

IDENTIFICATION AND VALIDATION OF A NEW SOURCE OF LOW GRAIN CADMIUM  
ACCUMULATION IN DURUM WHEAT (*TRITICUM TURGIDUM* L. SUBSP. DURUM  
(DEFS.))

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**Title**

Identification and Validation of A New Source of Low Grain Cadmium  
Accumulation In Durum wheat (*Triticum turgidum* L. subsp. durum (Dfs.))

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## ABSTRACT

Cadmium (Cd) is a toxic heavy metal with no known biological function. The maximum level of Cd concentration allowed in the international market for wheat grain is 0.2 mg kg<sup>-1</sup>. Higher Cd levels in durum wheat (*Triticum turgidum* L. var. *durum* Desf) may threaten its export. To develop new durum wheat cultivars low in Cd uptake and speed up the selection process in breeding programs, this study attempted to identify SNP(s) associated with a low Cd uptake in the durum experimental line D041735. D041735 was developed from a cross between hexaploid (Sumai 3) and durum wheat by NDSU breeding program and has consistently shown low grain Cd levels. Therefore, this study sought 1) to identify SNP marker(s) tightly linked to Cd uptake and genetic dissection of the grain Cd content in a recombinant inbred line mapping population derived from D041735 and Divide (a high Cd accumulator cultivar) using wheat 90k SNP chips and 2) to test for alleles from detected Cd-linked markers among three sources of low Cd accumulators, including Strongfield, Haurani, and D041735. The QTL analysis performed in this study identified only a single major QTL for Cd uptake on chromosome arm 5BL. The QTL was detected in a 0.3 cM interval flanked by SNP markers RAC875\_c20785\_1219 and Kukri\_c66357\_357. Validation results using these flanking markers initially suggested the existence of a different gene or allele for low Cd uptake in the D041735 line as a new source for the durum breeding program at NDSU. The BLAST analysis of these flanking markers suggested the Aluminum Induced Protein Like Protein and heavy metal transporter ATPase 3 as candidate genes for the major QTL. Allelism testing revealed that the identified QTL in this study is novel and not the previously mapped QTL *Cdu1* on 5BL. This study therefore confirmed that the D041735 experimental line is a novel source of low Cd uptake in durum wheat germplasms, where the major QTL is most likely introduced from hexaploid wheat.

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## **DEDICATION**

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## LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

bp.....	Base Pair
CAPs.....	Cleaved Amplified Polymorphic Site
Cd.....	Cadmium
Cdu1.....	Cadmium Uptake Gene
CIM.....	Composite Interval Mapping
CV.....	Coefficient of Variation
DArT.....	Diversity Arrays Technology
ESM.....	Express Site Marker
EST.....	Expressed Sequence Tag
KASPar.....	Kompetitive Allele Specific PCR
LOD.....	Logarithm of the Odds
LSD.....	Least Significant Differences
MAS.....	Marker Assisted Selection
PCR.....	Polymerase Chain Reaction
QTL.....	Quantitative Trait Loci
RAPD.....	Random Amplification Polymorphism DNA
RILs.....	Recombinant Inbred Lines
SNP.....	Single Nucleotide Polymorphism
STS.....	Sequence Tagged Site

## INTRODUCTION

This dissertation is presented in four chapters. In Chapter 1, different characteristics of durum wheat, features of Cadmium (Cd) in the soil and plants, and breeding approaches for improvement of grain Cd content in wheat are reviewed. In Chapter 2, the methods and results for detecting QTL(s) associated with Cd uptake in wheat are explained, leading to the suggestion to perform a diagnostic test of alleles associated with Cd uptake. Chapter 3 explains this step, including a discussion of the methodology employed and the test results. Chapters 2 and 3 both discuss how this study ultimately identified a new source for Cd uptake in wheat. Finally, Chapter 4 provides the general conclusions and recommendations for the application of the findings of this study in durum wheat breeding programs.

## CHAPTER 1. LITERATURE REVIEW

### 1.1. Introduction

This chapter reviews different aspects of durum wheat, from its taxonomy to its molecular characteristics. The studies that detected significant QTLs in durum wheat demonstrate how marker-assistant selection (MAS) is becoming an important approach in durum breeding programs. Since this study focuses on durum wheat with a low level of grain Cd, the review was directed to important features of Cd in soil and plants generally, but with an emphasis on durum wheat. An overview of breeding efforts to improve grain Cd demonstrates part of the approach used in this study.

### 1.2. Durum Wheat

Durum wheat is a member of the *Poaceae* (grasses) family, which evolved about 70 million years ago, (Kellogg, 2001). Based on the morphological characteristics of grass structures, the physiology, cytology, anatomy, genomics, and proteomics studies, 11,000 species have been classified into this family (Peterson, 2003). The taxonomic studies of *Poaceae* classify 12 subfamilies within the grass family, consisting of 50 tribes and 81 subtribes (Peterson, 2003). The major sub-family of the 12 of which the genus *Triticum* is a member is known as *Pooideae* (Inda et al. 2008). Durum wheat in turn belongs to the genus *Triticum* and the species *turgidum*. About 300,000 to 500,000 year ago, the hybridization and subsequent polyploidization between *Triticum urartu* ( $2n = 2x = 14$ ), and *Aegilops speltoides* ( $2n = 2x = 14$ ) led to the formation of emmer wheat (*T. dicoccoides*,  $2n = 4x = 28$ , genome A<sup>u</sup>A<sup>u</sup>BB). The A<sup>u</sup>A<sup>u</sup> genome ancestor descended from the genus *T. urartu* and the B genome from *Ae. speltoides* (Dvorak and Akhunov, 2005). *Aegilops* is the most closely related genus to *Triticum* and played an important role in the evolution of durum wheat. Kilian et al. (2011) identified *Aegilops* as the “largest part

of the secondary gene pool of wheat.” Emmer wheat was planted by humans 10,000 years ago, and unconscious selections over the years resulted in cultivated emmer. Mutations slowly modified cultivated emmer into a free-threshing allotetraploid species with  $2n = 4x = 28$ , known as *Triticum turgidum* L. subsp. durum (Desf.) Husn (Peng et al., 2011).

A phylogenetic relationship study by Petersen et al. (2006), presented strong evidence that *T. urartu* and *Ae. speltooides* are progenitors of the A<sup>u</sup> and B genomes in durum wheat, respectively. Different studies have shown that the B genome is more variable than the A genome (Wendel, 2000). This suggests that the B genome has a higher modification rate in polyploidy wheat (Petersen et al., 2006).

### **1.2.1. The Domestication of Durum**

The main qualitative traits of wheat studied in domestication research are brittle rachis (Br/br), tough glume (Tg/tg), and free-threshing (Q/q) (Gill et al., 2006, Peng et al., 2011). Studies show that these characters are the most obvious difference between wild type of wheat and durum wheat which make a distinct difference in seed dispersal mechanism as well (Elbaum et al., 2007, and Tzarfati et al., 2013). Important quantitative traits from domestication point of view are seed size, flowering time and grain yield (Peng et al., 2011).

### **1.2.2. Dissemination of the Domesticated Lines**

Feldman and Kislev (2007) collected evidence that dated the human use of the wild emmer (*T. dicoccoides*,  $2n = 4x = 28$ , genome A<sup>u</sup>A<sup>u</sup>BB) to 19,000 years ago in the southwestern area by the Sea of Galilee in Israel and in many locations in the Fertile Crescent (a crescent-shaped mountainous area that covers parts of the Zagros Mountains in southwestern Iran, the Tigris-Euphrates delta in northern Iraq, southeastern Turkey, south western Syria near the Mediterranean Sea and Israel, and Jordan). This race was then cultivated 10,000 years before



present. Many natural hybridizations, spontaneous mutations, and human selections resulted in the domesticated emmer race. Dvorak et al. (2011) believe that cultivated emmer (*T. dicoccum*) was possibly domesticated in southeastern Turkey 9,000 to 7,500 years ago, as free-threshing types of seed derived from cultivated emmer had been discovered by that time, resulting in domesticated tetraploids. According to Feldman and Kislev (2007), durum wheat was domesticated in an area that coincided with the distribution area of wild emmer, specifically the southwestern part of the Fertile Crescent (the Levant area of the Near East and parts of the Ethiopian Hilltops). According to the archaeological record, the production of durum wheat centered in parts of the Middle East, North Africa, the European regions bordering the Mediterranean, the former Soviet Union, and the Great Plains of India as durum wheat is better suited to semi-arid climates (Elias and Manthey, 2005). In the United States, western parts of North Dakota and eastern Montana, and, in Canada, southern parts of Saskatchewan, Manitoba, and Alberta are growing good quality of durum wheat.

### **1.2.3. Durum Wheat in the United States**

According to Joppa and Williams (1988), in 1850, four varieties of durum wheat were introduced in the United States: Algerian Flint, Arnautka, Syrian Spring, and Turkish Flint. Twenty years later, durum wheat from Nicaragua was introduced in Texas. Until 1894, durum cultivation was not successful in the United States because of durum wheat's low adaptation to this area. However, from 1910 to 1920, agronomic studies on over 1,000 durum varieties brought from all over the world resulted in the release of new durum varieties adapted for the United States. Although these varieties were well adapted to the North American climate, some constraints existed, including a lack of resistance to stem rust and a general poor seed quality. To address these constraints, many breeding efforts were initiated from 1920 to 1940. Since then,

different durum breeding programs have attempted to improve or develop such traits as disease resistance, semi-dwarfism, and a high gluten content. Molecular genetic techniques also have been integrated into traditional breeding approaches to improve productivity and other traits. Identifying different molecular markers, explained later in this chapter, has played an important role in durum wheat diversity studies. Montana and North Dakota are the leading producers of durum wheat in the United States. According to the NASS (National Agricultural Statistics Service, 2015), 1.95 million acres of durum wheat production was concentrated in the United States, with approximately 56% of this acreage in North Dakota.

#### **1.2.4. Molecular Characterization of Durum Wheat**

Durum wheat is an allotetraploid crop with 28 chromosomes and a genome size of 13,000 Mbp (Kubaláková et al., 2005). Numerous molecular maps have been created, some using multiple classes of molecular markers. The diversity of the markers used indicates that several techniques can be employed to identify the locations of durum wheat genes. The newest and most extensive consensus map of durum wheat was constructed by Maccaferri et al. (2015). This map harbors 26,626 Single Nucleotide Polymorphisms (SNPs) and 791 Simple Sequence Repeats (SSRs) on the 2,631 cM map length of all 14 durum wheat chromosomes and has been used for many quantitative/qualitative trait loci (QTL) studies of durum wheat, including this study. The map shows fewer regions with recombination suppression than that for bread wheat (*T. aestivum* L.), which makes it suitable for mapping on the A and B genomes of durum wheat.

There are several important QTL mapping studies of durum wheat. The association mapping study conducted by Reimer et al. (2008) for yellow pigmentation used consensus map of SSR markers to localize a QTL close to phytoene synthase gene, *Psy1-b1*, on the distal end of chromosome arm 7BL. This gene is a potential candidate gene for yellow pigmentation. In a

study of leaf rust resistance, a major QTL was mapped on the distal region of chromosome 7BL using SSR and Diversity Arrays Technology (DArT) markers (Maccaferri et al., 2008). Major QTLs for pasta color on chromosomes 1B, 4B, 6A, 7A, and 7B were identified by a composite microsatellite and SNP map of durum wheat. The 7B QTL for pasta color was also associated with the Phytoene synthase 1 (*Psy-B1*) locus, which suggested a difference in pigment biosynthesis (Zhang et al., 2008). Different studies have mapped a QTL associated with the low Cd uptake gene (*Cdu1*) on the long arm of chromosome 5B using 9K SNPs, SSRs, RAPD (Random Amplified Polymorphic DNA) and DArT (AbuHammad et al., 2016; Knox et al., 2009; Penner et al., 1995; Pozniak et al., 2012). Several wheat ESM developed from Expressed Sequences Tags (EST) have allowed a finer mapping of the *Cdu1* region (Wiebe et al., 2010). Studies show that a gene responsible for insensitivity to the toxin *Ptr ToxA* (*Tsn1*) caused by some *Pyrenophora tritici-repentis* races is located on the 5BL in the deletion bin 0.75-0.76 (Faris et al., 1996, and Faris et al., 2010). Lu et al. (2006) identified a SSR marker (*Xfcp2*) tightly linked to *Tsn1*, and Knox et al. (2009) showed that this region is mapped approximately 12 cM proximal from the Cd uptake gene (*Cdu1*). A major QTL for the vernalization locus *Vrn- 53 B1* mapped on the 5BL chromosome also showed a significant linkage with the *Cdu1* proximal position (Iwaki et al., 2002, and Wiebe et al., 2010). Several wheat Expressed Sequences Tags (EST) have been localized to the long arm of 5B (Faris et al., 2000, and Qi et al., 2004). These ESTs were used for further marker development to obtain a fine map of chromosome 5B.

The most important point to remember from these studies is that the parents are selected based on the trait(s) under study. For example, Maccaferri et al. (2008) chose cultivars Colosseo and Lloyd as the parents in a stem rust experiment since they differed in susceptibility to a type of rust normally found in Italy. For a study of QTLs associated with protein content, double

haploid lines were developed from a cross between Strongfield and DT 695 because Strongfield had an average 1.4% higher grain protein concentration than the other parent (Suprayogi et al. 2009). In an experiment conducted by Kumar et al. (2013), a segregating population from a cross between high gluten (Maier) and low gluten (Rugby) durum cultivars resulted in identification of a major QTL for gluten strength on chromosome 1B that explained approximately 93% of the variation. The association mapping study on yellow pigmentation mentioned earlier used 93 different accessions collected from all over the world (Reimer et al., 2008). One of the cultivars with several excellent pasta quality characteristics, but a high Cd uptake, is Kofa from the United States. Many different molecular mapping studies have used Kofa as one of the parental lines. In two of the important studies of low Cd uptake genes in durum wheat, a double haploid population from a cross between Kofa and W926226D3 (a low Cd accumulator) was used to study mapping of a major gene for this trait (Knox et al., 2009 and Wiebe et al., 2010). According to Clarke et al. (2005), the primary source of the low Cd phenotype Nile was obtained from the International Centre for Agricultural Research in the Dry Areas, Syria.

The breeding objectives of the NDSU durum breeding program have changed over time, necessitating a continuous introgression of new material. After resolving the main issues related to rust epidemics in the late 1950s, breeders had more freedom to select for other traits of interest in the 1960s and 70s. Recently, the molecular characterization of these traits has been more focused. A recent concern of durum breeders in North America is selecting for low Cd uptake lines. Knox et al. (2009) laid the groundwork for current research in this area by describing the chromosomal location of *Cdu1* using a saturated microsatellite map, resulting in incorporation of this low Cd gene into durum breeding programs in the United States. In a recent study by AbuHammad et al. (2016) at NDSU, Haurani (low Cd source) and Granola (high Cd source)

were used to develop a bi-parental population for genetic mapping of SNPs linked to the *Cdul* gene. The detected marker (wsnp\_Ex\_c1343\_2570756) has been shown to be as useful as the RAPD marker linked to the low Cd uptake, *Cdul*, developed by Penner et al. (1995) for the NDSU breeding program (Salsman, 2016).

### **1.3. Cadmium**

Cadmium (Cd) is a toxic heavy metal with an atomic number of 48 that usually presents in an oxidation state of +2 (less exists in the +1 state); it has no known biological function (Cotton et al., 1999). Cd exists extensively in nature, with an average content of 0.2 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> in the geosphere (Vig et al., 2003). It is accumulated to comestible parts of plants and moves up the food chain to humans primarily through consumption of cereals and vegetables. Under environmental conditions that cause accumulation of Cd in the soil, the risk of Cd exposure through consuming foods grown in that soil is increasing. High levels of Cd in food crops is a major concern because of the negative effects of Cd consumption on health. This nephrotoxic chemical primarily affects the kidneys in the human body. As Cd accumulates in the skeletal system, it interferes with the metabolism of calcium, resulting in bone demineralization and the formation of kidney stones (Kazantzis, 2004). Beyersmann and Hechtenberg (1997) found that chromosomal aberrations within the cell are caused by Cd binding to and breaking DNA strands. A study by Jin et al. (2003) showed that Cd can cause genome mutability by inhibiting DNA mismatch repair, thereby enhancing the likelihood of developing different types of cancers. Other studies have found an association between Cd concentration in the urine and breast cancer (Gallagher et al., 2010) and modifications of gene expression at the cellular level (Luparello et al., 2011).

The high level of Cd concentration is a food safety issue that affects durum wheat breeding programs around the world. Semolina from durum wheat is the main ingredient used in pasta production. In 2002, durum wheat was found to have high levels of Cd in northern states in the United States and in Canada. The maximum level of Cd concentration for wheat grains allowed to trade in international markets is 0.2 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> (0.2 ppm) (Codex Alimentarius Commission, 2011). North Dakota produces 56% of the U.S. durum crop (National Agricultural Statistics Service, 2015). Since high Cd may threaten the export market for durum wheat, it is important to reduce its Cd uptake to meet international trade regulations. Significant cultivar variations for Cd uptake have been detected in various crops, including durum wheat (Beyersmann and Hechtenberg, 1997; Hinsley et al., 1978; and McLaughlin et al., 2000). And, many breeding programs have been established around the world to develop and release cultivars low in Cd accumulation.

### **1.3.1. Cd Accumulation in Soil and Plants**

The main source of Cd uptake for plants is the soil. Mass flow, diffusion, and interception are three possible systems that transport Cd from the soil to the plant roots (Ingwersen and Streck, 2005). Cd ions can be taken up into the living system of a plant by being sequestered in the root tissue. This Cd later can be translocated to the stem and leaf via the xylem (Benavides et al., 2005; Hart et al., 1998; and Salt et al., 1995) and to the grain, probably via the phloem (Harris and Taylor, 2001; Hart et al., 1998; and Popelka et al., 1996).

#### ***1.3.1.1. Cd in the Soil***

Cd contamination in soils is affected by several soil properties. For example, faster Cd accumulation occurs in soils with a lower pH (Page et al., 1987). Tillage management and large-scale use of super phosphate fertilizers also affect Cd accumulation in the soil (Grant et al.,

2008). However, Gao et al. (2010) showed that tillage practices did not consistently influence Cd concentration in durum wheat. In contrast, nitrogen fertilizers have been shown to increase Cd accumulation in plants by their effects on soil chemistry (Andersson, 1976).

Some studies indicate a correlation between soil attributes and Cd concentration uptake by plants in the field (Wu et al., 2002). Perrier et al. (2016) showed that the concentration of other minerals in the soil can also affect grain Cd accumulation in French durum wheat cultivars; the Cd content had a positive correlation with the concentration of phosphorous (P) < Manganese (Mn) < zinc (Z). These durum cultivars, however, did not show any significant correlation between Cd content and Iron (Fe) or Copper (Cu) content. Two Canadian cultivars, Kyle and Strongfield, also showed the same relationships with these other minerals in their experiment (Perrier et al., 2016). However, another study indicated that Cd and Zn persuaded changes in the Cu/Mn accumulation in the roots of rice (Yoshihara, Goto, et al., 2010).

#### ***1.3.1.2. Cd in Plants***

Cd uptake and accumulation have been shown to differ among plant species (Grant et al., 1998, and Özturket al., 2003) and cultivars (Clarke et al., 2002; Dunbar et al. 2003; and Özturk et al., 2003). The dose of Cd toxicity in plants is affected by mechanisms of root uptake and shoot transport of Cd (Dunbar et al., 2003, and Özturk et al., 2003). Harris and Taylor (2004) clearly proved that differences between a pair of near-isogenic durum lines for grain Cd accumulation in shoots are solely due to differences in root-to-shoot Cd translocation and unrelated to whole plant Cd accumulation. In their study, high and low grain Cd lines had a similar whole Cd accumulation. This result coincides with results of another study, this time with rice, which showed that whole plant Cd was mainly accumulated in the roots in the low Cd rice grains (Ueno et al., 2009). It is possible that the same genetic mechanism is governing the low

Cd uptake in both rice and durum since the phenotypic variation in the Cd level of shoots and grains in different varieties in both studies was caused by the physiological process translocating Cd from the root to the shoot regardless of the amount of Cd accumulated by the root from the soil. The physiological studies suggest that two mechanisms most likely cause a low level of Cd to accumulate in the edible parts of most plants. In the first, plant root cell walls can effectively minimize the Cd uptake into the root cells from the soil (Ovečka and Takáč, 2014). In the second and more likely mechanism, called the Cd-chelating pathway, Cd-binding proteins, such as phytochelatins or metallothionins, in the root cells of some plants detoxify the Cd toxicity so that only a low level of Cd is translocated into the vegetative parts of the plant. This ability to detoxify the Cd toxicity is different between and within plant species (Grant et al., 1998; Hall, 2002; and Sugiyama et al., 2007). This mechanism was reported as a possible method for decreasing Cd levels in durum wheat (Harris and Taylor, 2013), as well in a soybean cultivar, Enrei (Ahsan et al., 2012), and in rice, where, a P1B-ATPase protein coded by the *OsHMA3* gene was found to translocate Cd from the cytosol to the vacuole as Cd is prevented from being translocated to the shoot (Miyadate et al., 2011, and Ueno et al., 2010). Several different studies in *Arabidopsis* demonstrated that the ATP-binding cassette transporters and P1B-ATPases were related to low Cd uptake (Kim et al., 2007, and Wojas et al., 2009). However, a consistent pathway for Cd accumulation in durum grain has not yet been established. Wiebe et al. (2010) presented a hypothesis regarding the low Cd uptake in durum wheat, which states that in root tissue, a functional transporter or chelator prevents Cd translocation to shoots by sequestration of Cd into chemical complexes or physical compartments, thereby reducing the Cd availability for loading into the xylem and phloem. More studies have discussed the role of ABC transporters, which transport Cd-glutathione or Cd-phytochletain complex into the vacuole and consequently



limit Cd mobilization to the grain (Klein et al., 2006; Stolt et al., 2003; and Wojas et al., 2009). In one study, a gene coding a phytochelatins protein (*PCS2*) was reported on chromosome 5B in wheat (Yan et al., 2003), and it has been shown that this gene is tightly linked to *Xwg644*, which codes for a half-sized ABC transporter (Dubcovsky et al., 2001). Wiebe et al. (2010) have mapped a *Cdu1* close to *PCS2*, which suggests *PCS2* could be a candidate gene because of its potential role in chelating Cd and sequestering it into the vacuole.

To conclude, by selecting cultivars highly capable of repressing the root uptake and shoot transport of Cd, the effects of Cd toxicity can be reduced in crop plants (Özturket al., 2003).

### **1.3.2. Genetic Inheritance of Low Cd Uptake**

Genetic variation for grain Cd accumulation was studied in many crops, including durum wheat, rice, oats, sunflower, flax, and soybeans (Andersen and Hansen, 1984; Cieśliński et al., 1996; Ishikawa et al., 2005; Kobori et al., 2011; Penner et al., 1995; and Tanhuanpää et al., 2007). Clarke et al. (1997) have shown that genetic inheritance of the low Cd trait in durum wheat is controlled by a single gene. Hexaploid wheat cultivars commonly accumulate low Cd in their grains compared with durum wheat grains (Zook et al., 1970). However, considering the complexity of Cd accumulation in grain, from absorption to sequestration to translation, it is questionable that only one gene contributes to the genetic differences among grains with a low Cd uptake. Nevertheless, to date, only one to three genes have been reported to govern Cd content in most crops. For example, Ishikawa et al. (2005) identified three QTL in rice for grain Cd content on chromosomes 3, 6, and 8, though more recently, a single QTL on chromosome 7 of rice has been reported for regulation of Cd. Only one major QTL in soybeans has been identified (Benitez, Hajika, et al., 2010, and Jegadeesan, Yu, et al., 2010). In durum wheat, Knox et al. (2009) reported a major QTL for low grain Cd content on chromosome 5B, but as

mentioned earlier, many studies have shown an association among some transporter proteins with the phenotypic variation of this trait, such as P1B-ATPase, *OsNRAMP1* (an iron transporter), *OsZIP8* (a Cadmium/zinc transporter), and ABC transporters (Miyadate et al., 2011; Ueno et al., 2010; Wojas et al., 2009 and Yan et al., 2003); the genes controlling these transporters should be taken into consideration in map-based cloning studies.

#### **1.4. Plant Breeding Approach to Cd Accumulation Reduction**

Because a genetic system is the likely mechanism to limit Cd translocation from the roots to the shoots, screening genotypes at the early stages to identify plants carrying the low Cd allele with a lower Cd concentration in the leaves and grain (Harris and Taylor, 2004) might be a good solution for reducing the level of Cd in our diet. Previous research demonstrated that a single dominant gene, *Cdu1*, confers the low grain Cd phenotype (Clarke et al., 1997), which is localized on chromosome arm 5BL (Knox et al., 2009). Different cultivars in durum wheat show genotypic variation in Cd accumulation in the grain (Van der Vliet et al., 2007). This genetic diversity provides an opportunity to apply plant breeding to develop cultivars with a low Cd uptake that possess excellent agronomic and quality traits and disease resistance. However, for plant breeding programs to find low-Cd phenotypes through chemical analysis of the grains is expensive. The ability to identify and select for genetic differences in Cd concentration at an early growth stage would save time and cost to the breeding program (Grant et al., 2008). One of the most common and practical techniques for selecting genes with Mendelian heritability, such as *Cdu1* is MAS, is an indirect selection method where a trait of interest is selected based on markers (morphological, biochemical, or a DNA/RNA variation) that are tightly linked to the gene or quantitative trait locus (QTL) of interest (Bernardo, 1998). In this approach, breeders can select for desirable traits in early segregating generations at the seedling stage. Likewise,

selection of two or more markers in the region where these traits might also be tightly linked with the trait of interest can lead to a fast and easy selection for both loci. As explained earlier in this chapter, the *Tns1* gene that conditions sensitivity to *Ptr ToxA* (Faris et al., 1996) is widely known to be linked with the *Cdu1* gene in durum wheat. Therefore, a simultaneous selection for both loci can be obtained by identifying markers in the region of *TNI/Cdu1*. This method will save time, resources, and energy that can be channeled to develop large segregating population for several generations and estimate the parameters appropriate for direct selection.

#### **1.4.1. Use of Marker Assisted Selection (MAS) for Reducing Cd Concentration**

MAS may provide an effective selection tool for low Cd uptake genotypes. The main requirement for such a selection strategy is the identification of a suitable marker linked to a gene controlling Cd uptake. The five considerations for evaluating a valuable marker for a breeding program are 1) the recombination between the marker and target loci should preferably be less than 5 cM genetic distance 2) the high DNA quantity and quality of the marker 3) a high-throughput simple and quick procedure 4) the marker should be highly polymorphic in breeding material, and 5) the cost of the marker (Collard and Mackill, 2008). The general steps of a MAS technique are:

##### ***(i) Develop a Mapping Population***

A mapping population is a population in which recombination of parental alleles can be traced. The type and size of the mapping population depends on the type of marker system, traits to be mapped, the availability of time, and the objective of the mapping project. As explained earlier in this chapter, crossing parents should differ in the traits of interest to facilitate linkage mapping and segregation analysis.

The mapping population can be developed from F<sub>2</sub> and testcross populations derived from crossing parents showing polymorphism for the traits desired for mapping. A major disadvantage of such populations is that they are only temporary and cannot be repeated or grown again. Recombinant Inbred Line (RILs) populations, and double haploid method, can overcome this problem since they can be regrown repeatedly. RILs also can be developed from a Single Seed Descent (SSD) propagation. Individual plants from an F<sub>2</sub> population are harvested and continued through several generations (often up to the F<sub>6</sub>) until the lines are homozygous. Thenceforth, each line is harvested in bulk and maintained separately. The research lines from these populations can be scored for various molecular markers and traits. Replicated trials across space and time will allow for accurate characterization of these lines, especially in terms of quantitatively inherited traits such as yield.

***(ii) Identification of Molecular Marker(s) for Genotyping the Mapping Population***

The most common molecular markers used in genomic mapping programs are restriction fragment length polymorphisms (RFLP), randomly amplified polymorphic DNA (RAPD), simple sequence repeats (SSR) or microsatellites, and amplified fragment length polymorphisms (AFLP). Currently, Single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) markers seem to be more applicable than other markers due to their high frequency throughout a genome. However, many of these markers need to be modified to be applicable in breeding programs seeking greater efficiency and a reduced cost. Modified markers are called “breeder-friendly markers.” RAPD markers generally are converted to the sequence characterized amplified region (SCAR) marker, which is more stable (Dnyaneshwar et al., 2006, and Rajesh et al., 2013), and analysis gets less tedious by using a simple PCR analysis. The PCR primers are designed from the sequence of the amplicon of RAPD (Kumla et al., 2012, and Rajesh et al., 2013). For example, Knox et al.

(2009) developed the SCAR-OPC20 (*ScOPC20*) marker from the RAPD- OPC20 marker identified by Penner et al. (1995) to map their Cd segregated population. Cleaved Amplified Sequences (CAPs) are another user-friendly marker commonly derived from an RFLPs or from markers developed from an Expressed Sequenced Target (EST) or Sequence Site Target (SST). The basic principal is to convert an amplified band that does not show variation into a polymorphic band. Wiebe et al. (2010) localized a CAPs marker (*Xusw47*) for wheat in a 0.14 cM interval of the *Cdu1* gene 5 cM apart from the *ScOPC20* marker on 5BL. In a collinearity study of this chromosomal region with rice (*Oryza sativa* L.) and Brachypodium, *Xusw47* with some other CAPs derived from ESMs and STS markers plus newly mapped SSRs used to fine map the *Cdu1* region on chromosome 5B. The efficiency of *Xusw47* was validated by Zimmerl et al. (2014).

Pozniak et al. (2012) found five DArT (diversity arrays technology) markers linked with phenotypic grain Cd concentration. Three of these markers, including *wPt-1733*, *wPt-2453* and *wPt-9300*, showed similar effects and proportions of the phenotypic variance as the *Xusw47* marker and were physically associated with *Cdu-B1*. They suggested that these markers are either detecting the same locus or are closely linked to *Cdu- B1*.

Likewise, breeder-friendly markers derived from SNPs for low Cd uptake genotypes were developed in the durum breeding program at NDSU. The KASPar (Kompetitive AlleleSpecific PCR) genotyping assay was derived from the SNP marker (Ex\_c1343\_2570756) associated with the major QTL for low Cd uptake on 5BL (AbuHammad et al., 2016).

### ***(iii) Linkage Mapping of Markers and QTL Analysis***

Linkages analyses are statistical methods used to estimate the functionality relation of genes to their location on chromosomes (Gupta et al., 2005). Different methods for Linkages

analyses in plants have been described in various publications (Flint-Garcia et al., 2003, and Gaut and Long, 2003).

It is not possible to determine linkages between large numbers of markers manually, but some computer software programs have this capability. The calculation is based on using odds ratios (the ratio of linkage versus no linkage) defined as the logarithm of the ratio and called a logarithm of odds (LOD) value or LOD score (Risch, 1992). In linkage maps, LOD scores greater than three are usually used for developing the linkage maps. If this value is equal to three between two markers, the probability of linkage will be 1,000 times more likely than no linkage (1,000:1) (Collard and Mackill, 2008). Mapmaker/EXP, MapManager QTX, JoinMap, and Mapdisto are common software programs used for constructing linkage maps.

To detect an association between phenotype data and the genotype of markers in a linkage map, several methods of QTL analysis can be performed (Collard and Mackill, 2008). For examples, single-marker analysis, which analyzes only a single marker, is the simplest method. In this method, different statistical analyses may be used, such as t-tests, analysis of variance (ANOVA), and linear regression. The outcomes from this method of analysis show the linkage group covering the markers, probability values, and the percentage of phenotypic variation. Another method, simple interval mapping (SIM), tests for the existence of QTL between each pair of adjacent markers along chromosomes. SIM is statistically more powerful than single-marker analysis. Finally, composite interval mapping (CIM) combines interval mapping with linear regression. It is more accurate and effective at mapping QTLs. The most common software programs for QTL analysis are QTL Cartographer, QTL MapManager, Qgene, IciMapping, QTX, and PLABQTL.

In the latest study on targeted mapping of *Cdul*, Weibe et al. (2010), revealed an accurate chromosomal position for the *Cdul* gene on chromosome 5B in the 0.14 cM interval that explained 80% of phenotypic variation for low Cd uptake. They suggested that the map be used for a map-based cloning of the *Cdul* gene.

Although the detected QTL was mapped using the accurate fine mapping approach, to date, no coding sequence for the *Cdul* gene in durum wheat has been reported or published; this means the possibility for detecting tighter markers linked to the *Cd* uptake gene should not be ruled out, especially if a new source of this phenotype in a durum breeding program is introduced. New sources for a phenotype of interest are the most important part of generating diversity and crop improvement in a breeding program as they can reveal the existence of new genes for the same phenotype. Such studies are always helpful for a better understanding of the molecular characteristics of a functional gene.

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## CHAPTER 2. GENETIC MAPPING OF A NEW SINGLE NUCLEOTIDE POLYMORPHISM (SNP) TIGHTLY ASSOCIATED WITH LOW CADMIUM UPTAKE IN DURUM WHEAT (*TRITICUM TURGIDUM* L.)

### 2.1. Abstract

Cadmium (Cd) is a toxic heavy metal with no known biological function. The maximum level of Cd concentration allowed in the international market for wheat grain is 0.2 mg kg<sup>-1</sup>. Higher Cd levels in durum wheat (*Triticum turgidum* L. var. *durum* Desf) may threaten its export. To develop new durum wheat cultivars low in Cd uptake and speed up the selection process in breeding programs, this study attempted to identify SNP(s) associated with a low Cd uptake in the durum experimental line D041735. The QTL analysis of the grain Cd content in a recombinant inbred line mapping population derived from D041735 and Divide (a high Cd accumulator cultivar) using wheat 90k SNP chips identified only a single major QTL for Cd uptake on chromosome arm 5BL. The QTL was detected in a 0.3 cM interval flanked by SNP markers RAC875\_c20785\_1219 and Kukri\_c66357\_357. The BLAST analysis of these flanking markers suggested the Aluminum Induced Protein Like Protein and heavy metal transporter ATPase 3 as putative candidate genes for the major QTL

### 2.2. Introduction

Accumulation of Cd in soils and edible crops and its transfer to the human diet is a well-known problem around the world. Durum wheat (*Triticum durum* L. var. *durum* Desf.), in particular, accumulates high Cd concentrations relatively easily. Grain harvested in North Dakota has been reported to have Cd levels ranging from 0.025 to 0.359 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> (Knox et al., 2009, and Wu et al., 2002). Developing varieties with a low Cd level is always an important objective of durum wheat breeding programs not only for the domestic market, but also for the



export market, as high Cd levels may threaten the wheat's exportability. Unfortunately, phenotyping the Cd content in seeds is costly and time consuming. After Penner et al. (1995) and Knox et al. (2009) identified molecular markers associated with this trait on chromosome 5BL, the use of genomic tools became a practical and efficient approach for developing new cultivars with a low Cd content in durum wheat. Durum cultivars containing the low Cd uptake gene on this chromosome concentrate 50% less Cd in their seeds (Randhawa et al., 2013). Recently, the use of SNP array became a powerful genetic tool for identifying marker-trait association in mapping studies. According to Pootakham et al. (2015), depending on the species, the frequency of SNPs that occur in the plant genome is one per~100-500 bp. Advances in high throughput sequencing led to the development of 90K SNP wheat chip, which provides a large database of marker information (Wang et al., 2014). Fortunately, Maccaferri et al. (2015) have published the consensus map of the 90K SNP marker in tetraploid wheat. Tightly linked user-friendly markers developed from these SNPs are more effective in molecular wheat breeding due to their speed and cost effectiveness. According to NASS (2015), the economic value of durum wheat production in North Dakota is more than \$329 million per year, making it an especially economically important crop.

As is clear from above, detecting SNP markers for important traits such as Cd uptake and subsequently develop user-friendly markers from these SNPs can ease and speed up the selection progress in durum breeding programs. The recent discovery of linked SNP markers to the Cd accumulation locus has been reported in some North Dakota durum cultivars (AbuHammad et al., 2016). In this study, six SNPs were discovered associated with Cd accumulation on chromosome 5BL using a bi-parental and an association mapping population. The major QTL from the bi-parental population derived from a cross between high CD Grenora (Elias and

Manthey, 2007) and low Cd Haurani explained 54.3% of the phenotypic variation for Cd uptake in this population. The KASP marker developed from the Cd associated SNP (Ex\_c1343\_2570756) was validated in another population from a cross between low Cd Strongfield (Clarke et al., 2005) and high Cd Alkabo (Elias and Manthey, 2007). In this population, it explained 64% of the phenotypic variation. Further validation of the associated markers showed that Ex\_c1343\_2570756 was the most useful marker for tracking the introgression of major CD locus in NDSU's germplasm (Salsman, 2016).

Recently, an experimental line called D041735 was developed in the durum wheat breeding program at NDSU for Fusarium head blight (FHB) caused by *Fusarium graminearum Schwabe* resistance. The line displays a very low Cd uptake phenotype. Because the genetic basis of Cd accumulation in durum wheat is still unclear and has not been well-defined, a phenotype and genotype dissection study on any new sources of diversity in the phenotype of this trait, either from un-adapted or bred sources, can lead to a better understanding of Cd accumulation in durum wheat.

That D041735 is a well-adapted line in North Dakota is of great significance for breeding low Cd genotypes. At present, two sources of low Cd uptake are being used in the durum wheat breeding program at NDSU: the Canadian cultivar Strongfield (Clarke et al., 2005), and the Syrian cultivar Hurrani. Strongfield is adapted to the western part of the North Dakota durum growing region, while Hurrani is un-adapted for this region. Therefore, generating widely adaptive durum wheat with a solid low Cd uptake for the state would mark a great success for the program. Any new source for low Cd uptake could be used to produce high quality durum wheat that meets food safety and exportability requirements.

This chapter covers the first step of dissecting phenotype/genotype association in D041735 to gain an understanding of the genetic basis for low Cd uptake. The objective was to identify the major QTL associated with low Cd uptake in a population derived from a cross between a high Cd cultivar and the low Cd durum experimental line D041735 using a high-density genotyping assay. This genotyping assay enabled the analysis of data across 90K of markers and provides a robust size of genetic variation. Finally, this chapter tests the null hypothesis that a major QTL associated with low Cd uptake exists on chromosome 5B in the population derived from D041735 line.

## **2.3. Material and Methods**

### **2.3.1. Mapping Population**

In this study, a RIL mapping population was developed from a cross between the low Cd uptake line D041735 and the high Cd uptake cultivar Divide. NDSU released Divide was (Elias and Manthey, 2007) as a high yielding cultivar of excellent quality and a moderate level of FHB resistance.

All RIL populations in this study were developed by the single seed descent method. A cross between D041735 and Divide was made in the spring of 2012 in the Lord and Burnham greenhouse at NDSU. F<sub>1</sub> seeds were planted in the fall of 2012, and F<sub>2</sub> seeds were harvested by the end of December 2012. In the spring of 2013, 300 F<sub>2</sub> seeds were planted in the greenhouse. One spike per plant was harvested and planted as F<sub>3</sub> head rows in the summer of 2013 in Langdon, North Dakota. One F<sub>3</sub> spike was harvested from each row. Three F<sub>4</sub> seeds from each spike were planted in pots in the greenhouse in the fall of 2013. These pots were then thinned to one plant per pot after germination and seedling establishment. F<sub>4</sub> spikes were harvested from each plant. F<sub>5</sub> seeds from the harvested F<sub>4</sub> spikes were planted in the spring of 2014 in the

greenhouse in 6 to 8 pots for seed increase. F<sub>4:6</sub> RIL was planted in two replications in preliminary yield trials at two locations (Prosper and Langdon, North Dakota).

A total of 196 individuals, including parents and checks with a high phenotype variation in Cd level were evaluated for Cd and other macro- and micro-elements in seeds. The checks used in this study were low Cd level Strongfield and CDC-Verona (Pozniak, Fox, et al., 2009), and high Cd uptake Carpio (Elias, Manthey, et al., 2015) and Joppa (Elias and Manthey, 2016). A simple lattice design was used to plant the preliminary trials at the two locations. In addition to the Cd phenotyping, data were collected on yield, test weight, kernel weight, plant height, heading date, and lodging for breeding purposes.

### **2.3.2. Phenotyping**

To phenotype the grain Cd content, eight spikes of each genotype were randomly harvested using chromium knives and were threshed using an uncolored metal thresher to prevent any risk of Cd contamination in the samples. Seeds from one spike were kept as a remnant, some of which were later grown in the greenhouse for DNA extraction. The seeds from seven spikes for each genotype were sent to the College of Agriculture and Life Science, Nutrient Analysis Laboratory at Cornell University in Ithaca, New York, to estimate their concentration of Cd and other elements. For this purpose, seeds from each genotype were milled and dried in an oven. Then, 0.5 g of the flour of each genotype was dissolved into a solution consisting of Nitric and Perchloric acids. To break down the flour into its components, the mixture of each sample was placed in a fluorocarbon container and heated. After the containers were sufficiently cooled, each sample was diluted up to 20 ml in volume. Finally, a SW-846 method defined by the Environmental Protection Agency was used to analyze the concentration of Cd and other elements for each sample.

The phenotypic data were analyzed for each location separately using the Statistical Analysis System (2008). Homogeneity of error variances between the two locations were tested by Levene's as well as Brown and Forsythe's homogeneity tests. Analysis of the variance across locations was also performed to determine if there was a significant genotype by location interaction. In the statistical analysis, RILs (genotypes) were considered fixed effects, while locations, replication within locations, block per replication per RIL, and location per RIL were treated as random effects. Means were scored and separated by Fisher's Protected LSD at the 5% level of significance.

### **2.3.3. Genotyping**

#### ***2.3.3.1. Molecular Marker Analysis***

Seeds from each genotype were grown in the greenhouse. Two inches of leaf tissue were collected for each genotype and used for DNA extraction. To avoid DNA contamination between individuals, collection tools were cleaned with ethanol after harvesting each genotype. The leaf tissues were collected in 96-well blocks containing 2.5 mg of silica gel. Samples were then sent to the USDA-ARS Cereal Crop Genotyping Laboratory in Fargo, North Dakota, for molecular analysis. The DNA extraction protocol can be found on the USDA website:

*<http://wheat.pw.usda.gov/GenotypingLabs/fargo.html>*. This protocol is a modification of the original protocol developed by Pallota et al. (2003).

The DNA samples were genotyped using wheat 90k SNP chips (Wang, Wong, et al., 2014) at the same laboratory.

The genotyping data was analyzed using Illumina's GenomStudio Software. When the assay data from several individuals are plotted, distinct patterns emerge. Samples with identical genotypes for an assay locus exhibit similar signal profiles. For diploid organisms, bi-allelic loci

are expected to exhibit three clusters. Each cluster represents one of the three genotypic classes AA, AB, and BB. In an  $F_6$  RIL population, two clusters (AA and BB) are expected for each segregating marker assay. The necessary corrections for each genotype were done manually to make sure all possible errors related to cluster assessment were edited. Moreover, SNPs with a high missing data rate ( $> 20\%$ ) and low allele frequency ( $< 0.4$ ) for any of the parental genotypes were removed. The final genotyping data were exported to an Excel file for constructing the genetic map.

#### ***2.3.3.2. Genetic Linkage Map Construction***

To construct the SNPs linkage map for each chromosome, genotyping data from the GenomeStudio software were exported to an Excel file. Markers were sorted according to parental genotypes. Initially, all monomorphic markers were deleted. The linkage maps were developed using MapMaker 3.0 (Lander and Botstein, 1989) and CartaGene V.1.2.3R (De Givry et al., 2005)). From the final list of polymorphic markers, a total of 5 to 10 markers per chromosome were selected as anchors for developing linkage maps. The markers were selected to represent the length of the chromosome based on a published durum wheat consensus map (Maccaferri et al., 2015). MapMaker was used to generate linkage groups based on a minimum LOD score of 3.0 and a maximum recombination frequency of 50%. The markers in each linkage group were then individually used in CarthaGene to estimate the marker order and genetic distances as described elsewhere (Kumar et al., 2012a, 2012b, and 2016). Kosambi function (Kosambi, 1943) was used to convert recombination frequency into map distances (Centimorgans).

#### **2.3.4. QTL Analysis**

QTL analysis was performed on individual environmental data as well as on the mean data across environments using the Inclusive Composite Interval Mapping (ICIM) method available in software QTL IciMapping V 4.1 (Meng et al., 2015). The statistical method for ICIM is based on an initial step-wise regression followed by a one-dimensional scanning for mapping additive effect and completed by a two-dimensional scanning for mapping epistasis effects. In ICIMAPPING, the markers' unique loci were used for each linkage group. Markers for a linkage group were defined by the cumulative distance. A permutation test was used to determine the threshold LOD value for asserting significant additive QTL or epistatic QTL.

#### **2.3.5. KASPar Assay Development for Validation Testing**

To successfully apply the MAS approach for breeding programs, it is essential to convert trait-associated markers to the breeder-friendly markers. In this study, the sequences of two flanking SNPs associated with a major QTL for Cd were used to develop KASPar primers (Kompetitive Allele Specific PCR; LGC Ltd., Teddington, United Kingdom). KASPar is a user-friendly PCR-based assay that can easily separate two different SNPs at a specific locus and is used for genotyping at the USDA-ARS Cereal Crop Genotyping Laboratory in Fargo, North Dakota. In this laboratory, first DNA samples are added to 96-well plates using a matrix 2×2 robot. The samples are then dried at 65°C. A PCR reaction is prepared from 2 µl water, 2 µl master mix (specific for the Roche Light Cycler ordered from LGC Ltd., Teddington, United Kingdom), and 0.055 µl allele specific primer. The reactions are placed on an ABI GeneAmp PCR machine for 32 cycles, and the plates are read on a Roch Light Cycler 480 (Roche Life Sciences, United States).

## 2.4. Results

### 2.4.1. Phenotypic Analysis

The analysis for phenotypic performance of parents showed that D041735 and Divide are significantly different for grain Cd level. The range of the Cd level among progenies varied from 0.021 to 0.242 mg/kg in Langdon, and from 0.092 to 0.524 mg/kg in Prosper (Table 2-1). The ANOVA showed that genotypes were highly variable for Cd content in both locations. Figure 2-1. shows the distribution of phenotypic performance of RILs in the two locations. Nineteen lines in Langdon and 14 lines in Prosper showed a lower Cd level than D041735, the low Cd parent. Moreover, 50 lines in Langdon and 37 lines in Prosper showed Cd levels higher than Divide. The genotype  $\times$  environment interaction was therefore due to magnitude rather than rank. In general, the Cd content of genotypes in Langdon was always lower than in Prosper. This is probably because of the different soil type in these two locations even though both are considered to be high Cd possessors. The soil type in Langdon is Svea and Barns, while it is Perella and Bearden in Prosper.

Although the continuous variability among the data might suggest that Cd accumulation can be regulated by multiple genes, the high heritability value (87% in Langdon and 82% in Prosper) indicates the genetic components have more of an effect on grain Cd content than environment (Table 2-2). Because Levene's homogeneity test showed a different result from Brown and Forsythe's homogeneity test, the data were not pooled across locations, instead the results for the single locations are reported in Table 2-1.



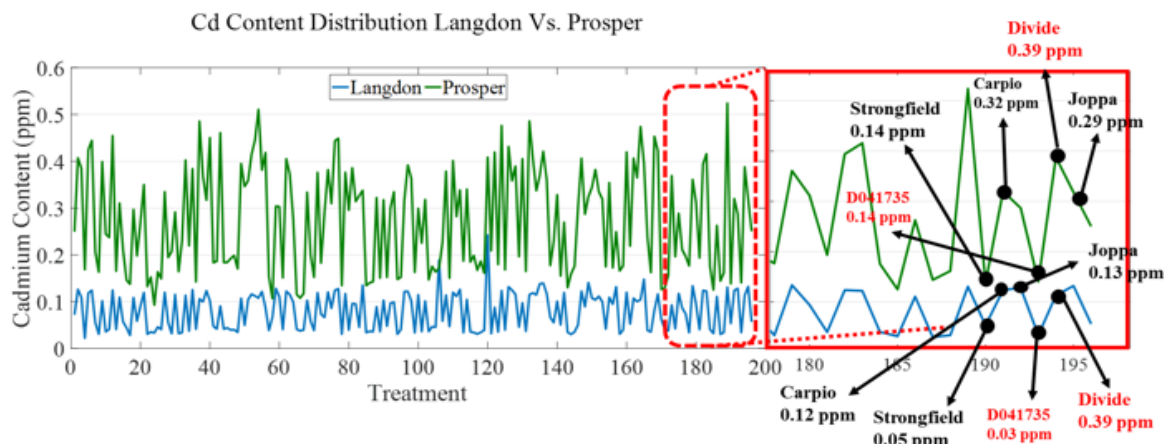


Figure 2-1. Comparative phenotypic performance distribution of RILs in two locations (Langdon and Prosper, North Dakota)

Table 2-1. Mean Cd uptake of parents and checks and the range of the mapping population

D041735 × Divide (RIL population)		
Parents	Cd Content (mg/kg)	
	Langdon	Prosper
D041735	0.034	0.140
Divide	0.113	0.387
Checks		
Strongfield	0.053	0.138
CD-Veronica	0.056	0.250
Joppa	0.128	0.286
Carpio	0.124	0.320
The rang of the data		
Minimum	0.021	0.092
Maximum	0.242	0.524
LSD	0.047	0.142

Table 2-2. Descriptive statistical parameters in RILs derived from D041735 × Divide

Location	Langdon	Prosper
No.of lines	392	392
Mean	0.079	0.27
Sd	0.043	0.120
CV%	30.3	26.3
MS (Lines)	0.003	0.023
MS (Error)	0.00058	0.0052
F	5.50**	4.58**
Pr>F	<.0001	<.0001
Heritability	87 %	82 %

Sd= Standard Deviation, CV%= Coefficient of Variation, MS= Mean Square, F= Fisher's test, LSD = Least Significant Difference comparing individuals

### **2.4.2. Framework Linkage Map**

After filtering genotypic data, a total of 3,973 polymorphic SNP markers were selected for constructing a linkage map. Out of those markers, a total of 3,923 were successfully mapped onto 28 linkage groups, representing all 14 durum wheat chromosomes (Appendix). One linkage group was observed for chromosomes 1A, 3B, 4B, and 6B. Two linkage groups each were observed for chromosomes 1B, 2B, 3A, 5B, 7A, and 7B. Finally, three linkage groups each were observed for chromosomes 2A, 4A, 5B, and 6A. Linkage groups 4A1 and 7A1 had the minimum number of markers (two), and linkage groups 3A1 and 3B had the maximum number of markers (74). The total map length was 2,137.5 cM. The 3,923 markers represented 849 unique loci, with an average distance of 2.51 cM between two loci. A total of 1,856 markers representing 426 unique loci were assigned onto the A-genome. These loci markers cover a map length of 953.5 cM, with an average distance of 2.2 cM per locus. A total of 2,067 markers representing 423 loci markers were mapped onto the B-genome. These loci cover a map length of 1,184.0 cM, with an average distance of 2.8 cM per locus (Table 2-3).

Table 2-3. Summary of the SNPs linkage map of the durum wheat population derived from D041735 × Divide

Linkage Groups	No. of Markers	No. of unique loci	Map length (cM)	Average map density (cM/locus)
1A	238	54	117	2.1
2A-1	69	20	37.6	1.8
2A-2	8	3	1.1	0.3
2A-3	48	13	14.8	1.1
3A-1	328	74	238.3	3.2
3A-2	37	10	30.5	3.0
4A-1	3	2	2.7	1.3
4A-2	30	14	48.4	3.4
4A-3	312	58	37.5	0.6
5A-1	12	3	1.1	0.3
5A-2	263	71	147.9	2.0
6A-1	76	15	94.8	6.3
6A-2	131	19	10.4	0.5
6A-3	67	17	8.2	0.4
7A-1	3	2	1.7	0.8
7A-2	231	51	161.5	3.1
1B-1	310	58	99.4	1.7
1B-2	228	36	53.4	1.4
2B-1	374	65	131.2	2.0
2B-2	184	30	67.3	2.2
3B	338	74	226.4	3.0
4B	99	25	158.8	6.3
5B-1	28	11	6.1	0.5
5B-2	164	41	61.4	1.4
5B-3	130	29	86.3	2.9
6B	95	27	162.4	6.0
7B-1	21	8	6.1	0.7
7B-2	96	19	125.2	6.5
A genome	1,856	426	953.5	2.2
B genome	2,067	423	1,184	2.8
Whole genome	3,923	849	2,137.5	2.5

### 2.4.3. QTL Analysis

Quantitative trait loci mapping detected one major stable QTL associated with Cd uptake in both locations. The SNPs IAAV1448 (left marker) and Kukri\_c66357\_357 (right marker) tightly flank this QTL within a 0.3 cM region (0.8 to 1.1 cM on 5B), with a LOD score of about 50. The left flanking marker also co-segregated with RAC875\_c20785\_1219, but the right-flanked marker is a unique locus (Table 2-4 Figure 2-2). The Divide allele at the major locus

adds an average of 0.06 mg/kg of Cd into the seeds (0.031 mg/kg in Langdon, and 0.086 mg/kg in Prosper). This QTL explains about 70.6% of the phenotypic variation in seed Cd uptake. In addition to the major QTL, two QTL with a minor effect were also identified, one each on chromosome 4B and 4A2 (Table 2-4, Figure 2-3). These minor QTL were specified to each location. 4B QTL showed an additive effect of only 0.0047 mg/kg Cd content in the Langdon trial, whereas 4A2 QTL had an additive effect of 0.015 mg/kg Cd content in the Prosper trial.

Table 2-4. Summary of the detected major and minor QTLs for grain Cd uptake in the RILs population derived from D041735 × Divide at two locations (Langdon and Prosper, North Dakota) and mean

<i>Major QTL in Langdon &amp; Prosper</i>				<i>Minor QTL in Langdon &amp; Prosper</i>	
Location	Cd-Lnd	Cd-Prs	Cd-Mean	Cd-Lnd	Cd-Prs
Chromosome	5B-3	5B-3	5B-3	4B	4A-2
Position (cM)	1	1	1	86	1
Left Marker*	IAAV1148	IAAV1148	IAAV1148	RAC875_c35152_372	BS00011273_51
	RAC875_c20785_1219	RAC875_c20785_1219	RAC875_c20785_1219		
Right Marker	Kukri_c66357_357	Kukri_c66357_357	Kukri_c66357_357	Excalibur_c8845_1531	Excalibur_rep_c102565_399
LOD	49.46	41.15	47.96	2.29	2.12
R <sup>2</sup>	70.6	64.0	69.5	1.6213	1.8507
Add	0.0313	0.0868	0.059	0.0047	0.0149

\*Two co-segregated markers were detected in this position.

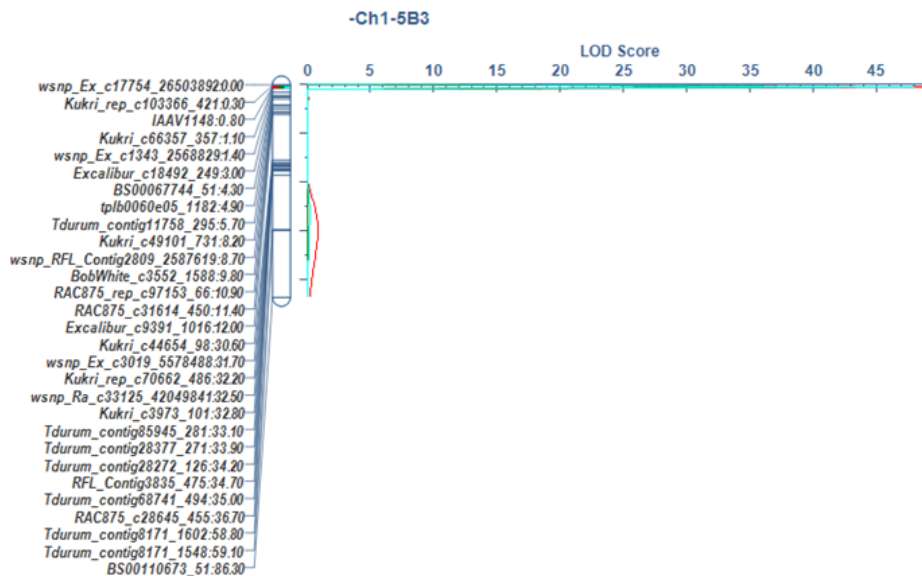


Figure 2-2. A major QTL for Cd grain uptake detected in the D041735 × Divide durum wheat population across two locations (Langdon and Prosper, North Dakota, indicated with the green and red curves, respectively) and mean (the blue curve)

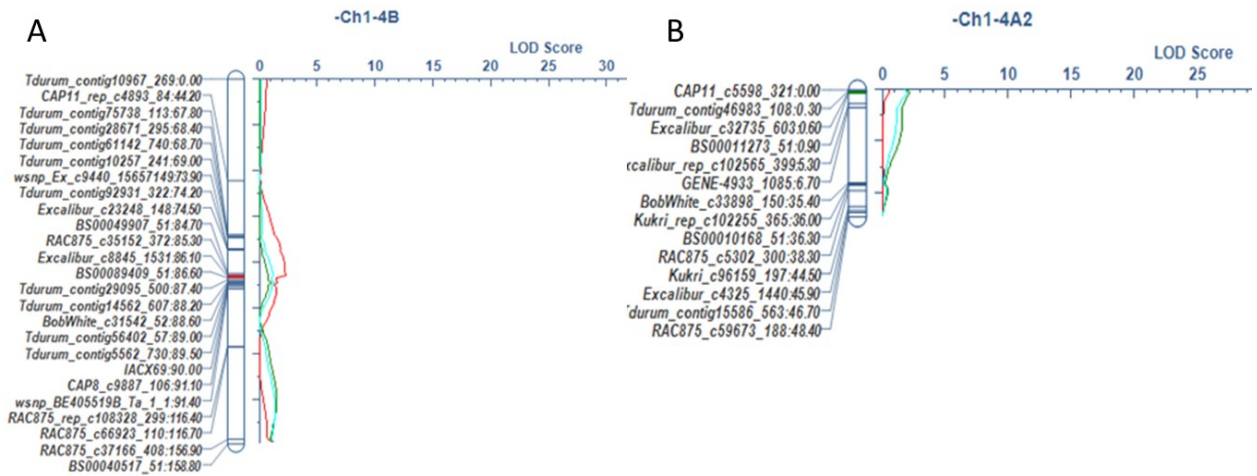


Figure 2-3. Minor QTLs detected in the D041735 × Divide population for grain Cd Content A) The red curve indicates the minor QTL detected in Langdon B) The green curve indicates the minor QTL detected in Prosper. The blue curve indicates the mean.

#### 2.4.4. Epistasis Analysis

IciMapping detected two QTL involved in digenic interactions in the Langdon trial (Figure 2-4, Table 2-5). The first epistatic interaction was placed on linkage group 2B1 (between positions 75 and 85 cM), and the second epistatic interaction was placed on linkage group 4B (between positions 90 and 95 cM). Epistatic interaction 1 explained 4.1% and epistatic interaction 2 explained 2.1% of the phenotypic variation for Cd uptake in seeds. For both epistatic interactions, the D041735 allele at the first locus and the Divide allele at the second locus resulted in a lower Cd level in the Langdon location.

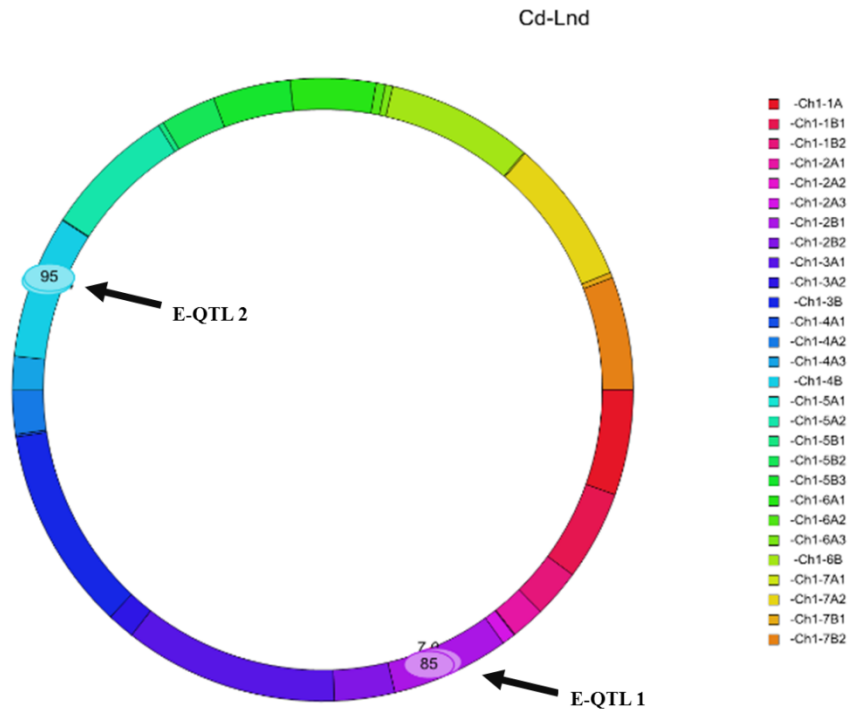


Figure 2-4. The epistasis interaction detected for grain Cd content in the durum wheat population

Table 2-5. Summary of detected epistatic interactions in the RILs population from Langdon

Epistatic Interaction 1				
Location	Chromosome	Position	Left-Marker	Right-Marker
Lnd	2B1	Position 1: 75	Tdurum_contig47816_258	Tdurum_contig71139_134
		Position 2: 85	Tdurum_contig71139_134	CAP7_c4304_207
LOD	PVE (%)	Add 1	Add 2	Add by Add
6.9894	4.3804	0.0262	- 0.0277	- 0.0005
Epistatic Interaction 2				
Location	Chromosome	Position	Left-Marker	Right-Marker
Lnd	4B	Position 1: 90	IACX69	CAP8_c9887_106
		Position 2: 95	wsnp_BE405519B Ta 1 1	RAC875_rep_c108328_299
LOD	PVE (%)	Add 1	Add 2	Add by Add
5.3553	2.152	0.0166	- 0.0344	- 0.0204

#### 2.4.5. Candidate Genes or Sequence Analysis of the QTL Region Associated with Cd

##### Uptake

To characterize the major QTL region linked to Cd uptake, sequences of two flanking SNPs were analyzed using EnsemblePlant BLAST (Kersey et al., 2010) against *T. aestivum*. The coding sequence TRIAE\_CS42\_5BL\_TGACv1\_405827\_AA1335930.1 overlapping with the sequence of Kukri\_c66357\_357 SNP located in the right side of our QTL was identified (Figure 2-5). The peptide sequence of this query used NCBI BLASTp, which resulted in 100% alignment with a protein in barley. The peptide sequence in the FASTA format was taken and an attempt was made to map it in the IPK-BARLEY database using BLASTp with High-Confidence genes. The analysis showed that the protein translated from this query is MLOC\_51340.2, which is an Aluminum Induced Protein-like-Protein. Additionally, three more genes were detected at close distances from Kukri\_c66357\_357, and the results from BLASTp showed that they are not as important as the detected candidate gene inside the Kukri\_c66357\_357 SNP (Table 2-6). As explained earlier, Kukri\_c66357\_357 was a unique locus, and no co-segregated markers were identified in this region. For the other flanking marker, two co-segregated markers were identified (Figure 2-6). Because ensemble blast was not able to find a significant hit for IAAV1148, the blast analysis was performed on the co-segregating SNP RAC875\_c20785\_1219.

The analysis identified the coding sequence TRIAE\_CS42\_5BL\_TGACv1\_404346\_AA1296530 at a distance of 41,424 bp from this SNP. This coding sequence included five splices. The same procedure just explained was done for this query. All splices of this coding sequence were aligned with heavy metal transporting PIB-ATPase 3 in *T.aestivum* (100%), durum wheat (99%) and rice (71%). (Table 2-6). The same approach was performed for markers associated with minor QTLs. Blast and annotation analysis for SNPs flanking minor QTL in the Prosper population detected a coding sequence overlapping SNP Excalibur\_rep\_c102565\_399, which was aligned 88% with Peptide Transporter PTR2 in *T. urartu* (Table 2-7).

Table 2-6. Summary of BLAST and annotation analysis for SNP markers flanking the major QTL for Cd uptake detected in the D041735 × Divide population

Flanked Marker Name		Scaffold Name and Position		
Kukri-c66357-357		TGACv1_scaffold_405827_5BL:59771-59864 SNP position in 59813 bp position		
Number	Gene	Distance From SNP (bp)	Function	ID % with
1	<b>TRIAE_CS42_5BL_TGACv1_405827_AA1335930</b> .1	0	<b>AIP-like-Protein</b>	<b>100%-Barley</b>
2	TRIAE_CS42_5BL_TGACv1_405827_AA1335940 TRIAE_CS42_5BL_TGACv1_405827_AA1335950	974	Transcription factor 3	91 % <i>T.urartu</i>
3	Splice1-AA1335950.1	63904	Putative/TPK	98% <i>Ae.tauschii</i>
	Splice-2AA1335950.2	6520	Putative/TPK	94% <i>Ae.tauschii</i>
RAC875_c20785_1219		TGACv1_scaffold_404346_5BL: 180582:181282:1 SNP position in 181231bp position		
1	<b>TRIAE_CS42_5BL_TGACv1_404346_AA1296530</b>			
	Splice form-1 AA1296530.3	41424	Heavy metal transporting PIB-ATPase 3	
	Splice form-2 AA1296530.4	41424	Heavy metal transporting PIB-ATPase 3	100 % <i>T.aestivum</i>
	Splice form-3 AA1296530.1	41388	Heavy metal transporting PIB-ATPase 3	99 % Durum 71 % Rice
	Splice form-4 AA1296530.2	41424	Heavy metal transporting PIB-ATPase 3	
	Splice form-5 AA1296530.5	41433	Heavy metal transporting PIB-ATPase 3	



Table 2-7. Summary of BLAST and annotation analysis for SNPs associated with the minor QTL for Cd uptake

Flanked Marker Name		Scaffold Name and Position		
Excalibur_rep_c102565_399		Scaffold TGACv1_scaffold_295511_4AL: 2,019-2,129		
Number	Gene	Distance From SNP (bp)	Function	ID % with
1	TRIAE_CS42_4AL_TGACV1_295511_AA1001980	0	Peptide Transporter PTR2	88% <i>Turartu</i>

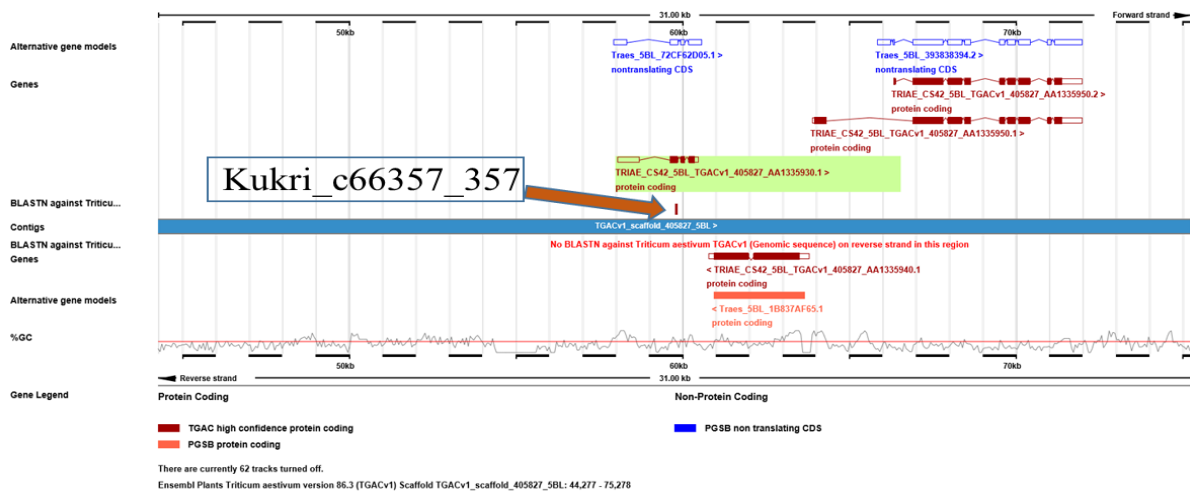


Figure 2-5. Candidate gene showing sequence similarity with flanking marker Kukri\_c66357\_357, the SNP on the left side of the major QTL (gene region in green)

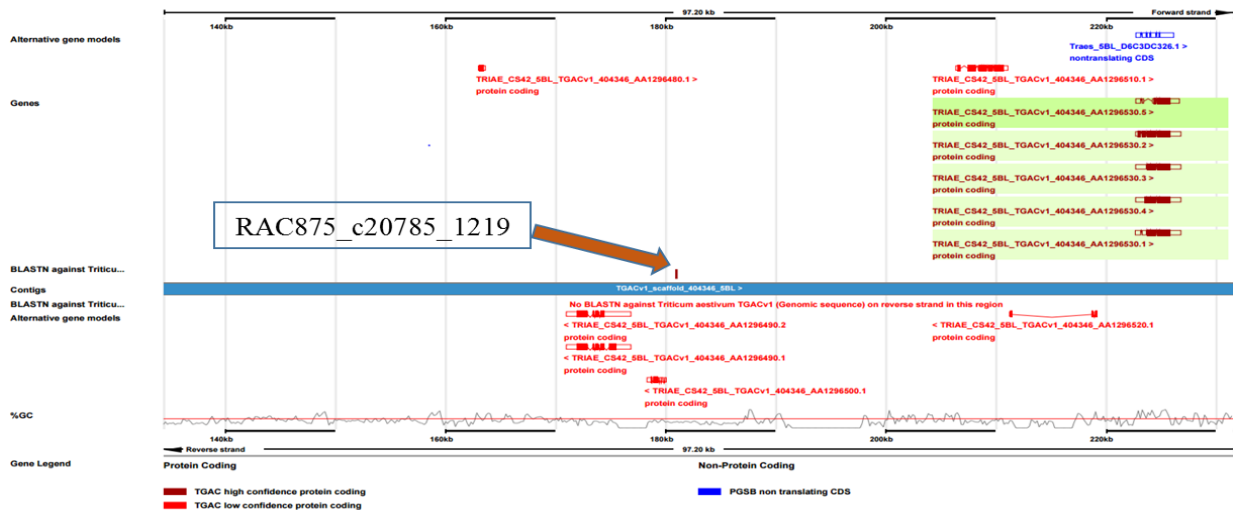


Figure 2-6. Candidate gene identified in the region of RAC875\_c20785\_1219, the SNP on the right side of the major QTL for grain Cd (gene region in green)

The overlapping genes and related proteins were identified for most of E-QTLs using ensemble *T. aestivum* and NCBI-BLASTp tools, respectively, and are summarized in (Table 2-8).

Table 2-8. Summary of BLASTp results for E-QTLs associated with the grain Cd level

E-QTL SNPs	Overlapping Gene	Function	ID %
Tdurum_contig 71139_134	TRIAE_CS42_2BS_TGACv1 _146086_AA0455010	Ribulose biphosphate carboxylase small chain	99% <i>T.aestivum</i> 100% Barley
	TRIAE_CS42_2BS_TGACv1 _146086_AA0454980	Glyoxylate/hydroxypyruvate reductase B	81% <i>T.aestivum</i> 80% Barley
CAP7_c4304_207	TRIAE_2BS_04089466E	Protein kinase	98% Barley
IACX69	TRIAE_CS42_4BL_TGACv1 _320837_AA1049900	Ubiquitin-conjugating enzyme 31	95% Barley
Wsnp_BE405519B Ta_1_1	TRIAE_CS42_4BL_TGACv1 _321115_AA1055680	Ubiquitin carrier protein enzyme 32	100% <i>Ae.tauschii</i> 100% rice 100% Brachypodium
RAC875_rep c108328_299	TRIAE_CS42_4BL_TGACv1 _321807_AA1065680	Protein kinase	98% barley 95% <i>Ae.tauschii</i>

#### 2.4.6. Effectiveness of Selection for Detected QTLs

Two Cd flanking markers, Kukri\_c66357\_357 and IAAV1148/ RAC875\_c20785\_1219, segregated the parental alleles in the progenies in a 1:1 ratio (Figure 2-7). To estimate the efficiency of selection for the *Cdul* gene, a radar chart was generated based on the genotypic data of these two flanking markers for the RIL population. As shown in Figure 2-8, only 13 out of 184 lines fell into the overlapping area, meaning that 93% of the RILs were successfully divided into two groups of low and high Cd based on the different alleles for these two markers. More importantly, only six individuals with a high Cd level fell into the low Cd category, which means that 96.5% of the lines were accurately selected based on desirable marker alleles.

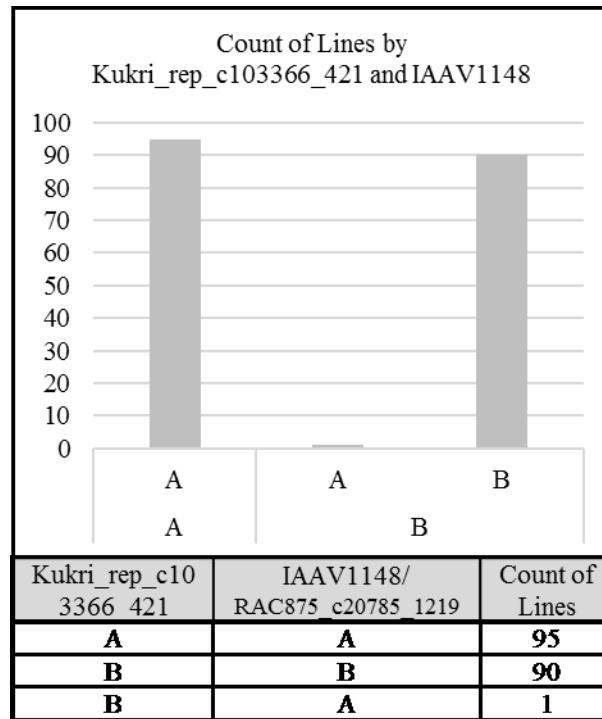


Figure 2-7. Segregation ratio of high Cd individuals to low Cd individuals based on parental alleles for flanking markers (Kukri\_c66357\_357 and IAAV1148/ RAC875\_c20785\_1219) of the major QTL. (Allele A presents the parent Divide with the high Cd uptake, and allele B presents the parent D041735 with the low Cd uptake)

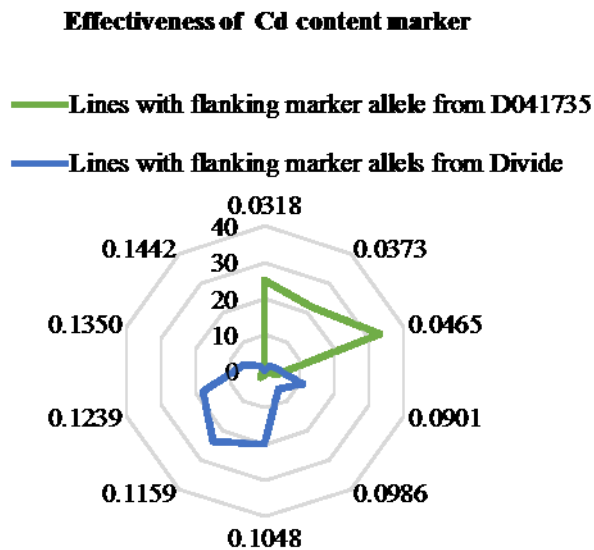


Figure 2-8. Effectiveness of Kukri\_c66357\_357 and IAAV1148/ RAC875\_c20785\_1219 in separating low Cd individuals from high Cd individuals in the RILs population derived from D041735 × Divide

#### 2.4.7. KASPar Developed from Flanking Markers

As shown in Table 2-9, the designed KASPar assays separated the high accumulator parent (Divide) from the low accumulator parent (D041735) in the initial test by assigning allele T to the low Cd parent and allele C to the high Cd parent for Kukri\_c66357\_357. For the second flanking marker, KASPar assays for IAAV1148, which assigned allele C for the low Cd parent and allele T for the high Cd allele, were used.

Table 2-9. Allele assignment to the genotypes of the high and low Cd grain level parents

Marker Name	High Cd Allele from Divide	Low Cd Allele from D041735
Kukri_c66357_357	C	T
IAAV1148	T	C

#### 2.4.8. Validation Test

The KASPar markers designed from the SNPs flanking the major QTL were used for the validation test of 100 inbred lines from preliminary trials (PYT) grown in two locations (Langdon and Williston, North Dakota) in 2014. To further test if these markers could distinguish the integrated low Cd uptake gene into the high Cd uptake cultivars, an additional 212 individuals derived from Transcend were tested. These 212 lines were developed from crosses between North Dakota germplasm and the low Cd uptake Canadian cultivar Transcend (Singh et al., 2012). Surprisingly, all lines, regardless of their phenotype, displayed only one genotype (the same as the high Cd genotype). It was expected that the 50 PYT lines and all the Transcend lines with a low Cd phenotype would show a different genotype at the major Cd locus than the lines with a high Cd phenotype. Two of the low Cd sources, Strongfield and Huarani, also showed the same allele as in the high Cd checks of Divide and Joppa. This result might be because the major QTL was not linked to the Cd uptake gene in these two sources. Therefore, to test the specificity of these markers for lines with the D041735 background, the KASPar markers

were tested on 50 lines derived from a cross between Joppa (a high Cd uptake cultivar) and D041735 grown in 2013 in two locations (Langdon and Williston). In this set of lines, the KASPar markers were able to perfectly separate low and high Cd uptake phenotypes into separate groups. This means that these two flanking markers are effective in selecting low Cd lines in populations where D041735 is one of the parents. Although these markers showed high Cd alleles for Strongfield and Haurani, they were low for Cd uptake.

The SNPs associated with the major QTL identified in this study were located very close to the major Cd uptake gene on chromosome 5B. The validation test suggests that the markers identified in this study are only effective in lines with the D041735 parental background. This encouraged a test to see if this identified QTL is the same as *Cdul* reported earlier in other low Cd sources. This hypothesis is examined in the next chapter.

## **2.5. Discussion**

This study was conducted to map the genetic region associated with the Cd content phenotype in a RIL population derived from a cross between DO14735 and Divide. The DO14735 line potentially could be considered as a new source for a low Cd content phenotype because it is better adapted to the Upper Midwest than the other two sources (Haurani from Syria and Strongfield from Canada) of low Cd used by the NDSU breeding program.

The RILs in this study's population were significantly different in seed Cd content in two locations in North Dakota. The range of Cd in each environment was adequate to compare different Cd content phenotypes of RILs, which in turn made an excellent population for high density genetic mapping. The RILs showed continuous variation for Cd content in the two environments, suggesting a quantitative nature for the trait. However, high heritability in both locations coincided with results of a previous study (Clarck et al., 1997), suggesting that the

genetic components play a major role in grain Cd content than environmental factors. Moreover, observing transgressive phenotypes in both locations for the mapping population indicates the effect of some minor QTLs and probably epistatic effects on Cd accumulation in grains, which will be discussed below.

This study is the first to report using a 90K SNPs assay for dissection of Cd uptake in wheat, suggesting a more robust QTL detection approach compared to previous QTL mapping studies. A recent study on the genetic dissection of Cd in durum wheat used 9K SNPs and 255 SSRs to assign a total of 330 markers on the whole durum genome (AbuHammad et al., 2016). In comparison, this study mapped 849 unique loci displaying almost three times better coverage of the genome. Further, Shavrukov (2016) showed that the KASPar markers developed from 90K SNPs are more useful than CAPs markers developed from EST-derived markers for large scale-wheat experiments. Therefore, compared to the study by Wiebe et al. (2010), which developed CAPs markers from ESTs associated with *Cdul*, the linkage map in this study may be the most suitable approach for genetic mapping or for detecting the closest marker for Cd grain content. The framework linkage map in this study assigned more SNPs onto the B-genome compared to the A-genome. This coincides with the findings of previous studies, which found more diversity in the B-genome of wheat than the A-genome (Petersen et al., 2006; Feldman et al., 2012; and Panchy et al., 2006).

Since DO14735 is a new source of low Cd with no parental background from other low Cd sources in NDSU's germplasm, an attempt was made to understand the genetics behind the low Cd in this line. This study identified a major QTL tightly linked to the grain Cd content on the long arm of the chromosome 5B. Previous studies also indicated a major QTL for Cd uptake on chromosome 5B (Knox et al., 2009; Wiebe et al., 2010; and Abouhammad et al., 2016). In the

current study, this QTL was placed in a 0.3 cM interval. Comparatively, Abouhammad et al. (2016) placed the major Cd QTL within the region 76-85.5 cM, meaning that this study was able to narrow down the 5B locus 30 times using the 90K SNP assay. The stronger association in this study also resulted in a higher PV and LOD score for the major QTL compared to Abouhammad et al. (2016). The availability of a large amount of wheat sequence data (Maccaferri et al., 2015) made it possible to identify important candidate genes for the major Cd uptake locus that have not been reported previously. Moreover, as expected from phenotypic variation, two minor QTLs as well as some epistasis effects associated with grain Cd content were also detected in this study. Minor QTLs for Cd have been reported previously on chromosomes 2B and 5B (Abouhammad et al., 2016 and Wiebe et al., 2010). As Uemoto et al. (2016) stated, detecting minor QTLs and digenic interaction effects are important for estimating heritability and increasing predictive accuracy in breeding programs. Knowledge about the existence of such effects might open a new window towards a better understanding the relative differences in the range of Cd content phenotypes in different environments. For example, individuals in the Prosper location, constantly showed a higher Cd uptake compared to those in Langdon location. Some possible environmental conditions in these two locations might have an effect on up or down regulation of some minor QTLs associated with Cd uptake. Another reason for the difference could be the interactions between some E-QTLs identified in the Langdon location with a relatively lower Cd uptake compared to those in the Prosper location. Several studies have reported the effect of epistatic interactions in their populations (Kulwal et al., 2005; Zhao et al., 2010; and Talukder et al., 2014). Lower heritability in the Prosper location also indicates a slight genotype by environment (G×E) interaction. Therefore, using statistical tools like QTLNetwork

can be useful to detect the possible gene network and its interactions with the environment for any trait.

The sequence analysis of the markers flanking the major QTL identified two important candidate genes for Cd uptake not reported in durum wheat. One of the candidate genes is Aluminum-induced protein like protein (AIP). To date, the mechanism of AIP families in plants have not been clearly described. However, in hexaploid wheat, a domain present in AIP called Wali 7 (Wheat aluminum induced 7) was isolated from the root with no known function for the encoded protein (Snowden and Gardner, 1993). But recently, it was shown that the transcription of AIP containing the Wali 7 domain increases when a plant is exposed to aluminum, Cd, and copper compared to a control treatment (Jang, et al., 2014). The expression occurs in the plasma membrane, which was expected because it is where the plant is able to protect itself against heavy metal transportation into the vital organs (Singh, Parihar, et al., 2015). Moreover, a proteomics profiling analysis showed that the Wali 7 domain is an important osmotic resistance protein in hexaploid wheat (Ma, Dong, et al., 2016). These observations suggest a possible involvement of an annotated gene in the common mechanism of plant response to the heavy metal stress condition in this study. This is the first study to report finding this candidate gene linked to the Cd uptake locus. Another candidate gene identified in this region is heavy metal transporting PIB-ATPase 3. PIB-ATPase are membrane proteins that use energy from ATP hydrolysis to transport heavy metal ions ( $\text{Co}^{2+}$ ,  $\text{Cu}^{2+}$ ,  $\text{Cu}^{+1}$ ,  $\text{Zn}^{2+}$ ,  $\text{Co}^{2+}$ ,  $\text{Ag}^{+1}$ , and  $\text{Cd}^{2+}$ ) across the membrane against their concentration gradient (Gourdon, Liu, et al., 2011). Therefore, they play a key role in maintaining ion homeostasis and lipid asymmetry in cells (Kühlbrandt, 2004). In the past, several studies in other crops have reported an association of heavy metal transporting PIB-ATPase with Cd uptake, but none have reported a close linkage between these transporters



and Cd accumulation in durum wheat. In a recent study, AbuHammad et al. (2016) observed a high-sequence similarity of markers linked to the Cd uptake QTL with Leucine-rich repeat protein kinase family protein (in a bi-parental mapping population) and mitochondrial ATP-dependent RNA helicase (in an association mapping panel).

The physiological and molecular results in a study on Cd accumulation in Arabidopsis, showed that a P-type ATPase called AtHMA4 has an important role in the xylem transporting of Cd (Verret, Gravot, et al., 2004). However, it is less likely to find an encoding transporter gene for xylem-loading Cd in wheat, as several studies have shown that Cd in wheat, barley, and rice is loaded into the grains through the phloem, not the xylem (Chen et al., 2007; Harris and Taylor, 2004; and Tanaka et al., 2003).

Also, the association of some genes with the minor and E-QTLs in this study might be a clue for better understanding the genetics of Cd uptake in durum wheat for future physiological studies. For example, several studies showed that crops accumulate more Cd in soils with a higher level of nitrate (Guan, Fan, et al., 2015; Hu, Yin, et al., 2013; and Luo, Du, et al., 2012). This study identified a possible association between an encoding gene for a sub family of nitrate/peptide ABC-transporters with the minor QTL on chromosome 4A with a 0.015 mg/kg additive effect on Cd content in the Prosper location. Moreover, a putative association between Cd accumulation and encoding genes for Protein kinase, Ubiquitin-conjugating enzyme 31, and Ubiquitin carrier protein enzyme 32 was found in our digenic interaction analysis. The activity of Kinase protein families, which are well known as stress-related proteins in plants, will be increased to regulate Cd<sup>+2</sup> homeostasis (Dias, Monteiro, et al., 2013; Guo, Hong, et al., 2016; Jonak, Nakagami, et al., 2004; and Viehweger, 2014). Moreover, additional studies suggest the interaction of the Ubiquitin-conjugating enzyme with Kinase protein can regulate resistance to

heavy metal accumulation in plants (Chen, Song, et al., 2015, and Feussner, Feussner, et al., 1997).

The only two sources for low Cd uptake available in the NDSU breeding program are a Canadian cultivar and a Syrian cultivar. Therefore, the need for a novel source belonging to the program and well-adapted to this area has been strong. This study's results suggest that selecting for grain Cd content based on two markers flanking the major QTL will be highly effective for successfully separating low Cd from high Cd uptake lines in the population. The durum breeding program at NDSU is the largest in the United States. In this program, low grain Cd content in the advanced lines is always a desirable trait. However, the estimation of Cd in grain samples is very expensive (\$17 per sample). The highly effective markers identified in D041735 can be used in earlier generations for screening lines with low Cd content to reduce the cost of Cd measurement in more advanced lines. The validation results using these flanking markers suggest the existence of a different gene or allele for low Cd uptake in the D041735 line as a new source for NDSU's durum breeding program. The lines were monomorphic in the validation tests and had either a Huarani or Strongfield parental background as the source of low Cd uptakes. Therefore, Chapter 3 reports the results of an allelism test of the DO14735 line and the other two sources of low Cd uptake.

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## CHAPTER 3. A DIAGNOSTIC ALLELISM TEST FOR TWO LOW CADMIUM LOCI IDENTIFIED IN CANADIAN DURUM VS NDSU DURUM

### 3.1. Abstract

D041735 experimental line was developed from a cross between hexaploid (Sumai 3) and durum wheat by NDSU breeding program. The line is a well-adapted line in North Dakota is of great significance for breeding low Cd genotypes. At present, two sources of low Cd uptake are being used in the durum wheat breeding program at NDSU: the Canadian cultivar Strongfield, and the Syrian cultivar Hurrani. Strongfield is adapted to the western part of the North Dakota durum growing region, while Hurrani is un-adapted for this region. Therefore, generating widely adaptive durum wheat with a solid low Cd uptake for the state would mark a great success for the program. Validation results using the flanking markers tightly linked to the low Cd uptake in D041735 line, initially suggested the existence of a different gene or allele for low Cd uptake. To test for alleles from detected Cd-linked markers among these three sources of low Cd accumulators, Haurani Strongfield, and D041735 were intercrossed. These markers have been tested on 169 RILs. Allelism testing revealed that the QTL in D041735 line is novel and not the previously mapped QTL *Cdu1* on 5BL. This study therefore confirmed that the D041735 experimental line is a novel source of low Cd uptake in durum wheat germplasms, where the major QTL is most likely introduced from hexaploid wheat

### 3.2. Introduction

The durum wheat breeding program at NDSU has been using two main sources of durum wheat for introducing low Cd uptake into the breeding lines. One of these sources is Haurani, a landrace from Syria that is non-adapted to the North Dakota region. The other source is Strongfield, a Canadian cultivar (Clarke et al., 2005). Recently, an experimental line was



developed at the NDSU durum wheat breeding program with a Hexaploid wheat, Sumai3, parental background. The purpose was the introgression of Fusarium Head Blight resistance to durum wheat. The line is designated as D041735. D041735 was found to have a low Cd uptake. Therefore, the line has the potential to be used as a new source of low Cd uptake in durum breeding programs. Because of the expensive chemical analysis for phenotyping Cd content of seeds in durum wheat, molecular markers assisted selection can be a much cheaper and faster tool for identifying low Cd vs high Cd content lines. In two separate studies by the University of Saskatchewan in Canada and one study by NDSU, three markers linked to a major Cd uptake gene were mapped using RAPD, CAPs, and a SNP assay, respectively (AbuHammad et al., 2016; Penner et al., 1995; and Wiebe et al., 2010). The RAPD marker (OPC 20) was mapped at about a 5 cM distance from the Cd uptake gene, while the CAPs marker *Xusw47*, developed from an EST in the fine mapping approach, was placed in a 0.14 cM interval containing the putative Cd uptake gene (TdHMA3-B1). Finally, the SNP marker Ex\_c1343\_2570756, which was identified in an association mapping study, was located in a 4.95 cM interval harboring Cd uptake QTL. All three markers are able to separate low Cd content lines from high Cd content lines in the populations with either the Canadian durum wheat or Syrian durum wheat parental background. However, in one NDSU study, it was observed that the KASPar developed from RAPD (OPC-20) was monomorphic in populations with a D014735 parental background (AbuHammad et al., 2016) and the SNP (Ex\_c17754\_26503892) markers were monomorphic in the other populations with Haurani and Strongfield backgrounds (Salsman, 2016). This showed the limited use of those markers for selecting low Cd uptake lines in different backgrounds and a need to develop tightly linked more suitable markers for Cd uptake.

In the experiment in Chapter 2, the Cd uptake QTL was mapped to a 0.3 cM interval, flanked by two SNPs, in populations with the D041735 parental background. Surprisingly, Strongfield and Haurani possessed high Cd alleles of those flanking markers. Consequently, in a validation test, these markers were monomorphic for the populations with either the Canadian or Syrian parental background. The closest SNP marker (Ex\_c1343\_2570756) identified by AbuHammad et al. (2016) was not mapped in the population with the D041735 parental background in this study. Further, the pedigree of D041735 did not involve any of the low Cd durum sources. This suggested that the Low Cd gene identified in this study was probably contributed by the hexaploid parent of D041735. All the above-mentioned observations suggested that the major Cd gene identified in this study could be different than the gene *Cdu1*, identified earlier in durum wheat on chromosome 5BL. Thus, in this chapter our objective is to test the hypothesis that two different genes/alleles are governing low Cd uptake in durum breeding lines in the NDSU durum wheat breeding program.

### **3.3. Materials and Methods**

#### **3.3.1. Plant Material and Phenotypic Data**

The three sources for low Cd uptake in the NDSU durum wheat breeding program, D041735, Haurani (a landrace collected by the International Center of Agricultural Research in Dry Area, Syria), and Strongfield (Canadian cultivar, Clark et al 2005) were intercrossed in the fall of 2012 to develop segregating populations for allelism testing and breeding purposes. The single seed descent method, explained in Chapter 2, was used to develop a RIL population for each cross. In 2014, a 13 × 13 lattice experiment of F<sub>6</sub> RILs was designed in two replications and two locations (Prosper and Langdon). Three populations, each with a total of 169 individuals consisting of the three low Cd uptake parents and the checks with a high phenotype variation

(CD-Verona (low Cd uptake), Divide Carpio, and Joppa (high Cd-uptake)), were evaluated for grain Cd content. Data collection and analysis were done as described for the previous experiment in Chapter 2. However, the population from the cross between Haurrani and Strongfield was not used for genotyping because of the monomorphism patterns of both parents for the low Cd uptake gene.

After extracting DNA using the method explained in Chapter 2, parents and checks were genotyped using the Cd-associated co-dominant CAPs marker, *Xusw47*. The above-mentioned lines were also genotyped with another CAPs marker, *Xusw14*, which was mapped 0.2 cm away from *Xusw47*.

Table 3-1. PCR reaction components

PCR reaction components	Volume ( $\mu$ l)
5 $\times$ Buffer	4
MgCl <sub>2</sub>	1.6
dNTP	2
Primer	1
Taq polymerase	0.2
DNA	4
Double distilled water	7.2

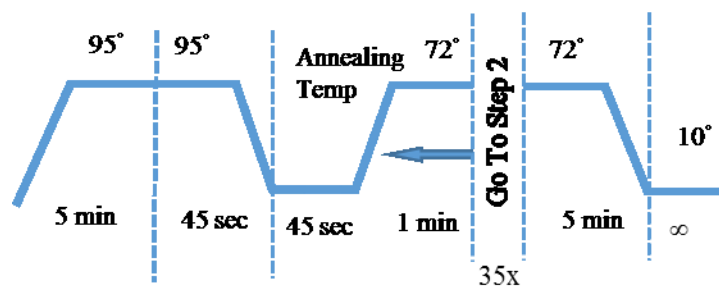


Figure 3-1. PCR Amplification process graph

Table 3-2 shows the details about the CAPs markers used in this study. To date, *Xusw47* is the closest reported marker for *Cdu1*. Therefore, identifying the location of this marker in the

genetic map with reference to the major QTL and SNP for Cd, identified in this study was of interest.

Table 3-2. CAPs markers were subjected to PCR on checks and low Cd parents

CAPs Marker	<i>Xusw47</i>	<i>Xusw14</i>
Forward primer sequence	GCTAGGACTTGATTCATTGAT	TACAGCCGCTCAGTTGCTC
Reverse primer sequence	AGTGATCTAAACGTTCTTATA	CAACATATGTCTGGCCTACTACTCT
Restriction enzyme	Hpy188I	BsoBI
ESM or STS marker developed from	XBF474090	XBF474164
Annealing Temperature (°C)	55	55
Digestion incubator (°C)	37	37

After the polymorphism between the D041735 parent and the other two parents was confirmed by the CAPs marker, a 20µl PCR reaction for each genotype of the RILs population was prepared and amplified. (Table 3-1, Figure 3-1). However, the DNA for 14 individuals from each population was not available because of germination problems. Therefore, a total of 155 individuals from the D041735 × Strongfield population and 155 individuals from the Haurani × D041735 population plus Sumai 3 were subjected to PCR. The PCR products later were digested by the restriction enzymes mentioned in Table 3-2 and were incubated for three hours at 37°C. The final digested product was separated and visualized after electrophoresis using a 3.5% agarose gel and 14 µl of ethidium bromide.

### 3.4. Results

#### 3.4.1. Genotype-phenotype Association

The CAPs markers *Xusw47* and *Xusw14* was polymorphic at the expected alleles among the high Cd uptake genotypes Divide, Carpio, and Joppa and low Cd uptake genotypes Haurani and Strongfield (Figure 3-2. A, B). However, for both *Xusw47* and *Xusw14*, the low Cd uptake genotype D041735 showed the same banding pattern as the high Cd uptake genotypes Divide, Carpio, and Joppa, not the other low Cd genotypes Strongfield and Haurani.

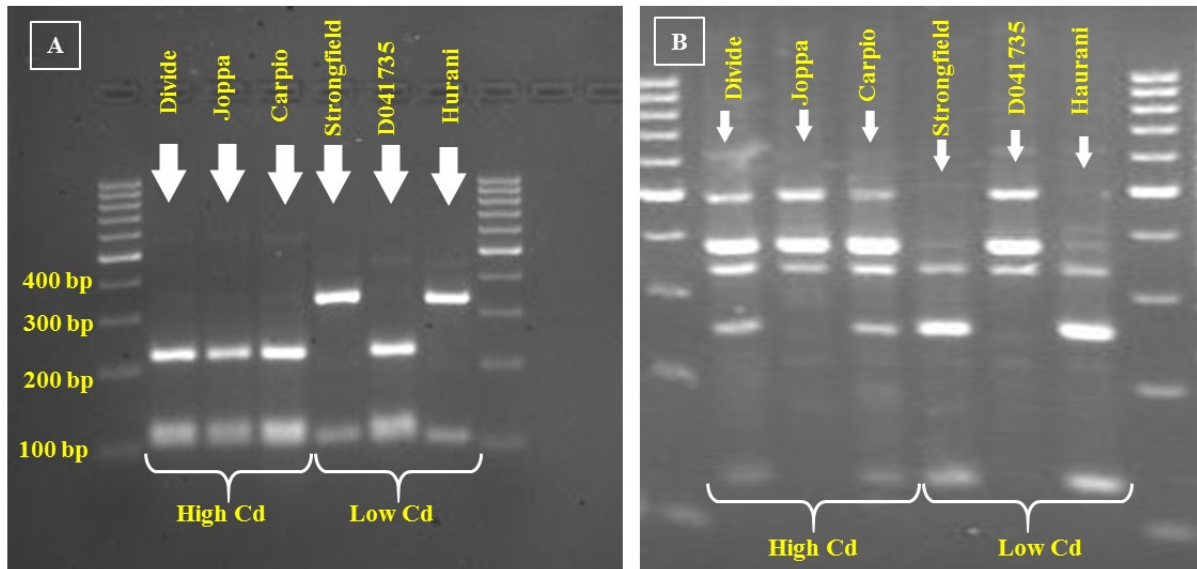


Figure 3-2. Amplification results of *Xusw47* (A) and *Xusw14* (B) on high and low Cd checks. Strongfield, D041735, and Haurani are the low Cd uptake parents in populations derived from intercrossing these three genotypes.

As *Xusw47* showed polymorphism between D041735 (low Cd uptake) and Strongfield (low Cd uptake), it was used to genotype the whole RIL population developed from these two low Cd uptake parents. The results showed that 73 RILs individuals had Strongfield alleles, while 75 RILs had D041735 alleles (Figure 3-3, Figure 3-4, Figure 3-5 and Figure 3-6). Few RILs were heterozygous as expected in the F<sub>6</sub> generation of the population.

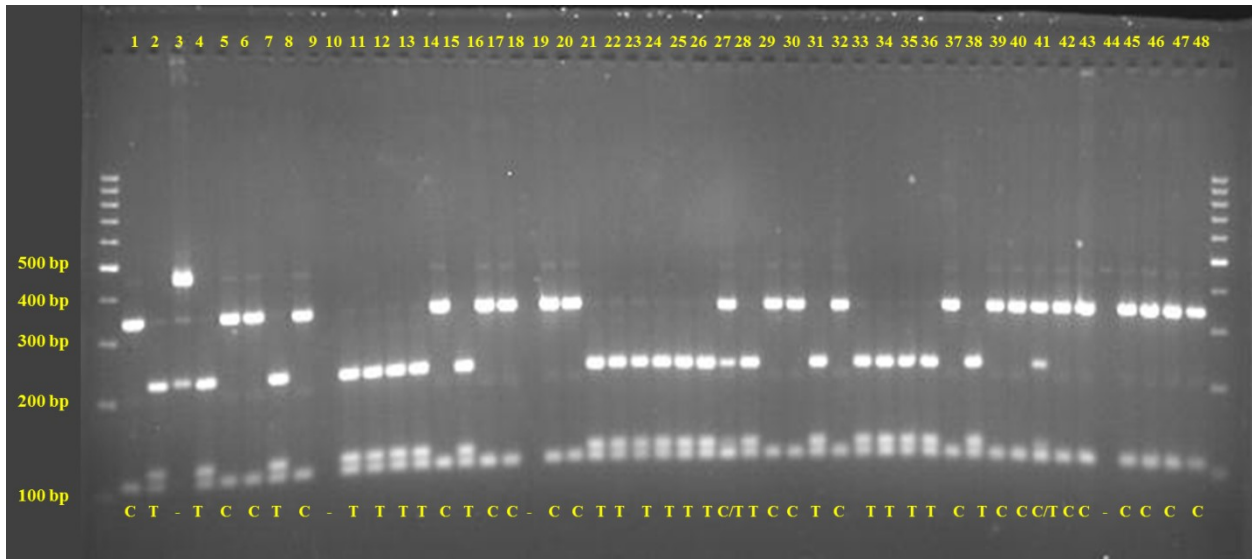


Figure 3-3. Genotyping results of *Xusw47* (banding patterns; 220bp: High Cd, 350 bp low Cd) and designed KASPar of Kukri\_c66357\_357 (letters at the bottom; T: low Cd, C: High Cd) for lines 1 to 48 of RILs derived from cross D041735 and Strongfield

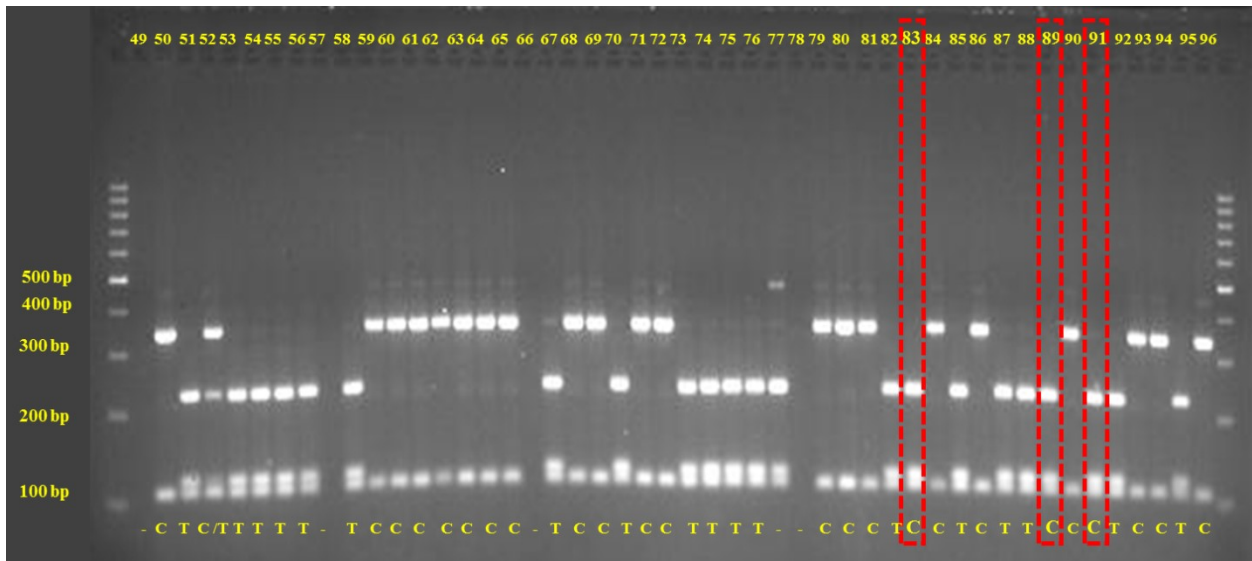


Figure 3-4. Genotyping results of *Xusw47* (banding patterns; 220bp: High Cd, 350 bp low Cd) and designed KASPar of Kukri\_c66357\_357 (letters at the bottom; T: low Cd, C: High Cd) for lines 49 to 96 of RILs derived from cross D041735 and Strongfield. Red rectangles indicate lines with high Cd content both phenotypically and genotypically.

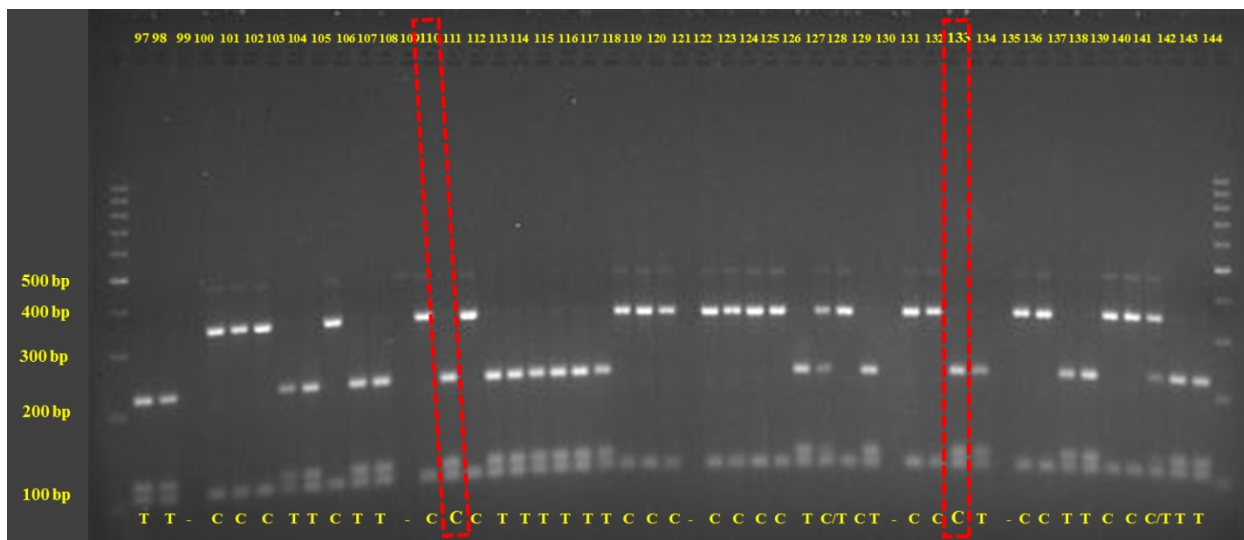


Figure 3-5. Genotyping results of *Xusw47* (banding patterns; 220bp: High Cd, 350 bp low Cd) and designed KASPar of *Kukri\_c66357\_357* (letters at the bottom; T: low Cd, C: High Cd) for lines 97 to 144 of RILs derived from cross D041735 and Strongfield. Red rectangles indicate lines with high Cd content both phenotypically and genotypically.

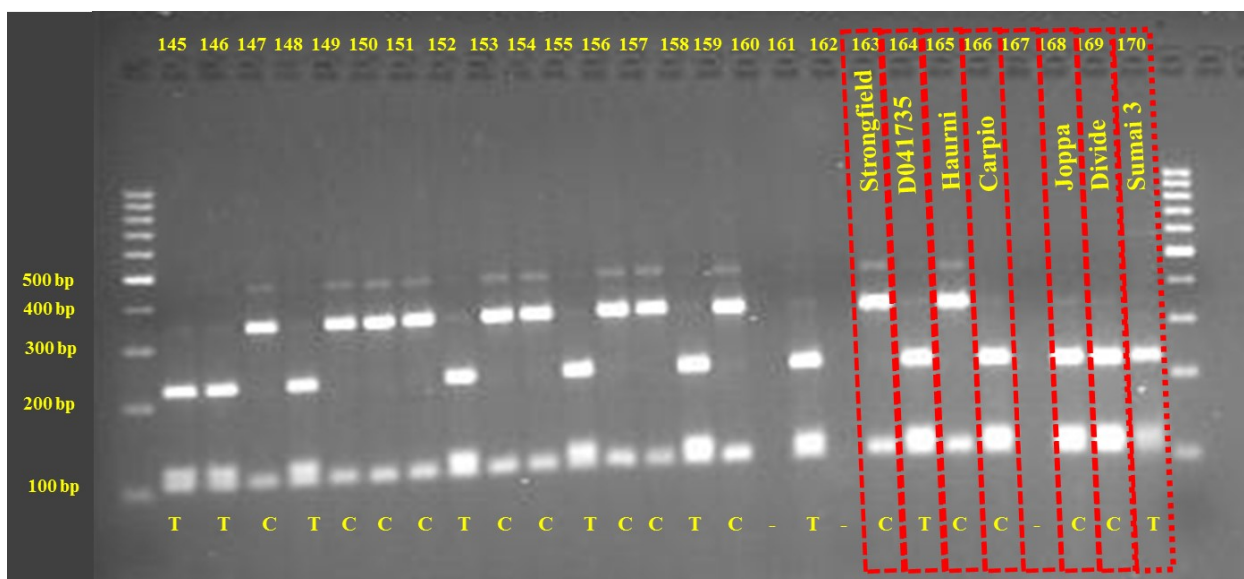


Figure 3-6. Genotyping results of *Xusw47* (banding patterns; 220bp: High Cd, 350 bp low Cd) and designed KASPar of *Kukri\_c66357\_357* (letters at the bottom; T: low Cd, C: High Cd) for lines 145 to 170 of RILs derived from cross D041735 and Strongfield. Red rectangles indicate checks.

The RIL population had a mean of 0.35 and 0.084 mg/kg grain Cd level in Prosper and Langdon, respectively. The range was from 0.014 to 0.044 mg/kg grain Cd level in Langdon and from 0.14 to 0.51 mg/kg grain Cd level in Prosper (Figure 3-7). Phenotypic analysis of the

Prosper data using Least Significant Differences (LSD) between the means of progenies and the parents showed that five individuals were significantly different from our low Cd parents and displayed a high Cd phenotype (Table 3-3 and Table 3-4). Therefore, the phenotypic data categorized 143 individuals with a low Cd uptake level and five individuals with a high Cd uptake level (without checks). The phenotypic analysis of the Langdon data similarly categorized these five lines with a high Cd uptake level (Table 3-3 and Table 3-4).

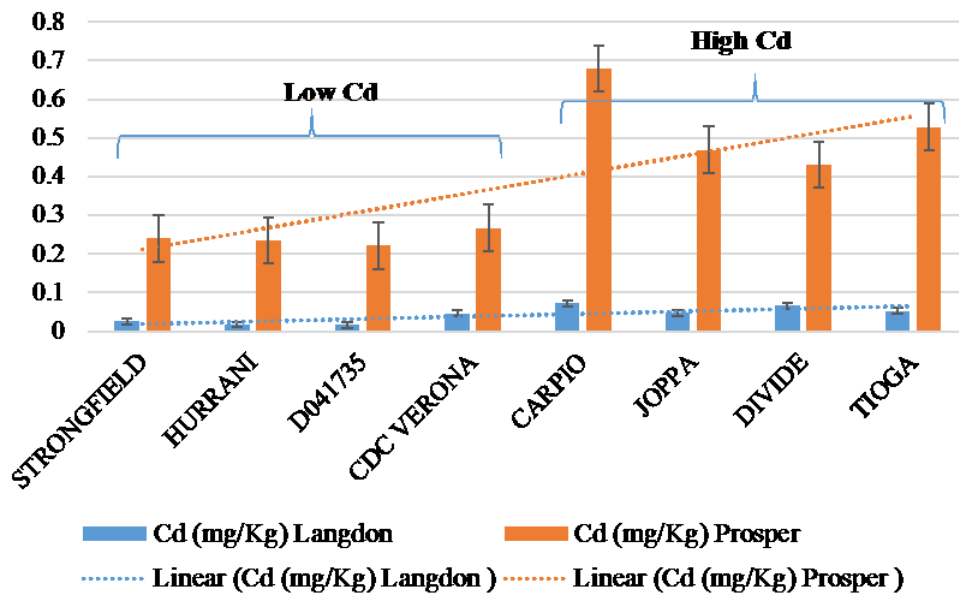


Figure 3-7. Comparing variability of grain Cd level among high accumulators and low accumulators in Langdon (blue bars) and in Prosper (orange bars)

To test if these five individuals also had alleles similar to high Cd checks and the rest of 70 individuals which did not show low Cd band with marker *Xusw47* were inheriting their low Cd uptake gene from D041735, we also tested a KASPar assay for *Kukri\_c66357\_357*, the marker associated with major Cd QTL in the D041735 × Divide population (Chapter 2). This marker showed different alleles for D041735 (T) and Strongfield (C), and Haurani (C) (Table 3-5). The genotyping of the whole D041735 × Strongfield RIL population with



*Kukri\_c66357\_357*, showed that those 70 individuals have the same allele as D041735 (T). As expected, 73 individuals have the same banding pattern as Strongfield and Haurrani, with *Xusw47* marker, and showed allele C with *Kukri\_c66357\_357*(Figure 3-8). But more importantly, the five individuals with the high Cd uptake phenotype showed the same banding pattern as the high Cd uptake checks with the *Xusw47* marker (220 bp) and the same alleles as the high Cd uptake checks with *Kukri\_c66357\_357*(C) (Figure 3-4, Figure 3-5 and Figure 3-8). This explains the segregation between two genes governing Cd uptake in the durum wheat parents in this study (Table 3-5).

Table 3-3. Phenotypic performance of parents and checks in the D041735 × Strongfield RIL population

D041735 × Strongfield (RIL population)		
Parents	Cd Content (mg/kg)	
	Langdon	Prosper
D041735	0.016	0.221
Strongfield	0.025	0.240
Checks		
Haurani	0.017	0.235
CD-Veronica	0.046	0.267
Carpio	0.072	0.679
Joppa	0.047	0.469
Divide	0.066	0.430
Tioga	0.052	0.528
Parameter for Normal Distribution		
Mean	0.027	0.248
Minimum	0.014	0.144
Maximum	0.044	0.518
Standard Deviation	0.006	0.051
LSD (0.05)	0.011	0.101

Table 3-4. Lines with a significantly high Cd phenotype derived from the cross D041735 × Strongfield

D041735 × Strongfield (RIL population)		
Significantly high Cd lines	Cd Content (mg/kg)	
	Langdon	Prosper
83	0.032	0.391
89	0.031	0.518
91	0.042	0.423
110	0.028	0.360
133	0.036	0.362

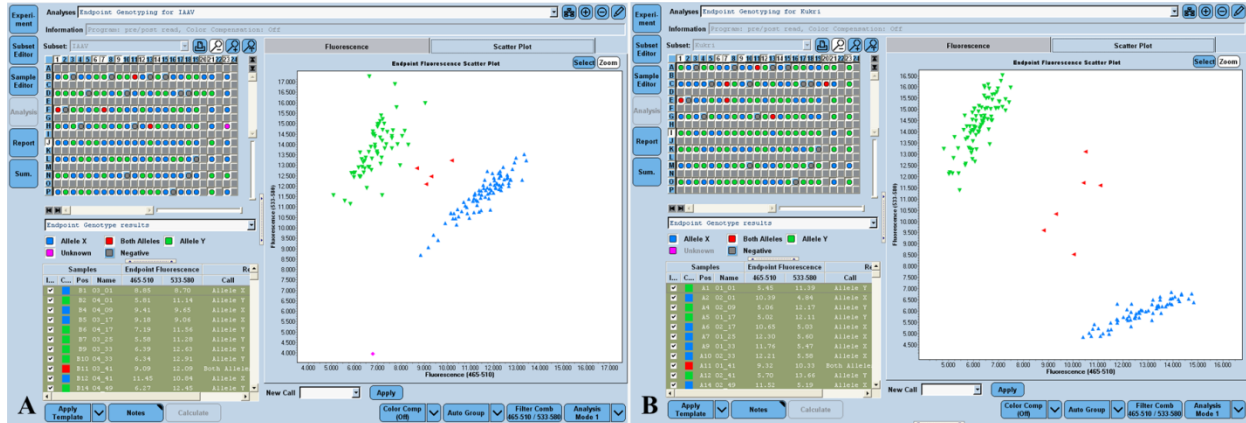


Figure 3-8. Polymorphism results of running KASPar assay *Kukri\_c66357\_357* (A) and *IAAV1448* (B) on RILs population derived from D041735 × Strongfield

Table 3-5. Summary of the comparison of the genotypic results of CAPs Cd-linked marker (*Xusw47*) with Kaspas assay Cd-linked flanking markers (*Kukri\_c66357\_357* and *IAAV1448*) among parents and high Cd phenotype lines.

High Cd Phenotype Lines	Phenotype	Genotype		
		Cd uptake marker source(Strongfield/Haurani)		Cd uptake marker source(D041735)
		<i>Xusw47</i>	<i>Kukri_c66357_357</i>	<i>IAAV1448</i>
		350bp Low Cd 220bp High Cd	T Low Cd C High Cd	C Low Cd T High Cd
83	High Cd	220	C	T
89	High Cd	220	C	T
91	High Cd	220	C	T
110	High Cd	220	C	T
133	High Cd	220	C	T
Parents	Phenotype			
D041735	Low Cd	220	T	C
Strongfield	Low Cd	350	C	T

Because Haurani and Strongfield (both low Cd genotypes) showed the same allelic pattern for Cd associated markers (*Xusw47* and *Kukri\_c66357\_357*), another population developed from a cross between D041735 and Haurani was also used for allelism testing and

validation of the results of the earlier Strongfield and D041735 cross. The summary of descriptive phenotypic performance of this population is shown in Table 3-6.

Table 3-6. Phenotypic performance of parents and checks in the mapping population D041735 × Haurani

D041735 × Haurani (RIL population)		
Parents	Cd Content (mg/kg)	
	Langdon	Prosper
D041735	0.020	0.196
Haurani	0.022	0.258
Checks		
Strongfield	0.022	0.242
CD-Veronica	0.028	0.262
Carpio	0.127	0.778
Joppa	0.088	0.639
Divide	0.046	0.534
Carpio	0.121	0.786
Parameter for Normal Distribution		
Mean	0.028	0.260
Minimum (no checks)	0.005	0.117
Maximum (no checks)	0.080	0.592
Standard Deviation	0.010	0.069
LSD (0.05)	0.021	0.137

Table 3-7. Lines with a significantly high Cd phenotype derived from the cross D041735 × Haurani

D041735 × Haurani (RIL population)		
Significantly high Cd lines	Cd Content (mg/kg)	
	Langdon	Prosper
48	0.080	0.541
63	0.066	0.592
126	0.055	0.405
127	0.053	0.527
135	0.046	0.408
139	0.043	0.402

The D041735 × Haurani RIL population showed the same allelic patterns for the *Xusw47* marker as was observed for the D041735 × Strongfield population (Figure 3-9, Figure 3-10, Figure 3-11 and, Figure 3-12). Sixty-one individuals showed the same banding pattern as Haurani, and 82 individuals showed the same banding pattern as the high Cd uptake checks.

Phenotypic analysis of these 82 individuals explained that 76 of them are categorized as low Cd uptake and only six of them are categorized as high Cd uptake (Table. 2-7).

The DNA from three of these six individuals was not available because of a germination problem in the greenhouse). However, the other three individuals did not show low Cd alleles like in D041735 or a low Cd banding pattern like Haurani, which confirms the high Cd phenotype for these individuals. The 76 individuals inherited their low Cd uptake gene from D041535, and that is why they did not show a low Cd uptake banding pattern like Haurani (Table 3-8).

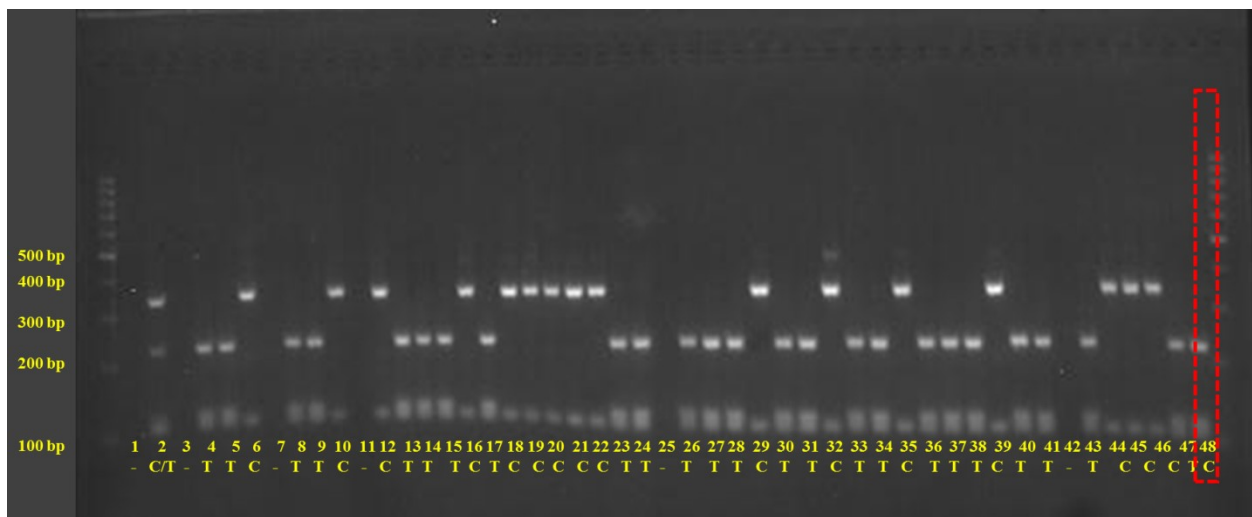


Figure 3-9. Genotyping results of *Xusw47* (banding patterns; 220bp: High Cd, 350 bp low Cd) and designed KASPar of Kukri\_c66357\_357 (letters at the bottom; T: low Cd, C: High Cd) for lines 1 to 48 of RILs derived from the cross D041735 and Haurani. Red rectangles indicate lines with a high Cd content both phenotypically and genotypically.

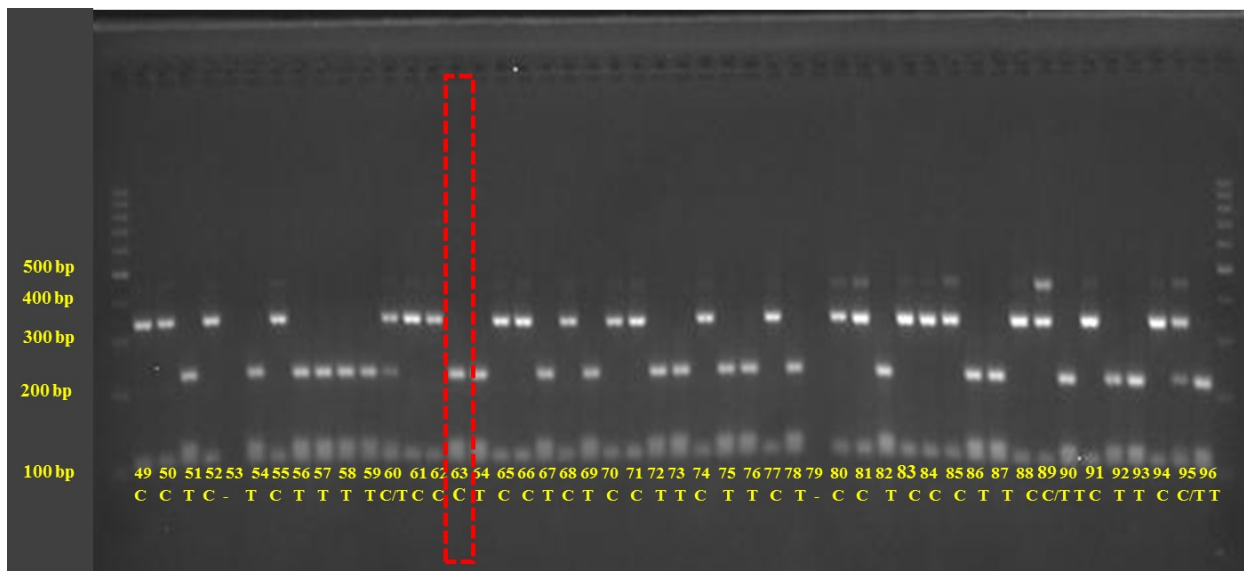


Figure 3-10. Genotyping results of *Xusw47* (banding patterns; 220bp: High Cd, 350 bp low Cd) and designed KASPar of *Kukri\_c66357\_357* (letters at the bottom; T: low Cd, C: High Cd) for lines 49 to 96 of RILs derived from the cross D041735 and Hauraani. Red rectangles indicate lines with a high Cd content both phenotypically and genotypically.

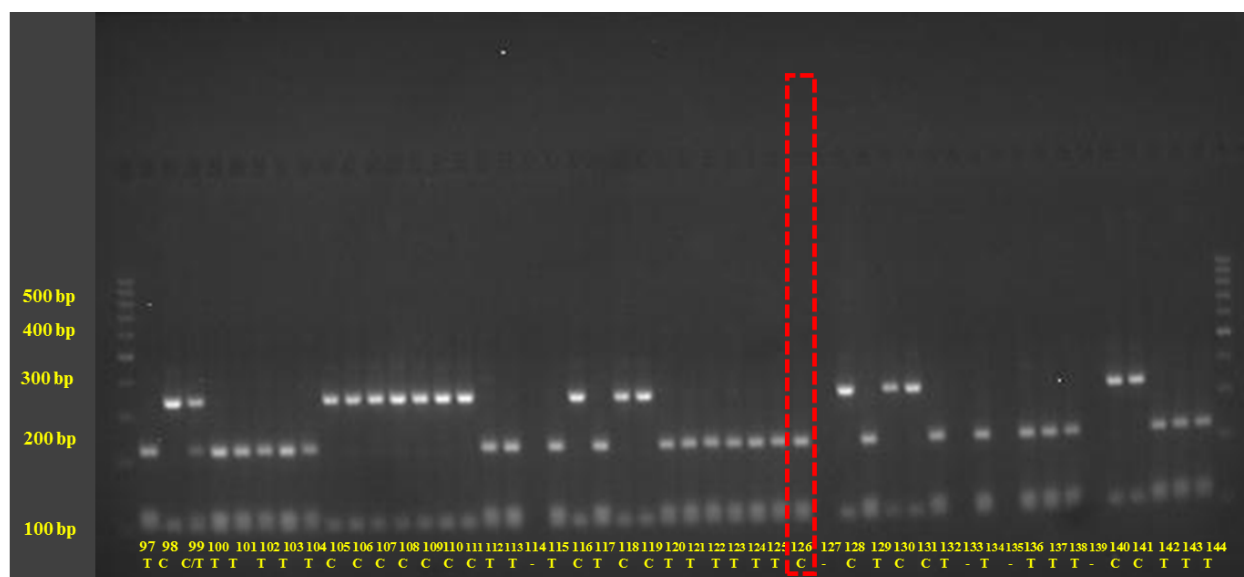


Figure 3-11. Genotyping results of *Xusw47* (banding patterns; 220bp: High Cd, 350 bp low Cd) and designed KASPar of *Kukri\_c66357\_357* (letters at the bottom; T: low Cd, C: High Cd) for lines 97 to 144 of RILs derived from the cross D041735 and Haurani. Red rectangles indicate lines with a high Cd content both phenotypically and genotypically.

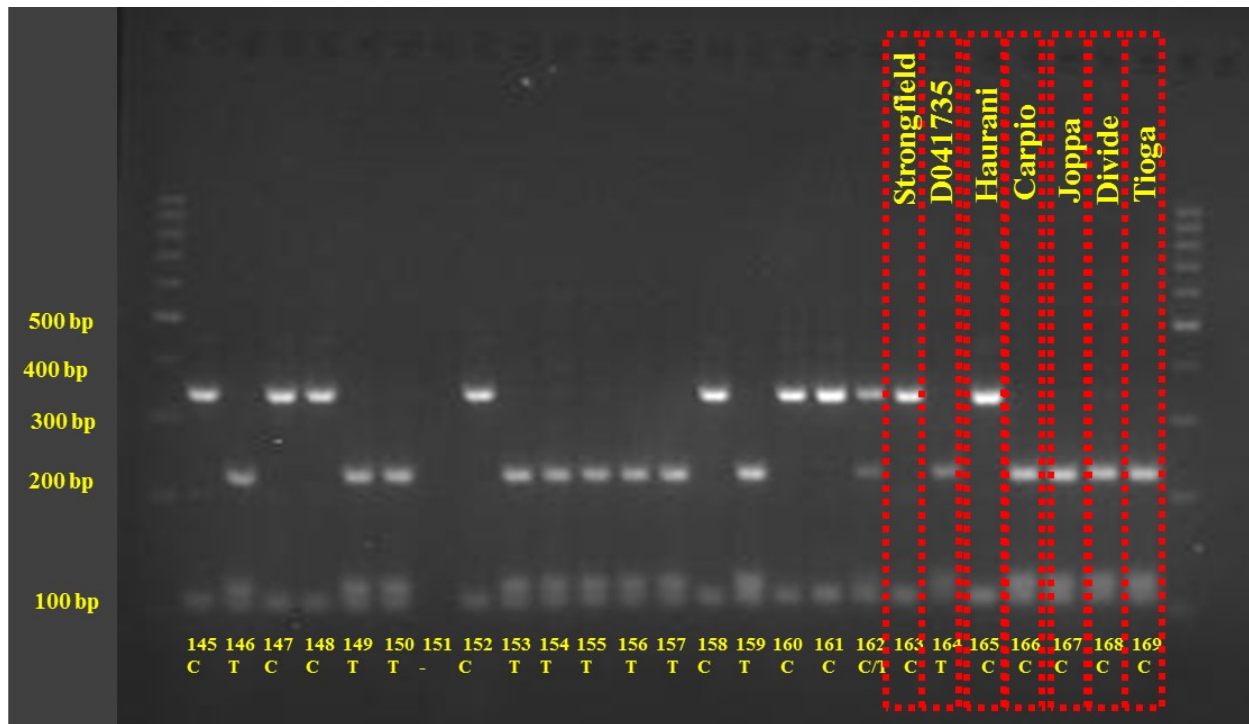


Figure 3-12. Genotyping results of *Xusw47* (banding patterns; 220bp: High Cd, 350 bp low Cd) and designed KASPar of *Kukri\_c66357\_357* (letters at the bottom; T: low Cd, C: High Cd) for lines 145 to 169 of RILs derived from the cross D041735 and Haurani. Red rectangles indicate checks.

Table 3-8. Summary of the comparison of genotypic pattern of CAPs marker *Xusw47* and with KASPar markers *Kukri\_c66357\_357* and *IAAV1448* among parents and high Cd RILs

High Cd Phenotype Lines	Phenotype	Genotype		
		Cd uptake marker source (Strongfield/Haurani)		Cd uptake marker source (D041735)
		<i>Xusw47</i>	<i>Kukri_c66357_357</i>	<i>IAAV1448</i>
		350 Low Cd 200bp High Cd	T Low Cd C High Cd	C Low Cd T High Cd
48	High Cd	220	C	T
63	High Cd	220	C	T
126	High Cd	220	C	T
127	High Cd	-	-	-
135	High Cd	-	-	-
139	High Cd	-	-	-
<b>Parents</b>	<b>Phenotype</b>			
D041735	Low Cd	220	T	C
Haurani	Low Cd	350	C	T

Overall, this study identified about five to six lines with a high Cd uptake in populations derived from the crosses D041735/Strongfield and D041735/Haurani. These results clearly

indicate that two different genes or alleles are controlling Cd uptake in D041735 and Strongfield or Haurani. This also means that D041735 is a new source for low Cd uptake in durum wheat, the gene for which can be introgressed from hexaploid wheat.

### **3.5. Discussion**

This study investigated whether the major low Cd uptake QTLs identified on 5BL in D041735 is same which was identified earlier in populations derived from other low Cd uptake sources Strongfield and Haurani or if they are different. This is because the newly developed low Cd genotype D041735 did not involve any low Cd uptake durum wheat source (Strongfield and Haurani) in its pedigree; rather it was developed from a hexaploid wheat as one of the parents. Hexaploid wheat possesses a low Cd uptake phenotype.

A major QTL for Cd uptake in the Canadian cultivar Strongfield was associated with marker *Xusw47* (Wiebe et al., 2010). This EST-derived CAPs marker successfully separates low Cd uptake from high Cd uptake durum lines by different banding patterns on electrophoresis gel. The same research team also designed other CAPs markers, including *Xusw14*, *Xusw15* and *Xusw17*, from EST-derived markers flanking *Xusw47*, all of which were polymorphic in durum wheat populations (Wiebe et al., 2010). The marker *Xusw47* was found to be highly efficient for the MAS approach for Cd uptake in durum wheat (Zimmerl et al., 2014). However, it has been reported that, surprisingly, none of these markers were polymorphic in a hexaploid wheat population derived from a cross between Chinese Spring (CS-low Cd) and CS-*Triticum dicoccoides* (High Cd), (Wiebe et al., 2010). Wiebe et al. hypothesized that it could be due to existence of another gene on the D-genome of hexaploid wheat controlling low Cd uptake in CS-low Cd. In this study, the markers *Xusw47* and *Xusw14* associated with Cd uptake in Strongfield did not show any polymorphism between D041735 and high Cd uptake durum lines such as

Divide, Joppa, and Carpio. Moreover, the SNPs associated with a low Cd from D041735 did not show polymorphism between low Cd sources (Haurani and Strongfield) and high Cd uptake genotypes (Divide, Joppa, and Carpio), which could confirm the existence of another allele/gene for Cd uptake in wheat.

Table 3-9. Summary of the genotyping results of previously and current markers linked to Cd uptake among three sources of grain low Cd level

Identified markers for Cd accumulation in durum	Allele for Strongfield (Canadian Durum)	Allele for Haurani (Land Race-Syria)	Allele for D041737 (NDSU experimental line)
Xusw47 (Wiebe et al., 2010)	Low allele	Low allele	High allele
w SNP_Ex_c1343_2570756 (AbuHammad, et al., 2016)	Low allele	Low allele	not been mapped in our population
Kukri_c66357_357current research, 2017	High allele	High allele	Low allele

Strongfield is a Canadian cultivar with a pedigree of /Kyle/Niel/2/Ac Avonlea/DT665. (Clarke, McCaig, et al., 2005). The low Cd characteristic in Strongfield was obtained from Niel, which like Haurani, is a landrace collected by the International Center of Agricultural Research in Dry Area, Syria. In contrast, D041735 is an experimental line developed from a cross between D011543 and Lebsock. The experimental line D011543 was developed from a cross between a hexaploid wheat Sumai 3 and Lebsock. Sumai 3 is a Chinese wheat cultivar (CS). CS is a land race collected from china that has been used in many wheat breeding programs as a source of Fusarium head blight resistance. Since Sumai 3, like most of the hexaploid wheat cultivars, possesses the low Cd uptake characteristic, this study assumed that D041735 inherited the low Cd uptake phenotype from the hexaploid wheat Sumai 3. This also means that D041735 is a new source for low Cd uptake now available in durum wheat. This was confirmed by analysis of markers associated with Cd uptake in D041735 and other sources of low Cd Strongfield and Haurani.



Based on the results collectively from Chapter 2 and Chapter 3, the following discusses three results that suggest that D041735 is a new source for Cd uptake originating in hexaploid wheat and that the major QTL identified in the D041735 × Divide population is different than the one identified in populations derived from the other low Cd sources Strongfield and Haurani.

***1- Differences in amplification patterns detected by molecular markers linked to Cd in the populations developed from D041735 and populations developed from Strongfield and Haurani; all three sources have low Cd content in grains***

In the Chapter 2, the Cd-linked SNPs identified in this study were found to be insignificant in any population with a background other than D041735. Similarly, none of the previously identified Cd-linked CAPs markers were significant in the population developed from D041735. Also, a validation test study by Salsman (2016) on NDSU durum wheat germplasm showed that the Cd-associated RAPD marker OPC20 (Penner et al., 1995), is insignificant in populations derived from D041735. The same study showed that the SNP for Cd identified by AbuHammad et al. (2016) (wsnp\_Ex\_c17754\_26503892) was a less useful marker, and the SNP wsnp\_Ex\_c1343\_2570756 was the most useful for the NDSU durum wheat breeding program. In this study, wsnp\_Ex\_c17754\_26503892 was mapped tightly linked to the markers flanking the major QTL, while wsnp\_Ex\_c1343\_2570756 did not show polymorphism when mapped in this population. From the above, it can be concluded that the detected QTL in this study is not linked to the previously detected QTLs for Cd uptake. Several studies that have introduced new sources for specific traits also reported the findings of different amplification patterns in the new sources (Burnham et al., 2003; Garcia et al., 2008; Lin et al., 1996; McCabe 2015; and Sun et al., 2011).

***2- Progenies segregation in allelism testing of intercrossing low Cd uptake sources and detecting genotypically and phenotypically high Cd grain content among progenies of two population in two locations***

The allelism test in this study showed genetic segregation among progenies of the populations derived from the Strongfield/D041735 and Haurrani/D041735 for Cd uptake associated identified markers in different plant sources (*Xusw47* or *Kukri\_c66357\_357*). If the low Cd uptake gene in Strongfield and Haurani is the same as that in D041735, then polymorphism should not have been seen among progenies. Further, if low Cd uptake in D041735 is controlled by the same gene as was found in Strongfield and Haurani but different allele, then progenies with a high level of Cd (genotypically and phenotypically in both populations and both locations) should not be seen. In many studies, allelism testing was used to confirm the existence of a new gene/allele for a specific trait. For example, a new allele for Powdery mildew resistance was discovered in a wheat experimental line (FG-1) using SNPs and SSR markers in the F<sub>2:3</sub> population (Ma et al., 2016). In soybeans, a new allele for rust resistance was mapped and confirmed in the 98 F<sub>3:4</sub> population derived from a new source of resistance line called pi 594538A using SNP and SSR markers (Chakraborty et al., 2009). A novel gene for bacterial blight resistance was identified in the Zhachanglong cultivar of rice. The RFLP markers and F<sub>2</sub> segregation population confirmed that this gene is none allelic to other resistance genes previously reported (Lin et al., 1996). More studies in different species have used the same strategy for finding new sources for improving germplasm either with a gene pyramiding approach or releasing more suitable cultivars into the breeding program (Chen et al., 2001; Himabindu et al., 2007; Pan et al., 1999; Randhawa et al., 2015; Sallaud et al., 2003; and Soria et al., 2003)

### ***3- Same amplification pattern of D041035 DNA for low Cd uptake with Sumai 3 and the origin of three low Cd uptake sources***

From the above, it can be concluded that hexaploid wheat has a different gene for low Cd uptake than durum wheat. This study tested this hypothesis using reciprocal markers. Results showed the same amplification pattern of Sumai 3 as with the D041735 line. This result was exactly what was expected because D0417735 was developed from Sumai 3. Therefore, this study contends that another gene for low Cd uptake in hexaploid wheat prevents it from accumulating high grain Cd, but rejects that the gene would be located on genome D (Wiebe et al., 2010). This study's findings show that the low Cd uptake gene in hexaploid wheat is located on the long arm of chromosome 5B.

Several studies show that grain Cd variation is significant among modern durum wheat lines compared with hexaploid wheat, (Cakmak et al., 2000; Greger and Löfstedt, 2004; Harris and Taylor, 2001; Harris and Taylor, 2004; and Hart et al., 1998). It has been reported that some durum genotypes accumulate eight times and even in one case up to 20 times more Cd compared to some low Cd durum genotypes. Based on the findings of these studies, the Cd concentration in the root surface in durum wheat and hexaploid wheat is not significantly different. Therefore, one suggested possibility is that hexaploid wheat has a possible redistribution mechanism that rectifies Cd from shoot to root. Looking at the evolutionary history of hexaploid and durum wheat may lead to a better understanding of the existence of two different genes in these two species. Hexaploid wheat evolved from a hybridization between tetraploid wheat (A and B genome) with a diploid *Ae. tauschii* (D genome) (Faris, 2014). However, it does not mean that gene expression in hexaploid wheat is the same as its ancestors. A dynamic genome of hexaploid wheat makes it capable of creating some level of its own variety via experiencing forms of

mutations affecting genes and regulatory elements (Faris, 2014). Hexaploid wheat has taken excessive gene diversity from the tetraploid progenitor (Dubcovsky and Dvorak, 2007). Therefore, the changes during the long-term of evolution of wheat at the micro level, followed by genetic screening at the macro level, might have influenced the resistance of hexaploid wheat to Cd uptake with precipitating new gene. However, identifying two genes for low Cd uptake in wheat suggests a possible involvement of the gene family in Cd uptake mechanism. Yet, future studies may focus on the map base cloning and sequencing of these genes to discover the origin and development of low Cd uptake family gene in durum and hexaploidy wheat.

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## CHAPTER 4. GENERAL CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

This study suggests that Cd uptake resistance is controlled by different genes in hexaploid and tetraploid wheat. The durum wheat line D041735 developed by the NDSU durum wheat breeding program is a novel source of low Cd as it carries the major gene for Cd uptake resistance from hexaploid wheat. This gene from hexaploid wheat along with the major gene identified in the durum wheat cultivars Strongfield and Haurani could function in the same process. But since the NDSU durum wheat breeding program constantly found a lower level of Cd uptake in D041735 compared to Strongfield and Haurani, this study suggests that this gene from hexaploid wheat has a slightly different mechanism for redistribution of Cd from shoot to root, which also coincides with previously mentioned studies that found the low Cd accumulation in low durum accumulators was 1.5 times higher than that found in hexaploid wheat. However, mapping these two genes close to each other might suggest that is the presence of a hot spot on this region on the long arm of chromosome 5B in wheat that regulates heavy metal transporters. This study suggests the introgression of this new gene from the D041735 durum line into other lines of the NDSU durum wheat breeding program. This line is better adapted to this durum wheat growing region and best suited for the NDSU durum wheat breeding program's focus on developing both Cd uptake and Fusarium Head Blight resistance. This study suggests that markers, *RAC875\_c20785\_1219* and *Kukri\_c66357\_357* will be useful in the MAS approach for speeding up the breeding progress for developing low Cd cultivars derived from D041735 and hexaploid wheat. In the future, a fine mapping study using available genomic resources could lead to map-based gene cloning of this low Cd uptake gene and a more efficient resource for selecting low Cd uptake durum wheat using genomic tools. However, to take advantages of both low Cd uptake genes and additive genetic variation, some breeding

attempts might be taken in future to convert the repulsion phase of these two genes to coupling phase.

Based on this study's evidence that the Cd uptake gene in D041735 is clearly a new source at the hot spot of heavy transporter regulation of chromosome 5B, assignment of a new gene symbol, Cdu2, would seem appropriate.

## **APPENDIX. GENETIC LINKAGE MAP CONSTRUCTED USING D041735×DIVIDE**

3,923 SNPs were assigned to 14 chromosomes of durum wheat in 28 linkage groups from a RILs mapping population derived from a cross between D041735 and Divide. The position of each marker locus is shown on the left side of each linkage group, and the corresponding marker's name is shown on the right side of each linkage group.

