

1 **Integrating transcriptomic network reconstruction and QTL analyses reveals**  
2 **mechanistic connections between genomic architecture and *Brassica rapa***  
3 **development**

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34 **Running Title:**

35 **Integrating FVT, QTLs, and eQTLs**

36

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## 63 **ABSTRACT**

64 Plant developmental dynamics can be heritable, genetically correlated with fitness and  
65 yield, and undergo selection. Therefore, characterizing the mechanistic connections between  
66 the genetic architecture governing plant development and the resulting ontogenetic dynamics  
67 of plants in field settings is critically important for agricultural production and evolutionary  
68 ecology. We use a hierarchical Bayesian Function-Valued Trait (FVT) approach to estimate  
69 *Brassica rapa* growth curves throughout ontogeny, across two treatments and in two growing  
70 seasons. We find that the shape of growth curves is relatively plastic across environments  
71 compared to final height, and that there are trade-offs between growth rate and duration. We  
72 determined that combining FVT Quantitative Trait Loci (QTL) and genes/eigengene expression  
73 identified via transcriptomic co-expression network reconstructions best characterized  
74 phenotypic variation. Further, targeted eQTL analyses identified regulatory hotspots that  
75 colocalized with FVT QTL and co-expression network identified genes and mechanistically link  
76 FVT QTL with structural trait variation throughout development in agroecologically relevant  
77 field settings.

78

## 79 **INTRODUCTION**

80 Plant developmental genetics are correlated with fitness and yield (Baker *et al.* 2015;  
81 Kulbaba *et al.* 2017). Therefore, characterizing the mechanistic connections between the  
82 genetic architecture governing plant development and the resulting ontogenetic dynamics of  
83 plants in field settings is critically important to improving agricultural production and  
84 understanding evolutionary performance. Forward genetic approaches such as quantitative  
85 trait mapping are an attractive method of characterizing genetic architecture because they do  
86 not require *a priori* information such as candidate loci and can be used to describe pleiotropic  
87 and epistatic loci as well as polygenic traits (Prioul *et al.* 1997; Mackay 2013; Csilléry *et al.*  
88 2018). Transcriptomic co-expression analyses and expression QTL (eQTL) have also been used  
89 to identify the underlying genetic architecture responsible for phenotypic variation (e.g. Nozue  
90 *et al.* 2018). Recently, combining information from genomic association studies and  
91 transcriptomic expression analyses has been used to pinpoint candidate genes (Hitzemann *et*

92 *al.* 2003; Li *et al.* 2018; Luo *et al.* 2018; Schaefer *et al.* 2018). However, co-expression network  
93 analyses can also provide insight into the mechanistic connections between QTL genotypes and  
94 phenotypes. Here, we ask whether QTL, co-expression analyses, or a combination thereof best  
95 predict phenotypic variation. In combination with a targeted eQTL analyses in agroecologically  
96 relevant field settings, we characterize the mechanistic connections between the genomic  
97 architecture, transcriptomic expression networks, and phenotypic variation throughout plant  
98 development.

99         Development rarely occurs in discrete steps, yet developmental data are typically  
100 collected at multiple distinct but inter-dependent time points. Function-Valued Trait (FVT)  
101 modeling is one method of estimating the underlying continuous nature of development and  
102 avoiding complicated repeated measures analyses, which often compromise statistical power in  
103 downstream analyses (Wu *et al.* 1999; Griswold *et al.* 2008). One approach to FVT modeling  
104 involves fitting mathematical functions to discrete data to estimate continuous curves that  
105 represent the change of a trait or character as a function, typically of time (Kingsolver *et al.*  
106 2001; Wu and Lin 2006; Stinchcombe and Kirkpatrick 2012). Although there are multiple  
107 approaches to modeling continuous growth, one particular advantage of FVT modeling is that  
108 parameters describing developmental growth curves can be extracted from the FVT models and  
109 used as biologically interpretable and inter-relatable traits such as the relationship between  
110 growth rates, durations, inflection points, and final sizes. This ‘parameters as data’ approach  
111 enables a broad array of analyses at both genetic and phenotypic levels (Hernandez 2015;  
112 Kulbaba *et al.* 2017). In the current study, we employ a Bayesian hierarchical approach to FVT  
113 modeling that leverages global information from the entire dataset as well as each genotype to  
114 estimate replicate-level parameters describing growth curves that underlie the developmental  
115 dynamics of plant height.

116         One inherent but seldom addressed complication in studying developmental genetics is  
117 that development of a given trait rarely occurs independently of organism-level attributes. For  
118 instance, in plants carbon availability can severely limit and alter development, even in  
119 determinate structures such as leaves (Schneidereit *et al.* 2005; Raines and Paul 2006). Further,  
120 including physiological parameters in plant breeding models is predicted to accelerate and

121 improve yield gains (Hammer *et al.* 2005). One solution is using a hierarchical Bayesian  
122 approach to FVT modeling that incorporates genotype-specific values for physiological  
123 conditions such as carbon availability (for instance, estimated using  $A_{max}$ ) to statistically factor  
124 out variation caused by resource availability. Accounting for carbon availability in FVT  
125 parameter estimation can increase estimates of heritability and improve QTL mapping results  
126 (Baker 2018a, b).

127 QTL mapping provides a well-tested method of uncovering the genetic architecture of  
128 Function-Valued Traits (FVT). FVT variation may arise from structural or regulatory genes that  
129 differ among sampled genotypes. Examining gene expression can therefore provide insight into  
130 the mechanistic connections between genomic architecture and developmental dynamics of  
131 phenotypes (Schmid *et al.* 2005; Li *et al.* 2010; Jiang *et al.* 2015; Zhu *et al.* 2016). We use  
132 Mutual Rank (MR) and Weighted Gene Co-expression Network Analyses (WGCNA) to identify  
133 expression networks associated with FVT trait variation. These networks are then used to focus  
134 our analysis to specific expression traits for eQTL mapping (Munkvold *et al.* 2013; Ponsuksili *et*  
135 *al.* 2015). Interestingly, the genomic architecture of eQTL appears to depart from that of other  
136 phenotypic QTL such as FVT QTL in two important respects: first, gene expression traits tend to  
137 have only one or a few eQTL whereas morphological phenotypic traits are often highly  
138 polygenic (Gibson and Weir 2005). Second, eQTL from multiple expression traits in diverse taxa  
139 from yeast to *Brassica* can be highly colocalized into eQTL “hotspots”. These hotspots may  
140 indicate a regulatory gene or switch that has a disproportionate impact on downstream gene  
141 expression (Schadt *et al.* 2003; West *et al.* 2007; Hammond *et al.* 2011). In contrast, QTL for  
142 morphological traits may colocalize, but typically they do not do so to the same extent (Schadt  
143 *et al.* 2003; Tian *et al.* 2016). Whether general eQTL trends hold for targeted expression traits in  
144 agroecologically relevant field settings remains unknown. Further, to the best of our knowledge  
145 eQTL mapping has not been used to examine the mechanistic basis of developmental  
146 morphology captured via function-valued trait modeling.

147 Here, we estimate continuous developmental growth curves of plant height, a trait that  
148 when selected upon can lead to more effective increases in yield than directly selecting on yield  
149 itself (Law *et al.* 1978), in a set of *Brassica rapa* Recombinant Inbred Lines (RILs) while

150 mathematically factoring out the effects of carbon availability. We examine the patterns of  
151 genetic correlations among parameters describing change in height over time such as growth  
152 duration and final plant size, and we ask whether these developmental parameters correlate  
153 with yields. Using QTL mapping, we outline the genetic architecture of plant height  
154 development. Next, we use MR and WGCNA to identify genes and gene network module  
155 eigengenes whose expression patterns correlate with FVT parameters. We compare the  
156 predictive capacity of QTL and co-expression approaches in two ways: first, we test the relative  
157 effectiveness of QTL vs. MR genes vs. WGCNA module eigengenes (and combinations thereof)  
158 in explaining genetic variation of developmental traits. Second, we test whether QTL for FVT  
159 traits are enriched for genes identified via co-expression approaches. To explore the  
160 mechanistic basis of FVT QTL, we perform eQTL mapping on our MR genes and WGCNA module  
161 eigengenes. For eQTL and FVT QTL that colocalize, we explore the relative proportion *cis*- vs.  
162 *trans*-eQTL and their effect sizes. We ask whether eQTL colocalize to regulatory hotspots and if  
163 so how these compare to FVT QTL. Our eQTL analysis offers an additional line of inference for  
164 candidate gene identification as well as a potential mechanistic explanation for the regulation  
165 of yield-related FVT QTL.

166

## 167 **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

### 168 **Species description**

169 *Brassica rapa* (Brassicaceae) is an herbaceous crop species first domesticated in  
170 Eurasia. This study was conducted on Recombinant Inbred Lines (RILs) derived from crossing  
171 R500, a yellow sarson oil seed variety, with IMB211, which is a rapid cycling line derived from  
172 the Wisconsin Fast Plant line (WFP). All RILs are expected to be >99% homozygous (Kokichi and  
173 Shyam 1984; Brock and Weinig 2007; Iniguez-Luy *et al.* 2009; Markelz *et al.* 2017). In  
174 comparison with IMB211, R500 flowers later, attains a larger size and greater biomass, and  
175 allocates more resources to seed production. This experiment includes 120 RILs as well as R500  
176 and representative IMB211 genotypes.

177

### 178 **Experimental Design and Data Collection**

179 In 2011, and 2012, the IMB211 × R500 RILs were germinated in the University of Wyoming  
180 greenhouse in fertilized field soil, and transplanted into the field at two planting densities, as  
181 previously described (Baker *et al.* 2015). Briefly, crowded (CR) plants consisted of 5 plants of the  
182 same genotype per 4" peat pot with the central plant designated as a focal individual. The  
183 uncrowded (UN) treatment consisted of a single plant per pot. When the cotyledons were  
184 expanded, plants were transplanted to the field into randomly located blocks that consisted of  
185 either UN or CR plants. Each block contained a full RIL set (and representatives of the RIL  
186 parental genotypes), and RIL locations were randomized within blocks with 25cm between each  
187 focal plant. For phenotypic data collection 6 UN blocks were transplanted into the field in 2011  
188 and in 2012 8 CR and 8 UN blocks were transplanted. In 2011, an additional 5 UN blocks were  
189 transplanted into the field for RNAseq. Plants were watered daily to field capacity and treated  
190 with pesticides as needed following Baker *et al.* (2015). Each year, we collected data on the  
191 timing of germination, bolting, and flowering by surveying plants 5-7×/week. We recorded  
192 temperature data every 5s in the greenhouse and field using a series of Onset<sup>®</sup> Hobo data  
193 loggers (Bourne, MA, USA) and a Campbell Scientific (Logan, UT, USA) CR23X data logger  
194 equipped with a Vaisala (Helsinki, Finland) HMP-50 sensor. Temperature data were used to  
195 produce hourly and daily means, as well as hourly and daily minimums and maximums, for  
196 Degree Day (DD) calculations, which used a *B. rapa*-specific base value of 0.96°C (Vigil *et al.*  
197 1997).

198  
199 **Morphological data.** Plant height was recorded for all plants starting at leaf emergence. In  
200 2011, height was measured 6 times during the growing season, and these measurements  
201 captured final heights. In 2012, height was measured 2-3 times per week until senescence.  
202 Perhaps because of the increased precision in 2012 trait estimates, RNAseq data corresponds  
203 more closely to 2012 plant-level phenotypic data compared to 2011, and we focus on 2012  
204 plant-level phenotypic data. Full analyses of FVT traits and QTL including 2011 data can be  
205 found in the supplemental materials. Flowering phenology and performance were estimated  
206 based on 2012 fruit and seed numbers, as described in Baker *et al.* (2015).

207

208 **Function-Valued Trait (FVT) modeling and data analysis.** Height data were visually inspected  
209 for erroneous data points on a replicate level following Baker et al (2015). FVT modeling for  
210 trait estimation used Bayesian approaches that fit logistic growth curves to longitudinal height  
211 data (Eqn 1; adapted from Baker *et al.* 2018a). Height for each individual replicate plant is  
212 represented by a minimum of 5 and maximum of 13 sequential measurements. Briefly, we  
213 utilized a three-level hierarchical Bayesian model that retains the measurement data  
214 structure to account for information across all plants and genetic lines within the  
215 population, including replicate plants within each line.

$$216 \quad \frac{d}{dt}H = rH \left( \frac{H_{Hmax} - H}{H_{Hmax}} \right) \quad (\text{Eq. 1})$$

217 Replicate-level parameters were extracted from the fitted logistic growth curves and treated as  
218 trait data (Jaffrézic and Pletcher 2000; Kingsolver *et al.* 2001, Wu and Lin 2006; Stinchcombe *et*  
219 *al.* 2010; Baker *et al.* 2018a). These parameters include the growth rate ( $r$ , cm/DD), and an  
220 estimate of the maximum height based on the asymptote of the logistic growth curve ( $H_{max}$ , in  
221 cm). Additional parameters were algebraically extracted from the growth curve and include the  
222 duration of growth ( $d$ , in DD) and the inflection point of the growth curve in Degree Days ( $iD$ , in  
223 DD). The parameter  $d$  was defined as the time in DD when 95% of the final size ( $H_{max}$ ) was  
224 achieved. The parameter  $iD$  reflects the transition from exponentially accelerating to  
225 decelerating growth rates.

226 The hierarchical Bayesian model was implemented using PyMC, a Bayesian Statistical  
227 Modeling Python module. The model parameters were estimated via MCMC using the  
228 Metropolis-Hastings algorithm (Chib and Greenberg 1995; Patil *et al.* 2010). The MCMC  
229 estimations were performed using a single chain to sample 500,000 iterations, which includes  
230 the first discarded 440,000 burn-in iterations; the remaining 60,000 iterations were retained. By  
231 thinning to 1 iteration in 20, the retained iterations were reduced to 3,000 samples for every  
232 FVT parameter from which the posterior distributions were tabulated. All parameters' trace and  
233 auto-correlation plots were examined to ensure that the MCMC chain had adequate mixing and  
234 had reached convergence. All observed data for each genotype were plotted with two 95%  
235 credible interval envelopes. The inner, yellow envelope represents the credible intervals for the



236 model based on the observed data, and the green envelope is the 95% credible interval where  
237 future observations from the same environment are expected (Fig. 1; Kruschke 2014; Baker *et*  
238 *al.* 2018b).

239

240 **Phenotypic plasticity:** To detect environmental factors that might affect the correspondence  
241 between genotype and phenotype, we analyzed replicate level phenotypic datasets from 2012.  
242 We tested for the main effects of genotype and treatment and all possible interactions using  
243 the *lme4* and *pbkrtest* packages in the R statistical environment (Halekoh and Højsgaard 2014;  
244 R Core Team 2016; Bates *et al.* 2018). In these tests, all effects were considered random and  
245 block was nested within the treatment effect. Significant main effects of environment  
246 (treatment) were considered evidence of phenotypic plasticity, and interactions of treatment ×  
247 genotype was considered evidence for genetic variation in phenotypic plasticity.

248

249 **Best Linear Unbiased Predictions (BLUPs):** BLUPs were calculated independently for UN and CR  
250 treatments in R using the *lmer* function in the *lme4* package while controlling for block effects  
251 (Bates *et al.* 2018; Kuznetsova *et al.* 2018). Broad sense heritability ( $H^2$ ) was calculated as the  
252 genotypic variance divided by the sum of genotypic, block, and residual variances.

253

254 **Genetic Correlations:** We assessed the genetic correlations among height FVT and previously  
255 published phenology and fitness traits (Baker *et al.* 2015) across environments using Pearson's  
256 correlations of trait BLUPs. Bonferroni corrections for multiple testing were applied to all  
257 genetic correlations.

258

259 **QTL mapping:** QTL analyses were performed in R/qtl (Broman *et al.* 2003) based on a map with  
260 1451 SNPs having an average distance of 0.7 cM between informative markers (Markelz *et al.*  
261 2017). The *scanone* function was used to perform interval mapping (1cM resolution with  
262 estimated genotyping errors of 0.001 using Haley Knott regression) to identify additive QTL.  
263 QTL model space was searched using an iterative process (*fitqtl*, *refineqtl*, and *addqtl*) to  
264 identify additional QTL while taking into account the effects of QTL identified by *scanone* and

265 *addqtl*. All significance thresholds (0.95) were obtained using 10,000 *scanone* permutations  
266 (Broman *et al.* 2003; Broman and Sen 2009). QTL and their 1.5LOD confidence intervals are  
267 displayed using MapChart2.0 (Voorrips 2002). Percent variance explained (PVE) is calculated as  
268  $PVE=100 \times (1 - 10^{(-2 \text{ LOD} / n)})$ . We compared QTL peaks to the *B. rapa* genome (Version 1.5;  
269 Cheng *et al.* 2011) to identify positional candidate genes underlying each QTL. A similar  
270 approach was used for mapping eigengene QTL (see below). However, the R/qtl  
271 implementation of composite interval mapping (Broman and Sen 2009) was used.

272  
273 **RNAseq.** We used the RNA sequencing data previously reported in Markelz et al (2017). Briefly,  
274 in 2011 five UN blocks of plants designated for destructive sampling were transplanted into the  
275 field and allowed to establish for three weeks. Apical meristem tissue, consisting of the upper  
276 1cm of the bolting inflorescence, was collected from three individual replicate plants per RIL  
277 and immediately flash frozen on liquid nitrogen as described in Markelz et al (2017). RNA library  
278 preparation and sequencing were performed as previously described (Kumar *et al.* 2012;  
279 Markelz *et al.* 2017). Reads were mapped to the *B. rapa* CDS reference described in Devisetty *et*  
280 *al.* (2014) using BWA (Li and Durbin 2009), with an average of 6.52 Million mapped reads per  
281 replicate. Read counts were imported to R (R Core Team 2016) and filtered to retain genes  
282 where more than 2 counts per million were observed in at least 44 RILs. Libraries were  
283 normalized using the trimmed mean of M-values (TMM) method (Robinson and Oshlack 2010)  
284 and a variance stabilizing transformation was done using voom (Law *et al.* 2014).

285  
286 **Genetic network reconstruction.** To reconstruct gene co-expression networks, the fitted gene  
287 expression values for each RIL from the limma-voom fit (expression  $\sim$  RIL) were used and  
288 filtered to keep the top 10,000 genes most variable between RILs.

289 For each sample type, two network reconstruction methods were used. First, mutual  
290 correlation rank (MR) networks (Obayashi and Kinoshita 2009) were constructed. Pairwise MRs  
291 were calculated between each of the 10,000 genes and also between each gene and the BLUP  
292 parameter estimates from the 2011 and 2012 FVT models. A series of increasingly large growth-  
293 related networks were defined using genes directly connected to the FVT parameters with MR

294 thresholds of  $\leq 10, 20, 30,$  and  $50$ . Multiple different phenotypes were used to jointly seed each  
295 network, therefore networks may contain more nodes (and more genes) than the thresholds  
296 suggest. However, because some gene expression levels are uniquely correlated with specific  
297 phenotypes while others may be correlated with multiple phenotypes, the number of nodes is  
298 less than the product of the threshold value and number of phenotypes used to seed the  
299 network. Permutation analysis was used to test the network size expected by random chance at  
300 each threshold; 95 or more of 100 permutation networks had zero edges connecting FVT BLUPs  
301 and gene expression, showing that our MR networks are recovering statistically significant  
302 connections. We used the *blastn* algorithm (Altschul *et al.* 1990) with the discontinuous  
303 megablast option and an E-value cutoff of 0.001 to compare *B. rapa* genes to *Arabidopsis*  
304 *thaliana* genes (TAIR10 annotation;  
305 [ftp://ftp.arabidopsis.org/home/tair/Sequences/blast\\_datasets/TAIR10\\_blastsets/TAIR10\\_cds\\_2](ftp://ftp.arabidopsis.org/home/tair/Sequences/blast_datasets/TAIR10_blastsets/TAIR10_cds_20101214_updated)  
306 [0101214\\_updated](ftp://ftp.arabidopsis.org/home/tair/Sequences/blast_datasets/TAIR10_blastsets/TAIR10_cds_20101214_updated)).

307         Second, we constructed networks using a Weighted Gene Correlation Network Analysis  
308 (WGCNA; Zhang and Horvath 2005; Langfelder and Horvath 2008). For these networks a soft  
309 threshold power of 3 was used, corresponding to the lowest power that had a correlation  
310 coefficient  $> 0.9$  with a scale-free network topology. We used the “signed hybrid” network,  
311 which only connects genes with positive correlation coefficients. This network consisted of 50  
312 modules with a median of 91 genes per module. The eigengene expression value of each  
313 module was determined using WGCNA functions. The Pearson correlation between each  
314 module’s eigengene expression value and each FVT BLUP was calculated to identify modules  
315 potentially related to FVTs. Modules were considered significantly associated with a FVT BLUP if  
316 the multiple-testing corrected p-value (method = “holm” in R function *p.adjust*) for the  
317 correlation test was less than 0.05. Gene Ontology (GO) category enrichment was performed on  
318 each significant module; we only examined the Biological Process (BP) and Cellular  
319 Compartment (CC) categories. Categories were considered significantly enriched if the false  
320 discovery rate adjusted p-value was  $< 0.05$ .

321

322 **Comparing approaches for genetic architecture.** We compared the effectiveness of QTL, MR,  
323 and WGCNA approaches for predicting phenotypic variation in *r* and *Hmax* through a series of  
324 multivariate linear regression models (*lm* function in R). We extracted the effect size and  
325 direction for each QTL using the *effectplot* function in *r/qtl* (Broman and Sen 2009). In all cases,  
326 the trait BLUPs were the dependent variable, and all allele-specific effect sizes, gene expression,  
327 and eigengene expression values were independent variables. For each trait we generated  
328 three types of additive models: 1) models with one type of independent variable (genotypic  
329 information based on alleles harbored at each QTL including allele-specific effect sizes and  
330 direction or genotype specific gene expression values for MR genes or genotype specific  
331 eigengene expression values), 2) models with two types of independent variables (QTL and MR  
332 gene expression, QTL and eigengene expression, or MR gene expression and eigengene  
333 expression), and 3) full models with all three data types as independent variables. For each trait  
334 we included only significant QTL, genes from the MR30 network, and eigengenes that were  
335 significantly correlated with the trait of interest. Each model was subjected to a backwards  
336 model reduction routine where non-significant terms were iteratively removed until all terms in  
337 the model had significant effects on the dependent variable ( $p < 0.10$ ). We used AIC scores to  
338 compare final models.

339  
340 **Relationships between co-expression and FVT QTL.** We performed Fisher's exact test to  
341 determine whether the FVT QTL regions were enriched for genes and/or eigengenes identified  
342 via MR and WGCNA network analyses. Enrichment of FVT QTL for MR-identified genes was  
343 interpreted as evidence that the MR-identified genes are candidate causal genes for the FVT  
344 trait of interest.

345  
346 **eQTL Analyses.** To explore the regulatory mechanisms of MR-identified genes and WGCNA-  
347 identified eigengenes, as well as their potential connection to FVT QTL, we performed eQTL  
348 analyses. Our network analyses effectively allowed us to reduce the number of expression traits  
349 mapped from 10,000 to less than 75. Therefore, we used composite interval mapping (Zeng  
350 1993), which is usually considered too computationally intensive for eQTL studies. Permutation

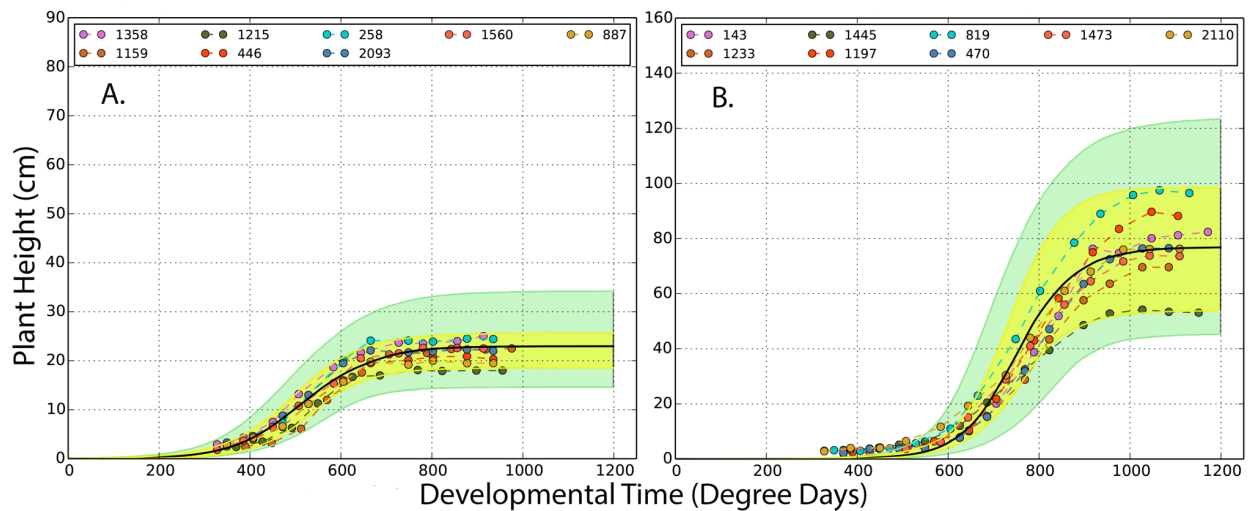
351 testing (Doerge and Churchill 1996) was used to establish a  $p < 0.05\%$  significance threshold for  
352 each gene. The *bayesint* function in *r/qtl* was used to define 99% confidence intervals for each  
353 eQTL. For some eQTL with very high LOD scores the resulting confidence interval was a single  
354 basepair (clearly unrealistic given the limitations imposed by the number of recombination  
355 events in a mapping population). For such eQTL we used a window of +/- 20kb around the  
356 identified base pair as the eQTL interval. We defined *cis*-eQTL as eQTL that include the physical  
357 gene generating the mRNA transcript and *trans*-eQTL as any eQTL that does not include the  
358 physical location of the gene. For MR-identified genes, *cis*-eQTL are interpreted as evidence of  
359 variation in *cis* regulatory elements such as promoters whereas *trans*-eQTL are interpreted as  
360 evidence for *trans*-acting regulatory proteins such as transcription factors, other signaling  
361 proteins, or small RNAs that modulate gene expression. Because eigengenes represent the  
362 composite expression of a median of 90 genes, one cannot assign *cis*- vs. *trans*-eQTL identity for  
363 these traits (although the majority of their action is expected to be in *trans*). MR gene or  
364 eigengene eQTL that colocalize with FVT QTL may explain the underlying basis for the FVT QTL,  
365 and such colocalizing eQTL represent candidate causal genes for the FVT eQTL locus. An  
366 alternative explanation is that eQTL that co-localize with FVT QTL are in linkage disequilibrium  
367 with the FVT QTL candidate. eQTL that do not co-localize with FVT QTL may still be affecting  
368 plant development, but at a level not directly detectable in the FVT QTL mapping.

369  
370 **Data availability:** The linkage map used for QTL and eQTL analyses is available in Markelz et al  
371 (2017). Replicate level FVT parameters are presented in S1; RIL-specific gene expression values  
372 will be made available in supplemental materials (via FigShare) upon acceptance of the  
373 manuscript and are available to the editor and reviewers upon request.

## 374 375 **RESULTS**

376  
377 **FVT Modeling:** For all FVT modeling, the data were sufficient to support all aspects of the  
378 growth curves modeled, and the models fit the data well (Fig. 1 for example model fits). Plots  
379 for all FVT models can be found in S2.

380



381

382 Fig. 1. Representative genotypes (A, IMB211; B, R500) of Bayesian FVT trait estimation approaches for uncrowded  
383 plants from the 2012 season. Within each panel, dots represent observed data. Colors indicate replicates within  
384 each genotype, and indicate that each replicate was measured multiple times throughout the growing season. The  
385 black line is the Bayesian estimate of logistic growth curve that best represents each genotype. The yellow  
386 envelope is a 95% credible envelope for the observed data; the green envelope is a 95% credible envelope for  
387 where new data is predicted to occur for a specific genotype and environment combination.

388

389 **Phenotypic Plasticity and Heritability:** To assess the effects of the environment on plastic  
390 growth responses, we analyzed raw replicate level data. Although there were main effects of  
391 Block (nested within treatment) and genotype (RIL ID) for all traits, there were no significant  
392 main effects treatment (Table 1). However, there was genetic variation for a plastic response to  
393 crowding for all traits except *iD* (inflection time, in Degree Days; treatment-by-genotype  
394 interaction; Table 1).

395

396 In general, heritabilities were higher for plants grown in the UN relative to CR  
397 treatments for all traits. This may reflect the relatively stochastic nature of the crowding  
398 response: in some cases in the CR treatment the focal plant may have outcompeted its  
399 neighbors whereas in others it may have been outcompeted.

399

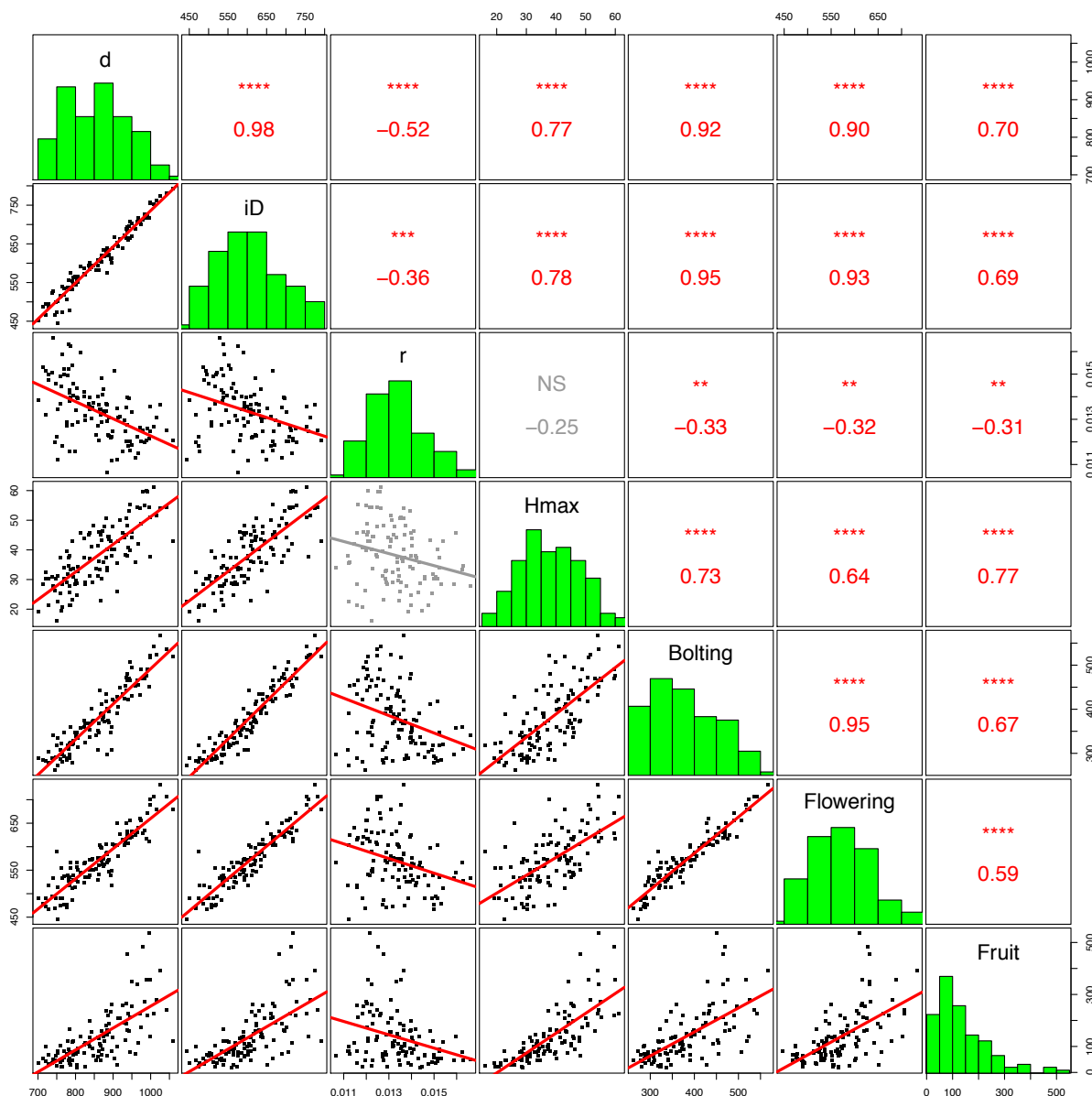
400 Table 1. Phenotypic plasticity and heritabilities of FVT parameters. Block is nested within the Treatment effect.  
 401 Treat corresponds to the crowded and uncrowded treatments in 2012 and Genotype indicates RIL id. Significant  
 402 effects are emphasized by bold text.

Trait	Model t-value (df)	Random effects – Chi Square value (degrees of freedom)				Heritabilities (%)	
		Block (Treat)	Treat	Geno-type	Treat* Geno-type	UN 2012	CR 2012
<b>R</b>	<b>16.62 (1.08)</b> *	<b>80.2 (2)</b> ***	7.28e-12 (1) NS	<b>136 (1)</b> ***	<b>211 (1)</b> ***	74.5	76.0
<b>D</b>	<b>43.32 (1.57)</b> **	<b>58.5 (2)</b> ***	3.64e-12 (1) NS	<b>294 (1)</b> ***	<b>4.88 (1)</b> *	79.5	79.3
<b>iD</b>	<b>37.16 (1.65)</b> **	<b>98.2 (2)</b> ***	1.42e-10 (1) NS	<b>369 (1)</b> ***	0.34 (1) NS	86.8	83.7
<b>Hmax</b>	<b>8.70 (1.83)</b> *	<b>116 (2)</b> ***	0.0 (1) NS	<b>226.4 (1)</b> ***	<b>42.3 (1)</b> ***	81.2	68.1

403 Signif. codes: p < 0.001 ‘\*\*\*’; p < 0.01 ‘\*\*’; p < 0.05 ‘\*’; p < 0.1 ‘.’; p > 0.1 ‘NS’

404  
 405 **Genetic Correlations:** To explore the genetic relationships among the height FVT parameters and  
 406 previously published estimates of plant phenology and fitness, we conducted a correlation  
 407 analysis on BLUPs of each trait. In general, the pattern of genetic correlations within years and  
 408 treatments was similar. UNr from 2012 was correlated with all traits except *Hmax* (Fig 2). In  
 409 contrast, CRr in 2012 was negatively correlated with other all other 2012 CR FVT traits, with all  
 410 CR phenology traits (except the bolting-to-flowering interval) and CR fitness traits (S3). UNr in  
 411 2012 was negatively correlated with UNd and *iD* but not *Hmax*. UNr 2012 was also negatively  
 412 correlated with phenology and fitness. These patterns of genetic correlations are largely  
 413 consistent across years and treatments; a representative subset are presented in Fig 2.

414



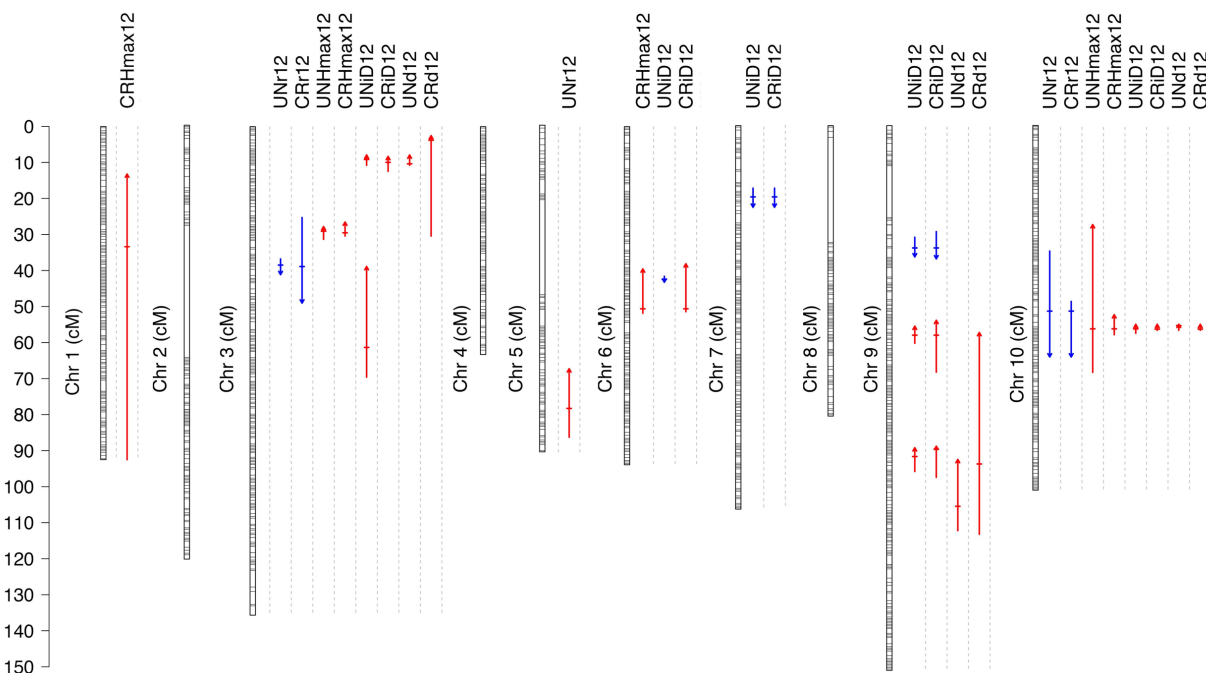
415  
 416 Fig 2. Genetic correlations among UN 2012 FVT height, phenology, and fitness traits. Each point is a genotypic  
 417 mean (BLUP). Bonferroni corrections for multiple tests ( $n=7$ ) have been applied. Non-significant correlations are in  
 418 gray. All time is expressed in Degree Days. \*  $p<0.05$ , \*\*  $p<0.01$ , \*\*\*  $p<0.001$ , \*\*\*\*  $p<0.0001$ , NS  $p \geq 0.05$ .

419  
 420 **QTL mapping:** To further explore the genetic architecture of the height FVT parameters, we  
 421 conducted QTL mapping analyses of the height FVT traits. In total we mapped 32 individual QTL  
 422 from 2012 (2011 FVT QTL are presented in S4); however, an alternative interpretation is that  
 423 we mapped as few as 9 highly pleiotropic QTL. QTL were observed throughout the genome,



424 except on chromosomes 2, 4, and 8. Most QTL localized to chromosome 3, 9 and 10. Across all  
425 traits, each QTL explained 29% of trait variation on average. The minimum explained variance  
426 was 9.5% and the maximum was 73% of variance (Fig 3 & S4).

427



428

429 Fig 3. A map of all QTL identified in 2012. Horizontal lines on chromosomes indicate the position of RNAseq  
430 markers used to genetic map construction. Each QTL is indicated with a vertical arrow under the trait name.  
431 Horizontal hatches indicate QTL position, the arrow length indicates 1.5 LOD support limits. Arrow heads and color  
432 (up, red = positive; down, blue = negative) indicate QTL direction relative to the R500 parent. Exact locations,  
433 markers, and LOD scores for all QTL can be found in S4.

434

435 **Genes under FVT QTL:** To determine positional candidates within mapped FVT QTL, we  
436 compared our FVT QTL to the *B. rapa* genome and identified genes underlying the QTL. We  
437 restricted our search to QTL with LOD > 9 (Table 2). All 9 of these QTL were on either  
438 chromosome 3 or 10. Because several of the QTL co-localized (had overlapping 1.5 LOD  
439 confidence intervals), we often found the same genes under multiple QTL. After removing  
440 duplicate entries, we found 490 unique genes underlying the 9 QTL investigated (S5).

441

442 **RNAseq.** We used RNA sequencing (RNAseq) to understand the genetic mechanisms underlying  
443 FVT QTL and as an alternative approach for examining the genetic architecture of our FVT traits  
444 without *a priori* knowledge. 21,147 genes of 28,668 genes with detectable expression in UN  
445 treatment were differentially expressed among RILs (FDR < 0.01). The 10,000 genes with the  
446 most variable expression among RILs were used for downstream network analysis.

447

#### 448 **Mutual Rank Network Analysis:**

449 To find gene co-expression networks relevant to the FVT model parameters, we built Mutual  
450 Rank (MR) networks nucleated on each FVT model parameter and performed permutation  
451 analyses to determine the statistical significance of our networks. Ninety-five or more of 100  
452 permutations had zero connections between FVT parameters and gene expression. Therefore,  
453 our MR networks are enriched for *bona fide* connections at a variety of MR threshold cutoffs  
454 (The MR30 network is shown in Fig 4; larger networks become difficult to visualize and are  
455 presented in S6). Complete gene membership for all MR-thresholds annotated with the best hit  
456 obtained by *blastn* against the predicted *A. thaliana* proteome are presented in supplemental  
457 materials S7.

458 We used Fisher's exact test to determine whether FVT QTL were enriched for MR-  
459 identified genes. We found no evidence for enrichment for MR10 networks ( $p=1.0$ ) but  
460 significant evidence for enrichment for MR20, MR30, and MR50 networks ( $p<5E-09$ ; Table 4). In  
461 theory, MR10 networks should contain only those genes whose expression values are most  
462 highly correlated with FVT phenotypes. The non-significant results for MR10 may be caused by  
463 low power due to the single gene identified.



473

474 Table 4. Fishers exact tests for enrichment of FVT QTL for MR-identified genes.

		QTL		p-value
		Yes	No	
<b>MR10</b>	Yes	0	2	1.0
	No	5,816	37,645	(NS)
<b>MR20</b>	Yes	16	0	6.91e-13
	No	6,800	37,647	***
<b>MR30</b>	Yes	25	4	4.98e-09
	No	5,791	37,643	***
<b>MR50</b>	Yes	46	10	9.93e-21
	No	5,770	37,637	***

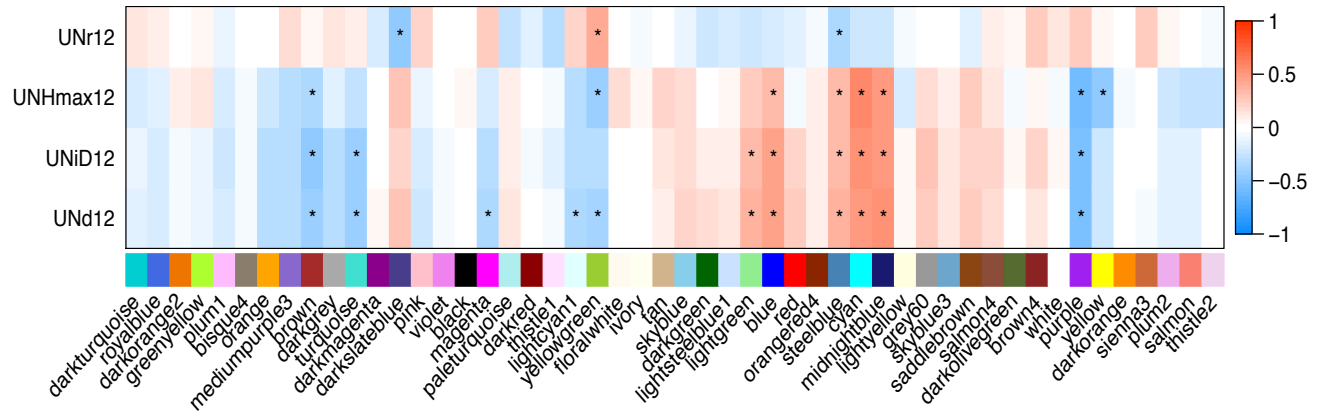
475  $p > 0.05$ , NS;  $p < 0.0001$ , \*\*\*\*

476

#### 477 **Weighted Gene Co-expression Network Analysis (WGCNA):**

478 In a second approach to identifying gene expression networks related to estimates of FVT trait  
479 parameters, we used a Weighted Gene Co-expression Network Analysis (WGCNA) to identify  
480 eigengene modules. Modules of interest were identified as those showing a significant  
481 correlation between eigengene expression values and FVT model parameters across the RILs  
482 (Figure 5). Gene Ontology (GO) enrichment analysis was performed to examine the potential  
483 function of correlated module (S8); below we discuss correlations with modules that had at  
484 least one GO term enriched. There are positive correlations between 2012 BLUPs for maximum  
485 height (*Hmax*), growth duration (*d*), and the time that the growth curve reached its inflection  
486 point (*iD*) and the *cyan* module (related to protein translation), the *midnight blue* module  
487 (related to wounding/herbivore defense responses as well as some abiotic stress responses),  
488 and the *blue* module (enriched for genes related to cell division and development). This  
489 suggests that plants that have a longer duration of growth and reach a higher maximum height  
490 are producing more protein, undergoing more rounds of cell division, and have increased  
491 defense signaling. These three parameters also showed negative correlation with the brown  
492 module (enriched for actin cytoskeleton and protein dephosphorylation terms). *Hmax* is  
493 negatively correlated with *yellow* (enriched for terms related to photosynthesis). This

494 correlation could be caused by a difference in cellular maturation rates: plants with more rapid  
 495 cellular differentiation would be expected to show an upregulation of chloroplast genes and  
 496 reduced growth due to earlier differentiation and consequently relative lack of cell elongation.



497  
 498 Fig 5. Correlations among WGCNA identified eigengenes and UN 2012 FVT traits. Significant correlations are  
 499 denoted with an asterisk. *r*, growth rate; *d*, duration of growth; *iD*, time in degree days when the growth curve  
 500 reached its inflection point; *Hmax*, estimated maximum height based on FVT modeling.

501

502 **Comparisons of QTL and network modeling for phenotypic prediction:** To compare the  
 503 effectiveness of various approaches and combinations of these approaches in explaining the  
 504 variation in FVT trait estimates, we compared a series of additive linear models based on QTL,  
 505 MR genes, or WGCNA eigengenes both singly and in combination. For UNr (in 2012), models  
 506 containing only QTL outperformed models containing either MR30 identified gene expression  
 507 or WGCNA-identified eigengene expression (Table 5). For two-data type models, models with  
 508 only QTL outperformed those containing multiple data types. For *Hmax*, MR gene expression  
 509 outperformed both QTL and WGCNA-identified eigengene expression as well as combinations  
 510 of two data types. For both traits, the full model (with all three data types for *r*, but which  
 511 reduced to WGCNA and MR gene expression values for *Hmax*) were the best models for  
 512 explaining phenotypic variation (*r*:  $F_{(5,110)}=25.31$ ,  $p<0.0001$ ; *Hmax*:  $F_{(9,106)}=33.16$ ,  $p<0.0001$ ).  
 513 Similarly, the best two-data type models were a significantly better fit to the data than the best  
 514 single-data type models (*r*:  $F_{(5,114)}=40.182$ ,  $p<0.0001$ ; *Hmax*:  $F_{(4,113)}=80.398$ ,  $p<0.0001$ ). For all  
 515 comparisons, the significantly better model according to ANOVA also had lower AIC scores

516 (Table 5). Taken together, these results indicate that although each approach has significant  
 517 predictive capacity, combining multiple approaches improves estimation of trait variation.

518

519 Table 5. Comparison of additive linear models using genetic and transcriptomic data to explain 2012 uncrowded  
 520 phenotypic data.

Trait	Best single-data type model	AIC	Next best AIC (next best model)	Formula <sup>§</sup>	Best model F-value (DF), significance and adjusted R <sup>2</sup>
<i>r</i>	QTL	-1305.97	-1256.43 (WGCNA)	$y \sim rQTL2 + rQTL2 + r QTL3$	F(3, 113)= 30.9 *** R <sup>2</sup> =0.4361
<i>Hmax</i>	MR	735.5348	783.6546 (WGCNA)	$y \sim Bra03899 + Bra011761 + Bra006755\_Bra006756 + Bra036465 + Bra008859 + Bra037542$	F(6,109)=45.48 *** R <sup>2</sup> =0.6989
<b>Best 2-data type model</b>					
<i>r</i>	QTL + WGCNA (reduces to just QTL)	-1305.97	--1297.869 (MR+WGCNA)	$y \sim rQTL1 + rQTL2 + rQTL3$	F(3,113)=30.9 *** R <sup>2</sup> =0.4361
<i>Hmax</i>	MR + WGCNA (reduces to just MR)	734.2895	752.3889 (QTL+MR; reduces to just MR*) <sup>†</sup>	$y \sim Bra011761 + Bra006755\_Bra006756 + Bra13959 + Bra08840 + Bra008859 + Bra037542\_Bra002411$	F(7,108)=40.16 *** R <sup>2</sup> =0.7045
<b>Best overall model</b>					
<i>r</i>	Full model (QTL+ MR+ WGCNA)	- 1308.602	-1305.97 (QTL + WGCNA)	$y \sim rQTL2 + yellowgreen + Bra006755\_Bra06756 + Bra025790 + Bra028216$	F(5, 110)=25.31 *** R <sup>2</sup> =0.5138
<i>Hmax</i>	Full model (reduces to MR + WGCNA)	731.63	-734.2895 (MR + WGCMA; reduces to just MR*)	$y \sim yellow + Bra011761 + Bra006755\_Bra006756 + Bra008575 + Bra008577 + Bra008840 + Bra008859 + Bra037542 + Bra002411$	F(9,106)=33.16 *** R <sup>2</sup> =0.7157

521 \*\*\* p < 0.0001

522 \* This model reduced to include just MR gene expression values but is different from the best Hmax single-data  
 523 type model that also includes just MR gene expression values.

524 <sup>§</sup> rQTL 1-3 have markers at A03x 6417941, A05x23393567, and A10x11427369, respectively,

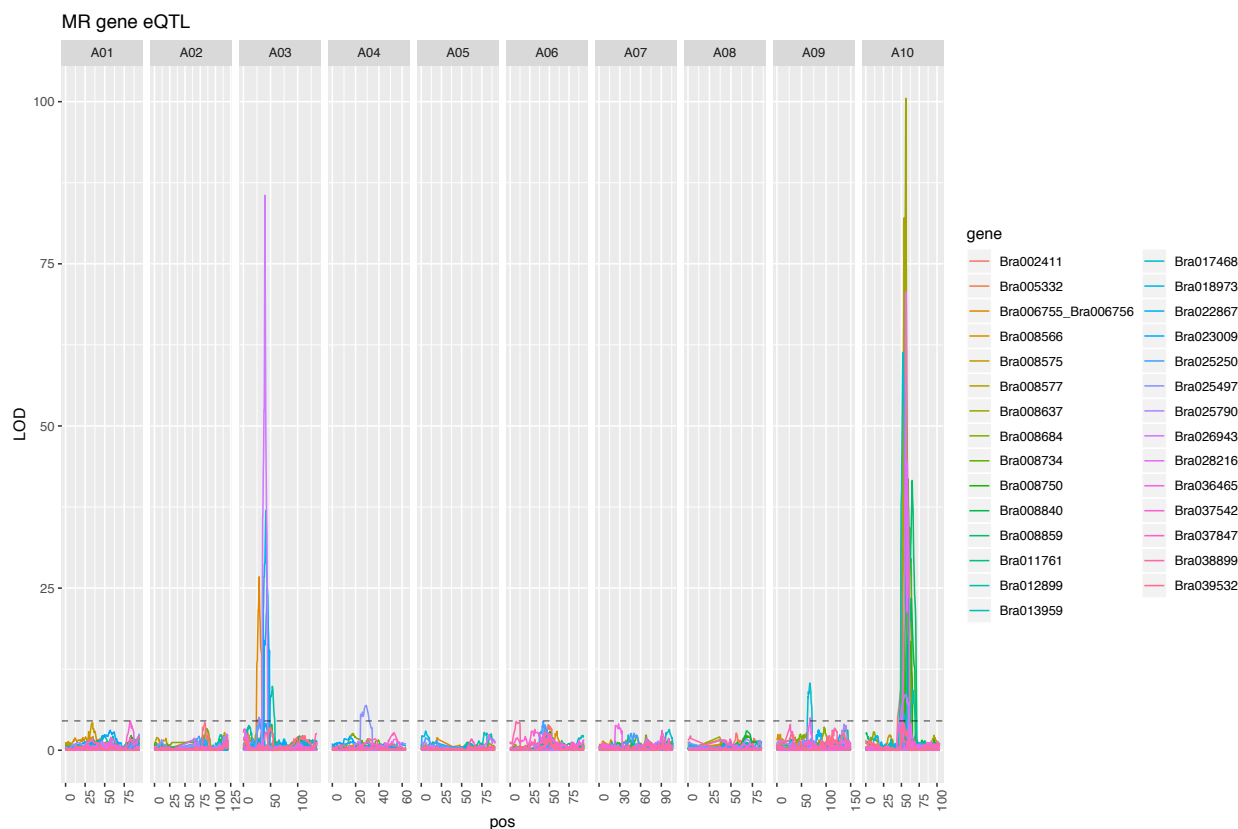
525

## 526 eQTL analyses and colocalization of eQTL with of FVT QTL

527 Because including MR and WGCNA results both improved upon linear models for FVT traits that  
 528 contained just QTL (Table 5) and because all models that included MR and WGCNA

529 gene/eigengene expression values were significant and predicted FVT trait variation, we used  
530 eQTL analyses to assess the mechanistic relationship between gene/eigengene expression and  
531 FVT QTL. For the 29 MR30-identified genes, we found significant eQTL on all chromosomes  
532 except 5 and 8. In congruence with FVT QTL mapping results, there were eQTL with particularly  
533 high LOD scores on chromosomes 3 and 10 (LOD >75; Figure 6). There was significant overlap  
534 among 2012 FVT-QTL confidence intervals and MR-eQTL confidence intervals based on  
535 permutation tests ( $n=1000$ ,  $p=0.003$ ).

536



537

538 Fig 6. Expression trait QTL (eQTL) identified using Composite Interval Mapping (CIM) for MR30-identified genes  
539 where MR networks were nucleated around UN FVT traits. Note the eQTL hotspots on chromosomes 3 and 10.

540

541 Of the 57 MR50 genes, 42 genes had a total of 47 eQTL that overlapped with FVT QTL  
542 with LOD scores ranging from 100.5-4.6. Six of the 42 MR50 genes with eQTL that colocalized  
543 with FVT QTL had *cis*-eQTL, and of those six, three were in networks with cutoffs of MR30 or  
544 below (Table 6). The co-occurrence of these loci as MR-identified *cis*-eQTL and FVT QTL

545 indicates that they are strong candidate genes for regulating the FVT traits. For any given FVT  
 546 trait, none of the MR genes with *cis*-eQTL also had *trans*-eQTL that colocalized with other FVT  
 547 QTL. Of the 36 MR genes with *trans*-eQTL that colocalized with FVT QTL, 33 had a single *trans*-  
 548 eQTL that colocalized with FVT QTL. Three genes (Bra012899, Bra014655, and Bra029573) had  
 549 *trans*-eQTL that colocalized with two or more distinct FVT QTL (Table 7).

550  
 551 Table 6. MR-identified genes with *cis*-eQTL that co-localize with UN 2012 FVT QTL. Note that because FVT QTL  
 552 overlap a single MR *cis*-eQTL may colocalize with FVT QTL for multiple traits.

MR gene	MR Network	Chromo-some	FVT trait	eQTL LOD range	AGI	<i>A. thaliana</i> symbol
Bra008840	20	10	<i>r, Hmax</i>	22.526-23.419	AT5G13280	AK;AK-LYS1;AK1
Bra008859	20	10	<i>r, Hmax</i>	41.593-41.593	AT5G13070	NA
Bra008750	30	10	<i>r, iD, Hmax</i>	15.375-17.671	AT5G14600	NA
Bra008711	50	10	<i>r, Hmax</i>	24.585-26.594	AT5G15250	ATFTSH6;FTSH6
Bra008931	50	10	<i>r, Hmax</i>	8.515-10.223	AT5G11880	NA
Bra029100	50	3	<i>r</i>	28.288-30.055	AT5G53045	NA

553  
 554 Table 7. MR-identified genes with multiple *trans*-eQTL that co-localize with FVT QTL.

MR gene	MR Network	Chromosome	FVT Trait	eQTL LOD range
Bra012899	10	3	<i>iD</i>	8.315-9.854
		10	<i>Hmax</i>	6.970-9.214
Bra014655	50	3	<i>r, iD, d, Hmax</i>	2.857-4.930
		6	<i>iD</i>	6.526-8.333
		10	<i>r, Hmax</i>	3.290-5.176
Bra029573	50	3	<i>Hmax</i>	5.096-7.279
		6	<i>iD</i>	3.052-5.367
		10	<i>Hmax</i>	2.906-4.812

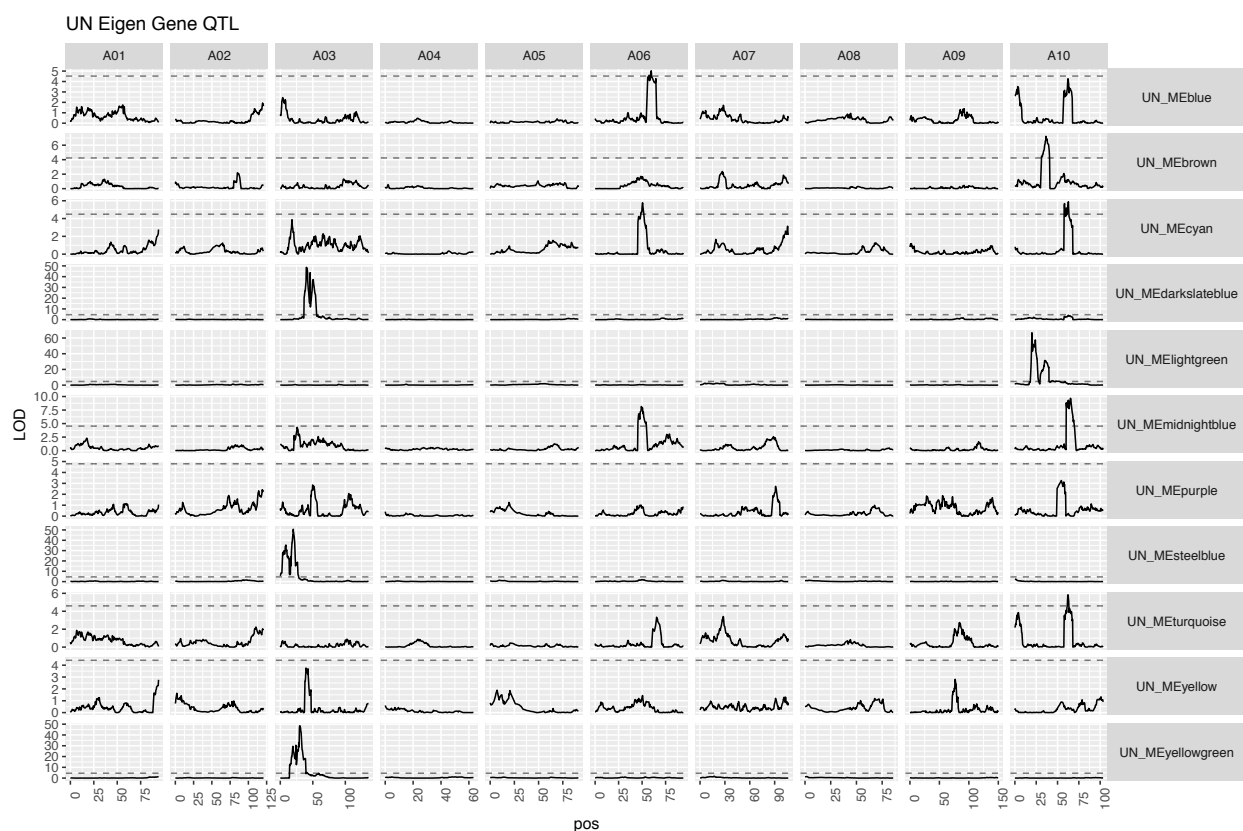
555  
 556 Next we performed eQTL analyses (Figure 7) for the 11 WGCNA-identified eigengene  
 557 modules based on UN 2012 FVT (see Figure 5). Chromosome 3 harbored strong eQTL for  
 558 “darkslateblue”, “steelblue”, and “yellowgreen” (all with no go enrichment; nge). Chromosome  
 559 6 had QTL for “blue” (cell division), “cyan” (translation), and “midnightblue”  
 560 (herbivore/wounding). Chromosome 10 had Eigengene eQTL in two locations, one for “brown”  
 561 (actin cytoskeleton) and “lightgreen” (nge), the other for “cyan” (translation), “midnightblue”



562 (herbivore/wounding), “turquoise” (nge), and a suggestive peak for “blue” (cell division). Five of  
 563 the eleven eigengenes had eQTL also colocalized with FVT QTL, indicating a potential causative  
 564 connection between eigengenes and FVT for *r*, *iD*, and *Hmax* (Table 8). However, each  
 565 eigengene had only one eQTL that colocalized with an FVT QTL.

566 The second chromosome 10 location (“cyan”, “midnightblue”, and “turquoise”) overlaps  
 567 with the FVT QTL9 and the Eigengenes has significant correlations with *d* and *iD* FVTs indicating  
 568 a possible causative connection. We then performed permutation tests and determined that  
 569 FVT-QTL were enriched for WGCNA-eQTL ( $n=1000$ ,  $p=0.005$ ).

570



571  
 572 Fig 7. Expression trait QTL analysis (eQTL) for WGCNA-identified eigengenes that significantly correlate with UN  
 573 FVT traits.

574

575 Table 8. Eigengene eQTL and FVT QTL colocalization.

Trait (eigengene)	Chromosome	FVT trait	LOD range
brown	10	<i>r</i> , <i>Hmax</i>	6.052-7.223

cyan	10	$iD, r, Hmax$	4.900-5.880
darkslateblue	3	$r, iD$	47.828-47.828
midnightblue	10	$r, Hmax,$	8.826-9.674
turquoise	10	$r, Hmax$	3.967-5.840
yellowgreen	3	$Hmax$	48.424-48.550

---

576

577

## 578 DISCUSSION

579 Plant height is often correlated with fitness and yield. Height is a complex and dynamic  
580 trait that changes over the course of development, and variation in plant height is necessarily  
581 generated through variation in developmental dynamics. However, similar heights can be  
582 achieved through multiple different growth curves. Quantifying the underlying genetic  
583 architecture and mechanistic basis of growth dynamics may result in improved estimations of  
584 final plant height, fitness, and yield. Here, we use Bayesian hierarchical modeling to estimate  
585 Function-Valued Trait (FVT) parameters describing continuous plant growth and explore their  
586 correlations with phenology and fitness. We test whether QTL mapping, genes identified  
587 through Mutual Rank (MR) co-expression, or eigengenes identified through Weighted Gene  
588 Network Co-expression Analysis (WGCNA) co-expression, or combining these information types  
589 best explain genetic variation in agroecologically relevant FVT traits in the field. Further, we  
590 employ eQTL analyses to explore the molecular genetic regulatory mechanisms that  
591 mechanistically connect FVT QTL with phenotypic variation.

592 Although development typically occurs in a continuous fashion, most studies quantifying  
593 development necessarily collect data at discrete timepoints. We take a “parameters as data”  
594 approach to FVT modeling to estimate the continuous nature of plant development (Hernandez  
595 2015; Kulbaba *et al.* 2017). Much as floral development or leaf development has well defined  
596 core molecular genetic pathways that govern organ formation, elaboration, or elongation  
597 (reviewed in Bowman *et al.* 2012), there is likely a core genetic architecture that contributes to  
598 plant height. However, exogenous and endogenous factors can influence the outputs of these  
599 developmental programs. For instance, crowding may trigger a shade avoidance response and  
600 lead to rapid increases in height (e.g. Schmitt *et al.* 2003). Similarly, plant carbon status can  
601 affect the developmental morphology and final size of organs such as leaves (Schneidereit *et al.*

602 2005; Raines and Paul 2006; Baker *et al.* 2018a). We took two approaches to examining the  
603 core developmental genetics of plant height. First, we grew plants across multiple growing  
604 seasons and in crowded and uncrowded conditions. Second, we included a genotype-specific  
605 co-factor in our FVT models that accounts for variation in photosynthetic rates (approximated  
606 through *Amax*), thereby statistically factoring out variation due to carbon availability and  
607 allowing us to more directly interrogate the developmental genetic architecture and molecular  
608 mechanisms contributing to plant height (Baker *et al.* 2018a; b). In our study, all FVT traits had  
609 relatively high broad sense heritabilities (>70%), and all had significant main effects of  
610 genotype. Interestingly, although there were no significant main effects of treatment (i.e.  
611 population means did not differ), all FVT trait estimates (except *iD*) exhibited genetic variation  
612 for carbon-independent phenotypic plasticity via a treatment-by-genotype interaction, likely  
613 because of rank-order differences across treatments at the genotypic level (Table 1).

614 Morphological phenotypes, such as components of yield and height, can be highly  
615 integrated throughout development (reviewed in Klingenberg 2014). Final height is often used  
616 as a proxy for yield or fitness, yet plant growth dynamics throughout ontogeny may also be  
617 correlated with aspects of yield such as fruit and seed set (Yin *et al.* 2011; Tanger *et al.* 2017). In  
618 our experimental set of *Brassica rapa* Recombinant Inbred Lines (RILs), plant developmental  
619 dynamics including duration of growth (*d*), the inflection point in the growth curve that  
620 represents the change from exponentially accelerating to decelerating growth (*iD*), and  
621 estimates of final plant height (*Hmax*) were all significantly and positively genetically correlated  
622 (Fig 2). Interestingly, growth rates (*r*) were negatively correlated with *d* and *iD*, but were not  
623 correlated with *Hmax*, indicating that while there is a trade-off between growth rates and  
624 durations, duration of growth may be more important for final plant height than growth rate.  
625 All of our estimates of plant growth and final size were significantly genetically correlated with  
626 both phenology and yield traits. The significant correlations of *r* with yields indicates that  
627 developmental dynamics of a given trait can be related to crop yields and plant fitness through  
628 mechanisms that may be at least partially independent of final size. Because final size is  
629 positively correlated with yields while growth rates are negatively correlated with yields,

630 selection for maximum yields at early harvest dates may come at the expense of late harvest  
631 yields and vice versa.

632 To examine the genetic architecture underlying the FVT estimates of growth rates,  
633 durations, and final sizes, we used standard QTL mapping procedures, which revealed a number  
634 of QTL. Of particular note, when QTL for  $r$  colocalized with  $d$ , the QTL were of opposite sign,  
635 confirming our negative genetic correlations between growth rates and durations, and  
636 indicating potentially pleiotropic loci contributing to both traits. On average, FVT QTL explained  
637 24% of trait variation and the number of genes under each QTL ranged in to the hundreds. In  
638 part to narrow down the list of candidate genes and in part to understand the mechanistic  
639 regulation of FVT via QTL, we took two additional transcriptomic co-expression approaches to  
640 exploring the genetic architecture of FVT traits: First, we seeded a Mutual Rank (MR) co-  
641 expression network with FVT traits and asked which gene expression values correlated with  
642 variation in FVT traits. Second, we constructed 50 eigengenes based on a Weighted Gene Co-  
643 expression Network Analysis (WGCNA) and asked which eigengenes were correlated with  
644 individual FVT trait. We found that FVT QTL were significantly enriched for MR genes, indicating  
645 that these two approaches were identifying some common drivers of FVT traits. To compare  
646 the effectiveness of all three approaches, we asked whether QTL, MR genes, or eigengenes best  
647 explained variance in FVT traits. Although QTL outperformed both co-expression network  
648 modeling approaches for  $r$ , combining data from multiple approaches yielded improvements in  
649 our models, indicating that even though QTL, MR genes, and eigengenes often physically co-  
650 localize within the genome, they are not synonymous with one another (Table 5).

651 To better understand the potential function of genes related to growth WGCNA and MR  
652 networks, we used gene annotations and homology to *A. thaliana*. Although about half of the  
653 eigengenes that correlated with FVT BLUPs had no gene ontology enrichment, three eigengenes  
654 with eQTL on chromosome 10 were enriched for actin/cytoskeleton, herbivore/wounding and  
655 cell division, respectively. The MR30 genes include a homolog of the homeodomain gene *BEL1*  
656 (*NACA3* (Reiser *et al.* 1995) which is negatively correlated with *Hmax*); *BEL1* homologs have  
657 been implicated in regulation of the shoot apical meristem (Rutjens *et al.* 2009) and thus could  
658 be related to plant growth. An additional gene was identified with homology to the COBRA

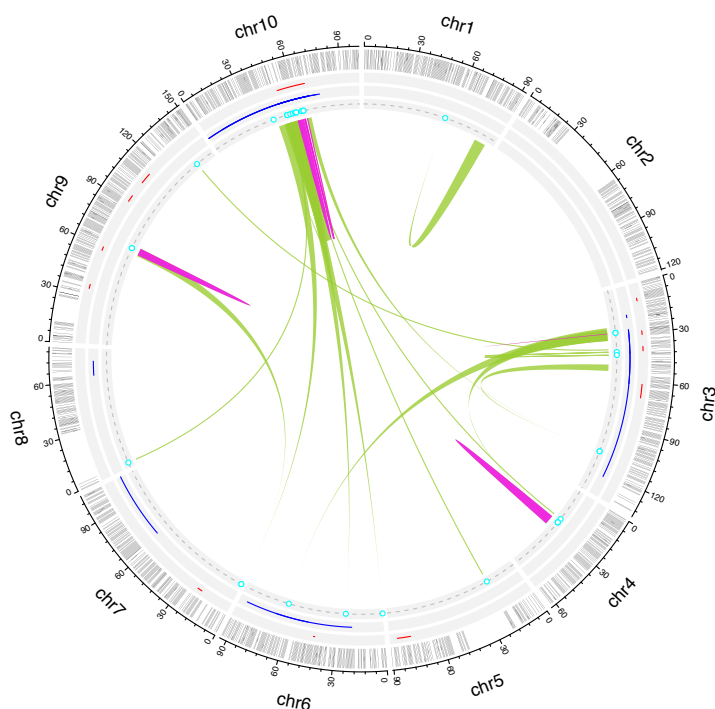
659 family gene *COBL4/IRX6* (negatively correlated with *iD*), involved in secondary cell wall  
660 biosynthesis. The MR30 network also contains a number of genes involved in metabolic  
661 homeostasis. Four of these genes are localized to the plastid and negatively correlated with *d*  
662 and *iD*, including three orthologs of the *plastidic lipid phosphate phosphatase epsilon 2* gene  
663 (*LPPε2*), which is potentially involved in synthesis of diacylglycerol, a precursor to essential  
664 photosynthetic membrane components (Nakamura *et al.* 2007). Another plastid-localized MR30  
665 network gene is *ENHANCER OF SOS3-1 (ENH1)*; *ENH1* functions to mitigate the effects of  
666 reactive oxygen species (Zhu *et al.* 2007). Thus, plants with longer growing periods appear to  
667 put less resources into photosynthesis. The MR30 network also includes a homolog of the *A.*  
668 *thaliana* *LATERAL ORGAN BOUNDARY DOMAIN37 (LBD37)* gene, an important regulator of  
669 nitrogen response in both *A. thaliana* and *Oryza sativa* (Rubin *et al.* 2009; Albinsky *et al.* 2010).  
670 *LDB37* is negatively correlated with *Hmax*. Two genes involved in amino acid synthesis or  
671 homeostasis are present in the MR30 network and show positive correlations with *d* and *iD*: a  
672 homolog of *ASPARTATE KINASE1 (AK1)*, required for regulation of aspartate, lysine, and  
673 methionine (Clark and Lu 2015), and *AROMATIC ALDEHYDE SYNTHASE (AAS)*, which converts  
674 phenylalanine into phenylacetaldehyde (Gutensohn *et al.* 2011). Overall the MR30 network  
675 results point to a close connection between metabolic regulation and growth.

676 Transcriptomic data allowed us to further explore the regulatory control of the FVT  
677 using eQTL mapping of WGCNA eigengenes and MR genes. eQTL mapping treats gene  
678 expression levels as quantitative traits. When combined with QTL studies of morphological  
679 phenotypes, the ultimate goal of eQTL mapping is to identify the molecular genetic changes in  
680 gene expression that lead to structural phenotypic variation, thus providing mechanistic  
681 explanations for the associations between genotype and phenotype (Schadt *et al.* 2008). In  
682 humans, such studies demonstrate that eQTL can be used in a cell-type specific fashion to  
683 annotate GWAS associations (Brown *et al.* 2013). In our study, 42 MR genes had eQTL that  
684 colocalized with FVT QTL and 6 of the 11 WGCNA eigengenes that correlated with FVT also had  
685 eQTL that colocalized with FVT QTL. These data demonstrate that the relationship between  
686 genomic loci (FVT QTL) and phenotypic variation in FVT traits is likely mediated by gene

687 expression, specifically the expression of the genes and eigengenes we identified via MR and  
688 WGCNA.

689 Our eQTL results qualitatively departed from common morphological trait QTL analyses  
690 in two ways. First, MR-identified gene expression traits mapped to all chromosomes except  
691 chromosome 2, but two locations had multiple eQTL with very high LOD scores (>75): the top of  
692 chromosome 3 and the middle of chromosome 10. Virtually all genes had eQTL that mapped to  
693 one of these two locations, a common result potentially indicating an eQTL ‘hotspot’. A  
694 previous study of the effects of soil phosphorous using the same *B. rapa* RILs also identified  
695 eQTL hotspots (Hammond *et al.* 2011), but on different chromosomes. The colocalization of  
696 eQTL hotspots and FVT QTL may indicate novel regions involved in pleiotropic co-regulation of  
697 several downstream genes in the regulatory network contributing to change in plant height  
698 (Gibson and Weir 2005).

699 Although the presence of eQTL hotspots indicates pleiotropic gene regulation, our eQTL  
700 analyses also qualitatively departed from the FVT QTL analysis in that most of the gene  
701 expression traits we mapped were not polygenic. Of the 42 MR gene expression traits mapped,  
702 only three had eQTL that colocalized with more than one FVT QTL. eQTL studies commonly find  
703 a relative paucity of polygenic regulation compared to structural QTL studies, and our results  
704 support the general consensus that expression traits and structural phenotypes have distinctly  
705 different genetic architectures (but see West *et al.* 2007 for a counter-example). However, most  
706 eQTL are of relatively large effect, meaning that many small effect eQTL could remain  
707 undetected and contribute to polygenic regulation of gene expression traits (Gibson and Weir  
708 2005), and these eQTL may or may not occur in regulatory hotspots.



709  
710 Figure 8. Function-Valued Trait QTL (2012 uncrowded data), Weighted Gene Co-expression Network Analysis  
711 (WGCNA) identified eigengene eQTL, and genes identified via Mutual Rank (MR) co-expression occur at  
712 regulatory hotspots on chromosomes 10 and 3, indicating that these MR genes are candidate master regulators that  
713 integrate information to generate developmental trait variation. MR gene *cis*-eQTL (pink links) on chr10 and 3 lend  
714 further credence to this relationship. MR genes with *trans*-eQTL (green links) that map to these hotspots are putative  
715 upstream genes feeding in to the FVT regulatory network. By integrating information from multiple analyses. From  
716 exterior to center: chromosomes in black, linkage map in gray, FVT QTL in red, eigengene eQTL in blue, MR genes  
717 in cyan, MR *trans*-eQTL in light green and MR *cis*-eQTL in pink.

718  
719 To further understand the regulation of expression traits and FVT QTL, we divided MR  
720 eQTL into two classes: putative *cis*- and *trans*-eQTL where *cis*-eQTL likely correspond to *cis*-  
721 regulatory elements influencing gene expression (Doss *et al.* 2005). In contrast, *trans*-eQTL do  
722 not contain the gene whose expression pattern is mapped and likely correspond to *trans*-acting  
723 factors such as transcription factors that influence the MR gene expression (Hansen *et al.*  
724 2008). In our study, of the 42 MR genes with eQTL that colocalized with FVT QTL, only five were  
725 in *cis* and the remaining 37 were in *trans*, which is only slightly higher than the proportion of  
726 *trans*-eQTL identified in an intraspecific maize cross (Swanson-Wagner *et al.* 2009). Because the  
727 *B. rapa* RILs are also generated from an intraspecific cross, our results are consistent with  
728 theoretical and experimental work suggesting that *trans* gene regulation should be more

729 prevalent than *cis* regulation at the intraspecific level (Wittkopp *et al.* 2008; Goncalves *et al.*  
730 2012, but see O'Quin *et al.* 2012 for an exception). Although unlikely given the genetic  
731 architecture of our eQTL, biases towards *trans* regulation may also stem from highly pleiotropic  
732 genes (reviewed in Signor and Nuzhdin 2018). Other authors have offered an alternative  
733 interpretation: in *A. thaliana* the proportion of *cis*- to *trans*-eQTL appears to scale with  
734 statistical power and the ability to detect small effect eQTL. *Trans*-eQTL are typically assumed  
735 to be of small effect and so increasing sample size, replicate number, or density of markers on  
736 the genetic map should in theory increase the proportion of *trans*-eQTL detected (Hansen *et al.*  
737 2008). The fact that we detected so many *trans*-eQTL may indicate that our study system has  
738 ample power to detect small effect *trans*-eQTL (our percent variance explained was 10%).  
739 Interestingly, a subset of the *trans*-eQTL we identified (located in eQTL hotspots) had  
740 exceptionally high LOD scores (75-100) that were twice as large as the largest *cis*-eQTL LOD  
741 score. Clearly, not all *trans*-eQTL have small effect sizes.

742 Our study demonstrates the importance of examining not just final plant height, but the  
743 developmental dynamics that contribute to height growth curves in agroecologically relevant  
744 field settings. We fit function-valued trait models to our data and, while statistically factoring  
745 out aspects of physiology such as carbon assimilation rates, demonstrate that parameters  
746 describing continuous developmental growth curves are correlated with plant fitness and yield.  
747 The shape of these growth curves (as described by  $r$ ,  $d$ , and  $iD$ ) is phenotypically plastic, while  
748 estimates of final height ( $H_{max}$ ) are relatively robust across environments. However, changes in  
749 the sign of bivariate correlations indicate a trade-off between yields at given final size vs. yields  
750 at early developmental times. We map FVT QTL to multiple chromosomes and utilize a guided  
751 eQTL mapping approach to investigate the regulatory mechanisms connecting genotype to FVT  
752 phenotype. Specifically, we use WGCNA to identify eigengenes for actin/cytoskeleton and cell  
753 division processes whose expression values that correlate with FVT traits. FVT trait seeded MR  
754 co-expression networks had an overall association with metabolic regulation and growth  
755 processes. We demonstrate that combining multiple approaches yields the best explanation of  
756 phenotypic variance. We identify more *trans*- than *cis*-eQTL and these *trans*-eQTL are highly  
757 colocalized at regulatory hotspots, likely including transcription factors that influence



758 downstream gene regulation. Because our *cis*- and trans-eQTL hotspots colocalize with FVT  
759 QTL, these expression traits are likely components of the molecular regulatory mechanisms  
760 mediating the generation of FVT phenotypic variation from genomic variation (Fig 8).

761

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768

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