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Orthogonal contrast based models for quantitative genetic analysis in autotetraploid species

Luo, Zewei; Leach, Lindsey; Chen, Jing

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1	Orthogonal Contrast Based Models for Quantitative Genetic Analysis in Autotetraploid Species
2	
3	Jing Chen ^{1*} , Fengjun Zhang ^{2*} , Lin Wang ² , Lindsey Leach ¹ and Zewei Luo ^{1,2@}
4	
5	^{1.} School of Biosciences, The University of Birmingham, Birmingham B15 2TT, UK
6	^{2.} Institute of Biostatistics and Genetics, Fudan University, Shanghai 200433, China
7	
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28	@ The corresponding authorship
29	Prof. Zewei Luo
30	School of Biosciences
31	The University of Birmingham
32	Edgbaston, Birmingham B15 2TT, United Kingdom
33	Tel: +44 121 414 5404
34	Fax: +44 121 414 5925
35	E-mail: <u>z.luo@bham.ac.uk</u> or zwluo@fudan.edu.cn
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37		Summary (200 words)
38	٠	Dissecting the genetic architecture of quantitative traits is a crucial goal for efficient
39		breeding of polyploid plants, including autotetraploid crop species, such as potato and coffee,
40		and ornamentals such as rose. To meet this goal, a quantitative genetic model is needed to
41		link the genetic effects of genes or genotypes at quantitative trait loci to the phenotype of
42		quantitative traits.
43	•	We present a statistically tractable quantitative genetic model for autotetraploids based on
44		orthogonal contrast comparisons in the general linear model. The new methods are suitable
45		for autotetraploid species with any population genetic structure and take full account of the
46		essential features of autotetrasomic inheritance. The statistical properties of the new
47		methods are explored and compared to an alternative method in the literature by simulation

- 48 studies.
- We have shown how these methods can be applied for quantitative genetic analysis in autotetraploids by analysing trait phenotype data from an autotetraploid potato segregating population. Using trait segregation analysis, we showed that both highly heritable traits of flowering time and plant height were under the control of major QTL.
- The orthogonal model directly dissects genetic variance into independent components and
 gives consistent estimates of genetic effects provided that tetrasomic gene segregation is
 considered.
- 56
- Key words: autotetraploids, double reduction, orthogonal, polyploid, potato, quantitative genetic
 model
- 59

60 Introduction

Polyploidy plays an important role in the evolution of eukaryotes, especially for flowering plants, 61 all of which have undergone at least one round of polyploidization in their evolutionary history 62 63 (Otto & Whitton, 2000; Jiao et al., 2011). Between 30-80% of species are currently polyploids, 64 while the rest exist as paleopolyploids (Wolfe, 2001), having undergone a gradual process of "diploidization" over evolutionary time. Many of the world's most important crop species are either 65 66 autopolyploid, for example, the autotetraploid potato, coffee, and alfalfa, or allopolyploid, including 67 wheat, oats and canola. Several economically important aquaculture animals are also autotetraloids, 68 including Atlantic salmon and trout (Danzmann & Garbi, 2001; Vaughn et al., 2007). Therefore, in 69 order to address the global food security crisis, rigorous genetic analysis of autopolyploid species 70 becomes a timely task.

71

Most biological characters important in organismal evolution and relevant to plant and animal breeding, such as reproductive isolation, yield, quality and resistance to biotic and abiotic stresses, are quantitative traits affected by genes at more than a single locus, as well as by environmental factors. Understanding the polygenic architecture underlying such quantitative traits is essential to enable their genetic improvement as part of effective plant or animal breeding programs. However, progress in quantitative genetic analysis in polyploid species lags far behind compared to that achieved in diploids for several major reasons.

79

80 Firstly, polyploids display a much more complicated pattern of gene segregation and recombination 81 than diploids. For example, multiple alleles at individual loci of polyploids cause a substantially 82 wider spectrum of genotypic segregation. In autopolyploids, multivalent pairing of homologous 83 chromosomes during meiosis may result in the phenomenon of double reduction, in which identical 84 alleles carried on sister chromatids enter into the same gamete, resulting in systematic allelic 85 segregation distortion. Our studies (Luo et al., 2006a) show that recombination frequency between a pair of loci can be as high as 75% under a tetrasomic model (compared to 50% in diploids) and that 86 87 double reduction can occur at a frequency of 25%, showing the remarkable difference in the pattern 88 of gene segregation and recombination between diploid and autopolyploid species. These factors 89 have made polysomic genetic analysis one of the most challenging topics in theoretical and applied 90 genetics since the pioneering works of quantitative geneticists such as Haldane, Mather and Fisher 91 (Haldane, 1930; Mather, 1936; Fisher, 1947).

92

93 Secondly, the evolution of polyploid genomes is an extremely dynamic process compared to that of 94 diploids, characterized by extensive genetic and epigenetic changes occurring in the nuclear 95 genome following polyploidization (Soltis & Soltis, 1995; Song *et al.*, 1995; Comai *et al.*, 2000; 96 Adams & Wendel, 2005). Genome structure and function of polyploids may therefore differ 97 markedly from that of their diploid relatives. This necessitates that breeding programs targeted at 98 improving genetic performance of an autopolyploid species should ideally be conducted at the 99 polyploid level rather than with its diploid counterparts.

100

101 The quantitative genetic model which links genetic effects of genes or genotypes at quantitative trait 102 loci to the phenotype of quantitative traits is an essential basis for any quantitative genetic analysis. 103 The theory and methods for modelling and analysing quantitative genetic effects have been well 104 established and routinely practised in diploid species (Mather & Jinks, 1971; Falconer, 1989; Lynch 105 & Walsh, 1998). In contrast, there are no methods currently available for modelling quantitative 106 genetic effects in autotetraploids that take proper account of the complex features of autotetrasomic 107 inheritance.

108

Early models for the quantitative genotypic effects at a single locus in randomly mating autotetraploid populations (Kempthorne, 1955; Kempthorne, 1957) were intractable for real data analysis because they involve a large number of genetic parameters. Li (1957) developed a simplified two-allele version of Kempthorne's model and proposed successive linear regression of genetic values of genotypes onto the corresponding frequencies in a tetraploid population under Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium (HWE). This model allowed genetic variance at a single locus to be represented by only four major components.

116

117 Mather and Jinks (1971) extended their concept of additive and dominance effects for quantitative 118 genetic analysis in diploids to define these effects in tetraploids (Mather & Jinks, 1971). Analysis with any quantitative genetic model involves the distribution of genotypes at quantitative trait loci 119 (QTL) in the population under study. In autotetraploids, this distribution depends on the coefficient 120 of double reduction (Luo et al., 2004). Killick (1971) therefore explored the influence of double 121 122 reduction on Mather and Jink's additive-dominance model for autotetraploids. Nevertheless, all of 123 the classical additive-dominance models developed either for diploids, autotetraploids, or more 124 recently autohexaploids (van Geest et al., 2017), share the undesirable property of correlation 125 between estimates of different types of effects in the model (Li, 1957; Killick, 1971; Wright, 1979; 126 Li et al., 2010; van Geest et al., 2017). This correlation structure may bias estimation of the model 127 parameters and variance components of the genetic effects. Addressing this limitation, Cockerham 128 (1954) pioneered in developing a quantitative genetic model for diploids based on the principle of orthogonal linear comparison, which enables phenotypic variation of a quantitative trait to be 129

partitioned in a way that ensures independence between different model effects, enabling directdissection of genetic variance into independent components (Cockerham, 1954).

132

133 This paper presents a novel and statistically tractable tetrasomic quantitative genetic model based 134 on orthogonal contrasts that are suitable for use with either natural or artificially created populations 135 of autotetraploid species. The model represents the first example of quantitative genetic models for 136 autotetraploids that take account of the essential features of tetrasomic inheritance, including double 137 reduction, while retaining computational feasibility. The statistical properties of these new models 138 are explored and compared with another method in the literature by computer simulation analyses. 139 We have demonstrated their utility in quantitative genetic analyses of autotetraploid species by 140 analysing trait phenotype data from an outbred segregating population of autotetraploid potato.

- 141
- 142

Materials and Methods

143 General one locus model

144 We first consider segregation of two alleles (A and a) at a single locus in an autotetraploid population. There are a total of 5 possible genotypes at the biallelic locus, namely AAAA 145 146 (quadruplex), AAAa (triplex), AAaa (duplex), Aaaa (simplex) and aaaa (nulliplex). The *i*th 147 genotype $A_{i}a_{4-i}$, is defined with a genotypic value of G_{i} and its frequency in the population is 148 denoted by f_i , with i = 0, 1, ..., 4 indicating the number of A alleles involved in the genotype, as 149 shown in Table 1. In practice, there may be more than two QTL alleles. However, these may be 150 grouped into the two classes of either increasing alleles or decreasing alleles, based on their effects 151 on the trait phenotype. This effectively reduces the maximum number of possible genotypes at a locus down to 5 (++++, +++-,++--,+---) in any population, creating a tractable model. 152

153

154 We define here the genotypic effect for an individual through a regression model of allelic effects

- 155
- 156 157

$$G = \mu + x_1\theta_1 + x_2\theta_2 + x_3\theta_3 + x_4\theta_4$$
 Eqn 1

where μ is the population mean, and θ_i (i = 1, ..., 4) are accordingly the monogenic, digenic, trigenic and quadrigenic genetic effects of the QTL, and x_i (i = 1, ..., 4) are the corresponding genetic effect design variables. The monogenic effect will always be positive and represents the average effect caused by substituting allele *A* for allele *a* at the QTL. The digenic effect represents the average interaction effect between two alleles in a tetraploid genotype, denoted I_{Aa} in the biallelic model. The trigenic effect represents the average interaction effects among three alleles. Existence of a trigenic effect means that the interaction between two alleles differs according to the identity of the

third allele. In the model, there are two different three-way interactions, given by I_{AAa} and I_{Aaa} . 165 The quadrigenic effect represents the average interaction effects among four alleles. Existence of 166 167 quadrigenic effects means that the interaction between two alleles differs depending on the identity 168 of the third and fourth alleles. In the biallelic model, there are three different four-way interactions, given by I_{AAAa} , I_{AAaa} and I_{Aaaa} . If there are no two-way, (three-way, four-way) allelic interactions, 169 then the corresponding monogenic (trigenic, quadrigenic) genetics effects will be equal to zero. A 170 171 more detailed explanation of the genetic effects is given in Supporting Information Method S1, Fig. 172 S1 and Table S1.

173

174 Estimation of genetic effects in the one locus model

In a natural autotetraploid population, genotypic frequencies vary across different loci in the genome and are usually not in Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium (Luo *et al.*, 2000). Orthogonal contrasts provide a way to partition genetic variance into independent components (Zeng *et al.*, 2005). We propose here general orthogonal scales w_{ij} for the genetic effects of genotype *i* for the *j*th contrast (*j* = 1,2,...,4), corresponding to monogenic, digenic, trigenic and quadrigenic genetic effects. The orthogonal scales are summarized in Table 1 and must satisfy a number of requirements to ensure that the comparisons are orthogonal, *i.e.* uncorrelated, as follows.

182
$$\sum_{i=0}^{4} f_i = 1$$
; and

183 1). For monogenic effects w_{i1} (i = 0, 1, ..., 4)

184
$$\begin{cases} \sum_{k=0}^{4} w_{k1} f_k = 0\\ w_{i1} = w_{01} + i \end{cases} \quad (i = 1, \mathsf{K}, 4) \end{cases}$$

185 2). For digenic effects w_{i2} (*i* = 0, 1, ..., 4)

186
$$\begin{cases} w_{(i+1)2} - 2w_{i2} + w_{(i-1)2} = 1 & (i = 1, 2, 3) \\ \sum_{k=0}^{4} w_{k2} f_{k} = 0 \\ \sum_{k=0}^{4} w_{k2} w_{k1} f_{k} = 0 \end{cases}$$

187 3). For trigenic effects, w_{i3} (*i* = 0, 1, ..., 4)

188

$$\begin{cases}
w_{(i+1)3} - 3w_{i3} + 3w_{(i-1)3} - w_{(i-2)3} = 1 \quad (i = 2, 3) \\
\sum_{k=0}^{4} w_{k3} f_{k} = 0 \\
\sum_{k=0}^{4} w_{k3} w_{k1} f_{k} = 0 \\
\sum_{k=0}^{4} w_{k3} w_{k2} f_{k} = 0
\end{cases}$$

4). For quadrigenic effects, w_{i4} (i = 0, 1, ..., 4)

190
$$\begin{cases} w_{44} - 4w_{34} + 6w_{24} - 4w_{14} + w_{04} = 1\\ \sum_{k=0}^{4} w_{k4}f_k = 0\\ \sum_{k=0}^{4} w_{k4}w_{k1}f_k = 0\\ \sum_{k=0}^{4} w_{k4}w_{k2}f_k = 0\\ \sum_{k=0}^{4} w_{k4}w_{k3}f_k = 0 \end{cases}$$

The above 1) - 4) ensure the key statistical properties of the orthogonal model as shown by Eqn (1). Firstly, $\sum_{i=0}^{4} w_{ij} f_i = 0$ for j = 1, ..., 4 ensures the statistical definition of w_{ij} as contrast scales, which in turn define the design variables x_i in Eqn (1). Secondly, $\sum_{i=0}^4 w_{ij} w_{ik} f_i = 0$ for $1 \le j \ne k \le 4$ ensures the orthogonality between the contrast scales w_{ij} and w_{ik} (i = 0, ..., 4; $1 \le j \ne k \le 4$). The orthogonal scales calculated as above are then used to derive the genetic effect design variables in Eqn (1) as below

$$x_{j} = \begin{cases} w_{4j} & \text{if } G \text{ is } AAAA \\ w_{3j} & \text{if } G \text{ is } AAAa \\ w_{2j} & \text{if } G \text{ is } AAaa \\ w_{1j} & \text{if } G \text{ is } Aaaa \\ w_{0j} & \text{if } G \text{ is } aaaa \end{cases} \qquad (j = 1, 2, \dots, 4)$$

We can then express the orthogonal model for the QTL effects at locus A in a matrix form given by

 $G_{A} = \begin{vmatrix} G_{4} \\ G_{3} \\ G_{2} \\ G_{1} \\ G_{2} \end{vmatrix} = S_{A}E_{A} = \begin{vmatrix} 1 & w_{41} & w_{42} & w_{43} & w_{44} \\ 1 & w_{31} & w_{32} & w_{33} & w_{34} \\ 1 & w_{21} & w_{22} & w_{23} & w_{24} \\ 1 & w_{11} & w_{12} & w_{13} & w_{14} \\ 1 & w_{01} & w_{02} & w_{02} & w_{04} \end{vmatrix} \begin{vmatrix} \mu \\ \theta_{1} \\ \theta_{2} \\ \theta_{3} \\ \theta_{4} \end{vmatrix}$ Eqn 2

where S_A is the genetic effects design matrix and E_A is the genetic effects of the QTL genotypes, which can be calculated from

 $E_A = S_A^{-1} G_A$ Eqn 3

Accordingly, the five QTL genotypic values can be specified under the orthogonal model as

212
$$G_i = \mu + w_{i1}\theta_1 + w_{i2}\theta_2 + w_{i3}\theta_3 + w_{i4}\theta_4 \quad (i = 0, 1, ..., 4)$$

The total genetic variance V_G , contributed by allele segregation at the QTL, can be partitioned into four independent components of variance. Each variance component is contributed by its own corresponding genetic parameter as

217

218

$$\sigma_t^2 = \frac{\left(\sum_{i=0}^4 f_i G_i w_{it}\right)^2}{\left(\sum_{i=0}^4 f_i w_{it}^2\right)}$$
 Eqn 4

219

where t = 1, 2, ..., 4 corresponds to the four orthogonal scales defined for the monogenic, digenic, trigenic and quadrigenic genetic effects, and i (= 0, 1, ..., 4) indicates the number of A alleles in the QTL genotype. The significance of the estimated genetic effects can be tested using the one- or two-tailed *t*-test, with the standard error given by $\sqrt{\sigma_{t}^{2}} / \sqrt{n}$ (degree of freedom equals to *n*-4),

224 where $\sigma_t^{\prime 2}$ is the estimated variance for the t^{th} contrast and can be calculated by $\hat{\sigma}_e^2 \cdot \sum_{i=0}^4 w_{it}^2 / f_i$,

where $\hat{\sigma}_{e}^{2}$ is the estimated residual variance and *n* is the sample size. In this work, we characterize and illustrate the model (1) in two specific populations, an S₂ population (below) and a randomly mating population (Supporting Information Method S2), though the model is generic for populations with any given genetic structure. It should be noted that the variance components here refer to genetic variances contributed by monogenic, digenic, trigenic or quadrigenic effects in the model, rather than the variances of the contrasts.

231

232 One locus model for an S₂ population

In the second generation segregating population, denoted by $S_{2,}$ created from crossing two parental autotetraploid lines with genotypes *AAAA* and *aaaa*, the frequencies of the offspring genotypes can be expressed in terms of α , the coefficient of double reduction at the QTL, as, $f_0 = (1+2\alpha)^2/36$, $f_1 = 2(1-\alpha)(1+2\alpha)/9$, $f_2 = [3-4\alpha(1-\alpha)]/6$, $f_3 = 2(1-\alpha)(1+2\alpha)/9$ and $f_4 = (1+2\alpha)^2/36$. The corresponding orthogonal contrast scales are summarized in Table 2. The genotypic values $G_A =$ $(G_4 G_3 G_2 G_1 G_0)^T$ can be presented in a matrix form given by

239
240
$$G_{A} = S_{A}E_{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & (5-2\alpha)/3 & 2(1-\alpha)/3 & (1-\alpha)(4\alpha^{2}-4\alpha+3)/(12(2+\alpha)) \\ 1 & 1 & (1-4\alpha)/6 & -(1+2\alpha)/6 & -(1+2\alpha)(4\alpha^{2}-4\alpha+3)/(24(2+\alpha)) \\ 1 & 0 & -(1+2\alpha)/3 & 0 & (1-\alpha)(2\alpha+1)^{2}/(12(2+\alpha)) \\ 1 & -1 & (1-4\alpha)/6 & (1+2\alpha)/6 & -(1+2\alpha)(4\alpha^{2}-4\alpha+3)/(24(2+\alpha)) \\ 1 & -2 & (5-2\alpha)/3 & -2(1-\alpha)/3 & (1-\alpha)(4\alpha^{2}-4\alpha+3)/(12(2+\alpha)) \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mu \\ \theta_{1} \\ \theta_{2} \\ \theta_{3} \\ \theta_{4} \end{bmatrix}$$

241 242 The genetic effects of the QTL genotypes can be calculated from $E_A = S_A^{-1}G_A$ where 243

$$244 \qquad S_{A}^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} (1+2\alpha)^{2}/36 & 2(1+2\alpha)(1-\alpha)/9 & (4\alpha^{2}-4\alpha+3)/6 & 2(1+2\alpha)(1-\alpha)/9 & (1+2\alpha)^{2}/36 \\ (1+2\alpha)/12 & (1-\alpha)/3 & 0 & -(1-\alpha)/3 & -(1+2\alpha)/12 \\ \hline (1+2\alpha)(5-2\alpha) & (\alpha-1)(4\alpha-1) & -\frac{(4\alpha^{2}-4\alpha+3)}{2(2+\alpha)} & \frac{(\alpha-1)(4\alpha-1)}{3(2+\alpha)} & \frac{(1+2\alpha)(5-2\alpha)}{12(2+\alpha)} \\ \hline 1/2 & -1 & 0 & 1 & -1/2 \\ \hline 1 & -4 & 6 & -4 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

245

246 General two locus model

The one locus method described above is extended to two biallelic loci, A and B, in an 247 248 autotetraploid population with a specified genetic structure. There will be twenty-five possible 249 genotypes at the two loci (without accounting for linkage phase). A general form for the two-locus 250 tetraploid genotype may be given as $A_i a_{(4-i)} B_j b_{(4-i)}$ with i = 0, 1, ..., 4 for the number of A alleles and j = 0, 1, ..., 4 for the number of B alleles in the genotype. The genotypic value and genotype 251 frequency are denoted by G_{ii} and f_{ij} . The marginal frequencies of the genotypes at locus A and 252 253 locus B are denoted by f_{i} and f_{i} (i = 0, 1, ..., 4). Without loss of generality, locus A is assumed to be closer to the centromere than locus B and the coefficients of double reduction at the two loci are 254 255 denoted by α and β , respectively. A linear model for the genotypic value is comprised of genetic 256 effects at each of the two loci and epistatic effects between the genes at the two loci, and is fully characterized by a total of twenty-five parameters in the form of a regression model of allelic effects 257 258 analogous to equation (1), as follows:

259

$$G_{ij} = \mu + x_1 \theta_1 + x_2 \theta_2 + x_3 \theta_3 + x_4 \theta_4 + y_1 \zeta_1 + y_2 \zeta_2 + y_3 \zeta_3 + y_4 \zeta_4 + z_{\theta_1 \zeta_1} I_{\theta_1 \zeta_1} + z_{\theta_1 \zeta_2} I_{\theta_1 \zeta_2} + 260$$

$$Z_{\theta_1 \zeta_3} I_{\theta_1 \zeta_3} + z_{\theta_1 \zeta_4} I_{\theta_1 \zeta_4} + z_{\theta_2 \zeta_1} I_{\theta_2 \zeta_1} + z_{\theta_2 \zeta_2} I_{\theta_2 \zeta_2} + z_{\theta_2 \zeta_3} I_{\theta_2 \zeta_3} + z_{\theta_2 \zeta_4} I_{\theta_2 \zeta_4} + z_{\theta_3 \zeta_1} I_{\theta_3 \zeta_1} + Eqn 5$$

$$Z_{\theta_3 \zeta_2} I_{\theta_3 \zeta_2} + z_{\theta_3 \zeta_3} I_{\theta_3 \zeta_3} + z_{\theta_3 \zeta_4} I_{\theta_3 \zeta_4} + z_{\theta_4 \zeta_1} I_{\theta_4 \zeta_1} + z_{\theta_4 \zeta_2} I_{\theta_4 \zeta_2} + z_{\theta_4 \zeta_3} I_{\theta_4 \zeta_3} + z_{\theta_4 \zeta_4} I_{\theta_4 \zeta_4}$$

261

where μ is the population mean, θ_i (or ζ_i) (i = 1, ..., 4) are accordingly monogenic, digenic, trigenic and quadrigenic genetic effects at locus A (or locus B), and x_i (or y_i) (i=1, ..., 4) are the design variables for the corresponding genetic effects at locus A (or locus B), as summarised in Table 3. $I_{\theta_i\zeta_i}$ are the epistasis parameters between the effects θ_i and ζ_j (i=1,...,4; j=1,...,4). For example, $I_{\theta_i\zeta_i}$ is the monogenic x monogenic effect of loci A and B. The corresponding design variables are given by $z_{\theta_i \zeta_j}$. A full definition of all 25 genetic effect parameters is given in Supporting Information Table S2.

269

270 In a similar but algebraically more tedious way to the one locus model, we derived the orthogonal 271 contrast scales for the two-locus tetrasomic model under two different settings regarding the mutual 272 dependency of genotypes at the two loci: linkage equilibrium (Supporting Information Method S3) 273 and linkage disequilibrium (Supporting Information Method S4). We would like make it clear that 274 given a feasible sample size, it is impractical to estimate all of the parameters in the above two-275 locus model (Eqn 5). To tackle this practical limitation, we suggest use of a reduced model, in 276 which the focus is on the interaction parameters of interest, as shown in Supporting Information 277 Method S5.

278

279 Detection of major gene segregation in an outbred autotetraploid population

The segregation analysis models the trait phenotype data distribution as a mixed distribution in which each component distribution corresponds to a particular genotype of the major QTL. We illustrate a trait phenotype based segregation analysis by modeling the trait phenotype data using the following likelihood function of m mixed normal distributions

284

285
$$L(G,\sigma^{2}|Y,G_{P_{2}},\alpha) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=0}^{m-1} f_{j}(G_{P_{2}},\alpha) g_{j}(y_{i};G_{j},\sigma^{2})$$
 Eqn 6a

286

where *m* represents the number of segregating QTL genotypes with the genotypic value vector, $G = (G_0 K G_{m-1})$, σ^2 is the residual variance, G_{P_1} and G_{P_2} denote the two parental QTL genotypes, $Y = \{y_1, y_2, K, y_n\}$ represents the offspring trait data, α denotes the coefficient of double reduction, $f_j (G_{P_1}, G_{P_2}, \alpha)$ (*j*=0,...,*m*-1) indicates the frequency of the QTL genotype $Q_j q_{4-j}$ and $g_j (y_i; G_j, \sigma^2)$ is the probability density function of a normal distribution with mean G_j and variance σ^2 .

293

To estimate the genetic effect parameters, we first need to calculate the mean for each QTL genotype from the offspring population, which is equivalent to estimating the means for a finite mixture of component distributions. For any given parental QTL genotypes and the coefficient of double reduction at the putative major QTL, the parameters can be estimated from standard normal mixture model analysis using the EM algorithm (Dempster, 1977). In the present context, offspring QTL genotypes were unknown but can be inferred either from the individual's genotype

300 information at marker loci nearby to the QTL, as we developed previously (Luo et al., 2000; Luo et 301 al., 2004), or from their parental genotypes at the QTL. A modified version of equation (6a) incorporating parental marker information, given by M_{P_1} , M_{P_2} , and offspring marker information 302 303 given by O_i , is given as follows

304

305
$$L(G,\sigma^{2}|Y,G_{P_{2}},\alpha) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=0}^{m-1} f_{ij}(G_{P_{2}},\alpha,r,M_{P_{2}},M_{P_{2}},O_{i})g_{j}(y_{i};G_{j},\sigma^{2})$$
Eqn 6b

where f_{ij} is the QTL genotype frequency for the *i*th individual and the *j*th QTL genotype, 306 calculated according to equations (3) and (4) in the multi-locus linkage analysis we developed 307 308 previously (Leach et al., 2010).

309

Assuming biallelic segregation at a putative QTL, there are a total of twelve possible autotetraploid 310 311 parental genotype configurations, listed as (1) aaaa × Aaaa, (2) aaaa × AAaa, (3) aaaa × AAAa, (4) 312 $Aaaa \times AAaa$, (5) $Aaaa \times AAAa$, (6) $Aaaa \times AAAA$, (7) $AAaa \times AAAa$, (8) $AAaa \times AAAA$, (9) 313 $AAAa \times AAAA$, (10) $Aaaa \times Aaaa$, (11) $AAaa \times AAaa$, and (12) $AAAa \times AAAa$. We conducted a 314 scan of the likelihood function (Eqn 6a) over all twelve parental genotype configurations and over 315 all different levels of double reduction from its minimum value of 0.00 to the maximum of 0.25, at every increment of 0.005. Given a parental genotype configuration (G_{P_1}, G_{P_2}) , the frequency of 316 QTL genotype $Q_j q_{4-j}$ denoted $f_j (G_{P_1}, G_{P_2}, \alpha)$ (j=0, ..., m-1), can be calculated as a function of 317 the coefficient of double reduction α . 318

319

The EM algorithm is initialised with starting values for the QTL genotypic values by using k-means 320 cluster analysis. The sample variance is used to initialise σ^2 . It then involves iterating the E-step 321 that calculates the conditional probability of the i^{th} individual having the QTL genotype $Q_i q_{4-i}$, i.e. 322 323

324
$$\omega_{ij} = \frac{f_j (G_I)}{\sum_{k=0}^{m-1} f_k (G_I)}$$

$$\omega_{ij} = \frac{f_j \left(G_{P_1}, G_{P_2}, \alpha \right) g_j \left(y_i; G_j, \sigma^2 \right)}{\sum_{k=0}^{m-1} f_k \left(G_{P_1}, G_{P_2}, \alpha \right) g_k \left(y_i; G_k, \sigma^2 \right)}$$
Eqn 7

325 and the M-step that calculates the maximum likelihood estimates (MLEs) of the model parameters 326 given the conditional probabilities from the above E step from the following formula

327
$$\hat{G}_{j} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \omega_{ij} y_{i} / \sum_{i=1}^{n} \omega_{ij}$$
Eqn 8

328
$$\hat{\sigma}^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=0}^{m-1} \omega_{ij} (y_i - \hat{G}_j)^2 / n$$
 Eqn 9

329 The E-step and M-step are repeated iteratively until convergence.

330

331 We calculated the log-likelihood ratio statistic (LRT)

332

333
$$LRT = 2 \Big[L \Big(\hat{G}^*, \hat{\sigma}^{*2} | Y, G_{P_1}, G_{P_2}, \alpha \Big) - L \Big(\overset{\text{O}}{\mathcal{O}}, \overset{\text{O}}{\mathcal{O}} | Y, G_{P_1}, G_{P_2}, \alpha \Big) \Big]$$
Eqn 10
334

as a statistical test for significance of major QTL segregation in the population under study. In Eqn 10, \hat{G}^* and $\hat{\sigma}^{*2}$ are the MLEs of the genotypic means and residual variance, while \hat{G}^* and $\hat{\sigma}^*$ are the mean and variance of the trait calculated from all individuals. Each model was compared with the null model assuming no major gene to be segregating in the population, by applying the likelihood-ratio test (LRT). The LRT statistic in the present context asymptotically follows a chisquare distribution with *m*-1 degrees of freedom, with *m* equal to the number of QTL genotypes segregating as defined above.

342

343 Estimation of overlap between normal densities

We proposed an average overlapping coefficient (*aOVL*) to define a disparity index for quantifying the average difference between any two component normal distributions. The overlap coefficient between two normal distributions has been defined (Inman & Bradley, 1989) as

347

348
$$OVL = 2\Phi\left(-\frac{|\mu_1 - \mu_2|}{\sigma}\right)$$
Eqn 11

where Φ denotes the cumulative distribution function of the standard normal distribution, μ_1 and μ_2 are the means of the two component normal distributions, and σ^2 is the variance for the component normal distribution. In the tetraploid case, there are k (k = 2,..., 5) components in the mixture normal distribution and the corresponding *aOVL* could be calculated by

353

354
$$aOVL = \sum_{i=1}^{k} \sum_{j=i+1}^{k} 2\Phi\left(-\frac{\left|G_{i}-G_{j}\right|}{\sigma}\right) / \binom{2}{k}$$
Eqn 12

355

aOVL takes a value between 0 and 1, with larger values indicating that the component normaldistributions are less well separated.

358

359 Simulated autotetraploid populations

360 Simulated populations were created by developing programs to mimic the gametogenesis of an 361 autotetraploid individual with a given genotype and random union of gametes to generate a zygote. 362 Segregation and recombination of alleles at the loci of interest were simulated under tetrasomic inheritance, as explained in detail elsewhere (Luo et al., 2000). Given a simulated genotype for any 363 364 offspring individual, the phenotype of the individual was determined as the sum of the genotypic 365 value calculated from the corresponding simulated model, developed here as shown in equations (1) or (5), or developed by Killick (1971) (see Supporting Information Note S1), and a variable 366 randomly sampled from a normal distribution, $N(0, \sigma^2)$. The residual variance was calculated 367 according to the prior phenotypic variance of the trait in question and the heritability of the 368 369 simulated QTL.

370

371 Segregating autotetraploid potato population

372 A first generation segregating population (S_1) of autotetraploid potato (Solanum tuberosum) was 373 created by crossing two parental cultivars, with the American cultivar Atlantic as the maternal 374 parent and the Chinese cultivar Longshu-3 as the paternal parent. A second generation (S₂) 375 segregating population consisting of 304 full-sib individuals (S_2) was derived by crossing two 376 individuals (5-12 and 1-20) from the S_1 population. The S_2 population was planted together with their parental lines in three different field trials in 2015, each with five replicates per individual, by 377 378 propagating the individuals asexually using tubers. A series of morphological and agronomic traits 379 were scored, including plant height and flowering time.

380

381 Data availability

382 Programs and data for statistical analyses presented in the paper are freely available from
 383 <u>https://github.com/LJLeach/QuantModelTetra</u> and the link is included on our group website at
 384 <u>www.statisticalgenetics.info</u>.

Results

387 Detecting major genes in outbred autotetraploid populations

To illustrate the use of our new method, we considered the detection of major effect QTL in a 388 389 segregating population, one of the most popular quantitative genetic analyses using trait phenotype 390 data. If a major gene makes a sufficiently large contribution to the phenotypic variation of a 391 quantitative trait relative to the background genetic and environmental variation, then the 392 phenotypic distribution will be multimodal (Falconer, 1989). In an outbred autotetraploid S_2 393 population, the distribution may be bimodal, trimodal, quadrimodal or quinquemodal under a 394 biallelic model, depending on the parental genotype configuration and the occurrence of double 395 reduction. Simulated examples of each are shown in Fig. 1a-d.

396

We simulated a quantitative trait for 300, 500 or 1,000 S₂ individuals generated by crossing parental genotypes $AAaa \times AAaa$ and with a range of heritability values for the major gene, from 10% to 35%. The monogenic, digenic, trigenic and quadrigenic effects for this gene and the population mean were all set equal to 1. The coefficient of double reduction at this QTL was equal to 0.1. Accordingly, the genetic variance of the major gene, V_G, was calculated as 1.132, according to equation (4). The residual variances of the trait were chosen based on the simulated heritability and genetic variance of the major gene.

404

405 In practice, the parental genotype configuration is usually unknown in outbred autotetraploid 406 populations, therefore trait segregation analysis was carried out across all twelve possible parental 407 genotype configurations, (for example $AAAa \times AAAa$), across the range of possible values (0-0.25) 408 for the rate of double reduction (Luo et al., 2006a). The value corresponding to the highest 409 likelihood value was taken as the MLE of the double reduction parameter. For a given parental 410 genotype configuration and coefficient of double reduction, the expected offspring genotype 411 frequency distribution could be calculated directly in terms of α , and then used to calculate the general orthogonal scales w_{ii} for the genetic effects of genotype *i* for the *j*th contrast (*j* = 1,2,...,4). 412 413 We implemented the EM algorithm as described in Equations (7)-(9) to calculate the MLEs of the genotypic values for each QTL genotype, \hat{G}_i . The genetic effect parameters for the major QTL, E_A , 414 415 could then be calculated according to equation (3), and the significance of major QTL segregation 416 was tested as shown in equation (10).

417

418 Segregation analysis of phenotypic data in autotetraploids has a very poor statistical power for 419 major gene detection when heritability is low (10%) (Table 4), which reflects the high degree of 420 overlap between the component normal distributions, as indicated by a high average overlapping 421 coefficient (aOVL>0.5). When heritability is doubled to 20%, then the statistical power reaches an 422 acceptable level of 79%, though only when there is large population size of at least 1,000 here. Only 423 when there is a large degree of separation between component distributions, for example $h^2 = 0.30$ 424 and aOVL = 0.3575, does major gene detection have adequate power with more realistic population sizes ($n \ge 300$). When trait heritability is low, we caution that the genetic variance of major QTL is 425 426 significantly overestimated by using trait segregation analysis in autotetraploids. Segregation 427 analysis was able to correctly infer the parental QTL genotypes only in less than 10% of simulations.

428

429 **Comparison with Killick's model**

430 We used a numerical example to explore the statistical properties of our model compared with an additive-dominance model, such as Killick's model. We simulated two biallelic loci, Q_A and Q_B , 431 432 with alleles segregating in linkage equilibrium at the two loci in an S₂ population created from 433 crossing two homozygous autotetraploid parents. The population mean, all genetic effects of the 434 two loci and epistatic effects were simulated to be equal to 1. It should be noted that the simulation 435 was designed without incorporating an environmental variable, with a purpose to minimize the 436 influence of random sampling variation in the comparison of the methods. Shown in Supporting 437 Information Table S3 are the genotypic values calculated either from a two locus orthogonal 438 contrast based model defined according to equation (5) or from Killick's model with two loci. In Scenario 1, double reduction was absent at both loci, and genotypic values were generated either 439 under our model (Scenario 1^o, Supporting Information Table S3a) or under Killick's model 440 (Scenario 1^K, Supporting Information Table S3b); in Scenario 2, the coefficient of double reduction 441 was equal to 0.05 for locus Q_A and 0.10 for Q_B , and the data was simulated under our model 442 (Scenario 2^O). 443

444

445 As expected from the orthogonal property of our model, estimates of monogenic, digenic, trigenic 446 and quadrigenic effects under both scenarios are independent of the estimation of epistatic effects (Table 5). All genetic effects can be consistently estimated under both single-locus (reduced) 447 models and two-locus (full) models, when data are simulated under either our model or Killick's 448 model. For example, under Scenario 1^O, all estimated genetic effects take the same value of 1 449 regardless of whether the model is fitted for one locus or for both loci, including epistatic 450 451 parameters. In contrast, estimates of additive and dominance effects are markedly biased from their 452 true values, particularly when epistatic effects are fitted in Killick's model, suggesting the model is 453 vulnerable to the inclusion of various effects in the genetic models. For example, in Scenario 1^{K} , 454 additive and dominance effects are estimated to be equal to 1.94 in either reduced (single locus) 455 model, but all effects across both loci are correctly estimated to be equal to 1.00 when the full 456 model is used. A further limitation of Killick's model arises because the genetic effect parameters are only defined on the basis of genotypic values and not using the genotypic frequencies (though 457 458 genotypic frequencies are considered when estimating the population mean). This explains why the 459 estimates of genetic effects from Killick's model (and other additive-dominance models in the current literature) involving both loci remained the same under Scenarios 1° and 2°. In contrast, our 460 461 model confers a statistically appropriate and feasible way to estimate the various genetic effects in 462 populations with various genotypic frequency distributions.

463

464 **Parameter estimation under the orthogonal model**

465 We carried out a simulation study to test for reliability of the theoretical models presented above and to explore the statistical properties of the methods developed for estimating the model 466 467 parameters under the orthogonal model, including the impact of the double reduction parameter on the estimation of genetic effect parameters. We considered a biallelic quantitative trait locus, Q_A , 468 segregating in an S_1 population created from parental genotypes AAaa and AAaa. Segregation at the 469 470 simulated OTL contributed 20% of the phenotypic variance of the trait. All genetic effects at the QTL, $E_A = (\mu \ \theta_1 \ \theta_2 \ \theta_3 \ \theta_4)^T$, were set equal to 1, and the residual variance was determined 471 472 accordingly. Given the parental genotypes, offspring genotypes were generated under two levels of 473 double reduction, $\alpha = 0$ or 0.15, the former corresponding to bivalent pairing of homologous 474 chromosomes and the latter to quadrivalent pairing in the autotetraploid meiosis.

475

476 Our previous simulation studies showed that trait segregation analysis based on phenotype data 477 alone had limited power to detect segregation of major genes for traits with low heritability (see 478 Table 4). It is well established that use of genetic markers is effective in recovering genotype 479 information at QTL, leading to an increase in statistical power for detecting the QTL. We therefore 480 simulated a chromosome with a single QTL closest to the centromere and an additional 10 genetic 481 marker loci equally spaced at 10 cM intervals downstream from the QTL (Table 6). We 482 implemented a modified version of the trait segregation analysis (equation 6b), which incorporates 483 the parental and offspring marker information. This is expected to make the distribution of offspring 484 QTL genotypes more informative, with an expected gain in statistical efficiency of parameter 485 estimation from the mixture model.

486

Based on the simulated parental QTL genotype configuration (*AAaa* and *AAaa*), the EM algorithm was used as described in equations (7) to (9) to give the MLEs for the QTL genotypic values. The genetic effect parameters were then estimated using our orthogonal model based on a range of 490 assumed values for the coefficient of double reduction. Table 7 shows the means and standard 491 errors of the estimated genetic effects based on 500 repeated simulations. The genetic effect 492 parameters and their variance components were predicted adequately as long as double reduction 493 was properly taken into account, while the corresponding estimates were comparatively poor when 494 double reduction was ignored. It is clear from the heritability estimates (h^2) that an overestimated 495 double reduction parameter may lead to overestimation of the genetic variance, and thus 496 overestimation of trait heritability.

497

498 **Case study of flowering time and plant height in autotetraploid potato**

499 To demonstrate the application of the methods we developed for modeling and analyzing real 500 experimental data collected from autotetraploid species, we analyzed the phenotype data of two 501 quantitative traits, flowering time and plant height, scored on 304 offspring from a cross between 502 two varieties of cultivated autotetraploid potato (Solanum tuberosum). We found significant 503 variation in the trait phenotype scores across three separate field trials, showing the major effect of 504 the environment on both traits (ANOVA, p < 0.001, Supporting Information Tables S4, S5). We 505 also observed a significant genotype by environment (G x E) interaction for plant height (ANOVA, 506 p < 0.001, Supporting Information Table S5).

507

508 We observed highly significant statistical evidence for segregation of major QTL genes for both flowering time and plant height. Figure S2 shows the LOD score profiles for different 509 510 configurations of parental genotypes of QTL for both traits, which enable identification of the most 511 likely parental QTL genotype(s). For flowering time, there was significant evidence for a major 512 QTL (p < 0.0001) under three alternative configurations, namely [5] (Aaaa × AAAa), [10] 513 (Aaaa × Aaaa) and [11] (AAaa × AAaa), each with similar LOD score profiles and maximum LOD 514 scores (Fig. S2a). Under each alternative model, the estimated mixture normal distribution is 515 composed of five component normal distributions. In the absence of any marker information, model 516 [11] was chosen as the most likely parental genotype configuration (Table 8, Fig. 1e), because the 517 average parental trait scores (illustrated by arrows in Fig. 1e) were most likely to have come from 518 the third component normal distribution corresponding to genotype AAaa. Meanwhile, model [5] 519 was deemed unlikely because the parental phenotype scores were unlikely to have come from 520 component genotypes Aaaa and AAAa, as shown in Fig. S3a. However, model [10] was only 521 slightly less likely than model [11], as shown in Fig. S3b, illustrating the difficulty in clearly 522 distinguishing parental genotype configuration through trait segregation analysis in autotetraploids.

524 For plant height, there was significant evidence for a major QTL (p = 0.003) under genotype 525 configurations [3] *aaaa*×AAAa, [9] (AAAa×AAAA) and [11] (AAaa×AAaa) (Fig. S2b). Model 526 [9] was chosen as the most likely parental genotype configuration (Table 8, Fig. 1f), because the 527 average parental trait scores were more likely to have come from the component normal 528 distributions for genotypes AAAa and AAAA (Fig. 1f) than from the component distributions for 529 genotypes aaaa and AAAa (Fig. S3c) or AAaa and AAaa (Fig. S3d). Preliminary prediction of 530 parental genotype configuration in this way can be valuable for various downstream analyses, 531 including linkage and linkage disequilibrium based QTL analyses.

532

We estimated the narrow heritability of flowering time and plant height using the linear mixed model, as described in Supporting Information Method S6, based on the most likely value of the coefficient of double reduction inferred from the trait segregation analysis (Table 8). High values of narrow heritability were estimated for both flowering time (79%) and plant height (73%), and the assumed values for the double reduction rate had very little effect (Supporting Information Table S6). For both traits, the major QTL effect explained a significant proportion of the total phenotypic variance (29-39%), and up to one half of the total genetic variance (40-50%, Table 8).

540

541 All of the estimated genetic effects at the major QTL for both traits were highly significant (p < p542 0.0001). These estimates reveal valuable information on the genetic architecture of the trait, which 543 may be useful for identifying useful QTL for selection purposes. For flowering time, a monogenic 544 effect of 5.92 indicates that the average effect of replacing allele *a* with allele *A* at the major QTL in any autotetraploid genotype will be to delay flowering by around 6 days. Significance of the 545 546 trigenic and quadrigenic genetic effects means that the interaction between the increasing alleles (A) 547 and decreasing alleles (a) depends on the identity of the third and fourth alleles in an autotetraploid genotype. However, the corresponding genetic variance components at trigenic and quadrigenic 548 levels contributed very little to the total genetic variance of the major QTL (0.07% and 0.32%), 549 550 suggesting that higher level allelic interactions exert limited effects on the genotypic values for this 551 trait. For plant height, we observed a monogenic effect of 12.46, meaning that on average, replacing 552 allele a with allele A at the major effect QTL will increase height by around 12cm, while a 553 significant digenic effect of -6.84 suggests the importance of two-way allelic interactions at the 554 major QTL for plant height, though such interactions make a relatively small contribution (2.48%) 555 to the total genetic variance.

Discussion

In recent decades, considerable progress has been made in the genetic analysis of quantitative traits in diploid plant, animal and human species. For example, new technologies and statistical methods have enabled genome-wide mapping of genetic variation and led to the detection of individual genomic regions (Quantitative Trait Loci), or more rarely individual quantitative trait nucleotides, that directly or indirectly influence trait phenotypic variation. However, progress has been limited by many factors (Hill, 2012), including difficulties in disentangling pleiotropic and epistatic effects of genes, and the complicated inheritance systems in polyploid species.

565

566 A crucial foundation for all quantitative genetic analyses in species of any ploidy level, including 567 QTL analysis and evaluation of quantitative genetic parameters, is a quantitative genetic model that 568 links together the genetic effects of genes with the quantitative trait phenotype. Historically, the 569 field of quantitative genetics has focused on diploid species, and as such, the quantitative genetic 570 model, theory and methods for various quantitative genetic analyses have been well established and 571 routinely practiced (Mather & Jinks, 1971; Falconer, 1989; Lynch & Walsh, 1998). Meanwhile, 572 progress in the genetic analysis of polyploid species, particularly autotetraploids, has lagged far 573 behind. Built upon Kempthorne's model, Hackett et al., (2001) proposed a quantitative genetic 574 model for use in interval mapping of QTL in autotetraploids, though this model was not based on a 575 strict tetrasomic inheritance model, and does not possess the orthogonal property between different 576 model parameters and their estimates.

577

578 In this article, we have contributed a quantitative genetic model for autotetraploid species based on 579 the orthogonal contrast scales model developed for diploids (Cockerham, 1954). The model relates 580 the phenotype score of an autotetraploid individual for a quantitative trait to the alleles at the loci 581 that contribute to trait variation, in terms of monogenic, digenic, trigenic, and quadrigenic effects at 582 individual loci, and epistatic effects between loci. The orthogonal property of the model ensures that 583 the genetic effects can be independently estimated for one or two loci, assuming only pair-wise 584 epistatic effects. This property is very useful for obtaining reliable estimates of genetic effects and 585 genetic variance components, even when the number of QTL involved is unknown, which is usually 586 the case (Zeng et al., 2005). The model could be extended to three or more loci, assuming epistasis 587 only occurs between pairs of loci. It has been recognised that use of an orthogonal model for OTL 588 mapping would be advantageous in various ways (Kao & Zeng, 2002; Zeng et al., 2005). For 589 example, different QTL genetic effects may be tested and estimated separately. Parameter estimates 590 are also independent of which, if any, epistatic effects are fitted in the model, which will simplify 591 genetic interpretation of the underlying genetic architecture.

593 Our model decreases the number of parameters used to describe the genetic effects of QTL from 594 255 (Kempthorne, 1955; Kempthorne, 1957) down to 24 for a two-locus analysis, making it 595 statistically tractable for real data analysis. We have shown its suitability for use in populations with 596 various genetic structures, including segregating populations (e.g. S₂) and natural populations of 597 unrelated individuals, either in linkage equilibrium or linkage disequilibrium. While there is 598 evidence for multiple allele segregation at individual QTL genes in diploid populations (Barton & 599 Keightley, 2002), each allele may only increase or decrease the trait phenotype, therefore the 600 biallelic setting is appropriate for quantitative genetic analysis in autotetraploids.

601

602 We have shown that our model can accurately estimate the genetic effects in a segregating 603 population under either one locus (reduced model) or two locus (full model) settings. Our model 604 takes proper account of the complex features of autotetrasomic inheritance, including double 605 reduction, unlike other quantitative genetic models developed for autotetraploids (Killick, 1971). 606 We showed that the double reduction parameter has a significant impact on the genetic parameter 607 estimation, and thus advise that this parameter should be taken into account in any quantitative 608 genetic analysis in autotetraploid species to avoid bias in the estimation of genetic effects. We have 609 provided statistical tests for the significance of double reduction and methods for its accurate 610 estimation using molecular marker data in our previous work (Luo et al., 2004; Luo et al., 2006a). 611 Since double reduction is a location dependent parameter, the marker data can provide an 612 approximation of the double reduction parameter near to the QTL.

613

We carried out trait segregation analysis to illustrate the practical application of our quantitative genetic model for the analysis of trait phenotype data in autotetraploids. Trait segregation analysis has been an important topic in the history of quantitative genetics in diploids (Falconer, 1989). It serves as an important intermediate step prior to collection of genomic marker data, allowing major genes affecting quantitative traits to be detected prior to designing further genomic analyses, such as QTL analysis, and also enabling more efficient selection in breeding programs of agronomic traits in autotetraploid crops or animals (Falconer, 1989).

621

Segregation analysis involves the estimation of normal mixtures, which is well known to be an illposed problem, particularly when the disparity between the component distributions is small (Xiao *et al.*, 2007; Lourens *et al.*, 2013). Methods for segregation analysis may therefore suffer from low statistical power in diploids, and even more so in autotetraploids (Xiao *et al.*, 2007). We extended the concept of the overlapping coefficient (Inman & Bradley, 1989) to quantify the disparity 627 between multiple component normal distributions for segregation analysis in autotetraploids. Our 628 results echo previous work showing that maximum likelihood estimation may perform poorly when 629 component distributions are poorly separated, and substantial bias may be observed when OVL 630 exceeds 0.45 (Lourens et al., 2013). Additionally, when the disparity is low, within population 631 variance will be underestimated; in the present context, the proportion of the trait phenotypic 632 variation explained by the QTL, *i.e.* its heritability, may therefore be markedly overestimated. This 633 could be an inherent weakness of the statistical method implemented for segregation analysis and 634 care must thus be taken when interpreting the results of phenotype-based analysis in autotetraploids. 635 We observed the statistical power to detect QTL segregation is low when heritability is low ($\leq 20\%$) 636 and the OVL is greater than 0.4, while the power became adequate for detecting QTL segregation 637 when heritability was at least 30%, in populations with a modest size of at least 300.

638

639 We have demonstrated the utility of our quantitative genetic model for autotetraploids by analyzing 640 real data on flowering time and plant height in a segregating population of potato. We estimated 641 high values of narrow heritability for both flowering time (79%) and plant height (73%), consistent 642 with various other potato populations (Khan et al., 2013; Ozturk & Yildrim, 2014), and also crops such as barley, which have shown high heritability (>90%) for flowering time (Maurer et al., 2015). 643 644 Trait segregation analysis showed evidence for segregation of a major gene affecting flowering time 645 in this population. Work in Arabidopsis, rice and tomato, led to the identification of FLOWERING 646 LOCUS T (FT) as the mobile signal "florigen" that plays a central role in the floral transition, 647 travelling from the leaves to the shoot apical meristem to promote flowering (Turk *et al.*, 2008). 648 More recently, several functional homologues of the key Arabidopsis flowering time genes have 649 been identified in potato, including StSP3D as the mobile signal "florigen", and StSP6A as the 650 mobile signal "tuberigen" responsible for the stolon to tuber transition (Navarro et al., 2011). A CONSTANS (CO) homologue, StCO, has also been discovered with a role in repression of 651 652 tuberisation (Gonzalez-Schain et al., 2012), as well as homologues of other key flowering time genes, including StCDF1 (Kloosterman et al., 2013). The major regulators of flowering time in 653 654 potato are therefore conserved with Arabidopsis, but have also been recruited to control the 655 developmental switch involved in storage organ formation.

656

The quantitative genetic model we presented here lays the foundation for quantitative genetic analysis in autotetraploid species. In addition to the classical phenotype based analysis of quantitative traits, such as segregation analysis, estimation of breeding values, and genetic variance components, the model fulfills an essential requirement for DNA molecular marker assisted QTL analysis under both linkage and linkage disequilibrium based settings. The model will therefore

- facilitate future studies of the genetic architecture and evolution of quantitative traits in important
 crop species such as potato (D'Hoop *et al.*, 2008; Massa *et al.*, 2015), and coffee (del Pilar
 Moncada *et al.*, 2016), forest legumes such as alfalfa (Yu *et al.*, 2016), and ornamental species such
 as rose (Gitonga *et al.*, 2016).
- 666

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Author contribution Z.L. conceived of and designed the study. Z.L. designed the theoretical model and statistical methods. J.C. implemented the statistical methods. Z.L., F.Z. and L.W. created the potato segregating population, implemented field trials and collected the phenotypic data. J.C. analysed the data with inputs from Z.L. L.L., Z.L., J.C. and L.L. wrote the paper.

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834	Supporting Information
835	Additional Supporting Information may be found online in the Supporting Information tab for this
836	article:
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839	
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841	of parental genotypes at a putative QTL.
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861	genotypes.
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864	autotetraploids.
865	
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867	under Killick's model (b).
868	

- 869 **Table S4** One-way ANOVA for flowering time in autotetraploid potato.
- 870
- 871 **Table S5** Type II ANOVA for plant height in autotetraploid potato.
- 872
- 873 Table S6 Narrow sense heritability of two autotetraploid potato quantitative traits (flowering time874 and plant height) using the linear mixed model.
- 875
- 876 Figure Legends
- 877

878 Figure 1. Segregation analysis for quantitative traits in simulated and real outbred 879 autotetraploid segregating populations.

The quantitative trait phenotype may show a bimodal (a), trimodal (b), quadrimodal (c) or 880 881 quinquemodal (d) distribution in a segregating population derived from a cross between parental 882 genotypes as indicated above each panel and with a given value of the coefficient of double 883 reduction, α . Flowering time (e) in the potato segregating population showed a quinquemodel 884 distribution with the most likely parental genotype configuration being AAaa x AAaa. Plant height 885 (f) showed a trimodal distribution with the most likely parental genotype configuration being AAAa x AAAA. Average parental phenotype scores for P_1 and P_2 parental varieties are indicated using 886 887 orange and green arrows respectively. Red lines indicate the mixture normal distribution and dotted 888 blue lines indicate the inferred component normal distributions, numbered to indicate genotypes 1) 889 aaaa; 2) Aaaa; 3) AAaa; 4) AAAa; and 5) AAAA.

891 Tables

	i	4	3	2	1	0
	Genotype	AAAA	AAAa	AAaa	Aaaa	aaaa
	Frequency	f_4	f_3	f_2	f_1	f_0
	Genotypic value	G_4	G_3	G_2	G_1	G_{0}
θ_{1}	W_1	<i>w</i> ₄₁	<i>W</i> ₃₁	<i>W</i> ₂₁	<i>w</i> ₁₁	<i>W</i> ₀₁
θ_2	W_2	<i>W</i> ₄₂	<i>W</i> ₃₂	<i>W</i> ₂₂	<i>W</i> ₁₂	<i>W</i> ₀₂
θ_3	W_3	<i>W</i> ₄₃	<i>W</i> ₃₃	<i>W</i> ₂₃	<i>W</i> ₁₃	<i>W</i> ₀₃
$ heta_4$	W_4	<i>W</i> ₄₄	<i>W</i> ₃₄	<i>W</i> ₂₄	W_{14}	W_{04}

892 Table 1. The general orthogonal contrast scales model for one locus.

893 G_i and f_i denote the genotypic values and genotypic frequencies for the five genotypes 894 with *i* copies of the A allele. θ_i (*i*=1,2,...,4) are the monogenic, digenic, trigenic and 895 quadrigenic genetic effects respectively. w_{ij} (*i*=0,1,...,4; *j*=1,...,4) is the scale component 896 of genotype *i* for the *j*th contrast.

898	Table 2. Orthogonal contrast scales for one locus in a biallelic autotetraploid S ₂ population.	

(Genotype	AAAA	AAAa	AAaa	Aaaa	aaaa
]	Frequency	f_4	f_3	f_2	f_1	f_0
		G_4	G_3	G_2	$G_{_{1}}$	G_{0}
θ_{1}	W_1	2	1	0	-1	-2
$ heta_2$	W_2	$(5-2\alpha)/3$	$(1 - 4\alpha)/6$	$-(1+2\alpha)/3$	$(1-4\alpha)/6$	$(5-2\alpha)/3$
θ_{3}	W_3	$2(1-\alpha)/3$	$-(1+2\alpha)/6$	0	$(1+2\alpha)/6$	$-2(1-\alpha)/3$
$ heta_{\!$	W_4	$\frac{(1-\alpha)(4\alpha^2-4\alpha+3)}{12(2+\alpha)}$	$-\frac{(1+2\alpha)(4\alpha^2-4\alpha+3)}{24(2+\alpha)}$	$\frac{(1-\alpha)(2\alpha+1)^2}{12(2+\alpha)}$	$-\frac{(1+2\alpha)(4\alpha^2-4\alpha+3)}{24(2+\alpha)}$	$\frac{(1-\alpha)(4\alpha^2-4\alpha+3)}{12(2+\alpha)}$

 θ_i (i = 1, ..., 4) are the monogenic, digenic, trigenic, and quadrigenic genetic effects of locus A. f_i and G_i (i = 0, 1, ..., 4) are the frequency and genotypic 900 values for the i^{th} genotype $A_i a_{4-i}$, respectively. α is the coefficient of double reduction at locus A.

	Genotype	AAAA	AAAa	AAaa	Aaaa	aaaa		Genotype	BBBB	BBBb	BBbb	Bbbb	bbbb
	Frequency	$f_{4.}$	$f_{3.}$	$f_{2.}$	$f_{1.}$	$f_{0.}$		Frequency	$f_{.4}$	$f_{.3}$	$f_{.2}$	$f_{.1}$	$f_{.0}$
	G	$G_{4.}$	$G_{_{3.}}$	$G_{2.}$	$G_{\scriptscriptstyle 1.}$	$G_{\scriptscriptstyle 0.}$		G	$G_{.4}$	$G_{.3}$	$G_{.2}$	$G_{.1}$	$G_{.0}$
θ_{l}	W_{A1}	<i>w</i> ₄₁	<i>W</i> ₃₁	<i>W</i> ₂₁	<i>W</i> ₁₁	<i>W</i> ₀₁	ζ_1	$V_{\scriptscriptstyle B1}$	<i>v</i> ₄₁	<i>v</i> ₃₁	<i>v</i> ₂₁	<i>v</i> ₁₁	<i>v</i> ₀₁
$ heta_2$	$W_{_{A2}}$	W ₄₂	<i>W</i> ₃₂	<i>W</i> ₂₂	<i>W</i> ₁₂	<i>W</i> ₀₂	ζ_2	$V_{\scriptscriptstyle B2}$	<i>V</i> ₄₂	<i>V</i> ₃₂	<i>v</i> ₂₂	<i>v</i> ₁₂	V_{02}
$\theta_{_3}$	W_{A3}	<i>W</i> ₄₃	W ₃₃	<i>W</i> ₂₃	<i>W</i> ₁₃	<i>W</i> ₀₃	ζ3	V_{B3}	<i>v</i> ₄₃	<i>v</i> ₃₃	<i>V</i> ₂₃	<i>v</i> ₁₃	<i>V</i> ₀₃
$ heta_{_4}$	$W_{_{A4}}$	W ₄₄	<i>W</i> ₃₄	<i>W</i> ₂₄	<i>W</i> ₁₄	<i>W</i> ₀₄	ζ_4	$V_{\scriptscriptstyle B4}$	<i>V</i> ₄₄	V ₃₄	<i>V</i> ₂₄	v_{14}	v_{04}

902 Table 3. The general orthogonal contrast scales model for two loci (A and B).

904 $G_{i.}(G_{i.})$ and $f_{i.}(f_{.i.})$ (i = 0, 1, ..., 4) denote the genotypic values and genotypic frequencies for the five genotypes of locus A (locus B). $\theta_{i}(\zeta_{i.})$ (i=1, 905 2,..., 4) are the monogenic, digenic, trigenic and quadrigenic effects for locus A and locus B, respectively. Here w_{ij} and v_{ij} (i=0,1,...,4; j=1,2,...,4), are 906 the orthogonal contrast scales of genotype i for the j^{th} contrast, calculated separately for each locus using the general biallelic one locus model. 907

Heritability	Sample Size	aOVL	power (%)	Genetic Vari	ance (\hat{V}_{QTL})
(h^2)	<i>(n)</i>			mean	s.e.
	300		17	4.8786	0.2343
0.10	500	0.5275	18	4.1234	0.2345
	1000		23	3.4567	0.2325
	300		29	2.8886	0.1575
0.15	500	0.4634	35	2.5018	0.1477
	1000		53	2.4363	0.1306
	300		46	2.3815	0.1156
0.20	500	0.4193	54	2.1323	0.1004
	1000		79	1.6360	0.0746
	300		59	1.8227	0.0825
0.25	500	0.3856	75	1.5201	0.0703
	1000		99	1.4111	0.0504
	300		71	1.6470	0.0705
0.30	500	0.3575	93	1.4608	0.0611
	1000		99	1.2765	0.044
	300		77	1.5475	0.0626
0.35	500	0.3329	100	1.3251	0.0465
	1000		100	1.2272	0.0352

908 Table 4. Statistical power of major gene detection in outbred autotetraploid populations.

909 aOVL is the average overlapping coefficient between normal distributions. The empirical statistical

910 power for major gene detection is given at significance level 5% based on 100 replicates. The 911 simulated value of V_G was equal to 1.132. 912 Table 5. Estimates of genetic effects using Killick's model and the orthogonal contrast scales based model, under Scenario 1 (without double 913 reduction, $\alpha_A = \alpha_B = 0.00$) or Scenario 2 (with double reduction, $\alpha_A = 0.05$, $\alpha_B = 0.10$).

												Killi	ck's m	odel (ref. 23)									
Scenario	μ	а	d_1	d_2	d_3	b	h_1	h_2	h ₃	I_{ab}	I_{ah_1}	I_{ah_2}	I_{ah_3}	I_{d_1b}	$I_{d_1h_1}$	$I_{d_1h_2}$	$I_{d_1h_3}$	$I_{d_{2}b}$	$I_{d_2h_1}$	$I_{d_2h_2}$	$I_{d_2h_3}$	$I_{d_{3}b}$	$I_{d_3h_1}$	$I_{d_{3}h_{2}}$	$I_{d_3h_3}$
1 ⁰	1.00	2.67	-2.52	2 -2.08	-0.85	5 -	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	1.00	-	-	-	-	2.67	-2.52	-2.08	-0.85	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	1.00	7.44	-7.03	-5.82	-2.38	3 7.44	-7.03	-5.82	-2.38	7.11	-6.72	-5.56	-2.28	-6.72	6.35	5.25	2.15	-5.56	5.25	4.34	1.78	-2.27	2.15	1.78	0.73
1^{K}	3.78	1.94	1.94	1.94	1.94																				
	3.78					1.94	1.94	1.94	1.94																
	3.78	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
2 ⁰	1.10	2.84	-2.62	2-2.22	-0.91	l -	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	1.10	-	-	-	-	2.75	-2.60	-2.15	-0.88	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	1.10	7.44	-7.03	-5.82	-2.38	3 7.44	-7.04	-5.82	-2.38	7.11	-6.72	-5.56	-2.28	-6.72	6.35	5.25	2.15	-5.56	5.25	4.34	1.78	-2.27	2.15	1.78	0.73
											orthog	gonal o	contras	st scale	es base	ed mod	lel								
Scenario	μ	$ heta_{ m l}$	θ_2	θ_3	$ heta_4$	ζ_1	ζ_2	ζ3	ζ_4	$I_{ heta_1\zeta_1}$	$I_{ heta_1\zeta_2}$	$I_{\theta_1\zeta_3}$	$I_{ heta_1\zeta_4}$	$I_{ heta_2\zeta_1}$	$I_{ heta_2\zeta_2}$	$I_{ heta_2\zeta_3}$	$I_{ heta_2\zeta_4}$	$I_{ heta_3\zeta_1}$	$I_{ heta_3\zeta_2}$	$I_{ heta_3\zeta_3}$	$I_{ heta_3\zeta_4}$	$I_{ heta_4\zeta_1}$	$I_{ heta_4\zeta_2}$	$I_{ heta_4\zeta_3}$	$I_{ heta_4\zeta_4}$
$1^{\rm O}$	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	1.00	-	-	-	-	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
1^{K}	3.78	0.32	-0.81	1.94	-3.89)																			
	3.78					0.32	-0.81	1.94	-3.89	1															
	3.78	0.32	-0.81	1.94	-3.89	0.32	-0.81	1.94	-3.89	0.03	-0.07	1.67	-0.33	-0.07	0.17	-0.42	0.83	0.17	-0.42	1.00	-2.00	-0.33	0.83	-2.00	4.00
2^{0}	1.10	1.08	1.08	1.07	1.07	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	1.10	-	-	-	-	1.07	1.05	1.03	1.03	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

- 914 μ is the population mean. a(b) indicate the additive effect for locus $Q_A(Q_B)$. d_1 , d_2 and $d_3(h_1, h_2$ and $h_3)$ indicate three unique dominance effects
- 915 for the simplex, duplex and triplex heterozygote genotypes for locus $Q_A(Q_B)$. θ_i (or ζ_i) (i = 1,..., 4) are the monogenic, digenic, trigenic and
- 916 quadrigenic genetic effects at locus Q_A (or Q_B). $I_{\theta_i \zeta_j}$ denote epistasis between the effects θ_i and ζ_j (*i*=1,...,4; *j*=1,...,4).'-' indicates the parameter
- 917 was not estimated. The population mean, all genetic effects of the two loci and epistatic effects were simulated to be 1.0. In scenario 1, the simulation
- 918 data was generated under either Killick's model (1^{K}) or our orthogonal contrast scales based model (1^{O}) .

						920			
Locus	r	Parental g	genotypes		Genetic parameters				
		P_1	P_2		$\mu, \theta_1, \theta_2, \theta_3,$	$\theta_{4}, = 1 921$			
QTL	0.00	AAaa	AAaa		$\alpha = 0$	$\alpha = 0.922$			
L_1	0.02	$M_1M_2M_3M_3$	$M_{5}M_{6}M_{7}M_{8}$			923			
L_2	0.11	$M_1M_2M_2M_4$	$M_5M_2M_2M_6$	G_4	5.458	5.215			
L_3	0.19	$M_1M_1M_3M_4$	$M_{3}M_{5}M_{6}M_{7}$	G_3	1.938	1.787^{924}			
L_4	0.26	$M_4M_2M_3M_4$	$M_{5}M_{6}M_{6}M_{8}$	G_2	0.708	0.622^{25}			
L_5	0.32	$M_2M_1M_4M_2$	$M_4M_5M_7M_6$	G_1	0.271	0.22926			
L_6	0.38	$M_3M_2M_1M_1$	$M_{5}M_{5}M_{6}M_{7}$	G_0	0.125	0.08 9 27			
L_7	0.42	$M_1M_3M_3M_4$	$M_4M_3M_5M_6$	σ	1.928	2.223 ₂₈			
L_8	0.46	$M_1M_1M_3M_4$	$M_5 M_2 M_6 M_7$			929			
L_9	0.50	$M_2M_2M_1M_3$	$M_{1}M_{5}M_{6}M_{7}$			930			
L_{10}	0.53	$M_2M_3M_4M_4$	$M_{2}M_{5}M_{5}M_{6}$			930			
10		2 5 4 4	2 5 5 0			931			

919 Table 6. Simulation settings based on a single QTL with 10 linked marker loci.

Markers were located on the same side of the QTL, which is closest to the centromere. r denotes the recombination frequency between the QTL and marker loci. The offspring population of size n =300 was generated under a tetrasomic inheritance model with double reduction rate set equal to 0.00 or 0.15. Heritability was assumed to be 0.2. Alleles listed in the same column had the same linkage phase.

	Offspring data generated with double reduction rate $\alpha = 0$													
	Simulate	d val	ues				Estimate	d values						
				α =	- 0	α =	0.05	0.10	$\alpha = 0.15$					
μ	1.000			0.992 (0.005)		1.016 (0.005)		1.043 (0.005)		1.072 (0.005)				
$ heta_1$	1.000	V_1	0.667	0.947 (0.006)	0.632 (0.008)	0.959 (0.006)	0.688 (0.009)	0.973 (0.006)	0.773 (0.010)	0.988 (0.006)	0.864 (0.011)			
θ_{2}	1.000	V_2	0.222	0.953 (0.012)	0.217 (0.005)	0.965 (0.012)	0.251 (0.006)	0.976 (0.012)	0.287 (0.007)	0.986 (0.012)	0.325 (0.007)			
$\theta_{_3}$	1.000	V_3	0.037	1.039 (0.029)	0.055 (0.002)	1.057 (0.028)	0.065 (0.003)	1.068 (0.028)	0.074 (0.003)	1.077 (0.028)	0.083 (0.003)			
$ heta_4$	1.000	V_4	0.003	1.053 (0.092)	0.019 (0.001)	1.095 (0.091)	0.020 (0.003)	1.123 (0.091)	0.020 (0.001)	1.147 (0.091)	0.021 (0.001)			
σ	1.928			1.915 (0.003)		1.915 (0.003)		1.916 (0.003)		1.916 (0.003)				
h^2	0.200			0.200 (0.002)		0.217 (0.002)		0.238 (0.002)		0.258 (0.002)				
					Offspring da	ata generated wi	th double reduct	ion rate $\alpha = 0.1$	5					
	Simulate	d val	ues				Estimate	d values						
				α =	0.15	α =	0.00	α =	0.05	$\alpha = 0.20$				
μ	1.000			0.999 (0.005)		0.938 (0.006)		0.950 (0.005)		1.027 (0.005)				
$ heta_1$	1.000	V_1	0.867	0.960 (0.006)	0.814 (0.010)	0.906 (0.006)	0.561 (0.008)	0.925 (0.006)	0.641 (0.008)	0.977 (0.006)	0.908 (0.011)			
θ_{2}	1.000	V_2	0.311	0.969 (0.011)	0.310 (0.007)	0.903 (0.011)	0.195 (0.004)	0.936 (0.011)	0.234 (0.005)	0.981 (0.011)	0.350 (0.007)			
$\theta_{_3}$	1.000	V_3	0.053	1.118 (0.027)	0.086 (0.004)	1.108 (0.027)	0.059 (0.002)	1.111 (0.027)	0.068 (0.003)	1.122 (0.027)	0.095 (0.004)			
$ heta_4$	1.000	V_4	0.004	1.312 (0.101)	0.026 (0.002)	1.435 (0.100)	0.025 (0.002)	1.343 (0.101)	0.025 (0.002)	1.313 (0.101)	0.027 (0.002)			
σ	2.222			2.212 (0.004)		2.216 (0.004)		2.213 (0.002)		2.212 (0.002)				
h^2	0.200			0.201 (0.002)		0.146 (0.001)		0.164 (0.002)		0.219 (0.002)				

937	Table 7. Means and standard errors	of the parameter estimates	based on 500 repeated simulation	ns of the single QTL model.

938 μ is the population mean and θ_i (*i*=1,...,4) are accordingly monogenic, digenic, trigenic and quadrigenic genetic effects of the QTL. σ is the

939 environmental error and h^2 is the heritability. V_1 , V_2 , V_3 and V_4 represent monogenic, digenic, trigenic and quadrigenic genetic variance components,

940 respectively. The estimation procedure was carried out assuming a range of values for the coefficient of double reduction α . The simulated values of α 941 are highlighted in bold. 942 **Table 8. Inference of major QTL genes affecting flowering time and plant height in a**

	Flowering time (days)	Plant height (cm)
$G_{P_1 /} G_{P_2}$	QQqq / QQqq	QQQq/QQQQ
\hat{lpha}	0.055	0.165
-ln(<i>L</i>)	939.47	1099.89
LOD score	13.83	5.70
P value	0.0000	0.003
\hat{h}^2	79.38	72.67
Mean	33.62	45.97
Monogenic	5.92 (25.97)***	12.46 (51.61) ***
Digenic	2.83 (2.03) ***	-6.84 (1.31) ***
Trigenic	0.59 (0.02) ***	-
Quadrigenic	-5.09 (0.09) ***	-
V_{QTL}/V_{Total} (%)	39.7	29.7
$V_{QTL}/V_{genetic}$ (%)	50.1	40.8

943 segregating population of autotetraploid potato.

Estimated parameters of the quantitative genetic model are given based on the most likely
parental genotype configuration. Monogenic, digenic, trigenic and quadrigenic genetic effects
estimated from the orthogonal contrast scales model are shown, with the genetic variance
component in brackets. *** *p*-value < 0.0001 from the two-tailed *t*-test.