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Identification of low phytic acid and high Zn bioavailable rice (*Oryza sati*va L.) from 69 accessions of the world rice core collection

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1	Identification of Low Phytic Acid and High Zn Bioavailable Rice (Oryza sativa L.) from 69
2	accessions of the World Rice Core Collection
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20	KEYWORDS: bioavailability; genome-wide association study; phytic acid; zinc

#### 21 Abstract

Improving the micronutrient content and reducing the phytic acid in major staple food crops 22 through plant breeding techniques are considered sustainable strategies to increase micronutrient 23 bioavailability. This study documents the variation in PA and zinc (Zn) contents within the 24 natural genetic variation of rice using the World Rice Core collection (WRC) and identifies 25 26 useful genetic determinants in the Zn biofortification process. Some WRC accessions were 27 observed having a low PA content and high Zn bioavailability and some others with a high PA content and low calculated Zn absorption. No significant differences were observed in the 28 mineral or heavy metal contents among low and high PA lines examined suggesting that 29 different mechanisms are controlling these traits, so that manipulating the PA content could be 30 achieved without affecting the concentration of these elements. A genome-wide association 31 study revealed that a chromosomal region near several significant SNPs determines the natural 32 33 variation in rice PA content. Furthermore, a low PA trait in rice, rather than a high Zn content should be the key target for increasing Zn bioavailability. 34

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#### 42 **1. Introduction**

Micronutrients are essential elements for the effective functioning of human metabolic activities 43 and good health. Currently, micronutrient malnutrition or hidden hunger is a global health issue 44 caused by inadequate intake of essential vitamins and minerals from the diet. Zinc (Zn) is an 45 essential micronutrient required for proper growth and development, immune system function, 46 reproductive health and neurobehavioral development in the human body (Brown et al., 2004). 47 48 Zn deficiency causes impaired growth, increased susceptibility to infections and increased mortality and affects around one-third of the world's population (WHO, 2002). Populations in 49 developing countries are at a high risk of Zn deficiency due to high intake of plant-based diets 50 (IFPRI, 2016). Among the strategies to overcome Zn deficiency, Zn biofortification is 51 considered to be a major solution that appears to be the most sustainable and cost-effective 52 53 approach for addressing this global nutritional issue (Miller and Welch, 2013).

Rice (Oryza sativa L.) is one of the world's most important crops, providing nutrition for 54 approximately one-half of the global population and is the most important crop in Asia (FAO, 55 2013). Compared to other cereals, rice is a poor source of essential micronutrients to fulfill daily 56 human nutritional requirements. Therefore, even a slight improvement in the nutrient content 57 would benefit a large population around the world, especially in developing countries. 58 Accordingly, many kinds of research have been carried out to develop Zn-biofortified rice during 59 the past decade to achieve a target level of 28 µg Zn/g polished rice as specified by the 60 HarvestPlus program or approximately 30% of the estimated daily average requirement 61 (Trijatmiko et al., 2016). On the other hand, antinutrients present in cereals such as phytic acid 62 (PA) substantially reduce the absorption of Zn inside the human intestine (Al Hasan et al., 2016). 63

Phytic acid (myo-inositol 1,2,3,4,5,6-hexakisphosphate) is the principle storage form of 64 phosphorus (P) in cereals and legumes and accounts for 65%–85% of the total seed P (Raboy, 65 2001). PA has six negatively charged ions, making it an effective chelator of many essential 66 micronutrients, such as magnesium (Mg), calcium (Ca), iron (Fe) and zinc (Zn). The resulting 67 phytate-mineral salts reduce the absorption of mineral nutrients in humans and non-ruminant 68 animals. PA intake is high in developing countries where people depend mainly on staple foods 69 70 such as rice which then increases the risk of Zn deficiency (Lott et al., 2000). Accordingly, micronutrient-enriched cereals with a low PA content are considered to be a promising approach 71 for increasing the bioavailability of minerals in humans (Welch and Graham, 2004). 72

As an effective approach for minimizing the adverse effects of PA in cereals and, thereby improving micronutrient bioavailability, mutation breeding has been successfully used to generate low phytic acid (*lpa*) crops through  $\gamma$ -irradiation or chemically induced mutagenesis (Liu et al., 2007; Lott et al., 2000). Several genes responsible for PA accumulation in rice grain have been identified, including eight genes that are expressed in developing rice grains (Perera et al., 2018; Sato et al., 2013).

To date, there are some reports assessing the natural variation in the PA content of rice (Lee et al., 2014; Liu et al., 2007; Wang et al., 2011). Thus, efforts to improve micronutrient bioavailability in rice has seemed challenging until the present. Proper exploitation of the variation existing within the rice germplasm should be beneficial toward improving rice Zn bioavailability through conventional or marker-assisted breeding programs. Genome-wide association study (GWAS) is an efficient tool that has been widely used to identify the genetic variation of complex traits in plants (Zhao et al., 2011). GWA mapping has been successfully used to identify numerous

Quantitative Trait Loci (QTL) for agronomically important traits and also to assess variations in grain elemental compositions in rice (Spindel et al., 2015; Xu et al., 2016). So far, only two QTL have been identified in rice for the PA content (Stangoulis et al., 2007).

This study was aimed at identifying low PA rice from the natural variation of rice and 89 understanding the genetic basis of natural variation in PA content in the WRC. In this study, we 90 first identified the natural variation of PA and Zn contents in rice and evaluated the impact of PA 91 on Zn bioavailability. Further, the micronutrient and heavy metal contents of accessions 92 identified as low and high PA rice were determined to document effects of the PA content on 93 other elemental contents owing to their importance in human nutrition and health. Finally, a 94 GWAS was conducted to identify the significant genetic polymorphisms controlling PA content 95 in the world rice core collection (WRC). 96

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98 2. Experimental

99 2.1 Plant Materials

The study was conducted using 69 accessions of the World Rice Core collection (WRC) (Kojima et al., 2005) obtained from the National Institute of Agrobiological Sciences (NIAS) Genebank in Tsukuba, Japan (Genebank Project, NARO). These accessions represent a wide geographical location worldwide. First, all the 69 WRC accessions were transplanted at the experimental field in Itakura, Gunma, Japan in May 2017. Among them, the accessions which the panicles did not emerge (WRC 58, WRC 59, WRC 60, WRC 61, WRC 62, WRC 63, WRC 65, WRC 66, WRC 67, WRC 68 and WRC 97) even after one month of other accessions, were transferred to pots and maintained in the glasshouse until harvest. Harvested seeds were dried to 13% moisture andstored at room temperature for further experiments.

- 109
- 110 2.2 Determination of PA content

The PA content of brown rice samples in the WRC was determined using a Phytic Acid Assay 111 112 Kit (Megazyme International, Ireland) with minor modifications to the protocol (McKie and McCleary, 2016). Biological sample of one crushed grain was used with three replicates (n=3) 113 for the analysis. The crushed rice grain was digested with 500 µl of HCl (0.66 M) placed in a 114 mixer overnight at room temperature. Aliquots (200 µl) of the extract were transferred to 115 Eppendorf tubes and centrifuged at 3000 g for 20 min. Then, 100  $\mu$ l of the supernatant liquid was 116 neutralized by adding 100 µl 0.75 M NaOH in a new tube. For the free phosphorus determination, 117 118 12.5 µl of sample extract was mixed with 155 µl distilled water and 50 µl phytase assay buffer and incubated at  $40^{\circ}$ C for 1 h. Distilled water (5 µl) and 50 µl of Alkaline phosphatase (ALP) 119 assay buffer were added and the samples were incubated at 40°C for 1 h. For the total 120 phosphorus determination, 12.5 µl sample extract was mixed with 150 µl distilled water, 50 µl 121 phytase assay buffer and 5  $\mu$ l of phytase and samples were incubated at 40<sup>o</sup>C for 1h. ALP assay 122 buffer (50 µl) and 5 µl of ALP were added to samples, followed by a 1 h incubation at  $40^{\circ}$ C. For 123 both the free phosphorus and total phosphorus determinations, 75 µl of 50% (w/v) trichloroacetic 124 acid was added to all tubes to terminate the reactions, followed by centrifugation at 3000 g for 15 125 min. Colour reagent (50 µl) was added to 100µl of the supernatant liquid, and samples were 126 incubated at 40 °C for 1h. A phosphorus calibration curve was prepared according to the 127 manufacturer's protocol. The absorbance at 655 nm for each sample and standard was recorded, 128

and the phosphorus and phytic acid contents were calculated following the manufacturer'sinstructions.

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# 132 2.3 Determination of mineral, heavy metal and Zn contents

Dehusked rice seeds of 69 WRC accessions were digested with concentrated HNO<sub>3</sub> in Teflon cases heated on a hotplate starting at 80 °C and increasing up to 150 °C at 30 minute intervals. The Zn content of the digested samples was analyzed by inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry (ICPMS, XSERIES 2, Thermo scientific, MA, USA) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Each accession was analyzed in triplicate.

- 138 Accessions identified as low PA (WRC 5, WRC 12 and WRC 30) and high PA (WRC 6, WRC
- 139 22 and WRC 44) WRC were analyzed for calcium (Ca), manganese (Mn), iron (Fe), and copper
- 140 (Cu) contents. Heavy metals, arsenic (As), cadmium (Cd), tin (Sn), mercury (Hg), and lead (Pb),
- 141 were also analyzed by the same ICPMS procedure.

142

#### 143 2.4 Calculation of Zn bioavailability in rice

Using the measured PA and Zn contents, the Zn bioavailability in the WRC accessions wascalculated from a mathematical equation developed by Miller et al (2007) as follows:

$$TAZ = 0.5 \left( A_{MAX} + TDZ + K_R \left( 1 + \frac{TDP}{K_p} \right) - \sqrt{\left( A_{MAX} + TDZ + K_R \left( 1 + \frac{TDP}{K_p} \right) \right)^2 - 4 \cdot A_{MAX} + TDZ} \right)$$

where TAZ, the total daily absorbed Zn (mg Zn/day);  $A_{MAX}$ , maximum absorption;  $K_P$ , the equilibrium dissociation constant of the Zn-phytate binding reaction;  $K_R$ , the equilibrium

dissociation constant of the Zn-receptor binding reaction; TDP, the total daily dietary phytate 148 (mmol phytate/day); and TDZ, the total daily dietary Zn (mmol Zn/day). The parameters,  $A_{MAX}$ , 149  $K_{\rm R}$ , and  $K_{\rm P}$  values were set as 0.091, 0.680 and 0.033, respectively as found for Zn homeostasis 150 in the human intestine (Hambidge et al., 2010) The model predicts TAZ based on the total daily 151 dietary PA intake (TDP) (mmol PA/day) and total daily dietary Zn intake (TDZ) (mmol Zn/day). 152 The average daily intake of rice per person was defined as 400 g/day, either as brown rice or 153 milled rice (Mottaleb and Mishra, 2016) and the TAZ was calculated based on the reference 400 154 g of rice per day. 155

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### 157 2.5 Correlation among phenotypic traits of WRC

Data on phenotypic traits, including the number of days to heading, culm length, panicle number, panicle length, grain length, grain width, and amylose content, were obtained from the data available at the Genebank Project, NARO (https://www.gene.affrc.go.jp). Plant height was measured during our field experiment, whereas seed length, seed width and seed weight were measured from harvested seeds. PA and Zn content data were measured as described above. Correlations among the phenotypic traits of WRC were analyzed to identify other traits affecting the PA content.

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### 166 2.6 Evaluation of low and high PA WRC accessions

Three low and three high PA WRC accessions were identified and selected for further analysis.
The selected low PA content accessions; WRC 5, WRC 12 and WRC 30 have been originated in
India, China and Nepal respectively and the high PA content accessions; WRC 6 was originated

170 in Indonesia while WRC 22 and WRC 44 in Philippines (Kojima et al., 2005). Further, considering the geographical information of the accessions there was no any relation with the PA 171 contents. We also considered the number of days to heading and the panicle setting ability at the 172 study location when selecting the accessions. Thus, three WRC accessions (WRC 60, WRC 53 173 and WRC 67) that had higher PA contents than WRC 44 (Fig. 1A) were not used in further 174 experiments because WRC 60 and WRC 67 did not set panicles in the field conditions at Itakura, 175 176 Gunma. Similarly, WRC 53 requires extra-long days for heading (as reported in 2016 from field observation data) and was not further analyzed. The content of other minerals and heavy metals 177 of the low and high PA WRC accessions were analyzed as described above. 178

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#### 180 2.7 Statistical Analysis

The statistics software Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS), version 25.0 was used to analyze the experimental data. The results were expressed as mean  $\pm$  standard deviation (SD). Comparison of differences between groups was analyzed by a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA), and significant differences between group means were determined by Duncan's test at *p*< 0.05. Linear regression analysis was performed to observe the relationship among PA, Zn and TAZ. The Pearson correlation coefficient among phenotypic traits was calculated by the R statistical package, version 3.5.0.

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# 189 2.8 Genome-Wide Association Mapping

190 Genotyping data were obtained from a high-density rice array (HDRA) single-nucleotide
191 polymorphisms (SNPs) database (http://www.ricediversity.org.) that consists of 700,000 SNPs

192 (McCouch et al., 2016). Out of 69 WRC accessions, 62 accessions for which genotypic data is available were used for the analysis. To estimate the possible impact of population stratification, 193 the population structure of the traits was tested before the association analysis. Genetic 194 differences based on the pairwise identity-by-state (IBS) distances and a multi-dimensional 195 scaling (MDS) analysis was implemented in PLINK (Purcell et al., 2007) to identify population 196 structure. Association mapping was conducted using linear regression model with population 197 198 stratification MDS dimensions as covariates to avoid false positives. SNP loci with more than a 10% missing rate and minor allele frequencies (MAF) of less than 0.05 were removed. After 199 quality control, a total of 185,146 SNPs were used in the association study in PLINK software 200 201 (Purcell et al., 2007) and a Manhattan plot was developed by Haploview 4.2 (Barrett et al., 2005) The SNPs within 1 Mbp were considered as the same locus and SNP sites with the lowest P202 value in the peak region ( $p < 10^{-4}$ ) were considered as significantly associated. 203

204

#### 205 **3. Results**

#### 206 3.1 Variation in the PA and Zn contents of WRC accessions

Variation in the PA and Zn contents and correlations between the PA and Zn contents of 69 207 WRC accessions are presented in Fig. 1. We have observed a range of 8.24 – 17.41 mg/g of PA 208 209 content (p < 0.05 by one-way ANOVA) among the WRC accessions in our study. Three WRC accessions with the lowest PA content, WRC 5, WRC 12 and WRC 30 had PA contents of 8.24, 210 9.12 and 9.13 mg/g, respectively. The selected high PA WRC accessions, WRC 6, WRC 22 and 211 WRC 44 had PA contents of 17.41, 16.51 and 16.34 mg/g, respectively (Fig. 1A). Relatively 212 higher levels of variation in the Zn content were observed among the accessions, ranging from 213  $18.95 - 47.56 \,\mu$ g/g. The highest Zn content was observed in WRC 28, whereas the lowest value 214

was in WRC 66 (Fig. 1B). Furthermore, we did not observe a significant correlation (p>0.05) between the PA and Zn contents among WRC accessions (Fig. 1C).

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#### 218 3.2 Identification of high Zn bioavailable rice from the WRC

The calculated mean Zn intake from the WRC was from 0.602 - 1.222 mg Zn/day. The highest TAZ value was observed in WRC 5 that had the lowest PA content. The lowest Zn absorption was observed in the WRC 6 that had the highest PA content (Fig. 2A). Moreover, WRC 28 and WRC 38 that had elevated Zn contents had high TAZ values, whereas WRC 66 had a moderate TAZ value (Fig. 2A). A negative correlation (p<0.05) was observed between the PA content and TAZ values (Fig. 2B), whereas the correlation was positive (p<0.05) between the Zn content and TAZ values (Fig. 2C).

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#### 227 3.3 Correlation among morphological traits

The correlation coefficients among phenotypic traits of WRC accessions are presented in Fig. 3. The PA content was negatively correlated (p<0.05) with the amylose content, and no significant correlations were observed with any other phenotypic traits. The Zn content was significantly (p<0.05) and negatively correlated with seed length, grain length and seed weight.

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## 233 3.4 Variation in the mineral and heavy metals contents

Mineral and heavy metal contents of low and high PA rice accessions are shown in Table 1. There were no significant differences (p>0.05) in the contents of Ca, Mn, Fe and Cu among the

three low and three high PA accessions. Levels of Ca, Mn, Fe and Cu in low PA rice ranged from  $105.0 - 115.7 \mu g/g$ ,  $18.2 - 29.1 \mu g/g$ ,  $7.9 - 9.5 \mu g/g$  and  $2.5 - 3.9 \mu g/g$ , whereas the high PA accessions ranged from  $109.4 - 126.3 \mu g/g$ ,  $24.5 - 38.8 \mu g/g$ ,  $10.2 - 12.9 \mu g/g$  and  $2.9 - 3.9 \mu g/g$ , respectively. Among the accessions, WRC 30 and WRC 5 had the lowest Ca and Mn contents respectively, whereas WRC 22 had the highest levels of these two minerals. The Fe content in high PA accessions were higher than those of low PA accessions, though not significant.

The heavy metal content varied randomly among the WRC accessions (Table 1). No substantial
differences were noted for the heavy metal content between low and high PA groups; however,
WRC 30 accumulated a significantly higher level of Cd among the accessions. There was no
significant difference in Hg accumulation among the WRC accessions.

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#### 248 3.5 Genome-Wide Association Study

GWA mapping on PA content identified 12 significant loci located on Chromosomes 1, 2, 3, 5, 6,
7, 8,11 and 12 (Fig. 4A, Table 2). Among these identified SNPs, no gene coding regions colocated with PA biosynthetic or accumulation-related genes. Further, 17 and 7 significant loci
identified through GWA analysis on Zn Content (Supplementary Fig. S1) and TAZ
(Supplementary Fig. S2) respectively. SNP positions determining PA content do not co-localize
with SNPs for Zn.

Exploring the genetic variation present in a germplasm collection is one of the major and preliminary steps for improving the desired trait in a breeding program. High levels of variation for PA and Zn contents were found in WRC accessions in this study, probably due to the broad geographic and genotypic variation existing in the collection (Kojima et al., 2005). Earlier studies also observed significant variation for the PA content and Zn content in rice (Welch and Graham, 2004). The high grain Zn genotypes will be an important genetic resource for breeding Zn-rich varieties.

The amount of Zn in the diet alone affects Zn absorption. In our study, we found two WRC 264 accessions that had high Zn contents of 47.6  $\mu$ g/g and 42.9  $\mu$ g/g in brown rice (Fig. 1B); 265 however, to benefit from the increased nutritive value of the grains, the bioavailability of the 266 nutrient is essential (Trijatmiko et al., 2016). Based on a reference value for the daily 267 consumption of rice by an adult human as 400 g, the average daily intake of PA is quite high, 268 269 and the total daily level of dietary Zn is low. Thus, Zn bioavailability would be relatively low due to the combination of high PA content and moderately low Zn content in rice grain. Similar 270 results were found for *lpa* maize, rice and barley using a suckling rat pup model that reported an 271 inverse relationship between grain-derived dietary PA and Zn absorption (Lönnerdal et al., 2011). 272 Based on the PA and Zn contents of rice and the values for TAZ, it is evident from our study that 273 the low PA trait rather than high Zn content is more beneficial for increasing Zn bioavailability. 274

There was no obvious difference among the low and high PA rice accessions for Ca, Mn, Fe or Cu contents (Table 1). Significant increases in Ca (+20%) and Fe (+16%) were reported in the *indica*-type *lpa* rice mutant *Os-lpa-XQZ-1* (Frank et al., 2009). Notably, there was not an obvious correlation between the PA content and mineral content in two *japonica*-type mutants, *Os-lpa-XS110-1* and *Os-lpa-XS-110-2*, compared to the corresponding wild-type. Studies on an Azucena

280 x IR64 population showed significant positive correlations between phytate and Fe, Zn, Cu and Mn levels; however, the QTLs for phytate and these minerals were not located within the same 281 chromosomal regions and were genetically different (Stangoulis et al., 2007). Sakai et al. (2015) 282 reported that the mineral content of *lpa* seeds was identical to the corresponding wild-type and 283 that the PA content did not affect the translocation of mineral elements from vegetative organs 284 into seeds but caused changes in the mineral localization in the seed. These results suggest that 285 286 there might be different mechanisms controlling these traits, so that the PA content can be improved without affecting the acquisition and accumulation of mineral elements. 287

Analysis of the heavy metal content in low and high PA WRC accessions revealed considerable 288 289 variation in concentration that differed among genotypes, except for Hg accumulation (Table 1). Previous studies on Os-lpa-XS110-2 observed that its Cd content ranged from 19-158 mg/ kg at 290 different locations (Frank et al., 2009). To date, there are no reports on other heavy metal levels 291 292 in *lpa* rice mutants that would help to understand any correlation or impact of reduced PA content on heavy metal concentration. In accordance with our results, there seemed to be no 293 relation between the heavy metals and PA content in rice grain. Rather, the condition of the soil 294 and the environment may affect the accumulation and distribution of the minerals and heavy 295 metals in rice grain. 296

297 Correlation analysis among the phenotypic traits is useful for understanding their relationships. 298 In our study, several interrelationships were observed among the traits, however, the PA content 299 only had a significant negative correlation with the amylose content (Fig. 3). In contrast, the 300 significant SNPs identified by GWA analysis for amylose content (Supplementary Fig. S3) did 301 not overlap with significant SNPs associated with the PA content (Fig. 4). This result suggests 302 that PA and amylose accumulation are independently regulated. PA content was also

independent from Zn content (Fig. 3). In GWA analysis, we did not observe common significant SNP positions among PA and Zn (Fig. 4, Supplementary Fig. S1) which also evident that PA and Zn accumulation is regulated by independent genes. The observed negative correlation of Zn content and the seed weight of rice grain indicates a dilution effect in grain, whereas the lack of any significant correlation of PA with seed size traits implies that PA accumulation is independent from grain filling.

309 By GWA analysis, there were 2 common significant SNPs between PA and TAZ while no 310 common SNPs between Zn and TAZ which highlights that TAZ genetically determined by PA trait. The significant SNPs identified in this study for PA, Zn and TAZ do not co-localize with 311 312 the identified PA biosynthetic genes (Supplementary Fig. S4) (Perera et al., 2018). However, four SNPs are located on chromosome 2 where important PA biosynthetic genes (IPK2, 2-PGK, 313 ITPK4 and IMP-2) are located. The significant SNP on chromosome 7 is also located close to the 314 315 MIK gene, a key gene in PA biosynthesis and accumulation in rice. Chromosome 3 has five known PA accumulation genes; however, only one significant SNP was observed in our study. 316 The locations of the other SNPs that are on Chromosomes 1, 5, 8, 11 and 12 have not previously 317 been identified as having PA genes. These results indicate that the PA content is under genetic 318 control, not only by mutation within the coding region of PA biosynthesis genes but also other 319 mutations within unknown genes or cis-regulatory regions that may affect the expression of PA 320 biosynthesis genes. Novel type of molecular mechanisms regulating grain PA contents might be 321 harbored around found SNPs. Further, other mechanisms such as P uptake, translocation and 322 remobilization inside the plant may have considerable effects on PA accumulation in seeds. 323

The results suggest that Zn bioavailability in rice is strongly affected by the PA content of the grain which highlights the fact that decreasing the concentration of PA in rice is a possible

strategy for improving Zn bioavailability. Thus, reducing the PA content in rice seems an important target for reducing Zn deficiency in populations that consume rice as their main food component, especially in developing countries. The stability of PA and mineral elements that accumulate in these accessions should be evaluated over different environments to understand the genotypic and environmental effects. Further, additional investigation is needed to know more about the mechanism of PA accumulation in rice grain and to understand the genetic architecture of PA content.

333

#### 334 Abbreviations Used

ALP, alkaline phosphatase; GWAS, genome-wide association study; ICPMS, inductively
coupled plasma mass spectrometry; *lpa*, low phytic acid; PA, phytic acid; QTL, quantitative trait
loci; SNP, single nucleotide polymorphism; TAZ, total daily absorption of Zn; WRC, World
Rice Core collection

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### 340 Appendix A. Supplementary data

341 Manhattan plots for Zn content (Supplementary Fig. S1) and TAZ (Supplementary Fig. S2)

342 Manhattan plot for amylose content with known gene locations (Supplementary Fig. S3)

343 Manhattan plot for PA content with known gene locations (Supplementary Fig. S4)

344

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353	
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355	The authors declare no competing financial interest.
356	
357	Author Contributions
358	IP, SS and NH conceived the research project and designed the study. IP carried out all
359	experiments, AF and KY performed the phytic acid analysis, MA and SN assisted with the
360	elemental analyses. IP analyzed the datasets and GWA analysis. IP, SS and NH wrote the paper.
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- 487 Tables

# 488 Table 1. Phytic acid and other mineral content of identified low and high PA rice accessions.

# **Data are shown as mean± standard deviation from three replicates**<sup>a</sup>.

			Low PA						High PA			
	WRC 05		WRC 12		WRC 30	)	WRC 06		WRC 22		WRC 44	
PA	8.2±1.6	а	9.1±2.8	a	9.1±1.6	a	17.4±1.6	b	$16.5 \pm 1.7$	b	15.2±2.8	b
( <i>mg/g</i> )												
Minara	1(ua/a)											
minera	$(\mu g/g)$								40.0.60			
Zn	22.7±2.5	b	21.3±5.5	b	$23.7\pm3.1$	b	26.1±4.3	b	40.0±6.2	а	26.4±2.6	b
Ca	$106.4\pm6.1$	ab	$115.7 \pm 5.9$	ab	105.0±3.6	b	125.7±12.1	а	126.3±10.4	а	$109.4 \pm 5.3$	ab
Mn	18.2±3.0	c	$25.0\pm6.2$	bc	29.1±8.0	abc	24.5±4.9	bc	38.8±9.9	a	35.7±2.4	ab
Fe	9.5±1.3	b	7.9±1.0	b	9.0±0.2	b	12.9±2.7	a	10.2±0.6	ab	10.3±1.7	ab
Cu	3.0±0.2	bc	2.5±0.2	c	3.9±0.3	а	2.9±0.5	bc	3.9±0.7	a	3.8±0.7	ab
Heavy r	Heavy metal $(\mu g/g)$											
As	0.093±0.034	c	0.168±0.036	a	0.146±0.009	ab	0.108±0.026	bc	0.133±0.043	abc	$0.147 \pm 0.007$	ab
Cd	0.016±0.001	b	0.006±0.000	c	$0.051 \pm 0.010$	а	$0.015 \pm 0.001$	b	$0.011 \pm 0.001$	bc	$0.010 \pm 0.002$	bc
Sn	0.006±0.001	b	$0.004 \pm 0.000$	d	$0.006 \pm 0.000$	b	$0.005 \pm 0.000$	bc	$0.004 \pm 0.000$	cd	$0.007 \pm 0.000$	а
Hg	0.036±0.001	a	0.037±0.004	а	$0.037 \pm 0.002$	а	$0.041 \pm 0.001$	а	$0.041 \pm 0.008$	a	$0.039 \pm 0.004$	а
Pb	0.021±0.005	bc	$0.017 \pm 0.001$	c	$0.034 \pm 0.007$	ab	$0.024 \pm 0.008$	bc	$0.020 \pm 0.004$	c	$0.040 \pm 0.006$	a

491 <sup>a</sup> Means within each row followed by the same letter are not significantly different at p < 0.05

Chromosome	SNP identifier	Physical Position (bp)	P value
1	SNP-1.13341885.	13342912	9.65E-05
1	SNP-1.34444598.	34445642	3.11E-05
2	SNP-2.8009451.	8009453	3.87E-05
3	SNP-3.27727809.	27734757	6.41E-05
5	SNP-5.18978946.	19041463	5.32E-05
6	SNP-6.8016079.	8017079	7.76E-05
7	SNP-7.16299054.	16300048	1.96E-05
8	SNP-8.4390768.	4391766	3.94E-05
8	SNP-8.9166126.	9167123	8.53E-05
11	SNP-11.373613.	374612	5.38E-05
11	SNP-11.21966709.	22432839	2.79E-05
12	SNP-12.13915993.	13918656	3.26E-05

# 498 Table 2. Significant SNPs for PA content in WRC accessions identified by GWAS.

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511	Figure captions
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513	Fig. 1. Evaluation of 69 brown rice accessions in the WRC for (A) PA content (B) Zn content
514	(C) Correlation between the PA and Zn contents.
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517	Fig. 2. Evaluation of the total daily absorption of Zn in the WRC (A) TAZ of WRC (B)
518	Correlation of PA content and TAZ (C) Correlation of Zn content and TAZ.
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521	Fig. 3. Correlation matrix among phenotypic traits of 69 WRC. * and ** indicate significant
522	differences at $p < 0.05$ and 0.01, respectively.
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525	Fig. 4. Manhattan plot of the genome-wide association study for (A) PA content (B) Zn content
526	and (C) TAZ. The red line shows the threshold level ( $p < 1 \times 10^{-4}$ ). Negative $\log_{10}$ transformed p
527	values are plotted against the position on each of the 12 chromosomes. The significant SNPs are
528	marked with downward arrows.



Fig. 1









# Highlights

Low phytic acid rice accessions had high Zn bioavailability.

No obvious differences among low and high phytic acid accessions for mineral content.

Low phytic acid trait than a high Zn is the key target for high Zn bioavailability.

Genome-wide association mapping revealed 12 significant loci for phytic acid content.

Grain contents of phytic acid and Zn are regulated by independent genetics.