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Development of a QTL-environment-based predictive model for node addition rate in common bean

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Abstract *Key message:*
This work reports the effects of the genetic makeup, the environment and the genotype by environment interactions for node addition rate in an RIL population of common bean. This information was used to build a predictive model for node addition rate.
Abstract:
To select a plant genotype that will thrive in targeted environments it is critical to understand the genotype by environment interaction (GEI). In this study, multi-environment QTL analysis was used to characterize node addition rate (NAR, node day⁻¹) on the main stem of the common bean (*Phaseolus vulgaris* L). This analysis was carried out with field data of 171 recombinant inbred lines that were grown at five sites (Florida, Puerto Rico, 2 sites in Colombia, and North Dakota). Four QTLs (Nar1, Nar2, Nar3 and Nar4) were identified, one of which had significant QTL by environment interactions (QEI), that is, Nar2 with temperature. Temperature was identified as the main environmental factor affecting NAR while day length and solar radiation played a minor role. Integration of sites as covariates into a QTL mixed site-effect model, and further replacing the site component with explanatory environmental covariates (i.e., temperature, day length and solar radiation) yielded a model that explained 73% of the phenotypic variation for NAR with root mean square error of 16.25% of the mean. The QTL consistency and stability was examined through a tenfold cross validation with different sets of genotypes and these four QTLs were always detected with 50–90% probability. The final model was evaluated using leave-one-site-out method to assess the influence of site on node addition rate. These analyses provided a quantitative measure of the effects on NAR of common beans exerted by the genetic makeup, the environment and their interactions.

Footnote Information Communicated by Marcos Malosetti.
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2 Development of a QTL-environment-based predictive model 3 for node addition rate in common bean

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38 with 50–90% probability. The final model was evaluated
39 using leave-one-site-out method to assess the influence of
40 site on node addition rate. These analyses provided a quan-
41 titative measure of the effects on NAR of common beans
42 exerted by the genetic makeup, the environment and their
43 interactions.

44 Introduction

AQ1 Developing cultivars that are well adapted to particular
46 environments requires accurate characterization of geno-
47 type-by-environment interactions (GEI). In order to make
48 the best breeding decisions given the complexity of mecha-
49 nisms and biological processes underlying a phenotypic
AQ2 trait including its responses to multiple environments, it is
51 helpful to use adequate strategies to understand GEI. GEI
52 has been defined in different ways. Often, it is regarded as
53 the differential phenotypic performance of a genotype from
54 others to different environments (Griffiths et al. 2000). GEI
55 can also be identified by observing the matrix of genetic
56 variance–covariances of the phenotypic trait across all
57 environments (Malosetti et al. 2013). Here, GEI is consid-
58 ered as the presence of heterogeneity of genetic variance
59 across environments, or as non-perfect genetic correlations
60 of the genotypic performances across environments. The
61 estimation of this genetic matrix requires the fitting of com-
62 plex statistical models that simultaneously combine infor-
63 mation from all tested field experiments by using a linear
64 mixed-model framework together with genetic information
65 (i.e., marker data) for the population studied (Beeck et al.
66 2010). A full understanding of the dynamics of GEI is a
67 critical component of the best breeding strategies, which
68 strive to identify genotypes best adapted to the targeted
69 environments.

70 Traits that show continuous variation are usually com-
71 plex and controlled by several genes. The genetic complex-
72 ity of these traits can be dissected with the assistance of
73 dense molecular-based linkage maps that allow scanning of
74 the genome to identify loci exhibiting large effects for the

75 trait, commonly referred to as quantitative trait loci (QTLs;
76 Lander and Botstein 1989). Furthermore, conducting phe-
77 notyping experiments under multiple environments pro-
78 vides an opportunity to identify the sources of variations in
79 a segregating population based on genetic (QTL), environ-
80 mental, and QTL-by-environment interactions (QEI). These
81 sources can be adequately identified and quantitatively
82 characterized by a mixed model that can utilize explicit
83 genotypic information (Boer et al. 2007). Combining geno-
84 typic and phenotypic data from multiple environments
85 into this type of model represents a powerful approach to
86 more accurately estimate the contribution to variation by
87 the different sources affecting a trait. For example, multi-
88 environment QTL mixed models have been used to iden-
89 tify QTLs for different traits in several species. For maize,
90 application of these models led to the detection of drought
91 resistance QTLs and QEI in the CIMMYT (International
92 Maize and Wheat Improvement Center) drought stress trial
93 by introducing genotypic and environmental covariates
94 to explain genetic and GEI (Malosetti et al. 2004, 2013);
95 van Eeuwijk et al. 2010). Similar analyses have been car-
96 ried out in wheat (Mathews et al. 2008), sorghum (Sabadin
97 et al. 2012), and in pepper where a multi-trait and multi-
98 environment (MTME) model explained about 83% of the
99 variation for total fruit dry weight from each plant (Alimi
100 et al. 2013). Recently, Heslot et al. (2014) demonstrated
101 the advantages of integrating environmental covariates
102 and crop modeling into a genomic selection framework to
103 predict GEI using a large winter wheat dataset. These new
104 approaches provide insight into the architecture of GEI, and
105 may improve the prediction of genotype performance based
106 on climatic conditions.

107 The growth rate and duration of the vegetative phase
108 of development of a plant may be important determinants
109 of the success of the reproductive phase and thus affect
110 crop yield. The developmental rate during the vegeta-
111 tive phase can be measured through the accumulation of
112 plastochrons, a developmental unit that measures the time
113 interval between the initiations of two successive leaves
114 on the shoot apical meristem. The successive genera-
115 tion of leaves at the shoot apical meristem results in the
116 production of successive phytomers; these are repeating
117 units comprised of a node with an attached leaf, a sub-
118 tending internode and an axillary meristem at the base of
119 the internode (Sussex 1989). Thus, the number of flow-
120 ers/inflorescences and branches may be directly propor-
121 tional to the number of nodes produced in a plant. The
122 rate of node production has been reported to depend on
123 temperature, the genotype, and CO₂ levels (Vallejos et al.
124 1983; Reddy et al. 1994). Furthermore, the node addi-
125 tion rate (NAR) has also been associated with levels of
126 miR156, squamosal-like proteins and cytochrome P450
127 genes in *Arabidopsis* (Schwarz et al. 2008; Wang et al.

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2008). In summary, previous research indicates that NAR is under genetic control, and can be influenced by the environment. Therefore, simultaneous characterization of the environmental effect on NAR along with the identification and characterization of the genes that control NAR can help lay the foundation for more complex growth traits, particularly those associated with leaf area index and the reproductive phase.

Common bean (*Phaseolus vulgaris*) is one of the world's most important food legumes representing a major source of protein and fiber for human consumption. Given current trends in population growth, demand for this crop, particularly in Latin America and sub-Saharan Africa, can be expected to grow at unprecedented levels (Echeverría 2014). To meet the growing demand for beans, plant breeders will have to develop high yielding new cultivars best adapted to sometimes harsh environments. Towards this goal, this study was conducted to identify the QTL exhibiting large effects on NAR, the environmental covariates that have a significant effect on NAR, and the GEI, which are all challenging factors to characterize in breeding programs. These objectives were achieved through the analysis of a recombinant inbred population grown in multi-environment trials (MET) using mixed-effect models. We present the construction of a QTL- and environment-based predictive model, in which the QTL consistency was evaluated through cross

validation by genotypes and the final model was assessed through leave-one-site-out method.

Materials and methods

Field experiments

An extensive, multisite, phenotyping experiment was carried out with a recombinant inbred (RI) family of common bean. This family was obtained from a cross between the determinate Andean cultivar Calima (SINCS 2003) and the indeterminate Mesoamerican cultivar Jamapa (Voyses 2000). The parental genotypes have contrasting growth habits, organ sizes, branching patterns, and photoperiod sensitivity. This RI family comprises 188 lines, which were propagated by single seed descent to the 11th generation, and in bulk to the 14th generation ($F_{11:14}$), and it was planted at five different field sites, along with the parental lines, using a Latinized, row-column design with three blocks (3 plots for each genotype, and 6 to 9 plots for each parental line depending on the site). Details of the field sites are presented in Table 1. The field experiments were located in: Citra, FL (CT); Palmira, Colombia (PA); Popayan, Colombia (PO); Isabela, Puerto Rico (PR); and Prosper, North Dakota (ND). These were planted between March 2011 and May 2012. For each site, 50 seeds of each genotype were sown in each plot at a depth of 2.5–3 cm

Table 1 Summary of site and management practices at five sites where 128–188 genotypes of common bean were grown

	CT	PA	PR	PO	ND
Site	Citra, Florida, USA	Palmira, Colombia	Isabela, Puerto Rico	Popayan, Colombia	Prosper, North Dakota, USA
Latitude	29°39'N	03°29'N	18°28'N	02°25'N	47°00'N
Longitude	82°06'W	76°81'W	61°02'W	76°62'W	96°47'W
Growing season	Mar 24th, 2011–Jun, 2011	Nov 10th, 2011–Jan, 2012	Feb 6th, 2012–May, 2012	Mar 23rd, 2012–Jun, 2012	May 19th, 2012–Aug, 2012
Previous culture	Fallow	Beans	Beans	Fallow	Wheat
Soil texture	Sand	Clay	Clayey Kaolinite	Medium Loam	Silt Clay Loam
Fertilization (kg ha ⁻¹)	136 (N); 60 (P); 112 (K)	40 (Urea)	55 (N-P-K:10-10-10)	96 (P); 129 (N); 80.3 (K)	No fertilizer
Irrigation	Central pivot sprinkler system	Rain fed	Drip	Rain fed	Rain fed
Plant density (plants m ⁻²)	4.3	3.0	3.9	4.3	3.3
Row spacing (cm)	90	120	100	90	150
# Of blocks	3	3	3	3	3
Total # of genotypes ^a	188	174	128	178	176
Measurement frequency	Weekly	Weekly	Weekly	Weekly	Weekly

CT, PA, PR, PO, and ND represent corresponding sites of Citra, FL Palmira, Colombia Isabela, Puerto Rico Popayan, Colombia and Prosper, North Dakota, respectively

^aNumber of genotypes (RILs) for each site was limited by seed availability

179 with planting density ranging from 3.0 to 4.3 plants m^{-2} .
 180 An average germination rate of about 80% was observed in
 181 the field, resulting in approximately 40 plants per plot that
 182 were available for data collection. All experiments were
 183 carried out under well-managed conditions with sufficient
 184 fertilizer and water, and pesticides and herbicides were
 185 applied as needed.

186 Phenotypic data

187 One plant per plot from each block, for each RIL and the
 188 two parental lines, was harvested on a weekly basis. Har-
 189 vests were initiated after emergence of the first true leaf,
 190 and were carried out a total of 7–10 times at each site
 191 depending on plant availability. The number of nodes bear-
 192 ing trifoliates larger than 2.5 cm on the main stem was
 193 recorded for each plant at each harvest time. Nodes on the
 194 main stem emerged in a predictable pattern such that when
 195 plotted vs. calendar days after planting, an approximate
 196 linear segmented relationship was obtained for each geno-
 197 type at each site. Node addition proceeded approximately
 198 in a linear fashion until it transitioned into a stationary pla-
 199 teau phase when the final node number had been reached.
 200 Hence, data of the first 3 harvests or 4 harvests were used
 201 to estimate the slope of the linear model for determinate
 202 and indeterminate RILs, respectively, in the R statistical
 203 software (V 3.1.2, 2014), and the final node numbers were
 204 obtained from the last few harvests. The slope corresponds
 205 to the average rate of node addition (NAR, node day^{-1}). To
 206 obtain the slope for each genotype at each site, nodes on
 207 main stem from harvested plants over the 3 plots were com-
 208 bined to calculate the average NAR (i.e., one NAR value
 209 per genotype per site), and they were used for multi-envi-
 210 ronment QTL mapping. However, NAR for each plot of a
 211 given genotype at each site (i.e., 3 NAR values per geno-
 212 type per site) was also obtained for heritability analysis
 213 (Eq. 1).

214 Environmental covariates

215 Temperature, solar radiation, and rainfall were recorded at
 216 weather stations located near each field. Day length was
 217 obtained from United States Naval Observatory (USNO)
 218 (http://aa.usno.navy.mil/data/docs/RS_OneYear.php) and
 219 solar radiation data that were not recorded or missing
 220 from local weather stations were obtained from the NASA
 221 POWER database (<http://power.larc.nasa.gov/>). The envi-
 222 ronmental covariates considered were average day length
 223 (DL, hr), average daily temperature (TEMP, $^{\circ}C$), maxi-
 224 mum temperature (TMAX, $^{\circ}C$), minimum temperature
 225 (TMIN, $^{\circ}C$) and solar radiation (SRAD, $MJ\ m^{-2}\ day^{-1}$)
 226 as presented in Fig. 1 for the growing season at each site.
 227 However, for analytical purposes, all covariates were

228 averaged for the time period from the 1st trifoliolate to end of
 229 vegetative phase (3rd or 4th harvests depending on the site)
 230 at each site (i.e., one value for each environmental covariate
 231 per genotype per site, Supplemental Table S1).

Genotypic data

232
 233 The QTL analyses on the MET data was carried out with a
 234 high-density linkage map (Bhakta et al. 2015), which was
 235 constructed with the experimental RI population using the
 236 genotyping-by-sequencing method described by Elshire
 237 et al. (2011). This linkage map contains 513 molecular
 238 markers distributed on 11 linkage groups with an average
 239 marker distance of 1.84 cM, which is considered as a good
 240 coverage for the population we are using.

Multiple-environment and QTL analyses

241
 242 As a first step, broad-sense heritability (H^2) of NAR trait
 243 was calculated by fitting the following specific linear mixed
 244 model using individual site data:

$$245 \quad NAR = \mu + block + row(block) + column(block) + g + e \quad (1)$$

246 where μ is the population mean of NAR (node day^{-1}) at
 247 each site; *block*, *row(block)* and *column(block)* are random
 248 effects of block, rows and columns within blocks, respec-
 249 tively; *g* is the random genotype effect of a RIL; and *e* is
 250 the random residual effect. The heritability was estimated
 251 by utilizing the generalized equation proposed by Cul-
 252 lis et al. (2006) as the experimental design was not a ran-
 253 dom complete block design. The equation is expressed as
 254 $H^2 = 1AvgDIFF/(2*Vg^2)$, with *AvgDIFF* the average of
 255 the variance for differences between genotypes, and *Vg* the
 256 estimate of the genetic variance, as implemented in Genstat
 257 v.18 (VSN International Ltd Hemel Hempstead, UK).

258 The second step consisted in fitting a MET model that
 259 combined experimental data from all sites. Row-column
 260 design effect was first excluded because it had little impact
 261 on NAR (data not shown). In addition, the heritability at
 262 PR site was found to be zero (Table 2) so the PR site data
 263 were removed for subsequent analyses. Therefore, the MET
 264 model was initially fitted using only NAR data for each
 265 genotype from the remaining four sites (CT, ND, PA, and
 266 PO; i.e., one data point per genotype per site). The method-
 267 ology was described in Malosetti et al. (2013). Briefly, this
 268 consisted of modifying the model from Eq. 1 to consider
 269 the four sites by including a fixed effect of site, *s*, and a
 270 random effect of genotype-by-site, $g \times s$, as shown in Eq. 2.

$$271 \quad NAR = \mu + s + g + g \times s + e \quad (2)$$

272 A factor analytic order 1 matrix was selected according
 273 to the Akaike Information Criterion (AIC) (Akaike 1974)

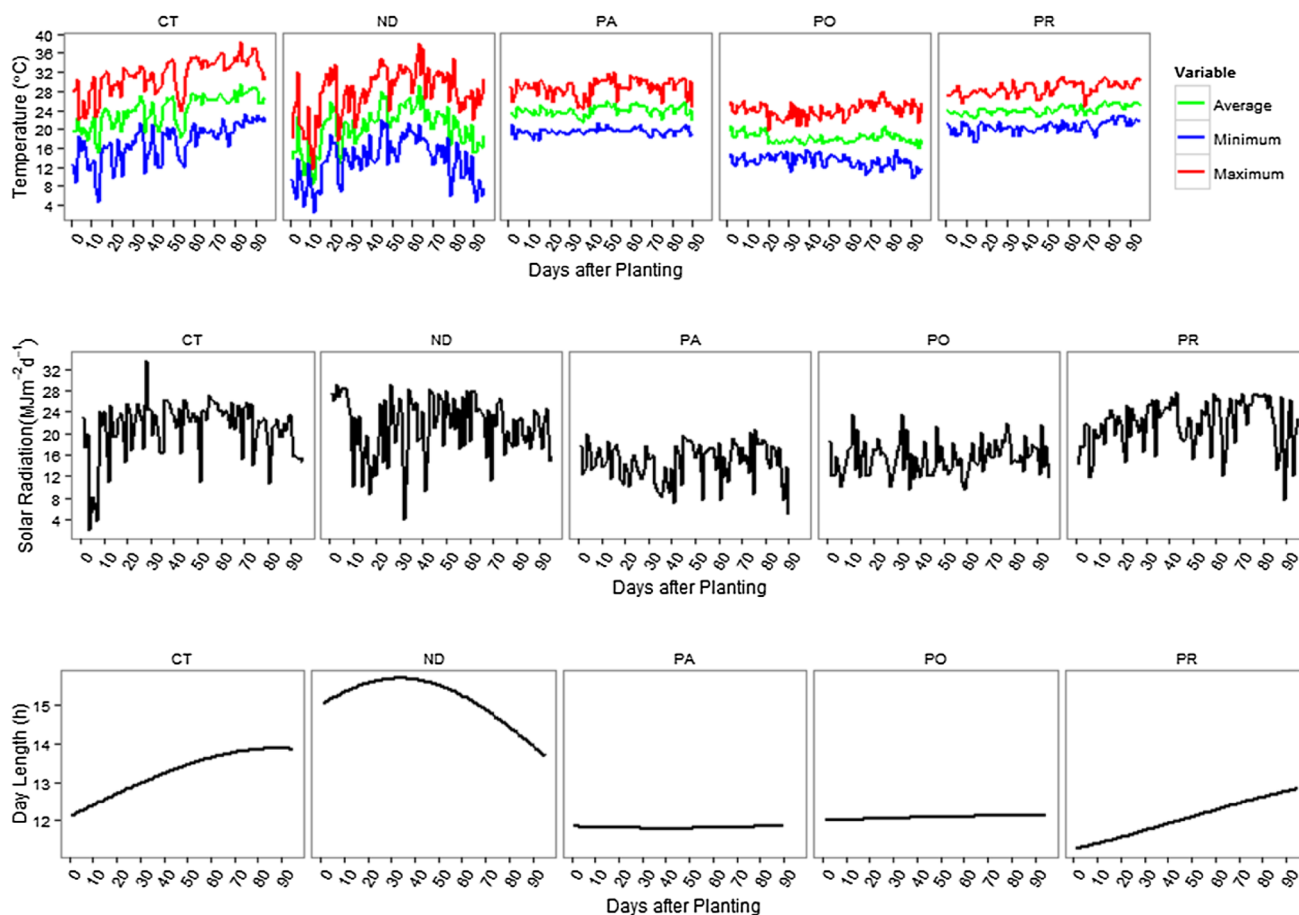


Fig. 1 The average, minimum, maximum temperatures ($^{\circ}\text{C}$), day length (hrs) and solar radiation ($\text{MJ m}^{-2} \text{day}^{-1}$) at Citra, FL (CT), Palmira, Colombia (PA), Isabela, Puerto Rico (PR), Popayan, Colombia (PO) and Prosper, North Dakota (ND)

274 to model the variance–covariance component and was later
 275 used to specify the data structure in a genome-wide QTL
 276 scan using simple interval mapping, which evaluates each
 277 marker individually for significance (Lander and Botstein
 278 1989). Then, the QTLs identified from simple interval
 279 mapping were specified as cofactors in composite interval
 280 mapping (Zeng 1994), and composite interval mapping was
 281 run at least three times consecutively to confirm stability of
 282 the fitted statistics profile.

283 In this study, the minimum separation distance for
 284 selected QTL was set to 3 cM and the minimum cofactor
 285 proximity was set to 50 cM based on current linkage map
 286 information, and significance level was set at $P < 0.001$.
 287 The fitted model (QTL mixed site-effect model) from Eq. 2
 288 would contain all significant QTL and QEI model terms as
 289 exemplified in Eq. 3,

$$290 \text{NAR} = \mu + s + \text{QTL}_1 + \text{QTL}_2 + \dots + \text{QTL}_1 \times s + \text{QTL}_2$$

$$291 \times s + \dots + e \quad (3)$$

291 where μ is the population mean across sites, s represents the
 292 site effect; QTL_1 , QTL_2 etc. are assumed QTLs identified

293 as having main effect; $\text{QTL}_1 \times s$, $\text{QTL}_2 \times s$ etc. are assumed
 294 QTL by site (Environment) interactions (i.e., QEI), and e
 295 represents the error term that was modelled by considering
 296 a factor analytic of order 1 variance–covariance error struc-
 297 ture. A backward selection procedure was used to retain
 298 significant fixed terms ($P < 0.05$). The above procedure
 299 was done using the QTL mapping framework described by
 300 Malosetti et al. (2013) as implemented in GenStat v.18.

301 QTLs and QEI consistency

302 The consistency and stability of the identified QTLs
 303 together with their interaction with site was examined
 304 through a tenfold cross validation by using different sets of
 305 genotypes. Specifically, all 171 RILs were randomly dis-
 306 tributed into 10 groups, then QTLs analysis was conducted
 307 by dropping one group of genotypes at a time, that is, the
 308 QTLs would be identified based on 9 groups of genotypes
 309 each time and this process would be repeated 10 times to
 310 assess the reliability of these identified QTLs and their pos-
 311 sible interactions with site.

Table 2 The average rate of node addition (NAR, node day⁻¹) and final number of nodes on main stem at each location for the two parental lines (Jamapa and Calima) and recombinant inbred lines (RILs) separated by indeterminate and determinate genotypes (n=3 for RILs; n=6-9 for parental lines)

Variables/site	CT*	PA	PR	PO	ND
NAR					
Jamapa	0.26±0.04	0.35±0.02	0.31±0.03	0.20±0.01	0.24±0.03
Calima	0.17±0.04	0.23±0.04	0.20±0.05	0.14±0.02	0.13±0.06
RILs*	0.26±0.06 ^{ab}	0.34±0.07 ^a	0.28±0.08 ^{ab}	0.18±0.04 ^b	0.24±0.08 ^{ab}
Indeterminate**	0.29±0.05	0.35±0.04	0.29±0.06	0.20±0.03	0.28±0.05
Determinate	0.22±0.06	0.32±0.09	0.26±0.10	0.16±0.03	0.20±0.08
Final number of nodes					
Jamapa	14.7±2.1	16.1±2.2	15.2±3.2	11.7±2.3	18.5±0.71
Calima	5.0±1.0	7.8±0.9	4.8±1.3	6.3±2.5	4.0±0.0
RILs	8.8±3.5	11.1±3.5	8.9±4.7	8.7±3.0	10.8±5.3
Indeterminate**	11.9±1.9	13.8±2.3	12.5±3.7	10.9±1.8	14.0±2.7
Determinate	6.1±2.1	8.03±1.4	5.2±2.0	6.2±1.8	5.9±2.5
Genetic variance (×10E-2)	0.36	0.30	0.00	0.08	0.33
Residual variance ×10E-2)	0.24	0.30	1.12	0.18	0.30
Heritability (H^2)	0.64	0.73	0.00	0.58	0.72

The genetic variance, residual variance and broad-sense heritability (H^2) are reported at each location. NARs were estimated as the slope with final number of nodes as the plateau of the segmental linear relationship between nodes on the main stem and calendar days

CT, PA, PR, PO and ND represent corresponding sites of Citra, FL Palmira, Colombia Isabela, Puerto Rico Popayan, Colombia and Prosper, North Dakota, respectively

*Different letters in a row indicated the significance (one-way ANOVA, $P < 0.05$) of the average values of the rate of node addition (NAR, node day⁻¹) across RILs

**The node addition rates (NAR, node day⁻¹) and final node number on the main stem between indeterminates and determinates were significantly different at all five sites ($P < 0.05$)

312 Integration of environmental information in modeling 313 QTL effect

314 The specific covariates included in a linear form were DL,
315 SRAD, TEMP, TMAX and TMIN. These were averaged over
316 all three plots for each genotype at each site during the node
317 addition period (Supplement Table S1). They were incorpo-
318 rated in the model by replacing the site term “s” and any of
319 its specific QEI in Eq. 3. Briefly, the procedure initially con-
320 sisted of including each environmental covariate, one at a
321 time, and then performing a pre-selection of relevant terms
322 that have biological meaning for NAR such as temperature
323 and day length. Later, a full model (see Eq. 5 in Results) was
324 fitted that followed a backwards selection that retained terms
325 that were statistically significant ($P < 0.05$) or that contributed
326 to the understanding of the biological mechanisms. All covar-
327 iates were evaluated to determine whether they had a main
328 effect or interaction with one or more QTLs, and the fac-
329 tor analytic order 1 variance–covariance matrix was always
330 retained as the genetic structure for NAR during this fitting
331 process. Hence, the final model corresponds to a QTL-envi-
332 ronment-based predictive model that depends uniquely on
333 some QTLs, environmental covariates and, whenever it exists
334 and is significant, their interactions. This model allows pre-
335 diction of the NAR phenotype of specific genotypes (those
336 described by the QTLs selected) for similar site with known

weather/climatic conditions that are within the range of our
experimental conditions. 337 338

339 Model evaluation

340 To assess the influence of each site on the final QTL-envi-
341 ronment-based model, leave-one-site-out method was used
342 to evaluate the quality of the crop model obtained based on
343 environmental variables. Specifically, a QTL-environment-
344 based model would be built up using three of the four data-
345 sets (CT, ND, PA and PO) and the remaining dataset would
346 be used to evaluate the performance of the model. The evalu-
347 ation of the prediction ability of the model was based on the
348 correlation coefficient between the observed NAR and pre-
349 dicted NAR, the % bias and the RMSE.

350 Results

351 Phenotypic data analysis

352 The average NAR values and final node numbers on the
353 main stem of the parental lines and all RILs at all five sites
354 are presented in Table 2. As expected, the NARs of the two
355 parental lines, Jamapa and Calima, were significantly dif-
356 ferent from each other ($P < 0.05$) at all five sites, and the

357 RILs showed clear continuous variation for this trait sug-
 358 gesting polygenic control (Table 2; Fig. 2). Overall, these
 359 results indicated that NAR is strongly affected by both the
 360 genotype and the environment. For instance, plants grown
 361 in PA had the highest average NAR (0.34 ± 0.07 node
 362 day^{-1}) with one node being added every 2.9 days, while
 363 those grown in PO had the lowest NAR (0.18 ± 0.04 node
 364 day^{-1}) with one node being added every 5.6 days. The NAR
 365 of Jamapa was about 50% higher in CT, PA and PR, but
 366 only 40% higher in PO than that of Calima, while ND had
 367 a disproportionate effect where NAR of Jamapa was over
 368 80% higher than that of Calima. Although there was a clear
 369 difference between indeterminates and determinates at all
 370 five sites and the rates of indeterminates were higher than
 371 those of the determinate RILs in general, the differences in
 372 NAR between these two growth habits do not resemble the
 373 differences observed between the parents, suggesting that
 374 growth habit had an effect on NAR but could not explain
 375 all the variations in the RIL family. The lack of uniformity

in the environmental NAR responses among the parents
 and RILs suggested the existence of GEI. The final number
 of nodes on the main stem also varied among sites, had a
 trend similar to that of NAR. NAR and final node number
 were highly correlated (correlation = 0.45, $P < 0.05$) across
 all 5 sites, with the specific correlations of 0.55, 0.59, 0.58,
 0.52 and 0.21 at CT, ND, PA, PO and PR, respectively.

The frequency distributions (i.e., density plots) of NAR
 are presented in Fig. 2 for the entire population (left panel)
 and for the population separated by growth habit (right
 panel) at each site. These histograms display three impor-
 tant features: (1) continuous variation, (2) transgressive
 behavior in the RIL family, as many lines have NARs that
 are outside the parental range, with many significantly dif-
 ferent from either parent ($P < 0.05$), and (3) the shape
 of the distributions appears to be influenced by the site. For
 example, at one extreme are CT and PA where the distribu-
 tions approximated normality while at ND, PO and PR they
 appeared to be bimodal for the entire population with some

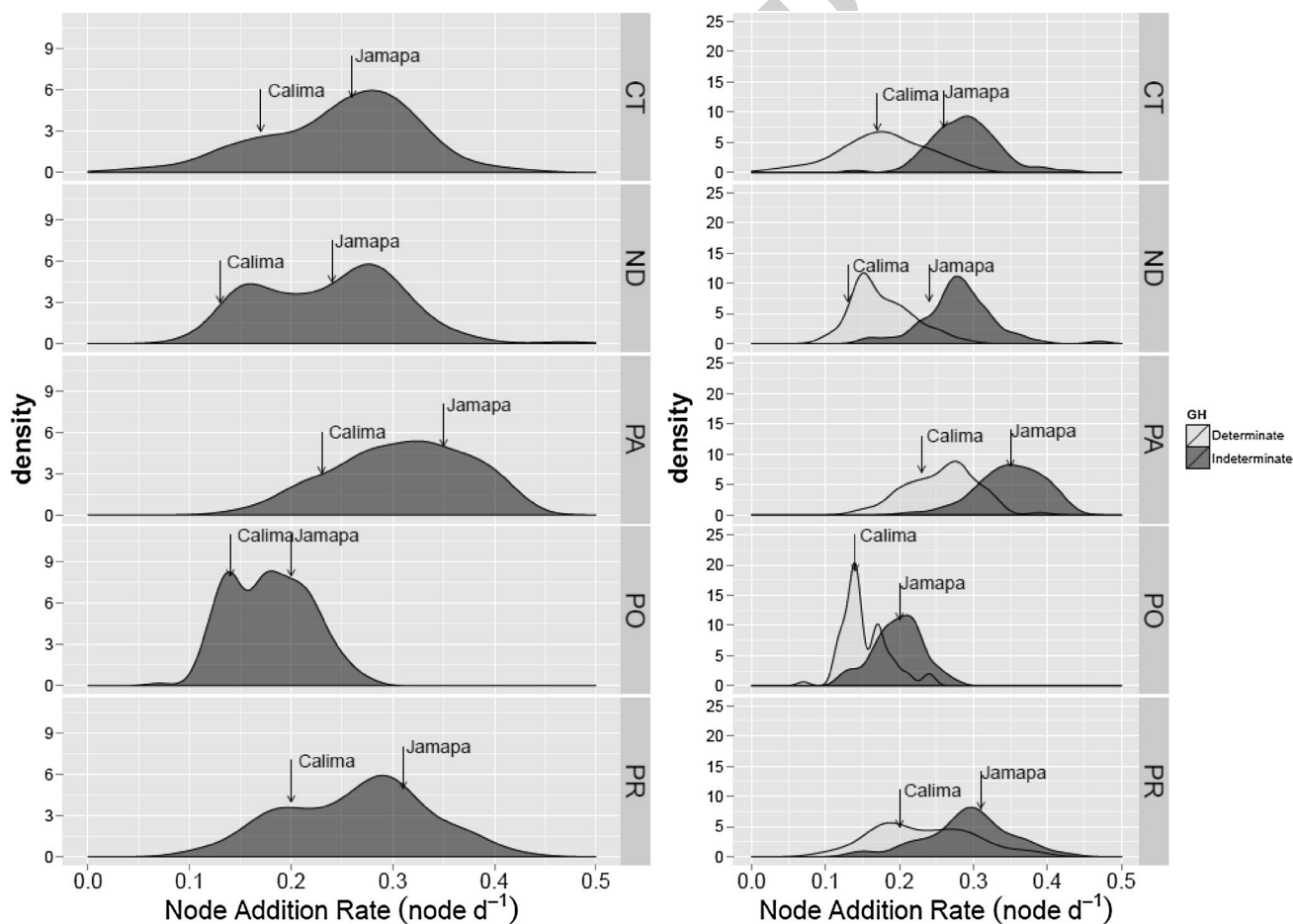


Fig. 2 Density plots of main stem node addition rate (NAR, node day^{-1}) for the entire recombinant inbred lines (RIL) population (left panel) and for the different growth habit (right panel) at each site. CT,

PA, PR, PO and ND represent Citra, FL Palmira, Colombia Isabela, Puerto Rico Popayan, Colombia and Prosper, North Dakota, respectively

395 overlapping between determinate and indeterminate geno-
 396 types (Fig. 2). Closer examination by separating the pop-
 397 ulation according to growth habit revealed that the bimo-
 398 dality was caused to a great extent by the different growth
 399 habits. These density plots (Fig. 2) also show the heteroge-
 400 neous variances across sites.

401 The broad-sense heritability (H^2) of the five sites aver-
 402 aged 0.53 with values of 0.64, 0.73, 0.000, 0.58 and
 403 0.72 (Table 2) for CT, PA, PR, PO and ND, respectively
 404 (Table 2), while the row and column factors had little
 405 impact on NAR. Results from 4 out of 5 sites implied that
 406 NAR may be under genetic control indicating the appropri-
 407 ateness of conducting further QTL analysis. Since the her-
 408 itability at PR site was zero, the PR data was dropped and
 409 not used for further QTL analysis. Subsequently, the corre-
 410 lations between sites were examined among the 4 sites (CT,
 411 PA, PO and ND) ranging from 0.53 to 0.72. Also, the biplot
 412 (Fig. 3) showed the high correlation among these sites, with
 413 the highest correlation between CT and PA (smallest angle,
 414 correlation of 0.72) and lowest correlation between CT and
 415 PO (largest angle, correlation of 0.53); similar length of the
 416 arrow for each site indicated similar phenotypic variances
 417 within each site; additionally, some RILs (light grey dots)
 418 had similar responses at each site (negative values on first
 419 dimension) while other RILs had different responses (posi-
 420 tive values on first dimension), implying potential genotype
 421 by environment interactions.

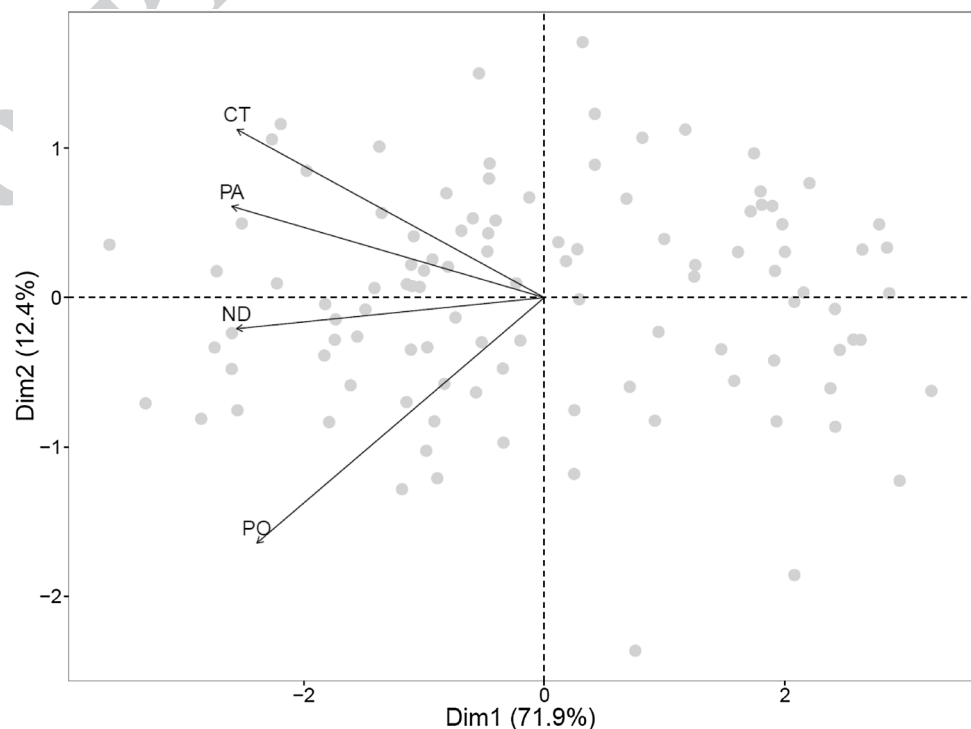
QTL mixed site-effect model

422 Analysis of the multi-environment data (four sites data, CT,
 423 ND, PA and PO) revealed the presence of four NAR QTLs
 424 ($P < 0.001$). Three separate QTLs were detected on chro-
 425 mosome 1 (Nar1, Nar2, Nar3), and one on chromosome 7
 426 (Nar4) (Fig. 4). This analysis also indicated that site had a
 427 significant impact on NAR. Furthermore, one QTL (Nar2)
 428 presented significant interactions with site. The QTL site-
 429 effect model is described by the following equation:
 430

$$431 \text{NAR} = \mu + s + \text{Nar1} + \text{Nar2} + \text{Nar3} + \text{Nar4} + \text{Nar2} \times s + e \quad (4)$$

432 Details of the site effects, marker positions where the high-
 433 est $-\log(P)$ values associated with the QTL region were
 434 found, the QTL main effects, and QEI effects are listed in
 435 Table 3. The QTL effects shown in the table are those for
 436 the Jamapa alleles. The effect of Jamapa alleles was not
 437 uniform across sites for QTL Nar2, displaying significant
 438 QEI. Jamapa alleles at Nar2 increased NAR at all sites, but
 439 their effects varied between 17% of the parental difference
 440 in PO to 6% in ND. Nar1, Nar3 and Nar4 did not show QEI
 441 and contributed to NAR uniformly across sites by 0.010,
 442 0.009 and 0.008 node day⁻¹, respectively. The contribu-
 443 tion by these loci represented approximately 6 to 16% of
 444 the parental differences. Overall, this QTL mixed site-effect
 445 model (Eq. 4) explained 73% of the phenotypic variation of
 446 NAR, with RMSE of 16.16% and bias of 0.00% (Fig. 5a).

Fig. 3 Biplot between sites and genotypes showing the genetic correlation among the four sites (arrows) for NAR. Each grey dot represents one genotype, Dim1 and Dim2 are the first dimension and second dimension of the data, respectively, explaining the phenotypic variation. CT, PA, PO and ND represent Citra, FL Palmira, Colombia Popayan, Colombia and Prosper, North Dakota, respectively



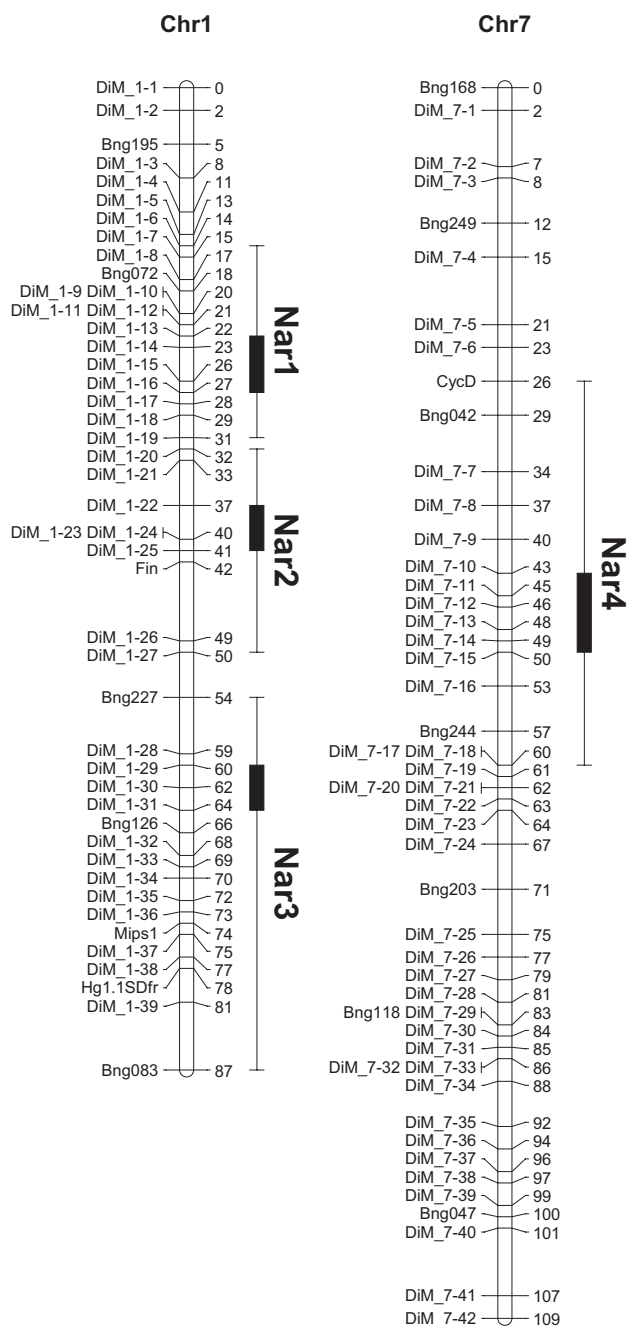


Fig. 4 QTL result from multi-environment QTL mapping for main stem node addition rate (NAR, node day⁻¹) in the common bean RIL population. Four QTLs were detected with Nar1, Nar2, Nar3 on chromosome 1 (Chr1) and Nar4 on chromosome 7 (Chr7). Error bars represent the corresponding marker positions within ± 1.5 of the $-\log(P)$ value of the QTL peak (black box)

447 QTLs and QEI consistency

448 The QTL and QEI consistency and stability were checked
449 through a tenfold cross validation by genotypes by ran-
450 domly creating 10 groups of genotypes (i.e., 17 genotypes

for 9 groups and one group of 18 genotypes), then dropping one group at a time and identifying QTLs for NAR based on the remaining 9 groups (Table 4). When dropping one group of genotypes from the analyses, the previously identified QTLs (Eq. 4 and Table 3) or the QTL regions near these identified QTLs were detected for most of the group analyses. For example, Nar2 and Nar3 were accurately detected 8 out of 10 (80%) and 9 out of 10 (90%) group analyses, respectively. It should be noted that while it seems new QTLs were identified with cross validation, some of these markers are closely located to the region of QTLs identified using all genotypes. For instance, a QTL identified on marker positions at 40.3 cM on chromosome 1 was very close to or in the range of the QTL position of Nar2 (marker position 42.1 cM). If considering the nearby region (i.e., ± 1.5 of the $\log_{10}(P)$ value of the highest peak, Fig. 3) as the same QTL regions, Nar2 was considered to be identified every single group analysis together with its interaction with site. Nar1, Nar4 were detected with 90% and 50% of the group analyses, respectively, when considering nearby QTL regions as the same (Fig. 3). However, one QTL on chromosome 11 and its interaction with site was also detected but in only 2 of the tenfold analyses (20%), and another QTL on chromosome 10 was detected just once. This is likely due to the fact that the weight of each group of genotypes was different allowing for the detection of a specific QTL. Overall, the four QTLs and the QEI effect identified across the four locations with all genotypes (Table 3) were considered to be consistent and were supported by the tenfold cross validation (Table 4).

QTL-environment-based predictive model with the inclusion of environmental covariates

The prediction of the QTL mixed site-effect model (Eq. 4) is restricted to the sites and conditions recorded during the experiment. To extend the predictability of the model, we used the mixed effects approach to extract information about the effects of specific environmental covariates for which we had collected data during the growing periods at each site. The objective of this analysis was to replace the “s” term effect with those significant environmental covariates. TEMP successfully explained part of the variation of Nar2 effects; partitioning the site effect (“s” term in Eq. 4) in the mixed site-effect model revealed that TEMP had the largest environment effect contributing 0.020 to NAR per °C (Eq. 5); in other words, an increase of 1 °C in the mean of daily average temperature would cause an increase of 0.020 nodes per day in NAR (i.e., 8% increase of the overall mean of 0.243 node day⁻¹). In contrast, SRAD and DL had minor, but significant effects. Details of the effects for significant environmental covariates, QTLs and QEI are

Table 3 Marker genetic locations (in cM) with the highest $-\log(P)$ value associated with QTL region, site effects with standard error, and QTL by environment interactions (QEI) from the QTL mixed site-effect model (Eq. 4) for node addition rate (NAR, node day⁻¹) at each site

	Chr	Linkage position (cM)	$-\log_{10}(P)$	CT	PA	PO	ND	QEI ^a
<i>s</i> (site effect) ^b				0.000 (0.004)	0.065 (0.004)	-0.063 (0.004)	-0.012 (0.004)	
Nar1 ^c	1	17.80	4.979	0.010 (0.002)	0.010 (0.002)	0.010 (0.002)	0.010 (0.002)	No
Nar2	1	42.10	54.110	0.045 (0.004)	0.041 (0.004)	0.017 (0.003)	0.046 (0.004)	Yes
Nar3	1	87.10	5.503	-0.009 (0.002)	-0.009 (0.002)	-0.009 (0.002)	-0.009 (0.002)	No
Nar4	7	50.00	4.113	0.007 (0.002)	0.007 (0.002)	0.007 (0.002)	0.007 (0.002)	No

The site mean of 0.024 (0.004) node day⁻¹ at Citra, FL is used as the baseline μ in the Eq. 4

CT, PA, PO and ND represent corresponding sites of Citra, FL Palmira, Colombia Popayan, Colombia and Prosper, North Dakota, respectively

^aEI represents whether there exists a significant QTL by environment interaction based on AIC criteria

^bSite effects were using CT mean as baseline

^cNar1, Nar2, Nar3 and Nar4 are the identified QTLs for node addition rate in common bean. For the same QTL, positive sign indicates that the Jamapa alleles accelerated NAR while negative sign indicates the Calima alleles accelerated NAR

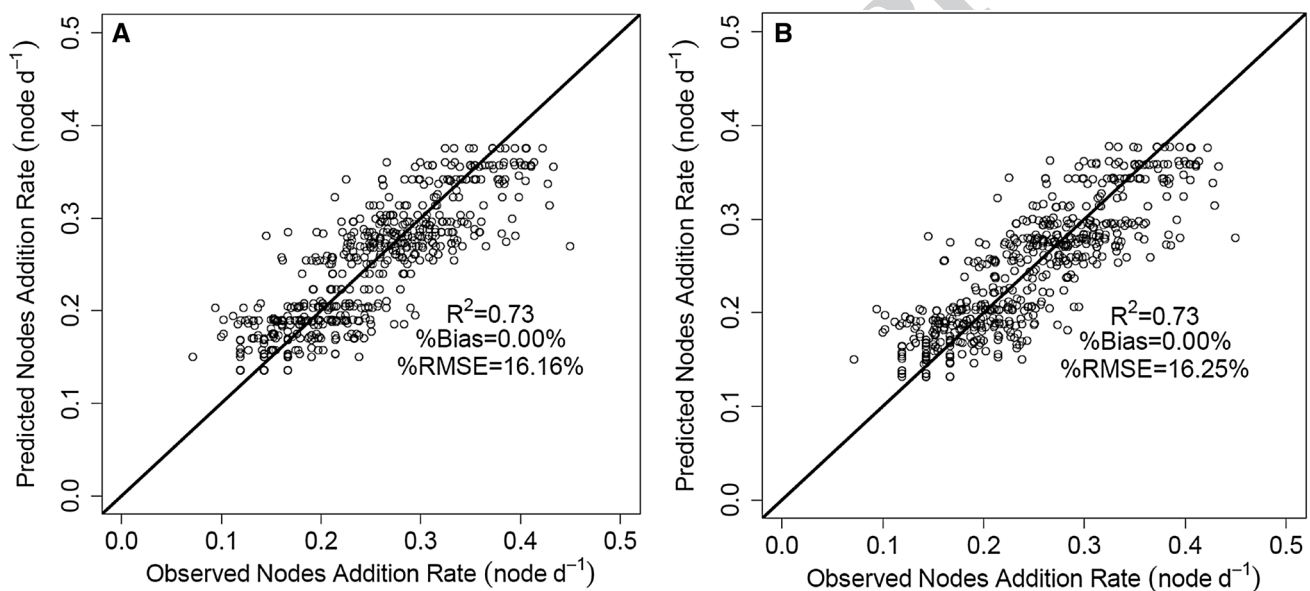


Fig. 5 **a** Predicted vs. observed main stem node addition rate (NAR, node day⁻¹) from the QTL mixed site-effect model (Eq. 4) for each RIL at all four sites. **b** Predicted vs. observed NAR from the QTL-

and environment-based predictive model (Eq. 5) for each RIL at all four sites. Points on the solid 1:1 diagonal line represent equal predicted and observed NAR values for **a** and **b**

501 presented in Table 5. The final QTL-environment-based
502 predictive model attained was as follows with fixed effects:
503

$$\widehat{NAR} = 0.243 + 0.020(\text{TEMP} - 20.95) - 0.005(\text{SRAD} - 16.26) - 0.004(\text{DL} - 13.05) - 0.009\text{Nar1} - 0.032\text{Nar2} + 0.009\text{Nar3} - 0.008\text{Nar4} - 0.004\text{Nar2}(\text{TEMP} - 21.51) \quad (5)$$

504 where all the terms were previously described and Nar1,
505 Nar2, Nar3 and Nar4 are genotypic variables (QTLs) that
506 take the value “1” for Calima alleles and “-1” for Jamapa

alleles. The values 20.95, 16.26 and 13.05 are the average values of the environmental covariates of TEMP (°C), SRAD (MJ m⁻² day⁻¹) and DL (hr) across all four sites during the node addition period. This QTL-environment-based predictive model represents the QTL by environment covariate interaction (i.e., QEI) as shown with Nar2×TEMP model terms. As mentioned earlier, an increase of 0.020 nodes per day in NAR would be expected per °C increase in the daily average temperature. Additionally, the NAR would increase by 0.008 units when the Calima alleles are replaced with the Jamapa alleles and vice

Table 4 Marker locations (in cM) on a chromosome (Chr) that were identified through the tenfold cross validation by genotypes

Chr	Linkage position (cM)	1st ^a	2nd	3rd	4th	5th	6th	7th	8th	9th	10th	Percentage ^c
1	13.2			Y ^b								10
1	17.8		Y		Y					Y	Y	40
1	20.7	Y						Y				20
1	21.4					Y			Y			20
1	28.1						Y					10
1	<u>40.3</u>					Y			Y			20
1	42.1	Y	Y	Y	Y		Y	Y		Y	Y	80
1	78.2					Y						10
1	87.1	Y	Y	Y	Y		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	90
7	34.4					Y						10
7	47.7			Y								10
7	50.0							Y	Y		Y	30
7	52.7	Y										10
10	13.6								Y			10
11	6.5			Y			Y					20

The chromosome number (Chr) and linkage position in bold are the QTLs identified using all genotypes across four locations., while the chromosome number (Chr) and linkage position with underline are the QTL by environment interactions (QEI) identified

^aHe 171 genotypes were randomly distributed into 10 groups, 1st represents dropping the 1st group of genotypes (10% of RILs) and performing the QTL analyses and continues through the 10th group

^b“Y” indicates the QTL or QEI was identified when dropping the corresponding group of genotypes

^cThe percentage of group analyses (out of 10) that a QTL was identified

Table 5 Environmental covariates, QTLs and QTL by environment interactions (QEI) included in the QTL-environment-based predictive model (Eq. 5) and their effects with standard errors (SE) for node addition rate (NAR, node day⁻¹) in common bean

Significant term ^a	F statistic	P value	Coefficients (SE)
TEMP × Nar2 ^b	63.23	<0.001	-0.004 (0.001)
Nar4	16.01	<0.001	-0.008 (0.002)
Nar3	21.82	<0.001	0.009 (0.002)
Nar2	171.79	<0.001	-0.032 (0.002)
Nar1	18.88	<0.001	-0.010 (0.002)
DL	13.90	<0.001	-0.005 (0.001)
SRAD	95.40	<0.001	-0.005 (0.001)
TEMP	1349.62	<0.001	0.020 (0.001)

^aTEMP, DL, SRAD represent average daily temperature (°C), day length (hr) and solar radiation (MJ m⁻² d⁻¹), respectively

^bNar1, Nar2, Nar3 and Nar4 are the identified QTLs for node addition rate in common bean

518 versa for the term Nar2 × (TEMP-20.95), that is twice the
519 value of the coefficient (0.004) for the term. The model still
520 explained 73% of the phenotypic variation of NAR with a
521 RMSE of 16.25% and a bias of 0.00% (see Fig. 5b). The
522 final model (Eq. 5) can be used to inform crop models on
523 the effects of different environments on NAR.

Model evaluation

524

525 Leave-one-site-out analyses were conducted to assess the
526 quality of the final QTL-environment-based models in the
527 sense of crop modeling. For each of the QTL-environ-
528 ment-based models built upon three sites, temperature was
529 always found playing a major role in affecting NAR not
530 only as a main environmental covariate but also as inter-
531 acting with the QTL Nar2; the four QTLs were also iden-
532 tified for most of the analyses when dropping individual
533 site to detected QTLs (data not shown); in addition, these
534 models explained 65–77% phenotypic variation of NAR.
535 Figure 6 shows the comparisons between simulated NAR
536 from the QTL-environment-based models based on three
537 sites vs. the observed NAR from the fourth location. For
538 instance, leave-one-site-out evaluation at CT means that,
539 the QTL-environment-based model was built upon PA, PO
540 and ND data, and CT data was used to evaluate the model.
541 The average RMSE and bias are at 35.4 and 25.9%, respec-
542 tively, with PO having the poorest performance.

Discussion

543

544 This study focused on the identification and characteriza-
545 tion of the genetic and environmental factors that affect

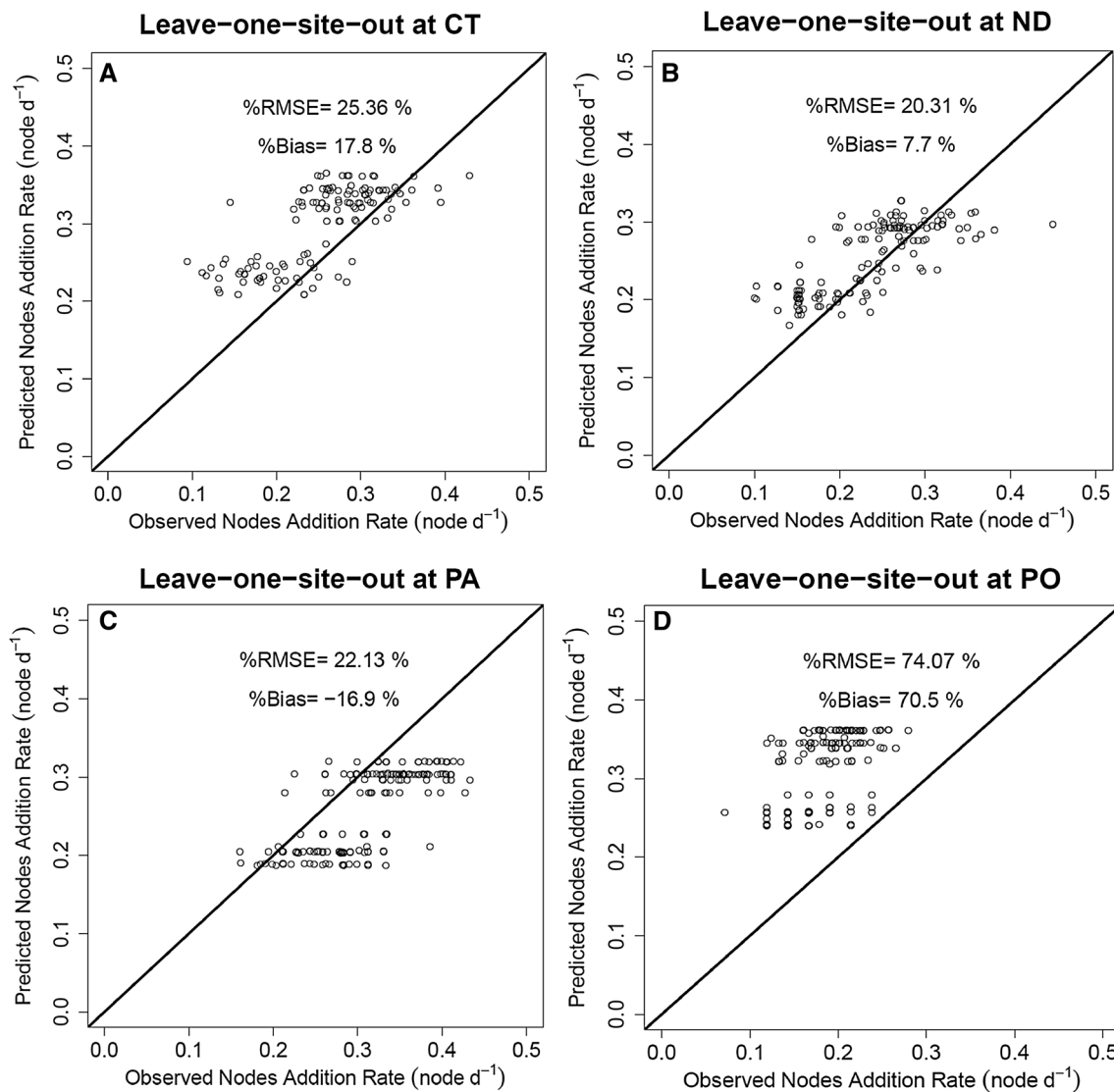


Fig. 6 Simulated vs. observed main stem node addition rate through leave-one-site-out method. “Leave-one-site-out at CT” indicates that the QTL-environment-based model was built up using data from PA, PO and ND but was evaluated using data from CT (a). Similar inter-

pretation applies for other locations based on what site was being evaluated, i.e. evaluated at ND (b), PA (c), or PO (d). CT, PA, PO and ND represent Citra, FL Palmira, Colombia Popayan, Colombia and Prosper, North Dakota, respectively

546 NAR in common bean. This is an important trait because it
 547 reflects the rate of development during the vegetative phase
 548 of the plant. The factors that control this rate can have an
 549 impact on the rate of dry matter accumulation and the onset
 550 of reproductive development. Density plots of NAR at each
 551 site (Fig. 2) and the genetic correlation among sites (Fig. 3)
 552 indicated potential polygenic control, strong environmental
 553 responses and transgressive segregation.

554 In the mixed site-effect QTL model (Eq. 2–4), Nar2
 555 displayed significant interactions with temperature.
 556 Nar2 co-segregated with the *FIN* gene, which controls
 557 growth habit (Norton 1915), and has been identified as
 558 a homolog of the *Arabidopsis TFL1* gene (Repinski et al.

2012). *FIN* has been associated with the domestication
 syndrome including determinacy, number of nodes on
 main stem, number of pods and number of days to flower-
 ing in common bean (Koinange et al. 1996). Determining
 whether Nar2 and *FIN* are the same gene would provide
 new insight into the mechanism of node addition in com-
 mon bean. In general, the bimodal distribution could be
 explained by the effect of a single gene. The bimodal-
 ity observed within determinate plants in PO suggested
 there may exist another gene that interacts with the
 recessive allele of the potential *FIN* gene, however, no
 other QTLs were detected within the determinate plants,
 which may be caused by the small number of determinate

572 RILs within the entire population, or the error propaga- 625
 573 tion from data collection and NAR estimation which 626
 574 may contribute to a possible false peak detected within 627
 575 determinates. 628

576 Transitioning from the QTL-site effect model (Eq. 4) to 629
 577 the QTL-environment-based model (Eq. 5) did not lower 630
 578 the model efficiency (73%) indicating that almost all of 631
 579 the site effects were extracted as individual environmental 632
 580 covariates. The predictive ability of our model compares 633
 581 well with similarly constructed models of other species. 634
 582 For instance, in a recent study of the genetic architecture 635
 583 of maize height (Peiffer et al. 2014), the family-nested QTL 636
 584 models explained approximately 51–86% of the variation 637
 585 of maize height. As mentioned above, the unexplained vari- 638
 586 ation of our model (Fig. 5) could be explained in part by 639
 587 genetic effects that were not detected by our analysis, or 640
 588 environmental variables such as soil moisture content that 641
 589 were not measured in these experiments. 642

590 The QTL-environment-based model showed that temper- 643
 591 ature was the main factor driving NAR in common 644
 592 bean. This is consistent with other studies on node addition 645
 593 in indeterminate common bean plants under different tem- 646
 594 perature and photoperiods (Wallace et al. 1991; Yourstone 647
 595 and Wallace 1990a, b), and is also supported by studies 648
 596 where temperature was used as the main or only factor 649
 597 affecting node/leaf addition for modeling purposes (Jones 650
 598 et al. 1999; Sinclair 1984; Soltani et al. 2006; Soltani and 651
 599 Sinclair 2012). For beans, an increase in temperature from 652
 600 17 to 23 and to 29 °C caused increased node addition rate 653
 601 under 12 h of day length (Yourstone and Wallace 1990b). 654
 602 Day length plays a critical part in flowering and NAR in the 655
 603 common bean, an increase in day length from 12 to 14 h 656
 604 caused an increase in NAR under constant 23 °C but further 657
 605 increase to 16 h did not enhance NAR for selected inde- 658
 606 terminate beans (Yourstone and Wallace 1990b). However, 659
 607 their results were based on removal of branches which may 660
 608 have altered the source sink relationship of the plant and 661
 609 have a secondary effect on node addition rate. Here, day 662
 610 length only had a minor effect on NAR. Solar radiation also 663
 611 had a minor effect with a small reduction in NAR (0.005 664
 612 node day⁻¹ per MJ m⁻² day⁻¹). Nevertheless, as of now, it 665
 613 appears that for predictive models or crop models, tempera- 666
 614 ture can be used as the main environmental factor affecting 667
 615 NAR in common bean.

616 The leave-one-site-out evaluation showed relatively low 668
 617 %RMSE and %bias for CT, ND and PA (Fig. 6) analy- 669
 618 ses, particularly when considering the fact that only a few 670
 619 QTLs were taken into account. However, the model when 671
 620 evaluated at PO was largely over predicted, which is likely 672
 621 caused by the much cooler temperatures at PO. Therefore, 673
 622 when building the model based on CT, ND and PA data, 674
 623 the low temperature effects were not captured in the model. 675
 624 These analyses demonstrate the need to have data from a

625 broad range of environments to build the NAR model. 626
 627 Another limitation on these models are the fact they are lin- 628
 629 ear and do not take into account the nonlinear relationships 629
 630 that often occur with a trait and the environmental covari- 630
 631 ates. Others have demonstrated that analyses that use non- 631
 632 linear models for a trait can detect QTLs that are not found 632
 633 with a set of time-point analyses and that these non-linear 633
 634 models provide better understanding of the biological 634
 635 mechanisms of the trait (Malosetti et al. 2006; van Eeuwijk 635
 636 et al. 2010). The use of a nonlinear model for NAR will 636
 637 likely improve the model's predictability of this trait. 637

638 Predicting the phenotype from the genotype (G2P) 638
 639 is considered to be an essential outcome of the next gen- 639
 640 eration of crop models. Models that can accurately predict 640
 641 plant growth and development based on the plant genotype 641
 642 and environmental data as inputs can solve the G2P prob- 642
 643 lem. These types of models will not only help us under- 643
 644 stand the underlying mechanism of a trait or of an environ- 644
 645 mental response, but also help plant breeders design and 645
 646 identify suitable cultivars adapted to specific environments 646
 647 (White 2009; White and Hoogenboom 2003). GEI is a con- 647
 648 stant challenge in plant breeding programs. Thus, defining 648
 649 the means to identify and quantify this phenomenon will 649
 650 certainly facilitate breeding programs. Recently, research 650
 651 on GEI has been expanded to genotype-by-environment- 651
 652 by-management (GEM) (Asseng and Turner 2007; Montes- 652
 653 ino-San Martin et al. 2014). Such an expansion will help us 653
 654 both understand complex traits and improve final yield by 654
 655 combining QTL with proper management (e.g. row spac- 655
 656 ing, irrigation, etc.) under certain environments. Overall, 656
 657 the model we have developed could be incorporated into 657
 658 existing crop simulation models (Hoogenboom et al. 2012) 658
 659 in an effort to convert them into gene-based simulation 659
 660 models that can provide a more comprehensive account 660
 661 of plant processes from planting to harvest using genotype 661
 662 and environmental data. 662

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 662 SB, ERP, AG, JB, JR, RC collected and analyzed the data; 662
 663 SAG, JAC, MB, JWJ, KJB, CEV, JMO, IR, SB, ERP, AG, 663
 664 JB, JR, RC and MJC conceived and designed the project 664
 665 and experiment; LZ, SAG, JWJ, KJB, CEV and MJC inter- 665
 666 preted the data; All authors were involved in writing and 666
 667 editing the paper. 667

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