

**MOLECULAR CHARACTERIZATION OF *CDU-B1*, A MAJOR LOCUS  
CONTROLLING CADMIUM ACCUMULATION IN DURUM WHEAT (*Triticum  
turgidum* L. var *durum*) GRAIN**

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For the Degree of Master of Science  
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University of Saskatchewan  
Saskatoon, Saskatchewan

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## ABSTRACT

A major gene controlling grain cadmium (Cd) concentration, designated as *Cdu-B1*, has been mapped to the long arm of chromosome 5B, but the genetic factor(s) conferring the low Cd phenotype are currently unknown. Genetic mapping of markers linked to *Cdu-B1* in a population of recombinant inbred substitution lines (RSLs) revealed that the gene(s) associated with variation in Cd concentration reside(s) in wheat deletion bin 5BL9 between fraction breakpoints 0.76 and 0.79, and linked to two candidate genes; *PCS2* (phytochelatin synthetase) and *Xwg644*, which codes for a known ABC (ATP-binding cassette) protein. Genetic mapping and quantitative trait locus (QTL) analysis of grain Cd concentration was performed in a doubled haploid (DH) population and revealed that these genes were not associated with *Cdu-B1*. Two expressed sequence markers (ESMs), and five sequence tagged site (STS) markers were identified that co-segregated with *Cdu-B1*, and explained >80% of the phenotypic variation in grain Cd concentration. A gene coding for a P<sub>1B</sub>-ATPase, designated as *OsHMA3* (heavy metal associated), has recently been associated with phenotypic variation in grain Cd concentration in rice. Mapping of the orthologous gene to *OsHMA3* in the DH population revealed complete linkage with *Cdu-B1* and was designated as *HMA3-B1*. Fine mapping of *Cdu-B1* in >4000 F<sub>2</sub> plants localized *Cdu-B1* to a 0.14 cM interval containing *HMA3-B1*. Two bacterial artificial chromosomes (BACs) containing full-length coding sequence for *HMA3-B1* and *HMA3-A1* (homoeologous copy from the A genome) were identified and sequenced. Sequencing of *HMA3-B1* from high and low Cd accumulators of durum wheat revealed a 17 bp duplication in high accumulators that results in predicted pre-mature stop codon and thus, a severely truncated protein. Several DNA markers linked to *Cdu-B1*, including *HMA3-B1*, were successfully converted to high throughput markers and were evaluated for practical use in breeding programs. These markers were successful at classifying a collection of 96 genetically diverse cultivars and breeding lines into high and low Cd accumulators and will have broad application in breeding programs targeting selection for low grain Cd concentrations. Current results support *HMA3-B1* as a candidate gene responsible for phenotypic differences in grain Cd concentrations in durum wheat.

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## LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AAFC	Agriculture and Agri-Food Canada
ABC	ATP Binding Cassette
BAC	Bacterial Artificial Chromosome
BLAST	Basic Local Alignment Search Tool
CAPS	Cleavage Amplified Polymorphic Sequence
Cbf	C-repeat binding factor
Cd	Cadmium
CDS	Coding DNA Sequence
CE	Capillary Electrophoresis
CFIA	Canadian Food Inspection Agency
CS	Chinese Spring
CS-DIC 5B	CS <i>Triticum dicoccoides</i> 5B substitution
CSF-1	Cleavage Stimulation Factor Subunit 1
DH	Double Haploid
EA	Environmental Agency
ESM	Expressed Sequence Marker
EST	Expressed Sequence Tag
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organization
IARC	International Agency for Research on Cancer
INDEL	Insertion/Deletion
INRA-CNRGV	France Plant Genomic Resources Centre
HMA	Heavy Metal Associated
HPA	Health Protection Agency
HRM	High Resolution Melt
LDN	Langdon
LOD	Log of Odds
LSD	Least Significant Difference
LSM	Least Square Mean
MAS	Molecular Assisted Selection

MC	Mitochondrial Carrier Protein
MLM	Multiple Locus Model
MTK4	Putative Protein Kinase Tousled
Mya	Million years ago
NCBI	National Center for Biotechnology Information
NIL	Near Isogenic Lines
NRAMP	Natural Resistance-Associated Macrophage Protein
NRC	National Research Council
PC	Phytochelatin
PCR	Polymerase Chain Reaction
PCS	Phytochelatin Synthetase
PHY-C	Phytochrome-C
QTL	Quantitative Trait Locus
RAPD	Random Amplified Polymorphic DNA
RNAi	RNA interference
RSL	Recombinant Inbred Substitution Lines
SCAR	Sequence Characterized Amplified Region
SDR	Segregation Distortion Region
SEM	Standard Error of Means
SNP	Single Nucleotide Polymorphism
SRC	Saskatchewan Research Council
SSCP	Single Strand Conformation Polymorphism
SSR	Simple Sequence Repeat
STS	Sequence Tagged Site
Tsn	Toxin sensitivity gene
TILLING	Target Induced Local Lesions in Genomes
VIGS	Virus Induced Gene Silencing
$\chi^2$	Chi Squared
ZIP	ZRT-and IRT-like proteins
Zn	Zinc

## 1.0 INTRODUCTION

### 1.1 Background

Canadian durum wheat (*Triticum turgidum* L. var *durum*) production accounts for approximately two-thirds of the world exports of durum wheat and 18% of all wheat hectares planted in Canada (Stats Canada 2009). In Canada, the majority of the durum wheat is produced in the semi-arid regions of the western provinces of Saskatchewan, Manitoba, and Alberta with most production (84%) concentrated in Saskatchewan (Canadian Food Inspection Agency (CFIA) 2006). Given the importance of durum exports to Canadian durum wheat producers, it is necessary that durum wheat cultivars meet international trade regulations.

In durum, a single major gene for grain cadmium (Cd) concentration has been reported on chromosome 5B (Knox et al. 2009) and has been designated *Cdu-B1*. The closest DNA marker is a SCAR (sequence characterized amplified region) marker ScOPC20 (Knox et al. 2009) that maps 4.6 cM from *Cdu-B1* (Penner et al. 1995). Physiologically, Cd enters the plant from the soil through the roots, and is then translocated to above ground tissue via the xylem, where it is then available for remobilization to the developing grain presumably via the phloem. Harris and Taylor (2004) identified restricted root-to-shoot translocation as the mechanism responsible for reduced grain Cd concentration in durum wheat. Therefore *Cdu-B1* may be associated with one or more processes that influence Cd sequestering in the roots, or that prevent xylem loading of Cd.

Several health concerns have been associated with exposure to Cd and since cereal grain is a large source of dietary intake, maximum allowable tolerances for grain Cd have been imposed on cereal grains marketed internationally. Currently, the Codex Alimentarius of the Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) has set a maximum level of 200 ng g<sup>-1</sup> for grain Cd concentration (CODEX STAN 193-1995 2009) and is proposing a maximum level of 150 ng g<sup>-1</sup>. In response, the western Canadian variety registration system now imposes a limit of 100 ng g<sup>-1</sup> for all newly registered western Canadian durum wheat cultivars. Many durum wheat cultivars accumulate Cd in grain to levels higher than 200 ng g<sup>-1</sup>, but genetic variation for grain Cd accumulation exists in

durum (Clarke et al. 1997b), and breeding for low grain Cd concentration is a priority in Canadian programs and globally. Because of the new proposed limits, there is a continued need for research and breeding to further lower grain Cd concentrations in durum wheat. In order to develop effective breeding strategies, a better understanding of the gene(s) involved in determining grain Cd concentration and better DNA markers to aid in selection are first required.

## **1.2 Research Hypothesis and Objectives**

The objective of this research is to utilize reverse genetic approaches to associate gene(s) with variation in grain Cd concentration of durum wheat. Based on current information, the hypothesis of this research is that the *Cdu-B1* locus contains a gene(s) of several genes already identified in plants that can sequester Cd in roots, and therefore limit Cd availability for subsequent transport to vegetative tissues and the grain. Specifically, one of three gene families are hypothesized to be associated with *Cdu-B1*: a) a gene coding for a heavy metal associated (HMA) transporter, b) an ATP-binding cassette (ABC)-like transporter or c) a phytochelatin synthetase (PCS), as these have been associated with Cd uptake and sequestration in other plants. In addition, a secondary objective was to utilize a forward genetics approach to identify putative genes that maybe associated with variation in grain Cd concentration in durum. The last objective was to develop and validate breeder friendly markers that could be used globally in durum wheat breeding programs targeting the low grain Cd phenotype.

## 2.0 LITERATURE REVIEW

### 2.1 Durum Wheat

Globally, durum wheat (*Triticum turgidum* L. var *durum*) is an economically important crop with 41.1 million tonnes produced worldwide in 2010 (Agriculture and Agri-Food Canada (AAFC) 2010). Durum wheat is used primarily for production of pasta products (pasta, spaghetti, and macaroni), but its use in non-pasta products (leavened and unleavened bread, and bulgur) is increasing, particularly in Mediterranean regions (Elias and Manthey 2005). Historically, durum wheat has been grown in the regions around the Mediterranean Sea, including North Africa, southern Europe, Syria, and Turkey as durum wheat is better suited to areas where annual precipitation is low (semi-arid climates) (Elias and Manthey 2005). In North America, good quality durum is also produced in the dry growing regions of western North Dakota and Montana in the US, and southern Saskatchewan, Manitoba, and Alberta in Canada (AAFC 2005). Over 80% of Canadian production occurs in Saskatchewan.

Canada is the second largest durum wheat producer with 5.4 million tonnes produced in 2010 (Stats Canada 2011) and is also a major exporter. Nearly 80% of Canadian produced durum is exported into high quality markets and comprises more than 60% of world durum wheat trade (Clarke 2005). Thus, breeding for pasta quality is a primary objective in Canadian durum breeding programs.

Genetically, durum wheat is an allotetraploid derived from the hybridization and polyploidization of two ancestral grass diploid species: *Triticum monococcum* carrying the A genome and most likely *Aegilops speltoides* (Kilian et al. 2007) carrying the B genome. Durum wheat is closely related to bread wheat (*Triticum aestivum* L.) which is an allohexaploid having three genomes, two of which are similar to durum wheat (A and B genomes), as well as a third “D” genome, derived from *Aegilops tauschii*. The hexaploid wheat genome is large, spanning approximately 17 Gb in comparison to rice (~465 Mb) and *Arabidopsis* (~100 Mb). It is estimated that approximately 80% of the wheat genome is comprised of repetitive DNA, with only 20% of the genome containing coding sequence (Li et al. 2004). It was initially hypothesized that genes in wheat reside in “gene rich regions/islands” interspersed between large repetitive regions (Erayman et

al. 2004). Recently, Rustenholz et al. (2010) showed a slightly increased gene frequency from centromeric to telomeric regions of the chromosome. In this study, 40% of genes were considered to be in gene islands while 60% were isolated genes but no large gene free or gene poor regions were identified. Distribution of isolated genes was uniform while a higher frequency of gene islands existed in telomeric regions (Rustenholz et al. 2010).

## **2.2 Cadmium Related Health Concerns and Trade Restrictions**

The primary mechanism of human exposure to Cd is through the consumption of contaminated foods and water as well as the inhalation of polluted air and tobacco smoke. Contaminated foods have been shown to be a great risk for Cd exposure with an estimated daily intake of 800 – 25 000 ng day<sup>-1</sup> for foods grown in non-contaminated environments. Cigarette smoking (one pack a day) can further increase exposure by up to 100 ng day<sup>-1</sup> (Gallagher et al. 2010).

Cadmium (Cd) is a nephrotoxic pollutant (Suwazono et al. 2006) as the kidney is the main target for Cd introduced into the human body (U.S. Department of Health and Human Service 1999). The skeletal system can also sequester Cd, which can cause calcium loss leading to osteoporosis and osteomalacia (Kazantzis 2004). Changes to bone cells and their associated function have not been identified (Bodo et al. 2010). In addition, Cd has been classified as a human carcinogen by the International Agency on Cancer Research (IARC 1993) as Cd can bind to DNA causing strand breaks and chromosome aberrations (Beyersmann and Hechtenberg 1997), which could lead to cancer causing mutations. As well, Cd has also been found to inactivate the DNA mismatch repair (MMR) system in cells, which leads to genome instability and increased risk of several types of cancer (Jin et al. 2003). An association between Cd concentrations in the urine and breast cancer has also been established (Gallagher et al. 2010). Cadmium (Cd) has also been found to modify gene expression at a cellular level, including genes involved in stress response, apoptosis, and intracellular metabolic pathways (Luparello et al. 2011).

With the risk of Cd entering the food chain, there is a need to decrease the amount of Cd in food products. The Codex Alimentarius Commission (CODEX STAN

193-1995 2009) allows a max level of Cd at  $200 \text{ ng g}^{-1}$  and currently a guideline level of  $150 \text{ ng g}^{-1}$  is being proposed. Even crops grown in non-polluted soils can have grain Cd levels which can easily exceed these maximum allowable levels (Morghan 1993).

## **2.3 Cadmium Uptake in Plants**

Cadmium (Cd) accumulation in crops is influenced by several factors, including soil Cd content, soil type, concentrations of other micronutrients, climate, agronomic management, and physiological mechanisms that are defined by the genotype of the plant (Grant et al. 1998).

### **2.3.1 Cadmium and Soil Properties**

Cadmium (Cd) is a naturally occurring heavy metal that is found in most agricultural soils. Typically, Cd levels in most agricultural soils do not exceed  $400 - 500 \text{ ng g}^{-1}$  (Fleischer et al. 1974) and are therefore considered non-polluted (Health Protection Agency (HPA) 2009 quoting Reimann and Caritat 1998). However, higher levels of Cd content have been observed, particularly near mining activity (Fleischer et al. 1974). Cadmium (Cd) contents of agricultural soil in the UK can range from  $100 - 1800 \text{ ng g}^{-1}$  with a mean of  $400 \text{ ng g}^{-1}$  (Environmental Agency (EA) 2007) while Cd concentration in Canadian soils have been shown to range from  $100 - 8100 \text{ ng g}^{-1}$  (Frank et al. 1976). Cadmium (Cd) and other heavy metals are added to soils through industrial and agricultural activity such as the application of phosphate fertilizers. Worldwide approximately 15,000 tons of Cd is mined for products such as nickel-cadmium batteries each year (McMurray and Tainer 2003).

Cadmium (Cd) is water soluble, and enters the plant partially through passive (Kudo et al. 2011) but mostly through active transport systems (Grant et al. 1998) in the plasma membrane of root cells, similar to Zinc (Zn) (Hart et al. 1998). Soil properties can influence the availability of Cd for plant uptake. Lower soil pH results in an increase in available Cd (Del Castillo and Chardon 1995) as higher concentrations of  $\text{H}^+$  compete with Cd at cation exchange sites in the soil. This results in more Cd being in solution and available for plant uptake (Reichman 2002). In addition to contributing



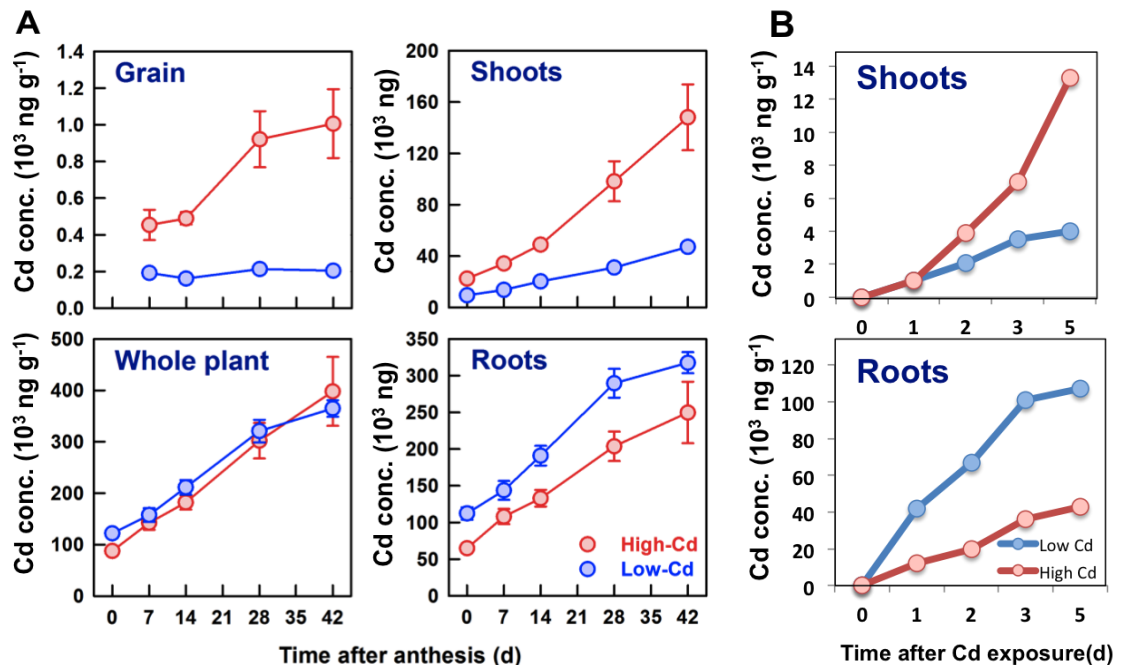
Cd to the soil, phosphate fertilizers can have an acidifying effect on soil pH (Lambert et al. 2007).

Cadmium (Cd) availability is also influenced by the relative concentrations of other cations in the soil. Zinc (Zn) is an essential micronutrient for plants and is thought to share common uptake, translocation and remobilization pathways with Cd (Hart et al. 1998). The presence of Cd in Zn-deficient soil has been found to reduce plant Zn uptake (Shute and Macfie 2006). In contrast, when Zn content is sufficient, Cd has no effect or increases Zn accumulation (Shute and Macfie 2006). Varying levels of soil-applied Zn can also show effects on Cd plant accumulation. When Zn was added to optimal levels for bread wheat production, grain Cd concentration decreased (Oliver et al. 1994) suggesting Zn may compete with Cd for uptake by the plant. In contrast, Hart et al. (2002) found wheat has a higher affinity for Cd than Zn. When soils with high concentrations of Cd and Zn were evaluated, Shute and Macfie (2006) observed decreased Zn and increased Cd in soybean. Though the interactions between Cd and Zn have been reported at an uptake level, Clarke et al. (2002) observed that *Cdu-B1* only influenced grain Cd concentration in durum wheat and did not influence concentrations of Zn or other micronutrients concentration in the grain. These results suggest that although Zn and Cd may compete for uptake, *Cdu-B1* is involved in Cd specific assimilation in the plant.

### **2.3.2 Physiological Bases for Grain Cadmium Accumulation in Field Crops**

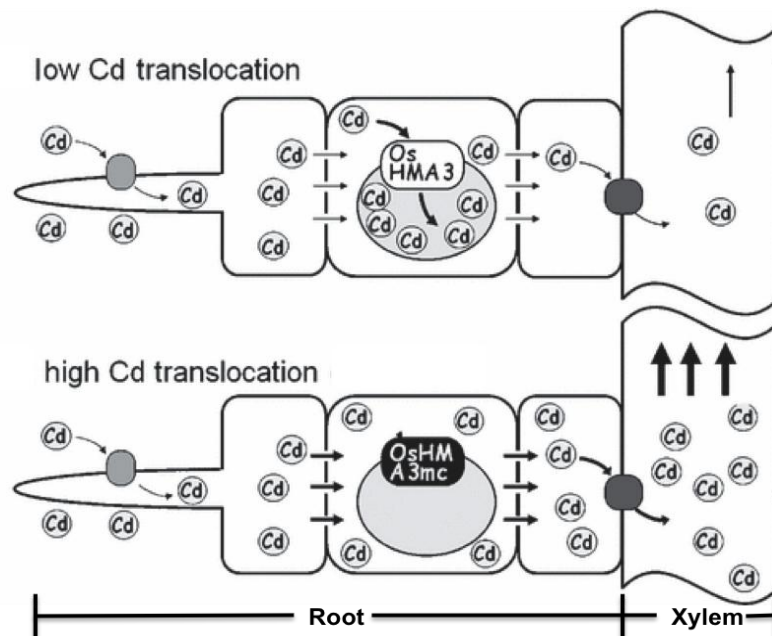
Once Cd has entered the plant, it can either be sequestered in root tissue, and/or be translocated to the above ground vegetative tissues via the xylem (Salt et al. 1995; Hart et al. 1998) and to the seed, most likely via the phloem (Popelka et al. 1996; Hart et al. 1998; Harris and Taylor 2001). Transpiration promotes Cd translocation in plants supporting the role of xylem-mediated transport of Cd from the roots to the leaves (Haag-Kerwer et al. 1999). However, several studies have shown that phenotypic differences in grain Cd concentrations are poorly related to whole-plant Cd accumulation (Farrell et al. 2005). Using near isogenic lines (NILs) of durum wheat, Harris and Taylor (2004) found that whole plant Cd concentrations were similar between high and low grain Cd lines (Fig. 2.1a). However, the concentration of Cd in

roots was higher in low Cd accumulating lines coupled with lower shoot Cd concentrations. The opposite was true in high accumulators (Fig. 2.1a). Similar results were found in Cd partitioning studies in rice, where in low grain accumulators of Cd, the majority of whole plant Cd was present in the roots (Fig. 2.1b; Ueno et al. 2009). These results suggest that Cd translocation from the roots to the shoots is the major physiological process associated with variation in Cd concentration of shoots and grain (Ueno et al. 2009; Uraguchi et al. 2009). In durum wheat lines with high grain Cd concentration, 40 to 50% of whole-plant Cd is translocated to the shoots after 14 d growth (Harris and Taylor 2004; Hart et al. 2006). Similarly, in rice, 49% of whole plant cadmium is translocated to shoots in high grain accumulators of rice (Ueno et al. 2011). Taken together, genotypic differences in grain Cd concentration in both rice and durum wheat is most associated with restricted root-to-shoot translocation. This would limit the pool of available Cd in vegetative tissues for subsequent remobilization during grain filling (Harris and Taylor 2004; Uraguchi et al. 2009). Given the physiological similarities in restricted root to shoot translocation of Cd between rice and durum wheat, it is plausible that a similar genetic mechanism is operating.



**Fig. 2.1** Cd content or concentration over time in A) Durum wheat in the whole plant, grain, shoot and root tissue (Modified from Harris and Taylor 2004) and in B) Rice shoot and root tissue (Modified from Ueno et al. 2009).

The mechanism that limits Cd translocation to the shoots has not been identified in durum wheat. Cd translocation is likely to be complex and could include sequestration of Cd inside root cells, or reduced capacity for xylem loading or transport. Studies on the genetic inheritance of the low Cd trait have shown that the low Cd phenotype in most plants is controlled by few genes, and in durum is controlled by a single gene (Clarke et al. 1997b). It is doubtful that one or a few genes could account for genotypic differences in loading or transport of Cd. Rather, restricted Cd translocation to the shoots may be attributable to greater sequestration of Cd in the roots symplasm. In rice, a P<sub>1B</sub>-ATPase transporter gene (*OsHMA3*) has been associated with limiting root to shoot translocation of Cd (Ueno et al. 2010). Miyadate et al. (2011) determined that the OsHMA3 coded protein localized to the tonoplast and functions to transport Cd into the vacuole. In hypersensitive yeast expressing a functional OsHMA3 protein, Cd tolerance was restored in the presence of Cd (Miyadate et al. 2011). These data support the hypothesis that rice plants with a functional allele of *OsHMA3* sequester Cd by transporting Cd into the vacuole, and thereby limiting the amount of Cd available for subsequent translocation to the shoots and grain (Fig 2.2). In contrast, rice plants with a



**Fig. 2.2.** Proposed model for Cd translocation in rice (modified from Miyadate et al. 2011). OsHMA3 is a functional HMA transporter while OsHMA3mc is a mutated non-functional HMA transporter.

non-functional OsHMA3 transporter protein cannot sequester Cd in the root cell vacuoles, and Cd is freely available for translocation to the shoots and grain (Fig. 2.2). To date, *HMA3*-related gene(s) have not been characterized in wheat, so it is not known if their coded protein(s) also function to restrict Cd to roots.

### 2.3.3 Genetic and Molecular Basis of Grain Cadmium Accumulation

Genetic variation for grain Cd concentration exists in many crop species including durum wheat (Penner et al. 1995), rice (*Oryza sativa* L.; Ishikawa et al. 2005), oat (*Avena sativa* L.; Tanhuanpää et al. 2007), sunflower (*Helianthus annuus*; Anderson and Hansen 1984), flax (*Linum usitatissimum*; Morghan 1993; Cieslinski et al. 1996), and soybean (*Glycine max* L. Merr; Kobori et al. 2010). In rice, Liu et al. (2006) found a range of 280 – 1840 ng g<sup>-1</sup> in six rice cultivars. Tanhuanpää et al. (2007) found a range of 650 - 3490 ng g<sup>-1</sup> in a mapping population of oat. Li et al. (1997) determined an average grain Cd concentration for nine hybrid sunflower cultivars to be 1510 ng g<sup>-1</sup>, a range from 800 – 1550 ng g<sup>-1</sup> in 14 flax cultivars, and a range of 110 – 340 ng g<sup>-1</sup> for 30 durum wheat lines. Kobori et al. (2010) determined a range of 210 – 420 ng g<sup>-1</sup> in three soybean cultivars. Li et al. (1997, quoting Hinesly et al. (1978)) determined a range of 50 - 1810 ng g<sup>-1</sup> Cd in the grain of 20 corn inbred lines. Hexaploid wheat cultivars show little variation in grain Cd concentration (Zook et al. 1970) and are considered to be low in grain Cd concentration in comparison to high grain Cd accumulating durum wheat lines.

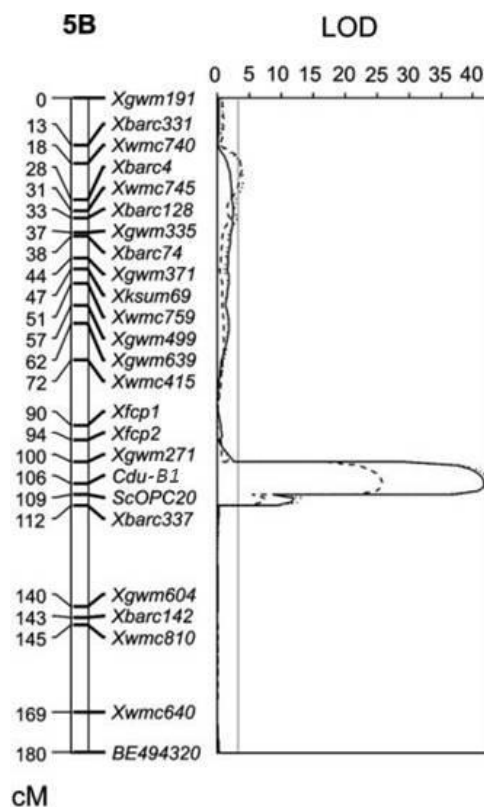
Given the complexity of Cd uptake, sequestration, and translocation, grain Cd accumulation can be regulated by multiple genes with combined effects (Tanhuanpää et al. 2007). However, in most cereals, Cd content is controlled by only one to three genes. In rice, three quantitative trait loci (QTL) on chromosomes 3, 6 and 8 have been identified (Ishikawa et al. 2005). Kashiwagi et al. (2009) also identified three QTL for Cd concentration in vegetative tissues of rice, two on chromosome 4 and on chromosome 11 (Table 2.1). More recently a single QTL on rice chromosome 7 was identified to control translocation of Cd from root to shoot (Ueno et al. 2009). Tezuka et al. (2009) and Ishikawa et al. (2010) also identified QTLs for grain Cd concentration in rice and in both studies chromosome 7 was identified. In maize (*Zea mays* L.), a

**Table 2.1** QTLs identified for Cd accumulation in plants

Species	QTL Chromosome	Author
<i>Oryza sativa</i> L.	3, 6, 8	Ishikawa et al. 2005
	4, 11	Kashiwagi et al. 2009
	7	Ueno et al. 2009
	7	Tezuka et al. 2009
	7	Ishikawa et al. 2010
<i>Thlaspi caerulescens</i>	3	Deniau et al. 2006
<i>Arabidopsis</i>	3	Courbot et al. 2007
<i>Zea mays</i> L.	2	Soric et al. 2009
<i>Avena sativa</i> L.	unknown	Tanhuanpää et al. 2007
<i>Triticum turgidum</i> L.	5B	Knox et al. 2009
<i>Glycine max</i> L.	9	Jegadeesan et al. 2010
	9	Benitez et al. 2010

QTL for leaf Cd accumulation has recently been identified on chromosome 2 (Soric et al. 2009). In oat (*Avena sativa* L), a single QTL has been reported (Tanhuanpää et al. 2007). In soybean a major QTL has been identified on chromosome 9 in two independent studies (Jegadeesan et al. 2010; Benitez et al. 2010). In durum wheat, grain Cd concentration is controlled by a major gene designated as *Cdu-B1* and other minor genes (Knox et al. 2009). Recently, a major QTL associated with grain Cd concentration was reported on chromosome 5B of durum wheat (Fig. 2.3; Knox et al. 2009). In that study grain Cd concentration was also mapped as a Mendelian factor, and a single gene, designated as *Cdu-B1*. To date, no studies have been conducted to determine the number of genes controlling Cd concentration in flax or sunflower. *Thlaspi caerulescens* is a hyperaccumulator of Cd and a single QTL for Cd shoot concentration has been reported in that species (Deniau et al. 2006).

Several genes have been reported to be associated with phenotypic variation for Cd uptake, accumulation, and grain concentration (Table 2.2). In rice, a gene coding for a P<sub>1B</sub>-ATPase was identified (Ueno et al. 2010) which is hypothesized to sequester Cd to root vacuoles where it is no longer available for transport to the shoots (see section 2.3.2). Genes associated with concentration of grain Cd in rice also include a novel gene *LCD* (low cadmium; Shimo et al. 2011) as well as *OsNRAMP1* (natural resistance-associated macrophage proteins) which is an iron transporter (Takahashi et al. 2011) and *OsZIP8* (ZRT- and IRT-like protein), which is a cadmium/zinc transporting



**Fig. 2.3** Genetic linkage map of a portion of chromosome 5BL and QTL analysis of *Cdu-B1*. QTL analyses of cadmium concentration are presented as LOD scores for Swift Current 2000 (· · ·), Swift Current 2001 (—), and the combined analysis (- - -). Significance is declared for QTL to the right of the vertical line located at LOD 3.1. (modified from Knox et al. 2009).

**Table 2.2** Genes associated with Cd accumulation in plants

Species	Gene	Author
<i>Arabidopsis</i>	P <sub>1B</sub> -ATPase	Morel et al. 2009, Courbot et al. 2007
	ABC transporter	Wojas et al. 2009, Kim et al. 2007
	selenium binding protein	Dutilleul et al. 2008
	phytochelatins	Salt and Rauser 1995
<i>Oryza sativa</i> L.	P <sub>1B</sub> -ATPase	Ueno et al. 2010
	LCD	Shimo et al. 2011
	<i>OsNRAMP1</i>	Takahashi et al. 2011
	<i>OsZIP8</i>	Ueno et al 2009, Ishimaru et al. 2005
<i>Glycine max</i> L.	ATPase	Jegadeesan et al. 2010
	P <sub>1B</sub> -ATPase	Benitez et al. 2012

ATPase (Ueno et al. 2009; Ishimaru et al. 2005). Genes coding for ABC transporters (Wojas et al. 2009; Kim et al. 2007), P<sub>1B</sub>-ATPases (Morel et al. 2009), and selenium-binding proteins (Dutilleul et al. 2008) have been associated with Cd accumulation and detoxification in *Arabidopsis*, as well as phytochelatins (PC) that bind Cd for subsequent sequestration in the vacuole (Salt and Rauser 1995). An ATPase was identified as a candidate gene for soybean grain Cd accumulation (Jegadeesan et al. 2010) as well as a P<sub>1B</sub>-ATPases (Benitez et al. 2012).

Salt and Rauser (1995) found the vacuole to be an important organelle in the sequestration and detoxification of Cd in plants. The same authors suggested that membrane transporters facilitate this process by transporting Cd into vacuoles making Cd unavailable for transport/remobilization to the grain. Different families of transporter proteins have been found to be involved in Cd transport.

The ABC transporter family is a large ubiquitous and diverse superfamily of transmembrane bound proteins that facilitate the transportation, including lipids, hormones, and secondary metabolites (Verrier et al. 2008). Studies have shown that ABC transporters are involved in heavy metal sequestration in plants (Wojas et al. 2009, Kim et al. 2007). Yazaki et al. (2006) found that expression of a human ABC-MRP1 (multi drug resistance) protein expressed in tobacco can confer heavy metal tolerance and was thought to be localized to the vacuolar membrane, which allowed the sequestration of Cd. Transcript levels of ABC transporter *AtMRP3* showed a strong induction after the Cd treatment (Bovet et al. 2003), but currently, there is only anecdotal evidence that this transporter is involved in Cd transport. In durum, transcriptome profiling of high and low Cd accumulating NILs revealed higher expression of a gene coding for an ABC-MRP like transporter (Harris et al. 2007). An ABC-like transporter (*Xwg644*) have been identified on the homoeologous group five chromosomes in wheat near the vernalization loci (Yan et al. 2003) and has been sequenced from several cereals where a duplicate copy was identified in barley (Dubcovsky et al. 2001).

P<sub>1B</sub>-ATPase proteins function by the binding and hydrolysis of ATP to create the energy for transport across a membrane against a concentration gradient (Williams and Mills 2005). In rice, Ueno et al. (2010) discovered a P<sub>1B</sub>-ATPase (*OsHMA3*) as the

gene functioning to limit Cd translocation from root to shoots. As well, P<sub>1B</sub>-ATPases have been associated in many species with grain Cd concentration including soybean (Benitez et al. 2012) and *Arabidopsis* (Morel et al. 2009). P<sub>1B</sub>-ATPase in *Arabidopsis* (*AtHMA3*) has been shown to participate in vacuolar storage of Cd and other heavy metals (Morel et al. 2009). *OsHMA3* has been identified on chromosome 7 in rice, which shows colinearity to wheat group two chromosomes in wheat. To date, no reports of genes coding for P<sub>1B</sub>-ATPases have been mapped in wheat.

Phytochelatin (PCs) are a class of small thiol (SH)-rich peptides that bind metals by thiolate coordination and are important cellular chelating agents. Several heavy metals can induce PC expression *in planta*, but Cd is the most effective metal inducer of PCs in *Arabidopsis* (Grill et al. 1985), *Brassica juncea* (Haag-Kerwer et al. 1999) and rice (Yan et al. 2000). PCs are thought to play a role in Cd detoxification by binding Cd to produce PC-Cd complexes, which can then be translocated into vacuoles (Salt and Rauser 1995; Vogeli-Large and Wagner 1996). In *Arabidopsis* the sequestration of PC-Cd complexes to the vacuole most likely occurs through ABC-MRP like transporter (Salt and Rauser 1995). In *Arabidopsis* and *Brassica juncea*, over-expression of *PCS* genes has been shown to increase Cd translocation from roots to the vegetative tissue (Heiss et al. 2003) contrary to the hypothesis of sequestration of Cd in the roots. Therefore, increased PC binding may allow increased efficiency of Cd translocation. *PCS2* has been identified on the group 5 chromosomes in wheat (Yan et al. 2003), and is tightly linked to *Xwg644*. Though some evidence may suggest PCs are not involved in Cd sequestration to the root, *PCS* is still a logical candidate gene due to its involvement in Cd binding and movement into the vacuole and due to the *PCS2* gene being mapped close to *Cdu-B1* in wheat.

#### **2.4 Breeding for Low Grain Cadmium Concentration**

Limiting the amount of Cd in durum grain to reduce potential risk to human health has been a priority of durum wheat breeders. For selection, a cost efficient and reliable method for assessing or predicting Cd concentrations in grain is required. Phenotypic selection for grain Cd concentration involves digestion of samples with nitric acid and assessing Cd using graphite furnace spectroscopy (Clarke et al. 2002).

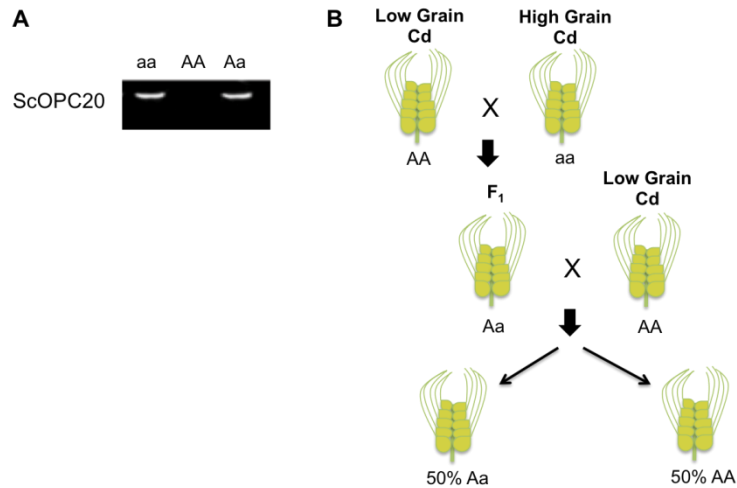


Penner et al. (1995) determined the cost of commercial fees for phenotypically determining Cd content per sample to range from \$15 to \$23. Today, the cost of Cd analysis has increased to as high as \$100/sample at commercial labs (i.e. Saskatchewan Research Council (SRC)). Due to high costs and low sample throughput, phenotypic selections were generally delayed to later generations on only the best breeding lines.

More recently, selection for grain Cd concentrations has been performed using marker assisted selection (MAS) with a SCAR marker (ScOPC20; Knox et al. 2009) developed from the sequence of a random amplified polymorphic DNA (RAPD) marker OPC-20 (Penner et al. 1995). With this marker, breeders can eliminate high grain Cd accumulating lines early in the breeding program at a reduced cost relative to phenotypic selection. ScOPC20 has been mapped approximately 5 cM away from the *Cdu-B1* (Penner et al, 1995) meaning molecular selection can still result in high Cd progeny as a result of recombination between *Cdu-B1* and ScOPC20. In addition, ScOPC20 is a dominant marker (Fig. 2.4a), and is linked in repulsion with *Cdu-B1* (Knox et al. 2009). Thus, ScOPC20 would not be an option for marker assisted backcrossing programs designed to introgress *Cdu-B1* into locally adapted material. However, this marker has been used effectively for gametic selection in the F<sub>1</sub> progeny resulting from three way crosses where one otherwise desirable parent is high in grain Cd. For example, breeders can make crosses where at least two of the parents are low Cd (i.e. High Cd/Low Cd//Low Cd) (Fig. 2.4b). As the third parent used is a low Cd type, Mendelian segregation would result in 50% of the F<sub>1</sub> progeny being homozygous for low grain Cd concentration and those individuals can be easily identified using ScOPC20 by the absence of a polymerase chain reaction (PCR) generated amplicon. However, because the marker is dominant, absence of an amplicon (homozygous low Cd line) could possibly be due to a failed PCR.

Indeed ScOPC20 is a better alternative to phenotypically testing grain samples for Cd concentration. However, a more closely linked, co-dominant marker for identification of *Cdu-B1* itself would improve selection efficiency and more accurately classify germplasm and breeding lines into high and low Cd accumulators. A more closely linked or perfect marker for *Cdu-B1* would reduce or eliminate selection error due to recombination. The development of a co-dominant marker will also reduce PCR

errors in that both the high and low grain Cd concentration molecular variants will be represented and the absence of a band would only mean that the PCR reaction failed.

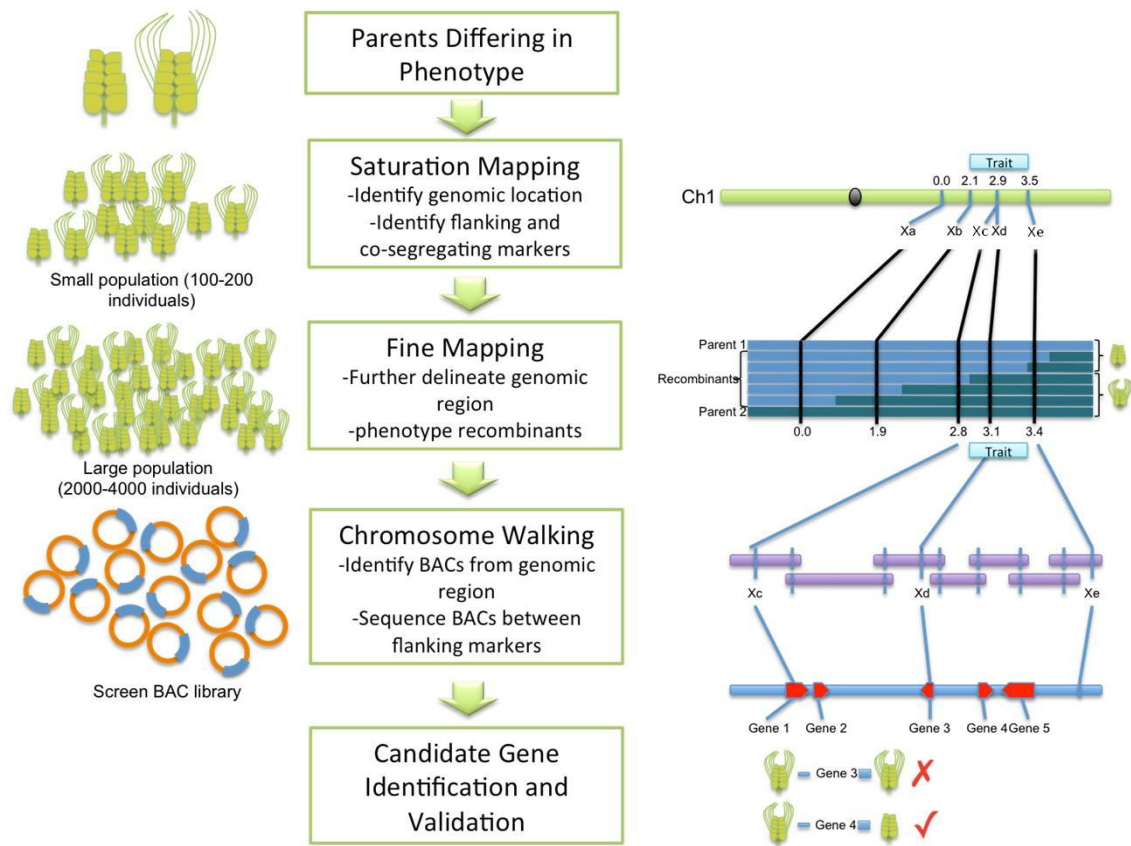


**Fig. 2.4** Example of a three parent cross designed to fix the low grain Cd phenotype in the F<sub>1</sub> generation. A) Gel image of ScOPC20. B) Three parent cross used to identify plants homozygous for low grain Cd.

## 2.5 Fine Mapping and Positional Cloning; A Forward Genetic Approach

Positional or map-based cloning is a forward genetic approach to identify gene(s) controlling traits based on their precise genomic location, which is determined by phenotyping in well-defined large population. This is in contrast to a reverse genetics approach where a set of putative genes are identified (usually from related species) based on function and then tested for association with the phenotype in appropriate genetic populations. In a reverse genetics approach, if the hypothesized mechanism for the phenotype is incorrect, the gene will likely not be identified. A reverse genetic approach is generally used when there is strong evidence for a gene influencing a phenotype based on studies in model systems or other crop plants. For example, genes reported for variation in Cd accumulation in other species (Table 2.2) are reasonable candidate genes to test for association with *Cdu-B1*. In practice, reverse genetic approaches are generally used to determine the effect of a series of mutations of a phenotype and are used extensively for functional genomics studies in plants (Slade et al. 2005). In practice, both approaches are used in a combined effort to clone genes responsible for the phenotype.

Positional cloning involves five main steps: saturation mapping, fine mapping, chromosome walking, and identification and validation of candidate genes (Fig. 2.5). In the first step, a genomic location associated with phenotypic variation is saturated with molecular markers in a population segregating for that trait. This is generally achieved through classical genetic mapping experiments, usually in bi-parental mapping populations. In most cases, a small population (100-200 individuals) is used to estimate the general genomic location of the gene controlling the trait. To achieve map saturation, molecular markers co-segregating and closely flanking are required. Markers can include AFLP (amplified fragment length polymorphism), RFLP (restricted fragment length polymorphism), COS (conserved ortholog set), RAPD, CAPS (cleavage amplified polymorphic sequence), and SSR (simple sequence repeat). Additional markers can also be developed based on single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) from within genes or ESTs (expressed sequence tag) known to be genetically linked to the



**Fig. 2.5** Process of positional cloning.

trait or in colinear regions of a related species. For example, saturation of the *Tsn1* (toxin sensitivity gene) locus in wheat involved mapping of 28 EST-derived markers (ESMs) known to be physically linked to that locus to localize *Tsn1* to a 2.1 cM interval (Lu and Faris 2006). Ideally, to proceed with fine mapping, several co-segregating markers are required with closely linked ( $\leq 1$  cM), flanking markers.

Once co-segregating markers are identified, the trait is first mendelized and mapped in a large  $F_2$  population (2000-4000 individuals) to better delineate the genomic region (Fig. 2.5). For example, a total of 2707  $F_2$  plants were used to fine map the powdery mildew (*Pm6*) locus in hexaploid wheat (Qin et al. 2011). Large populations are favored to improve sampling of genetic recombination events, which in turn results in improved estimation of genetic distance and marker order (Ferreira et al 2006, Semagn et al. 2006).

The purpose of fine mapping is to identify the smallest possible genomic region associated with a trait. The physical size of the wheat genome is large, with the largest chromosome (3B) being over twice the size of the entire 370 Mb rice genome (Itoh et al. 2007). Furthermore, physical mapping of wheat chromosomes has revealed some chromosome segments which are high in gene density (Faris et al. 2000) and recombination frequencies are not consistent along chromosomes, with most cross-overs occurring in sub-telomeric regions of wheat chromosomes (Saintenac et al. 2009; Erayman et al. 2004). A major factor that would influence the success of fine mapping and ultimate gene identification is recombination frequency as higher recombination frequency results in a smaller genotypic to phenotypic distance ratio. With a high recombination frequency it is possible to detect a smaller physical region as mapping relies on recombinations between markers. Gene density can also affect fine mapping as high recombination frequencies are often associated with higher gene density (Faris et al. 2000). Therefore regions of high gene density should be regions of high recombination frequency and therefore ideal for fine mapping. Though some studies report higher recombination frequency in gene poor regions (Wei et al. 2002) therefore, gene density is not always a great predictor of recombination frequency (Mezard 2006). The particular combination of high gene density and low recombination frequency can make positional cloning of genes a daunting task due to the presence of many genes

over a large physical distance which cannot be resolved genetically through mapping. Recently, the *Tsn1* locus, located around 17 cM proximal to *Cdu-B1* (Knox et al. 2009) was cloned (Faris et al. 2010). Comparison with other high-density maps of 5B suggests that *Cdu-B1* resides in a gene-rich, recombination hot spot. Saturation mapping of *Tsn1* estimated the recombination frequency to be 400 kb/cM, an 11-fold increase in recombination compared to the genomic average (Faris et al. 2000), though further analysis of the locus determined a 3.18 Mb/cM physical to genomic distance (Faris et al. 2010).

Several loci may influence a phenotype (either through additive or epistatic effects), therefore it is generally accepted that lines near isogenic for the gene of interest are used as parents of the fine mapping population (Kim et al. 2010). This is to ensure only segregation occurs at the locus of interest and closely linked markers. In this large population, phenotyping of recombinants between flanking markers will position the phenotype in the fine map and better delineate the genetic distance between co-segregating markers and the trait. The markers closest genetically to the phenotype can now be used to screen a genomic, YAC (yeast artificial chromosome) or BAC (bacterial artificial chromosome) library. Several BAC libraries are available for hexaploid wheat (<http://cnrgv.toulouse.inra.fr/Library>), but only a single BAC library is available for durum wheat (Cenci et al. 2003). The library was generated from the cultivar Langdon, which carries a 30 cM insertion from *Triticum turgidum* ssp. *dicoccoides* on chromosome 6BS, and a gene for high grain protein content. The BAC library contains 516096 clones with an average insert size of 130kb (Cenci et al. 2003). The cultivar Langdon was chosen for the BAC library as disomic D genome substitution lines have been developed for this cultivar (Joppa and Williams, 1988) therefore allowing ease of genome assignment for BACs (Cenci et al. 2004).

For positional cloning experiments, BACs carrying co-segregating or flanking markers are first identified (Fig. 2.5). Often the 5' and 3' ends of these BACs are sequenced to allow development of additional markers to rescreen the BAC library to identify additional, overlapping BACs. In wheat it has been observed that BAC end sequence is often not sufficient for identifying unique sequence for developing additional marker (Stein et al. 2000). Generally, in wheat the whole BAC is sequenced

to identify unique sequence for additional markers, which would be useful in identifying overlapping BACs. This process of chromosome walking is repeated until BACs spanning the complete genetic interval are identified. Sequencing and annotation of the BACs in the minimum tiling path is then performed (either using Sanger or next generation sequencing). Software has been developed such as FGENESH (<http://linux1.softberry.com/berry.phtml?topic=fgenesh&group=programs&subgroup=gfind>), which can predict gene sequence from genomic sequences. These genes identified from this sequencing are all candidate genes. In wheat, several BACs have been sequenced and, on average, there is usually only one gene per BAC (Rustenholz et al, 2010; Devos et al. 2005). Some BACs from wheat are completely devoid of functional genes (Devos et al. 2008; Choulet et al. 2010) and as many as 10 genes have been identified on a single BAC (Choulet et al. 2010).

Validation of a candidate gene can be performed by RNAi (RNA interference), transgenics, VIGS (virus induced gene silencing), or TILLING (target induced local lesions in genomes). Huang et al. (2003) demonstrated the use of transgenics for candidate gene validation. Wheat lines susceptible to leaf rust were transformed with the candidate gene. These transformed susceptible lines then displayed a resistant reaction validating the candidate gene as causing resistance to leaf rust. Faris et al. (2010) employed TILLING for validating the *Tsn1* gene in wheat, by chemically mutagenizing a resistant line and screening for susceptibility. The candidate gene was then sequenced from multiple mutant lines and non-functional mutants were analyzed for phenotypic expression of resistance to *Stagonospora nodorum* blotch. Care must be taken when developing a TILLING population, as the line chosen for mutation must carry the functional gene. Mutations to genes are more likely to cause a functional protein to become non-functional, than a non-functional protein to become functional. Wang et al. (2011) employed RNAi to verify the *Opaque7* gene as the gene affecting storage protein synthesis in maize endosperm. RNAi employs dsRNA to target complementary mRNA for degradation and therefore gene silencing. Wang et al. (2011) targeted the candidate gene, *Opaque7*, through RNAi and saw a change in seed protein content compared to non-RNAi targeted lines, indicating that the *Opaque7* gene controls storage protein synthesis. Candidate genes can also be validated using allele

diversity studies, and expression analysis (Krattinger et al. 2009). In most cases a combination of above methods are used to validate candidate genes.

Major breakthroughs in sequencing and polymorphism detection technologies along with existing databases of developed markers and sequenced genomes has made positional cloning routine in some species including *Arabidopsis*, rice, *Brachypodium*, corn, and sorghum where the time and effort for positional cloning has decreased dramatically (Jander et al. 2002). However, positional cloning in plants with complex genomes with little sequence information such as hexaploid and durum wheat is more challenging. In wheat the greatest complexities are a) the polyploid nature of the wheat genome, b) the large size of the wheat genome (17 Mb in hexaploid wheat), and c) the repetitive nature of the wheat genome, where approximately 80 percent of DNA sequences in the wheat genome are repetitive partially from transposons (Li et al. 2004).

The polyploid nature of wheat can cause a challenge when positional cloning. This is because of similarity between homoeologous genes on homoeologous genomes and potential inability to easily determine one genome from another when identifying BACs. The size of the wheat genome is a detriment for positional cloning, as a larger library of BAC clones has to be developed and screened to sufficiently cover the whole genome. For example an *Arabidopsis* Ath-B-ITA library ([http://cnrgv.toulouse.inra.fr/library/genomic\\_resource/Ath-B-ITA](http://cnrgv.toulouse.inra.fr/library/genomic_resource/Ath-B-ITA)) required only 15360 BAC clones for 13X coverage of the genome while the durum wheat BAC library Ttu-B-LDN65 ([http://cnrgv.toulouse.inra.fr/library/genomic\\_resource/Ttu-B-LDN65](http://cnrgv.toulouse.inra.fr/library/genomic_resource/Ttu-B-LDN65)) is composed of 516096 BAC clones, representing only 5X coverage. A 9X coverage of the hexaploid wheat cultivar “Chinese Spring” ([http://cnrgv.toulouse.inra.fr/library/genomic\\_resource/Tae-B-Chinese%20spring](http://cnrgv.toulouse.inra.fr/library/genomic_resource/Tae-B-Chinese%20spring)) contains 1147776 BAC clones. These large libraries increase the time and effort required to identify BACs carrying desirable genes. Also the repetitive nature of the wheat genome can further complicate BAC identification, as unique sequence is necessary for BAC identification. Entire BACs could be made up of repetitive DNA making it difficult for chromosome walking especially if the region to be spanned contains a large stretch of repetitive DNA.

Despite these complexities at least 11 wheat genes have been discovered through positional cloning in wheat (Table 2.3). These include genes for leaf rust resistance

**Table 2.3** Positionally cloned wheat genes (Modified from Krattinger et al. 2009)

<b>Gene Name</b>	<b>Trait</b>	<b>Gene Function</b>	<b>References</b>
<b><i>Gpc-B1</i></b>	Grain protein content	NAC transcription factor controlling senescence and grain protein, zinc and iron content	Uauy et al. 2006
<b><i>Q</i></b>	Domestication	AP2 transcription factor influencing threshing character and spike phenotype	Faris et al. 2003
<b><i>VRN1</i></b>	Vernalization	AP1 like MADS-box transcription factor controlling flowering	Yan et al. 2003
<b><i>VRN2</i></b>	Vernalization	Dominant repressor of flowering that is down regulated by vernalization	Yan et al. 2004
<b><i>VRN3</i></b>	Vernalization	An orthologue of Arabidopsis flowering time (FT)	Yan et al. 2006
<b><i>Ph1</i></b>	Chromosome pairing	Multigene family, heterochromatin of both. A major chromosome pairing locus in polyploid wheat	Griffiths et al. 2006
<b><i>Lr1</i></b>	Leaf rust resistance	CC-NBS-LRR Leaf rust resistance	Qiu et al. 2007, Cloutier et al. 2007
<b><i>Lr10</i></b>	Leaf rust resistance	CC-NBS-LRR Leaf rust resistance	Stein et al. 2000, Wicker et al. 2001, Feuillet et al. 2003
<b><i>Lr21</i></b>	Leaf rust resistance	NBS-LRR Leaf rust resistance	Huang et al. 2003
<b><i>Lr34</i></b>	Leaf rust resistance	ABC transporter	Dakouri et al. 2010
<b><i>Yr36</i></b>	Stripe rust resistance	WKS1	Fu et al. 2009
<b><i>Tsn1</i></b>	Tan spot resistance	S/TPK -NBS-LRR ToxA sensitivity	Faris et al. 2010

NBS - nucleotide-binding site, LRR - leucine-rich repeat, CC-coiled-coil, S/TPK-serine/threonine protein kinase



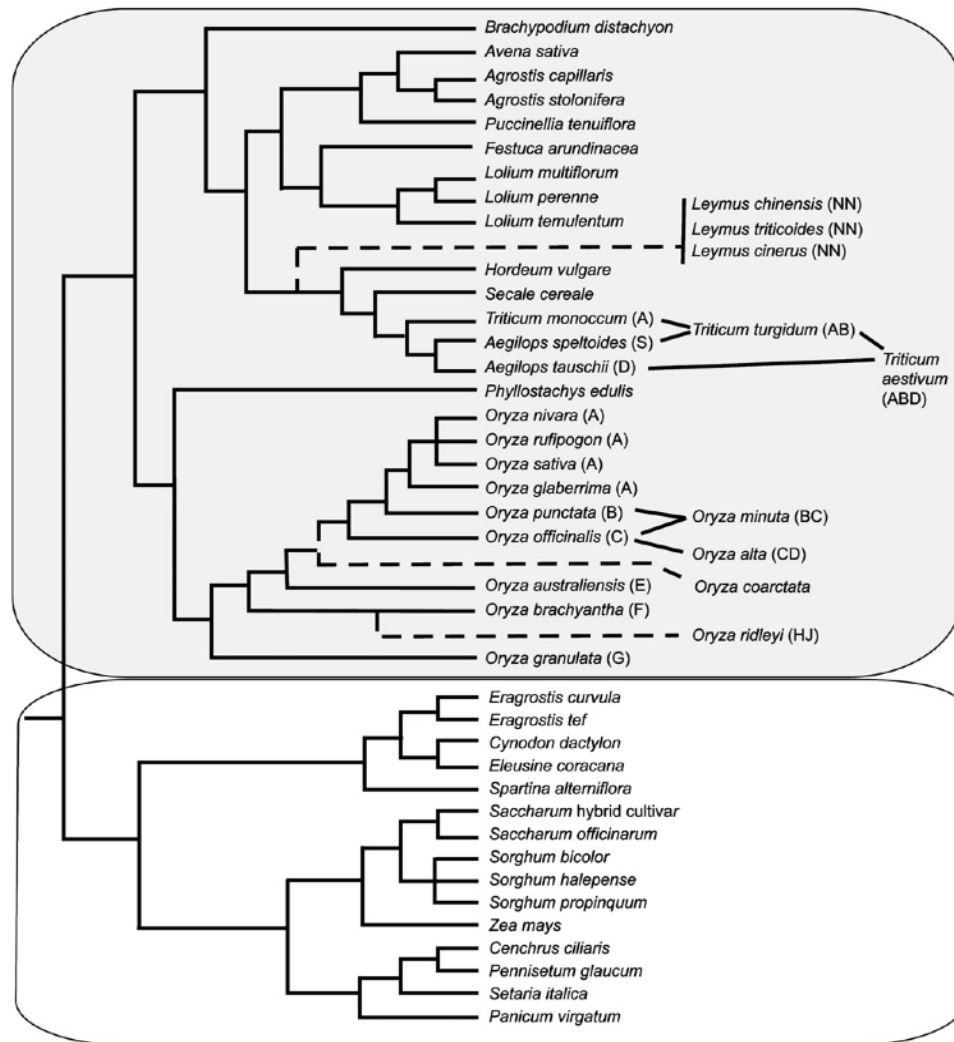
(Qiu et al. 2007; Cloutier et al. 2007, Stein et al. 2000; Wicker et al. 2001; Feuillet et al. 2003; Huang et al. 2003; Dakouri et al. 2010), stripe rust resistance (Fu et al. 2009), resistance to tan spot (Faris et al. 2010), domestication (*Q*) (Faris et al. 2003), grain protein content (Uauy et al. 2006) and vernalization (Yan et al. 2003; Yan et al. 2004; Yan et al. 2006). Several of these genes are the targets of MAS in wheat breeding programs (Feuillet et al. 2003; Huang et al. 2003), and identification of allelic variation in these genes has allowed the development of useful DNA markers. Recent efforts to sequence the wheat genome (Feuillet and Eversole 2007) will increase the ability to identify wheat genes through positional cloning efforts.

## **2.6 Wheat, Rice, and *Brachypodium* Colinearity**

Macro-colinearity has been described as conserved marker and/or gene order between species (Gale and Devos 1998). Extensive macro-colinearity has been observed throughout the grass (*Poaceae*) family. Conservation of gene sequence (micro-colinearity) has also been observed in the grass family. Colinearity is evident throughout the grass family but the extent of colinearity is based on evolution of the grass species. Species that diverged from each other later in evolution are expected to share greater colinearity than those that diverged earlier. Rice (*Oryza sativa*) and *Brachypodium* (Fig. 2.6) are the closest related species to wheat that have sequenced genomes and therefore are a good reference for studying the evolution of the wheat genome. Sorghum (*Sorghum bicolor*) (<http://mips.helmholtz-muenchen.de/plant/sorghum/>) and maize (*Zea mays*) (<http://www.maizedb.org/>) also have sequenced genomes and although not closely related to wheat can still provide information about the wheat genome (Fig. 2.6).

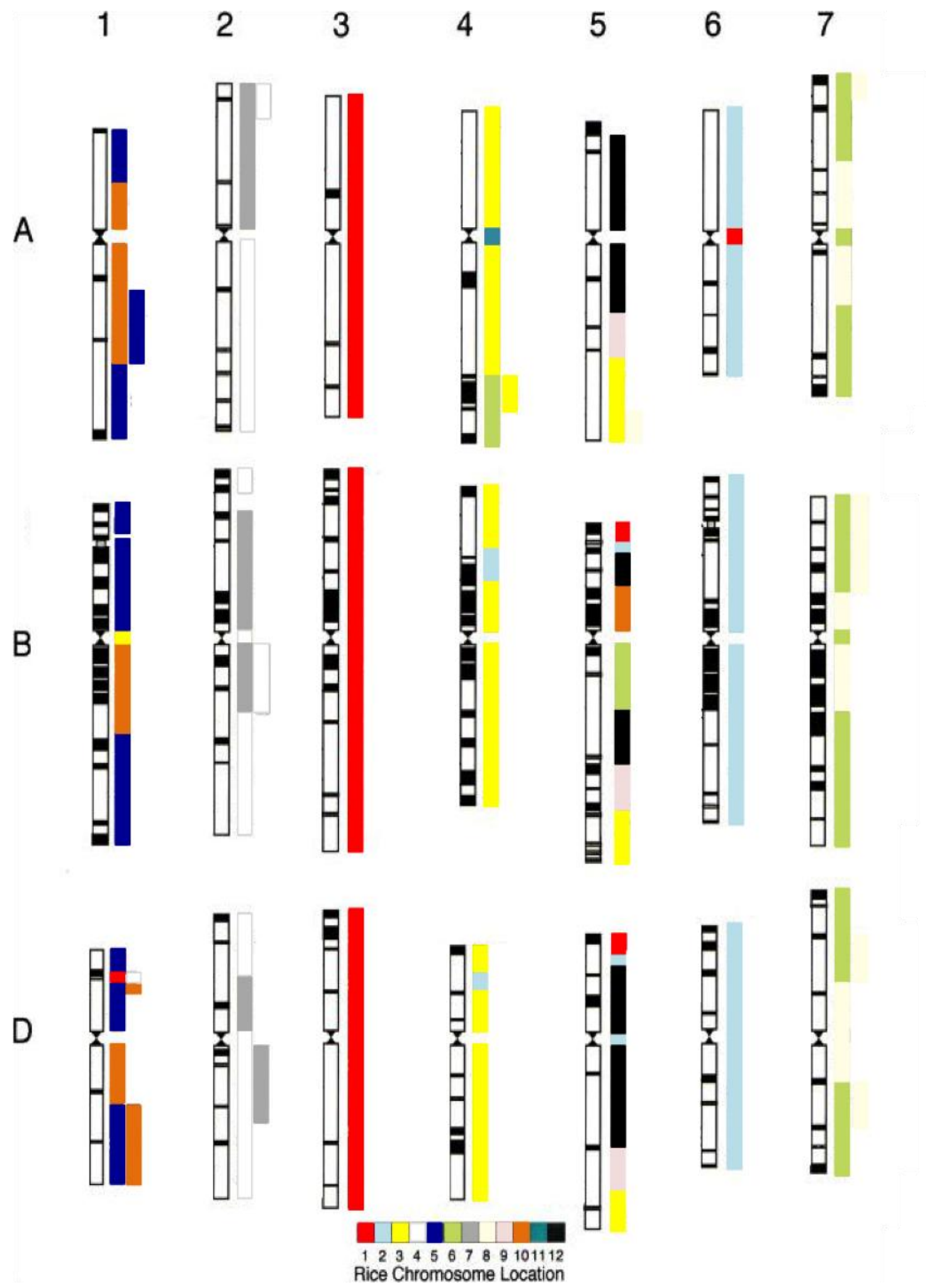
The rice genome was sequenced because of its smaller size and agronomical importance and is considered one of the model species for the grass family (International Rice Genome Sequencing Project 2005). Several studies have examined the colinearity between the wheat and rice genomes using mapped ESTs and RFLPs (La Rota and Sorrells 2004, Salse et al. 2008) as genetic anchors and large portions of these genomes are colinear but large segments have been rearranged (Fig. 2.7). The long arm of the 5B chromosome of wheat shows colinearity to portions of rice chromosomes 6,

12, 9, and 3. This is in contrast to the wheat to group 3 chromosomes, which shows good macro-colinearity to rice chromosome 1 (LaRota and Sorrells 2004; Fig. 2.7).

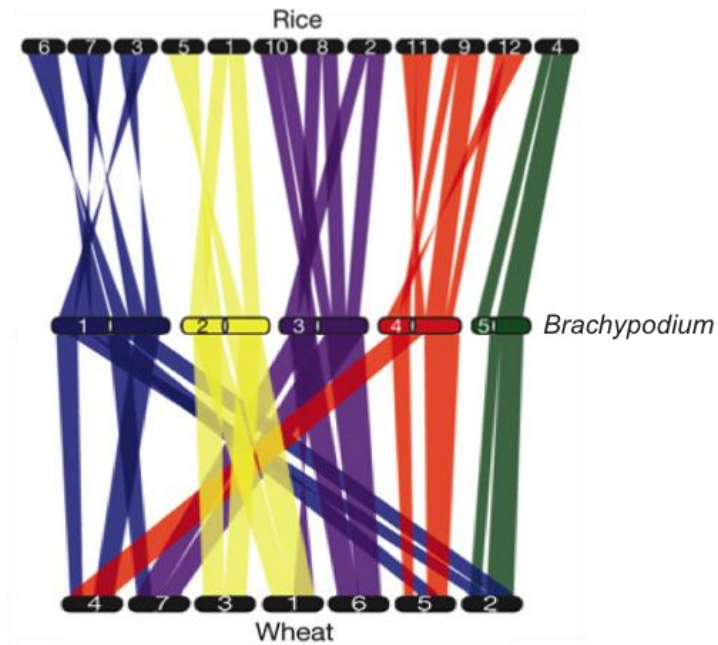


**Fig. 2.6** Phylogeny of grass species (modified from Buell 2009). Genome designations are in brackets.

The *Brachypodium* genome has also been sequenced and it is phylogenetically closer to wheat than rice (International *Brachypodium* Initiative 2010) and colinearity relationships with rice and wheat have been assessed (Fig. 2.8). Current sequence information supports that *Brachypodium* is more closely related to wheat than rice (Bossolini et al. 2007; Huo et al. 2008; Kumar et al. 2009; Buell 2009; Fig. 2.8). Though the complete wheat genome has not been sequenced to make a complete



**Fig. 2.7** Wheat genome and its colinearity to rice (modified from La Rota and Sorrells 2004)



**Fig. 2.8** *Brachypodium* genome colinearity with rice and wheat (modified from the International *Brachypodium* Initiative 2010)

comparison multiple loci have been compared between the three species as well as EST sequence. Both rice and *Brachypodium* genomes can provide gene information and putative locations for wheat scientists. Frequent interruptions in micro-colinearity are often observed at the level of individual genes in the form of deletions, translocations, and duplications (Bennetzen and Ma 2003; Feuillet and Keller 2002). Variability in the size of colinear regions between species is also not uncommon but this does not necessarily indicate a difference in gene content. The difference is usually due to differences in intragenic regions due to transposable elements (Bennetzen and Ma 2003). Wheat group 5 chromosomes show colinearity to *Brachypodium* chromosomes 1 and 4, which show colinearity to rice chromosomes 3, 7, 6, 9, 11 and 12 (Fig. 2.8) all of which, except chromosomes 7 and 11, show colinearity to the long arm of chromosome 5B (Fig 2.7).

Colinearity between species has been considered a useful tool in comparative genomics (Higgins et al. 2010), studying evolutionary relationship, and in gene discovery (Faris et al. 2008) including marker development (Qin et al. 2011). Positional cloning in wheat relies heavily on wheat/rice/*Brachypodium* colinearity. Many of the wheat genes cloned have benefited from sequenced colinear regions in rice and

*Brachypodium*. In most cases, high density genetic maps for wheat are achieved by developing markers from genes identified in colinear regions of these model plants (Yan et al. 2003; Fu et al. 2009). Also putative functions of sequenced wheat genes are identified through BLASTx (basic local alignment search tool) searches to identify orthologues in the rice and *Brachypodium* genomes (Faris et al. 2010).

Breakdowns in macro-colinearity and micro-colinearity are evident in all wheat positional cloning studies. For example, the *Tsn1* locus in wheat showed no colinearity (macro-colinearity) to *Brachypodium* but colinearity to rice aided in the identification of *Tsn1*, indicating that this region may not be conserved in *Brachypodium* as it is in wheat and rice (Lu and Faris 2006). At the wheat *Q* locus, wheat/rice micro-colinearity was more conserved than wheat/*Brachypodium* due to the presence of two non colinear genes identified in *Brachypodium* (Faris et al. 2008). However, when the sequences of the genes at the *Q* locus between the three species were analyzed, the wheat gene sequences were more closely related to *Brachypodium* than rice (Faris et al. 2008). For this particular locus, having more similar gene sequences agrees with the placement of *Brachypodium* closer to rice on the evolution scale. Also at this locus, the presence of two non-colinear *Brachypodium* genes identifies that micro-colinearity is no closer between wheat and *Brachypodium* than wheat and rice. Wicker et al. (2010), studying the “rate of gene movement” (the rate at which colinearity breaks down), observed that 20% of genes between species would be rearranged and no longer colinearity in 40 million years of evolution. With wheat and rice diverging 50 Mya (million years ago) and wheat and *Brachypodium* diverging around 35 – 40 Mya perfect colinearity cannot be expected and caution should be used when utilizing wheat/rice/*Brachypodium* colinearity in positional cloning. Regardless, rice and *Brachypodium* genomes are still valuable resources for marker development and positional cloning in wheat.

### 3.0 Materials and Methods

#### 3.1 Verification of LDN5D(5A) and LDN5D(5B) Substitution Lines

As *Cdu-B1* has been localized to chromosome 5B, Langdon disomic substitution lines (Joppa and Williams 1988) LDN5D(5A) and LDN5D(5B) were used to validate 5B specific markers. In the Langdon disomic substitution lines, the Langdon 5A or 5B chromosome, respectively, have been substituted with the 5D chromosome from hexaploid wheat cultivar “Chinese Spring” (CS). These aneuploid lines were obtained from National Small Grains Collection (<http://www.ars.usda.gov/main/docs.htm?docid=2884>) and have limited quantities of seed. Because these are aneuploid lines, they were first verified to be missing the appropriate chromosome using simple sequence repeat (SSR) markers. SSR markers Xgwm291 and Xgwm293 were used to validate lines lacking the durum wheat 5A chromosome are 5A specific and SSR markers Xgwm371 and Xgwm408 were selected to verify the 5B substitution as these markers are known to be chromosome 5B specific (Somers et al. 2004). Primer sequences are available on the graingenes website (<http://wheat.pw.usda.gov/GG2/index.shtml>). The PCR reactions consisted of 50 mM KCl, 10 mM Tris-HCl, 1.5 mM MgCl<sub>2</sub>, 0.2 mM of each dNTP, 0.4 μM of forward and reverse SSR primers, 1.75 U of Taq DNA polymerase and 100 ng of genomic DNA. The total PCR volume was 25 μL. Temperature cycling was 94°C for 5 min followed by 32 cycles of 94°C for 30 s, 59°C for 30 s, 72°C for 1 min, then a final extension at 72°C for 10 min before cooling to 4°C. PCR samples were resolved by electrophoresis on 2.0-2.5% agarose gels at 140V for 1.5 hours in 1X TBE buffer and stained with ethidium bromide (0.5 μg/ml). The DNA banding patterns were visualized with UV light and recorded by a Canon Power Shot 7 digital camera and UVP imaging system. The presence/absence of these markers will determine whether the substitution has occurred.

#### 3.2 Genetic Mapping Population

Genetic mapping was performed using 155 double haploid (DH) lines from the cross W9262-260D3/Kofa as this population was used previously to localize *Cdu-B1*

(Knox et al. 2009). Grain Cd concentration data was available from two environments for the DH population (Knox et al. 2009), and these data were used in the present study. A hexaploid wheat (*Triticum aestivum* L.) population consisting of 115 recombinant inbred substitution lines (RSLs) derived from a cross between Chinese Spring (CS) and a CS *Triticum dicoccoides* 5B substitution (CS-DIC 5B) described in Gill et al. (1996) was also used for genetic mapping. TA106, the *T. dicoccoides* source of 5B, was included in the molecular studies. Grain Cd from CS and CS-DIC 5B was performed by Dr. Neil Harris and has been published previously (Wiebe et al. 2010).

### **3.3 Determination of Grain Cd Concentration Source in Hexaploid Wheat**

Durum wheat cultivars Langdon (high Cd), CDC Verona (low Cd), Kofa (high Cd), W9262-260D3 (low Cd), Commander (high Cd), and Strongfield (low Cd) as well as a Langdon (LDN) disomic substitution lines LDN5A(5D) and LND5B(5D) (Joppa and Williams 1988) were used to determine if chromosome 5D contains genes that confer low grain Cd concentration in hexaploid wheat. These lines were planted and grown in soil collected from the Kernen Crop Research Farm near Saskatoon, Saskatchewan, which is known to contain sufficient Cd to differentiate high and low Cd accumulating durum wheat lines. Soils were air dried, mix thoroughly and distributed into 15 cm pots and placed into a growth chamber. Seeds of each line were pregerminated on Petri plates at 14°C for five days then one germinated seed was transplanted to each pot. Langdon substitution lines seed was of limited quantity and had to be verified as described in section 3.1. Therefore, only two replicates of each cultivar or line were planted. Growth conditions in the growth chamber were 16 h day, and 23/17°C day/night temperature. Plants were grown to maturity and grain from the entire plant was harvested for grain Cd concentration analysis. All grain Cd analysis was performed by Saskatoon Research Council (SRC) (Saskatoon, SK). The samples were digested with nitric acid and hydrogen peroxide using a Milestone ETHOS EZ microwave digester. The digest was analyzed on a Thermo X Series II ICP-MS (Inductively Coupled Plasma-Mass Spectroscopy). Certified reference material, aquatic plant (*Lagarosiphon major*) from the European Joint Research Center, and matrix matched method blanks were carried through from the initial digest to the final analysis. The

phenotypic data was analyzed using Microsoft Excel (version 14.2.3). The mean and standard deviation of each mean is presented.

### **3.4 ESM and Gene Specific Marker Development**

Markers were developed for ESTs previously localized to bin 5BL9 0.76-0.79. EST sequences were blasted against Michigan State University (MSU) rice genome annotation release 6.1 (Ouyang et al. 2007) using BLASTn (<http://rice.plantbiology.msu.edu/blast.shtml>). Rice genes with the best hit (e-values  $<10^{-7}$  and  $\geq 80\%$  nucleotide identity for at least 60 bases) were then used as queries in BLASTn searches of *Triticum* sequences (National Center for Biotechnology Information (NCBI) BLAST (<http://blast.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Blast.cgi>)). The *Triticum spp.* coding DNA sequence (CDS) and EST sequences were aligned with rice CDS and genomic sequences to determine putative intron/exon sites using AlignX (Vector NTI Advance 10.3; Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA). If no significant hits were identified for *Triticum spp.* the rice genes were then BLASTn searched against the Chinese Spring 454 shotgun sequence ([http://www.cerealsdb.uk.net/search\\_reads.htm](http://www.cerealsdb.uk.net/search_reads.htm)) and these hits were used in the alignments. Primer pairs were designed from the wheat CDS or genomic sequences, and the target products included at least one intronic region. Overlapping primers were designed to ensure coverage of the majority of the CDS of each gene. A total of 120 ESM primer pairs were designed from 54 ESTs.

In addition, an earlier study (Knox et al. 2009) suggested that *Cdu-B1* resides in an area close to the major vernalization locus *vrn-B1*. The homoeologous locus *Vrn-A<sup>m1</sup>* has been sequenced, so a total of 56 primer pairs were designed for seven genes physically linked to that locus, including markers for genes *Xwg644* and *PCS2* using the same procedures as described above. All polymorphic ESM and gene-specific primer pairs are listed in Appendix 1.

### **3.5 Saturation Mapping Marker Analysis**

A saturated map of 5BL has been reported previously for the CS/CS-DIC 5B population (Lu et al. 2006). As such, a dominant marker most closely associated with *Cdu-B1*, previously designated as ScOPC20 (Knox et al. 2009), was amplified in this



population using primers and PCR reaction conditions reported previously (Knox et al. 2009).

All ESM primers, and primers for the seven *Vrn-B1* associated genes were evaluated for polymorphisms first on genomic DNA from Kofa and W9262-260D3, and only those primers that produced polymorphic amplicons were assessed on the W9262-260D3/Kofa DH population and are reported here (Appendix 1). The PCR reactions consisted of 50 mM KCl, 10 mM Tris-HCl, 1.5 mM MgCl<sub>2</sub>, 0.2 mM of each dNTP, 0.1 μM of M13 sequence-modified forward ESM primer (M13 tag, CACGACGTTGTAAAACGAC, attached to 5' end of forward primer), 0.4 μM of reverse ESM primer, 0.152 μM of Universal dye-labeled M13 primer (Schuelke 2000), 1.75 U of Taq DNA polymerase and 100 ng of genomic DNA. The universal primer was labeled with either HEX, FAM, or NED fluorescent dyes. The total PCR volume was 25 μL. Temperature cycling was 94°C for 5 min followed by 3 cycles of 94°C for 30 s, 56°C for 45 s, 72°C for 45 s, 94°C for 30 s, 54°C for 45 s, 72°C for 45 s, 94°C for 30 s, 52°C for 45 s, 72°C for 45 s, 94°C for 30 s, 50°C for 45 s, 72°C for 45 s, then 32 cycles of 94°C for 30 s, 51°C for 45 s, 72°C for 45 s, then a final extension at 72°C for 10 min before cooling to 10°C. Primers were first assessed for polymorphisms using capillary electrophoresis (CE) (ABI3100xl; Applied Biosystems). For CE, 1 μL of diluted PCR product (diluted 1/20 or 1/10 in deionized water) was combined with 9.0 μL HiDi formamide (ABI, Foster City, CA), and 0.08 μL of 500(-250) ROX size standard. The samples were run on a 36 cm array, processed with Applied Biosystem Data Collection Software version 2.0, and genotyped using GeneMapper version 3.0. Monomorphic ESMs were further analyzed using single strand conformational polymorphism (SSCP). For SSCP analysis, 4 μL of the PCR product were mixed with 20 μL of loading buffer containing 95% formamide, 0.05% bromophenol blue, and 0.05% xylene cyanol. The samples were heated at 94°C for 5 min and then immediately placed on ice to allow single strand folding. The fragments were resolved on a 0.6X MDE gel (Lonza, Rockland, ME, USA) run at room temperature for 17 h (6 W) using 0.6X TBE buffer. The Bio-Rad Sequi-Gen GT System (38 cm X 50 cm) was used for electrophoresis. Gels were visualized by silver staining as described previously (Bassam and Gresshoff. 2007).

### 3.6 Saturation Genetic Mapping and QTL Analysis

Revised genetic linkage maps of the CS/CS-DIC 5B (Lu et al. 2006) and W9262-260D3/Kofa (Knox et al. 2009) populations were constructed using the Haldane mapping function of JoinMap 4.0 (van Ooijen and Voorrips 2004) at a minimum log of odds (LOD) score of 3.0. Only the W9262-260D3/Kofa population was used for QTL analysis using grain Cd concentration collected previously (Knox et al. 2009). QTL analysis was performed using a multiple locus model (MLM) in MapQTL Version 5.0 (van Ooijen 2004) and the significance threshold ( $P < 0.01$ ) of the LOD score was determined as described previously (van Ooijen 1999). For QTL analysis, the least square (LMS) means for each DH line was used and were estimated from data collected from two environments (Knox et al. 2009). The average QTL effects (one half the difference between parental marker class means) were estimated by MapQTL Version 5.0. All genetically mapped markers were designated with an X as per the recommended rules for gene symbolization in wheat.

### 3.7 Colinearity With the Rice and *Brachypodium* Genomes

For comparative analysis with the rice and *Brachypodium* genomes, the reported sequences of the ESMs linked to *Cdu-B1* were subjected to BLASTn searches of the rice and *Brachypodium* (<http://www.brachybase.org/blast>) genomes and parsed for sequences with e-values  $< 10^{-7}$  and  $\geq 80\%$  nucleotide identity for at least 60 bases. When several significant hits were found, only the best hit (lowest e-value) was reported. MapChart 2.1 (Voorrips 2002) was used to view colinearity of the wheat genetic map, and the rice and *Brachypodium* physical maps. Colinear genes and functions are listed in Appendix 2.

### 3.8 STS Marker Development and Analysis

Once the *Cdu-B1* colinear regions were identified, markers were developed for rice and *Brachypodium* genes within the *Cdu-B1* colinear region in wheat using the same procedures described above (section 3.4). A total of 120 sequence tagged site (STS) primer pairs were designed based on 25 colinear genes. These markers were designed and analyzed as per the ESMs using rice and *Brachypodium* colinear gene

sequences (section 3.4). STS markers were analyzed as per ESMS (section 3.5). These markers were also assessed for polymorphism in the parents of our mapping population using high resolution melt (HRM) technology. For HRM analysis, all PCR reactions were performed using a BioRad CFX384 real time (RT) PCR machine. The PCR reactions included 1X Eva Green Supermix (BioRad), 1  $\mu$ M forward and reverse primers, and 100 ng DNA. PCR temperature cycling was the same for all primers (98°C for 3 min followed by 40 cycles of 98°C for 10 s and 59°C for 10 s). Following PCR, amplicons were melted by ramping the temperature from 59°C to 98°C in 0.2°C increments which were held for 10 s after which fluorescence was measured. The resulting melting temperature curves were compared to determine polymorphisms. STS primer pairs polymorphic between W9262-260D3 and Kofa are listed in Appendix 1. Polymorphic markers were mapped in the W9262-260D3/Kofa population as described in section 3.6.

### **3.9 *OsHMA3* Gene Specific Marker Development**

A  $P_{1B}$ -ATPase gene in rice (*OsHMA3*, *Os07g12900*) has been identified as controlling grain Cd concentration in rice (section 2.3.2), and seven primer pairs were designed from the closest orthologous wheat sequences (DQ490135 and AY829002) as well as the Chinese Spring shot gun 454 sequences ([http://www.cerealsdb.uk.net/search\\_reads.htm](http://www.cerealsdb.uk.net/search_reads.htm)). These primers were designed as described in section 3.4 and 5B and polymorphic primer pairs are listed in Appendix 1.

### **3.10 Development of Markers for Fine Mapping**

Most *Cdu-B1* markers were mapped by using SSCP, which is not conducive to screening large numbers of  $F_2$  individuals typical of fine mapping populations. Thus three co-segregating CAPS markers (*Xusw14*, *Xusw47*, *Xusw17*) and STS marker *Xusw15b* were converted to CAPS markers for the fine mapping experiments. For this, PCR amplicons of the appropriate size were cloned using the TOPO TA Cloning Kit (Invitrogen, Burlington, Ontario, Canada) following the manufacturer's instructions. Fragments from both high grain Cd concentration cultivars (Kofa and Commander) and low grain Cd concentration cultivars (W9262-260D3 and Strongfield) were cloned.

Recombinant plasmid DNA from clones carrying the inserted PCR product (as verified by PCR) were sequenced at McGill University (Genome Quebec Innovation Center in Montreal, Quebec, Canada). Sequences were aligned using AlignX (Vector NTI Advance 10.3; Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA) and were analyzed for SNPs between high and low grain Cd accumulating cultivars (Appendix 3). Primers were redesigned to amplify B genome specific amplicons by placing a B genome specific SNP at the 3' end of the primer. Forward and reverse primers were selected to flank restriction sites differentiating alleles of high and low accumulators. Because ScOPC20 is a dominant (presence/absence) marker it could not be converted to a CAPS marker.

The resulting DNA fragment for each CAPS marker (Appendix 4) was PCR amplified using the following conditions. The PCR reaction consisted of 50 mM KCl, 10 mM Tris-HCl, 1.5 mM MgCl<sub>2</sub>, 0.2 mM of each dNTP, 0.25 pmol of forward CAPS primer, 0.25 pmol of reverse CAPS primer, 1.75 U of Taq DNA polymerase and 100 ng of genomic DNA. Temperature cycling was 94°C for 3 min followed by 35 cycles of 94°C for 30 sec, 57°C for 30 sec, 72°C for 1min, then a final extension at 72°C for 10 min before cooling to 10°C. PCR amplicons were resolved by electrophoresis on 2.0% (w/v) agarose gels at 140V for 1.5 hours in 1X TBE buffer and stained with ethidium bromide (0.5 µg/ml). The DNA banding patterns were visualized with UV light and recorded by a Canon Power Shot 7 digital camera and UVP imaging system.

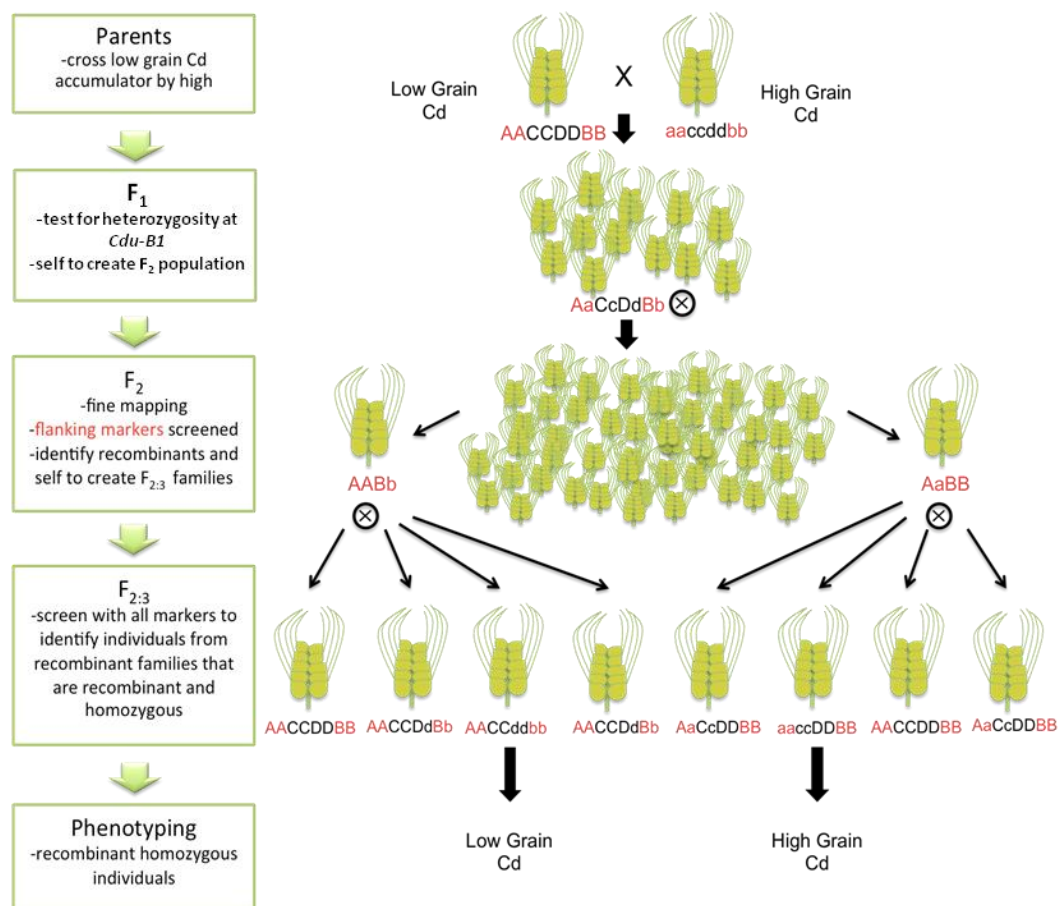
All of the CAPS markers developed were first validated for their ability to amplify amplicons located on chromosome 5B by using the Langdon disomic D genome substitution lines (Joppa and Williams 1988). Markers were then scored on the W9262-260D3/Kofa mapping population to ensure the CAPS markers co-segregated with the ESM and STS markers from which they were developed.

### **3.11 Development of F<sub>2</sub> Fine Mapping Populations**

Two F<sub>2</sub> populations were utilized for fine mapping. A smaller population consisting of 521 individuals was developed from the cross Svevo (high grain Cd) x Brigade (low Cd; Clarke et al. 2009). A larger F<sub>2</sub> population consisted of 3558 F<sub>2</sub> individuals derived from a cross between two near isogenic lines 8982-TL-L (low grain Cd concentration) and 8982-TL-H (high grain Cd concentration; Appendix 5; Clarke et

al. 1997a). The resulting F<sub>1</sub>s from the latter cross were increased and were sampled and analyzed for markers linked to *Cdu-B1* for heterozygosity at the two leaf stage to ensure no F<sub>1</sub> plants were the result of self pollination. Only F<sub>1</sub>s heterozygous at markers linked to *Cdu-B1* were grown to maturity and F<sub>2</sub> seeds harvested (Fig. 3.1).

For fine mapping, the F<sub>2</sub> plants were first germinated at 14°C in the dark until roots and shoots were visible. Germinated seedlings were then planted in sunshine mix (L22 germinating) in 8 by 16, 2.5 cm cell trays (96 individual seedlings per tray). Appropriate parents of each F<sub>2</sub> population were included in each tray as controls. Seedlings were allowed to grow for 7-10 days, until the seedling shoots were about 10 cm tall. DNA was extracted from seedlings as described previously (Eckstein et al 2004).



**Fig. 3.1** Outline of F<sub>2</sub> fine mapping population development, screening, and phenotyping of F<sub>2</sub> individuals. Red alleles indicate flanking markers.

In total eleven markers were used for fine mapping (*ScOPC20*, *Xusw49*, *HMA3-B1*, *Xusw50*, *Xusw51*, *Xusw52*, *Xusw15b*, *Xusw17*, *Xusw47*, *Xusw53*, and *Xusw14*). The populations were first screened with three markers: *ScOPC20* (section 3.5) and *Xusw14* (section 3.10) which flank *Cdu-B1*, and *Xusw47* (section 3.10), which co-segregates with *Cdu-B1*. The remaining eight markers that co-segregated with *Cdu-B1* in the W9262-260D3/Kofa population were scored only on F<sub>2</sub> plants showing recombination between at least two of the three original markers. Chi-square ( $\chi^2$ ) analysis of observed molecular variant frequencies was estimated using expected values for co-dominant (1:2:1) or dominant (3:1) segregation in an F<sub>2</sub> population.

F<sub>2:3</sub> progeny derived from only the recombinant F<sub>2</sub> individuals were grown as described for the F<sub>2</sub> plants, and all ten markers scored on 10-20 individual F<sub>2:3</sub> plants. Plants homozygous for recombinations were selected, and grown in Cd contaminated soil (section 3.3) and scored using all markers to identify F<sub>2:3</sub> families for phenotyping (Fig. 3.1). Parental material was grown and transplanted as checks. At maturity, grain was harvested from each selected F<sub>2:3</sub> plant individually, and analyzed for grain Cd content as described previously (section 3.3).

Genetic maps were constructed individually for each F<sub>2</sub> mapping population using the Haldane mapping function of JoinMap 4.0 (van Ooijen and Voorrips 2004) at a minimum LOD score of 3.0. *ScOPC20* and several of the STS-HRM scored markers are dominant markers and therefore it was not possible to differentiate heterozygous and homozygous high grain Cd molecular variants. Therefore, the genotypes of individual recombinant F<sub>2:3</sub> families were used to determine the genetic state at the F<sub>2</sub> generation.

### **3.12 HMA-B1 BAC Identification**

The *Triticum turgidum* Ttu-B-LDN65 (Langdon) BAC library (Cenci et al 2003; 5X coverage) 2D pools, super pools and plate pools (2D pooling described at [http://cnrgv.toulouse.inra.fr/en/services/dna\\_pool\\_production](http://cnrgv.toulouse.inra.fr/en/services/dna_pool_production)) were purchased from the French Plant Genomic Resource Centre (INRA-CNRC). Positive plates were identified from super pools using primer pair TtHMA-n454-F3/R3 (F-5' ATGTCGTCGTTGATGAGCATG 3', and R-5' CCATTGTCCTCACGGCGATGT 3') and validated with plate pools. At the plate pool level, BAC plate pools were screened

to identify only 5B BACs. Langdon disomic subseries lines LDN5D(5A) and LDN5D(5B) were run as checks with the plate pools on SSCP (as described in Wiebe et al. 2010) using the TtHMA-n454-F3/R3 primer pair. One 5A and all 5B plates identified were also ordered from INRA-CNRGV and individual BACs were identified from plates using the same primer pair. Identified BACs were verified to localize to chromosome 5B or 5A using SSCP. The PCR reactions consisted of 50 mM KCl, 10 mM Tris-HCl, 1.5 mM MgCl<sub>2</sub>, 0.2 mM of each dNTP, 0.4 μM of forward and reverse primers, 1.75 U of Taq DNA polymerase and 100 ng of genomic DNA. PCR temperature cycling involves 95°C for 5 min followed by 35 cycles of 95°C for 30 s and 59°C for 30 s and 72°C followed by a final extension of 72°C for 10 min.

### **3.13 HMA Sequencing**

For 454 BAC sequencing, BAC DNA was prepared by the method described by Poulsen (2004). Shotgun 454 sequence was obtained for BAC 532J14 using GS FLX Titanium chemistry with sequencing being performed at The Genome Quebec Innovation Center (Montreal, Quebec, Canada). 298B8 BAC 454 shotgun sequencing was performed using Roche 454 GS FLX Plus chemistry by Funomics (Saskatoon, Saskatchewan, Canada). Illumina GA paired-end sequence was also obtained for both BACs using a sequencing library size of 300 bp. BAC DNA for Illumina sequencing was prepared with the QIAGEN Large-construct kit according to the manufacturer's instructions

(<http://www.qiagen.com/products/plasmid/qiagenplasmidpurificationsystem/qiagenlargeconstructkit.aspx#Tabs=t2>). Library preparation and sequencing was done at the National Research Council of Canada, Saskatoon, Sk. BAC end sequencing was performed using Sanger sequencing, with M13(-20) forward (GTAAAACGACGGCCAG) and M13 reverse (CAGGAAACAGCTATGAC) primers.

Hybrid assemblies incorporating both 454 and Illumina pair-end data were performed using Newbler version 2.6 (Roche). Illumina data was preprocessed as follows: reads matching the BAC cloning host sequence (*Escherichia coli* DH10B, NC\_010473) or vector sequence (pIndigoBAC-5) were moved by bowtie (Langmead et al. 2009) and duplicate reads were removed using a Perl script obtained from Kevin Koh

(NRC, pers. comm.). Subsampling was done because of the high read depth obtained from the Illumina sequencing platform and increasing numbers of read pairs were sampled in increments of 10,000. A single 166,999 bp scaffold was obtained with 10,000 read pairs sampled for the 298B8 assembly (Appendix 6). BAC end sequencing confirmed the presence of both BAC ends. Similarly for 532J14, a single 124,137 bp scaffold was obtained with 20,000 read pairs sampled (Appendix 6); both the BAC-F and BAC-R ends were also found in the 532J14 scaffold, suggesting the assembly was complete.

Plant repeats were masked using RepeatMasker (Smit, AFA, Hubley, R & Green, P. RepeatMasker Open-3.0, 1996-2010; <http://www.repeatmasker.org>) and the repeat masker specific libraries (RepBase Update 20110920) from the Genetic Information Research Institute ([www.giri.org](http://www.giri.org)). The search program used by RepeatMasker was `rmblastn` version 2.2.23+ (<http://www.repeatmasker.org/RMBlast.html>). Coding regions were identified on repeat masked sequence by *ab initio* gene prediction using FGENESH (Softberry Inc.); cDNA sequence was used to guide the *ab initio* prediction when necessary. The predicted CDS of the *HMA3-B1* and *HMA3-A1* genes were aligned with similar genes from *Arabidopsis* (Baxter et al. 2003), *Brachypodium* (<http://www.brachypodium.org/>) and rice (Baxter et al. 2003) using ClustalX version 2.0.12 (Thompson et al. 1997). A bootstrap neighbor-join phylogenetic tree was generated using ClustalX. 1000 replicates were used for bootstrapping. The phylogenetic tree was viewed using Dendroscope (Huson et al, 2007).

The *HMA3* genes from durum cultivars Kofa (high grain Cd) and W9262-260D3 (low grain Cd) and Langdon BACs 298B8 (5B genome) and 532J14 (5A genome) were then sequenced from PCR amplicons. PCR amplicons of the approximate size were cloned using the TOPO TA Cloning Kit (Invitrogen, Burlington, Ontario, Canada) following the manufacturer's instructions and the plasmid DNA from clones carrying the inserted PCR product were sequenced at the National Research Council (NRC), Saskatoon, SK. Sequences were aligned using AlignX (Vector NTI Advance 10.3; Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA). Primers for *HMA3-B1* sequencing are listed in Appendix 3. The PCR reactions consisted of 50 mM KCl, 10 mM Tris-HCl, 1.5 mM MgCl<sub>2</sub>, 0.2 mM



of each dNTP, 0.4  $\mu$ M of forward and reverse primers, 1.75 U of Taq DNA polymerase and 100 ng of genomic DNA. PCR temperature cycling involves 95°C for 5 min followed by 35 cycles of 95°C for 30 s and 63°C for 30 s and 72°C followed by a final extension of 72°C for 10 min. Protein sequences were predicted for these genes using the ExPSAy translate tool (<http://web.expasy.org/translate/>) on the predicted CDS (Appendix 7) and functional domains were identified using the MyHits motif scan tool ([http://myhits.isb-sib.ch/cgi-bin/motif\\_scan](http://myhits.isb-sib.ch/cgi-bin/motif_scan)).

### **3.14 Marker Validation**

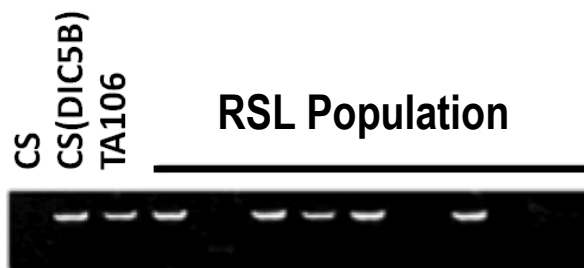
A global collection of 96 durum wheat cultivars and breeding lines (Appendix 8) was used to validate five markers (*ScOPC20*, *Xusw47*, *Xusw17*, *Xusw15b*, and *HMA-B1*) for their potential for marker assisted selection (MAS) for the low grain Cd phenotype. This collection included breeding lines and cultivars from countries including Canada (25), Italy (17), USA (12), Australia (9), Spain (9), Argentina (5), Iran (4), France (3), Mexico (3), Morocco (3), Germany (2), New Zealand (2) and Russia (1), and has been described previously (Somers et al. 2007; Reimer et al. 2008).

Phenotypic data for grain Cd was collected from field trials conducted previously at Saskatoon, Saskatchewan over two years (2000 and 2001; Reimer et al. 2008). A single replicate of each line was grown in an alpha lattice design in both years (Reimer et al. 2008). Grain Cd concentration was determined using procedures described previously (Wiebe et al. 2010). Data analysis was performed using PROC MIXED of SAS (SAS Institute, Toronto, Canada) using each of the 2000 and 2001 environments as replications (random factor) and cultivars and breeding lines as a fixed factor. The least significant difference (LSD) was estimated using a significance level of  $p=0.05$ , and was used to classify the lines and cultivars discretely into high grain or low grain Cd accumulators.

## 4.0 RESULTS

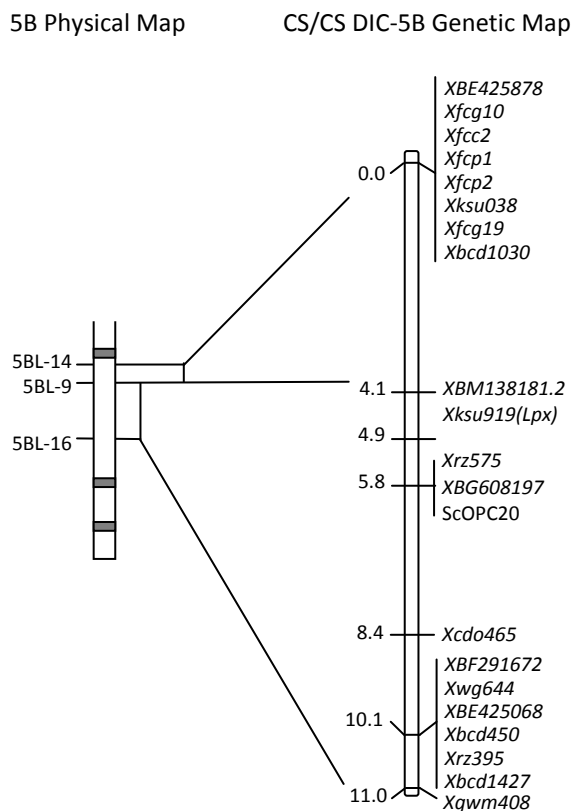
### 4.1 Saturation Mapping of *Cdu-B1* in Durum Wheat

*Cdu-B1* (Penner et al. 1995) was previously localized on chromosome 5BL (Knox et al. 2009). Using a DH population derived from the cross W9262-260D3 (low grain Cd)/Kofa (high grain Cd), Knox et al. (2009) localized *Cdu-B1* as a Mendelian factor approximately 3 cM distal to ScOPC20 (Knox et al. 2009; section 2.3.3, Fig. 2.3) and 12 cM distal to the *Tsn1* locus (markers *Xfcp1* and *Xfcp2*; Knox et al. 2009; section 2.3.3, Fig. 2.3). A 5BL map derived from the CS/CS-DIC 5B RSL hexaploid wheat population is available, and is saturated in the *Tsn1* region (Lu et al. 2006). Therefore, *Cdu-B1* was first localized in that population using *Tsn1* associated markers. ScOPC20 primers amplified the expected 394 bp fragment from CS-DIC 5B, but no fragment was amplified from CS (Fig. 4.1). *XBG608197* and *Xrz575* were mapped previously in the CS/CS-DIC 5B population (Lu et al. 2006), and ScOPC20 was found to co-segregate with these markers at a position 4.3 cM proximal to *Xwg644* (Fig. 4.2). In a previous study, grain Cd concentrations for CS and CS-DIC 5B was similar despite segregation at ScOPC20 (Wiebe et al. 2010), therefore it was not possible to localize *Cdu-B1* in this population. Regardless, the linkage of ScOPC20 with *Xwg644*, *XBG608197* and *Xrz575*, which were previously localized to deletion bin 5BL9 0.76-0.79 (Lu et al. 2006; Fig. 4.2), suggests *Cdu-B1* is also located within the same deletion bin.



**Fig. 4.1** Polymorphism detected at ScOPC20 in CS and CS-DIC 5B and a subsample of RSLs from the CS/CS-DIC 5B RSL.

It was not clear why no phenotypic variation in grain Cd concentration was observed in the CS/CS-DIC 5B RSL population, despite segregation at ScOPC20. There are at least two possibilities: a) there has been a recombination between

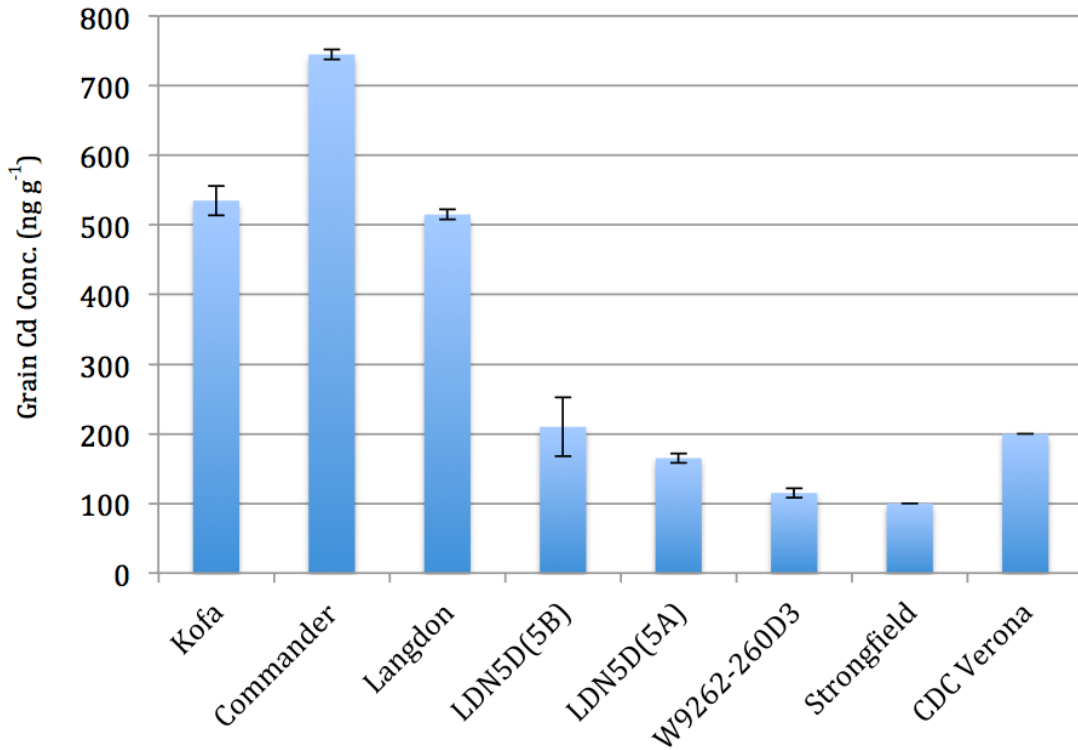


**Fig. 4.2** Physical map of a portion of chromosome 5BL showing the deletion bins of that chromosome and corresponding genetic map of CS/CS-DIC 5B.

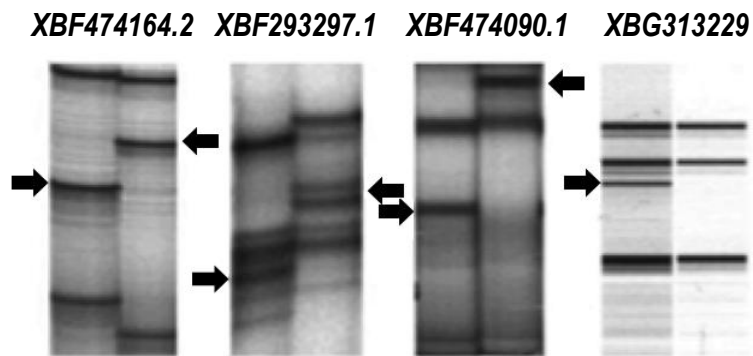
ScOPC20 and *Cdu-B1* in this population, or b) a gene homoeologous to *Cdu-B1* resides on chromosome 5D of hexaploid wheat. To test the latter hypothesis, grain Cd concentration of the Langdon-Chinese spring 5D disomic substitution lines LDN5D(5A) and LDN5D(5B) revealed that a substitution of chromosome 5D into Langdon resulted in a significant lowering of grain Cd concentration compared to Langdon (Fig. 4.3). These results confirm that a gene for reducing grain Cd is also present on chromosome 5D of hexaploid wheat.

Having established the likely physical location of *Cdu-B1*, 120 primer pairs were designed from the sequences of 54 wheat ESTs previously localized to bin 5BL9 0.76-0.79 (grain genes website [http://wheat.pw.usda.gov/cgi-bin/westsql/bin\\_candidates.cgi?bin=5BL9-0.76-0.79](http://wheat.pw.usda.gov/cgi-bin/westsql/bin_candidates.cgi?bin=5BL9-0.76-0.79)). Twenty-five of these primers produced amplicons that were polymorphic between Kofa (high grain Cd) and W9262-260D3 (low grain Cd) and 13 of these (Appendix 1) were mapped to group five

chromosomes in the DH population. Marker *XBF474090.1* was polymorphic (Fig. 4.4) and co-segregated with *Cdu-B1* in the W9262-260D3/Kofa DH population (Fig. 4.5).

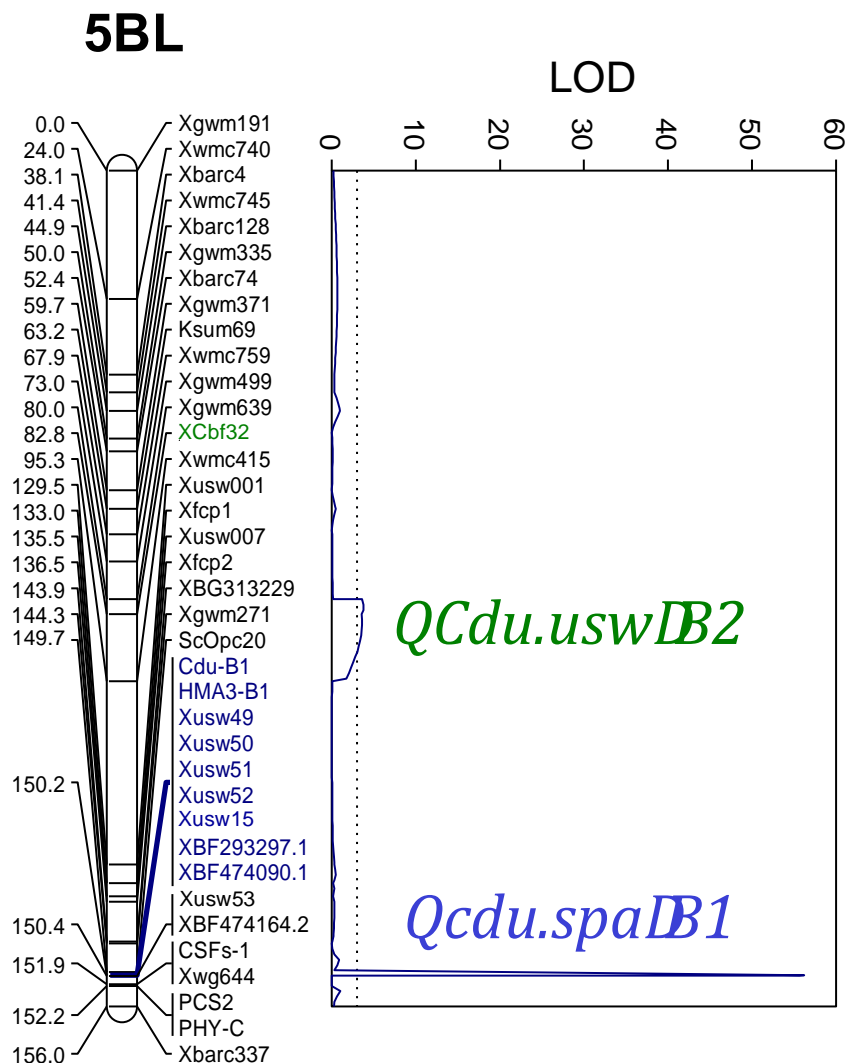


**Fig. 4.3** Effects of substituting chromosome 5D into Langdon. Grain Cd concentration ( $\text{ng g}^{-1}$ ) of known high grain Cd accumulators (Kofa, Commander, and Langdon) and known low grain Cd accumulators (W9262-260D3, Strongfield, and CDC Verona) and Langdon disomic substitution lines (LDN5D(5B), and LDN5D(5A)).



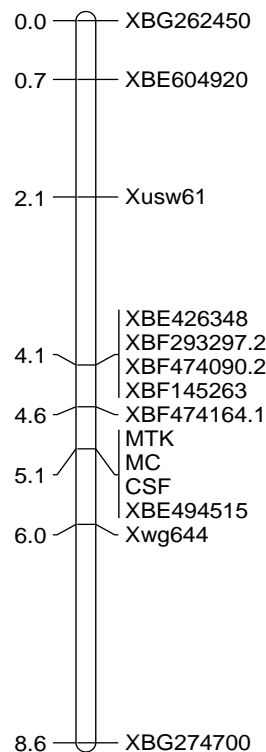
**Fig. 4.4** Polymorphic ESMs associated with *Cdu-B1* in the W9262-260D3/Kofa population. For each marker, Kofa is lane 1 and W9262-260D3 is lane 2. All polymorphisms were detected with SSCP except *XBG313229* was detected with CE. Arrows indicate those polymorphic fragments that localized to 5B.

Primers designed from the wheat sequences of *XBF293297* and *XBF474164* each produced two polymorphic fragments (Fig. 4.4). *XBF293297.1* co-segregated with *Cdu-B1* and *XBF474164.2* mapped 0.2 cM distal to *Cdu-B1* (Fig. 4.5). *XBG313229* mapped 7 cM proximal to *Cdu-B1*. Primers for the ESMs *XBE604920*, *XBE426348*, *XBF474090.2*, *XBF145263*, *XBE494515*, *XBG262450*, *XBG274700*, *XBF474164.1*, and *XBF293297.2* were all polymorphic between Kofa and W9262-260D3, but all clustered on the distal region of chromosome 5AL when mapped in the DH population (Fig. 4.6).

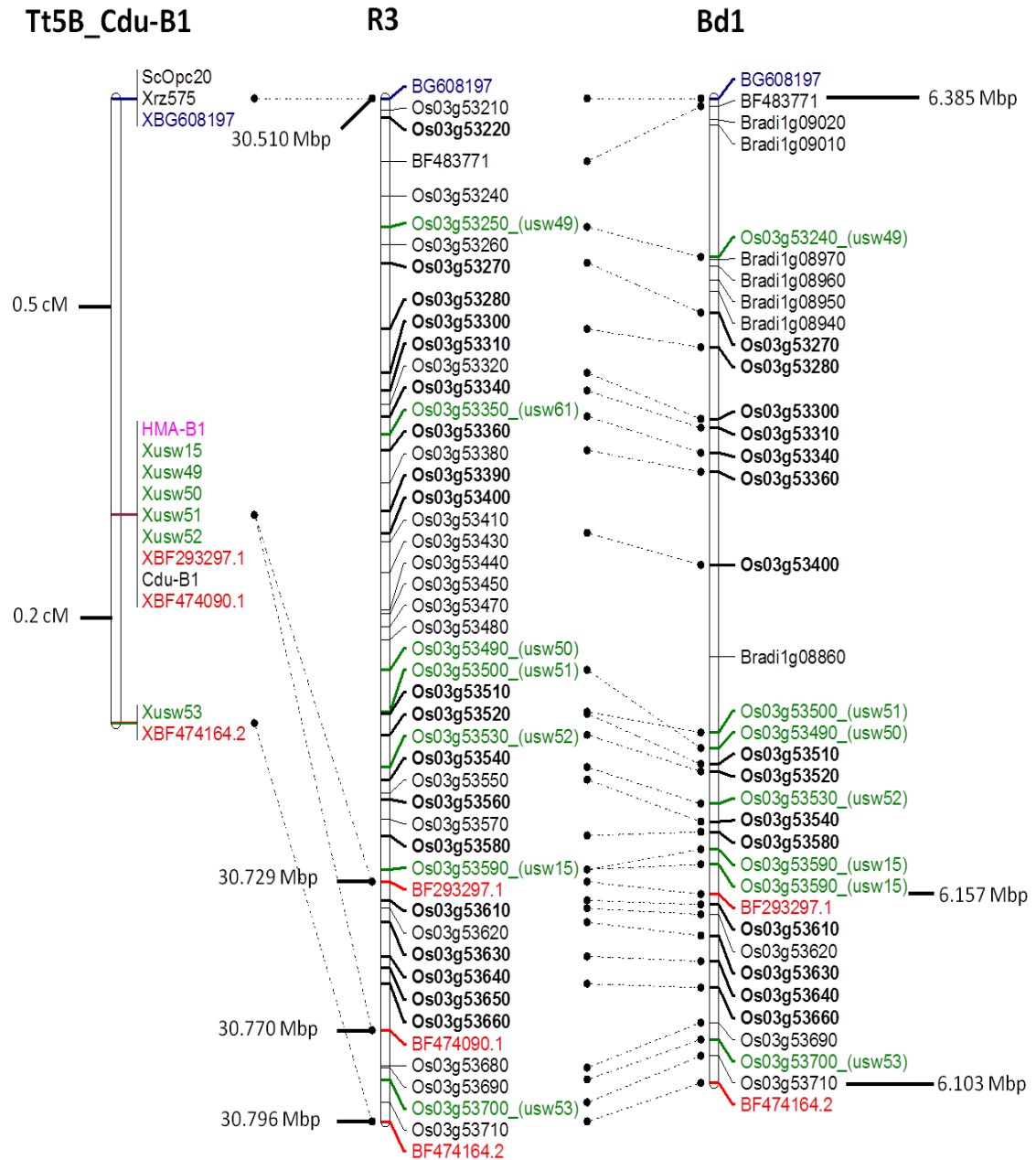


**Fig. 4.5** Genetic map of a portion of chromosome 5BL in the W9262-260D3/Kofa population and *Cdu-B1* QTL analysis. Markers associated with *QCdu.spa-B1* are indicated by blue text. Marker in green text is associated with *QCdu.usw-B2*.

The sequences of *XBG608197*, *XBF293297.1*, *XBF474090.1*, and *XBF474164.2* were used to search against the available rice and *Brachypodium* genomes using BLASTx to identify the colinear regions (Fig. 4.7). All four ESM sequences showed similarity to genes localized to rice chromosome 3 and *Brachypodium* chromosome 1 except *XBF474090.1*, which localizes to *Brachypodium* chromosome 4. The durum wheat *Cdu-B1* region was colinear with a 286 Kbp region in rice, similar in size to the 282 Kbp region identified in *Brachypodium*. Eight *Brachypodium* genes were not present in the rice colinear region and 20 rice genes were absent in *Brachypodium*. Tandem repeats of the rice gene *Os03g53590* were identified in *Brachypodium*. The remaining twenty-nine genes showed near perfect gene order between rice and *Brachypodium* (Fig. 4.7). All genes from the *Cdu-B1* colinear regions in rice and *Brachypodium* and their predicted function are listed in Appendix 2. None of the genes have been associated with Cd uptake or sequestration in plants previously.

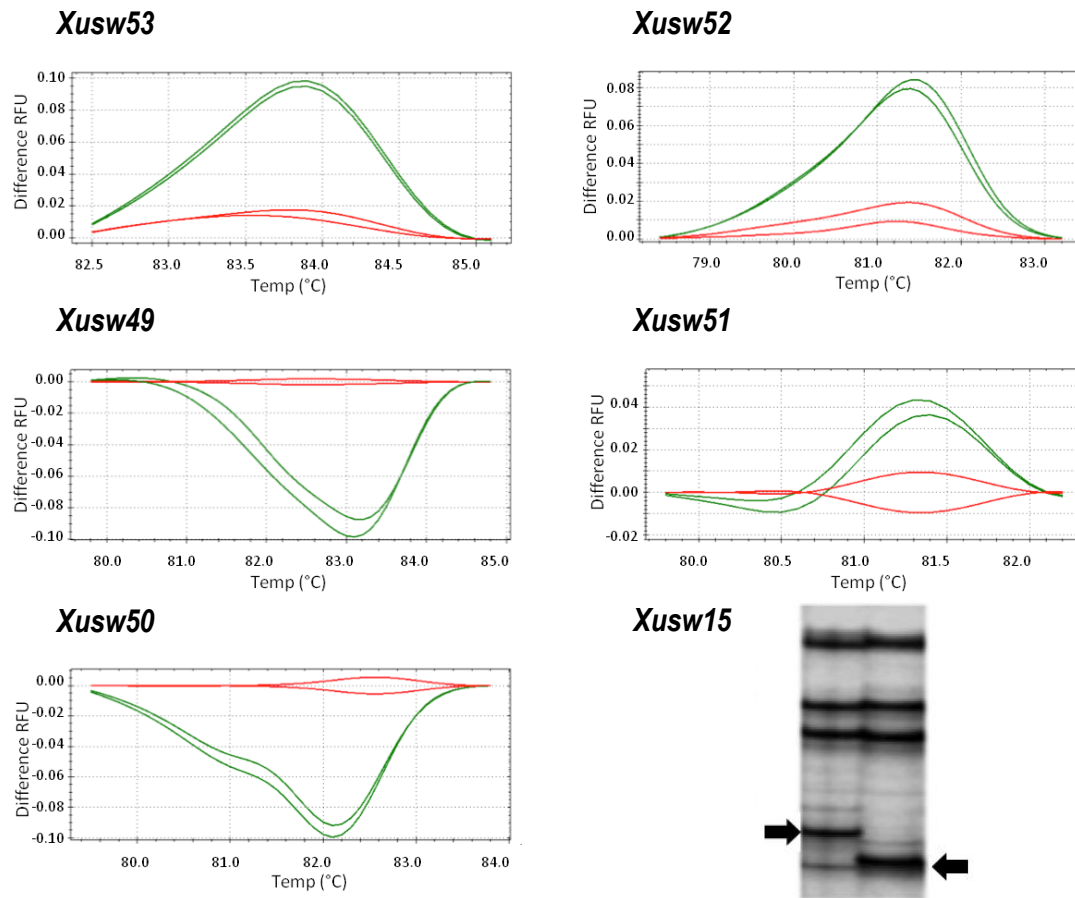


**Fig. 4.6** Genetic map of a portion of chromosome 5AL in the W9262-260D3/Kofa population



**Fig. 4.7** Genetic map of the *Cdu-B1* region from W9262-260D3/Kofa (Tt5B\_Cdu-B1) and its colinear physical region on rice chromosome three (R3), and *Brachypodium* chromosome 1 (Bd1). The positions of *Xrz575* and *XBG608197* (blue) relative to *Cdu-B1* were inferred from the CS/CS-DIC 5B genetic map (see Fig. 4.2). Red indicates ESMs that were used along with *XBG608197* to determine colinear regions in rice and *Brachypodium*. Green indicates those genes in which polymorphisms in W9262-260D3/Kofa were identified and mapped (STS markers). Bold indicates colinear genes, which were evaluated for polymorphisms in W9262-260D3/Kofa, but unable to map due to lack of polymorphisms.

To further saturate *Cdu-B1*, primers for 25 genes from the colinear region of rice were developed, and seven of these (*Os03g53590*, *Os03g53250*, *Os03g53490*, *Os03g53500*, *Os03g53530*, *Os03g53700*, and *Os03g53350*; Fig. 4.7) produced detectable polymorphisms between Kofa and W9262-260D3 (Fig. 4.8). These markers were designated as *Xusw15*, *Xusw49*, *Xusw50*, *Xusw51*, *Xusw52*, *Xusw53*, and *Xusw61*. These were added to the existing genetic map (Fig. 4.5). In the revised map, *Xusw15*, *Xusw49*, *Xusw50*, *Xusw51*, and *Xusw52* co-segregated with *Cdu-B1* and one (*Xusw53*) co-segregated with *XBF474164.2* (Fig. 4.5). One mapped to chromosome 5A (*Xusw61*) (Fig. 4.6).



**Fig. 4.8** Polymorphic STS markers associated with *Cdu-B1* in the W9262-260D3/Kofa population. Polymorphisms were detected with HRM (W9262-260D3 melt (green) in comparison to the Kofa melt (red)), except *Xusw15*, which was detected with SSCP. (Kofa is lane 1 and W9262-260D3 is lane 2). Arrows indicate those polymorphic fragments that localized to 5B.



To add additional markers to the *Cdu-B1* region, markers were identified from previously reported positional cloning studies in wheat that focused on chromosome 5BL. *Xwg644* mapped distal to ScOPC20 in the CS/CS-DIC 5B population (Fig. 4.2). That marker is linked to the *Vrn-A<sup>m1</sup>* locus in *T. monococcum*, which has been sequenced (Yan et al. 2003). Thus, primers were designed for six genes physically linked to, and including, *Xwg644* in *T. monococcum*. The PCR products for two genes, *PHY-C* (phytochrome-C) and *PCS2* were polymorphic between W9262-260D3 and Kofa (Fig. 4.9), and mapped 1.8 cM distal to *Cdu-B1* in the DH mapping population (Fig. 4.5). The primers for *Xwg644* and *CSFs-1* (cleavage stimulation factor subunit 1) produced two polymorphic fragments each, and one from each gene (Fig. 4.9) mapped 1.5 cM distal to *Cdu-B1* (Fig. 4.5) while the second fragment mapped to chromosome 5AL (Fig. 4.6). Primers for *MTK4* (putative protein kinase tousled), *MC* (mitochondrial carrier protein) produced polymorphic amplicons, but these mapped to 5AL (Fig. 4.6).

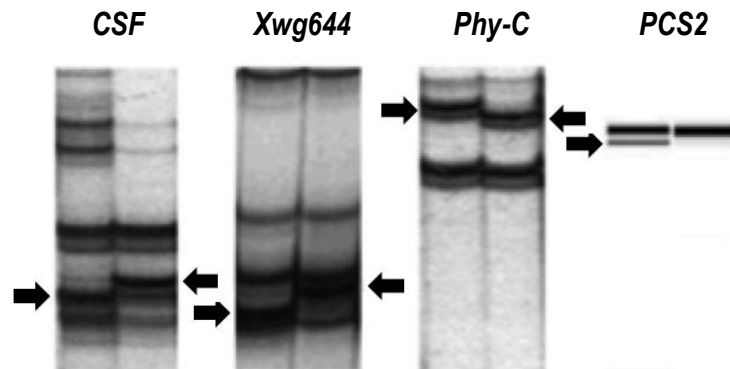


Fig. 4.9 Polymorphic gene specific markers in W9262-260D3/Kofa population designed from genes linked to *VrnA<sup>m1</sup>* in *T. monococcum*. Kofa is lane 1 and W9262-260D3 is lane 2. All polymorphism detected with SSCP except *PCS2* was detected with CE. Arrows indicate those polymorphic fragments that localized to 5B.

The revised genetic map of chromosome 5B from the W9262-260D3/Kofa DH population was used for QTL analysis of grain Cd concentration (Fig. 4.5) using data reported previously (Knox et al. 2009). A major QTL (LOD = 58) for grain Cd concentration centered at *XBF293297.1*, *XBF474090.1*, *Xusw15*, *Xusw49*, *Xusw50*, *Xusw51*, and *Xusw52* was identified and was flanked by ScOPC20 proximally and *XBF474164.2* and *Xusw53* distally (Fig. 4.5). This QTL, previously designated as *QCdu.spa-B1* (Knox et al. 2009), was reduced to a 0.7 cM interval (Fig. 4.5) and

explained 82% of the phenotypic variation in grain Cd concentration. W9262-260D3, the low Cd parent contributed the allele for low Cd with an additive effect of 47 ng g<sup>-1</sup> (Table 4.1). Using MLM, a second minor QTL (LOD = 4.1) not previously reported by Knox et al. (2009) was also detected on 5BL around *XCbf32* (Fig. 4.5) and was designated as *QCdu.usw-B2*. The QTL effect was small relative to *QCdu.spa-B1*, and the low grain Cd parent W9262-260D3 contributed the allele for low grain Cd (Table

**Table 4.1** Least square means (LSM) of grain Cd concentrations (ng g<sup>-1</sup>) from two environments (Knox et al. 2009) for three markers associated with *Cdu-B1* and *XCbf32*

Molecular variants	ScOPC20	HMA3-B1	XBF474164.2	XCbf32
Least square means of genotypic groups				
Kofa (high)	160	157	160	121
W9262-260D3 (low)	71	67	72	101
Difference <sup>a</sup>	89**	90**	88**	20**
Effect of <i>XCbf32</i> in lines homozygous for low Cd uptake at <i>Cdu-B1</i>				
Kofa (high)	75	74	80	
W9262-260D3 (low)	63	58	63	
Difference <sup>a</sup>	12*	16**	17**	
Effect of <i>XCbf32</i> in lines homozygous for high Cd uptake at <i>Cdu-B1</i>				
Kofa (high)	166	165	165	
W9262-260D3 (low)	149	148	149	
Difference <sup>a</sup>	17**	17**	16*	

<sup>a</sup>Differences between genotypic classes were significant at \*  $P < 0.05$ ; \*\* significant at  $P < 0.01$

4.1). The interactions between *XCbf32* and the three markers linked to *Cdu-B1* were not statistically significant, but compared to only *QCdu.spa-B1*, the combined effects of the W9262-260D3 molecular variants at *XCbf32* and *QCdu.spa-B1* reduced grain Cd by 17 ng g<sup>-1</sup> (Table 4.1).

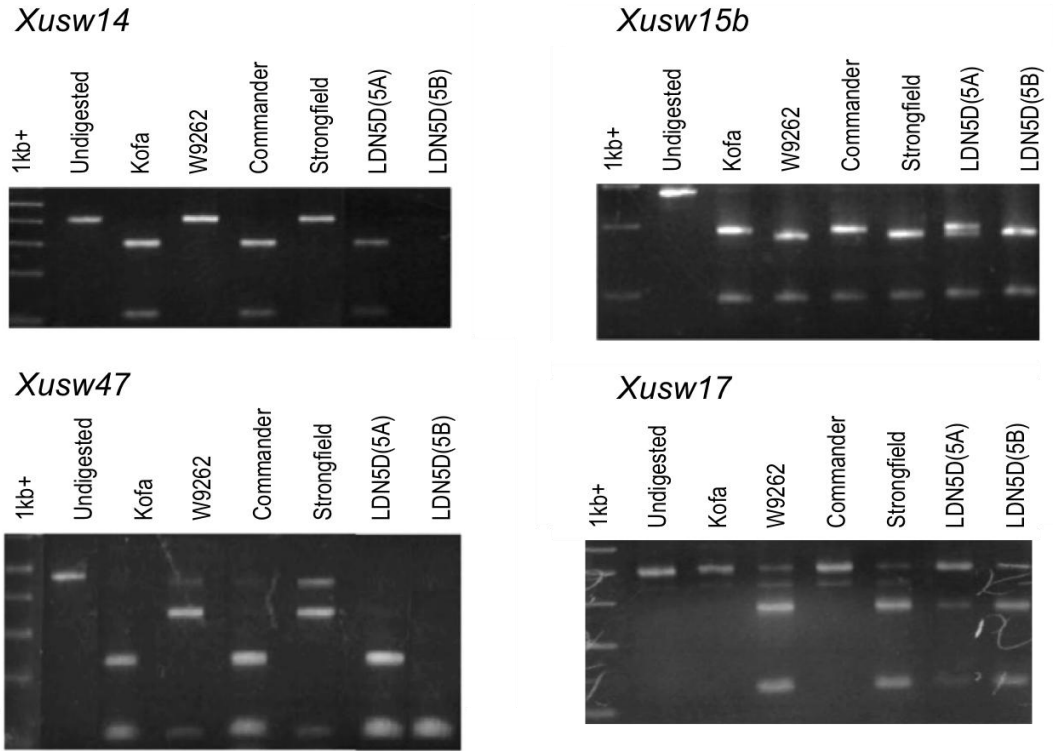
## 4.2 Fine Mapping of *Cdu-B1* in Durum Wheat

For ease of use in fine mapping, those markers that were mapped using SSCP (Fig. 4.4; Fig. 4.5; Fig. 4.8) were first converted to CAPS markers (Appendix 3 and 4), as SSCP is not conducive to high through-put genotyping of large populations typical of fine mapping populations. The PCR amplicons from *XBF474164.2*, *XBF474090.1*, *XBF293297.1*, and *Xusw15* were PCR cloned and sequenced from Kofa and W9262-260D3 to identify single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) (Appendix 3). Appropriate restriction enzymes were identified to selectively cut either the Kofa or W9262-260D3 allele. Four new CAPS markers were developed (Fig. 4.10), and based on the recommended rules for gene symbolization in wheat, were designated as *Xusw14* (*XBF474164.2*), *Xusw47* (*XBF474090.1*), *Xusw17* (*XBF273297.1*), and *Xusw15b* (*Xusw15*) (Table 4.2). The new CAPS markers genotyped the W9262-260D3/Kofa population the same as the SSCP markers from which they were developed (Fig. 4.11).

For fine mapping experiments, the flanking markers (ScOPC20, and *Xusw14*) were used first to identify recombinants within the *Cdu-B1* containing interval. *Xusw47* was also included because ScOPC20 is a dominant marker, which makes detection of recombination difficult, as it is impossible to identify heterozygotes with a dominant marker. Then, additional co-segregating markers were only scored on the recombinants.

In the Svevo/Brigade F<sub>2</sub> population, three recombinations were identified in the 521 individuals that were assayed (Table 4.3) and a genetic map was constructed (Fig. 4.11). Flanking markers (ScOPC20 and *Xusw14*) spanned an interval of 0.29 cM. Eight of the markers co-segregated and mapped 0.10 cM (one recombinant) distal to ScOPC20 (Fig. 4.11). Two recombinants (0.19 cM) separated the co-segregating markers from *Xusw14*.

The three recombinant plants identified were self-pollinated to generate F<sub>2:3</sub> families. A minimum of 16 individual plants were screened from each of the three



**Fig. 4.10** CAPS markers developed from ESMs and STS marker. Validation of CAPS markers in Langdon group 5 disomic substitution lines and known high (Kofa, Commander) and low (W9262-260D3, Strongfield) grain Cd concentration cultivar.

**Table 4.2** Marker designations for converted CAPS markers

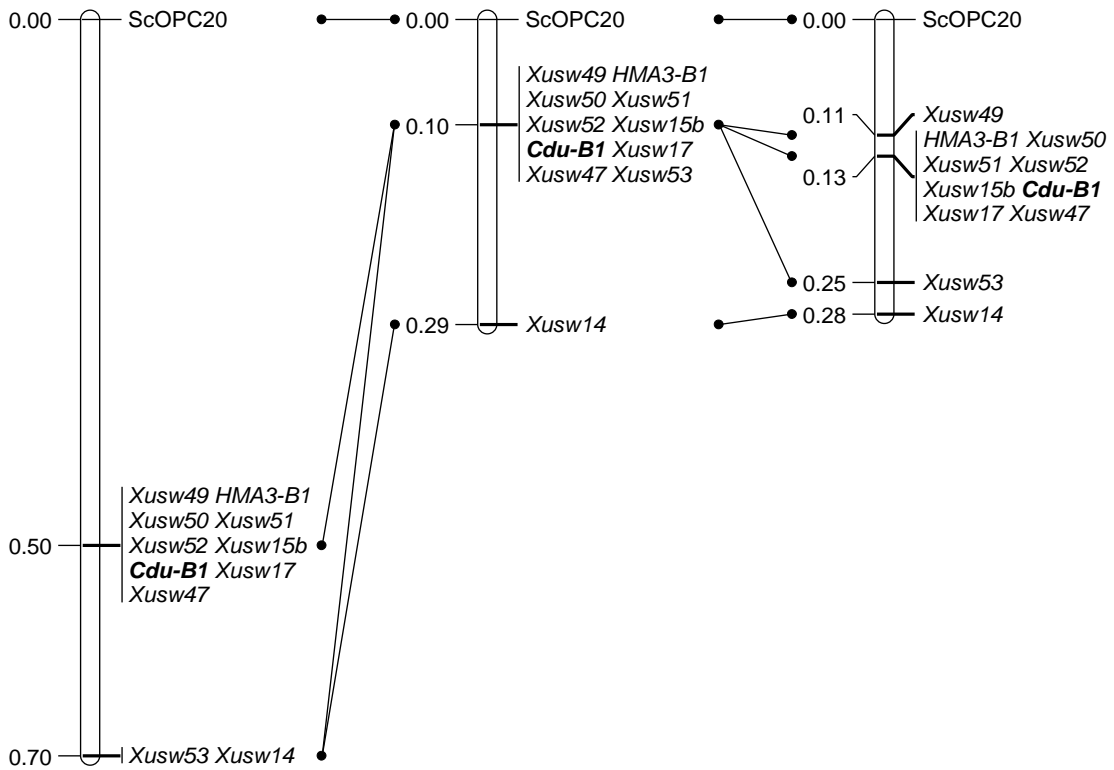
ESM or STS marker	Converted CAPS marker
<i>XBF474164.2</i>	<i>Xusw14</i>
<i>XBF474090.1</i>	<i>Xusw47</i>
<i>XBF293297.1</i>	<i>Xusw17</i>
<i>Xusw15</i>	<i>Xusw15b</i>

families, and eight lines that were homozygous for the identified recombinations were identified and grouped into one of three haplotypes (Table 4.4). All eight lines, along with parents, were phenotyped for grain Cd concentration (Table 4.4). Brigade showed 48% less grain Cd than Svevo (Table 4.4) and would thus be classified as low grain Cd concentration because the high grain Cd concentration durum phenotype contains 45-60% more grain Cd when compared to low grain Cd concentration durum phenotype (Harris and Taylor 2004; Hart et al. 2006). Three lines with haplotype 3 carried the

W9262-260D6/Kofa

Svevo/Brigade

8982-TL



**Fig. 4.11** Comparison of W9262-260D3/Kofa genetic saturation map, Svevo/Brigade genetic fine map, and 8982-TL genetic fine map.

**Table 4.3** Haplotype of three recombinant F<sub>2</sub> plants from the Svevo/Brigade population (a = high Cd molecular variant, b = low Cd molecular variant, h = heterozygous).

F <sub>2</sub> Plant ID	ScOPC20	Xusw49	Xusw50	Xusw51	Xusw52	Xusw15b	Xusw17	Xusw47	Xusw53	Xusw14
D09.42-F2-037	a	a	a	a	a	a	a	a	a	h
D09.42-F2-115	b	h	h	h	h	h	h	h	h	h
D09.42-F2-384	h	h	h	h	h	h	h	h	h	a
Svevo	a	a	a	a	a	a	a	a	a	a
Brigade	b	b	b	b	b	b	b	b	b	b

**Table 4.4** Haplotype groupings of homozygous  $F_{2:3}$  lines derived from recombinant  $F_2$  lines from the Svevo/Brigade population. The mean grain Cd concentration ( $\text{ng g}^{-1}$ ), standard error of the means (SEM), and classification of each haplotype into high or low grain Cd concentration. The number of  $F_{2:3}$  lines classified into each haplotype group are presented. a = high Cd molecular variant, b = low Cd molecular variant.

No. of homozygous $F_{2:3}$ Families	ScOPC20	$X_{USW49}$	<i>HMA3-B1</i>	$X_{USW50}$	$X_{USW51}$	$X_{USW52}$	$X_{USW15b}$	$X_{USW17}$	$X_{USW47}$	$X_{USW53}$	$X_{USW14}$	Grain Cd ( $\text{ng g}^{-1}$ )	SEM ( $\text{ng g}^{-1}$ )	Classification
Haplotype 1 (n=3)	a	a	a	a	a	a	a	a	a	a	b	630	15	<b>High</b>
Haplotype 2 (n=2)	b	a	a	a	a	a	a	a	a	a	a	665	75	<b>High</b>
Haplotype 3 (n=3)	b	b	b	b	b	b	b	b	b	b	a	300	15	<b>Low</b>
Svevo	a	a	a	a	a	a	a	a	a	a	a	500	21	<b>High</b>
Brigade	b	b	b	b	b	b	b	b	b	b	b	260	30	<b>Low</b>

Svevo (high) molecular variant at *Xusw14* and all three expressed low grain Cd like Brigade (Table 4.4). Haplotype 2 showed the Brigade (low) molecular variant at ScOPC20, but expressed high grain Cd (Table 4.4). Taken together, it was concluded that the *Cdu-B1* locus was flanked by ScOPC20 and *Xusw14*, and was associated with the eight co-segregating markers.

The results from the Svevo/Brigade F<sub>2</sub> population did not improve the genetic resolution at *Cdu-B1*, so a second, larger F<sub>2</sub> population was developed. For the second population (herein designated as 8982-TL population), two near isogenic lines (8982-TL-Low/8982-TL-High (Clarke et al. 1997a) for *Cdu-B1* were crossed to produce and an F<sub>2</sub> population of 3558 F<sub>2</sub> plants, which was used for mapping. *Cdu-B1* and *Vrn-B1* markers were screened on parents of the 8982-TL F<sub>2</sub> population. Results showed that the 8982-TL population is not segregating for *Vrn-B1* and therefore confirmed *Cdu-B1* is not associated with genes *PCS2* and *Xwg644* (Appendix 5). In total, 20 F<sub>2</sub> plants were identified with recombinations between ScOPC20 and *Xusw14* (Table 4.5). The remaining eight co-segregating markers were scored on the population, and the resulting data generated a final map which spanned 0.28 cM (Fig. 4.11). No recombination was detected between *Xusw50*, *Xusw51*, *Xusw52*, *Xusw15b*, *Xusw17*, and *Xusw47*, but a single recombination was detected between this cluster of markers and *Xusw49* (Table 4.5). Two recombinants were identified with between *Xusw53* and *Xusw14* (Table 4.5).

The 20 recombinant F<sub>2</sub> plants were self-pollinated, and individuals from the resulting F<sub>2:3</sub> families were screened to identify 20 lines homozygous for recombination and these were classified into one of seven haplotypes (Table 4.6). Four F<sub>2:3</sub> individuals homozygous for the low grain Cd concentration molecular variant (haplotype 2) at *Xusw53* and *Xusw14* expressed high grain Cd concentration like 8982-TL-H, the high Cd parent (Table 4.6). Lines with haplotype 1 expressed high grain Cd, but the low molecular variant at *Xusw14* (Table 4.6). Taken together, these data show that *Xusw53* flanks *Cdu-B1* distally. Two F<sub>2:3</sub> lines homozygous for the high molecular variant at ScOPC20 and *Xusw49* expressed grain Cd concentration similar to 8982-TL-L, the low Cd parent. Of all 20 F<sub>2:3</sub> individuals screened, only Haplotypes 3-6 expressed low grain Cd (Table 4.6). Taken together, *Cdu-B1* maps 0.02 cM distal to *Xusw49*, and 0.12 cM proximal to *Xusw53* in the 8982-TL population (Fig. 4.11).

**Table 4.5** Haplotype of 20 recombinant F<sub>2</sub> plants from the 8982-TL fine mapping population (a = high Cd molecular variant, b = low Cd molecular variant, h = heterozygous).

F <sub>2</sub> Plant ID	<i>ScOPC20</i>	<i>Xusw49</i>	<i>Xusw50</i>	<i>Xusw51</i>	<i>Xusw52</i>	<i>Xusw15b</i>	<i>Xusw17</i>	<i>Xusw47</i>	<i>Xusw53</i>	<i>Xusw14</i>
8982-TL-L/H-F2-0874	a	a	a	a	a	a	a	a	a	h
8982-TL-L/H-F2-1153	a	a	a	a	a	a	a	a	h	h
8982-TL-L/H-F2-2306	a	a	a	a	a	a	a	a	h	h
8982-TL-L/H-F2-3006	a	a	a	a	a	a	a	a	h	h
8982-TL-L/H-F2-1451	b	b	b	b	b	b	b	b	h	h
8982-TL-L/H-F2-2332	h	b	b	b	b	b	b	b	b	b
8982-TL-L/H-F2-3365	h	b	b	b	b	b	b	b	b	b
8982-TL-L/H-F2-3397	h	b	b	b	b	b	b	b	b	b
8982-TL-L/H-F2-3860	h	b	b	b	b	b	b	b	b	b
8982-TL-L/H-F2-3823	h	h	b	b	b	b	b	b	b	b
8982-TL-L/H-F2-2124	h	h	h	h	h	h	h	h	h	a
8982-TL-L/H-F2-0565	h	h	h	h	h	h	h	h	a	a
8982-TL-L/H-F2-0774	h	h	h	h	h	h	h	h	a	a
8982-TL-L/H-F2-2063	h	h	h	h	h	h	h	h	a	a
8982-TL-L/H-F2-1912	h	h	h	h	h	h	h	h	b	b
8982-TL-L/H-F2-2619	h	h	h	h	h	h	h	h	b	b
8982-TL-L/H-F2-0633	b	h	h	h	h	h	h	h	h	h
8982-TL-L/H-F2-2394	b	h	h	h	h	h	h	h	h	h
8982-TL-L/H-F2-2466	b	h	h	h	h	h	h	h	h	h
8982-TL-L/H-F2-3975	b	h	h	h	h	h	h	h	h	h
8982-TL-L	b	b	b	b	b	b	b	b	b	b
8982-TL-H	a	a	a	a	a	a	a	a	a	a

Observed molecular variant frequencies in both F<sub>2</sub> fine populations differed from expected frequencies based on Chi squared ( $\chi^2$ ) tests (Table 4.7), indicating segregation distortion was present in both populations. Expected ratios for co-dominant markers in an F<sub>2</sub> population would be 1a:2h:1b (where “a” was the high Cd parent molecular variant; “b” was the low Cd parent molecular variant) and 3a:1b for dominant markers. In the Svevo/Brigade population a greater number of “b” molecular variants (molecular variant of the low Cd parent) were observed for all markers screened (Chi squared P value <0.0001) (Table 4.7). In contrast, segregation distortion was less pronounced but favored the “a” molecular variant (Chi square P value <0.05) in the 8982-TL population (Table 4.7).



**Table 4.6** Haplotype groupings of homozygous F<sub>2:3</sub> lines derived from recombinant F<sub>2</sub> lines from the 8982-TL mapping population. The mean grain Cd concentration (ng g<sup>-1</sup>), standard error of the means (SEM), and classification of each haplotype into high or low grain Cd concentration. The number of F<sub>2:3</sub> lines classified into each haplotype group are presented. a = high Cd molecular variant, b = low Cd molecular variant.

No. of homozygous F <sub>2:3</sub> Families	ScOPC20	X <sub>usw49</sub>	HMA3-B1	X <sub>usw50</sub>	X <sub>usw51</sub>	X <sub>usw52</sub>	X <sub>usw15b</sub>	X <sub>usw17</sub>	X <sub>usw47</sub>	X <sub>usw53</sub>	X <sub>usw14</sub>	Grain Cd (ng g <sup>-1</sup> )	SEM (ng g <sup>-1</sup> )	Classification
Haplotype 1 (n=1)	a	a	a	a	a	a	a	a	a	a	b	680	-	High
Haplotype 2 (n=4)	a	a	a	a	a	a	a	a	a	b	b	623	34	High
Haplotype 3 (n=2)	a	a	b	b	b	b	b	b	b	b	b	220	10	Low
Haplotype 4 (n=4)	a	b	b	b	b	b	b	b	b	b	b	213	21	Low
Haplotype 5 (n=1)	b	b	b	b	b	b	b	b	b	b	a	230	-	Low
Haplotype 6 (n=4)	b	b	b	b	b	b	b	b	b	a	a	195	23	Low
Haplotype 7 (n=4)	b	a	a	a	a	a	a	a	a	a	a	595	89	High
8982-TL-H	a	a	a	a	a	a	a	a	a	a	a	690	98	High
8982-TL-L	b	b	b	b	b	b	b	b	b	b	b	198	23	Low

**Table 4.7** Molecular variant frequencies and chi sq ( $\chi^2$ ) tests for expected segregation ratios for two F<sub>2</sub> populations. For each marker “a” represents the molecular variant for from the high Cd parent, and “b” represents for the low Cd parent. Heterozygous F<sub>2</sub> plants were scored as “h”.

Locus	Ratio Tested <sup>a</sup>	Svevo x Brigade					8982-TL				
		a	h	b	$\chi^2$	$\chi^2$ P-value <sup>b</sup>	a	h	b	$\chi^2$	$\chi^2$ P-value <sup>b</sup>
ScOPC20	3:-:1	259	-	262	175	0.0001	2734	-	830	5.57	0.05
<i>Xusw49</i>	1:2:1	83	177	261	175.16	0.0001	954	1778	826	9.21	0.01
<i>Xusw50</i>	1:2:1	83	177	261	175.16	0.0001	954	1777	827	9.07	0.05
<i>Xusw51</i>	1:2:1	83	177	261	175.16	0.0001	954	1777	827	9.07	0.05
<i>Xusw52</i>	1:2:1	83	177	261	175.16	0.0001	954	1777	827	9.07	0.05
<i>Xusw15b</i>	1:2:1	83	177	261	175.16	0.0001	955	1777	827	9.21	0.01
<i>Xusw17</i>	1:2:1	83	177	261	175.16	0.0001	955	1777	827	9.21	0.01
<i>Xusw47</i>	1:2:1	83	177	261	175.16	0.0001	955	1780	828	9.06	0.05
<i>Xusw53</i>	1:2:1	83	177	261	175.16	0.0001	955	1779	829	8.92	0.05
<i>Xusw14</i>	1:2:1	83	177	261	175.16	0.0001	955	1779	830	8.78	0.05

<sup>a</sup>Expected ratios tested were a:h (heterozygous):b. For ScOPC20, it was not possible to identify heterozygotes as this marker is dominant in nature. Thus the expected ratio is a:-:b.

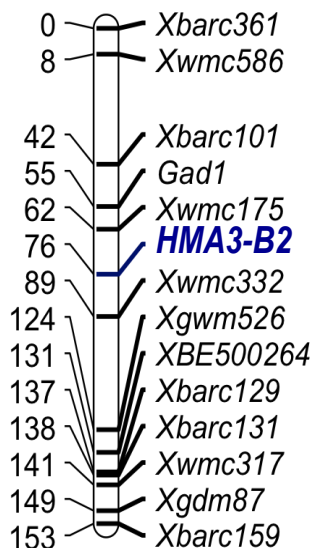
<sup>b</sup>Probability that deviations from expected ratio are due to chance alone.

### 4.3 Sequencing and Mapping of *HMA3* Orthologues in Durum Wheat

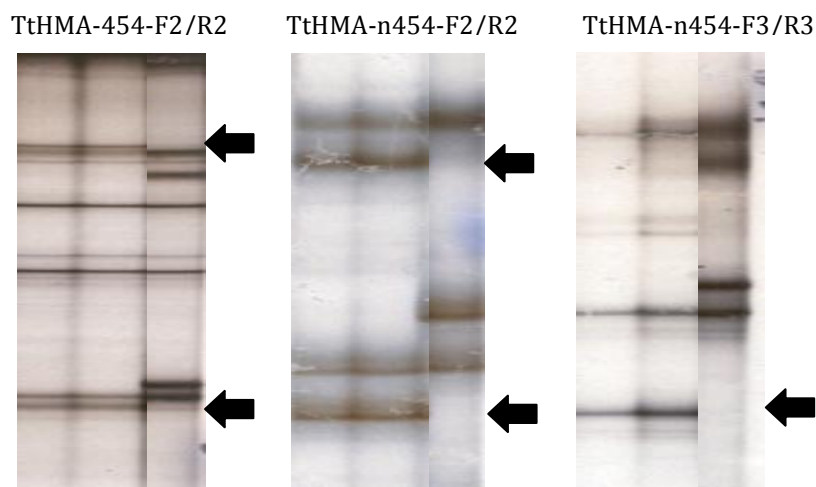
A recent report has implicated *OsHMA3* as a gene that is responsible for limiting root to shoot translocation of Cd, and reduced grain Cd concentration in rice grain (section 2.3.2). Several primers were designed from the sequence of *OsHMA3* to amplify the orthologous sequence in durum wheat, and one pair (TtHMA3-B2-F/R) produced polymorphic fragments between Kofa and W9262-260D3. The polymorphic fragment mapped to chromosomes 2B and was designated as *HMA3-B2* (Fig. 4.12). *HMA3-B2* was not significantly associated with grain Cd concentration in the W9262-260D3/Kofa mapping population.

Given that large HMA-protein families exist in most plants (Baxter et al. 2003), the *OsHMA3* CDS sequence were used to search against the current 5X shotgun sequence assembly of the cultivar “Chinese Spring” using BLASTn. In total 23 contigs were identified (e value < e<sup>-5</sup>) and from these, 13 new primers were designed. Primer

amplicons for these were first screened in the LDN5D(5B) disomic substitution line to determine if any of the amplicons localized to chromosome 5B. Three amplicons were identified on chromosome 5B. (Fig. 4.13). However, none of these primers produced polymorphic fragments between Kofa and W9262-260D3 when assayed using SSCP (Fig. 4.13).

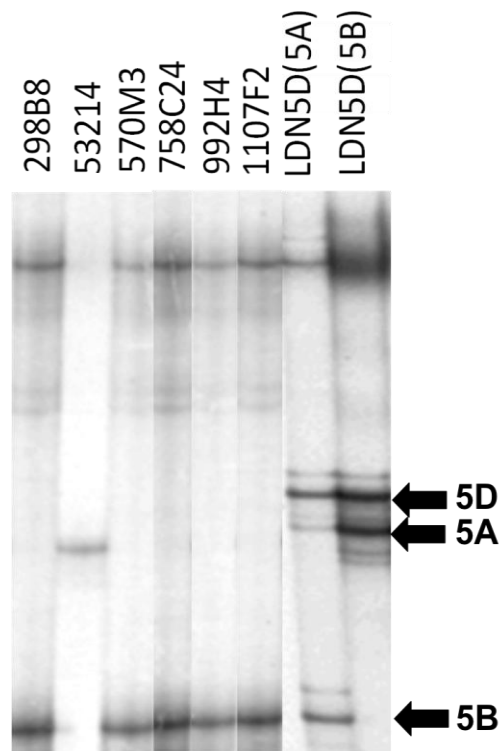


**Fig. 4.12** Genetic position of *HMA3-B2* on a portion of chromosome 2B in the W9262-260D3/Kofa mapping population.



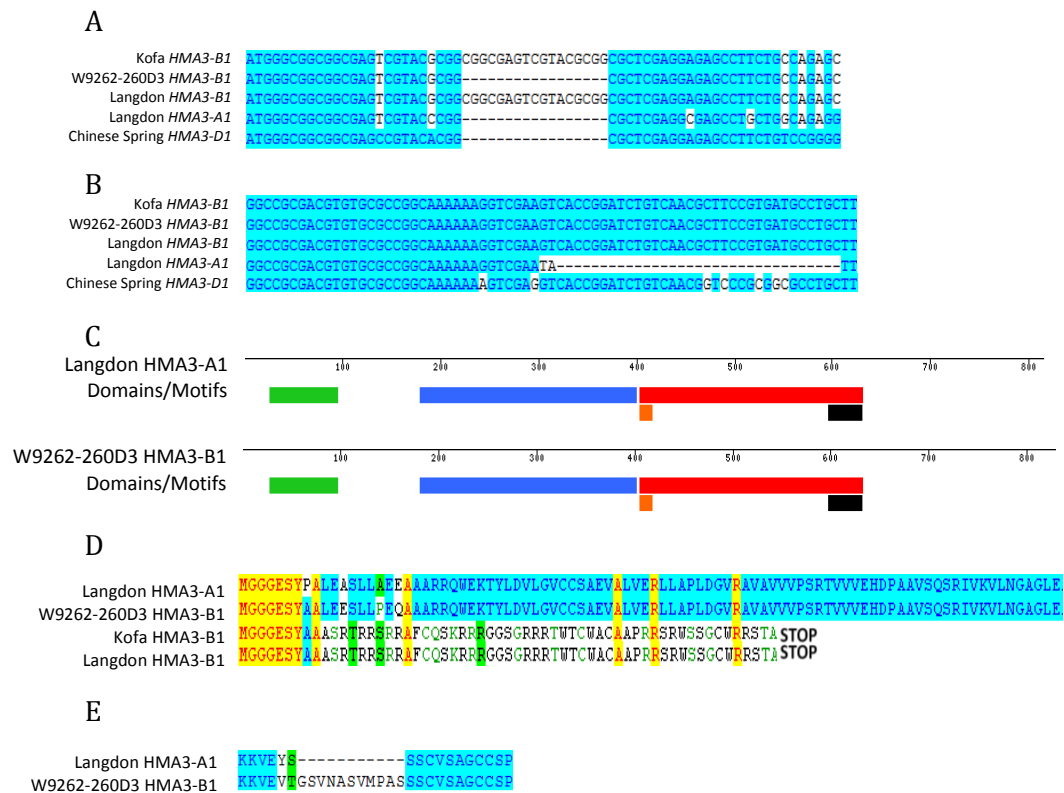
**Fig. 4.13** *HMA3* primers localized to chromosome 5B in wheat. For all primers lane 1 is Kofa, lane 2 is W9262-260D3, and lane 3 is LDN5D(5B). Arrows indicate those amplicons that localize to 5B as they are absent in the substitution line. The additional amplicons present in the substitution line not present in Kofa or W9262-260D3 localize to chromosome 5D.

Given the association of *OsHMA3* in rice with variation in grain Cd concentration and the physical mapping of an orthologous gene to chromosome 5B of wheat, mapping of this gene in durum wheat became a high priority. To obtain full length genomic DNA of *HMA3* from durum wheat, a BAC library derived from the cultivar Langdon (Cenci et al. 2003) was screened with primers TtHMA-n454-F3/R3. In total, six BACs were identified, five of which were mapped to chromosome 5B by comparing single strand conformational polymorphisms between individual BACs and LDN5D(5B) and LDN5D(5A) (Fig. 4.14). A single BAC localized to chromosome 5A (Fig. 4.14). One BAC was selected from chromosome 5A (532J14) and one from 5B (298B8) for sequencing using a combination of Roche 454 Titanium and Illumina platforms. Hybrid assemblies were generated for both BACs and both were assembled in their entirety into single scaffolds. 298B8 and 532J14 assembled into 166,999 bp and 124,137 bp respectively. Sequences of these BACs have been submitted to NCBI under the accession numbers JX454959 (298B8) and JX454960 (532J14).



**Fig. 4.14** Localization of *HMA3* BACs to chromosome 5A and 5B using SSCP.

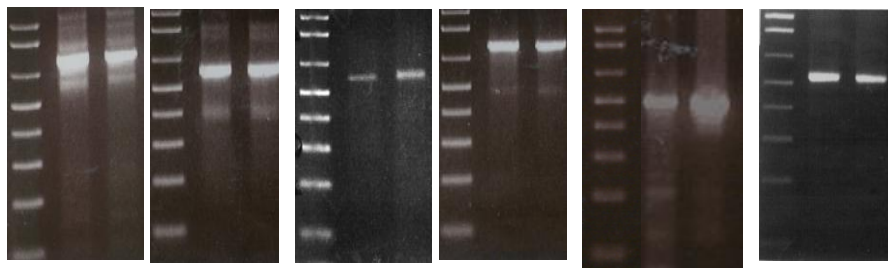
FGENESH predicted full-length genomic sequences of *HMA3* from both 5A and 5B-derived BACs (Appendix 6), and these were designated as *HMA3-A1* and *HMA3-B1*, respectively. The genomic sequence of *HMA3-A1* was 2905 bp in length, coding for six predicted exons and was smaller than the 2978 bp sequence of *HMA3-B1*. The genomic sequences were 92% similar, but the Langdon *HMA-B1* could be easily differentiated by a 17 bp duplication in the first exon (Fig. 4.15a) and a 33 bp insertion/deletion (INDEL) in the last predicted exon (Fig. 4.15b). Predicted *HMA3-A1* and *HMA3-B1* coding sequencing showed 80% and 79% identity respectively with rice *OsHMA3* and 85% and 84% identity with *Brachypodium* orthologue *BdHMA3*.



**Fig. 4.15** *HMA3* sequencing a) Nucleotide sequence from the first 70 bp of wheat *HMA3-A1* and *HMA3-B1* including 17 bp duplication b) nucleotide sequence of 70 bp from 3' end including 33bp INDEL c) conserved protein domains/motifs identified for *HMA3-B1* from W9262-260D3 and *HMA3-A1* from Langdon aligned against amino acid sequences (green – heavy metal associated domain; blue – ATPase domain; red – hydrolase domain; orange – P-ATPase; black – COF 2). d) Protein sequence from the first 90 amino acids of wheat *HMA3-A1* and *HMA3-B1* proteins including premature stop codon due to 17bp duplication. e) Protein sequence from the last 28 amino acids of wheat *HMA3-A1* and *HMA3-B1* including 11 amino acid deletion.

Partial sequence of *HMA3-D1*, the *D* genome homoeologue was obtained by using BLASTx against the chromosome 5DL survey sequence (<http://urgi.versailles.inra.fr/Species/Wheat/Sequence-Repository>) derived from the cultivar Chinese Spring. Two contigs were identified that, together, represent nearly a full-length sequence (Appendix 6). A small portion of the 3' sequence is missing (around 38 bp) as well as 224 bp after the 2463 bp. At the 5' end of the sequence, *HMA3-D1* lacked the 17bp duplication present in *HMA3-B1* present in Langdon, similar to *HMA3-A1*. In contrast, at the 3' end of the *HMA3-D1* sequence contained the 33 bp sequence absent in *HMA3-A1*, but present in the Langdon sequence of *HMA3-B1* (Fig. 4.15b).

To identify allelic variation at *HMA3-B1*, six primer sets were designed from the full length Langdon sequence of *HMA3-B1* to amplify overlapping, contiguous fragments to generate full length genomic sequence from Kofa and W9262-260D3 (Fig. 4.16). Alignment of *HMA3-B1* sequences revealed that the W9262-260D3 sequence was 98% similar to the *HMA3-B1* from BAC 298B8 (Appendix 6). In contrast, the sequence from Kofa was identical to the 298B8 sequence, and when compared to W9262-260D3, both Kofa and Langdon alleles contained a 17 bp duplication 27 bp from the start codon (Fig. 4.15a). Predicted protein sequence (Appendix 7) from the Kofa and Langdon *HMA3-B1* sequence revealed the 17 bp duplication results in a premature stop codon, and thus a severely truncated, non-functional protein.

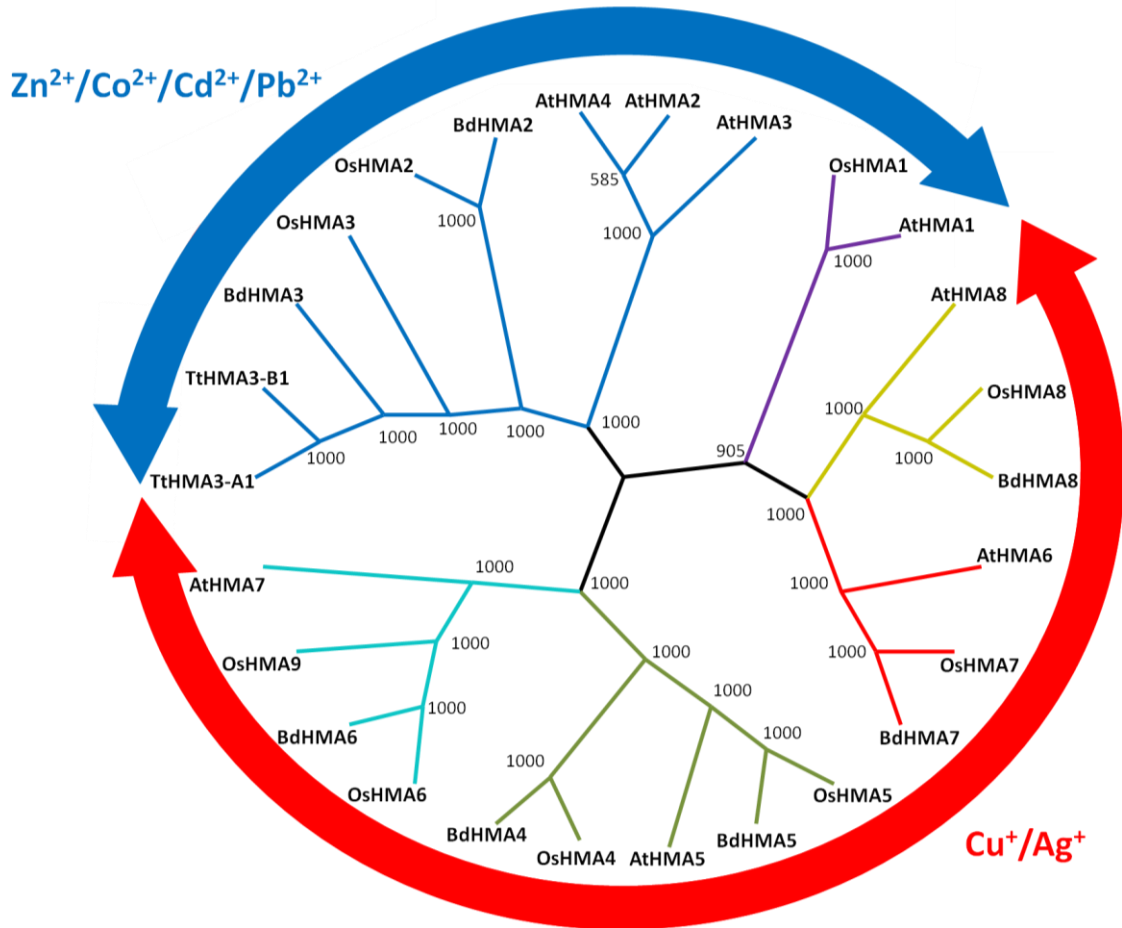


**Fig. 4.16** Primer sets for sequencing *HMA3-B1* from Kofa (lane 1) and W9262-260D3 (lane 2). Primer sets from left to right HMA3-F1/R1, HMA3-F2/R2, HMA3-F3/R3, HMA3-F4/R4, HMA3-F5/R5, and HMA3-F6/R6. 1kb+ ladder to the left of each primer sets.

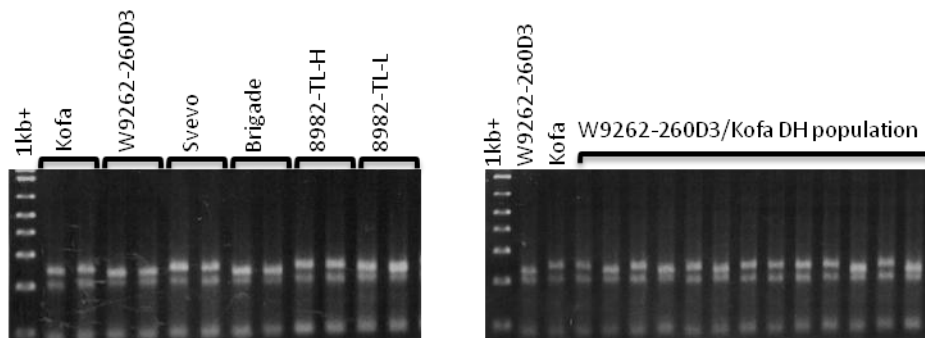
Predicted protein sequences for *HMA3-A1* and *HMA3-B1* genes were scanned for conserved protein domains and motifs ([http://myhits.isb-sib.ch/cgi-bin/motif\\_scan](http://myhits.isb-sib.ch/cgi-bin/motif_scan)). The Langdon *HMA3-A1* and the W9262-260D3 *HMA3-B1* predicted proteins contained three predicted conserved domains including a heavy metal associated domain, an ATPase domain, and a hydrolase domain, and two motifs including a P-ATPase motif, and COF 2 predicted hydrolase motif (Fig. 4.15c). No conserved protein domains were predicted from the Langdon and Kofa *HMA3-B1* sequence as the predicted protein sequence contained a premature stop codon (Fig. 4.15d) and therefore a severely truncated protein. The Langdon *HMA3-A1* predicted protein did not show any conserved domains or motifs in the C terminus, nor did the W9262-260D3 *HMA3-B1* predicted protein. However, the Langdon *HMA3-A1* predicted protein showed an eleven amino acid deletion when compared to *HMA3-B1* from W9262-260D3 (Fig 4.15e).

Multiple *HMA* genes have been sequenced and characterized from rice, *Brachypodium*, and *Arabidopsis*. To determine the similarity between *HMA3-A1* and *HMA3-B1* and other *HMA* genes, a sequence similarity dendrogram was constructed using only CDS (Fig. 4.17). The *HMA* genes grouped into six clades (Fig. 4.17; Baxter et al. 2003; Williams and Mills 2005) and *HMA3-A1* and *HMA3-B1* belong to clade 2 which is characterized by a HMA domain with CCxx motif (in place of the CxxC motif which is thought to be involved in metal binding) in the N terminus and multiple CC motifs in the C terminus.

To determine if the 17 bp duplication identified between Kofa and W9262-260D3 was associated with variation in grain Cd concentration, primers flanking the 17 bp duplication were designed and evaluated for polymorphism. The primer *HMA3-B1*-F/R amplified the expected 297 bp fragment from Kofa, and a 280 bp fragment was amplified from W9262-260D3 (Fig. 4.18). The fragment was mapped in the W9262-260D3/Kofa mapping population (Fig. 4.18) and co-segregated with *Cdu-B1* (Fig. 4.5; Fig. 4.7; Fig. 4.11). The effect of the W9262-260D3 *HMA3-B1* allele was to reduced grain Cd by 90 ng g<sup>-1</sup> in the DH mapping population (Table 4.1). The primer was also tested in the parents of the two fine mapping populations, and Svevo and 8982-TL-H (both high Cd accumulators) produced a banding pattern like Kofa, and the two low



**Fig. 4.17** *HMA* dendrogram. Different color lines represent different *HMA* groups (Baxter et al. 2003) (purple = group 1, blue = group 2, green = group 3, aqua = group 4, red = group 5, and orange = group 6). Arrows indicate putative function of *HMA* (blue =  $Zn^{2+}/Co^{2+}/Cd^{2+}/Pb^{2+}$  metal transporters, and red =  $Cu^{+}/Ag^{+}$  metal transporters). 1000 replicates used for bootstrapping.



**Fig. 4.18** *HMA3-B1* 17 bp duplication in parents of populations as well as a portion of the W9262-260D3/Kofa DH population.



accumulating parents Brigade and 8982-TL produced amplicons identical in size to W9262-260D3 (Fig. 4.18). HMA3-B1-F/R was scored on the recombinant F<sub>2:3</sub> families (from the two fine mapping populations (Tables 4.5 and 4.7)), and in both cases, co-segregated with *Cdu-B1* (Fig. 4.11).

*HMA3-B1* co-segregated with several genes that were colinear on rice chromosome 3 and *Brachypodium* chromosome 1 (Fig 4.7). However, no sequences similar to *HMA3-B1* were identified in these colinear regions. *HMA3-B1* was most similar to *OsHMA3* and *BdHMA3*, which localize to chromosomes 7 and 1, respectively. These results suggest a break in colinearity between wheat-rice-*Brachypodium* in the *Cdu-B1* interval.

#### 4.4. Validation of Molecular Markers Linked to *Cdu-B1* in Durum Wheat

A diverse set of 96 durum wheat cultivars and breeding lines was used to determine if the 17 bp duplication identified from sequencing experiments of *HMA3-B1* was associated with variation in grain Cd. Grain Cd concentration was collected for all 96 lines over two years. Averaged over both years, grain Cd concentrations ranged from 59 ng g<sup>-1</sup> to 296 ng g<sup>-1</sup> (Table 4.8). The majority of cultivars and breeding lines could be classified into either high (>136 ng g<sup>-1</sup>) or low (<121 ng g<sup>-1</sup>) grain Cd accumulators. The majority of accessions (66.7%) expressed high grain Cd with an average concentration of 203 ng g<sup>-1</sup>. In contrast, the average concentration of low accumulators over two years of testing was 85 ng g<sup>-1</sup>. Consistent with previous results (Knox et al. 2009), Kofa expressed high grain Cd concentration (276 ng g<sup>-1</sup>) and was similar to Kronos (296 ng g<sup>-1</sup>) and Westbred 881 (254 ng g<sup>-1</sup>). Commander (292 ng g<sup>-1</sup>), and AC Navigator (Clarke et al. 2001) (296 ng g<sup>-1</sup>) are derived from Westbred 881 and both expressed high grain Cd. CDC Verona (90 ng g<sup>-1</sup>), Strongfield (88 ng g<sup>-1</sup>) and Napoleon (109 ng g<sup>-1</sup>) are low Cd accumulating varieties, and all three expressed grain Cd concentrations 167 ng g<sup>-1</sup> less than Kofa. Within each of the high and low groupings, variation in grain Cd was still evident. Borli (61 ng g<sup>-1</sup>), Camacho (63 ng g<sup>-1</sup>), and Buck Topacio (78 ng g<sup>-1</sup>) expressed significantly lower (P<0.05) grain Cd than Strongfield and CDC Verona. Langdon(DIC-6B) (Joppa and Cantrell 1990) (264 ng g<sup>-1</sup>), which carries the high protein gene *Gpc-B1* (Chee et al. 2001) was

**Table 4.8** Haplotyping of Durum cultivars and breeding lines using CAPS markers, *ScOPC20* and *HMA3-B1* marker. Cd concentration in ng g<sup>-1</sup>. Molecular variant “a” is “Kofa-like” and “high Cd”, “b” is “W9262-260D3-like” and “low Cd, and “H” is heterogenous.

High Grain Cd Accumulators																	
Cultivar	Origin	Cd Concentration	Classification	<i>ScOPC20</i>	<i>Xusw17</i>	<i>Xusw47</i>	<i>Xusw15b</i>	<i>HMA-B1</i>	Cultivar	Origin	Cd Concentration	Classification	<i>ScOPC20</i>	<i>Xusw17</i>	<i>Xusw47</i>	<i>Xusw15b</i>	<i>HMA-B1</i>
Avonlea	CDN	214	H	H	a	a	a	a	Nacori97	Mexico	225	H	a	a	a	a	a
AC Pathfinder	CDN	223	H	a	a	a	a	a	DHTON1	Morocco	219	H	a	a	a	a	a
Morse	CDN	187	H	a	a	a	a	a	Gidara17a	Morocco	170	H	a	a	a	a	a
AC Navigator	CDN	296	H	a	a	a	a	a	D940098	ND-USDA	181	H	a	a	a	a	a
Kyle	CDN	215	H	a	a	a	a	a	D941038	ND-USDA	223	H	a	a	a	a	a
Commander	CDN	292	H	a	a	a	a	a	D95580	ND-USDA	205	H	a	a	a	a	a
D24-1773	CDN	212	H	a	a	a	a	a	Plaza	ND-USDA	248	H	a	a	a	a	a
DT513	CDN	181	H	a	a	a	a	a	Durex	U.S.	214	H	a	a	a	a	a
DT532	CDN	193	H	a	a	a	a	a	Langdon	U.S.	159	H	a	a	a	a	a
DT536	CDN	165	H	a	a	a	a	a	Langdon(DIC-6B)	U.S.	264	H	a	a	a	a	a
44616	Iran	216	H	a	a	a	a	a	Westbred881	U.S.	254	H	a	a	a	a	a
BICumenary	Argentina	249	H	a	a	a	a	a	Kofa	U.S.	276	H	a	a	a	a	a
Bquillaco	Argentina	187	H	a	a	a	a	a	Kronos	U.S.	296	H	a	a	a	a	a
Bvalverde	Argentina	213	H	a	a	a	a	a	Arrivato	New Zealand	217	H	a	a	a	a	a
BuckAmbar	Argentina	226	H	a	a	a	a	a	K-39099	Russia	136	H	a	a	a	a	a
920334	Australia	240	H	a	a	a	a	a	44721	Iran	208	H	a	a	a	a	a
940030	Australia	242	H	a	a	a	a	a	Ciccio	Italy	201	H	a	a	a	a	a
940435	Australia	267	H	a	a	a	a	a	CRDW17	Iran	161	H	a	a	a	a	a
950090	Australia	183	H	a	a	a	a	a	D-73-15	Iran	182	H	a	a	a	a	a
950844	Australia	193	H	a	a	a	a	a	Medda	Italy	123	H	a	a	a	a	a
940955	Australia	211	H	a	a	a	a	a	Mongibello	Italy	242	H	a	a	a	a	a
Carioca	France	203	H	a	a	a	a	a	Parsifal	Italy	156	H	a	a	a	a	a
Simeto	Italy	171	H	a	a	a	a	a	Svevo	Italy	159	H	H	H	H	H	H
Tetradur	France	257	H	a	a	a	a	a	Tresor	Italy	193	H	a	a	a	a	a
Wollaroi	Australia	229	H	a	a	a	a	a	Agridur	Spain	176	H	a	a	a	a	a
Durabon	Germany	165	H	a	a	a	a	a	Ariesol	Spain	268	H	a	a	a	a	a
Durafit	Germany	141	H	a	a	a	a	a	Mexa	Spain	263	H	a	a	a	a	a
Colosseo	Italy	187	H	a	a	a	a	a	Vitron	Spain	191	H	a	a	a	a	a
Duillio	Italy	161	H	a	a	a	a	a	Ocotillo	Arizona	217	H	a	a	a	a	a
Grazia	Italy	205	H	a	a	a	a	a	Average		203						
Fortore	Italy	181	H	a	a	a	a	a	Minimum		136						
Lesina	Italy	194	H	a	a	a	a	a	Maximum		296						
Varano	Italy	173	H	a	a	a	a	a									

Low Grain Cd Accumulators																	
Cultivar	Origin	Cd Concentration	Classification	<i>ScOPC20</i>	<i>Xusw17</i>	<i>Xusw47</i>	<i>Xusw15b</i>	<i>HMA-B1</i>	Cultivar	Origin	Cd Concentration	Classification	<i>ScOPC20</i>	<i>Xusw17</i>	<i>Xusw47</i>	<i>Xusw15b</i>	<i>HMA-B1</i>
9661-AF1D	CDN	60	L	b	b	b	b	b	Borli	Spain	61	L	b	b	b	b	b
9661-CASE	CDN	89	L	b	b	b	b	b	BuckTopacio	Argentina	78	L	b	b	b	b	b
CDC Verona	CDN	90	L	b	b	b	b	b	Camacho	Spain	63	L	b	b	b	b	b
DT691	CDN	90	L	b	b	b	b	b	CFR5001	New Zealand	86	L	b	b	b	b	b
DT695	CDN	98	L	b	b	b	b	b	Bronte	Italy	80	L	b	b	b	b	b
DT696	CDN	121	L	H	H	H	H	H	Demetra	Italy	90	L	a	b	b	b	b
DT704	CDN	111	L	b	b	b	b	b	Flavio	Italy	59	L	b	b	b	b	b
DT705	CDN	103	L	b	b	b	b	b	Gallereta	Spain	86	L	b	b	b	b	b
DT707	CDN	82	L	b	b	b	b	b	Gianna	Italy	69	L	b	b	b	b	b
DT709	CDN	109	L	b	b	b	b	b	Green27	Mexico	98	L	b	b	b	b	b
DT710	CDN	95	L	b	b	b	b	b	Green34	Mexico	85	L	b	b	b	b	b
DT711	CDN	108	L	b	b	b	b	b	Iride	Italy	73	L	b	b	b	b	b
Napoleon	CDN	109	L	b	b	b	b	b	Marjak	Morocco	82	L	a	b	b	H	b
Strongfield	CDN	88	L	b	b	b	b	b	RABD93.40	France	72	L	b	b	b	b	b
Altar-Aos	Spain	65	L	b	b	b	b	b	Average		85						
Arcobelano	Spain	85	L	b	b	b	b	b	Minimum		59						
950329	Australia	124	L	a	H	H	H	H	Maximum		124						
Tamario	Australia	121	H	b	b	b	b	b	LSD		42						

classified as high grain Cd; higher than its isogenic parent Langdon ( $159 \text{ ng g}^{-1}$ ). Molecular variation at *Cdu-B1* was assessed in the 96 cultivars using five DNA markers (Table 4.8). ScOPC20 correctly classified all high accumulating cultivars. However, the cultivars 950329, Demetra, and Marjak all carried the high Cd molecular variant at ScOPC20, but all three expressed low grain Cd concentrations (Table 4.8). Molecular variants at *Xusw17*, *Xusw47* and *Xusw15b*, which co-segregated with *Cdu-B1* in both fine mapping populations (Fig. 4.11), agreed with the phenotypic classification into high and low Cd accumulators (Table 4.8), except for three (four in *Xusw15b*) lines. For all five markers, Svevo, DT696 and 950329 were classified as heterogeneous (containing both high and low molecular variants). DT696 and 950329 did express higher grain Cd concentrations than the average of the low Cd grouping. Svevo grain Cd concentration was  $156 \text{ ng g}^{-1}$ , and was statistically lower than the majority of high accumulators (Table 4.8). The 17 bp duplication in the Kofa and Langdon allele of *HMA3-B1* was present in all high Cd accumulators and was absent in all low lines (except heterogeneous lines) (Table 4.8), confirming the association of this duplication with variation in grain Cd concentration.

## 5.0 DISCUSSION

### 5.1 Precise Genetic Localization of *Cdu-B1* in Durum Wheat, a Forward Genetic Study

Large genetic variation for grain Cd concentration exists in durum wheat (Table 4.8) and breeding for low concentration of grain Cd is a target of breeding programs globally. To date, the genetic factor(s) associated with phenotypic variation in grain Cd concentration have not been identified in durum wheat. Gene discovery in wheat is slow because of the large genome size, repetitive nature of the genome, and the polyploid nature of the wheat genome (Li et al. 2004). As well, a reference genome sequence for wheat is not available as a source to generate polymorphic DNA markers that are required for high density and fine mapping experiments. Currently, an international effort to sequence the wheat genome is ongoing (<http://www.wheatgenome.org>), but it is not likely to be available for several years. However, several genes have been cloned in wheat using colinearity between wheat, rice and *Brachypodium* to develop DNA markers for the high density and fine mapping experiments required for positional cloning (section 2.5). A similar approach was used in this project to develop a high density map of *Cdu-B1* in durum wheat.

A first step in isolating the genetic factor(s) associated with *Cdu-B1* was to develop a dense genetic map of *Cdu-B1*. *Cdu-B1* was mapped previously as a Mendelian factor to chromosome 5BL near ScOPC20 (Knox et al. 2009). Here, ScOPC20 was localized in the CS/CS-DIC 5B population as dense genetic map exists for that population (Lu et al. 2006). Results from this study showed that ScOPC20 localizes to deletion bin 5BL9 0.76-0.79, suggesting that *Cdu-B1* also resides in the same bin. As such, available ESTs previously mapped to this bin were converted to ESMs and mapped relative to *Cdu-B1* (Appendix 1). Two ESMs (*XBF293297.1* and *XBF474090.1*) were identified to be associated with *Cdu-B1* (Fig. 4.5). Using these mapped ESMs, the region of *Cdu-B1* was found to be colinear with a 286 Kbp region of rice chromosome 3 and a 282 Kbp region of *Brachypodium* chromosome 1. However, no obvious genes that code for known metal transporters or plant metal chelators were identified in either rice or *Brachypodium* in these regions (Appendix 2). There were,

however, several breaks in microcolinearity observed between rice and *Brachypodium*. Indeed the *Xwg644* locus consists of two tandem genes coding for independent half-sized ABC transporters (Ramakrishna et al. 2002), but only a single copy exists in rice and *Brachypodium*. Also, the ESM marker derived from *XBF474090.1* localized to chromosome four in *Brachypodium*. Eight genes were identified in the *Brachypodium* colinear region not identified in the rice colinear region and conversely 20 rice genes were absent in *Brachypodium* (Fig. 4.7). However, it is not reasonable to expect perfect colinearity between wheat, rice, and *Brachypodium* because multiple breaks in microcolinearity due to inversions, deletions, duplications and other rearrangements have been reported (Bennetzen 2000; Feuillet and Keller 2002; Li and Gill 2002; Sorrells et al. 2003; Francki et al. 2004; Lagudah et al. 2006; Lu and Faris 2006; Valárik et al. 2006; Bossolini et al. 2007; Faris et al. 2008).

Despite the break in colinearity, the rice/*Brachypodium* colinear region was used to develop an additional five STS markers (*Xusw15*, *Xusw49*, *Xusw50*, *Xusw51*, and *Xusw52*) that were also associated with *Cdu-B1*. Quantitative trait locus (QTL) analysis using the W9262-260D3/Kofa DH population and data collected previously (Knox et al. 2009) confirmed that these seven markers were strongly associated with grain Cd concentration, explaining greater than 80% of the observed phenotypic variation (Table 4.1). The additional markers reduced the *Cdu-B1* interval to 0.7 cM (Fig. 4.5) and represents a significant step towards positional cloning of *Cdu-B1* and the development of DNA markers to select for reduced grain Cd concentration (section 5.4 below).

Two fine mapping populations were developed and were used to localize *Cdu-B1* to an interval with a genetic distance of less than 0.29 cM on chromosome 5BL of durum wheat (Fig. 4.11). The high density of markers reported here, coupled with the reduced genetic distance could allow for positional cloning of *Cdu-B1*. However, the success of positional cloning is not only a function of marker density, but the physical: genetic distance ratio, where a small physical distance per cM is desirable to minimize the extent of chromosome walking. Recombination frequency near *Tsn1*, which maps approximately 7 cM proximal to *Cdu-B1* (Knox et al. 2009) was initially estimated at 400 kb/cM (Faris et al. 2000). Higher resolution mapping in later studies revealed a physical to genomic distance closer to 3.18 Mb/cM (Faris et al. 2010). In the 8982-TL

population, *Cdu-B1* spanned 0.14 cM (Fig. 4.11) and if the *Tsn1* locus physical to genomic distance is indicative of the physical to genomic distance at *Cdu-B1*, the physical distance between flanking genetic markers would be estimated at approx. 446 Kb. The average size of BACs from the Langdon durum wheat library is 130 Kb (Cenci et al. 2003), and thus ten BACs would span that physical distance (depending on the extent of BAC overlap). Although the physical to genomic distance at *Tsn1* is a reasonable estimate for the *Cdu-B1* interval (given its proximity to *Cdu-B1*), recombination frequencies are variable throughout the genome and even genetically linked loci can have large physical to genetic distance ratios. Generally, large physical to genetic distances are the result of recombination suppression. This was observed at the powdery mildew resistance locus in barley (*Mla*). This study showed *Mla* to repress recombination with a physical to genetic distance of 5.6 Mb/cM while just proximal the physical to genetic distance ratio was calculated at 140 kb/cM (Wei et al 2002). Physical to genetic distance also vary in wheat: approximately 1.25 Mb/cM for *Gpc-B1* (Distelfeld et al. 2006), 0.33 Mb/cM for the domestication locus (Q) (Faris et al. 2003), 1.5 Mb/cM for *VRN2* (Yan et al. 2004), and around 2.24 Mb/cM for *Yr36* (Fu et al. 2009), with a genome average calculated at 4.4 Mb/cM (Faris and Gill 2002).

Despite the large number of F<sub>2</sub> lines screened in the 8982-TL population, it was not possible to identify recombinations between *Cdu-B1* and the six co-segregating markers. Perhaps if additional F<sub>2</sub> plants were screened, recombinations could have been identified that would have allowed more precise localization of *Cdu-B1*. Larger populations allow for greater sampling of recombination and are required to precisely map DNA markers particularly for those that are very closely linked. Radiation mapping has also been used in mapping studies and is of particular interest, as it does not rely on recombination. Using this approach in wheat, Kalavacharla et al. (2006) estimated resolution at about 199 kb/break.

The population size used in this study is larger than most that have been used in fine mapping studies of wheat. For fine mapping of *Gpc-B1* a total of 935 gametes were used (Distelfeld et al. 2006), 2719 F<sub>2</sub> plants were used to fine map *Tsn1* (Lu and Faris 2006) and 3095 F<sub>2</sub> plants *VRN1* (Yan et al. 2003). The lack of recombination between markers could indicate that the markers are physically very close on chromosome 5BL

or alternatively, supports that recombination around the *Cdu-B1* locus is suppressed. Recombination suppression is common near centromeres where DNA is tightly packed into heterochromatic chromatin, which restricts chiasmata formation and chromatid crossovers (Fan et al. 2011). However, *Cdu-B1* is distal from the centromere, thus it is not likely that centromere related suppression is acting in the populations used here. Structural rearrangements along the chromosome could also cause recombination suppression such as an inversion or an alien introgression, as observed in Neu et al. (2002). An introgression would reduce homologous chromosome pairing during meiosis, which would restrict chiasmata formation and crossing over. Several introgressions have been identified in the wheat genome and have been a useful strategy to transfer disease resistance from wild relatives to cultivated wheat. For example, resistance to the stem rust race TTKS (*Ug99*; Niu et al. 2011) and multiple effective leaf and stripe rust resistance genes *Yr17*, *Lr37*, and *Sr38* (Seah et al. 2001) in wheat are derived from alien introgressions. Perhaps *Cdu-B1* also resides on an introgressed segment into 5BL. However, this is less likely because nearly all markers developed at *Cdu-B1* co-segregated in a co-dominant fashion (Fig. 4.4). Generally, markers derived from introgressed segments lack an alternate allele, and thus segregate in a dominant fashion. For example, DNA markers associated with VPM (*Yr17*, *Lr37*, and *Sr38*) are dominant markers (Helguera et al. 2003).

Both fine mapping populations revealed segregation distortion around the *Cdu-B1* locus, which could support reduced recombination within the *Cdu-B1* region. In the 8982-TL population, F<sub>1</sub> plants were screened for heterozygosity; therefore, segregation distortion was not the result of heterogeneous parents or a selfed female plant (i.e., homozygous, F<sub>1</sub> plants). However, during the development of the Svevo/Brigade population, the F<sub>1</sub>s were not tested for heterozygosity, and during the population screen, it was noted that Svevo occasionally scored as having the Brigade molecular variant. Thus for this population, it cannot be ruled out that the segregation distortion observed was the result of heterogeneity within the variety Svevo. Interestingly, segregation distortion occurred in the favor of the male parental molecular variant in both populations (Table 4.7). Segregation distortion on wheat chromosome 5B has been observed in previous studies (Faris and Friesen 2009; Kumar et al. 2007; Faris et al.

1998). Faris and Friesen (2009) observed segregation distortion to be caused by the preferential transmission of male gametes (Faris and Friesen 2009). Kumar et al. (2007) observed three segregation distortion regions (SDR) on chromosome 5B in wheat, two regions that showed preferential transmission of male gametes on 5BL (SRD1 and SRD3) while the third showed a fertilization preference for male gametes on 5BS (SRD2). SRD1 has been mapped to a large portion of 5BL spanning three deletion bins including 5BL9 0.76-0.79 (Kumar et al. 2007) where *Cdu-B1* is located. Kumar et al. (2007) also found evidence of suppressed recombination at SRD2.

## **5.2 Localization of Other Genes Influencing Expression of Grain Cadmium Concentration in Wheat**

In a previous study, only a single QTL on 5BL was associated with phenotypic variation in grain Cd concentration (Knox et al. 2009). In that study, transgressive segregation for grain Cd concentration was observed, suggesting that additional minor genes influence grain Cd concentration, supporting an earlier hypothesis that other minor genes influence grain Cd concentration in durum wheat (Clarke et al. 1997b). With the improved genetic map of 5BL reported in this thesis, a second QTL designated as *QCdu.usw-B2* was identified at the marker *XCbf32* (Fig 4.5). Relative to *Cdu-B1*, the effect of *QCdu.usw-B2* was small, but DH lines carrying the W9262-260D3 molecular variant at *XCbf32* consistently expressed lower Cd content than lines carrying the Kofa molecular variant (Table 4.1). The primers for *XCbf32* are known to amplify a portion of *CbfIIIId-12* (EU194246; Campoli et al. 2009), a gene coding for a C-repeat binding factor (Cbf) (Campoli et al. 2009). The *Cbfs* are known transcription factors involved in activation of abiotic stress responsive genes in plants and have been associated with enhanced tolerance to cold (Knox et al. 2008; Campoli et al. 2009) and drought responses (Haake et al. 2002). In rye, Cbf expression patterns are dependent on the allelic state at *Vrn1* (Campoli et al. 2009) and this has also been shown in wheat (Badawi et al. 2007), and barley (Stockinger et al. 2007). Recently, RT-PCR analysis of several *Cbf* genes revealed transient expression induced by copper stress in hexaploid wheat, suggesting that *Cbfs* may enhance copper tolerance in wheat (Szira et al. 2008). It is possible that the *Cbf* genes have a pleiotropic effect on Cd concentration, possibly



by regulating transpiration rates. Higher transpiration rates have been associated with elevated concentrations of several metals and ions in plants, likely the result of increased movement to sink tissue. Indeed, overexpression of an *Arabidopsis Cbf* gene has been shown to improve water use efficiency and reduce transpiration in rice (Karaba et al. 2007). As well, higher expression of *Cbfs* has been associated with reduced transpiration in wheat. Alternatively, it cannot be ruled out that linked genes near *XCbf32* are influencing grain Cd concentrations.

ScOPC20 was mapped in the CS/CS-DIC 5B population, but in a previous study (Wiebe et al. 2010), no variation in grain Cd concentration and shoot-to-root partitioning was detected between the parents of this mapping population, and both parents were classified as low Cd accumulators. Thus it was not possible to localize *Cdu-B1* in this population. The lack of phenotypic segregation between the parents could suggest one of at least two possibilities. First, a genetic recombination between ScOPC20 and *Cdu-B1* may have occurred, such that *Cdu-B1* itself is not segregating in this population or secondly, additional genes in the D genome lower grain Cd regardless of the allelic state at *Cdu-B1*. The co-segregating markers associated with *Cdu-B1* in the W9262-260D3/Kofa and two fine mapping populations were assessed for polymorphism in the CS/CS-DIC 5B population, and both CS and CS-DIC-5B showed molecular variants identical to Kofa, a high Cd accumulator. These data would suggest that both CS and CS-DIC 5B should express a high Cd phenotype. It is thus more probable that additional genes, perhaps from the hexaploid wheat D genome, maybe compensating for *Cdu-B1* in this population. This is not an unreasonable hypothesis, as most genes contain orthologous copies that are present on each of the homeologous chromosomes of wheat (Mochida et al. 2003). To test this hypothesis, we evaluated Cd in Langdon, a high Cd accumulator. Substitution of Langdon chromosome 5B with chromosome 5D of CS resulted in >50% reduction on Cd concentration (Fig. 4.3). It could be possible that the loss of chromosome 5B (and thus *Cdu-B1*) resulted in the low Cd phenotype. However, substitution of chromosome 5A with CS 5D produced a similar effect as grain Cd concentrations were also reduced by >50% relative to Langdon (Fig. 4.3). Since the Langdon *Cdu-B1* allele is still present in this latter substitution line (as the Langdon 5B chromosome is still present), it is clear that chromosome 5D also contains gene(s) that

can compensate for the high Cd allele at *Cdu-B1* in this population. This may explain in part why hexaploid wheat cultivars show little variation in grain Cd concentration and are considered to be low in grain Cd concentration compared to durum wheat (Zook et al. 1970).

### **5.3 Reverse Genetic Studies**

#### **5.3.1. Phytochelatin Synthase and ABC Transporters**

A hypothesis of this thesis was that low Cd is the result of a functional transporter or chelator that transports, or aids in the transport of, Cd to root organelles, thus preventing subsequent translocation to shoots for remobilization to the grain (section 2.3.2, Fig. 2.2). Sequestration of Cd into chemical complexes or physical compartments, such as the vacuole, could occur in root tissues thereby reducing its availability for loading into xylem and phloem. Recent studies have shown the potential of several ABC transporters to sequester Cd in plants by transporting Cd conjugates (glutathione or phytochelatin) into the vacuole (Song et al. 2003; Klein et al. 2006; Wojas et al. 2009). Many higher plants synthesize PCs in response to Cd treatment and bind Cd to form Cd-PC complexes which can be transported across the tonoplast (Salt and Rauser 1995) into the vacuole for sequestration (Vogeli-Lange and Wagner 1990). Therefore, it is possible that transport of Cd-PC complexes via one (or more) ABC transporters into the vacuole of root cells might limit Cd translocation to the shoot for subsequent remobilization to the grain (Stolt et al. 2003). In this study, it was hypothesized that *Xwg644* (a known ABC transporter) and/or *PCS2* would be associated with *Cdu-B1*, as these genes both map to a similar region of chromosome 5AL (Yan et al. 2003). Although logical candidates, both genes were ruled out because they mapped distal to the *QCdu.spa-B1* QTL and neither was associated with *Cdu-B1* (Fig. 4.5). Also, NIL parents for the fine mapping population 8982-TL were segregating for *Cdu-B1* markers but fixed for *Vrn-B1* markers including *PCS2* and *Xwg644* (Appendix 5). This supports the work of Hart et al. (2006) who reported that PC synthesis was not a limiting factor in the differential storage of Cd in roots of high and low Cd accumulating NILs. However, the possibility that other ABC-like transporter or metal chelator genes

exist in the *Cdu-B1* region cannot be ruled out as large ABC transporter families exist in most plants.

### **5.3.2 Association of *HMA3-B1* with *Cdu-B1* in durum wheat**

#### **5.3.2.1 Genetic Mapping of *OsHMA3* orthologues in durum wheat**

A major QTL associated with grain and shoot Cd concentration on rice chromosome 7 has been identified (Tezuka et al. 2009; Ueno et al. 2009) and much like *Cdu-B1*, explained a large proportion of the phenotypic variation and low Cd concentration was a dominant trait. In this region of chromosome 7, several putative metal transporter-encoding genes, including *OsZIP8*, cadmium/zinc transporting ATPase (*OsHMA3*) and *OsNramp1* exist. Recently, Takahashi et al. (2009) reported that *OsNramp1* had the capacity to transport both Cd and Fe (iron). Some ZIP proteins have been implicated in heavy-metal uptake in rice (Ishimaru et al. 2005) and an *Arabidopsis* homologue of *OsHMA3* has been shown to transport Cd from the cytosol to vacuoles (Morel et al. 2009). More recently *OsHMA3*, was identified as the gene limiting Cd accumulation in rice grain (Ueno et al. 2010) and in its functional state, was responsible for sequestration of Cd to roots and thus, low Cd phenotype (section 2.3.2, Fig. 2.2). The low Cd phenotype is dominant (Clarke et al. 1997b), and thus the presence of a functional transporter or chelator that sequesters Cd in roots would result in a low Cd phenotype. Therefore, a similar mechanism may be operating in durum wheat as is in rice.

Primers designed from *OsHMA3* of rice mapped to chromosome 2B in the W9262-260D3/Kofa population (Fig. 4.12) and were not associated with phenotypic variation for grain Cd concentration. Wheat chromosome 2B shows colinearity to chromosome 7 in rice (La Rota and Sorrells 2004) where *OsHMA3* has been localized. However, design of additional primers based on the current Chinese Spring 5X sequence was an effective strategy to design several additional primers, which allowed mapping of *HMA3-B1* to the *Cdu-B1* interval in durum wheat. These results may indicate duplication of the gene on chromosome 2B and movement of one duplicated copy to chromosome 5B during the evolution of durum wheat as a homolog is still evident in the donor site (chromosome 2B) (Wicker et al. 2010), which is colinear to rice chromosome

7 (section 2.6, Fig. 2.7) where *OsHMA3* is located. Sequencing of the *HMA-B2* from chromosome 2B would determine whether *HMA-B2* is in fact orthologous to *OsHMA3*. Little work to date has been done on identifying and characterizing *HMA* genes and proteins in wheat. Seven, nine, and eight *HMA* genes have been identified in *Brachypodium*, rice, and *Arabidopsis*, respectively. Due to durum wheat containing two genomes there is also the potential for 16 to 18 P<sub>1B</sub>-ATPases assuming that each genome would contain at least one of the P<sub>1B</sub>-ATPases found in rice and *Brachypodium*.

Mapping of *HMA3-B1*, the durum wheat orthologue of *OsHMA3*, revealed complete linkage with *Cdu-B1* in all mapping populations reported here as well as the 96 genetically diverse durum cultivars and breeding lines. Sequence analysis of *HMA3-B1* revealed high grain Cd lines (Langdon and Kofa) to have a 17 bp duplication resulting in a premature stop codon and a non-functioning HMA-B1 protein (Fig.4.15a; d). Marker analysis also revealed all high Cd lines in the genetically diverse durum breeding lines and cultivars are carrying this 17 bp duplication. The effect of the W9262-260D3 allele at *HMA3-B1* was to reduce grain Cd by >50% in the W9262-260D3/Kofa mapping population and the two fine mapping populations. *OsHMA3* is a P<sub>1B</sub>-ATPase (Ueno et al 2010), which is an ancient family of P-ATPases which physiologically are involved in maintaining homeostasis and transporting transition metals across membranes against their electrochemical gradient (Williams and Mills 2005). A functioning *OsHMA3* gene confers low Cd accumulation in rice and much like *HMA3-B1*, accounts for >70% of phenotypic variation (Ueno et al. 2010). This is similar to the *Cdu-B1* locus in durum wheat, indicating that the same mechanism may be functioning in durum wheat.

### **5.3.2.2 Comparative analysis of *HMA3* in durum wheat**

The duplication in the non-functional allele is likely the result of either an unequal crossover during meiosis or DNA slippage during DNA replication. Both of these processes have resulted in duplications and novel allelic variation in the high molecular weight glutenins (Liu et al. 2007) and disease resistant gene analogues (Luo et al. 2011). This would imply that the low Cd allele at *HMA3-B1* is the wild type allele and the functional allele of *HMA3-B1* would be expected to result in grain Cd

concentration segregating in a dominant fashion, which is the case in durum wheat (Clarke et al. 1997b).

Because durum wheat is a tetraploid, a functional allele coded by the A genome homeologous copy could function to sequester Cd in root vacuole cells, and thus confer a low Cd phenotype. Analysis of *HMA3-A1* sequence from the high accumulating cultivar Langdon revealed a 33 bp deletion in exon 6 when compared to the putative functional allele *HMA3-B1* derived from W9262-260D3. The resulting deletion would translate into a deletion of 11 amino acids from the C terminus. (Fig. 4.15e). These 11 amino acids were not associated with any functional protein domains, so it is not clear if this deletion would impact on Cd transport or impact on protein folding and or integration into the vacuole membrane. Indeed most HMA proteins have eight transmembrane domains (Williams and Mills 2005) with the C and N terminus in the cytosol of the cell which are thought to be involved in metal binding (Williams and Mills 2005) therefore changes to the C and N terminus may influencing binding and therefore transportation of metals. Based on these data, it does appear the *HMA3-A1* allele from Langdon is also non-functional, and would thus not confer the low Cd phenotype, even in the presence of a non-functional *HMA3-B1* allele. Further functional studies would be required to determine if this is a reasonable hypothesis. In addition, sequence analysis of *HMA3-A1* in diverse genetic backgrounds (such as the 96 cultivars and breeding lines used in this thesis to test for association of *HMA3-B1* (section 4.4)) may reveal allelic variation in *HMA3-A1* that could be used to test for association with further reduced grain Cd concentration. Indeed several durum wheat cultivars (9661-AF1D, Borli, and Flavio) studied here expressed grain Cd concentrations >25 ng g<sup>-1</sup> less than Strongfield and CDC Verona (Table 4.8), both of which express low grain Cd concentration and carry a putative functional allele at *HMA3-B1*.

To determine the relationship of *HMA3-A1* and *HMA3-B1* to other related *HMA* genes from other plant species, a dendrogram of these sequences was generated (Fig 4.17). Durum wheat *HMA3* sequences show more similarity to *Brachypodium* than rice, which was also expected due to the close relation of Durum wheat to *Brachypodium* than rice (section 2.6, Fig. 2.6). The dendrogram of *HMA* CDS shows similar results to Baxter et al. (2003) except *HMA* CDS identified from *Brachypodium* were included

(Fig. 4.17). HMA proteins were classified into two groups based on the substrate they were predicted to transport, either  $\text{Cu}^+/\text{Ag}^+$  or  $\text{Zn}^{2+}/\text{Co}^{2+}/\text{Cd}^{2+}/\text{Pb}^{2+}$ . *OsHMA3* and *BdHMA3* show the closest sequence similarities to *HMA3-A1* and *HMA3-B1* and were classified as  $\text{Zn}^{2+}/\text{Co}^{2+}/\text{Cd}^{2+}/\text{Pb}^{2+}$  transporters. According to Baxter et al. (2003), at least two other *HMA* sequences in rice (*OsHMA2* and *OsHMA1*) have conserved domains, which suggest that they could transport  $\text{Zn}^{2+}/\text{Co}^{2+}/\text{Cd}^{2+}/\text{Pb}^{2+}$  but neither of these have been associated with phenotypic variation in grain Cd concentration in rice. Potential reasons for this could be a cellular location of the translated protein other than the tonoplast, a non-Cd substrate specificity, the translated proteins are nonfunctional, or the populations used for mapping were not segregating for these genes. For example, diversity of cellular location is identified in the four HMA *Arabidopsis* proteins that are identified to transport  $\text{Zn}^{2+}/\text{Co}^{2+}/\text{Cd}^{2+}/\text{Pb}^{2+}$  with evidence to support cellular locations of the tonoplast, the plasma membrane and the chloroplast envelope (Williams and Mills 2005).

Substitution of chromosome 5D from Chinese Spring for chromosome 5A and 5B in the cultivar Langdon resulted in a >50% reduction in grain Cd concentration (Fig 4.3). This could suggest that a homoeologous copy of *HMA3-B1* (designated here as *HMA3-D1*) exists and codes for a functional transporter that could compensate for the non-functional *HMA3-B1* allele present in Langdon. This is a reasonable hypothesis given that several genes in wheat contain orthologous copies on each of the homoeologous chromosomes. Partial genomic sequence of *HMA3-D1* from CS was obtained from the long arm of chromosome 5D from the current wheat survey sequence (Appendix 6). Although the complete coding sequence was not obtained for *HMA3-D1*, two lines of evidence support that it could code for a functional protein. First, *HMA3-D1* revealed the absence of the 5' duplication, similar to the W9262-260D3 *HMA3-B1* (Fig. 4.15a; b). In addition, the 3' 33 bp deletion noted in the Langdon *HMA3-A1* sequence was absent in the CS sequence (Similar to *HMA3-B1* from W9262-260D3). Taken together, the major sequence difference between the functioning transporters *HMA3-B1/HMA3-D1* and *HMA3-A1* is the presence of a 33 bp deletion in *HMA3-A1*. This could support that *HMA3-A1* does not function to transport Cd to the vacuoles in

roots due to the 33 bp deletion at the 3' end of that sequence, but more work is required to clarify if this is the case.

#### **5.4 Marker Validation and Breeding for Low Grain Cd Concentration**

Breeding is the most reliable approach to reduce grain Cd concentrations in durum wheat. The SCAR marker ScOPC20 has been successfully utilized in MAS programs to develop durum wheat cultivars with reduced grain Cd concentration (Clarke et al. 2006; Pozniak et al. 2009; Grant et al. 2008). However, this marker is a dominant marker that is linked in repulsion to the low Cd phenotype. The three CAPS markers associated with *Cdu-B1* reported here were all validated in a large global collection of cultivars and breeding lines as well as the candidate gene *HMA3-B1*. In the validation population *HMA3-B1*, *Xusw47*, *Xusw17* and *Xusw15b* were accurate in correctly classifying lines into high and low grain Cd concentration with the exception of heterogeneous lines. In comparison to ScOPC20 which misclassified three low Cd lines as high as well as classifying three lines as heterogeneous. This suggests that these markers (*HMA3-B1*, *Xusw47*, *Xusw17* and *Xusw15b*) would have broad application in a range of germplasm and breeding programs globally. In addition, the co-dominant nature of these markers allows for identification of heterozygous individuals, which will be useful for backcrossing the low Cd allele into otherwise agronomically acceptable cultivars. Given the large proportion of durum wheat cultivars evaluated in this study that are high in grain Cd, utilization of these marker to improve grain Cd levels should be a priority. Given that *HMA3-B1* is a candidate gene responsible for phenotypic differences in grain Cd concentration in durum wheat, the marker developed for this locus should be preferred by durum wheat breeders because if it is the gene, no recombination is possible and therefore no error.

In this study, five accessions in the validation population were heterogeneous at at least one marker linked to *Cdu-B1* (Table 4.8). The effect of heterogeneity on grain Cd would be a function of the relative proportions of the high and low alleles present in the variety. Of the lines classified as high accumulators, Svevo (159 ng g<sup>-1</sup>) was heterogeneous at all markers and had 44 ng g<sup>-1</sup> less Cd than the average of the high accumulators (203 ng g<sup>-1</sup>), but still significantly more (73 ng g<sup>-1</sup>) than the average low

accumulating varieties ( $85 \text{ ng g}^{-1}$ ). Given that the low phenotype is dominant, it is likely that Svevo carries a higher frequency of the high accumulating allele. Breeding lines DT696 ( $121 \text{ ng g}^{-1}$ ) and 950329 ( $120 \text{ ng g}^{-1}$ ) are classified as low grain Cd concentration and are heterogeneous at all or nearly all markers linked to *Cdu-B1*. In these two breeding lines the high allele may be at a higher frequency than the grain Cd concentration indicates due to the dominant nature of the low accumulating allele masking the effect of the high allele. These breeding lines were scored as low accumulators but were some of the highest scoring low Cd concentration lines; this may be due to their heterogeneous nature. High grain Cd concentration cultivar Avonlea ( $214 \text{ ng g}^{-1}$ ) carries one heterogeneous marker (ScOPC20) but seems to have no effect on the grain Cd concentration classification. While low grain Cd concentration cultivar Marjak ( $82 \text{ ng g}^{-1}$ ) also carries one heterogeneous marker (*Xusw15b*) it also seems to have no effect of grain Cd concentration classification.

Interestingly, less than half the Canadian (11 of 25) and Spanish (4 of 9) breeding lines and cultivars phenotyped are classified as high grain Cd concentration while around three quarters of the Italian (12 of 17) and Australian (7 of 9) breeding lines and cultivar tested were classified as high (Fig. 4.8). All the lines tested from the United States (12) were classified as high grain Cd concentration (Fig. 4.8). However, these results could be due to sampling error or the result of breeding activity and may not be a true representation of the genetic diversity of these agroecological regions. To accurately depict the variation from these regions more research is necessary.

The *Gpc-B1* gene derived from *T. dicoccoides* is a NAC transcription factor (*NAM-B1*) that is known to increase grain protein concentration, by increased nutrient remobilization to the grain from the leaves and accelerated senescence, with little effect on grain yield (Uauy et al. 2006). In addition, recombinant substitution lines carrying the *T. dicoccoides* *Gpc-B1* allele accumulate more zinc, iron, and manganese (Distelfeld et al. 2006). The chromosome substitution line LDN(DIC-6B) carries *Gpc-B1*, and in this study, expressed 66% more grain Cd than its isogenic parent Langdon (Table 4.8) and supports the hypothesis *Gpc-B1* is involved in more efficient remobilization of metals, from leaves to the grains (Distelfeld et al. 2006). However, it cannot be ruled out that gene(s) other than *Gpc-B1* are involved, as LDN(DIC-6B) carries a complete *T.*



*dicoccoides* 5B chromosome substitution. However, if *Gpc-B1* does elevate grain Cd, even in lines carrying *Cdu-B1*, this would limit its use in durum wheat breeding programs targeting reduced grain Cd concentrations. Evaluating *Gpc-B1* in near isogenic lines with and without *Cdu-B1* will be required to resolve this hypothesis. Fortunately *Cdu-B1* has no pleiotropic effects on zinc, iron, or manganese concentrations in durum wheat (Clarke et al. 2002).

In this study, *Cdu-B1* was tightly linked to the *Vrn-B1* locus (markers *CSFs-1*, *Xwg644*, *PCS2*, *PHY-C*; Fig. 4.5), which controls vernalization response in wheat (Iwaki et al. 2002). A recent study in hexaploid wheat by Ferenc Bálint et al. (2009) also reported a QTL for copper tolerance that was associated with *vrn-A1* on 5AL. However, the reported map was not well saturated, so it was difficult to ascertain if *vrn-A1* per se was associated or if linked genes were responsible for the observed variation in copper tolerance. The *Cdu-B1/Vrn-B1* linkage could have implications for breeding low Cd durum wheat cultivars, because the presence of vernalization genes in spring wheat lines can influence flowering time, and thus yield (Iqbal et al. 2007). The parents of the mapping population used here have not been assayed for vernalization requirement, but the markers reported here for *Cdu-B1* could be used effectively to break any undesirable relationships between the low Cd phenotype and any vernalization response associated with *Vrn-B1*.

Hexaploid wheat lines and cultivars are known for having low grain Cd accumulation with little variation of grain Cd concentrations. Studying the effects of the 5D chromosome substituted into the Langdon background for either 5A or 5B chromosome shows a significant decrease in grain Cd (Fig. 4.3). Only when the 5D chromosome was present grain Cd concentration was low. Therefore in Langdon it is possible that neither HMA3-A1 nor HMA3-B1 proteins are functioning to sequester Cd to the vacuole in root cells. If *HMA3-A1* codes for a non-functional P<sub>1B</sub>-ATPase it may be of interest to breeders to identify lines containing an allele of *HMA3-A1* that codes for a functional protein. This allele could then be combined with the functional allele of *HMA3-B1* already present in several Canadian durum wheat cultivars to further reduce grain Cd in durum wheat. This should be a high priority for breeders as CODEX is proposing to lower the limits of grain Cd in cereal grain products (section 2.2).

## 6.0 CONCLUSIONS

### 6.1 General Conclusions

The main objective of this project was to utilize forward (fine mapping) and reverse (candidate gene) genetic approaches to better understand the molecular basis of Cd accumulation in durum wheat grain. For the reverse genetic studies, it was hypothesized that one of three gene families would be associated with *Cdu-B1* that could function by restricting Cd to the roots of low Cd lines of durum wheat; a) a gene coding for a heavy metal associated (HMA) transporter, b) an ATP-binding cassette (ABC)-like transporter or c) a phytochelatin synthetase (PCS), as these have been associated with Cd uptake and sequestration in other plants. For the forward genetics approach, colinearity was established with rice and *Brachypodium* to identify putative genes that maybe associated with variation in grain Cd concentration in durum. The last objective was to develop and validate breeder friendly markers that could be used globally in durum wheat breeding programs targeting the low grain Cd phenotype.

From the work reported here, the following major conclusions were made:

- 1) In durum wheat, the *Cdu-B1* locus on chromosome 5B was fine mapped to a genetic interval of 0.14 cM. Fine mapping reduced the genetic interval of *Cdu-B1* from 0.7 cM to 0.14 cM using 3558 F<sub>2</sub> individuals. Seven markers that co-segregate with *Cdu-B1* were identified.
- 2) The *Cdu-B1* locus in durum wheat is colinear with a 286 Kbp region in rice and a 282 Kbp region identified in *Brachypodium*. No obvious genes associated with Cd uptake, sequestration, or translocation were identified in these colinear regions that could be the target of study in durum wheat
- 3) *PCS2* and *Xwg644* genes were hypothesized to be associated with *Cdu-B1* as both have been mapped previously to the general vicinity of *Cdu-B1*, and both have been associated with Cd assimilation in other plant species. However,

these two genes could be ruled out as candidates as both genes map distal to *Cdu-B1* in the W9262-260D3/Kofa population and neither gene was segregating in the two near isogenic lines used to develop the 8982-TL population.

- 4) In rice, *OsHMA3* gene has been shown to restrict Cd to the root vacuoles and thus limits translocation of Cd to above ground tissues for subsequent translocation to the rice grain. The orthologous gene, *HMA3-B1* was characterized from durum wheat and current evidence suggests it is a strong candidate gene for *Cdu-B1*. Several lines of evidence to support this are:
  - *HMA3-B1* co-segregated with *Cdu-B1* in all durum wheat populations studied in this thesis, and was able to discretely classify a set of 96 genetically diverse cultivars and breeding lines into high and low Cd accumulators.
  - Sequencing revealed high grain Cd lines possess a 17 bp duplication that results in a premature stop codon and a severely truncated protein;
  - A non-functional Cd transporter in high accumulating Cd lines and a functional Cd transporter in low grain Cd lines fits the model proposed in rice by Myiadate et al. (2011) where a functional transporter would sequester Cd to the vacuole in roots and therefore would not be available for transport to the shoots and grain.
- 5) Grain Cd analysis of Langdon disomic lines revealed that the substitution of the hexaploid wheat 5D chromosome into the high grain Cd line, Langdon, for either chromosome 5A or 5B results in a low grain Cd phenotype
- 6) Analysis of *HMA3-A1* from chromosome 5AL revealed a 33 bp deletion which could result in a non-functional protein. However, detailed functional analysis was not conducted to determine if this hypothesis is correct.
- 7) Several DNA markers were developed to assist breeding of low grain Cd concentration in durum wheat. In total, seven markers that co-segregated with *Cdu-B1* were identified. Four of these (including *HMA3-B1*) were converted to high throughput co-dominant markers for use in breeding programs. Selection

using *HMA3-B1* is recommended, because if this is the gene that regulates Cd concentration in durum wheat grain, the DNA marker would be considered a “perfect” marker.

## 6.2 Future Work

To complete the forward genetics approach, a positional cloning strategy (section 2.5) could be pursued. This would require chromosome walking across the *Cdu-B1* region, BAC sequencing, and sequence assembly and annotation. However, because a strong candidate gene (*HMA3-B1*) has been identified through the reverse genetic studies, positional cloning would be less of a priority in favour of functional analysis of HMA3-B1 protein in durum wheat.

For functional analysis of *HMA3-B1*, several strategies could be pursued. These could include a combination of Target Induced Local Lesion in Genomes (TILLING) studies, transgenic experiments, expression studies, and yeast complementary studies. TILLING studies would include generation of a TILLING population using one of several chemical mutagens (Pozniak and Hucl 2004) and screening for mutations within *HMA3-B1* that would result in a non-functional protein. Choosing an appropriate parent to generate the TILLING population is critical, and in this case, would require TILLING in a durum wheat cultivar that expresses low grain Cd (and thus a hypothesized, functional Cd transporter). Knock-out mutations in a low grain Cd cultivar should confer high grain Cd concentration if *HMA3-B1* is indeed the casual gene. However, TILLING can be complicated in a polyploid genome due to homoeologous copies of genes, but as seen in this project, Langdon disomic substitution lines are effective in assigning gene amplicons to the individual wheat chromosomes. Another limitation of TILLING is a large population is necessary for screening for mutations. However, Uauy et al. (2009) has utilized a four-fold pooling strategy in tetraploid and hexaploid wheat mutation populations that reduces reactions required for mutation screening.

Transgenic studies could also be employed. In this case, transforming a functional *HMA3-B1* gene (like that from W9262-260D3) into a high grain Cd accumulator should confer the low phenotype. Because the HMA3-B1 protein is hypothesized to transport Cd to root cell vacuoles, selection of an appropriate promoter

that results in a high level of *HMA3-B1* transcript expression in the roots would be required. Several root specific promoters exist for functional studies, and have been used effectively for functional studies of genes related to silicon (Montpetit et al. 2012) and boron tolerance in wheat (Sutton 2012).

Yeast complementation studies could also be used to determine cellular location and affinity of the functional HMA3-B1 protein for Cd. A similar approach was described by Miyadate et al. (2011) and Morel et al. (2009) who identified OsHMA3 and AtHMA3 proteins respectively to be localized to the tonoplast. In yeast complementary studies, *HMA3-B1* could be transformed into Cd sensitive yeast to determine if the durum functional allele of *HMA3-B1* restores Cd tolerance. A similar approach was described by Miyadate et al. (2011) and Gravot et al. (2004) who showed Cd tolerance restored by OsHMA3 and AtHMA3 proteins respectively. To fully verify the *HMA3-B1* gene a combination of all of the above strategies would likely be useful.

In allopolyploid genomes, orthologous copies are evident on each of the homoeologous chromosomes, and may perform a similar function. *HMA3-A1* and *HMA3-D1* genes have been identified in durum and hexaploid wheat and further work would be required to verify their functionality. *HMA3-A1* from this thesis was hypothesized not to function due to a 33 bp deletion in the cultivar Langdon. An allelic survey could be performed on the 96 genetically diverse lines and cultivars from this thesis to determine if a functional *HMA3-A1* allele is present in any lines. That work would then lay the foundation for functional analysis of the A genome copy, and to determine if combining functional alleles at both *HMA3-A1* and *HMA3-B1* further reduces grain Cd concentration in durum wheat.

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## .0 Appendices

### Appendix 1 ESM, STS, and gene specific markers polymorphic between W9262-260D3 and Kofa

Marker name	Detection method <sup>a</sup>	Map location	Primer sequence <sup>b</sup> (3'-5')	Rice gene
<b><u>ESMs</u></b>				
<i>XBE425993</i> <sup>c</sup>	SSCP	5A	AAGACATCCTGAACCTGGTGTA GTCCCAGTCGAACCTGTTCAT	Os03g55070
<i>XBE426348</i> <sup>c</sup>	SSCP	5A	CTATAAGATGAACCGGGGTTTT TACGCTACCTATGAAGTACTTGGAC	Os03g53800
<i>XBE604920</i> <sup>c</sup>	Agarose	5A	TCCCCTACATGCTGCTCTAC CAACATCGACTTCATTATTGGAC	Os03g52860
<i>XBF474090.1</i>	SSCP	5B	GAGGCCATGGACCCCAACTTT GGACAGGAGAACCTGAAGGAT	Os03g53670
<i>XBF474090.2</i> <sup>c</sup>	SSCP	5A	GTAGATTATTGGCAACAAGACAAGT GCGTAAGAAATATATCACGCTAGTT	Os03g53670
<i>XBF474164.1/2</i> <sup>c</sup>	SSCP	5A/5B	AGACTTTCTCGTCCCGATACTT CAACATATGTCTGGCCTACTACTCT	Os03g53720
<i>XBG262450</i> <sup>c</sup>	SSCP	5A	GATAATTTCAGAACAATGCCATTAC AAGAGTAGCCAATCTGTAGTTGATG	Os03g51020
<i>XBG274700</i> <sup>c</sup>	SSCP	5A	CAGAAGACAGTGAAGAACCAAAAC AACTCTCAAGTCACTCATCTCAATC	Os03g55950
<i>XBG313229</i> <sup>c</sup>	CE	5B	CTTGCTGTCTCGAGAAGTTT ATAGTATCCCATCAATTGTAAGCTG	Os03g58470
<i>XBG607162</i>	SSCP	5B	ATGCATACAAGGACCGCTAC AATCACACCCTTGCGAATAAT	Os03g63140
<i>XBF293297.2/1</i>	SSCP	5A/5B	TGGCCGCGCCCTTCTTCTCCA TTGTCTGCGGCTTCAACATC	Os03g53600
<i>XBF145263</i>	SSCP	5A	ACGTGGACGACTACTTGGAGT CAGGTCATAAGCTTGGCGTGC	Os03g53700
<b><u>STS markers</u></b>				
<i>Xusw15</i>	SSCP	5B	ACCAGCAGGACATTGGGAACA GAACCTTGACGATTGCTAAC	Os03g53590
<i>Xusw49</i>	HRM	5B	CACCGAGCTGTCCTAATGAAG CTGCAGAAGTACTCTGGATCC	Os03g53250
<i>Xusw50</i>	HRM	5B	TTCAGTGATAACTTACACCAG AGCTTCTTGC GTTCTTCCATC	Os03g53490

**Appendix 1 (con't).**

Marker name	Detection method <sup>a</sup>	Map location	Primer sequence <sup>b</sup> (3'-5')	Rice gene
<b><u>STS markers (con't)</u></b>				
<i>Xusw51</i>	HRM	5B	ATGGTTGGCTGTAGAACAAGG CTCACGCCGTGAGAACGTAC	Os03g53500
<i>Xusw52</i>	HRM	5B	TTCATTGTCAGATGATTCTGG CTTCCAGATCTTCACAAGCTT	Os03g53530
<i>Xusw53</i>	HRM	5B	GATGAACCGCATATCCTTCCT CTCATTGTCACAAGCAATCAT	Os03g53700
<i>Xusw61</i>	HRM	5A	TGGAGACGGTGGCCGCCGGTG GGGCATGAACGCCATCACTA	Os03g53350
<b><u>Genes associated with Vrn-B1</u></b>				
<i>Xwg644</i>	SSCP	5A	GACTTGTTTCAGTCATCTCATA GCAGCTTGTGTCTGATGTGAA	Os03g54790
<i>Xwg644</i>	SSCP	5B	GCTCTTAAGCAGGCTTTCTGA CTGTAAGGCTGTATAAGATGA	Os03g54790
MC	SSCP	5A	AGTCGGTGTTC AAGCAACAGG GCGATCAATCTTCTAACTACC	Os03g54760
CSFs	SSCP	5B	TCGGCACCAATGCCGTGGATT AGAACTTAATGGATGTGTCCC	Os03g54770
CSFs	SSCP	5A	CCAGTAGCTCATCTCTATGAT ACTCGTAGCTTCTACAGATCC	Os03g54770
PCS2	CE	5B	TCAACTACCAGCAGTTCCGAC GTAGGCCTGCCAACAAGAGCA	Os03g54750
PHY-C	SSCP	5B	ACTGGAAGCAGGCTATCCTGG AACATAGTCGCCTTGTATCCG	Os03g54084
MTK4	SSCP	5A	CGTGGTGG AACAGGACGAGGG CATCATTCCCAGGTAGAACAC	Os03g53880
<b><u>PIB-ATPases gene (HMA)</u></b>				
HMA3-B2	SSCP	2B	AGTGATGCTTACTGGCGATAG ACAAGCATGTGCCAACATCAG	Os07g12900
HMA3-B1	CE	5B	TTCTTGCTGTTTCATCCGCCTG AATACGGGACTGCGAGACGGC	Os07g12900

<sup>a</sup>SSCP=single strand conformational polymorphism gel electrophoresis; CE=capillary electrophoresis; HRM=high resolution melt

<sup>b</sup>M13 (CACGACGTTGTAAAACGAC) tag attached to 5' end of forward primer (listed first for each primer pair).

<sup>c</sup> – at least one of markers primers was designed by Dr. Justin Faris

**Appendix 2** Gene products in colinear region of *Cdu1* on rice chromosome 3 and *Brachypodium* chromosome 1.

gene name	gene product name	gene name	gene product name
BF293297	HTH DNA-binding protein, putative, expressed	Os03g53430	retrotransposon protein, putative, unclassified
BF474090	YT521-B-like family domain containing protein, expressed	Os03g53440	hypothetical protein
BF474164	SRPK4, putative, expressed	Os03g53450	hypothetical protein
BF483771	bifunctional 3-phosphoadenosine 5-phosphosulfate synthetase, putative, expressed	Os03g53470	hypothetical protein
BG608197	OsCML4 - Calmodulin-related calcium sensor protein, expressed	Os03g53480	hypothetical protein
Bradi1g08860.1	Core histone H2A/H2B/H3/H4 domain containing protein, putative, expressed	Os03g53490	PPR repeat containing protein, expressed
Bradi1g08940.1	tetratricopeptide repeat domain containing protein, expressed	Os03g53500	helicase conserved C-terminal domain containing protein, expressed
Bradi1g08950.1	ubiquitin carboxyl-terminal hydrolase, family 1, putative	Os03g53510	WD domain, G-beta repeat domain containing protein, expressed
Bradi1g08960.1	acanthoscurrin-1 precursor, putative, expressed	Os03g53520	expressed protein
Bradi1g08970.1	conserved hypothetical protein	Os03g53530	WD domain, G-beta repeat domain containing protein, expressed
Bradi1g09000.1	lectin-like receptor kinase 7, putative, expressed	Os03g53540	expressed protein
Bradi1g09010.1	expressed protein	Os03g53550	retrotransposon protein, putative, unclassified, expressed
Bradi1g09020.1	hypothetical protein	Os03g53560	retrotransposon protein, putative, Ty1-copia subclass
Os03g53210	expressed protein	Os03g53570	retrotransposon protein, putative, unclassified
Os03g53220	U5 small nuclear ribonucleoprotein 200 kDa helicase, putative	Os03g53580	expressed protein
Os03g53240	hypothetical protein	Os03g53590	expressed protein
Os03g53250	expressed protein	Os03g53590	expressed protein
Os03g53260	conserved hypothetical protein	Os03g53610	late embryogenesis abundant protein D-34, putative

## Appendix 2 (con't)

gene name	gene product name	gene name	gene product name
Os03g53270	stem-specific protein TSJT1, putative, expressed	Os03g53620	late embryogenesis abundant protein D-34, putative, expressed
Os03g53280	WD domain containing protein, putative, expressed	Os03g53630	PHD finger family protein, putative, expressed
Os03g53300	expressed protein	Os03g53640	expressed protein
Os03g53310	emp24/gp25L/p24 family protein, putative, expressed	Os03g53650	cysteine synthase, putative, expressed
Os03g53320	hypothetical protein	Os03g53660	Myosin head domain containing protein, expressed
Os03g53340	HSF-type DNA-binding domain containing protein, expressed	Os03g53680	hypothetical protein
Os03g53350	anthocyanin 3-O-beta-glucosyltransferase, putative	Os03g53690	oxidoreductase, short chain dehydrogenase/reductase family domain containing protein, expressed
Os03g53360	transferase family protein, putative, expressed	Os03g53700	PHD-finger domain containing protein, putative, expressed
Os03g53380	hypothetical protein	Os03g53710	aldose 1-epimerase, putative, expressed
Os03g53390	expressed protein	Os03g55350	OsSub31 - Putative Subtilisin homologue, expressed
Os03g53400	transmembrane BAX inhibitor motif-containing protein, putative, expressed	Os03g56160	lectin-like receptor kinase 7, putative, expressed
Os03g53410	protein kinase domain containing protein, expressed		



## Appendix 3 SNP identified to design CAPS markers

usw14

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3702 3710 3720 3730 3740 3750 3760 3770 3780 3790 3800 3810 3820 3830 3845
O403g53720_ribe_genomek_DNA ACTTGGGAAACATTGCCATTBACGGTBCCT--TCATCCAAGACAACTGAAACCCCAAGCAAGTAATTTGCAAAATAAAGAAATGCTACCCCTCCTA---AGTGAATGCTATTATTTTACAAGCTGCATTTGTAAGACTTTT
O403g53720_ribe_CDNA ACTTGGGAAACATTGCCATTBACGGTBCCT--TCATCCAAGACAACTGAAACCCCAAGCAAGTAATTTGCAAAATAAAGAAATGCTACCCCTCCTA---AGTGA
BF474164 Kofa_Commander_BF474164-3-445 AGCTGGGAAACATCCGATACAGCCGCTTCTTCATCCAAGATAGTGAAGATCCCAAGCAAGCTCCAAAGAAAGATTGCAATGTTAGCCCTTTTAAAGATGAGTGGCATTGGGTCTACAAGGCTCGGTTTTTGGTGAAGAT
W9262_Strongfield_BF474164-2-443 AGCTGGGAAACATCCGATACAGCCGCTTCTTCATCCAAGACAGTGAAGATCCCAAGCAAGTTCCAAAGAAAGATTGCAATGTTAGCCCTTTTAAAGATGAGTGGCATTGGGTCTACAAGGCTCGGTTTTTGGTGAAGAT
    
```

↑  
BsoBI (CYCGRG)

usw15b

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961 970 980 990 1000 1010 1020 1030 1040 1050 1060 1070 1080
O403g53590_gDNA ATTCGGTAAAGATAGABAAGATGTTTGTGGCCGACCAAAAGATCCACGGCAAAAAGGCCGGAAGAGCCCAACAAAGGAGAAAGCTCAACG----BAGACCAAGAAATGGTTTGGTTC
O403g53590_CDs ATTCGGTAAAGATAGABAAGATGTTTGTGGCCGACCAAAAGATCCACGGCAAAAAGGCCGGAAGAGCCCAACAAAGGAGAAAGCTCAACG----BAGACCAAGAAATGGTTTGGTTC
AK330238_wheat_CDs ATTGTGTAAGATAGAGGCACC--TCCGCTTCTGAGACTCCAAAGTCTTTCCAAAAGAAAGGCCGGAATAGAACCCCAAGAGATAGCCTCAACCTCAACAAGGCTCAATAAGTGCCTTGAAGTT
Kofa_Commander_O403g53590-MF1-R1 ATTGTGTAAGATAGAGGCACC--TCCGCTTCTGAGACTTTAAAGGCTTTCCAAAAGAAAGGCCGGAATAGAACCCCAAGAGATAGCCTCAACCTCAACAAGGCTCAATAAGTGCCTTGAAGTT
W9262_Strongfield_O403g53590-MF1-R1 ATTGTGTAAGATAGAGGCACC--TCCGCTTCTGAGACTTTAAAGGCTTTCCAAAAGAAAGGCCGGAATAGAACCCCAAGAGATAGCCTCAACCTCAACAAGGCTCAATAAGTGCCTTGAAGTT
    
```

↑  
TaqI (TCGA)

usw47

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1000 1010 1020 1030 1040 1050 1060 1070 1080 1120 1130 1140 1150 1160
O403g53670_ribe_genomek FATGACGGCTEACCCAAATGAAATGGGACTCCAGATATGCTCCCAATATGAAACGGGATGCCCTE-----
O403g53670_ribe_CDs FATGACGGCTEACCCAAATGAAATGGGACTCCAGATATGCTCCCAATATGAAACGGGATGCCCTE-----
AK250324_Beakley_CDs FATGATGGCTETACAAATGATGGGACTTETAGGATGCTGCTGTAATGAAAGGAAATGGAAATGCCCTE-----
BF474090 -----
Kofa_Commander_BF474090_MF5_RS_56 FATGATGGCTEACCCAAATGAAATGGGACTCCAGATATGCTCCCAATATGAAACGGGATGCCCTE-----
W9262_Strongfield_BF474090_MF5_RS_56 FATGATGGCTEACCCAAATGAAATGGGACTCCAGATATGCTCCCAATATGAAACGGGATGCCCTE-----
ACTATGATGCTCTATAAATGGATGGTTTTTAAAGGCTGCTGCTE
    
```

↑  
Hpy188I (TCNGA)

usw16

```

343 350 360 370 380 390 400 410 420 430 440 450 460
O403g53600_ribe_genomek TCTGTGTGTTGTTGCTCAGAGCGCGAAGATCTGTGACGGGCTCCAGATATCCGGCCBCTATGTCAGGCTCTGGAGGAGCCCTGTGGTATCTCTGTGTGAGGCTCTTAACCTTCGATCCCTTA
O403g53600_ribe_CDs TCTGTGTGTTGTTGCTCAGAGCGCGAAGATCTGTGACGGGCTCCAGATATCCGGCCBCTATGTCAGGCTCTGGAGGAGCCCTGTGGTATCTCTGTGTGAGGCTCTTAACCTTCGATCCCTTA
AK250961_Barkley_CDs -----
BF933297 -----
Kofa_Commander_BF933297_MF0_R1 -----
W9262_Strongfield_BF933297_MF0_R1 -----
TTTCAAGGCAAGCGGATCTGTGACGGGCTTTCAGATATCCGGTGGTATGTCAGGCTCTGGAGGAGGTTTCGGTCCCTAAATTCCTGCTCCTGCTGCTTCAATATTCAGATGG
    
```

↑  
SbfI (CCTGCAGG)

**Appendix 4** Additional *Cdu-B1* mapping markers and *HMA* sequencing markers, primer sequences, restriction enzymes, detection method, and ESM, STS marker, or Rice gene from which the new marker was developed

Additional <i>Cdu-B1</i> Mapping Markers				
CAPS Marker	Forward Primer sequence	Reverse Primer Sequence	Restriction Enzyme	ESM or STS marker developed from
<i>Xusw14</i>	TACAGCCGCTCAGTTGCTC	CAACATATGTCTGGCCTACTACTCT	BsoB1	<i>XBF474164</i>
<i>Xusw17</i>	TCCACCCCTTCCATCCCTAT	TTGTCCTGCGGCTTACCACATC	Sbf1	<i>XBF293297</i>
<i>Xusw15b</i>	TATGTGTTGTGATTTGCTGAG	GAACCTTGGACGATTGCTAAC	Taq1	<i>Xusw15</i>
<i>Xusw16</i>	GCTAGGACTTGATTCATTGAT	GGACAGGAGAACCTGAAGGAT	Hpy188I & MbolI	<i>XBF474090</i>
<i>Xusw47</i>	GCTAGGACTTGATTCATTGAT	AGTGATCTAAACGTTCTTATA	Hpy188I	<i>XBF474090</i>
Other Marker	Forward Primer sequence	Reverse Primer Sequence	Detection Method	Marker developed from
ScOPc20	ACTTCGCCACTCCAGATGTACT	ACTTCGCCACCATGGTCACA	Agarose	--

Additional Markers for HMA3 Cloning for Sequencing			
HMA Marker	Forward Primer sequence	Reverse Primer Sequence	Rice gene developed from
HMA3-F1/R1	ATGGGCGGGCGGAGTCGTAC	GTGGTGAAGAGGAAGACGATG	Os07g12900
HMA3-F2/R2	GACATCAACATCCTCATGCTT	CCATTGTCCTCAGGCGATGT	Os07g12900
HMA3-F3/R3	ACATCGCCGTGAGGACAATGG	TTTGCTCTCGATGCTTGAGAT	Os07g12900
HMA3-F4/R4	ATCTCAAGCATCGAGAGCAA	TGAGGATGTCGCTGGACATGA	Os07g12900
HMA3-F5/R5	TCATGTCCAGCGACATCCTCA	GCCGACAGCAGCTCGATGAA	Os07g12900
HMA3-F6/R6	CGTGCTCAACAGCATGCTGCT	AAGATCGAACGGCCATTCTTC	Os07g12900

**Appendix 5** Graphical genotype of *Cdu-B1* and markers associated with *Vrn-B1* in near isogenic parental lines, Kofa and W9262-260D3

Durum Line	<i>Cdu-B1</i> locus markers					<i>Vrn-B1</i> locus markers			
	ScOPc20	<i>Xusw17</i>	<i>Xusw47</i>	<i>Xusw15b</i>	<i>Xusw14</i>	CSFs-1	PCS2	<i>Xwg644</i>	PHY-C
Kofa	D	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A
W9262-260D3	B	B	B	B	B	B	B	B	B
8982-TL-H	D	A	A	A	A	A	A	A	A
8982-TL-L	B	B	B	B	B	A	A	A	A





		Section 19											
	(1369)	1369	1380	1390	1400	1410	1420	1430	1440				
OshMA3_genomic (1285)		GAGAGGCTGTCAAGTTT	CAGGT	TACATT	TCTGTGAGAACTAC	GGCTCT	CGCGAGAACTG	GACGGTGGG	GAASATG				
OshMA3_CDS (904)		-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----				
BdHMA3_genomic (1139)		-----	TTGCAGGC	TACATT	TCTGTGAGAACTAC	GGCTCT	CGCGAGAACTG	GACGGTGGG	GAASATG				
BdHMA3_CDS (862)		-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----				
Langdon_HMA3-A1_genomic (1154)		-----	TGCAGGT	TACATT	TCTGTGAGAACTAC	GGCTCT	CGCGAGAACTG	GACGGTGGG	GAASATG				
Langdon_HMA3-A1_CDS (856)		-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----				
Langdon_THMA3-B1_genomic (1178)		-----	TGCAGGT	TACATT	TCTGTGAGAACTAC	GGCTCT	CGCGAGAACTG	GACGGTGGG	GAASATG				
Langdon_THMA3-B1_CDS (872)		-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----				
Partial_CS_HMA3-D1_genomic (1147)		-----	TGCAGGC	TACATT	TCTGTGAGAACTAC	GGCTCT	CGCGAGAACTG	GACGGTGGG	GAASATG				
		Section 20											
	(1445)	1445	1450	1460	1470	1480	1490	1500	1510	1520			
OshMA3_genomic (1361)		GAGA	GGCTGGTGGAGG	GGCCAG	CAGACAGCA	GGTCC	AGACGCGAGCGGCT	GATCGAT	TCGTCGGCA	AACTACTACA			
OshMA3_CDS (958)		GAGA	GGCTGGTGGAGG	GGCCAG	CAGACAGCA	GGTCC	AGACGCGAGCGGCT	GATCGAT	TCGTCGGCA	AACTACTACA			
BdHMA3_genomic (1201)		GAGA	GGCTGGTGGAGG	GGCCAG	CAGACAGCA	GGTCC	AGACGCGAGCGGCT	GATCGAT	TCGTCGGCA	AACTACTACA			
BdHMA3_CDS (916)		GAGA	GGCTGGTGGAGG	GGCCAG	CAGACAGCA	GGTCC	AGACGCGAGCGGCT	GATCGAT	TCGTCGGCA	AACTACTACA			
Langdon_HMA3-A1_genomic (1215)		GAGA	GGCTGGTGGAGG	GGCCAG	CAGACAGCA	GGTCC	AGACGCGAGCGGCT	GATCGAT	TCGTCGGCA	AACTACTACA			
Langdon_HMA3-A1_CDS (910)		GAGA	GGCTGGTGGAGG	GGCCAG	CAGACAGCA	GGTCC	AGACGCGAGCGGCT	GATCGAT	TCGTCGGCA	AACTACTACA			
Langdon_THMA3-B1_genomic (1239)		GAGA	GGCTGGTGGAGG	GGCCAG	CAGACAGCA	GGTCC	AGACGCGAGCGGCT	GATCGAT	TCGTCGGCA	AACTACTACA			
Langdon_THMA3-B1_CDS (926)		GAGA	GGCTGGTGGAGG	GGCCAG	CAGACAGCA	GGTCC	AGACGCGAGCGGCT	GATCGAT	TCGTCGGCA	AACTACTACA			
Partial_CS_HMA3-D1_genomic (1208)		GAGA	GGCTGGTGGAGG	GGCCAG	CAGACAGCA	GGTCC	AGACGCGAGCGGCT	GATCGAT	TCGTCGGCA	AACTACTACA			
		Section 21											
	(1521)	1521	1530	1540	1550	1560	1570	1580	1590	1596			
OshMA3_genomic (1437)		CGCC	GGTGGCGAATCGGCAT	CGCC	TAAACTCTCAACAT	TCTCCAAT	TTTACAAAC	CAAAAT	TTCAT	CAGTAACAAAG			
OshMA3_CDS (1034)		CGCC	GGTGGCGAATCGGCAT	CGCC	TAAACTCTCAACAT	TCTCCAAT	TTTACAAAC	CAAAAT	TTCAT	CAGTAACAAAG			
BdHMA3_genomic (1277)		CGCC	GGTGGCGAATCGGCAT	CGCC	TAAACTCTCAACAT	TCTCCAAT	TTTACAAAC	CAAAAT	TTCAT	CAGTAACAAAG			
BdHMA3_CDS (992)		CGCC	GGTGGCGAATCGGCAT	CGCC	TAAACTCTCAACAT	TCTCCAAT	TTTACAAAC	CAAAAT	TTCAT	CAGTAACAAAG			
Langdon_HMA3-A1_genomic (1291)		CGCC	GGTGGCGAATCGGCAT	CGCC	TAAACTCTCAACAT	TCTCCAAT	TTTACAAAC	CAAAAT	TTCAT	CAGTAACAAAG			
Langdon_HMA3-A1_CDS (986)		CGCC	GGTGGCGAATCGGCAT	CGCC	TAAACTCTCAACAT	TCTCCAAT	TTTACAAAC	CAAAAT	TTCAT	CAGTAACAAAG			
Langdon_THMA3-B1_genomic (1315)		CGCC	GGTGGCGAATCGGCAT	CGCC	TAAACTCTCAACAT	TCTCCAAT	TTTACAAAC	CAAAAT	TTCAT	CAGTAACAAAG			
Langdon_THMA3-B1_CDS (1002)		CGCC	GGTGGCGAATCGGCAT	CGCC	TAAACTCTCAACAT	TCTCCAAT	TTTACAAAC	CAAAAT	TTCAT	CAGTAACAAAG			
Partial_CS_HMA3-D1_genomic (1284)		CGCC	GGTGGCGAATCGGCAT	CGCC	TAAACTCTCAACAT	TCTCCAAT	TTTACAAAC	CAAAAT	TTCAT	CAGTAACAAAG			
		Section 22											
	(1597)	1597	1610	1620	1630	1640	1650	1660	1672				
OshMA3_genomic (1513)		ACATTTCTGTTCTTGGT	GCGTTGCAG	CCGTGGTGGT	TGTTCC	AGAGGAGTGGG	CTGGA	CCCGGT	CTGCG	CGGA			
OshMA3_CDS (1040)		ACATTTCTGTTCTTGGT	GCGTTGCAG	CCGTGGTGGT	TGTTCC	AGAGGAGTGGG	CTGGA	CCCGGT	CTGCG	CGGA			
BdHMA3_genomic (1283)		ACATTTCTGTTCTTGGT	GCGTTGCAG	CCGTGGTGGT	TGTTCC	AGAGGAGTGGG	CTGGA	CCCGGT	CTGCG	CGGA			
BdHMA3_CDS (998)		ACATTTCTGTTCTTGGT	GCGTTGCAG	CCGTGGTGGT	TGTTCC	AGAGGAGTGGG	CTGGA	CCCGGT	CTGCG	CGGA			
Langdon_HMA3-A1_genomic (1297)		ACATTTCTGTTCTTGGT	GCGTTGCAG	CCGTGGTGGT	TGTTCC	AGAGGAGTGGG	CTGGA	CCCGGT	CTGCG	CGGA			
Langdon_HMA3-A1_CDS (992)		ACATTTCTGTTCTTGGT	GCGTTGCAG	CCGTGGTGGT	TGTTCC	AGAGGAGTGGG	CTGGA	CCCGGT	CTGCG	CGGA			
Langdon_THMA3-B1_genomic (1321)		ACATTTCTGTTCTTGGT	GCGTTGCAG	CCGTGGTGGT	TGTTCC	AGAGGAGTGGG	CTGGA	CCCGGT	CTGCG	CGGA			
Langdon_THMA3-B1_CDS (1008)		ACATTTCTGTTCTTGGT	GCGTTGCAG	CCGTGGTGGT	TGTTCC	AGAGGAGTGGG	CTGGA	CCCGGT	CTGCG	CGGA			
Partial_CS_HMA3-D1_genomic (1290)		ACATTTCTGTTCTTGGT	GCGTTGCAG	CCGTGGTGGT	TGTTCC	AGAGGAGTGGG	CTGGA	CCCGGT	CTGCG	CGGA			
		Section 23											
	(1673)	1673	1680	1690	1700	1710	1720	1730	1748				
OshMA3_genomic (1589)		CGAGAT	GGCCTT	SAGCAATGGG	GGAA	GGTGTCT	TTGGT	GATGCT	GTGAGCGCGTGGCC	ATGAGTGTGT			
OshMA3_CDS (1090)		CGAGAT	GGCCTT	SAGCAATGGG	GGAA	GGTGTCT	TTGGT	GATGCT	GTGAGCGCGTGGCC	ATGAGTGTGT			
BdHMA3_genomic (1333)		CGAGAT	GGCCTT	SAGCAATGGG	GGAA	GGTGTCT	TTGGT	GATGCT	GTGAGCGCGTGGCC	ATGAGTGTGT			
BdHMA3_CDS (1048)		CGAGAT	GGCCTT	SAGCAATGGG	GGAA	GGTGTCT	TTGGT	GATGCT	GTGAGCGCGTGGCC	ATGAGTGTGT			
Langdon_HMA3-A1_genomic (1347)		CGAGAT	GGCCTT	SAGCAATGGG	GGAA	GGTGTCT	TTGGT	GATGCT	GTGAGCGCGTGGCC	ATGAGTGTGT			
Langdon_HMA3-A1_CDS (1042)		CGAGAT	GGCCTT	SAGCAATGGG	GGAA	GGTGTCT	TTGGT	GATGCT	GTGAGCGCGTGGCC	ATGAGTGTGT			
Langdon_THMA3-B1_genomic (1371)		CGAGAT	GGCCTT	SAGCAATGGG	GGAA	GGTGTCT	TTGGT	GATGCT	GTGAGCGCGTGGCC	ATGAGTGTGT			
Langdon_THMA3-B1_CDS (1058)		CGAGAT	GGCCTT	SAGCAATGGG	GGAA	GGTGTCT	TTGGT	GATGCT	GTGAGCGCGTGGCC	ATGAGTGTGT			
Partial_CS_HMA3-D1_genomic (1340)		CGAGAT	GGCCTT	SAGCAATGGG	GGAA	GGTGTCT	TTGGT	GATGCT	GTGAGCGCGTGGCC	ATGAGTGTGT			
		Section 24											
	(1749)	1749	1760	1770	1780	1790	1800	1810	1824				
OshMA3_genomic (1665)		CGAC	ACGGGGGAT	CTTCTGGG	AAAGT	TCGCGG	TGGGATGGG	GAATCA	CAAGGGT	GGAGATGTTCT			
OshMA3_CDS (1166)		CGAC	ACGGGGGAT	CTTCTGGG	AAAGT	TCGCGG	TGGGATGGG	GAATCA	CAAGGGT	GGAGATGTTCT			
BdHMA3_genomic (1409)		CGAC	ACGGGGGAT	CTTCTGGG	AAAGT	TCGCGG	TGGGATGGG	GAATCA	CAAGGGT	GGAGATGTTCT			
BdHMA3_CDS (1124)		CGAC	ACGGGGGAT	CTTCTGGG	AAAGT	TCGCGG	TGGGATGGG	GAATCA	CAAGGGT	GGAGATGTTCT			
Langdon_HMA3-A1_genomic (1423)		CGAC	ACGGGGGAT	CTTCTGGG	AAAGT	TCGCGG	TGGGATGGG	GAATCA	CAAGGGT	GGAGATGTTCT			
Langdon_HMA3-A1_CDS (1118)		CGAC	ACGGGGGAT	CTTCTGGG	AAAGT	TCGCGG	TGGGATGGG	GAATCA	CAAGGGT	GGAGATGTTCT			
Langdon_THMA3-B1_genomic (1447)		CGAC	ACGGGGGAT	CTTCTGGG	AAAGT	TCGCGG	TGGGATGGG	GAATCA	CAAGGGT	GGAGATGTTCT			
Langdon_THMA3-B1_CDS (1134)		CGAC	ACGGGGGAT	CTTCTGGG	AAAGT	TCGCGG	TGGGATGGG	GAATCA	CAAGGGT	GGAGATGTTCT			
Partial_CS_HMA3-D1_genomic (1416)		CGAC	ACGGGGGAT	CTTCTGGG	AAAGT	TCGCGG	TGGGATGGG	GAATCA	CAAGGGT	GGAGATGTTCT			
		Section 25											
	(1825)	1825	1830	1840	1850	1860	1870	1880	1890	1900			
OshMA3_genomic (1741)		TAA	TCATT	GGGAGATCA	GGCCGCT	CCCT	TCGACAAGACCGG	GACGAT	CACCAGAGG	AGAGTTCAC	CAATCCGA		
OshMA3_CDS (1242)		TAA	TCATT	GGGAGATCA	GGCCGCT	CCCT	TCGACAAGACCGG	GACGAT	CACCAGAGG	AGAGTTCAC	CAATCCGA		
BdHMA3_genomic (1485)		GAG	TCC	GGGAGATCA	GGCCGCT	CCCT	TCGACAAGACCGG	GACGAT	CACCAGAGG	AGAGTTCAC	CAATCCGA		
BdHMA3_CDS (1200)		GAG	TCC	GGGAGATCA	GGCCGCT	CCCT	TCGACAAGACCGG	GACGAT	CACCAGAGG	AGAGTTCAC	CAATCCGA		
Langdon_HMA3-A1_genomic (1499)		GAG	TCC	GGGAGATCA	GGCCGCT	CCCT	TCGACAAGACCGG	GACGAT	CACCAGAGG	AGAGTTCAC	CAATCCGA		
Langdon_HMA3-A1_CDS (1194)		GAG	TCC	GGGAGATCA	GGCCGCT	CCCT	TCGACAAGACCGG	GACGAT	CACCAGAGG	AGAGTTCAC	CAATCCGA		
Langdon_THMA3-B1_genomic (1523)		GAG	TCC	GGGAGATCA	GGCCGCT	CCCT	TCGACAAGACCGG	GACGAT	CACCAGAGG	AGAGTTCAC	CAATCCGA		
Langdon_THMA3-B1_CDS (1210)		GAG	TCC	GGGAGATCA	GGCCGCT	CCCT	TCGACAAGACCGG	GACGAT	CACCAGAGG	AGAGTTCAC	CAATCCGA		
Partial_CS_HMA3-D1_genomic (1492)		GAG	TCC	GGGAGATCA	GGCCGCT	CCCT	TCGACAAGACCGG	GACGAT	CACCAGAGG	AGAGTTCAC	CAATCCGA		
		Section 26											
	(1901)	1901	1910	1920	1930	1940	1950	1960	1976				
OshMA3_genomic (1817)		TCT	TCCAT	CGGTTGGG	TCA	CAAGGTT	GAGATG	GATAT	CTTCTTACTGG	TAGATG	GAGAAAGAA	GATTTC	
OshMA3_CDS (1318)		TCT	TCCAT	CGGTTGGG	TCA	CAAGGTT	GAGATG	GATAT	CTTCTTACTGG	TAGATG	GAGAAAGAA	GATTTC	
BdHMA3_genomic (1561)		GCT	TCCAT	CGGTTGGG	TCA	CAAGGTT	GAGATG	GATAT	CTTCTTACTGG	TAGATG	GAGAAAGAA	GATTTC	
BdHMA3_CDS (1276)		GCT	TCCAT	CGGTTGGG	TCA	CAAGGTT	GAGATG	GATAT	CTTCTTACTGG	TAGATG	GAGAAAGAA	GATTTC	
Langdon_HMA3-A1_genomic (1575)		A	TCTCCAT	CGGTTGGG	TCA	CAAGGTT	GAGATG	GATAT	CTTCTTACTGG	TAGATG	GAGAAAGAA	GATTTC	
Langdon_HMA3-A1_CDS (1270)		A	TCTCCAT	CGGTTGGG	TCA	CAAGGTT	GAGATG	GATAT	CTTCTTACTGG	TAGATG	GAGAAAGAA	GATTTC	
Langdon_THMA3-B1_genomic (1599)		A	TCTCCAT	CGGTTGGG	TCA	CAAGGTT	GAGATG	GATAT	CTTCTTACTGG	TAGATG	GAGAAAGAA	GATTTC	
Langdon_THMA3-B1_CDS (1286)		A	TCTCCAT	CGGTTGGG	TCA	CAAGGTT	GAGATG	GATAT	CTTCTTACTGG	TAGATG	GAGAAAGAA	GATTTC	
Partial_CS_HMA3-D1_genomic (1568)		A	TCTCCAT	CGGTTGGG	TCA	CAAGGTT	GAGATG	GATAT	CTTCTTACTGG	TAGATG	GAGAAAGAA	GATTTC	
		Section 27											
	(1977)	1977	1990	2000	2010	2020	2030	2040	2052				
OshMA3_genomic (1893)		ATT	TGAGTCTT	TGGAATGC	AGCTGCTAC	ACTGAACAA	AAATTTGAC	AGATTTTCA	ACTTGTG	TCGGTTTAC	GACTTGT		
OshMA3_CDS (1372)		ATT	TGAGTCTT	TGGAATGC	AGCTGCTAC	ACTGAACAA	AAATTTGAC	AGATTTTCA	ACTTGTG	TCGGTTTAC	GACTTGT		
BdHMA3_genomic (1623)		ACT	TGCACTTT	---CAC---	---CCCTGA---	---	---	---	AACTCATGT	---	---		
BdHMA3_CDS (1327)		ACT	TGCACTTT	---CAC---	---CCCTGA---	---	---	---	AACTCATGT	---	---		
Langdon_HMA3-A1_genomic (1633)		ACC	TG	---	---	---	---	---	AAA	---	---		
Langdon_HMA3-A1_CDS (1321)		ACC	TG	---	---	---	---	---	AAA	---	---		
Langdon_THMA3-B1_genomic (1657)		ACC	TG	---	---	---	---	---	AAA	---	---		
Langdon_THMA3-B1_CDS (1337)		ACC	TG	---	---	---	---	---	AAA	---	---		
Partial_CS_HMA3-D1_genomic (1633)		CTG	TG	TATTGCCAC	ACCTCTTGGG	GGGCAATTG	AAC	---	---	---	---		

	Section 28									
	(2053)	2053	2060	2070	2080	2090	2100	2110	2128	
OsHMA3_genomic (1969)		CGAAAAATCCCTAGTACTTGTGATGGTTGAT								
OsHMA3_CDS (1372)		-----								
BdHMA3_genomic (1652)		-----								
BdHMA3_CDS (1327)		-----								
Langdon_HMA3-A1_genomic (1638)		-----								
Langdon_HMA3-A1_CDS (1321)		-----								
Langdon_THMA3-B1_genomic (1696)		-----								
Langdon_THMA3-B1_CDS (1337)		-----								
Partial_CS_HMA3-D1_genomic (1668)		-----								
	Section 29									
	(2129)	2129	2140	2150	2160	2170	2180	2190	2204	
OsHMA3_genomic (2045)		TAATTCAGGATTTGCAAGCATT								
OsHMA3_CDS (1372)		-----								
BdHMA3_genomic (1676)		CTTCAGGATTTGCAAGCATT								
BdHMA3_CDS (1327)		-----								
Langdon_HMA3-A1_genomic (1688)		TTTTCAGGATTTGCAAGCATT								
Langdon_HMA3-A1_CDS (1321)		-----								
Langdon_THMA3-B1_genomic (1722)		CTTCAGGATTTGCAAGCATT								
Langdon_THMA3-B1_CDS (1337)		-----								
Partial_CS_HMA3-D1_genomic (1707)		CTTCAGGATTTGCAAGCATT								
	Section 30									
	(2205)	2205	2210	2220	2230	2240	2250	2260	2270	2280
OsHMA3_genomic (2121)		AATCATCCAAACAAACCCGGAAATG								
OsHMA3_CDS (1439)		-----								
BdHMA3_genomic (1752)		AATCATCCAAACAAACCCGGAAATG								
BdHMA3_CDS (1394)		-----								
Langdon_HMA3-A1_genomic (1764)		AATCATCCAAACAAACCCGGAAATG								
Langdon_HMA3-A1_CDS (1388)		-----								
Langdon_THMA3-B1_genomic (1798)		AATCATCCAAACAAACCCGGAAATG								
Langdon_THMA3-B1_CDS (1404)		-----								
Partial_CS_HMA3-D1_genomic (1783)		AATCATCCAAACAAACCCGGAAATG								
	Section 31									
	(2281)	2281	2290	2300	2310	2320	2330	2340	2356	
OsHMA3_genomic (2197)		TGGAAGGCATCTAATGGAAACAGAGG								
OsHMA3_CDS (1515)		-----								
BdHMA3_genomic (1828)		TGGAAGGCATCTAATGGAAACAGAGG								
BdHMA3_CDS (1470)		-----								
Langdon_HMA3-A1_genomic (1840)		TGGAAGGCATCTAATGGAAACAGAGG								
Langdon_HMA3-A1_CDS (1464)		-----								
Langdon_THMA3-B1_genomic (1874)		TGGAAGGCATCTAATGGAAACAGAGG								
Langdon_THMA3-B1_CDS (1480)		-----								
Partial_CS_HMA3-D1_genomic (1857)		TGGAAGGCATCTAATGGAAACAGAGG								
	Section 32									
	(2357)	2357	2370	2380	2390	2400	2410	2420	2432	
OsHMA3_genomic (2265)		AAAACACATCATTTGAGTAGTAC								
OsHMA3_CDS (1577)		-----								
BdHMA3_genomic (1896)		A---C-----								
BdHMA3_CDS (1532)		-----								
Langdon_HMA3-A1_genomic (1907)		-----								
Langdon_HMA3-A1_CDS (1526)		-----								
Langdon_THMA3-B1_genomic (1940)		-----								
Langdon_THMA3-B1_CDS (1542)		-----								
Partial_CS_HMA3-D1_genomic (1924)		-----								
	Section 33									
	(2433)	2433	2440	2450	2460	2470	2480	2490	2508	
OsHMA3_genomic (2341)		TGACGAAGTGAATCTGTGACGT								
OsHMA3_CDS (1577)		-----								
BdHMA3_genomic (1955)		T---TCTGTC-----								
BdHMA3_CDS (1532)		-----								
Langdon_HMA3-A1_genomic (1965)		AAATTTCTT-----								
Langdon_HMA3-A1_CDS (1526)		-----								
Langdon_THMA3-B1_genomic (1999)		AAACTTCTT-----								
Langdon_THMA3-B1_CDS (1542)		-----								
Partial_CS_HMA3-D1_genomic (1978)		AAACTTCTT-----								
	Section 34									
	(2509)	2509	2520	2530	2540	2550	2560	2570	2584	
OsHMA3_genomic (2414)		CGTGATCTGGCAGCGGAGTTCGGC								
OsHMA3_CDS (1620)		-----								
BdHMA3_genomic (2020)		CGTGATCTGGCAGCGGAGTTCGGC								
BdHMA3_CDS (1578)		-----								
Langdon_HMA3-A1_genomic (2026)		CGTGATCTGGCAGCGGAGTTCGGC								
Langdon_HMA3-A1_CDS (1569)		-----								
Langdon_THMA3-B1_genomic (2060)		CGTGATCTGGCAGCGGAGTTCGGC								
Langdon_THMA3-B1_CDS (1585)		-----								
Partial_CS_HMA3-D1_genomic (2039)		CGTGATCTGGCAGCGGAGTTCGGC								
	Section 35									
	(2585)	2585	2590	2600	2610	2620	2630	2640	2650	2660
OsHMA3_genomic (2490)		CGGAGCTTGGATGCTGGGCATCAAG								
OsHMA3_CDS (1696)		-----								
BdHMA3_genomic (2096)		CAGGAACATAAGCATGGGCATCAAA								
BdHMA3_CDS (1654)		-----								
Langdon_HMA3-A1_genomic (2102)		CGGAGCTTGGATGCTGGGCATCAAG								
Langdon_HMA3-A1_CDS (1645)		-----								
Langdon_THMA3-B1_genomic (2136)		CGGAGCTTGGATGCTGGGCATCAAG								
Langdon_THMA3-B1_CDS (1661)		-----								
Partial_CS_HMA3-D1_genomic (2115)		CGGAGCTTGGATGCTGGGCATCAAG								
	Section 36									
	(2661)	2661	2670	2680	2690	2700	2710	2720	2736	
OsHMA3_genomic (2566)		GCCAGCTCGGGGCGT---								
OsHMA3_CDS (1772)		-----								
BdHMA3_genomic (2172)		CAGGAACATAAGCATGGGCATCAAA								
BdHMA3_CDS (1730)		-----								
Langdon_HMA3-A1_genomic (2178)		CGGAGCTTGGATGCTGGGCATCAAG								
Langdon_HMA3-A1_CDS (1721)		-----								
Langdon_THMA3-B1_genomic (2212)		CGGAGCTTGGATGCTGGGCATCAAG								
Langdon_THMA3-B1_CDS (1737)		-----								
Partial_CS_HMA3-D1_genomic (2191)		CGGAGCTTGGATGCTGGGCATCAAG								

		Section 37									
	(2737)	2737	2750	2760	2770	2780	2790	2800	2812		
OsHMA3_genomic (2639)	C	T	C	A	A	G	G	C	C	G	G
OsHMA3_CDS (1845)	C	T	C	A	A	G	G	C	C	G	G
BdHMA3_genomic (2245)	C	T	C	A	A	G	G	C	C	G	G
BdHMA3_CDS (1803)	C	T	C	A	A	G	G	C	C	G	G
Langdon_HMA3-A1_genomic (2251)	C	T	C	A	A	G	G	C	C	G	G
Langdon_HMA3-A1_CDS (1794)	C	T	C	A	A	G	G	C	C	G	G
Langdon_THMA3-B1_genomic (2288)	C	T	C	A	A	G	G	C	C	G	G
Langdon_THMA3-B1_CDS (1813)	C	T	C	A	A	G	G	C	C	G	G
Partial_CS_HMA3-D1_genomic (2264)	C	T	C	A	A	G	G	C	C	G	G
		Section 38									
	(2813)	2813	2820	2830	2840	2850	2860	2870	2888		
OsHMA3_genomic (2715)	G	T	G	G	G	C	G	T	G	C	A
OsHMA3_CDS (1921)	G	T	G	G	G	C	G	T	G	C	A
BdHMA3_genomic (2321)	G	T	G	G	G	C	G	T	G	C	A
BdHMA3_CDS (1879)	G	T	G	G	G	C	G	T	G	C	A
Langdon_HMA3-A1_genomic (2327)	G	T	G	G	G	C	G	T	G	C	A
Langdon_HMA3-A1_CDS (1870)	G	T	G	G	G	C	G	T	G	C	A
Langdon_THMA3-B1_genomic (2364)	G	T	G	G	G	C	G	T	G	C	A
Langdon_THMA3-B1_CDS (1889)	G	T	G	G	G	C	G	T	G	C	A
Partial_CS_HMA3-D1_genomic (2340)	G	T	G	G	G	C	G	T	G	C	A
		Section 39									
	(2889)	2889	2900	2910	2920	2930	2940	2950	2964		
OsHMA3_genomic (2791)	G	C	T	C	A	G	G	C	C	G	G
OsHMA3_CDS (1997)	G	C	T	C	A	G	G	C	C	G	G
BdHMA3_genomic (2397)	G	C	T	C	A	G	G	C	C	G	G
BdHMA3_CDS (1955)	G	C	T	C	A	G	G	C	C	G	G
Langdon_HMA3-A1_genomic (2403)	G	C	T	C	A	G	G	C	C	G	G
Langdon_HMA3-A1_CDS (1946)	G	C	T	C	A	G	G	C	C	G	G
Langdon_THMA3-B1_genomic (2440)	G	C	T	C	A	G	G	C	C	G	G
Langdon_THMA3-B1_CDS (1965)	G	C	T	C	A	G	G	C	C	G	G
Partial_CS_HMA3-D1_genomic (2416)	G	C	T	C	A	G	G	C	C	G	G
		Section 40									
	(2965)	2965	2970	2980	2990	3000	3010	3020	3030	3040	
OsHMA3_genomic (2867)	G	C	C	G	C	G	C	C	G	C	
OsHMA3_CDS (2073)	G	C	C	G	C	G	C	C	G	C	
BdHMA3_genomic (2473)	G	C	C	G	C	G	C	C	G	C	
BdHMA3_CDS (2031)	G	C	C	G	C	G	C	C	G	C	
Langdon_HMA3-A1_genomic (2479)	G	C	C	G	C	G	C	C	G	C	
Langdon_HMA3-A1_CDS (2022)	G	C	C	G	C	G	C	C	G	C	
Langdon_THMA3-B1_genomic (2516)	G	C	C	G	C	G	C	C	G	C	
Langdon_THMA3-B1_CDS (2041)	G	C	C	G	C	G	C	C	G	C	
Partial_CS_HMA3-D1_genomic (2492)	G	C	C	G	C	G	C	C	G	C	
		Section 41									
	(3041)	3041	3050	3060	3070	3080	3090	3100	3116		
OsHMA3_genomic (2943)	G	G	A	C	G	T	G	C	T	C	
OsHMA3_CDS (2149)	G	G	A	C	G	T	G	C	T	C	
BdHMA3_genomic (2549)	G	G	A	C	G	T	G	C	T	C	
BdHMA3_CDS (2107)	G	G	A	C	G	T	G	C	T	C	
Langdon_HMA3-A1_genomic (2555)	G	G	A	C	G	T	G	C	T	C	
Langdon_HMA3-A1_CDS (2098)	G	G	A	C	G	T	G	C	T	C	
Langdon_THMA3-B1_genomic (2592)	G	G	A	C	G	T	G	C	T	C	
Langdon_THMA3-B1_CDS (2117)	G	G	A	C	G	T	G	C	T	C	
Partial_CS_HMA3-D1_genomic (2568)	G	G	A	C	G	T	G	C	T	C	
		Section 42									
	(3117)	3117	3130	3140	3150	3160	3170	3180	3192		
OsHMA3_genomic (3010)	A	G	A	G	A	C	G	G	G	T	
OsHMA3_CDS (2216)	A	G	A	G	A	C	G	G	G	T	
BdHMA3_genomic (2625)	A	G	A	G	A	C	G	G	G	T	
BdHMA3_CDS (2183)	A	G	A	G	A	C	G	G	G	T	
Langdon_HMA3-A1_genomic (2620)	A	G	A	G	A	C	G	G	G	T	
Langdon_HMA3-A1_CDS (2163)	A	G	A	G	A	C	G	G	G	T	
Langdon_THMA3-B1_genomic (2657)	A	G	A	G	A	C	G	G	G	T	
Langdon_THMA3-B1_CDS (2182)	A	G	A	G	A	C	G	G	G	T	
Partial_CS_HMA3-D1_genomic (2633)	A	G	A	G	A	C	G	G	G	T	
		Section 43									
	(3193)	3193	3200	3210	3220	3230	3240	3250	3268		
OsHMA3_genomic (3077)	C	A	A	C	A	C	C	A	A	C	
OsHMA3_CDS (2283)	C	A	A	C	A	C	C	A	A	C	
BdHMA3_genomic (2701)	T	C	G	T	C	C	A	A	A	G	
BdHMA3_CDS (2259)	T	C	G	T	C	C	A	A	A	G	
Langdon_HMA3-A1_genomic (2689)	A	C	C	G	A	C	C	A	A	A	
Langdon_HMA3-A1_CDS (2232)	A	C	C	G	A	C	C	A	A	A	
Langdon_THMA3-B1_genomic (2726)	A	C	C	G	A	C	C	A	A	A	
Langdon_THMA3-B1_CDS (2251)	A	C	C	G	A	C	C	A	A	A	
Partial_CS_HMA3-D1_genomic (2702)	A	C	C	G	A	C	C	A	A	A	
		Section 44									
	(3269)	3269	3280	3290	3300	3310	3320	3330	3344		
OsHMA3_genomic (3141)	T	G	T	C	G	A	A	C	G	G	
OsHMA3_CDS (2347)	T	G	T	C	G	A	A	C	G	G	
BdHMA3_genomic (2777)	T	G	T	C	G	A	A	C	G	G	
BdHMA3_CDS (2335)	T	G	T	C	G	A	A	C	G	G	
Langdon_HMA3-A1_genomic (2753)	T	G	T	C	G	A	A	C	G	G	
Langdon_HMA3-A1_CDS (2296)	T	G	T	C	G	A	A	C	G	G	
Langdon_THMA3-B1_genomic (2793)	T	G	T	C	G	A	A	C	G	G	
Langdon_THMA3-B1_CDS (2318)	T	G	T	C	G	A	A	C	G	G	
Partial_CS_HMA3-D1_genomic (2766)	T	G	T	C	G	A	A	C	G	G	
		Section 45									
	(3345)	3345	3350	3360	3370	3380	3390	3400	3420		
OsHMA3_genomic (3214)	A	C	G	G	C	C	G	A	G	C	
OsHMA3_CDS (2420)	A	C	G	G	C	C	G	A	G	C	
BdHMA3_genomic (2853)	T	A	G	A	A	T	T	C	G	C	
BdHMA3_CDS (2411)	T	A	G	A	A	T	T	C	G	C	
Langdon_HMA3-A1_genomic (2823)	G	C	C	A	A	C	C	A	A	A	
Langdon_HMA3-A1_CDS (2366)	G	C	C	A	A	C	C	A	A	A	
Langdon_THMA3-B1_genomic (2863)	G	C	C	A	A	C	C	A	A	A	
Langdon_THMA3-B1_CDS (2388)	G	C	C	A	A	C	C	A	A	A	
Partial_CS_HMA3-D1_genomic (2836)	G	C	C	A	A	C	C	A	A	A	





**Appendix 7** Alignment of HMA3-A1 and HMA3-B1 predicted protein sequences from durum wheat. Amin acids color coded based on similarity: yellow – identical, blue – conserved, green – similar, white – non-similar

		(1)	1	10	20	30	40	50	60	70	80	Section 1
Langdon HMA3-A1	(1)	MGGGESY	P	L	A	S	L	L	E	A	A	A
W9262-260D3_HMA3-B1	(1)	MGGGESY	P	L	A	S	L	L	E	A	A	A
Langdon/Kofa_HMA3-B1	(1)	MGGGESY	A	A	S	R	R	R	R	R	R	R
												-----
		(81)	81	90	100	110	120	130	140	150	160	Section 2
Langdon HMA3-A1	(81)	VKVLNGAGLEASV	R	A	Y	G	S	S	G	F	I	G
W9262-260D3_HMA3-B1	(81)	VKVLNGAGLEASV	R	A	Y	G	S	S	G	F	I	G
Langdon/Kofa_HMA3-B1	(60)	-----										-----
		(161)	161	170	180	190	200	210	220	230	240	Section 3
Langdon HMA3-A1	(161)	ILMLI	A	V	A	G	A	V	A	L	K	D
W9262-260D3_HMA3-B1	(161)	ILMLI	A	V	A	G	A	V	A	L	K	D
Langdon/Kofa_HMA3-B1	(60)	-----										-----
		(241)	241	250	260	270	280	290	300	310	320	Section 4
Langdon HMA3-A1	(241)	EMV	P	V	D	G	V	V	D	G	Q	S
W9262-260D3_HMA3-B1	(241)	EMV	P	V	D	G	V	V	D	G	Q	S
Langdon/Kofa_HMA3-B1	(60)	-----										-----
		(321)	321	330	340	350	360	370	380	390	400	Section 5
Langdon HMA3-A1	(321)	TD	S	C	A	R	Y	T	P	A	V	V
W9262-260D3_HMA3-B1	(321)	TD	S	C	A	R	Y	T	P	A	V	V
Langdon/Kofa_HMA3-B1	(60)	-----										-----
		(401)	401	410	420	430	440	450	460	470	480	Section 6
Langdon HMA3-A1	(401)	L	G	E	I	R	A	V	A	F	D	K
W9262-260D3_HMA3-B1	(401)	L	G	E	I	R	A	V	A	F	D	K
Langdon/Kofa_HMA3-B1	(60)	-----										-----
		(481)	481	490	500	510	520	530	540	550	560	Section 7
Langdon HMA3-A1	(481)	E	G	I	Y	G	E	I	D	G	M	R
W9262-260D3_HMA3-B1	(481)	E	G	I	Y	G	E	I	D	G	M	R
Langdon/Kofa_HMA3-B1	(60)	-----										-----
		(561)	561	570	580	590	600	610	620	630	640	Section 8
Langdon HMA3-A1	(561)	L	T	G	D	S	A	E	A	V	H	A
W9262-260D3_HMA3-B1	(561)	L	T	G	D	S	A	E	A	V	H	A
Langdon/Kofa_HMA3-B1	(60)	-----										-----
		(641)	641	650	660	670	680	690	700	710	720	Section 9
Langdon HMA3-A1	(641)	S	H	A	T	L	M	S	S	D	I	L
W9262-260D3_HMA3-B1	(641)	S	H	A	T	L	M	S	S	D	I	L
Langdon/Kofa_HMA3-B1	(60)	-----										-----
		(721)	721	730	740	750	760	770	780	790	800	Section 10
Langdon HMA3-A1	(721)	R	G	K	E	A	C	R	A	T	A	R
W9262-260D3_HMA3-B1	(721)	R	G	K	E	A	C	R	A	T	A	R
Langdon/Kofa_HMA3-B1	(60)	-----										-----
		(801)	801	810	828							Section 11
Langdon HMA3-A1	(799)	K	R	V	E	Y	S	-----	S	S	C	V
W9262-260D3_HMA3-B1	(801)	K	R	V	E	Y	S	-----	S	S	C	V
Langdon/Kofa_HMA3-B1	(60)	-----										-----

**Appendix 8** Origin and pedigree of global collection of durum wheat breeding lines and cultivars (Modified from Reimer et al. 2008)

<b>Accession</b>	<b>Origin</b>	<b>Pedigree</b>
Bonaerance Inta Cumenay	Argentina	Unknown
Bonaerance Quilaco	Argentina	MAGH72//GS/AA//RABI//D21563/AA
Bonaerance Valverde	Argentina	GIORGIO//CAPELLI/YUMA
Buck Ambar	Argentina	Unknown
Buck Topacio	Argentina	Unknown
Ocotillo	Arizona	Unknown
920334	Australia	69850/ 86014
940030	Australia	Unknown
940435	Australia	Unknown
950329	Australia	Unknown
950090	Australia	Unknown
950844	Australia	Unknown
940955	Australia	Unknown
Tamaroi	Australia	RUFF/FLAMINGO-DW//MEXICALI-75//SHEARWATER/56113/TAM-1-B-17/KAMILAROI/56112/WELLS/56111//GUILLEMOT
Wollaroi	Australia	TAM-1-B-17/(SIB)KAMILAROI//ROKEL(S)/(SIB)KAMILAROI
AC Morse	Canada	RL 7196/DT 610
AC Napoleon	Canada	VIC/DT384//DT 471
9661-AF1D	Canada	W9262-260D3/ARUBA//DT 662
9661-CA5E	Canada	W9262-260D3/ARUBA//DT 662
AC Avonlea	Canada	8267-AD2A/DT 61
AC Melita	Canada	MEDORA/LLOYD
AC Navigator	Canada	KYLE/WESTBRED 881
AC Pathfinder	Canada	WESTBRED 881/DT 367
DT691	Canada	DT618/ 8667-D216C//DT 637
DT695	Canada	DT 471/2*KYLE
DT696	Canada	DT618/DT 637//KYLE
Kyle	Canada	6962-92-8-5/ 6965-494-
Commander	Canada	W9260-BK03/AC NAVIGATOR//AC PATHFINDER
DT704	Canada	AC AVONLEA/DT 665

<b>Accession</b>	<b>Origin</b>	<b>Pedigree</b>
DT705	Canada	AC AVONLEA/DT 665
DT707	Canada	AC AVONLEA/DT 665
DT709	Canada	DT 674/DT 665
DT710	Canada	DT618/GREEN 27
DT711	Canada	WESTBRED 881/W9260-BK03
Strongfield	Canada	AC AVONLEA/DT 665
D24-1773	Canada	DT 520/D94078
DT513	Canada	DT 625/DT 612
DT532	Canada	D92269/D92413
DT536	Canada	D94350/D93108
CDC Verona	Canada	D95253/D95116
Carioca	France	CID 479402
RABD 93.40	France	Unknown
Tetradur	France	EDMORE//CAPDUR/REGAL
Durabon	Germany	SIGNADUR/EDM//P 4312.86
Durafit	Germany	Unknown
44616	Iran	Unknown
44721	Iran	Unknown
CRDW17	Iran	Unknown
D-73-15	Iran	Unknown
Simeto	Italy	CAPEITI/VALNOVA
Colosseo	Italy	CRESO/MEXA
Duilio	Italy	CAPPELLI//ANHINGA/FLAMINGO
Grazia	Italy	ISWRN-21/VALSELVA
Fortore	Italy	CAPEITI 8/VALFORTE
Flavio	Italy	LATINO/CAPPELLI
Lesina	Italy	Unknown
Varano	Italy	CAPEITI 8/CRESO//CRESO//VALFORTE/TRINAKRIA
Bronte	Italy	BERILLO/LATINO
Ciccio	Italy	APPULO/VALNOVA//VALFORTE/PATRIZIO
Demetra	Italy	MESSAPIA/GIOIA
Gianna	Italy	Unknown

Accession	Origin	Pedigree
Iride	Italy	ALTAR 84/ARES-SIB
Medda	Italy	TRINAKRIA/VALFORTE
Mongibello	Italy	TRINAKRIA/VALFORTE
Parsifal	Italy	INRA92-1/D81028
Svevo	Italy	SELEZIONE CIMMYT/WB881
Tresor	Italy	AMBER-DURUM/S-22-80
Green27	Mexico	STERNA- DW 2/GRAVELOTE
Green34	Mexico	STERNA- DW 2/GRAVELOTE
Nacori97a	Mexico	ALTAR 84/CMH82A.1062//CD58230- ?
Gidara 17a	Morocco	Unknown
Marjak	Morocco	Unknown
DHTON1	Morocco	Unknown
D940027	ND-USDA	D88104/D88207
D940098	ND-USDA	D88450/D87436
D941038	ND-USDA	D86117/D88289
D95580	ND-USDA	BELZER/D88058//D88276
Plaza	ND-USDA	PLENTY/D8291
Arrivato	New Zealand	Unknown
CFR5001	New Zealand	Unknown
K-39099	Russia	LV-URAZOVSKII R-N,VORONEZHSKAYA OBL
Agridur	Spain	EDMORE//CIMMYT 303/CHANDUR
Altar-Aos	Spain	Altar/Aos
Arcobelano	Spain	CHEN/ALTAR 84
Ariesol	Spain	Unknown
Borli	Spain	Unknown
Camacho	Spain	Unknown
Gallareta	Spain	RUFF/FLAMINGO-DW//MEXICALI-75/3/SHEARWATER/4/?
Mexa	Spain	GDOVZ469///JO 1//61.130/LDS
Vitron	Spain	TURCHIA-77///JORI-SIB/ANHINGA-SIB//FLAMINGO-SIB
Durex	U.S.	AZ-MFSRS-86
Langdon	U.S.	LDN240/KHAPLI//LANGDON 308///MINDUM*3/VERNAL/4/VERNAL EMMER/3*MINDUM
Langdon(DIC-6B)	U.S.	LANGDON/ <i>Triticum dicoccoides</i> (disomic chromosome substitution line)
Westbred881	U.S.	WARD/WLS//CNDO/WCA//MEXI/WB1000

<b>Accession</b>	<b>Origin</b>	<b>Pedigree</b>
Kofa	U.S.	DICOCCUM ALPHA
Kronos	U.S.	APB MSFRS POP SEL (D03-21)