Numbers

- 673 Sequence data for the genes characterized in this article can be found in the Arabidopsis
- 674 Genome Initiative or GenBank / EMBL databases under the following accession numbers:
- 675 AT4G28610 (PHOSPHATE STARVATION RESPONSE1, PHR1), AT3G23430 (PHOSPHATE1,
- 676 PHO1), AT2G33770 (PHOSPHATE2, PHO2), AT2G34202 (MICRORNA399D, MIR399D),
- 677 AT5G43350 (PHOSPHATE TRANSPORTER1;1, PHT1;1), AT5G43370 (PHOSPHATE
- 678 TRANSPORTER1;2, PHT1;2), AT5G43360 (PHOSPHATE TRANSPORTER1;3, PHT1;3),
- 679 AT5G65980 (PIN-LIKES 7, PILS7), AT5G65990 (AMINO ACID VACUOLAR TRANSPORTER 3,
- 680 AVT3), AT5G66000 (unknown protein).
- 681 Supplemental Data
- 682 **Supplemental Figure S1: Experimental setup for accession screen.**

683

Supplemental Figure S2: Shoot elemental composition and trait correlations in response to
Pi availability.

686

Supplemental Figure S3: Location of genes significantly associated with five key PSR traits.
 Supplemental Figure S4: Characterization of T-DNA insertion mutants for '*PHT1*' and '*PILS7*'

689 loci genes in Col-0.

690

Supplemental Figure S5: Impact of indels on PHT1;1 and PHT1;2 protein sequences in
haplogroup 2 accessions.

694	Supplemental Figure S6: Genomic sequence variation in PILS7 alleles from contrasting
695	haplotypes.
696	
697	Supplemental Figure S7: Impact of the amino acid sequence variation in contrasting
698	haplogroups on PILS7 protein topology.
699	
700	Supplemental Figure S8: Expression of PILS7 and key PSR genes in ten accessions from
701	two distinct haplogroups.
702	
703	Supplemental Figure S9: Natural variation in PHT1 and PILS7 loci corresponds to root fresh
704	weight, organ Pi, shoot total P, iron and copper concentrations.
705	
706	Supplemental Figure S10: Generation and selection of PILS7 overexpression and pils7-1
707	complementation lines.
708	
708 709	Supplemental Figure S11: Overexpression of <i>PILS7</i> in the <i>pils7-1</i> background does not
	Supplemental Figure S11: Overexpression of <i>PILS7</i> in the <i>pils7-1</i> background does not restore seedling growth and root Pi levels.
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709 710 711	restore seedling growth and root Pi levels.
709 710 711 712	restore seedling growth and root Pi levels. Supplemental Table S1. Information on <i>A. thaliana</i> accessions screened in this study.
 709 710 711 712 713 	restore seedling growth and root Pi levels. Supplemental Table S1. Information on <i>A. thaliana</i> accessions screened in this study. Supplemental Table S2. Summary of physiological and metabolic traits quantified in this study.
 709 710 711 712 713 714 	restore seedling growth and root Pi levels. Supplemental Table S1. Information on <i>A. thaliana</i> accessions screened in this study. Supplemental Table S2. Summary of physiological and metabolic traits quantified in this study. Supplemental Table S3. Raw data of fresh weight, primary root length, phosphate, and
 709 710 711 712 713 714 715 	 restore seedling growth and root Pi levels. Supplemental Table S1. Information on <i>A. thaliana</i> accessions screened in this study. Supplemental Table S2. Summary of physiological and metabolic traits quantified in this study. Supplemental Table S3. Raw data of fresh weight, primary root length, phosphate, and anthocyanin concentrations.
 709 710 711 712 713 714 715 716 	 restore seedling growth and root Pi levels. Supplemental Table S1. Information on <i>A. thaliana</i> accessions screened in this study. Supplemental Table S2. Summary of physiological and metabolic traits quantified in this study. Supplemental Table S3. Raw data of fresh weight, primary root length, phosphate, and anthocyanin concentrations. Supplemental Table S4. List of GWAS candidate genes identified.
 709 710 711 712 713 714 715 716 717 	 restore seedling growth and root Pi levels. Supplemental Table S1. Information on <i>A. thaliana</i> accessions screened in this study. Supplemental Table S2. Summary of physiological and metabolic traits quantified in this study. Supplemental Table S3. Raw data of fresh weight, primary root length, phosphate, and anthocyanin concentrations. Supplemental Table S4. List of GWAS candidate genes identified. Supplemental Table S5. Expression profile of GWAS candidate genes in RNA-seq data set of P-
 709 710 711 712 713 714 715 716 717 718 	restore seedling growth and root Pi levels. Supplemental Table S1. Information on <i>A. thaliana</i> accessions screened in this study. Supplemental Table S2. Summary of physiological and metabolic traits quantified in this study. Supplemental Table S3. Raw data of fresh weight, primary root length, phosphate, and anthocyanin concentrations. Supplemental Table S4. List of GWAS candidate genes identified. Supplemental Table S5. Expression profile of GWAS candidate genes in RNA-seq data set of P- replete and P-limited Col-0 seedlings.

721 accessions.

- 722 **Supplemental Table S8**. List of primers used in this study.
- 723 **Supplemental Table S9**. Statistical reports for this study.

724 Acknowledgments

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745 was determined by one-way ANOVA. ** p < 0.01, *** p < 0.001.

748 in P-limited A. thaliana accessions.

- 749 A, Manhattan plots for association with Pi concentration in P-limited shoots. The dashed 750 horizontal line indicates the Bonferroni-adjusted significance threshold ($-\log_{10}(p) = 7.0$). SNPs 751 located within 5 kb of the lead SNP are labelled as red dots. B, Quantile–Quantile plot (Q-Q plot) 752 for Pi concentration in P-limited shoots. C, Magnification of the genomic region surrounding the 753 'PHT1' locus (12.3 kb). SNPs above the Bonferroni threshold are marked as red dots, gene 754 models in this genomic region are shown below the x-axis. D, Transcript abundance of the 755 candidate genes at the 'PHT1' locus in P-replete (black bars) and P-limited (grey bars) roots of 756 Col-0. E and F, Manhattan plot (E) and Q-Q plot (F) for genetic association with Pi concentration 757 in P-limited roots, annotated as in panels A and B. G, Close-up of the genomic region surrounding 758 the 'PILS7' locus (12.3 kb). Annotations are the same as in panel C. H, Transcript levels of the 759 candidate genes at the 'PILS7' locus in P-replete and P-limited roots of Col-0. See panel D for 760 detailed annotation. In **D** and **H**, each dot represents a biological replicate comprising eight 761 seedlings grown vertically on a plate. Data are means ± SE. Statistical significance was determined by one-way ANOVA, ** p < 0.01, *** p < 0.001. 762
- 763

Figure 3: *pht1;1*, and *pils7* mutants show impaired growth, organ Pi accumulation and root Pi acquisition.

766 A and B, Fresh weight of shoots and roots of 14-day-old P-replete and P-limited seedlings. C and 767 D, Phosphate concentration in shoots and roots of 14-day old seedlings. Experiments in panels A 768 to **D** were performed in two separate batches, one for *PHT1* locus mutants and one for *PILS7* 769 locus mutants. Each dot represents a biological replicate comprising eight seedlings grown 770 vertically on a plate. Data are means ± SE. E. Pi acquisition by P-replete and P-limited roots. 771 Results are from two independent experiments with three replicates of five seedlings each, with 772 pht1;1, pht1;3 and avt3 only included in one experiment. Data are means ± SE. Asterisks indicate 773 significant differences from Col-0 under each Pi treatment (One-way ANOVA and Tukey's HSD 774 test, p < 0.05).

777 organ Pi concentrations in P-limited seedlings.

A and C, Genomic sequence surrounding the PHT1 (A) and the PILS7 locus (C) in five

representative accessions from the two most distinct haplogroups. Gene models (shown in green

- at the top) represent those in Col-0. Colored vertical lines show single-bp substitutions with the
- 781 letter of the nucleotide shown next to the line; black vertical lines indicate single-bp deletions; grey
- horizontal bars indicate larger deletions. Text and arrows below each panel indicate nucleotide and
- amino acid substitutions shared by the five haplogroup 2 accessions; the non-conservative amino
- acid change in PILS7 is labelled in red. SNPs shared uniquely by either haplogroup 1 or
- haplogroup 2 accessions are indicated by # and vertical lines at the top and bottom of the
- alignment, respectively. The large deletion within the PHT1 locus encompassing PHT1;3 is
- highlighted by a red box. Pictures were generated from
- http://signal.salk.edu/atg1001/3.0/gebrowser.php. **B** and **D**, Boxplots of normalized Pi
- concentration in P-limited shoots (B) and roots (D) of accessions forming two distinct haplogroups
- with respect to the PHT1 (B) and PILS7 locus (D). The lower and upper box edges correspond to
- the first and third quartiles, the horizontal line indicates the median, the whiskers extend to
- 792 minimum and maximum values within 1.5× interquartile ranges. Statistical significance was
- determined by one-way ANOVA (p < 0.05). LP: P-limited (6.5 μ M). Hap1: Haplogroup 1; Hap2:
- Haplogroup 2.
- 795

Figure 5: The *PHT1;3* gene is absent from the genome of representative haplogroup 2 accessions.

A, Pi-dependent *PHT1;3* expression in four representative accessions of the two most distinct *PHT1* haplogroups. Each dot represents a biological replicate comprising ten seedlings grown
vertically on a plate. Data are means ± SE. In P-replete conditions, *PHT1;3* expression was
detected in two replicates of Ag-0, Bay-0, Wt-5, and only one replicate in Gu-0. Note that some of
the accessions chosen here differ from those shown in Figure 4A (For haplogroup 2, PHW-33 and
UKSE06-278 were not sequenced by 1001 Genome Project). B, Read coverage of sequenced *PHT1* loci of three accessions from each of the two distinct haplotypes. Haplogroup 1 and 2

- accessions are marked in blue and orange, respectively. ND: not detected. Hap1: Haplogroup 1;
- 806 Hap2: Haplogroup 2.
- 807

Figure 6: Natural allelic variation in *PILS7* impacts Pi-dependent growth and organ Pi
 allocation.

810 A and B, Shoot (A) and root (B) fresh weights of 14-day-old Col-0, *pils7-1* mutant and 811 complementation lines carrying HSm or Liarum PILS7 alleles. C and D, Organ Pi concentration of 812 seedlings shown in **A** and **B**. HSm and Liarum are accessions from haplogroup 1 and haplogroup 813 2 accessions, respectively (Figure 4C). For pils7-1 complementation, two individual lines for each 814 haplotype allele were selected. Data are from two independent experiments with three biological 815 replicates. Each dot represents a biological replicate comprising ten seedlings, the lower and upper 816 box edges correspond to the first and third quartiles, the horizontal line indicates the median, the 817 whiskers extend to minimum and maximum values within 1.5× interguartile ranges. Lines carrying 818 the same PILS7 allele were compared with Col-0 as one group. Asterisks indicate significant 819 differences from Col-0 under each Pi-supply condition (One-way ANOVA and Tukey's HSD test, *, 820 *p* < 0.05, **, *p* < 0.01, ***, *p* < 0.001).

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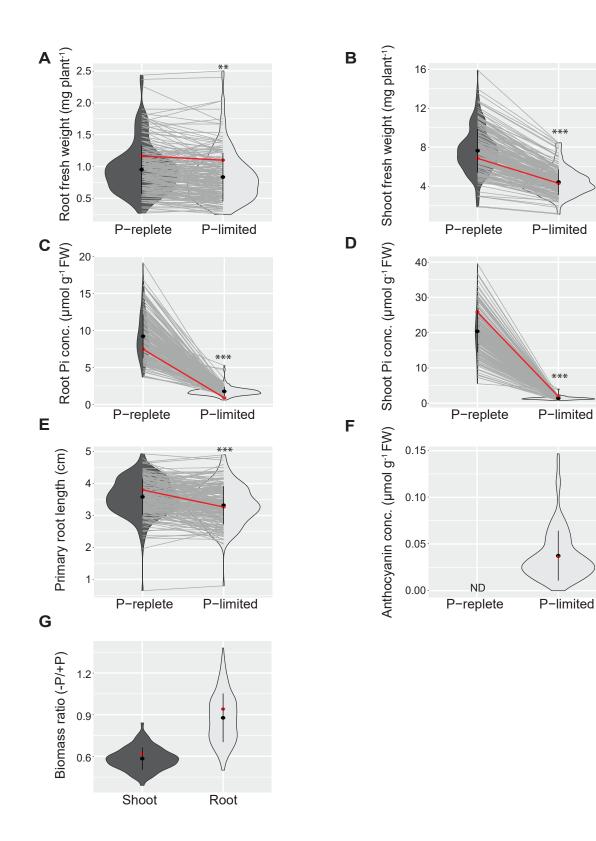
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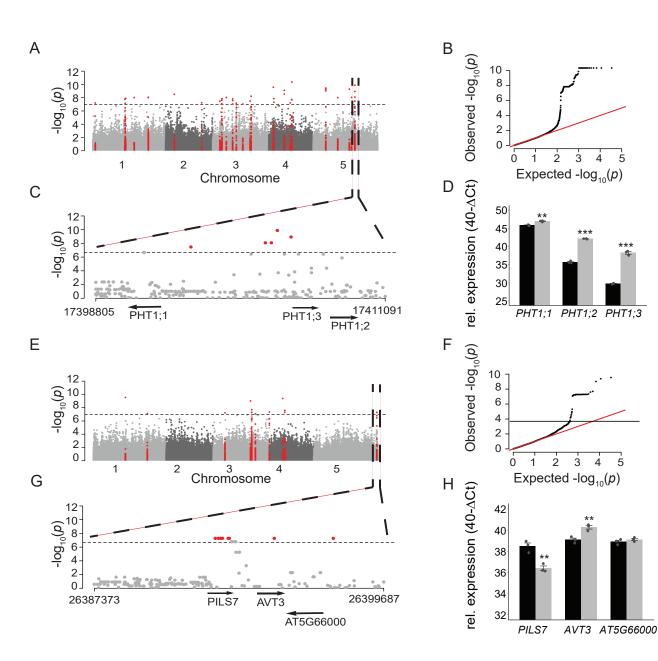
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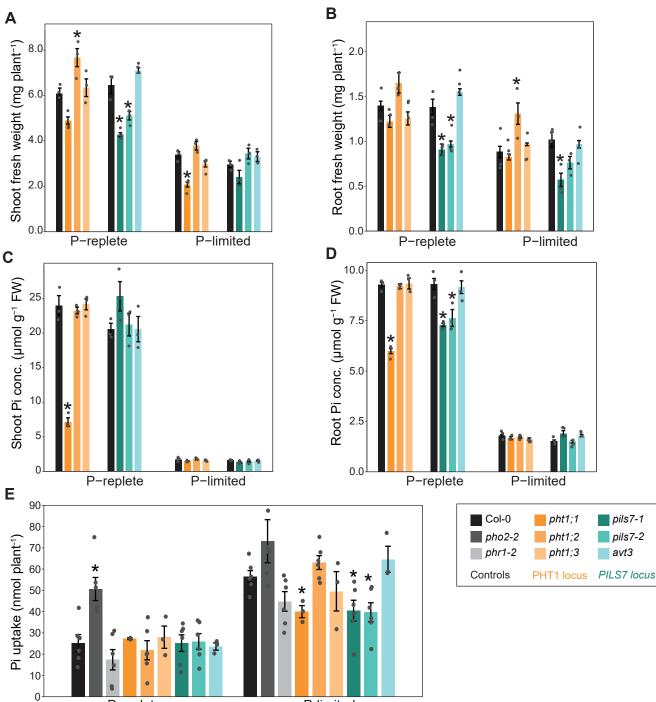
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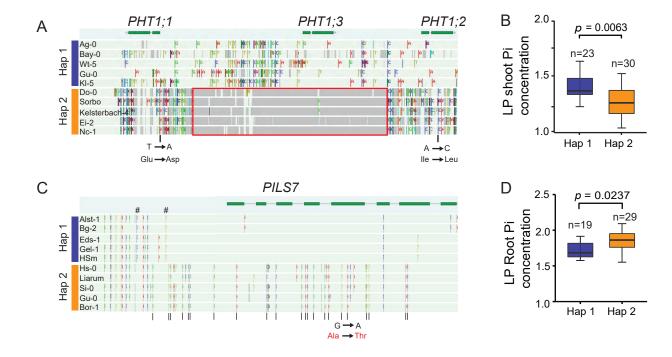


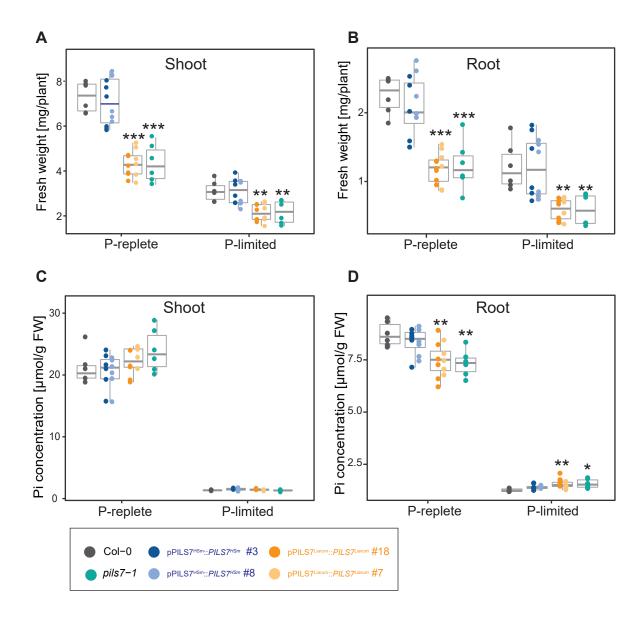


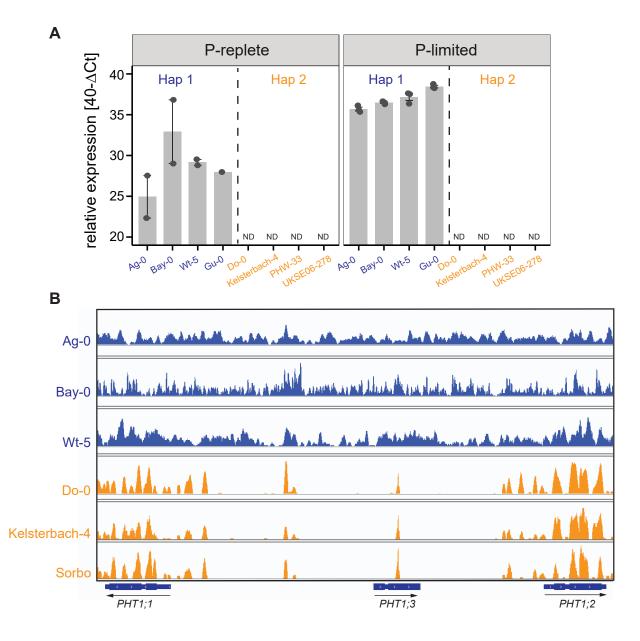


P-replete

P-limited







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