

A comprehensive genomic scan reveals gene dosage balance impacts on quantitative traits in *Populus* trees

Héloïse Bastiaanse^{a,b}, Matthew Zinkgraf^{a,1}, Courtney Canning^a, Helen Tsai^{b,c}, Meric Lieberman^{b,c}, Luca Comai^{b,c}, Isabelle Henry^{b,c}, and Andrew Groover^{a,b,2}

^aPacific Southwest Research Station, US Department of Agriculture Forest Service, Davis, CA 95618; ^bDepartment of Plant Biology, University of California, Davis, CA 95616; and ^cGenome Center, University of California, Davis, CA 95616

Edited by James A. Birchler, Division of Biological Sciences, University of Missouri, Columbia, MO, and approved May 24, 2019 (received for review February 22, 2019)

Gene dosage variation and the associated changes in gene expression influence a wide variety of traits, ranging from cancer in humans to yield in plants. It is also expected to affect important traits of ecological and agronomic importance in forest trees, but this variation has not been systematically characterized or exploited. Here we performed a comprehensive scan of the *Populus* genome for dosage-sensitive loci affecting quantitative trait variation for spring and fall phenology and biomass production. The study population was a large collection of clonally propagated F1 hybrid lines of *Populus* that saturate the genome 10-fold with deletions and insertions (indels) of known sizes and positions. As a group, the phenotypic means of the indel lines consistently differed from control nonindel lines, with an overall negative effect of both insertions and deletions on all biomass-related traits but more diverse effects and an overall wider phenotypic distribution of the indel lines for the phenology-related traits. We also investigated the correlation between gene dosage at specific chromosomal locations and phenotype, to identify dosage quantitative trait loci (dQTL). Such dQTL were detected for most phenotypes examined, but stronger effect dQTL were identified for the phenology-related traits than for the biomass traits. Our genome-wide screen for dosage sensitivity in a higher eukaryote demonstrates the importance of global genomic balance and the impact of dosage on life history traits.

gene dosage | quantitative trait | forest trees | genome balance | copy number variation

The causative factors underlying quantitative trait variation have been modeled and debated for over a century. Notably, Fisher's seminal work provided the statistical framework for modeling quantitative trait variation as the cumulative effects of individual genes, whose alleles can exert additive, dominance, and epistatic effects (1). Today, DNA sequencing technology enables genome-wide survey of allelic variation, yet significant gaps remain in the ability to fully explain the observed phenotypic variation. Structural variation, including copy number variation (CNV), has been shown to affect many traits in plants and animals (1–7), although its relevance remains to be assessed at the genome-wide level.

Mechanistically, structural variation can change the relative dosage of affected genes, which in turn can affect the concentration of the encoded protein or RNA product in proportion to gene copy number (1, 8). If a molecular pathway contributing to a phenotypic trait is sensitive to dosage, a quantitative variation of the phenotypic trait results. Differences in gene copy number (or in cis-regulatory regions) have been identified as causal variants of previously identified plant quantitative trait loci (QTL), in contrast to differences in protein sequence (9, 10). So far, such DNA structural variations are incompletely assessed by common genotyping approaches, and dosage effects may not necessarily conform to traditional quantitative genetic models. CNV and dosage may thus contribute to the missing heritability of traditional mapping studies (11). Data so far have focused mostly on domesticated crops of agricultural importance and suggest that although present over thousands of sites, naturally

occurring CNV occurs more frequently in gene-poor regions (12) and usually only encompasses a small proportion of the genome. For instance, in apple, maize, and barley, natural CNV has been detected only in 3.5, 10, and 14.9% of the genome, respectively (6, 13, 14), and therefore does not provide the power to systematically survey the effect of gene dosage variation on plant function.

Perennial growth is a fundamental feature of forest trees that is not shared by herbaceous annual model plants such as *Arabidopsis* or maize. Temperate trees have strictly regulated phenology, controlling the timing of onset of dormancy in preparation for winter and the breaking of dormancy and initiation of growth in the spring (15). Phenology thus describes adaptive traits that balance maximizing the growing season while minimizing the danger of frost damage (16). Temperature and photoperiod are key agents in controlling phenology in most temperate woody plants (16–19). Typical of temperate trees, *Populus* species primarily respond to shortening photoperiods in the late summer/early fall by developing vegetative buds containing preformed shoots and leaves, followed by cessation of growth and dormancy (20). Exposure to a cumulative amount of cold temperatures during the winter is needed to establish competency to respond to returning warm temperatures in the spring resulting in outgrowth of the preformed stems and leaves (bud burst). Phenology is a major determinant of geographical

Significance

Phenotypic trait variation can be linked to genomic sequence variation. These differences range from a single nucleotide to larger insertion and deletion (indel) of chromosomal segments. Indels can change the copy number of affected genes, which can create complex phenotypic trait variation through effects on gene expression. For example, gene dosage variation has been associated with various human chronic diseases. Here we systematically explored the effect of induced gene dosage variation on quantitative trait variation in *Populus*. We show that gene dosage variation at specific chromosomal locations and also gene dosage balance at a global genomic scale are both major determinants of quantitative trait variation in a plant species.

Author contributions: H.B., M.Z., L.C., I.H., and A.G. designed research; H.B., M.Z., C.C., H.T., and M.L. performed research; H.B., L.C., and I.H. analyzed data; and H.B. wrote the paper.

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

This article is a PNAS Direct Submission.

Published under the PNAS license.

Data deposition: The sequences reported in this paper have been deposited in the National Center for Biotechnology Information BioProject database (accession no. PRJNA241273).

¹Present address: College of Science and Engineering, Western Washington University, Bellingham, WA 98225-9063.

²To whom correspondence may be addressed. Email: andrew.t.groover@usda.gov.

This article contains supporting information online at www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1903229116/-DCSupplemental.

Published online June 18, 2019.

range (21), affects species migration in response to climate change, and is correlated with biomass traits important for commercial forestry and bioenergy application.

The genetic control of phenology and biomass traits in *Populus* species has been examined at the population and molecular genetic levels. Population genomics of *Populus trichocarpa* and *Populus tremula* identified strong genetic differentiation according to their geographical origin (22–24). Interestingly, in both species, such genomic regions that were associated with positive and/or divergent selection were also found to be enriched with candidate genes related to phenology. This trend reveals the importance of natural selection in phenotypic tree adaptation (23). At the molecular level, there is evidence of cooption or cross talk between *Arabidopsis* flowering/seed dormancy pathways and the regulation of bud set in *Populus*, as well as in other plant species (25–28). Such shared pathways revealed the importance of the phytohormone abscisic acid (ABA) (29, 30) as well as components of the CONSTANS/FLOWERING LOCUS T (FT) regulatory module (25, 31, 32) and GIGANTEA (GI)-like genes (33). Recent studies described a key component of bud break in hybrid aspen: the transcription factor SHORT VEGETATIVE PHASE-LIKE (SVL), closely related to *Arabidopsis* floral repressor SHORT VEGETATIVE PHASE and its downstream target TCP18, a tree homolog of a branching regulator in *Arabidopsis* (34).

In association and QTL mapping studies, variation in phenological traits in *Populus* is typically attributed to many genes with modest contributions (22, 35–37). The genetic control of woody biomass yield is particularly complex as it represents the integrated and combined result of many complex traits, each themselves under polygenic control (38). Breeding for increased biomass yield therefore requires understanding the various components contributing to the traits. Even recent studies using genome resequencing data from *Populus* leaf tissue leave significant portions of the observed phenotypic variation unexplained (39), suggesting that additional sources of genetic variation may be overlooked. Interestingly, a high frequency of naturally occurring structural variation that is typically undetected by traditional genotyping methods has been reported for *Populus* species (40), although the role in phenotypic trait variation within and among these undomesticated species has not yet been explored.

Induced dosage variation can be used to systematically dissect quantitative traits. This approach provides the obvious advantage of potentially identifying loci for which no natural variation is available in the sampled gene pool. For instance, induced mutations have been used to improve major crops such as wheat, rice, barley, cotton, peanuts, and beans (41). While difficult to maintain and robustly assess in sexual species, it is easily maintained in clonally propagated species such as *Populus*. In a previous study (42), we created a dosage-based functional genomic tool for *Populus*, a clonally propagated woody model species. This irradiated hybrid mutant population includes >500 sibling lines that collectively contain insertions and deletions covering the full genome multiple times.

Here we used this population to investigate the effect of dosage variation on complex traits central to forest biology, phenology, and biomass production. Genome scans revealed the influence of gene dosage on the phenotypic trait variation, including identification of dosage QTL (dQTL) that can modulate biomass and phenology traits. Overall, our results illustrate the central role of gene dosage in quantitative trait variation and can now be extended to understand the role of naturally occurring dosage variation for ecologically and economically important traits.

Results

In a previous work, we reported the development of a population of *Populus* dosage variants, consisting of a large number of interspecific F1 hybrids carrying insertion and deletion (indel) mutations induced by gamma irradiation of pollen grains (42) (Fig. 1). This population was comprised of two full-sib pedigrees, sharing the same *Populus nigra* male parent but two distinct

Populus deltoides female parents (*Materials and Methods*). Here we characterized a second set of F1 hybrids from the same crosses, for a full population of 646 lines. We phenotyped 592 of these lines in a replicated field trial (*SI Appendix, Additional Table 1*), carrying structural variation similar to that previously described (*SI Appendix, Additional Table 2*). Briefly, ~58% of the irradiated lines carried indel mutations, of which 71% were deletions and 29% were insertions. Most irradiation mutants were diploid, but triploid individuals were also recovered, which on average carried more mutations than their diploid counterparts. Indels spanned the 19 chromosomes of *Populus*, with each region being affected by at least 1 indel and at most 31, with an average of 10 indels per chromosomal region (*SI Appendix, Additional Figs. 1 and 2*). Only 6.2 Mbp (~1.6%) of the 19 assembled chromosomes lacked any indel, corresponding to 132 genes in the reference *P. trichocarpa* genome (*SI Appendix, Additional Table 3*). It is possible that indels in these regions impair plant fitness or simply that by chance no indels were recovered in these regions. Indel mutations varied in length (from 0.3 Mbp and up to a whole chromosome) and number, with a single individual carrying up to 13 indels.

Dosage Variation Is Associated with Phenotypic Variation. Individual irradiation indel lines were phenotyped in a replicated experimental field. In the spring, we followed the progression of the foliar bud expansion, from fully closed to fully flushed. In the fall, we recorded the progression of the leaf yellowing and leaf senescence throughout the canopy. From these data, the green canopy duration was estimated as the time between total bud flush to total leaf yellowing. Finally, throughout the year, we characterized the trees for various biomass related traits including tree height, diameter at the base, breast height diameter, and volume. After two growing seasons, trees were harvested and weighed. The following growing season, the total number of stems sprouting from stumps of the coppiced trees was recorded.

We investigated the overall effect of indel mutations across the whole genome on each phenotype. First, we compared the mean phenotypic value of all indel lines collectively (lines carrying at least one indel) to the mean phenotypic value of all nonindel lines (control 0 gray and 100 gray-irradiated lines with no detectable indel) to reveal the general trend of indel effects on phenotypes. For the vast majority of the traits (94%), analysis of variance demonstrated significant differences (at $P < 0.001$; Fig. 2, Table 1, and *SI Appendix, Additional File 1*) in mean phenotypic trait values between the two groups. On average, indel lines tended to flush 3 d later in the spring and drop their leaves 1 d earlier in the fall, resulting in a 5 d shorter period of green canopies. The most striking differences were among the biomass-related traits, for which on average indels always negatively affected the phenotype. Indel lines were on average shorter by 170 cm in height. On the other hand, when examining the phenotypic distribution, we determined that extreme phenotypes, in either direction, were more frequently observed among the indel lines than in the control nonindel lines. In addition, for some traits, the indel lines also exhibited an overall wider phenotypic distribution (Fig. 2 and *SI Appendix, Additional File 2*). For instance, some of the indel lines flushed more than 18 d after the latest nonindel control line. Similarly, indel-carrying lines exhibited a green canopy for up to 19 fewer days. Overall, the phenotype of the indel lines tended to be more similar to that of the maternal parent compared with their sibling nonindel lines.

Next, we investigated the effect of indel types (insertions versus deletions) and their lengths on the phenotypic trait values. For most traits (75%), lines carrying either indel type were on average significantly different from the nonindel controls (Fig. 2, Table 1, and *SI Appendix, Additional File 3*). In addition, when significant, deletions and insertions affected the phenotype in the same direction (Table 1). Finally, for 75% of the traits, longer deletions had increasing effect on the phenotypic trait values, measured as the Cohen's d effect size compared with nonindel lines (Fig. 2, Table 1, and *SI Appendix, Additional File 4*).

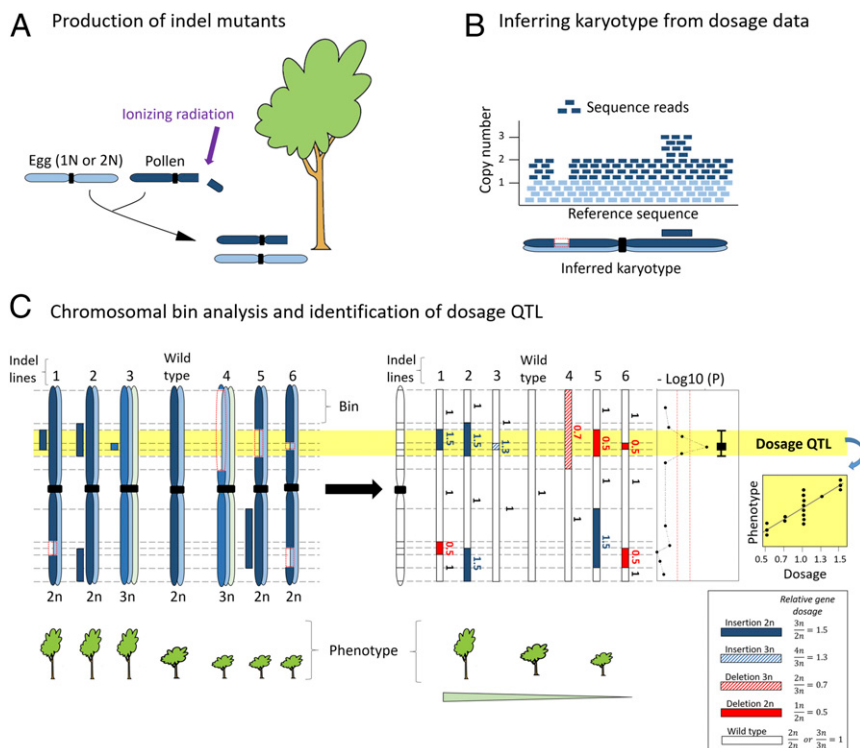


Fig. 1. Production of irradiation hybrid lines and chromosomal bin analysis for the identification of dQTL. (A) Poplar clones with high frequency of dosage variation were obtained by fertilizing a *P. deltoides* female with gamma-irradiated *P. nigra* pollen. (B) F1 seedlings resulting from that cross were subjected to high-precision dosage analysis using Illumina sequencing (42). Insertions and deletions spanning the whole genome were detected in diploid and triploid lines. (C) (Left) Chromosomal bins are defined by the breakpoints of the indels tiled onto each chromosome. (Right) Each line is assigned a relative dosage value for each bin, reflecting both the background ploidy level and indel type. dQTL are detected by calculating the correlation between phenotypic traits of each line (here tree height) and their relative gene dosage values along each chromosomal bin.

However, apart from the leaf drop trait, this did not hold true for the insertions; that is, longer insertions did not further affect the phenotypic trait values compared with shorter insertions.

Phenotypic Trait Values Are Correlated and Heritable. We investigated the correlation among phenotypic traits, a critical consideration when breeding for multiple traits. High positive correlations were found among the biomass-related traits ($r > 0.9$), including tree volume, height, weight, diameter at the base, diameter at breast height, and coppicing response (Fig. 3 and *SI Appendix, Additional Table 4*). Low to moderate positive correlations (r from 0.3 to 0.4) were found between the fall phenology traits (leaf color and leaf drop) and the biomass-related traits. Low negative correlations (r from -0.4 to -0.3) were found between the spring phenology (bud burst) trait and the biomass-related traits, as well as between the spring and fall phenology traits. Finally, moderate positive correlations were found between the green canopy duration and the biomass-related traits (r from 0.5 to 0.6).

We also determined the heritability of each trait, to measure the contribution of phenotypic variation attributable to the genotypic variation. Broad-sense heritability (H^2) was estimated for each trait, by dividing the total genetic variance among the three clonal replicates of each line, by the total phenotypic variance. Overall, low heritability levels ($H^2 < 0.2$) were obtained for the time series data, while moderate ($0.2 < H^2 < 0.4$) to high heritability levels (> 0.4) were observed for the rest of the phenotypic traits (Fig. 4 and *SI Appendix, Additional Table 5*). Among the moderately heritable traits were the coppicing response, leaf drop, and leaf color. Highly heritable traits included the biomass-related traits (tree volume, weight, base diameter, and height), the spring phenology (bud burst), and the green canopy duration (Fig. 4 and *SI Appendix, Additional Table 5*).

Genetic Contributions to Phenotypic Variation Can Be Assigned to dQTL. To investigate the effect of dosage variation of specific chromosomal regions on phenotypic traits, we divided the genome into nonoverlapping chromosomal bins based on indel boundaries and estimated the correlation between gene dosage in each of these bins and phenotypic trait values (Fig. 5). We identified nine possible scenarios describing the relationship between dosage and phenotype. In scenario 1, representing the majority of the tests (61.4 and 48.4% for phenology and biomass, respectively), neither insertion nor deletion lines were different from the nonindel lines (adjusted P value Kendall rank < 0.1 and P value ANOVA > 0.05), suggesting either gene dosage compensation or no significant effect of dosage variation for these regions on the observed phenotypes (reviewed in ref. 1). In scenarios 2 and 3, a significant positive or inverse correlation, respectively, was found between gene dosage and phenotypic trait values (adjusted P value Kendall rank < 0.1). These bins defined the intervals of dQTL and represented 16 and 5% of the tests for the phenology- and biomass-related traits, respectively. For the phenology traits, both direct (8.8%) and inverse correlations were detected (6.7% of the tests), while for the biomass-related traits, only direct correlations were observed (4.5% of the tests). Finally, uncorrelated bins were identified that showed a negative (scenarios 4–6) or positive (scenarios 7–9) effect (P value ANOVA < 0.05) of one or both types of indel compared with the nonindel control lines. While scenarios 7–9 represented about 7.3% of the tests for the phenology-related traits, these were not observed among the biomass-related traits. An overall higher frequency of repressive effect for both insertion and deletion in these particular bins (scenarios 4–6) is consistent with our previous description of the overall effects of indels on the traits analyzed here (Fig. 2).

dQTL were identified for 29/34 phenotypic traits (*SI Appendix, Additional File 5*) and were located on 16 of the 19 *Populus* chromosomes (Fig. 6 and *SI Appendix, Additional Table 6*). The

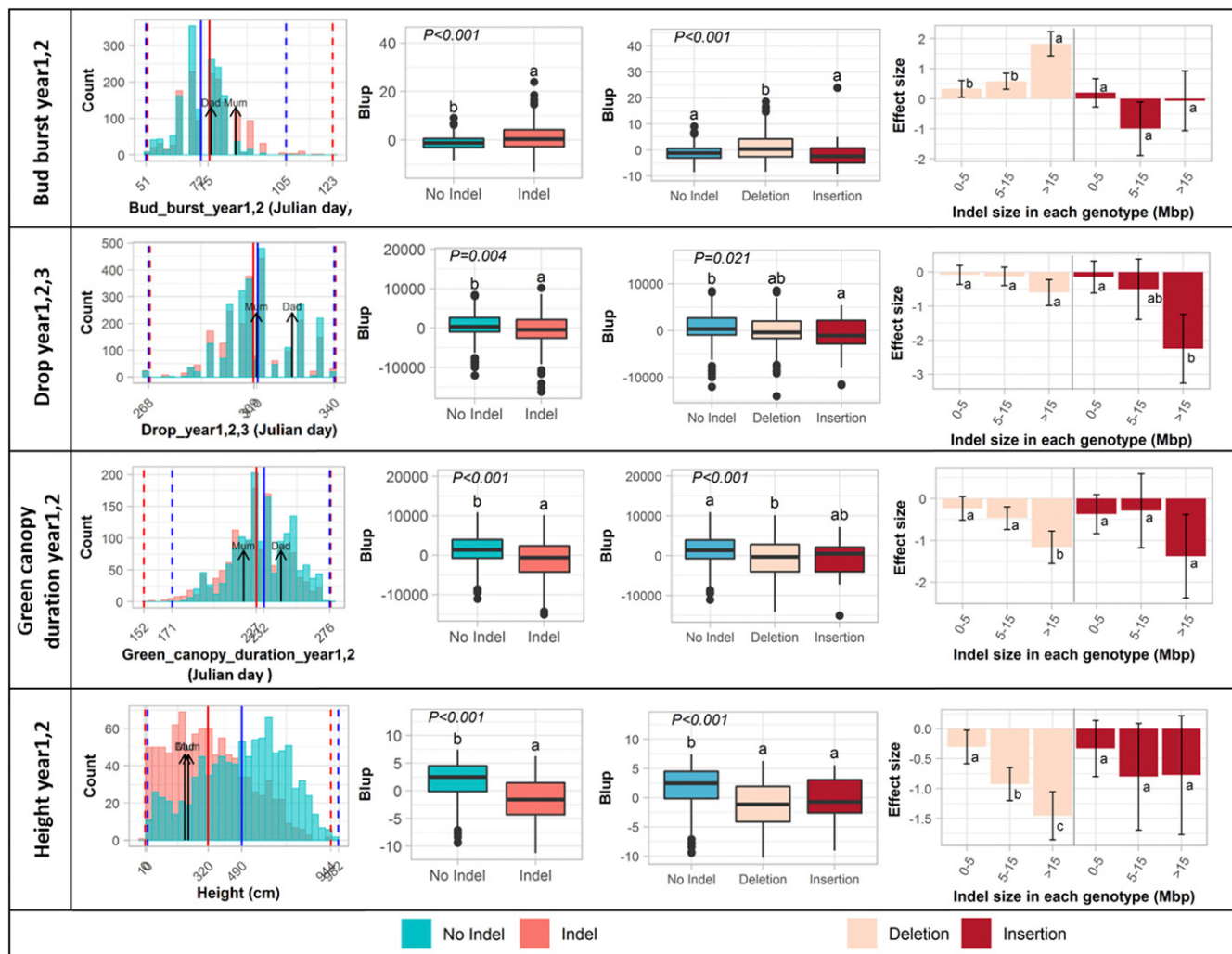


Fig. 2. Effect of indel mutations on four biomass-related phenotypes (from top to bottom): spring bud burst, fall leaf drop, green canopy duration, and tree height. Individuals are divided into the following categories: indel (in pink) includes all of the 100-gray gamma irradiated lines carrying at least one indel; no indel (in blue) includes the 0-gray control lines, as well as the 100-gray gamma irradiated lines that do carry any indel. Indel lines are further subdivided as follows: lines carrying deletion (in light pink) or insertion (in dark pink) exclusively and their indel size (from 0 to 5, 5 to 10, and 10 to 15 and above 15 Mbp). First histogram in each row shows the distribution frequencies (bars) with mean (vertical lines), minimum and maximum (dotted vertical lines), and parental values (arrows) of the raw phenotypic data. Boxplots show the medians, extremes, and quartiles of the phenotypic BLUP values with the associated *P* value of the one-way analysis of variance comparing the various groups. Second, third, and fourth histograms show the standardized mean differences and confidence intervals (Cohen's *d* effect size) of the phenotypic BLUP values of each indel size class, compared with the phenotypic trait values of the nonindel lines. Different letters above or below the bars indicate statistically different means at the 5% significance level according to the Tukey's test. Positive and negative values of the effect size are informative of the directional effect of each indel length categories on the phenotypic trait values, promotion or repression, respectively.

five traits lacking significant associations were traits describing the fall phenology (Color_year1, Drop_year1, and Drop_year2) and biomass (Time_ser_height and Time_ser_vol). When data from multiple years of observations were available for the same trait, the dQTL obtained were often similar across years (SI Appendix, Additional File 5 and Additional Table 7). The most consistent dQTL across years were found among the spring phenology and green canopy duration traits. For these traits, from 83 to 100% of the dQTL bins detected in year 1 were also detected in year 2. For the fall phenology, dQTL were only partially conserved between year 1 and years 2 or 3 (from 20 to 26%) but were mostly conserved from year 2 to year 3 (from 55 to 92%). Variations from year 1 to the subsequent year(s) likely reflect differences in the timing of establishment of each part of the field and a smaller set of mutants phenotyped in year 1 (Materials and Methods). Other sources of variation across years could include environmental variation as well as ontogenic

differences between genotypes. For simplicity, only phenotypic values from the combined years are discussed below.

Across all phenotypes, 227 dQTL were detected (Fig. 6 and SI Appendix, Additional File 6). dQTL intervals covered 148 Mbp, or about 37.5% of the reference *P. trichocarpa* genome. Some of the dQTL regions overlapped with regions identified in QTL studies investigating both SNP (36, 38) and natural structural variation in *Populus* (43), but most were located in previously undiscovered regions. The detection of these new genomic regions might reflect the unique variation sampled in our study (gene dosage variation) or the lack of natural variation in the particular samples analyzed previously. If the latter, it could be uncovered by sampling additional natural variation. Specifically, dQTL on chromosomes 2, 3, and 8 for bud burst; on chromosome 8 for bud set; and on chromosomes 14 and 19 for the biomass-related traits were consistent with allelic QTL presented previously (36, 38), while all other dQTL were not previously described. Similarly, some of our dQTL overlapped with genomic regions showing significant associations

Table 1. Summary of the effect of indels on the various phenotypic traits

Trait	Control nonindel-indel	Control nonindel-deletion	Control nonindel-insertion	Insertion-deletion	Effect size insertion	Effect size deletion
Bud_burst_year1,2	Indel < C***	C < Del***	NS	Ins < Del*	NS	+***
Time_serie_bud_burst_year1,2	C > indel***	C > Del***	NS	Ins > Del*	NS	—*
Color_year1,2,3	C > indel**	NS	C > Ins**	Ins < Del*	NS	NS
Time_serie_color_year1,2,3	Indel < C*	NS	C < Ins**	NS	NS	NS
Drop_year1,2,3	C > indel**	NS	C > Ins*	NS	—*	NS
Time_serie_drop_year1,2,3	NS	NS	C < Ins*	NS	NS	NS
Green_canopy_duration_year1,2	C > indel***	C > Del***	C > Ins*	NS	NS	—**
Height	C > indel***	C > Del***	C > Ins*	NS	NS	—***
Time_serie_height	C > indel***	C > Del***	C > Ins*	NS	NS	—***
Diam_base	C > indel***	C > Del***	C > Ins*	NS	NS	—***
Time_serie_diam_base	C > indel***	C > Del***	C > Ins*	NS	NS	—***
Time_serie_dbh	C > indel***	C > Del***	NS	NS	NS	—***
Time_serie_vol	C > indel***	C > Del***	C > Ins*	NS	NS	—***
Volume	C > indel***	C > Del***	C > Ins*	NS	NS	—***
Weight	C > indel***	C > Del***	C > Ins*	NS	NS	—***
Coppicing	C > indel***	C > Del***	C > Ins**	NS	NS	—***
% of significant traits ($P < 0.05$)	94%	75%	81%	19%	6%	75%

C, control nonindel lines; Del, deletion lines; Ins, insertion lines; NS, not significant. *, **, and *** indicate P value significance of the ANOVA analyzing the BLUP of each trait groups at $P < 0.05$, $P < 0.01$, and $P < 0.001$, respectively. + and – indicates the direction of the effect size when comparing the mean BLUP of deletion or insertion relative to the nonindel lines.

between natural CNV in Balsam poplar (Potri.001G063700, Potri.001G222900, Potri.001G223200, Potri.001G427200, Potri.004G110200, Potri.005G013100, and Potri.015G018600) and adaptive phenological traits variation (43). Overall, dQTL were not limited to regions covered by many indels, but the statistical power to detect dQTL varied, depending on the number of lines carrying indels spanning each particular genomic bin (*SI Appendix, Additional Fig. 3 A and B*). It is therefore possible that in some cases, a single locus resulted in multiple dQTL located next to each other due to bin-to-bin variation in statistical power. The survey of the genome for dQTL was extensive, with all but 6.2

Mbp (1.6%) of the *Populus* genome covered by at least one indel. Interestingly, uncovered regions overlapped with gene-poor regions on the annotated *P. trichocarpa* genome (compare Fig. 6B with the gene density of Fig. 6C), and possibly correspond to pericentromeric regions, as described in ref. 42.

To reduce dQTL intervals and select the best predictors among the significant bins, least absolute shrinkage and selection operator (LASSO) regression was used to impose shrinkage and sparsity on the number and magnitude of regression coefficients (44). The LASSO regression procedure narrowed dQTL intervals and selected a subset of 24 bins among the 1,073 significant bins detected by Kendall rank correlation. Most of these LASSO subsetted bins (71%) also showed high correlation levels according to the Kendall rank correlation test (adjusted P value < 0.01) as opposed to the lower correlation levels (adjusted P value < 0.05 and < 0.1) (*SI Appendix, Additional Table 8*).

Dosage Variation Does Not Affect All Traits Equally. We compared the number of dQTL and their influence across all phenotypic trait categories (Table 2 and *SI Appendix, Additional File 7*). Overall, phenology-related traits (bud burst, leaf drop, and green canopy duration) were influenced by a higher number of dQTL and spanned more chromosomes (up to 25 dQTL and 10 chromosomes) than the biomass-related traits (up to 18 dQTL and 6 chromosomes). These phenology-related dQTL also had stronger association (significant and confirmed association, P adjust < 0.05 and < 0.01 , respectively) and cumulatively explained a greater proportion of variance (up to 38%) than the biomass-related dQTL (no confirmed association P adjust < 0.01 and no more than 12% of the variance explained). Irrespective of the trait, individual dQTL explained a relatively small proportion of the variance (from 1.4 to 2.4%). Finally, increased relative gene dosage under dQTL bins could either promote or repress the phenotype, except for the biomass-related traits, for which increased relative gene dosage under the dQTL bins was always associated with taller/bigger trees. Inversely, apart from one dQTL, decreased relative gene dosage under the dQTL bins was always associated with shorter, smaller-diameter trees.

Genomic Organization of the dQTL Reveals Hot Spots and Syntenic Relationships. Because we are investigating the genetic control of contrasting phenotypic traits, we next examined the distribution and extent of colocalization of these dQTL. We found colocalization of dQTL for individual phenotypic traits within each trait

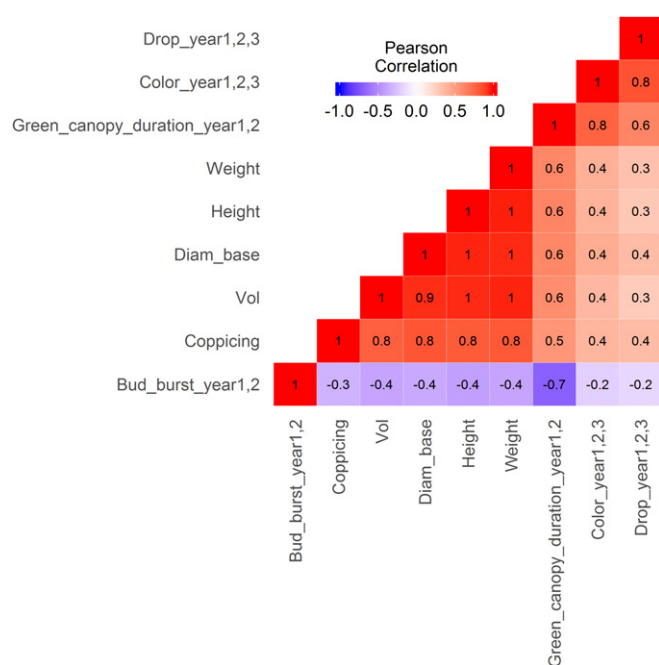


Fig. 3. Pairwise Pearson correlation matrix of the phenotypic traits. Red indicates positive correlation, and blue indicates negative correlation. Darker colors are associated with stronger correlation coefficients.

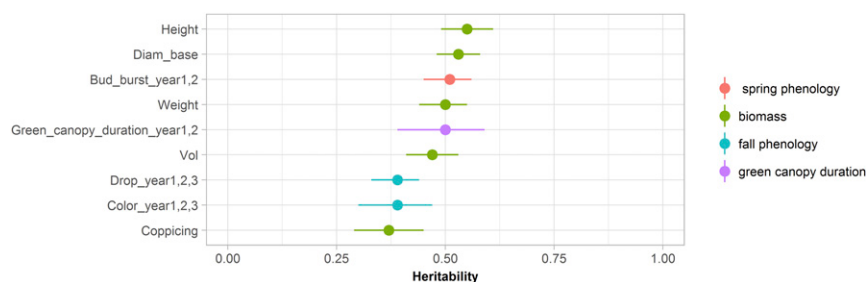


Fig. 4. Point estimates (dots) and bootstrap (1,000 bootstraps) confidence interval (whiskers) of the broad sense heritability of the phenotypic traits. Heritability was assessed over triplicated ramets of each line.

category (spring phenology, fall phenology, green canopy duration, and biomass) but also across categories, with some chromosomal regions influencing almost all of the traits. Such significant (P value < 0.05) colocalizations of dQTL, or hot spots, were found for regions of chromosomes 2, 5, and 14 having eight or more colocating dQTL across all variable categories (*Materials and Methods*). Colocalizations among our dQTL were mostly found within phenotypic traits that were highly correlated phenotypically, such as the biomass-related traits, but among uncorrelated phenotypic traits as well. For instance, two QTL hot spots on chromosomes 2 and 14 were found to control all four phenotypic trait categories investigated in this study, independently of their correlation levels (Fig. 3). Inversely, we also found dQTL regions that were unique to each of the four phenotypic trait categories. These regions are highlighted as rays in Fig. 6 in the color of their corresponding phenotypic category.

Populus has a recently duplicated genome, and paralogous syntenic blocks among chromosomes are well defined and abundant (45, 46). If paralogous genes are functionally conserved and dosage sensitive, both paralogs would be expected to affect a trait similarly and thus be identified as syntenic dQTL. For all four phenotypic categories, syntenic pairs of dQTL were identified. For example, paralogous syntenic blocks on chromosomes 2 and 5 harbored dQTL governing traits related to the spring phenology, green canopy duration, and biomass (orange lines in the inner core of Fig. 6). Paralogous syntenic blocks on chromosomes 8 and 10 harbored dQTL governing traits related to the fall phenology (purple lines in the inner core of Fig. 6). Interestingly, these particular syntenic blocks on chromosomes 8 and 10 contain FT1 (Potri.008G077700) and FT2 (Potri.010G179700) Salicoid duplicates, previously shown to control distinct aspects of phenology in *Populus* (31). However, only the green canopy duration and drop

Table 2. Summary of the dQTL detected for each phenotypic traits measured in the *P. deltoides* x gamma-irradiated *P. nigra* population

Traits	No. of QTL*			Total no. of QTL (+; –) [†]	No. of bins selected by LASSO [‡]	No. of chromosomes	Percent of variance explained by individual QTL [§]	Percent of variance explained by all QTL [§]
	Suggestive	Significant	Confirmed					
Spring phenology								
Bud_burst_year1,2	10	5	8	23 (7; 16)	6	10	2 ± 2	37.6
Time_serie_bud_burst_year1,2	10	7	7	24 (14; 9)	9	10	2.4 ± 3.5	41.1
Fall phenology								
Color_year1,2,3	11	4	2	17 (14; 3)	0	7	1.7 ± 0.8	15.3
Time_serie_color_year1,2,3	7	5	2	14 (3; 11)	0	7	1.9 ± 1.5	17.4
Drop_year1,2,3	13	9	0	22 (20; 2)	0	9	1.6 ± 0.9	17
Time_serie_drop_year1,2,3	17	6	2	25 (6; 19)	0	6	1.6 ± 0.9	16.5
Green canopy duration								
Green_canopy_duration_year1,2	21	2	1	24 (23; 1)	1	6	1.9 ± 1.2	17.9
Biomass								
Height	10	1	0	11 (11; 0)	2	5	1.7 ± 0.5	10.5
Diam_base	15	3	0	18 (18; 0)	4	6	1.4 ± 0.4	10.7
Time_serie_diam_base	14	0	0	14 (14; 0)	0	5	2.2 ± 0.4	12
Time_serie_dbh	11	0	0	11 (10; 1)	0	6	1.6 ± 0.4	10.1
Volume	13	0	0	13 (13; 0)	0	5	2.2 ± 0.7	12
Weight	7	0	0	7 (7; 0)	0	4	2.2 ± 0.9	9.3
Coppicing	2	2	0	4 (4; 0)	0	2	2.1 ± 0.3	3.9

*Suggestive (P adjust < 0.1), significant (P adjust < 0.05), and confirmed QTL (P adjust < 0.01) detected by computing the adjusted P value of the Kendall rank correlation (P adjust using the Benjamini–Hochberg method) between the phenotypic BLUP values and the relative dosage ratios for each chromosomal bin. Chromosomal bins were defined by the intersection points of all indels. Relative gene dosage ratios were calculated by dividing the gene copy number of each bin by the background ploidy of the line. Contiguous significant bins were pooled and considered as a single wider QTL.

[†]Total number of suggestive, significant, and confirmed dQTL with indication of their effect on the phenotype. Positive correlation (+) is indicated when increased phenotypic trait values were associated with insertions. Negative correlation (–) is indicated when increased phenotypic trait values were associated with deletions under the QTL.

[‡]dQTL selected by the LASSO (*Materials and Methods*).

[§]Adjusted R-squared of the multivariate linear regression model fitting all of the chromosomal bins underlying the QTL.

time series traits displayed syntenic dQTL at a frequency significantly higher than expected from a random distribution (*SI Appendix, Additional Fig. 4*). Finally, for 75% of the syntenic dQTL, both paralogs in the gene pairs affected the phenotype in the same direction, while for the remaining 25%, an opposite directional effect was observed across the paralogs.

Discussion

The relative influence of gene dosage on quantitative phenotypic trait variation and genome function in higher eukaryotes is a fundamental question. The classical phenomenon of balance known from comparison of diploids to polyploids or aneuploids highlighted the molecular consequence to dosage variation, in which changes in the relative concentrations of components can affect the biochemical function of protein complexes (1, 8, 47, 48). Systematic evaluation of essential genes in yeast showed frequent dosage effects and that most genes with low heterozygous fitness encode components of protein complexes (49). In plants, dosage variation is a fundamental aspect of genome evolution and quantitative trait variation (8), but a genome-wide view of dosage effects including the frequency and magnitude of effects is lacking. In this context, new approaches were needed to systematically study the phenotypic effect of gene dosage variation in complex eukaryotes such as plants.

In this study, we undertook a systematic evaluation of the effect of gene dosage on quantitative trait variation using large pedigrees of *Populus* trees carrying indels. *Populus* proved an ideal model system in part because indel genotypes could be immortalized and replicated through vegetative propagation. Overall, our pedigree covered over 98% of the *Populus* genome with an average of 10 indels per chromosomal bin, providing a comprehensive view of dosage effects on quantitative phenotypes. The inclusion of diploid and triploid lines harboring both insertions and deletions enabled comparison of phenotypic trait values for a range of gene dosage at each chromosomal bin. Thus, the present study significantly extends previous studies of gene dosage effects, which were limited to naturally occurring structural variants and specific genomic locations of previously identified QTL and candidate genes (2, 3, 50–54).

Recent advances in genome sequencing technology have revealed that CNV and structural variation are commonplace among *Populus* species (40). Like most forest trees, *Populus* is characterized by large outcrossing populations, with highly heterozygous individuals (55). This situation is not unlike human genetics, where deleterious alleles (genetic load) can be maintained within populations and only uncovered through common descent in rare matings of related individuals (56–58). However, we were able to reduce almost any portion of the *Populus* genome to a haploid state without gametophyte or seedling lethality and, in most cases, without severe phenotypic effects during vegetative growth of *Populus*. This ob-

servation, along with the ability to modulate quantitative traits, suggests that overall, gene dosage variation could be an important source of quantitative trait variation in natural populations and could contribute to the missing heritability (11).

We found that a large portion of the *Populus* genome (up to 51.6%) displayed dosage sensitivity for at least one of the phenotypes measured (scenarios 2–9; Fig. 5), with induced gene dosage variation influencing traits in a significant and highly heritable manner. These results underscore a limitation of traditional models of quantitative trait variation, which typically incorporate measures of allelic variation but not dosage. Of practical significance are regions that we termed dosage QTL (dQTL), for which increasing and decreasing relative dosage in the indel carrying lines were both associated with a proportional modulation of the phenotype above and below that of control nonindel lines (Fig. 5). Such loci represent potential targets for breeding for phenology and biomass yield traits, both important to production forestry and bioenergy applications. Some of the dQTL regions overlapped with regions identified in previous classical QTL studies investigating both SNP (36, 38) and natural structural variation in *Populus* (43), but most were in previously undiscovered regions. Importantly, our results illustrate how induced variation allowed a genome-wide scan for dosage sensitive regions within a single pedigree, in contrast to traditional QTL studies that are limited to surveying natural variation segregating from the parents. This approach is of special significance for species with long generation times and high cost of progeny testing, such as *Populus*. Additionally, from a breeding perspective, we identified both pleiotropic dQTL, as well as distinct dQTL, for each of the four phenotypic categories related to biomass and phenology traits (Fig. 6), enabling separate selection for correlated traits.

Our parallel analysis of biomass and phenology-related traits provides a useful example of the contrasting effect of gene dosage variation on different aspects of plant function. Biomass-related traits yielded dQTL with smaller effects (Table 2) and weaker associations (*SI Appendix, Additional Fig. 3*), while the phenology-related phenotypes were associated with stronger dQTL. Strikingly, dQTL affected the phenology traits in either direction, while all of the biomass-related dQTL consistently impacted the phenotype in the same direction: deletions negatively impacted biomass, while insertions had the opposite effect (Fig. 5, red boxes). The overall effect of gene dosage variation on these phenotypes outside of the dQTL regions was markedly different as well (Fig. 5, black boxes). Deletions or insertions never outperformed the control lines for the biomass-related traits, compared with 7.3% of the cases for the phenology-related traits. On the other hand, dosage variation negatively impacted biomass in almost half the cases (47%), while only accounting for 15.8% of the cases for the phenology-related

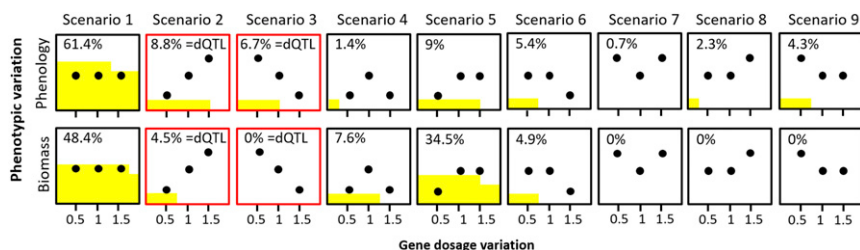


Fig. 5. General trends observed in the association between gene dosage and phenotype for phenology- (including spring and fall phenology and green canopy duration) and biomass-related traits. Scenario 1 shows gene dosage compensation or no significant effect of dosage on the observed phenotype. Scenarios 2 and 3 show positive and negative gene dosage effect. Scenarios 4–6 show negative effect of the insertion and/or deletion on the phenotype, compared with the nonindel lines. Scenarios 7–9 show positive effect of the insertion and/or deletion on the phenotype, compared with the nonindel lines. Bins were declared to be dQTL for adjusted P value of the Kendall rank correlation test < 0.1 (scenarios 2 and 3). For P adjust > 0.1 (scenarios 1 and 4–9), ANOVA was performed comparing nonindel to insertion and deletion lines separately. Phenotypic values were considered to be different at $P < 0.05$. Percentages represent the proportion of bins fitting one of the nine scenarios for each phenotypic trait category separately. Yellow shading represents the percentage of tests within each class.

traits. Indel effects on biomass increased with indel size as well (Fig. 2). This overall tendency of negative effect for both insertions and deletions has been previously demonstrated on plant phenotypes (47, 59) and at the molecular level including gene expression (60). Like the dQTL, loci showing negative effects on phenotypes when dosage is increased or decreased illustrate another source of genetic variation missed by quantitative genetic models that do not include dosage.

Taken together, our analysis of the biomass-related traits underscores the importance of maintaining the genome in a global state of balance and confirms that this balance can be disrupted by dosage variation of a high number of loci throughout the genome. This effect of disruption of genome balance irrespective of which chromosome segment varies in dosage has been demonstrated in yeast (61) and maize (62–64). On the other hand, the effect of dosage variation on phenology-related traits more closely resembles that of allelic variation in classical QTL analysis of simpler traits, with a stronger effect and loci affecting the phenotypes both positively (direct dosage effect) or negatively (inverse dosage effect) (1).

Interestingly, genome duplication in the Salicoid lineage (encompassing *Populus* and *Salix*) allowed us to evaluate the phenotypic effect of dosage variation of paralogous genes. Previous studies examining expression patterns of paralogous genes in *Populus* and *Salix* have come to somewhat conflicting conclusions (46, 65). Here we evaluated divergence differently, using quantitative phenotypes, and found several cases where dQTL

covered one paralog only, consistent with divergence of function of most paralogous gene pairs affecting the phenotypic traits under study. However, examples of dQTL pairs covering paralogous segments of the genome were also identified, including pairs of dQTL governing phenology traits (green canopy duration and leaf drop) (Fig. 6 and *SI Appendix, Additional Fig. 4*). Such situations provide a way to potentially narrow down the number of candidate causal genes under the corresponding dQTL. If these are the causal genes, this would also suggest that in those cases, both paralogous copies have retained a functional role in similar pathways. An example of subfunctionalization has been demonstrated for the Salicoid duplicates *FT1* and *FT2*, both acting in the control of bud set in *Populus*, but showing diametrically opposed expression patterns (23, 31). Whereas *FT1* (Potri.008G077700) is expressed primarily during winter in dormant buds, *FT2* (Potri.010G179700) is expressed mainly during the growing season, maintaining vegetative growth. Here we identified dQTL controlling these traits on regions of chromosomes 8 and 10 containing *FT1* and *FT2*, and interestingly, the two dQTL exhibited opposite effects on the phenotypes. While extensive, the frequency of dQTL in our study is potentially underestimated because of redundancy associated with duplicated genes that could mask the effects of indels affecting a single paralog.

In conclusion, our study provides a comprehensive description at a whole-genome level of how gene dosage variation affects phenotypic variation in *Populus*. Our findings form the basis for new studies examining the role of gene dosage variation in the

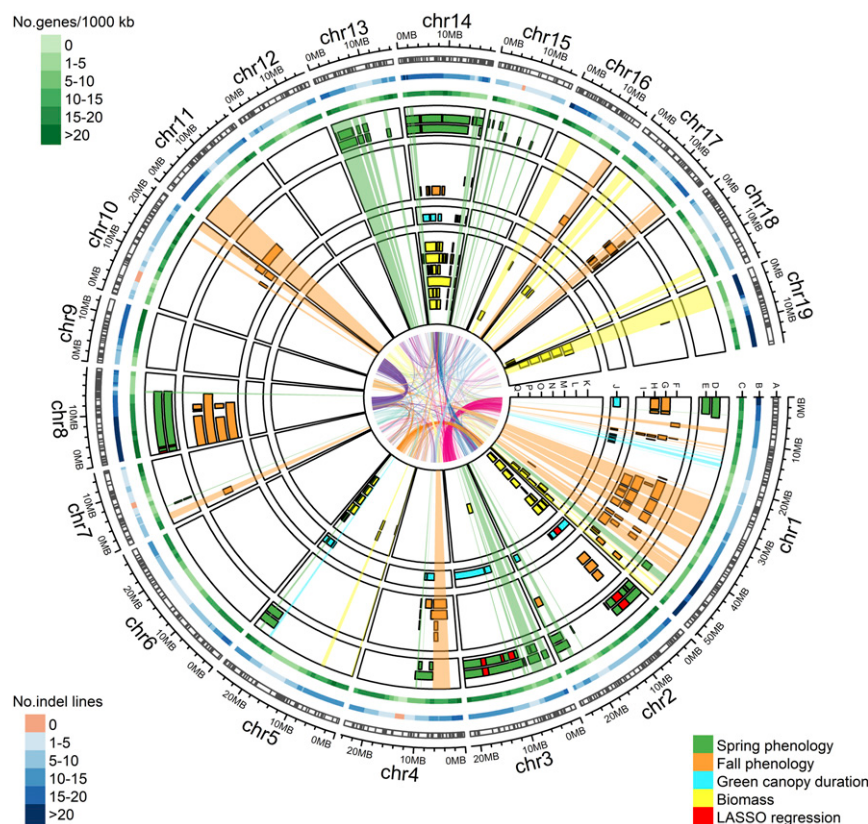


Fig. 6. Summary of the dQTL identified in the *P. deltoides* x gamma-irradiated *P. nigra* population. (A) Boundaries of the chromosomal bins. (B) Number of indel lines (insertion and deletion pooled together) underlying each bin. (C) Gene density across the poplar genome. Gene density data were obtained from the genomic annotation (*SI Appendix, Additional File 8*), and the number of genes per 1,000-kb genomic sections was calculated. (D–Q) Position of the dQTL intervals detected for the following traits (and as defined in *Materials and Methods*): (D) Bud_burst_year1,2; (E) Time_series_bud_burst_year1,2; (F) Color_year1,2,3; (G) Time_series_color_year1,2,3; (H) Drop_year1,2,3; (I) Time_series_drop_year1,2,3; (J) Green_canopy_duration_year1,2; (K) height, (L) Diam_base; (M): Time_series_diam_base; (N) Time_series_dbh; (O) volume; (P) weight; and (Q) coppicing. Each phenotypic trait category (spring phenology, fall phenology, green canopy duration, and biomass) is represented in a different color. Additional red color corresponds to dQTL selected by the LASSO (*Materials and Methods*). Colored rays across the circular plot highlight the QTL bins that were found to be unique to each of the phenotypic trait categories. The center of the plot depicts the syntenic relationships for the genes located under the dQTL on the homologous regions of *P. trichocarpa* (46). Blocks of duplicated genes are indicated in different colors.

evolution and adaptive traits of the undomesticated *Populus*, as well as for functional genomic and breeding applications. We are currently extending our studies of gene dosage to define linkages between phenotypic variation gene dosage effects on gene transcription and regulatory networks.

Materials and Methods

Creation and Genomic Analysis of Irradiation Hybrids in *Populus*. Methods for the creation and genomic analysis of irradiation hybrids lines were described previously (42, 66). An interspecific crossing strategy was used because of relevance to forest industry and bioenergy applications, to maximize fecundity and seedset, and to facilitate assignment of alleles from the parents in F1 progeny. Briefly, two female genotypes of *P. deltoides* (SO5465L and SO5985L; Greenwood Resources) were crossed to 100 gray gamma-irradiated pollen of a male genotype of *P. nigra* (SO3615L; Greenwood Resources). The resulting F1 populations were IFG_100 (126 genotypes) and GWR_100 (466 genotypes), for a total of 592 lines. An additional 54 lines derived from a cross between SO5465L and the nonirradiated pollen of SO3615L were produced as controls (population IFG_0). DNA extracted from the leaves of each seedling was analyzed by Illumina low-pass sequencing to identify and fine map large-scale insertions and deletions (indels) across the whole *Populus* genome (Fig. 1) as previously described (42).

Field Experimental Design. Out of the 646 F1 hybrid lines, 592 were vegetatively propagated over two consecutive growing seasons (years 2014 and 2015) to produce robust seedlings with extensive root systems and ensure successful propagation. Three cuttings from each seedling were rooted in individual tubes containing rooting hormones and Sunshine mix #4 potting soil (SunGrow Horticulture) under interval misting (15–30 s every hour from 9 AM to 5 PM). Seedlings were grown in the greenhouse for approximately 2 mo at day/night temperature $22 \pm 2^\circ\text{C}/16 \pm 2^\circ\text{C}$ before being transplanted in one experimental field in Placerville, CA, in two adjacent blocks: 373 lines were planted in September 2014, and 329 lines were planted in May 2015 (SI Appendix, Additional Table 1). Each block contained a different set of three clonal replicates per line (ramets), but 110 lines were planted in triplicate in both blocks to allow for phenotypic data normalization over the two blocks. Ramet positions were randomized in each part of the field. Trees were spaced $0.6\text{ m} \times 1\text{ m}$ and equipped with drip irrigation line. Additional lines of the same hybrid cross were planted at the border of the field to control for border effects. Soil was covered with weed block fabric and hay. In December 2016, all of the trees were harvested at 10 cm in height and were allowed to coppice in the following spring.

Phenotypic Traits. The trees in the field were scored for various biomass and phenology-related traits at multiple times over the 4 y defined as follows: year 0 (September to December 2014), year 1 (2015), year 2 (2016), and year 3 (2017, coppicing year). Phenotyping dates for each trait are presented in SI Appendix, Additional Table 9. See SI Appendix, Supplemental Methods, for detailed descriptions of phenotypic trait measurements.

Estimation of the Best Linear Unbiased Predictors and Broad Sense Heritability. All statistical analyses were performed using R 3.5–1 in the R studio environment 1.1.456. Normal distribution of each phenotypic trait was assessed using a Shapiro–Wilk test. Nonnormally distributed data were transformed using a Box–Cox transformation. The phenotypic variance was assessed in a mixed linear model using the lmer procedure implemented in R using restricted maximum likelihood and specified as follows: $Y_{ijk} = \mu + F_i + P_j + L_{k(j)} + \varepsilon_{ijk}$, where μ is the general mean; F is the effect of field i , considered as fixed; P is the effect of the population j , considered as random; and L is the effect of the line k nested into the population j , considered as random.

When comparing different lines over a time course experiment, observation day D was added to the model as a fixed factor effect as follows: $Y_{ijkl} = \mu + F_i + P_j + L_{k(j)} + D_l + \varepsilon_{ijkl}$. Finally, phenotypic data from multiple years were jointly analyzed by adding year YR as a fixed factor effect to the models: $Y_{ijklm} = \mu + F_i + P_j + L_{k(j)} + YR_l + \varepsilon_{ijklm}$, for single time point data, and $Y_{ijklm} = \mu + F_i + P_j + L_{k(j)} + YR_l + D_{m(l)} + \varepsilon_{ijklm}$, for time series. The variance component estimates resulting from these analysis were used to estimate the broad sense heritability (H^2) using the following equation: $H^2 = \frac{\text{Variance lines}}{\text{Variance total}}$, where the variance of the lines represents the variance of the three clonal replicates of each line, nested within the two populations IFG and GWR in our model, and variance total represents the sum of the total variance of the model. The 95% confidence interval around the point estimate H^2 , was estimated using a bootstrap procedure with 1,000 simulations. Mixed linear models were also used to estimate the best linear unbiased predictors (BLUPs) of the effect of

lines (nested within population) on the phenotypic estimates across time (observation days and year) and environment (field part) (67). These BLUP estimates were used for the subsequent statistical and genomic analysis (SI Appendix, Additional Table 11).

Chromosomal Bin Analysis and Identification of dQTL. dQTL were detected as follows and as illustrated in Fig. 1. Chromosomal bins were defined by the breakpoints of the indels (deletion and insertion) tiled to the 19 chromosomes. Next, for each line and for each bin, a relative dosage ratio was calculated by dividing the gene copy number of the particular bin by the background ploidy of the particular line. For example, for a diploid line having an insertion spanning three bins on chromosome 1, the relative dosage ratio of these particular bins is $3/2 = 1.5$, while it is $2/2 = 1$ for the rest of the bins. In the case of lines that do not carry any indel, the relative dosage ratio equaled 1 for all bins and background ploidy levels. To assess the relationship between phenotype and gene dosage, Kendall rank correlation coefficients between relative dosage ratio and phenotypic BLUPs were calculated for each individual bin. P values associated with these coefficients were adjusted for false discovery rates using the Benjamini–Hochberg correction (BH method). dQTL were declared as suggestive, significant, and confirmed, for adjusted P values of <0.1 , <0.05 , and <0.01 , respectively (68, 69). Consecutive bins located on the same chromosome were pooled into a single larger dQTL. For individual BLUP traits, scatterplots of the adjusted P value distribution along the bins were plotted using the qqman R package for Manhattan plots (<https://cran.r-project.org/web/packages/qqman/>). Overviews of the position of the suggestive, significant, and confirmed dQTL were presented in a chord plot using the circlize R package (<https://cran.r-project.org/web/packages/circlize/>). The LASSO method was employed to select genomic bins under the dQTL showing the strongest associations with the phenotypic traits. The LASSO procedure was applied using the glmnet package in R using a 10-fold cross validation and $\alpha = 1$. LASSO procedure was repeated 1,000 times, and the best predictor bins were declared when consistently selected by the model over 95% of the replications. The percentage of variance explained by individual and multiple dQTL was estimated by computing the adjusted R-squared of the multivariate linear regression model fitting all of the genomic bins underlying the dQTL.

Identification of dQTL Hot Spots. We identified chromosomal bins over-represented with colocating dQTL using the technique presented by (38). Briefly, we randomly permuted 1,000 times the length and position of the dQTL across the whole genome, and used a sliding window of 100 kb to count the number of dQTL in each window region. For each permutation the maximum number of dQTL per window region was recorded and then sorted. The top 950th value among the 1,000 permutations ($\alpha = 0.05$ significance level) was defined as the critical value for declaring a significant hot spot of dQTL. In our particular data set, the critical number was equal to seven across all phenotypic categories.

Analysis of the Presence of Indels and/or dQTL in Paralogous Gene Pairs. Syntenic comparisons were made based on the *Populus* paralogous gene pairs dataset provided by ref. 46. First, we investigated the frequency of occurrence of insertion and deletion in both paralogous gene pairs in the same lines, for diploid and triploid lines separately. Second, for each category of dQTL (spring phenology, fall phenology, biomass, and green canopy duration), we investigated the frequency of occurrence of dQTL in the two members of the paralogous *Populus* gene pairs. Statistical significance was assessed by randomly permuting 1,000 times the position of the indels within each lines or dQTL across the whole genome. A null distribution of frequencies was obtained from these random permutations and was compared with the observed frequencies obtained with the original data.

Additional Statistical Tests. One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) using the R function aov was used to evaluate the mean and variance the BLUP phenotypic values according to various grouping factors (e.g., indel versus control nonindel genotypes and deletion versus insertion lines). Where appropriate, the Tukey's test was used for post hoc tests of significant differences between means using the R function TukeyHSD at the 5% significance level. Effect size estimates and confidence intervals of the grouping factors on the phenotypic trait values were performed according to the Cohen's d procedure using the effsize R package. A correlation matrix between the phenotypic traits was computed as the pairwise Pearson correlation coefficients using the cor function in R.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS. This research was supported by the US Department of Energy Office of Science, Office of Biological and Environmental Research,

Grant DE-SC0007183 to L.C., I.H., and A.G. We thank Reginald King and Annie Mix of the Institute of Forest Genetics, Placerville, CA, for assistance in poplar propagation and phenotyping; Veronica Thompson of University of California (UC), Davis, and Aedric Lim of US Department of Agriculture

Forest Service for assistance in fall phenology data collection; Brian Stanton and Kathy Haiby of Greenwood Resources for germplasm and technical assistance on poplar breeding; and Sergio Silva (UC Davis genome center) for assistance with laboratory procedures and data collection.

1. J. A. Birchler, U. Bhadra, M. P. Bhadra, D. L. Auger, Dosage-dependent gene regulation in multicellular eukaryotes: Implications for dosage compensation, aneuploid syndromes, and quantitative traits. *Dev. Biol.* **234**, 275–288 (2001).
2. A. K. Knox *et al.*, CBF gene copy number variation at Frost Resistance-2 is associated with levels of freezing tolerance in temperate-climate cereals. *Theor. Appl. Genet.* **121**, 21–35 (2010).
3. A. Díaz, M. Zikhal, A. S. Turner, P. Isaac, D. A. Laurie, Copy number variation affecting the Photoperiod-B1 and Vernalization-A1 genes is associated with altered flowering time in wheat (*Triticum aestivum*). *PLoS One* **7**, e33234 (2012).
4. Y. Li *et al.*, A tandem segmental duplication (TSD) in green revolution gene Rht-D1b region underlies plant height variation. *New Phytol.* **196**, 282–291 (2012).
5. S. Förster, E. Schumann, M. Baumann, W. E. Weber, K. Pillen, Copy number variation of chromosome 5A and its association with Q gene expression, morphological aberrations, and agronomic performance of winter wheat cultivars. *Theor. Appl. Genet.* **126**, 3049–3063 (2013).
6. J. Boocock, D. Chagné, T. R. Merriman, M. A. Black, The distribution and impact of common copy-number variation in the genome of the domesticated apple, *Malus x domestica* Borkh. *BMC Genomics* **16**, 848 (2015).
7. A.-N. Sieber, C. F. H. Longin, W. L. Leiser, T. Würschum, Copy number variation of CBF-A14 at the Fr-A2 locus determines frost tolerance in winter durum wheat. *Theor. Appl. Genet.* **129**, 1087–1097 (2016).
8. J. A. Birchler, R. A. Veitia, The gene balance hypothesis: From classical genetics to modern genomics. *Plant Cell* **19**, 395–402 (2007).
9. J. Liu, B. Cong, S. D. Tanksley, Generation and analysis of an artificial gene dosage series in tomato to study the mechanisms by which the cloned quantitative trait locus fw2.2 controls fruit size. *Plant Physiol.* **132**, 292–299 (2003).
10. D. E. Cook *et al.*, Copy number variation of multiple genes at Rhg1 mediates nematode resistance in soybean. *Science* **338**, 1206–1209 (2012).
11. T. A. Manolio *et al.*, Finding the missing heritability of complex diseases. *Nature* **461**, 747–753 (2009).
12. R. Redon *et al.*, Global variation in copy number in the human genome. *Nature* **444**, 444–454 (2006).
13. Y. Jiao *et al.*, Genome-wide genetic changes during modern breeding of maize. *Nat. Genet.* **44**, 812–815 (2012).
14. M. Muñoz-Amatrián *et al.*, Distribution, functional impact, and origin mechanisms of copy number variation in the barley genome. *Genome Biol.* **14**, R58 (2013).
15. A. M. Brunner, E. Varkonyi-Gasic, R. C. Jones, “Phase change and phenology in trees” in *Comparative and Evolutionary Genomics of Angiosperm Trees*, A. Groover, Q. Cronk, Eds. (Springer International Publishing, Cham, 2017), pp. 227–274.
16. C. A. Polgar, R. B. Primack, Leaf-out phenology of temperate woody plants: From trees to ecosystems. *New Phytol.* **191**, 926–941 (2011).
17. A. F. Hunter, M. J. Lechowicz, Predicting the timing of budburst in temperate trees. *J. Appl. Ecol.* **29**, 597–604 (1992).
18. I. Chuine, A unified model for budburst of trees. *J. Theor. Biol.* **207**, 337–347 (2000).
19. T. Linkosalo, R. Häkkinen, H. Hänninen, Models of the spring phenology of boreal and temperate trees: Is there something missing? *Tree Physiol.* **26**, 1165–1172 (2006).
20. T. O. Perry, Dormancy of trees in winter. *Science* **171**, 29–36 (1971).
21. I. Chuine, E. G. Beaubien, Phenology is a major determinant of tree species range. *Ecol. Lett.* **4**, 500–510 (2001).
22. X.-F. Ma, D. Hall, K. R. S. Onge, S. Jansson, P. K. Ingvarsson, Genetic differentiation, clinal variation and phenotypic associations with growth cessation across the *Populus tremula* photoperiodic pathway. *Genetics* **186**, 1033–1044 (2010).
23. L. M. Evans *et al.*, Population genomics of *Populus trichocarpa* identifies signatures of selection and adaptive trait associations. *Nat. Genet.* **46**, 1089–1096 (2014).
24. J. Wang *et al.*, A major locus controls local adaptation and adaptive life history variation in a perennial plant. *Genome Biol.* **19**, 72 (2018).
25. H. Böhlenius *et al.*, CO/FT regulatory module controls timing of flowering and seasonal growth cessation in trees. *Science* **312**, 1040–1043 (2006).
26. F. Turck, F. Fornara, G. Coupland, Regulation and identity of florigen: FLOWERING LOCUS T moves center stage. *Annu. Rev. Plant Biol.* **59**, 573–594 (2008).
27. D.-H. Kim, M. R. Doyle, S. Sung, R. M. Amasino, Vernalization: Winter and the timing of flowering in plants. *Annu. Rev. Cell Dev. Biol.* **25**, 277–299 (2009).
28. R. M. Amasino, S. D. Michaels, The timing of flowering. *Plant Physiol.* **154**, 516–520 (2010).
29. A. Rohde *et al.*, PtABI3 impinges on the growth and differentiation of embryonic leaves during bud set in poplar. *Plant Cell* **14**, 1885–1901 (2002).
30. S. Tylewicz *et al.*, Photoperiodic control of seasonal growth is mediated by ABA acting on cell-cell communication. *Science* **360**, 212–215 (2018).
31. C.-Y. Hsu *et al.*, FLOWERING LOCUS T duplication coordinates reproductive and vegetative growth in perennial poplar. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A.* **108**, 10756–10761 (2011).
32. A. Azeez, P. Miskolci, S. Tylewicz, R. P. Bhalerao, A tree ortholog of APETALA1 mediates photoperiodic control of seasonal growth. *Curr. Biol.* **24**, 717–724 (2014).
33. J. Ding *et al.*, GIGANTEA-like genes control seasonal growth cessation in *Populus*. *New Phytol.* **218**, 1491–1503 (2018).
34. R. K. Singh *et al.*, A genetic network mediating the control of bud break in hybrid aspen. *Nat. Commun.* **9**, 4173 (2018).
35. B. E. Frewen *et al.*, Quantitative trait loci and candidate gene mapping of bud set and bud flush in populus. *Genetics* **154**, 837–845 (2000).
36. A. Rohde *et al.*, Bud set in poplar—genetic dissection of a complex trait in natural and hybrid populations. *New Phytol.* **189**, 106–121 (2011).
37. A. D. McKown *et al.*, Geographical and environmental gradients shape phenotypic trait variation and genetic structure in *Populus trichocarpa*. *New Phytol.* **201**, 1263–1276 (2014).
38. A. M. Rae, N. R. Street, K. M. Robinson, N. Harris, G. Taylor, Five QTL hotspots for yield in short rotation coppice bioenergy poplar: The Poplar Biomass Loci. *BMC Plant Biol.* **9**, 23 (2009).
39. H. B. Chhetri *et al.*, Multi-trait genome-wide association analysis of *Populus trichocarpa* identifies key polymorphisms controlling morphological and physiological traits. *New Phytol.* **10.1111/nph.15777** (2019).
40. S. Pinosio *et al.*, Characterization of the poplar pan-genome by genome-wide identification of structural variation. *Mol. Biol. Evol.* **33**, 2706–2719 (2016).
41. B. S. Ahloowalia, M. Maluszynski, Induced mutations—A new paradigm in plant breeding. *Euphytica* **118**, 167–173 (2001).
42. I. M. Henry, M. S. Zinkgraf, A. T. Groover, L. Comai, A system for dosage-based functional genomics in poplar. *Plant Cell* **27**, 2370–2383 (2015).
43. J. Prunier *et al.*, Gene copy number variations involved in balsam poplar (*Populus balsamifera* L.) adaptive variations. *Mol. Ecol.* **28**, 1476–1490 (2019).
44. R. Tibshirani, Regression shrinkage and selection via the lasso. *J. R. Stat. Soc. Series B Stat. Methodol.* **58**, 267–288 (1996).
45. G. A. Tuskan *et al.*, The genome of black cottonwood, *Populus trichocarpa* (Torr. & Gray). *Science* **313**, 1596–1604 (2006).
46. E. Rodgers-Melnick *et al.*, Contrasting patterns of evolution following whole genome versus tandem duplication events in *Populus*. *Genome Res.* **22**, 95–105 (2012).
47. J. A. Birchler, K. J. Newton, Modulation of protein levels in chromosomal dosage series of maize: The biochemical basis of aneuploid syndromes. *Genetics* **99**, 247–266 (1981).
48. R. A. Veitia, Exploring the etiology of haploinsufficiency. *BioEssays* **24**, 175–184 (2002).
49. B. Papp, C. Pál, L. D. Hurst, Dosage sensitivity and the evolution of gene families in yeast. *Nature* **424**, 194–197 (2003).
50. S. Pearce *et al.*, Molecular characterization of Rht-1 dwarfing genes in hexaploid wheat. *Plant Physiol.* **157**, 1820–1831 (2011).
51. E. Francia *et al.*, Copy number variation at the HvCBF4-HvCBF2 genomic segment is a major component of frost resistance in barley. *Plant Mol. Biol.* **92**, 161–175 (2016).
52. S. Schiessl, B. Huettel, D. Kuehn, R. Reinhardt, R. J. Snowdon, Targeted deep sequencing of flowering regulators in *Brassica napus* reveals extensive copy number variation. *Sci. Data* **4**, 170013 (2017).
53. T. Würschum, P. H. G. Boeven, S. M. Langer, C. F. H. Longin, W. L. Leiser, Multiply to conquer: Copy number variations at Ppd-B1 and Vrn-A1 facilitate global adaptation in wheat. *BMC Genet.* **16**, 96 (2015).
54. T. Würschum, C. F. H. Longin, V. Hahn, M. R. Tucker, W. L. Leiser, Copy number variations of CBF genes at the Fr-A2 locus are essential components of winter hardiness in wheat. *Plant J.* **89**, 764–773 (2017).
55. O. Savolainen, T. Pyhäjärvi, Genomic diversity in forest trees. *Curr. Opin. Plant Biol.* **10**, 162–167 (2007).
56. S. Sunyaev *et al.*, Prediction of deleterious human alleles. *Hum. Mol. Genet.* **10**, 591–597 (2001).
57. S. Chun, J. C. Fay, Identification of deleterious mutations within three human genomes. *Genome Res.* **19**, 1553–1561 (2009).
58. M. Zhang, L. Zhou, R. Bawa, H. Suren, J. A. Holliday, Recombination rate variation, hitchhiking, and demographic history shape deleterious load in poplar. *Mol. Biol. Evol.* **33**, 2899–2910 (2016).
59. M. Guo, J. A. Birchler, Trans-acting dosage effects on the expression of model gene systems in maize aneuploids. *Science* **266**, 1999–2002 (1994).
60. J. Hou *et al.*, Global impacts of chromosomal imbalance on gene expression in *Arabidopsis* and other taxa. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A.* **115**, E11321–E11330 (2018).
61. J. M. Sheltzer *et al.*, Aneuploidy drives genomic instability in yeast. *Science* **333**, 1026–1030 (2011).
62. E. A. Lee, E. H. Coe, L. L. Darrah, Genetic variation in dosage effects in maize aneuploids. *Genome* **39**, 711–721 (1996).
63. E. A. Lee, L. L. Darrah, E. H. Coe, Dosage effects on morphological and quantitative traits in maize aneuploids. *Genome* **39**, 898–908 (1996).
64. J. A. Birchler, R. A. Veitia, Gene balance hypothesis: Connecting issues of dosage sensitivity across biological disciplines. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A.* **109**, 14746–14753 (2012).
65. S. L. Harikrishnan, P. Pucholt, S. Berlin, Sequence and gene expression evolution of paralogous genes in willows. *Sci. Rep.* **5**, 18662 (2015).
66. M. Zinkgraf *et al.*, Creation and genomic analysis of irradiation hybrids in *Populus*. *Curr. Protoc. Plant Biol.* **1**, 431–450 (2016).
67. M. Lynch, B. Walsh, *Genetics and Analysis of Quantitative Traits* (Sinauer, Sunderland, MA, 1998).
68. E. Lander, L. Kruglyak, Genetic dissection of complex traits: Guidelines for interpreting and reporting linkage results. *Nat. Genet.* **11**, 241–247 (1995).
69. Y. Benjamini, D. Yekutieli, Quantitative trait Loci analysis using the false discovery rate. *Genetics* **171**, 783–790 (2005).