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1	A roadmap for	gene functional characterisation in <u>crops with</u>
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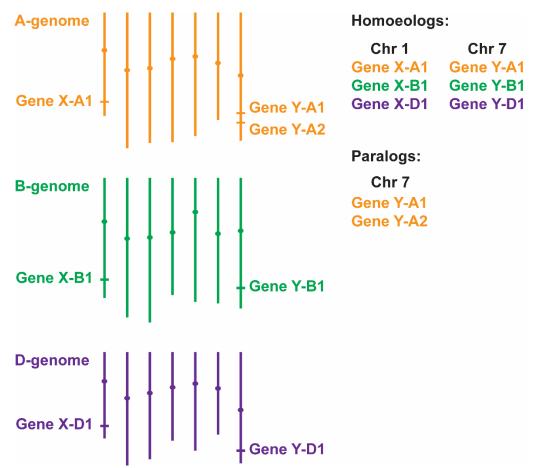
60 Abstract

61 Understanding the function of genes within staple crops will accelerate crop improvement by allowing 62 targeted breeding approaches. Despite their importance, a lack of genomic information and resources has 63 hindered the functional characterisation of major crop genes. The recent release of high-quality reference 64 sequences for these crops underpins a suite of genetic and genomic resources that support basic research 65 and breeding. For wheat, these include gene model annotations, expression atlases and gene networks that 66 provide information about putative function. Sequenced mutant populations, improved transformation 67 protocols and structured natural populations provide rapid methods to study gene function directly. We 68 highlight a case study exemplifying how to integrate these resources. This review provides a helpful guide 69 for plant scientists, especially those expanding into crop research, to capitalise on the discoveries made in 70 Arabidopsis and other plants. This will accelerate the improvement of crops of vital importance for food 71 and nutrition security.

72 Introduction

Research in *Arabidopsis* and other model species has uncovered mechanisms regulating important biological processes in plants. However, as research in these model species does not always translate directly into crop species such as wheat, understanding gene function in crop species themselves is critical for crop improvement. With the advent of functional genomics resources in wheat and other crops, discoveries from model species can rapidly be tested and functional genetic studies can now be performed for agronomically-important traits directly in the crops themselves (Borrill, 2019).

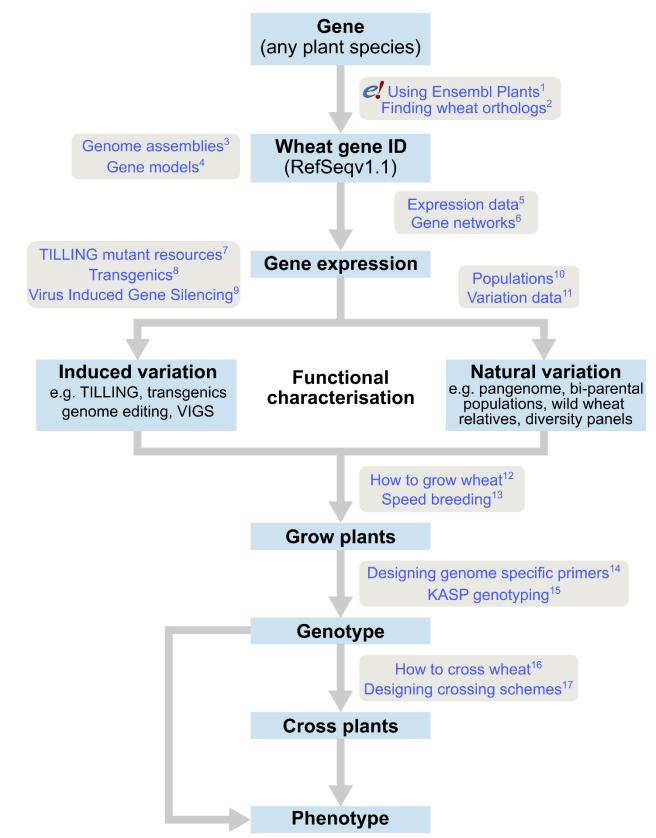
79 The most common forms of domesticated wheat are tetraploid durum wheat (Triticum turgidum spp. 80 durum L.) and hexaploid bread wheat (Triticum aestivum L.). Polyploid wheat is derived from hybridisation 81 events between different ancestral progenitor species (reviewed in Matsuoka (2011)), and thus each gene 82 typically exists as two (tetraploid durum wheat) or three (hexaploid bread wheat) copies. These closely 83 related copies, known as homoeologous genes, are on average >95% similar across their coding regions 84 (Figure 1) and usually have a highly conserved gene structure. Tetraploid and hexaploid wheat have large 85 genomes, 12 and 16 Gbp respectively, which consist mostly (>85%) of repetitive elements. The combination 86 of these factors has, for a long time, hampered the development of genomics tools in wheat and other 87 crops with large genomes, such as sugarcane (Garsmeur et al., 2018). Recent advances in sequencing 88 technologies and bioinformatics tools has helped overcome these difficulties, and there are now a wide 89 range of resources available for genomic analysis in wheat. The speed of wheat research has also been 90 limited by its relatively long generation time, which ranges from four to six months depending on the 91 requirement of cold periods (vernalisation) to induce flowering. Again, recent advances in the use of 92 controlled growth conditions have radically changed these timeframes (Watson et al., 2018). Wheat has 93 now become a tractable system for translational, comparative and functional genomics (Borrill et al., 2019).



95 Figure 1: Gene homology within polyploid wheat. Due to two separate hybridisation events, genes in 96 polyploid wheat will be present in multiple copies called homoeologs, which usually have similar 97 chromosome locations. In the example of hexaploid bread wheat illustrated here, Gene X has homoeologs 98 on chromosomes 1A, 1B and 1D. Duplicated genes, called paralogs (e.g. two copies of Gene Y on 99 chromosome 7A), have evolved either within wheat or in one of its ancestral species. Most paralogs arise 100 from intra-chromosomal duplications, although inter-chromosomal duplications can also occur.

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101 Here we describe some of the recent developments in wheat genomics, focussing on published and publicly 102 available resources and tools, and lay out a roadmap for their use (Figure 2). We present available wheat 103 genome assemblies and annotations and discuss a series of approaches to functionally characterise genes. 104 We also outline strategies for growing, crossing and genotyping wheat using the latest available tools and 105 techniques. Finally, we present a case study that encapsulates the above steps and highlights potential pitfalls. We focus mainly on the Ensembl Plants database, as it integrates many of the publicly available 106 data on wheat. However, other databases such as URGI (https://wheat-urgi.versailles.inra.fr/; (Alaux et al., 107 2018)), the Wheat Information System (WheatIS; http://www.wheatis.org/), and GrainGenes 108 (https://wheat.pw.usda.gov/GG3/; (Blake et al., 2019)) also host and integrate similar, but also 109 complementary genetic, genomic and phenomic data for wheat. We expect this review will be a helpful 110 guide for plant scientists who already work on wheat or who are considering expanding their research into 111 112 crops with large genomes such as wheat.



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Figure 2: The roadmap for gene characterisation in wheat. Overview of a proposed strategy to take a gene
 from any plant species, identify the correct wheat ortholog(s) using Ensembl Plants
 (<u>https://plants.ensembl.org</u>) and determine gene expression using expression browsers and gene networks.
 Suggestions for functional characterisation are provided including induced variation such as mutants,

118 transgenics or Virus-Induced Gene Silencing (VIGs). In addition, publicly available populations incorporating

119	natural variation are available. Finally steps for growing, genotyping and crossing plants are outlined. Links
120	to detailed tutorials and further information are provided and can be found on www.wheat-training.com.
121	¹ www.wheat-training.com/wp-content/uploads/Genomic_resources/pdfs/EnsemblPlants-primer.pdf
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140	¹⁷ www.wheat-training.com/wp-content/uploads/Functional_studies/PDFs/Designing-crossing-schemes.pdf

141 Wheat genome assemblies

142 A high-quality genome reference sequence is an essential resource for functional genetics and genomics in 143 any species. Several hexaploid wheat genome assemblies have been released over the past six years 144 (Brenchley et al., 2012; IWGSC, 2014; Chapman et al., 2015; Clavijo et al., 2017; Zimin et al., 2017). The 145 most comprehensive assembly, called RefSeqv1.0, is a chromosome-level genome assembly annotated with high and low confidence gene models (IWGSC, 2018). Two tetraploid wheat genomes have also been 146 sequenced, assembled, and annotated to the same standard as RefSeqv1.0 - the wild tetraploid 147 148 progenitor of wheat, wild emmer (Avni et al., 2017), and a modern durum wheat variety (Maccaferri et al., 149 2019). Diploid ancestral progenitor species have also been assembled to varying levels of completeness 150 (Luo et al., 2017; Zhao et al., 2017; Ling et al., 2018; Miki et al., 2019). We summarize the annotated 151 assemblies for polyploid wheat in Table 1; in this review we will focus mainly on the RefSeqv1.0 assembly.

152 Table 1. Comparison of annotated genome assemblies in hexaploid and tetraploid wheat. RefSeqv1.0 is 153 the most widely used assembly and annotation of hexaploid wheat (available on Ensembl Plants 154 https://plants.ensembl.org/wheat). The information from previous assemblies and annotations 155 (Chromosome Survey Sequence (CSS) and TGACv1) are also available in the Ensembl Plants archive (https://oct2017-plants.ensembl.org) or as tracks in the Ensembl Plants genome browser interface. 156 157 Ensembl Plants enables access to additional information such as SNP variation, gene trees, homoeolog 158 assignments, and TILLING mutant information. Through this interface users can also combine knowledge 159 from the bread, durum and wild emmer genomes.

160

	CSS	TGACv1	RefSeqv1.0	Durum wheat	Wild emmer wheat
Publication	IWGSC (2014)	Clavijo <i>et al.</i> (2017)	IWGSC (2018)	Maccaferri <i>et al.</i> (2019)	Avni <i>et al.</i> (2017)
Contigs/Chromosome	es >1 million	735,943	21 chromosomes + ChrU	14 chromosomes + ChrU	14 chromosomes + ChrU
Mean scaffold size	7.7 kbp	88.7 kbp	Chromosomes	Chromosomes	Chromosomes
Assembly Size	10.2 Gbp	13.4 Gbp	14.6 Gbp	10.5 Gbp	10.5 Gbp
Order	<u>Synteny/genetic</u> order <u>*</u>	Large Bins	Physical order	Physical order	Physical order
Coding genes ⁺	133,090 HC	104,091 HC	107,891 HC	66,559 HC	67,182 HC
	88,998 LC	103,660 LC	161,537 LC	303,404 LC	271,179 LC
Assembly-related resources	Archive Ensembl Plants	Archive Ensembl Plants	Ensembl Plants GrainGenes, URGI	Ensembl Plants GrainGenes	Ensembl Plants GrainGenes
	TILLING mutants		TILLING mutants		
	expVIP, wheatExp	expVIP	expVIP, eFP		
Cultivar	Chinese Spring	Chinese Spring	Chinese Spring	Svevo	Zavitan

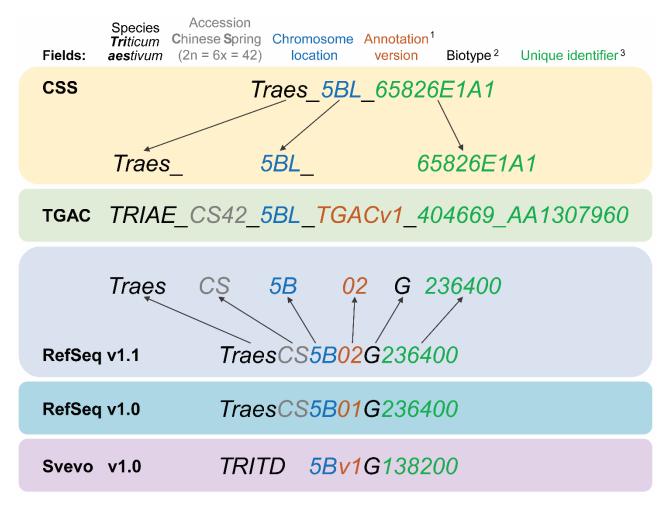
161 * Number of high confidence (HC) and low confidence (LC) genes which are defined based on multiple criteria outlined in the
 162 published papers. Care must be taken when interpreting their nomenclature (see Figure 3).

* Chromosome arm assignment was derived from chromosome flow-sorting, while approximate intra-chromosomal ordering was
 established using synteny derived from grasses (GenomeZipper) and genetic mapping (POPSEQ) (Mascher *et al.*, 2013; IWGSC,
 2014).

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Like most of the previous hexaploid assemblies, RefSeqv1.0 is derived from the wheat landrace 'Chinese Spring'. A combination of multiple Illumina and mate pair libraries were sequenced and assembled into scaffolds. Using a method of chromosome conformation capture called Hi-C, these scaffolds were further connected into pseudomolecules representing the 21 nuclear chromosomes of wheat, plus one additional 'pseudo-chromosome' (ChrU) containing all unassigned sequences (IWGSC, 2018).

The gene models for the RefSeqv1.0 assembly were annotated using two prediction pipelines, which were then consolidated into a single set of gene models (RefSeqv1.0 models). A subset of these (~2,000 gene models) were later re-annotated manually, resulting in the RefSeqv1.1 gene model set (Figure 3). Over half of high confidence protein coding genes are present as exactly three homoeologous copies (1:1:1 triads), while several other combinations exist (e.g. 2:1:1 whereby there are two paralogs on the A genome, and a single homoeolog each on the B and D genomes as Gene Y in Figure 1). The RefSeqv1.0 assembly and the RefSeqv1.1 gene models, as well as the durum and wild emmer assemblies and gene models, have been integrated into the publicly available Ensembl Plants genome browser (https://plants.ensembl.org) (Bolser *et al.*, 2015; Howe *et al.*, 2019). Existing variation data, both natural and induced, has been mapped to the RefSeqv1.0 hexaploid assembly and deposited in Ensembl Plants databases for visualisation via the genome browser. Integrating resources into a common reference facilitates their use and in the following sections we will discuss how to best access and utilise these resources.



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186 Figure 3. Gene model ID nomenclature description from the five available gene annotations for domesticated polyploid wheat. Here, one gene is used as an example to highlight the differences in gene 187 188 ID nomenclature. Fields represented in the nomenclature are shown at the top with matching colours for 189 the corresponding features in the gene names. Yellow background shows the CSS gene names with dark 190 grey arrows pointing towards the corresponding field in the TGAC gene annotation (TGACv1, green 191 background). Blue backgrounds show the gene nomenclatures for RefSeqv1.0 and v1.1 annotations (as 192 used in Ensembl Plants), while the lilac background shows the nomenclature for Svevo v1.0 (modern durum 193 wheat).

¹ Two annotation versions are available for the RefSeqv1.0 genome assembly: RefSeqv1.0 (release annotation) and RefSeqv1.1 (improved annotation). These can be differentiated by the annotation version number; "01" for RefSeqv1.0 and "02" for RefSeqv1.1. Otherwise, the annotations follow the same rules.

198 ² In the RefSeq and Svevo annotations, the biotype is represented by an additional identifier, where G =gene.

³ In the RefSeqv1.0 and v1.1 annotation, identifiers are progressive numbers in steps of 100s reflecting the relative position between gene models. For example, gene *TraesCS5B02G236400* would be adjacent to gene *TraesCS5B02G236500*. However, it is important to note that the relative positions of genes may change in future genome releases as the assembly is improved, for example, if scaffolds are rearranged. In these cases, the gene order would no longer be retained. In the gene annotation for the tetraploid durum wheat cv. Svevo, the species name is TRITD (*TRITicum Durum*) and gene identifiers increase in steps of 10s, rather than by steps of 100s as in the RefSeq hexaploid wheat annotation.

Note that RefSeqv1.0 and v1.1 comprises High Confidence (HC) and Low Confidence (LC) gene models. Low
 Confidence gene models are flagged by the "LC" at the end (not shown). HC and LC genes which otherwise
 display the same unique identifier are <u>not</u> the same locus and are not in sequential order. Hence,
 TraesCS5B02G236400 and *TraesCS5B02G236400<u>LC</u>* are both located on chromosome 5B, but are not the
 same gene nor are they physically adjacent. *Similarly, genes from homoeologous chromosomes with the*

same subsequent numeric identifier are not necessarily homoeologous genes. For example,
 TraesCS5A02G236400, TraesCS5B02G236400 and TraesCS5D02G236400 are <u>not</u> homoeologous genes.
 214

215 Finding wheat orthologs

Although DNA sequence homology does not equate to functional homology, it represents a good starting point for translational and/or comparative genomics. Correctly identifying orthologous genes in another plant species can be a difficult task however, especially between distantly related species like *Arabidopsis* and wheat. These two species are separated by ~200 million years of evolution and as a result both nucleotide and protein similarities are relatively low compared to more closely related species, for example, wheat and rice (*Oryza sativa*).

222 Conveniently, all the data and tools necessary for identifying putative gene orthologs from different plant 223 species are available through the Ensembl Plants website (<u>https://plants.ensembl.org</u>) (Bolser et al., 2015; Howe et al., 2019). The Plant Compara pipeline has been integrated into Ensembl Plants to create "gene 224 trees" that identify and clearly display the likely orthologs of any given gene for all of the species available 225 226 on its website (Vilella et al., 2009; Herrero et al., 2016). This includes the RefSeqv1.1, Arabidopsis TAIR10 227 and rice IGRSP1.0 gene models, amongst others. This represents a quick and reliable way to identify putative wheat orthologs of a given gene (Figure 2). Tutorials for using Ensembl Plants interactively or 228 229 programmatically can be found on their website or at <u>www.wheat-training.com</u>.

230 When performing a search for putative wheat orthologs via the Ensembl Plants pipeline, we would expect 231 to find three orthologs in hexaploid wheat for most gene queries. These orthologs would normally be 232 located on homoeologous chromosome groups, e.g. chromosomes 1A, 1B and 1D (Figure 1). A well-233 documented exception to this rule is the long arm of chromosome 4A (4AL), which has undergone 234 translocation events with chromosome arms 5AL and 7BS (Devos et al., 1995; Ma et al., 2013). Therefore, 235 orthologs within these translocated regions will be physically located on different chromosome groups, e.g. 236 three homoeologous genes could be on chromosome arms 4AL, 5BL and 5DL. Furthermore, gene structure 237 of wheat orthologs is often conserved with respect to rice and other closely related monocot species; this 238 comparison can usually be done within Ensembl Plants. If this is not possible, wheat RNA-seq data can be 239 used to determine the gene structure. As an alternative to the Ensembl Plants Gene Trees, one can perform reciprocal protein BLAST searches to identify putative wheat orthologs. We exemplify the above-mentioned 240 241 approaches along with potential pitfalls in more detail in the 'Case Study' section.

242 Expression data

Determining if, when, where, and to what level a gene is expressed often constitutes one of the first steps towards its functional characterisation. Gene expression information can also be used to prioritize candidate genes underlying a quantitative trait locus (QTL) or to predict those members of a large gene family most relevant to trait expression. Numerous RNA-Seq datasets for wheat and many other crops have 247 been generated and published. Although the raw data are often publicly available (e.g. via the NCBI sequence read archive, https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/sra), they are not sufficiently curated for rapid 248 249 access and their use in direct comparisons is complicated due to the diversity of tissues, treatments, and 250 origins of the samples. Expression browsers aim to centralise these public datasets and analyse them 251 together, ideally allowing retrieval of expression information for a list of genes under different conditions. 252 For wheat, four expression browsers are currently available: expVIP (http://www.wheat-expression.com; 253 (Borrill et al., 2016)), wheat eFP browser (http://bar.utoronto.ca/efp_wheat/cgi-bin/efpWeb.cgi; (Ramirez-254 Gonzalez et al., 2018)), EBI Gene Expression Atlas 255 (https://www.ebi.ac.uk/gxa/experiments?species=triticum+aestivum), and WheatExp 256 (https://wheat.pw.usda.gov/WheatExp; (Pearce et al., 2015)). Here we will focus on the first two given that 257 they include a larger and more diverse set of samples and use the RefSeqv1.0 and v1.1 gene models 258 described in Table 1.

259 Currently, expVIP includes expression data from 36 studies (1,016 RNA-Seq samples) across a diverse range 260 of wheat tissues, developmental stages, cultivars, and environmental conditions including various abiotic 261 and biotic stress treatments. It can display expression data for up to 250 genes at once, which can be 262 particularly useful when working with a gene family, genes within a QTL interval, or genes involved in the 263 same regulatory process. The expression values for each gene homoeolog, based on the same homoeolog 264 assignments as in Ensembl Plants, can also be displayed. The 'homoeolog expression patterns' of triads 265 (genes that are present as exactly three homoeologous copies) can also be displayed through ternary plots 266 and compared across tissues (Ramirez-Gonzalez et al., 2018).

267 To allow comparisons across studies, the 1,016 RNA-Seq samples in expVIP were classified according to four 268 high-level categories based on variety, tissue, developmental stage and stress. These high-level categories 269 are themselves divided into more detailed subcategories. These categories can be used to customize 270 visualization displays and allows users to select data relevant to their experimental comparisons. Data can 271 be displayed both as transcripts per million (TPM) or as raw counts and can be directly downloaded to carry 272 out differential gene expression analyses. Although the default gene model reference is RefSeqv1.1, users 273 can also choose the CSS, TGACv1 and RefSeqv1.0 transcriptome references for legacy reasons. Tutorials 274 describing expVIP are available on https://github.com/Uauy-Lab/expvip-web/wiki and www.wheat-275 training.com. Recently, expVIP was implemented for berry fruit species (Thole et al., 2019).

An additional resource is the electronic Fluorescent Pictograph (eFP) browser, which provides a simple visual assessment of expression data using pictures coloured according to a gene's relative expression level. The eFP expression browser is available for several crops (e.g. potato, soybean, barley) and most recently wheat (<u>http://bar.utoronto.ca/efp_wheat/cgi-bin/efpWeb.cgi</u>). The wheat interface includes 209 RNA-Seq samples (also in expVIP) representing 22 tissue types from grain, root, leaf, and spike samples across multiple time points from a single hexaploid spring wheat cultivar ('Azhurnaya').

282 Gene networks

283 The available RNA-Seq data provides the opportunity to identify networks of co-expressed genes. Ramirez-284 Gonzalez et al. (2018) constructed tissue and stress-specific co-expression networks in wheat to determine 285 whether genes from the same triad showed variable spatiotemporal expression. In addition, a GENIE3 286 network was developed to predict transcription factor targets across the multiple RNA-Seq samples 287 (Huynh-Thu et al., 2010; Ramirez-Gonzalez et al., 2018). Together, these networks provide a powerful set of 288 tools for hypothesis generation using wheat-specific datasets. We have recently validated the GENIE3 289 network using independent RNA-Seq data from tetraploid wheat (Harrington et al., 2019). Both co-290 expression GENIE3 networks incorporated into KnetMiner and are 291 (https://knetminer.org/Triticum_aestivum/).

292 KnetMiner is a web-application for searching and visualising genome-scale knowledge networks of e.g. 293 Arabidopsis, wheat, and human diseases (Hassani-Pak et al., 2016). It aims to provide research leads for 294 scientists who are investigating the molecular basis of complex traits. KnetMiner accepts keywords in 295 combination with a gene list and/or genomic regions as input and searches the underlying knowledge 296 network to identify links between these user-provided genes and keywords. A network-based visualisation, 297 named Network View, allows users to examine complex relationships between gene networks and traits. 298 The networks contain nodes that represent different entities such as genes, single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs), publications, and traits (e.g. heat or drought tolerance) that are linked via different 299 300 relation types (e.g. co-expression, GENIE3-targets, protein-protein interaction, published-in). Together, 301 KnetMiner and the integrated gene networks provide a powerful resource for gene discovery and 302 hypothesis generation in wheat (see Case Study below).

303 Epigenomics

- 304 With the availability of the wheat genome, increasing interest has turned towards the wheat epigenome,
- 305 i.e. heritable modifications to the genome that do not affect the DNA sequence itself, such as histone and
- 306 DNA methylation. The global DNA methylome of polyploid wheat has been explored in multiple studies
- 307 (Gardiner et al., 2015; Gardiner et al., 2018; Li et al., 2019). The methylome of the reference cultivar
- 308 Chinese Spring was initially captured at the seedling stage (Gardiner *et al.*, 2015), with more recent work
- 309 <u>focussing on the variation present in the seedling methylome of the 104 landraces from the Watkins core</u>
- 310 <u>collection (Table 2) (Gardiner et al., 2018). Researchers have also examined the changes in DNA</u>
- 311 methylation status as a result of biotic stress in wheat seedlings (Geng et al., 2019). The raw bisulfite
- 312 sequencing data from these experiments is available through public archives, however, it is not
- 313 <u>immediately accessible on genome browsers. More recently, new epigenomic data from Chinese Spring</u>
- 314 seedlings was released, which includes a wide variety of epigenetic marks such as DNA methylation, seven
- 315 histone modifications, and chromatin accessibility (Li *et al.*, 2019). This data has been made publicly

available through a bespoke genome browser (http://bioinfo.sibs.ac.cn/cs_epigenome) and can be readily
 accessed by researchers to gain insight into the epigenomic landscape surrounding their genes of interest.

318 Functional studies

After identifying a gene of interest there are now several options and resources available for functional characterisation and validation in wheat (Figure 2). These include resources based both on natural and induced variation and can involve both transgenic and non-transgenic approaches. It is important to remember that due to the polyploid nature of wheat, there is often functional redundancy between homoeologs (Borrill *et al.*, 2015). This means that it may be necessary to manipulate all homoeologs and paralogs simultaneously to measure a strong phenotypic effect (see the 'Strategies for Use' section below for more information).

326 Induced variation

327 TILLING

328 Polyploid species, such as wheat, are well suited to mutational approaches as the functional redundancy in 329 their genomes allows for the tolerance of a higher mutational load compared with diploid species (Tsai et 330 al., 2013; Uauy et al., 2017). Bespoke mutant populations can be developed and screened for desired 331 mutations in a gene of interest, though the screening process is arduous and time-consuming. To overcome 332 this barrier, an *in-silico* wheat TILLING resource has been developed (Krasileva et al., 2017). This resource 333 consists of two ethyl methanesulphonate (EMS) mutagenized populations: 1,535 lines of the tetraploid 334 durum wheat variety 'Kronos' and 1,200 lines of the hexaploid bread wheat variety 'Cadenza'. Exome 335 capture and Illumina sequencing of these 2,735 mutant lines was then carried out. The raw data was 336 originally aligned to the CSS reference, mutations were identified, and their effects predicted based on the 337 CSS gene models (Krasileva et al., 2017). Alleles predicted in silico to be deleterious (e.g. premature stop 338 codons, splice site mutations, non-synonymous amino acid substitutions with SIFT score < 0.05), were 339 identified for ~90% of the captured wheat genes (Krasileva et al., 2017), thus making this a powerful 340 resource for rapidly identifying mutations in a gene of interest (Figure 2). The raw data has now been 341 aligned to the RefSeqv1.0 genome, allowing mutation identification and effect prediction based on the 342 RefSeqv1.1 gene models. These updated data are publicly available on Ensembl Plants (see Case Study for 343 details). For legacy purposes, the mutations called against the CSS reference remain available via 344 www.wheat-tilling.com. However, caution should be exercised as the mutation effects here are predicted 345 based on the CSS gene models, which are known to be less reliable than the RefSeq gene models (Brinton et al., 2018). 346

There are several important considerations when selecting a mutant line for characterisation. First, it is essential to check the predicted effect of mutations in the context of a complete and experimentally validated gene model. Second, in most cases, crossing is necessary to combine mutations in homoeologous genes in order to generate a complete null individual. Third, mutant lines will contain a high level of 351 background mutations: a typical mutant line has between 50 (tetraploid) and 110 (hexaploid) mutations 352 predicted to result in a truncated protein. Depending on the phenotype of interest (i.e. qualitative vs. 353 quantitative) several rounds of backcrossing may be required before the phenotype can be assessed (see 354 'Strategies for Use'). Lastly, if the gene of interest is missing or is already a null allele in Kronos or Cadenza 355 (which can be determined using the full genome sequences of the two cultivars), mutant populations of 356 other genotypes are available (e.g. Dong et al. (2009); Chen et al. (2012); Bovina et al. (2014); Sestili et al. 357 (2015); Colasuonno et al. (2016)), although these would need to be screened using conventional PCR-based 358 approaches. Additional practical information about selecting mutant lines and downstream analyses can be 359 found at www.wheat-training.com/tilling-mutant-resources and in Uauy et al. (2017).

360 Transgenic approaches

361 Stable transformation of wheat is possible and can be performed using a variety of methods including both 362 particle bombardment (Vasil et al., 1992; Sparks and Jones, 2009) and Agrobacterium-mediated transformation (Cheng et al., 1997; Sparks et al., 2014). Generating stable transgenic lines in wheat most 363 364 commonly involves transforming immature wheat embryos and subsequent callus regeneration (Harwood, 365 2012). Reports in the literature of Agrobacterium-mediated wheat transformation generally describe low transformation efficiencies with average efficiencies of around 5%. An efficient, but patented 366 367 transformation system is available through licence from Japan Tobacco (www.jti.co.jp). Transformation by 368 overexpression of transcription factors such as maize Baby Boom and Wuschel2 has also yielded improved transformation efficiencies in monocots (Lowe et al., 2016), although there are no formal reports yet in 369 370 wheat. Recently, an open-access wheat transformation system with transformation efficiencies of up to 371 25% was published (Hayta *et al.*, 2019), albeit for a single cultivar.

372 Using transgenic approaches, gene expression can be altered in a variety of ways such as overexpressing or 373 ectopically expressing the gene of interest using either constitutive, tissue-specific or inducible promoters 374 (Hensel et al., 2011). Similarly, RNA-interference (RNAi) has been used successfully in wheat to reduce gene 375 expression with the added benefit that constructs can be designed to target all homoeologous genes 376 simultaneously, thereby overcoming the potential drawback of functional redundancy among homoeologs 377 (Fu et al., 2007). In addition to altering expression patterns, modified proteins can also be introduced (e.g. including tags) for downstream experiments such as ChIP-seq (Deng et al., 2015) or localisation studies 378 379 (Harwood et al., 2005). However, these are still not commonly employed in wheat research. As 380 transformation methods have only been optimised for a limited number of wheat varieties (e.g. Richardson et al. (2014)), it is important to understand whether the gene is expressed/functional in the chosen variety 381 382 when defining transgenic strategies (see 'Strategies for Use').

Recent developments in genome editing technologies provide new opportunities for manipulating genes in wheat. TALEN and CRISPR/Cas9-mediated genome editing has been successfully demonstrated in wheat both in transient expression systems (Shan *et al.,* 2014) and stably transformed plants (Wang *et al.,* 2014b; 386 Luo et al., 2019), using a range of methods (reviewed in Uauy et al. (2017)). Currently, most studies have 387 introduced specific point mutations or small deletions leading to subsequent protein disruption, although 388 the technology holds the potential for complex applications such as allele swapping or gene insertion, as 389 reviewed by Puchta (2017). Similar to RNAi, constructs for Cas9-mediated gene editing can be designed to 390 target all homoeologs simultaneously (Zhang et al., 2016; Howells et al., 2018). Due to the current 391 efficiency of genome editing however, the likelihood of obtaining mutations in all homoeologs in a single T_0 plant remains low (0.9%; (Zhang et al., 2016) and subsequent crosses to combine multiple edited targets 392 393 are likely to be required.

394 A major limitation of using transgenic approaches to manipulate agronomically relevant traits is the 395 associated legal and regulatory constraints. To overcome these, the nuclease transgene can be segregated 396 away from the edited gene(s) in subsequent generations. However, in Europe, and in contrast to many 397 other countries in the world, the resulting plants would be regulated as transgenics due to the 2018 ruling 398 on genome editing by the European Court of Justice (ECJ). Some studies have documented CRISPR/Cas9-399 editing in wheat without transgene integration, for example, by delivering the CRISPR/Cas9 components as 400 ribonucleoproteins (RNPs). As no foreign DNA is used in CRISPR/Cas9 RNP-mediated genome editing, the 401 wheat mutants obtained are completely transgene free (Liang et al., 2017), although still not exempt from 402 the ECJ regulation.

403 Virus Induced Gene Silencing

404 Virus-Induced Gene Silencing (VIGS) involves transient knock-down of expression of target genes followed 405 by assessment of the resulting phenotype (Lee et al., 2012). The most widely used vectors for VIGS in wheat 406 are those derived from barley stripe mosaic virus (BSMV), a plant virus with a tripartite RNA genome that 407 readily spreads throughout tissues following mechanical rub-inoculation onto the leaves. All three BSMV 408 genomic RNAs, RNA α , RNA β and RNA γ , are required to cause infection. RNA γ has been modified to allow 409 insertion of short (up to 350 bp) plant mRNA derived sequences. Infection of plants with the resulting 410 recombinant virus induces a natural post-transcriptional gene silencing defence mechanism that targets the 411 viral RNA, but also the endogenous plant mRNA having high level (>70%) nucleotide identity with the plant sequence inserted into RNAy, for degradation. A detailed protocol for VIGS is available at www.wheat-412 training.com (Figure 2). 413

VIGS in wheat has been used primarily to investigate disease resistance in a range of varieties, and has been restricted to a few tissue types such as leaf (Lee *et al.*, 2015), young seedlings (Zhang *et al.*, 2017a) and spikes (Ma *et al.*, 2012). However, in principle, BSMV-mediated VIGS can be applied to any wheat genotype and to almost any gene of interest. This functional genomics tool is particularly useful when analysing multiple candidate genes, for example in map-based cloning projects (i.e. when physical intervals contain several candidate genes) or from RNA-Seq differentially expressed datasets. VIGS is also useful in wheat genotypes that are difficult to transform and in those for which mutant/TILLING populations are 421 unavailable. VIGS can be used for simultaneous silencing of all homoeologs or, in principle, entire small422 gene families without the need for further genetic crosses.

423 Natural Variation

424 Although using induced variation presents a clear route to understand the function of specific genes in 425 wheat, the wealth of natural variation in wheat lines, and populations based on this variation, present an 426 alternative route to discover genes and correlate them with function. For example, populations differing for 427 alleles of the gene of interest could be used to rapidly infer the role of the gene. In order to capture the 428 diversity within wheat and create populations to test gene function, natural variation has been extensively documented. Most studies have focused on SNPs between varieties that can be quickly assayed through 429 430 SNP arrays designed from gene coding sequences and untranslated regions (UTRs) (Wang et al., 2014a; 431 Winfield et al., 2016; Allen et al., 2017), described in Borrill et al. (2015) and www.wheat-training.com. 432 Thousands of varieties and landraces have been processed using these arrays and datasets are available through websites such as TCAP (https://triticeaetoolbox.org/wheat) (Blake et al., 2016) and CerealsDB 433 434 (http://www.cerealsdb.uk.net/cerealgenomics/CerealsDB) (Wilkinson et al., 2016). Given that all SNPs from 435 the latter have been incorporated into Ensembl Plants, this means that large in silico allelic series are readily available for many genes of interest. 436

437 Beyond SNP variation, two recent studies (He et al., 2019; Pont et al., 2019) applied exome capture to 438 diverse wheat lines to characterise the natural variation throughout the coding region of wheat. These 439 studies identified millions of SNPs within coding sequences in over 1,000 wheat lines, including hexaploid 440 cultivars and landraces, and tetraploid and diploid relatives. The data (available at 441 http://wheatgenomics.plantpath.ksu.edu/1000EC and https://urgi.versailles.inra.fr) will allow rapid 442 characterisation of the extent of variation within genes of interest. These changes in coding sequences may 443 have direct phenotypic consequences, however the impact of most of these variants remains unknown.

Therefore, despite this wealth of data, the challenge remains to define the functional significance of this variation. Traditionally, mapping populations or association panels would need to be developed or assembled, and then genotyped, to assess how particular SNPs or haplotypes affect the trait of interest. In wheat, many of these resources are now publicly available (Figure 2), thus facilitating the functional characterisation of genes of interest. We describe some of these resources below and include links to access genotypes, sequences and seeds in Table 2. Further details are available at <u>www.wheat-</u> <u>training.com</u>.

Table 2: Natural variation resources available in wheat.

Collection	Short description	Number of accessions	Genotyping	Data/seed availability	More information/Reference
Wild wheat re	elatives and progenitor species		1		
Seeds of Discovery	Wheat and wild relative accessions held by ICARDA and CIMMYT	80,000 accessions: 56,342 domesticated hexaploid (8 taxa); 18,946 domesticated tetraploid (8 taxa); 3,903 crop wild relatives included all known 27 wild species from <i>Aegilops-Triticum</i> species complex and 11 genomic constitutions.	DArT-seq	CIMMYT Dataverse http://hdl.handle.net/11529/105480 <u>30</u> Germinate data warehouse http://germinate.cimmyt.org/wheat . Records for all germplasm accessions can also be accessed at https://ssl.fao.org/glis/	<u>https://seedsofdiscovery.</u> org/
Open Wild Wheat	Accessions of <i>Aegilops tauschii</i> (D genome progenitor)	265 accessions	Whole genome shotgun sequenced (10- 30x)	Sequencing: <u>https://opendata.earlham.ac.uk/wh</u> <u>eat/under_license/toronto/;</u> Seed: <u>https://www.seedstor.ac.uk/search-</u> <u>browseaccessions.php?idCollection=</u> 38	<u>www.openwildwheat.org</u> ; Arora <i>et al.,</i> 2019
Wild wheat introgression lines	Introgression lines from Aegilops caudata, Aegilops speltoides, Amblyopyrum muticum, Thinopyrum bessarabicum, Thinopyrum elongatum, Thinopyrum intermedium, Thinopyrum ponticum, Triticum timopheevii, Triticum urartu, rye and wheat cultivars (Chinese Spring, Higbury, Paragon, Pavon 76)	153 stable homozygous introgression lines available	35K Axiom Wheat Relative Genotyping array + 710 KASP markers (Grewal <i>et al.,</i> 2019)	Genotype: https://www.nottingham.ac.uk/wrc/ germplasm- resources/genotyping.aspx; Seed: https://www.seedstor.ac.uk/ (accessions WR0001-WR0155)	www.nottingham.ac.uk/ WISP ; Grewal et al., 2018a; Grewal et al., 2018b, King et al., 2017a, King et al., 2017b

Synthetic	Sythetic hexaploid wheats	50 synthetic hexaploid	35K Axiom	Genotype:	https://www.niab.com/re
hexaploid	generated using Aegilops	wheats + pre-breeding	breeders array	https://www.cerealsdb.uk.net/cerea	
•	° ° ° '		Dieeuers array		·
wheat	<i>tauschii</i> (DD) + European	accessions; backcross		Igenomics/CerealsDB/axiom_downlo	
	tetraploid (AABB) wheat	populations with Robigus		ad.php	<u>wheat</u>
		and Paragon also		Seed: https://www.seedstor.ac.uk/	
		available		(store codes WS0001-WS0232)	
Wheat divers	ity panels				
Watkins	World collection of wheat	829 accessions (core set	35K Axiom	Genotype:	http://wisplandracepillar.j
historic	landraces grown as farmer saved	of 119 represent	breeders array	https://www.cerealsdb.uk.net/cerea	ic.ac.uk/results_resources
collection of	seed before the 1930s.	majority of assayed	(Allen <i>et al.,</i> 2017);	Igenomics/CerealsDB/axiom downlo	<u>.htm</u> ; Wingen et al.,
landrace	Genetically stable collection	genotypic variation). F _{4:5}	subset exome	ad.php	2014; Wingen et al., 2017
wheats	developed by two generations of	mapping populations	sequenced	Seed: https://www.seedstor.ac.uk/	
	single seed descent	against Paragon, mainly	(Gardiner <i>et al.,</i>	(store codes WATDE0001-	
		for the core set.	2018)	WATDE1063)	
GEDIFLUX	Western European winter wheat	479 accessions	35K Axiom	Genotype:	http://wisplandracepillar.j
(Genetic	varieties that individually		breeders array	https://www.cerealsdb.uk.net/cerea	
Diversity	occupied over 5% of national			Igenomics/CerealsDB/axiom downlo	.htm ; Wingen et al., 2014
Flux)	acreage from 1945 to 2000. Bi-			ad.php;	<u></u>
collection	parental populations with			Seed: <u>https://www.seedstor.ac.uk/</u>	
	Paragon (ongoing)			(store codes WGED0001-	
				WGED0729)	
NIAB wheat	Bread wheat varieties released	480 accessions	90k SNP array	Seed, Genotype and Pedigree:	Fradgley et al., 2019
association	between 1916-2007.		Solice analy	https://www.niab.com/research/res	
mapping	Predominantly UK varieties			earch-projects/resources	
panel	(68%), also other North Western				
paner	European countries e.g. France				
	(10%) and Germany (8%)				
	(10%) and Germany (8%)				
OzWheat	Genetic diversity in Australian	285 accessions	90k SNP array +	Seed and Genotype: contact	
diversity	wheat breeding (colonial		additional 26K	Shannon Dillon from CSIRO	
panel	landraces 1860s, first Australian-		SNPs from	(Shannon.Dillon@csiro.au)	
	bred cultivars 1890s, CIMMYT-		transcriptome data		
	derived semi dwarfs 1960s, post				
	2000 wheat)				

Vavilov	Hexaploid wheat accessions	295 accessions	DArtT-seq (34,311	Genotype: Dr Lee Hickey at The	Riaz <i>et al.,</i> 2017
wheat	including landraces, historic		polymorphic	University of Queensland	
collection	breeding lines and cultivars. Pure		markers)	(<u>l.hickey@uq.edu.au</u>);	
	lines generated by single seed			Seed: Australian Grains Genebank	
	descent			(sally.norton@ecodev.vic.gov.au)	
WHEALBI	Worldwide wheat accessions	487 accessions	Exome capture	Genotype:	Pont <i>et al.,</i> 2019
wheat panel	including diploid and tetraploid		(~600,000 genetic	https://urgi.versailles.inra.fr/downlo	
	wild relatives, old hexaploid		variants in ~40,000	ad/iwgsc/IWGSC_RefSeq_Annotatio	
	landraces and modern elite		genes; 12,000	ns/v1.0/iwgsc_refseqv1.0_Whealbi_	
	cultivars		genes identified as	GWAS.zip;	
			putative	Seed:	
			presence/absence	https://www.gbif.org/dataset/a52ca	
			variation	10a-136a-4072-a6de-3ec6e7852365	
			compared to		
			RefSeqv1.0)		
Global	Diveristy used in durum wheat	1,056 accessions	90k SNP array	Genotype: ms in preparation; Seed:	
Durum	breeding programs globally,			ICARDA genebank	
Wheat (GDP)	including landraces and modern			http://indms.icarda.org	
panel	varieties			Filippo Bassi, <u>F.Bassi@cgiar.org</u>	
Tetraploid	Wild emmer wheat,	1,856	90k SNP array	Genotype: GrainGenes; Seed: on	Maccaferri <i>et al.,</i> 2019
wheat Global	domesticated emmer, durum			request for non-commercial use	
Collection	wheat landraces and other			from University of Bologna	
(TGC)	tetraploid wheat sub-species			(<u>marco.maccaferri@unibo.it</u> and	
	(Triticum aethiopicum, Triticum			roberto.tuberosa@unibo.it)	
	carthlicum, Triticum polonicum,				
	Triticum turanicum, Triticum				
	turgidum, Triticum				
	karamyschevii and Triticum				
	petropavlovsky)				
MAGIC popul	ations				
CSIRO, Aus	4-way (parents Baxter, Chara,	1,500 (4-way) and 3,000	90k SNP array,	Seed and Genotype: on request	Huang et al., 2012; Shah
	Westonia, Yitpi); 8-way (parents	(8-way) RILs	microsatellite and	from CSIRO (<u>Bill.Bovill@csiro.au</u>)	et al., 2019
	Baxter, Westonia, Yitpi, AC		DArT markers >		
	Barrie (Canada), Xiaoya54		20,000 SNPs		
	(China), Volcani (Israel), Pastor		mapped in each		

	(Mexico), Alsen (USA))		population		
NIAB, UK	8-way (parents Alchemy, Brompton, Claire, Hereward,	NIAB 8-way MAGIC: >1,000 RILs; NIAB 16-way		Claire and Robigus genomes: https://opendata.earlham.ac.uk/ope	Mackay <i>et al.,</i> 2014; Gardner <i>et al.,</i> 2016
	Rialto, Robigus, Xi19, Soissions); 16-way (Banco, Bersee, Brigadier, Copain, Cordiale, Flamingo, Gladiator, Holdfast, Kloka, Maris Fundin, Robigus,	MAGIC: ~600 RILs	sequence (Claire, Robigus, others underway). Exome capture sequence of 16-way parents.	ndata/data/Triticum_aestivum/El/v1 .1/; Genotyping and Seed: https://www.niab.com/research/res earch-projects/resources	
	Slejpner, Soissons, Spark, Steadfast, Stetson)		Skim-seq of all RILs underway.		
Germany	8-way (Event, Format, BAYP4535, Potenzial, Ambition, Bussard, Firl3565, Julius)	394 F _{6:8} RILs	5,435 SNPs from SNP array	Genotype and pedigree: http://doi.org/10.14459/2018mp14 35172 (click the "open attachment browser" link); Seed: Bavarian State Research Centre for Agriculture (Freising, Germany)	Stadlmeier <i>et al.,</i> 2018
Germany	WM-800, 8-way (Patras, Meister, Linus, JB Asano, Tobak, Bernstein, Safari, Julius)	910 F _{4:6} RILs	15k Infinium iSelect SNP array	Genotype and pedigree: https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/ articles/PMC6069784 ; Seed: on request from Martin Luther University, Germany (klaus.pillen@landw.uni-halle.de)	Sannemann <i>et al.,</i> 2018
Durum	4-way (Claudio (Italy), Colosseo (Italy), Neodur (France), Rascon/2*Tarro (advanced CIMMYT line))	334 F _{7:8} RILs	90k SNP array	Genotype and pedigree: https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/f ull/10.1111/pbi.12424; Seed: on request for non-commercial use from University of Bologna (marco.maccaferri@unibo.it and roberto.tuberosa@unibo.it)	Milner <i>et al.,</i> 2016

452 Wild wheat relatives and progenitor species:

453 There is relatively low genetic variation in elite bread wheat varieties, especially on the D genome. This typically reflects adaptation and selection from landraces over a long time period, combined with the 454 455 genetic bottleneck effects associated with the rare natural hybridisation events between the diploid and 456 tetraploid ancestral wheat species that lead to the evolution of hexaploid wheat. Wheat is related to 457 several other grass species, many of which are wild and uncultivated. These wild relatives provide a vast 458 and largely untapped reservoir of genetic variation for many agronomically important traits. A wealth of cytogenetic stocks for these wild relatives have been created over the last 100 years by researchers globally 459 460 (reviewed by Mujeeb-Kazi et al. (2013)). The recent genotyping and sequencing of some of these resources 461 makes them especially suitable for gene functional characterisation (Table 2).

462 Synthetic hexaploid wheat:

Another approach to capture variation in wheat progenitors is via 're-synthesis', the process used to create synthetic hexaploid wheat (SHW). SHWs are typically created by crossing tetraploid durum wheat with the diploid D-genome progenitor *Aegilops tauschii*. Approximately 400 SHWs were developed at CIMMYT in Mexico during the 1990s (Mujeeb-Kazi *et al.*, 1996) and these have been extensively utilised in CIMMYT and international wheat breeding programmes (e.g. Gororo *et al.* (2002); Ogbonnaya *et al.* (2007)). More recently, NIAB (UK) have developed a new SHW resource encompassing 50 SHWs along with pre-breeding derivatives. This germplasm, alongside marker data, is publicly available (Table 2).

470 Wheat diversity panels:

471 Numerous collections of wheat landraces, varieties and breeders' lines are available from research centres 472 around the world. These panels represent valuable sources of potential genetic variation for targeted 473 exploitation within wheat research and pre-breeding pipelines, especially when associated with existing 474 genotypic and phenotypic datasets (Table 2). Further details are available at <u>www.wheat-training.com</u>.

475 Multiparent Advanced Generation Inter-Cross (MAGIC) populations:

476 MAGIC populations have been developed for many crop species (Huang et al., 2015; Cockram and Mackay, 477 2018). The multiple generations of inter-crossing required to create MAGIC populations results in highly 478 recombined chromosomes which enables the use of approaches such as genome wide association scans 479 (GWAS) and whole-genome average interval mapping (WGAIM; (Verbyla et al., 2007)) to define small 480 genetic intervals for traits of interest (reviewed by Verbyla et al. (2014)). Likewise, the use of multiple 481 parents in MAGIC allows more allelic variation to be examined compared to typical bi-parental populations 482 (Cockram and Mackay, 2018). In wheat, seven MAGIC populations are currently publicly available constructed from 4, 8 or 16 founders. Parent information and further details can be found in Table 2. 483

484 Combining induced and natural variation for a holistic picture of gene function

485 <u>To date natural variation has largely been used for forward genetics approaches such as mapping genetic</u>

486 regions underlying a phenotypic trait of interest. However, there is now an opportunity to apply natural

487 variation in wheat for reverse genetics studies to complement transgenic, gene editing and induced variation approaches. For example, the pre-harvest sprouting locus Phs-A1 was reported by two 488 489 independent studies to be underpinned by different genes: in one case by a pair of tandem duplicated 490 Plasma Membrane 19 (PM19-A1 and PM19-A2) genes (Barrero et al., 2015), and in the other by a mitogen-491 activated protein kinase kinase 3 (TaMKK3-A) gene (Torada et al., 2016). Transgenic approaches seemed to validate the role of both PM19 and TaMKK3-A to influence pre-harvest sprouting. However, by using 11 bi-492 493 parental populations and a MAGIC population segregating for the *Phs-A1* locus, it was possible to break the 494 linkage with the polymorphism in PM19 and confirm that the causal gene in all populations was TaMKK3-A 495 (Shorinola et al., 2017). This example illustrates the power of natural variation to validate the causal 496 variants underpinning phenotypes in wheat. Populations exploiting natural variation can also be used to validate gene function. For example, TEOSINTE 497 498 BRANCHED1 (TB1) was identified to regulate wheat spike architecture using a 4-parent Australian MAGIC population, and this function was confirmed using induced variation (TILLING and transgenic 499 500 overexpression) and natural variation in the 8-parent UK MAGIC population (Dixon et al., 2018). 501 Interestingly, whilst TB1 was important in both MAGIC populations, different homoeologs underpinned the 502 variation: TB1-D1 in the Australian population and TB1-B1 in the UK population. This study suggests that by

using natural variation, we can start to understand the nuanced regulation of phenotypes in wheat elicited
 by individual homoeologs. Together, these examples show that researchers now have at their disposal a
 powerful toolkit to combine induced and natural variation to study gene function in wheat.

506 Moving towards a wheat pangenome

507 Increases in DNA sequencing outputs and related technologies have allowed the assembly of chromosome 508 scale assemblies for multiple cultivars in major crops such as maize (https://nam-genomes.org/), rice (Zhou 509 et al., 2019) or oilseed rape (Song et al., 2020). For wheat, eight spring, eight winter hexaploid, and three 510 tetraploid varieties/accessions have been assembled, several to a similar standard as the reference Chinese 511 Spring genome (Table 3). Annotation of most of these varieties is ongoing through the 10+ Wheat Genomes 512 Project (<u>http://www.10wheatgenomes.com</u>) and will provide information on the core (genes shared by all 513 assembled varieties) and dispensable genes (genes shared among a few varieties). In addition, presence 514 absence variation, copy number variation, structural rearrangements (inversions/translocations), and 515 variation across non-coding regions are being quantified. Importantly, several of these genotypes are part 516 of the resources outlined above, e.g. sequenced TILLING population (Kronos and Cadenza). These assemblies will be integrated into Ensembl Plants and are available for download under Toronto Agreement 517 (https://wheat.ipk-gatersleben.de/). 518

519

520 Table 3: Tetraploid and hexaploid wheat genome assemblies that are currently available, in addition to

521 the Chinese Spring reference hexaploid genome.

Variety	Habit	Origin	Availability *
Hexaploid wheat			
CDC Landmark	spring	Canada	10+ Genome Project
CDC Stanley	spring	Canada	10+ Genome Project
Paragon	spring	UK	10+ Genome Project
Cadenza	spring	UK	10+ Genome Project
Lancer	spring	Australia	10+ Genome Project
Mace	spring	Australia	10+ Genome Project
Synthetic W7984	spring	Mexico	Chapman <i>et al.</i> (2015)
Weebil	spring	Mexico	10+ Genome Project
Arina <i>LrFor</i>	winter	Switzerland	10+ Genome Project
Julius	winter	Germany	10+ Genome Project
Jagger	winter	US	10+ Genome Project
Robigus	winter	UK	10+ Genome Project
Claire	winter	UK	10+ Genome Project
Norin61	winter	Japan	10+ Genome Project
SY Mattis	winter	France	10+ Genome Project
Spelt (PI190962)	winter	Europe	10+ Genome Project
Tetraploid wheat			
Zavitan†	-	Israel	Avni <i>et al.</i> (2017)
Svevo	spring	Italy	Maccaferri et al. (2019)
Kronos	spring	US	10+ Genome Project

522 + 'Zavitan' is a tetraploid wild emmer (*T. dicoccoides*) accession.

* Varieties included within the 10+ Wheat Genomes Project can be accessed through the Earlham Grassroot Genomics portal
 (<u>https://wheatis.tgac.ac.uk/grassroots-portal/blast</u>) and the 10+ Wheat Genomes project portal (<u>http://webblast.ipk-gatersleben.de/wheat ten genomes</u>) (subset of varieties in each). The 'Svevo' genome can be accessed through
 <u>https://www.interomics.eu/durum-wheat-genome</u> and Ensembl Plants. 'Synthetic W7984' and 'Zavitan' can be accessed through
 the Grassroot Genomics, and Ensembl Plants, respectively.

528

529 Strategies for use

530 Variety selection and growth conditions

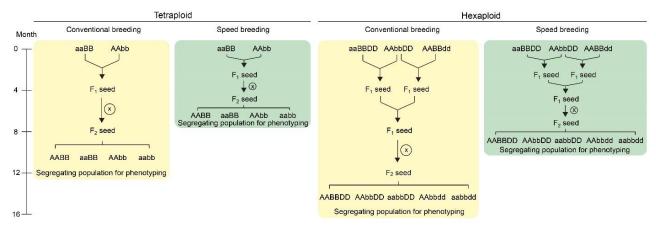
Whilst resources are now available for the functional validation of target genes in wheat, practical 531 532 knowledge is also required to maximise the value of these resources. Firstly, wheat varieties are adapted to different growing conditions (e.g. daylength and vernalisation requirements) making it important to 533 consider the conditions under which functional validation will be conducted. If phenotyping will be 534 535 undertaken in greenhouse or controlled environment conditions then most varieties will be suitable, although varieties without vernalisation requirements are faster to grow (details on wheat growth 536 537 conditions at www.wheat-training.com). If field trials are required for phenotypic characterisation (e.g. yield-related traits), local adaptation is often necessary for correct interpretation of results given genotype 538 539 x environment interactions. For example, the sequenced TILLING populations (Kronos and Cadenza) do not 540 require vernalisation, facilitating greenhouse experiments, and originate from different regions of the world, allowing field trials under different environments (Kronos is a Californian variety adapted to warm 541 542 dry weather whereas Cadenza is a UK variety adapted to cooler conditions).

543 For CRISPR/Cas9 and other non-transient transgenic approaches several varieties may be used, although relatively few wheat varieties have been shown to display high enough transformation efficiencies to be 544 545 practical. This means that traditionally most transgenic studies in wheat have been limited to a few 546 varieties, such as 'Fielder', Cadenza, 'Bobwhite', 'Kenong 199' and Kronos (Li et al., 2012; Richardson et al., 547 2014; Liang et al., 2017; Hayta et al., 2019). This is now changing thanks to work by groups at NIAB (UK), 548 CAAS (China) and CSIRO (Australia) who have successfully transformed 39 (Wallington, 2015), 15 (Wang et 549 al., 2017) and six (Richardson et al., 2014) varieties, respectively. However, the Agrobacterium-mediated transformation efficiencies in all these studies still differ between varieties. Correct varietal selection for 550 551 transformation is critical for functional studies, given that some varieties might not be suitable to study a 552 particular phenotype (e.g. if the variety is resistant to a disease and hence cannot be used to test a 553 candidate resistance gene). Similarly, it is important to assess whether the gene of interest is present/functional in the chosen variety, for example through PCR amplification and sequencing of the 554 555 gene. For several varieties this can now be done quickly by direct examination of their genome sequence 556 (Table 3).

557 Combining mutations for complete knock-outs in polyploid wheat

558 As we noted earlier, the polyploid nature of wheat means that it normally has multiple homoeologous copies of every gene. These copies typically have highly similar coding DNA sequence and may have 559 redundant functions (Borrill et al., 2015). Therefore, to characterise the function of a gene in wheat it is 560 561 often necessary to knock out all three homoeologs. This may be achieved by simultaneously targeting all 562 three copies using either RNAi (e.g. (Uauy et al., 2006)) or CRISPR/Cas9 (e.g. (Zhang et al., 2017b)). A large 563 number of transformants need to be screened to identify a null in all three genomes from a CRISPR 564 construct (Zhang et al., 2017b; Howells et al., 2018). If the targets are more divergent it may not even be 565 possible to use a single guide RNA to target all three homoeologs, in which case several guides may be used 566 through multiplexing. Alternatively, separate knock-outs for each homoeolog can be generated by 567 CRISPR/Cas9 or identified in TILLING populations. The mutations in each homoeolog can be combined by crossing (for details see www.wheat-training.com), with two crosses necessary to combine knock-out 568 569 mutations in each of the three homoeologs in hexaploid wheat (Figure 4). Tetraploid wheat, with only two homoeologs, can be used to accelerate functional characterisation as it requires just one cross to create 570 571 complete knock-out mutants (Figure 4). After self-pollination of this F₁, phenotyping of the trait of interest 572 can be initiated in the F₂ generation by comparing homozygous double knock-out mutants to the sibling wild type plants. It is important to note that TILLING lines contain many background mutations and 573 574 backcrossing may be required to overcome the confounding effects of background mutations on target phenotype. More details on these strategies are published in (Uauy et al., 2017). 575

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578 Figure 4. Crossing scheme to combine TILLING or CRISPR/Cas9 single mutants in wheat. In tetraploid wheat, mutations in the A and B genome homoeologs can be combined through a single cross. The F_1 579 580 plants are self-pollinated to produce a segregating F_2 population which contains homozygous double and single mutants, as well as wild type plants (screening using molecular markers required; only four 581 genotypes shown). These F_2 progeny can be characterised for the phenotype of interest. The use of 'speed 582 583 breeding' (Watson et al., 2018), reduces the time taken to reach this phenotyping stage from 12 (yellow) to 7.5 months (green). In hexaploid wheat, a second round of crossing is required to combine the mutant 584 585 alleles from all three homoeologs. The F_2 progeny segregating for the three mutant alleles can be genotyped using molecular markers to select the required combination of mutant alleles (only five 586 587 genotypes shown; all factorial combinations are possible). Speed breeding reduces the time taken to 588 generate triple homozygous mutants for phenotyping to 10 months (green), compared to 16 months in 589 conventional conditions (yellow). Self-pollination is represented by an X inside a circle. Combinations of 590 wild type alleles from the A (AA), B (BB) and D (DD) genomes, as well as the mutant alleles from each 591 genome (aa, bb and dd, respectively) are indicated.

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594 Accelerating crossing, generation time, and phenotyping

595 The need to combine multiple mutations/alleles and carry out backcrossing to remove background 596 mutations takes a considerable amount of time, with at least four months required per generation in a 597 spring wheat genetic background. Recently, the 'speed breeding' technique has been implemented in wheat (and other crops such as barley, canola and chickpea), which uses extended day lengths of 22 hours 598 599 and improved light quality to accelerate the generation time in wheat (Ghosh et al., 2018; Watson et al., 600 2018). Reduction of generation times to 8-10 weeks is achieved through an accelerated growth rate and 601 harvesting of immature seeds 2-3 weeks post anthesis. The immature seeds are dried and then imbibed in the cold, resulting in nearly 100% germination. Incorporating speed breeding within crossing programmes 602 603 can reduce the time required to produce and phenotype double mutants in tetraploid wheat to less than 7.5 months and triple mutants in hexaploid wheat to less than 10 months (Figure 4). In addition to reducing 604 605 generation times, it has been shown that several traits of interest such as disease resistance, height and flowering time can be properly characterised under speed breeding conditions (Watson et al., 2018). 606

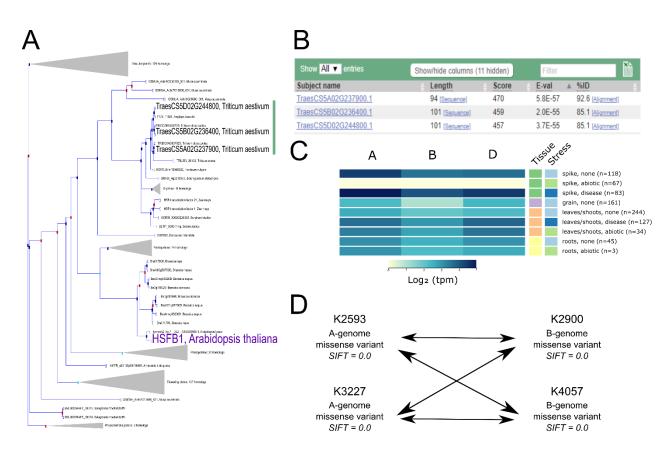
607 Homoeolog-specific PCR markers

To carry out the crossing schemes described above, it is essential to be able to select for the mutations of interest. In polyploid wheat it is necessary to track mutations in each homoeolog separately, which can be achieved using homoeolog-specific genetic markers. Primers can be designed to include a homoeolog611 specific SNP at the 3' end of the primer. The primer will amplify the targeted homoeolog more efficiently than the non-targeted homoeolog(s) resulting in genome-specific amplification. Rapid design of 612 613 homoeolog-specific primers can be achieved using the PolyMarker pipeline (Ramirez-Gonzalez et al., 2015) and webserver (<u>http://www.polymarker.info/</u>). Routinely, genotyping of SNPs is carried out using 614 615 Kompetitive Allele Specific PCR (KASP) markers which are relatively high throughput, inexpensive and can 616 be used in individual lab settings equipped with PCR machines and widely available fluorescence plate 617 readers (Allen et al., 2011). The SNP to be genotyped (e.g. between mutant and wild type) will be located at 618 the 3' end of the two alternative allele-specific primers used in the KASP reaction (one for the mutant and 619 one for the wild type allele), whilst the homoeolog-specific SNP is located at the 3' end of the common 620 primer. Amplification should thus be both homoeolog-specific and allele-specific. Further guidance on the 621 design of genome-specific primers and KASP markers is available at <u>www.wheat-training.com</u>.

622 Case study

623 To put the previous resources into context, we present a case study for obtaining wheat mutants and 624 expression data using a gene of interest from Arabidopsis thaliana. The heat shock factor-like transcription 625 factor TBF1, also known as HsfB1, is a critical regulator of the plant growth-to-defence transition 626 (Pajerowska-Mukhtar et al., 2012), and the response to heat stress (Guo et al., 2016). We therefore 627 hypothesize that its wheat orthologs may have a similar role in regulating defence and/or abiotic stress 628 responses (Ikeda et al., 2011). The first step to test this hypothesis is to identify wheat TBF1 orthologs, 629 which can be done using the Ensembl Plants Gene Tree (Bolser et al., 2015), which displays predicted 630 orthologs for all species included in Ensembl Plants. TBF1 is one of five HSFB orthologs, named HSFB1, 2A, 631 2B, 4, and 5, respectively. Examination of the Ensembl Plants Gene Tree shows a single wheat triad that 632 falls within the HSFB1 clade, located on the group 5 chromosomes (Figure 5A). It is important to note that most gene models where annotated in an automated manner and hence gene structures are likely to 633 634 contain some errors, pending manual curation. We would thus recommend that researchers manually inspect the annotation of their genes of interest before proceeding further with their analyses. 635

To support the predicted *Arabidopsis*-wheat orthologs obtained from Ensembl Plants, we recommend carrying out comparisons between wheat and rice to establish orthology between these cereal species. Both the wheat homoeologs and the rice gene model *Os09g0456800* have the same gene structure, consisting of two exons with a conserved intron/exon boundary position. To further support the relationship of the rice gene to the wheat homoeologs, the predicted rice protein can be used as a query for BLASTp analysis of the wheat proteome in Ensembl Plants; the expected wheat orthologs are the top three hits for the A, B, and D genomes (Figure 5B).



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644 Figure 5: Case study exemplifying use of available gene functional characterisation in wheat. (A) The 645 Ensembl Plants Gene Tree illustrates the identification of the wheat triad (green bar) most closely related to AtHSFB1 (shown in purple). (B) Using Os09g0456800 (the rice ortholog of AtHSFB1) as a BLASTp query 646 647 against wheat predicted proteins independently identifies the same wheat triad. (C) Examination of RNA 648 expression data from www.wheat-expression.com shows that the wheat triad is most highly expressed in the spike, with differential expression in abiotic and disease stress conditions. The samples are identified by 649 tissue of origin (spike, green; grain, purple; leaves/shoots, orange; roots, yellow) and stress (none, light 650 blue; abiotic, green; disease, dark blue) as they are on the website. (D) After identification of suitable wheat 651 652 TILLING mutants, A and B genome homoeologs are combined via this example crossing scheme, 653 demonstrating the four crosses required between the two selected mutations in each homoeolog. Note that the functional validation proposed in (**D**) is carried out using the tetraploid mutant population. 654 655

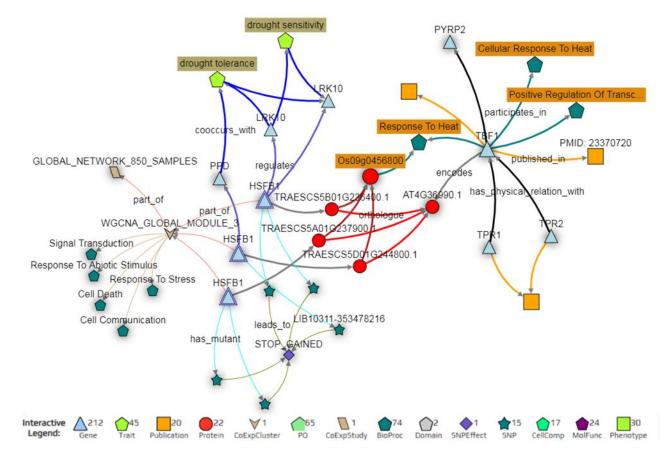
Having identified the wheat orthologs of Arabidopsis TBF1, we can examine and compare expression 656 657 profiles using the expVIP browser (www.wheat-expression.com) (Borrill et al., 2016; Ramirez-Gonzalez et 658 al., 2018) (Figure 5C). All three wheat homoeologs have similar expression profiles, with expression changes 659 in the spike under disease and abiotic stress. This is consistent with the eFP browser data which shows high 660 expression in the spikelet and awns of the non-stressed plants, as well as in more mature leaf tissues 661 (Winter et al., 2007; Ramirez-Gonzalez et al., 2018). The expression data suggests that the wheat TBF1 662 homoeologs are most strongly expressed in the spike and may have differential expression in response to biotic and abiotic stress. We can also explore the epigenetic environment of the three homoeologs using 663 the bread wheat epigenomic map (http://bioinfo.sibs.ac.cn/cs_epigenome; (Li et al., 2019)). A large peak 664 665 for the H3K9ac histone modification at the 5' end of the homoeologs is indicative of active transcription 666 from the promoter, corresponding with the observed gene expression. In contrast, the A-homoeolog

667 TraesCS5A02G237900 is flanked by two genes which have low expression at the seedling stage, and
 668 correspondingly low levels of H3K9ac modifications in their promoters. It is worth noting that the
 669 epigenomic browser uses RefSeqv1.0 gene models, rather than the RefSeqv1.1 gene models used on
 670 Ensembl Plants.

671 Further investigation of these homoeologs can be performed using the KnetMiner knowledge network. For 672 wheat TBF1 orthologs, this includes homology, co-expression data, and associated TILLING mutants, 673 combined with other wheat-specific information such as GENIE3 networks, wheat related publications, 674 gene-phenotype relations extracted from the literature, GWAS data and Arabidopsis protein-protein 675 interactions. Here the wheat genes, referred to as HSFB1, are orthologous to the Arabidopsis gene TBF1 as 676 demonstrated earlier, and the three wheat homoeologs fall into a module associated with responses to 677 abiotic stresses (Figure 6). In addition, the HSFB1 B and D homoeologs are predicted in the GENIE3 network 678 to target the LRK10 and PPD genes, which have known links to drought tolerance and sensitivity (Figure 6). 679 The Knetminer database also recapitulates the relationship between the wheat HSFB1 homoeologs and 680 their rice and Arabidopsis orthologs which regulate heat stress responses (Figure 6). Considered as a whole, 681 these data support the hypothesis that the HSFB1 wheat genes are involved in the response to abiotic 682 stress, perhaps specifically in drought response.

After evaluating *in silico* expression levels, we can then characterise the phenotype of wheat *TBF1* mutants using the exome-sequenced wheat TILLING mutant populations (Figure 2). We suggest to initially use the Kronos population, as it is based on a tetraploid line and thus contains only two copies of the gene (A and B homoeologs). This means that only two mutants need to be crossed to generate a full knockout. The hexaploid Cadenza TILLING population could also be used, but this would require an additional generation to combine mutant alleles across all three homoeologs (Figure 4).

689 All TILLING mutations re-called against the more recent RefSeqv1.0 genome can be accessed directly from 690 Ensembl Plants in the "Genetic Variation" section. Available mutations in the gene of interest can be visualised as a table or positioned along the gene using the "Variant Image" or "Variant Table" option. We 691 692 can thus rapidly identify mutations that are predicted to lead to a premature termination codon (PTC). 693 However, if no appropriate PTC mutations are available, splice-site mutations predicted to lead to 694 downstream frameshifts, or missense mutations in highly conserved amino acid residues with low SIFT 695 (Sorting Intolerant from Tolerant; (Ng and Henikoff, 2003)) scores are good alternatives. SIFT scores predict 696 the effect of a mutation on protein function and are based on the physical properties of the alternative 697 amino acid as well as sequence homology.



699 Figure 6: The KnetMiner network illustrates the putative role of the wheat TBF1 orthologs in responding to abiotic stress. The wheat orthologs of the Arabidopsis gene TBF1, here depicted as three copies of the 700 gene HSFB1 (light blue triangles) fall in expression module three (brown arrow; WGCNA module 3). The 701 702 genes in this module are enriched for GO terms such as "Response to Stress" and "Response to Abiotic 703 Stimulus" (dark green pentagons). The HFSB1 homoeologs are predicted to regulate other genes (blue 704 triangles) in the GENIE3 network (purple connecting arrows) which are associated with the drought 705 tolerance trait ontology terms (light green pentagon). PTC mutations are available for all three HFSB1 706 homoeologs (dark green stars connecting with STOP GAINED SNP effect) in the Cadenza population.

For both the A and the B genome TBF1 homoeologs in Kronos, no PTC mutations are available. However,

708 we identified missense mutations in highly conserved residues with SIFT scores of 0 suggesting that these

709 mutations are likely to have a deleterious effect on protein function (Figure 5D). In addition to SIFT, we also

710 recommend using the PSSM viewer (<u>https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Class/Structure/pssm/pssm_viewer.cgi</u>)

to help predict the effect of specific missense mutations on conserved protein domains.

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TILLING lines from both population can be ordered via the GRU (<u>https://www.seedstor.ac.uk/shopping-</u> cart-tilling.php) in the UK or from the Dubcovsky lab (<u>https://dubcovskylab.ucdavis.edu/wheat-tilling</u>) in the USA. To maximise the chance of having selected functionally important mutants, we recommend choosing two independent mutant lines for each homoeolog and carrying out crosses between each mutant in the A and B genomes (four crosses shown in Figure 5D). Detailed guides on growing wheat plants, genotyping TILLING mutants, and crossing mutants can be found on <u>www.wheat-training.com</u>. 718 Seedlings are genotyped to confirm that the correct mutation is present and to select for homozygous 719 individuals for crossing. To do this, we design genome-specific primers to use in a KASP assay as outlined 720 above and on www.wheat-training.com. For most TILLING mutations genome-specific primers have been 721 predesigned and are available in Ensembl Plants. If there are no suitable predesigned primers, online tools 722 such as PolyMarker can be used (Ramirez-Gonzalez et al., 2015), or if needed, can be designed manually. 723 After carrying out the initial cross, we grow the F₁ individuals under speed breeding conditions, and self-724 pollinate to obtain the F_2 seed. We then grow F_2 individuals and select via genetic markers individuals 725 homozygous for one or both mutant alleles, as well as homozygous wild type control individuals (Figure 4). 726 We can then carry out our first phenotypic evaluation on the F_2 plants using the homozygous wild type lines 727 as controls without the need for backcrossing to Kronos. We can do this because the background mutations 728 in the chosen lines will be segregating within both the mutant and the wild type lines, leading to an 729 equivalent background mutation load between the sibling genotypes (Uauy et al., 2017). Backcrossing to 730 Kronos can be started either with the single mutants while carrying out the initial cross and/or with the F_2 731 double mutant at a later stage. Backcrossing to remove background mutations is especially important when 732 studying quantitative traits, such as yield components (Simmonds et al., 2016), and when plants are 733 intended for field phenotyping.

734 Concluding remarks

735 In the last few years there has been a dramatic expansion in the resources available to carry out functional 736 genomics in wheat, largely based upon improvements in the available reference sequences. Within a few 737 years a step-change has been achieved from a highly fragmented assembly with incomplete gene models to 738 a full pseudomolecule reference sequence alongside a detailed gene model annotation. This reference 739 sequence allows the physical anchoring of genes in complete chromosomal order and provides improved 740 gene models facilitating transgenic constructs and primers design. Most resources described in this review 741 are integrated with the recent bread wheat reference genome sequence including the expVIP and eFP 742 expression browsers, TILLING mutants and Ensembl Plants sequence analyses and display tools. As a result, 743 it is now easier to use these resources as they are unified by a common reference genome and gene 744 models. Furthermore, a pan-genome of wheat is being produced which will provide high quality genome 745 sequences for multiple varieties of wheat. These genomes will facilitate functional studies in a range of 746 different genetic backgrounds and enhance the value of the populations containing natural variation 747 captured from diverse wheat varieties.

748 Future directions

749 Whilst many major advances have been made in the last five years to lay the groundwork for gene 750 discovery and functional characterisation in polyploid wheat, looking to the future several key challenges 751 remain. i) Polyploidy is a common challenge amongst crop species. In wheat we frequently assume that
due to functional redundancy it will be necessary to knock-out all three homoeologs of a gene
to assess its phenotypic impact. Yet the extent of homoeolog functional redundancy is still
unclear (Borrill *et al.*, 2019). Transcriptomics and proteomics approaches will help generate
hypotheses as to the extent of homoeolog redundancy in wheat and allow researchers to
specifically target the most phenotypically relevant homoeolog for genetic manipulation.

- 758 ii) Defining accessible (open) chromatin regions allows the identification of *cis*-regulatory 759 sequences of potential functional significance. In animals and plants, genetic variants 760 associated with quantitative traits are significantly enriched in these open chromatin 761 sequences (Maurano et al., 2012; Rodgers-Melnick et al., 2016). In wheat, where over 98% of 762 the genome is non-coding, it will be critical to identify open chromatin regions to more 763 precisely define non-coding variation that may be of functional relevance. Work in tomato has 764 elegantly shown how a wide range of phenotypic variation for quantitative traits can be 765 engineered by genome editing of *cis*-regulatory regions of transcription factors (Rodríguez-Leal 766 et al., 2017).
- 767 iii) To more readily test these hypotheses, increased transformation efficiency and reduced costs 768 will also reshape the future of wheat research, perhaps one day becoming as accessible for 769 wheat researchers as floral dip transformation is for *Arabidopsis*. It is becoming clear from 770 research in wheat and other species that genetic background can have a strong influence on 771 gene function. Therefore, it is essential to develop new protocols to transform multiple wheat 772 varieties to account for these effects and to ensure that the potential of gene editing 773 approaches is fulfilled.
- iv) Genomic databases have been powerful in integrating data from multiple studies and
 international efforts are now bringing together phenotypic data alongside genotypic data (e.g.
 Blake *et al.* (2016) and Howe *et al.* (2019)). Challenges remain to standardise phenotype
 collection protocols and ontologies, which will realise the full power of this information.
 Expanding these databases to include environmental conditions will allow assessments of
 interactions between genotypes, phenotypes and the environment.

High quality genome sequences facilitate moving beyond gene-based analysis, revealing the effects of nongenic regions on phenotype. Whilst working in crops with complex genomes will remain challenging, the advance of genomic techniques has enabled the wheat community to leverage lessons learnt in model species. The approaches taken in wheat provide a framework to understand biologically important traits in other species with large genomes.

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793 Competing interests

794 The authors declare no competing interests.

795 Author contributions

- 796 NMA, PB, JB, SAH, CM and CU conceived, designed and coordinated the manuscript. NMA, PB, JB, SAH, CM,
- 797 KHP and CU designed the figures. All authors wrote and edited the manuscript.

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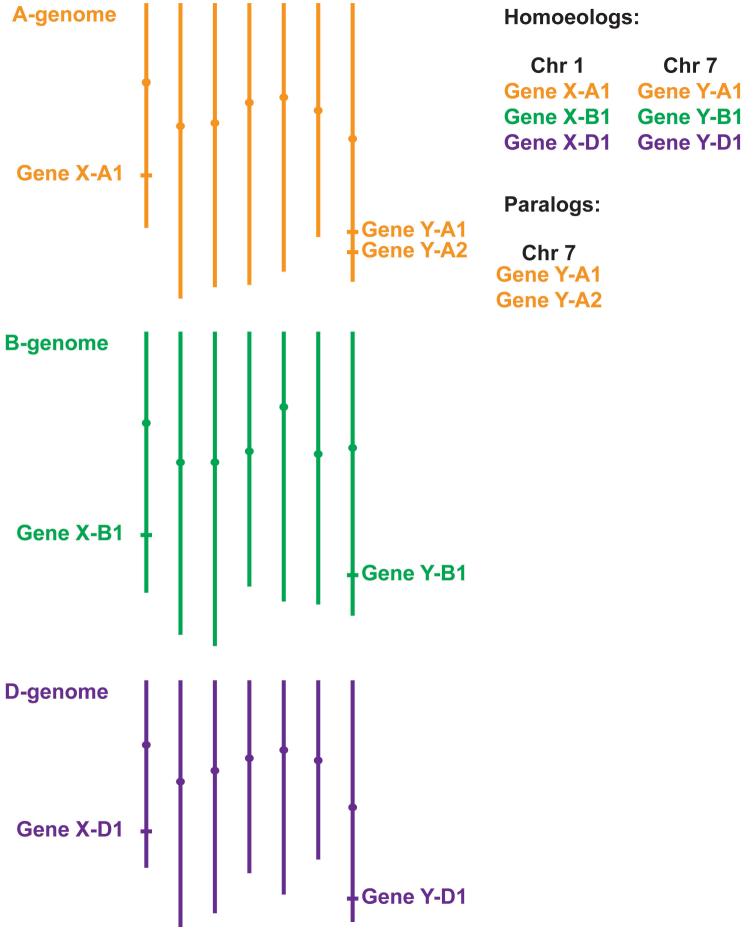
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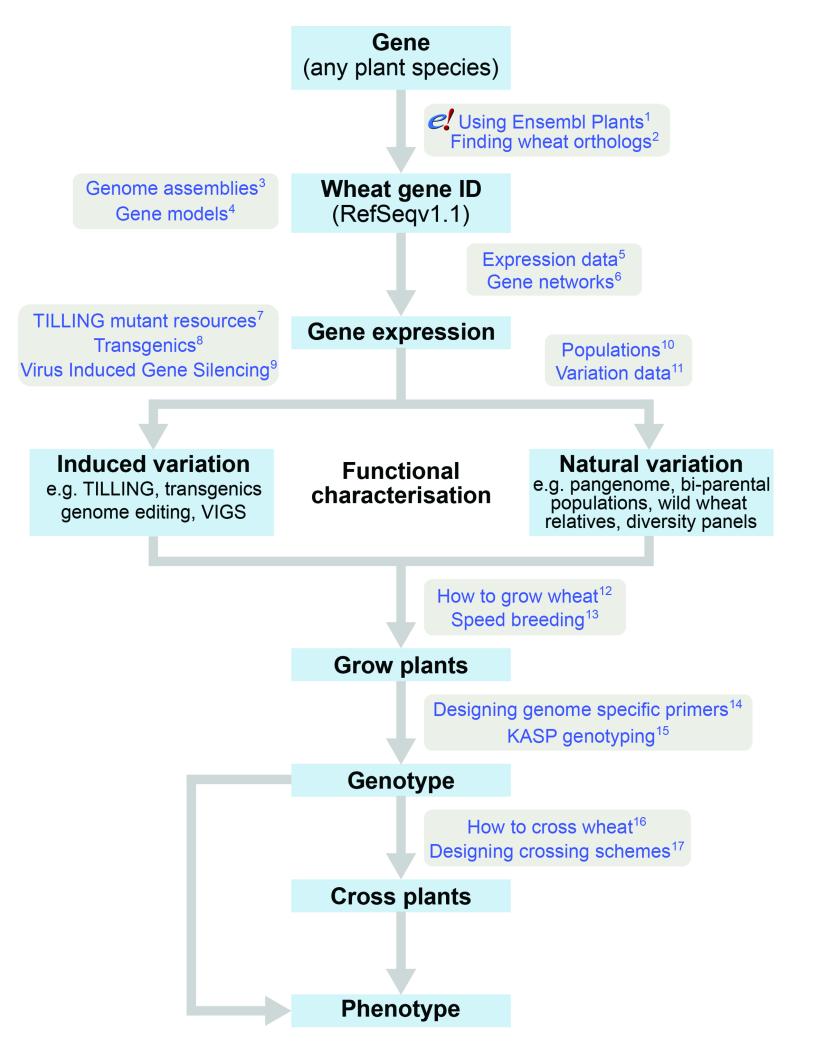
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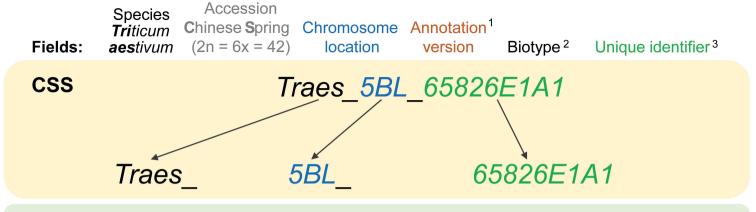
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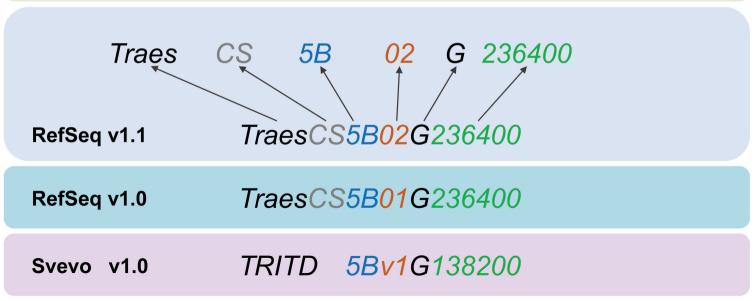
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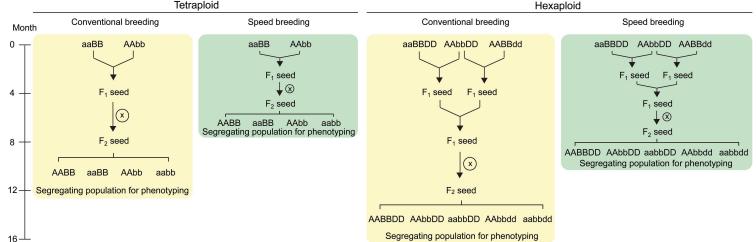




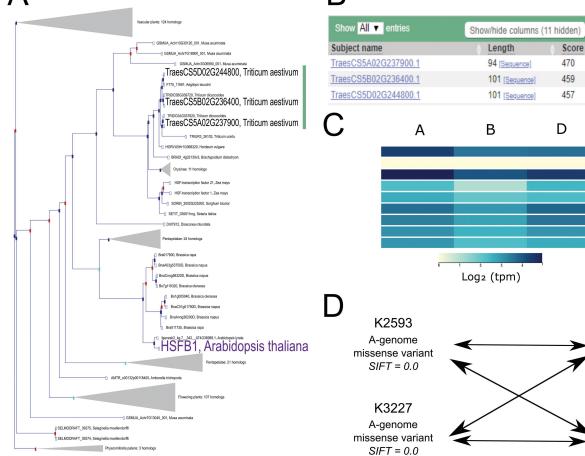


TGAC TRIAE_CS42_5BL_TGACv1_404669_AA1307960





A



3

E-val

5.8E-57

2.0E-55

3.7E-55

TISSUE CESS

▲ %ID

92.6 [Alignment]

85.1 [Alignment]

85.1 [Alignment]

spike, none (n=118)

spike, abiotic (n=67)

spike, disease (n=83)

leaves/shoots, none (n=244)

leaves/shoots, abiotic (n=34)

leaves/shoots, disease (n=127)

grain, none (n=161)

roots, none (n=45)

roots, abiotic (n=3)

K2900

B-genome

missense variant

SIFT = 0.0

K4057

B-genome

missense variant

SIFT = 0.0

