

Genetic variation for plant growth traits in a common wheat population is dominated by known variants and novel QTL

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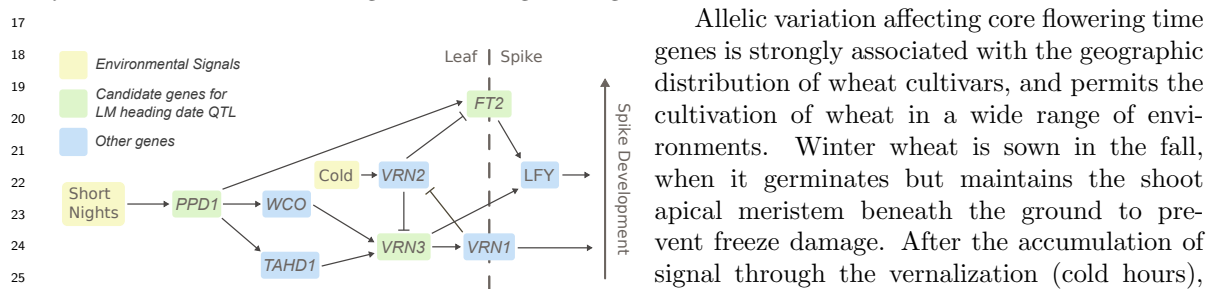
Abstract

Genetic variation in growth over the course of the season is a major source of grain yield variation in wheat, and for this reason variants controlling heading date and plant height are among the best-characterized in wheat genetics. While the major variants for these traits have been cloned, the importance of these variants in contributing to genetic variation for plant growth over time is not fully understood. Here we develop a biparental population segregating for major variants for both plant height and flowering time to characterize the genetic architecture of the traits and identify additional novel QTL. We find that additive genetic variation for both traits is almost entirely associated with major and moderate-effect QTL, including four novel heading date QTL and four novel plant height QTL. *FT2* and *Vrn-A3* are proposed as candidate genes underlying QTL on chromosomes 3A and 7A, while *Rht8* is mapped to chromosome 2D. These mapped QTL also underlie genetic variation in a longitudinal analysis of plant growth over time. The oligogenic architecture of these traits is further demonstrated by the superior trait prediction accuracy of QTL-based prediction models compared to polygenic genomic selection models. In a population constructed from two modern wheat cultivars adapted to the southeast U.S., almost all additive genetic variation in plant growth traits is associated with known major variants or novel moderate-effect QTL. Major transgressive segregation was observed in this population despite the similar plant height and heading date characters of the parental lines. This segregation is being driven primarily by a small number of mapped QTL, instead of by many small-effect, undetected QTL. As most breeding populations in the southeast U.S. segregate for known QTL for these traits, genetic variation in plant height and heading date in these populations likely emerges from similar combinations of major and moderate effect QTL. We can make more accurate and cost-effective prediction models by targeted genotyping of key SNPs.

1 Introduction

- 2 Wheat is a major food crop, contributing nearly 20% of human calories and protein (FAO, 2020).
- 3 Wheat yield is highly polygenic, with variation in yield emerging from variation in other phenotypes
- 4 each with different genetic bases. Plant growth traits such as heading date (when the spike emerges
- 5 from the flag leaf) and adult plant height affect yield by both altering resource partitioning between

6 tissues and changing how plants experience environmental factors. A plant's height on a given date
 7 alters the physical position of the plant within its environment, influencing that plant's interactions
 8 with environmental factors like wind, weed competitors, and rain-splashed pathogens. Differences
 9 in heading date change the temporal position of plants at a given developmental stage, exposing
 10 them to different weather conditions and disease pressures. Wheat breeders typically select for
 11 optimal values of plant height and heading date for a given environment and production system in
 12 early generations based on unreplicated head rows. Beyond this selection, improvements in yield
 13 resulting from modern plant breeding programs have largely been generated without considering its
 14 underlying genetic architecture, including the dependence of final plant yield on variation in plant
 15 growth trajectories. Understanding the plant development factors that generate genetic variation in
 16 yield is critical to increasing the rate of genetic gain in wheat.



27 Figure 1: Overview of the wheat flowering time pathway.
 28 The gene network through which wheat plants receive and
 29 integrate signal about environmental conditions to deter-
 30 mine heading date are outlined. Other, intermediate genes
 31 are not shown. Genes proposed as candidate for heading
 32 QTL in this population are highlighted in green. Other im-
 33 portant genes in the flowering time pathway are high-
 34 lighted in blue; *Wheat CONSTANS (WCO)*, *Triticum aestivum*
HD1 (TaHD1), *VERNALIZATION1 (VRN1)*, *VERNAL-*
IZATION2 (VRN2), and *LEAFY (LFY)*.

35
 36 Allelic variation affecting core flowering time
 37 genes is strongly associated with the geographic
 38 distribution of wheat cultivars, and permits the
 39 cultivation of wheat in a wide range of envi-
 40 ronments. Winter wheat is sown in the fall,
 41 when it germinates but maintains the shoot
 42 apical meristem beneath the ground to pre-
 43 vent freeze damage. After the accumulation of
 44 signal through the vernalization (cold hours),
 45 photoperiod (night length), and earliness-per-se
 46 (plant age) pathways, plants release from win-
 47 ter dormancy and transition to reproductive de-
 velopment. Allelic series in the *Vernalization1*
 (*Vrn1*) loci on the three chromosome 5 homeo-
 logues condition a spring or winter growth habit
 by controlling the sensitivity of plants to vernal-
 ization (Fig. 1) (Yan et al., 2004; Fu et al.,
 2005; Li et al., 2013). Additional alleles at these
 loci, some associated with copy number varia-
 tion, may also modulate vernalization response in
 vernalization-sensitive winter lines (Fu et al.,
 2005; Díaz et al., 2012; Guedira et al., 2014,
 2016; Kippes et al., 2018). *Photoperiod1 (Ppd1)*
 is another core flowering time gene which inte-
 grate signals due to length of nights and allows
 plants to time flowering based on photoperiod.
 Variants affecting homeologous *Ppd1* loci on all
 three genomes lead to constitutive over-expression
 of *Ppd1* and a photoperiod-insensitive, earlier
 flowering habit (Beales et al., 2007; Nishida et
 al., 2013; Guedira et al., 2016). Breeding for
 an optimal heading date for a given environment
 allows plants enough time to add additional
 spikelets per spike prior to heading, which in-
 creases grain number, and to accumulate carbo-
 hydrates and fill grain, which increases grain
 size. Non-optimal flowering can expose plants to
 temperatures below freezing early in the season,
 or to excessive heat and drought late in the
 growing season. In southern U.S. field sites,
Vrn1 and *Ppd1* alleles have strong effects on
 final grain yield of winter wheat (Addison et
 al., 2016).

48 Introduction of "green revolution" dwarfing genes
 49 *Rht-B1* and *Rht-D1* – knock-out mutations in
 50 *DELLA* proteins – into US and CIMMYT germ-
 51 plasm dramatically improved yields by increas-
 52 ing wheat harvest index and preventing lodging
 53 due to applied inorganic nitrogen fertilizer (Hed-
 den, 2003). The effect of the *Rht1* genes is
 conditional on the environment and the quantity
 of assimilate produced by the variety, and has
 been associated with larger grain number but
 smaller grain size and weight (Borner et al.,
 1993). *Rht1* alleles disable plants' ability to
 respond to gibberellic acid (GA-

54 insensitivity), which may have negative effects on coleoptile length and early plant vigor that can
55 decrease yield in some environments (Rebetzke and Richards, 2000). Increase in seed number and
56 grain yield seems to be related not to ear development but to the greater availability of assimilates
57 during grain-fill with reduced biomass partitioned into stalks (Youssefian et al., 1992). Breeders
58 generally select plants near some optimal height value, as too-short plants have a generally lower
59 yield compared to semi-dwarfs characteristic of having only one *Rht* allele (Fischer and Quail, 1990).
60 An increasing number of dwarfing genes in wheat have been fine-mapped, and many, though not
61 most, have been cloned.

62 Genomic selection is restructuring modern wheat breeding programs. The ability to leverage data
63 from past years to predict unobserved lines has tremendous potential to increase the rate of genetic
64 gain. Beyond yield predictions, heading date and plant height predictions are valued by breeders,
65 allowing them to exclude phenotypically extreme individuals without having to dedicate resources
66 to planting and phenotyping in multiple environments. Standard GBLUP and rrBLUP models are
67 optimized for highly polygenic traits like yield, but will underestimate QTL effect sizes and perform
68 poorly with traits dominated by a smaller number of larger-effect QTL. Explicitly characterizing
69 and taking into account large-effect QTL in traits where these QTL explain a substantial portion of
70 additive genetic variation can increase prediction accuracy (Bernardo, 2014; Sarinelli et al., 2019).
71 This may have even more promise in biparental populations where the number of segregating causal
72 variants is much smaller. If traits are mostly controlled by a few major variants, models using
73 markers for just those variants can be predictive and more cost-effective.

74 Here we set out to understand the genetic basis of plant growth traits in a biparental common
75 wheat population. Parents were chosen to generate major additive genetic variation for plant height
76 and heading date and to characterize novel QTL for these traits. Parent SS-MPV57 carries the large-
77 effect earliness allele *Ppd-D1a* as well as the smaller-effect allele *Ppd-A1a.1*, but no known dwarfing
78 genes. Parent LA95135 carries the major dwarfing allele *Rht-D1b* but no known earliness genes except
79 the smaller-effect *Ppd-A1a.1* allele. This parental selection contrasts with typical mapping studies,
80 where the two parents generally differ for the trait of interest. Here, due to our understanding
81 of already characterized major variants, we developed a population with the goal of generating
82 transgressive segregation for our target phenotypes. A high-density sequence-based linkage map was
83 supplemented with single SNP assays for putative causal variants in order to map novel QTL and
84 study marker-trait associations for known variants. Phenotypic variation in each environment was
85 partitioned into components associated with mapped QTL and the polygenic background in order
86 to assess the relative importance of identified QTL. Different models were tested for prediction of
87 both traits to determine if a simple QTL model would be sufficient in the context of a breeding
88 program. Finally, a longitudinal analysis of multiple measures of plant height over time was used to
89 determine QTL effects over the course of plant growth in a field season.

90 2 Materials and Methods

91 Population Development

92 Soft-red winter wheat lines developed by southeastern public-sector breeding programs were screened
93 for alleles at known plant height and heading date variants using Kompetitive Allele-Specific PCR
94 (KASP) markers. Louisiana State University forage cultivar LA95135 (CL-850643/PIONEER-
95 2548//COKER-9877/3/FL-302/COKER-762) was chosen as a parent lacking major early-flowering
96 alleles at the *Ppd-D1* or *Vrn-1* loci, but with a mid-season heading date when grown in North
97 Carolina. Cultivar SS-MVP57 (FFR555W/3/VA89-22-52/TYLER //REDCOAT*2/GAINES) de-
98 veloped at Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University displayed semi-dwarf stature but

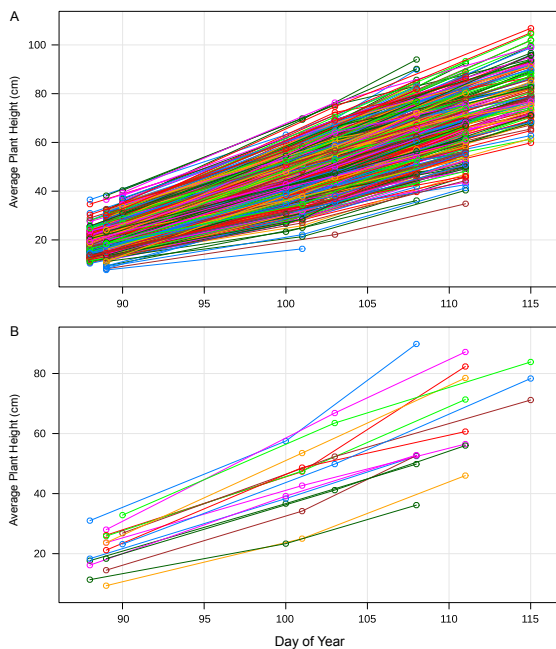
99 lacked dwarfing alleles at the *Rht1* loci. SS-MPV57 carries the *Ppd-D1a* allele conferring photoperiod insensitivity, and LA95135 has the *Rht-D1b* allele conferring semi-dwarfism. Parent lines were
100 crossed, and F1 plants were selfed to generate an F₂ population (hereafter referred to as the LM
101 population). The F₂ and later generations were inbred via the single-seed descent method until the
102 F₅ generation, producing 358 F₅-derived recombinant inbred lines (RILs).
103

104 Phenotyping

105 During the winter of 2016-2017, an experiment was conducted in the greenhouse to evaluate heading
106 date. Imbibed seeds from each RIL were placed in a cold chamber kept at 4°C for 8 weeks and were
107 transplanted into plastic cones (volume 0.7L, 6.5 cm in diameter and 25 cm depth) containing soil
108 mix. Plants were grown in a completely randomized design with four replications in a greenhouse
109 set at 16 hr photoperiod and 20°C /15°C (day/night) temperature.
110

111 To evaluate the impact of vernalization on
112 the genetic architecture of heading date and on
113 effects of individual QTL, the greenhouse ex-
114 periment was repeated with a low-vernalization
115 treatment in the winter of 2017-2018. This ex-
116 periment was performed as above, except that
117 imbibed seeds were placed in the cold chamber
118 for only four weeks prior to transplanting. In
119 addition, the LM RIL population was evaluated
120 in the field at Raleigh, NC and Kinston, NC
121 during the 2017-2018 season, and in Raleigh,
122 Kinston, and Plains, GA in the 2018-2019 sea-
123 son, sown in the fall at the locally recommended
124 times for commercial winter wheat production.
125 The 358 RILs were grown using an augmented
126 set within replications design to facilitate plant-
127 ing of this large population. RIL experiments
128 consisted of two fully replicated blocks of all
129 358 lines organized into five sets of 71 or 72
130 RILs. The order of the sets within each repli-
131 cation and the order of the RILs within each
132 set were randomized at each location. Three
133 parental checks were planted at the beginning
134 of each set of RILs, along with four or five addi-
135 tional parental checks randomized within each
136 set.

137 Plots consisted of 1-m rows spaced 30 cm
138 apart. Adult plant height was measured as the
139 distance from the ground to the top of the spikes
140 of a sample of tillers from the center of each row,
141 excluding the awns. Heading date was measured
142 as the day on which approximately half of the heads in each row had fully emerged from the flag
143 leaf, typically a few days prior to anthesis. To study plant development over time, three measures of
144 plant height were collected for each row plot in Raleigh in 2019, with two to four blocks measured
roughly every ten days starting on March 29th and ending on April 25 (when most plants had fully



134 Figure 2: Plant growth over time. For each 1-m row plot
135 (differently colored line), a total of three plant height values
136 was collected in Raleigh in 2019. All plots are shown (A),
137 as well as a random subset to better visualize plant growth
138 (B). Mean plant growth follows a roughly linear pattern
139 corresponding to the date collected, with different slopes
140 and intercepts for each plot.
141

145 headed). In this case, plant height at each time point was calculated as the mean of the height of
146 three randomly chosen primary tillers from the ground to the base of the apical leaf sheath (Fig. 2).
147 All measurements were collected on an android tablet with the Fieldbook app (Rife and Poland,
148 2014).

149 Analysis of Phenotypes

150 For the greenhouse experiments where plants had been completely randomized within greenhouses,
151 genotype values for RILs were calculated as the mean of the four replications of each line. For field
152 experiments, best linear unbiased estimates (BLUEs) were calculated adjusting for these spatial
153 effects. The software ASReml-R (Butler et al., 2017) was used to calculate BLUEs with an AR1xAR1
154 correlated residuals model:

$$Y_{ik} \sim \mu + G_i + u_{ik} + e_{ik}$$

155 Where Y_{ik} is the observed phenotype for an individual row plot, μ is the intercept, G_i is the
156 fixed effect of genotype i , u_{ik} is the unit or "nugget" random residual effect for each observation k
157 representing the component of the variance due to observation or measurement instead of spatial
158 correlation, drawn from a distribution $u \sim iidN(0, \sigma_e^2)$, and e_{ik} is the spatially-correlated residual
159 drawn from the distribution $e \sim N(0, \sigma_e^2 \Sigma_r(\rho_r) \otimes \Sigma_c(\rho_c))$, whose variance is the direct product of
160 an $r \times r$ auto-correlation matrix $\Sigma_r(\rho_r)$ representing autoregressive correlations in the row direction
161 and $c \times c$ correlation matrix $\Sigma_c(\rho_c)$ representing autoregressive correlations in the column direction.
162 For all environments and phenotypes, a full model with autocorrelated columns and rows was found
163 to have a lower BIC and higher log likelihood than models with just the column autocorrelation or
164 no spatial correction. BLUEs were calculated as the sum of the genotype effect and the intercept
165 for each phenotype in each environment.

166 Genotyping and Linkage Map Construction

167 Tissue was collected from the F₅ greenhouse experiment, and seeds of the four F_{5,6} plants from each
168 line were bulked. Genotyping by sequencing (GBS; (Elshire et al., 2011)) was performed according
169 to Poland *et al.* 2012 (Poland et al., 2012), with ninety-six individual samples barcoded, pooled
170 into a single library, and sequenced on an Illumina HiSeq 2500. Tassel5GBSv2 pipeline version
171 5.2.35 (Glaubitz et al., 2014) was used to align raw reads to the International Wheat Genome
172 Sequencing Consortium (IWGSC) RefSeqv1.0 assembly (<https://wheat-urgi.versailles.inra.fr/Seq-Repository>) using Burrows-Wheeler aligner (BWA) version 0.7.12 to call SNPs (Li et al., 2009).
173 SNPs were filtered to retain samples with ≤ 20 percent missing data, ≥ 30 percent minor allele
174 frequency and ≤ 10 percent of heterozygous calls per marker.
175

176 KASP markers taken from the literature or designed from exome capture data of the parents
177 (triticeaetoolbox.org/wheat; Additional file 1: Table S1) were added to the GBS SNP data for
178 chromosome regions with low marker density and for causal variants segregating in the population.
179 Filtered SNPs were separated into chromosomes and ordered via alignment to the reference genome,
180 and a custom script was run to filter out genotyping errors that would result in a false double
181 recombination due to under or mis-calling of heterozygotes. The R package ASMap was used to
182 construct the maps as an F₅ RIL population (Taylor and Butler, 2017).

183 QTL Analysis

184 QTL mapping was performed in the R package `r/QTL` (Broman et al., 2003). Composite interval
185 mapping was used for initial QTL identification, and intervals were narrowed using a multiple QTL
186 model (MQM) as implemented in the `refineqtl` function. The `addqtl` function was used to identify
187 additional QTL using identified QTL as covariates. Empirical significance thresholds for a genome-
188 wide $\alpha = 0.05$ were determined using 1000 permutations for each trait. QTL effects were estimated
189 for significant QTL in each environment based on the estimated MQM positions using the `fitqtl`
190 functions, which fits a multiple regression where for genotype values Y_i for each individual i , and n
191 QTL Q , $Y_i \sim \sum_{h=1}^n Q_{ih} + e_i$.

192 Major variants *Ppd-D1* and *Rht-D1* alter functions of core genes in the flowering time and
193 gibberellic-acid response pathways, respectively, suggesting that their presence may alter the effects
194 of other variants impacting those pathways. Taking advantage of the large number of lines in the LM
195 population, two sub-populations of roughly 160 lines – each divided by genotype at the major-effect
196 QTL – were created for mapping of each phenotype. Lines called as heterozygous for the major-
197 effect QTL were excluded. The QTL mapping analysis was repeated for both of the sub-populations.
198 Identified QTL interactions discovered this way were validated by modifying the above `fitqtl` model
199 with a main effect for the identified QTL and an effect for its interaction with the major classifying
200 QTL.

201 Variance analysis was performed in the R package `lme4qtl`, which allows for the fitting of random
202 effects with supplied covariance matrices (Ziyatdinov et al., 2018). For known variants for which
203 KASP marker genotypes of the causal polymorphisms were available, the genotypes were used di-
204 rectly, and for novel QTL genotype probabilities from the `refineqtl` object were used. For testing
205 QTL, alleles were encoded in terms of the allele dosage of the LA95135 allele (0, 1, 2) without
206 estimating a dominance effect.

207 While BLUEs estimated using the correlated errors model were used for QTL mapping, to
208 estimate the relative importance of identified QTL in determining total phenotypic variation at the
209 level of individual plots models were re-fit in each environment using the unadjusted phenotypes as
210 the response. For each environment and phenotype, QTL effects and variance components for each
211 the additive and non-additive effects of genotypes were specified with the mixed model:

$$Y_{ik} \sim \sum_{h=1}^n Q_{ih} + g_{Ai} + g_{Ii} + e_{ik}$$

212 Where for each phenotype Y of genotype i in row plot k , fixed effects for each QTL h were fit
213 as regressions of allele dosage on phenotypes. g_{Ai} represents the random additive effect of genotype
214 i with a variance specified by the realized relationship matrix ($g_A \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \mathbf{G}\sigma_g^2)$), calculated using
215 the `A.mat` function in the R package `rrBLUP` from the scaled GBS marker matrix ($\mathbf{G} = \frac{\mathbf{W}\mathbf{W}'}{c}$,
216 where \mathbf{W} is the scaled marker matrix calculated as $W_{ik} = X_{ik} + 1 - 2p_k$ from the frequency of
217 the 1 allele at marker k (p_k) and the marker matrix X_{ik} . c is a normalization value calculated as
218 $c = 2\sum_k p_k(1 - p_k)$) (Endelman, 2011). g_{Ii} represents the non-additive random effect of genotype i
219 with an independent variance ($g_I \sim \mathcal{N}(0, I\sigma_g^2)$).

220 A modified method from Nakagawa and Schielzeth 2013 (Nakagawa and Schielzeth, 2013) was
221 used to estimate variances associated with QTL and variance components from the specified model.
222 Estimated coefficients for fixed effects are multiplied by the value of that effect (in this case, the
223 allele dosage), and the variance of these values is taken as the variance associated with that fixed
224 effect. This R^2 -like estimator for mixed models is defined as:

$$R_{LMM}^2 = \frac{\sigma_f^2}{\sigma_f^2 + \sigma_r^2 + \sigma_e^2}$$

225 Where σ_r^2 is the variance of the random effects and σ_f^2 is a variance of independent fixed effects
226 calculated as $\sigma_f^2 = \sum_{h=1}^n Var(\beta_h x_{hk})$ for coefficients and effects h and observations k . For both traits,
227 all QTL were mapped to separate chromosomes, satisfying the assumption of independence. Using
228 this approach, narrow-sense heritability in this population with n QTL in i individuals in k head
229 rows is calculated as:

$$h^2 = \frac{\sum_{h=1}^n Var(\beta_h Q_{hk}) + \sigma_A^2}{\sum_{h=1}^n Var(\beta_h Q_{hk}) + \sigma_A^2 + \sigma_I^2 + \sigma_e^2}$$

230 Where we calculate per-observation QTL effects as the allele dosage of QTL h in plot k (Q_{hk})
231 times the estimated coefficient of each QTL (β_h), and the phenotypic variance associated with that
232 QTL as the variance of these estimates. The total variance associated with all QTL is taken as the
233 sum of these individual QTL variances, as all mapped QTL are located on separate chromosomes
234 and are independent of one another. σ_A^2 is the variance component associated with the random
235 g_A genotype term fit with the relationship matrix, and σ_I^2 as the variance component associated
236 with the random independent g_I genotype term, which represents some combination of epistatic
237 effects, lack of linkage between observed markers and underlying causal variants, and deviation of
238 the estimated genotype values from the true genotype values. Constructing the model in this way,
239 we estimate the proportion of additive genetic variation associated with a QTL h (p_A) as:

$$p_A = \frac{Var(\beta Q_k)}{\sum_{h=1}^n Var(\beta_h Q_{hk}) + \sigma_A^2}$$

240 Where p_A is taken as the variance of the product of an estimated QTL effect by the allele dosage
241 of that QTL in k rows, over the total additive genetic variation.

242 For investigating the effect of QTL on plant height variation over time, individual slopes of plant
243 height over time measured multiple times for each row were calculated with a fixed intercept and a
244 random intercept and time slope for each head row. The model was used to estimate plant height
245 values for each row every day over the course of the month data was collected. A linear model fitting
246 all relevant plant height and heading date QTL on plant height on every day was fit, and the partial
247 R^2 values of each QTL calculated for each day were used to estimate the relative importance of each
248 QTL at each time point.

249 Prediction of Phenotypes

250 Different prediction models were assessed to identify an optimal model for heading date and adult
251 plant height. All models except for the simple QTL multiple regression model were fit in the R
252 package BGLR (Pérez and De Los Campos, 2014), which allows for flexible fitting of a variety of
253 Bayesian and mixed effects models. A GBLUP model was fit solving the equation $y \sim \mu + u + e$ for
254 u . y is a vector of BLUEs across environments for all RILs, with unobserved RILs assigned missing
255 values, and u is a vector of random genotype effects with a variance $u \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \mathbf{G}\sigma_u^2)$, where \mathbf{G} is the
256 realized relationship matrix calculated previously from GBS markers.

257 A simple multiple-regression QTL model based on identified QTL was fit solving the equation
258 $y \sim \mu + \sum_{h=1}^n \alpha_h \mathbf{Q}_h + e$ for n QTL, where \mathbf{Q}_h encodes the LA95135 allele dosage for each QTL h in
259 each individual, and α_h is the allele effect of QTL h .

260 A combined model was also fit specifying both a multiple-regression fixed-effects component for
261 QTL effects, and random effects for each genotype constrained by the additive relationship matrix
262 ($y \sim \mu + \sum_{h=1}^n \alpha_h \mathbf{Q}_h + \mathbf{I}u + e$, where $u \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \mathbf{G}\sigma_u^2)$).

263 BayesB and Bayesian LASSO models were both fit with the general model $y \sim \mu + \mathbf{X}u + e$, where
264 \mathbf{X} is a design matrix of markers coded by allele dosage of the LA95135 allele, and u is a vector of
265 random marker effects. In the BayesB model, a certain proportion of markers given by the prior
266 probability $\pi(u_i | \sigma_i^2, \pi)$ are assumed to have an effect size of 0, with the remainder having effects
267 following a scaled-t distribution (Pérez and De Los Campos, 2014). In the Bayesian LASSO, marker
268 effects were estimated with a double exponential prior distribution that assumes a greater frequency
269 of both larger marker effects and marker effects closer to zero than a normal distribution (Pérez and
270 De Los Campos, 2014). In both models, estimated genotype values are calculated as the sum of
271 marker effects $\hat{Y}_i = \hat{\mu} + \sum_{j=1}^n x_{ij} \hat{u}_j$, where x_{ij} is the allele dosage of marker j in individual i , and \hat{u}_j
272 is the estimated marker effect.

273 A five-fold cross validation approach was used to compare the five models. RILs were randomly
274 assigned to one of five folds, and genotype values from each environment from lines in four of the folds
275 were used to predict the values of lines in the fifth fold, repeating for each fold in each environment
276 for each model. Within each fold, QTL detection was re-performed as described in the QTL analysis
277 section to identify the QTL used in the QTL regression and combined QTL and GBLUP model.
278 This process was then repeated 40 times to get distributions of prediction abilities, calculated as the
279 Pearson's correlation between predicted and observed genotype values across all five folds.

280 Results

281 Genetic Map Construction

282 After filtering, 5691 markers were assigned to 21 linkage groups representing 21 wheat chromosomes.
283 Average chromosome map length was 208.3 cM, with a maximum individual chromosome length of
284 319.1 cM for chromosome 3B. Marker density on the D genome tended to be much lower than marker
285 densities on the A and B genomes, as expected given the much lower D genome diversity in hexaploid
286 wheat (Akhunov et al., 2010).

287 Population Characterization

288 Generally, wheat cultivars' flowering habits are described by their genotypes at major heading date
289 loci, but SS-MPV57 flowered later than LA95135 in all locations despite carrying the major earliness
290 allele *Ppd-D1a* (Table 1). The difference in heading date was especially pronounced in the low-
291 vernalization treatments both in the greenhouse (GH 2018) and in the field (Plains 2019), where
292 SS-MPV57 flowered five and six days later, respectively, than LA95135. A similar pattern was
293 observed for plant height: although LA95135 was the only parent genotyped for a major dwarfing
294 allele (*Rht-D1b*), SS-MPV57 was substantially shorter in all locations (Table 1). For heading date
295 in all locations, the mean genotype value of the RILs was approximately the mid-parent value. For
296 plant height in Raleigh 2018 and Kinston 2018, the mean genotype value of the RILs was closer to

297 the SS-MPV57 parent than the mid-parent value. The ranges of genotype values in Raleigh and
298 Kinston were similar, but the range in heading date in Plains 2019 (26 days) was much larger. This
299 is likely a result of the warmer winter temperatures at that site, delaying heading of lines with a
300 greater vernalization requirement.

Table 1: Population characteristics. Means and ranges of estimated genotype values for all RILs, as well as parental values and plot-basis heritabilities (H), for site-year-phenotype combinations. Heading date for the GH experiments is recorded as days since transplanting (four weeks (HD_{4W}) or eight weeks (HD_{8W}) after vernalization), and for the field experiments time as day of year (DOY).

Loc.	Year	Pheno	μ_{LA}	μ_{MPV}	μ_{RILs}	Range	H
GH	2017	HD_{8W}	NA	NA	45.6	32-61	0.50
GH	2018	HD_{4W}	71.1	76.12	77.1	59-97	0.76
Ral	2018	HD	112.3	112.9	112.3	107-120	0.73
Kin	2019	HD	103.1	104.9	103.6	97-109	0.63
Pla	2019	HD	100.7	106.6	103.1	90-116	0.63
Ral	2018	PH	100.1	92.5	93.7	68-127	0.84
Kin	2018	PH	101.0	94.0	96.0	67-122	0.71
Kin	2019	PH	99.1	94.9	97.5	69-129	0.67

301 Known Variants and Novel QTL Impact Plant Growth

302 Genetic variation in quantitative traits like those measured in this study may result from the seg-
303 regation of an unquantifiable number of small-effect QTL. Despite this, for both heading date and
304 adult plant height the vast majority of additive genetic variation was associated with a small number
305 of major QTL, some of which have been previously described and some of which are novel.

306 Heading Date

307 The RIL population was developed with the expectation that the major photoperiod-insensitive
308 allele *Ppd-D1a* inherited from SS-MPV57 would segregate, and that potential novel early-flowering
309 QTL from LA95135 could be mapped. Two preliminary greenhouse experiments were conducted to
310 investigate the effect of vernalization treatments on heading date genetic architecture, with imbibed
311 seeds given only four weeks of vernalization in the first experiment and a full eight weeks in the
312 second. In addition, heading date notes were collected in three separate field experiments in Raleigh
313 in 2018, and Kinston and Plains, GA in 2019. QTL were declared significant at $\alpha = .05$ based on
314 1000 permutations of the scanone function, but for all phenotypes significance values were near a
315 LOD of 3.5. Together, *Ppd-D1*, *Rht-D1*, and four early-flowering alleles inherited from LA95135
316 were associated with differences in heading date in this experiment (Table 2, Table 3).

317 A heading date QTL on chromosome 2D co-localized with a known major-effect variant altering
318 expression of the D-genome copy of pseudo-response regulator gene *Photoperiod-1* (*Ppd-D1a*) (Beales
319 et al., 2007). This was the major QTL mapped in this experiment, associated with by far the highest
320 LOD score in both the field environments (Table 3) and the eight week greenhouse treatment (Table
321 2). In the four week treatment the relative importance of *Ppd-D1* was diminished, primarily as a
322 result of changes in the effects of other QTL.

323 A QTL in the centromeric region of chromosome 3A is mapped with low physical resolution ($>$
324 400 Mb), owing to the low recombination rates found in these regions in wheat (Table 2, Table 3).

Table 2: Significant heading date QTL for four and eight week vernalization greenhouse experiments. The chromosome on which each QTL is found is indicated in the QTL name. For each QTL, the average difference in phenotype between two RILs homozygous for alternate alleles is given as twice the estimated allele effect of the LA95135 allele (2α), along with proportion of additive variation associated with each QTL (p_A). The most significant markers for each QTL with a proposed candidate gene was a KASP marker associated with a previously identified causal polymorphism affecting that gene. Physical positions are given based on mapping of GBS markers to the IWGSC RefSeqv1.0 assembly.

Treatment	QTL Name	Candidate Gene	Peak Marker	Position CI	LOD	2α (days)	p_A
4 Wk	<i>Qncb.HD-2D</i>	<i>Ppd-D1</i>	Ppd-D1	32-43 Mb	11.5	5.2	0.15
4 Wk	<i>Qncb.HD-3A</i>	<i>FT2</i>	FT2	118-478 Mb	21.2	6.5	0.25
4 Wk	<i>Qncb.HD-4D</i>	Rht-D1	Rht-D1	0-352 Mb	22.2	7.2	0.39
4 Wk	<i>Qncb.HD-5A</i>	NA	S5A_395681218	46-438 Mb	5.65	3.2	0.05
4 Wk	<i>Qncb.HD-5B</i>	NA	S5B_462554252	427-523 Mb	4.63	3.6	0.08
8 Wk	<i>Qncb.HD-2D</i>	<i>Ppd-D1</i>	Ppd-D1	33-44 Mb	15.9	3.9	0.60
8 Wk	<i>Qncb.HD-3A</i>	<i>FT2</i>	FT2	71-435 Mb	6.67	2.3	0.22
8 Wk	<i>Qncb.HD-5B</i>	NA	S5B_518684640	511-537 Mb	5.17	2.1	0.14

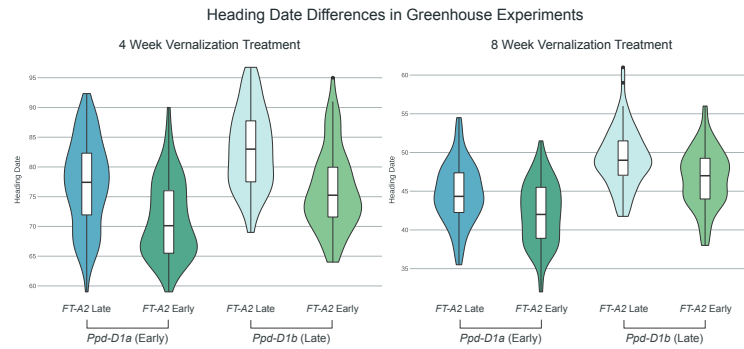


Figure 3: Effect of *Qncb.HD-3A* and *Ppd-D1* QTL on heading date in two different vernalization treatments. Density plots of BLUEs for heading date in two experiments, with RILs grouped by their genotype at *Ppd-D1* and a marker close to *FT-A2*. The allele effect of *Ppd-D1* is larger than that of *FT-A2* in the 8 week vernalization treatment (2.0 days versus 1.2), but the effect of the *FT-A2* marker is larger in the 4 week vernalization treatment (2.6 days vs 3.3 days).

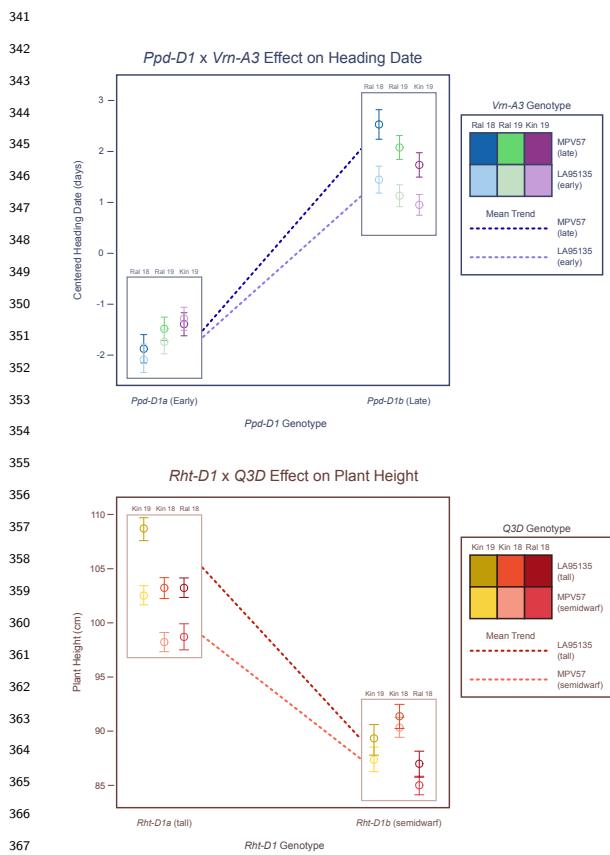
325 Contained in this interval is *FT-A2*, an ortholog of *FT* previously described by Shaw *et al.* (Shaw
 326 *et al.*, 2019) as an important component of the wheat flowering time pathway (Fig. 1). A KASP
 327 assay designed from a polymorphism within *FT-A2* was the peak marker for this QTL in both
 328 greenhouse experiments (Table 2), and had a much greater effect in the four week vernalization
 329 treatment than in the eight week treatment (Fig. 3). *Qncb.HD-3A* was also identified as significant
 330 in all field experiments, but with alternate peak markers in the long arm of chromosome 3A (Table
 331 3).

332 In addition, two novel early-flowering alleles were identified on chromosomes 5A and 5B (Table
 333 3). Both QTL are significant in all environments (Additional file 2: Table S3). *Qncb.HD-5A* is the
 334 third-most important QTL in most environments, but has an especially large effect in the Plains, GA
 335 field experiment. The QTL is also significant in the four week vernalization greenhouse treatment,
 336 but not the eight week treatment. The increased QTL effect in these two environments having
 337 shorter duration of cold temperature exposure suggests that *Qncb.HD-5A* may interact with genes
 338 involved in vernalization response. Due to its centromeric position, the confidence interval for the

Table 3: Significant heading date QTL information from best environment. For each QTL, information from the experiment where that QTL had the largest estimated effect (Best Env) is given. The average difference in phenotype between two RILs homozygous for alternative alleles at each QTL is given as twice the estimated allele effect of the LA95135 allele (2α), along with proportion of additive variation associated with each QTL (p_A). *Vrn-A3* only has a significant effect within the half of the population homozygous *Ppd-D1b*.

QTL Name	Candidate Gene	Best Env	Peak Marker	Position CI	LOD	2α (days)	p_A
<i>Qncb.HD-2D</i>	<i>Ppd-D1</i>	Ral 19	Ppd-D1	59-64 Mb	48.6	3.4	0.67
<i>Qncb.HD-3A</i>	<i>FT2</i>	Pla 19	S3A_434822203	121-571 Mb	13.0	-2.6	0.12
<i>Qncb.HD-4D</i>	Rht-D1	Kin 19	Rht-D1	0-352 Mb	4.85	0.9	0.06
<i>Qncb.HD-5A</i>	NA	Pla 19	S5A_169302619	51.6-435 Mb	14.1	-2.7	0.15
<i>Qncb.HD-5B</i>	NA	Kin 19	S5B_511010094	436-476 Mb	7.7	-1.3	0.08
<i>Qncb.HD-7A</i>	<i>Vrn-A3</i>	Ral 18 (<i>Ppd-D1b</i>)	S7A_72104395	57.7-85.9 Mb	4.23	NA	NA

339 QTL contains 383 Mb of chromosome 5A (Table 3). Notably, despite the response of this QTL to
 340 vernalization treatment, this interval does not encompass the *Vrna-A1* locus.
 341



369 Figure 4: Major variants diminish effects of other QTL.
 370 *Vrn-A3* alters heading date in most environments, but only
 371 in a *Ppd-D1* sensitive background. The dwarfing effect of
 372 *Qncb.PH-3D* is greater in an *Rht-D1a* (tall) background.
 373

Qncb.HD-5B is located in a more distal position on the long arm of the chromosome and was mapped to an interval of 61 Mb. This interval is proximal to *Vrn-B1*, excluding that locus as a candidate gene. Unlike *Qncb.HD-5A*, significance and effect sizes of *Qncb.HD-5B* are similar in both the four and eight week vernalization treatments (Table 2).

The major plant height QTL *Rht-D1* was also identified as having a pleiotropic effect on heading date in this population. In most environments the effect on heading date was minor, and not significant in the eight week greenhouse treatment or in Plains in 2019. However, in the four week greenhouse treatment *Rht-D1* was a highly significant QTL, with an average difference of over seven days between plants homozygous for wild type or semi-dwarf alleles (Table 2).

A benefit of large population sizes is the ability to subset the population by major-effect variant allele and perform QTL analyses on the sub-populations. In the case of the *Ppd-D1a* insensitive allele, constitutive over-expression of *Ppd-D1* may obscure effects of variation elsewhere in the flowering pathway. After dividing the population by *Ppd-D1* allelic class and performing QTL analyses on the sub-populations, an additional early-flowering allele from LA95135 was identified on the short arm of chromosome 7A only in a *Ppd-D1b* photoperiod-sensitive background, and only in the field experiments (Table 3). The confidence interval for

374 this QTL contains the *Vrn-A3* locus. *Vrn3* in wheat was identified as an *FT* ortholog (*TaFT1*),
 375 and serves as the primary integrator of flowering time signal, being translocated from the leaves to
 376 the shoot apical meristem to initiate the transition to reproductive growth (Fig. 1) (Yan et al.,
 377 2006). A variant in the D-genome copy of this gene, *Vrn-D3a*, was identified by (Chen et al., 2010)
 378 as a determinant of flowering time in winter wheat. A deletion of a GATA box in the promoter re-
 379 gion of *Vrn-A3* has been recently associated with delayed flowering time in tetraploid durum wheat
 380 (Nishimura et al., 2018), and an additional polymorphism linked to differences in heading date and
 381 spikelets-per-spike has also been identified in common wheat (Chen et al., 2020). Screening the
 382 population with a KASP marker developed around the GATA box deletion (Additional file 1: Ta-
 383 ble S1) reveals that the population segregates for the deletion, with SS-MPV57 contributing the
 384 late-flowering deletion allele. While *Qncb.HD.7A* has a relatively small additive effect, it strongly
 385 interacts with *Ppd-D1a* (Fig. 4). In a background containing the insensitive over-expression *Ppd-D1*
 386 allele, there is no difference in heading date between lines with and without the *Vrn-A3* promoter
 387 deletion. In a *Ppd-D1b* background, however, the GATA box deletion is associated with significantly
 388 delayed heading date of approximately one day (Fig. 4). In wheat, *Ppd1* acts to trigger expression
 389 of *Vrn3* through signaling intermediates (Fig. 1), thus an interaction between the two fits with
 390 our understanding of their placement in a common pathway. This promoter deletion is a strong
 391 candidate for the variant underlying the chromosome 7A heading date QTL.

Table 4: Significant plant height QTL information from best environment. For each QTL, information from the experiment where that QTL had the largest estimated effect (Best Env) is given. The average difference in phenotype between two RILs homozygous for each QTL is given as twice the estimated allele effect of the LA95135 allele (2α), along with proportion of additive variation associated with each QTL ($\mathbf{p_A}$). The confidence interval for *Rht8* is consistent with prior studies placing the QTL distal to *Ppd-D1*.

QTL Name	Candidate Gene	Best Env	Peak Marker	Position CI	LOD	2α (cm)	$\mathbf{p_A}$
<i>Qncb.PH-1A</i>	NA	Kin 19	S1A_517409836	513-533 mb	4.01	3.6	0.03
<i>Qncb.PH-2B</i>	NA	Kin 18	S2B_662556874	530-691 mb	3.41	2.9	0.05
<i>Qncb.PH-2D</i>	<i>Rht8</i>	Kin 18	S2D_32151744	23.3-32.2 mb	27.9	9.4	0.32
<i>Qncb.PH-3D</i>	NA	Ral 18	S3D_476608044	477-527 mb	10.0	5.4	0.08
<i>Qncb.PH-4D</i>	<i>Rht-D1</i>	Kin 19	Rht-D1	0-352 mb	71.9	-19.6	0.68
<i>Qncb.PH-5B</i>	NA	Kin 18	S5B_511010094	463-524 mb	7.51	-5.6	0.05

392 Adult Plant Height

393 Major QTL for plant height were initially mapped to chromosomes 4D, 2D, and 3D (Table 4).
 394 Using the MQM model, additional adult plant height QTL on chromosomes 1A, 2B, and 5B were
 395 also identified (Table 4). As expected, known variant *Rht-D1b* inherited from LA95135 was by far
 396 the largest-effect QTL across environments. Except for *Qncb.PH-5B*, all other reduced plant height
 397 alleles were inherited from SS-MPV57.

398 The mapped position of the plant height QTL located on chromosome 2D is consistent with
 399 reported positions for *Rht8* (Gasperini et al., 2012). After the two major gibberellic-acid insensitive
 400 dwarfing genes *Rht-D1b* and *Rht-B1b*, the most commonly used gene is *Rht8*, which is tightly linked
 401 to *Ppd-D1* (Worland et al., 1998). In most environments, the marker most closely associated with
 402 *QPH.ncb-2D* is mapped closely distal to *Ppd-D1*. In an effort to tease apart the effects of photoperiod
 403 insensitivity and *Rht8* on plant height, we evaluated a terminal spike-compaction phenotype often
 404 associated with *Rht8* segregating in the LM population. This trait was rated in the field in Raleigh in
 405 2019, and the major QTL was co-located with the plant height locus on the short arm of chromosome

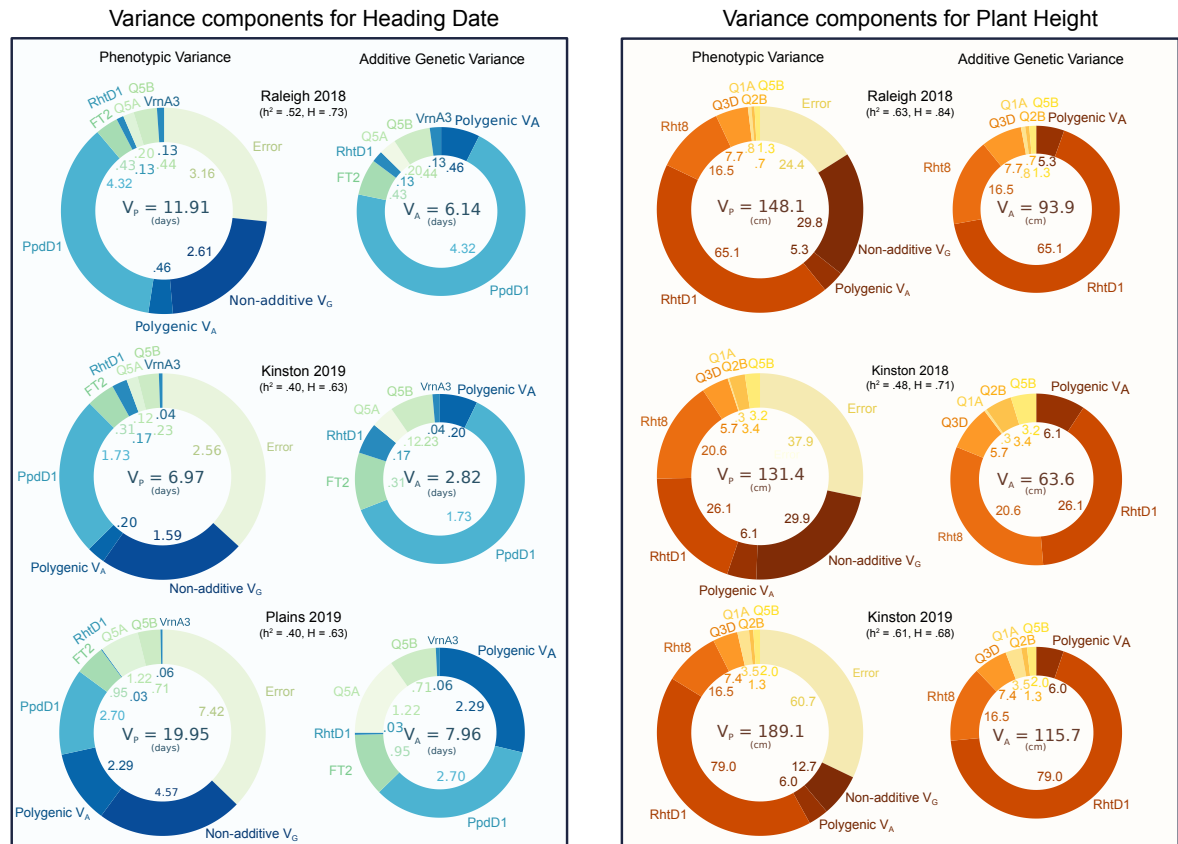


Figure 5: Variance associated with QTL and variance components for heading date and plant height in multiple environments. Non-additive genetic variation may be a result of epistatic interactions between QTL or mis-estimation of genotype values. *Ppd-D1* and *Rht-D1* dominate additive genetic variation for their respective phenotypes, but other mapped QTL explain a substantial portion of genetic variation. The scaling of total additive genetic variation is in large part due to the expression of *Ppd-D1* or *Rht-D1* effects.

406 2D (Additional file 1: Figure S1). We did not observe any significant interaction between *Rht8* and
 407 *Rht-D1*.

408 We identified *Qncb.PH-3D* as a novel plant height QTL, with a smaller effect than either *Rht-D1*
 409 or *Rht8* (Table 4). Despite the low marker density on chromosome 3D, *Qncb.PH-3D* was consistently
 410 localized to a 50-Mb interval on the long arm. *Rht-D1b* alters the function of an important component
 411 of the gibberellic acid response pathway, so we may expect differential QTL effects in different *Rht-*
 412 *D1* backgrounds. We find that while *Qncb.PH-3D* was identified in all environments, the effect on
 413 plant height is much greater in a *Rht-D1a* (tall) background (Fig. 4). As SS-MPV57 is responsive
 414 to gibberellic acid, the observed interaction between *Rht-D1* and *Qncb.PH-3D* will require further
 415 study, and may point to the identification of candidate genes for this QTL.

416 Three additional QTL (*Qncb.PH-1A*, *Qncb.PH-2B*, and *Qncb.PH-5B*) were also identified in
 417 one environment each, but when fit in the combined multiple QTL model all were significant with
 418 $p < .001$ in all environments (Additional file 2: Table S4).

419 **QTL with Major and Moderate Effects Explain Most of Additive Genetic**
 420 **Variation and Generate Transgressive Segregation**

421 Within-field phenotypic variance was partitioned in order to assess the genetic architecture of plant
 422 growth traits in this population and the relative importance of different mapped QTL in explaining
 423 observed differences (Fig. 5). For both heading date and adult plant height, major effect QTL
 424 dominate additive genetic variation in most environments. Major-effect variant *Ppd-D1* was asso-
 425 ciated with a majority of additive genetic variation for heading date, except in the southern-most
 426 location of Plains, GA in 2019 (Fig. 5). In this environment, the polygenic additive genetic varia-
 427 tion for heading date was similar to that associated with *Ppd-D1*. The modified architecture in a
 428 distinct environment suggests the presence of QTL with smaller effects conditional on photoperiod
 429 and vernalization signal. *FT2* and *Qncb.HD-5A* also increased in importance in the Plains 2019
 430 environment, indicating that the effects of these moderate-effect QTL may also vary based on en-
 431 vironmental conditions. Major-effect variant *Rht-D1* explained a majority of the additive genetic
 432 variation for plant height except in Kinston, NC in 2018 where *Rht8* explained a similarly sized
 433 proportion of variation (Fig. 5). The relative expression of these QTL in specific environments
 434 plays a large role in determining the observed variation both in genotype values and in phenotypes.

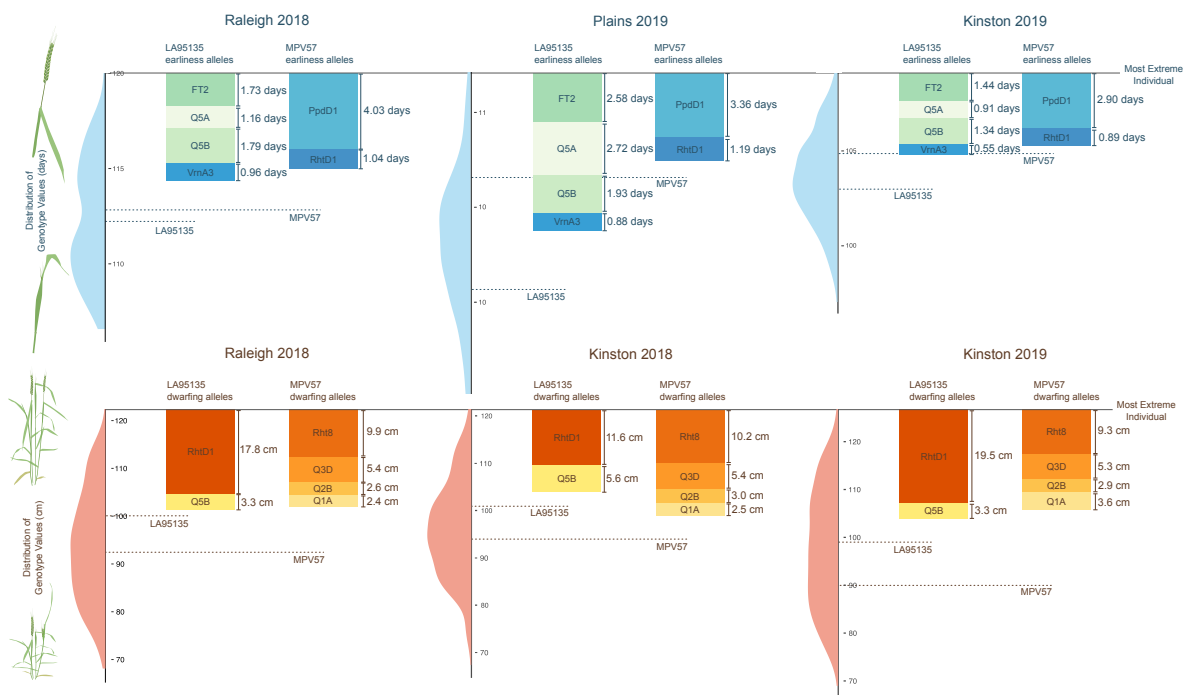


Figure 6: Heading date and plant height characters of parental lines are mostly determined by major QTL. For both heading date and plant height, the most phenotypically extreme individual was considered as the baseline for each environment and compared to both the distribution of genotype values and estimated QTL effects for the difference between two inbred lines (2α). Observed genotype values for the parental lines in each environment (dashed lines) are compared to the cumulative effects of their alleles.

435 A central question of this study is if variation in these plant growth traits is largely attributable

436 to segregation of large-effect variants, or if identified variants are instead only contributing to largely
437 polygenic differences in heading date and plant height. The plant height and heading date characters
438 of the parental lines were found to be almost entirely determined by either major *Ppd-D1* and *Rht-*
439 *D1* alleles, or cumulative effects of the stable, moderate-effect QTL identified in this study (Fig. 6).
440 The transgressive segregation observed in this study, where both parents are phenotypically similar
441 in terms of heading date and plant height, is being driven primarily by segregation of these major
442 and moderate-effect QTL.

443 For heading date, the effects of *Ppd-D1* and *Rht-D1* were mostly sufficient to explain the observed
444 phenotypes of SS-MPV57, and the phenotypes of LA95135 were mostly explained by the QTL effects
445 of earliness alleles inherited from that parent (Fig. 6). In Raleigh in 2018, *Ppd-D1* has the largest
446 effect, visible in the apparent bimodal distribution of genotype values. Plants in this environment
447 experienced the coolest winter temperatures and had the latest mean heading dates (Table 1).
448 The differences between the two parents is greatest in Plains in 2019, where the effect of *Ppd-*
449 *D1* is relatively reduced and larger effects are observed for earliness alleles inherited from LA95135.
450 Plants in this environment experienced the warmest winter temperatures and had the greatest range
451 in heading dates.

452 For plant height, the effect of *Rht-D1b* largely determines the semi-dwarf character of LA95135,
453 along with some contribution from novel plant height QTL on chromosome 5B. The semi-dwarf
454 character of parent SS-MPV57 is largely generated by known dwarfing QTL *Rht8* and the novel
455 QTL on chromosome 3D, with some contribution from novel QTL on chromosomes 1A and 2B.

456 QTL Models Out-Perform Genomic Selection for Oligogenic Traits

457 To assess the implications of the apparent oligogenic architecture of plant growth traits, a five-
458 fold cross validation approach was used comparing a standard GBLUP model using genome-wide
459 GBS markers to a simple multiple-regression QTL model based on previously estimated QTL effects
460 (Table 5, Table 6).

Table 5: Prediction accuracies for heading date. Mean prediction abilities and their standard deviations estimated from 40 replications of five-fold cross validations using QTL regression, GBLUP, QTL fixed effects plus GBLUP, Bayes B, and Bayesian Lasso models.

Model	Ral18		Kin19		Pla19	
	μ	sd	μ	sd	μ	sd
QTL Regres.	0.67	0.010	0.63	0.015	0.60	0.004
GBLUP	0.38	0.025	0.39	0.025	0.53	0.021
QTL/GBLUP	0.70	0.008	0.66	0.010	0.64	0.008
Bayes B	0.71	0.012	0.68	0.018	0.64	0.016
Bayes Lasso	0.63	0.018	0.58	0.024	0.63	0.022

461 Across all environments for both phenotypes, the simple QTL regression model is nearly as pre-
462 dictive as the top-performing model incorporating genome-wide marker information. The GBLUP
463 model commonly used in applied wheat breeding is comparatively ineffective in predicting heading
464 date and especially plant height within the biparental population. Incorporation of genomic relation-
465 ship information into the QTL regression model only offers slight performance increases compared
466 to the base model, suggesting the genomic relationships do not add much additional information.
467 The Bayes B model, designed to allow for marker effects of zero, performs the best for heading date
468 (Table 5). For plant height, the GBLUP model with QTL fixed effects is superior (Table 6). In

Table 6: Prediction accuracies for plant height. Mean prediction abilities and their standard deviations estimated from 40 replications of five-fold cross validations using QTL regression, GBLUP, QTL fixed effects plus GBLUP, Bayes B, and Bayesian Lasso models.

Model	Ral18		Kin18		Kin19	
	μ	sd	μ	sd	μ	sd
QTL Regres.	0.77	0.004	0.69	0.007	0.79	0.005
GBLUP	0.24	0.032	0.35	0.024	0.26	0.032
QTL/GBLUP	0.80	0.005	0.74	0.007	0.81	0.006
Bayes B	0.79	0.007	0.71	0.009	0.79	0.007
Bayes Lasso	0.67	0.015	0.50	0.030	0.70	0.014

469 general, the Bayesian Lasso model is superior to the GBLUP model but inferior to the other models,
470 except for heading date in Plains in 2019 where the relative proportion of additive genetic variation
471 associated with the polygenic background was the highest.

472 Variation in plant growth is generated by major QTL

473 Plant height variation before maturity is caused in part by differences in development related to
474 heading date variation, and thus may be controlled by QTL for both mature plant height and
475 heading date. Multiple measures of plant height were collected from the RIL population planted in
476 Raleigh during the 2019 field season, and a longitudinal model was used to estimate plant height
477 over the measured time window. Identified heading date and adult plant height QTL were fit in
478 a multiple regression model to estimate the proportion of phenotypic variation in plant height on
479 a given day associated with each QTL. Variation in simulated genotype values were normalized by
480 total QTL variation explained, and plotted over time to assess the relative importance of QTL in
481 variation in plant height over time (Fig. 7).

482 As expected, the proportion of variation explained by the three adult plant height QTL (*Rht-D1*,
483 *Rht8*, and *Qncb.PH-3D*) increases towards the end of the date range (March 29 to April 29, from near
484 winter dormancy release to heading). Heading date QTL are more important than adult plant height
485 QTL for early season plant height, when plants transition from vegetative to reproductive growth.
486 The four heading date loci (*Ppd-D1*, *Qncb.HD-5A*, *FT-A2*, and *Vrn-A3*) continue to explain a large
487 portion of variation in plant height as plants near heading, although their contribution diminishes
488 as plants mature. Interestingly, the proportion of variation explained by QTL associated with
489 *Vrn-A3* and *Rht8* were relatively consistent throughout development. *Rht-D1*, mapped as both a
490 heading date and adult plant height QTL in this population, is associated with a large proportion
491 of phenotypic variation throughout the date range.

492 Discussion

493 Unexplained Parental phenotypes result from novel QTL

494 Understanding the genetic basis of plant development is critical for understanding genetic variation
495 for yield. In wheat, early flowering and plant height are understood to be largely determined
496 by known large-effect variants; the mutations in the *DELLA* protein RHT1 (reduced height 1)
497 on chromosomes 4B and 4D for plant height, and variation in vernalization-response *Vrn1* and
498 photoperiod-response *Ppd1* genes for flowering time. Breeders generally select plants with plant

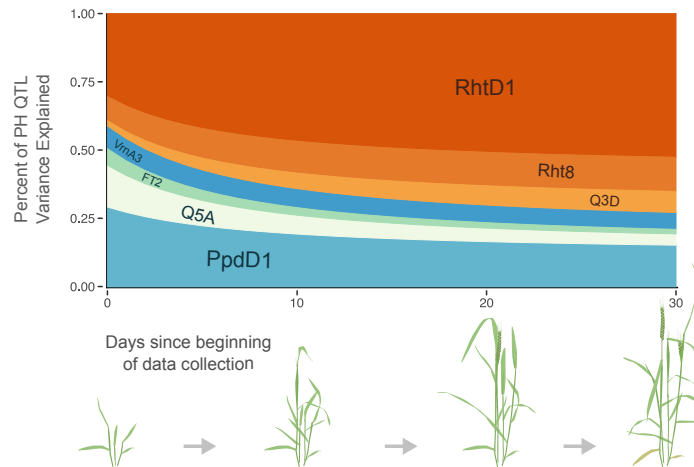


Figure 7: Relative importance of QTL for plant height over time. QTL associated with heading date (blue and green; *Ppd-D1*, *Qncb.HD-5A*, *FT2*, and *Vrn-A3*) explain over half of plant height variation associated with QTL at the beginning of data collection, but explain only approximately a quarter thirty days after data collecting began. The relative importance of plant height QTL (orange; *Rht-D1*, *Rht8*, and *Qncb.PH-3D*) increases over time.

499 heights and heading dates near some optimal values for their target environments, so that most
500 cultivars have one of *Rht-B1b* or *Rht-D1b* but not both. In the southeastern US, most cultivars
501 have some combination of early-flowering winter alleles of the *Vrn1* loci and one or more insensitive
502 alleles of the *Ppd1* loci. Despite this, some cultivars with near-optimal values for heading date and
503 plant height do not carry any known early flowering time or dwarfism alleles (for example, the two
504 parents used in this study), and the relative importance of these major QTL versus other, smaller
505 effect QTL in generating genetic variation for plant height and heading date is not known.

506 In other crop species such as maize, the majority of additive genetic variation in heading date and
507 adult plant height is generated in a polygenic manner through the combination of many small-effect,
508 unmapped QTL (Buckler et al., 2009; Peiffer et al., 2014). The importance of major-effect QTL in
509 wheat (and other selfing species such as rice (Huang et al., 1996)) suggests that these traits may
510 have a less polygenic basis in these species. Here we developed a biparental population by crossing
511 cultivar LA95135, a cultivar with a normal flowering time but no early-flowering variants other than
512 the weak photoperiod insensitive allele *Ppd-A1a.1*, to SS-MPV57, a cultivar with a normal height
513 but no known *Rht1* variants. Within this population, additive genetic variation for plant growth
514 phenotypes emerges from known major-effect QTL and multiple novel moderate-effect QTL, instead
515 of primarily from polygenic background effects of many small-effect QTL.

516 We find one plant height QTL on chromosome 2D, mapped distal to *Ppd-D1*, that likely represents
517 *Rht8*. Cultivars having the *Rht8* dwarfing allele are responsive to gibberellic-acid (Korzun et al.,
518 1998), and the gene has a smaller effect on plant height than reported effects of *Rht-B1* and *Rht-D1*,
519 in agreement with the allele effects estimated in this study (Rebetzke et al., 2012). Additionally,
520 we propose newly characterized variants in genes *FT2* and *Vrn-A3* as candidates underlying QTL
521 on chromosomes 3A and 7A, respectively. Additional novel plant height QTL were mapped to
522 chromosomes 3D, 1A, 2B, and 5B, and additional heading date QTL to chromosomes 5A and 5B.
523 When considered jointly, the effects of these QTL and *Ppd-D1* and *Rht-D1* are mostly sufficient to
524 explain the phenotypes of the parental lines. Our ability to identify these novel QTL despite their
525 comparatively small effect size may be attributable to the large population size, twice that of many

526 winter wheat RIL populations.

527 Combining these moderate-effect QTL can produce plants with a short enough height and an
528 early enough heading date. Like other non-*Rht1* dwarfing genes, *Rht8* and *Qncb.PH-3D* do not
529 confer GA-insensitivity to SS-MPV57 (data not shown). A major limitation of the GA-insensitive
530 *Rht1* genes is a reduced coleoptile length, which can lead to poor emergence and weak competition.
531 While lines carrying *Rht8* alone are often too tall, semi-dwarf lines like SS-MPV57 produced by
532 stacking *Rht8* with *Qncb.PH-3D* may perform better than *Rht1* semi-dwarfs in certain environments
533 (Worland et al., 1998). The insignificant effect on plant height of *Qncb.PH-3D* in an *Rht-D1b* (semi-
534 dwarf) background also reduces the potential of producing transgressive segregants that are too
535 short from crosses between *Rht-D1b* and *Qncb.PH-3D*-dwarf cultivars. The position of *Qncb.PH-3D*
536 distally on the long arm facilitates its fine-mapping, and identification of a predictive marker or the
537 underlying causal polymorphisms will facilitate marker-assisted selection of this QTL in developing
538 GA-sensitive semi-dwarf cultivars.

539 The use of major *Ppd1* and *Vrn1* variants in cultivar development also has associated drawbacks.
540 In both cases, the early-heading character is a result of the plant losing its ability to receive signal
541 from its environment – in wild-type photoperiod-sensitive genotypes, plants use information about
542 changing night lengths to flower at an appropriate time, whereas photoperiod-insensitivity activates
543 this pathway constitutively. Losing the ability to respond to environmental cues may incur yield
544 penalties in some situations. For example, autumn sown wheat lines with little or no vernalization
545 requirement that are insensitive to photoperiod are susceptible to late spring freeze. However,
546 requiring a long period of cold to potentiate flowering in environments with warm winters can result
547 in delayed heading, even in lines having photoperiod insensitive alleles. This effect was observed
548 in this study with the proportionally decreased effect of *Ppd-D1* in the Plains environment, which
549 is farther south than the other locations and has shorter nights during the wheat growing season.
550 A set of early flowering QTL with different environmental triggers or of more moderate effects,
551 like those mapped here, provide breeders with additional tools to develop appropriate cultivars for
552 various target environments. Fine-mapping and characterization of *Qncb.HD-3A*, *Qncb.HD-5A*, and
553 *Qncb.HD-5B* will expand the flowering time toolbox for wheat breeders.

554 **The oligogenic trait architecture of plant growth traits in wheat**

555 In wheat, genetic variation in yield is dependent on yield components (e.g. kernel weight, kernel
556 number per spike, spikelets per spike) that can be influenced by disease resistance, plant height,
557 and heading date, among other traits. While yield variation itself is complex, this complexity
558 may arise through a combination of variation in other traits which may not necessarily have a
559 polygenic architecture. We observe only a small fraction of the total genetic variation for heading
560 date and plant height in this population associated with lines' polygenic background. Even when
561 not considering major-effect alleles *Rht-D1* and *Ppd-D1*, the remaining moderate-effect QTL explain
562 more than twice the additive genetic variation as the polygenic background. While it is impossible
563 to extend the results of this biparental study to wheat generally, the variation in heading date and
564 plant height observed in this population is similar to the range of values observed in preliminary
565 yield trials in breeding populations. It is likely the case that, while the particular variants differ
566 from population to population, that the genetic architecture of plant height and heading date are
567 similar across breeding populations in wheat.

568 **Challenges and opportunities for genotype-based prediction of plant growth** 569 **traits**

570 The genetic architecture of plant growth has important implications for modern wheat breeding
571 programs. Yield is the primary target of wheat breeders, and standard genomic selection models
572 perform well for this trait in southeast U.S. wheat breeding programs (Sarinelli et al., 2019; Ward
573 et al., 2019). Standard models shrink estimated effects of large-effect variants closer to zero, which
574 will reduce accuracy of models for traits mostly conditioned by relatively few large-effect variants
575 (Bernardo, 2014). Given the effects of heading date and plant height variation on generating yield
576 variation in wheat, if a handful of major QTL dominate these traits they may also have large effects
577 on yield, complicating assumptions of these models. At the same time, heading date and plant
578 height are themselves traits of interests to breeders, who screen biparental populations to remove
579 transgressive segregants for these traits.

580 We show that the majority of additive genetic variation for heading date and plant height is
581 controlled by large-effect QTL, such that a simple QTL model is sufficient for accurate prediction
582 of phenotypes. In this case given marker information for major and moderate-effect QTL and a
583 genotyped training population, a simple QTL model is likely to be effective for eliminating trans-
584 gressive segregants for heading date and plant height. This model has the added benefit of being
585 much cheaper than genomic selection if markers for polymorphisms linked to variants are available.
586 Instead of genotyping a population of a set size with genome-wide markers, making predictions with
587 genomic selection models, and then removing transgressive segregants for plant height and heading
588 date, breeders can instead screen larger populations initially with simple markers for major QTL,
589 and focus genotyping resources on lines predicted to be near optimal values for those secondary phe-
590 notypes. While QTL mapping was necessary to identify many important QTL for prediction in the
591 QTL regression model in this population, this population was constructed specifically to segregate
592 for novel heading date and plant height QTL. Our expanding knowledge of variants underlying these
593 oligogenic traits results in the development of breeding populations where the major QTL will be
594 known and predictions for heading date and plant height can be made. If we have genotypes for the
595 causal polymorphisms underlying these QTL, we can make predictions in new populations regard-
596 less of their relationship to the training population lines. Fine-mapping and marker development
597 for these and further novel QTL will then improve prediction models.

598 **Plant growth QTL and variation for source traits**

599 In the past few years, a number of variants impacting yield component traits that generate variation
600 in sink tissues have been identified and cloned (Wang et al., 2018; Dixon et al., 2018; Kuzay et al.,
601 2019; DeWitt et al., 2020). However, increasing the frequency of variants associated with larger
602 grain size and number will only increase yields if plants produce sufficient carbohydrates ("source")
603 to fill those grains. Similar characterization of important QTL underlying variation in physiological
604 source traits will therefore also be critical to understand the components of yield variation. Variation
605 in NDVI (normalized difference vegetation index) measurements or direct biomass samples, taken
606 as proxies for source availability, is related to variation in the plant growth traits studied here. Both
607 heading date and adult plant height can be viewed as components of the continuous phenotype of
608 plant growth over time. While adult plant height is controlled by what are termed plant height
609 QTL, juvenile plant height is often understood as winter dormancy release and is largely under the
610 same genetic control as heading date (Guedira et al., 2014). To understand the genetic basis of
611 plant growth in this population, we measured plant height over multiple days during development.
612 We showed that variation in plant growth is influenced by a combination of heading date and plant

613 height QTL. Studies of plant source traits may find it useful to consider phenotyping experiments
614 for plant height and heading date as well to distinguish between QTL for heading date and plant
615 height, and true source or biomass QTL. Understanding how plant height and heading date QTL
616 interact to generate variation in plant growth over time will be critical to understanding how they
617 impact source traits and in characterizing novel plant source QTL that can be deployed for higher
618 yielding genotypes.

619 **Conclusions**

620 The polygenic nature of wheat yield results in part from major and moderate QTL for adaptation
621 traits and other phenotypes that influence yield. It is therefore useful to consider and select for com-
622 ponent phenotypes like disease resistance and plant growth traits that can influence yield separately,
623 and to properly model these traits we need to first understand their genetic architectures. Already
624 the simple genetic basis of many disease resistance genes has made MAS for disease resistance in
625 wheat very useful to breeders, a success story that could be replicated with plant growth traits given
626 cost-effective predictions. Here, we show that component phenotypes of plant growth over time have
627 an oligogenic basis dominated by QTL of major and moderate effect that allows for their prediction
628 with simple QTL regression models. The movement towards genomic selection has called into ques-
629 tion the utility of fine-mapping and positional cloning studies. We demonstrate the importance of
630 major QTL and the poor performance of standard models in this study, illustrating the utility of
631 understanding the important variants underlying these traits and others to crop improvement.

632 **Competing interests**

633 The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

634 **Author's contributions**

635 ND wrote the initial draft of the manuscript and performed all analyses. ND, MG, EL, JBH,
636 and GBG edited the manuscript. MG, EL, and GBG designed the experiment and developed the
637 population. ND, MG, JPM, DM, MM, and JJ planted the experiment and assisted with data
638 collection and harvest. JBH assisted with data analysis and experimental design.

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837 Additional Files

838 Additional file 1 — Additional_file_1.docx

839 Word document containing QTL results for spike length in figure S1, and KASP marker nucleotide
840 sequences in table S1.

841 Additional file 2 — Additional_file_2.xlsx

842 Excel file containing four tables representing QTL model output and additive QTL model output
843 for plant height and heading date in all environments.