

# Genetic Architecture and QTL Selection Response For Kernza Perennial Grain Domestication Traits

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## Research Article

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1 **Genetic architecture and QTL selection response for Kernza perennial grain domestication**  
2 **traits**

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25 **KEY MESSAGE**

26 Analysis revealed that the genetic architecture of an intermediate wheatgrass population was  
27 highly polygenic for both domestication and agronomic traits supporting the use of genomic  
28 selection for new crop domestication.

29 **ABSTRACT**

30 Perennial grains have the potential to provide food for humans as well as decrease the negative  
31 impacts of annual agriculture. Intermediate wheatgrass (IWG, *Thinopyrum intermedium*,  
32 Kernza®) is a promising perennial grain candidate that The Land Institute has been breeding  
33 since 2001. We evaluated four consecutive breeding cycles of IWG from 2016-2020 with each  
34 cycle containing approximately 1100 unique genets. Using genotyping-by-sequencing markers,  
35 quantitative trait loci (QTL) were mapped for 34 different traits using genome-wide association  
36 analysis. Combining data across cycles and years, we found 93 marker-trait associations (MTA)  
37 for 16 different traits, with each association explaining 0.8-5.2% of the observed phenotypic  
38 variance. Across the four cycles, only three QTL showed an  $F_{ST}$  differentiation  $> 0.15$  with two  
39 corresponding to a decrease in floret shattering. Additionally, one marker associated with brittle  
40 rachis was 216 bp from an ortholog of the *btr2* gene. Power analysis and quantitative genetic  
41 theory was used to estimate the effective number of QTL, which ranged from a minimum of 33  
42 up to 558 QTL for individual traits. This study suggests that key agronomic and domestication  
43 traits are under polygenic control, and that molecular methods like genomic selection are needed  
44 to accelerate domestication and improvement of this new crop.

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47 **KEY WORDS**

48 Domestication, genome-wide association study, intermediate wheatgrass, Kernza, perennial  
49 grain, *Thinopyrum intermedium*

50 **ABBREVIATIONS**

51 BLUP, best linear unbiased predictor; FDR, false discovery rate;  $F_{ST}$ , fixation index; FSU, floret  
52 site utilization; GBS, genotyping-by-sequencing; GRM, genomic relationship matrix; GS,  
53 genomic selection; GWAS, genome wide association study; IWG, intermediate wheatgrass; LD,  
54 linkage disequilibrium; LOD, logarithm of the odds; MTA, marker-trait association; PVE,  
55 percent variance explained; QTL, quantitative trait loci; SNP, single nucleotide polymorphism;  
56 TLI, The Land Institute

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## 59 INTRODUCTION

60 Perennial grain crops have the potential to revolutionize agriculture. In contrast to their annual  
61 counterparts that require regular tillage and anthropogenic disturbances (Crews et al. 2018),  
62 perennials could provide a host of ecosystem services (Glover et al. 2010; Crews et al. 2018).  
63 Documented ecosystem services by perennial crops include reduced nitrate leaching (Culman et  
64 al. 2013; Jungers et al. 2019), more complex soil communities (Culman et al. 2010), greater  
65 ability to store and retain carbon (Sprunger et al. 2018), and increased nutrient cycling (Pugliese  
66 et al. 2019). Although there are currently no large scale perennial grain crops, the development  
67 and utilization of such crops could transform both the sustainability and economic foundations of  
68 agriculture (Crews et al. 2018).

69 Intermediate wheatgrass (IWG, *Thinopyrum intermedium* (Host) Barkworth & D.R. Dewey,  
70 trade name Kernza) is the closest perennial relative of wheat and has a similar allohexaploid  
71 genome ( $2n=6x=42$ ). Based on comparisons of nearly 100 species of perennial grasses, IWG  
72 was first identified for domestication in the 1980's by work at the Rodale Institute (Kutztown,  
73 Pennsylvania, USA) because of its relatively large seed size, promising yield, and palatability  
74 (Wagoner 1990a, b). In addition to more favorable agronomic traits, the grain has a soft  
75 endosperm comparable to soft wheat (*Triticum aestivum*) (Bajgain et al. 2020b), with quality  
76 evaluations showing IWG has higher levels of amino acids, protein, and bran percentage than  
77 wheat (Becker et al. 1991). Even though IWG has higher grain yield than many perennials, it is  
78 estimated to only be 10-20% of the yield of annual wheat (DeHaan et al. 2014; DeHaan and  
79 Ismail 2017), necessitating sustained breeding efforts to increase the yield of this potential grain  
80 crop. Additionally, several other agronomic and domestication traits such as reduced shattering,  
81 increased seed size, and improved threshability are needed to make IWG a mainstream crop.

82 Uninterrupted breeding efforts to improve IWG have been conducted at The Land Institute  
83 (TLI), Salina, Kansas, USA, since 2001 (DeHaan et al. 2018), with new breeding programs being  
84 initiated in Minnesota, USA (2011), Manitoba, Canada (2011), Utah, USA (2019), and Uppsala,  
85 Sweden (2019) (Cattani 2016; Zhang et al. 2016; Bajgain et al. 2020b). While the initial cycles  
86 of selection relied on recurrent phenotypic selection (Zhang et al. 2016; DeHaan et al. 2018),  
87 advances in low cost, high-throughput DNA sequencing has permitted IWG breeding to harness  
88 the power of genomic selection (GS) (Zhang et al. 2016; Bajgain et al. 2020a; Crain et al. 2020a,

89 2021b, a). Within TLI's breeding program, GS has reduced the breeding cycle from three years  
90 to one year per cycle (DeHaan et al. 2018) and simultaneously maintained an estimated 8% year<sup>-1</sup>  
91 increase in spike yield (Crain et al. 2021a). Furthermore, decreased sequencing cost has  
92 resulted in a wealth of genomic information for crop improvement including genetic maps  
93 (Kantarski et al. 2016), a draft genome sequence ([https://phytozome-](https://phytozome-next.jgi.doe.gov/info/Tintermedium_v2_1)  
94 [next.jgi.doe.gov/info/Tintermedium\\_v2\\_1](https://phytozome-next.jgi.doe.gov/info/Tintermedium_v2_1)). These genomics resources have enabled genome-  
95 wide association studies (GWAS) for agronomic traits including seed size (Zhang et al. 2017;  
96 Larson et al. 2019), flowering time (Altendorf et al. 2021b), and grain yield components (Bajgain  
97 et al. 2019; Larson et al. 2019) that can be used to better understand and guide IWG breeding.

98 Since initiating GS in 2017, TLI has completed four cycles of selection for reducing seed  
99 shattering, enhancing threshability to produce naked seed (free-threshing trait), increasing seed  
100 mass, and developing higher yield per spike. Even though selections have been primarily based  
101 on GS models for these few primary traits, up to 34 traits have been measured which allow for a  
102 holistic assessment of the breeding program. The estimated genetic gains have generally been  
103 favorable and at a more rapid rate than phenotypic selection alone, yet there has been some  
104 evidence of unanticipated results. Within the breeding program, increasing spike yield has been  
105 associated with increased seeds per spike, number of florets per spike, and florets per spikelet,  
106 yet the floret site utilization (FSU, referred to as percent seed set in Crain *et al.*, 2021a)  
107 decreased, suggesting less efficient use of resources. While FSU has not been a direct target of  
108 selection in the TLI program, Altendorf et al. (2021a) have found that FSU was the primary  
109 driver of yield for spaced plants grown on 1m centers (e.g. one-meter spacing between plants).

110 Within annual wheat, increasing the number of seeds per spikelet (Würschum et al. 2018) or  
111 spike fertility, percent of grain weight to total spike weight, has been shown to increase yield  
112 (Alonso et al. 2018), yet Philipp et al. (2018) reported that there appears to be little evidence that  
113 the number of spikelets per spike has been improved in elite varieties from landraces or wild  
114 germplasm. Wheat and barley display indeterminate numbers of fertile florets per spikelet or  
115 spikelets per spike, respectively, but are otherwise determinate for these traits, illustrating  
116 different ways of increasing the number of seed per spike (Zhong et al. 2021). Although IWG is  
117 indeterminate for the number of fertile florets per spikelet and spikelets per spike, a key element  
118 that should be considered is the difference between annual and perennial life cycle, specifically if

119 a high yielding perennial grain crop is viable. Research has shown that perennials devote more  
120 resources below ground than do their annual counterparts, and that this allocation is a precursor  
121 to switching between perennial and annual life cycles (Lindberg et al. 2020). Additionally,  
122 selecting for higher seed yield may induce concessions from below ground resources and plant  
123 longevity (Vico et al. 2016).

124 While there are some arguments against perennial grains due to the ecological and physiological  
125 limitation of perennial plants (Smaje 2015), current work suggest that favorable gains can be  
126 made through artificial selection (DeHaan et al. 2014; Zhang et al. 2016; Crain et al. 2021a). As  
127 breeding programs mature, they should assess whether the realized gains in perennial crops are  
128 matching the target gains for both agronomic yield and increased ecosystem services. Given the  
129 rapid cycling nature of the TLI IWG breeding program and the results from the first few cycles  
130 of GS (Crain et al. 2021a), our objectives are to 1) conduct a GWAS for observed traits to  
131 identify associated loci for key agronomic traits, 2) determine the genetic architecture of the  
132 observed traits, 3) assess allele frequency changes across the four cycles of selection for  
133 significant marker-trait associations, and 4) evaluate the potential selection opportunities to drive  
134 genetic gains for desirable physiological and agronomic outcomes such as high grain yield and  
135 high FSU.

## 136 MATERIALS AND METHODS

### 137 *Plant Material*

138 All plant material used in this study came from the TLI breeding program, Cycles 6 to 9, with  
139 TLI-Cycle 6 being extensively described in DeHaan *et al.* (2018) and TLI-Cycles 7 to 9 detailed  
140 in Crain *et al.* (2021a, b). Briefly, TLI-cycle 6 formed the initial training population for GS and  
141 consisted of 3,658 space planted genets that were evaluated in 2016 and 2017 at Salina, KS  
142 (Crain *et al.* 2021b). As outcrossed IWG plants are all unique and heterozygous (excluding  
143 clones or ramets), the term “genet” herein refers to a genetically unique individual which is  
144 typically a single plant but possibly cloned ramets, while genotype herein refers to the DNA  
145 sequence of a particular genet (Zhang *et al.* 2016). Phenotypic data alone was used to select TLI-  
146 Cycle 6 genets that were randomly intermated to form TLI-Cycle 7. Genomic selection was used  
147 to identify 118 TLI-Cycle 7 genets, out of 4,183 genotyped, to intermate to form TLI-Cycle 8  
148 seed. Another 1,216 TLI-Cycle 7 genets were selected for field evaluations to train future GS  
149 models and divided randomly between an irrigated and non-irrigated site. Genets were space  
150 planted on 0.91m centers in the fall of 2017 with phenotypic evaluations in 2018, 2019, and  
151 2020. TLI-Cycle 8 and 9 were formed in a same manner with around 100 selected genets  
152 intermated to form each subsequent cycle out of nearly 3,500 genotyped genets. Planting was  
153 similar to TLI-Cycle 7, where individual genets were divided between irrigated and non-irrigated  
154 sites and planted on 0.91m centers. TLI-Cycle 8 training population consisted of 1,092 genets  
155 planted in the field in the fall of 2018 and evaluated during 2019 and 2020. The TLI-Cycle 9  
156 training population was comprised of 1,004 genets, planted in the fall of 2019 with first year  
157 phenotypic observations in 2020. Across all cycles, there was no replication of genets, thus each  
158 genet was evaluated as a unique single plant.

### 159 *Phenotypic Assessment*

160 Each year phenotypic traits were measured to evaluate genet performance, with a total 34 unique  
161 traits (Crain *et al.* 2021a). Within the breeding program the most important traits which are key  
162 selection targets include shattering, percent free-threshing seed, seed mass, and spike yield.  
163 Shattering was rated on a scale of 0 to 5, where 0 indicated no shattering and 5 indicated more  
164 than 12 florets shattering per evaluated spike (DeHaan *et al.*, 2018). From 2016 to 2018,  
165 shattering was considered a single trait; however, work by Altendorf (2020) indicated that floret

166 and brittle rachis shattering should be scored separately, so beginning in 2019 brittle rachis was  
167 scored as a separate trait in the IWG population. In addition, many other secondary traits  
168 including seeds spike<sup>-1</sup>, spikelets spike<sup>-1</sup>, florets spike<sup>-1</sup>, and FSU were evaluated. While most  
169 traits were assessed consistently across years and cycles, it should be noted that TLI-Cycle 6 had  
170 significant missing data due to flooding, and reduced data collection in 2020 reflected limited  
171 labor due to the COVID-19 pandemic. A subset of 1,470 TLI-Cycle 6 genets were selected to  
172 make approximately equal representation of genet number between cycles and follows previous  
173 work by Crain *et al.* (2021a).

174 A linear mixed model, Eqn. 1, was used to calculate trait best linear unbiased predictors (BLUPs)  
175 for each genet using ASREML version 4.1 (Gilmour *et al.* 2015).

176 
$$\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{X}\mathbf{b} + \mathbf{Z}\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{e} \quad \text{Equation 1}$$

177 In Eqn. 1,  $\mathbf{y}$  is a vector of phenotypic observations, fixed and random effects are given by vector  
178  $\mathbf{b}$  and  $\mathbf{u}$  respectively, and  $\mathbf{e}$  is a vector of residuals. The incidence matrices  $\mathbf{X}$  and  $\mathbf{Z}$  allocate each  
179 fixed or random effect to their corresponding observation in  $\mathbf{y}$  (Isik *et al.* 2017). For each model  
180 no fixed effects were added, so  $\mathbf{X}\mathbf{b}$  reduces to the mean vector. Random effects that were normal,  
181 independent and identically distributed  $\sim\text{NIID}(0, \sigma_{effect}^2)$  were included for site-year  
182 combination, multiple measurements for each genet representing observations across years, and a  
183 nugget effect for residual error variance. A random term for genet was included that had a mean  
184 0 and a known variance-covariance matrix of the genomic relationship matrix (GRM)  $\sim(0,$   
185  $\sigma_{genet}^2 \mathbf{GRM})$ , which explained the genet effect that accounts for the relationship between genets  
186 using the GRM (Isik *et al.*, 2017 pg 124-125). The GRM was calculated as  $\theta\mathbf{M}\mathbf{M}'$  where  $\mathbf{M}$  is an  
187 matrix of marker scores with dimensions  $n$  individuals by  $m$  markers, and  $\theta$  is a proportionality  
188 constant (Endelman and Jannink 2012). The GRM was computed with the *A.mat* function in the  
189 *rrBLUP* R package (Endelman 2011). Within the model, residual error was formed of two parts  
190 with the nugget being NIID and then a correlated error term for rows and columns (AR1 x AR1,  
191 autoregressive first order correlation structure) (Isik *et al.*, 2017 pg 93; 217). A separate AR1 x  
192 AR1 structure was fit for each cycle-site-year combination (14 total combinations), with  
193 ASREML requiring a complete row column matrix, with any incomplete observations filled in  
194 with dummy variables. This model fit one BLUP per genet regardless of if a trait had been  
195 measured one or multiple times and will be referred to as combined analysis as all years and

196 cycles of data observations were combined in one model. For some traits, convergence failed  
197 using the AR1xAR1 model, and a reduced model with no row and column error structure was fit.  
198 Eqn. 1 was also fit individually for each cycle-year combination by dropping terms for cycle-  
199 year combination and repeated measurements across years.

### 200 *Genomic Profiling*

201 All genets were profiled using genotyping-by-sequencing (GBS) using a two enzyme protocol as  
202 in Poland et al. (2012). DNA extraction and pooled 192-plex GBS libraries were prepared at  
203 Kansas State University with all sequencing conducted at Hudson Alpha, Huntsville, AL using  
204 Illumina HiSeq machines. Single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) were scored using the  
205 TASSEL GBSv2 pipeline (Glaubitz et al. 2014) and the *Thinopyrum intermedium* draft genome  
206 reference sequence (prerelease access provided by *Thinopyrum intermedium* Genome  
207 Sequencing Consortium). The IWG draft genome reference includes three sets of seven  
208 chromosomes numbered 1-7 based on homology to the seven chromosomes of barley (Kantarski  
209 et al. 2016). Chromosomes corresponding to three homoeologous groups (subgenomes) of IWG  
210 were designated J1-J7, S1-S7, and V1-V7 based on homologies to possible diploid ancestors in  
211 the prereleased *Thinopyrum intermedium* draft genome reference sequence (unpublished data). A  
212 total of 123,423 putative SNPs were identified across the 6,824 genotyped genets. Filtering was  
213 done based on four criteria. First, each SNP aligned to one unique location on one of the 21 main  
214 chromosomes. Second, a minimum read depth of 4 tags was required to call a homozygous  
215 genotype, while heterozygotes could be called with a minimum two contrasting tags for each  
216 SNP. If the minimum read depth threshold was not met, the SNP site was set to missing. Third,  
217 the maximum data missing per SNP was 70% and individual genets could not have more than  
218 95% missing data. Fourth, SNPs must have a minor allele frequency (MAF) greater than 0.01.  
219 After filtering, this dataset consisted of a total of 6,517 genets and 23,611 SNPs. Markers were  
220 imputed with Beagle version 4.1 using the default parameters (Browning and Browning 2016).

### 221 *Linkage Disequilibrium and Genetic Parameters*

222 Linkage disequilibrium (LD) was evaluated using TASSEL version 5.2.3 (Bradbury et al. 2007)  
223 for all pairwise comparisons within each chromosome. The Hill and Weir formula (Hill and Weir  
224 1988) was fit using the *nls* function in R (R Core Team 2020) to describe the extent of genome  
225 and chromosome LD using  $r^2$ . The greater of the distance at which half of the maximum value of

226 the fitted value occurred, or  $r^2=0.1$  was considered the extent of LD (Flint-Garcia et al. 2003).  
227 The fixation index  $F_{ST}$  (Weir and Cockerham 1984) was used to evaluate population  
228 differentiation among cycles and was calculated using the *diveRsity* R package (Keenan et al.  
229 2013). Values of  $F_{ST} > 0.15$  were considered evidence of population differentiation whereas  $F_{ST}$   
230  $< 0.05$  was considered as no evidence of population divergence (Hartl & Clark, 1997 pg 118-19).

### 231 *Genome-wide Association Analysis and QTL Identification*

232 The GWAS function in *rrBLUP* (Endelman 2011) was used to assess marker-trait associations for  
233 each set of phenotypic trait data both jointly and by cycle-year combination. The GWAS model  
234 is a mixed-linear model (Yu et al. 2006) with the form:

$$235 \quad \mathbf{y} = \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} + \mathbf{Z}\mathbf{g} + \mathbf{S}\boldsymbol{\tau} + \mathbf{e} \quad \text{Equation 2}$$

236 where  $\mathbf{y}$  is an  $n \times 1$  vector of phenotypic observations (BLUPs from Eqn. 1),  $\boldsymbol{\beta}$  is a  $p \times 1$  vector  
237 of fixed effects where  $p$  is the number of fixed effects for population structure,  $\mathbf{X}$  is an  $n \times p$   
238 design matrix for fixed effects,  $\mathbf{g}$  is an  $n \times 1$  vector of random polygenic effects,  $\mathbf{Z}$  is an  $n \times n$   
239 matrix that is the **GRM**,  $\boldsymbol{\tau}$  is the fixed effect for a given marker being tested and  $\mathbf{S}$  an  $n \times 1$   
240 vector of marker scores for the respective locus,  $\mathbf{e}$  is an  $n \times 1$  vector of random residuals.

241 Population structure was accounted for by using the first six principal components ( $p = 6$ ), and  
242 model compression used ‘population parameters previously determined’ (P3D) (Zhang et al.  
243 2010)

244 A total of 23,611 markers were tested for each trait, and markers with a significance threshold  
245 above a 0.05 false discovery rate (FDR) (Storey and Tibshirani 2003) were considered  
246 significant. The FDR was calculated using a modified function from in *rrBLUP* R package  
247 (Endelman 2011). Plots were created using the *qqman* R package (Turner 2017). For each  
248 significant marker, marker effects were determined using the *lmekin* function from the *coxme* R  
249 package (Therneau 2020) following the analysis of Sehgal et al. (2020). Percent variance  
250 explained (PVE) was calculated following methods by Broman and Sen (2009 pg. 246). As there  
251 were often more than one significant marker on the same chromosome, we used a minimum gap  
252 threshold of 100MB between significant markers to distinguish and count unique QTL. Each  
253 unique QTL was identified by the marker with the highest logarithm of the odds (LOD) value

254 along with other significant markers not separated by at least 100 Mb, herein referred to as  
255 associated markers.

256 Power analyses were completed using scripts from Wang and Xu (2019) where  $\beta$  was set to 0.8.  
257 Minimum detectable QTL effect sizes were determined based on sample size, relationship  
258 between individuals, and heritability, where heritability was estimated from variance components  
259 of Eqn 1 as:

$$\frac{\sigma_g^2}{\sigma_p^2} \quad \text{Equation 3}$$

261 where  $\sigma_g^2$  is genet variance,  $\sigma_p^2$  is phenotypic variance which is the sum of genet variance,  
262 variance due to multiple observations, and residual error variance. The total number of QTL per  
263 trait were estimated using a squared exponential distribution from Hall et al. (2016) according to  
264 the formula:

$$n_{QTL} = \frac{h^2}{\mu_d - \sqrt{2\mu_d\theta - \theta^2}} \quad \text{Equation 4}$$

266 where  $h^2$  is the heritability calculated from Eqn 2,  $\mu_d$  is the average percent variance explained  
267 by detected QTL, and  $\theta$  is the lowest detectable QTL estimated from the power analysis. This  
268 formula worked for all traits with detected QTL, but a minimum number of QTL for each trait  
269 were estimated by dividing 1 by the smallest detectable QTL size. This provided a lower bound  
270 on the number of QTL, regardless of if a QTL for any trait had been observed. Combining the  
271 power analysis, which provided a minimum detectable PVE, the number of estimated QTL (Eqn.  
272 4), and heritability we could estimate the size of the population required to detect QTLs  
273 explaining a given level of the total genetic variance (Lynch and Walsh 1998; Hall et al. 2016).  
274 For all analysis, we estimated the population size needed to detect QTLs accounting for 50% of  
275 the genetic variation.

#### 276 *Data Availability*

277 All DNA sequence data has been deposited in the NCBI Sequence Read Archive (SRA)  
278 (<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/bioproject/>) as part of the umbrella BioProject PRJNA609325.  
279 All scripts for data analysis and phenotypic data have been placed in the Dryad Digital

280 Repository

281 ([https://datadryad.org/stash/share/A6qr\\_cVxvh7suuju4V0CwXNMAD\\_Wvg7gQxaKChFJY6E](https://datadryad.org/stash/share/A6qr_cVxvh7suuju4V0CwXNMAD_Wvg7gQxaKChFJY6E)).

282

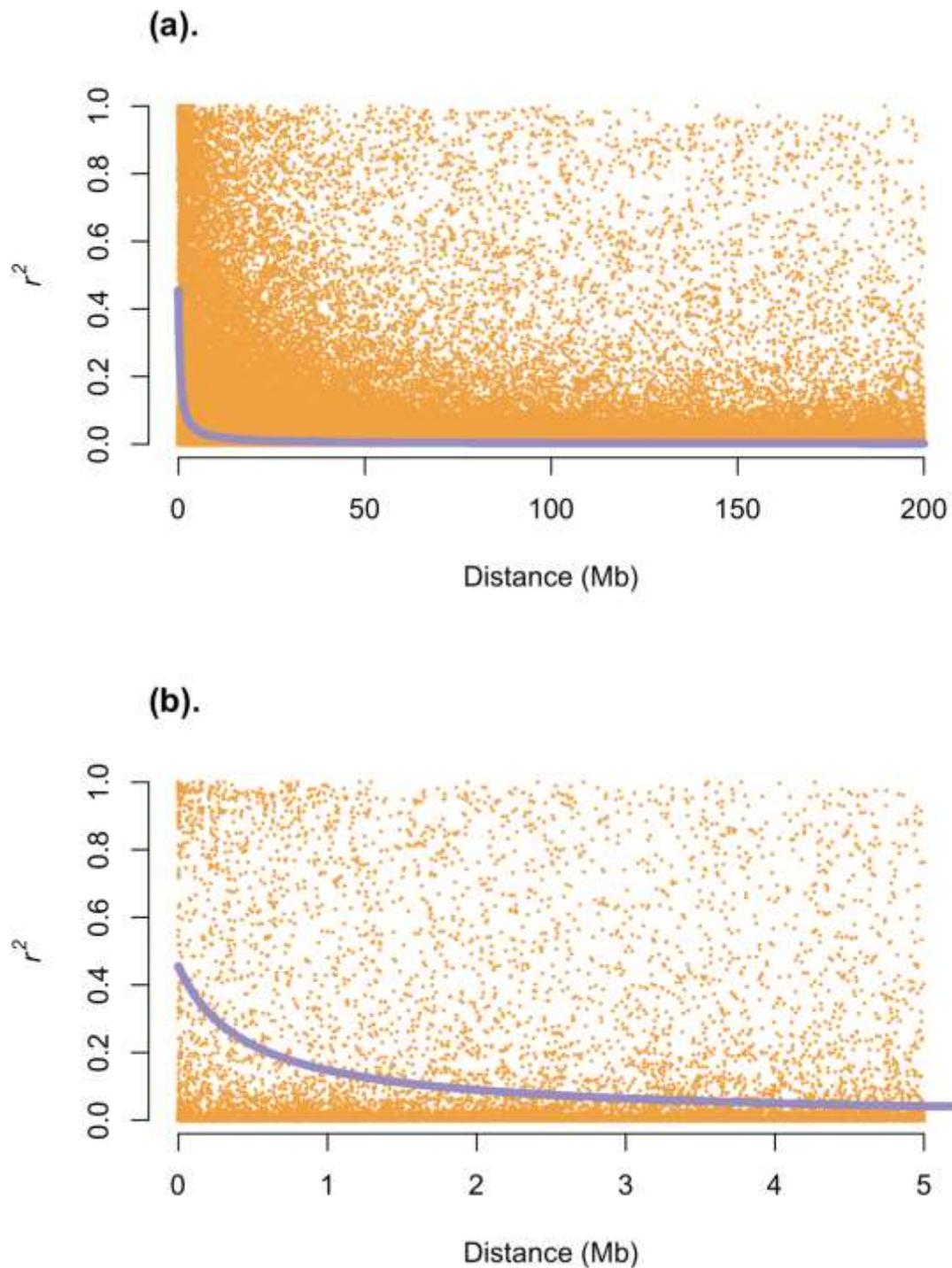
283 **RESULTS**

284 We assessed four TLI IWG breeding cycles that comprised approximately 4,200 genets and five  
285 years of phenotypic data to dissect quantitative traits and inform breeding decisions. A linear  
286 mixed model was used to account for multiple years of phenotypic observations and develop  
287 BLUPs, leveraging data collected within the breeding program to better understand IWG  
288 improvement. While a total of 34 different traits were observed across years (Supporting  
289 Information Table S1) the primary traits of selection were shattering, free-threshing seed, seed  
290 mass, and seed yield. Across cycles seed mass and shattering were positively correlated with  
291 spike yield, while a negative association was generally observed between free threshing and  
292 spike yield (Supporting Information Figures 1-4).

293 *Linkage Disequilibrium Analysis*

294 We evaluated the extent of linkage disequilibrium (LD) up to distance of 200 Mb, which is  
295 substantially less than the size of most IWG chromosomes. Within the population LD declined  
296 relatively rapidly, with genome-wide LD extending an average of 305 kb (Fig. 1). For individual  
297 chromosomes the half decay distance for  $r^2$  ranged from less than 1kb up to 1.43 Mb with  
298 chromosome S3 having the shortest LD and chromosome J3 the longest LD. Even though  
299 average LD declined rapidly, there were numerous marker combinations that maintained LD at  
300 larger distances up to 50 Mb (Fig. 1).

301



302  
 303  
 304  
 305  
 306  
 307

**Fig. 1** genome-wide linkage disequilibrium (LD) for intermediate wheatgrass (*Thinopyrum intermedium*) for 200 Mb region **(a)** and 5 Mb region **(b)**. Orange points represent individual marker combinations with a 250-marker sliding window. Average LD has been computed with the Hill and Weir formula (1988) and shown in blue

## Genome-wide Association Analysis

308  
309 We used a genome-wide association analysis to identify the location, number, and size of QTL  
310 underlying traits of interest to the IWG breeding program. Across all traits, the combined  
311 analysis found 93 marker-trait associations for 16 different traits, representing 37 separate QTL  
312 (Supporting Information Table 2). Of the traits of most interest to the breeding program—spike  
313 yield, free threshing, seed mass, and shattering—only QTL were identified for shattering (floret  
314 and brittle rachis) and free threshing. Both brittle rachis and free threshing had more than one  
315 QTL on the same chromosome (J3 and V2 respectively, Table 1 and Figure 2). These effects  
316 were small, explaining 1.0-2.7% of the observed variation with allele effects ranging from -0.13  
317 to 0.11 units less shattering on a 5 point scale and up to 4.6 percentage points less free threshing  
318 on a 100 point scale for the alternate alleles compared to the reference genome (Table 1 and  
319 Supporting Information Table S2)

320 We found evidence for brittle rachis QTL which impacts shattering on chromosome J3 (Fig. 2),  
321 where the most significant marker (J3\_122986862) was 5.6 Mb from IWG *brittle rachis 2* (*Btr2*)  
322 gene (Pourkheirandish et al. 2015) while another significant marker (J3\_115931563, LOD =  
323 8.47) was only 217 bp away from a *Btr2* gene. This QTL region was identified both in the  
324 combined analysis and analysis across individual cycles and years (Supporting Information  
325 Table 2) and was supported by up to 17 associated markers above the genome-wide threshold  
326 (Fig. 2).

327 Seed circularity had the most significant markers of any trait in the combined analysis, with 23  
328 loci representing eight unique QTL located across seven different chromosomes (Fig. 2,  
329 Supporting Information Table S2). For the number of florets per spike and florets per spikelet,  
330 one QTL region overlapped with colocalized markers on chromosomes J5 having the same  
331 directional effects (Supporting Information Table S2). One QTL for FSU was identified on  
332 chromosome S5.

333 Along with analyzing the combined data, each cycle-year combination was analyzed  
334 independently. This resulted in 209 significant markers representing 67 unique cycle-year QTL  
335 being observed across 20 different traits (Supporting Information Table S2). Many of these QTL  
336 signals were similar to the combined analysis that the QTL had several, up to 26, associated

337 markers per QTL. Taken together, all analysis revealed QTL associations across 19 of the 21  
338 chromosomes of IWG, with many chromosomes harboring QTL for multiple traits (Supporting  
339 Information Table S3).

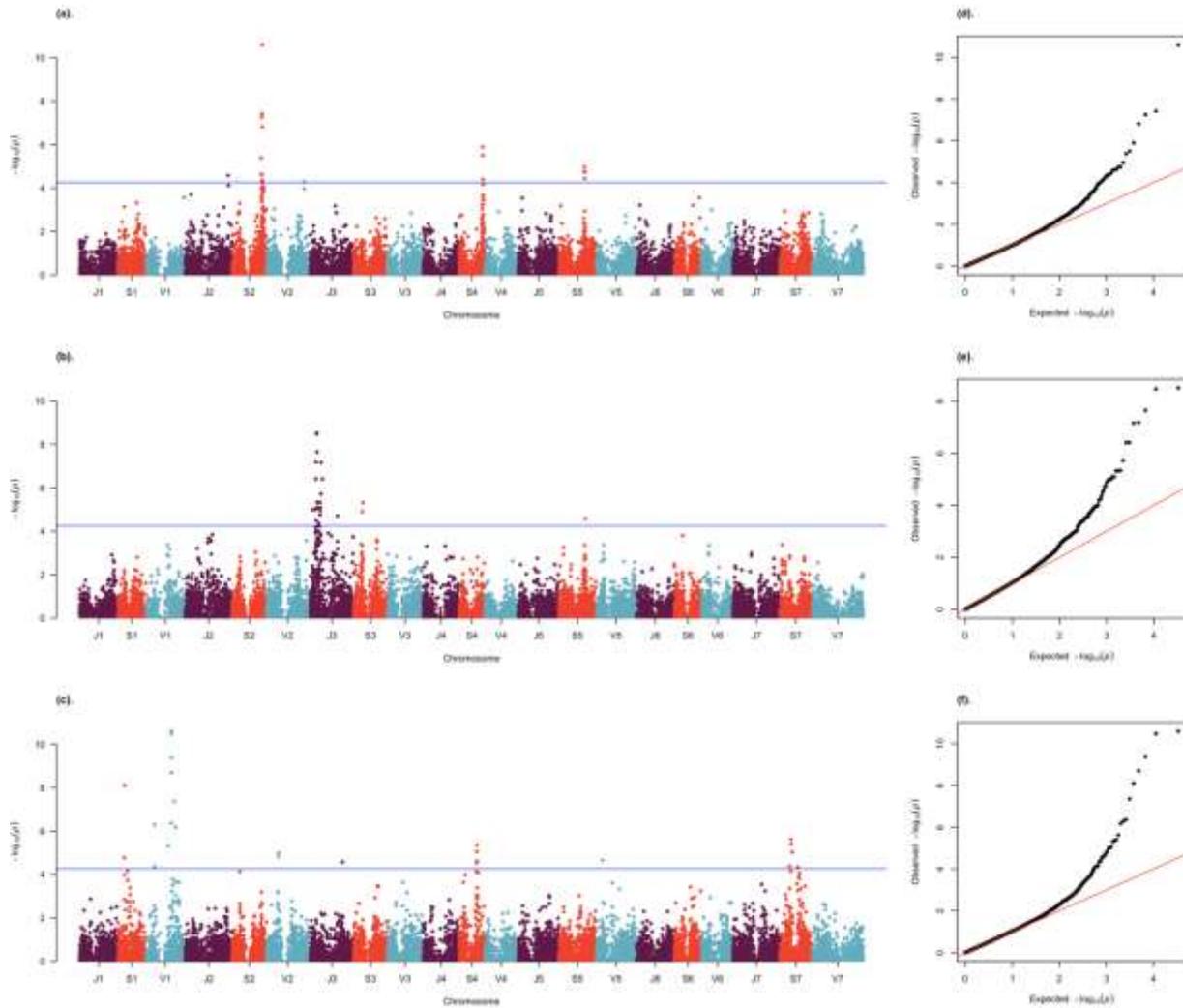
340 Across 34 traits and up to nine cycle-year combinations, all of the identified loci using the joint  
341 analysis explained minimal variation, with 5.2% percent variation explained (PVE, stem  
342 diameter) being the maximum for any combined analysis with an average of 1.7% PVE per  
343 identified QTL. When considering markers identified by cycle-year analysis, the PVE were  
344 greater than the combined analysis, yet only 14 of the 209 markers had PVE > 10%.

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346 **Table 1** Significant quantitative trait loci (QTL) associations in The Land Institute intermediate wheatgrass (*Thinopyrum*  
 347 *intermedium*) breeding program for priority traits  
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Trait	QTL #	Associated markers	Chr	Position	n	LOD	$F_{ST}$	PVE	Ref/alt	MAF	Ref value	Ref SE	Alt value	Alt SE	Het value	Het SE
Brittle rachis	1	17	J3	122986862	1441	8.51	0.01	2.7	A/G	0.38 (A)	0.93	0.008	0.04	0.009	0.02	0.007
	2	0	J3	421522694	1050	4.71	0.08	2.0	G/T	0.37 (T)	0.98	0.008	-0.05	0.014	-0.02	0.008
	1	1	S3	132131062	1653	5.32	0.06	1.5	C/G	0.34 (G)	0.95	0.005	0.05	0.009	0.03	0.005
	1	0	S5	391487396	1659	4.58	0.00	1.3	T/C	0.34 (T)	0.98	0.008	-0.03	0.005	-0.01	0.005
Free threshing	1	0	V2	196007664	2867	5.95	0.08	1.0	G/T	0.20 (T)	55.53	0.158	-3.34	0.649	-1.50	0.351
	2	0	V2	357856894	1478	6.11	0.12	1.9	T/G	0.18 (G)	55.93	1.103	-4.65	0.963	-1.79	0.846
Shattering	1	0	J2	636725449	1359	4.58	0.00	1.5	C/T	0.17 (T)	2.19	0.010	-0.13	0.039	-0.08	0.021
	1	6	S2	441397840	3130	10.60	0.01	1.5	T/C	0.47 (T)	2.13	0.015	0.10	0.008	0.04	0.009
	1	1	S4	341952545	2204	5.90	0.22	1.2	G/C	0.46 (C)	2.20	0.023	-0.08	0.015	-0.02	0.013
	1	2	S5	380535059	1620	4.96	0.00	1.4	T/A	0.25 (A)	2.16	0.030	0.11	0.027	0.08	0.023

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 351 Marker with highest LOD reported for each QTL; QTL #, number of QTL per chromosome; Associated markers, number of  
 352 significant markers associated with each QTL; Chr, chromosome; n, number of individuals observed;  $F_{ST}$  fixation index between The  
 353 Land Institute (TLI) Cycle 6 and TLI Cycle 9; PVE, percent variance explained; Ref/alt reference and alternate allele respectively;  
 354 MAF, minor allele frequency for combined TLI Cycles 6-9 with minor allele in parenthesis; Ref value, reference allele value for a  
 355 trait, Ref SE, standard error of reference value; Het, heterozygous  
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**Fig. 2** Manhattan plots of **(a)** shattering, **(b)** brittle rachis, and **(c)** seed circularity in intermediate wheatgrass (*Thinopyrum intermedium*) with line indicating 0.05 false discovery rate. Panels **d**, **e** and **f** show quantile-quantile (QQ) plots for p values under the null hypothesis (no association) and observed p values for brittle rachis (d), shattering (e), and seed circularity (f), respectively

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*Number of Effective QTL*

To evaluate the genetic architecture of these domestication and agronomic traits, we estimated the number of effective QTL for each trait using results from our power analysis, heritability, and QTL analysis. In general, our analysis of this breeding germplasm had the ability to detect small QTL, with PVE of the smallest detectable QTL ranging from 0.7 to 3.0% for each trait (Table 2). Determining the smallest detectable QTL also provided a lower bound estimate of the minimum number of QTL for each trait which ranged from 33 to 149 (Table 2) regardless of whether we had detected QTL. For traits with detected QTLs, we estimated the number of QTL for a given trait (using Eqn. 4) which ranged from 93 to 357 (Table 2) for combined analysis. Using each cycle-year combination, a range of QTL could be estimated for traits with detected QTL. For important traits such as shattering, the estimated number of QTL ranged from 97 to 258, brittle rachis could be controlled by up to 293 QTL, and free threshing could have as few as 39 QTL. While the reported number of QTL could vary greatly within and between traits, these estimates demonstrate that these traits are highly polygenic and controlled by many loci.

We also estimated the population size, that would be required to detect QTLs explaining 50% of the genetic variation. Population size differed between traits, ranging from a minimum of 98 up to 15,931 plants with an average population size of 1720 (Table 2). For priority breeding traits of spike yield, reduced shattering, and seed mass, the minimum population sizes, to detect QTLs explaining 50% of the genetic variance, were all > 2500 plants.

387 **Table 2** Number of estimated quantitative trait loci (QTL) for phenotypic traits in intermediate wheatgrass, and the estimated  
 388 population size to needed to detect QTLs explaining 50% of the genotypic variance  
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Trait	Smallest detectable QTL in percent variance explained	Minimum number of QTL	QTL estimate based on Hall et al. (2016)	Minimum QTL for individual cycle year combinations	Maximum number of QTL for individual cycle year combinations	Number of cycle-year combinations with observed QTL	h <sup>2</sup>	Minimum population size	Maximum population size
Brittle rachis	0.9	111	166	18	293	4	0.44	624	7339
Flag leaf height (cm)	3.0	34					0.44	1042	
Flag leaf length (cm)	2.8	36		5		1	0.31	212	1522
Flag leaf width (mm)	2.8	36		84		1	0.62	755	1633
Free threshing	0.7	147	304	39		1	0.63	809	5343
Lodging	1.3	76					0.38	2433	
maturity	0.7	147		6	221	2	0.5	281	5055
Number of florets per spike	0.9	110	214				0.23	5592	10380
Number of florets per spikelet	0.9	110	177				0.25	5057	7919
Peduncle width (mm)	2.4	42	289	303		1	0.52	1004	6472
Floret site utilization	0.9	109	236	101		1	0.75	1572	3578
Plant height (cm)	0.7	149		14	558	3	0.38	627	15931
Seed area (mm <sup>2</sup> )	0.7	147		4	22	2	0.69	93	2428
Seed density	0.7	147	133				0.45	3398	3737
Seed image circularity	0.7	144	239	16	88	4	0.52	475	4948
Seed length (mm)	0.7	147	251	113		1	0.58	2298	4864
Seed mass (mg)	0.7	147					0.63	2732	
Seed perimeter (mm)	2.7	37					0.79	613	
Seed width (mm)	0.7	147	126	14	115	3	0.36	628	4550
Seeds per spike	0.7	148					0.42	3972	
Shattering	0.7	148	187	97	258	6	0.4	2823	7139
Spike dry weight (g)	0.9	110					0.36	3625	
Spike emergence (cm)	2.3	43	283	266		1	0.51	1064	6102
Spike emergence %	1.4	74	357				0.51	1770	7645
Spike harvest index	0.9	110					0.32	3961	
Spike length (cm)	1.3	78	268	547		1	0.49	1890	12297
Spike yield (g)	0.7	148					0.53	3231	
Spikelet density	2.7	37		21		1	0.63	482	777
Spikelets per spike	0.9	110	101	14		1	0.25	948	5153
Stem angle	1.3	79					0.59	1586	
Stem diameter (mm)	2.9	35	93	50		1	0.51	897	2197
Stem strength bottom	3.0	33		30		1	0.45	934	979
Stem strength middle	1.3	75		8		1	0.3	515	3049
Stem strength top	3.0	33					0.77	552	

390 Maximum population size only calculated if more than one number of QTL estimate available.

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### Allele Frequency and $F_{ST}$

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393 Using all markers, fixation index,  $F_{ST}$ , was calculated to examine the potential impact of  
394 directional selection which would generation genetic differentiation between TLI-Cycle 6 and 9.  
395 Only 548 (2.3%) of these markers showed high or very high genetic differentiation, suggesting  
396 that many areas of the genome have not been under consistent selection pressure (Table 3). Of  
397 the 72 markers that showed very high genetic differentiation, they were distributed across 20 of  
398 the 21 chromosomes. For significant loci identified by GWAS, allele frequency and  $F_{ST}$  were  
399 used to further evaluate changes between TLI breeding cycles 6 and 9. As direct selection should  
400 alter allele frequency, we expected this analysis to provide evidence of selection pressure. Of the  
401 significant MTAs identified, only 10 markers (4.5%) had  $F_{ST}$  values  $> 0.15$  (Table 4).

402 Of 24 traits with MTA, only three traits—seed circularity, shattering, and seed length—showed  
403  $F_{ST} > 0.15$  for any single trait associated marker. For shattering, a trait that has been under strong  
404 selection, two markers on chromosome S4 had high  $F_{ST}$  values (Fig. 3) and the other associated  
405 markers on chromosome S4 had moderate  $F_{ST}$  values. For this trait, all other significant markers  
406 on chromosomes J2, S1, S2, S3, S5, and V2 did not show any significant differentiation ( $F_{ST} <$   
407  $0.05$ ) after 3 cycles of selection based on  $F_{ST}$  values. The high  $F_{ST}$  value of marker  
408 S04\_341952545 resulted in the alternate allele frequency increasing from 26% to 60%,  
409 corresponding to a -0.08 unit decrease in shattering over three cycles of selection (Fig. 3, Table  
410 4). Compared to the 2.3% of genome-wide markers that showed high differentiation, up to 6.4%  
411 of the shattering markers had high  $F_{ST}$  values.

412 The marker J03\_115931563, which had a strong association with brittle rachis had a moderate  
413  $F_{ST}$  value of 0.11. Surprisingly, from TLI-cycle 6 to TLI-cycle 9 the frequency of the favorable  
414 (reference) allele actually decreased from 28% to 7.5%, in the opposite direction as expected by  
415 selection for reduced shattering. Evaluating this locus for all other traits showed that the  
416 reference allele while favorable for shattering and free threshing was detrimental to spike yield,  
417 seeds spike<sup>-1</sup>, and spike dry weight. This suggest that there is tradeoff between spike yield and  
418 brittle rachis at this locus and that selection for increased yield could be driving the alternate  
419 allele.

420 In addition to shattering, high  $F_{ST}$  values were observed for seed circularity and seed length at the  
421 locus V01\_438389996. This marker showed the reference allele frequency changed from 0.69 to  
422 0.96 over the four cycles, corresponding to a decrease in seed circularity and increase in seed  
423 length, i.e. a more elongated seed. Even though significant markers were identified for number of  
424 florets per spike, florets per spikelet, spikelets per spike, and FSU—yield component traits—all  
425 markers except for one showed little differentiation across the four cycles of selection. Even for  
426 the priority trait of free threshing, only two of 10 markers (20%) showed moderate  
427 differentiation. The  $F_{ST}$  values for markers associated with plant height, which has not been  
428 targeted by selection, did not show any differentiation.

429 **Table 3** Fixation index,  $F_{ST}$ , values for all single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) in The Land Institute intermediate wheatgrass  
 430 breeding population cycles 6 and 9  
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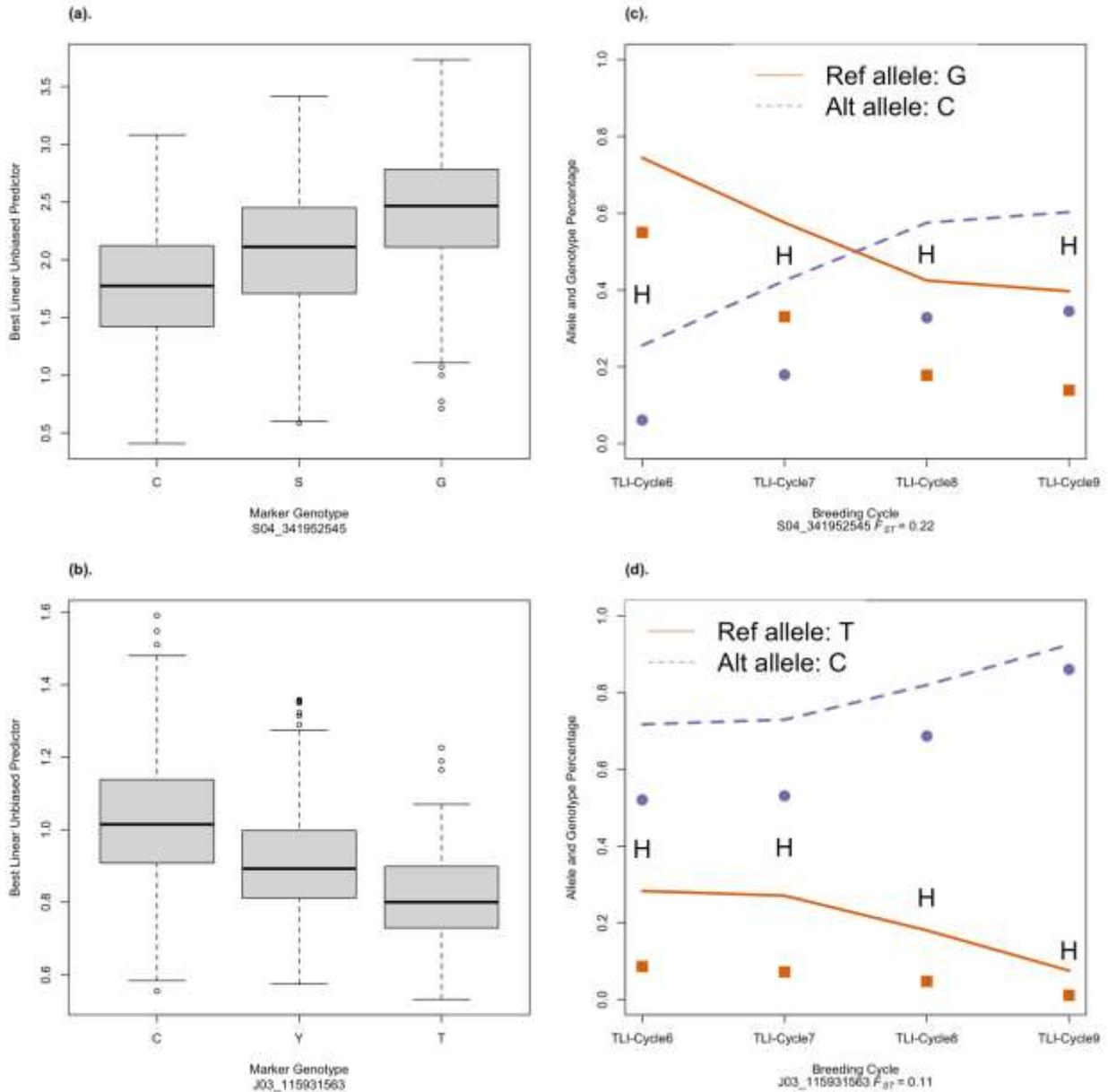
Level of differentiation	Range of $F_{ST}$ values	Number of loci (%)			
		Genome-wide	Shattering	Seed circularity	Brittle rachis
Little	0.00 - 0.05	18258 (77.3)	26 (83.9)	26 (60.4)	44 (78.6)
Moderate	0.05 - 0.15	4805 (20.3)	3 (9.7)	16 (37.2)	12 (21.4)
High	0.15 - 0.25	476 (2.0)	2 (6.4)	1 (2.3)	0
Very High	> 0.25	72 (0.3)	0	0	0
Total		23611	31	43	56

432 Level of differentiation of  $F_{ST}$  values are from Hartl and Clark (1997).

433 **Table 4** Biallelic reference allele frequency for four breeding cycles in The Land Institute breeding program that had Fixation index,  
434  $F_{ST}$ , greater than 0.15  
435

<b>Trait</b>	<b>Marker</b>	<b>Cycle 6</b>	<b>Cycle 7</b>	<b>Cycle 8</b>	<b>Cycle 9</b>
Shattering	S04_341952545	0.74	0.58	0.42	0.40
Shattering	S04_349886731	0.74	0.51	0.41	0.45
Seed circularity & seed length	V01_438389996	0.69	0.78	0.84	0.96

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**Fig. 3** Distribution of phenotypic values for shattering and brittle rachis (a and b respectively), where lower values are preferred, at the marker loci S04\_341952545 and J03\_115931563 in intermediate wheatgrass (*Thinopyrum intermedium*). Panels c and d displays the allele (line plots) and genotype (points, H is heterozygote) frequency change for the shattering marker in The Land Institute (TLI) Cycle 6 to 9 breeding populations, population differentiation expressed with  $F_{ST}$  between TLI Cycle 6 and TLI Cycle 9

## 446 **DISCUSSION**

### 447 *GWAS in a Breeding Population*

448 The TLI IWG breeding program has completed four cycles of breeding since 2017 using GS  
449 with current evidence suggesting that genetic gains can exceed 8% year<sup>-1</sup> for spike yield and up  
450 to 14% year<sup>-1</sup> for free threshing (Crain et al. 2021a). Given the magnitude of the challenges to  
451 domesticate a new crop, identifying genomic regions controlling traits should be a priority within  
452 breeding programs as a means to accelerate gains. As such, we used breeding data to complete  
453 GWAS analysis for 34 traits. While many markers were identified, there appeared to be little  
454 consistency from one cycle-year combination to the next, suggesting genotype by environment  
455 interaction between years. Additionally, the PVE explained by markers evaluating cycle by year  
456 combinations were generally higher than the combined analysis, ranging from 2 to 15%,  
457 suggesting that the exclusion of environmental variance within these models are upwardly biased  
458 because of truncation of QTL below the detectable threshold (Beavis 1994; Xu 2003).

459 Brittle rachis had significant MTAs, but until 2019 this trait was not considered separate from  
460 shattering and not measured extensively in the population until 2020. As this marker is  
461 associated with a known gene—*Btr2*—and has been found in other IWG populations (Altendorf  
462 2020), it is a prime candidate for the TLI breeding program to select and drive to fixation over  
463 the next few cycles. While our data did not show this locus associated with any other trait, work  
464 by Larson *et al.* (2019) identified traits including spikelets per spike, seeds per spikelet, seed  
465 area, and spike length on this chromosome which could explain the reduction of the favorable  
466 allele for brittle rachis.

467 Even though we evaluated 34 traits, very few significant associations were found, including for  
468 spike yield and seed mass, which have been a primary target of selection. Leveraging the large  
469 number of observations, we estimated the effective number of QTL in the population. While the  
470 estimations hinge on a number of assumptions including QTL distribution (Otto and Jones 2000),  
471 additive genetic effect, and random segregation (Hall et al. 2016), they provide an approximation  
472 of the complexity of given traits. Considering the ability to detect small QTL, that explained only  
473 0.7% of the variation, and the large number of minimum QTL estimated, there appear to be no  
474 large effect QTL that can be targeted by marker-assisted selection for IWG improvement. The

475 apparent deficiency of large effect QTL could indicate that the intense selection bottleneck of  
476 IWG from 14 plants (Zhang et al. 2016) essentially fixed major allele effects in early generations  
477 or that large effect genes were not in the founder population. Even though research shows  
478 estimated genetic gains for spike yield of up to 8% year<sup>-1</sup> in TLI-Cycle 7-8 (Crain et al. 2021a) it  
479 appears that these gains are from small effect loci. It should be noted that selection within the  
480 breeding program was based on GS values and not on any particular marker *per se*. This  
481 information suggest that the current breeding material has highly polygenic traits that follow an  
482 infinitesimal model (Fisher 1918; Barton et al. 2017). Interestingly, we identified that 2.3% (548  
483 markers) had diverged between TLI-cycle 6 and 9, yet only four of the 217 MTAs showed high  
484 or very high  $F_{ST}$ . Since genomic selection has been exclusively used for the last four breeding  
485 cycles (Crain et al. 2021a), we evaluated the genome-wide estimated marker effects for yield  
486 traits. Of the 72 highly diverged markers, 60% and 56% (43 and 40 markers respectively) had  
487 coefficients with higher spike yield and seed mass and the mean of all these markers indicated  
488 selection was in the favorable direction. As the IWG breeding continues, improvement will be  
489 from selecting on many small effect alleles.

#### 490 *Linkage Disequilibrium and Allele Dynamics*

491 Linkage disequilibrium was evaluated across the IWG genome. Within this IWG population, LD  
492 declines rapidly relative to closed breeding populations and half-decay rarely exceeded 1 Mb for  
493 any chromosome. In comparison to annual wheat which has LD estimated to be 50 Mb (Juliana  
494 et al. 2018), LD is 160 fold lower necessitating more markers to cover the genome. If markers  
495 were evenly spaced over the 12.75 Gb IWG genome (Vogel et al. 1999) a minimum of 42,000  
496 markers would be needed to ensure all parts of the genome were in LD with a marker to increase  
497 mapping resolution. While we leveraged a high-quality draft genome reference sequence, it is  
498 possible that our results are influenced by the current genome assembly. It is possible that some  
499 of the significant marker positions will change, providing a more complete picture of trait  
500 observations and LD dynamics. As sequencing cost decreases and technology improves whole  
501 genome sequencing or skim-sequencing approaches could provide an exponential increase in  
502 markers to detect genomic associations (Jensen et al. 2020; Pavan et al. 2020).

503 While LD is estimated to decline rapidly, it should be noted that many of our significant GWAS  
504 hits had multiple markers extending beyond the expected LD. This could indicate that selection

505 has created larger linkage blocks. In maize, another outcrossing species, LD in diverse lines is  
506 estimated to extend less than 1 kb (Tenaillon et al. 2001) to over 100 kb in elite maize lines  
507 (Rafalski 2002), showing the extent that selection and narrow sets of germplasm can increase the  
508 LD block size. As GS has been the method of selection in cycles 7 through 9, this could be  
509 creating larger LD blocks for areas that are captured in the genome model. This would include  
510 both traits under direct selection such as spike yield as well as any trait that indirectly contributes  
511 to priority traits. It is also likely that there are different historical sources of LD, including LD  
512 that existed in nature, LD created between the time of collection and the initial bottleneck of  
513 selection at the Rodale Institute, and LD created in the TLI breeding program (Zhang et al. 2016;  
514 DeHaan et al. 2018).

#### 515 *Comparison to Other IWG GWAS Studies*

516 Within IWG, several other studies have evaluated important domestication and agronomic traits,  
517 providing corroboration of key results. Studies have shown that IWG has strong collinearity with  
518 the barley genome, (Kantarski et al. 2016; Zhang et al. 2016) providing resources to identify  
519 candidate genes. Within a nested association mapping panel, Altendorf (2020) found the same  
520 marker as this study for brittle rachis. While this marker is closest to a *Btr2* gene, it is in a 7 Mb  
521 region with many *btr*-like genes (Pourkheirandish et al. 2015; Civaň and Brown 2017; DeHaan  
522 et al. 2020). Using a bi-parental IWG population, Larson *et al.* (2019) investigated QTL for  
523 domestication traits and found several overlaps with the current study. For seed shattering,  
524 Larson *et al.* (2019) discovered QTL on chromosome J2 and S4 that align with results found in  
525 this study. Chromosome S4 had the most significant seed shattering QTL (LOD > 15.0) in a full-  
526 sib family derived from C3\_3471, which has been described as the first non-shattering and free-  
527 threshing IWG plant (Larson et al. 2019). There was also close alignment with free threshing  
528 QTLs located on chromosome V2.

529 One of the most unanticipated results from this study was the large number markers associated  
530 with seed circularity. One potential explanation is the effect of self-incompatibility genes, as  
531 these have been shown to have an impact on seed size and fertility in a full-sib mapping  
532 population of perennial ryegrass (*Lolium perenne* L.)(Studer et al. 2008). Self-incompatibility  
533 (SI) in grasses is controlled by a two locus (*S* and *Z*) system (Lundqvist 1954; Cornish et al.  
534 1979; Baumann et al. 2000), which are located on homoeologous groups 1 and 2 of IWG,

535 respectively(Larson et al. 2019; Crain et al. 2020b). Self-incompatibility has been documented in  
536 IWG (Dewey 1978; Jensen et al. 1990), and previously reported markers for seed area, seed  
537 width, seed length, and seed weight by Zhang et al. (2017), Bajgain et al. (2019), and Larson et  
538 al. (2019) are located near putative *S* orthogenes on homoeologous group 1 of IWG. Although  
539 the mechanism of SI is not completely characterized, Manzanares et al. (2016) demonstrated that  
540 a domain of unknown function (*S-DUF247*) is involved in SI reactions. This region has also been  
541 associated with seed weight (Zhang *et al.*, 2017; Larson et al. 2019), seed length (Bajgain et al.  
542 2019), and was identified by Crain et al. (2020b) as an active SI locus in IWG. Regardless of  
543 whether the loci related to seed circularity are related to potential SI activity or putative control  
544 of seed circularity, these loci could be beneficial to the breeding program because seed shape  
545 could have an impact on milling quality. Marshall et al. (1984) proposed that spherical seeds  
546 maximize volume to surface ratio. IWG has very long and thin seeds (Zhang et al. 2017), so  
547 selecting loci that alter seed shape could be used to both improve yield and end product use.

#### 548 *Application to Improving IWG*

549 While we did not find any large effect QTL, our results suggest several potential applications  
550 within the breeding program. Our data support that continued use of GS models for breeding and  
551 selection is appropriate. While Bajgain *et al.* (2019) suggested using QTL as fixed effects in GS  
552 models to improve predictions, none of our detected QTL explained more than 10% of the  
553 variance, which would be large enough to be included as a fixed effect as suggested by Bernardo  
554 (2014). Second, based on the QTL effect size, genetic mapping studies will require large  
555 population sizes to accurately identify and estimate QTL. While the breeding program routinely  
556 analyzes c 4,000 plants, this is probably the smallest number of plants needed for genetic  
557 mapping based on our power analysis and assessment of genetic architecture for these key traits.  
558 Lastly, selection pressure on traits that would indirectly enhance yield, such as the number of  
559 florets per spike and florets per spikelet could be increased. Even though MTAs were identified  
560 for some of these traits, current results showed minimal allele differentiation between TLI-Cycle  
561 6 and 9. The observed phenotypic variation of these traits suggest that GS can continue to be an  
562 effective tool to improve these traits. Along with FSU, biomass production (Vico et al. 2016) and  
563 seed set (Armstead et al. 2008) have been suggested as important steps in increasing perennial  
564 seed production.

565 By utilizing data generated within the breeding program, this study identified MTA for several  
566 agronomic and domestication traits, all of which had small effects suggesting that traits are  
567 highly polygenic. Even though no QTL were identified for spike yield and seed mass, several  
568 QTL were found for component traits of yield, suggesting that genetic control of these traits is  
569 from many small effect loci. Previous breeding efforts have increased spike yield by 77% and  
570 seed mass by 23% over two breeding cycles (DeHaan et al. 2014). These results, coupled with  
571 genetic gain estimates of over 8% year<sup>-1</sup> by Crain *et al.* (2021a), suggest that the current breeding  
572 program has considerable variability, providing opportunity for continued improvement well into  
573 the future. There appear to be few large effect QTL, with the substantial genetic progress having  
574 been made through selection of genome wide loci with small effects. These observations support  
575 a continued focus on classic breeding methods based on an underlying infinitesimal model of  
576 genetic architecture (Fisher 1918; Barton et al. 2017) and further implementation of genomic  
577 selection. The challenge of developing perennial grains is daunting, yet the knowledge generated  
578 from this study will help select high yielding and high performing genets, leading to large scale  
579 perennial grain crops.

580

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589 **DECLARATIONS**

590

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593 **Conflicts of interest/Competing interest** The authors declare that they have no conflict of  
594 interest.

595 **Availability of data and material** Original sequence data has been uploaded to the NCBI  
596 sequence read archive (SRA) (<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/bioproject/>) as part of the umbrella  
597 BioProject PRJNA609325.

598 **Code availability** R code generated for this study has been deposited in the Dryad digital  
599 Repository, <https://doi.org/10.5061/dryad.rbnzs7hb7>

600 **Authors' contributions** JC, SL, LD and JP planned and designed the research. JC, SL, LD and  
601 KD performed experiments, conducted fieldwork, and collected data. JC analyzed data. JC, SL,  
602 LD, and JP wrote the manuscript.

603

604

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821 **FIGURES**

822 **Fig. 1** genome-wide linkage disequilibrium (LD) for intermediate wheatgrass (*Thinopyrum*  
823 *intermedium*) for 200 Mb region (a) and 5 Mb region (b). Orange points represent individual  
824 marker combinations with a 250-marker sliding window. Average LD has been computed with  
825 the Hill and Weir formula (1988) and shown in blue

826  
827 **Fig. 2** Manhattan plots of (a) shattering, (b) brittle rachis, and (c) seed circularity in intermediate  
828 wheatgrass (*Thinopyrum intermedium*) with line indicating 0.05 false discovery rate. Panels d, e  
829 and f show quantile-quantile (QQ) plots for p values under the null hypothesis (no association)  
830 and observed p values for brittle rachis (d), shattering (e), and seed circularity (f), respectively

831  
832 **Fig. 3** Distribution of phenotypic values for shattering and brittle rachis (a and b respectively),  
833 where lower values are preferred, at the marker loci SS04\_341952545 and SJ03\_115931563 in  
834 intermediate wheatgrass (*Thinopyrum intermedium*). Panels c and d displays the allele (line  
835 plots) and genotype (points, H is heterozygote) frequency change for the shattering marker in  
836 The Land Institute (TLI) Cycle 6 to 9 breeding populations, population differentiation expressed  
837 with  $F_{ST}$  between TLI Cycle 6 and TLI Cycle 9

838

839 **TABLES**

840 **Table 1** Significant quantitative trait loci (QTL) associations in The Land Institute intermediate  
841 wheatgrass (*Thinopyrum intermedium*) breeding program for priority traits

842  
843 **Table 2** Number of estimated quantitative trait loci (QTL) for phenotypic traits in intermediate  
844 wheatgrass, and the estimated population size to needed to detect QTLs explaining 50% of the  
845 genotypic variance

846  
847 **Table 3** Fixation index,  $F_{ST}$ , values for all single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) in The Land  
848 Institute intermediate wheatgrass breeding population cycles 6 and 9

849  
850 **Table 4** Biallelic reference allele frequency for four breeding cycles in The Land Institute  
851 breeding program that had Fixation index,  $F_{ST}$ , greater than 0.15

852

853

854 **SUPPORTING INFORMATION**

855 **Supporting Information Table S1** Descriptive statistics, including total number and number of genets by cycle, of the best linear  
 856 unbiased predictors of 34 traits measured in The Land Institute intermediate wheatgrass breeding program cycles 6-9 during 2016-  
 857 2020  
 858

<b>Trait</b>	<b>C6 n</b>	<b>C7 n</b>	<b>C8 n</b>	<b>C9 n</b>	<b>Total n</b>	<b>Min.</b>	<b>Max.</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>STD</b>
Brittle Rachis	0	1186	947	955	3088	0.49	1.63	0.99	0.17
Seed Image Circularity	1013	1151	940	926	4030	0.37	0.55	0.45	0.02
Spike Emergence (cm)	0	1180	0	0	1180	1.8	36.69	19.79	6.13
Seed Length (mm)	1013	1183	976	926	4098	5.07	8.13	6.68	0.41
Seed Width (mm)	1013	1183	976	926	4098	1.29	1.8	1.55	0.07
Flag Leaf Length (cm)	982	0	0	0	982	20.18	36.03	27.87	2.23
Flag Leaf Width (mm)	982	0	0	0	982	8.83	23.79	15.75	1.91
Flag Leaf Height (cm)	924	0	0	0	924	37.51	78.12	63.86	5.71
Number of Florets per Spike	1019	1176	873	0	3068	123.17	230.38	174.13	14.49
Number of Florets per Spikelet	1019	1176	873	0	3068	6.41	9.79	7.66	0.44
Spike Emergence %	918	1130	0	0	2048	0.05	1.31	0.64	0.18
Lodging	0	1182	938	0	2120	2.42	8.89	5.98	1.05
Free Threshing	1014	1184	979	937	4114	2.3	98.37	57.17	17.1
Peduncle Width (mm)	0	1150	0	0	1150	7.71	11.99	9.9	0.69
Floret Site Utilization	1012	1173	864	0	3049	0.12	0.39	0.22	0.03
Plant Height (cm)	1020	1191	992	954	4157	82.87	136.54	111.03	5.92
Seed Area (mm <sup>2</sup> )	1013	1183	976	926	4098	5.39	10.59	8.08	0.68
Seed Density	1013	1183	976	926	4098	0.97	1.67	1.31	0.08
Seeds per Spike	1016	1186	980	958	4140	10.7	62.24	38.21	6.8
Seed Mass (mg)	1013	1183	977	937	4110	5.89	13.34	9.46	1.08
Seed Perimeter (mm)	1013	0	0	0	1013	11.2	17.55	14.73	0.95
Shattering	1019	1188	981	948	4136	0.17	3.79	2.13	0.57
Spikelet Density	1017	0	0	0	1017	0.52	1.06	0.72	0.06
Spike Dry Weight (g)	0	1167	955	959	3081	0.83	1.75	1.31	0.13
Spiklets per Spike	1019	1176	873	0	3068	18.02	27.36	22.69	1.13
Spike Harvest Index	0	1156	955	958	3069	0.11	0.46	0.3	0.05
Spike Length (cm)	1017	1141	0	0	2158	22.59	45.88	34.78	2.86
Spike Yield (g)	1019	1188	981	958	4146	0.14	0.58	0.36	0.06
Stem Angle	1022	1179	0	0	2201	19.26	82.33	53.86	9.99
Stem Strength Bottom	914	0	0	0	914	1214.48	3424.35	2181.99	344.09

Stem Diameter (mm)	946	0	0	0	946	2.24	3.89	3.01	0.21
Stem Strength Middle	915	1174	0	0	2089	747.15	1910.92	1197.3	166.77
Stem Strength Top	915	0	0	0	915	288.65	615.32	418.66	53.05
Maturity	1017	1189	944	953	4103	52.21	69.9	63.14	1.48

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859

860 **Supporting Information Table S2** Significant marker trait associations for The Land Institute intermediate wheatgrass breeding  
 861 program analyzed by combined data and cycle-year combinations  
 862

863 QTL#, number of QTL; Associated markers, number of markers associated with each QTL; Chr, chromosome; n, number of  
 864 individuals observed;  $F_{ST}$  fixation index between The Land Institute (TLI) Cycle 6 and TLI Cycle 9; PVE, percent variance explained;  
 865 Ref/Alt reference and alternate allele respectively; MAF  
 866

867  
 868 **Supporting Information Table S3** Chromosome location of genome-wide associations by trait for combined analysis (C) and  
 869 individual cycle combinations (6-9) for The Land Institute intermediate wheatgrass breeding program  
 870

Trait	Chromosome																
	J2	J3	J4	J5	J6	J7	S1	S2	S3	S4	S5	S7	V1	V2	V3	V5	V6
Brittle rachis		C,7,8,9							C,7,9		C,7	9	7			7	
Flag leaf length		6															
Flag leaf width													6			6	
Floret site utilization											C,7						
Free threshing														C,9			
Maturity	7				6												
Number of florets per spike				C												C	
Number of florets per spikelet	C			C													
Peduncle width	C,7																
Plant height					7,8												
Seed area						6						8					
Seed density							C					C					
Seed image circularity		C					C,7,8			C,6		C,6,7,8	C,6,7	C		C,6,7	
Seed length												7	C				C
Seed width	C		C,7			9								C,6			
Shattering	C						7	C,7,8,9	7	C,7,8,9	C,7,8			7			
Spike emergence	C,7																
Spike emergence %	C																
Spike length											C		7				
Spikelet density									6						6		
Spikelets per spike								C				6					
Stem strength bottom									6								
Stem diameter						C,6											
Stem strength middle									6								

871  
 872  
 873

## Supplementary Files

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- [SupportingFigureS1.png](#)
- [SupportingFigureS2.png](#)
- [SupportingFigureS3.png](#)
- [SupportingFigureS4.png](#)
- [SupportingInformationTable2.xlsx](#)