

Genetic diversity of gliadin alleles in bread wheat (*Triticum aestivum* L.) from Northern Kazakhstan

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Background: Spring bread wheat (*Triticum aestivum* L.) represents the main cereal crop in Northern Kazakhstan. The quality of wheat grain and flour strongly depends on the structure of gluten, comprised of gliadin and glutenin proteins. Electrophoresis spectra of gliadins are not altered by environmental conditions or plant growth, are easily reproducible and very useful for wheat germplasm identification in addition to DNA markers. Genetic polymorphism of two *Gli* loci encoding gliadins can be used for selection of preferable genotypes of wheat with high grain quality.

Methods: Polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis was used to analyse genetic diversity of gliadins in a germplasm collection of spring bread wheat from Northern Kazakhstan.

Results: The highest frequencies of gliadin alleles were found as follows, in *Gli1*: - A 1 **f** (39.3%), - B 1 **e** (71.9%), and - D 1 **a** (41.0%); and in *Gli-2*: - A 2 **q** (17.8%), - B 2 **t** (13.5%), and - D 2 **q** (20.4%). The combination of these alleles in a single genotype may be associated with higher quality of grain as well as better adaptation to the dry environment of Northern Kazakhstan; preferable for wheat breeding in locations with similar conditions.

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12

13 **Abstract**

14 **Background:** Spring bread wheat (*Triticum aestivum* L.) represents the main cereal crop in
15 Northern Kazakhstan. The quality of wheat grain and flour strongly depends on the structure of
16 gluten, comprised of gliadin and glutenin proteins. Electrophoresis spectra of gliadins are not
17 altered by environmental conditions or plant growth, are easily reproducible and very useful for
18 wheat germplasm identification in addition to DNA markers. Genetic polymorphism of two *Gli*
19 loci encoding gliadins can be used for selection of preferable genotypes of wheat with high grain
20 quality.

21 **Methods:** Polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis was used to analyse genetic diversity of gliadins in
22 a germplasm collection of spring bread wheat from Northern Kazakhstan.

23 **Results:** The highest frequencies of gliadin alleles were found as follows, in *Gli1*: *-A1f* (39.3%),
24 *-B1e* (71.9%), and *-D1a* (41.0%); and in *Gli-2*: *-A2q* (17.8%), *-B2t* (13.5%), and *-D2q* (20.4%).

25 The combination of these alleles in a single genotype may be associated with higher quality of
26 grain as well as better adaptation to the dry environment of Northern Kazakhstan; preferable for
27 wheat breeding in locations with similar conditions.

28

29 **Keywords:** allele frequency; bread wheat; genetic polymorphism; gliadins; *Gli* loci; protein
30 electrophoresis.

31

32 **Introduction**

33 Wheat flour remains one of main ingredients in quite a diverse range of foods for human
34 consumption and provides the major proteins gliadins and glutenins. In particular, glutenin can
35 make up at least 40% of the total protein in grain and flour (*Qi et al., 2006; Metakovsky et al.,*
36 *2018*). The genetic control of gliadin includes two major genes, *Gli-1* and *Gli-2*, mapped to the
37 short arms of chromosome groups 1 and 6, respectively, with corresponding homeologous genes,
38 *Gli-A1, -B1, -D1* and *Gli-A2, -B2, -D2* (*Metakovsky et. al., 2006; 2018*). Multiple alleles are
39 typically found for both *Gli* loci. Each *Gli* allele encodes the transcription of clusters of subunits,
40 with several components of gliadin proteins showing linked inheritance. Gliadin groups can
41 differ in the number of components, their electrophoretic mobility and molecular weight, and
42 levels of expression (*Sozinov & Popereleya, 1980; Obukhova & Shumny, 2016*). By its nature,
43 gliadin is a complex protein with several components that can be separated using polyacrylamide
44 gel electrophoresis in aluminium-lactate buffer (pH=3.1) (*Bushuk & Zillman, 1978*). The original
45 protocol of gliadin electrophoresis has been since modified (*Tkachuk & Metlish, 1980; Khan et*
46 *al., 1985; Metakovsky & Novoselskaya, 1991*), and was used as the basis for the International
47 standard procedure ISO (*ISO, 1993*). *Gli* alleles and their components have been widely studied
48 and identified in International wheat germplasm collections, resulting in published Catalogues.
49 The genetic polymorphism in the composition of *Gli* alleles in a given genotype was summarised
50 as the ‘Gliadin genetic formula’ (GGF) in the Catalogues for bread wheat (*Metakovsky, 1991;*
51 *Metakovsky et al., 2018*) and for durum wheat (*Melnikova et al, 2012*).

52

53 As reported in many publications, wheat cultivars produced in each separate country often have
54 similar GGF despite the absence of any selection pressure based on gliadins (*Xynias et al., 2006;*
55 *Aguiriano et al., 2008; Salavati et al., 2008; Melnikova et al., 2010; Novoselskaya-Dragovich et*
56 *al., 2011; Hailegiorgis et al., 2017*). A linkage between *Gli* alleles and other genes or a group of
57 genes encoding favourable traits can be preferable and beneficial for wheat breeding (*Chebotar*
58 *et al., 2012*). Therefore, a high frequency of *Gli* alleles can be used as simple and convenient
59 method based on protein marker analysis for wheat germplasm identification and application in
60 further breeding programs in the same environment.

61

62 Currently, molecular markers based on DNA analysis are widely used for genotyping and genetic
63 identification in various crops (*Shavrukov, 2016; Jatayev et al., 2017; Scheben et al., 2017;*
64 *Burridge et al., 2018*). The application of molecular markers was successful in the study of
65 wheat genes controlling such traits as 1000-grain weight, protein and gluten content (*Zhang et*
66 *al., 2018*), grain hardness (*Nirmal et al., 2016*), flour production from grain milling (*Nirmal et*
67 *al., 2017*), and bread quality (*Henry et al., 2018*). Genome editing using CRISPR/Cas9
68 technology represents a novel method in plants (*Khlestkina & Shumny, 2016; Liang et al., 2018;*
69 *Borisjuk et al., 2019*), for production of wheat with low gluten content (*Sánchez-León et al.,*
70 *2018*), as required by people allergic to some components of gliadin in traditional wheat cultivars
71 (*Palosuo et al., 2001; Pastorello et al., 2007*).

72
73 Nevertheless, molecular markers are relatively expensive in the equipment and reagents required,
74 in typically well-established molecular laboratories. In contrast, biochemical markers based on
75 proteins such as enzymes and storage proteins offer an alternative method involving cheaper and
76 simpler protocols for crop breeding including wheat (*Shewry & Halford, 2001; Ghanti et al.,*
77 *2009; Al-Doss et al., 2010; Netsvetaev et al., 2010; Hailegiorgis et al., 2017*). Additionally,
78 protein synthesis is encoded by genes, and modulation of gene expression in response to changes
79 in the environment directly results in different levels of the corresponding proteins.

80
81 The aim of this study was to identify and analyse the genetic diversity of the *Gli* alleles in the
82 collection of spring bread wheat (*Triticum aestivum* L.) from Northern Kazakhstan, and to
83 address the question of which alleles of gliadins with highest frequencies are typical for modern
84 wheat produced and cultivated in the dry environment of this region.

85

86 **Materials and Methods**

87 ***Wheat germplasm and geographic locations***

88 A seed collection of 70 bread wheat cultivars was provided by the A.I. Barayev Research and
89 Production Centre of Grain Farming, Shortandy, Kazakhstan. The studied wheat accessions were
90 bred and produced at different times by Breeding Institutions in Northern Kazakhstan, as listed
91 in **Supplementary material 1**. Additional data for various wheat germplasms from Kazakhstan
92 and neighbouring regions, used for comparison of the results obtained for genetic diversity of *Gli*

93 alleles in wheats, were retrieved from papers published earlier (**Supplementary material 2**). In
94 the map (**Figure 1**), Northern Kazakhstan and two nearby regions in Russia with wheat Breeding
95 Research Organisations – Saratov (European part) and Omsk (Siberia) are indicated by ovals.

96

97 **[Insert Figure 1 here]**

98

99 ***Electrophoresis and identification of Gli alleles***

100 Polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis was carried out following a method published earlier
101 (*Metakovsky & Novoselskaya, 1991*). The identification of gliadin components was conducted
102 using the Protein Catalogue (*Metakovsky, 1991*). Genes that encoded gliadins were identified in
103 accordance to the Gene Catalogue developed by *McIntosh et al. (2008)* for *Gli-1* (-A1, -B1, and -
104 D1) and for *Gli-2* (-A2, -B2, and -D2). Alleles of the *Gli* locus were designated as additional
105 Latin letters and total GGFs were used as recommended for wheat cv. Chinese Spring with the
106 following in full GGF: *Gli-A1a, Gli-B1a, Gli-D1a, Gli-A2a, Gli-B2a, Gli-D2a*; and abbreviated
107 GGF: *a, a, a, a, a, a*.

108

109 ***Computer and statistical analysis***

110 Intra-population diversity ($\mu \pm S_\mu$) and frequency of rare alleles ($h \pm S_h$) were calculated following
111 the method published by *Zhivotovsky (1991)*, while genetic diversity (H) was calculated by the
112 formula described by Nei, where p_i is the frequency of alleles (*Nei, 1973*):

113

$$H = 1 - \sum p_i^2$$

114 Phylogenetic tree construction and clustering analysis among the studied wheat genotypes was
115 carried out using the computer program software Statistica 6.0. (Statsoft, Tulsa, OK, USA)
116 following instructions for Ward's method with Manhattan distances and applied for GGFs.

117

118 **Results**

119 ***Gli allele diversity***

120 The alleles of loci *Gli-1* and *Gli-2* identified in the wheat germplasm collection (70 accessions)
121 and their GGFs are presented in **Supplementary material 1**. Most of the studied wheats were
122 monomorphic (76%) while the remaining 24% accessions were polymorphic. Grains of such

123 polymorphic wheats consisted of a mixture of genotypes, with variable alleles in one or more *Gli*
124 loci. For example, several biotypes of gliadins were present in polymorphic cv. Lutescence 65
125 while cv. Byrlestik was monomorphic. Polymorphic alleles of *Gli* encode the biosynthesis of
126 gliadin components and are located in all zones (α , β , γ and ω) of the gliadin spectrum on the
127 polyacrylamide gene electrophoregram (**Figure 2**).

128

129 **[Insert Figure 2 here]**

130

131 At the *Gli-1* locus, the highest frequencies were found in alleles *Gli-A1f* (38.7%), *-B1e* (62.1%),
132 and *-D1a* (33.6%). In contrast, the level of highest frequency of alleles was smaller at the *Gli-2*
133 locus and comprising *Gli-A2b* (17.14%), *-B2t* (12.8%), and *-D2q* (23.6%). Therefore, the GGF of
134 the majority of wheats bred and cultivated in Northern Kazakhstan is: *f, e, a, b, t, q*, based on
135 highest frequencies of the alleles. In total, results of gliadin electrophoresis revealed six and eight
136 alleles in *Gli-B1* and *Gli-D1* loci, respectively, 14 alleles in each of three loci, *Gli-A1*, *Gli-A2*
137 and *Gli-D2*, and 17 alleles in *Gli-B2* locus (**Figure 3**).

138

139 **[Insert Figure 3 here]**

140

141 Levels of genetic diversity (H), intra-population diversity (μ) and frequencies of rare alleles (h)
142 in 70 wheat accessions from Northern Kazakhstan were calculated based on allele frequencies in
143 *Gli* loci from **Supplementary material 1** and are presented in **Table 1A**. For comparison, four
144 other studies of wheat from Northern Kazakhstan (**Supplementary material 2**) with partial
145 overlap in the accessions studied were joined together with the current study, with the combined
146 results for 139 wheat accessions in total from Northern Kazakhstan presented in **Table 1B**.

147

148 **[Insert Table 1 here]**

149

150 Most of the results presented in **Table 1A** and **1B** are very similar, indicating for a representable
151 subset of 70 wheat accessions for Northern Kazakhstan. For example, genetic diversity, H , was
152 highest in loci *Gli-B2* (0.92/0.93) and *Gli-A2* (0.89/0.90), while smallest $H=0.53/0.45$ were
153 calculated for *Gli-B1* in both parts of **Table 1**. The same trend has been found for intra-

154 population diversity $\mu=15.13/17.37$ and $12.04/14.44$ for alleles of loci *Gli-B2* and *Gli-A2*,
155 respectively, with maximal number of the identified alleles (17 and 14 alleles, respectively). In
156 contrast, the locus *Gli-B1* had the smallest value of $\mu=3.65/4.33$ with only six identified alleles
157 as the smallest number in this study and with highest frequency of the *Gli-B1e* allele (**Table 1**,
158 **Figure 3**).

159

160 The structure of intra-population diversity can be characterised by the frequencies of rare alleles
161 (*h*). A population can be estimated as ‘balanced’ if values of *h* are less than 0.3 and as small as
162 possible (*Zhivotovsky, 1980*). Therefore, the most balanced for intra-population diversity was
163 found for locus *Gli-B2* ($h=0.11/0.13$), while locus *Gli-B1* had the highest value for *h* ($0.39/0.52$)
164 due to the highest frequency of a single allele, *Gli-B1e*.

165

166 The highest frequencies of each gliadin allele in the combined group of 139 wheat accessions
167 were accounted as: *Gli-A1f* (39.3%), *-B1e* (71.9%), *-D1a* (41.0%), *-A2q* (17.8%), *-B2t* (13.5%),
168 and *-D2q* (20.4%). The GGF in the analysis of 139 wheat accession was as follows: ***f, e, a, q, t,***
169 ***q,*** and almost identical to those identified in the current study, with only a single difference for
170 *Gli-A2-q* or *-b*. Therefore, the most typical GGF in wheat accessions from Northern Kazakhstan
171 can be identified as: ***f, e, a, q+b, t, q.***

172

173 ***Comparative phylogenetic analysis of the biodiversity of gliadin-coding loci in bread wheat*** 174 ***from Northern Kazakhstan and other origins***

175 A gliadin dendrogram was established based on cluster analysis of our current and previously
176 published results of allele variation in *Gli* loci and GGF, in wheat originating from Northern
177 Kazakhstan (**Supplementary materials 1 and 2**) and other publicly available data for wheat
178 from other countries (**Figure 4**) (*Chernakov & Metakovsky, 1994; Salavati et al., 2008;*
179 *Novoselskaya-Dragovich et al., 2011, 2013; Metakovsky et al., 2018*). Two major Clades
180 (designated as A and B) were found in GGF, with strong separation of the analysed accessions.
181 Wheat genotypes from Australia, America and Western Europe form Clade A, while the more
182 diverse Clade B includes accessions with *Gli* alleles mostly distributed in Eastern Europe and
183 Asia, with the exception of the UK. As expected, all wheat cultivars from Northern Kazakhstan
184 had GGF most closely related to Russian wheats, particularly those developed in the two big

185 Breeding Research Institutes in Saratov and Omsk, in the European and Siberian part of Russia,
186 respectively. These regions are very close to Northern Kazakhstan geographically (**Figure 1**),
187 and also have a long history of exchange of wheat germplasms within the former Soviet Union.

188

189 **[Insert Figure 4 here]**

190

191 **Discussion**

192 The presented study is an important part of the breeding program for seed quality in wheat, to
193 illustrate breeder selections for wheat genotypes with various combinations of gliadin alleles.

194 The received results can be used as the basis of a breeding strategy for wheat genotype selection
195 with preferred GGF and favourable combinations of *Gli* alleles. In the current study, genetic
196 origin, gliadin characteristics and the value of breeding for alleles in each of gliadin-coding loci
197 in 70 wheat accessions will be discussed in separate sub-sections.

198

199 ***Locus Gli-A1***

200 Fifteen *Gli-A1* alleles were identified in the current study in wheat cultivars from Northern
201 Kazakhstan, out of 29 alleles published in the recent Catalogue of gliadin-coding genes
202 (*Metakovsky et al., 2018*). The highest frequency (0.39) was found in genotypes with allele *f*.

203 The wide-spread occurrence of the allele *f* in 27 wheat accessions from Northern Kazakhstan out
204 of the 70 studied seems to be related to introgression of the following high grain quality
205 cultivars: Cesium 111 (*f*), Albidum 24 (*f*) and Saratovskaya 29 (*j+f*) in the early stages of the
206 wheat breeding process in Kazakhstan (*Metakovsky et al., 2006*).

207

208 The possible origin and spread of other *Gli-A1* alleles, *i*, *o* and *b*, is likely also related to wheat
209 cultivars from Russia. For example, a series of cultivars entitled Omskaya 20, 22 and 23,
210 originating from the forest-steppe zone of South-Western Siberia, with allele *Gli-A1o*, seems to
211 be used in the exchange breeding process (*Metakovsky et al., 2006*). This conclusion is similar to
212 those in our previous published results using a different set of wheat cultivars from Northern
213 Kazakhstan (*Utebayev et al., 2016*).

214

215 ***Locus Gli-B1***

216 Very limited genetic diversity was found in the *Gli-B1* locus, where the single allele *e* showed
217 the absolute highest frequency at 62% (**Figure 3**). It is important to note that this allele is quite
218 widely distributed, especially in southern regions of European Russia (*Novoselskaya-Dragovich*
219 *et al.*, 2003) as well as in South-Eastern and South-Western Siberia, which are close and directly
220 neighbouring to Northern Kazakhstan, respectively (*Nikolaev et al.*, 2009). The occurrence and
221 quite frequent distribution of the allele *Gli-B1e* may be directly related to the actively-used
222 popular Russian drought tolerant cultivars with elite grain quality from the Saratov region:
223 Albidum 43 (*f, e, a, q, o, a*), Lutescence 62 (*j, e, a, q, o, a*), and Saratovskaya 29 (*j+f, e, a, q+s,*
224 *q+s, e*) (*Metakovsky et al.*, 2006). However, these cultivars had some disadvantages, particularly
225 a sensitivity to a range of diseases (*Morgounov et al.*, 2007).

226
227 The second allele, *Gli-B1b*, with three-fold less frequency (29%) has a much wider distribution
228 among wheat cultivars from Scandinavian countries to Australia (*Metakovsky et al.*, 2018) and
229 may therefore indicate the wide adaptability of genotypes with this allele. It is very likely that the
230 *Gli-B1b* allele is originated from historic and classical winter wheat cultivars bred in the former
231 Soviet Union, Besostaya 1 (*b, b, b, b, b, b*) and Mironovskaya 808 (*f, b, g, n, m, e*) (*Metakovsky*
232 *et al.*, 2006).

233 234 **Locus *Gli-D1***

235 There were eight alleles identified in this locus in the studied wheat accessions, which is exactly
236 half of all that were published in the recent Catalogue of gliadin-coding loci (*Metakovsky et al.*,
237 2018). Three alleles showed the highest range of frequencies: *Gli-D1a*, 0.34; *-b*, 0.31; and *-f*,
238 0.16 (**Figure 3**). However, the spectrum of genetic diversity in the present study slightly differed
239 from our paper published earlier with another set of bread wheat accessions from Northern
240 Kazakhstan, where only four *Gli-D1* alleles were identified with the following frequencies: allele
241 *a*, 44.2%; and each of alleles *f* and *i*, 23.3%, respectively (*Utebayev et al.*, 2016).

242
243 Similar to those indicated for other alleles above, Russian wheat cultivars were widely used in
244 the initial breeding programs in Northern Kazakhstan. Therefore, it is very likely that the most
245 commonly distributed allele, *a*, is originated from one or several cultivars, particularly Albidum
246 43, Lutescence 62, or Saratovskaya 29 (*Chernakov & Metakovsky*, 1994; *Nikolaev et al.*, 2009).

247 Additionally, this allele, *Gli-D1a*, had quite high frequencies among wheat cultivars in Southern
248 Kazakhstan, with a very different environment, but the origin of the allele *a* from the former
249 Soviet Union wheat germplasm gene pool is not in doubt (*Absattarova, 2002*). This statement is
250 in complete consensus with data for GGF in Kazakh wheats published in a recent review
251 (*Metakovsky et al., 2018*). The comparison of world-wide distribution of *Gli* allele *a* among
252 wheat genotypes bred and grown in Croatia, Finland and Spain (*Sontag-Strohm, 1997*;
253 *Metakovsky et al., 2018*), indicated for a possible association between allele *Gli-D1a* with
254 adaptability of wheat plants to various environments.

255

256 It is important to note that two *Gli-D1* alleles, *a* and *f*, encode the synthesis of almost identical
257 spectra of gliadin components. The only additional gliadin component present with smaller size
258 in the γ -zone of protein electrophoresis was recorded in wheat genotypes *Gli-D1* with allele *a* but
259 not with allele *f*. Therefore, it is hypothesised that wheat genotypes *Gli-D1a* and *-f* can have very
260 similar gliadin gene nucleotide sequences (*Chebotar et al. 2012*).

261

262 The moderately distributed allele *b* is also very likely to have originated from foreign wheat
263 accessions introgressed earlier in the Kazakh breeding program. However, it is interesting that
264 the *Gli-D1b* allele originates from a very different gene pool of winter wheat, rather than spring
265 wheat. This statement is based on published data showing a quite high distribution of the allele *b*
266 among winter wheat, but not in spring wheat, in the former Soviet Union (*Kozub et al., 2009*;
267 *Novoselskaya-Dragovich et al., 2015*). Therefore, we can speculate that the possible
268 introgression of the *Gli-D1b* allele from winter wheat can indicate for the wide adaptability of
269 wheat genotypes, regardless of their responses to cold and vernalisation.

270

271 **Locus *Gli-A2***

272 The *Gli-2* gene is much more diverse in wheat, where the smallest number of alleles were
273 recorded in *Gli-A2* and accounted for 14 (**Figure 3**) of the 39 registered in the recent Catalogue
274 of *Gli* alleles (*Metakovsky et al., 2018*). The most commonly distributed alleles among the
275 studied wheat cultivars from Northern Kazakhstan were: *Gli-A2b* (17,1%), *-f* (12,1%), and *-q*
276 (15,0%). The first allele *b* was very typical for wheat cultivars from very diverse geographical
277 regions and had similarities to wheats from the UK, Eastern Europe and the Krasnodar region in

278 the southern part of Russia (*Metakovsky et al., 2018*). Winter wheat germplasm accessions also
279 had about 22% of the allele *Gli-A2b* (*Novoselskaya-Dragovich et al., 2015*), and this allele is
280 particularly spread among wheat cultivars with high tolerance to cold temperatures (*Markarova,*
281 *2015*). This leads us to the conclusion that the *Gli-A2b* allele may be associated with genotypes
282 with high adaptability to unfavourable conditions for plant growth.

283

284 The allele *Gli-A2f* was present in wheat cultivars originating from the Saratov region, Russia
285 (*Novoselskaya-Dragovich et al., 2013*) and in some winter wheat cultivars (*Novoselskaya-*
286 *Dragovich et al., 2015*) but is known to show the highest frequencies in spring wheat from
287 Mexico and Portugal (*Metakovsky et al., 2018*).

288

289 The third allele, *Gli-A2q*, was very likely introgressed and spread widely in wheat cultivars in
290 Northern Kazakhstan from germplasm originating from the nearby Russian regions of Saratov
291 and Omsk (*Novoselskaya-Dragovich et al., 2013*). For example, cv. Lutescence 62 was widely
292 used for hybridisations in Kazakhstan with GGF (*j, e, a, q, o, a*) from the Saratov Breeding
293 Institute, and it was consequently bred during individual selection of plants of the original
294 historical cv. Poltavka (*f+j, e, a, q+k, o, a+e*) (*Rutz, 2005; Metakovsky et al., 2006*). The
295 influence of the wheat gene pool originating from the Saratov region on the wheat breeding
296 program in Northern Kazakhstan was described in the genetic polymorphism of *Gli* alleles in
297 papers published a relatively long time ago (*Sozinov et al., 1986; Metakovsky et al., 1988*).
298 However, among Kazakh wheat cultivars with elite quality of grain, only the allele *Gli-A2q* had
299 the highest frequency of distribution, indicating for a possible genetic association with high grain
300 quality (*Dobrotvorskaya et al., 2009*).

301

302 **Locus *Gli-B2***

303 Seventeen out of 45 *Gli* alleles described in recent Catalogues (*Metakovsky et al., 2018*) were
304 identified and analysed in the current study. The highest frequency was found for the allele *Gli-*
305 *B2t*, 12.8%, followed by 10.7% for alleles *-b* and *-g*, respectively. The origin of the first allele *t*
306 remains unclear because it was registered as a minor *Gli* allele in some modern wheat cultivars
307 from the Omsk Breeding Station, Russia (*Chernakov & Metakovsky, 1994*). We can propose that
308 the origin of the allele *Gli-B2t* is likely related to the old Russian cv. Cesium 111 used for

309 hybridisations with GGF (**f, m, i, j, t, i**) and published earlier (*Metakovsky et al., 2006;*
310 *Morgounov et al., 2007*).

311

312 The occurrence and distribution of allele *Gli-B2b* is definitely related to the use and introgression
313 of wheat accessions from Eastern Europe and Russia, where this allele was exclusively present
314 (*Metakovsky et al., 2018*). In contrast, the *Gli* allele **g** very likely originates from one of the wide
315 geographically dispersed countries such as the Scandinavian group (*Metakovsky et al., 2018*), the
316 UK (*Chernakov & Metakovsky, 1994*), France (*Metakovsky & Branlard, 1998*), and China
317 (*Novoselskaya-Dragovich et al., 2011*).

318

319 ***Locus Gli-D2***

320 The sixth and last gliadin-coding locus, *Gli-D2*, was present with 14 alleles. The three most
321 widely distributed alleles were **q, b** and **a**, with corresponding percentage of frequencies: 23.5%,
322 17.8% and 11.4%, respectively. In the comparison with gliadin allele distributions, *Gli-D2b* was
323 originated from Russian wheat germplasm (*Metakovsky et al., 2018*). Both **q** and **a** alleles were
324 widely distributed in local wheats from Northern Kazakhstan, and regarding our previous study,
325 allele *Gli-D2a* was for the first time found in three Kazakh wheat cultivars, Milturum 45,
326 Tzelinogradka and Snegurka (*Utebayev et al., 2016*). These three cultivars were included in
327 wheat breeding in Northern Kazakhstan as genetic donors, and the first two of them (Milturum
328 45 and Tzelinogradka) were bred from original, old and polymorphic cv. Cesium 111 with GGF
329 –**f, m, i, j, t, a+e** (*Metakovsky et al., 2006*). It is more likely that modern Kazakh wheat
330 genotypes with allele *Gli-D2a* had a pedigree progenitor from one of the biotypes of cv. Cesium
331 111. Less likely, but still possible, that the origin of the **a** allele is from other countries where it
332 was found, such as Croatia, Germany, France, Holland, Italy, Scandinavian countries, Spain or
333 the UK (*Metakovsky et al., 2018*), indicating for a possible wide interest for wheat breeding
334 programs.

335

336 ***Comparison of genetic diversity between Gli-1 and Gli-2 alleles***

337 In both our current and previous study (*Utebayev et al., 2016*), the three most popular and widely
338 distributed modern spring bread wheat cultivars from Northern Kazakhstan with elite grain
339 quality have the following GGF: Akmola 2 (**g, e, a, i, e, s**), Astana (**g+j, e, f+i, p, h, b**), and

340 Karabalykskaya 90 (*i+m+f, e, a+g, q+l, v, a*) (**Supplementary material 2**). These cultivars have
341 a similar composition of alleles in the gene *Gli-1*, with three homeologous loci (*-A1, -B1* and -
342 *D1*) to wheat cultivars with very high grain quality from the Russian Breeding Institutes, Saratov
343 and Omsk. Therefore, it was hypothesised that allele compositions in each of three loci of *Gli-1*
344 were directly related to grain and baked bread quality and its improvement (*Li et al. 2009*;
345 *Novoselskaya-Dragovich et al., 2013*). In contrast, allele compositions in the second gene *Gli-2*
346 with three homeologous loci (*-A2, -B2* and *-D2*) located in chromosome group 6, were
347 genetically associated with possible adaptation of plants to a dry environment (*Novoselskaya-*
348 *Dragovich et al., 2013*).

349

350 Such a conclusion, made from the comparison between *Gli-1* and *Gli-2* genes, may explain how
351 non-pedigree related wheat cultivars from various geographic regions with a different climate
352 have very similar or identical compositions of *Gli-1* alleles. This is because one of the main
353 targets of wheat breeding is the production of wheat with elite quality of grain and baked bread,
354 where genetic diversity for allele composition in *Gli-1* is much smaller than in *Gli-2*: 14, 6 and 8
355 alleles for *Gli-A1, -B1* and *-D1*; and 14, 17 and 14 alleles for *Gli-A2, -B2* and *-D2*, respectively
356 (**Figure 3**). It is possible that a single perfect pedigree genotype with excellent grain quality was
357 used as a progenitor in many modern wheat cultivars, providing limited genetic variability in
358 allele composition of *Gli-1*. In contrast, the *Gli-2* gene, with much wider variability in allele
359 compositions, was more likely involved in plant adaptation to a dry environment. Because such
360 environments are quite variable in different countries and geographic regions, it may be reflected
361 in and explain the higher variability in allele diversity in *Gli-2*. The presented results reflect the
362 efforts of wheat breeders over many years of artificial selection based on phenotyping variability
363 in grain quality and tolerance to dry environments, as apparent in the results of genetic diversity
364 in both gliadin-coding genes based on gliadin analyses.

365

366 **Conclusions**

367 Genetic diversity in the alleles of gliadin-coding genes *Gli-1* and *Gli-2* was studied, and gliadin
368 genetic formulas were established following the results of gliadin electrophoresis in a set of 70
369 spring bread wheat cultivars from Northern Kazakhstan. The *Gli* alleles with highest frequencies
370 in the studied wheat material were identified as follows: *Gli-A1f* (39.3%), *-B1e* (71.9%), *-D1a*

371 (41.0%), *-A2q* (17.8%), *-B2t* (13.5%), and *-D2q* (20.4%). This allele combination of both *Gli*
372 genes was the most widely distributed in Northern Kazakhstan, and genotypes with such gliadin
373 formula can be used as prospective breeding material for elite grain quality, better adaptability to
374 the dry environment of the Northern Kazakhstan region and for wheat breeding under similar
375 conditions.

376

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379

380

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564
565

566 **Tables**567 **Table 1.** Genetic diversity (H), intra-population diversity (μ) and frequencies of rare alleles (h) in568 70 (**A**) and 139 combined (**B**) wheat accessions from Northern Kazakhstan.

569

Diversity estimates	Gliadin-coding <i>Gli</i> loci					
	<i>A1</i>	<i>B1</i>	<i>D1</i>	<i>A2</i>	<i>B2</i>	<i>D2</i>
A. 70 wheat accessions from Northern Kazakhstan (Supplementary material 1)						
H	0.81	0.53	0.76	0.89	0.92	0.87
$\mu \pm S_\mu$	10.43 \pm 0.73	3.65 \pm 0.35	6.00 \pm 0.41	12.04 \pm 0.58	15.13 \pm 0.64	11.56 \pm 0.63
$h \pm S_h$	0.25 \pm 0.05	0.39 \pm 0.06	0.25 \pm 0.05	0.14 \pm 0.04	0.11 \pm 0.04	0.17 \pm 0.05
B. 139 wheat accessions from Northern Kazakhstan (Supplementary materials 1 and 2)						
H	0.80	0.45	0.75	0.90	0.93	0.89
$\mu \pm S_\mu$	12.32 \pm 0.71	4.33 \pm 0.18	6.78 \pm 0.40	14.44 \pm 0.61	17.37 \pm 0.57	13.88 \pm 0.56
$h \pm S_h$	0.32 \pm 0.04	0.52 \pm 0.04	0.32 \pm 0.04	0.20 \pm 0.03	0.13 \pm 0.03	0.18 \pm 0.03

570

571

572 **Figure Legends**

573

574 **Figure 1.** A map of Kazakhstan and nearby regions of Russia. The red oval shows Northern
575 Kazakhstan, while the Russian regions, Saratov (European part) and Omsk (Siberia), are shown
576 in blue and black, respectively. The map was taken from the web-site:

577 [http://theconversation.com/russias-borders-moscows-long-alliance-with-kazakhstan-is-strong-](http://theconversation.com/russias-borders-moscows-long-alliance-with-kazakhstan-is-strong-but-not-unbreakable-36457)
578 [but-not-unbreakable-36457.](http://theconversation.com/russias-borders-moscows-long-alliance-with-kazakhstan-is-strong-but-not-unbreakable-36457)

579

580 **Figure 2.** Electrophoregram of the gliadin spectrum of polymorphic cv. Lutescence 65 (Lanes 1-
581 3) in comparison to cv. Bezostaya 1 (Lane 4, used as a Standard) and monomorphic cv. Byrlestik
582 (Lanes 5-7). Subfractions α , β , γ and ω with polymorphic bands are indicated.

583

584 **Figure 3.** Allele frequencies in *Gli* loci identified in the studied collection of 70 accessions of
585 spring bread wheat from Northern Kazakhstan.

586

587 **Figure 4.** Gliadin dendrogram showing the allele diversity in *Gli* loci of bread wheat from
588 Northern Kazakhstan and other countries.

589

Figure 1

A map of Kazakhstan

Figure 1. A map of Kazakhstan and nearby regions of Russia. The red oval shows Northern Kazakhstan, while the Russian regions, Saratov (European part) and Omsk (Siberia), are shown in blue and black, respectively. The map was taken from the web-site:

<http://theconversation.com/russias-borders-moscows-long-alliance-with-kazakhstan-is-strong-but-not-unbreakable-36457>

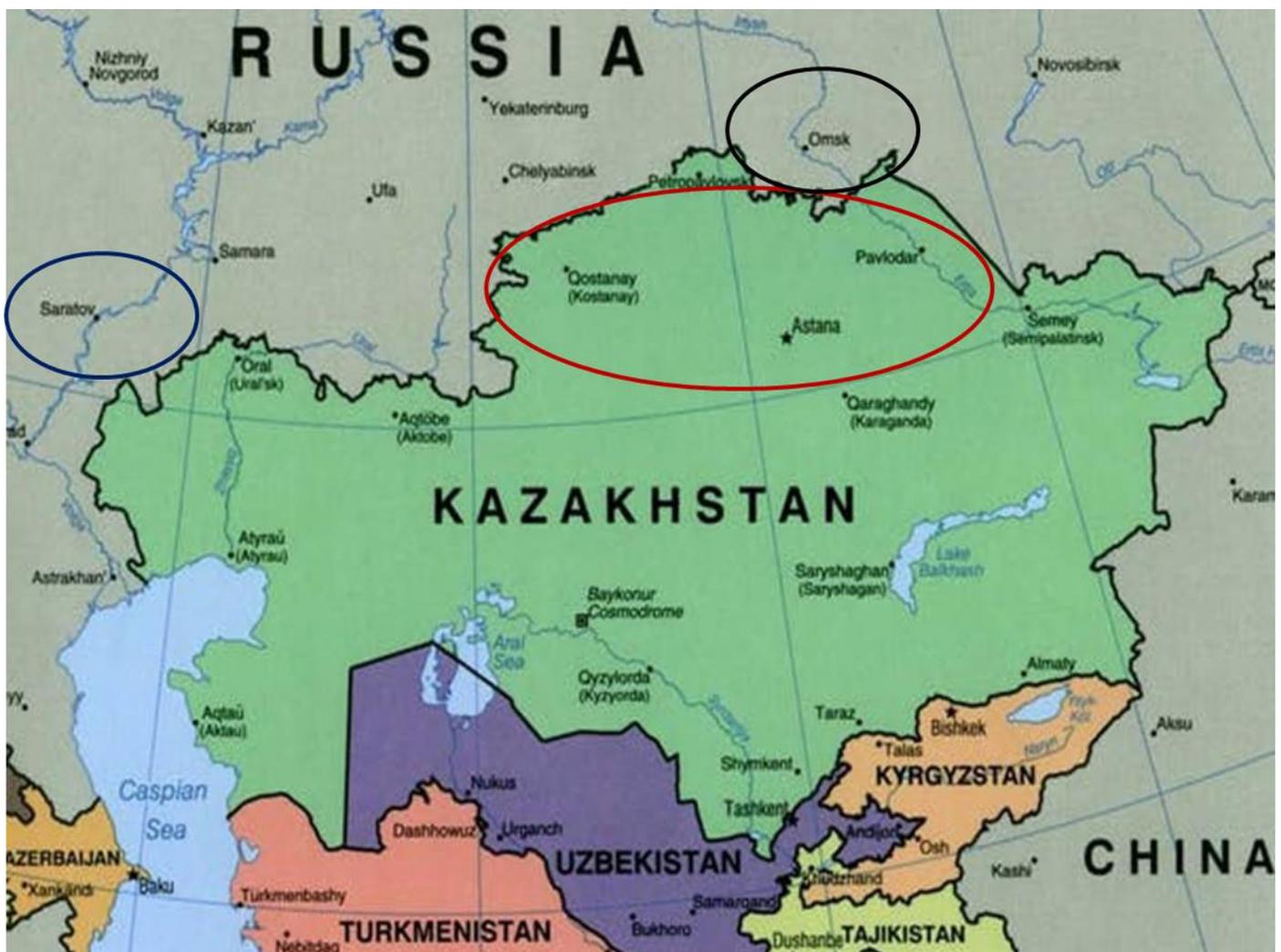


Figure 2

Electrophoregram of the gliadin spectrum

Figure 2. Electrophoregram of the gliadin spectrum of polymorphic cv. Lutescence 65 (Lanes 1-3) in comparison to cv. Bezostaya 1 (Lane 4, used as a Standard) and monomorphic cv. Byrlestik (Lanes 5-7). Subfractions α , β , γ and ω with polymorphic bands are indicated.

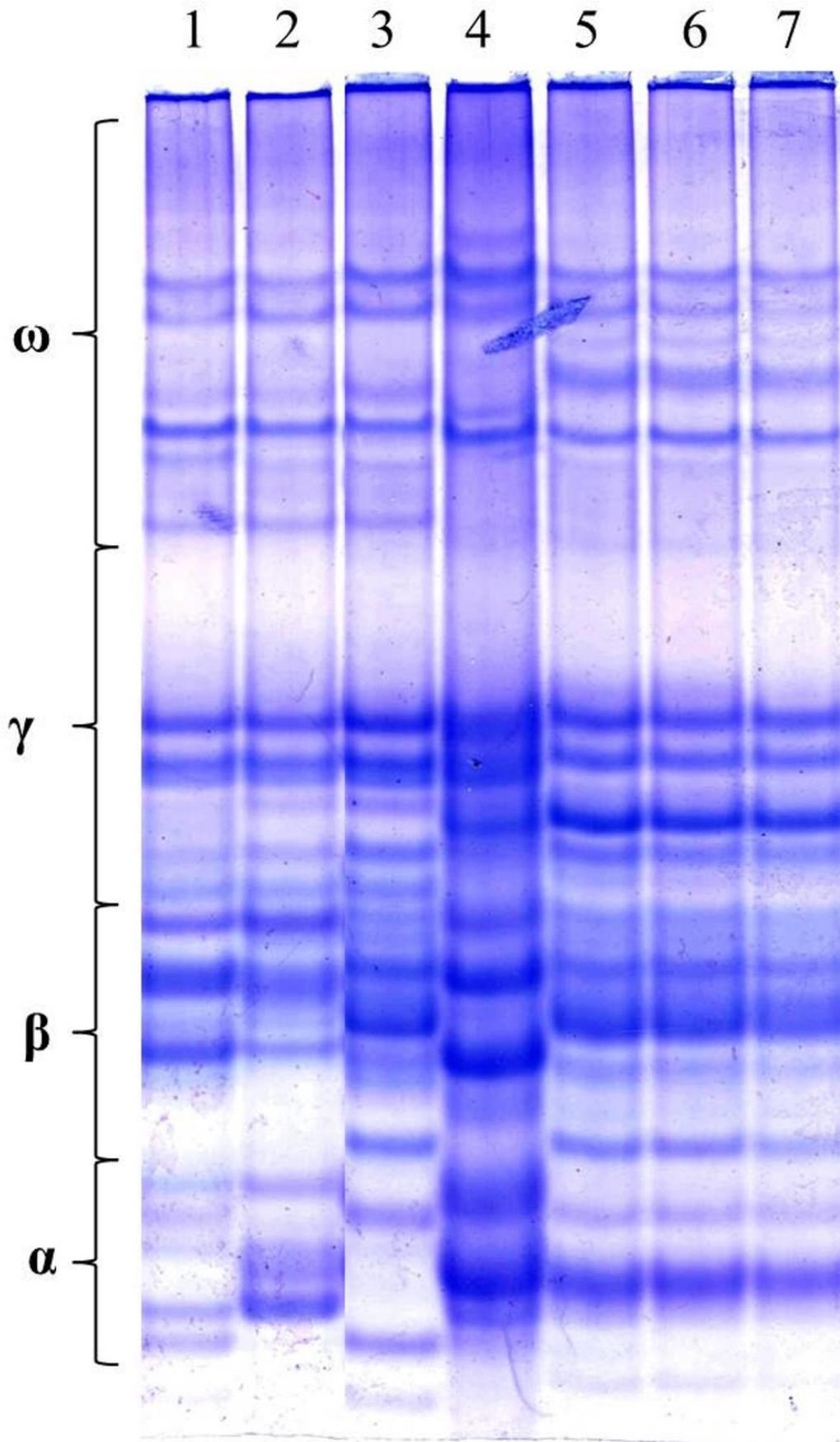


Figure 3

Allele frequencies

Figure 3. Allele frequencies in *Gli* loci identified in the studied collection of 70 accessions of spring bread wheat from Northern Kazakhstan.

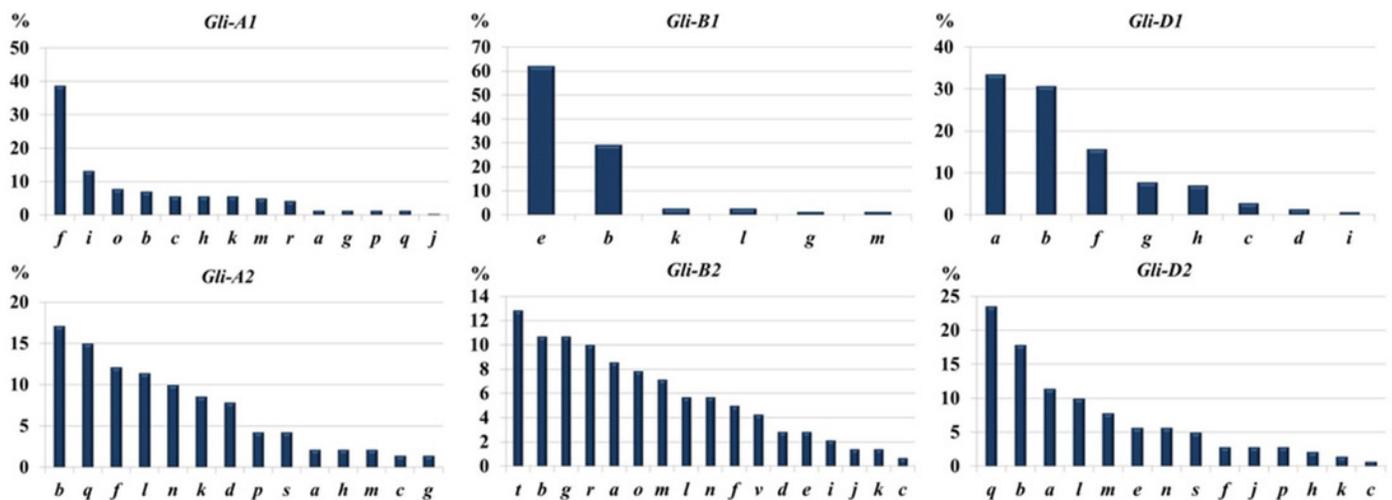


Figure 4

Gliadin dendrogram

Figure 4. Gliadin dendrogram showing the allele diversity in *Gli* loci of bread wheat from Northern Kazakhstan and other countries.

