A diverse panel of 755 bread wheat accessions harbors untapped genetic diversity in landraces and

reveals novel genetic regions conferring powdery mildew resistance

Novel sources of powdery mildew resistance in a diverse wheat panel

Rebecca Leber[1], Matthias Heuberger[1], Victoria Widrig[1,2], Esther Jung[1], Etienne Paux[3,4], Anne C. Roulin[1],

Beat Keller[1]* & Javier Sánchez-Martín[1,2]*

[1] University of Zurich, Department of Plant and Microbial Biology, Zollikerstrasse 107, 8008 Zurich,
Switzerland

[2] Department of Microbiology and Genetics, Spanish-Portuguese Agricultural Research Center (CIALE),
University of Salamanca, 37007 Salamanca, Spain

[3] Université Clermont Auvergne, INRAE, GDEC, 63000 Clermont-Ferrand, France

[4] VetAgro Sup Campus agronomique, 63370 Lempdes, France

* Corresponding authors

E-mail: j.sanchezmartin@usal.es, bkeller@botinst.uzh.ch

Abstract

Wheat breeding for disease resistance relies on the availability and use of diverse genetic resources. More

than 800,000 wheat accessions are globally conserved in gene banks, but they are mostly uncharacterized

for the presence of resistance genes and their potential for agriculture. Based on the selective reduction

of previously assembled collections for allele mining, we assembled a trait-customized panel of 755

geographically diverse bread wheat accessions with a focus on landraces, called the LandracePLUS panel.

Population structure analysis of this panel based on the TaBW35K SNP array revealed an increased genetic

diversity compared to high-quality sequenced wheat accessions and 632 landraces of an earlier study. The

additional diversity mostly originated from Turkish, Iranian and Pakistani landraces. We characterized the

LandracePLUS panel for resistance to ten diverse isolates of the fungal pathogen powdery mildew.

Performing genome-wide association studies and dividing the panel further by a targeted sub-setting

approach for accessions with unique resistance patterns and distinct geographical origin, we detected

several known and already cloned genes, including the *Pm2a* gene. In addition, we identified 17 putatively

novel powdery mildew resistance loci that represent useful sources for resistance breeding and for

research on the mildew-wheat pathosystem. Our study shows the value of assembling trait-customized

collections and utilizing a diverse range of pathogen races, to detect novel loci that can be integrated in

breeding programs. It further highlights the importance of integrating landraces of different geographical

origin into future diversity studies.

Author Summary

Wheat breeding relies on the availability of wheat lines with diverse agricultural traits, based on their

genetic differences. While over 800,000 wheat lines are conserved in gene banks, their value for

agriculture is mostly not characterized. We assembled a collection of 755 wheat lines that focuses on

older wheat lines, which are known to have broader genetic diversity than modern cultivars. Population

genetic analysis of this collection showed a broad genetic diversity compared to previous studies on older

varieties and wheat reference genomes. Wheat lines from Turkey, Iran and Pakistan were most distinct in

this regard. We tested the symptom severity of powdery mildew infections on all wheat plants from this

collection. Combining the genomic data with this disease assessment gave insight on the potential

geographic origin of previously described resistance genes and revealed 17 associated genomic regions in

wheat that contribute to resistance to powdery mildew that have not been described before. These

findings provide a valuable resource for future diversity studies and wheat lines to include in the breeding

process to achieve mildew resistant cultivars.

Introduction

Bread wheat (*Triticum aestivum* L.) provides more calories and protein per person than any other crop on Earth (1). This allohexaploid ($2n = 6x = 42$, AABBDD) crop species originated from successive hybridization events, where the latest polyploidization is thought to have occurred ~ 8,000 years ago in the Fertile Crescent (2,3). After domestication, wheat was disseminated to Europe and Asia (4), where accessions were selected based on the needs of individual farmers, thus becoming locally adapted traditional accessions, so-called landraces (5,6). With the Green Revolution in the 60s, landraces were systematically replaced by advanced cultivars (7) at the cost of a narrower genetic diversity due to the bottleneck effect of breeding (8,9). As a consequence, modern cultivars are more likely to lack the genetic potential to combat abiotic and biotic stresses, including infection by pathogens. Plant diseases are a big threat to agriculture, with fungal pathogens playing a major role by causing an estimated annual yield loss of 18% in wheat (10). Among those, wheat powdery mildew, which is caused by the obligate biotrophic ascomycete *Blumeria graminis* f.sp. *tritici* (*Bgt*), is a major source of yield loss worldwide (10). Chemical control via pesticides is expensive, detrimental on the surrounding ecosystem (11,12) and the European Commission proposed binding rules to reduce EU pesticide usage by 50% until 2030 (13). Therefore, alternative strategies are needed to control wheat mildew, especially in the context of climate change, as the geographical dispersal of pathogens and the severity of their infections are expected to increase rapidly (14,15).

In the Farm-to-fork strategy, the deployment of wheat accessions that harbor disease resistance is proposed as a sustainable and effective way to combat pathogens (13). Such resistance can be conferred by resistance (*R*) genes, which typically encode intracellular nucleotide-binding leucine-rich repeat receptors (NLRs), albeit not always, that recognize pathogen avirulence effector proteins (AVRs) (16–18). *R* gene resistance acts in a race-specific manner, when an R protein recognizes the corresponding AVR (16,19). The over 90 characterized *R* genes against powdery mildew (*Pm* genes) represent a cornerstone

of wheat breeding (20). However, race-specific resistance can be rapidly overcome by pathogens by

evolving AVRs to evade recognition (21–23). Due to this constant arms-race and the low efficacy of the

currently cloned *Pm* genes (24), the identification of new resistance genes is needed for successful wheat

breeding programs. It is estimated that more than 7,000 distinct NLR encoding genes are present in the

wheat gene pool (25). Based on this genomic analysis, there are possibly hundreds of potentially active,

but unknown *Pm* genes in the wheat germplasm. The untapped genetic diversity of wheat landraces and

their adaptation to individual environments with high disease pressure makes them promising candidates

for containing such genes (5,8,26).

Together with modern cultivars and wild relatives, landraces are conserved in gene banks, where to date

more than 800,000 *Triticum* accessions are stored (27). However, these remain mostly uncharacterized

for their potential in agriculture and their adaptive mechanisms are poorly understood, limiting their use

in breeding (8,26). Attempts to unlock this hidden potential have been made using different approaches.

For example, Balfourier et al. focused on maximizing the representation of different breeding statuses,

dates of registration and geographical origin, to reduce the collection size of the INRAe bread wheat

collection from about 12,000 to 4,506 accessions (28). Genotyping these accessions resulted in a better

understanding of wheat phylogeography and genetic diversity over time. Another study characterized the

genetic diversity of 80,000 accessions, which represented a large part of the CIMMYT and ICARDA

germplasm banks, covering not only domesticated hexaploid wheat, but also tetraploids and crop wild

relatives (29). This revealed unexplored diversity in landraces and wheat selection footprints. In a third

recent example, Schulthess et al. genotyped the IPK winter wheat collection of 7,651 accessions and 325

European elite cultivars (30). Later, this collection was phenotyped with a single powdery mildew isolate,

resulting in the detection of eleven previously undescribed resistance loci (31).

Here, we used a panel based on former bread wheat collections assembled for allele mining (32,33). These

former collections included a main panel that had been selected using a focused identification of

germplasm strategy (FIGS) approach, revealing accessions with potentially high selection pressure for

powdery mildew resistance (32,34). We now reduced these collections, focusing on landraces and

maximizing the diversity of geographical origin. The reduced size of the panel allowed us to phenotype it

with a diverse set of ten *Bgt* isolates, constituting a trait-customized panel that is ideal to search for

powdery mildew resistant accessions and the underlying genes (35). Using genome-wide association

studies (GWAS) and a targeted subset approach for accessions of shared geographical origin and isolate-

specific resistance patterns, we detected 17 most likely novel genetic regions associated with powdery

mildew resistance.

Results

We assembled a geographically diverse panel of 755 bread wheat accessions (Fig 1A-C), based on the

selective reduction of former collections used for allele mining of the powdery mildew resistance gene

Pm3 (32,33). In the selection process, we focused on landraces and combined data on geographical origin

with preliminary phenotypes of powdery mildew resistance. The resulting panel, hereafter LandracePLUS

panel, contains 521 winter wheat and 234 spring wheat accessions, including 576 landraces, 162 older

cultivars (acquisition date from 1946 to 2003, with the main part from the 60s and 70s), seven research

or breeding material lines and eleven unknown accessions (S1 Excel). We used the LandracePLUS panel,

which covers a broad geographical distribution, with a focus on accessions originating from the Middle

East (Fig 1A-B), to detect genetic loci associated with resistance to the powdery mildew pathogen (Fig 1D).

Diversity analysis of the LandracePLUS panel reveals unexplored genetic diversity

A total of 29,556 high quality, polymorphic single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) derived from

genotyping with the TaBW35K SNP array was used for diversity analysis. All these SNPs had known

chromosomal positions based on the Chinese Spring reference genome assembly RefSeq v1.0 (36),

including 18,389 regular SNPs and 11,167 off-target variants (OTVs), i.e. markers that detect both

presence-absence polymorphisms and nucleotide polymorphisms. The 29,556 markers were distributed

across the wheat genome similar to earlier findings (37–39), with a lower coverage of genome D compared

to the A and B genomes: 11,528 (39.0%) markers on the A-genome, 13,389 (45.3%) on the B-genome and

4,639 (15.7%) on the D-genome. On average, 1,407 markers were assigned per chromosome, resulting in

an average density of one marker each 480 Kbp. Least markers were assigned to chromosome 1D and

most to chromosome 2B, with 493 and 2,431 markers, respectively.

A principal component analysis (PCA) (Fig 2A) and a dendrogram based on hierarchical clustering analysis

(Fig 2B) revealed four genetic clusters, which overall correlated with geographical origin. Group 1 was

dominated by accessions from Iran and Pakistan, while Group 2 was composed by accessions of mixed

origin (Ethiopia, South Africa, USA, Canada, Mexico, Argentina, France, Switzerland, Kazakhstan,

Kirgizstan, Tajikistan, Uzbekistan, Armenia and Russia). Group 3 predominantly contained accessions from

Turkey and Group 4 was a last group for South, Southwest and East Asia (Iraq, Azerbaijan, India, Nepal,

China and Japan). Few outliers were however identified, namely East Asian accessions in Group 2, and

African accessions in Group 3. For a better interpretation of the observed genetic diversity within the

LandracePLUS panel, wheat accessions with high-quality genome sequences, namely the 10+ wheat

reference genomes (25,36), Fielder (40) and Renan (41) were included in the analysis with 27,016 out of

the 29,556 SNPs that mapped unambiguously to chromosomes of these genomes. Most of the high-

quality sequenced genomes clustered in Group 2 of the LandracePLUS panel, while Norin61 and Chinese

Spring were on the edge of Group 4 (Fig 2A).

When highlighting the different types of accessions in the PCA, landraces covered almost the full genetic

diversity range of the LandracePLUS panel. In contrast, the 162 cultivars clustered mainly with Group 2

and partially with Group 4 (S1A Fig). Therefore, landraces were genetically more diverse than cultivars

and clustered apart from them. However, this was not always the case, as shown by the example of

Ethiopian landraces. These clustered with cultivars in Group 2 (S1B Fig), suggesting that Ethiopian

landraces have contributed to breeding programs substantially. The close clustering of accessions from all

over the world described above (Fig 2A, Fig 2B) is likely driven by this separation between landraces and

cultivars. As most of these geographically diverse accessions clustering together are cultivars, their genetic

similarity is not derived from their origin, but rather their breeding status as cultivars. While there was no

clear pattern in Group 4 regarding the distribution of winter and spring wheat, clusters that were

dominated by landraces (Group 1 and 3) mainly contained winter wheat accessions (S1 Excel). Vice versa,

the cultivar dominated Group 2 consisted mainly of winter wheat accessions.

We assessed population structure using a kinship matrix and compared it to an Admixture analysis (Fig

2C), which reflected the four groups found by hierarchical clustering and the PCA. Estimated ancestral

populations K=5 revealed a good fit for the LandracePLUS panel's diversity into four groups. Yet, the

kinship matrix revealed additional subdivision within Groups 3 and 4.

To assess whether the LandracePLUS panel represents a similar genetic diversity compared to former

studies on wheat germplasm, we compared our data with a collection of 632 landraces that were

genotyped with the TaBW280K SNP array (42), which contains all markers that were used for the

LandracePLUS panel (28), allowing a direct comparison. A PCA with 30,021 high quality, polymorphic SNPs

(S2 Fig) showed that the LandracePLUS panel covers the genetic diversity of this collection and further

revealed unexplored genetic diversity absent in the study of Balfourier and colleagues (28). This additional

diversity was mainly contained in Groups 1 and 3, composed of Turkish, Pakistani and Iranian landraces.

Taken together, the LandracePLUS panel is a diverse selection of wheat accessions with a pronounced

diversity of landraces compared to cultivars and high-quality sequenced genomes. Furthermore, the panel

covers earlier found genetic diversity and additionally expands it, mainly with Turkish, Pakistani and

Iranian landraces.

<u>A diverse set of ten powdery mildew isolates enables the prediction and detection of known *Pm* genes</u>

We aimed at phenotyping the reaction of the LandracePLUS panel to several powdery mildew isolates to

maximize the chances of finding novel resistance genes. Consequently, we first tested ten random isolates

on 27 so-called differential lines, including near-isogenic lines (NILs) and donors of cloned or genetically

described *Pm* genes (Fig 3A). On average, isolates were avirulent on eleven out of 27 differential lines.

While isolates CHE_96224, CHE_97266 and CHE_98230 seemed more avirulent, with 16, 17 and 18

resistant differential lines, respectively, isolates CHE_19004 and ISR_94 were more virulent, with five and

two resistant lines, respectively. There were rare cases of resistant differential lines, despite the absence

of an avirulent Avr haplotype. This is likely caused by an additional resistance gene in the genetic

background, as it has recently been described in the case of *Pm17* containing differential line Amigo by

Müller et al (43). Phenotypic Pearson correlation between the isolates corroborated the diversity of

virulence (S3A-B Fig), with an average correlation coefficient of 0.38. The most similar isolates were

CHE_96224 and CHE_97266, with a correlation of 0.76, while the two most diverging were CHE_94202

and CHE_98230 with a negative correlation of 0.07. The diversity in phenotypic reactions suggests highly

different effector contents between the isolates, increasing the chance of detecting potentially novel

resistance loci in the LandracePLUS panel with this set of isolates.

Each isolate had a distinct virulence pattern, reflecting that the ten chosen mildew isolates represent

extensive diversity in virulence. The response of differential lines based on the presence of specific *Pm*

genes facilitated the prediction of cognate *Avr* genes in the corresponding isolates. To test the accuracy

of this prediction, we compared the suggested presence of seven cloned *Avrs*, *AvrPm1a* (44,45), *AvrPm2*

(46), *AvrPm3a/f* (47), *AvrPm3b/c* (48), *AvrPm3d* (48), *AvrPm8* (49) and *AvrPm17* (43) to their presence and

haplotype in the genomes of the ten isolates (S1 Table). In the following we show this for the

representative case of *Pm2a* and *AvrPm2a* (46). We found the described avirulent haplotype H0 of

AvrPm2a in *Bgt* CHE_94202, CHE_96224, CHE_97266, CHN_46_30 and ISR_106, fitting the *Pm2a*

differential line resistance pattern to these five isolates. The susceptibility of the *Pm2a* differential line

towards the remaining five isolates CHE_19004, CHE_97223, CHE_98230, GBR_JIW2 and ISR_94, reflected

the absence of *AvrPm2a* in these isolates.

The virulence of an isolate on differential lines reflects the known *Pm* genes that can be detected with it

in wheat genotypes with unknown gene content. For example, the isolates CHE_94202, CHE_96224,

CHE_97266, CHE_98230, CHN_46_30, GBR_JIW2 and ISR_106 enable *Pm12* detection, but none of the

isolates would allow the detection of *Pm20* (Fig 3A). Based on the observed resistance reactions, our set

of ten powdery mildew isolates can detect 24 of the 27 tested *Pm* genes.

We conclude that the resistance patterns of the differential lines based on a phenotypically diverse set of

ten powdery mildew isolates facilitate the detection of previously isolated *Pm* genes and allow the

prediction of avirulence gene presence in the isolates.

The LandracePLUS panel shows resistance variation to ten wheat powdery mildew isolates

Response of the 755 wheat accessions to the ten powdery mildew isolates revealed an overall prevalent

susceptibility, a smaller portion of intermediate reactions and only few strong resistance interactions,

with an average of 84 resistant accessions per isolate (Fig 3B). Considering the response to individual

isolates, only 57, 51, 55 and 55 wheat accessions were resistant to CHE_19004, CHE_97223, GBR_JIW2

and ISR_94, respectively. This reflected the broad virulence of CHE_19004 and ISR_94 already found in

the differential lines (Fig 3A). Similarly, 119 and 115 wheat accessions were resistant to CHE_96224 and

CHE_98230, respectively, which were also the most avirulent isolates on the differential lines together

with CHE_97266. Instead of CHE_97266, however, here CHE_94202 showed a similar number for the

LandracePLUS panel, with 115 resistant wheat accessions (Fig 3B). Pearson correlation between the

isolates based on the LandracePLUS panel phenotypes showed patterns resemblant of the above

correlation matrix based on the differential line phenotypes (S3A and C Fig). While the overall relation

between isolates was similar, correlation coefficients differed notably for ISR_94 (S3C-D Fig). This strong

deviation could be caused by the absence of a the *Pm4a* gene in the LandracePLUS panel, compared to

the differential set where it is present. The average correlation coefficient was slightly lower, with 0.34,

pointing at even more virulence diversity than estimated above with the differential lines.

On average, eleven genotypes were resistant to a single isolate, but susceptible or intermediate

susceptible to the nine other isolates. 23 wheat accessions were exclusively resistant to CHE_98230 and

25 accessions to CHE_94202, two of the more avirulent isolates. Merely four wheat accessions showed

resistance to all ten isolates, while 58 wheat accessions were resistant to at least five of the isolates. On

average, excluding the 61 accessions that were susceptible to all ten isolates, wheat accessions were

resistant to three isolates.

We predicted the presence of known *Pm* genes in accessions of the LandracePLUS panel that matched the

pattern of the corresponding *Pm*-containing differential line. For example, 32 accessions of the

LandracePLUS panel had the same resistance pattern as the *Pm2a* differential line and, hence, are good

candidates for containing *Pm2a*. Indeed, 16 of these 32 accessions contained *Pm2* according to haplotype-

specific markers (50)(S1 Excel). However, the potential presence of several *Pm* genes in the same

accession can mask the resistance pattern of a specific *Pm* gene. For example, when we predict the

presence of *Pm1a* in accessions of the panel, the expected resistance pattern could be derived from *Pm1*

alleles, but also from *Pm3* alleles, *Pm12*, *Pm17* or *Pm29*. This limits the use of differential lines for analysis

of overlapping resistance patterns and the prediction of specific genes. Nevertheless, the information on

resistance patterns can be a useful tool to narrow down candidate accessions for the presence of a specific

Pm gene of interest.

Association studies for seedling resistance to wheat powdery mildew in the full LandracePLUS panel reveal

previously cloned *Pm* genes as well as possibly novel genes

We conducted GWAS with the phenotyping data obtained for each of the ten powdery mildew isolates

on all 755 wheat accessions with a minor allele frequency (MAF) of 1%, revealing six genomic regions

associated with wheat mildew resistance on chromosomes 1A, 2B, 2D, 5D, 7A and 7B (Table 1, S4 Fig). The

most significant peak was located on chromosome 5D and was observed for the *AvrPm2*-containing *Bgt*

isolates CHE_94202, CHE_96224, CHE_97266, CHN_46_30 and ISR_106. When focusing on one

representative *AvrPm2*-containing isolate, ISR_106, the mildew resistance association spanned the region

from 43,201,514 to 45,174,806 bp of the short arm of chromosome 5D of Chinese Spring (Fig 4A-C) and

included the *Pm2* resistance gene locus (51). To test if the presence of *Pm2* was responsible for the

significant association, we screened the LandracePLUS panel with a *Pm2* haplotype-specific marker (51)

and found that out of 102 wheat accessions that were resistant to ISR_106, 39 contained *Pm2*, of which

34 were landraces. Most of these 34 accessions were from Turkey, with three landraces from Russia,

Pakistan and Tajikistan (Fig 4F). GWAS with a covariate for *Pm2* presence resulted in the loss of the

significant peak (Fig 4D), corroborating that the peak was indeed caused by *Pm2*. Sequencing of the

amplified *Pm2* locus in four randomly selected landraces that were positive for the haplotype marker,

uniformly revealed the presence of the known allele *Pm2a* (51).

Table 1. Powdery mildew associated regions detected in the complete LandracePLUS panel of 755 accessions.

Chromosome	Position	Isolate	*Pm* genes described on specific chromosome (arm)
1AS	4,062,943 – 6,342,008	CHE_98230	***Pm3***(52)*, Pm17*(53)*, Pm25*(54)
2BL	707,987,645 – 722,628,991	CHE_96224, CHE_97223	*Pm6*(55)*, Pm33*(56)*, **Pm51**(57)*, *Pm52*(58)*, Pm57*(59)*, **Pm63**(60)*, *Pm64*(61)*, **PmKN0816**(62)*, ***PmLS5082***(63)*, **PmQ**(64)*, PmY39*(65)*, **pmYN99102**(66)*, MlAB10*(67)*, Mlzec1*(68)
2DL	639,543,074 – 639,666,878	CHE_98230	*Pm43*(69)*, PmSE5785*(70)
5DS	43,201,514 – 45,174,806	CHE_94202, CHE_96224, CHE_97266, CHN_46_30, ISR_106	***Pm2***(51)*, **Pm46**(71)*, Pm55*(72)
7AL	723,214,600 – 727,232,696	CHE_94202, CHE_97266, CHE_98230, GBR_JIW2	*Pm1*(44)*, Pm9*(20)*, Pm37*(73)*, **Pm59**(74)*, Pm60*(75)*, PmG16*(76)*, **Mlliw72**(77)*, **Mlm2033**(78)*, **Mlm80**(78)*, mlRd30*(79)*, **MlUM15**(80)*, PmU*(81)*, PmTb7A*(82)*, **MlIW172**(77)*, MlWE18*(83)
7BL	708,382,369 – 708,545,443	CHE_96224, CHE_98230	*Pm5*(84)*, pmDHT*(85)*, PmSGD*(86)*, PmTm4*(87)*, **pmHYM**(88)*, **pmYBL**(89)*, mlxbd*(90)*, mljy*(91)*, mlsy*(91)

Physical positions of GWAS peaks on Chinese Spring and the isolates detecting them. *Pm* genes are listed that were

described on the same chromosomal arm or on the same chromosome without specified arm. *Pm* genes that were

described in an overlapping genomic interval with the GWAS peak are highlighted in bold.

In addition to the *Pm2* gene, we detected a peak on chromosome 1AS for mildew isolate CHE_98230,

which spanned the genomic region from 4,062,943 to 6,342,008 bp (Table 1, S4 Fig) and contained the

locus of the cloned gene *Pm3*, of which to date 17 alleles have been identified (33). All cloned avirulence

genes specifically recognized by *Pm3* alleles, namely *AvrPm3a/f* (47), *AvrPm3b/c* (48) and *AvrPm3d* (48)

were present in CHE_98230 (S1 Table) and the *Pm3* differential lines were all resistant to CHE_98230,

except for *Pm3g* (Fig 3A). Earlier studies have shown that out of 115 resistant accessions in the

LandracePLUS panel, 27 contained functional *Pm3* alleles, with 16 and five accessions containing *Pm3c*

and *Pm3b*, respectively (S1 Excel) (32,33,92). We suggest that the peak is caused by these functional *Pm3*

alleles.

A third, very large region (707,987,645 to 722,628,991 bp) on chromosome 2BL was associated with

powdery mildew resistance for isolates CHE_96224 and CHE_97223 (Table 1, S4 Fig). Eight out of nine

significantly associated SNPs in this region overlapped for both isolates and showed strong linkage

disequilibrium (LD), ranging from r^2 values of 0.76 to 1, with a mean of 0.92. This strong linkage between

the markers suggests a region of reduced recombination, which could be caused by an introgression.

Indeed, it was shown that an introgression on chromosome 2BL is present in the wheat gene pool, which

is most likely derived from the diploid wild relative *Triticum timopheevii* (25,93). This introgression is

potentially present in the LandracePLUS panel. The strong LD makes it challenging to discover the causal

genes of the association, which could be a single or multiple resistance genes. Indeed, many candidate

Pm genes have been described in this genomic interval, including *Pm51* (57), *Pm63* (60), *PmKN0816* (62),

PmLS5082 (63), *PmQ* (64) and *pmYN99102* (66). Accessions that likely contained the causal gene were

predominantly from Iran and the USA. The same isolates that revealed this association, CHE_96224 and

CHE_97223, also showed a peak on chromosome 2DL from 594,546,895 to 595,439,911 bp (Table 1, S4

Fig). To test if this association was an echo-like artifact derived from the peak on chromosome 2B, we

checked the chromosome-specificity of the two significantly associated markers on chromosome 2D.

Blasting against the Chinese Spring genome revealed that marker contig79838_204_BS00100069 mapped

with 97% identity on chromosome 2B 723,302 kb, closely distal to the peak, while marker GENE-1908_97

mapped with 97% identity and 97% coverage on chromosome 2B within the peak at 722,089 kb. Vice

versa, this low marker specificity was only true for two out of eight significantly associated markers of the

peak on chromosome 2B. Thus, we regarded the peak on chromosome 2D for CHE_96224 and CHE_97223

as an artefact.

For the isolate CHE_98230 we detected a peak on chromosome 2DL that was located further distal,

between 639,543,074 and 639,666,878 bp (Table 1, Fig 5A). Out of twelve accessions that likely carried

the causal gene, eight were Iranian and three Indian landraces suggesting a potential origin of this gene

in the Middle East. The genomic region contained only two predicted genes on the reference genome

Chinese Spring, putatively encoding an alpha/beta-hydrolase superfamily protein and a transketolase (S2

Excel). Two *Pm* genes were described previously on this chromosomal arm, namely *Pm43* and *PmSE5785*,

which are both derived from diploid wild relatives (69,94). *Pm43* was introgressed into wheat via partial

amphiploids of *Thinopyrum intermedium* (69). Based on the markers that defined the mapping interval,

this gene maps between 467 to 577 Mb on Chinese Spring. Thus, *Pm43* is located at least 63 Mb proximal

to our associated region, which ranged from 639.5 to 639.6 Mb. *PmSE5785*, on the other hand, was

introduced into wheat via synthetic hexaploids from *Aegilops tauschii* and mapped proximal to 513.1 Mb

(94), separated by at least 126 Mb from our peak. We conclude that we detected an undescribed powdery

mildew resistance-associated region on chromosome 2DL.

We further detected a peak on chromosome 7AL for CHE_94202, CHE_97266, CHE_98230 and GBR_JIW2

that spanned from 722,307,347 to 727,232,696 bp (Table 1, S4 Fig). Possible candidate genes in this

genomic interval include *Pm59* (74), *Mllw72* (95), *Mlm2033* (78), *Mlm80* (78), *MlUM15* (80) and *Mllw172*

(77). Alleles of *Pm1* have also been mapped to chromosome 7AL (McIntosh), however, we could not

confirm an overlap with our resistance-associated region, because the *Pm1* locus is absent in Chinese

Spring (36).

Finally, we detected a peak on chromosome 7BL for CHE_96224 and CHE_98230 that spanned from

708,382,369 to 708,545,443 bp (Table 1, S4 Fig), possibly caused by *pmHYM* (88) or *pmYBL* (89), which

have been mapped to this region earlier. Accessions that likely contained the causal gene were mostly

cultivars from diverse countries in Asia and the Americas.

Pm4 alleles are widely present in the LandracePLUS panel but not revealed by association studies

Based on the resistance of differential lines *Pm4a* and *Pm4b* to five and four of the ten isolates,

respectively, we expected to detect the cloned gene *Pm4* in the LandracePLUS panel (96). *Pm4a* and *Pm4b*

were described earlier to confer resistance to CHE_94202 and CHE_96224, but not to GBR_JIW2 (96).

Phenotyping revealed 17 accessions which showed the expected resistance pattern for the three

diagnostic isolates, while haplotype-specific markers (96) detected the presence of the *Pm4* haplotype in

62 accessions, however, no peak was produced at the *Pm4* locus on chromosome 2AL for any isolate. To

explain this missing association despite the broad haplotype presence of *Pm4*, we sequenced the locus in

all 62 accessions. This revealed 51 and four accessions containing the non-functional alleles *Pm4f* and

Pm4g, respectively (96), and four accessions with an undescribed allele, hereafter *Pm4_42460*, while the

functional alleles *Pm4b* and *Pm4d* only occurred once and twice, respectively. The undescribed allele

resembled *Pm4f*, except for one amino acid change in position 421 of splicing variant V1 (421L:P). While

allele *Pm4g* was present in accessions of diverse geographical origin, 42 out of 51 accessions carrying *Pm4f*

and all four accessions containing *Pm4_42460* were Turkish landraces. Our findings suggests that the non-

functional alleles *Pm4_42460* and *Pm4f* originated in Turkey.

Taken together, we find the presence of known *Pm* genes with GWAS of the complete LandracePLUS

panel, giving insights on their geographic distribution and potential origin. In addition, we discovered at

least one genomic region on chromosome 2D which has not been implicated with powdery mildew

resistance before.

Utilizing subsets of the LandracePLUS panel discovers novel loci that are associated with powdery mildew

resistance of distinct geographical origin

As for the *Pm2a* gene described above, it is likely that some resistance genes are present only in certain

groups of the LandracePLUS panel, e.g., accessions with similar geographical origin or unique phenotype

patterns. We first tested if subsets of the panel based on such groups are suitable to detect additional

genomic regions associated with powdery mildew resistance. To assess the sensitivity of this approach,

we used a re-sampling approach and created 100 random subsets of 300, 200, 150 and 90 accessions from

the LandracePLUS panel as an input for GWAS with the *Pm2* avirulent isolate ISR_106. Since the MAF

threshold of 1% used above would detect an association already if the respective allele occurs only two

times for a subset of 200 to 299 accessions, we decided to adjust the MAF threshold to 5% for all subsets

below a sample size of 300. We found the *Pm2*-associated peak in 98%, 95%, 75% and 48% of cases for

the four subset sizes, respectively. We therefore considered subsets of a minimum of 150 to 200

accessions suitable for the detection of loci associated with major resistance genes in the LandracePLUS

panel.

In a first sub-setting approach, we created sets of accessions based on their geographical origins. A subset

of all 173 landraces from Pakistan and Iran revealed four additional peaks compared to the full

LandracePLUS panel, located on chromosomes 1A, 2A, 4A and 6A (Table 2, S5 Fig, Fig 5B). While the peak

on chromosome 2A was located in a genomic region that has been described to contain the resistance

gene *Ml92145E8-9* (97), the other regions have not been associated with powdery mildew resistance

before (Table 2). The resistance-associated region on chromosome 6A spanned the region from

47,543,345 to 48,168,130 bp and occurred for isolates CHE_98230 and CHE_97266 (Fig 5B). In this region,

ten genes were annotated on Chinese Spring, including genes that putatively encode five leucine-rich

repeat (LRR)-domain-containing proteins and a serine/threonine kinase (S2 Excel). On chromosome arm

6AS, only *Pm21* and *Pm56* have been described. *Pm21* originated and was cloned from the diploid grass

Dasypyrum villosum (98,99). The gene was introduced into the 17exaploidy gene pool in China through a

translocation line T6AL.6VS in the late 1980s (100). The translocated arm from *D. villosum*, however, does

not recombine with wheat homeologs (101). We would therefore expect to see a broad association

covering the short arm of chromosome 6A in case of *Pm21* detection. Further, *Pm21* was described to

confer broad-spectrum resistance (101), whereas we observed the association for only one out of ten

isolates. Therefore, we suggest that the causal gene in our resistance-associated region is different from

Pm21. Similarly, *Pm56* was only recently introduced as a translocation line 6AL.6RS from rye (102), several

years after we obtained and utilized the seeds of the initial collection. We conclude that this is a not

previously described resistance-associated region on chromosome 6AS.

Table2. Powdery mildew associated regions detected in subsets of the LandracePLUS panel.

Chromosome	Position	Subset	Isolate	*Pm* genes described on specific chromosome (arm)
1AS	12,174,235 – 12,208,992	Pakistan/Iran (173)	CHN_46_30	*Pm3*(52)*, Pm17*(53)*, Pm25*(54)
1AS	29,107,020 – 31,254,548	Turkey (231)	CHE_98230	*Pm3*(52)*, Pm17*(53)*, Pm25*(54)
1AL	545,768,653 – 549,614,262	Turkey (231)	CHE_98230	*Pm25*(54)
1BL	455,211,699 – 459,929,298	Turkey (231)	CHE_96224	*Pm39*(103)
1BL	666,035,407 – 666,819,820	Turkey (231)	CHE_96224	*Pm39*(103)
1DL	458,298,562 – 470,343,380	CHE_98230 (367)	CHE_98230	*Pm10*(104)
2AL	731,541,214 – 731,543,212	Pakistan/Iran (173)	CHE_97266	*Pm4*(96)*, Pm50*(105)*, Pm65*(106)*, pmX*(107)*, PmHo*(108)*, **Ml92145E8-9**(97)*, PmHNK54*(109)*, PmLK906*(110)*, PmYm66*(111)*, PmSN15218*(112)
3AL	575,148,089 – 624,384,371	CHE_98230 (367)	CHE_98230	-
3AL	649,955,366 – 649,957,392	Turkey (231)	GBR_JIW2	-
3BL	669,757,199 – 671,287,569	CHE_98230 (367)	CHE_98230	*Pm41*(113)*, PmHNK*(114)
4AL	621,274,251 – 621,311,627	Pakistan/Iran (173)	CHE_19004	*Pm16*(115)*, Pm61*(116)*, MlIW30*(117)*, MlNFS10*(118)*, PmHHXM*(119)*, PmPBDH*(120)
4DL	508,250,632 – 508,270,523	Turkey (231)	CHE_97223	-
5AL	661,231,600 – 663,214,964	CHE_98230 (367)	CHE_98230	***pm2026***(121)
5AL	582,889,996 – 585,435,631	Turkey (231)	ISR_106	*pm2026*(121)

5BL	701,148,712 – 701,177,854	CHE_94202 (171)	CHE_94202	*Pm36*(122), *Pm53*(123), *PmAS846*(124), *Ml3D232*(125)
6AS	47,543,345 – 48,168,130	Pakistan/Iran (173)	CHE_98230, CHE_97266	*Pm21*(98,99), *Pm56*(102)
6AS	1,949,085 – 1,960,836	Turkey (231)	CHE_97223	*Pm21*(98,99), *Pm56*(102)
7BL	702,850,716 – 704,268,424	Turkey (231)	CHE_98230	*Pm5*(84), *pmDHT*(85), **PmSGD**(86), *PmTm4*(87), **pmHYM**(88), *pmYBL*(89), *mlxbd*(90), *mljy*(91), *mlsy*(91)

Physical positions of GWAS peaks on Chinese Spring, subset description with number of accessions in brackets and

the isolates detecting them. *Pm* genes are listed that were described on the same chromosomal arm or on the same

chromosome without specified arm. *Pm* genes that were described in an overlapping genomic interval with the

GWAS peak are highlighted in bold.

Finally, we used the same geographical approach to investigate a subset of the 231 Turkish landraces,

which resulted in the discovery of nine additional peaks on chromosomes 1A, 1B, 3A, 4D, 5A, 6A and 7B

(Table 2, S6 Fig), of which only the peak on 7B has been implicated in seedling resistance before. Taken

together, subsets based on geographical origin revealed eleven genomic regions that have not previously

been associated with powdery mildew resistance, suggesting that these genes arose in the respective

countries Pakistan, India and Turkey.

Association studies of further LandracePLUS panel subsets reveal undescribed isolate-specific resistance

loci

In a second targeted sub-setting approach, we tested if accessions with resistance to single isolates would

reveal novel associated genomic loci. Accordingly, we created subsets for CHE_94202 and CHE_98230,

which showed a substantial number of wheat accessions uniquely resistant to them. Complementing

these resistant accessions with susceptible ones, we obtained a subset of 171 accessions for CHE_94202,

which revealed one new peak compared to GWAS of the complete panel. This association was located on

chromosome 5BL, spanning the region from 701,148,712 to 701,177,854 bp (Fig 5C, Table 2), which has

not been described in powdery mildew resistance. In this genomic interval, only four genes were

annotated in Chinese Spring, including a gene encoding a putative NLR (S2 Excel). Accessions that likely

contained the causal gene were mostly Iranian (17) and Turkish (17) landraces, representing distinct

clusters from the diversity analysis.

Another isolate-specific subset of 367 accessions for CHE_98230 revealed four new peaks on the long

arms of chromosomes 1D, 3A, 3B, and 5A (Table 2, S7 Fig, Fig 5D). While we will discuss the latter, most

likely novel peak with promising candidate genes, the other three genomic regions have also not been

associated with powdery mildew resistance before (Table 2). The peak on chromosome 5AL spanned the

region from 661,231,600 to 663,214,964 bp (Fig 5D) and contained 23 annotated genes in the Chinese

Spring reference genome. Among these were genes putatively encoding three C2H2-type Zinc fingers, an

MLO-related protein, a Serine/threonine kinase and an NLR (S2 Excel). Accessions that likely contained

the causal resistance gene were predominantly landraces from India (six) and Nepal (eight). So far, two

powdery mildew resistance loci were described on chromosome 5AL. A recent study on 8,316 wheat

accessions found a powdery mildew resistance associated region, called MTA10, on chromosome 5AL

pointing to a candidate gene which is located at 454.77 Mb, thus, more than 200 Mb proximal to our peak

(31). Additionally, one of the temporarily designated genes, *pm2026*, was located on chromosome 5A^{m}L

of the diploid wheat ancestor *Triticum monococcum* accession TA2026 (121). The authors created

tetraploid wheat that contained this gene using emmer crosses and started the transfer into hexaploid

wheat by backcrossing with an unknown elite cultivar in 2008. Due to the long process required after this

pre-breeding step, it is unlikely that our panel contains accessions with the transferred *pm2026* locus.

Although we cannot exclude a natural transfer of the locus during wheat hybridization, *pm2026* was never

identified outside of the accession TA2026. Conversely, if our association was caused by *pm2026*, we

narrowed down the interval of the locus based on Chinese Spring mapping from 10.2 Mb to less than 2

Mb and present candidate genes.

In summary, subsets for isolate-specific resistance facilitated the discovery of five additional, previously

unknown genetic loci that are represented in accessions from few, distinct geographical regions.

Discussion

<u>The LandracePLUS panel harbors untapped genetic diversity originating mainly from Turkish, Pakistani</u>

<u>and Iranian landraces</u>

We assembled a diverse panel of 755 bread wheat accessions with a focus on landraces. Here, a FIGS

approach laid the foundation for a trait-customized collection of accessions with potentially high selection

pressure for powdery mildew resistance. A second step of selective reduction based on geographical

origin resulted in the LandracePLUS panel, which facilitated the detection of novel *Pm* genes using GWAS.

The LandracePLUS panel revealed untapped genetic diversity in Turkish, Iranian and Pakistani landraces.

It showed four main genetic clusters that correlate with the geographical origin, similar to a study which

has shown that wheat accessions from the Caucasus region, as well as Central, South and East Asian are

more diverse compared to other regions in the world (28). Landraces covered almost the full diversity of

the LandracePLUS panel, whereas cultivars were limited to one cluster. This cluster also included the

bread wheat accessions with high-quality sequenced genomes, with the exception of the two landraces

Chinese Spring and Norin61 (25,36,40,41). This observation highlights the need to include landraces in

breeding programs to enlarge the genetic base of elite wheat varieties (126,127). We propose that future

diversity studies of wheat should have a focus on landraces, in particular from regions with untapped

genetic diversity, such as Turkey, Pakistan and Iran.

<u>Pathogen virulence characterization guides *Pm* gene discovery</u>

To discover novel *R* genes against powdery mildew in the LandracePLUS panel, we used a set of ten *Bgt*

isolates that showed highly diverse virulence patterns when tested on differential lines with single, known

Pm genes. As we observed avirulence for almost all differential lines, using these isolates should reveal

the presence of most *Pm* genes for which differential lines are available.

The tested wheat accessions were rarely resistant to more than three isolates, in line with characteristic

R gene-based race-specific resistance (19). This implies that the observed single resistance genes would

be of limited agricultural use, depending on the isolates present in an agricultural area of interest. To

broaden the resistance spectrum and prevent fast evolution of pathogen virulence, such genes should be

deployed in a suitable manner, e.g., by gene stacking, gene pyramiding or transgenic overexpression

(128,129). On the other hand, the 61 accessions of the LandracePLUS panel that were susceptible to all

tested powdery mildew isolates can be assumed to lack any major resistance gene active at the seedling

stage. Thus, observed resistance in adult plants in the field would likely be durable, making these

accessions worth investigating in field tests.

Currently, for the 27 genes represented in the differential set of *Pm* lines, only eight of the corresponding

avirulence genes are molecularly known (43–49). Avirulence gene sequence comparison in our ten

powdery mildew isolates revealed the presence of recognized haplotypes of seven of the cloned Avrs. This

knowledge guided us to determine whether a resistance-associated region in the LandracePLUS panel was

derived from a known *Pm* gene or not, as we showed for the cloned gene *Pm2a*. Further, the information

of resistance to *Bgt* isolates of distinct geographical origin can be used to suggest an informed deployment

of accessions in the respective agricultural areas (43,130). For example, our findings suggest further work

on landraces that are resistant to CHN46-30 for potential deployment in China because they must contain

effective *R* genes against this isolate of Chinese origin.

     <u>GWAS of the complete LandracePLUS panel detects known *Pm* genes and reveals an undescribed powdery</u>

<u>mildew resistance associated region on chromosome 2DL</u>

GWAS on the full LandracePLUS panel and all ten powdery mildew isolates revealed resistance associated

regions on six chromosomes. Five of these were in genomic regions with previously described resistance

associations. Of these, peaks on chromosomes 1AS and 5DS were likely caused by the cloned genes *Pm3*

and *Pm2*, respectively. While *Pm3* was known to be present in several LandracePLUS panel accessions

(32,33,92), we did not expect to find *Pm2* widely in the gene pool of landraces. *Pm2* was introduced to

the breeding gene pool from the Russian cultivar Ulka (131). It originated from the diploid wheat wild

relative *Ae. tauschii* and has eight known alleles, of which only *Pm2a* was detected in hexaploid wheat

(50). While *Pm2a* has been identified previously in six wheat landraces (50,132), we found its presence in

34, mostly Turkish, landraces. Our findings suggest that *Pm2a* might have entered the wheat gene pool

through Turkish landraces. The other three loci were potentially caused by genetically described, but not

molecularly known genes. While GWAS did not detect the cloned gene *Pm4* in the LandracePLUS panel,

we discovered the large presence of two non-functional alleles in Turkish landraces. Our findings suggests

that these alleles originated in Turkey, fitting the origin of *Pm4* from tetraploid wheat, which also arose in

Turkey (96,133). Despite the narrow representation of *Pm4b* and *Pm4d* in landraces, a wide presence of

these functional alleles compared to *Pm4f* and *Pm4g* has been described in elite germplasm (96). This

suggests that the breeding process for *Pm4* mildew resistance was very effective.

The sixth detected locus in the full LandracePLUS panel was a 124 Kb region on chromosome 2DL, which

has not been described to be associated with powdery mildew resistance before. This region contained

two candidate genes, predicted to encode an alpha/beta-hydrolase superfamily protein and a

transketolase. These types of proteins have not been linked to disease resistance earlier, and their

potential function in the observed defense response would need to be determined. However, the causal

gene for resistance might be absent in the reference genome Chinese Spring. One approach to clarify this

issue would be the application of recent sequencing technologies, such as circular consensus sequencing

(CCS) (134). Such novel approaches have increased the feasibility of sequencing specific donor accessions

to assist in cloning a gene of interest. For example, assembling the Kariega genome with CCS has

demonstrated the usefulness of this approach in wheat and has led to the cloning of *Yr27* (135). Another

option to identify a gene of interest in a specific genotype depends on the availability of a pangenome,

which ideally would capture the entire gene repertoire of a species (136). High-quality sequencing efforts

have recently resulted in 18 wheat genomes, of which 13 have reference genome quality

(25,36,40,41,137). Genome analysis has revealed structural rearrangements, introgressions and

differences in gene content (25). A successful example of using this resource is the cloning of *Lr14a*, which

was based on the reference genome ArinaLrFor (138). However, despite the recent advances in

pangenome projects, the close clustering of the high-quality sequenced genomes compared to the

LandracePLUS panel suggests that the currently available pangenome includes only a fraction of the

diversity present in landraces, including resistance loci. In fact, Walkowiak and colleagues have shown

that ten genotypes capture about 90% of the NLR complement of wheat (25). Thus, it is essential to include

more diverse wheat accessions, specifically landraces, in future work to increase the extent of the

pangenome, particularly for NLR loci. We propose to assemble high-quality genomes of several landraces

from Turkey, Pakistan and Iran. Furthermore, contrasting phenotypes should be included when setting up

pangenome consortia. This diversified selection could provide a resource that guides various trait-

genotype associations.

Targeted GWAS subsets reveal 16 potentially novel resistance-associated loci

Utilizing targeted subsets, we discovered 16 peaks on ten chromosomes that are most likely novel (Table

2). GWAS are expected to be more powerful when conducted on large datasets where individuals are

drawn randomly from the population (139). However, SNPs important at a small regional scale might yet

be diluted in species-wide panels and not detected by GWAS, which are typically lacking the power to

detect associations with rare alleles (140). Pending sufficient phenotypic and genetic variation, GWAS in

local panels have proven to be very effective in *Arabidopsis thaliana* to characterize the genetic

architecture of defensive metabolite diversity (141). For this reason, resistance genes which may have

been selected at small regional scales might be more efficiently detected in subsets of accessions from

the same geographical origin.

We therefore focused on accessions originating from distinct countries that harbored novel genetic

diversity, namely Pakistan, Iran and Turkey. With a subset of accessions that are exclusively from Pakistan

or Iran, we discovered a region on chromosome 6AS associated with mildew resistance. The region

contains genes putatively encoding a serine/threonine kinase and F-box like proteins with LRR domains.

The latter have been described to facilitate hypersensitive cell death response in tobacco and tomato

(142) and shown to be involved in defense response to stripe rust in wheat (143). Serine/threonine kinases

have been25escryibed to play a role in defense response, including *Pto*, which confers resistance to

bacterial speck disease in tomato (144,145).

In the same manner, subsets of accessions that were uniquely resistant to a single isolate revealed a region

on chromosome 5BL containing a candidate gene encoding a putative NLR. Another associated region was

detected on chromosome 5AL contained candidate genes putatively encoding C2H2-type Zinc fingers, an

MLO-related protein, a serine/threonine kinase and an NLR. Zinc fingers of the C2H2-type were linked to

plant defense response (146–149), where some cases have shown that the transcriptional repression

activity of the zinc finger was the mechanism behind this association (150,151). *Mlo* is a well-known player

in powdery mildew resistance in barley, with rice and wheat homologs shown to have a conserved

function (152,153). *Mlo* mutants that confer resistance are recessive, as is the only previously described

candidate gene in this 5AL genomic region, *pm2026* (121,152). Thus, the next step would be genetic

analyses via crosses to test if the resistant phenotype is inherited in a recessive ratio. A dominant ratio

would corroborate the strong likelihood described above that the candidate gene is not *pm2026* and guide

the focus of further investigations away from the *Mlo*-related candidate.

While we present these novel regions and gene candidates, the molecular nature of the observed

resistance must be identified in future studies. We suggest choosing a donor accession with confirmed

resistance for each peak and sequence the resistance-associated genome using CCS. This will reveal which

gene candidates are present in the specific accessions and guide their molecular cloning and validation,

e.g., via virus-induced gene silencing (154).

The subset-based association analysis done in this work of the genetically diverse LandracePLUS panel

challenged with ten *Bgt* isolates unraveled 17 potentially novel powdery mildew resistance genes.

Therefore, this study can be used as an example for future work on similar collections in search of other

traits of interest. Once a diversity panel is assembled, instead of focusing on single pathogen races, we

propose phenotyping with diverse isolates from geographically defined agricultural regions. Followed by

subset-based analyses for unique resistance and origin of accessions, this can reveal more resistance loci

than studies done with single pathogen isolates in entire collections.

Materials and Methods

Plant material and growth conditions

As starting material from which we selected our working panel, we utilized a formerly assembled bread

wheat collection of 1,320 landraces that had been selected based on FIGS of accessions with potentially

high selection pressure for powdery mildew resistance (32). Later, this collection had been complemented

with 733 accessions of diverse geographical origin (33). Assessment of accession type, i.e., landrace,

cultivar, breeding/research material or unknown, was based on passport data, which can be found at

genesys-pgr.org. When no GPS data was available for accession collection sites, we projected GPS using

https://maps.google.com from the most detailed description available, i.e., given villages up to countries.

Accessions from the two combined wheat collections were phenotyped for powdery mildew resistance at

seedling stage with the six *Bgt* isolates CHE_94202, CHE_96224, CHE_97223, CHE_97266, CHE_98230 and

GBR_JIW2. The infection phenotype was used to create a reduced panel of wheat accessions, consisting

of approximately 50% that showed complete resistance (0%) to one or more isolates or moderate

resistance (<= 20%) to at least two isolates. The remaining 50% were susceptible to all six isolates and had

the same ratio of spring wheat to winter wheat as the resistant part of the panel. Additionally, we used

wheat accession origin as a proxy for relatedness, choosing a geographically close susceptible counterpart

for each resistant accession. The resulting diverse LandracePLUS panel of 755 bread wheat accessions (S1

Excel) with a focus around the fertile crescent was infected with four additional *Bgt* isolates at seedling

stage, i.e., CHE_19004, CHN_46_30, ISR_106 and ISR_94.

Differential lines that were used to assess virulence patterns for 27 different *Pm* genes are shown in S2

Table, including NILs and accessions containing the designated gene. NILs had been backcrossed multiple

times with susceptible accessions "Federation" or "Chancellor", depicted by /x*Accession, where x is the

number of backcrosses to the designated accession (20). Other differential lines were used as original

seeds from the USDA ARS (https://npgsweb.ars-grin.gov/gringlobal/search), or propagated using isolation

bags per single spikes.

Seeds that were used for infection tests were obtained by propagating accessions in the field using single

rows per genotype without isolation. Seedlings for infection tests were grown in 40-wells plastic trays in

a growth chamber cycled at 20°C/16°C, 16/8h photoperiod with 80% relative humidity.

Powdery mildew isolates and infections

We used previously sampled and sequenced *Bgt* isolates CHE_94202, CHE_96224, CHE_97223,

CHE_97266, CHE_98230, CHN_46_30, GBR_JIW2, ISR_94 and ISR_106, which are described by

Sotiropolous (155). We sampled chasmothecia of one additional isolate, CHE_19004, in 2019 from a wheat

field at Reckenholz, Affoltern, Switzerland, which was revived and sequenced as previously described

(155).

Powdery mildew infection tests of the differential lines and the LandracePLUS panel accessions were

carried out on the first leaves of ten-to-15-day-old seedlings grown under the conditions mentioned

above. Leaf segments were placed with their adaxial side up in Petri dishes filled with 0.5% Phyto agar

containing 30 ppm benzimidazole. Fresh conidiospores were dispersed using 5 ml Pasteur glass pipettes

in a settling tower (156). Petri dishes with detached leaf segments were incubated for six to nine days at

20°C, 80% relative humidity with a 16 h light/8 h dark cycle and 50 µmol m^{-2}s^{-1} photon flux density. Disease

levels were assessed seven to nine days after inoculation using a discrete quantitative scale with a score

from 0 to 100 for the percentage of leaf area covered by sporulating mildew colonies, as described earlier

by Kaur (157). When necessary to define resistance categories, i.e., for visualizations and defining

overlapping or unique resistance, the following thresholds apply: 0-30% = resistant, > 30-60% =

intermediate and > 60% = susceptible. We used mildew susceptible accession Kanzler as a control for a

proper mildew infection for all infection tests and Chancellor and Federation as additional susceptible

controls for tests on differential lines. Disease levels of differential lines were directly scored as resistant,

intermediate and susceptible, following the above thresholds. For Pearson correlation, these values were

transformed to 0, 50 and 100.

Infections were done with four biological replicates per wheat accession and the mean was taken as the

final phenotype. Outliers with a standard deviation > 1.1 were removed. Inconclusive phenotypes, e.g.,

50% resistant and 50% susceptible against the same isolate due to possible seed contamination, were

excluded for further analyses.

Data analysis

Unless indicated otherwise, analyses were done using R version 3.6.3 (158), including data handling with

Tidyverse (159) and visualizations with R package ggplot2 version 3.3.6 (160). Dendrogram formation and

hierarchical clustering were performed using the stats R package version 3.6.3 (158). Pearson correlation

between the isolate phenotypes was calculated using package Hmisc version 5.0.1 (161) and visualized

with the package corrplot version 0.92 (162). False Discovery Rates were calculated using package hdi 0.1-

9 (163).

Wheat *Pm* gene sequence assembly and alignment was done with CLC Genomics Workbench version

20.0.4 (Qiagen Bioinformatics, https://digitalinsights.qiagen.com/). Pathogen *Avr* gene sequence

alignment was done using IGV version 2.15.4 (164).

DNA extraction and genotyping

DNA extraction of plant material was performed as previously described (165). DNA quality was assessed

via agarose gels and genotyped using the TaBW35K SNP array (166). The SNP call dataset included marker

positions and flanking sequences based on RefSeq v1.0 of Chinese Spring (36). We filtered for

"PolyHighResolution" or OTVs and markers with known chromosomal position in the reference genome

Chinese Spring. Absent haplotypes of an OTV were translated to NA to facilitate their inclusion in

downstream analyses. Additional thresholds of 25% heterozygosity, 25% missing data per wheat accession

and 5% missing data per marker resulted in 29,556 polymorphic markers. These were brought into a

Hapmap format with the R package dplyr version 1.0.9 (159) and then transformed into variant call format

(VCF) file using the software TASSEL version 5.0 (167). This file was used as an input to generate plink files

using vcftools version 0.1.16 (168), which were then transformed together with phenotyping data into

.bed, .bim and .fam files using PLINK v1.07 (169) for the diversity and association analyses.

In silico genotyping of TaBW35K array SNP variants in high-quality sequenced wheat genomes

For the comparison of genetic diversity, Fielder (40), Renan (41) and the 10+ wheat reference genomes

ArinaLrFor, Chinese Spring, Claire, Cadenza, Jagger, Julius, Landmark, Lancer, Mace, Paragon, Norin61,

Robigus, Stanley, SYMattis and Weebill (25,36) were added. Flanking sequences of SNP array markers

were queried using BLASTN searches against the publicly available wheat genomes. Blast results were

filtered for hits with at least 60bp alignment and 96% shared identity, thereby allowing no more than

three mismatched nucleotides. Positions of the SNPs were then extracted from BLASTN alignments on the

respective genomes. Merging the resulting dataset with the 29,556 previously used markers resulted in

an overlap of 27,016 SNPs that were used for PCAs and hierarchical cluster analysis.

<u>Diversity Analysis via PCA and hierarchical clustering</u>

PCAs for the LandracePLUS panel and high-quality sequenced genomes were done based on the 27,016

SNP set using the R package SNPRelate version 1.18.1 and gdsfmt version 1.20.0 (170). For the PCA for the

comparison to the 632 landraces from the INRAe study (28), we first cleaned the genotyping data of the

combined datasets provided by INRAe in the same way as we did for the LandracePLUS panel, resulting in

30,021 polymorphic SNPs. Because no creation of a Hapmap or VCF file was necessary for further

downstream analysis, this dataset could directly be used for PCA using the prcomp function.

Hierarchical clustering analysis was performed for the 27,016 SNP set including high-quality sequenced

genomes by transforming the VCF into a GT format using vcftools as an input for the functions hclust

(method = ward.D2) and dist (method = euclidean). We visualized the dendrogram and built the four

groups of clustering genotypes using the package dendextend version 1.16.0 (171).

<u>Admixture kinship analysis and comparative visualization</u>

We used the .bed file of 29,556 SNPs (not including the chromosome-assembled genomes) as an input to

assess population structure using ADMIXTURE version 1.3.0 (172), where the most likely number of

founder populations K can be estimated via running the model over a series of values of K and then

choosing K around the lowest occurring cross-validation (CV) error. We ran the model with a MAF of 1%,

resulting in 28,545 SNPs, for K = 2 to K = 20. However, the CV error steadily dropped with increasing K (S8

Fig). We therefore regarded Ks after the largest CV error drops of 31% in total as appropriate estimations

for population structure, i.e., K = 4 to K = 6. A bootstrap of 500 and CV of 10 was used for this analysis.

A kinship matrix for the visualization was made with the same 29,556 SNP set using GAPIT version 3 (173).

For the comparative dendrogram, the kinship matrix was used as an input for hierarchical clustering using

standard hclust and dist functions. This dendrogram was visualized using the R package ggdendro version

0.1.23 (174). Finally, these two plots and the admixture barplot were merged using R package patchwork

version 1.1.1 (175).

Pm gene screening via polymerase chain reactions (PCRs) and sequencing

PCR analysis was performed using _Pm4_ (96) and _Pm2_ haplotype-specific markers (51). Four random

landraces that were identified to carry _Pm2_ were then used for long-range and a following nested PCR to

amplify the gene for Sanger sequencing as previously described by Sanchez-Martin (51).

Genome-wide association analysis (GWAS)

GWAS was performed using the software GEMMA (176). For the full LandracePLUS panel and each subset,

.bed, .bim and .fam files were created as described above. .fam files were used as an input for creating

the kinship matrix in GEMMA using the options -gk 1 and -miss 1. This matrix was then integrated into the

univariate linear mixed model with option -miss 1 (176). Phenotypic data for the association studies was

added to the .fam files with the dplyr package in R.

To test if the peak on chromosome 5D was derived from _Pm2_, we included a covariate (option –c) for

binary information on the presence of _Pm2_ based on haplotype-specific PCR screening. MAF was set to

1% for the full LandracePLUS panel and all subsets above 300 accessions in size, while for the other runs

the MAF was set to 5%. P-values were based on the likelihood ratio test and -log10 transformed for

Manhattan plots. We used two thresholds to account for multiple testing, namely the False Discovery Rate

(FDR) and the more conservative Bonferroni correction. However, we regarded SNPs that passed the FDR

test as significant.

Random subsets were produced using R package tibble 3.1.8 (177). Subsets of geographical origin were

based on countries of origin. Subsets for unique resistance to a single *Bgt* isolate were created by

considering accessions that were resistant (<= 30% leaf coverage by mildew) to the isolate of interest, but

not resistant (>30%) to the other nine isolates. To complement the resulting accessions with susceptible

ones, we used a threshold of >80% for CHE_98230, while all other isolates could have any resistance type.

For CHE_94202, we used a different approach, where CHE_94202 >70% and all other isolates >50%.

Accessions that most likely carry the causal genes of a resistance associated region were determined by

1) showing at least 50% of the effect alleles within an associated region and 2) being resistant to the

respective isolate (<=30% leaf coverage). SNP LD was calculated using PLINK --ld for pairwise comparison.

The physical position of previously described *Pm* genes was either taken from the corresponding

publication when available or estimated by blasting the flanking markers using BLASTN against Chinese

Spring RefSeq v1.0.

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683   Author information

<u>Authors</u>

Rebecca Leber (R.L.): rebecca.leber@botinst.uzh.ch

Matthias Heuberger (M.H.): matthias.heuberger@botinst.uzh.ch

Victoria Widrig (V.W.): vwidrig@usal.es

Esther Jung (E.J.): esther.jung@botinst.uzh.ch

Etienne Paux (E.P.): etienne.paux@vetagro-sup.fr

Anne C. Roulin (A.C.R.): anne.roulin@botinst.uzh.ch

Javier Sánchez-Martín (J.S.M.): j.sanchezmartin@usal.es

Beat Keller (B.K.): bkeller@botinst.uzh.ch

<u>Contributions</u>

J.S.M. and B.K. conceived the project. E.J. and R.L. performed seed propagation. R.L., V.W. and J.S.M.

performed infection tests. R.L. performed DNA extraction, PCR screens and allele detection. E.P.

performed SNP array genotyping. R.L. and M.H. performed bioinformatics analysis. A.C.R. provided

theoretical contributions to the project. R.L., J.S.M. and B.K. analyzed the data and wrote the manuscript.

All authors revised the manuscript.

<u>Competing Interests</u>

The authors declare no competing interests.

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1177

Country of origin	Number of accessions
Argentina	12
Armenia	8
Australia	14
Azerbaijan	1
Canada	8
Switzerland	4
China	45
Ethiopia	38
France	30
India	40
Iran	131
Iraq	19
Japan	18
Kazakhstan	1
Kyrgyzstan	1
Mexico	20
Nepal	40
Pakistan	42
Russia	13
Tajikistan	4
Turkey	231
USA	19
Uzbekistan	1
South Africa	4
unknown	11

Figure 1. LandracePLUS panel diversity and powdery mildew symptoms.
A World map with semitransparent purple dots representing the origin of each of the 755 wheat accessions of the LandracePLUS panel. **B** Number of accessions from the LandracePLUS panel per country of origin. **C** Selection of diverse wheat ears from the LandracePLUS panel. Scale bar, 5 cm. **D** Leaf of wheat cultivar "Kanzler" with powdery mildew symptoms. Scale bar, 1cm.

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Figure 2. Genetic diversity and kinship analysis of the LandracePLUS panel.

A PCA from 27,016 SNPs including high-quality sequenced wheat accessions that are labelled in the figure.
PC1 = 8.5%, PC2 = 5.1%. Colors refer to geographical origin of accessions and are indicated in B.
B Dendrogram of a hierarchical clustering analysis from 27,016 including high-quality sequenced
accessions that are indicated with stars. Colors represent the geographical origin of wheat accessions.
Circled numbers on nodes refer to Groups 1 to 4 when dividing into four clusters. **C** Alignment of Admixture
plot, kinship matrix and dendrogram for the 755 wheat accessions, only, with a MAF of 1%, resulting in
28,545 SNPs. The admixture plot shows K=5, where colors represent ancestral populations. The four
groups based on hierarchical clustering are separated by dashed lines.

Figure 3. Virulence patterns of powdery mildew isolates and resistance distribution in the LandracePLUS panel.

A Virulence pattern of the ten powdery mildew isolates on differential lines with known *Pm* genes. Differential lines for the 27 *Pm* genes are shown in Suppl. Table 2. **B** Virulence pattern of the ten powdery mildew isolates on the LandracePLUS panel. Inconclusive phenotypes based on possible heterozygosity are not shown. Colors represent host symptoms at seedling stage in the three categories resistant, intermediate and susceptible, as defined in Materials and Methods.

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Figure 4. Analysis of the region associated with powdery mildew resistance on chromosome 5D.
Manhattan plot for GWAS with all 755 wheat accessions infected with isolate ISR_106 showing **A** all 21
chromosomes, **B** chromosome 5D and **C** the region of 40 to 50 Mb on chromosome 5D. The locus of the
Chinese Spring version of *Pm2* is indicated with a line. **D** Manhattan plot for GWAS with ISR_106 when
adding a covariate for *Pm2* presence in wheat accessions. **E** Manhattan plot for the *Pm2* virulent isolate
ISR_94. Solid lines represent the threshold for False discovery rate and dashed lines for Bonferroni
correction. **F** Map with semitransparent brown dots depicting the origin of landraces that contain *Pm2*.
Countries of origin are abbreviated with the three-letter country code of ISO 3166.

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Figure 5. Manhattan plots of novel resistance associated regions.
A Full LandracePLUS panel of 755 accessions. **B** Subset of accessions from Pakistan and Iran. Isolates and chromosomes are depicted in the top-left corner. **C** Subset of accessions that were exclusively resistant to CHE_94202. **D** Subset of accessions that were exclusively resistant to CHE_98230. Solid lines represent the threshold for False discovery rate and dashed lines for Bonferroni correction.

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Supporting information captions

S1 Figure. PCAs from 27,016 SNPs of the LandracePLUS panel including high-quality sequenced genomes with
PC1 = 8.5% and PC2 = 5.1%. A Types of wheat accessions are highlighted in different colors. **B** Ethiopian landraces
are highlighted by color in comparison to accessions of other origin.

S2 Figure. Genetic diversity of the LandracePLUS panel compared to 632 landraces from an INRAe study that
have been chosen to represent the original pool of worldwide hexaploid diversity (Balfourier). PCA from 30,021
polymorphic SNPs that were present in SNP arrays of both studies. PC1 = 8.9%, PC2 = 3.4%. Accessions from the
LandracePLUS panel are shown in orange, while INRAe landraces are colored in green.

S3 Figure. Correlation matrix showing Pearson correlation of virulence between the ten isolates used for

phenotyping. A Correlation coefficients based on phenotypic variation of the differential lines and the **B**

Corresponding p-values. **C** Correlation coefficients based on phenotypic variation in the LandracePLUS panel and

the **D** corresponding p-values. Square size and color depend on the specific correlation.

S4 Figure. Manhattan Plots for GWAS with nine powdery mildew isolates and 755 wheat accessions. Isolate

names are depicted in the top-left corner. Solid lines represent the threshold for False discovery rate and dashed

lines for Bonferroni correction.

S5 Figure. Manhattan Plots of resistance associated loci of accessions from Pakistan and Iran. Isolates and

chromosomes are depicted in the top-left corner. Solid lines represent the threshold for False discovery rate and

dashed lines for Bonferroni correction.

S6 Figure. Manhattan Plots of resistance associated loci of Turkish accessions. Isolates and chromosomes are

depicted in the top-left corner. Solid lines represent the threshold for False discovery rate and dashed lines for

Bonferroni correction.

S7 Figure. Manhattan Plots of resistance associated loci of accessions that were exclusively resistant to

CHE_98230. Isolates and chromosomes are depicted in the top-left corner. Solid lines represent the threshold for

False discovery rate and dashed lines for Bonferroni correction.

S8 Figure. Cross-validation error of Admixture kinship analysis for K=2 to K=20 for 28,545 SNPs.

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S1 Table. Molecularly known Avr and Svr haplotypes of the ten powdery mildew isolates used for phenotyping.

H0 = published avirulent haplotype, H1 = published virulent haplotype, H2 = unpublished haplotype. Based on the

phenotype of the differential lines containing cognate Pm genes, we propose that H2 of AvrPm1a and AvrPm3a/f

are virulent, while H2 of AvrPm3d is proposed to be avirulent. H2 of AvrPm17 is likely virulent, due to the

resemblance of H1, with just one additional amino acid change. The resistant phenotype of differential line Pm17

is suggested to be due to the presence of an additional Pm gene in Amigo.

Amino acid (AA) changes are given in reference to H0 and depicted with position original:new.

1216

1217   **S2 Table. Differential lines used for determining powdery mildew isolate virulence spectra and the respective**

1218   **Pm genes they contain.**

1219   NILs had been backcrossed multiple times with susceptible accessions "Federation" or "Chancellor", depicted by

1220   /x*Accession, where x is the number of backcrosses to the designated accession (20).

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1222 **S1 Excel. Information on accessions of the LandracePlus panel.** Alleles with asterics are non-functional.

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1224 **S2 Excel. Gene candidates and annotations in Chinese Spring for regions associated to powdery mildew**

1225 **resistance.**

1226

1227 **S3 Excel. Raw phenotype data of the LandracePLUS panel infected with ten powdery mildew isolates.**

1228

1229 **S1 Data. Raw genotyping data of the LandracePLUS panel with the TaBW35K SNP array.** Empty cells are labelled

1230 "vide" and wheat accession IDs are extended by "_cell identifier".

1231

1232 **S2 Data. Sample statistics of the raw genotyping data of the LandracePLUS panel.** Total numbers are labelled

1233 "nb" and percentage is labelled "pc".

1234

1235 **S3 Data. Marker statistics of the raw genotyping data of the LandracePLUS panel.** Total numbers are labelled

1236 "nb" and percentage is labelled "pc".

1237