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Deciphering the Genetic Architecture of Key Female Floral Traits for Hybrid Wheat Seed Production

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DECIPHERING THE GENETIC ARCHITECTURE OF KEY FEMALE FLORAL TRAITS FOR HYBRID WHEAT SEED PRODUCTION

by

Juan David Jimenez Pardo

A THESIS

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DECIPHERING THE GENETIC ARCHITECTURE OF KEY FEMALE FLORAL TRAITS FOR HYBRID WHEAT SEED PRODUCTION

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University of Nebraska, 2022

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Wheat (*Triticum aestivum* L.) is a staple cereal that provides 20% of the calories and proteins in human intake (Ray et al., 2013). Global population is projected to increase to 9.7 billion by 2050. Food production must increase by 70% to feed this future population. Wheat production is in crisis due to political and environmental challenges and is projected to decline by 0.8% in 2022 (FAO, 2022). To ensure food security yield genetic gain must increase by around 1.4% annually. Taking advantage of heterosis, hybrid wheat has the potential to boost grain yield. However, hybrid wheat seed production systems are not profitable due to the cleistogamy of the crop (Longin et al., 2012). Selection of parental lines with beneficial floral traits is necessary to improve outcrossing ability and thus seed set in hybrid wheat production fields. While several studies have focused on the morphological and genetic variation of male floral traits, few have studied in detail the phenotypic and genetic architecture of female floral traits and their crucial importance in hybrid wheat seed production systems. This study aims to unravel the genetic architecture of key female floral traits for hybrid wheat seed production by phenotyping key female floral traits and conducting a genome wide association study to decipher the genetic basis of the phenotyped traits. We studied a panel of winter wheat breeding lines sprayed with the Chemical Hybridizing Agent

Croisor®100. Gape Date, Gape Score, and CHA damage were measured during seven years and genotyped with 44,240 SNP markers. The phenotypic variation was very wide for all female traits in the phenotyped lines. We identified 73 significant marker-trait associations for all assessed traits. Three candidate genes coding for unknown proteins were the most promising and their specific biological function need to be explored. The understanding of the genetic architecture of the female floral traits, and the identified marker-trait associations and candidate genes in this study might serve as a foundation for future studies on developing female floral traits to enhance cross-pollination for effective hybrid wheat seed production.

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1. Introduction

Domesticated in the Middle East around 10,000 years ago, wheat (*Triticum aestivum* L.) is considered one of the most important crops for human civilization. Wheat is a staple cereal that provides 20% of the calories and proteins consumed by people (Ray et al., 2013), (FAOSTAT, 2019). Wheat-based foods include bread, pasta, noodles, semolina, snacks, and bakery products. The current global population is around 8.0 billion, and it is expected to reach 9.7 billion in 2050 (UN, 2022). Global human consumption of wheat will expand by 0.9% in 2022/23 reaching 536 million tons (FAO, 2022). Global food production must increase by almost 70% to feed the future population (FAO, 2019). Wheat production is in crisis due to political and environmental challenges. International conflicts, policies, and input costs have increased grain prices and reduced the global availability of grain. The FAO (2022) forecasts that global wheat production will decline by 0.8% in 2022 to 771 million tons.

Plant breeding programs contribute greatly to increasing global agricultural productivity through the development of new crop varieties. Inbred cultivars are the primary end products developed in most global wheat breeding programs (Sade et al., 2022). However, genetic gain for yield in wheat using pure-line breeding is lower than the predicted rate of gain needed to meet wheat demand. Negative recessive characteristics can be inherited through inbreeding because it increases the chance of homozygous recessive alleles in the offspring when one or both parents carry the recessive alleles, thus the harmful traits will not be eliminated. Wheat yield must increase by 1.4% each year to meet anticipated demand, but actual yield growth is less than 1%

(CGIAR, 2016). This indicates that the current systems used in wheat breeding programs need major changes to achieve higher yield genetic gain. Outcrossing crops such as maize and hybridized self-pollinated crops such as rice have higher rates of yield genetic gain.

Hybridization is a feasible method to boost wheat yield to satisfy the upcoming grain demand and guarantee food security. Several studies reported hybrid superiority compared with inbred lines in wheat. Longin et al., (2013) described 10.7% grain yield superiority of wheat hybrids compared to the mean yield of their parents. Koemel et al., (2004) reported a hybrid wheat yield advantage of 10.9% on average over wheat commercial pure lines. Hybrid wheat yield mid-parent heterosis of 24% was reported by Easterly et al., (2020). In the hybridization process, two distinct inbred lines containing desirable traits are crossed to exploit heterosis or hybrid vigor which is the expression of superior performance in hybrid offspring compared to inbred parents (Chu et al., 2012). One of the main advantages of heterosis is that it can enhance and stabilize wheat yield (Mühleisen et al., 2014).

Research for the development of hybrid wheat varieties dates back to the 1960s after the discovery of cytoplasmic male sterility (Singh et al., 2010). The investment in hybrid wheat development from the public and private sectors has been low and intermittent. It is challenging to develop hybrid wheat due to the inefficiency and lack of profitability of hybrid seed production systems (Kempe & Gils, 2011; Longin et al., 2012). Wheat is an autogamous cereal, which reduces its potential for outcrossing. This floral characteristic reduces the amount of hybrid seed produced and consequently, increases the cost of seed production, making the price of hybrid wheat seed unaffordable for farmers. Thus, the cleistogamous nature of wheat must be optimized to improve outcrossing ability and maximize seed set (El Hanafi et al., 2021). Improving outcrossing ability and maximizing seed set can be achieved by developing elite parental lines that display favorable floral characteristics for cross-pollination and integrating them into the hybridization process.

Investigation of superior floral traits for hybrid wheat requires phenotyping, the measurement of traits expressed in the plant. Once these traits have been characterized, the selection of superior individuals could be implemented to be used as parents for the development of wheat hybrids. The ideal female parent (Figure 1a) would be short, with wide open glumes, and long and receptive stigmas at pollination time (De Vries, 1971), and the male components of the plant should be effectively sterilized (Whitford et al., 2013). It should be paired with an ideal male parent (Figure 1b) that should be taller than the female parent, with good anther extrusion (AE) and should produce viable pollen for long periods. Both parents need to be synchronized to coincide with flowering times when the male is shedding viable pollen and the female has receptive stigmas (Longin et al., 2013). Female plant structures are responsible for seed set in wheat. Understanding the morphology of traits that maximize seed set in the female parent is essential to creating a cost-effective hybrid wheat seed production system (N. Garst, 2017), thus making hybrid wheat a reality. Advanced breeding lines of hard red winter wheat from the Texas A&M University wheat breeding program were evaluated for female floral traits. The range of stigma size, stigma featheriness duration, and stigma exsertion were reported to be 1.48-4.12 (length, mm), 2-15 (days), and 1-5 (1-5 scale), respectively

(Tadlock, 2015). The range of the stigma exsertion and gape measured on a 1-5 scale was between 0.87–4 and 1–5 in a panel of hard red winter wheat in Texas A&M AgriLife wheat germplasm (Sade et al., 2022). This demonstrates that there is morphological variability in female floral traits in wheat germplasm and understanding this variation is crucial to enhance the development of female parental lines to be included in hybrid wheat development schemes.

Phenotypic selection can be supplemented by the implementation of novel technologies that are available to plant breeders who are attempting to transform wheat into a hybrid crop. Cutting-edge breeding techniques and genomic tools are advancing at an unprecedented rate and are becoming more widely available. Tools such as nextgeneration sequencing, genomic prediction, and high-throughput phenotyping can be used to rapidly develop hybrid breeding programs in self-pollinated crops (El Hanafi et al., 2021; Galán et al., 2020; Xu et al., 2021). Next Generation Sequencing (NGS) technology makes it possible to acquire sequence data quickly and affordably from multiple germplasm lines for use in genomics and related research. Whole genome sequencing has become widely accessible due to the steadily declining cost of DNA sequencing, encouraging the use of genome wide association studies (GWAS). Genome wide association studies are an approach used to identify associations between genomewide sets of single-nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) and phenotypic traits of interest (Hee-Jong Koh et al., 2015). With a genome wide association study, it is possible to underline the genetic architecture and discover genetic variants of traits of interest. An additional benefit of GWAS is its capacity to locate quantitative trait locus (QTL) for

traits that cannot be characterized in a biparental population using interval mapping. Once the genetic basis of a trait is established, marker-assisted selection (MAS) could be used to improve breeding efficiency.

Several studies have focused on morphological differences and the genetic architecture of male floral traits, and almost all focused on anther extrusion (Adhikari et al., 2020; N. D. Garst, 2020; Langer et al., 2014; Muqaddasi et al., 2016). Elucidating the male floral traits is crucial since they are responsible for providing pollen. However, having receptive stigmas at the time of outcrossing is just as important as having sufficient and high-quality pollen. Therefore, it is essential to investigate the morphology and genetic basis of female floral structures to improve hybrid seed production. Only a small number of studies focus on the genetic architecture of female floral traits that are necessary to produce successful hybrids (El Hanafi et al., 2020, 2021; Tadlock, 2015). These studies are characterized for the evaluation of a limited number of female floral traits, the studies were replicated over a few years, and the amount of information that was provided was limited about female traits. Therefore, additional knowledge is required to comprehend female floral traits to improve hybrid seed production systems. This study aims to unravel the genetic architecture of key female floral traits for hybrid wheat seed production by i) phenotyping gape date, gape score, and chemical hybridizing agent (CHA) damage in a panel of winter wheat breeding lines from Texas and Nebraska public breeding programs, and ii) conducting a GWAS to decipher the genetic basis of the key female floral traits.

2. Materials and Methods

2.1 Plant Materials

This study evaluated a panel of 129 winter wheat breeding lines (Table 1) from the University of Nebraska-Lincoln and Texas A&M breeding programs. These lines were selected as parents for hybrid wheat based on agronomic characteristics and genetic diversity. Field experiments were conducted for eight years from 2015 to 2022 at the University of Nebraska-Lincoln Havelock Experiment Station Farm located in Lincoln, Nebraska, USA. Trials were conducted in a hybrid crossing block where male plots were placed around female (male-sterile) plots to make wheat hybrids (Figure 2). Female and male plots were 3 meters long, and 1.6 meters wide with five rows of 25 cm between them. The Chemical Hybridizing Agent (CHA) Croisor® 100 (active substance sintofen, 1-(4-chlorophenyl)-5-(2-methoxyethoxy)-4-oxo-1,4-dihydrocinnoline-3-carboxylic acid) provided by Asur Plant Breeding, Estrées-Saint-Denis, France, was applied to sterilize female plots at a rate of 10 liters per hectare when developing heads reached 12-20 mm in the main stem. Seeds were sown with a Hege 80 cone planter at a seeding rate of 125 kg per hectare for female plots and 52 kg per hectare for male plots. Variation in seed rates at planting was used to regulate tillering and thus ensure a large window of available pollen released by males at the time that females had receptible stigmas. The high seeding rates also contributed to obtaining a high homogeneity in the development of the plants in the female plots (more main stems and fewer late tillers). Consequently, sterilization in the plots was more homogeneous because, at the time the sterilizing agent was administered, the plants and tillers had similar stages of development, reducing

possible variations due to the effectiveness of the sterilizing agent in the female plots on late tillers. The number of female lines and replications used each year (Table 2) varied due to the different objectives of the hybrids produced from the crossing blocks each year. Wheat agronomic management practices for eastern Nebraska were implemented following the recommendations of the University of Nebraska-Lincoln extension program (UNL Extension, 2019). The design used from 2015 to 2021 was an incomplete randomized design. All 129 lines were included in a two-replications randomized complete block design in 2022, however, due to environmental conditions the trial was not successful. Therefore, the data was not analyzed.

2.2 Plant Phenotyping

The female plots were used to perform the phenotypic evaluation of key female floral traits for hybrid wheat seed production, gape date (Figure 3a), gape score (Figure 3b), and CHA damage (Figure 3c). The gape date was measured as the day when the florets in the whole plot reached maximum opening (gaping), counted in Julian days. The gape score was a measure used to quantify visually how widely open the florets were at the gape date in the whole plot. It was rated using a scale from 1 to 9, where 1 denoted the least gaping, and 9 denoted widely open florets. The phytotoxicity effects of the CHA, burned, yellow-red colored florets, and wrinkled, discolored, and damaged glumes and awns were quantified as CHA damage a few days after flowering stage, when the plants started to show symptoms of phytotoxicity in the whole female plot approximately at

Zadoks 70 stage (Conley, 2018). A scale from 1 to 9 was utilized, where 1 denoted no visible head damage and 9 denoted heads significant injuries (Stoll., 2019).

2.3 Statistical Analysis

Statistical analysis of phenotypic data was conducted by using a two steps approach. In the first step, phenotypic data from 2015 to 2021 was analyzed in a year-by-year basis and the Best Linear Unbiased Estimators (BLUE) per each genotype were estimated by fitting the linear mixed model:

$$
Model (1) y_{ij} = \mu + G_i + R_j + e_{ij}
$$

Where y_{ij} represent the phenotypic observation (gape date, gape score, or CHA damage) of the *i*th genotype and the *j*th replication, μ is the intercept term, G_i is the effect of the *i*th genotype, R_j is the effect of the *j*th replication e_{ij} is the residual term. The genotype term was treated as fixed and the replication term as random.

In the second step, the BLUE values from the first step were used to perform statistical analysis across environments. The Best Linear Unbiased Predictor estimates (BLUP) per each genotype were estimated by fitting the mixed linear model:

Model (2)
$$
y_{ij} = \mu + G_i + E_j + (GxE)_{ij} + e_{ij}
$$

Where y_{ijk} represent the BLUE value of the phenotypic observation (gape date, gape score, or CHA damage) of the ith genotype in the jth environment, μ is the intercept term, G_i is the effect of the i^{th} genotype, E_j is the effect of the j^{th} environment, $(GxE)_{ij}$ is the effect of the interaction between the ith genotype and the jth environment, and e_{ij} is the residual term. Years were treated as environments as all field trials were carried out at the same location (Havelock Experiment Station Farm, Lincoln, Nebraska, USA). Environment and the intercept terms were considered fixed and genotype and genotype by environment interaction effects were considered random. All the estimations were performed using the *lmer* function in the *Lme4* R package (Bates et al., 2015).

2.4 Phenotypic-Based broad-sense heritability

Broad-sense heritability (H^2) using the phenotypic data of each measured trait was calculated using the variance components estimated in the model (2) by adjusting the formula implemented by Sade et al., (2022):

Formula (1)
$$
H^2 = \frac{\sigma_G^2}{\sigma_G^2 + \frac{\sigma_{(GxE)}^2}{y} + \frac{\sigma_e^2}{y * r}}
$$

Where σ_G^2 represent the genotypic variance, $\sigma_{(GxE)}^2$ is the genotype by environment (year) interaction variance, σ_e^2 is the error variance, y is the number of environments (7 years), and r is the number of replications.

2.5 Genotypic data

A detailed description of the DNA extraction, sequencing, and SNP calling of the 129 lines used in this study can be found in Belamkar et al, (2018). Briefly, each line was genotyped by Genotyping-by-Sequencing (GBS) using the protocol established by Poland et al (2012) in the Wheat Genetics and Germplasm Improvement Laboratory (WGGIL) at Kansas State University. SNP calling was performed using the TASSEL GBS Pipeline (Glaubitz et al., 2014) through the high-performance computing core, the Holland Computing Center (https://hcc.unl.edu/) at the University of Nebraska. 352,712

SNP markers were identified for the 129 lines evaluated in this study. Quality control was performed to remove SNPs with minor allele frequency (MAF) <5%, and missing values with >20%. Lines with >20% of missing marker data were removed. The total number of SNPs was reduced to 44,240 and the number of lines to 123 to be used in GWAS. Quality control was performed in TASSEL 5.2.86 (Bradbury et al., 2007).

2.6 Genomic broad-sense heritability

A total of 44,240 SNP markers were available for analysis after applying quality control. These were converted to numerical format, and the missing values were imputed with the naïve method (using the mean) with the numerical impute function in TASSEL 5.2.86 (Bradbury et al., 2007). The genotype's scale was changed to 2,0,1 for homozygous major, homozygous minor, and heterozygous, respectively. Then, the matrix of SNPs markers X was standardized by columns using "scale" function in R. The genomic relationship matrix (GRM) was computed with the formula suggested by VanRaden., (2008):

$$
G = \frac{XX'}{ncol(X)}
$$

Where the entries of *G* describe the genomic similarities between pairs of individuals, ncol(X) is the number of SNP markers. The *BGLR* function in the BGLR R package (Pérez & De Los Campos, 2014) was used to fit the GBLUP model:

$$
y_i = \mu + G_i + e_{ij}
$$

Where y_i represent the phenotypic response (BLUP values of the genotypes generated by model (2)) of the ith genotype, G_i is the corresponding genomic value (derived from the GRM), and e_{ij} is the residual term capturing the non-explained variability. Since BGLR is a Bayesian implementation, for the GIBS sampler a total of 12,000 number of iterations were considered with 2,000 for burn-in.

The broad-sense heritability (H^2) using the markers data was calculated using the variance components estimated in the GBLUP model by using the formula:

Formula (2)
$$
H^2 = \frac{\sigma_G^2}{\sigma_G^2 + \sigma_e^2}
$$

Where σ_G^2 represent the variance of the genotypes, and σ_e^2 is the variance of the residual term.

2.7 Genome-Wide Association Analysis

BLUP values of each female floral trait from formula (2) and 44,240 SNP markers from 123 female lines were used to perform GWAS. Initially, the "model selection" option in the Genome Association and Prediction Integrated Tool (GAPIT) V3.0. (Lipka et al., 2012) was used to define the model that better fits the analysis. The selection criteria to choose the model were the effectiveness to control for relatedness and population structure, and the reduced presence of spurious associations. Based on the graphic representation of the expected and observed $-log_{10} P$ values described in Quantile-Quantile (QQ) plots, the Mixed Linear Model (MLM) (Yu et al., 2006) was used to execute GWAS because it was efficient in controlling for suspicious associations, relatedness and population structure by included kinship and population structure matrices as covariates. The principal components analysis (PCA) was performed in GAPIT. Three principal components (PC) were selected for GWAS based on the

variation explained by each PC in the Eigenvalues plot (Figure 8). The PC and kinship matrices were produced and incorporated as covariates by default in the MLM model to account for population structure and individual relatedness. QQ plots of each evaluated trait were made by plotting the −log₁₀ observed and expected p-values of the SNPs to check the suitability of the model. A threshold of P-value ≤ 0.001 (LOD score ≥ 3.00) was used to identify significant marker-trait associations (MTA) for the female floral traits evaluated in this study (Chaurasia et al., 2020; Sheoran et al., 2022; Soleimani et al., 2022). The −log₁₀ (p) values were presented in Manhattan plots generated using the *qqman* R package (Turner S., 2018).

2.8 Candidate genes

SnpEff (Cingolani et al., 2012) was used for functional gene annotations to identify potential candidate genes using significant SNPs detected in GWAS for the female floral traits evaluated in this study. The biological function of the gene in relation to the floral traits in wheat was searched in prior literature. The most promising candidate genes based on the location of the gene in the genome, and on the availability and relevance of the biological function to the trait were selected for further exploration.

3. Results

3.1 Phenotypic analysis and heritability

Data curation was performed after the phenotypic evaluation of key female floral traits gape date, gape score, and CHA damage was conducted. Data for the following

traits was not collected: Gape date 2015; Gape Score 2016 and 2017; and CHA damage 2016. We checked for outliers by generating box plots, we explored further any tentative outlier visualized in box plots, but the suspected data points were relevant for our study, and we decided to use all phenotypic data that was collected. Statistical analysis was performed and the resulting best linear unbiased predictors (BLUPs) from all year's data approximated a normal distribution for all female traits (Figure 4-6). Summary statistics were reported in Table 3. Gape date had a 6-day span from 141 to 147 with a mean of 144. We observed variation for gape score ranging from 6.7 to 9.6 with a mean value of 8.4. CHA damage ranged from 6.5 to 7.2 with a mean value of 6.8. Estimates of genotypic variance were significantly different than zero with a p-value of 0.001 for gape data and gape score, and a p-value of 0.05 for CHA damage in type 3 Anova test of random effects (Table 4). The estimated phenotypic broad-sense heritability for gape date, gape score, and CHA damage were 0.88, 0.73, and 0.36, and the genomic broadsense heritability was 0.69, 0.56, and 0.50, respectively (Table 4).

3.2 Marker-Trait Associations for Female Floral Traits

Principal components analysis (PCA) showed that the three first principal components explained most of the variation with 4.11%, 3.81%, and 3.23% respectively (Figure 7). QQ plots showed a thin tail in the distribution of the $-log_{10}$ p-values deviating from the straight line (Figure 12). Because the Bonferroni and FDR corrections were very conservative for our data, we used a threshold of significance of P<0.001 ($-\log_{10}(P) \ge$ 3.0) to declare MTA, which is commonly used in previous studies with small sample size

(Chaurasia et al., 2020; Sheoran et al., 2022; Soleimani et al., 2022). GWAS detected in total 73 MTA for the three measured female floral traits. The MTAs were located on all chromosomes except for 1D, 3D, and 4D. Of the total, 20 MTA were detected for gape date, 33 MTA for gape score, and 20 MTA for CHA damage (Figure 9-11). The genomic regions with the most significantly associated markers based on the highest LOD values for gape date were chromosomes 4A (3), and 5A (3), for gape score chromosomes 1A (4), 5A (4), and 6D (4), and for CHA damage chromosome 7D (4). The most significant SNP detected among all female traits with a LOD of 4.55 (P-value 0.00003) was S6B_549563085 located on chromosome 6B for gape score. The phenotypic variance explained (PVE) by all detected SNPs ranges from 0-9.56% with a mean value of 1.17% (Table 5).

3.3 Candidate genes

Based on 200 kb window around the significant SNPs, we identified in total 111 candidate genes using *SnpEff* (Cingolani et al., 2012) for functional gene annotations. We found 34, 51, and 29 candidate genes for the gape date, gape score, and CHA damage respectively. TraesCS4B02G242300, TraesCS4B02G242400, and TraesCS7D02G039500 genes were identified for both gape score and CHA damage (Table 6). Of the total 111 candidate genes, 3 genes were the most promising based on their location in the missense variant genomic region (Table 7).

4. Discussion

4.1 Phenotypic evaluation of female traits

This work describes one of the first attempts to use a diverse set of germplasm to identify genomic markers associated with female floral traits in wheat. Our efforts to characterize female traits in CHA sterilized wheat germplasm from TX and NE continues to the work of Stoll (2019) and Sade et al. (2022). The genetic variance for all female floral traits in all evaluated lines used in this study was significantly different than zero (Table 4). This result shows that there is significant variation among the lines for all female floral traits, indicating that selection for these traits could improve outcrossing ability and therefore reduce the cost of hybrid wheat seed production systems (Langer et al., 2014).

Gape date play a significant role in the synchronization of flowering times in parental lines (N. Garst, 2017; Stoll, 2019). The gape date in the female parent should occur on the same day or a few days before the peak of pollen shed occurs in the male parent. A very late female line would be extremely hard to synchronize with an early male line. The wheat lines in this study exhibited a wide range for gape dates (141-147) suggesting that parent selection should be considered carefully to optimize overlap between pollen shed and floral gaping.

Wider floral gape is critical for allowing pollen into the floret for successful hybridization and improved seed set in hybrid wheat (Tadlock, 2015). The greater the gape, the better chance pollen can infiltrate the floret to pollinate the stigma. Lines with >6 of gape score are considered superior for outcrossing ability. The range of gape scores

(6.7-9.6) indicate that most of the lines have superior ability to cross pollinated in the evaluated panel. In a similar study that evaluated the angle of glume separation using a 1- 5 scale in a panel of hard red winter wheat breeding lines at Texas A&M University, a wide range of variation (2-5) for this trait was found (Tadlock, 2015). Wide gape occurs frequently in both Texas and Nebraska lines suggesting that the trait may be commonly present in wheat germplasm. The high gape scores suggest that certain lines have a superior ability for outcrossing, and these lines are recommended for use to develop female heterotic pools for wheat.

The damage caused by CHAs has an enormous impact on seed development causing decreased seed formation, which reduces the efficiency of hybrid seed production systems. Most of the lines had moderate CHA damage $\langle \langle 7 \rangle$ in the evaluated panel which could cause reduced number of seeds per spike and smaller seeds with low test weight. Our results confirmed a preliminary analysis made by Stoll (2019) that reported moderate tolerance to CHA in a panel of winter wheat lines tested in Nebraska. These results show that some of the evaluated lines tolerate the hybridizing agent well, and this system could be an economically effective method to perform initial evaluation of lines as potential hybrid parents before integrating them into more sophisticated systems like cytoplasmic male sterility to create wheat hybrids. However, it is important to evaluate different systems that do not rely on CHA for testing or to develop CHAs that cause less damage to expand the germplasm available for hybrid breeding programs (Pickett, 1993).

Broad-sense heritability was estimated using phenotypic and genotypic data. The estimates of phenotypic broad sense heritability ranged from high (0.88 and 0.73) in the

case of gape date and gape score to low (0.36) in the case of CHA damage. Due to the availability of high-density marker data, genomic broad-sense heritability was estimated to better understand the effects of genetics on female floral traits (de los Campos et al., 2015). Genomic heritability was moderate (0.50-0.69) for all traits which is in accordance with the results reported by Stoll (2019). This demonstrates that female floral traits are heritable, and it is possible to breed for these traits to develop hybrid wheat.

4.2 Marker-Trait Associations and candidate genes

This study is the first to apply GWAS to female floral traits in hard winter wheat. To the best of our knowledge, the genetic mechanisms that lead to gape date and CHA damage for hybrid wheat have not yet been reported. Principal components analysis (PCA) was performed to investigate the population structure of the evaluated panel of breeding lines. The first three principal components explained limited genetic variation and identified two clusters corresponding to Nebraska and Texas public wheat breeding programs (Figure 7). However, some overlap between the clusters is present. The pedigrees of these overlapping lines confirmed that they had parents in common or were exchanged between the Nebraska and Texas breeding programs (Table 1). QQ plots revealed a good fit of the MLM for GWAS to detect naïve MTA for female floral traits, and to effectively account for population structure and kinship relatedness between lines (Figure 12).

We detected 20 MTA for gape date, 33 for gape score, and 20 for CHA damage distributed in all chromosomes except for 1D, 3D, and 4D. The D genome is the least

diverse compared with A and B genomes because it was the most recent hybridization event that occurred to create in *T. aestivum*. Therefore, the number of polymorphisms present is less compared with the other two genomes. Also, the polymorphisms present in the D genome are not well distributed among the chromosomes (Mirzaghaderi & Mason, 2019). S4B_501710513 and S7D_20057921 were identified as common SNPs for gape score and CHA damage, suggesting that these SNPs could control multiple female traits (pleiotropy). Previously, El Hanafi et al., (2021) studied the openness of the flower as the angle of separation between the glumes of the first two florets of a spikelet. They identified 11 MTAs associated with this trait but none of them were common with the ones detected in our study. The MTAs with the highest PVE for gape date in our study was S4A_731097948 located on chromosome 4A, for gape score was S2B_742526639 located on chromosome 2B, and for CHA damage was S7B_622525086 located on chromosome 7B. The MTAs with the highest PVE for all traits were located in different genomic regions. We found an lower percentage of PVE for all detected SNPs for gape score compared with the PVE reported by El Hanafi et al., (2021) for the openness of the flower in a panel of spring wheat. The divergence in the PVE results in both studies could be due to the differences in experimental design, sample size, number of years evaluated, location, and type of wheat used (spring and winter wheat). PVE varies and is very specific from experiment to experiment. Minor allele frequency of the SNP S2D_10870835 and S2D_10870844 linked with candidate gene TraesCS2D02G024600 for gape score was 0.38. Minor allele frequency of SNP S3A_705230542 linked with candidate gene TraesCS3A02G474000 for gape score was 0.07. The MAF of SNP

S3B_815282615 linked with candidate gene TraesCS3B02G590100 for CHA damage was 0.11. In each case, the minor allele is beneficial in the evaluated population and selecting for this allele will be beneficial for breeding for gape score and CHA damage.

Candidate genes TraesCS2D02G024600 and TraesCS3A02G474000 were associated with gape score, and TraesCS3B02G590100 gene was associated with CHA damage. The most promising candidate genes were missense variants with moderate impact meaning loss of function of these candidate genes could be contributing to the trait of interest. These candidate genes code for unknown proteins and the specific biological function of the candidate genes need to be explored. Gene validation approaches such as gene editing and transgenics could be deployed to dissect these candidate genes for gene function similar to prior reports in wheat for stem rust, and seed morphology (Saintenac et al., 2013; Wang et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2021). If they are successfully validated, these candidate genes can be further used via marker assisted selection for improving female floral traits in hybrid wheat breeding programs.

5. Conclusions

The observed large phenotypic variation for the female floral traits evaluated in the present study suggests the potential for selecting superior female parents for hybrid wheat. GWAS demonstrated that female floral traits are complex and controlled by multiple genetic loci (quantitative traits). Increasing the population size in GWAS would be beneficial to further enhance the power to detect more significant marker-trait associations. Identified candidate genes need to be further validated for their direct

implication in improving female floral traits in hybrid wheat breeding programs. The understanding of the genetics of the female floral traits, and the identified MTAs and candidate genes in this study could serve as a foundation for future research in designing female floral traits to improve cross-pollination for efficient hybrid wheat seed production.

6. References

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Line	Pedigree	Source
FREEMAN	ABI86*3414/Jagger//Karl 92 (KS92-946-B-15-1)/3/ALLIANCE	Nebraska
GOODSTREA K	SD3055/KS88H164//NE89646	Nebraska
HARRY	NE90614 (=BRL/4/PKR*4/AGT//BEL.198/LCR/3/NWT/BRL) (=BRL/4/PKR*4/AGT//BEL.198/LCR/3/NWT/BRL)/NE87612 (=NWT//WRR*5/AGT/3/NE69441)	Nebraska
LCH13NEDH 11 24	NE06469/Pronghorn	Nebraska
NE05496	KS87H325/RIO BLANCO (KS95HW62-6)//HALLAM	Nebraska
NE07486_2	Lakin/Ok102 F3	Nebraska
NE07531	HBA142A/HBZ623A//ALE (HBK0630-4-5)/3/(NE98574) CO850267/RAWHIDE/4/HALLAM	Nebraska
NE09517_1	W96x1080-21(Jagger/Thunderbolt)/Jagalene	Nebraska
NE09521	OK96717-99- 6756=(Abilene/2180//Chisholm)/NI01824=(INTENSIVNAJA/NE92 458 (=OK83201/REDLAND)//VBF0168)//NE005564 = $(T81/NE91635 (=NE82761/NE82599))$	Nebraska
NE10478	NI03418=(W91-248/NE95544 (=MCVEY 78015/NE88521)//THUNDERBIRD)/NE01604	Nebraska
NE10683	NE01481=(OK83201/REDLAND//IKE)/Harry=(NE90614 (=BRL/4/PKR*4/AGT//BEL.198/LCR/3/NWT/BRL)/NE87612 (=NWT//WRR*5/AGT/3/NE69441))	Nebraska
NE12589	CO97547-7/OVERLAND//CAMELOT	Nebraska
NE13434	TX00D1390/NE02495//McGill	Nebraska
NE13515	HV9W00-B267/NI04421//NI04427	Nebraska
NE13604	SD00258-1/McGill	Nebraska
NE13625	W04-417/CAMELOT//Goodstreak	Nebraska
NE13672	MO980829/NE01604//NE03490	Nebraska
NE14419	Cassiopea/NW03681//NE03490	Nebraska
NE14421	NE05426/Overland	Nebraska
NE14434	SD98W175-1/NW03666//Freeman	Nebraska
NE14448	NI06737/1(ND2928/Wesley//Wesley)F3/Wesley F3	Nebraska
NE14494	OK06822W/HV9W96-1383W//NW03681	Nebraska
NE14531	NI06737/1(ND2928/Wesley//Wesley)F3/Wesley F3	Nebraska
NE14538	SD98W175-1/NW03666//Freeman	Nebraska
NE14606	KS04HW101-3/NW03670//NW06655	Nebraska
NE14663	NI06737/1(ND2928/Wesley//Wesley)F3/Wesley F3	Nebraska
NE14691	SD05W138/NE01604	Nebraska
NE14696	NE05537/Overland	Nebraska
NE15405	TX99A0153-1/Santa Fe//NE04424	Nebraska

Table 1: List of the 129 breeding lines used to evaluate female floral traits for hybrid wheat seed production

Table 2. List of the number of replications and lines per year

Table 3: Summary statistics of female traits where N is the number of lines evaluated, Min is the minimum value, Max is the maximum value, and the median and mean were arithmetically derived.

Table 4: Phenotypic and genomic broad sense heritability of female floral traits, and variance components extracted from model 2 and GBLUP model

. **, * Significantly different at the p=0.05, 0.01, 0.001 probability level.*

Trait	SNP	Chr	Physical position (bp)	P-value	LOD	MAF	\mathbb{R}^2 of model with SNP	Effect	Phenotype variance explained $(\%)$
gape date	S1A_590521793	1A	590521793	0.0010	3.01	0.21	0.37	-0.67	1.5E-08
gape date	S1B 291897879	1B	291897879	0.0008	3.09	0.15	0.37	0.44	8.3E-01
gape date	S1B 530957854	1B	530957854	0.0009	3.05	0.15	0.37	-0.45	$2.9E + 00$
gape date	S2A_771152522	2A	771152522	0.0002	3.62	0.25	0.38	0.43	7.2E-01
gape date	S2B_58748696	2B	58748696	0.0008	3.11	0.32	0.37	-0.43	9.0E-01
gape date	S4A 690430825	4A	690430825	0.0002	3.73	0.23	0.39	0.47	$0.0E + 00$
gape date	S4A_731097948	4A	731097948	0.0004	3.46	0.25	0.38	-0.81	$9.6E + 00$
gape date	S4A_11319290	4A	11319290	0.0007	3.15	0.30	0.37	-0.96	$5.6E + 00$
gape date	S5A 18653383	5A	18653383	0.0002	3.74	0.31	0.39	-0.56	2.3E-06
gape date	S5A_18653391	5A	18653391	0.0002	3.74	0.13	0.39	0.56	8.2E-02
gape date	S5A_18653369	5A	18653369	0.0007	3.14	0.33	0.37	0.56	$0.0E + 00$
gape date	S6A_3505092	6A	3505092	0.0007	3.13	0.11	0.37	-0.63	5.7E-08
gape date	S6A 3505120	6A	3505120	0.0007	3.13	0.16	0.37	-0.63	1.5E-08
gape date	S6B 137355745	6B	137355745	0.0004	3.35	0.14	0.38	0.45	$2.7E + 00$
gape date	S6B_720193972	6B	720193972	0.0005	3.28	0.14	0.37	0.58	$3.4E + 00$
gape date	S6D 430047660	6 _D	430047660	0.0008	3.09	0.38	0.37	-0.54	$1.8E + 00$
gape date	S7B_11703747	7A	11703747	0.0004	3.43	0.38	0.38	-0.39	$0.0E + 00$
gape date	S7B_719857174	7B	719857174	0.0005	3.27	0.13	0.37	-0.38	$4.7E + 00$
gape date	S7B_719857169	7B	719857169	0.0007	3.13	0.24	0.37	-0.73	$0.0E + 00$
gape date	SUN 36058948	UN	36058948	0.0003	3.50	0.07	0.38	-0.58	7.2E-07
gape score	S1A 69763425	1A	69763425	0.0007	3.13	0.44	0.14	-0.37	1.3E-01
gape score	S1A_69763451	1A	69763451	0.0007	3.13	0.11	0.14	-0.37	5.4E-01
gape score	S1A_309699031	1A	309699031	0.0008	3.12	0.26	0.14	0.33	$2.0E + 00$
gape score	S1A_520433427	1A	520433427	0.0009	3.06	0.11	0.14	0.22	5.4E-01

Table 5: Marker-trait associations detected from GWAS for gape date, gape score and CHA damage

SNP	Chr	Position bp	Candidate gene	Trait	Ref	Alt	Genomic region	Effect	Gene
S1A 590521793	1A	590521793	S1A 590521793	gape date	C	$\mathbf T$	intergenic_region	MODIFIER	TraesCS1A02G441600-
									TraesCS1A02G441700
S1B_291897879	1B	291897879	S1B_291897879	gape date	$\mathbf T$	$\mathbf C$	intergenic_region	MODIFIER	TraesCS1B02G166200-
									TraesCS1B02G166300
S1B_530957854	1B	530957854	S1B_530957854	gape date	A	G	downstream_gene_variant	MODIFIER	No gene identified in
									the 200 kb window
S2A_771152522	2A	771152522	S2A_771152522	gape date	$\mathbf T$	$\mathbf C$	intergenic_region	MODIFIER	TraesCS2A02G576900-
									TraesCS2A02G577000 TraesCS2B02G098900-
S2B_58748696	2B	58748696	S2B_58748696	gape date	$\mathbf T$	$\mathbf C$	intergenic_region	MODIFIER	TraesCS2B02G099100
S4A 11319290	4A	11319290	S4A 11319290	gape date	$\mathbf C$	G	downstream_gene_variant	MODIFIER	No gene identified in
									the 200 kb window
S4A_690430825	4A	690430825	S4A_690430825	gape date	$\mathbf T$	$\mathbf C$	intergenic_region	MODIFIER	TraesCS4A02G419600-
									TraesCS4A02G419700
S4A_731097948	4A	731097948	S4A_731097948	gape date	$\mathbf C$	T	synonymous_variant	LOW	No gene identified in
									the 200 kb window
S5A_18653369	5A	18653369	S5A_18653369	gape date	${\bf G}$	A	intergenic_region	MODIFIER	TraesCS5A02G022700-
									TraesCS5A02G022800
S5A_18653383	5A	18653383	S5A_18653383	gape date	\mathbf{A}	G	intergenic_region	MODIFIER	TraesCS5A02G022700-
									TraesCS5A02G022800
S5A_18653391	5A	18653391	S5A_18653391	gape date	$\mathbf T$	$\mathbf C$	intergenic_region	MODIFIER	TraesCS5A02G022700-
									TraesCS5A02G022800
S6A_3505092	6A	3505092	S6A_3505092	gape date	$\mathbf G$	A	intergenic_region	MODIFIER	TraesCS6A02G008400-
									TraesCS6A02G008500
S6A_3505120	6A	3505120	S6A_3505120	gape date	${\bf G}$	\mathbf{A}	intergenic_region	MODIFIER	TraesCS6A02G008400-
									TraesCS6A02G008500
S6B_137355745	6 _B	137355745	S6B_137355745	gape date	A	$\mathbf G$	intergenic_region	MODIFIER	TraesCS6B02G139900-
									TraesCS6B02G140000
S6B 720193972	6 _B	720193972	S6B 720193972	gape date	T	A	upstream_gene_variant	MODIFIER	No gene identified in
									the 200 kb window

Table 6: Annotated candidate genes identified in *SnpEff* **using the MTAs found for all female floral traits**

SNP	Chr	Position bp	P .value	LOD	MAF	R square of model with SNP	PVE $($ %)	Gene	Trait
S ₂ D 10870835	2D	10870835	0.00029	3.53	0.38	0.16	0.04	TraesCS2D02G024600	gape score
S ₂ D 10870844	2D	10870844	0.00029	3.53	0.38	0.16	0.67	TraesCS2D02G024600	gape score
S ₃ A 705230542	3A	705230542	0.00049	3.31	0.07	0.15	.26	TraesCS3A02G474000	gape score
S3B 815282615	3B	815282615	0.00098	3.01	0.11	0.14	1.12	TraesCS3B02G590100	CHA
									damage

Table 7: Most promising candidate genes for female floral traits determined by their location in the missense genomic region

Figure 1: Ideal parents for hybrid wheat. A is an ideal female plant with florets widely open, receptive stigmas and male sterile. B. is an ideal male plant with open florets and anthers extruding out of the floret and producing pollen.

Figure 2: Hybrid Crossing Block Design where the female is surrounded by a male on both sides.

Figure 3: Female floral traits measured in the phenotypic evaluation. The gape date is the Julian date when the whole plot reached maximum gaping, gape score is the opening of the florets at gape date in a 1-9 scale where 1 denoted the least gaping, and 9 denoted widely open florets, and CHA damage is the level of phytotoxicity of the plant after emasculated with CHA, measured in a 1-9 scale where 1 denoted no visible head damage and 9 denoted heads significant injuries measured in this study (Stoll., 2019).

Figure 4: Distributions of the best linear unbiased prediction (BLUPs) of gape date showing wide variation of gape date (144-147)

Figure 5: Distributions of the best linear unbiased prediction (BLUPs) of gape score. It is considered as a superior gape score the values >6

Figure 6: Distributions of the best linear unbiased prediction (BLUPs) of CHA damage. A line is considered as tolerant to CHA damage when values are <5

Figure 7: The most important three first principal components based on percentage of variation explained. The plot is showing the clustering of the female lines based on their similarity. Red dots represent Nebraska lines and Black dots represent Texas lines.

Figure 8: Eigen values plot of the first ten principal components

Figure 9: Manhattan plot of 20 MTA found in GWAS for gape date using a threshold of significance of P<0.001 (−log10(P) ≥ 3.0)

Gape Date

Chromosome

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Figure 10: Manhattan plot of 33 MTA found in GWAS for gape score using a threshold of significance of P<0.001 (−log10(P) ≥ 3.0)

Figure 11: Manhattan plot of 20 MTA found in GWAS for CHA Damage using a threshold of significance of P<0.001 (−log10(P) ≥ 3.0)

Chromosome

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Figure 12: Q-Q plots for gape date, gape score, and CHA damageMLM.gape_dateBlup

