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# The flowering locus Hr colocalizes with a major QTL affecting winter frost tolerance in *Pisum sativum* L.

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Abstract An understanding of the genetic determinism of frost tolerance is a prerequisite for the development of frost tolerant cultivars for cold northern areas. In legumes, it is not known to which extent vernalization requirement or photoperiod responsiveness are necessary for the development of frost tolerance. In pea (Pisum sativum L.) however, the flowering locus Hr is suspected to influence winter frost tolerance by delaying floral initiation until after the main winter freezing periods have passed. The objective of this study was to dissect the genetic determinism of frost tolerance in pea by QTL analysis and to assess the genetic linkage between winter frost tolerance and the Hr locus. A population of 164 recombinant inbred lines (RILs), derived from the cross Champagne x Terese was evaluated both in the greenhouse and in field conditions to

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F. Foucher · C. Rameau SGAP INRA, 78026 Versailles, France characterize the photoperiod response from which the allele at the Hr locus was inferred. In addition, the population was also assessed for winter frost tolerance in 11 field conditions. Six QTL were detected, among which three were consistent among the different experimental conditions, confirming an oligogenic determinism of frost tolerance in pea. The  $Hr$  locus was found to be the peak marker for the highest explanatory QTL of this study. This result supports the hypothesis of the prominent part played by the photoperiod responsiveness in the determinism of frost tolerance for this species. The consistency of three QTL makes these positions interesting targets for markerassisted selection.

#### Introduction

Fall sowings allow for enhanced plant productivity in a number of important crop species. They are however

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limited by low temperature together with other stresses associated with winter climatic conditions. Overwintering plants have developed adaptative responses to the seasonal weather changes. First, they sense the upcoming winter through the perception of environmental cues, which are principally temperature and daylength. Then, they adapt both at the developmental and physiological levels, using complementary strategies: freezing escape and cold acclimation. Freezing escape consists in delaying the transition from the vegetative to the reproductive phase, given that frost sensitivity increases after floral initiation (Fowler et al. [2001\)](#page-10-0). Associated with this postponed floral initiation a progressive chilling and freezing tolerance is acquired under low temperature. This cold acclimation response also drives improved tolerance to other winter stresses such as frost heaving, freeze–thaw cycles, water logging, wind dehydration, photoinhibition and diseases such as Mycosphaerella pinodes one of the most injurious pathogen in wet and cold conditions. Winter hardiness integrates the interactive responses to the whole set of winter stresses and can be assessed in field conditions only while frost tolerance sensu stricto is generally evaluated in controlled conditions.

The development of molecular tools has allowed significant progress toward the understanding of winter hardiness, freezing escape and freezing tolerance. The identification of regions controlling winter hardiness has been completed for major cultivated species through the assessment of mapping populations in field conditions and QTL mapping (in cereals: Pan et al. [1994;](#page-11-0) Börner et al. [2002;](#page-10-0) Francia et al. [2004](#page-10-0); rape: Teutonico et al. [1995;](#page-11-0) and legumes: Kahraman et al. [2004\)](#page-11-0). In parallel, the molecular basis of freezing tolerance has been extensively studied, particularly in the model species Arabidopsis thaliana, allowing sustained progress in understanding the cold acclimation signalling pathways and the identification of numerous cold responsive genes. QTL mapping also permitted tests of the genetic relationship between the plant phenology controlled by developmental genes and the expression of winter hardiness or freezing tolerance. In barley, the coincidence between a QTL of winter hardiness and the vernalization gene Vrn1 was reported (Francia et al. [2004](#page-10-0)). In wheat, a genetic linkage was found between the Vrn1 locus and a major gene (Galiba et al. [1995](#page-10-0)) or QTL (Toth et al. [2003](#page-11-0)) governing freezing tolerance. Beyond these mapping results, it has also been shown, for cereals, that the vernalization requirement and photoperiod response genes regulate the duration of the expression of cold responsive genes by controlling the date of the switch from the vegetative to the reproductive phase (Fowler et al. [1996,](#page-10-0) [2001;](#page-10-0) Mahfoozi et al. [2001\)](#page-11-0).

In legumes, the nature of the relationship between winter hardiness, frost tolerance and developmental genes has still to be elucidated. Pea (Pisum sativum L.) is particularly adapted to this goal. Genetic variation for winter hardiness has been reported for pea (Auld et al. [1983](#page-10-0); Cousin et al. [1985;](#page-10-0) Liesenfeld et al. [1986\)](#page-11-0). Pea is a diploid species highly polymorphic for a number of morphological traits and molecular markers (Baranger et al. [2004](#page-10-0); Ellis and Poyser [2002](#page-10-0)) and for which consensus maps are available (Aubert et al. [2006;](#page-10-0) Ellis and Poyser [2002](#page-10-0); Loridon et al. [2005;](#page-11-0) Weeden et al. [1998\)](#page-11-0). Moreover, major loci that control the pea transition to the reproductive stage have been identified (Weller et al. [1997\)](#page-11-0). Among these loci, we have paid a particular attention to the Hr locus, responsible for a high qualitative response of floral initiation to the photoperiod (Murfet [1973](#page-11-0)). Initially identified in controlled conditions of photoperiod and associated to the Murfet's type line 63, the Hr dominant allele was also found in a set of forage cultivars (Lejeune-Hénaut et al. [1999;](#page-11-0) Murfet [1981\)](#page-11-0). These lines remain vegetative until a threshold daylength of 13h30 is reached, which is completed in mid-April in northern latitudes (49°52'N in Lejeune-Hénaut et al., [1999](#page-11-0)) and they are also known to be frost tolerant. The present study was undertaken to check the genetic linkage between the winter frost tolerance and the Hr locus in pea.

## Materials and methods

#### Plant material

One hundred and sixty-four  $F_8$  recombinant inbred lines (RILs), a set of plant material already identified in Loridon et al. [\(2005](#page-11-0)) and Aubert et al. ([2006\)](#page-10-0) as Pop2, were obtained by single seed descent from a  $F_2$  population descending from the cross between Champagne and Terese. The parental lines were chosen for their polymorphism for the targeted traits, according to the observations reported by Lejeune-Henaut et al. [\(1999](#page-11-0)). Champagne is a forage line derived from a local French population. It exhibits the Hr flowering phenotype, i.e., delayed floral initiation under short days (SD) and is also a freezing tolerant and winter hardy line, formerly used as a parent in winter dry pea breeding in France. In contrast, Terese is only slightly reactive to the daylength, which reveals its hr phenotype. It is a spring French dry pea variety, sensitive to frost and thus generally not able to survive winter in northern latitudes. Champagne and Terese are also contrasted for morphological traits, such as the foliage formation type (conventional and afila, resp.), the flower color (purple and white, resp.), the seed coat color (with and without marbling, resp.), the hilum color (black and clear, resp.) and finally internode length (long and dwarf, resp.), these traits being useful classical makers for anchoring the genetic map to already published pea linkage

maps (Aubert et al. [2006](#page-10-0); Ellis and Poyser [2002;](#page-10-0) Loridon et al. [2005;](#page-11-0) Weeden et al. [1998\)](#page-11-0).

## Evaluation of sensitivity to the daylength

The occurrence of floral initiation is not easy to evaluate for a large population, because it relies on destructive sampling and time-consuming observations of plant apices under magnifying glasses. Then, according to the phenotypic classification proposed by Murfet [\(1973](#page-11-0)), we characterized the late high response (LHR) phenotype associated to the dominant Hr allele by recording the date of beginning of flowering under appropriate environmental conditions. Two complementary experiments allowed us to differentiate  $Hr$  from  $hr$  lines within Pop2: the first one was conducted in the greenhouse and the second one in the field.

#### Greenhouse experiment

A random set of 80 RILs and the parental lines were grown in the greenhouse under a 8h-photoperiod (short days, SD), artificially provided by black plastic curtains pulled over the plants from 16 p.m. to 8 a.m. Due to a limited area covered by the curtains, the experiment was conducted successively with two different subsets of 40 RILs. In order to avoid high temperatures, both subsets were grown during the winter periods of 1999–2000 and 2000–2001. The sowing date was 29th September for both repetitions. The parental lines and four control RILs (i.e., the lines 43, 73, 118 and 183) were studied in both subsets. The plants were grown in cans of 30 cm diameter distributed over two contiguous replicates, each line being represented by a can of three plants in each replicate. The substrate was a peat mixture. The plants were watered regularly. Sodium vapor lamps provided additional light each time the natural radiation felt under  $80 \text{ W/m}^2$  during the day period. Temperature was maintained at 13°C during the night and never exceeded 20°C during the day period. A cylindric netting wire was adjusted vertically to the top diameter of each can to ensure an erected growth of the plants. Basal and upper branches were regularly excised and the flowering behavior was recorded on main shoots. The experiment was stopped after the end of the flowering period of the latest flowered lines, which occurred in late February 2000 or 2001. The lines were then attributed a flowering phenotype, i.e., able to flower under short days (A) or not able to flower under short days (NA).

## Field experiment

Pop2 was sown twice at a monthly interval (Date  $1 = D1: 30$  September and Date  $2 = D2: 29$  October 2001) at the INRA experimental station of Mons (49°52'N, 3°00'E). The experimental design was a splitplot with two replicates, the sowing dates being the main plots and the replicates being the subplots. Each individual plot consisted of a 2 m row of 25 seeds, with a 1 m spacing between two rows. Plants were grown against wire in order to prevent them from lodging. Insects, diseases and weeds were controlled chemically and plants grew in well-watered conditions. The date of the beginning of flowering (DBF) was recorded for each plot as the date at which half of the plants exhibited at least one fully opened flower. No significant difference was observed between the replicates within each sowing date condition and the lines mean values will thus be presented in the results. The choice of D1 and D2 to reveal the reaction to photoperiod proceeded from the field characterization proposed by Lejeune-Hénaut et al. [\(1999](#page-11-0)). In this paper, a 1-month delay in autumn sowing dates had little effect on the date of floral initiation of Hr lines because they need at least a 13h30 photoperiod to trigger off floral initiation, which happens only in mid-April of the following spring. In contrast, hr lines, which are not strictly dependent from long days, will initiate flowers earlier in spring if they have been sown earlier in autumn. In other words, we expected  $Hr$  lines to have similar DBF for D1 and D2 and hr lines to have an earlier DBF in D1 than in D2.

#### Evaluation of winter frost damages

The winter frost tolerance of Pop2 has been evaluated in the field in 11 location x year conditions (Table [1](#page-3-0)). In 2000/2001, 2001/2002 and 2002/2003, experiments were conducted at the INRA locations of Mons, Clermont-Ferrand-Theix and Dijon. In addition, experiments were also conducted in 2001/2002 at the INRA locations of Colmar and Lusignan. In each location, plots were organized following a complete block design with two replicates in 2000/2001 and three replicates in the other conditions. Individual plots consisted in two rows in 2000/2001 (2 m long, 20 seeds per row, 20 cm between rows) and six rows (1.6 m long, 15 seeds per row, 20 cm between rows) in the other conditions. Weeds and diseases were controlled chemically. Although winter survival usually depends on the response to different abiotic stresses, the climatic (Table [1\)](#page-3-0) and biological observations supported the idea that frost was the major stress for the 11 conditions studied here. Frost damages were evaluated after the winter freezing periods had passed. A score was attributed to a plot as a whole based on the aspect of the aerial parts of the plants according to the following scale: 0 for no damages, 1 for frost burn limited to the leaf edges, 2 for frost burn on the majority

<span id="page-3-0"></span>

of the leaf surface, 3 for frost burn on upper third of the stem, 4 for frost burn on upper three-quarters of the stem, and 5 for frost dead plants. Intermediate scores were given to record irregular damages within a plot.

Analyses of variance were performed with the SAS package (SAS Institute Inc., [1999\)](#page-11-0) using the 'general linear model' procedure with the following model for each condition:

$$
Y_{ij} = \mu + \text{geno}_i + \text{rep}_j + e_{ij},
$$

where  $Y_{ij}$  is the value of frost damages recorded for the recombinant inbred line  $i$  and the replicate  $j$ , where  $\mu$  is the population mean, and where geno, rep and e are, respectively, the genotypic, replication and residual effects of the model. The normality of residual distributions was tested using skewness, kurtosis and Shapiro–Wilk statistics (Shapiro and Wilk [1965](#page-11-0)) displayed by the 'univariate' procedure. This procedure was also used to detect abnormal residues and the corresponding records were either corrected or deleted. For each of the 11 conditions, the RILs genotypic means adjusted from the replication effect were calculated with the 'lsmeans' statement of the 'general linear model' procedure. This resulted in a set of 11 winter frost damages (WFD) values per genotype further used for QTL detection.

## Map construction and QTL analysis

The Pop2 genotyping data are already included in the composite maps proposed by Aubert et al. [\(2006](#page-10-0)) and Loridon et al. [\(2005](#page-11-0)), the first one comprising geneanchored markers. Using both sources, we built a map for Pop2 using the 'map' command of MAPMAKER/EXP version 3.0b (Lander et al. [1987;](#page-11-0) Lincoln et al. [1992](#page-11-0)). Additional markers only available for Pop2 (Loridon et al. [2005](#page-11-0)) were also placed using the 'try' and 'map' commands. Finally, the 'assign' and 'try' commands were run to map the Hr locus, phenotyped as described above and the resulting order was verified with the 'ripple' command. The Haldane function was used to calculate distances in centiMorgan (cM).

The QTL analyses were performed using the package Windows QTL Cartographer Version 2.5 (Wang et al. [2005](#page-11-0)). Composite interval mapping (CIM) was run using model 6. The LOD significance threshold was determined after running 1,000 permutations tests ( $\alpha = 0.05$ ) for each of the 11 traits. The higher resulting threshold,  $LOD = 3.59$ , was chosen to perform CIM for all traits. Cofactors were selected with the forward and backward regression method (probability in and probability out were each set to a value of 0.05). The window size in which the cofactors are not considered was set up to 10 cM on either side of the markers flanking the test site.

#### <span id="page-4-0"></span>Results

Phenotyping of the photoperiod reaction within Pop2

#### Greenhouse experiment

Among the 80 RILs studied in the greenhouse to assess their responsiveness to the photoperiod, 38 were completely unable to flower after 5 months of the SD treatment, like the parent Champagne; 36 RILs showed a flowering time continuum between 29 November 1999 and 16 February 2000 or 4 December 2000 and 3 February 2001, according to the sowing date.

The parental line Terese flowered a little later in the second period of experimentation, i.e., 23 December 2000 to 8 January 2001, than in the first one, i.e., 12 to 21 December 1999. The same delay was observed for the control RILs that were studied twice and able to flower under SD (lines 43 and 73). Thus the qualitative flowering behavior, A (able to flower under SD) versus NA (not able to flower under SD), was reproducible between the two periods of experimentation: Terese, the line 43 and the line 73 being A, and Champagne the line 118 and the line 183 being NA.

Four lines (14, 16, 70 and 138) did not show a clear phenotype with only one or two plants among six being able to flower under SD before the date defined as the end of the experiment, which prevented us from assigning them to one of the two flowering phenotypic classes A or NA. Besides, the lines 74 and 192 did not open flowers before the end of the experiment which should have placed them in the NA class, but traces of aborted flowers were detected on upper nodes of the line 74 and flower primordia were observed in the apex of the line 192 under magnifying glasses, so they were also excluded from the greenhouse classification.

## Field experiment

The reaction to the photoperiod could also be deduced from the flowering behavior in the field, as shown in Fig. 1. On this figure, each line was represented by its date of beginning of flowering (DBF) in each of the two sowing dates (D1 and D2) of the field experiment. The lines that were previously studied in the greenhouse were plotted with black squares and dots. Among them, the parental lines and the 4 control RILs were splitted over



Fig. 1 Dates of the beginning of flowering (DBF) for Pop2 lines at the two field sowing dates,  $D1 = 30$  September 2001 and  $D2 = 29$ October 2001. DBF at D1 and DBF at D2 are represented respectively on the x and y-axis. DBF is expressed as the number of days from 1st January 2002, e.g., 100 corresponds to the 10 April and 150 corresponds to the 30 May. The filled symbols are a reminder of the flowering phenotype observed in the greenhouse short days (SD) experiment, *filled square*: lines that were able to flower under SD; filled circle: lines that were unable to flower under SD. The other symbols are attributed as follows, open circle: lines with an unclear SD reaction phenotype in the greenhouse experiment; shaded diamond: lines that were only studied in the field. The lines Terese, 43, 73 as well as Champagne, 118 and 183 (labels underlined) were studied twice in the greenhouse during the winter periods of 1999– 2000 and 2000–2001. They showed each time the same SD reaction, i.e., Terese, 43 and 73 were able (A) to flower under SD, while Champagne, 118 and 183 were not (NA). In the field experiment, some early lines freezed and died when sown at D1; they were arbitrarily plotted on the y-axis; their early DBF at D2 allows to allocate them to the hr group, except for the line 119, represented into brackets, which flowered too late in D2 to be considered as equivalent to the rest of the group. Three other lines of the field experiment, i.e., the lines 101, 131 and 171 also represented into brackets, were excluded from the graphical classification although they plotted in the Hr part of the graph because they were far away from the first bissector

two distinct groups for DBF in the field. Terese and the lines 43 and 73 had an early DBF and they began to flower much earlier in D1 than in D2, which placed the points on the left part of the figure and quite far above the first bissector. At the opposite, Champagne and the lines 118 and 183 flowered late but began to flower approximately at the same date for D1 and D2, which brought the corresponding points on the right part of Fig. [1](#page-4-0) and close to the first bissector. Even when sown earlier, these lines flowered at the same date (mid May for Champagne) behaving as if they were waiting for an appropriate daylength to initiate flowers. This behavior appeared to be consistent with the obligate photoperiod requirement observed in the greenhouse experiment, where they were not able to flower under unvariable SD. The results of the greenhouse and field experiments were globally consistent, except for a middle group of seven lines for which the different experiments did not allow to assure the Hr phenotype. We thus decided to exclude this zone, corresponding to  $115 < D1 < 130$ , for the following. This graphical method was extended to the RILs that had not been evaluated in the greenhouse, represented by grey diamonds on Fig. [1,](#page-4-0) which allowed allocation of most of the lines to either the  $Hr$  or  $hr$  group. Three of the lines only studied in the field fell in the area of uncertain phenotypes and were excluded. So were the lines 101, 131 and 171 which plotted in the right part of the figure because although they were late at flowering at D1, they were far away under the first bissector and thus too different from Champagne to be affected to the Hr group. In the field experiment, some early lines freezed and died when sown at D1; they were arbitrarily plotted on the yaxis; their early DBF at D2 allows to allocate them to the hr group, except for the line 119 which flowered too late in D2 to be considered as equivalent to the rest of the group. The 164 lines were genotyped as follows for the Hr locus:  $67$  Hr,  $82$  hr,  $15$  missing data. The  $67:82$  ratio of the genotyped RILs fitted the hypothesis of a single locus segregation (Chi square  $= 1.51$ ).

Morphological characteristics of the Hr versus hr lines in the field

Additionally to their strong reaction to the photoperiod, the Hr lines of Pop2 were characterized by a rosette-type growth habit during the winter period (Fig. S1). They developed more branches and the aerial organs remained dwarf, i.e., short internodes and small leaflets, during the whole winter period, whatever the allele at the major internode-length locus Le (Ingram et al. [1984](#page-11-0); Mendel [1866\)](#page-11-0). In the following spring, when the daylength reached approximately 13h30 (value observed for Cham-pagne, Lejeune-Hénaut et al. [1999](#page-11-0)), and allowed the switch to the reproductive stage, the Hr lines recovered an erected growth and larger leaflets. In the Hr background, a significant difference of internode length between the dwarf  $(le)$  and normal  $(Le)$  lines was visible only from that time.

## Mapping the Hr locus and QTL of WFD

A genetic map was developed for Pop2, which comprises 213 markers, including Hr, and covers 1,491 cM Haldane (Aubert et al. [2006;](#page-10-0) Loridon et al. [2005\)](#page-11-0). The Hr locus, for which the genotype was deduced from the photoperiod reaction as explained above mapped on the linkage group (LG) 3, between the microsatellite marker AA175 and the seed marbling locus, M (Fig. [2\)](#page-6-0). An analysis of the WFD recorded for Pop2 in 11 field conditions was performed with Windows QTL Cartographer (LOD thresh $old = 3.59$ , determined after 1,000 permutations tests for each condition). Composite interval mapping (CIM) allowed us to detect six distinct QTL positions, referred to as WFD 1.1 to WFD 6.1, as shown in Fig. [2](#page-6-0) and Table [2.](#page-7-0) Two genomic regions, WFD 3.1 and WFD 6.1 were very consistently detected in the different conditions: WFD 3.1 on LG3 near Hr and AA175 was detected in all environments and WFD 6.1 on LG6 near markers AD141, AD59, AD159 and AA200 was detected in 10 environments out of 11. The WFD 3.2 position corresponded to 5 significant QTL mapped at the bottom of LG3, close to the dwarfism locus Le. Another position, WFD 5.1, was consistent among 11 conditions (Table [2](#page-7-0)). Finally, the positions WFD 1.1 and WFD 5.2 were characterized by QTL detected in only one condition, the corresponding closest markers being R13.1800 for WFD 1.1, and Y02.900 for WFD 5.2. Besides the positions presented in Fig. [2](#page-6-0), Table [2](#page-7-0) also gives the coefficient of determination  $(R<sup>2</sup>)$  of each QTL peak as well as the allelic value of Terese. These values highlight the prominent part played by WFD 3.1 in the genetic control of winter freezing damages, with  $R^2$  ranging from 0.19 to 0.52. The five other positions are comparatively less explanatory with individual  $R^2$  ranging from 0.03 to 0.12. Another important observation is that the favorable WFD alleles, i.e., those giving a smaller WFD score equivalent to a higher frost tolerance, are all from Champagne except for the WFD 3.2 position, where the favorable allele at the peak marker, le, corresponds to the dwarf type Terese. Table [3](#page-8-0) presents the allele sizes of the microsatellite markers close to the QTL peaks for the three most consistent QTL, WFD 3.1, WFD 5.1 and WFD 6.1. We also used the AA175 genotyping data to try to infer the Hr genotype of the 11 lines located in the area of uncertain Hr phenotype in the field experiment (Fig. [1\)](#page-4-0). Among these lines, 3 presented the Terese allele for AA175 and 8

<span id="page-6-0"></span>Fig. 2 Genetic maps of the linkage group segments containing QTL for winter freezing damages. Each QTL is identified by the corresponding environmental condition abbreviated as mentionned in Table [1](#page-3-0). Two intervals are specified for each QTL: the inner interval corresponds to a 1-LOD drop-down and the outer interval corresponds to a 2-LOD drop-down. Markers in bold are either the closest marker to a QTL peak either the QTL peak itself. Consensual positions of the QTL are revealed by overlapping confidence intervals and are identified by the symbols WFD 1.1 to WFD 6.1



the Champagne allele. The mean DBF of these 3 and 8 lines were similar at D1, 120 and 121 days respectively but different at D2, 127 and 137 days, respectively, this last result reflecting globally the expected difference between hr and Hr lines. Thus, even if the photoperiod response would have to be tested again for the 11 uncertain lines, the microsatellite marker AA175 seems to be a satisfying indicator of the flowering phenotype.

<span id="page-7-0"></span>Table 2 Characteristics of the QTL of winter freezing damages in the F8 RILs population derived from Champagne x Terese



The markers in bold are at the QTL peak

# Discussion

The *Hr* locus: map position and putative orthologous sequences

The molecular identity of Hr has yet to be determined. To map the Hr locus in our population, we carried out a short

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day experiment proposed by Murfet ([1971,](#page-11-0) [1973\)](#page-11-0) to reveal the segregation between  $Hr$  and  $hr$  plants. In our greenhouse experiment, the  $Hr$  phenotype of the parental line Champagne was clearly distinct from that of the hr line Terese: flowering was not obtained for Champagne after 5 months of SD treatment although it was for Terese. Moreover, a significant 1:1 segregation was revealed for

<span id="page-8-0"></span>

the 74 Pop2 lines showing a clear phenotype in the greenhouse experiment, confirming a genetic control by a single locus. The field experiment allowed us to extend the Hr classification to 150 of the 164 Pop2 lines and to assign unambiguously the  $Hr$  locus to LG3 on the Pop2 genetic map. This position of  $Hr$  close to the seed marbling gene (Fig. [2](#page-6-0)) is in agreement with the tight linkage between Hr and M reported by Murfet ([1973\)](#page-11-0), which calculated a recombination value of 3% between both loci and deduced therefore the position of  $Hr$  on LG3. It is also consistent with the approximate position of Hr reported on the consensus map proposed by Weeden et al. [\(1998](#page-11-0)).

It is of course a challenging goal to identify the DNA sequence of Hr. Arabidopsis flowering genes are an interesting source of candidate sequences. Some of them (pea orthologous sequences for *Arabidopsis*  $AGL20 = SOC1$ , COL, CRY2, EMF, FCA, FPA, LD, PHYA, TFL1) have already been mapped in Pop2 (Aubert et al. [2006\)](#page-10-0). None are positional candidates for Hr, although we formerly thought that it could be the case for the COL sequences (PsCOLa and PcCOLb), which belong to the photoperiod pathway in *Arabidopsis*. Hecht et al. ([2005\)](#page-11-0) suggested however that some Arabidopsis flowering genes could be candidates for this locus. They searched legume (Medicago truncatula, Glycine max and Lotus japonicus) databases for orthologous sequences of a number of Arabidopsis flowering genes. They located nine Arabidopsis ortholog pairs to corresponding map positions in Pisum sativum and Medicago truncatula by using the syntenic relationships described for pea and Medicago by Kaló et al.  $(2004)$  $(2004)$  and Choi et al. ([2004\)](#page-10-0). This result supports a map-based strategy to identify pea flowering genes. Concerning Hr, Hecht et al. [\(2005](#page-11-0)) have given a particular interest to the flowering locus C (FLC) and to Frigida (FRI), because they share with the dominant Hr allele a strong delay in flowering particularly under SD. They did not find any FRI or FLC orthologs in pea, but proposed to pay attention to the Medicago truncatula FRLa gene, which is similar to the Arabidopsis FRI-like genes, and whose mapping position in Medicago truncatula corresponds to the approximate position of Hr. Although it may appear relatively hazardous to screen Arabidopsis flowering genes for a precise target orthologous sequence in Medicago or pea, because crucifers and legumes may have evolved independently, this strategy remains promising provided that Arabidopsis candidates are chosen accordingly to similar phenotypes in both species.

Winter frost tolerance is determined by a few but consistent QTL positions in Pop2

The quantitative trait mapping study presented here relies on the assessment of the pea segregating population Pop2 using eleven field environments. This experimental effort was considered necessary for a cultivated species to ensure that the results would be reliable for further winter pea breeding programs. It is difficult to repeatably evaluate frost tolerance in field conditions. We overcame this difficulty by constituting a field experimental network among INRA locations representing various cold winters with more or less maritime influence. Three sites, Mons, Dijon and Clermont-Ferrand-Theix, are particularly relevant to screen for frost resistance because frost events occur there quite regularly. With this strong experimental basis, we found consistent positions for 4 of the 6 detected QTL.

The availability of numerous molecular markers allows geneticists to develop linkage maps with an appropriate density of markers for QTL mapping. Compared with the previous studies of the transmittance of winterhardiness in pea (Auld et al. [1983;](#page-10-0) Cousin et al. [1985;](#page-10-0) Liesenfeld et al. [1986](#page-11-0)), it is now possible to discover new information about the genome location of the areas responsible for winter frost tolerance. It is interesting to note that, whatever the statistical method previously employed, i.e., diallel analyses (Auld et al. [1983;](#page-10-0) Cousin et al. [1985\)](#page-10-0) or dissection of the frequency distributions among segregating populations (Liesenfeld et al. [1986](#page-11-0)), the authors generally reported a quantitative inheritance of winter hardiness with additive effects of few genes. Liesenfeld et al. [\(1986](#page-11-0)) estimated that as few as three additive genes may condition winter hardiness in the lines evaluated. Among other legume species, Kahraman et al. ([2004\)](#page-11-0) detected five QTL positions for winter survival in a RIL population of lentil, with only one QTL being consistent

across three location  $\times$  year conditions. Our OTL detection in Pop2, showing six significant QTL, is in agreement with an oligogenic determinism of winter frost tolerance. Moreover, the consistency of three QTL, WFD 3.1, WFD 5.1 and WFD 6.1 among almost all the experimental conditions makes these loci interesting targets for marker assisted selection.

A genetic linkage between winter frost tolerance and the response to photoperiod in pea

The position of the  $Hr$  locus as the peak marker for the highest explanatory QTL of this study supports our hypothesis of the prominent part played by this gene in the variability of freezing resistance, at least in Pop2. It is the first report in a legume species for understanding the nature of the genetic relationship between frost resistance and developmental, i.e., photoperiod or vernalization, genes. Whether this relationship is only due to a genetic linkage or reflects an epistatic effect of developmental genes upon frost tolerance genes has been extensively sought in other cultivated species, particularly cereals. In wheat (Triticum aestivum), QTL mapping has revealed genetic links between presumed homologous QTL for frost resistance and the vernalization locus Vrn1 (Galiba et al. [1995](#page-10-0); Toth et al. [2003](#page-11-0)). A colocalization between a QTL for photoperiod sensitivity and a QTL for winterhardiness has also been pointed out on chromosome 6A by a QTL metaanalysis (Hanocq et al. [2007\)](#page-11-0). In barley (Hordeum vulgare), highly significant QTL for winter hardiness and related measures of low-temperature tolerance were found on chromosome 5H (Francia et al. [2004;](#page-10-0) Pan et al. [1994\)](#page-11-0) and the coincidence with the Vrn1 region of the Triticeae was also evidenced (Francia et al. [2004](#page-10-0)). In oilseed rape (Brassica napus L.), QTL controlling vernalization requirement and freezing tolerance were also mapped to the same genomic region (Teutonico and Osborn [1995](#page-11-0); Teutonico et al. [1995\)](#page-11-0). In annual legumes, QTL mapping of winterhardiness was realized for lentil but did not point out any genetic linkage with a developmental gene (Kahraman et al. [2004](#page-11-0)). However, in the perennial legume Medicago sativa, coincident QTL were found for winterhardiness and fall dormancy which is a developmental factor triggered by short days and cool temperatures (Brouwer et al. [2000](#page-10-0)).

The observation of a winter-adapted plant morphology within each species can also be related to the expression of developmental genes. It is a common observation that winter hardy herbaceous plants exhibit a prostrate growth, numerous branches and reduced aerial organs when submitted to acclimating temperatures and this supports the pleiotropic effects on both growth habit and low-temperature tolerance attributed to developmental genes. In wheat, Roberts [\(1990](#page-11-0)) reported that Vrn1 controls or is tightly linked to a locus partly controlling the rosette growth habit. In pea, it has already been observed that the fall rosette formation is closely associated with winter hardiness (Andersen and Markarian [1968](#page-10-0); Liesenfeld et al. [1986](#page-11-0); Markarian and Andersen [1966](#page-11-0)). Markarian and Andersen [\(1966](#page-11-0)), studying a cross including the forage pea Austrian Winter, have proposed a genetic control with two genes for this trait. They concluded that the formation of a compact rosette is essential for winter survival. Our results also support this conclusion considering that most of the Hr lines of Pop2 are characterized by a marked rosette in autumn and winter field conditions, and that the Hr locus colocalizes with the highest explanatory WFD 3.1 QTL of our study. Also in support, is the statement (Murfet and Reid [1993](#page-11-0)) that the flowering allele Hr enhances the capacity of pea photoperiodic lines to produce basal laterals. Murfet and Reid [\(1993](#page-11-0)) brought together the behavior of Hr lines with that of many primitive accessions of Pisum sativum sp. humile; P. sativum sp. elatius and P. fulvum, which display an enhanced branching response to short photoperiods when compared with the domestic cultivars. They suggested that such a profuse basal branching is of evolutionary interest for wild ecotypes that are adapted to grow vegetatively through the cool and moist conditions of winter and that flower with the advent of long days in the spring.

Our present findings and previous results (Lejeune-Hénaut et al. [1999\)](#page-11-0) highlight the prominent relationship between winter frost tolerance and the photoperiod response in P. sativum. For legumes, it is tempting to suggest that low-temperature tolerance is primarily regulated by the photoperiod response. This is in contrast to cereals where the vernalization response appears to have this role. Further assessment of this hypothesis in pea requires determination of the molecular sequence of Hr, and in this prospect, the knowledge of the Arabidopsis flowering pathways will be beneficial. The recent considerations upon the epigenetic transmission of the vernalization response in Arabidopsis constitute an attractive model to explain the coincidence between the repression of the flowering transition and the up-regulation of low-temperature-responsive genes (Amasino [2004a,](#page-10-0) [b](#page-10-0)).

Genetic linkages between winter frost tolerance and agronomical traits

Besides the large effect of WFD 3.1/Hr which deserved attention, other colocations have to be considered. It is the case for the WFD 3.2 QTL associated to the Le locus on LG3. This position is the only one, in the genetic background of the studied population, for which the favorable allele for winter frost tolerance is brought by the

<span id="page-10-0"></span>susceptible parent Terese. We have, however, reported above that the field-autumn-sown Hr lines remain dwarf until a longer spring daylength has triggered off the switch from the prostrate to the erected growth habit, which suggests an epistatic effect of  $Hr$  upon the expression of the dwarfism. Finally, even if the independant effect of WFD 3.2 and the candicacy of the colocated Le locus needs to be checked. Agronomically, the recessive le allele is required in the dry pea cultivars for northern Europe, where all the dry peas are dwarf to minimize crop lodging. The position of the Tri locus under the WFD 5.1 QTL will have to be carefully considered in breeding programs, as the favorable allele for WFD 5.1 could bring together the dominant Tri allele which is unfavorable for a seed use for pig and poultry feeding, because it contains two structural genes encoding the major pea seed trypsin inhibitors (Domoney et al. 1994, 1995). Page et al. ([2002](#page-11-0)) developed a set of PCR primers suitable to distinguish a number of pea genotypes for the Tri locus and which was applied to genotype Pop2 (Page et al. [2003\)](#page-11-0). This marker could be used to breed for low trypsin inhibitor activity, although a favorable effect of the dominant Tri allele on winter frost tolerance cannot be excluded.

# Conclusion: perspectives for marker assisted selection (MAS) of winter frost tolerant peas

Considering the high explanatory level of the WFD 3.1 QTL in the genetic variation of winter frost tolerance in pea, but the difficulty to assess the Hr phenotype, efficient breeding progress could be made by using the closest molecular markers to follow the introgression of the favorable Hr dominant allele in diverse genetic backgrounds using the microsatellite marker AA175. A second flanking marker would be necessary for a better efficiency, as the marbling locus (M) falls 9.6 cM apart from Hr. Thus, unless a rapid identification of the Hr molecular sequence among *Arabidopsis* flowering candidates, a denser genetic map around Hr is necessary and additional markers will be searched in the orthologous region of Medicago truncatula. Following the same strategy, the microsatellite markers AD59, AD141, AA200 and AD159 can help a marker-assisted introgression of WFD 6.1. Considering the largest confidence interval of WFD 5.1, four markers AA475, DHPS1, AGL20a and Tri, should be used to follow the introgression, with the restrictions related to the Tri locus mentioned above.

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