



# Genome-wide association of volatiles reveals candidate loci for blueberry flavor

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Received: 29 October 2019 Accepted: 21 January 2020

New Phytologist (2020) 226: 1725-1737 doi: 10.1111/nph.16459

Key words: genome-wide association, genomic prediction, plant breeding, Vaccinium spp., volatile.

### Summarv

 Plants produce a range of volatile organic compounds (VOCs), some of which are perceived by the human olfactory system, contributing to a myriad flavors. Despite the importance of flavor for consumer preference, most plant breeding programs have neglected it, mainly because of the costs of phenotyping and the complexity of disentangling the role of VOCs in human perception.

 To develop molecular breeding tools aimed at improving fruit flavor, we carried out target genotyping of and VOC extraction from a blueberry population. Metabolite genome-wide association analysis was used to elucidate the genetic architecture, while predictive models were tested to prove that VOCs can be accurately predicted using genomic information. A historical sensory panel was considered to assess how the volatiles influenced consumers.

• By gathering genomics, metabolomics, and the sensory panel, we demonstrated that VOCs are controlled by a few major genomic regions, some of which harbor biosynthetic enzymecoding genes; can be accurately predicted using molecular markers; and can enhance or decrease consumers' overall liking.

 Here we emphasized how the understanding of the genetic basis and the role of VOCs in consumer preference can assist breeders in developing more flavorful cultivars at a more inexpensive and accelerated pace.

## Introduction

Flavor is an important trait for any food crop, affecting consumer acceptance and marketability. Its relevance is even more pronounced for fruits, for which repeated purchasing behavior and willingness to pay have been associated with positive eating experiences (Clark, 1998; Diehl et al., 2013). While there is substantial flavor variation within fruit species (El Hadi et al., 2013), most plant breeding programs have historically neglected it, given its intrinsic complexity and costs to phenotype (Klee, 2010; Klee & Tieman, 2018). As a consequence, the drop-off in flavor quality has become one of the major causes of consumer dissatisfaction (Bruhn et al., 1991; Tieman et al., 2012). To correct this inconsistency and incorporate flavor into breeding program routines, it is necessary to identify the sources of flavor variability, understand their genetic architecture, and then define cost-effective methods of selection.

Flavor is a complex multifactorial trait, involving a combination of taste, mouthfeel and aroma perceptions. More specifically, it is the interaction between our olfactory system and the volatile organic compounds (VOCs) released by the fruit that

provides the diversity and uniqueness of flavor experiences (Goff & Klee, 2006; El Hadi et al., 2013). Plants synthesize a wide variety of VOCs (Dudareva et al., 2006; Goff & Klee, 2006), but only a subset are produced during fruit ripening, where they probably act as an attractant for seed-dispersing organisms, including humans (Rodríguez et al., 2013). Several fruit VOCs have been demonstrated to influence consumers' overall liking (Klee & Tieman, 2018), suggesting that these metabolites are key targets to improve the flavor perception of fruits. Although the VOC profiles of many fruit species have been characterized (El Hadi et al., 2013; Klee & Tieman, 2018), less is known about the genetic basis underlying their variation among genotypes, which hinders their implementation in breeding programs. Moreover, quantifying the abundance of metabolites is expensive and time-consuming for a large-scale populational application. In this scenario, molecular markers are a promising tool to detect genetic associations and predict the phenotype of new individuals (Klee, 2010).

Molecular breeding methods have been successfully applied for different traits and crops (Hickey et al., 2017; Watson et al., 2018); however, they have been less exploited for fruit flavor improvement. Herein, we showed the feasibility of molecular breeding for flavor-related volatiles in a blueberry breeding

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program by integrating genomics, metabolomics, and sensory panel data. Blueberry (*Vaccinium* spp.) is the second most important soft fruit after strawberry, and it has also been popularized as a 'superfood' as a result of the multiple health benefits conferred by its abundant polyphenolic content (Kalt *et al.*, 2019). A previous psychophysical study indicated that consumers prefer sweet berries with intense flavor (Gilbert *et al.*, 2015). Therefore, considering that blueberry and other fruits are important dietary sources of micronutrients, an effort to improve flavor through breeding is warranted, which may lead to an increase in fresh fruit consumption that could subsequently have a positive impact on human health.

In this study, we used a targeted genotyping approach and volatile extractions with analysis by GC-MS of 1438 individuals from a blueberry breeding population. Genome-wide association studies (GWAS) elucidated the genetic architecture of VOCs and predictive models showed that VOCs can be accurately predicted using genomic and marker-assisted selection. Finally, a historical blueberry sensory panel dataset was leveraged to assess how the volatiles influenced consumer preference to ultimately assist breeders in the direction of the selection.

# **Materials and Methods**

#### Plant material

The association mapping population was composed of 886 southern highbush blueberry genotypes covering 92 full-sib families. This population was originally designed as part of the breeding program at the University of Florida in February 2011. Seedlings originating from each family were installed in a row-column design at the Plant Science Research and Education Unit in Citra, Florida. Additional details on this population were previously described by Cellon *et al.* (2018) and Ferrão *et al.* (2018).

#### Tissue collection, sample processing, and volatile extraction

During April 2015, five full mature berries were harvested from each plant. We only sampled berries exhibiting picking quality, including fully blue color at the scar, and no visual, pathogen or insect damage. Fruits were quenched in liquid nitrogen and stored at  $-80^{\circ}$ C up to the time of sample processing. The five berries from each genotype were ground together to a fine powder using a liquid nitrogen pre-chilled blender/coffee grinder (Tribest Corp., Anaheim, CA, USA) and transferred to a 12 ml labeled tube. For each sample, 250 mg of frozen powder was weighted in duplicate into 2 ml microtubes and stored at -80°C until volatile extraction. Internal volatiles were extracted using a solid-liquid-phase solvent extraction procedure. The extraction solvent consisted of anhydrous hexane containing 50 ng  $\mu$ l<sup>-1</sup> surrogate standard (trans-2-heptenal, CAS no. 18829-55-5, Sigma-Aldrich, St Louis, MO, USA). Samples were randomly extracted in batches containing 11 samples in duplicate and two empty microtubes. The volatile extraction was performed as follows. Samples were retrieved from archival storage and placed in liquid nitrogen; 1 ml of extraction solvent was added to each

sample. The samples were shaken for 5 s then vortexed for 10 s to ensure full saturation of tissue with solvent. They were then shaken at 23°C in a thermoshaker at 1400 rpm for 15 min, and then centrifuged at 1500 g to induce phase separation. The top organic portion was recovered into a glass GC sample vial using a disposable glass Pasteur pipette. Samples were stored at  $-80^{\circ}$ C until GC-MS analysis.

#### Volatile analysis

Quantification of volatiles from the liquid phase extractions was performed on an Agilent 7980A series GC equipped with an Agilent 5977A single quadrupole mass spectrum detector (MSD, Santa Clara, CA, USA). Parameters of the GC were used as follows: helium carrier gas fixed at 11.479 psi; splitless injection; inlet temperature 220°C; injection volume 2 µl; and the syringe wash solvents were acetone and hexane. A guard column consisting of deactivated fused silica (Ultimate Plus deactivated fused silica tubing, 5 m long  $\times$  250 µm ID; catalog no. CP802505; Agilent Technologies, Santa Clara, CA, USA) was installed from the GC inlet and connected to the analytical column by a pressfit connector (catalog no. 22159; Restek, Bellefonte, PA, USA). Sample analytes were separated using an equipped DB-5 column [(5%-phenyl)-methylpolysiloxane, 30 m long  $\times$  250 µm ID  $\times$  1 um film thickness; Agilent Technologies). Oven temperatures were programmed as follows: the initial oven temperature of 40°C was held for 30 s, then ramped 15°C min<sup>-1</sup> to 250°C with a post-run temperature of 260°C held for 3 min. The MSD was equipped with an extractor ion source and tuned for sensitivity and mass accuracy before sample analysis. Parameters for the MSD were maintained as follows: MSD transfer line temperature, 280°C; MS source temperature, 230°C; MS quad temperature, 150°C; solvent delay, 6 min; mass scan range, 40-205 m/z with a threshold of 150. Data were acquired using a MassHunter Workstation Acquisition (Agilent Technologies) and processed using Agilent's MASSHUNTER QUANTITATIVE ANALYSIS program v.B.06.00. Initial screening of volatiles consisted of a targeted list of the 52 volatile compounds previously reported and described by Gilbert et al. (2015). Additionally, spectral deconvolution was performed for each sample in the program and manually curated to achieve a list of compounds that were then validated based on comparing retention time and spectra to authentic standards. Overall, a list of 17 robust and reliable features were detected and validated with authentic volatile standards. The most abundant nonconvoluted m/z ion fragment for each compound was used to integrate peak area. Integrated peaks were qualified by two additional m/z ion fragments that were required to match ratios observed in authentic standards. Volatile mass concentration  $(\mu g g^{-1} FW)$  was calculated using standard curves for each individual compound. Values were normalized for recovery of the surrogate standard, trans-2-heptenal, within each individual batch of extracted samples and for the corresponding biological mass of each sample. The equation used to calculate volatile mass concentration for each individual volatile compound was as follows: VOC<sub>mass</sub> =  $pA_{COI} \times pA_{SSCS}/pA_{SS} \times M \times RF$ , where  $pA_{COI}$  is the peak area of compound of interest in sample,  $pA_{SSCS}$  is the peak area of surrogate standard in laboratory control spike,  $pA_{SS}$  is the peak area of surrogate standard in sample, M is biological sample mass, and RF is the response factor from compound standard series. Two technical replicates per sample were analyzed by GC-MS, and average quantification values were used as phenotype.

## Genotypic data

Genotyping was carried out by RAPiD Genomics (Gainesville, FL, USA) using the sequence capture methodology as described in Ferrão et al. (2018). Sequencing was performed using an Illumina HiSeq2000 platform considering 100 cycle paired-end runs. Raw reads were filtered by quality and trimmed using TRIM-MOMATIC v.0.36 with the following parameter settings: 'ILLUMINACLIP:TruSeq3-PE.fa:2:30:10 TRAILING:3 SLIDI NGWINDOW:4:15 MINLEN:50' (Bolger et al., 2014). Filtered reads were mapped against the largest scaffolds of each of the 12 homoeologous groups of Vaccinium corymbosum cv 'Draper' genome assembly (Colle et al., 2019) using the BWA v.0.7.17 software (Li & Durbin, 2009). Single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) were called using FREEBAYES v.1.0.1 (Garrison & Marth, 2012), targeting 15 663 probe regions designed for the sequence capture approach (Benevenuto et al., 2019). Sequencing read counts per allele and individual were extracted from the variant call file using the VCFTOOLS package (Danecek et al., 2011). As blueberry is a tetraploid species (2n = 4X = 48), we used the UPDOG package in R to call the allele dosages based on the read counts (Gerard et al., 2018). The UPDOG package outputs the posterior probability means per SNP for each individual and we used these probabilities as our genotypes. Loci were also filtered by applying the following criteria: minimum mapping quality of 20; only biallelic locus; maximum missing data of 50-%; minor allele frequency of 1%; mean depth of coverage of 40; and minimum genotype frequency of 0.01. The remained missing genotypes were imputed by the mean of each locus, as suggested in the GEMMA package (Zhou & Stephens, 2012).

## Phenotypic analysis

We computed the phenotypic heritability for each volatile using the following phenotypic model:  $\log(y) = \mathbf{1}_n \mu + \mathbf{Z} \mathbf{g} + \mathbf{\epsilon}$ , where  $\mu$  is the overall mean and  $\mathbf{1}_n$  is a vector of ones; **Z** is the incidence matrix linking observation in the vector  $\mathbf{y}$  to their respective genotype effects in the vector g. Normality was assumed for the genotype effects and residual, where  $g \sim MVN(0, A\sigma_a^2)$  and  $\varepsilon \sim MVN(0, I\sigma_{e}^{2})$ . The genetic covariance, A, can be derived from the expectation of co-ancestry coefficient between individuals from the pedigree, and it was computed assuming a tetraploid additive relationship matrix; while  $\sigma_a^2$  is the additive genetic variance. For the residual, I is an identity matrix and  $\sigma_e^2$  is the residual variance. MVN denotes the n-dimensional multivariate normal distribution. Additive genetic variance was estimated using restricted maximum likelihood (RELM) using the SOMMER package in R (Covarrubias-Pazaran, 2016), while the kinship matrix A was built using the AGHMATRIX package in R (Amadeu

*et al.*, 2016). Phenotypic heritability ( $h^2$ ) was computed as:  $h^2 = \frac{\sigma_a^2}{\sigma^2 + \sigma^2}$ .

## Genome-wide association study

We used GWAS to identify genomic regions controlling volatile content in blueberry. SNP-trait association analyses were based on a univariate linear mixed model (LMM), as described by Yu et al. (2006) and implemented in the GEMMA package (option lmm 4) (Zhou & Stephens, 2012). LMM tests for association of the phenotypes with each marker were performed with corrections for main directions of population structure by regressing on the first five principal components (PCs) calculated using the genomic relationship matrix, and cryptic relatedness using the polygenic background effects with covariance proportional to the genomic relationship matrix. In a matrix notation, the follow LMM was considered for each volatile:  $\log(y) = W\alpha +$  $\mathbf{x}\beta + \mathbf{u} + \mathbf{\varepsilon}$ ; where  $\log(\mathbf{y})$  corresponds to logarithm-transformed values of the volatile; W is a matrix of covariates (fixed effects) including a columns of 1s for the intercept and the first five principal components;  $\alpha$  is a vector of the corresponding fixed coefficients including the intercept; x is a vector of marker genotypes;  $\beta$  is the effect size of the marker;  $\boldsymbol{u}$  is the random polygenic effect distributed as  $\boldsymbol{u} \sim \text{MVN}(0, \mathbf{K}\sigma_{g}^{2})$ , where **K** is the realized relationship matrix calculated with genome-wide markers, and  $\sigma_{g}^{2}$  is the additive genetic variance; and  $\varepsilon$  is a vector of error, distributed as  $\varepsilon \sim MVN(0, I\sigma_{\circ}^2)$ . The molecular relatedness matrix K was built using the AGHMATRIX in R (Amadeu et al., 2016), assuming tetrasomic inheritance. Bonferroni correction considering a genome-wide significance level of 0.05 was used for establishing a P-value detection threshold for statistical significance. The effect size of significant SNPs was calculated as described by Pallares *et al.* (2014):  $\alpha = (\beta^2 \times \operatorname{var}_x)/(\operatorname{var}_y)$ , where  $\operatorname{var}_x$  is the variance of the genotype at the focal SNPs,  $var_{\nu}$  is the phenotypic variance, and  $\hat{\beta}$  is the estimated SNP effect.

## Functional mapping and annotation of genetic association

Single nucleotide polymorphisms were characterized in silico for their genomic position and functional effect on protein-coding genes using SNPDAT v.1.0.5 (Doran & Creevey, 2013) and further manual curation. The 'Draper' genome assembly and gene predictions were retrieved from the GigaScience database (Colle et al., 2019). Genomic windows for screening of functional candidate genes were defined by two strategies: between the left- and right-most significant SNPs forming a 'tower-like' structure in the Manhattan plots; and between  $\pm$  100 kb from significant SNPs that do not form a 'tower-like' structure, given that 100 kb was the size of the linkage disequilibrium block calculated for the same population by Ferrão et al. (2018). The screened genomic windows can be found in the Supporting Information Table S1. Candidate genes were annotated using the BLAST2GO tool with BLASTP search against the nonredundant protein database (Götz et al., 2008). Gene ontology (GO) enrichment analyses were performed for each VOC's candidate gene subset against the total haploid blueberry gene content. We used the BiNGO plugin in

CYTOSCAPE v.3.7.2, considering a hypergeometric test with false discovery rate correction ( $P \le 0.05$ ; Maere *et al.*, 2005).

#### Genomic heritability

Different modeling strategies were used to estimate the genomic heritability (proportion of variance explained by available SNPs) of each VOC. First, we calculated the genomic heritability  $(h_{snp}^2)$ using the methodology implemented in the GEMMA package (option -vc 2; Zhou, 2017). We also used the same method for estimation of the variance partition by each chromosome independently. Another strategy was based on the Bayesian sparse linear-mixed model (BSLMM), which was used to further estimate the proportion of the phenotypic variance explained by the polygenic term (PVE), analogous to the  $h_{snp}^2$  and the proportion of the PVE that is explained by SNPs with a nonzero effect on phenotypic variation (PGE). To this end, we first used the BSLMM to fit a multilocus GWAS model assuming that the SNP effects are sampled from a point-normal distribution, as implemented in the GEMMA package (option -bslmm 1). In a matrix notation, the model is  $\log(y) = \mathbf{1}_{\mathbf{n}} \mu + X \beta + u + \varepsilon$ , where log(y) is an *n*-vector of the logarithm-transformed volatile phenotype measured in *n* individuals; **X** is an  $n \times p$  matrix of additive tetraploid genotypes measured on the same individuals at p genetic markers;  $\beta$  is the SNP effect sampled from a mixture of two distributions, one that expects many small effects and another that generates few strong effects, as follows:  $\beta_i \sim \pi N(\sigma_k^2 \tau^{-1}) + (1 - \pi)\delta_0$ , where  $\sigma_k^2$  controls the expected magnitude of nonzero SNP effects and  $\delta_0$  denotes a point mass at zero; u is the polygenic term as previously described; and  $\varepsilon$  is a random independent error term. We ran the Markov chain using the default settings implemented in the GEMMA software. Full details about the BSLMM are described by Zhou et al. (2013).

#### Phenotype prediction for molecular breeding

We evaluated the potential use of molecular markers for phenotypic prediction and for validation of our GWAS results. To this end, we designed four training and testing scenarios, combining different populations and methods. Besides the original population comprising 886 individuals used in the GWAS analyses  $(POP_1)$ , we also phenotyped and genotyped a new set of 552 individuals (POP<sub>2</sub>). Berries from POP<sub>2</sub> were collected at the same year, location, and ripening stage as individuals from POP<sub>1</sub>, and subjected to the same phenotyping and genotyping protocols. The genetic relationship between the two populations was explored using a principal component analysis (PCA) and a heatmap of the realized genomic matrix. To perform predictions based on molecular information, we considered three different approaches: a genomic selection (GS) model, which fits a regression by modeling markers as random variables drawn from the same normal distribution, using the RR-BLUP method (Endelman, 2011); a GS de novo GWAS model, which combines the RR-BLUP method with significant markers from GWAS fitted as fixed effects covariates; and marker-assisted selection based on candidate loci (MAS), which fits a multiple regression model

considering only the GWAS hits as fixed effects. A summary of these scenarios is presented in Table S2. GS and GS *de novo* GWAS models were fitted using ridge-regression models as implemented in the RRBLUP package in R (Endelman, 2011). The MAS approach was fitted using the *lm* function in R. To select the GWAS hits to be used as fixed-effects covariates, we retained the significant *P*-values estimated using the LMM approach and selected the marker with the smallest *P*-value within every 10 kb genomic window. Finally, we accessed the predictive ability (PA) by computing Pearson's correlation between predicted and original phenotypes.

#### Sensory analysis

We evaluated the impact of the volatiles in flavor perception using a consumer panel sensory data. To this end, over the course of 6 yr (2012–2017), 24 blueberry cultivars from the breeding program at the University of Florida were evaluated in 45 different sensory panels. On average, 90 panelists participated of each survey. As described by Gilbert *et al.* (2014) and Schwieterman *et al.* (2014), panelists were trained with the scaling methods and rated for overall liking, texture liking, sweetness, sourness, and flavor intensity using a hedonic general labeled magnitude scales (gLMS) ranging from -100 (greatest disliking of any kind) to +100 (greatest liking of any kind). Concurrent with panel evaluation, a subset of berries from the same genotypes were submitted to chemistry analyses, which included volatile extraction and quantification, soluble solids content and titratable acids (TA) measurements (see Gilbert *et al.*, 2015 for more details).

# Results

#### Volatile phenotyping

A total of 17 VOCs were identified through GC-MS analyses, which comprised different chemical classes and biosynthetic origins (Fig. S1). Among the fatty acid derivatives, there were five aldehydes, two alcohols, and three methyl ketones. From the mevalonic acid (MVA) or the methylerythritol phosphate (MEP) pathways, there were five terpenoid compounds. Lastly, there were two benzenoid compounds which are derived from shikimate/phenylalanine pathway. Fatty acid-derived aldehydes were the most abundant in concentration followed by their derived alcohols, and the benzenoid methyl salicylate had the lowest concentration (Table 1).

#### Genome-wide association mapping

In this study, volatile–genotype associations were performed using a LMM approach. A total of 71 487 SNPs, distributed across the 12 haploid blueberry chromosome-scaled scaffolds, were independently tested for association (Fig. S2; Table S3). After Bonferroni-based multiple test correction, we detected 519 significant SNPs associated with 11 VOCs, encompassing 10 chromosomes and different metabolic pathways (Fig. 1). Most significant SNPs converged to a tower-like structure in

Metabolic classification Aroma descriptor<sup>1</sup> SD Volatile Chemical abstract services number Mean 1370 (E)-2-Hexenal Fatty acid derivate, aldehyde 6728-263 Fresh, green, fruity 65 376 Fatty acid derivate, aldehyde 112-31-2 Fruity, citrus 12 184 283 Decanal Heptanal Fatty acid derivate, aldehyde 7785-70-8 Green, herbal 166.4 3.1 Fatty acid derivate, aldehyde 547 Hexanal 66-25-1 Fresh, green, fruity 21874 Nonanal Fatty acid derivate, aldehyde 124-19-6 Rose, fresh 346.8 12 928-95-0 (E)-2-Hexen-1-ol Fatty acid derivate, alcohol Fresh green, leafy 722.1 22.6 Fatty acid derivate, alcohol 111-27-3 631.4 14.8 1-Hexanol Fruity, sweet green 2-Heptanone Fatty acid derivate, methyl ketone 110-43-0 Fruity, spicy, cheesy 96.4 4.8 551.7 15 2-Nonanone Fatty acid derivate, methyl ketone 821-55-6 Fruity, earthy 2-Undecanone Fatty acid derivate, methyl ketone 112-12-9 Fruity, floral 2166.8 38.6 Alpha-pinene MVA/MEP, monoterpene 80-56-8 Minty 6.1 0.4 190.6 MVA/MEP, monoterpene 5989-27-5 Citrus, fresh, sweet 11 p-limonene MVA/MEP, monoterpene 99.5 Eucalyptol 470-82-6 Minty, woody, herbal 64 475.9 Geranyl acetone MVA/MEP, monoterpene 3796-70-1 Floral, rosy, sweet 13.2 MVA/MEP, monoterpene 78-70-6 Green, rosy, floral 743.4 22.2 Linalool Benzaldehyde Phenylpropanoid, benzenoid 122-78-1 Sharp, bitter, cherry 8 0.4 Methyl salicylate Phenylpropanoid, benzenoid 119-36-8 Mintv 1.4 0.2

Table 1 Classification and summary statistics for the 17 volatile organic compounds detected among 886 blueberry individuals.

MVA, mevalonic acid; MEP, methylerythritol phosphate.

Mean and standard deviation (SD) values are expressed as ng  $g^{-1}$  FW. Volatiles were classified into five chemical classes: aldehydes, alcohols, methyl ketones, monoterpenes and benzenoids.

<sup>1</sup>Aroma descriptors retrieved from Du & Rouseff (2014).

Manhattan plots, indicating the presence of few genomic regions controlling each VOC emission (Fig. S3a,b). The number of genomic regions associated with each VOC ranged from one (for (E)-2-hexenal, 1-hexanol, and 2-undecanone) to five (for eucalyptol) (Fig. S4a; Table S1). Some common genomic windows were detected for volatiles derived from the same biosynthetic pathways (Fig. S4a). In chromosome 2, both methylketones (2nonanone and 2-undecanone) shared the same genomic region; while in chromosome 3, overlaps were observed for the terpenoids linalool and D-limonene. Most of the significant SNPs were detected in noncoding regions, and among the exonic SNPs, most caused synonymous changes (Fig. S4b). We also explored how much of the phenotypic variation was explained by individual markers (Fig. S4c). Notably, some significant SNPs individually explained > 10% of the phenotypic variation observed. For example, a single marker on chromosome 2 explained > 30% of the phenotypic variance associated with 2-undecanone (Fig. S4c).

## Candidate genes

Putative protein-coding genes were searched for in the regions flanking significant SNPs. Functional annotation of these genes pointed to enzymes in VOC biosynthetic pathways and related biological functions (Fig. 1; Table S1). The most explicit candidate genes were found for terpenoid volatiles (Fig. 2). One of the genomic regions associated with both linalool and D-limonene comprised six linalool synthase encoding genes (Fig. 2). For eucalyptol, eight alpha-terpineol synthases were predicted in one of the genomic regions (Fig. 2). Moreover, the GO term 'terpene synthase activity' was overrepresented for genes within candidate regions of these volatiles (Table S4). For the carotenoid-derived terpene, geranyl acetone, the enzymes mevalonate kinase, zetacarotene desaturase, and carotenoid cleavage dioxygenase 4 (CDD4) were present at distinct genomic regions associated with this volatile (Fig. 1). For the fatty acid-derived VOCs (hexanal, 1-hexanol, decanal, 2-heptanone, 2-nonanone, and 2-undecanone), several enzymes involved in lipid biosynthesis and degradation were detected (Fig. 1). Other biologically plausible candidate genes underlying VOC variation at the different genomic regions include those potentially involved in plant defense, regulation of transcription, regulation of protein abundance through proteasomal degradation, volatile emission through ABC-type transporters, VOC degradation, and competition for precursors with adjacent pathways (Table S1).

# Heritability of VOCs

We accessed the heritability of the 11 VOCs for which significant associations were detected using different approaches (Fig. 3). Using the pedigree information, we observed moderate-to-high heritability values ( $h^2 > 50\%$ ) for most of the metabolites. Remarkably, 1-hexanol, 2-undecanone, decanal and linalool presented values > 97%. Considering the genomic heritability based on all SNPs ( $h_{snp}^2$ ), we also observed moderate-to-high values, but with a relatively lower magnitude when compared with pedigree analyses. We also used the BSLMM to investigate the genetic contribution of sparse (PGE parameter) and polygenic components (PVE parameter). The PVE is a Bayesian version of the  $b_{\rm snp}^2$  and, as expected, both analyses resulted in similar values. The PGE is the proportion of the PVE that is explained by markers with large effects, shedding light on the genetic architecture of the traits. For most VOCs, we observed PGE values > 30%. Additionally, we divided the genetic variance explained by markers in a chromosome-based scheme, and no positive trend



**Fig. 1** Schematic representation of the pathways leading to the biosynthesis of volatiles detected in this study. Volatiles with uncharacterized pathways are indicated with a question mark (?). Different color shadings indicate different metabolic pathways. Arrows with triple heads indicate multiple steps. Colored asterisks on the pathways indicate the potential enzymatic role of candidate genes detected in the significant genomic regions. Chromosomes with significant associations in the genome-wide association studies (GWAS) analyses are indicated by colored circles in front of each volatile organic compound.

between phenotypic variance and chromosome length was observed – as expected for polygenic traits (Fig. S5). Altogether, the results from the association mapping, the heritability estimation, and the partitioning of the genetic variance by chromosome length corroborated to indicate that VOC traits have a simple genetic architecture, with few major loci controlling a large proportion of the phenotypic variance.

## Validation and phenotypic prediction

Marker-assisted selection based on candidate loci and GS based on markers covering the whole genome are powerful tools to predict the phenotypic merit of an individual and support breeding decisions. Here, we compared the feasibility and efficacy of both approaches for implementation in breeding programs targeting VOCs. To this end, a new set of individuals (POP<sub>2</sub>) was phenotyped and genotyped for real validation. POP<sub>2</sub> is composed of individuals genetically related to the original population (POP<sub>1</sub>) used in the GWAS analysis (Figs 4a, S6). Subsequently, four different scenarios (SCE) mimicking breeding programs were designed for 'training' and 'testing' partitions (Fig. 4b). In the SCE<sub>1</sub>, GS models were trained and tested within POP<sub>1</sub>, by systematically splitting the original population into nonoverlapping 'training' and 'testing' partitions. In this scenario, predictive performances ranged from 0.41 to 0.67 for hexanal and 2-nonanone, respectively (Figs 4c, S7). The SCE<sub>2</sub> captured GS validations across populations. Compared with SCE1, there were substantial decreases in the predictive abilities (Fig. 4c). In order to validate our previous findings in the GWAS analysis we designed the SCE<sub>3</sub> and SCE<sub>4</sub> scenarios, whereby the GWAS hits were used as fixed effects in the prediction models across populations (Fig. 4b; Table S5). In the SCE<sub>3</sub>, also named as 'GS de novo GWAS', most of the validations yielded higher predictive performances when compared with SCE<sub>2</sub>. Notably, for some volatiles, the performances were comparable with the results in the SCE<sub>1</sub> (Fig. 4c). The MAS approach was represented in SCE<sub>4</sub> (Fig. 4b) and high predictive ability was achieved for most of the VOCs (Fig. 4c), demonstrating that a small set of markers (Table S5) can be used for VOC prediction. Overall, the prediction results were aligned with the PGE values (Fig. 3): volatiles with lower PGE values, such as hexanal, 1-hexanol and (E)-2-hexenal, showed lower predictive performances (Fig. S8).

#### Sensory panel

To determine the impact of VOCs, soluble solids, and TA content on the consumer perception, we used a historical set of sensory panel data. Over the course of 6 yr, consumer panelists rated



**Fig. 2** Significant associations and candidate genes underlying linalool and eucalyptol volatiles. (a) Manhattan plots showing the significance of each single nucleotide polymorphism (SNP) association in the genome-wide association studies (GWAS). The horizontal red lines represent the Bonferroni significance threshold. (b) Genomic regions harboring biosynthetic enzyme-coding genes (blue and red arrows) and the nearest significant single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs; yellow triangles). LIS/TPS, enzymes linalool synthase/alpha-terpineol synthase. Double bars indicate out of scale. (c) Pairwise linkage disequilibrium (LD( $r^2$ )) between significant SNPs along the highlighted genomic region.

overall liking, texture, sweetness, sourness and flavor intensity of 24 cultivars (Table S6). In the correlation analysis, overall liking was strongly and positively correlated with soluble solids that, aside from other compounds, can be an indicator of sugar content (Figs 5a, S9). By contrast, TA was negatively correlated with overall liking (Fig. 5a). For VOCs, positive and negative trends were observed in the dataset (Figs 5a, S9). The volatiles 1-hexanol and 2-undecanone were the most positively correlated with overall liking (0.48 and 0.43, respectively), while (E)-2-hexanal and eucalyptol were the most negatively correlated (-0.75 and-0.56, respectively). To exemplify the importance of the biochemical compounds on flavor enhancement, we selected three cultivars for additional comments. 'Kestrel' and 'Windsor' have been consistently rated by panelists with high and low scores of overall liking, respectively. By contrasting the biochemical profile of both cultivars, the low sugar to acid ratio observed in 'Windsor' is probably the main difference negatively influencing panelists' liking scores (Fig. 5b). In addition to sugar and acids, VOCs also play an important role in flavor. To exemplify, we selected 'Kestrel' and 'Snowchaser', two cultivars with similar profiles of soluble solids and TA, but displaying distinct volatile profiles and liking scores (Fig. 5b). 'Snowchaser' had higher eucalyptol content, while 'Kestrel' had higher linalool content, which are probably influencing the flavor perception.

#### Discussion

Over the recent decades, it has generally been accepted that the drop-off in flavor quality is one of the major sources of consumer dissatisfaction with fresh fruit produce (Bruhn *et al.*, 1991; Klee, 2010). Despite its importance, flavor is an expensive and complex trait to be routinely evaluated in breeding programs. In this scenario, the use of molecular breeding to track flavor-associated metabolites emerges as the best strategy for flavor improvement (Klee, 2010). Some breeding programs are already taking advantage of marker-assisted selection to this end (Chambers *et al.*, 2014; Eduardo *et al.*, 2014; Emanuelli *et al.*, 2014). In this study, by using a combination of genomics, metabolomics, and sensory panel data, we identified markers associated with flavor-related volatiles and showed their real application in a blueberry breeding program.

With a relatively recent domestication history dated from the 1900s, blueberry breeding programs still possess a wide variability of flavors to be explored, and unlike other fruits, such as bananas, there is not a single chemical that represents a typical blueberry flavor. Guided by prior findings that the blueberry flavor is influenced by several volatile metabolites (Gilbert *et al.*, 2013, 2015; Tieman *et al.*, 2017), we first used a metabolomics approach to detect and quantify these VOCs in a southern highbush





blueberry breeding population. Previous analyses in blueberry used a dynamic headspace collection, which provided sensitive and detailed volatile profiling (Gilbert et al., 2013, 2015). However, the tissue requirements and current limited throughput of dynamic headspace collection system necessitated the development of a quantitative and higher throughput volatile screen for a large breeding population. Therefore, we developed a liquid extraction-based method that was able to detect most of the volatiles previously reported as influential to the human hedonic and sensory perception (Gilbert et al., 2015). In this study, a total of 17 volatiles from different chemical classes and biosynthetic origins were quantified. Among them, aldehydes and alcohols have been frequently associated with green, grassy, and herbal flavors as well as the terpene eucalyptol (Klee, 2010; Gilbert et al., 2015; Farneti et al., 2017b). Terpenes like linalool, D-limonene, and geranyl acetone have been linked with floral, fresh, and citrusy flavors (Farneti et al., 2017b). The methyl ketones 2nonanone and 2-undecanone have been associated with fruity flavors, while 2-heptanone has been associated with cheesy and banana-like flavor. Such variability highlights the amplitude of flavors that could be explored.

Although the blueberry volatile landscape has already been characterized in several studies (Parliment & Kolor, 1975; Hirvi & Honkanen, 1983; Du *et al.*, 2011; Gilbert *et al.*, 2013, 2015; Du & Rouseff, 2014; Farneti *et al.*, 2017b), the genetic basis underlying VOC variation among genotypes is still unknown.

Through GWAS analyses, we identified molecular markers with large effects and showed that few genomic regions were involved in the variation of VOC content in blueberry. Most of the genomic studies addressing volatiles in fruits have been performed using traditional quantitative trait locus (QTL) mapping (Zini et al., 2005; Doligez et al., 2006; Tieman et al., 2006; Duchêne et al., 2009; Dunemann et al., 2009; Costa et al., 2013; Eduardo et al., 2013; Paterson et al., 2013; Urrutia et al., 2017), while GWAS has only been recently conducted in studies applied to tomato (Sauvage et al., 2014; Zhang et al., 2015; Bauchet et al., 2017; Tieman et al., 2017) and apple (Kumar et al., 2015; Farneti et al., 2017a; Larsen et al., 2019). When compared with QTL mapping, GWAS increases the mapping resolution by making use of more diverse populations with lower levels of linkage disequilibrium and higher marker density, which narrows the genomic regions to search for potential candidate genes and causal polymorphisms (Korte & Farlow, 2013).

Herein, we found plausible candidate genes within the genomic windows surrounding significant SNPs. The most striking candidate genes were clusters of monoterpene synthases found in one of the regions associated with the terpenoids linalool, D-limonene, and eucalyptol. Terpene synthases are part of a large family of enzymes that generate the diversity of volatile terpenoids found in plants (Bohlmann *et al.*, 1998; Dudareva *et al.*, 2006). These enzymes catalyze the first committed step towards the synthesis of terpenoids from substrates derived from

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**Fig. 4** Phenotypic prediction. (a) Principal component analysis (PCA) of two blueberry populations: POP1 represents the original 886 individuals used for the genome-wide association studies (GWAS) analysis and POP2 is a new set of 552 individuals used for genomic prediction. (b) Four prediction scenarios using different approaches: genomic selection (GS) intra- and interpopulation (all markers simultaneously modeled as random effects and predictive ability measured within POP1 and across populations, respectively); GS *de novo* GWAS (GWAS hits modeled as fixed effects into GS models and cross-validation performed across populations); and marker assisted selection (MAS; only the GWAS hits modeled as fixed effects in regression models and cross-validation performed across populations). (c) Predictive ability for volatile content across the four prediction scenarios.

MEP/MVA pathways. Terpene synthases were also found in QTL regions of terpenes in peach (Eduardo et al., 2013; Sánchez et al., 2014), raspberry (Paterson et al., 2013), and carrot (Keilwagen et al., 2017). The terpene geranyl acetone is also derived from MEP/MVA pathways but it is formed through the oxidative cleavage of carotenoids. In the regions associated with geranyl acetone, there were enzymes involved in the early steps of the biosynthetic pathway (mevalonate kinase), in the biosynthesis of carotenoids (zeta-carotene desaturase), and in the final step of carotenoid cleavage (CDD4) (Yuan et al., 2015). Previous QTLs detected in other species have found only carotenoid biosynthetic enzymes in the associated area, suggesting that the carotenoid content of the fruits was the determinant of this suite of volatiles (Lewinsohn et al., 2005; Tieman et al., 2006, 2017; Klee, 2010). Notably, this is the first study that the authors are aware of where a CDD-encoding enzyme was detected in a QTL region for an apocarotenoid volatile variation. For the fatty acid derivative VOCs (aldehydes, alcohols, and methyl ketones), several enzymes

involved in the lipid metabolism were detected. The synthesis and degradation of fatty acids can have a major impact on downstream volatile synthesis, as suggested in tomato studies (Howe & Schilmiller, 2002; Garbowicz et al., 2018). Besides biosynthetic enzymes, other biological mechanisms could also be involved in VOC variation as detected in other associated genomics regions. For example, ABC transporters have been shown to facilitate VOC emission (Adebesin et al., 2017); cytochrome P450 enzymes can act in volatile biosynthesis and modification (Dudareva et al., 2006); transcriptional regulation can induce or repress VOCs synthesis and release (Dudareva et al., 2006). Despite finding interesting candidates, we did not detect causal polymorphisms in the genes, and functional validation is also needed to confirm our hypotheses. It is noteworthy, however, that recent studies have revealed that noncoding regulatory regions in plant genomes are highly variable at the species level and can impact the expression of hundreds of genes that ultimately alter various traits (Yocca et al., 2019). Unfortunately, the



**Fig. 5** Sensory analysis. (a) Pearson's correlation between five sensory scores and biochemical compounds; (b) comparison of blueberry 'Kestrel' and 'Windsor', evidencing the importance of sugar to acid ratio on the liking rates. Comparison of 'Kestrel' and 'Snowchaser', both cultivars with similar content of soluble solids and titratable acidity (TA), but different volatile profiles and liking perception.

noncoding regulatory space remains completely unknown in blueberry, and the genotyping approach used herein is unable to assess all types of variants that exist between the genotypes. Nonetheless, tightly linked markers are valuable for breeding purposes.

Motivated by the possibility to predict volatile content using genomic data, we first investigated the use of genomic selection (Meuwissen et al., 2001). High predictive accuracies were observed for most of the VOCs, which have also been reported in the plant literature for other types of metabolites (Riedelsheimer et al., 2012; Guo et al., 2016; Kainer et al., 2018; Schrag et al., 2018). Subsequently, we explored the importance and applicability of our GWAS findings for prediction in an independent dataset by using the significant GWAS hits as fixed effects in GS models. This GWAS de novo GS framework showed an increase of more than 20% in the predictive ability for some volatiles (e.g. 2-undecanone), when compared with traditional GS methods. Using a similar strategy, gains in predictive performance for other traits were also reported in maize (Bernardo, 2014; Rice & Lipka, 2019), sorghum (Rice & Lipka, 2019) and rice (Spindel et al., 2016). Finally, an even more promising approach is to use only the GWAS hits for MAS, thereby reducing costs associated with genome-wide genotyping. By acknowledging the simple genetic nature of each VOC, the MAS approach yielded high predictive performances. These results demonstrate the remarkable benefits

that molecular breeding can achieve for flavor improvements in blueberry, providing a motivation for similar studies in other crop species.

Our last contribution concerned unraveling the role of VOCs in sensory analyses. Plants synthesize hundreds of VOCs; however, only a small subset generates the 'flavor fingerprint' recognized by humans (Goff & Klee, 2006). Moreover, some VOCs are going to be positively or negatively perceived, affecting the overall liking experience. Regarding the taste components, sugar and acid contents are well known for their opposite relationship to overall liking of blueberry (Gilbert et al., 2015), which was also evident in our analyses. Regarding VOCs, hexanal and 2-undecanone had a positive correlation with overall liking scores, while (E)-2-hexanal and eucalyptol were negatively correlated. Linalool has been pointed out as a key metabolite for the characteristic blueberry aroma (Parliment & Kolor, 1975; Hirvi & Honkanen, 1983; Du et al., 2011); however, an overall low positive correlation was detected herein. Nonetheless, when we compared two cultivars with similar sugar and acidity profiles ('Kestrel' and 'Snowchaser'), the contrasting linalool content suggested that it does have a positive role in overall liking. Another important flavor contributor is eucalyptol. Similar studies also observed that blueberries with high eucalyptol content had reduced blueberry liking scores (Gilbert et al., 2015; Farneti et al., 2017b). High concentration of eucalyptol is observed in

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green fruits, with a drastic reduction during ripening, raising the hypothesis that eucalyptol may be considered as 'not attractive' or as a 'repellent' metabolite, negatively affecting consumer preferences (Farneti *et al.*, 2017b).

Overall, by considering our sensory panel results, VOCs should be a significant consideration for manipulation in breeding programs focusing on improving flavor, with some VOCs targeted to up- or down-concentrations. Moreover, the high heritability values estimated for VOCs are promising for achieving faster genetic gains across the generations, especially compared with previous values obtained for soluble solids (sugars) and pH (acids) (Cellon et al., 2018; de Bem Oliveira et al., 2019). Unlike sugars and acids which are primary sources of energy and carbon for plants to metabolize into other compounds, VOCs are metabolic end products derived from few major biochemical pathways. For comparison, sugar and acids occur at millimolar concentrations in fruits, while VOCs are often present at picomolar to nanomolar concentrations. These differences suggest that manipulating VOC accumulation through breeding should be easier compared with making meaningful changes in sugar and acid content, while having little impact on other metabolic activities.

Altogether, in this study we have demonstrated how metabolomics, genomics and sensory panel data can be combined to implement molecular breeding techniques for flavor improvements. Some of the main findings presented herein are as follows: (1) Some VOCs have a simple genetic architecture controlled by few genomic regions, with high heritability values, and QTLs with major effects.

(2) Some of the associated genomic regions harbored candidate genes known to be involved in volatile biosynthetic pathways.

(3) Given the difficulties in phenotyping VOCs, we demonstrated that marker-assisted selection is a feasible and efficient tool to be implemented at the scope of breeding programs.

(4) Sensory panel data showed that some VOCs modulate consumer preference, indicating the direction of the breeding selection.

Overall, this work is a promising step toward understanding the genetic basis of VOCs for breeding purposes and the role of VOCs in fruit flavor perception. Although this study is applied to blueberry, our findings have a broad relevance in the context of plant breeding aimed at the improvement of flavor.

# Acknowledgements

The authors thank Haley Sater and Austin Wenta for their help in panel data collection, and Lorenzo Bizzio for discussions about volatile metabolic pathways. This work was supported by the UF royalty fund generated by the licensing of blueberry cultivars.

# **Author contributions**

PRM and TAC conceived and supervised the study. TSJ performed the volatile extraction, GC-MS data analysis and quality control. LFVF analyzed and interpreted the phenotypic, GWAS, GS, and sensory panel data. JB performed the SNP calling and candidate gene mining. PPE provided information about the

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# **Supporting Information**

Additional Supporting Information may be found online in the Supporting Information section at the end of the article.

Fig. S1 Raw frequency distribution of 17 volatiles.

Fig. S2 SNP density.

Fig. S3 Manhattan plots and the respective quantile-quantile plots.

Fig. S4 Distribution of GWAS peaks and percentage of pheno-typic variation.

Fig. S5 Chromosomal partition of the variance.

Fig. S6 Heatmap of the realized genomic matrix.

Fig. S7 Boxplot of the predictive abilities.

Fig. S8 Linear relationship between PGE and predictive ability.

Fig. S9 *P*-values of the Pearson's correlation and principal component analysis (PCA).

**Table S1** Annotation of candidate genes underlying and flankingsignificant SNPs related to volatile emission in blueberry.

 Table S2 Scenarios for genomic prediction and marker-assisted selection.

**Table S3** Number of raw and filtered SNPs used in the GWASstudy.

Table S4 Gene ontology (GO) enrichment analyses.

**Table S5** Molecular markers used as fixed effects for genomicselection.

Table S6 Metabolite concentration and hedonic ratings.

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