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Irena Jakobson · Hilma Peusha Ljudmilla Timofejeva · Kadri Järve

Adult plant and seedling resistance to powdery mildew in a *Triticum aestivum* \times *Triticum militinae* hybrid line

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Abstract In the progeny of a cross between the common wheat cultivar Tähti and Triticum militinae, a member of the timopheevii group of tetraploid wheats, several hybrid lines were selected that are characterized by improved seedling and adult plant resistance (APR) to powdery mildew. An F_2 single-seed descendant mapping population segregating for seedling resistance and APR to powdery mildew was analysed for the identification of quantitative trait loci (QTL). The main QTL responsible for APR was detected on the long arm of chromosome 4A tightly linked to the *Xgwm160* locus on a *T*. *militinae* translocation explaining up to 54% of phenotypic variance. The same translocation influenced seedling resistance to powdery mildew upon inoculation of plants with a synthetic population of *Blumeria graminis* DC. f. sp. tritici, and explained 28–33% of the phenotypic variance.

Introduction

The obligate fungus Blumeria graminis DC. f. sp. tritici can infect plants from the first leaf stage until senescence. Resistance to the infection of powdery mildew fungus may be based on a race-specific gene-for-gene interaction of resistance gene(s) (Pm -genes) in wheat and avirulence gene(s) in the infecting fungus isolate. This type of plant–pathogen interaction is associated with the hypersensitive response and may not be durable. Most of the powdery mildew resistance genes identified in different wheat genotypes $(Pm1 - Pm31)$, McIntosh et al.

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I. Jakobson (\boxtimes) · H. Peusha · L. Timofejeva · K. Järve Department of Gene Technology, Tallinn University of Technology, Akadeemia tee 15, 19086 Tallinn, Estonia E-mail: irena.jakobson@ttu.ee Tel.: +372-6-204427

[2003\)](#page-9-0) confer complete resistance to different sets of fungus isolates in the seedling stage of the host plant (Hsam and Zeller [2002](#page-9-0)).

Some wheat genotypes exhibit a different type of resistance, which is non-isolate-specific and partial, retarding infection, growth and reproduction of the powdery mildew fungus. This resistance is generally observed in adult plants. Adult plant or durable resistance (APR) is a quantitative trait and can be resolved into discrete genetic loci (quantitative trait loci, QTL; Paterson et al. [1988](#page-9-0)).

Several sets of QTLs for adult plant powdery mildew resistance have been detected and mapped in different segregating wheat populations (Huang and Röder 2004). In the heritance of adult plant powdery mildew resistance, the additive effects of the detected QTLs prevail (Griffey and Das [1994;](#page-9-0) Keller et al. [1999;](#page-9-0) Chantret et al. [2001;](#page-8-0) Mingeot et al. [2002](#page-9-0); Liu et al. [2001](#page-9-0)).

Pm-genes conferring powdery mildew resistance have been transferred to Triticum aestivum $(2n=42,$ AABBDD) from different species of the genus Triticum, including the timopheevii group of wheats (Pm6, Pm27 from Triticum timopheevii (Zhuk.) Zhuk. ssp. timophe-evii) (Shands [1941](#page-9-0); Allard and Shands [1954;](#page-8-0) Järve et al. [2000\)](#page-9-0). To our knowledge, APR to powdery mildew has not been transferred into T. aestivum from the timopheevii group of wheats.

The timopheevi group of tetraploid wheats $(2n=28)$ with the genome formula A^tA^tGG includes the wild form of timopheevi wheat known as T. timopheevii (Zhuk.) Zhuk. ssp. armeniacum (Jakubz.) van Slageren, the domesticated form T. timopheevii (Zhuk.) Zhuk. ssp. timopheevii (later abbreviated as T. timopheevii), and also a third, free-threshing form of wheat discovered by Zhukovsky in 1950, Triticum militinae Zhuk. et Migusch. (Zhukovsky and Migushova [1969\)](#page-9-0). T. militinae is considered to be a spontaneous mutant of T. timopheevii (Dorofeev 1987); however, it has also been supposed to originate from an introgressive hybridization between T. timopheevii and T. persicum (Navruzbekov [1981](#page-9-0); Järve et al. [2002](#page-9-0)).

Using microsatellites derived from bread wheat, the genomic organization of T . timopheevii and T . militinae has been compared in a comparative mapping with that of hexaploid wheat (Salina et al. [2005](#page-9-0)). According to the results of this study, polymorphism between T. militinae and T. timopheevii (accession no. K-38555) is approximately at the same level as polymorphism between two accessions of T. timopheevii (T. timopheevii var. timopheevii and T. timopheevii var. typica).

Immunity to powdery mildew, leaf and yellow rusts, as well as high resistance to stem rust, loose and dwarf smuts have been reported as useful traits of T. militinae (Dorofeev et al. [1987](#page-8-0)). In three different climatic regions, T. militinae has been found to be unsusceptible to fungal diseases; mere traces of stem rust were detected (Migushova [1975\)](#page-9-0). No resistance genes originating from T. militinae have been identified in common wheat.

The aims of this study were to evaluate powdery mildew resistance of hybrid wheat lines selected from the progeny of a cross between T. aestivum and T. militinae, and to estimate the number and genomic positions of the QTLs with significant effects on seedling resistance and APR.

Materials and methods

Plant material

As the female parent, the Finnish wheat cultivar Tähti was crossed with *T. militinae* Zhuk. et Migush. (accession no. K-46007 from the N.I.Vavilov Institute of Plant Industry, St.Petersburg, Russia). The self-sterile F1 plants were backcrossed to Tähti once. BC_1F_2 plants were self-pollinated and hybrid population was advanced to BC_1F_4 .

Random seeds from the hybrid population were planted. The somatic chromosome numbers of the selected plants were determined in root-tip cells using standard Feulgen staining procedures. One ear of each plant was pollinated with the pollen of the susceptible mother cultivar, the others were self-fertilized. Self-pollinated F_1 plants were advanced as hybrid lines.

From an F_1 plant of a backcross (hybrid plant 8/ $1 \times$ Tähti), an F₂ population was derived and further used for microsatellite screening and QTL mapping. $F₂$ plants were selfed to produce F_2 -derived F_3 families. The mapping population consisted of 134 $F₂$ plants and 130 F_2 -derived F_3 families.

Parental plants of the studied hybrid lines were resistant to the synthetic population of B. graminis at the seedling stage (score 0–2).

Disease resistance

During the first 15 days, the plants were grown in the greenhouse. On the tenth day of growth, the reaction to 11 test-isolates of B. graminis (DC. et Marat) speer f. sp.

tritici (kindly provided by Dr. F. Felsenstein, Freising-Weihenstephan, Germany) and to a synthetic population of mixed test-isolates was estimated on detached leaves and scored (0, no visible symptoms; 9, heavy sporulation, Lutz et al. [1992\)](#page-9-0). Five days later, the plants were planted in the field in a completely randomized design, ten plants in a 1 m row. Strips of plants of the susceptible cultivar Saratovskaya-29 surrounded every fifth row.

For the estimation of APR under natural infection with the native population of the pathogen, the mildew was assessed on the upper two leaves as a visually estimated percentage of leaves covered with mildew. If the leaves became senescent, the previous score for that leaf was used in calculating the cumulative mildew cover for the upper two leaves. Disease severity was expressed as a disease index (DI) on a 0–9 scale (Yu et al. [2001](#page-9-0)). The plants were scored twice, at first in the ear emergence stage (DI 1) and the second time 14 days later (DI 2) in the milky ripe stage.

In the mapping population, APR was tested in 2 years (in 2002 and 2004). In 2004, F_2 -derived F_3 families were grown in two replications (five plants in a block) using a completely randomized block design. In all the 130 F_3 families, adult resistance was scored for four individual F_3 plants per replication (1,040 F_3 plants were tested altogether).

The parental lines were included as controls in all experiments.

Microsatellite marker analysis

A total of 129 simple sequence repeats (SSR) were used to screen the parental lines: *gwm* markers (Röder et al. [1998\)](#page-9-0), psp markers, kindly provided by Dr. P. Stephenson (Norwich, UK), wmc markers (Gupta et al. [2002\)](#page-9-0), and BARC marker, developed by P. Cregan, Q. Song and associates (http://www.wheat.pw.usda.gov/) (Table [1\)](#page-2-0).

Total genomic DNA was extracted from young leaf tissue (approximately 300 mg) frozen in liquid nitrogen, according to the method described by Huang et al. ([2000](#page-9-0)) with minor modifications. Radioactive PCR amplifications of microsatellite fragments were per-formed as described by Röder et al. ([1998](#page-9-0)) or Bryan et al. [\(1997](#page-8-0)), the annealing temperature depending on the type of the primer. Amplified DNA fragments were separated on a 5 or 6% polyacrylamide denaturing gel and autoradiographed.

QTL mapping

The linkage groups were established with the Map Manager QTX Version b16 software for genetic mapping of Mendelian markers and QTLs (Meer et al. [2002](#page-9-0); Chmielewicz and Manly [2002](#page-8-0)) with a minimal LOD score of 3 and a maximum genetic distance of 30 cM.

The primers printed in bold were not polymorphic between Tähti and Triticum militinae

Genetic distances between markers were estimated using the mapping function of Kosambi [\(1944](#page-9-0)). The chromosomal alignment of linkage groups was deduced from the published wheat maps (Röder et al. [1998;](#page-9-0) Gale et al. [1995](#page-9-0); Somers et al. [2004](#page-9-0)) and from the GrainGenes database (http://www.wheat.pw.usda.gov).

The association between phenotype and marker genotype was investigated using single marker regression. The positions of the detected QTLs were determined using simple interval mapping (SIM) and composite interval mapping (CIM). The free-regression model was applied. The likelihood ratio statistic (LRS) threshold for declaring the statistical significance of association was calculated empirically for each experiment using the permutation test, at 1,000 iterations. Confidence interval was estimated by bootstrap analysis using the same software.

QTL effects were estimated as the percentage of phenotypic variation explained by QTL.

Statistical analysis

Log₁₀-transformed data was used in all statistical and QTL analyses. Chi-square analyses were performed to test the significance of deviations of observed segregation ratio from theoretical expectations. The ANOVA (analysis of variance) was performed to determine the significance of differences between the genotypes. Components of variance were computed considering the effects of the environment (year) and the genotype as random. Estimates of variance components δ_G^2 (genetic variance), $\delta_{\rm E}^2$ (environmental variance), $\delta_{\rm GxE}^2$ (genotype \times environment interaction variance) and δ_{Err}^2 (error variance) were calculated.

As the ANOVA showed no significant effect of replications (blocks) for the disease resistance in F_3 , we have further used the mean of the data from two blocks (eight plants) for each family to search for the QTLs. The phenotypic correlation coefficient of adult plant powdery mildew resistance between F_2 and F_3 progenies was calculated.

Results

Hybrid lines

In 1995, the Finnish cultivar of spring wheat Tähti was crossed as a female parent with T. militinae; approximately 5% of pollinated florets gave a seed. The F_1 hybrids between the common wheat and T. militinae are self-sterile and, usually, two to three backcrosses are needed to fully restore the self-fertility. In this study, the F_1 hybrids were maintained by backcrossing them once as females with T. *aestivum*. The fertile F_2 hybrids were grown as a population without isolating the ears. The derived F_4 hybrid population consisted of phenotypically heterogeneous but cytogenetically stable plant material and showed improved resistance to powdery mildew in field tests (data not shown). The four hybrid lines $(8/1, 8/4, 8/7, 8/9)$ derived in this study were single-seed descendant lines advanced from plants randomly selected from the hybrid population.

Disease resistance in hybrid lines

The self-pollinated F_2 families were divided into three groups and tested for APR in the field conditions during 3 years (2002–2004). In general, hybrid lines expressed higher levels of APR than the parent cultivar Tähti (Fig. 1), the average DI of lines derived from the hybrid population 4.8 ± 1.8 being significantly lower as compared to the DI of Tähti 11.9 ± 0.1 .

Significant differences both between the lines and between the years ($P < 0.0001$), as well as a highly significant line-by-year (genotype \times environment) interaction were detected $(P < 0.0001)$ by ANOVA. Genotypic differences between the lines explained 32% of the phenotypic variation for APR in the hybrid lines and the line-by-year interaction explained 29% of the variance.

APR in the mapping population

Hybrid line 8/1 showed a high and stable level of APR and for further marker analysis and QTL detection, a single-plant descendant F_2 mapping population was derived from a cross of this line with Tähti.

Two adult plant disease assessments corresponding to the beginning of ear emergence (DI 1) and milky ripe (DI 2) development stages were carried out in the mapping population, both in 2002 and in 2004. The distribution of the DI assessments is presented in Fig. 2. For all four assessments, DIs showed a continuous variation with one peak and with a distribution slightly deviated from normal. Transgressive segregation towards the susceptible parent was observed. The average of DI of F_2 plants and F_3 families from the cross (8/ $1 \times$ Tähti) was approximately the same as the mean of

Fig. 2 Distribution of the adult plant powdery mildew DI of F_2 plants (2002) and $F_{2:3}$ families (2004) derived from the cross $\frac{8}{9}$ $1 \times$ Tähti in the first and second assessment. The adult plant powdery mildew DI of two parents $(8/1$ and Tähti) is indicated

parental DIs, indicating an additive inheritance for APR in the line 8/1.

The contribution of the two variance components (genotype of the F_2 plant or F_3 family and time of the assessment) to the DI variability was calculated from ANOVA, separately for either of the years. Both variance components were found to be significant $(P<0.0001)$. The genotype effect explained about 43 and 47% of the total trait variance in 2002 and 2004, respectively. As the effect of the time of assessment explained about 30% of the phenotypic variance, both DI 1 and DI 2 scorings were further separately used for QTL mapping.

Both the genotype and the year had a significant effect on the total DI variance over 2 years ($P < 0.0001$), the effect of genotype \times environment (year) interactions was not significant ($P=0.138$). The significant correlation of the corresponding DIs estimated in different years ($r = 0.46$ and 0.49 for DI 1 and DI 2, respectively; $P < 0.001$) indicated that the same genetic factor was acting in different environments.

Microsatellite marker analysis in hybrid lines

Totally, 93% of the 129 microsatellite markers analysed showed a polymorphism between the T. *militinae* and Tähti genotypes. The 120 polymorphic microsatellites revealed 174 loci in the genome of hybrid wheat, on average 1, 45 loci per marker.

764

Table 2 Translocations in the hybrid lines

8/1	8/7	8/9	8/4
		$^+$	
		┿	

 $+$ T. militinae translocation; $-$ no translocation; $+/-$ heterozygote

In the four hybrid lines, T . militinae/ T . aestivum replacements were detected in 73 loci (42%). The number of translocations per hybrid line varied from 6 to 8 (Table 2). According to the C-banding data, in T. timopheevii- and T. militinae-derived introgressive lines, substitutions of the whole chromosome were far more frequent than translocations (Badaeva et al. [1991](#page-8-0), [2000\)](#page-8-0). On the contrary, our molecular study identified intercalary translocations while no whole chromosome substitutions were detected. The translocations ranged

from a few centimorgans to the almost complete chromosome arm substitutions. In our hybrid lines, altogether six chromosomes of the A genome and four chromosomes of the B genome were involved in translocations (Table 2), while no translocations were found in the D genome. However, according to Badaeva et al. ([1991](#page-8-0), [2000](#page-8-0)), the G/D chromosome substitutions have been detected in T. timopheevii- and T. militinae-derived introgressive lines.

Microsatellite marker analysis in the mapping population

A total of 37 markers showing polymorphism between $8/1$ and Tähti produced 42 segregating fragments in the mapping population derived from the cross $8/1 \times$ Tähti. 40% of markers were scored as codominant, 45% as null alleles in T. militinae and 15% amplified independently segregating fragments from Tähti and T . militinae genomes.

The mapping of 42 loci resulted in 9 linkage groups $(LOD > 3)$. Colinearity of markers with the published maps was observed and seven linkage groups could be assigned to a chromosome of hexaploid wheat (Fig. 3).

Fig. 3 The map of T. militinae-derived translocations and powdery mildew resistance QTLs in the mapping population derived from a cross between the hybrid line $8/1$ and cultivar Tähti. Only

chromosomes with T. militinae translocations are represented. Multiple loci detected by single markers have a suffix $(1-6)$ added following the marker name. Suffix mi designates a T . militinae allele

Table 3 Powdery mildew resistance QTLs detected at the different plant stage for F2 plants or for F3 families issued from cross between 8/1 and Tähti Table 3 Powdery mildew resistance QTLs detected at the different plant stage for F2 plants or for F3 families issued from cross between $8/1$ and Tähti

P level of significancy: **P* < 0.05; ***P* < 0.01; ****P* < 0.0001

The genetic map covered the introgressive part of the genome of line 8/1, comprising 38 loci and spanning 251 cM. Four amplification products remained unlinked, three of them originated from the genome of T. militinae. Four markers showed a distorted segregation favouring the Tähti allele, three of them were clustered in a tightly linked group (LOD >15) assigned to chromosome 5B; one marker with distorted segregation remained unlinked to any other marker.

Compared to the published genetic maps of wheat (Röder et al 1998 ; Gale et al. [1995](#page-9-0)), the genetic distance of the detected translocations was significantly reduced on some chromosomes (chromosome 7A). This may indicate regions with reduced recombination in some of the translocated segments. T. timopheevii translocations showing no or extremely low levels of recombination in crosses with hexaploid wheat have been referred to earlier (Devos et al. [1993;](#page-8-0) Järve et al. [2000](#page-9-0); Kammholz et al. [2001\)](#page-9-0).

QTL analysis

The microsatellite map and DI assessments were used to identify the genetic associations. The data of two assessments in different years were used separately for OTL mapping.

A QTL with a LRS score greater than the threshold required for declaring a highly significant QTL linkage to a locus was detected by SIM and CIM analyses (Table [3\)](#page-5-0). The highly significant QTL for powdery mildew resistance on chromosome 4A had the highest LRS score ($P < 0.0001$) both in 2002 and in 2004. The QTL peaked at the microsatellite marker Xgwm160 in an $Xwmc232 - Xpsp3119$ introgressive translocation interval (Fig. 5).

Four LRS curves (DI1 and DI2 in 2002 and in 2004) for chromosome 4A showed identical peaks despite the marked difference in the distribution of the two DI scores in a year and the differences between the results obtained for F_2 and F_3 progenies, indicating that the genetic factors contributing to APR are not environmentally sensitive. The major QTL explained up to 35% of the variance in 2002, and up to 54% in 2004. The allele for improved resistance originated from T. militinae and acted in a nearly additive fashion (Table [3](#page-5-0)). The additivity of the main QTL is consistent with the results from the field studies based on classical quantitative genetic analysis.

An additional QTL with significant LRS score was detected by CIM analysis (considering Xgwm160 as a cofactor; Table [3](#page-5-0)). The QTL was located on chromosome 5A; however, its precise location depended on the year of the experiment. The minor QTL explained 4–6% of trait phenotypic variance.

On chromosomes 1B, 2A, 5A and 5B, suggestive minor QTLs for APR were detected, either in 2002 or in 2004 (Table [3\)](#page-5-0). The non-reproducible QTL effect on these chromosomes may be a false positive effect rather

than that of an environment-specific gene. However, reporting suggestive linkages may be useful, taking into account that non-significance in statistical terms might not denote insignificance in biological terms (Freymark et al. [1993\)](#page-9-0).

Thus, two QTLs located on two different chromosomes (4A and 5A) control the quantitative resistance to powdery mildew in the mapping population at the adult plant stage and explain up to 38 and 55% of total trait variance in F_2 and F_3 , respectively. If the suggestive QTLs on 5B, 1B, 2A and 5A are included, up to 69% of total trait variance can be explained.

To demonstrate the selective power of Xgwm160 in the selection for APR to powdery mildew, F_2 plants and F_3 families were grouped according to the genotypes in this locus (Fig. 4). At the adult plant stage, the average disease severity in plants with the Tähti alleles was twice as high as in plants with the T. militinae alleles. However, the DI score for plants with homozygous T . militinae alleles in $Xgwm160$ locus remained higher than the score for line 8/1, indicating, that not only the main QTL on chromosome 4A is responsible for the high and stable level of APR in this hybrid line.

Fig. 4 The effect of alternative alleles in the QTL region of chromosome $4A$ (*Xgwm160*) on APR in the mapping population for the two assessments, in 2002 and in 2004. AA homozygous Tähti allele, AB heterozygous, BB homozygous T. militinaederived allele

Fig. 5 Distribution of the seedling plant powdery mildew DI for F_2 plants in the mapping population $(0 \text{ no visible symptoms}; 9 \text{ heavy})$ sporulation). The scores for the parents are indicated by *arrows*

Fig. 6 The likelihood plots of QTLs associated with the adult plant (a 2002, DI 1) and seedling resistance (b 2002) to powdery mildew on chromosome 4A in the $8/1 \times$ Tähti mapping population. The estimations of confidence intervals by bootstrap resampling are plotted as histograms. The horizontal dashed lines represent the significant and the highly significant LRSs

Seedling resistance

Hybrid line 8/1 was resistant to the synthetic population of B. graminis DC. f. sp. tritici at the seedling stage $(\text{score } 0-2)$.

The seedling resistance score in the mapping population showed a continuous distribution (Fig. [5\)](#page-6-0). To avoid the necessity for a qualitative distinction between the resistant/susceptible plants, a quantitative interpretation of the seedling tests of F_2 plants was conducted (Chantret et al. [2000](#page-8-0)).

A QTL with a significant effect on the seedling resistance to powdery mildew was detected on chromosome 4A by both SIM and CIM analyses. LRS values above the highly significant threshold (Table [3](#page-5-0)) were registered over the entire translocation on this chromosome. The peak for the LRS score was 9–12 cM away from the Xgwm232 locus, between loci Xgwm232 and $Xgwm160$ (Fig. 6). The allele conferring resistance originated from T. militinae.

Suggestive QTLs for seedling resistance were detected on chromosomes 1A, 1B, 5A (all of them in Tähti alleles) and 2A (T. militinae allele) (Table [3](#page-5-0)). A suggestive QTL for seedling resistance originating from the Tähti genome may explain the transgressive segregation of seedling resistance in the mapping population (Fig. [5\)](#page-6-0).

The main QTL for seedling resistance explained about 33% of phenotypic variance for the trait, each of the suggestive QTLs added about 4–6% (Table [3\)](#page-5-0). Thus, up to 53% of total trait variance could be explained by the QTLs.

Discussion

The objective of this study was to elucidate the genetic basis of adult plant powdery mildew resistance transferred from T. militinae into the Finnish spring wheat cultivar Tähti. Simultaneously, hybrid lines were advanced from seeds randomly selected from a heterogeneous hybrid population, powdery mildew resistance levels were assessed and chromosomal segments introgressed from T. militinae were mapped in the selected hybrid lines.

In the F_2 backcross-mapping population derived from the hybrid plant $8/1$, a T. *militinae*-origin genomic region on chromosome 4A was responsible for up to 54% of the APR variance. Despite the differences in environmental conditions, the results of the QTL mapping were remarkably consistent for F_2 plants and F_3 families in 2002 and 2004, respectively.

Thus far, three QTLs for adult plant resistance (APR) to powdery mildew have been mapped on chromosome 4A (Huang XQ, Röder MS 2004). Two QTLs mapped on chromosome 4AS in the regions $Xgwm111–Xpsp934$ and $Xglk128–Xcd0475$ in a segregating wheat/spelt population explained 7–14% of the phenotypic variance (Keller et al. [1999\)](#page-9-0). One QTL for adult powdery mildew resistance in the winter wheat line RE174 was detected on chromosome 4A (XgbxG036– $XgbxG542$ in the study by Chantret et al. ([2001](#page-8-0)). This QTL explained 5–6% of the genetic variability over 2 years. However, the position of the QTL for APR in the line 8/1 does not coincide with the abovementioned QTLs.

The QTL for powdery mildew resistance at the seedling stage shows a highly significant LRS score at the same introgressive translocational region on the chromosome 4A $(Xwmc232-Xgwm160$ $(Xwmc232-Xgwm160$ $(Xwmc232-Xgwm160$, Table 3). This chromosomal region is probably responsible for the correlation found between the DIs for resistance at the seedling and adult plant stages (0.29 and 0.38, for adult plant data set in 2002 and 2004, $P \le 0.001$). The exact positions of the highest LRS values for the adult and seedling stage resistance differ somewhat, although the confidence intervals for both peaks overlap (Fig. 6), permitting either a single gene or a cluster of genes to be involved in the resistance at different stages of plant growth. A cluster of genes related to resistance seems to be the case, taking into account that the resistance allele for APR on chromosome 4A acted in a near additive fashion and the QTL for seedling resistance was inherited as a recessive locus (Table [3](#page-5-0)).

It has been repeatedly observed that disease resistance genes may be located in a complex region containing different race specifics (Hammond-Kosack and Jones [1997;](#page-9-0) Hsam and Zeller [2002\)](#page-9-0). A number of loci for resistance to different pathogens (H25, Lr28 and Lr30, Sr7, YrMin and YrND, Stb7) have been located on chromosome 4A (McIntosh et al. [2003](#page-9-0)). The gene for race-specific resistance to Mycosphaerella graminicola in the spring wheat, Stb7, has been mapped precisely at the distal end of chromosome 4AL in a region closely linked to Xgwm160 (McCartney et al. [2003\)](#page-9-0). Since homologous relationships have been found between disease resistance loci (Hammond-Kosack and Jones [1997\)](#page-9-0), it is possible that the genome of the line $8/1$ includes a cluster of T. militinae-derived genes on chromosome 4A, responsible for the non-race-specific powdery mildew resistance in the seedling and adult plant stages of plant growth. Further analysis of recombinant plants will allow us to map this region precisely.

It has been suggested that the same loci could be responsible for qualitative and quantitative traits (Robertson [1985](#page-9-0)). A race-specific gene for resistance to powdery mildew, Pm 16, derived from wild emmer (Triticum dicoccoides) has been mapped on chromosome 4AL (Reader and Miller [1991;](#page-9-0) McIntosh et al. [2003\)](#page-9-0). However, Chen et al. (2005) showed that a SSR marker located on the short arm of chromosome 5B, Xgwm159, is closely linked to Pm16 (genetic distance 5.3 cM), and suggested that Pm16 might be located on a translocated 4A.5BS chromosome. In our mapping population, the amplification product of Xgwm159 primers was not segregating, however, the hybrid line 8/1 carries a T. militinae translocation in the region of $Xgwm213 Xgwm68-Xgwm66$ close to the marker $Xgwm159$ on chromosome 5B. Markers Xgwm66, Xgwm68 and Xgwm213 have been mapped on chromosome 5B in the ITMI mapping population (Röder et al. [1998\)](#page-9-0), and, in our mapping population, they form a linkage group with no linkage to the Xgwm160–Xwmc232 translocation on chromosome 4A. Therefore we suggest that rather than Pm16, some unknown gene(s) located on the *Xgwm160*-Xwmc232 translocation on chromosome 4A is involved in the detected QTL for APR in the line 8/1.

In 8/1, the suggestive QTLs $(P<0.05)$ were detected for APR and for seedling resistance, all of them explaining 4–6% of the respective phenotypic variance. It has been indicated that the minor QTLs for non-racespecific powdery mildew resistance could be less effective or ''defeated'' alleles of Pm genes (Nass et al. [1981](#page-9-0); Chantret et al. 1999). For some of the minor QTLs detected in the line 8/1, this may be the case. A residual effect on APR has been demonstrated for the resistance gene allele Pm4b (Chantret et al. 1999). Pm4b originates from T. carthlicum (synonym Triticum persicum) (McIntosh et al. [2003](#page-9-0)). Since it has been assumed that T. militinae has arisen as a result of an introgressive hybridization between T. timopheevii and T. persicum (Navruzbekov [1981](#page-9-0)), the introgressed into 8/1 chromosomal segment on chromosome 2A with minor QTLs for APR and seedling resistance may include a homologous to resistance gene Pm4 region. Further analysis is required to prove this suggestion.

In the hybrid line 8/1, 54% of APR and 33% of variance in seedling resistance can be explained by the major QTLs detected on chromosome 4A. Suggestive QTLs on different chromosomes add up to 69 and 53%, respectively, of the phenotypic variance, which is a slightly higher percentage than Kearsey and Farquhar (1998) (1998) have found to be an average (46%) . Even if the detected effect of the T. militinae translocation on chromosome 4A is one of several clustered genes, it may be considered as a new genetic factor for marker-assisted selection for T. militinae-derived resistance to powdery mildew (Fig. [4](#page-6-0)).

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