

Geographic Distribution of Incompatibility Alleles in Cultivars and Selections of European Hazelnut

The Faculty of Oregon State University has made this article openly available.
Please share how this access benefits you. Your story matters.

Citation	Mehlenbacher, S. A. (2014). Geographic Distribution of Incompatibility Alleles in Cultivars and Selections of European Hazelnut. <i>Journal of the American Society for Horticultural Science</i> , 139(2), 191-212.
DOI	
Publisher	American Society for Horticultural Science
Version	Accepted Manuscript
Terms of Use	http://cdss.library.oregonstate.edu/sa-termsfuse

1 **Geographic Distribution of Incompatibility Alleles in Cultivars and Selections of European**
2 **Hazelnut**

3
4

5 **Shawn A. Mehlenbacher¹**

6 4017 Ag & Life Sciences Building

7 Dept. of Horticulture

8 Oregon State University

9 Corvallis, OR 97331 USA

10

11 Additional index words. *Corylus avellana*, filbert, sporophytic, pollenizer, nut breeding

12

13 -----

14 Received for publication 29 October 2013. Accepted for publication _____.

15

16 The OSU hazelnut breeding program is supported by State, Hatch Act and Oregon Hazelnut

17 Commission funds. Additional support was provided by a specific cooperative agreement with

18 the U.S. Dept. of Agriculture.

19

20 A technical paper of the Oregon Agricultural Experiment Station.

21

22 ¹ To whom reprint requests should be addressed; e-mail mehlenbs@hort.oregonstate.edu

23

24 **Abstract.** The european hazelnut (*Corylus avellana* L.) is native to most of Europe and nearby
25 areas in Asia Minor and the Caucasus Mountains. Cross-pollination is enforced by sporophytic
26 incompatibility under the control of a single locus with multiple alleles (haplotypes).
27 Fluorescence microscopy is routinely used to determine if a pollination is compatible or
28 incompatible, and use of an array of known testers allows identification of the alleles of cultivars
29 and selections. Both alleles are expressed in the stigmas, but often only one is expressed in the
30 pollen because of dominance. Cultivars are highly heterozygous diploids ($2n = 2x = 22$) and
31 clonally propagated. Most of the world's leading cultivars were selected from local wild
32 populations near where they are now planted on a commercial scale. Genetic improvement
33 efforts are recent and, although tremendous genetic variability is available, such efforts have had
34 little impact outside of Oregon (USA) and France. Studies of genetic diversity using simple
35 sequence repeat (SSR) markers have placed most cultivars in one of the four main groups:
36 Spanish-Italian, Central European, English or Black Sea. This study presents 17 years of data on
37 incompatibility in hazelnut, including the discovery of six new S-alleles and determination of the
38 dominance relationships among 105 new pairs of alleles. The total number of alleles now stands
39 at 33. The S-alleles of 284 cultivars, 13 interspecific hybrids and 522 selections of diverse origin
40 are presented. The S-alleles identified in hazelnut cultivars is information that should be useful
41 to breeders in the planning of crosses, to curators of germplasm collections, and to growers and
42 nurseries as they choose cultivars and pollinizers when designing orchards. Differences in S-
43 allele frequency seen in the cultivars and selections are related to geographic origin. The most
44 common alleles of cultivars in the major geographical groups are S_2 in the Spanish-Italian group,
45 S_5 in the Central European group, S_3 in the English group and S_4 in the Black Sea group. Most

46 selections belonged to the Black Sea group, and S_4 was by far the most common allele.
47 Differences in allele frequency were also observed among seed lots within a country.

48

49 **Keywords** *Corylus avellana* sporophytic filbert pollen stigma

50

51 **Introduction**

52 European hazelnut, *Corylus avellana* L., a member of the Betulaceae, is monoecious,
53 dichogamous, and wind-pollinated. Hazelnuts thrive in maritime climates where temperatures
54 are moderate in winter and summer. The major world producers of hazelnuts are Turkey and
55 Italy, with additional production in Azerbaijan, United States of America, Georgia, Spain, Iran,
56 China, and France (FAOSTAT, 2011). Hazelnuts were cultivated in the Roman Empire, and
57 much earlier near the Black Sea in Turkey and the Caucasus. Most of the world's production is
58 based on selections from local wild populations, with different cultivars grown in each zone.
59 Most cultivars are single clones, although some, including a few leading Turkish types (e.g.,
60 Tombul), appear to be groups of clones with similar phenotypes. Cultivars are traditionally
61 propagated from suckers or by layerage, although grafting and in vitro culture are also possible.
62 The local origin of important cultivars, and their limited movement from one production zone to
63 another, contrasts sharply with the situation with the major food crops.

64 Pollen-stigma incompatibility in hazelnut is of the sporophytic type and controlled by a
65 single locus, designated the S-locus, with multiple alleles (haplotypes), and the stigmatic surface
66 is the site of the incompatibility reaction (Thompson, 1979a). Thompson (1979b) listed the
67 alleles of several cultivars. Additional early work on S-allele identification was reviewed by
68 Germain (1994). Hampson et al. (1993) used electron microscopy to study compatible and

69 incompatible pollinations in detail. Hazelnuts are diploid ($2n = 2x = 22$), and most cultivars are
70 heterozygous at the S-locus. Fluorescence microscopy is used routinely to determine if a
71 pollination is compatible or incompatible, and to identify the S-alleles in cultivars and selections
72 (Mehlenbacher, 1997b). Mehlenbacher (1997a) reported 25 S-alleles, and for each allele
73 identified a tester genotype whose pollen expresses that allele. Mehlenbacher (1997a) updated
74 the results of Mehlenbacher and Thompson (1998) and presented dominance relationships based
75 on 233 pairs of alleles. In all pairs, both alleles were expressed in the stigmas, but often only one
76 was expressed by the pollen because of dominance. The dominance hierarchy is linear with 8
77 levels (Mehlenbacher, 1997a). By convention, the allele(s) expressed in the pollen are
78 underlined. Recently, Martins et al. (2012) investigated the S-alleles of Portuguese landraces,
79 and Mehlenbacher (2013) listed the S-alleles of 282 cultivars. The linkage map of Mehlenbacher
80 et al. (2006), constructed using random amplified polymorphic DNA (RAPD) and simple
81 sequence repeat (SSR) markers, placed the S-locus on linkage group 5 (LG5).

82 Self-pollination of most cultivars results in very low nut set. Mehlenbacher and Smith
83 (1991) identified partial self-compatibility in 'Montebello', 'Tombul' and a few offspring of
84 'Montebello'. In this material, self-pollination unfortunately resulted in low nut set and a high
85 frequency of blanks. More recently, Mehlenbacher and Smith (2006) identified self-compatible
86 seedlings of the cutleaf hazelnut [*C. avellana* L. f. *heterophylla* (Loud.) Rehder]. In these
87 seedlings, self-pollination results in good nut set and few blanks. The cutleaf hazelnut has alleles
88 S_{20} and S_{28} . The latter gives self-compatibility when combined with a second allele low in the
89 dominance hierarchy.

90 In this study, I identified six new S-alleles and determined the dominance relationships
91 for 105 new pairs of alleles. I determined the alleles of 522 selections originating from nuts

92 imported from many locations, and examined the data for cultivars and selections for geographic
93 patterns in the distribution of S-alleles.

94

95 **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

96 The hazelnut breeding program at Oregon State University (OSU), in cooperation with
97 the United States Department of Agriculture, Agriculture Research Service, National Clonal
98 Germplasm Repository (USDA-ARS-NCGR) in Corvallis, imported scions of cultivars from
99 Georgia, Azerbaijan and several European countries. The scions were grafted to rooted layers,
100 held in post-entry quarantine for two growing seasons, and then planted in the field. When the
101 trees began to flower, generally the 4th year after planting, incompatibility testing was performed
102 as described by Mehlenbacher (1997b). Two to four branches on each tree were marked,
103 emasculated by clipping the catkins, and enclosed in two bags: an inner bag of Tyvek
104 housewrap (DuPont, Wilmington, DE) and an outer bag of a cotton-polyester blend (Smith and
105 Mehlenbacher, 1994). Pollen was collected from tester trees (Table 1) and stored in the freezer
106 at -18 °C. From mid-January to early March, when styles had emerged and were receptive,
107 females were collected from bagged branches using forceps, and brought to the lab in petri
108 dishes. Pollinations were performed in the laboratory the afternoon after collection by holding
109 the female with forceps, dipping the styles into the vial of pollen, tapping the flower on the side
110 of the vial to remove excess pollen, and placing the pollinated flower on a double layer of moist
111 P5 filter paper (Fisher Scientific, Pittsburgh, PA). Unpollinated flowers were held in the
112 refrigerator for a few days in petri dishes over moist filter paper to allow repetition of the
113 pollinations if the first results were unclear. The day following pollination, styles were detached
114 from the buds, squashed in aniline blue dye, and examined at 100× with a fluorescence

115 microscope under ultraviolet light. Each pollination was scored as compatible or incompatible.
116 In compatible pollinations, pollen germination was excellent and tubes could be seen growing
117 parallel down the style. In incompatible pollinations, germination was often reduced, pollen
118 tubes were short and did not penetrate the stigmatic surface, and the tubes often ended in bulbs.
119 In most cases, the use of fresh, unpollinated female flowers and viable tester pollen made it easy
120 and quick to distinguish the two reactions. When two of the testers gave incompatible
121 pollinations and all others were compatible, the two alleles in the female parent had been
122 identified. Some pollinations gave inconclusive results, and the number of flowers on young
123 trees was limited, so testing an introduced cultivar required 1-3 years for completion.

124 The OSU hazelnut breeding program collected germplasm as seeds from several
125 countries, including Turkey, Georgia, Azerbaijan, Armenia, Russia, Ukraine and Iran (Table 2).
126 These countries represent the eastern part of the distribution of *C. avellana*. The seeds were
127 stratified and planted in the greenhouse as root tips emerged 3-5 months later. Seedlings were
128 grown in 3.8-L containers in a glasshouse the first summer, and transplanted into the field in
129 October. The S-alleles in the selected selections were identified using the same procedures as for
130 the cultivars. Their flowering generally begins in the 4th year in the field. Prior to identification
131 of their S-alleles, seedlings were selected for precocity, round nut shape, few defects, and few
132 buds blasted by mites (primarily *Phytoptus avellanae* Nal.).

133 When a cultivar or selection representing a new pair of S-alleles was identified, its pollen
134 was placed on female inflorescences of two different cultivars or selections. Each expressed one
135 of the two alleles in the new pair, the other allele being different. If one of these pollinations was
136 compatible and the other incompatible, the allele common to both parents in the incompatible
137 pollination was dominant to the other allele in the cultivar or selection being tested. If both

138 pollinations were incompatible, the two alleles in the cultivar or selection were considered to be
139 codominant in its pollen. Females of a third genotype expressing different alleles were
140 pollinated to verify that the selection's pollen was viable.

141 If two of the testers gave incompatible pollinations and all others were compatible, the
142 two alleles had been identified. A single incompatible reaction and 24 compatible reactions
143 indicated either the presence of one known and one unknown allele or homozygosity. If pollen
144 of a cultivar or selection was compatible on all known alleles, it was considered a potential tester
145 for a novel S-allele. Testers that express the novel allele in their pollen, and produce large
146 quantities of pollen early in the season, are preferred.

147 S₂₈ from the cutleaf hazelnut, which gives self-compatible seedlings on some
148 combinations (Mehlenbacher and Smith, 2006), was excluded from this study, as its presence
149 cannot be detected by standard procedures.

150 Based on simple sequence repeat markers, Boccacci et al. (2006) and Gökirmak et al.
151 (2009) assigned most hazelnut accessions to one of four groups: Spanish-Italian, Central
152 European, English and Black Sea. SSR markers were used by Boccacci et al. (2008) to
153 investigate cultivars in northeastern Spain, and by Gürcan et al. (2010) to investigate cultivars in
154 the Black Sea group. Cultivars previously fingerprinted with SSR markers (Boccacci et al.,
155 2006; Boccacci et al., 2008; Gökirmak et al., 2009; Gürcan et al., 2010; Mehlenbacher
156 unpublished) are listed by their assigned group. Other previously fingerprinted very diverse
157 accessions that were not placed in one of the four main groups are presented as a group labeled
158 "other". Accessions that had not yet been fingerprinted were placed in the most suitable group
159 based on their geographic origin, with consideration of morphological traits. Boccacci et al.

160 (2006), Gökirmak et al. (2009), and Gürcan et al. (2010) identified the presumed parentage of
161 several cultivars based on microsatellite markers.

162 Cultivars and selections were grouped by SSR marker profiles and geographic origin, and
163 the most common alleles in each group were identified. The data was examined for differences
164 in S-allele frequency associated with geographic origin. Variability in S-allele frequency among
165 seed lots from the same country was also examined.

166

167 RESULTS

168 **New alleles and testers.** Mehlenbacher (1997a) listed testers for 26 S-alleles, including
169 S_{13} from the interspecific hybrids called "Chinese Trazels". In this study we identified six new
170 alleles and a *C. avellana* tester for S_{13} (Table 1). S_{27} is the dominant allele in Buttner's
171 Zellernuss (S_{11} S_{27}). S_{28} is present in 'Cutleaf' (S_{20} S_{28}), as mentioned above, but was excluded
172 from this study. S_{29} , the dominant allele in tester OSU 930.081 (S_4 S_{29}), was inherited from
173 Russian selection OSU 495.049 (S_{22} S_{29}). The latter originated from seeds sent from the
174 headquarters of the N.I. Vavilov Research Institute of Plant Industry in the city then called
175 Leningrad. Most of the hazelnuts in Russia are grown in the south, from the Black Sea coast
176 through the Caucasus Mountains to Krasnodar. We believe that the seeds sent to us originated in
177 this region of southern Russia. S_{30} was first detected in seedlings of 'The Shah' (S_{14} S_{30}), which
178 had been imported as scions from the United Kingdom. S_{30} was later detected in selections from
179 Azerbaijan and Turkey. OSU 1116.049 (S_4 S_{30}), a selection from Azerbaijan, is the pollen tester
180 for S_{30} . S_{31} is the dominant allele in 'Ata Baba' (S_4 S_{31}), which is the leading cultivar in
181 Azerbaijan. S_{32} is the dominant allele in 'Reka #2' (S_2 S_{32}) from Serbia. The most recent new
182 allele, S_{33} , is a co-dominant allele in 'Ganja' (S_4 S_{33}) from Azerbaijan. A tester that expresses

183 only S_{33} in its pollen has not yet been identified. 'Ata Baba', 'Reka #2' and 'Ganja' are the pollen
184 testers for S_{31} , S_{32} and S_{33} , respectively. S_{13} , previously identified in "Chinese Trazels", was
185 found in 'Ashrafi' clone 1226.004 (S_{13} S_{31}) from Azerbaijan. It was also detected in selection
186 OSU 1168.130 (S_4 S_{13}), which originated from seeds purchased in the market in Holmskij, a
187 village near Krasnodar, Russia, and in selection OSU 1090.042 which originated in a seed lot
188 from Georgia. 'Ashrafi' and OSU 1168.130 are used as pollen testers, while the later-flowering
189 'Ashrafi' is also the female tester for S_{13} .

190 **Dominance relationships.** Mehlenbacher (1997a) presented dominance relationships
191 based on 233 pairs of alleles. We identified 105 new pairs of alleles (Table 3) and in this paper
192 show the relationships for 338 of the possible 496 pairs of alleles. The number of pairs was
193 limited for the most recently identified alleles. In all pairs, both alleles were expressed in the
194 stigmas, but often only one was expressed in the pollen because of dominance. A revised
195 dominance hierarchy was drawn based on new data for pairs of alleles (Fig. 1). The dominance
196 hierarchy is linear with 8 levels (Mehlenbacher, 1997a). The relationships among four alleles
197 (S_{13} , S_{23} , S_{29} and S_{31}) are unknown, so they are shown as adjacent boxes. All four are dominant
198 to S_4 , and recessive to one or more of the alleles at the next higher level (S_9 , S_{11} , S_{22} and S_{26}).

199 **S-alleles in cultivars.** Mehlenbacher (2013) reported the alleles of 282 unique cultivars,
200 including 112 from previous reports (Table 3). Cultivars with different names often have
201 identical microsatellite marker fingerprints and S-alleles (Boccacci et al., 2006; Gökirmak et al.,
202 2009; Gürcan et al., 2010), which leads to confusion. As a result, the number of unique
203 genotypes in collections is often less than the number of names. Mehlenbacher (2013) listed
204 cultivars with identical fingerprints and gave the preferred name for each. The S-alleles of 13
205 interspecific hybrids are also listed.

206 **Relationship of S-alleles to geographic origin in hazelnut cultivars.** Boccacci et al.
207 (2006) and Gökirmak et al. (2009) assigned most hazelnut accessions to one of four groups:
208 Spanish-Italian, Central European, English and Black Sea. Other very diverse accessions that
209 were not placed in one of the four main groups are presented as a group labeled "other" (Tables
210 4&5). Cultivars that have been fingerprinted with SSR markers (Boccacci et al., 2006;
211 Gökirmak et al., 2009; Mehlenbacher unpublished) are listed as members of their assigned
212 group. Accessions that have not yet been fingerprinted were placed in the most suitable group
213 based on their geographic origin, with consideration of morphological traits. The presumed
214 parentage of several cultivars, based on microsatellite markers (Boccacci et al., 2006; Boccacci
215 et al., 2008; Gökirmak et al., 2009; Gürcan et al., 2010) is listed (Table 4). The most frequent
216 alleles in the 284 hazelnut cultivars (excluding interspecific hybrids) are: S_2 (13.9%), S_1 (9.3%),
217 S_{10} (8.5%), S_5 (7.2%), S_3 (6.2%), S_4 (6.0%) and S_6 (5.3%). Percentages for all other alleles were
218 <5.0%. Half of the alleles had frequencies below 2%. Allele frequencies differed among the
219 cultivar groups. In the following paragraphs, alleles with frequencies >4% are called common,
220 alleles with frequencies between 2% and 4% are called rare, and alleles with frequencies <2%
221 are called very rare.

222 The Spanish-Italian group contains 71 cultivars. The common alleles and their
223 frequencies are: S_2 (30.3%), S_1 (14.1%), S_{10} (9.2%), S_{22} (7.8%), S_{17} (6.3%) and S_{23} (4.9%). The
224 common alleles reflect the importance of 'Barcelona' ($S_1 S_2$), 'Siciliana' (syn. 'Montebello') (S_1
225 S_2), 'Negret' ($S_{10} S_{22}$), 'Segorbe' ($S_9 S_{23}$) and 'Tonda di Giffoni' ($S_2 S_{23}$) in this group.

226 The Central European group contains 38 cultivars. The most common alleles are S_5
227 (21.1%), S_{15} (14.5%), S_{25} (13.2%), S_{20} (11.8%), S_{11} (9.2%), S_6 (5.3%) and S_{10} (5.3%). The
228 common alleles reflect the importance of 'Hall's Giant' ($S_5 S_{15}$) and 'Early Long Zeller' ($S_{20} S_{25}$) in

229 this group, which also includes hybrids with the English cultivars Daviana ($S_3 S_{11}$) and Cosford
230 ($S_3 S_{11}$).

231 The English group contains 57 cultivars. The most common alleles are S_3 (19.2%), S_{11}
232 (13.8%), S_{14} (12.8%), S_2 (11.7%), S_{10} (9.6%) and S_5 (5.3%). The common alleles reflect the
233 importance of English cultivars Daviana ($S_3 S_{11}$), Cosford ($S_3 S_{11}$) and DuChilly ($S_{10} S_{14}$). The
234 group includes several hybrids between these three English cultivars and Barcelona ($S_1 S_2$).

235 The Black Sea group contains 58 cultivars. The most common alleles and their
236 frequencies are: S_4 (27.6%), S_{10} (15.5%), S_2 (8.6%), S_5 (8.6%) and S_{31} (7.8%). The first four
237 alleles had been reported earlier in Turkish cultivars (Mehlenbacher, 1997a; Erdoğan et al.,
238 2005), while S_{31} is common in cultivars from Azerbaijan.

239 To simplify discussion, all 47 other accessions were placed in a single very diverse group
240 called "other". The most frequent alleles in this group were S_6 (16.0%), S_{20} (10.6%), S_2 (8.5%),
241 S_1 (7.5%), S_{26} (6.4%), S_5 (5.3%) and S_9 (5.3%). This group includes the ornamentals 'Fusco
242 Rubra', 'Aurea', 'Pendula', 'Cutleaf' and 21 selections from the Russian Research Institute of
243 Forestry and Mechanization (Pushkino, Russian Federation). Half of the Moscow selections
244 from Pushkino have red leaves. S_{20} is common in the cold-hardy Central European types with
245 large nuts (e.g., 'Early Long Zeller', $S_{20} S_{25}$) that were probably used as parents in Moscow. The
246 high frequency of S_{26} in this group is surprising, as its frequency is only 1.76% of the total in the
247 284 cultivars. S_{26} may be common in the parents of the Moscow selections. To survive in
248 Moscow, the parents and selections must be cold-hardy.

249 In the 23 cultivars and pollinizers released by the OSU breeding program, the most
250 common alleles are S_1 (28.3%), S_3 (19.6%), S_2 (10.9%), S_{15} (8.7%), S_8 (6.5%) and S_{26} (6.5%)

251 which reflects the contributions of Barcelona ($S_1 S_2$), Montebello ($S_1 S_2$), Daviana ($S_3 S_{11}$), Tonda
252 Gentile delle Langhe ($S_2 S_7$), Hall's Giant ($S_5 S_{15}$), Tombul Ghiaghli ($S_4 S_8$) and Gasaway ($S_3 S_{26}$).

253 **Interspecific Hybrids.** The 13 interspecific hybrids include four *C. americana* Marsh. \times
254 *C. avellana* hybrids ('Bixby', 'Buchanan', 'Potomac' and 'Reed'), three *C. heterophylla* Fisch. \times *C.*
255 *avellana* hybrids from Dalian, China, and six hybrids with *C. colurna* L. and *C. avellana* in their
256 pedigrees. S_{15} was present in all three Chinese Trazels.

257 **S-alleles in selections.** The S-alleles of 522 selections of diverse origin were determined,
258 and are presented by geographic origin (Table 6). The origin of the seed lots is listed (Table 2).

259 **Turkish selections.** The S-alleles were determined for 258 selections in 8 groups of
260 Turkish origin (Table 7). Of these, 114 originated as seeds harvested in the collection block at
261 the Hazelnut Research Institute in Giresun, and the remainder from various orchards and
262 markets. In the Turkish selections, S_4 was by far the most common allele, representing 30.2% of
263 the total. S_4 was present in high frequency in all eight groups of Turkish selections. The second
264 most common allele was S_{12} which represented 10.7% of the total and was also present in all 8
265 groups. The next most common alleles were S_8 (9.9%), S_{10} (9.9%), S_2 (7.8%), and S_{16} (4.3%),
266 which were present in 8, 6, 7 and 4 groups, respectively. Rare alleles detected at frequencies of
267 2-4% include S_{14} , S_3 , S_5 , S_9 and S_{25} which were present in 4, 4, 5, 5 and 6 groups, respectively.
268 Of the 33 alleles so far identified, only three (S_{23} , S_{29} and S_{31}) were absent in the Turkish
269 selections; 18 others were present at frequencies $<2\%$. The most common alleles in the
270 selections are also present in Turkish cultivars, but the selections include a very large number of
271 additional alleles present at low frequency.

272 **Georgian selections.** Nuts were collected in orchards in the Republic of Georgia (Table
273 8). Selections in groups 1-5 were from nuts collected in 2001 and selections in group 6 were

274 from nuts collected in 2003. Eight selections (Group 1) were from nuts collected in orchards in
275 the inland area of Kakheti at the base of the Caucasus Mountains near the border with
276 Azerbaijan. The other five groups were collected in orchards near the Black Sea coast; groups 2-
277 5 were collected near Zugdidi. In the 43 selections, the most frequent allele was S_4 (22.1%),
278 followed by S_2 (11.6%), S_{10} (9.3%), and S_{20} (8.1%). Four additional alleles (S_{31} , S_1 , S_{19} and S_{27})
279 were present at frequencies of 4% - 6%. Eight alleles were rare and present at frequencies of 2-
280 4% (S_8 , S_{14} , S_3 , S_5 , S_6 , S_{11} , S_{18} , and S_{30}). Seven alleles were present at frequencies <2% and 9
281 were absent. S_4 is present in 'Anakliuri', which is the most widely planted in Georgia.

282 **Azerbaijan selections.** Nuts were collected in orchards in three locations: Zaqatala,
283 Qabala and Xaçmaz. The cultivars grown in each location are different. The most common
284 alleles in the selections were S_4 (29.6%), S_{31} (18.4%), S_{10} (14.3%), S_{18} (7.1%), S_2 (6.1%) and S_{24}
285 (4.1%) (Table 9). Rare alleles present in frequencies of 2-4% included S_3 , S_7 , S_{12} , S_{14} , and S_{19} .
286 Eight additional alleles were present at frequencies <2% and 12 were absent. The high
287 frequency of S_4 and S_{31} reflects the importance of 'Ata Baba' (S_4 S_{31}) in the country. Fewer
288 alleles were detected in selections from Azerbaijan than in selections from Turkey, Russia and
289 Georgia.

290 **Armenian selections.** The S-alleles were identified in 26 selections (Table 6) that
291 originated from seeds purchased in markets in 2002 by J. Postman of the USDA-ARS-NCGR.
292 The most common alleles were S_4 (17.3%), S_2 and S_{31} (11.5% each), S_3 (7.7%), S_9 and S_{26} (5.8%
293 each). Rare alleles present at frequencies of 2-4% were S_7 , S_{16} , S_{18} , S_{20} , S_{25} , S_{27} and S_{30} . Six
294 alleles were very rare and only detected in one selection each, while 12 alleles were absent. The
295 most common alleles (S_4 and S_{31}) are those of the most important cultivar in Azerbaijan, 'Ata
296 Baba'.

297 **Russian selections.** The most common alleles in the 8 groups of Russian selections were
298 S_4 (21.3%), S_{24} (10.6%), S_{10} (8.5%), S_5 (7.4%), and S_{14} (4.3%) which were found in 5, 5, 6, 3,
299 and 2 of the 8 groups, respectively (Table 10). Groups 1 to 5 could be considered cultivated
300 Russian types, while groups 6 and 7 originated in germplasm collection blocks, and group 8
301 represents selections grown from nuts collected in the wild near Moscow. S_4 , S_{24} and S_{10} were
302 very common in the cultivated Russian groups, reflecting the importance of 'Cherkesskii II' (S_4
303 S_{24}). Twelve rare alleles present at frequencies of 2-4% were S_2 , S_6 , S_{15} , S_{17} , S_{19} , S_3 , S_8 , S_{11} , S_{18} ,
304 S_{26} , S_{20} and S_{31} . Only S_{27} and S_{33} were absent in the Russian selections, which overall were a
305 very diverse population.

306 **Ukrainian selections.** Nuts collected in the Crimea in 2002 gave 24 selections (Table 6).
307 Of these, 21 were from nuts purchased from roadside vendors between Alushta and Simferopol,
308 and three originated from seeds collected at the Nikita Botanical Garden in Yalta. Most of the
309 nuts purchased from vendors were very small and may have been collected from the wild. The
310 most common alleles in the Crimean selections were S_{10} (22.9%), S_2 (12.5%), S_{25} (8.3%), S_9
311 (8.3%), S_3 and S_{14} (6.3% each), S_{16} , S_{21} , S_{22} and S_{24} (4.2% each). Eight rare alleles were present
312 at frequencies of 2-4%, and 13 alleles were not detected.

313 **Iranian selections.** Seeds were collected from a small orchard in a valley in the foothills
314 of the Elburz mountains south of the Caspian Sea in 2003. Additional seeds were purchased
315 from a roadside vendor along the main highway in the Talesh mountains west of Astara. These
316 seed lots gave six and three selections, respectively. Only four alleles were detected in the nine
317 selections (**Table 6**): S_2 (55.6%), S_{33} (27.8%), S_8 (11.1%) and S_4 (5.6%).

318 **Other selections.** Of the 19 selections in the miscellaneous group labeled "other" (Table
319 6), 13 were from seeds collected in the wild in 1990 or 1992 in northern Italy. Three were from

320 nuts collected in Latvia, one from Lithuania, and one from Estonia. Nuts from the University of
321 Minnesota, likely of Scandinavian origin, gave rise to selection OSU 408.040. The most
322 common alleles in this miscellaneous group were S_9 (15.9%), S_5 and S_6 (10.5% each), S_{10} and S_{15}
323 (7.9% each). Rare alleles detected once or twice were: S_2 , S_4 , S_7 , S_{12} , S_{14} , S_{16} , S_{18} , S_{19} , S_{23} , S_{24} ,
324 S_{27} and S_{30} . Twelve alleles were not detected.

325 Differences were noted in allele frequency between cultivars and selections (Table 11).
326 S_4 was much more common in the selections than in the cultivars, while S_1 and S_2 were more
327 common in the cultivars than in the selections.

328

329 Discussion

330 **Relationship of S-alleles to geographic origin in hazelnut cultivars.** Boccacci et al.
331 (2006), Gökirmak et al. (2009) and Gürcan et al. (2010) assigned most hazelnut accessions to
332 one of four groups based on microsatellite marker fingerprints: Spanish-Italian, Central
333 European, English and Black Sea. We present the S-alleles of cultivars and selections by group.
334 Accessions that had not yet been fingerprinted were placed in the most suitable group based on
335 their geographic origin, with consideration of morphological traits. Other very diverse
336 accessions that were not placed in one of the four main groups are presented as a group labeled
337 "other". The most frequent alleles in the 284 hazelnut cultivars (excluding interspecific hybrids)
338 are S_2 , S_1 , S_{10} , S_5 , S_3 and S_4 . Percentages for all other alleles were <6.0%. Many alleles were
339 detected but at low frequency; half of the alleles had frequencies below 2%. There were striking
340 differences in S-allele frequencies among the cultivar groups (Table 11).

341 In the Spanish-Italian group, the most common alleles are S_2 , S_1 , S_{10} , S_{22} and S_{17} . The
342 first four reflect the importance of 'Barcelona' ($S_1 S_2$), 'Siciliana' (syn. 'Montebello') ($S_1 S_2$) and

343 'Negret' ($S_{10} S_{22}$) in this group. In the Central European group, the most common alleles are S_5 ,
344 S_{15} , S_{25} , S_{20} and S_{11} . This reflects the importance of 'Hall's Giant' ($S_5 S_{15}$), 'Early Long Zeller' (S_{20}
345 S_{25}) and 'Pallagrossa' ($S_5 S_{25}$). The German group includes several hybrids between German
346 cultivars with the English cultivars 'Daviana' ($S_3 S_{11}$) and 'Cosford' ($S_3 S_{11}$), which accounts for the
347 high frequency of S_{11} . Three Polish cultivars in this group (Frango #2, Frango #5 and Volski
348 Round) were determined by Gökirmak et al. (2009) to be seedlings of 'Cosford'. In the English
349 group, the most common alleles are S_3 , S_{11} , S_1 , S_{14} , S_2 and S_{10} . The common alleles reflect the
350 importance of the English cultivars 'Daviana', 'Cosford' and 'DuChilly' ($S_{10} S_{14}$). Several cultivars in
351 this group are hybrids between English cultivars and 'Barcelona' ($S_1 S_2$), which accounts for the
352 high frequencies of S_1 and S_2 . Several cultivars selected by growers in the Pacific northwestern
353 USA appear to be hybrids of 'Barcelona' and 'Daviana' (Butler, Ennis, Fitzgerald, Nonpareil and
354 Woodford, and probably also Compton, Fitzgerald #20, Lansing #1 and Wallace Seedling). An
355 additional three grower selections (Freehusker, Nixon and Royal) and the French cultivar
356 'Corabel' are hybrids between 'Barcelona' and 'Cosford', while three grower selections ('Brixnut',
357 'Gem' and 'Lyons') are hybrids between 'Barcelona' and 'DuChilly'. These grower selections were
358 placed in the English group because of their English parents. In the Black Sea group, the most
359 common alleles in cultivars are S_4 , S_{10} , S_2 , S_5 and S_{31} . The first four of these alleles had been
360 reported earlier in Turkish cultivars (Mehlenbacher, 1997a; Erdoğan et al., 2005), including
361 'Tombul' ($S_4 S_{12}$), 'Sivri' ($S_8 S_{10}$), 'Mincane' ($S_4 S_8$), 'Palaz' ($S_2 S_4$), 'Kargalak' ($S_2 S_{10}$) and 'Yassi Badem'
362 ($S_2 S_5$). Erdoğan et al. (2005) reported S-alleles expressed in pollen of Turkish cultivars. S_4 ,
363 which is at the bottom of the dominance hierarchy (Fig. 1), is likely the second allele in several
364 Turkish cultivars, but is not expressed in their pollen. S_{31} is present in 'Ata Baba' ($S_4 S_{31}$) and is
365 common in other cultivars from Azerbaijan. In the other 45 accessions, the most frequent alleles

366 were S_6 , S_{20} , S_1 , S_2 and S_{26} . This group includes several ornamentals and 21 selections from a
367 Forestry Institute near Moscow, Russia. Half of the Moscow selections have red leaves. In
368 breeding, two sources of red leaves have been used: 'Fusco Rubra' ($S_6 S_{19}$) and 'Rode Zeller' (S_6
369 S_{11}). In *C. avellana*, red leaf color is conferred by a dominant allele at the anthocyanin locus,
370 which is linked to the S-locus (Thompson, 1985). Given the presence of S_6 in both redleaf
371 parents and the linkage of S_6 with the allele for leaf anthocyanin, the high frequency of S_6 is not
372 surprising. S_{20} is common in the cold-hardy Central European types with large nuts [e.g., 'Early
373 Long Zeller' ($S_{20} S_{25}$)] that were probably used as parents in Moscow. The high frequency of S_{26}
374 in this "other" group is surprising, as its overall frequency in the 284 cultivars is only 1.8%.

375 **S-alleles in Turkish selections.** Large differences in S-allele frequency were seen
376 among the groups as well as among seed lots within a group. In the Turkish selections, S_4 was
377 by far the most common allele, representing 30.2% of the total. It was present in high frequency
378 in all eight groups of selections. The second most common allele, S_{12} , represented 10.7% of the
379 total. S_{12} is present in 'Extra Ghiaghli' ($S_4 S_{12}$), which is a clone of the important cultivar
380 Tombul. The next most common alleles were S_8 , S_{10} , S_2 and S_{16} . Of the six most common
381 alleles, five had been reported in Turkish cultivars, while the high frequency of S_{16} was
382 unexpected. Four rare alleles detected at frequencies of 2-4% (S_{14} , S_3 , S_9 and S_{25}) had not been
383 previously reported for Turkish cultivars, while S_5 is present in Yassi Badem. Three alleles (S_{23} ,
384 S_{29} and S_{31}) were absent in the Turkish selections, and 18 others were present at frequencies
385 <2%. Ata Baba ($S_4 S_{31}$), the leading cultivar in Azerbaijan, has more vigorous and upright
386 growth than the leading Turkish cultivars, but its nuts, husks and kernels are very similar. Given
387 the common ethnic origin of the people in the two countries and extensive trade over many
388 centuries, it was surprising to find S_{31} absent in the Turkish selections. Differences in allele

389 frequency among the 8 Turkish seed lots were apparent. S_8 was very common in group 4 from
390 Akçakoca and group 6 from Trabzon. S_{10} was common in group 4. S_{14} was common in group 6
391 but in no other Turkish group. S_{16} and S_{25} were especially common in Group 8 from the
392 Hazelnut Research Institute. Alleles S_{27} to S_{33} are recorded as absent in Groups 1-7 of the
393 Turkish selections (Table 7). We note, however, that testers for these alleles were not available
394 at the time that selections in groups 1-7 were typed, and few selections from these groups have
395 been preserved in our permanent collection. New alleles low in the dominance hierarchy (S_{27} ,
396 S_{29} , S_{31} and S_{33}) may indeed be present in selections in groups 1-7 but not detected because they
397 were not expressed in the pollen. However, S_{30} and S_{32} are high in the dominance hierarchy.
398 Their presence would have been detected in selections in groups 1-7 as only one other allele
399 would have been identified, and their pollen would have been compatible on females expressing
400 all other alleles. New testers would have been identified if S_{30} or S_{32} had been present in Turkish
401 selections groups 1-7. In summary, the Turkish selections showed great diversity with respect to
402 their S-alleles, and differences in S-allele frequency among groups.

403 **Selections from the Caucasus.** In the 43 selections from Georgia, the most frequent
404 alleles were S_4 , S_2 , S_{10} , S_{20} and S_{31} . Three of these alleles are present in the Georgian cultivars
405 (Table 8), but not S_2 . It is likely that S_{31} was contributed by 'Ata Baba' ($S_4 S_{31}$) from neighboring
406 Azerbaijan. An additional 18 alleles were detected at frequencies of 1 - 5%, indicating great
407 diversity in the alleles present, while 9 were absent. S_4 is present in four Georgian cultivars,
408 including Anakliuri ($S_4 S_{14}$), which is the most widely planted. Of three selected seedlings of
409 'Khachapura' ($S_3 S_{18}$), which has oblate nuts, two had S_{18} and the other had S_3 . In selections from
410 Azerbaijan, the most common alleles, S_4 and S_{31} , were present in all three locations (Zaqatala,
411 Qabala and Xaçmaz). Zaqatala, located at the base of the Caucasus Mountains not far from the

412 Georgian border, is the most important production zone. There, 'Ata Baba' ($S_4 S_{31}$) is the most
413 important cultivar. The third common allele (S_{10}) is present in several cultivars from Azerbaijan.
414 An additional 17 alleles were present at frequencies of 1-7%, and 12 were absent. Twenty S-
415 alleles were found in the Azeri selections, which is fewer than in selections from Turkey, Russia
416 and Georgia. Hazelnut orchards were established during the Soviet era on state and collective
417 farms. All aspects of production, including the choice of cultivars and pollinizers, were chosen
418 by government officials. Most of the nuts from Azerbaijan were collected in such orchards. The
419 most common alleles in the Armenian selections, all from nuts purchased in markets, were S_4 , S_2 ,
420 S_{31} , S_3 , S_9 and S_{26} . The common alleles S_4 and S_{31} are those of Ata Baba, the most important
421 cultivar in Azerbaijan. The presence of rare allele S_{31} in high frequency in all three former
422 Soviet republics in the Caucasus indicates probable sharing of plant material. The level of
423 diversity in Armenian selections is similar to that observed in selections from Azerbaijan.

424 **Russia and Ukraine.** Taken as a whole, the Russian selections were very diverse. The
425 most common alleles in the eight groups of Russian selections were S_4 , S_{24} , S_{10} and S_5 . The first
426 two alleles are present in Cherkesskii II ($S_4 S_{24}$), which is the most important cultivar in the north
427 Caucasus. In the Crimea (Ukraine), hazelnut is cultivated to a very limited extent in the
428 protected, mild climate on the south coast of the peninsula. Most of the nuts purchased from
429 vendors were very small and may have been collected from the wild. The six most common
430 alleles in the 24 Crimean selections were S_{10} , S_2 , S_{25} , S_9 , S_3 and S_{14} . Twelve rare alleles were
431 present at frequencies of 2-5%, and 13 alleles were not detected. The Crimean selections
432 showed fewer S-alleles than the Russian, Georgian and Turkish selections.

433 **Iran.** Only four alleles were detected in the Iranian selections: S_2 , S_{33} , S_8 and S_4 . The
434 number of alleles was strikingly less than in selections from other countries. S_{33} is a very rare

435 allele present in 'Ganja' (S_4 S_{33}) from Azerbaijan and very few selections, so it was surprising that
436 S_{33} accounted for 27.8% of the alleles in the Iranian selections. In visits by the author to
437 orchards near the Caspian Sea, little phenotypic diversity was seen and nut yields were low,
438 which is consistent with a narrow genetic base. It is unclear if *Corylus avellana* is native to Iran,
439 and it seems likely that the species was introduced. In all other countries from which seeds were
440 collected, hazelnut bushes could be seen growing in roadsides and hedgerows. Such seedlings
441 were not seen in Iran. In fact, even a large hazelnut planting visited in the Talesh mountains had
442 been established by planting seedlings.

443 **Other selections.** Of the selections in the miscellaneous group, 13 originated in northern
444 Italy, three originated in Latvia and one from Lithuania. The nuts received from Latvia and
445 Lithuania were large, and presumably from a collection of cold-hardy cultivars with large nuts.
446 The most common alleles in this miscellaneous group were S_9 , S_5 , S_6 , S_{10} and S_{15} .

447 **Differences between cultivars and selections.** Differences in allele frequencies (Table
448 11) between cultivars and selections reflect their geographic origin. The most common S-alleles
449 in cultivars and selections in each group are presented in Table 12. Most of the cultivars were
450 from western Europe, while most of the selections belonged to the Black Sea group and
451 originated in the eastern part of the distribution of *C. avellana*. S_4 was very common in
452 selections from Turkey, Georgia, Azerbaijan, Armenia and Russia. S_8 and S_{12} were common in
453 Turkish selections. These three alleles were much more common in the selections than in the
454 cultivars. On the other hand, some alleles were more common in the cultivars than in the
455 selections. S_1 and S_2 were common in the Spanish-Italian cultivars and S_3 and S_{11} were common
456 in the English cultivars. S_5 was common in the Central European cultivars, while S_6 was present

457 in the Spanish-Italian and other cultivars. All six of these alleles were present in the selections
458 but at lower frequency than in the cultivars.

459 **The spread of hazelnut and origin of cultivars.** *Corylus avellana* is found throughout
460 Europe, the Caucasus and Asia Minor where it is generally found as an understory shrub in
461 mixed deciduous forests. Palme and Vendramin (2002) used four polymorphic chloroplast
462 microsatellite markers to investigate diversity in 248 individuals representing 26 natural
463 populations across Europe, but did not include samples from Turkey, the Caucasus or Iran.
464 Boccacci and Botta (2009) used the same markers to investigate diversity in 75 cultivars,
465 including a few from Turkey and Iran, but none from the Caucasus republics or southern Russia.
466 Both studies give insights into the spread of the hazelnut and its domestication. The chloroplast
467 is generally inherited maternally in angiosperms, and thus only dispersed by seeds. The present-
468 day distribution of *C. avellana* was established about 7000 BP as a result of postglacial
469 recolonization that had started ~11,000 years earlier (Huntley and Birks, 1983). Between 10,000
470 and 9000 BP there was a sharp increase in the amount of *Corylus* pollen found across Europe
471 (Huntley and Birks, 1983). Nut dispersal during the postglacial recolonization was caused by
472 small mammals, birds, and human migration. Archaeologists have repeatedly found nuts,
473 kernels and shell remains from many archaeological sites all over Europe. Hazelnuts are easy to
474 store and transport, and kernels have a high energy value, thus it is likely that Mesolithic tribes
475 aided the spread of hazelnut and undoubtedly selected for productivity.

476 Palme and Vendramin (2002) found a clear geographical structure of chloroplast
477 haplotypes that divides Europe into two parts. Chlorotype A, which represented 76% of the
478 sampled wild individuals and chlorotype B, which represented 4%, were well-distributed across
479 western and northern Europe. Chlorotypes C, D, E and F were restricted to southern and central

480 Italy, Croatia, Romania and Greece. These results indicate that recolonization of most of Europe
481 was from one or more refugia in southwestern France by the Bay of Biscay. Expansion in Italy
482 and the Balkans, where almost all chlorotype diversity was observed, was local.

483 Where and when the domestication of *C. avellana* was started is not yet clear, although it
484 was cultivated by the Romans, especially in the southern Italian region of Campania. According
485 to Trotter (1921), cultivars were selected from local wild populations. Many cultivars have
486 unclear origins. Chloroplast marker data for 75 hazelnut cultivars (Boccacci and Botta, 2009)
487 suggested considerable exchange of germplasm between Italy and Spain, probably by the
488 Romans, and thus a common genetic base of cultivars in the two countries. Boccacci and Botta
489 (2009) propose separate domestication of hazelnut in three areas: the Mediterranean (Spain and
490 Italy), Turkey, and Iran. Boccacci and Botta (2009) detected little gene flow from east to west.
491 The presence of chlorotype A in all cultivar groups may be due to spread of hazelnut throughout
492 the empire by the Romans. Further studies of chlorotypes of germplasm from the Caucasus
493 republics (Georgia, Armenia, and Azerbaijan) and southern Russia will be enlightening.

494 According to Erfatpour et al. (2011), hazelnut is native to the Talesh mountains in
495 northwestern Iran (Tandehbin and Makesh regions of Guilan province). The nuclear
496 microsatellite data of Erfatpour et al. (2011) and Ghanbari et al. (2005) shows considerable
497 variation among Iranian hazelnut cultivars, in contrast to our observations during orchard visits.
498 The people of Azerbaijan are Turkic. Treaties signed by Russia and Persia in 1813 and 1828
499 divided Azerbaijan. Today, the northern third is the republic of Azerbaijan and the southern
500 two-thirds remain part of Iran. Some exchange of plant materials among farmers and gardeners
501 would be expected. The ancient Silk Road passed through Iran, and it seems likely that hazelnut
502 were disseminated along the route.

503 Although the origins of many hazelnut cultivars are unknown, humans undoubtedly
504 played a role in their selection and spread through clonal or seed propagation. As with other fruit
505 and nut crops, superior cultivars are propagated and sold by nurseries, and farmers and gardeners
506 often share scions, rooted suckers and seeds. Goeschke (1887) described many old cultivars. In
507 England, the major cultivar is DuChilly (syn. Kentish Cob). Richard Webb of Reading is
508 credited as the source of 'Cosford', 'Daviana', 'Garibaldi', 'Empress Eugenia' and 'Princess Royal'.
509 In Germany, at least five people are credited with developing locally-adapted types with large
510 nuts. S.D.L. Henne of Gunsleben is the originator of 'Gunslebener Zeller'. Jacob Mackoy et Cie
511 in Luttich is the originator of 'Berger's Zeller'. C.R. Peicker of Hertwigswalde is the originator
512 of 'Louisen's Zeller' and 'Neue Riesen'. C. G. Buttner of Halle is the originator of 'Hall's Giant'
513 (syn. 'Halle'sche Riesennuss') and 'Volle Zeller'. Justizrat Burchardt of Landsberg is credited as
514 the originator of no less than 12 cultivars, including Buttner's Zeller, Gubener Zeller, Gustav's
515 Zeller, Riekchen's Zeller and Truchsess Zeller. Some of these German cultivars were the parents
516 of others. As noted earlier, cultivars selected by growers in the Pacific Northwestern USA and
517 placed in the English group have been identified as hybrids between Barcelona and three other
518 cultivars: Daviana, Cosford and DuChilly.

519

520 **CONCLUSIONS**

521 Hazelnut cultivars and selections are self-incompatible. Fluorescence microscopy is
522 routinely used to determine if a pollination is compatible or incompatible, and use of an array of
523 known testers allows identification of the alleles of cultivars and selections. Both alleles are
524 expressed in the stigmas, but often only one is expressed in the pollen because of dominance.
525 This study reports six new S-alleles, an improved tester for S_{13} , and the dominance relationships

526 for 105 new pairs of alleles. The S-alleles of 284 cultivars, 13 interspecific hybrids and 522
527 selections of diverse origin are summarized and presented. Most of the world's leading cultivars
528 were selected from the local vegetation near where they are now planted on a commercial scale.
529 Tremendous genetic variability is available in cultivated and wild hazelnuts, but genetic
530 improvement efforts have only recently led to improved cultivars. Based on simple sequence
531 repeat (SSR) markers and geographic origin, most hazelnut cultivars have been assigned to one
532 of the four main groups (Spanish-Italian, English, Central European, or Black Sea), yet many
533 accessions lie outside these main clusters. Differences in S-allele frequency related to
534 geographic origin were seen in the cultivars and selections. The S-alleles identified in hazelnut
535 cultivars and selections is information that should be useful to breeders in the planning of
536 crosses, to germplasm curators, and to growers and nurseries as they choose cultivars and
537 pollinizers when designing orchards.

538

539

540

541

542

543

544

545

546

547

548

549 **List of Tables.**550 **Table 1.** Pollen testers for incompatibility alleles in hazelnut.551 **Table 2.** Origin of hazelnut seed lots by country, year and collection location, and the number of
552 selections from each lot whose S-alleles were identified.553 **Table 3.** Dominance relationships among pairs of S-alleles in hazelnut.554 **Table 4.** S-alleles and origins of hazelnut cultivars by group.555 **Table 5.** Frequency of S-alleles in hazelnut cultivars by group.556 **Table 6.** S-alleles in hazelnut selections originating from seeds collected in several countries.

557 Shown for each S-allele are the counts of the number of seedlings with that allele.

558 **Table 7.** Frequency of S-alleles in hazelnut selections originating in eight seed lots collected in
559 Turkey.560 **Table 8.** Frequency of S-alleles in hazelnut selections originating in six seed lots collected in
561 Georgia.562 **Table 9.** Frequency of S-alleles in hazelnut selections originating in three seed lots collected in
563 Azerbaijan.564 **Table 10.** Frequency of S-alleles in hazelnut selections originating in eight seed lots collected in
565 Russia.566 **Table 11.** Differences in the frequency of S-alleles in hazelnut cultivars and selections. Alleles
567 are ranked from largest negative to largest positive difference.568 **Table 12.** Most common S-alleles in hazelnut cultivars and selections by group.

569

570

571

572 **List of Figures.**573 **Figure 1.** Dominance hierarchy of S-alleles in hazelnut pollen. Alleles are dominant to alleles

574 below them, and codominant with those at the same level.

575

576

577

578

579

580

581

582

583

584

585

586

587

588

589

590

591

592

593

594

595 **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

596 Funding from the Oregon Hazelnut Commission, State of Oregon, and Hatch Act is
597 acknowledged and appreciated.

598

599 **Literature Cited**

600 Boccacci, P., A. Akkarak, and R. Botta. 2006. DNA typing and genetic relations among european
601 hazelnut (*Corylus avellana* L.) cultivars using microsatellite markers. *Genome* 49:598-611.

602 Boccacci P., R. Botta, and M Rovira. 2008. Genetic diversity of hazelnut (*Corylus avellana* L.)
603 germplasm in northeastern Spain. *HortScience* 43:667-672.

604 Boccacci, P., and R. Botta. 2009. Investigating the origin of hazelnut (*Corylus avellana* L.)
605 cultivars using chloroplast microsatellites. *Genet. Resour. Crop Evol.* 56:851-859.

606 Erdoğan, V., S.A. Mehlenbacher, A.I. Köksal, and H. Kurt. 2005. Incompatibility alleles
607 expressed in pollen of Turkish hazelnut cultivars. *Turkish J. Biol.* 29(2):111-116.

608 Erfatpour, M., Y. Hamidoglu, B. Kaviani, R. Fatahi, M. Falahati, D. Javadi, and D. Hashemabadi.
609 2011. Assessment of genetic diversity among some Iranian hazelnut genotypes using SSR
610 markers. *Austral. J. Crop Sci.* 5:1286-1291.

611 FAOSTAT. 2011. Food and agricultural commodities production. Food and Agriculture
612 Organization of United Nations, Rome, Italy. (<http://faostat.fao.org/site/339/default.aspx>,
613 accessed 28 Dec. 2013).

614 Germain, E. 1994. The reproduction of hazelnut (*Corylus avellana* L.): a review. *Acta Hort.*
615 351:195-209.

- 616 Ghanbari, A., A. Akkarak, P. Boccacci, A. Talaie, A. Vezbaie, and R. Botta. 2005.
617 Characterization of hazelnut (*Corylus avellana* L.) cultivars using microsatellite markers.
618 Acta Hort. 686:111-115.
- 619 Goeschke, F. 1887. Die Haselnuss, ihre Arten und ihre Kultur. Paul Parey, Berlin, Germany.
- 620 Gökirmak, T., S.A. Mehlenbacher, and N.V. Bassil. 2009. Characterization of european
621 hazelnut (*Corylus avellana*) cultivars using SSR markers. Genet. Resour. Crop Evol.
622 56:147-172.
- 623 Gürcan, K., S.A. Mehlenbacher, and V. Erdoğan. 2010. Genetic diversity in hazelnut cultivars
624 from Black Sea countries assessed using SSR markers. Plant Breeding 129:422-434.
- 625 Hampson, C., A.N. Azarenko, and A. Soeldner. 1993. Pollen-stigma interactions following
626 compatible and incompatible pollinations in hazelnut. J. Amer. Soc. Hort. Sci. 118:814-819.
- 627 Huntley, B. and H.J.B. Birks. 1983. An atlas of past and present pollen maps for Europe: 0-
628 13,000 years ago. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge.
- 629 Martins, S., M. Rovira, A. P. Silva, and V. Carnide. 2012. Incompatibility alleles in Portuguese
630 hazelnut landraces. ISRN Agronomy. doi: 10.5402/2012/154723.
- 631 Mehlenbacher, S.A. 1997a. Revised dominance hierarchy for S-alleles in *Corylus avellana* L.
632 Theor. Appl. Genet. 94:360-366.
- 633 Mehlenbacher, S.A. 1997b. Testing compatibility of hazelnut crosses using fluorescence
634 microscopy. Acta Hort. 445:167-171.
- 635 Mehlenbacher, S.A. 2013. Incompatibility alleles of hazelnut cultivars. Acta Hort. (in press).
- 636 Mehlenbacher, S.A., and D.C. Smith. 1991. Partial self-compatibility in 'Tombul' and
637 'Montebello' hazelnut. Euphytica 56:231-236.

- 638 Mehlenbacher, S.A., and D.C. Smith. 2006. Self-compatible seedlings of the cutleaf hazelnut.
639 HortScience 41:482-483.
- 640 Mehlenbacher, S.A., R.N. Brown, E.R. Nouhra, T. Gökirmak, N.V. Bassil, and T.L. Kubisiak.
641 2006. A genetic linkage map for hazelnut (*Corylus avellana* L.) based on RAPD and SSR
642 markers. Genome 49:122-133.
- 643 Mehlenbacher, S.A., and M.M. Thompson. 1988. Dominance relationships among S-alleles in
644 *Corylus avellana* L. Theor. Appl. Genet. 76:669-672.
- 645 Palme, A.E., and G.G. Vendramin. 2002. Chloroplast DNA variation, postglacial recolonization
646 and hybridization in hazel, *Corylus avellana*. Mol. Ecol. 11:1769-1779.
- 647 Smith, D.C., and S.A. Mehlenbacher. 1994. Use of Tyvek housewrap for pollination bags in
648 breeding hazelnut (*Corylus avellana* L.). HortScience 29:918.
- 649 Thompson, M.M. 1979a. Genetics of incompatibility in *Corylus avellana* L. Theor. Appl.
650 Genet. 54:113-116.
- 651 Thompson, M.M. 1979b. Incompatibility alleles in *Corylus avellana* cultivars. Theor. Appl.
652 Genet. 55:29-33.
- 653 Thompson, M.M. 1985. Linkage of the incompatibility locus and red pigmentation genes in
654 hazelnut. J. Hered. 76:119-122.
- 655 Trotter, A. 1921. Contributo alla storia colturale del nocciuolo nella Campania. Ristampa di
656 una comunicazione fatta al Congresso di Arboricoltura Meridionale, Napoli (Italy), 16-20
657 September. p. 3-19.
- 658