Contents lists available at ScienceDirect



Journal of Trace Elements in Medicine and Biology

journal homepage: www.elsevier.com/locate/jtemb



Nutrition

Application of sodium selenate to cowpea (*Vigna unguiculata* L.) increases shoot and grain Se partitioning with strong genotypic interactions

Vinícius Martins Silva^a, Ana Júlia Nardeli^a, Nandhara Angelica Carvalho Mendes^b, Thomas D. Alcock^c, Maurisrael de Moura Rocha^d, Fernando Ferrari Putti^b, Lolita Wilson^c, Scott D. Young^c, Martin R. Broadley^c, Philip J. White^{e,f,g}, André Rodrigues dos Reis^{b,*}

^a São Paulo State University (UNESP), Department of Crop Production, FCAV, Postal CEP 14884-900, Jaboticabal, SP, Brazil

^b São Paulo State University (UNESP), Department of Biosystems Engineering, Rua Domingos da Costa Lopes 780, CEP17602-496, Tupã, SP, Brazil

^c School of Biosciences, University of Nottingham, Sutton Bonington, Leicestershire, LE12 5RD, UK

^d Embrapa Meio-Norte, CEP 64006-245, Teresina, PI, Brazil

e The James Hutton Institute, Invergowrie, Dundee, DD2 5DA, UK

^f National Key Laboratory of Crop Genetic Improvement, Huazhong Agricultural University, Wuhan, 430070, China

^g Distinguished Scientist Fellowship Program, King Saud University, Riyadh, 11451, Saudi Arabia

ARTICLE INFO

Keywords: Vigna unguiculata (L.) Walp Sodium selenite Selenium partitioning Grain quality Biofortification Pulses

ABSTRACT

Backgorund: Cowpea is a crop widely used in developing countries due its rusticity. Besides its rich genotypic variability, most breeding programs do not explore its potential to improve elements uptake. Selenium (Se) is a scarce element in most soils, resulting in its deficiency being common in human diets. This study aimed to evaluate the interaction between biofortification with Se and genotypic variation in cowpea, on the concentrations of Se in roots, leaves + stem and grains.

Methods: Twenty-nine cowpea genotypes were grown in a greenhouse in the absence (control) and presence of Se (12.5 μ g Se kg⁻¹ soil) as sodium selenate, in fully randomized scheme. The plants were cultivated until grains harvest. The following variables were determined: roots dry weight (g), leaves + stems dry weight (g), grains dry weight (g), Se concentration (mg kg⁻¹) in roots, leaves + stems and grains, and Se partitioning to shoots and grains.

Results: Selenium application increased the Se concentration in roots, leaves + stems and grains in all genotypes. At least twofold variation in grain Se concentration was observed among genotypes. Selenium application did not impair biomass accumulation, including grain dry weight. Genotype "BRS Guariba" had the largest Se concentration in grains and leaves + stems. Genotype MNC04-795 F-158 had the largest partitioning of Se to shoots and grain, due to elevated dry weights of leaves + stems and grain, and high Se concentrations in these tissues. *Conclusion:* This information might be valuable in future breeding programs to select for genotypes with better abilities to accumulate Se in grain to reduce widespread human Se undernutrition.

1. Introduction

Currently, about 820 million people worldwide are estimated to consume insufficient food to meet their dietary energy requirements [1]. Further, more than half of the world's population are likely to consume insufficient quantities of one or more micronutrients [2]. This is, in part, a consequence of plant breeding aimed at increasing crop yield, which can reduce tissue nutrient concentrations through growth dilution [3]. Crop-breeding programs need to expand their focus from yield alone, to

also increasing nutrient concentrations in edible plant tissue to combat human micronutrient malnutrition.

Selenium (Se) is an essential element for human and animal nutrition, serving in antioxidant processes, and contributing to proper immune system and thyroid functioning [4]. It is also considered a chemo-preventative agent, since appropriate Se nutrition is able to reduce the risk of cancer, and may delay or reduce the prevalence of its recurrence [5]. In plant nutrition, Se is considered a beneficial element, acting in the biotic and abiotic stress response as an antioxidant

* Corresponding author. *E-mail address:* andre.reis@unesp.br (A.R. Reis).

https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jtemb.2021.126781

Received 10 August 2020; Received in revised form 13 April 2021; Accepted 10 May 2021 Available online 13 May 2021 0946-672X/© 2021 Elsevier GmbH. All rights reserved.

Table 1

Identity and characteristics of cowpea genotypes used in this study based on grain color, plant architecture, maturation cycle and geographical recommendation in Brazil.

ID	Genotype	Plant	Grain	Maturation	Geographical
		architecture	color	Cycle*	recomendation
					**
1	BD 17	Prostrate	Brown	Farly	۸**
1	Gurguéia	riostiate	DIOWII	médium	л
2	BR 3-	Prostrate	White	Farly	"São Paulo"
-	Tracuateua	Tiostitic	White	Larry	State
3	BRS Aracê	Semi-	Green	Farly	B**
0	Dito filate	prostrate	Green	médium	2
4	BRS Cauamé	Semi-eret	White	Early	А
5	BRS Guariba	Semi-erect	White	Early	A
6	BRS Itaim	Erect	White	Early	В
7	BRS Juruá	Semi-	Green	Early	В
		prostrate		medium	
8	BRS Marataoã	Semi-	Brown	Early	А
		prostrate		medium	
9	BRS Milênio	Prostrate	White	Early	"Pará" State
				medium	
10	BRS Novaera	Semi-eret	White	Early	Α
11	BRS Pajeú	Semi-	Brown	Early	North and
		prostrate		Medium	Northeast
					regions
12	BRS Potengi	Semi-erect	White	Early	North and
					Northeast
					regions
13	BRS Rouxinol	Semi-	Brown	Early	"Bahia" State
		prostrate		Medium	
14	BRS	Semi-eretc	White	Early	Α
	Tumucumaque				
15	BRS	Semi-	White	Early	"Para" State
	Urubuquara	prostrate		Medium	
16	BRS	Semi-	White	Early	Α
	Xiquexique	prostrate		Medium	
17	California CB-	Erect	White	Early	California State
	5				
18	Inhuma	Semi-	Brown	Early	Α
		prostrate		Medium	
19	MNC01-631F-	Semi-	Brown	Early	North and
	20-5	prostrate		Medium	Northeast
					regions
20	MNC04-769F-	Semi-erect	Brown	Early	Α
	62				
21	MNC04-782F-	Semi-	Brown	Early	Α
	108	prostrate		Medium	
22	MNC04-792F-	Semi-erect	Brown	Early	A
	143			- 1	
23	MNC04-792F-	Semi-erect	Brown	Early	A
	146	o .			
24	MNC04-795F-	Semi-	Brown	Early	A
05	158	prostrate	D	Medium	"O(" O
25	Patativa	Prostrate	Brown	Early	Ceara State
04	Deviltation	0	D	Nedium	((D) (D)
26	Paulistinna	Semi-	Brown	Lariy	Flaul and
07	Diverse de Overs	prostrate	D	Nedium	Ceara states
2/	ringo de Ouro-	Sellii-	DIOMU	Modium	n
20	1-4 Dingo do Ouro	prostrate	Prover	Forly	Northoast
40	2 nigo de Ouro-	prostrate	DIOMI	Medium	Region
20	2 Dretinho	Semi-	Black	Medium	Δ
29	i icumo	prostrate	DIGCK	wictitulli	**

^{*} "Early" maturation cycle last for 60–65 days; "Early Medium" maturation cycle lasts for 70–75 days, and "Medium" maturation cycle lasts for 75–80 days. ^{**} "A" for genotypes recommended for North and Northeast regions, and "Mato Grosso" and "Mato Grosso do Sul" states; "B" For genotypes recommended for "Pará", "Roraima", "Mato Grosso", "Piauí", "Tocantins", "Maranhão", "Bahia" and Sergipe Statses.

promoter [6-10].

Despite its nutritional importance, Se is a trace-element, usually present in low concentrations in the soil [11] and in most foods. Plant-based diets often result in Se undernutrition in both humans and animals, leading to Se deficiency symptoms [12]. It is estimated that

more than 1 billion people suffer from Se deficiency [13]. Among human micronutrient deficiency risks, Se ranks as the third most prevalent, with particularly high deficiency risks in Africa [14].

Cowpea (*Vigna unguiculata* (L.) Walp.) is a legume (Fabaceae) believed to have originated in West Africa [15]. It is rich in protein [16] and well adapted to low fertility soils, high temperatures and drought conditions [17]. These traits make cowpea a good food source to complement other edible plants, and it is currently used to provide protein to diets in African, Asian and Latin American countries [16,18]. The use of improved cowpea genotypes with higher yields, might reduce poverty and lead to increase household income [19]. An additional benefit of cowpea in the human diet is the potential for its sprouts to help reduce colorectal-cancer [20].

Breeding programs for cowpea aim to develop improved lines with high grain yield potential, resistance to biotic stresses, tolerance to abiotic factors, adaptation to major production, and traits preferred by consumers and producers [21]. Recently, breeders have focused on cowpea genotypes with the potential to accumulate micronutrients in edible tissue, aiming to benefit human health by combating undernutrition [22].

There is considerable genotypic variation in seed Se concentration in many grain crops [16]. In rice, roots of cultivars that accumulate more Se appear to release more organic acids, which increases Se availability in rhizosphere [23]. However, some rice genotypes accumulate more Se in roots and leaves, with limited translocation of Se to grain [24], thus impacting on their effectiveness in improving human Se nutrition. These studies exemplify the importance of selecting genotypes that not only acquire Se effectively but also translocate Se to edible portions, which are independent processes. The effect of Se applications on seed Se concentration in crops is well-established [25]. For example, in rice, a Se application rate of 25 g ha⁻¹ increased grain Se concentration from 0.03 to 0.32 mg kg⁻¹ and also increased albumin and glutelin in seeds [8]. In wheat, Se application at a rate of 10 g ha⁻¹ resulted in substantial increases in the concentrations of Se and selenomethionine in both grain and bread [26] and Se application at a rate of 21 g ha⁻¹ increased both Se concentration in grain and grain yield [27]. In cowpea, a Se application rate of 10 g ha⁻¹ provided sufficient Se to increase daily human Se intake by up to 14 μ g d⁻¹, based on current dietary trends, without impairing cowpea yield and biomass [28].

Since little is known about genotypic variation in Se accumulation in cowpea, this study aimed to evaluate variation in the ability of 29 cowpea genotypes to accumulate Se in roots, shoots and grains, as well as the interactions between genotypic effects and Se application rates.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Experimental design

The experiment was conducted in a greenhouse at São Paulo State University (UNESP) in the municipality of Tupã, São Paulo State, Brazil. Twenty-nine cowpea genotypes (Table 1) were cultivated in the absence (control) and presence of additional Se (12.5 μ g Se kg⁻¹ soil). Cowpea genotypes were received from Brazilian Agricultural Research Corporation (EMBRAPA). The experiment had a completely randomized design, with three replicates per genotype per Se treatment, totaling 174 pots.

The soil was collected from the experimental farm at São Paulo State University and sieved to fill pots to the volume of 5 dm³ in November 2016. Soil chemical characteristics were as follows: pH (CaCl₂ 0.01 M) 4.6; phosphorus (resin), sulfur (calcium phosphate), boron (hot water), copper (DTPA), iron (DTPA), manganese (DTPA) and zinc (DTPA): 6, 3, 0.07, 0.5, 11, 12 and 0.2 mg dm⁻³ respectively; potassium (resin), calcium (resin), magnesium (resin), H + Al (SMP buffer) and cation exchange capacity: 0.9, 5, 3, 16 and 24.9 mmolc dm⁻³ respectively; base saturation: 36 %. These chemical characteristics were determined as described by Raij et al. [29]. Total and exchangeable Se concentration in



Genotypes

Fig. 1. Root (a), leaves + stems (b) and grain (c) dry weight of cowpea genotypes with and without application of Se. Error bars indicates the standard error of mean (n = 3). CV (%) = 55.28 (a), 21.20 (b) and 44.00 (c). '*' Below numbers indicates difference between means of the same genotype under absence or presence of Se application according to the Scott-Knott test ($p \le 0.05$).



Fig. 2. Grain Se concentration in cowpea genotypes with and without application of Se. Error bars indicates the standard error of mean (n = 3). CV (%) = 53.93. '*' Below numbers indicates difference between means of the same genotype under absence or presence of Se application according to the Scott-Knott test, different letter groups indicate difference among means of distinct genotypes under Se application ($p \le 0.05$).

unamended soil were 45 μ g kg⁻¹ and 3.2 μ g kg⁻¹, respectively. To determine soil Se concentrations, 4 g of air-dried soil was weighted and added into a 50 mL centrifuge tube, in which was added 20 mL of 0.01 M KNO₃. A rotary shaker was used to homogenize the solution for 2 h, then a centrifugation was performed for 30 min at 1650xg. After centrifugation, into a < 0.22 μ m syringe filter 9 mL of the supernatant was pipetted. The supernatant was filtered into a tube containing 0.1 M KH₂PO₄ and 10 % tetramethylammonium hydroxide (TMAH) for determination of total and exchangeable Se, respectively. The determination was carried out using an inductively coupled plasma-mass spectrometry (ICP-MS; Thermo Fisher Scientific iCAPQ, Thermo Fisher Scientific, Bremen, Germany), as described by Silva et al. [28].

Prior to sowing cowpea seeds, each pot received 1.25 g of lime, 0.17 g KCl, and 0.46 g single superphosphate. The soil was incubated 30 days prior sowing the seeds. For inoculation, a peat inoculum specific for cowpea was used $(2.0 \times 10^9$ colony forming units g⁻¹, strain SEMIA 6462, BIOMAX, São Joaquim da Barra city, Brazil), at 8 g kg⁻¹ of seed. The inoculum was dissolved in a sugar solution (1 mL of water per gram of inoculant, 10 % sugar) and then added and mixed with the seeds. Sowing was performed on December 29 2016. Emergence began on January 5 2017, 7 days after sowing (DAS). An application of urea (0.10 g pot⁻¹), was made 27 DAS. The pots were irrigated by a custom computerized irrigation system. Each pot was irrigated five times daily for one minute each time, at a flow rate of 100 mL min⁻¹ via a low-density polyethylene (LDPE) pipes. Data regarding temperature and potential evapotranspiration were presented in Fig. A1.

2.2. Procedure and sampling

According to general recommendations for cowpea cultivation, 29 days after emergence (DAE), each pot received 20 mL of a solution containing urea (0.22 g pot^{-1}), KCl (0.17 g pot^{-1}), and single superphosphate (0.45 g pot^{-1}). The same fertiliser applications were made 36 DAE and 61 DAE. Selenium treatments were applied to the relevant pots

44 DAE at a rate of $12.5 \,\mu g \, kg^{-1}$ soil per pot, using sodium selenate. The application rate and salt were selected according to previous studies of the group regarding Se application rates and sources in cowpea [28].

Harvest was performed across a series of days for each genotype according to the pod's maturity. The material was separated into grains, leaves + stems and roots. Root material was washed with deionized water. Root, leaves + stems, and seeds of cowpea plants were dried in an oven at 40 °C for 72 h to a constant mass to measure the dry weight (DW) of grains, leaves + stems and roots. After determining its dry weight, sample material was ground and homogenised in a Wiley mill for chemical analysis.

2.3. Digestion and nutritional analysis of roots, leaves + stems and grains

Subsamples (~0.20 g) of dried, milled root, leaves + stems and grain materials were weighed (exact weights recorded) and digested in digestion tubes of a perfluoroalkoxy (PFA) liner material containing 2 mL 70 % Trace Analysis Grade HNO3, 1 mL Milli-Q water, and 1 mL H2O2. Prior to elemental analysis, the digestates were diluted 1-in-10 using milli-Q water. The digestion of plant material and analysis by ICP-MS were performed according to the methods of Thomas et al. [30]. Data processing was undertaken using QtegraTM software (Thermo Fisher Scientific).

2.4. Selenium translocation estimative

Selenium partitioning was calculated for each genotype following Abichequer & Bohnen [31] using the following equations:

Se partitioning to shoot
$$(\%) = \frac{(B \times E) + (C \times F)}{(A \times D) + (B \times E) + (C \times F)}$$
 (1)

Se partitioning to grains (%) =
$$\frac{(C \times F)}{(A \times D) + (B \times E) + (C \times F)}$$
 (2)



Fig. 3. Leaves + stems Se concentration in cowpea genotypes with and without application of Se. Error bars indicates the standard error of mean (n = 3). CV (%) = 60.84. ^(*) Below numbers indicates difference between means of the same genotype under absence or presence of Se application according to Scott-Knott test, different groups indicate difference among means of distinct genotypes under Se application ($p \le 0.05$).



Fig. 4. Root Se concentration in cowpea genotypes with and without application of Se. Error bars indicates the standard error of mean (n = 3). CV (%) = 32.37. ^(*) Below numbers indicates difference between means of the same genotype under absence or presence of Se application according to the Scott-Knott test, different groups indicate difference among means of distinct genotypes under Se application ($p \le 0.05$).



Fig. 5. Selenium partitioning to shoot in cowpea genotypes with and without application of Se. Error bars indicates the standard error of mean (n = 3). CV (%) = 30.06. (**) Below numbers indicates difference between means of the same genotype under absence or presence of Se application according to the Scott-Knott test, different groups indicate difference among means of distinct genotypes under Se application ($p \le 0.05$).

where:

- A Root dry weight (kg)
- B Leaves + stems dry weight (kg)
- C Grains dry weight (kg)
- D Root Se concentration ($\mu g k g^{-1}$)
- $E Leaves + stems Se concentration (\mu g kg^{-1})$
- F Grains Se concentration ($\mu g k g^{-1}$)

2.5. Statistical analysis

The normality of the data was determined using the Anderson-Darling normality tests; Leven's test was used to determine homogeneity, then a variance analysis (F test) was performed. Mean differences between treatments were compared using a Scott-Knott test at 5% probability. Analyses were performed using R (version 3.5.1; source: https://cran.r-project.org/bin/windows/base/old/). A decision matrix was performed for variables that presented interaction between Se application and genotypes, to helps do pinpoint which is the best genotype for each characteristic.

3. Results

The effect of Se on the dry weights of roots, leaves + stems and grain of the 29 cowpea genotypes is reported in Fig. 1. Regardless of the Se application, genotypes 1, 2, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 13, 20, 21 and 29 had larger root dry weight than the other genotypes (Fig. 1a, Table A2; $p \le 0.05$). The leaf + stem dry weights and grain dry weights were not affected by Se application (Fig. 1b–c; Table A1). However, regardless of Se

application, genotypes 4, 6, 8, 12, 17, 19, 21, 23, 24, 25 and 26 had larger leaf + stem dry weights than other genotypes, and genotypes 4, 6, 10, 12, 15, 17, 19, 23, 24, 25, and 26 had larger grain dry weights than other genotypes (Fig. 1c; Table A2).

An interaction was observed between Se application and genotype in root dry weight (P < 0.05; Table A1). Selenium application resulted in an increase in root dry weight in genotypes 8 and 19, and a decrease in root dry weight in genotype 4; root dry weight was not affected by Se application in the other genotypes (Fig. 1a, Table A2).

The application of Se increased Se concentration in grain, leaves + stems and roots of most genotypes (Figs. 2–4, respectively). However, an interaction between Se application and cowpea genotypes was observed for Se concentrations in grain, leaves + stems and roots (P < 0.0001; Table A1). There was no difference in Se concentration in any tissue among genotypes grown without Se application. However, wide genotypic variation was observed in Se concentrations of grain, leaves + stems and roots when Se was applied (Figs. 2–4, respectively).

Selenium application increased grain Se concentration in all 29 genotypes (Fig. 2). The increase in grain Se concentration when Se was applied ranged from 549 μ g Se kg⁻¹ dry weight in genotype 16–2462 μ g Se kg⁻¹ dry weight in genotype 5 (Fig. 2; Table A3). A significant interaction was observed between Se application and genotype on Se concentration in grain (P < 0.0001; Table A1).

An increase in Se concentration in leaves + stems in response to Se application was observed in most genotypes, except genotypes 8, 9, 21, 22 and 27 (Fig. 3). Genotype 19 showed the smallest increase in the Se concentration of leaves + stems (313 μ g kg⁻¹) and genotype 5 the largest increase in the Se concentration of leaves + stems (1218 μ g kg⁻¹)



Fig. 6. Selenium partitioning to grains in cowpea genotypes with and without application of Se. Error bars indicates the standard error of mean (n = 3). CV (%) = 72.10.

following Se application (Fig. 3; Table A3). There was a significant interaction between Se application and genotype on the Se concentration in leaves + stems (P < 0.01; Table A1).

Selenium application did not affect root Se concentration in genotypes 1, 18, 21, 22 and 29, but increased the root Se concentration of the other 25 genotypes (Fig. 4; $p \leq 0.05$). The largest root Se concentration after Se application was 1755 $\mu g \ kg^{-1}$ dry weight in genotype 28 (Fig. 4; Table A3).

Regarding Se concentrations in grains, leaves + stems and roots from Se-biofortified genotypes, five, four and three distinct groups were observed according to Scott-Knott test, respectively (Figs. 2–4, respectively, Table A3). For grain Se concentration, genotype 5 had the largest mean Se concentration of 2462 μ g kg⁻¹ dry weight when Se was applied (Fig. 2; Table A3). For leaves + stems, two genotypes, 5 and 12, had the largest mean Se concentrations, which were equal to or greater than 1183 μ g kg⁻¹ dry weight when Se was applied (Fig. 3; Table A3). For roots, genotypes 13, 24 and 28, had the largest mean Se concentrations, which were equal or greater than 1444 μ g kg⁻¹ when Se was applied (Fig. 4; Tables A3).

Selenium partitioning to the shoot was evaluated by comparing Se accumulation in leaves + stems (shoot) plus grains with Se accumulation in the whole plant. The partitioning of Se to the shoot was affected by genotype and by Se application (P < 0.0001; Table A1). There was also an interaction between Se application and genotype on the partitioning of Se to the shoot (P < 0.0001; Table A1). The application of Se influenced Se partitioning to the shoot in all genotypes except genotypes 9 and 22, according to the Scott-Knott test (Table A4; $p \le 0.05$). Genotypes were divided into three groups according to the Scott-Knott test, for their partitioning of Se to the shoot (Fig. 5). For group a, Se partitioning to the shoot was between 64 % (genotype 15) and 91 %

(genotype 5) following Se application; for group b, Se partitioning to the shoot was between 47 % (genotype 20) and 61 % (genotype 18) following Se application; and for group 3, Se partitioning to the shoot ranged from 28 % (genotype 9) to 37 % (genotype 19) following Se application (Fig. 5, Table A4). Considering all genotypes, the mean Se partitioning to shoot was 61.5 % following Se application, but only 14.2 % in the absence of Se application (Fig. 5, Table A4).

Selenium partitioning to grains was also evaluated. The mean Se partitioning to grains was 20.0 % when Se was applied to plants, but only 2.3 % when no Se was applied (Table A5). Genotypes were divided into two groups for their partitioning of Se to grain, regardless of whether Se was applied or not, according to the Scott-Knott test (Fig. 6, Table A3). Group a was represented by genotypes in which Se partitioning was between 11.8 %, (genotype 15) and 17.8 % (genotype 26), and group b was represented by genotypes in which Se partitioning was between 5.3 % (genotype 27) and 11.5 % (genotype 3; Fig. 6, Table A5). Although effects of Se application and genotype were observed for Se partitioning to grains, there was no interaction between these factors (Tables A1 and A5).

4. Discussion

Selenium application had little effect on plant growth in this study. Selenium application had no effect on leaf + stem and grain dry weights in any of the genotypes studied (Fig. 1b–c). However, the root dry weight of genotype 4 (BRS Cauamé) was reduced by Se application (Fig. 1a), suggesting a potential impairment in root development following Se application in some genetic backgrounds. Genotypes 8 (BRS Marataoa) and 19 (MNC01-631F-20-5) exhibited larger root dry weights following Se application (Fig. 1a).



Fig. A1. Maximum, mean and minimum temperature, and potential evapotranspiration during cowpea greenhouse experiment.

The range of tissue Se concentrations is relatively narrow between those causing beneficial and toxic effects in plants, varying from 100 μ g kg⁻¹ for beneficial effects, to 1500 μ g kg⁻¹ to cause toxic effects [6,9, 10]. Increased growth or yield of plants following Se application is occasionally observed [6,10] and, for example, the seedling biomass of nine out of 26 genotypes of lentil [32] and the yield of wheat [27] have been increased by the application of Se. By contrast, application of excess Se impairs plant growth under field, glasshouse and laboratory conditions [9,10,33]. Thus, the observation that a substantial increase in Se concentrations in cowpea tissues can be achieved without a reduction in cowpea yield at the Se application rates used in this study is valuable agronomic information.

The Se concentrations in control plants was considered the typical Se concentration range for the cowpea genotypes used in this study. In grain from control plants, the typical Se concentration varied from 4.31 μ g kg⁻¹ in genotype 25 (Patativa) to 159.91 μ g kg⁻¹ in genotype 28 (Pingo de Ouro 2; Fig. 2). The reported Se concentrations in seeds and grain of crops grown without Se fertiliser applications varies widely [10]. For example, Thavarajah et al. [32], studying Se concentration in grains of 191 lentil accessions grown without the application of Se fertiliser, observed that grain Se concentrations of most of the accessions was within the range of 250 μ g kg⁻¹ to 750 μ g kg⁻¹ of Se, although some accessions reached concentrations of more than 2000 $\mu g \ kg^{-1}.$ However, no Se was detected in mature seeds of common bean genotypes when no Se fertiliser was applied [34]. The relatively low Se concentrations observed here in grain of cowpea observed in the present study (Fig. 4) might be due to the small amounts of Se acquired and the small percentage of the Se acquired being partitioned to grain (Fig. 6). In the control plants, Se partitioning to grain was only about 2% (Fig. 6, Table A5) and most of the Se in plants grown without Se fertiliser application tended to be accumulated in shoots (leaves + steam) (Fig. 5,

Table A4). The typical Se concentration in leaves + stems varied from 8.42 μ g kg⁻¹ in genotype 23 (MNC04-792 F-146) to 78.16 μ g kg⁻¹ in genotype 22 (MNC04-792 F-143; Fig. 3). The typical Se concentration in roots varied from 230 μ g kg⁻¹ in genotype 4 (Cauamé) to 430 μ g kg⁻¹ in genotype 24 (MNC04-795 F-158; Fig. 4). Similar results, indicating higher Se concentrations in roots than in above ground tissues in plants that did not receive Se fertiliser were observed in a study comparing two genotypes of *Prunus* rootstock, in which Se concentrations in roots varied from 260 μ g kg⁻¹ to 330 μ g kg⁻¹ dry weight, whilst in twigs and leaves, Se concentration varied from 10 μ g kg⁻¹ to 130 μ g kg⁻¹ dry weight, respectively [33].

The Se concentrations in tissues of cowpea plants after the application of Se fertiliser varied widely between genotypes (Figs. 2-4). The application of Se fertiliser increased Se concentration in grains, leaves + stems and roots of all the genotypes evaluated (Figs. 2-4). Grain Se concentration in plants treated with Se ranged from 549 μ g kg⁻¹ dry weight (genotype 16; BRS Xique-Xique) to 2462 μ g kg⁻¹ dry weight (genotype 5; BRS Guariba). In all the genotypes evaluated, control plants had larger Se concentrations in roots than in grains, whereas, when Se fertiliser was applied, genotypes in groups a, b and c had larger Se concentrations in grain (Fig. 4) than in roots (Fig. 2), the only exception being genotype 28 (Pingo de ouro 2), which had the largest Se concentration in roots (Fig. 4). Selenium partitioning to grains also increased substantially, from 2.3 % in control plants to 20 % in plants receiving Se fertiliser, on average (Table A5). This is indicative of a high Se translocation efficiency from roots to grains when Se availability is high, particularly in the genotypes from groups a, b and c for grain Se concentration (Fig. 2). Root Se concentrations in plants receiving Se fertiliser ranged from 550 μ g kg⁻¹ dry weight (genotype 21; MNC04-782 F-108) to 1755 μ g kg⁻¹ dry weight (genotype 28; Ping de ouro 2).

Table A1

F ratio and P value of analysis of covariance (ANCOVA). Sources of variation: Genotypes, Se application and the variation between the factors.

Root dry weight		
Source	F ratio	Pr (<f)< td=""></f)<>
Genotypes (A)	4.01	0.0001**
Se application (B)	0.53	0.47 ^{NS}
AXB	1.82	0.01*
Leaves + stem dry weight		
Source	F ratio	Pr (<f)< td=""></f)<>
Genotypes (A)	2.98	0.0001**
Se application (B)	1.01	0.30 ^{NS}
A X B	0.79	0.76 ^{NS}
Grains		
Source	F ratio	Pr (<f)< td=""></f)<>
Genotypes (A)	2.06	0.004**
Se application (B)	0.00	0.95 ^{NS}
A X B	1.21	0.33 ^{NS}
Root Se concentration		
Source	F ratio	Pr (<f)< td=""></f)<>
Genotypes (A)	3.72	0.0001**
Se application (B)	379.90	0.0001**
A X B	3.13	0.0001**
Stem + Leaves Se concentration		
Source	F ratio	Pr (<f)< td=""></f)<>
Genotypes (A)	3.01	0.0001**
Se application (B)	411.52	0.0001**
A X B	3.03	0.0001**
Grains Se concentration		
Source	F ratio	Pr (<f)< td=""></f)<>
Genotypes (A)	3.23	0.0001**
Se application (B)	544.69	0.0001**
A X B	3.22	0.0001**
Se partitioning to Shoot		
Source	F ratio	Pr (<f)< td=""></f)<>
Genotypes (A)	3.43	0.0001**
Se application (B)	785.63	0.0001**
A X B	4.2	0.0001**
Se partitioning to Grains		
Source	F ratio	Pr (<f)< td=""></f)<>
Genotypes (A)	1.47	0.08^{NS}
Se application (B)	209.96	0.0001**
A X B	1.23	0.21 ^{NS}

The greater increase of Se concentration in grain than in roots of cowpea genotypes when Se fertiliser is applied might be related to factors that facilitate sodium selenate translocation from roots to grains. Sodium selenate is a readily available source of Se for plants because it does not form insoluble salts in the soil solution and is converted to organic Se compounds slowly [35]. Selenate is transferred from root to shoot tissue via the xylem and then to reproductive organs via the phloem [10,36,37]. It has been observed, in tomato, that selenate concentrations in the xylem are 7–13 times larger than in external media, indicating the ability of plants to transport selenate readily across roots to the xylem [38].

In the present study, the total Se in the natural soil (45 μ g kg⁻¹) was larger than the Se fertiliser added as a treatment (12.5 μ g kg⁻¹), although it is still a very small soil Se concentration, since soils with less than 1000 μ g kg⁻¹ are considered Se deficient [39]. Indeed, in soil with Se concentration of 183 μ g kg⁻¹ the application of Se increased the availability of the element to maize plants [40]. Tissue Se concentrations in control plants were relatively small and the application of Se as so-dium selenate caused a substantial increase in Se concentration in cowpea tissues (Figs. 2–4). This suggests that much of the Se in the natural soil was unlikely to be available to plants, while the applied Se was likely to be highly available for uptake and subsequent translocation to grains. The applied selenate is more available to plants, less adsorbed

in the soil, and has been shown to influence Se accumulation in cowpea more readily than selenite, another Se source [28].

The concentration of Se in leaves + stems of cowpea when Se fertiliser was applied varied from 195 μ g kg⁻¹ dry weight in genotype 27 (Pingo de Ouro 1–2) to 1242 μ g kg⁻¹ dry weight in genotype 5 (BRS Guariba). When Se fertiliser was applied, the concentration of Se in grain was greater than in leaves + stems in all genotypes. Larger concentrations of Se in grains than in vegetative tissues was previously observed in cowpea by Silva et al. [28]. By contrast, it was observed that Se concentrations in wheat tended to be larger in flag leaves than in grains [41, 42] and shoot Se concentrations were also larger than grain Se concentration in rice [23].

Total grain Se concentration has also been reported to be larger in dicots than in monocots [36]. In the present study, Se concentrations in grain of cowpea genotypes ranged from 549 μ g kg⁻¹ to 2462 μ g kg⁻¹ dry weight when Se fertiliser was applied at 12.5 μ g kg⁻¹ soil (Fig. 4). In three common bean genotypes grain Se concentration varied from 2000 μ g kg⁻¹ to 4000 μ g kg⁻¹ when 5 μ M Se was applied in 10 L pots in nutrient solution [34], while in two rice cultivars, grain Se concentration was less than 1 mg kg⁻¹ when 500 μ g kg⁻¹ soil was applied [23] and in a study comparing 20 wheat lines, Se concentration in grains was less than 500 μ g kg⁻¹ when 10 mM Se was applied in 10 L pots nutrient solution [42].

Data for the partitioning of Se to shoots and grains provide valuable information on the ability of genotypes to accumulate Se in edible tissues. As observed in the decision matrix (Table A5), genotype 5 (BRS Guariba) had the largest Se concentration in leaves + stems (Fig. 3) and grain (Fig. 4), and the highest partitioning to shoots (Fig. 5). The high partitioning of Se to shoots (Fig. 5), and the small Se concentration in roots (Fig. 2), of BRS Guariba indicate that this genotype has a high capacity to translocate Se from roots to leaves + stems and to grains, leading to a higher Se biofortification efficiency than other genotypes. Nevertheless, other genotypes had greater Se partitioning to grain than BRS Guariba (Fig. 6). For instance, genotype 24 (MNC04 795 F 158), which had a larger Se partitioning to grain than BRS Guariba, had slightly smaller shoot and grain Se concentrations than BRS Guariba but a larger grain dry weight (Fig. 1c). Genotype 24 (MNC04 795 F 158) had one of the largest concentrations of Se in roots among the genotypes studied (Fig. 2) and also a large Se concentration in leaves + stems and grain (Figs. 3 and 4). Genotypes such as 9 (BRS Milênio), 16 (BRS Xique xique), 21 (MNCO4 782F 108), 22 (MNCO4 792F 143) and 27 (Pingo de ouro 1 2) had among the smallest Se concentrations in roots, leaves +stems and grains under Se application (Figs. 2-4), which indicates that the acquisition of Se by roots is relatively inefficient compared to other genotypes, although Se transport to shoots and grain is not necessarily the smallest in these genotypes (Figs. 5 and 6).

5. Conclusion

The screening of cowpea genotypes is important for selecting and breeding genotypes with a high potential for Se biofortification of grain, either though agronomic or genetic approaches. Comparative studies of Se acquisition, partitioning and accumulation in edible portions among cowpea genotypes, or even genotypes of pulses in general, are scarce. This study provides information about how each of the 29 genotypes selected accumulate Se in its grains, as well as how of the Se partitioning occurs in the whole plant. The information obtained is an important resource for selecting better genotypes for breeding programs aiming to increase the concentrations of Se in human and animal diets.

Table A2

Mean comparison of roots dry weight of cowpea genotypes with and without application of Se, and leaves + stems (L + S) and grains dry weight of cowpea genotypes. Different letters indicate difference between means according to Scott Knott test ($p \le 0.05$). Uppercase letters correspond to absence or presence of Se application, lowercase letters correspond to genotypes.

Treatment	eatment Root DW (g)		L + S DW (g)	Grain DW (g)
	Control	Se		
Genotype 1	13.52 a	6.72 c	12.09 b	2.3 b
Genotype 2	14.3 a	9.2 c	17.79 b	2.88 b
Genotype 3	10.23 b	11.2 c	13.69 b	3.14 b
Genotype 4	17.17 aA	7.83 cB	24.15 a	4.95 a
Genotype 5	12.97 a	4.6 c	15.89 b	3.17 b
Genotype 6	15.63 a	14.02 c	20.46 a	4.02 a
Genotype 7	17.63 a	9.73 c	15.12 b	2.84 b
Genotype 8	16 aB	31.22 aA	21.04 a	3.28 b
Genotype 9	7.17 b	15.94 b	14.83 b	2.27 b
Genotype 10	9.33 b	8.42 c	16 b	4.66 a
Genotype 11	6.17 b	7.13 с	16.54 b	2.69 b
Genotype 12	6.1 b	5.13 c	18.39 a	4.38 a
Genotype 13	11.58 a	4.71 c	17.88 b	2.94 b
Genotype 14	6.08 b	3.57 c	16.22 b	3.11 b
Genotype 15	10 b	12.53 c	16.92 b	3.82 a
Genotype 16	8.55 b	4.16 c	15.45 b	2.89 b
Genotype 17	6.14 b	6.33 c	18.86 a	4.67 a
Genotype 18	10.41 b	11.07 c	16.09 b	2.9 b
Genotype 19	7.7 bB	23.65 bA	19.63 a	4.81 a
Genotype 20	13.17 a	14.62 c	15.84 b	2.37 b
Genotype 21	15.43 a	21.32 b	19.3 a	3.42 b
Genotype 22	6.83 b	6.54 c	15.7 b	3.36 b
Genotype 23	4.57 b	8.2 c	20.66 a	5.49 a
Genotype 24	7.83 b	3.33 c	20.46 a	4.32 a
Genotype 25	6.13 b	4.4 c	21.08 a	5.2 a
Genotype 26	6.07 b	3.57 c	18.4 a	4.43 a
Genotype 27	10.59 b	8.01 c	15.15 b	3.28 b
Genotype 28	6.52 b	3.53 c	17.41 b	3 b
Genotype 29	15.88 a	11.32 c	16.44 b	2.98 b

Table A3

Mean comparison of Se concentration in cowpea genotypes roots, leaves + stems (L + S) and grains with and without application of Se. Different letters indicate difference between means according to Scott-Knott test (p \leq 0.05). Uppercase letters correspond to absence or presence of Se application, and lowercase letters correspond to genotypes.

Treatment	Roots (µg kg ⁻¹)		L + S (µg kg ⁻¹)	$L + S (\mu \overline{g \ kg^{-1}})$		Grains (µg kg ⁻¹)	
	Control	Se	Control	Se	Control	Se	
Genotype 1	390.86 c	722.02 c	16.02 aB	790.95 bA	18.99 aB	1494.33 cA	
Genotype 2	411.56 bB	910.9 cA	18.45 aB	568.23 cA	18.03 aB	1293.1 cA	
Genotype 3	325.22 dB	736.16 cA	29.93 aB	833.53 bA	28.35 aB	1430.99 cA	
Genotype 4	230.02 eB	896.14 cA	15.67 aB	870.17 bA	4.31 aB	1160.43 dA	
Genotype 5	406.36 bB	934.99 cA	27.95 aB	1242.98 aA	47.71 aB	2462.09 aA	
Genotype 6	297.29 eB	1066.91 bA	10.33 aB	379.01 dA	19.21 aB	1058.9 dA	
Genotype 7	247.54 eB	726.64 cA	17.53 aB	514.03 cA	47.29 aB	820.09 eA	
Genotype 8	256.84 eB	624.59 cA	12.83 a	313.47 d	38.24 aB	949.81 dA	
Genotype 9	413.82 bB	874.64 cA	17.16 a	273.55 d	17.98 aB	573.68 eA	
Genotype 10	272.11 eB	731.33 cA	13.69 aB	465 cA	22.97 aB	781.73 eA	
Genotype 11	394.88 cB	1190.31 bA	13.94 aB	636.5 cA	21.88 aB	1844.02 bA	
Genotype 12	298.7 dB	1285.98 bA	11.68 aB	1183.51 aA	13.88 aB	1881.77 bA	
Genotype 13	347.07 dB	1444.42 aA	9 aB	677.63 bA	13.36 aB	1103.5 dA	
Genotype 14	299.05 dB	1193.79 bA	14.69 aB	885.14 bA	8.59 aB	1699.38 cA	
Genotype 15	295.53 eB	1059.64 bA	16.17 aB	628.18 cA	20.96 aB	1371.28 cA	
Genotype 16	256.64 eB	756.63 cA	8.66 aB	363.63 dA	10.49 aB	549.72 eA	
Genotype 17	246.89 eB	1327.85 bA	38.8 aB	733.42 bA	55.73 aB	1037.78 dA	
Genotype 18	372.21 c	674.02 c	25.41 aB	618.55 cA	19.13 aB	1073.24 dA	
Genotype 19	338.04 dB	774.97 cA	13.85 aB	326.4 dA	22.12 aB	818.5 eA	
Genotype 20	256.62 eB	668.38 cA	22.84 aB	392.57 dA	69.46 aB	652.16 eA	
Genotype 21	322.23 d	550.08 c	14.24 a	243.91 d	8.6 aB	582.12 eA	
Genotype 22	377.46 c	633.92 c	78.16 a	297.08 d	19.03 aB	597.59 eA	
Genotype 23	301.91 dB	951.69 cA	8.42 aB	633.18 cA	6.15 aB	1613.25 cA	
Genotype 24	430.65 aB	1582.07 aA	18.67 aB	857.11 bA	10.43 aB	1924.42 bA	
Genotype 25	378.34 cB	1096.58 bA	13.4 aB	518.77 cA	3.59 aB	1448.57 cA	
Genotype 26	355.62 cB	913.32 cA	11.8 aB	555.07 cA	15.03 aB	1371.66 cA	
Genotype 27	387.07 cB	757.42 cA	11.24 a	195.29 d	8.85 aB	598.96 eA	
Genotype 28	405.32 cB	1755.7 aA	20.03 aB	837.32 bA	159.91 aB	1368.87 cA	
Genotype 29	378.91 c	630.35 c	45.85 aB	504.77 cA	62.92 aB	1157.27 dA	

Table A4

Mean comparison of Se partitioning to shoot of cowpea genotypes with and without application of Se. Different letters indicate difference between means according to Scott Knott test (p \leq 0.05). Uppercase letters correspond to absence or presence of Se application, lowercase letters correspond to genotypes.

Treatment	Se partitioning to shoot (%)		
	Control	Se	
Genotype 1	05.99 bB	70.28 aA	
Genotype 2	07.09 bB	60.52 bA	
Genotype 3	14.91 bB	64.75 aA	
Genotype 4	09.54 bB	80.31 aA	
Genotype 5	09.12 bB	90.92 aA	
Genotype 6	08.37 bB	58.22 bA	
Genotype 7	11.25 bB	53.66 bA	
Genotype 8	07.86 bB	34.91 cA	
Genotype 9	32.33 a	28.46 c	
Genotype 10	12.85 bB	57.77 bA	
Genotype 11	19.07 bB	66.69 aA	
Genotype 12	14.02 bB	81.93 aA	
Genotype 13	04.54 bB	68.27 aA	
Genotype 14	16.32 bB	80.90 aA	
Genotype 15	11.59bB	64.27 aA	
Genotype 16	07.48 aB	72.50 aA	
Genotype 17	37.29 bB	77.10 aA	
Genotype 18	12.51 bB	61.00 bA	
Genotype 19	13.65 bB	36.54 cA	
Genotype 20	12.72 bB	47.07 bA	
Genotype 21	05.54 bB	50.16 bA	
Genotype 22	52.43 b	52.09 b	
Genotype 23	14.39 bB	75.28 aA	
Genotype 24	20.20 bB	80.23 aA	
Genotype 25	11.90 bB	79.80 aA	
Genotype 26	12.73 bB	83.04 aA	
Genotype 27	05.62 bB	52.36 bA	
Genotype 28	15.05 bB	81.00 aA	
Genotype 29	10.46 bB	60.84 bA	
Treatment	Se translocation to grains (%)		
Se Application		64.51 A	
Control		14.22 B	

Authors statement

Vinicius Martins Silva: Conceptualization, Investigation, Methodology, Validation, Writing – original draft. Ana Julia Nardeli: Investigation, Methodology, Validation. Nandhara Angelica Carvalho Mendes: Investigation, Methodology, Validation. Thomas D. Alcock: Investigation, Methodology, Validation. Maurisrael de Moura Rocha: Investigation, Methodology, Validation. Fernando Ferrari Putti: Investigation, Methodology, Validation. Fernando Ferrari Putti: Investigation, Methodology, Data analysis. Lolita Wilson: Investigation, Methodology, Validation. Scott D. Young: Investigation, Methodology, Validation. Martin R. Broadley: Writing – review & editing. Philip J. White: Writing – review & editing. André Rodrigues dos Reis: Conceptualization, Validation, Supervision, Writing – review & editing.

Declaration of Competing Interest

This manuscript has not been published and is not under consideration for publication elsewhere. We have no conflicts of interest to disclose.

Table A5

Mean comparison of Se partitioning to grains of cowpea genotypes. Different letters indicate difference between means according to Scott Knott test (p \leq 0.05). Uppercase letters correspond to absence or presence of Se application, lowercase letters correspond to genotypes.

Treatment	Se partitioning to grains (%)	
Genotype 1	13.80 a	
Genotype 2	06.64 b	
Genotype 3	11.49 a	
Genotype 4	09.50 b	
Genotype 5	13.97 a	
Genotype 6	07.25 b	
Genotype 7	07.43 b	
Genotype 8	06.01 b	
Genotype 9	05.13 b	
Genotype 10	13.08 a	
Genotype 11	13.87 a	
Genotype 12	14.68 a	
Genotype 13	08.50 b	
Genotype 14	11.10 a	
Genotype 15	11.83 a	
Genotype 16	12.08 a	
Genotype 17	15.43 a	
Genotype 18	07.73 b	
Genotype 19	08.40 b	
Genotype 20	05.68 b	
Genotype 21	07.54 b	
Genotype 22	15.25 a	
Genotype 23	16.61 a	
Genotype 24	15.93 a	
Genotype 25	16.55 a	
Genotype 26	17.79 a	
Genotype 27	05.35 b	
Genotype 28	notype 28 15.84 a	
Genotype 29	09.11 b	
Treatment	Se translocation to grains (%)	
Se application	cation 19.99 A	
Control	2.32 B	

Table A6

Decision Matrix for variables presenting Se and Genotype interaction. The "*" indicates genotypes that presented the highest result observed, for each specific variable.

Variable	Genotypes		
	5 (BRS Gruariba)	28 (Pingo-De-Ouro-2)	
Grain Se Concentration	*		
Leaves + Stem Se Concentration	*		
Roots Se Concentration		*	
Se Partitioning to Shoots	*		

Acknowledgments

The authors wish to thank the São Paulo State Research Support Foundation (FAPESP) for supporting the first author's research with financial resources provided by process numbers 16/19773-8, 17/ 21950-8 and 18/189936-6. ARR also thanks the National Council for Scientific and Technological Development (CNPq) for the research fellowship (grant 309380/2017-0). PJW was supported by the Rural and Environment Science and Analytical Services Division (RESAS) of the Scottish Government.

Appendix A

See Table A6

References

- FAO, IFAD, UNICEF, WFP, WHO, The State of Food Security and Nutrition in the World 2019. Safeguarding Against Economic Slowdowns and Downturns, FAO, Rome, 2019. http://www.fao.org/3/ca5162en/ca5162en.pdf.
- [2] P.J. White, M.R. Broadley, Biofortification of crops with seven mineral elements often lacking in human diets – iron, zinc, copper, calcium, magnesium, selenium and iodine, New Phytol. 182 (2009) 49–84, https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1469-8137.2008.02738.x.
- [3] P.J. White, J.E. Bradshaw, M.F.B. Dale, G. Ramsay, J.P. Hammond, M.R. Broadley, Relationships between yield and mineral concentrations in potato tubers, HortScience 44 (2009) 6–11, https://doi.org/10.21273/HORTSCI.44.1.6.
- [4] S.J. Fairweather-Tait, Y. Bao, M.R. Broadley, R. Collings, D. Ford, J.E. Hesketh, R. Hurst, Selenium in human health and disease, Antioxid. Redox. Sign. 14 (2011) 1337–1383, https://doi.org/10.1089/ars.2010.3275.
- [5] S.N. Serrano-Sandoval, D. Guardado-Felix, J.A. Guitiérrez-Uribe, Changes in digestibility of proteins from chickpeas (*Cicer arietinum* L.) germinated in presence of selenium and antioxidant capacity of hydrolysates, Food Chem. 285 (2019) 290–295, https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodchem.2019.01.137.
- [6] E.A.H. Pilon-Smits, C.F. Quinn, W. Tapken, M. Malagoli, M. Schiavon, Physiological functions of beneficial elements, Curr. Opin. Plant Biol. 12 (2009) 267–274, https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pbi.2009.04.009.
- [7] A.R. Reis, J.P.O. Barcelos, C.R.W.S. Osório, E.F. Santos, L.A.M. Lisboa, J.M. K. Santini, M.J.D. Santos, E. Furlani Junior, M. Campos, P.A.M. Figueiredo, J. Lavres, P.L. Gratão, A glimpse into the physiological: biochemical and nutritional status of soybean plants under Ni-stress conditions, Environ. Exp. Bot. 144 (2017) 78–87, https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envexpbot.2017.10.006.
- [8] H.P.G. Reis, J.P.Q. Barcelos, E. Furlani Junior, E.F. Santos, V.M. Silva, M.F. Moraes, F.F. Putti, A.R. Reis, Agronomic biofortification of upland rice with selenium and nitrogen and its relation to grain quality, J. Cereal Sci. 79 (2018) 508–515, https:// doi.org/10.1016/j.jcs.2018.01.004.
- [9] V.M. Šilva, E.H.M. Boleta, M.G.D.B. Lanza, J. Lavres, J.T. Martins, E.F. Santos, F.L. M, F.F. Putti, E. Furlani Junior, P.J. White, M.R. Broadley, H.W.P. Carvalho, A. R. Reis, Physiological, biochemical, and ultrastructural characterization of selenium toxicity in cowpea plants, Environ. Exp. Bot. 150 (2018) 172–182, https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envexpbot.2018.03.020.
- [10] P.J. White, Selenium accumulation by plants, Ann. Bot. 117 (2016) 217–235, https://doi.org/10.1093/aob/mcv180.
- [11] M.A. Lazo-Vélez, A. Chávez-Santoscoy, O. Serna-Saldivar, Selenium-enriched breads and their benefits in human nutrition and health as affected by agronomic, milling, and baking factors, Cereal Chem. 92 (2015) 134–144, https://doi.org/ 10.1094/CCHEM-05-14-0110-RW.
- [12] M.P. Rayman, Selenium and human health, Lancet 379 (2012) 1256–1268, https:// doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(11)61452-9.
- [13] M. Schiavon, E.A.H. Pilon-Smits, The fascinating facets of plant selenium accumulation– biochemistry, physiology, evolution and ecology, New Phytol. 213 (2017) 1582–1596, https://doi.org/10.1111/nph.14378.
- [14] P.B. Ngigi, C. Lachat, P.W. Masinde, G.D. Laing, Agronomic biofortification of maize and beans in Kenya through selenium fertilization, Environ. Geochem. Health 41 (2019) 2577–2591, https://doi.org/10.1007/s10653-019-00309-3.
- [15] E. Nwokolo, S.N. Ilechukwu, Cowpea (*Vigna unguiculata* (L.) Walp.), in:
 E. Nwokolo, J. Smartt (Eds.), Food and Feed from Legumes and Oilseeds, Springer, Boston, 1996, pp. 229–242.
- [16] M.P. Timko, J.D. Ehlers, P.A. Roberts, Cowpea, in: C. Kole (Ed.), Genome Mapping and Molecular Breeding in Plants: Pulses, Sugar and Tuber Crops, Springer-Verlag, Berlin, 2007, pp. 49–67.
- [17] M. Carvalho, I. Castro, J. Moutinho-Pereira, C. Correia, M. Egea-Cortines, M. Matos, E. Rosa, V. Carnide, T. Lino-Neto, Evaluating stress responses in cowpea under drought stress, J. Plant Physiol. 24 (2019), 153001, https://doi.org/ 10.1016/j.jplph.2019.153001.
- [18] M.G. Manzeke, F. Mtambanengwe, M.J. Watts, E.M. Hamilton, R.M. Lark, M. R. Broadley, P. Mapfumo, Fertilizer management and soil type influence grain zinc and iron concentration under contrasting smallholder cropping systems in Zimbabwe, Sci. Rep. 9 (2019), 6445, https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-019-42828-0.
- [19] J. Manda, A.D. Alene, A.H. Tufa, T. Abdoulaye, T. Wossen, D. Chikoye, V. Manyong, The poverty impacts of improved cowpea varieties in Nigeria: a counterfactual analysis, World Dev. 122 (2019) 261–271, https://doi.org/ 10.1016/j.worlddev.2019.05.027.
- [20] C.I. Teixeira-Guedes, D. Oppolzer, A.I. Barros, C. Pereira-Wilson, Phenolic rich extracts from cowpea sprouts decrease cell proliferation and enhance 5-fluorouracil effect in human colorectal cancer cell lines, J. Funct. Food. 60 (2019), 103452, https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jff.2019.103452.

- [21] M.M. Rocha, K.J. Damasceno-Silva, J.A.N. Menezes-Júnior, Cultivares, in: J.C. Do Vale, C. Bertini, A. Borém (Eds.), Feijão-caupi: do plantio à colheita, Editora UFV, Viçosa, 2017, pp. 113–142.
- [22] D.G. Oliveira, M.M. Rocha, K.J. Damasceno-Silva, F.V. Sá, L.R.L. Lima, M.D. V. Resende, Genotypic gain with simultaneous selection of production, nutrition, and culinary traits in cowpea crosses and backcrosses using mixed models, Genet. Mol. Biol. 16 (2017), https://doi.org/10.4238/gmr16039736 gmr16039736.
- [23] M. Zhang, G. Xing, S. Tang, Y. Pang, Q. Yi, Q. Huang, X. Huang, J. Huang, P. Li, H. Fu, Improving soil selenium availability as a strategy to promote selenium uptake by high-Se rice cultivar, Environ. Exp. Bot. 163 (2019) 45–54, https://doi. org/10.1016/j.envexpbot.2019.04.008.
- [24] B. Zhang, Y. Wei, S. Yan, H. Shi, Y. Nie, G. Zou, X. Zhang, L. Luo, Characterization of selenium accumulation of different rice genotypes in Chinese natural seleniferous soil, Plant Soil Environ. 65 (2019) 12–20, https://doi.org/10.17221/ 603/2018-PSE.
- [25] G.H. Ros, A.M.D. van Rotterdam, D.W. Bussink, P.S. Bindraban, Selenium fertilization strategies for bio-fortification of food: an agro-ecosystem approach, Plant Soil 404 (2006) 99–112, https://doi.org/10.1007/s11104-016-2830-4.
- [26] M.R. Broadley, J. Alcock, J. Alford, P. Cartwright, I. Foot, S.J. Fairweather-Tait, D. J. Hart, R. Hurst, P. Knott, S.P. McGrath, M.C. Meacham, K. Norman, H. Mowat, P. Scott, J.L. Stroud, M. Tovey, M. Tucker, P.J. White, S.D. Young, F.J. Zhao, Selenium biofortification of high-yielding winter wheat (*Triticum aestivum* L.) by liquid or granular Se fertilisation, Plant Soil 332 (2010) 5–18, https://doi.org/10.1007/s11104-009-0234-4.
- [27] T.S. Lara, J.H.L. Lessa, K.R.D. Souza, A.N.P. Corguinha, F.A.D. Martins, G. Lopes, L. R.G. Guilherme, Selenium biofortification of wheat grain via foliar application and its effect on plant metabolism, J. Food Anal. 81 (2019) 10–18, https://doi.org/ 10.1016/j.jfca.2019.05.002.
- [28] V.M. Silva, E.H.M. Boleta, J.T. Martins, F.L.M. Santos, A.C.R. Silva, T.D. Alcock, L. Wilson, M.E. Sá, S.D. Yound, M.R. Broadley, P.J. White, A.R. Reis, Agronomic biofortification of cowpea with selenium: effects of selenate and selenite applications on selenium and phytate concentrations in seeds, J. Sci. Food Agric. 99 (2019) 5969–5983, https://doi.org/10.1002/jsfa.9872.
- [29] B.V. Raij, J.C. Andrade, H. Cantarella, J.A. Quaggio (Eds.), Análise Química Para Avaliação da Fertilidade de Solos Tropicais, Instituto Agronômico de Campinas, Campinas, 1997.
- [30] C.L. Thomas, T.D. Alcock, N.S. Graham, R. Hayden, S. Matterson, L. Wilson, S. D. Young, L.X. Dupuy, P.J. White, J.P. Hammond, J.M.C. Danku, D.E. Salt, A. Sweeney, I. Bacroft, M.R. Broadley, Root morphology and seed and leaf ionomic traits in a *Brassica napus* L. diversity panel show wide phenotypic variation and are characteristic of crop habit, BMC Plant Biol. 16 (2016), 214, https://doi.org/10.1186/s12870-016-0902-5.
- [31] A.D. Abichequer, H. Bohnen, Eficiência de absorção, translocação e utilização de fósforo por variedades de trigo, Rev. Bras. Cienc. Solo 22 (1998) 21–25, https:// doi.org/10.1590/S0100-06831998000100003.
- [32] D. Thavarajah, A. Abare, I. Mapa, C.J. Coyne, P. Thavarajah, S. Kumar, Selecting lentil accessions for global selenium biofortification, Plants 6 (2017) E34, https:// doi.org/10.3390/plants6030034.
- [33] B. Pezzarossa, D. Remorini, D. Piccotino, M. Malagoli, R. Massai, Effects of selenate addition on selenium accumulation and plant growth of two *Prunus* rootstock genotypes, J. Plant Nutr. Soil Sc. 172 (2009) 261–269, https://doi.org/10.1002/ jpln.200800014.
- [34] M.A. Figueiredo, P.F. Boldrin, J.J. Hart, M.J.B. Andrade, L.R.G. Guilherme, R. P. Glahn, L. Li, Zinc and selenium accumulation and their effect on iron bioavailability in common bean seeds, Plant Physiol. Biochem. 111 (2017) 193–202, https://doi.org/10.1016/j.plaphy.2016.11.019.
- [35] M.S. Natasha, N.K. Niazi, S. Khalid, B. Murtaza, I. Bibi, M.I.A. Rashid, A critical review of selenium biogeochemical behavior in soil-plant system with an inference to human health, Environ. Pollut. 234 (2018) 915–934, https://doi.org/10.1016/j. envpol.2017.12.019.
- [36] P.J. White, Selenium metabolism in plants, Biochim. Biophys. Acta Gen. Subj. 1862 (2018) 2333–2342, https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bbagen.2018.05.006.
- [37] L.H.E. Winkel, B. Vriens, G.D. Jones, L.S. Schneider, E. Pilon-Smits, G.S. Bañuelos, Selenium cycling across soil-plant-atmosphere interfaces: a critical review, Nutrients 7 (2015) 4199–4239, https://doi.org/10.3390/nu7064199.
- [38] C.J. Asher, G.W. Butler, P.J. Peterson, Selenium transport in root systems of tomato, J. Exp. Bot. 28 (1977) 279–291, https://doi.org/10.1093/jxb/28.2.279.
- [39] F.M. Fordyce, Selenium geochemistry and health, Ambio 36 (2007) 94–97, https:// doi.org/10.1579/0044-7447(2007)36[94:sgah]2.0.co;2. Stockholm.
- [40] M. Feudis, R. D'Amato, D. Businelli, M. Guiducci, Fate of selenium in soil: a case study in a maize (*Zea mays L.*) field under two irrigation regimes and fertilized with sodium selenite, Sci. Total Environ. 659 (2019) 131–139, https://doi.org/ 10.1016/j.scitotenv.2018.12.200.
- [41] M. Filek, A. Sieprawska, A. Telk, M. Labanowska, M. Kurdziel, S. Alas, H. Hartikainen, Translocation of elements and sugars in wheat genotypes at vegetative and generative stages under continuous selenium exposure, J. Sci. Food Agric. 99 (2019) 6364–6371, https://doi.org/10.1002/jsfa.9914.
- [42] G.A. Souza, J.J. Hart, J.G. Carvalho, M.A. Rutzke, J.C. Albrecht, L.R.G. Guilherme, L.V. Kochian, L. Li, Genotypic variation of zinc and selenium concentration in grains of Brazilian wheat lines, Plant Sci. 224 (2014) 27–35, https://doi.org/ 10.1016/j.plantsci.2014.03.022.