

Linkage mapping of root shape traits in two carrot populations

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1 **Abstract**

2 This study investigated the genetic basis of carrot root shape traits using composite interval
3 mapping in two biparental populations (n=119 and n=128). The roots of carrot F_{2:3} progenies
4 were grown over two years and analyzed using a digital imaging pipeline to extract root
5 phenotypes that compose market class. Broad-sense heritability on an entry-mean basis ranged
6 from 0.46 to 0.80 for root traits. Reproducible quantitative trait loci (QTL) were identified on
7 chromosomes 2 and 6 on both populations. Colocalization of QTLs for phenotypically correlated
8 root traits was also observed and coincided with previously identified QTLs in published
9 association and linkage mapping studies. Individual QTLs explained between 14 to 27% of total
10 phenotypic variance across traits, while four QTLs for length-to-width ratio collectively
11 accounted for up to 73% of variation. Predicted genes associated with the *OFP-TRM* (OVATE
12 Family Proteins - TONNEAU1 Recruiting Motif) and *IQD* (IQ67 domain) pathway were identified
13 within QTL support intervals. This observation raises the possibility of extending the current
14 regulon model of fruit shape to include carrot storage roots. Nevertheless, the precise molecular
15 mechanisms through which this pathway operates in roots characterized by secondary growth
16 originating from cambium layers remain unknown.

17

18 **Introduction**

19 Carrot (*Daucus carota* var. *sativus*, $2n=2x=18$) is a biennial vegetable crop known for its
20 diverse root shapes (Rubatzky et al. 1999; Simon, 2021). The total national carrot production in
21 the U.S was valued at \$1.2 billion USD (about \$4 per person in the U.S) in 2022 (United States
22 Department of Agriculture - National Agricultural Statistics Service [USDA-NASS 2023]). Carrots
23 are commercialized in market classes which are primarily determined by root shape and end-
24 use. A carrot market class is defined as a group of carrot cultivars that share a similar root
25 shape phenotypes and are grouped together to facilitate crop breeding and trade. In Europe, the
26 classification of carrots by shape traces back to at least the 1600s (Banga, 1957; 1963a; 1963b)

1 and in In North America, by the 1940s, the USDA had already established the practice of
2 categorizing carrot cultivars into market classes using descriptions of standard root shapes
3 (Magruder et al. 1940).

4 While there are 10-15 recognized carrot market classes (Geoffriau and Simon 2020),
5 over 80% of released carrot cultivars in the last 85 years have been classified into only four
6 market classes, Emperor, Nantes, Chantenay and Danvers, according to *HortScience*
7 Vegetable Cultivar Descriptions for North America (Mou et al. 2022). This emphasizes the role
8 of market classes in carrot breeding and economics and the prevalence of certain shape types
9 that are tied to a specific end-use. Emperor, for example, is the most used market class for
10 baby-cut carrots in North America (Lucier and Lin 2007; Goldman 2019). Root shape traits
11 including length, width, and curvature of the shoulders and tip play a crucial role in categorizing
12 carrot cultivars into market classes. While traditionally assessed subjectively, these traits are
13 now analyzed using digital imaging pipelines (Turner et al. 2018; Brainard et al. 2021, Vega and
14 Goldman, 2023). Understanding the genetic basis of root traits composing market class is
15 essential for carrot improvement efforts. This is because carrot breeding often occurs within
16 market classes as inter-class crosses require lengthy breeding cycles to regain a desired shape
17 adding to challenge of selecting for the targeted traits. Alternatively, choosing to breed using
18 only plants within a market class to circumvent this problem may limit the availability of
19 germplasm that is otherwise available through inter-class breeding.

20 Over the course of domestication, selective breeding played a role in shaping the array
21 of root shapes observed in the collection of carrot varieties (Geoffriau and Simon 2020; Ellison
22 2019; Wu et al. 2018). The ability to form a storage root was key in the transition from the wild
23 (*D. carota* var *carota*) to the cultivated carrot (*D. carota* var. *sativus*). The literature on genetic
24 control of carrot root traits suggests two main findings: first, market class is composed of several
25 traits and each trait is likely controlled by multiple genes (polygenic inheritance), and second,

1 chromosome 2 seems to be a key region associated with both the domestication syndrome and
2 the ability of cultivated carrots to develop swollen roots.

3 For example, Macko-Podgórní et al. (2017) identified a polymorphism with signatures for
4 selection on chromosome 2 which distinguished between wild and cultivated carrot accessions.
5 The proposed gene, *DcAHLc1*, belongs to the *AT-hook* nuclear motif of plant regulatory genes,
6 which are responsible for root tissue patterning. Similarly, using an image analysis pipeline to
7 study root morphology, Turner et al. (2018) found evidence of colocalization of QTLs in
8 chromosomes 1, 2 and 7 for correlated carrot root traits, suggesting these traits may be
9 controlled by genetic linkage and quantitative inheritance. Furthermore, Brainard et al. (2022)
10 found that phenotypic determinants of market class in carrot are under additive but highly
11 polygenic genetic control. The authors also identified QTLs for four morphological traits that
12 compose root market class in carrot. This included a significant SNP on chromosome 2
13 associated with root fill, defined as the degree to which a carrot maintains its full width along its
14 length. Their results also indicate the presence of an *OFP8-like* transcription factor less than 40
15 kb of a significant QTL identified for maximum width on chromosome 3. *OFP8-like* belongs to
16 the *OFP-TRM* (OVATE Family Protein - TONNEAU1 Recruiting Motif) and *IQD* (IQ67 domain)
17 pathway which contain conserved domains involved in regulating biological shape by
18 modulating patterns of cell division in plants.

19 The plant-specific *OFP-TRM* and *IQD* regulatory pathway is implicated in shape
20 patterning and is well-studied in various plant organs including fruit, leaves, stems, and tubers
21 (van der Knaap et al. 2014; Pan et al. 2017; Li et al. 2023) However, the understanding of the
22 role that this plant shape regulon plays in true roots in carrots remains limited. To the best of our
23 knowledge, the only study linking the *OFP-TRM* and *IQD* regulon to root shape control is in
24 radish (*Raphanus sativus*) (Wang et al., 2020).

25 These pathways, conserved across plant species of economic and research importance,
26 determine plant organ shape by regulating cell division patterns and integrating external cues

1 (Bürstenbinder et al. 2017; Zhao et al. 2018; Schaefer et al. 2017). Interactions within the *OFP-*
2 *TRM* and *IQD* pathway also influence protein complex localization, microtubule organization,
3 and cell division patterns which determinate plant organ shape (Lazzaro et al. 2018; Yang et al.
4 2020). Research suggests the involvement of the *OFP-TRM* and *IQD* pathways in
5 phytohormone biosynthesis and signaling, microtubule reorganization, and protein interactions
6 (van der Knaap and Østergaard, 2018; Zhang et al. 2022). The study of the plant-specific *OFP-*
7 *TRM* and *IQD* regulatory pathways in carrot genetics may help explain the diversity of root
8 shapes that current genetic models cannot entirely explain.

9 In this study, we conducted linkage mapping of two carrot populations to explore the
10 genetic basis of root traits associated with market class. Our objective was to identify loci
11 controlling root shape differences, describe the genetic basis of root shape traits, and
12 investigate whether members of the *OFP-TRM* and *IQD* regulon overlapped with root shape
13 QTLs. Understanding the genetic architecture of root traits can inform breeding decisions and
14 open new opportunities for expansion beyond the carrot market classes available today.

15

16 **Materials and Methods**

17 ***Plant Materials***

18 Two F_{2:3} carrot (*Daucus carota* var. *sativus*) mapping populations, L1408×W133 and
19 L1408×W279 were derived from multiple plants of male-fertile founders ‘L1408’, ‘W133’ and
20 ‘W279’ (Figure 1A). Founder ‘L1408’ is a long Imperator type developed by the USDA Vegetable
21 Crops Research Unit. ‘W133’ is a medium-length Danvers type, with a tapering root and
22 acuminate tip and ‘W279’ is a bulkier wedge-shaped Chantenay type, both developed by the
23 University of Wisconsin-Madison (Goldman, 1996). Seed of each founder was grown in the field
24 in 2017, harvested 100-120 days after planting and vernalized for at least six weeks at 5 °C.
25 Flowering-competent roots of each founder were planted in pots at the University of Wisconsin-

1 Madison Walnut St. Greenhouse and kept at 22 ± 2 °C, 42 ± 8 % relative humidity, and 16 h
2 photoperiod. All crosses were performed starting 5-8 weeks after potting using pollination cages
3 for isolation (Rubatzky et al. 1999) and blue bottle fly pollinators (*Calliphora vomitoria*, sourced
4 from Forked Tree Ranch, Port Hill, Idaho).

5 In the L1408×W133 population, two F₁ plants (Figure S1) derived from the cross ‘L1408’
6 (♀) × ‘W133’ (♂) were grown in the field (2018), vernalized and self pollinated in the greenhouse
7 to obtain F₂ progeny. Individual F₂ plants were field grown from seed the following year (2019),
8 vernalized and self pollinated, resulting in 119 F_{2:3} families. Similarly, in the L1408×W279
9 population two plants of each ‘L1408’ and ‘W279’ founder were cross pollinated in pairs
10 resulting in two reciprocal crosses. Two F₁ plants were obtained from the L1408 (♀) × W279 (♂)
11 cross and one F₁ plant from the W279 (♀) × L1408 (♂) cross (Figure S1). All three F₁ plants
12 were grown in the field in 2018, and individually self pollinated in the greenhouse to obtain F₂
13 progeny as described previously. Each F₂ plant was grown in the field from seed the following
14 year (2019). Roots were vernalized as described previously and individually self pollinated
15 resulting in 128 distinct F_{2:3} families.

16 The root shape in the F₁ generation of both populations displayed consistent uniformity
17 (Figure S1), despite both mapping populations being derived from multiple founders and F₁
18 plants.

19 ***Field-based experimental design***

20 All F_{2:3} progenies from both populations were grown in field experiments at Jack’s Pride
21 Farms, Randolph, Wisconsin, U.S in the years 2020 and 2021. The type of soil at the
22 experimental site is classified as a Houghton Muck (Typic Haplosaprists) with weak, medium
23 granular structure and with an organic matter content of 20% (USDA, National Cooperative Soil
24 Survey 2021; Colquhoun et al. 2019). This type of soil is commonly used in commercial carrot
25 production in Wisconsin. All experiments were planted in a randomized complete block design

1 with one genotype replication per block in each of two blocks. Experimental units of 1-m rows
2 were randomized within each block. Carrot seed was hand planted in raised beds 1.8-m-wide
3 (center to center) and 0.40-m-high at 5 cm spacing between plants and 37.5 cm between rows.
4 Experiments were planted on April 26, 2020, and May 10, 2021, and harvested August 19,
5 2020, and August 24, 2021. A subsample of 10, or all if less than 10 roots were available, were
6 harvested from the center of the row and stored at 5°C until phenotyping.

7 ***Phenotyping***

8 Phenotyping was conducted following the digital imaging procedure established by
9 Brainard et al. (2021). The phenotyping process is delineated and visualized in Figure S2. Every
10 F_{2:3} family within each of two mapping populations was cultivated in the years 2020 and 2021.
11 Each F_{2:3} family had one experimental row, replicated in two blocks each year. We sampled 10
12 roots per row, or all available if less than 10. In total, the number of roots phenotyped amounted
13 to 8,841.

14 All measured traits were estimated from root straight masks derived from digital images
15 (Figure S2). Root length (mm) was defined as the distance between the center of the root crown
16 and the root tip. Maximum width (mm) was measured as the widest diameter along the root and
17 was only used to estimate length-to-width ratio. Width (mm) was defined as the diameter of the
18 root at the 50-th percentile of its length (mm). Length-to-width ratio was calculated as the ratio of
19 root length to maximum width. Biomass was estimated as the two-dimensional area of the
20 straight mask (mm²), also referred to as digital biomass in the digital phenotyping literature. Two
21 additional traits, namely shoulder curvature and tip curvature, were derived by performing
22 Principal Component Analysis (PCA) on contour values at the first 50 pixels and last 50 pixels of
23 each root's straight mask respectively (Brainard et al. 2021). To capture size-independent
24 variation in the PCA-derived traits, straight masks were normalized to a width of 1 and a length
25 of 1000. To visualize the phenotypic variables of length-to-width ratio, shoulder curvature, and

1 tip curvature, Figure S3 presents roots at the 1st and 99th percentiles of their respective
2 distributions. This illustration is informative given that length-to-width ratio is a proportion of two
3 linear measurements (length and maximum width), while shoulder and tip curvature derive from
4 principal component scores.

5 **Genotyping**

6 To infer F_{2:3} genotypes, ~10 F_{2:3} seeds were planted in conical tubes filled with Pro-Mix
7 High Porosity media (Premier Tech, Quakertown, PA) at the University of Wisconsin-Madison
8 Walnut St. Greenhouses in December of 2021. Plants were maintained at 22 ± 2 °C and 42 ± 8
9 relative humidity with a 16 h photoperiod. At 4 to 5 weeks after planting, 1 cm² of leaf tissue was
10 sampled for each of the ~10 plants per F_{2:3} family and bulked. Heterozygous genotypes in the F₂
11 generation are expected to segregate in a 1:2:1 ratio after one round of inbreeding (F_{2:3}
12 generation). Because only two founders are present in each biparental population, the expected
13 allele frequency for heterozygote genotypes in the F_{2:3} generation is 1:1, which allows for
14 accurate identification of heterozygous F_{2:3} genotypes given sufficient read depth. Leaf tissue
15 was stored at -80 °C for at least 72 h and lyophilized. Lyophilized tissue was macerated, mixed,
16 and 10-50 mg of each bulk sample was transferred to Collection Microtube plates (Qiagen,
17 Germantown, MD). P

18 plates were submitted for DNA extraction and Genotyping by Sequencing (GBS) to the
19 University of Wisconsin-Madison Biotechnology Center. Genomic DNA extraction was
20 completed using the QIAGEN DNeasy mericon 96 HT kit and the automated extraction robot
21 QIAcube HT (Qiagen, germantown, MD). Quantification of DNA was performed using the
22 Quant-iT™ PicoGreen dsDNA kit (Life Technologies, Grand Island, NY). GBS libraries were
23 prepared following Elshire et al. (2011). Restriction enzyme *ApeKI* was used to digest DNA
24 followed by annealing of sample-specific barcodes and Illumina adapters. Multiplexed samples
25 were sequenced using an Illumina NovaSeq 6000 sequencer. On average, 8.5 million reads

1 were obtained per sample. Discovery of single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) was
2 performed by the Bioinformatics Resource Core (<https://bioinformatics.biotech.wisc.edu/>) using
3 Tassel GBS Version 2 (Glaubitz et al. 2014) and version 3 of the carrot reference genome (Coe
4 et al. 2023). In populations L1408×W133 and L1408×W279, approximately 280,000 unfiltered
5 variants were detected. Initial marker filtering was performed using bcftools (Li, 2011). Insertion
6 deletion markers (indels) were removed and only bi-allelic SNPs with a 95th percentile of read
7 depths and genotype quality scores ≥ 20 and minor allele frequencies > 0.05 were retained,
8 resulting in 15,078 and 7,275 markers for populations L1408×W133 and L1408×W279
9 respectively.

10 ***Linkage map construction***

11 Additional marker filtering and linkage map construction were performed for each
12 population individually using custom R scripts (R Core Team, 2022) and the R package
13 MapRtools (v. 0.30; Endelman 2023). R code and data are available in the Zenodo repository
14 ([10.5281/zenodo.10023295](https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.10023295)). Because a high proportion of heterozygous SNP markers were
15 identified and coincided with highly repetitive regions, markers and $F_{2:3}$ individuals with
16 heterozygote genotype frequencies outside the range of 0.10-0.90 and $\geq 10\%$ missing data
17 were removed. Population L1408×W279, was derived from two plants of each founder ('L1408'
18 and 'W279'). Both founder genotypes showed unexpected high genetic heterogeneity (Table
19 S1). As a result, only markers shared by all L1408×W279 founders were kept, leading to a
20 reduced number of markers available for constructing the L1408×W279 linkage map.

21 Markers for all progeny in each population were recoded (phased) according to the
22 founder genotypes for each population. The 'L1408' allele was designated as the reference 'A'
23 allele, while the alternative 'B' allele originated from either the founder 'W133' or 'W279'
24 accordingly. 'A' and 'B' denote the two homozygous states and 'H' the heterozygote. In the
25 founders, only homozygous markers (A×B and B×A types; Braun et al. 2017) were retained for

1 initial genetic map construction resulting in 4,734 and 543 markers for populations L1408×W133
 2 and L1408×W279 respectively. Additional filtering and marker binning at a threshold of $r^2= 0.99$
 3 using the LDbin function from MapRtools resulted in 2,367 and 361 marker bins for populations
 4 L1408×W133 and L1408×W279 respectively. Nine linkage groups corresponding to the nine
 5 carrot chromosomes were formed at a logarithm of odds (LOD) threshold of 17 for L1408×W133
 6 and 25 for L1408×W279. Linkage groups were each trimmed individually and for each
 7 population using MapRtools functions LG and plot_genofreq. Resulting markers after linkage
 8 group trimming were ordered according to version 3 of the carrot reference genome (Coe et al.
 9 2023). Map distances were estimated using the Kosambi mapping function (Kosambi, 1943)
 10 and 19-point multiple regression using the function genetic_map. Composite interval mapping
 11 (CIM) was conducted using Haley-Knott regression, a 10 cM window size, and one to three
 12 marker covariates under a single QTL model using the R/qtl cim function. A 1.5-LOD support
 13 interval was estimated for identified QTLs using the functions stepwise and lodint (Broman,
 14 2023). Genome-wide linkage disequilibrium (LD) decay was estimated and plotted using the
 15 MapRTools function plot_LD. Only markers with homozygous states in the founders (A×B and
 16 B×A types) were used to construct the genetic maps. However, to fill gaps in the linkage map for
 17 chromosomes 3, 8, and 9 of the L1408×W279 population, we incorporated an additional 18
 18 heterozygous markers (Table S2).

19 **Statistical analysis**

20 Phenotypic data were analyzed using custom R scripts and the function lmer from the R
 21 package lme4 (Bates et al. 2015) in a two-stage analysis approach (Piepho et al 2012). In Stage
 22 1, each genotype was represented by the Best Linear Unbiased Estimate (BLUE) computed
 23 across years using the following model:

$$24 \quad Y_{ijk} = g_i + y_j + b_{k(j)} + gy_{ij} + \varepsilon_{ijk}$$

1 Where, Y_{ijk} represents the phenotypic response associated with root shape, g_i is the i -th
 2 genotype, y_j is the j -th year, $b_{k(j)}$ is the k -th block nested within the j -th year, gy_{ij} is the
 3 interaction of the i -th genotype and the j -th year and ε_{ijk} are the residuals, with
 4 $\varepsilon_{ijk} \sim iid, N(0, \sigma_\varepsilon^2)$. The same model with all terms fit as random effects, was used to estimate
 5 broad-sense heritability (H^2) on an entry-mean basis from Stage 1 variance components:

$$6 \quad H^2 = \frac{\sigma_G^2}{\sigma_G^2 + PEV} \quad (1)$$

7 In equation 1, σ_G^2 is the variance associated with genotypes and PEV is the prediction error
 8 variance. PEV is given by:

$$9 \quad PEV = \frac{\sigma_{Gy}^2}{y} + \frac{\sigma_\varepsilon^2}{ry} \quad (2)$$

10 In equation 2, σ_{Gy}^2 is the variance component associated with genotype by year interactions, σ_ε^2
 11 is the residual variance, y is the number of years ($y = 2$) and r is the number of replicates ($r =$
 12 2). The Stage 1 BLUEs were used as the response variable for linkage mapping in Stage 2.
 13 Each phenotypic trait was fit independently. Across experiments, any phenotypic BLUE outside
 14 3 times the standard deviation above or below the mean was removed as an outlier. Multiple
 15 means comparison between the founder phenotypes and effects of allele substitution were
 16 performed using the functions `emmeans` and `cld` from the `emmeans` and `multcomp` R packages
 17 (Hothorn et al. 2008; Lenth, 2020).

18 **Candidate genes**

19 Candidate genes in the QTL intervals were identified using BLAST search. To address
 20 challenges associated with slow LD decay and large LD blocks impacting QTL size estimation,
 21 we targeted homolog genes in the *OFP-TRM* and *IQD* regulon, recognized for their role in
 22 shaping plant organs (Li et al. 2023). Amino acid sequences of 34 *IQDs*, 27 *OFPs*, and 26
 23 *TRMs* genes involved in the control of fruit shape in tomato (*Solanum lycopersicum*) were
 24 obtained from the Solgenomics database (<https://solgenomics.net/locus>). To identify homologs

1 of *IQDs*, *OFPs*, and *TRMs* in carrot, a protein BLAST search was conducted using the NCBI
2 database. Carrot candidate gene information was obtained from the NCBI gene database
3 (<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/gene>). To better characterize predicted genes and infer homology
4 between specific sequences in chromosomal regions encompassing QTL intervals, multiple
5 sequence alignment was performed using Clustal Omega
6 (<https://wwwdev.ebi.ac.uk/Tools/jdispatcher/msa>). This alignment included known regulators of
7 shape from tomato and carrot candidate genes within a 2 Mb interval of QTL peaks. Motif
8 alignment was conducted using MAST (Timothy et al. 1998) from the MEME suite
9 (<https://meme-suite.org/meme/doc/mast.html>) to describe four previously uncharacterized
10 predicted carrot genes, DCAR_027681, DCAR_017186, DCAR_21448, and DCAR_008585
11 (File S1). Amino acid sequences of carrot and tomato *IQDs*, *OFPs*, and *TRMs* are available
12 (File S2).

13 **Results**

14 ***Phenotypic description***

15 To generate two carrot populations segregating for root shape, the long Emperor type
16 'L1408' was crossed with the bulkier Danvers type 'W133' and the Chantenay type 'W279'. Root
17 shape trait distributions in both populations showed that the founders were primarily located at
18 the distribution extremes (Figure S4 and Figure S5). Significant differences among all founders
19 were observed in root width, shoulder and tip curvature as well as length. However, no
20 significant differences were found between 'W133' and 'W279' in length-to-width ratio and
21 biomass (Figure 1). Generally, 'L1408' and 'W279' exhibited pronounced phenotypic differences,
22 while 'W133' showed intermediate phenotypes across all measured traits, except for length.

23 The root shape in the F₁ generation of both populations displayed phenotypic uniformity
24 (Figure S1). This supports our assumption that QTLs for shape traits in these populations
25 carries just two alleles per loci, one from each founder, despite both mapping populations were

1 derived from multiple founders and F₁ plants, and unexpected genetic heterogeneity was
2 observed for all founders (Figure S1 and Table S1).

3 *Phenotypic correlations*

4 Root length and length-to-width ratio showed positive correlations, ranging from 0.73 to
5 0.82, while width showed a negative correlation of -0.64 with length-to-width ratio across
6 populations (Figure 2). Consistent with previous studies, positive correlations were found
7 between length and biomass (Vega and Goldman, 2023; Figure 2). No significant correlations
8 were observed between length and width, as well as between biomass and length-to-width ratio.
9 Biomass has been identified as a trait related to root size, while length-to-width ratio has been
10 associated with root shape. Moreover, no significant correlations were detected between
11 biomass and either shoulder curvature or tip curvature (Figure 2).

12 *Variance partitioning and heritability*

13 The broad-sense heritability on an entry-mean basis was 0.70 for width and 0.80 for
14 length-to-width ratio, indicating high precision in the measurement of these traits for both
15 mapping populations (Table 1). For shoulder curvature, tip curvature, biomass, and length the
16 broad-sense heritability ranged from 0.46 to 0.75 across years and populations (Table 1). These
17 heritability estimates align with previous studies that have reported similar estimates for length-
18 to-width ratio and length, which are traits related to root shape and comprise market class in
19 carrots (Turner et al. 2018; Brainard et al. 2021).

20 Phenotypic data across years were combined for QTL mapping as the genotype
21 variance exceeded the genotype × year interaction by a factor of three for all traits, except for tip
22 curvature where the ratio was approximately 1.5 (Table 1). Tip curvature is a trait influenced by
23 environmental factors (Vega and Goldman 2023) and with moderate to low estimates of
24 heritability (Table 1; Brainard et al. 2021).

1 **Linkage map quality**

2 Hierarchical clustering confirmed that each mapping population behaved as a single F_{2:3}
3 population (Figure S6), despite both mapping populations were derived from multiple founders
4 and F₁ plants, and unexpected genetic heterogeneity was observed in all founders (Table S1).

5 A separate linkage map was constructed for each mapping population, using 2,150
6 GBS-derived SNP markers for L1408×W133 and 341 markers for L1408×W279. (Table 2). The
7 length of the linkage map was 690 cM for L1408×W133 and 406 cM for L1408×W279. Both map
8 lengths fell within the range of carrot mapping populations (Ellison et al. 2017; Turner et al.
9 2018; Bannoud et al. 2019, Coe et al., 2023). Markers were ordered according to the physical
10 position of version 3 of the carrot genome (Figure S7 and Figure S8). Linkage map resolution
11 ranged from 0.3 to 1.2 markers/cM across populations (Table 2), consistent with the linkage
12 maps reported by Parsons et al. (2015) and Bannoud et al. (2019).

13 The maximum marker spacing was 22.5 cM on chromosome 8 for the L1408×W279
14 population. Genetic heterogeneity in the founders (Table S1) resulted in reduced marker
15 coverage on the proximal arms of chromosomes 2, 4, and 6 in both populations, as well as on
16 chromosomes 7 and 8 in populations L1408×W133 and L1408×W279, respectively (Figure S7
17 and Figure S8). This reduced coverage was attributed to a higher proportion of heterozygous to
18 homozygous markers in the centromeres and at the proximal and distal ends of the
19 chromosomes in both populations (Figure S9 and Figure S10). Heterozygosity hotspots in our
20 populations closely coincided with the reported positions of chromosomal centromeres and
21 repetitive regions according to the telomere-to-telomere carrot genome assembly (Figure S9-
22 S10; Wang et al. 2023). An explanation for the observed high heterozygosity is that instead of
23 these regions being heterozygous variations in the DNA sequence (e.g., each founder
24 contributing a different allele at this locus), these heterozygous SNPs could be artifacts that
25 resulted from the mapping of reads of a given repetitive DNA sequence. In this scenario, the two
26 copies of repetitive DNA may only differ by a single SNP and during read alignment, the

1 software might interpret them as heterozygous SNP calls across the entire mapping population
2 when they aren't truly heterozygotes. True heterozygous calls are not expected at high
3 frequency on an $F_{2:3}$ mapping population, thus we filtered for heterozygote marker frequencies
4 outside the range of $0.1 < \text{or} > 0.90$ to avoid this issue. In addition, heterozygous markers in the
5 founders were excluded from the initial map construction, but 18 heterozygous markers were
6 added to the linkage map of the L1408×W279 population to improve coverage in chromosomes
7 3, 8 and 9 (Table S2). The higher proportion of heterozygous to homozygous markers in the
8 centromeres and chromosome ends of both populations may be characteristic of the
9 outcrossing mating system of carrots which maintain high levels of heterozygosity due to severe
10 inbreeding depression (Rong et al. 2010, Glémin et al. 2006; Iorizzo et al. 2013; Iorizzo et al.
11 2016).

12 As expected, genome-wide LD was slow decaying for both populations. In population
13 L1408×W133, a value of $r^2 = 0.15$ intersected physical distance at 28 Mb and genetic distance
14 at 58 cM. In population L1408×W279, a value of $r^2 = 0.15$ intersected physical distance at 26
15 Mb and genetic distance at 29 cM (Figure S11).

16 ***QTL analysis of root shape traits in two carrot mapping populations***

17 Significant QTL regions associated with root shape traits were identified on
18 chromosomes 2, 3, 5, 6, and 8 in the L1408×W133 population (Figure 3A, Table S3).
19 Chromosomes 2 and 5 contained single QTLs for length-to-width ratio, and shoulder curvature,
20 respectively (Figure 2A). Chromosomes 3, 6, and 8 harbored QTLs for width, length-to-width
21 ratio, and tip curvature (Figure 3, Table S3). These QTLs on chromosomes 3, 6 and 8
22 colocalized because of strong phenotypic correlations (Figure 2).

23 The 1.5 LOD support interval for QTLs on chromosomes 2, 5, 6, and 8 encompassed
24 four previously uncharacterized carrot genes: DCAR_027681, DCAR_017186, DCAR_21448,
25 and DCAR_008585 (Table S4). These uncharacterized genes were identified as *TRM* homologs

1 through BLAST searches and motif alignment (File S1). Further, three of these four predicted
2 carrot genes exhibited the M8 motif, while the fourth gene had the M2 motif (File S1). Both M8
3 and M2 motifs have been described by Wu et al. (2018) as conserved *TRM* motifs. Multiple
4 sequence alignment revealed relationships between *TRM* homologs in carrot and tomato
5 (Figure S12). To simplify nomenclature, the uncharacterized carrot genes were renamed after
6 their related tomato homologs (Figure S12) and annotated as such in Figure 3.

7 **Reproducible QTLs**

8 Reproducible QTLs for width on chromosome 6 and for length-to-width ratio on
9 chromosome 2 were identified in both populations (Figure 4). The 1.5-LOD support intervals
10 overlapped across the two mapping populations, confirming the reproducibility of QTLs for
11 length-to-width ratio on chromosome 2 and width on chromosome 6. (Figure 4 and Table S3).
12 These two QTLs explained 16 to 17% of width and 14 to 20% of the length-to-width ratio
13 phenotypic variation across both mapping populations (Table S3).

14 In the L1408×W133 population, individuals that inherited either one or two copies of the
15 'W133' (B) allele at the QTL for width on chromosome 6 resulted in a width increase of 3.0 mm
16 or 1.0 standard deviation units (Figure 5A). No significant difference in width was detected
17 between individuals that inherited either one or two copies of the 'W133' allele (Figure 5A), and
18 the dominance degree was 0.7 (Table S3). These two findings suggest partial dominance to the
19 'W133' phenotype in width (Table S3, Figure 5A).

20 In the L1408×W279 population, individuals carrying two copies of the 'W279' (B) allele at
21 the root with QTL on chromosome 6 showed an increase of about 3.2 mm or 1.2 standard
22 deviation units in root width while individuals inheriting a single copy of the 'W279' allele showed
23 an increase of 1.8 mm or 0.73 standard deviation units (Figure 5C). Significant differences in
24 width were detected between individuals that inherited 0, 1 or 2 copies of the 'W279' allele,
25 illustrating the additive relation between the trait and the underlying QTL.

1 Taken together, the data suggest that inheritance of either 'W133' or 'W279' alleles at
2 this root width QTL on chromosome 6 resulted in increased root width. In population
3 L1408×W133, the relation was partially dominant to the W133 phenotype while in population
4 L1408×W279 the relationship was additive (Figure 5A and C).

5 For the length-to-width ratio QTL on chromosome 2, two copies of the 'W133' allele at
6 the QTL reduced the score by 2.0 units or approximately 1.2 standard deviation units in the
7 L1408×W133 population (Figure 5B). No significant difference was detected between individuals
8 that inherited either one or two copies of the 'W133' allele (Figure 5B). However, individuals that
9 inherited 1 or 2 copies of the 'W133' allele were significantly different from those that inherited 0
10 copies. Similar trends were observed in the L1408×W279 population. Two copies of the 'W279'
11 allele reduced the length-to-width ratio by 2.0 units or approximately 1.3 standard deviation units
12 (Figure 5D). However, no statistical difference was found in length to width ratio in individuals
13 that inherited either 0 or 1 copies of the alternative 'W279' allele.

14 In sum, individuals that inherited two copies of the 'W133' allele showed no statistical
15 difference from heterozygote individuals in length-to-width ratio, indicating partial dominance to
16 the 'W133' parent phenotype (Figure 5B). In contrast, in population L1408×W279 only
17 individuals that inherited two copies of 'W279' showed significant differences in length-to-width
18 ratio compared with individuals that inherited one or zero copies (Figure 5D), suggesting partial
19 dominance to the 'L1408' parent phenotype. Across both populations the effects for width and
20 length-to-width ratio were maintained, but the gene action was population specific. Dominance
21 degree values ranged between 0.3 and 0.7 for both traits which suggest partial dominance, and
22 intermediate phenotypes for the heterozygote individuals (Table S3, Figure 5D).

23 ***Population Specific QTLs***

24 In the L1408×W133 population, QTLs for length-to-width ratio were found on
25 chromosomes 3, 6, and 8, along with an additional QTL for root width on chromosome 3. These

1 population-specific QTLs collectively explained an additional 53% of the phenotypic variation in
2 length-to-width ratio and an additional 16% in root width, resulting in a total of 73% and 33%
3 variance explained for length-to-width ratio and root width respectively (Table S3).
4 QTLs for tip curvature on chromosome 3 (16% variance explained), shoulder curvature on
5 chromosome 5 (22% variance explained), and root length on chromosomes 6 and 8 (40%
6 variance explained) were also identified (Table S3). A QTL peak for biomass explained 14% of
7 variance and mapped to the same region of chromosome 8 (Figure 3, Table S3).

8 In the L1408×W279 population, one additional QTL for shoulder curvature and one QTL
9 for length were identified in the reproducible region on chromosome 2, explaining 20% and 11%
10 of the phenotypic variation, respectively (Figure 3, Table S3). Predicted gene members of the
11 *TRM-OFP* and *IQD* plant organ shape regulon fell within the 1.5 LOD QTL support interval of
12 population specific root shape QTL peaks in chromosomes 3, 5 and 8 (Figure 3, Table S4). In
13 chromosomes 8 and 3, QTL peaks for length and length to width ratio were also colocalized
14 suggesting tight genetic linkage and correlations among traits. In chromosome 5, however, a
15 single QTL for shoulder curvature was identified and was in very close proximity to predicted
16 gene members of the *TRM-OFP* and *IQD* regulon (Fig 3). All chromosomal regions harboring
17 significant QTLs identified in the L1408×W279 population were also identified in the
18 L1408×W133 population.

19 **Discussion**

20 ***Linkage maps***

21 Our linkage mapping approach identified reproducible QTLs on chromosomes 2 and 6
22 using two independent populations, despite coverage gaps in proximal ends of several
23 chromosomes (Figure S7 and Figure S8). Because centromeres are composed of highly
24 repetitive and methylated sequences, the GBS *ApeKI* enzyme is less efficient and therefore
25 large DNA fragments are produced during the reduced representation step of GBS, which are

1 later discarded at the read size selection step, resulting in reduced marker coverage in
2 centromeres and telomeres (Aballay et al. 2021). In addition, unexpected genetic heterogeneity
3 of the W279 founders contributed to a reduced linkage map in the L1408×W279 map.

4 A 22.5 cM gap was found in chromosome 8 of population L1408×W279. However,
5 Turner et al. (2018) reported a linkage map with an 18 cM gap in chromosome 6, which is only a
6 ~5 cM difference from largest gap reported here, despite Turner et al. (2018) used a larger
7 population size (n=461) and a comparable number of markers (640). These limitations likely
8 arise from phenomena like segregation distortion, reference genome bias, inbreeding
9 depression, residual heterozygosity, and genetic heterogeneity in inbred lines, rather than being
10 population specific.

11 ***QTLs associated with root shape traits composing market class***

12 Four QTLs controlling length-to-width ratio were identified, collectively explaining 73% of
13 the phenotypic variation (Table S3). The QTL on chromosome 2 for length-to-width ratio was
14 reproducible (Figure 4), and QTL intervals for the same trait on chromosomes 2, 3, and 8
15 coincided with chromosomal regions containing predicted gene members of the *OFP-TRM* and
16 *IQD* regulon (Fig 2, Table S3). A second reproducible region on chromosome 6 harbored a QTL
17 for root width in both populations (Figure 4).

18 In the L1408×W133 population, genomic regions on chromosomes 3, 5, and 8 showed
19 significant QTLs with 1.5 LOD intervals that encompassed carrot *OFP-TRM* and *IQD* predicted
20 genes. However, these same regions did not exhibit such QTLs in the L1408×W279 population
21 (Fig 3). This observation suggests variations in QTLs across different mapping populations, a
22 concept discussed in linkage mapping literature (Holland, 2007; Myles et al., 2009). Biparental
23 populations represent the genetic diversity existing in only two parents, which could limit the
24 scope of identified QTLs to the studied genetic backgrounds (Michel et al. 2022).

1 Gene action may also be subject to population-dependent variation. For example, the
2 length-to-width ratio QTL on chromosome 2 showed partial dominance to the 'W133' phenotype
3 in the L1408×W133 population (Fig 5B) but switched to the 'L1408' parent allele in the
4 L1408×W279 population (Figure 5D).

5 **Colocalization of QTLs**

6 Consistent with our results, previous studies evidenced colocalization of QTLs in
7 chromosome 2 for correlated carrot root traits, including length, digital biomass, and tip fill
8 (Turner et al. 2018). Tip fill is a related measure of the tip curvature phenotype presented here.
9 The colocalization of QTLs may suggest shared genetic mechanisms that impact root
10 morphology. The presence of colocalized QTLs in independent populations has been
11 documented in maize multi-parental MAGIC populations, where specific chromosomal regions
12 were associated with both plant height and flowering time (Michel et al. 2022).

13 The proximity of QTLs reported in this study, ranging from 1.2 to 3.4 Mb to those
14 previously identified through linkage mapping and association studies on chromosome 2 (Figure
15 4) supports the involvement of this genomic region of chromosome 2 in shaping carrot root traits
16 (Macko-Podgórní et al. 2017; Turner et al. 2018; Brainard et al. 2022). The presence of a
17 shoulder curvature QTL in the L1408×W279 population, 1.7 Mb away to the estimated location
18 of a similar shoulder trait QTL reported by Macko-Podgorni et al. (2017), adds evidence to the
19 genetic significance of loci in chromosome 2 in root shape control (Table S4).

20 Brainard et al. (2022) results indicate the presence of an *OFP8-like* transcription factor
21 less than 40 kb of a QTL identified for carrot maximum root width on chromosome 3. The QTL
22 identified by these authors is within the 1.5 LOD interval of colocalized QTLs for tip curvature,
23 width and length-to-width ratio identified in chromosome 3 in this study. Independent
24 identification of genetic regions controlling root shape highlights the importance of these
25 genomic regions in carrot root shape control.

1 **Genetic linkage and candidate genes**

2 Genome-wide LD in carrot diversity panels is fast decaying (Ellison et al. 2018; Brainard
3 et al. 2022) and exhibits a non-monotonic nature (Schaid et al. 2018), but as expected for bi-
4 parental populations, our findings suggest very slow monotonic genome-wide LD decay (Figure
5 S11). In response to large blocks of LD, affecting QTL size precision, the candidate gene search
6 was focused on predicted carrot genes in the *OFP-TRM* and *IQD* regulon. BLAST searches
7 identified 41 *TRMs*, 22 *OFPs*, and 45 *IQDs* predicted genes in carrot.

8 Members of this plant regulon including *OFP5* and *TRM9* fell within the 1.5 LOD support
9 interval for the length-to-width ratio QTL on chromosome 2 (Figs. 2 and 3, Table S3 and S4).
10 The locus DCAR_007928 is a predicted repressor of elongation *OFP5* and was proposed as
11 one candidate gene for the length-to-width ratio QTL on chromosome 2 for population
12 L1408×W133. We excluded the candidate gene DCAR_007928 from consideration in
13 L1408×W279 as it lies outside the QTL support interval for this population. However, it is just 1.4
14 Mb away from the QTL region. Despite differing candidate genes, reproducibility of QTLs for
15 both populations on chromosome 2 is supported by an overlap in the 1.5 LOD interval (15 Mb).
16 Variation is likely due to fewer SNP markers in Population L1408×W279, precluding the
17 identification of an SNP marker in LD at the exact physical position as in Population
18 L1408×W133. Evidence for reproducibility of the QTL stems from overlap in physical position
19 and identical gene action in two populations.

20 Predicted *TRM22*, *TRM18* and *IQD14* were also found in the support interval of
21 significant QTLs in chromosomes 5 and 8 (Figure 3). Genes in the *TRM* and *OFP* families
22 interact and function as transcription factors, influencing gene expression and plant organ shape
23 in tomato and Arabidopsis (Snouffer et al. 2020; Li et al. 2023). The *IQD* pathway also encodes
24 proteins that regulate cell proliferation and expansion, contributing to fruit shape determination
25 (Wendrich et al. 2018; Yang et al. 2020).

1 *OFP5* and *OFP8* homologs found in carrots are predicted repressors of elongation
2 (Table S4). In addition, Arabidopsis orthologs *AtOFP5*, *AtOFP8* and *AtOFP13* have been
3 confirmed as repressors of organ elongation (Wang et al. 2007, Wang et al. 2011; Zhang et al.
4 2020). In tomatoes, *TRM9*, *TRM18*, and *TRM22* have been associated with cellular organization
5 and shoot outgrowth which may suggest their role in modulating phytohormones
6 (Namphengsone, 2019).

7 Although the *OFP-TRM* and *IQD* regulon has been recognized as a master regulator of
8 shape in fruit, grains, and potato tubers (Wu et al. 2018; Guo et al. 2020; Li et al. 2023), its
9 involvement in roots has been limited to one study in radish (*Raphanus sativus*, Wang et al.
10 2020). The present study is the first linkage mapping report connecting the *OFP-TRM* and *IQD*
11 regulon to carrot root traits that constitute market class.

12 The influence of the established mechanisms of the *OFP-TRM* and *IQD* plant regulon on
13 carrot root shape remains uncertain. This ambiguity arises from the composition of carrot roots,
14 comprising both root and hypocotyl tissue originating from secondary growth of cambium with
15 parenchyma tissues. Carrot roots have swollen and expanded xylem and phloem tissues
16 beyond the primary vascular tissues (Goldman, 2020) which contrasts with the division patterns
17 and cell arrangement of fruit tissue. Nevertheless, the extension of the *OFP-TRM* and *IQD*
18 regulon's influence beyond fruit shape has been well demonstrated in potato (*Solanum*
19 *tuberosum* L.) tubers, which are a modified stem. Back in 1994, van Eck et al. identified the *Ro*
20 locus, responsible for round tuber shape, on chromosome 10. Studies subsequently found QTLs
21 for tuber shape mapping to the same locus in diploid potato F₂ populations (Endelman and
22 Jansky 2016) and molecular markers were developed for the locus (Chen et al. 2019). In 2018,
23 Wu et al. conducted fine mapping of the *Ro* locus and confirmed that the potato *Ro* locus is
24 controlled by *StOFP20*, an ortholog of tomato *SIOFP20*. The function of *StOFP20* and its
25 interaction with *TRM* members was later experimentally confirmed by Ju et al. (2023).

1 Although we limited our search for candidate genes to the *OFP-TRM* and *IQD* plant
2 shape regulon, other families of genes may also contribute to root shape control. Our large
3 linkage blocks include the possibility of harboring genes in other pathways previously reported
4 to be involved in carrot root formation such as the *AT-hook containing nuclear localized (AHL)*
5 gene family or other undiscovered gene families. *DcAHLc1*, for example is a member of the
6 *AHL* gene family and was proposed as a candidate for carrot root formation (Macko-Podgórní et
7 al. 2017). Members of the *AHL* gene family also fell within QTL confidence intervals controlling
8 root shape in mapping studies (Turner et al. 2018). Further characterization of the *AHL* family in
9 carrots has demonstrated that their role is mainly in plant growth and storage root development
10 (Machaj and Grzebelus, 2020), which opens up the possibility that multiple mechanisms may be
11 responsible for root development and shape patterning of carrots.

12 ***Genetic mapping in carrots***

13 Although inbred lines with 99.6 % homozygosity have been reported (Wang et al. 2023),
14 the outcrossing mating system of carrots presents challenges in obtaining homozygous inbred
15 lines. Inbreeding depression also tends to result in lines with genetic heterogeneity that show
16 uniform and stable phenotypes in self- or sib-mated lines (Rubatzky et al. 1999; Simon, 2021).
17 This is compounded by patterns of segregation distortion observed in chromosomes 1, 4, 8, and
18 9 (Grzebelus et al. 2014; Iorizzo et al. 2019; Bannoud et al. 2019). Limited availability of
19 homozygous inbred lines complicates the linkage mapping problem. To overcome these
20 limitations, doubled haploid research has gained attention (Andersen et al. 1990; Meyer et al.
21 2022), offering potential avenues for carrot mapping and breeding. Searching alleles that
22 provide inbreeding resistance in carrots, along with reproducible genotyping technologies and
23 high-quality telomere-to-telomere genome assemblies, has the potential to advance breeding
24 and mapping efforts for of agronomically and horticulturally important traits in carrot.

1 This mapping study provides insights into the genetic basis of root shape traits
2 associated with carrot market class, indicating a potential link with the *OPF-TRM* and *IQD*
3 regulon, which has been well established in tuber and aerial plant organ shape (Wu et al. 2018)
4 but with very limited focus on root traits. A better understanding of genetic shape control in
5 carrot roots may enhance the development of improved varieties, expanding current carrot
6 market classes.

7 **Data Availability Statement**

8 SNP markers filtered for $MAF \geq 0.05$, Depth of 20 for 95% of the population and only bi-
9 allelic sites are provided as VCF files along with linkage maps that include phenotypes. Excel
10 files with phenotypes computed from digital pipelines and annotated R scripts used to create
11 linkage maps and to summarize phenotypic datasets are available in
12 <https://zenodo.org/records/10023296> (DOI: 10.5281/zenodo.10023295). Supplemental
13 Materials are available locally at <https://zenodo.org/records/10626038> (DOI:
14 10.5281/zenodo.10257998). Supplemental Figures includes Figures S1 to S12. Supplemental
15 Table includes Tables S1 through S4. File S1 includes multiple sequence alignment to
16 conserved Tonneu Recruiting Motifs (TRM) for four previously uncharacterized predicted carrot
17 genes DCAR_008585 ([LOC108208046](https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.10023296)), DCAR_017186 ([LOC108220104](https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.10023296)), DCAR_021448
18 ([LOC108228003](https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.10023296)) and DCAR_027681 ([LOC108200088](https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.10023296)). File S2 includes amino acid sequences
19 of know regulators of shape in tomato (*Solanum lycopersicum*) and predicted genes in carrot
20 (*Daucus carota* var. *sativus*) with sequence homology to the shape regulon *OPF-TRM* and *IQD*
21 for assembly, GCA_001625215.1, bioproject PRJNA268187. Visual representation of the
22 relationships among gene sequences of carrot and tomato *TRMs* homologs are presented in
23 Figure S12.

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7 **Conflict of Interest**

8 None declared.

9

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Tables

2 **Table 1.** Variance partitioning and broad-sense heritability (H^2) on an entry-mean basis for root shape
3 traits in the carrot mapping populations L1408×W133 and L1408×W279 in a two-year field trial.

Source	<i>Variance components</i>					
	Shoulder curvature (PC-score)	Tip curvature (PC-score)	Biomass (m ²)	Width (mm)	Length (mm)	Length-to-width ratio
<i>Population L1408×W133</i>						
Year (Y)	0.18	1.82	0.003	5.66	281	1.58
Genotype (G)	0.51	0.56	0.225	3.75	498	1.43
G × Y	0.08	0.36	0.059	1.10	0	0.28
Block/Y	0	0	0.011	0.07	15	0.03
Residual	0.59	1.84	0.401	4.41	639	0.97
<i>Broad-sense heritability</i>						
	0.73	0.46	0.63	0.69	0.75	0.79
<i>Population L1408×W279</i>						
Year	0.87	1.87	0.199	11.36	78	1.67
Genotype	0.31	1.25	0.183	5.20	516	2.21
G × Y	0.02	0.13	0.032	1.55	8	0.61
Block/Y	0.01	0.01	0.000	0.08	0	0.01
Residual	0.94	4.07	0.531	5.65	781	0.96
<i>Broad-sense heritability</i>						
	0.56	0.54	0.55	0.70	0.72	0.80

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1 **Table 2.** Summary statistics of the linkage maps for carrot F_{2:3} mapping populations L1408×W133 (n=119)
 2 and L1408×W279 (n=128).

Chromosome	Number of markers	Map statistics (cM)		
		Length	Average spacing	Maximum spacing
Population L1408×W133				
1	548	135.9	0.2	6.5
2	267	97.5	0.4	7.3
3	275	96.4	0.4	8.2
4	140	62.4	0.4	6.0
5	219	89.6	0.4	10.1
6	296	52.4	0.2	5.7
7	121	72.7	0.6	8.3
8	186	37.5	0.2	5.0
9	98	46.0	0.5	5.5
Overall	2150	690.4	0.3	10.1
Population L1408×W279				
1	31	53.0	1.8	11.7
2	30	42.0	1.4	7.4
3	62	74.5	1.2	13.5
4	70	31.7	0.5	6.2
5	37	32.3	0.9	4.7
6	26	45.1	1.8	11.9
7	45	20.5	0.5	5.8
8	24	69.6	3.0	22.5
9	16	37.5	2.5	7.8
Overall	341	406.2	1.2	22.5

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List of figure captions

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Figure 1 Photograph of carrot (*D. carota* var *sativus*) founders ‘L1408’, ‘W133’, and ‘W279’ (**A**). Boxplots displaying differences in carrot root shape traits among founders: (**B**) shoulder curvature, (**C**) tip curvature, (**D**) length, (**E**) length-to-width ratio, (**F**) width, and (**G**) biomass. Significance of mean differences is indicated by distinct lowercase letters within each boxplot ($\alpha=0.05$). Multiple comparisons were corrected using the Šidák correction.

Figure 2 Phenotypic correlations between populations for root shape traits. Scatterplots of Best Linear Unbiased Estimates (BLUEs) below the diagonal show the relationship between traits for both populations. Pearson correlations (r) are shown above the diagonal for each population. The diagonal is the distribution of the trait for each population. All correlations were found to be significant at $\alpha=0.05$, except for the correlations between biomass and length-to-width ratio, biomass and tip curvature, biomass and shoulder curvature, as well as length and width. LW = length-to-width.

Figure 3 Composite interval mapping (CIM) of root shape traits in the $F_{2:3}$ L1408xW133 (**a**) and L1408xW279 mapping populations (**b**). The y-axis represents the logarithm of odds (LOD). The LOD significance threshold ($\alpha=0.05$, 1000 permutations) for each variable is indicated by the horizontal lines of the same color. The annotated known position of predicted carrot proteins associated with biological shape within the 1.5-LOD support interval, and less than 2 Mb of significant QTLs are represented by black vertical dotted lines in each chromosome and annotated. *OFPs* are *OVATE Family Proteins*, *TRMs* are *TONNEAU1 Recruiting Motif* and *IQDs* are IQ67 domain. The x-axis represents the genetic position (cM) across nine chromosomes.

Figure 4 Reproducible QTL peaks identified for length-to-width ratio on chromosome 2 and root width on chromosome 6 in $F_{2:3}$ mapping populations L1408xW133 (**A**) and L1408xW279 (**B**). Dashed black vertical lines indicate annotated positions of predicted regulators of shape in carrots, namely *OVATE Family Proteins 5 (OFP5)* and *TONNEAU1 Recruiting Motif 9 (TRM9)*. Additionally, dashed red vertical lines mark the approximate locations of previously reported chromosomal regions (QTLs) associated with carrot root shape traits (Brainard et al. 2022; Turner et al., 2018; Macko-Podgórní et al. 2017). The x-axis represents the physical position in Mega bases (Mb) across chromosomes 2 and 6.

Figure 5 Relationship between genotype at SNP loci of reproducible QTLs for width (mm) and length-to-width ratio in carrot $F_{2:3}$ populations L1408xW133 ($n=119$) and L1408xW279 ($n=128$). Effect plots for width (**A**) and length-to-width ratio (**B**) in population L1408xW133. Effect plots for width (**C**) and length-to-width ratio (**D**) in validation population L1408xW279. Genotypes ‘A’ (L1408) and ‘B’ (W133 or W279) represent the two homozygous states, while ‘H’ denotes the heterozygote. Boxplots with different uppercase letters indicate significant differences at $\alpha=0.05$. Multiple comparisons were corrected using the Šidák correction.

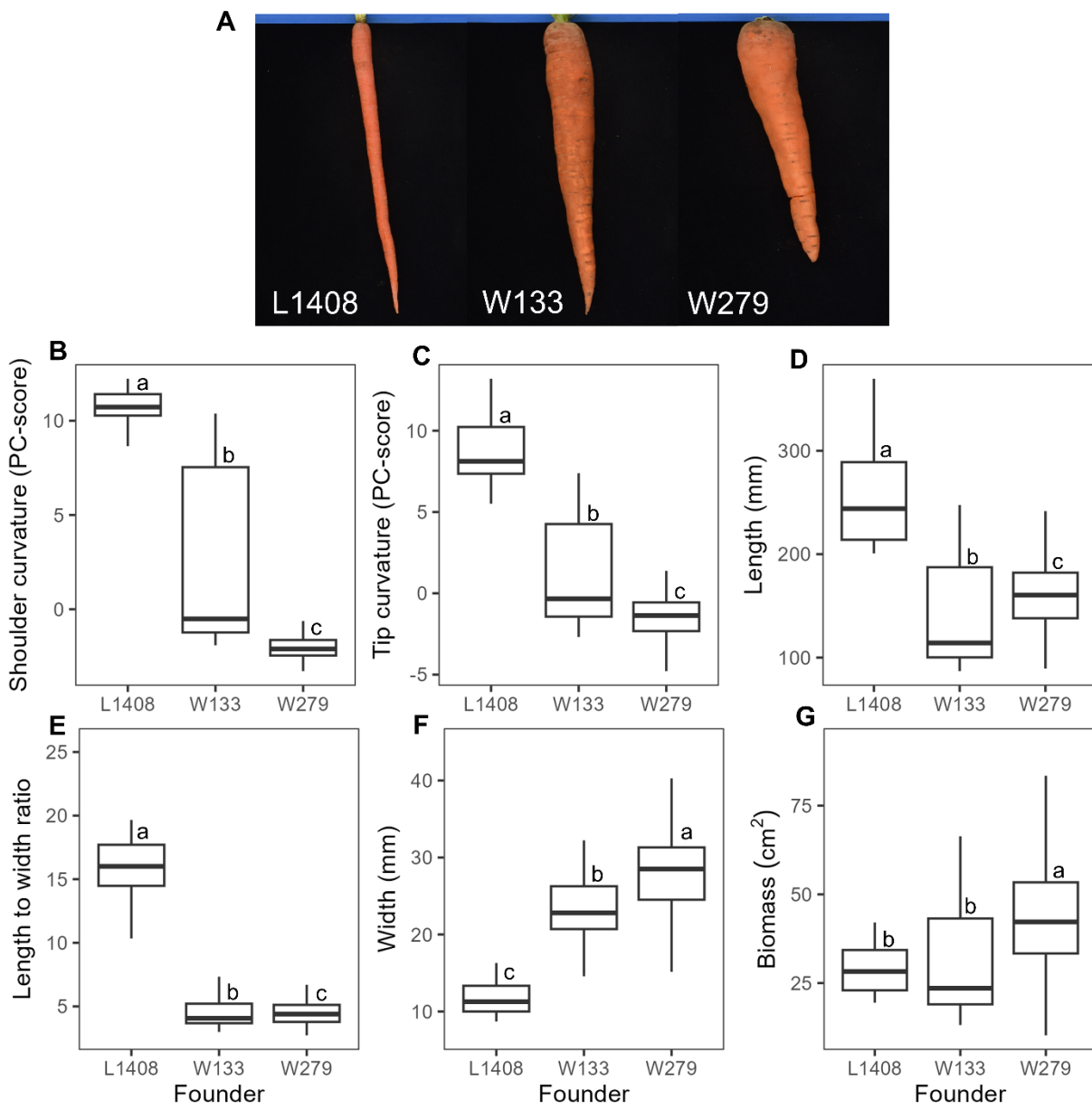


Figure 1
165x165 mm (x DPI)

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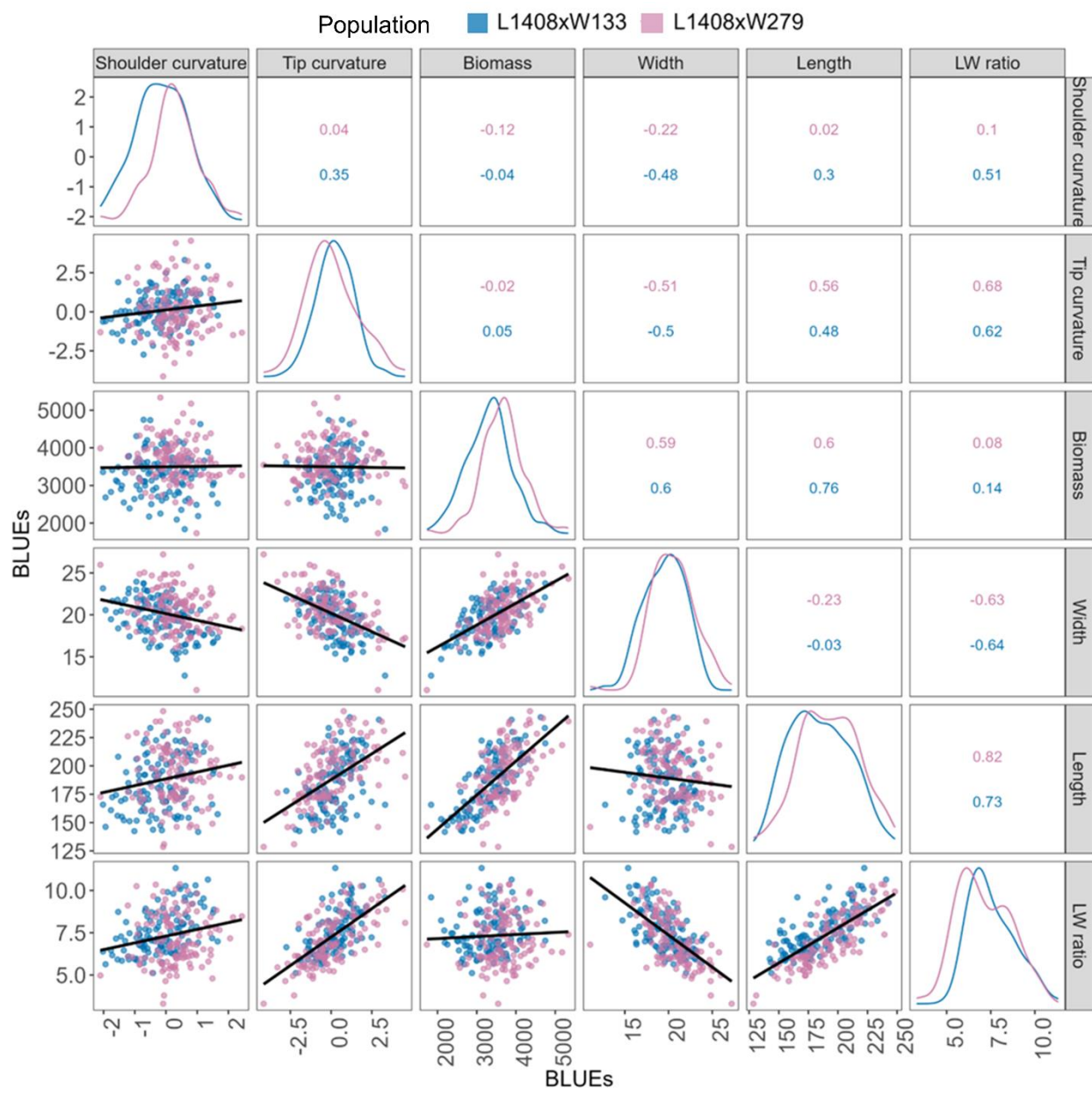


Figure 2
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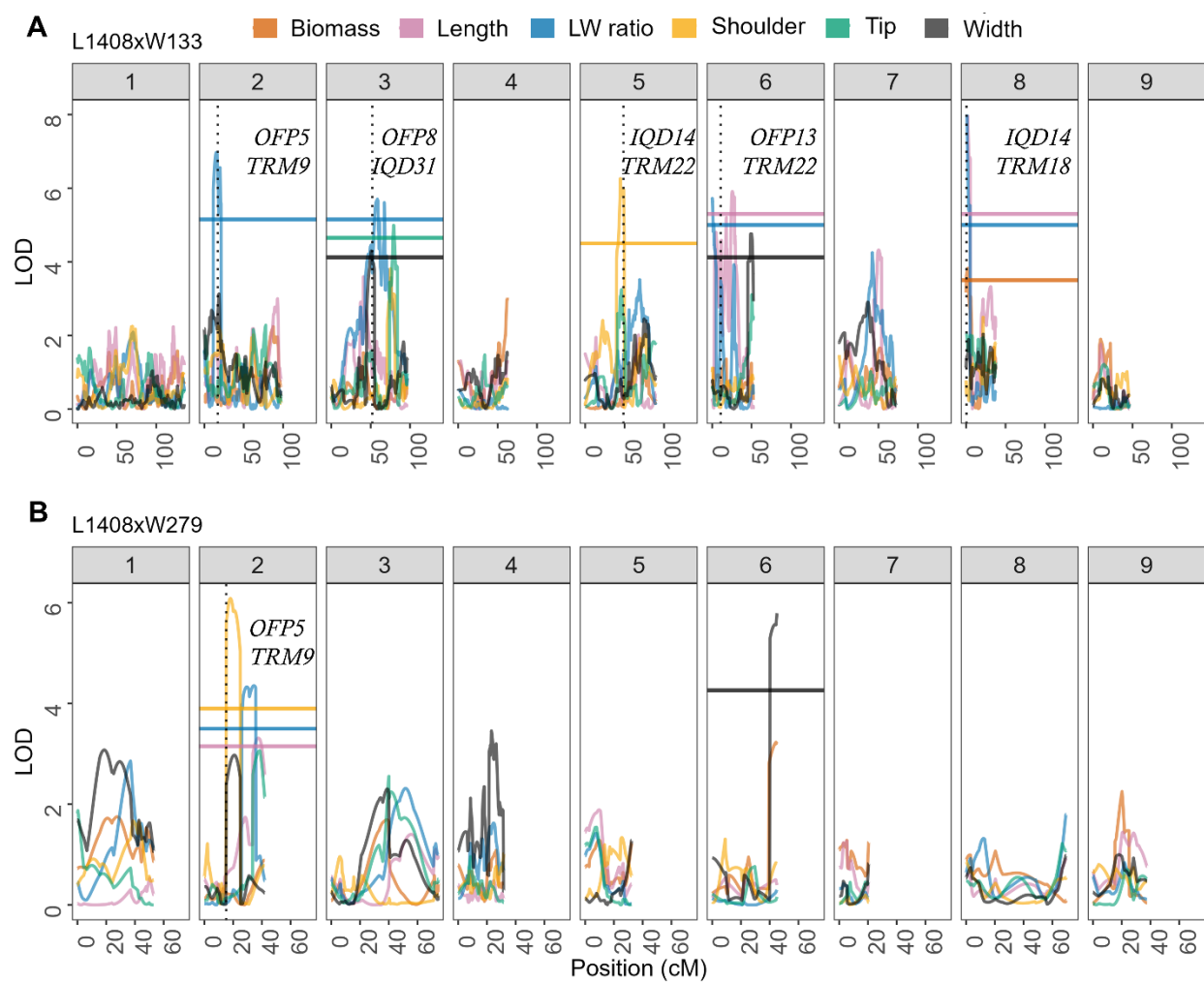


Figure 3
165x136 mm (x DPI)

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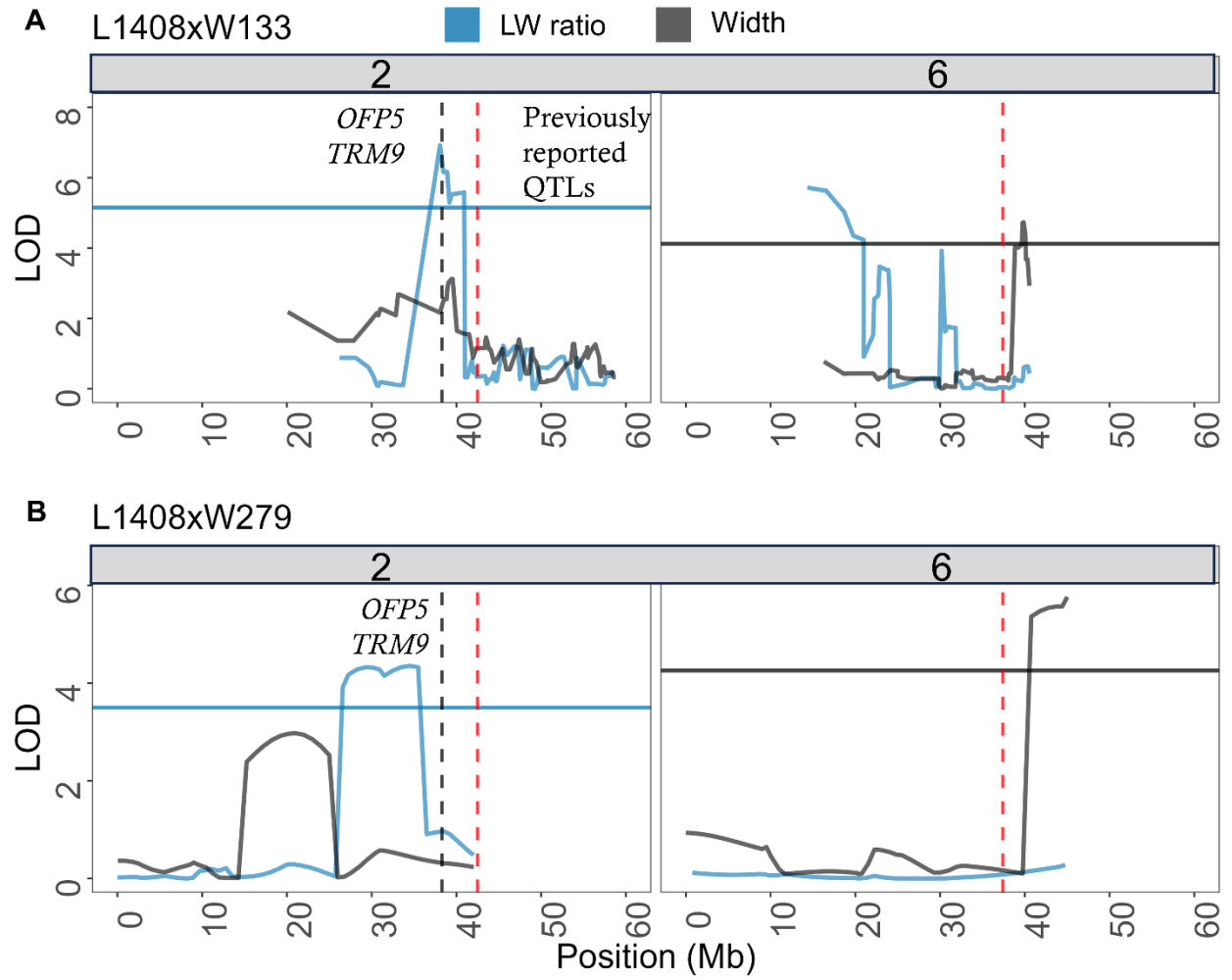


Figure 4
165x135 mm (x DPI)

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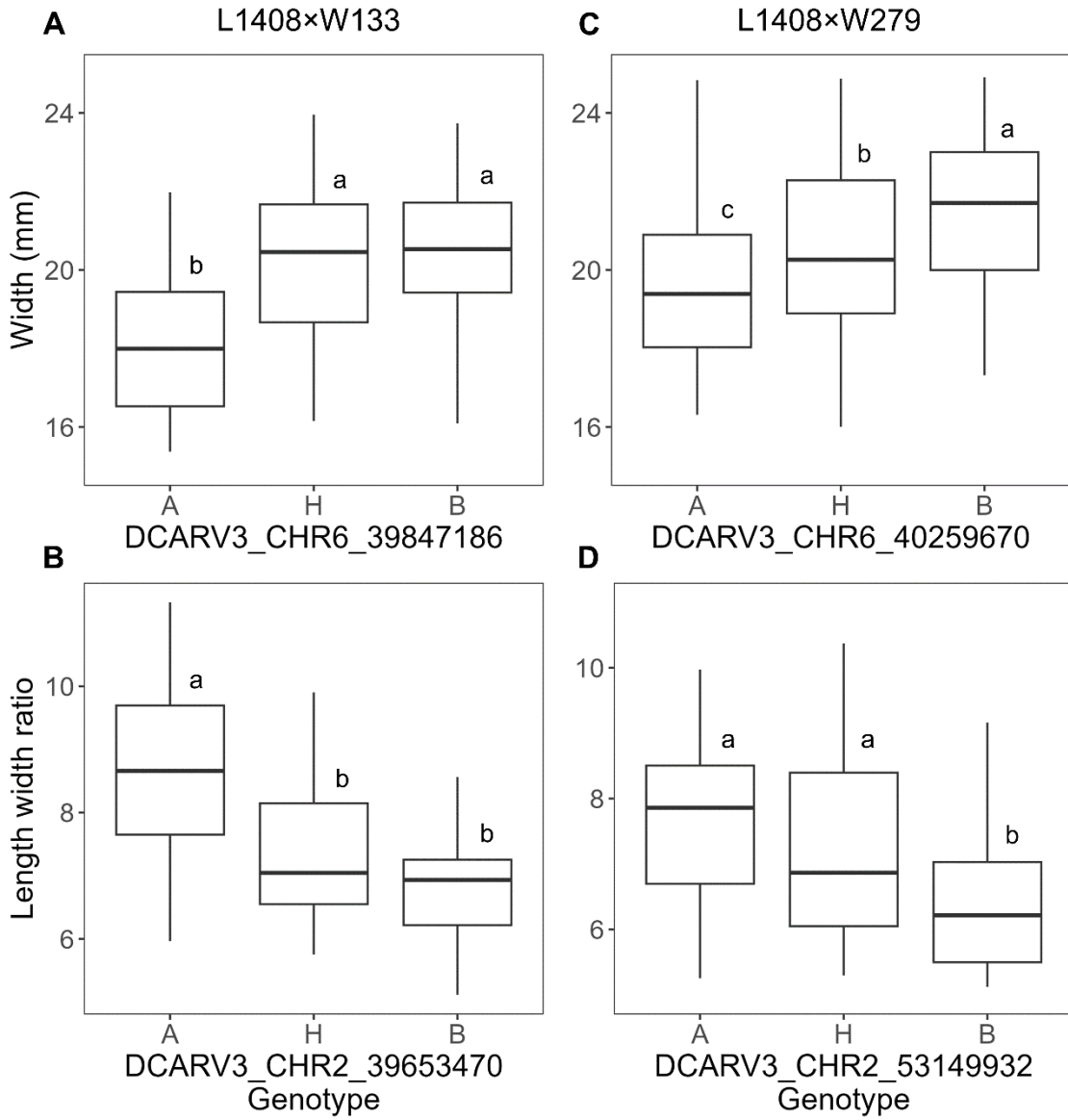


Figure 5
153x156 mm (x DPI)

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