

Genome Wide Association Study Pinpoints Key Agronomic QTLs in African Rice Oryza glaberrima

Philippe Cubry, Hélène Pidon, Kim Nhung Ta, Christine Tranchant-Dubreuil, Anne-Céline Thuillet, Maria Holzinger, Hélène Adam, Honoré Kam, Harold Chrestin, Alain Ghesquière, et al.

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Philippe Cubry, Hélène Pidon, Kim Nhung Ta, Christine Tranchant-Dubreuil, Anne-Céline Thuillet, et al.. Genome Wide Association Study Pinpoints Key Agronomic QTLs in African Rice Oryza glaberrima. Rice, 2020, 13 (1), 10.1186/s12284-020-00424-1. hal-03289676

HAL Id: hal-03289676

https://hal.science/hal-03289676

Submitted on 5 Dec 2023

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- 1 Title
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Abstract Background African rice, Oryza glaberrima, is an invaluable resource for rice cultivation and for the improvement of biotic and abiotic resistance properties. Since its domestication in the inner Niger delta ca. 2500 years BP, African rice has colonized a variety of ecologically and climatically diverse regions. However, little is known about the genetic basis of quantitative traits and adaptive variation of agricultural interest for this species. Results Using a reference set of 163 fully re-sequenced accessions, we report the results of a Genome Wide Association Study carried out for African rice. We investigated a diverse panel of traits, including flowering date, panicle architecture and resistance to Rice yellow mottle virus. For this, we devised a pipeline using complementary statistical association methods. First, using flowering time as a target trait, we demonstrated that we could successfully retrieve known genes from the rice flowering pathway, and identified new genomic regions that would deserve more study. Then we applied our pipeline to panicle- and resistance-related traits, highlighting some interesting QTLs and candidate genes (including Rymv1 for resistance and SP1, Ghd7.1, APO1 and OsMADS1 for panicle architecture). Lastly, using a high-resolution climate database, we performed an association analysis based on climatic variables, searching for genomic regions that might be involved in adaptation to climatic variations. Conclusion Our results collectively provide insights into the extent to which adaptive variation is governed by sequence diversity within the O. glaberrima genome, paving the way for in-depth studies of the genetic basis of traits of interest that might be useful to the rice breeding community. Keywords African rice, Genome Wide Association Study, flowering time, panicle architecture, RYMV, climate variation

BACKGROUND

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African rice, Oryza glaberrima Steud., was domesticated independently of Asian rice Oryza sativa L. (Wang et al. 2014; Meyer et al. 2016; Cubry et al. 2018; Choi et al. 2019). Its domestication took place in the inner delta of the Niger river (Cubry et al. 2018), from a wild relative species, Oryza barthii A. Chev.. Its origin from this wild Sahelian species certainly explains its strong tolerance or resistance to biotic and abiotic stresses (Sarla and Swamy 2005). In the context of increasing temperatures and a more variable climate, strong tolerance to such stresses is an important objective for rice agriculture worldwide. However, knowledge of the genetic basis of phenotypic variation in African rice remains very limited. With the exception of salinity tolerance (Meyer et al. 2016), few association studies have been performed for traits of agricultural interest in this species. Genome wide association studies (GWAS) have successfully identified genes of functional importance associated with flowering time in Asian rice (Zhao et al. 2011; Huang et al. 2012; Yano et al. 2016). For Asian rice, the genetic determination of this trait is well understood (Lee and An 2015), whereas we have no information about the variation of this trait for African rice. Another trait of broad interest for rice farmers and breeder communities is the architecture of the panicle. This trait is one of the main components of yield potential, because the number of seeds per panicle is directly related to the branching complexity of the inflorescence (Xing and Zhang 2010). With increasing global movement of plant material and climate change, biotic threats to rice agriculture continue to evolve and the search for new sources of resistance to pathogens is therefore a challenging research field. Rice yellow mottle virus (RYMV) is responsible for one of the most damaging diseases of rice in Africa (Kouassi et al. 2005; Issaka et al. 2012; Kam et al. 2013). Resistance genes against RYMV are mostly found in O. glaberrima, and this species may be an interesting source of quantitative trait loci (QTLs) for global rice breeding strategies (Thiémélé et al. 2010). To better assess the functional variation present in African rice, we developed a genome-wide association panel and corresponding phenotypic datasets for flowering time, inflorescence architecture, and resistance to RYMV. Using several complementary statistical models for genetic association, we identified key QTLs for flowering time variation, panicle architecture, quantitative resistance to RYMV and climatic variation. RESULTS A total of 892,539 SNPs from 163 different O. glaberrima accessions was used in the GWAS. We considered that population structure was best described by four genetic groups, and we used either one or both of the groupings and the kinship matrix as cofactors to correct for confounding effects in our analyses. The phenotypic data were obtained from infield experiments or from available public databases (data in Additional file 1: Table S1). Using ANOVA as the benchmark, all methods allowed an efficient correction for false positives (QQ-plots, see Additional files 2, 3, 4, 5).

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Flowering time

A genome-wide association study of flowering time based on data from the early planting dates allowed us to identify 1,450 SNPs statistically associated with this trait (5% FDR threshold, Table 1; Additional file 2; Additional file 6: Table S2). Most of these SNPs were at a distance of less than 25kb from each other and were clumped into 80 genomic regions containing a total of 733 annotated genes (Table 1; Additional file 7: Table S3; Additional file 8: Table S4). Corresponding analyses performed using data from the later planting date revealed associations with a slightly larger number of significant SNPs: 2,649 significant SNPs corresponding to 134 regions and 1,223 annotated genes (Table 1; Additional file 2; Additional file 6: Table S2; Additional file 7: Table S3; Additional file 8: Table S4). Two hundred and sixty-two genes representing 25 genomic regions were found for both planting dates. Several GWAS peaks colocalized with known Asian rice flowering time genes either for early or late planting (Table 2; Fig. 1): OsGI and OsMADS51 on chromosome 1; Hd6/OsMADS14/OsPHYC and ETR2 on chromosome 3; Hd3a/RFT1 on chromosome 6; and RCNI on chromosome 11. When we compared the list of genes found in our study for flowering time with an expert list based on bibliography (Additional file 9: Table S5), we found a five-fold significant enrichment (G test associated p-value = $7e^{-10^{-4}}$), showing that our GWAS approaches were effective in retrieving known genes. GO term enrichment analysis performed on the complete list of genes found five significantly (p-value < 0.05) enriched GO terms using classic Fisher and weighted tests, two for cellular components (Golgi apparatus and peroxisome) and three for molecular functions (motor activity, carbohydrate binding and transcription factor activity) (Additional file 10: Table S6). An additional GO term was found for biological processes (Cellular processes) with the weighted test only. Panicle morphological traits Using six morphological traits, all association methods led to comparable numbers of significant associations (Table 1). The CATE model produced the highest number of significant SNPs for four of the six morphological traits. A total of 1,010 significant SNPs was detected for at least one panicle morphological trait, except for spikelet number for which no significant SNP was found (Table 1; Additional file 3; Additional file 6: Table S2). Ninety-seven unique genomic regions associated with one or more morphological traits were defined (Table 1; Additional file 7: Table S3). Nine of the 97 unique regions were associated with more than one trait: one for secondary branch number (SBN) and primary branch average length (PBL) (rOg-PAN-18), three for primary branch number (PBN) and rachis length (RL) (rOg-PAN-25, rOg-PAN-58, rOg-PAN-92), two for PBN and secondary branch internode average length (SBintL) (rOg-PAN-8, rOg-PAN-56), two for RL and SbintL (rOg-PAN-78, rOg-PAN-88) and one for PBN, RL and SBintL (rOg-PAN-90). The 88 remaining regions were each associated with a single trait: 32 for RL, 20 for PBN, 10 for PBL, 1 for

primary branch internode average length (PBintL) and 25 for SBintL. Among the 97 associated regions, 858 annotated

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genes were identified (Table 1; Additional file 8: Table S4). GO term analysis revealed no significant enrichment of gene categories in the regions of significant SNPs (Additional file 10: Table S6). Some genes already known to be involved in panicle development control co-localized with genomic regions associated with panicle morphological traits, examples including: ABERRANT PANICLE ORGANIZATION1 (APO1) which colocalizes with the region rOg-PAN-59 identify for the SBintL trait; SHORT PANICLE1 (SPI) with the rOg-PAN-91 region (PBL); OsMADS1/LEAFY HULL STERILE1 (LHS1) with the rOg-PAN-22 region (RL); and Ghd7.1/Hd2/OsPRR37 with the rOg-PAN-65 (RL) region (Table 2). RYMV resistance Our association study of quantitative RYMV resistance detected a total of 2,199 associated SNPs (Table 1; Additional file 4; Additional file 6: Table S2). These SNPs defined 257 genomic regions containing 2,248 annotated genes (Table 1; Additional file 7: Table S3; Additional file 8: Table S4). The EMMA model revealed a much higher number of significant SNPs compared to the other models, 1,831 SNPs and 177 regions being detected only with this model. Regions that were the most consistent across the different statistical methods were observed on chromosome 3 (rOg-RYMV-125, position 10.5Mb, Additional file 7: Table S3), chromosome 4 (rOg-RYMV-159/rOg-RYMV-160, position 25-25.3Mb), chromosome 6 (rOg-RYMV-200, position 15.1Mb) and chromosome 11 (rOg-RYMV-63, position 9.0-9.2Mb; rOg-RYMV-77/rOg-RYMV-78, position 26.2-26.8Mb). We detected significant associations in the vicinity of two known resistance genes: RYMV1, located in rOg-RYMV-159 on chromosome 4; and RYMV3, located in rOg-RYMV-77 on chromosome 11 (Albar et al. 2006; Pidon et al. 2017) (Fig. 2: Table 2). Analysis of GO terms (Additional file 10: Table S6) revealed enrichment in genes from the Golgi apparatus, known to be involved in both the replication of some plant viruses and in intracellular trafficking and cell-tocell movement (Pitzalis and Heinlein 2018). **Environment-related variables** In order to study association with environmental variables, we downloaded climatic variables for 107 geolocalised accessions (Cubry et al. 2018) from the worldclim v1.4 database (Hijmans et al. 2005). The first two axes of the PCA of bioclimatic data (BioPC1 and BioPC2) explained 49.91% and 26.32% of the variance of all variables. BioPC1 was mainly explained by bio4 (temperature seasonality) and bio17 (precipitation of driest quarter) while BioPC2 was mainly explained by bio9 (mean temperature of driest quarter) and bio11 (mean temperature of coldest quarter). We evaluated the statistical association of genetic polymorphisms with the first and second axes of the PCA. No significant association was detected with BioPC1. BioPC2 allowed the identification of 52 SNPs (Table 1; Additional file 5;

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Additional file 6: Table S2) and 17 regions encompassing 128 annotated genes (Additional file 7: Table S3; Additional file 8: Table S4). Among the identified genes, we found a cation/proton exchanger-encoding gene (LOC 0s02g04630, OsCAX4), an auxin-responsive gene (LOC_Os03g53150, OsAUX) and a MADS-box gene (LOC_Os03g11614, OsMADS1) (Table 2). GO term enrichment tests detected only one GO term as significantly over-represented, GO:0005576 (Cellular Components / extracellular region) (Additional file 10: Table S5). When considering maximum temperature variables (Tmax), 73.56% and 17.90% respectively of the variance was explained by the first PCA axis (TmaxPC1) and second PCA axis (TmaxPC2). No association was found with TmaxPC1, while TmaxPC2 allowed us to detect 228 regions including 1,946 annotated genes (Table 1; Additional file 7: Table S3 and Additional file 8: Table S4). GO term analysis revealed several GO terms as being significantly enriched, including seven terms for Biological Processes (cell differentiation, cellular protein modification process, cellular component organization, embryo development, signal transduction, regulation of gene expression and response to external stimulus), two terms for Cellular Components (mitochondrion and plasma membrane) and five terms for Molecular Functions (receptor activity, kinase activity, nucleotide binding, translation factor activity/RNA binding and transferase activity) (Additional file 10: Table S5). One genomic region, rOg-Tmax-36, co-localized with a known QTL for seedling cold tolerance in O. sativa (Kim et al. 2014). DISCUSSION Overlap of flowering time and panicle architecture genetic networks between African and Asian crop species The flowering pathway is a well described pathway in Asian rice O. sativa, with several known key genes (Tsuji et al. 2011; Hori et al. 2016). Based on our expert list of known flowering genes, we were able to show that our method significantly retrieved genes involved in the variability of this trait. We detected candidate regions that co-localize with some previously described flowering genes. Among them, Hd3a and RFT1 are florigen genes homologous to Arabidopsis thaliana FT (Komiya et al. 2008). Hd6 is a flowering repressor, causing late flowering under Long Day (LD) conditions (Ogiso et al. 2010). Overexpression of OsMADS14, a homolog of A. thaliana AP1, has been shown to be responsible for extreme early flowering in Asian rice (Jeon et al. 2000), OsMADS51 is a type I MADS-box gene that has been shown to promote flowering in Short Day (SD) conditions (Kim et al. 2007). OsGI is an ortholog of the A. thaliana GIGANTEA gene and its over-expression in rice leads to late flowering under both SD and LD conditions (Hayama et al. 2003). ETR2, encoding an ethylene receptor, has been shown to delay flowering by regulating the expression of OsGI (Wuriyanghan et al. 2009; Tsuji et al. 2011). Functional characterization of the RCNI gene, homologous to A. thaliana TFL1, showed that this gene can promote late-flowering when overexpressed in transgenic

160 plants (Nakagawa et al. 2002). Finally the phytochrome OsPhyC gene encodes one of the three rice phytochromes and 161 has been shown to be a flowering repressor (Takano et al. 2005). 162 A large number of additional genomic regions (Additional file 7: Table S3) were identified for which further studies 163 should be conducted in order to identify novel genetic diversity relating to the flowering pathway of African rice. The 164 large number of regions observed is to be expected when dealing with polygenic traits and it should be noted that a 165 comparable number of low effect QTLs was previously reported for flowering time in Asian rice on the basis of genetic 166 mapping studies (Hori et al. 2016). 167 Spikelet number per panicle was the main trait contributing to the diversity of panicle architecture observed in this 168 population. No significant SNPs were identified for the SpN trait using any of the 4 models. A possible explanation for 169 this result is that the trait might be associated with a large number of QTLs of low effect sizes, and may consequently be 170 difficult to assess using the present GWAS panel. For panicle traits, the detected peaks were broadly characterized by 171 relatively high p-values, suggesting that the associated morphological traits are highly polygenic with small effect sizes. 172 Some genes previously implicated in the regulation of panicle development and/or architecture in O. sativa (Wang and 173 Li 2011; Teo et al. 2014) were also found to be associated with panicle morphological trait variations in O. glaberrima, 174 indicating a parallel evolution of the trait in the two species. The APO1 gene encodes an ortholog of the A. thaliana 175 UNUSUAL FLOWER ORGAN (UFO) F-box protein and was reported to be involved in the control of rice spikelet 176 number and panicle branching complexity through effects on meristem fate and cell proliferation (Ikeda et al. 2007; 177 Ikeda-Kawakatsu et al. 2009). This gene was also found to be associated with QTLs relating to yield, panicle 178 architecture complexity and lodging resistance in O. sativa (Terao et al. 2010; Ookawa et al. 2010). The 179 OsMADS1/LEAFY HULL STERILE1 (LHS1) gene encodes a SEPALLATA-like MADS-box transcription factor (TF), 180 which promotes the formation of spikelet/floret meristems (Jeon et al. 2000; Agrawal et al. 2005; Khanday et al. 2013). 181 Interestingly, this gene was also identified within a major drought-tolerant QTL (qDTY3.2) (Saikumar et al. 2014) from 182 a cross between O. sativa and O. glaberrima, corresponding to a genomic region associated with response to 183 environmental variables (rOg-BioClim-3). SHORT PANICLE1 (SP1) encodes a putative PTR family transporter, which 184 controls panicle size and branching complexity (Li et al. 2009). The Ghd7.1/Hd2/OsPRR37 gene encodes a PSEUDO-185 RESPONSE REGULATOR (PRR) protein associated with a QTL displaying pleiotropic effects on spikelet number per 186 panicle, plant height and heading date (Liu et al. 2013). 187 Several association studies of panicle morphological trait diversity have been recently conducted for O. sativa (Bai et al. 188 2016; Crowell et al. 2016; Rebolledo et al. 2016; Ta et al. 2018; Yano et al. 2019). Only a few overlaps of GWAS 189 candidates were observed between the two rice crop species. As for the flowering time analysis, a large number of 190 specific genomic regions (Additional file 7: Table S3) were identified. For these regions, further studies should lead to

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the precise identification of genetic elements governing panicle diversity in African rice. Among the genes located in these specific regions, some were previously functionally characterized in O. sativa but without any observations of a direct relationship with panicle development, examples including: OsIPT2 (ADENOSINE PHOSPHATE ISOPENTENYLTRANSFERASE), encoding a cytokinin biosynthetic gene regulated by OsARID3 which is essential for shoot apical meristem (SAM) development in rice (Xu et al. 2015); VERNALIZATION INSENSITIVE 3-LIKE 1 (OsVIL1) which is involved in flowering time through OsLF and GhD7 genes (Jeong et al. 2016); and the ent-kaurene synthase genes OsKS1 and OsKS2, which are involved in GA biosynthesis and associated with a GWAS mega locus related to panicle and yield traits in O. sativa (Sakamoto and Matsuoka 2004; Crowell et al. 2016). Other genes may be of interest on the basis of their annotations and the known functions of their orthologs, examples including: OsGRF5 and GRF7, two members of the GROWTH-REGULATING FACTOR or GRF small gene family encoding TFs associated with SAM maintenance and flowering time in rice (Omidbakhshfard et al. 2015); and AP2_EREBP77 and OsRAV2, two members of the RELATED TO ABI3 AND VP1 or RAV subfamily of AP2/ERF TFs, homologous to the TEM genes from A. thaliana that affect FT induction through the photoperiod and GA pathways (Swaminathan et al. 2008). Quantitative resistance to RYMV in O. glaberrima and major resistance genes The large number of significant SNPs associated with RYMV resistance may reflect the highly quantitative nature of partial resistance. However 83% of significant SNPs were detected only by the EMMA method (1,831 SNPs), suggesting that a high number of false positive SNPs was detected with this method. The regions identified as being associated with resistance against RYMV did not overlap with QTLs of partial resistance against RYMV previously identified in O. sativa (Boisnard et al. 2007), suggesting that different genes and pathways may lead to resistance. However, two major resistance genes against RYMV, RYMV1 and RYMV3, were found to be associated with quantitative resistance. RYMVI encodes a translation initiation factor that acts as a susceptibility factor through its interaction with the genome-linked protein (VPg) of RYMV, which is required for viral infection (Albar et al. 2006; Hébrard et al. 2010). Several different alleles conferring high resistance are known (Thiémélé et al. 2010). The main candidate resistance gene for RYMV3 belongs to the family of nucleotide-binding domain and leucine-rich repeat containing (NLR) genes (Pidon et al. 2017), many of which are involved in pathogen recognition and effector-triggered immunity (de Ronde et al. 2014). NLR genes are known to be frequently organized into clusters and several additional NLR genes, annotated in the close vicinity of the RYMV3 candidate gene, might also be good candidates for quantitative resistance. Translation initiation factors and NLRs are known to act as determinants of high and monogenic resistance (de Ronde et al. 2014; Sanfaçon 2015). Moreover, a role in quantitative resistance has been clearly established for NLRs (Wang et al. 1999; Hayashi et al. 2010) and suggested for translation initiation

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factors (Nicaise et al. 2003; Marandel et al. 2009). The RYMV1 and RYMV3 loci, or adjacent NLR gene loci, might thus harbor both alleles with quantitative effects and alleles with strong effects on RYMV resistance. Similarly, even if the RYMV2 major resistance gene to RYMV was not found to be associated with partial resistance in this study, a previous analysis strongly suggested that RYMV2 might be involved in partial resistance to RYMV in the species O. sativa (Oriuela et al. 2013). In addition to the above, genes encoding protein domains implicated previously in virus resistance, such as lectin (Yamaji et al. 2012) or methrin-TRAF domains (Cosson et al. 2010), were also found to be located in or close to significantly associated regions (Additional file 8: Table S4) and may constitute interesting candidates. Further studies should be conducted on these candidate genes, as well as on the additional genomic regions identified (see Additional file 7: Table S3) in order to describe the diversity of resistance pathways to RYMV in African rice. Relationship between environment-related variables and O. glaberrima diversity We did not find any significant association between the first PCA axis and either the set of bioclimatic variables or the monthly average maximal temperature. This could be explained by a high correlation between the first PCA axis and population genetic structure (Frichot et al. 2015). Correcting for confounding effects did not allow us to detect association at SNPs displaying allelic frequencies that correlated with such a structure. For the second PCA axis, several significant associations were found and interesting genes were identified, including genes related to drought or cold tolerance. Among the most interesting candidates, OsCAX4 is a salt-tolerance gene (Molla et al. 2015), OsAUX is an auxin-responsive gene that has been found to be significantly over-expressed in cold-tolerant seedlings (Dametto et al. 2015) and OsMADS1 is located within a major drought-tolerant QTL (qDTY3.2) detected from a cross between both O. sativa and O. glaberrima (Saikumar et al. 2014). Several candidate regions have been identified that will require a more in-depth study in order to gather variations of interest for breeding purposes (see Additional file 7: Table S3). This is especially true for the temperature-related candidates, the latter being likely targets for genetic improvement in the context of a changing climate. **CONCLUSIONS** We report on the results of an extensive Genome Wide Association Study carried out for several traits on African rice. Analysis of the well-studied character of flowering time enabled us to retrieve a significant number of previously identified genes, thus validating our approach. We also carried out the first GWAS analysis to date of climate variables in relation to African rice, obtaining a list of candidate regions that should be the subject of further studies in order to detect functional variation linked to local adaptation and resistance or tolerance to abiotic stresses.

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The RYMV resistance and panicle architecture traits for which we report significant associations are key agronomic traits that should interest farmers and breeders. Further studies aiming at identifying adaptive polymorphisms among the candidates found in this study and functional validation of candidate genes will be needed to reinforce our results. MATERIAL AND METHODS Genotypic data Single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) from 163 high-depth re-sequenced O. glaberrima accessions were used in this study (Cubry et al. 2018). SNPs were identified based on mapping to the *Oryza sativa japonica* cv. Nipponbare high quality reference genome in terms of assembly and annotation (Kawahara et al. 2013). The bioinformatic mapping pipeline, software and SNP filtering steps that were used are described in Cubry et al. (2018). SNPs with more than 5% missing data (minor fraction of total SNP set) were filtered out (Cubry et al. 2018). As missing data can reduce the power of association studies (Browning 2008; Marchini and Howie 2010), we imputed the remaining missing data based on a matrix factorization approach using the "impute" function from the R package LEA (Frichot and François 2015). This approach uses the results f ancestry estimation from a sparse non-negative matrix factorization (sNMF) analysis to infer missing genotypes (Frichot et al. 2014). In sNMF, we set K to infer four clusters and kept the best out of 10 runs based on a cross entropy criterion. Phenotyping of flowering time and panicle morphology Phenotyping of flowering time and panicle morphology was performed near Banfora (Burkina-Faso) under irrigated field conditions at the Institut de l'Environnement et de Recherches Agricoles (INERA) station in 2012 and 2014. Plants were sown at two different periods in the same year: the first at beginning of June ("early sowing") and second in mid-July ("late sowing"). A total of 15 plants per plot of 0.5 m² were grown. The field trials followed an alpha-lattice design with two replicates (Patterson and Williams 1976) per date of sowing per year. Each single block included 19 accessions (i.e. 19 plots). In total, 87 O. glaberrima accessions were planted in 2012 and 155 in 2014. Flowering date (DFT) was scored when 50% of the plants for a given accession harbored heading panicles. Fourteen days after heading date, the three main panicles from three central plants per plot per repeat were collected (i.e. nine panicles/accession/repeat) from the early sowing. Each panicle was fixed on a white paper board, photographed and phenotyped using the P-TRAP software (AL-Tam et al. 2013). We estimated rachis length (RL), primary branch number (PBN), primary branch average length (PBL), primary branch internode average length (PBintL), secondary

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branch number (SBN), secondary branch internode average length (SBintL) and spikelet number (SpN). All statistical analyses of the dataset were performed using R packages ade4, corrplot and agricolae (R software version 1.2.1335) as described in Ta et al. (2018). RYMV resistance phenotyping Resistance was evaluated based on ELISA performed on infected plants cultivated in the greenhouse, under controlled conditions. As high resistance to RYMV is widely accepted for African rice, we excluded highly resistant accessions, i.e. in which no virus can be detected with ELISA (Thiémélé et al. 2010; Orjuela et al. 2013; Pidon et al. 2017), and we focused only on quantitative resistance. We therefore assessed resistance on a set of 125 accessions. Two varieties were used as susceptibility controls, IR64 (O. sativa ssp. indica) and Nipponbare (O. sativa ssp. japonica), and one as a high resistance control, Tog5681 (O. glaberrima). Three replicate experiments of all varieties were performed. In each experiment, plants were organized in two complete blocks with four plant replicates per accession. Plants were mechanically inoculated three weeks after sowing, as described in Pinel-Galzi et al. (2018) with CI4 isolate of RYMV (Pinel et al. 2000). Four discs of 4 mm diameter were cut on the last emerged leaf of each plant 17 and 20 days after inoculation (dai) and discs from the four plants of the same repeat were pooled. Samples were ground with a OIAGEN TissueLyser II bead mill and resuspended in 750 µL 1X PBST (Phosphate buffer saline with Tween 20). Virus content was estimated by DAS-ELISA (Pinel-Galzi et al. 2018). Preliminary tests on a subset of samples were performed to assess the dilution that best discriminated between samples. ELISA tests were finally performed at dilutions of 1/1,000 for 17 dai sampling date and 1/2,500 for 20 dai sampling date. As virus content was highly correlated between 17 and 20 days after infection (R^2 =0,81), the resistance level was estimated as the mean of the two sampling dates. **Environmental variables** For accessions with geographical sampling coordinates, we retrieved information for 19 climate-related variables (referred to here as bio) from the WORLDCLIM database at a 2.5 minute resolution (Hijmans et al. 2005). We also retrieved the average monthly maximum temperature (referred to here as Tmax). We first performed a Principal Component Analysis (PCA) on each set of variables to build uncorrelated composite variables. PCA were performed using R software (Frichot and François 2015). Association studies were performed using the first two components of

Association studies

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For each trial, SNPs displaying a minimal allele frequency (frequency of the minor allele) lower than 5% were filtered out. We first adjusted a simple linear model (Analysis of variance, ANOVA) to associate phenotype and genotype. This simple method did not take into account any putative confounding factor and allowed us to assess whether taking into account relatedness and/or population structure could reduce false positive rates. Two classes of methods accounting for confounding factors were used: 1) mixed models using kinship matrix and/or population structure (Yu et al. 2006); and 2) latent factor methods (Frichot et al. 2013). We used both mixed linear models MLM (Zhang et al. 2010) as implemented in GAPIT R package (Lipka et al. 2012) and EMMA (Kang et al. 2008) as implemented in R package EMMA. For EMMA, the kinship matrix was estimated using the emma.kinship function. For MLM (Q+K model), the kinship (K matrix) was computed using the Van Raden method and the first three principal components of a PCA of genomic data were used as the Q matrix. Finally, we used latent factor methods (Frichot et al. 2013) that jointly estimated associations between genotype and phenotype and confounding factors. We used the R packages LFMM2 (Caye et al. 2019) and CATE (Wang et al. 2017) to perform these analyses. For LFMM2, we first made the estimation of the confounding factors by using a subset of SNPs obtained by applying a 20% MAF filter, and we considered four latent factors (Cubry et al. 2018). We then used the resulting confounding matrix for the analysis of genotype/phenotype association. For CATE, we considered all SNPs and we assumed four confounding factors in the association model. The results of all analyses were graphically represented by using a QQ-plot to assess confounding factor correction and Manhattan plots (R package qqman, Turner 2014). We used a false discovery rate (FDR) of 5% to select candidate SNPs for each method. FDR estimation was realized using the R package qualue (Storey et al. 2019). GWAS analysis was performed separately for each year and trial (see Additional file 1: Table S1). P-values obtained for the same traits or the same planting data were combined across experiments using Fisher's method (Sokal and Rohlf 2012). The final list of candidate SNPs was established for each trait by considering SNPs detected by at least one method. Annotation of retained candidate SNPs was performed using the SNPeff annotation data for MSU7 (Kawahara et al. 2013), considering genes within the region 25kb upstream and 25kb downstream from each detected SNP. We used the funRiceGenes database (http://funricegenes.ncpgr.cn; Yao et al. 2018) to extract gene symbols and associated functional information whenever possible. Finally, for flowering traits, we established a list of known genes of particular interest from published data (Tsuji et al. 2011; Hori et al. 2016). This "expert" list was then used to assess the performance of our GWAS approach to retrieve these potential candidates. We used a G-test to assess enrichment of candidates in our list of identified genes. Gene ontology (GO) term enrichment tests for biological process, cellular component and molecular function terms were performed using the Fisher exact test implemented in the R package TopGO (Alexa et al. 2006).

List of abbreviations ANOVA - Analysis of Variance BioPC1 – First principal component of PCA on bioclimatic variables BioPC2 – Second principal component of PCA on bioclimatic variables dai – Days after inoculation DFT – Days to flowering ELISA - Enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay FDR - False discovery rate GO - Gene ontology GWAS - Genome wide association study INERA – Institut de l'environnement et de recherches agricoles LD – Long days NLR - Nucleotide binding leucine rich repeat PbintL – Primary branch internode average length PBL - Primary branch average length PBN - Primary branch number PCA – Principle component analysis QTL – Quantitative trait locus QQ-plot – quantile-quantile plot RL - Rachis length RYMV - Rice yellow mottle virus SbintL – Secondary branch internode average length SBN – Secondary branch number SD -Short days SpN – Spikelet number SNP – Single nucleotide polymorphism TF - Transcription factor TmaxPC1 – First principal component of PCA on maximal temperature variables

TmaxPC2 – Second principal component of PCA on maximal temperature variables

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Acknowledgements

Declarations Ethics approval and consent to participate Not applicable Consent for publication Not applicable Availability of data and material All customized R scripts are available as a GitHub repository: https://github.com/Africrop/gwas african rice. The repository also contains the imputed genotypic data used here to reproduce exactly the same analysis. Phenotypic data are provided as supplemental material. **Competing interests** The authors declare that they have no competing interests. **Funding** This work was supported by a grant from the France Génomique French National infrastructure and funded as part of "Investissement d'avenir" (ANR-10-INBS-09) and the IRIGIN project (http://irigin.org) to FS, an ANR grant (ANR-13-BSV7-0017) to YV, and a grant from Agropolis Foundation (through the « Investissements d'avenir » programme (ANR-10-LABX-0001-01) and Fondazione Cariplo under the reference ID EVOREPRICE 1201-004 to SJ. YV is also supported by the Agropolis Resources Center for Crop Conservation, Adaptation and Diversity (ARCAD) with support from the European Union FEDER program and from the Agropolis Foundation. PC was supported by an ANR grant (AfriCrop project, ANR-13-BSV7-0017). The French Ministère de l'Enseignement Supérieur et de la Recherche provided a PhD grant to HP. MH was supported by the CGIAR research program on rice. **Authors' contributions** YV, LA, SJ and FS planned and supervised the study. HP, TKN, SJ, LA, HA, HK, HC and AG participated in data generation and collection management. PC, TKN, HP, CTD, ACT, MH, OF, FS, YV, SJ and LA participated in the statistical analysis. PC, HP, FS, YV, LA and SJ wrote the manuscript. All the authors read and agreed the manuscript.

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We thank Ndomassi Tando and the IRD itrop "Plantes Santé" bioinformatic platform for providing HPC resources and support for our research project. We thank Mikael Valéro for technical help in RYMV resistance evaluation. The authors thank staff from INERA station at Banfora (Burkina Faso) for support for field experiment and phenotype scoring, and Ha Thi Loan from LMI RICE (Vietnam) for panicle trait scoring. We also thank Dr James Tregear, IRD, for his careful reading and language editing of the manuscript. REFERENCES Agrawal GK, Abe K, Yamazaki M, et al (2005) Conservation of the E-function for Floral Organ Identity in Rice Revealed by the Analysis of Tissue Culture-induced Loss-of-Function Mutants of the OsMADS1 Gene. Plant Mol Biol 59:125–135. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11103-005-2161-y Albar L, Bangratz-Reyser M, Hébrard E, et al (2006) Mutations in the eIF(iso)4G translation initiation factor confer high resistance of rice to Rice yellow mottle virus. Plant J 47:417–426. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-313X.2006.02792.x Alexa A, Rahnenführer J, Lengauer T (2006) Improved scoring of functional groups from gene expression data by decorrelating GO graph structure. Bioinformatics 22:1600–1607. https://doi.org/10.1093/bioinformatics/btl140 AL-Tam F, Adam H, Anjos A dos, et al (2013) P-TRAP: a Panicle Trait Phenotyping tool. BMC Plant Biol 13:122. https://doi.org/10.1186/1471-2229-13-122 Bai X, Zhao H, Huang Y, et al (2016) Genome-wide association analysis reveals different genetic control in panicle architecture between *indica* and *japonica* Rice. Plant Genome 9. https://doi.org/10.3835/plantgenome2015.11.0115 Boisnard A, Albar L, Thiéméle D, et al (2007) Evaluation of genes from eIF4E and eIF4G multigenic families as potential candidates for partial resistance QTLs to Rice yellow mottle virus in rice. Theor Appl Genet 116:53– 62. https://doi.org/10.1007/s00122-007-0646-6 Browning SR (2008) Missing data imputation and haplotype phase inference for genome-wide association studies. Hum Genet 124:439–450. https://doi.org/10.1007/s00439-008-0568-7 Caye K, Jumentier B, Lepeule J, François O (2019) LFMM 2: Fast and Accurate Inference of Gene-Environment Associations in Genome-Wide Studies. Mol Biol Evol 36:852–860. https://doi.org/10.1093/molbev/msz008 Choi JY, Zaidem M, Gutaker R, et al (2019) The complex geography of domestication of the African rice Oryza glaberrima. PLOS Genet 15:e1007414. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pgen.1007414 Cosson P, Sofer L, Le QH, et al (2010) RTM3, which controls long-distance movement of potyviruses, is a member of a new plant gene family encoding a meprin and TRAF homology domain-containing protein. Plant Physiol 154:222--232. https://doi.org/10.1104/pp.110.155754 Crowell S, Korniliev P, Falcão A, et al (2016) Genome-wide association and high-resolution phenotyping link *Oryza* sativa panicle traits to numerous trait-specific QTL clusters. Nat Commun 7:1–14. https://doi.org/10.1038/ncomms10527 Cubry P, Tranchant-Dubreuil C, Thuillet A-C, et al (2018) The rise and fall of African rice cultivation revealed by analysis of 246 new genomes. Curr Biol 28:2274-2282.e6. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cub.2018.05.066 Dametto A, Sperotto RA, Adamski JM, et al (2015) Cold tolerance in rice germinating seeds revealed by deep RNAseq analysis of contrasting indica genotypes. Plant Sci 238:1-12. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.plantsci.2015.05.009 de Ronde D, Butterbach P, Kormelink R (2014) Dominant resistance against plant viruses. Front Plant Sci 5. https://doi.org/10.3389/fpls.2014.00307

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Table 1. Numbers of significant SNPs, regions and genes found to be associated with the different traits.

Significant SNPs were detected with the different models using the Fisher combination method and based on a FDR 5% threshold. The "All methods" column indicates the number of SNPs detected with at least one method. Fifty kb windows around these SNPs defined independent genomic regions associated with each trait.

Significant SNPs						Regions	Genes	
Trait	EMMA	GAPIT	LFMM	CATE	All methods			
BioPC1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
BioPC2	47	0	38	42	52	17	128	
TmaxPC1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
TmaxPC2	2,308	78	1,559	1,656	2,378	228	1,946	
Early Sowing	850	0	1,343	1,044	1,450	80	732	
Late Sowing	251	0	2,042	2,535	2,649	134	1,223	
RYMV	2,171	387	197	156	2,264	257	2,248	
SpN	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
PBN	0	0	0	257	257	25	243	
SBN	1	0	0	0	1	1	10	
RL	243	0	0	0	243	38	361	
PBL	0	0	56	54	57	12	91	
PBintL	1	0	0	1	1	1	9	
SBintL	123	0	281	454	455	30	266	

Table 2. List of the main candidate genes identified in regions associated with RYMV resistance, flowering time, panicle architecture and climate variation.

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Trait	Region	Chrom.	Locus name (MSU)	Gene symbol	Annotation	Function	References	
RYMV resistance	rOg-RYMV-77	11	LOC_Os11g43700		RGH1A_C_putative_C_expressed	candidate for resistance to RYMV, NLR gene	Pidon et al. 2016	doi: 10.1007/s00122- 017-2853-0
	rOg-RYMV-159	4	LOC_Os04g42140	Rymv1/eIF(is o)4G	eukaryotic_initiation_factor_iso- 4F_subunit_p82- 34_C_putative_C_expressed	resistance to RYMV	Albar et al. 2006	doi: 10.1111/j.1365- 313X.2006.02792.x
Flowering time	rOg-Flower-2	1	LOC_Os01g08700	OsGI	GIGANTEA_C_putative_C_expre ssed	Circadian rhythm/Flowering activator	Hayama et al. 2002	doi: 10.1093/pcp/pcf059
	rOg-Flower-29	1	LOC_Os01g69850	OsMADS51	OsMADS65MADS- box_family_gene_with_MIKC_A_ type-box_C_expressed	SD activator	Kim et al. 2007	doi: 10.1104/pp.107.10329 1
	rOg-Flower-71	3	LOC_Os03g54160	OsMADS14	OsMADS14MADS- box_family_gene_with_MIKCc_ty pe-box_C_expressed	Floral transition	Kim et al. 2007	doi: 10.1104/pp.107.10329 1
	rOg-Flower-71	3	LOC_Os03g54084	OsPhyC	phytochrome_C_C_putative_C_ex pressed	LD repressor		
	rOg-Flower-72	3	LOC_Os03g55389	Hd6/CK2α	casein_kinase_II_subunit_alpha- 1_C_putative_C_expressed	LD repressor	Ogiso et al. 2010	doi: 10.1104/pp.109.14890 8
	rOg-Flower-83	4	LOC_Os04g08740	ETR2	ethylene_receptor_C_putative_C_e xpressed	Ethylene receptor	Wuriyanghan et al. 2009	doi: 10.1105/tpc.108.0653
	rOg-Flower-114	6	LOC_Os06g06320	Hd3a	osFTL2FT- Like2_homologous_to_Flowering_ Locus_Tgene	Florigen	Kojima et al. 2002	doi: 10.1093/pcp/pcf156
	rOg-Flower-114	6	LOC_Os06g06300	RFT1	osFTL3_FT- Like3_homologous_to_Flowering_ Locus_Tgene	Florigen	Kojima et al. 2002	doi: 10.1093/pcp/pcf156
	rOg-Flower-168	11	LOC_Os11g05470	RCN1	RCN1_Centroradialis-like1_homogous_to_TFL1_gene	Similar to phosphatidylethan olamine-binding protein	Nakagawa et al. 2002	doi: 10.1046/j.1365- 313X.2002.01255.x
Panicle	rOg-PAN-22	3	LOC_Os03g11614	OsMADS1/LH S1/AFO	OsMADS1MADS- box_family_gene_with_MIKCc_ty pe-box_C_expressed	Spikelet meristem determinancy and floral organ	Jeon et al. 2000	doi: 10.1105/tpc.12.6.871

						identity		
	rOg-PAN-59	6	LOC_Os06g45460	APO1/OsAPO 1/SCM2	OsFBX202F- box_domain_containing_protein_C _expressed	Inflorescence form, Loading resistance and grain yield	Ikeda et al. 2007	doi: 10.1111/j.1365- 313X.2007.03200.x
	rOg-PAN-65	7	LOC_Os07g49460	Ghd7.1/Hd2/ OsPRR37/DT H7	$\begin{tabular}{ll} response_regulator_receiver_doma\\ in_containing_protein_C_expresse\\ d \end{tabular}$	Heading date, inflorescence form and grain yield	Liu et al. 2013	doi: 10.1111/jipb.12070
	rOg-PAN-91	11	LOC_Os11g12740	SP1	$peptide_transporter_PTR2_C_put a \\tive_C_expressed$	Panicle elongation	Li et al. 2009	doi: 10.1111/j.1365-313X.2009.03799.x.
Environment	rOg-BioClim-2	2	LOC_Os02g04630	OsCAX4	sodium_Fcalcium_exchanger_prot ein_C_putative_C_expressed	Salt tolerance gene	Molla et al. 2015	doi: 10.1186/s12870- 015-0498-1
	rOg-BioClim-3	3	LOC_Os03g11614	,	OsMADS1MADS- box_family_gene_with_MIKCc_ty pe-box_C_expressed	candidate for drought tolerance	Saikumar et al. 2014	doi: 10.1016/j.fcr.2014.03. 011
	rOg-BioClim-4	3	LOC_Os03g53150	OsIAA13/OsiI AA1/OsAUX	OsIAA13Auxin-responsive_Aux_FIAA_gene_family_member_C_expressed	differentially expressed between cold- sensistive and cold-tolerant genotypes during seed germination	Dametto et al. 2015	doi: 10.1016/j.plantsci.20 15.05.009

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FIGURE CAPTIONS Figure 1. Manhattan plots of LFMM association results for flowering time assessed for early (upper pane) and late (lower pane) sowing. The red line indicates the 5% FDR threshold. Known Asian rice flowering genes found in the vicinity of significant SNPs are indicated. Figure 2. Details of Manhattan plots obtained with LFMM on regions associated to RYMV resistance on chromosome 4 (A) and 11 (B). The 5% FDR threshold is represented by a red horizontal line. Positions of the major resistance genes RYMV1 and RYMV3 are indicated by plain blue lines and positions of other NLR genes on chromosome 11 are indicated by dotted blue lines. ADDITIONAL FILE CAPTIONS Additional file 1 Table S1. Phenotypic data used for genome-wide association analyses. Flowering time (DFT), rachis length (RL), primary branch number (PBN), primary branch average length (PBL), primary branch internode average length (PBintL), secondary branch number (SBN), secondary branch internode average length (SBintL) and spikelet number (SpN) were evaluated in field conditions in 2012 and 2014. Resistance to RYMV was evaluated in greenhouse conditions during three experiments (RYMV1, RYMV2, RYMV3) shifted of about 1-2 months. Environmental data were extracted from the worldclim database at available sampling locations. A Principal Component Analysis was then performed on i) the whole set of variables and ii) only maximal temperature related ones. The two first axes of both these PCA were then used for association analyses and are reported in this table. Additional file 2. Manhattan plots and QQ plots for flowering time. Association analysis was performed on both early and late plant sowings. The 5% FDR thresholds are indicated by red lines. Additional file 3. Manhattan plots and QQ plots for panicle architecture related traits. Association analysis was performed independently for each trait and repetition. P-values obtained for each replicate were then combined using a Fisher method to obtain final p-values for each trait. The 5% FDR thresholds are indicated by red lines. Additional file 4. Manhattan plots and QQ plots for RYMV resistance. The three replicates of phenotypic evaluation were combined based on a Fisher method. The 5% FDR thresholds are indicated by red lines. Additional file 5. Manhattan plots and QQ plots for environmental data. The 5% FDR thresholds are indicated by red lines. Additional file 6 Table S2. List of the SNPs associated with eleven different phenotypic traits. Significant SNPs were identified based on four different models (EMMA, CATE, LFMM and GAPIT), the Fisher method to combine several repetitions of phenotypic data and a 5% FDR threshold. For each trait, the p-values obtained with the different models are indicated if significant. Additional file 7 Table S3. List of the genomic regions associated with five different categories of phenotypic traits. Regions were defined based on 50 kb windows around the significant SNPs detected with any of the four models. Overlapping regions were combined into a single one. The chromosome (Chr), the starting (Position 1) and

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ending (Position 2) positions, the size of the region (Intervals) in base pairs and the number of significant SNPs included (Sign_SNPs_nb) are indicated. Sheets "RYMV", "Tmax", BioClim" concerned the regions identified for the resistance to RYMV, the maximum temperature related variables and the whole set of bioclimatic variables, respectively. The sheet "Flowering" concerned regions identified with the early sowing flowering time (Early) or the late sowing flowering time (Late) traits, as indicated in the two last columns. The sheet "Panicle" concerned regions identified with rachis length (RL), primary branch number (PBN), primary branch average length (PBL), primary branch internode average length (PBintL), secondary branch number (SBN), secondary branch internode average length (SBintL) and spikelet number (SpN), as indicated in the last columns. Additional file 8_Table S4. List of genes located in each of the regions associated with five categories of phenotypic traits. Additional file 9_Table S5. Expert list of genes previously described as involved in flowering time in Asian rice and test of enrichment of the list of genes detected by our association analysis. Fold-enrichment and G-test associated p-value are reported. Additional file 10_Table S6. GO terms tables. GO term analyses were run independently for each trait (TmaxPC2, BioPC2, Flowering Time, Panicle, and RYMV). Results are shown for each trait and for the three GO term categories (Biological processes, Cellular components, Molecular functions).



