Genetic diversity and population structure of ridge gourd (*Luffa acutangula*) accessions in a

Tropical Asian collection using DArTseq based SNP markers

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Abstract

This study explored a germplasm consisting of 112 *Luffa acutangula* (ridge gourd) accessions originating from Thailand, Vietnam, China, Philippines, Indonesia, USA, Bangladesh and Laos for an analysis of the population structure and underlying genetic diversity using 2,834 DArTseq based SNPs. STRUCTURE analysis (ΔK at $K=6$) allowed us to group the accessions into six populations that corresponded well with the unrooted phylogenetic tree and Principle coordinate analyses. The phylogenetic tree differentiated the accessions into groups according to their passport geographic origin. STRUCTURE also revealed collection locations of the accessions for each cluster, demonstrating that genotypes of the ridge gourds were admixed at places nearby their regions of origin. AMOVA based on STRUCTURE clustering showed a higher variation within a population (87.17%) than AMOVA groups based on country of origin (84.94%). We also observed significant results in which a higher degree of genetic differentiation between populations according to the Phi statistics based on STRUCTURE clustering (0.128) rather than by country of germplasm collection (0.079). The clusters generated by STRUCTURE assigned characteristic fruit shape and length to each cluster grouping. The ample genetic diversity found in the *L. acutangula* germplasm can be utilized in ridge gourd breeding programs to help meet the demands of consumers (reduced bitterness) and aid farmers through breeding lines resistant to plant viruses.

Introduction

Luffa acutangula, commonly known as ridge gourd, angled loofah, or Chinese okra, is a

domesticated vegetable of the Cucurbitaceae that originated from India [1-4]. Immature fruits

are used as a vegetable which can be cooked or fried. In South-East Asia, the sweet juiciness,

spongy texture, and mild-bitter taste are favorite characteristics [2]. In contrast, its use in

traditional medicine is especially prevalent in Asia and middle America [5, 6] and India for

its treatment of jaundice and urinary bladder stones [7, 8]. Extensive regional and cultural

selection of specific cultivars have contributed to a wide variety of uses and value

necessitating germplasm conservation to capture its enormous genetic variation. Most of the

genetic diversity was established by describing the morphological variation of the accessions

[9]. Still, such a limited approach is subject to environmental conditions as well as the

developmental stages of the plant [10]. Instead, molecular markers provide more stable

sources of information for carrying out genetic diversity studies.

Genetic diversity can be described as the measure of variation within a population.

This variability is essential for future breeding schemes and represents the equilibrium

between mutation and the loss of genetic variation [11]. The importance of population

structure extends far beyond pure relatedness, in which plants with limited distribution have

fewer habitats and smaller dense populations, which will lead to increased inbreeding and

more structured populations [12]. If this structure is not correctly defined, it can cause loss of

power in subsequent interpretations of the population under study. Another way of assessing

genetic diversity which also serves to complement the results from population structure is by

the use of phylogenetic modelling. This modelling helps to give an overview of the relative

relatedness of each member of the population under study as well as ecological relatedness

[13]. It is always important to consider if results using a particular method reflects similar

findings in other methods of genetic diversity assessment.

With the fast-paced innovations in molecular biology, several marker techniques have

been developed for acquiring accurate and reliable information on population structure and

genetic diversity of germplasms [14]. Molecular markers used for population structure and

genetic diversity studies in ridge gourd include Inter Simple Sequence Repeat (ISSR) [15],

Random Amplified Polymorphism Detection (RAPD) in *L. acutangula* [16], Simple

Sequence Repeats (SSRs) [17], Inter Simple Sequence Repeats (ISSR), and Directed

Amplification of Minisatellite DNA (DAMD) [18]. These techniques can be labor-intensive,

costly and produce a low number of markers.

The present study aims to identify the population structure and genetic diversity of a *L.*

acutangula germplasm in Thailand by using DArTseq based SNPs

(https://www.diversityarrays.com). The study will provide essential information for genetic

improvement programs in Thailand for meeting the demands of a diverse cultural cuisine in

Thailand.

Materials and methods

Plant materials

We used in this study a *L. acutangula* germplasm comprising of 112 accessions from

Thailand (91), Vietnam (4), Philippines (2), Indonesia (1), China (3), USA (1), Laos (3) and

Bangladesh (7), conserved by the Tropical Vegetable Research Center (TVRC), Kasetsart

University, Kamphaeng Saen Campus, and the World Vegetable Center, Taiwan.

Fruit trait evaluation

All *L. acutangula* accessions were evaluated for fruit traits such as fruit length by measuring from stem-end to blossom-end and fruit shape adapted from the descriptors for sponge gourd [19]. Accessions were grown under field conditions from August to December 2019 in which five plants per plot were planted in a single bed with a 0.5 m space between the plants and 2 m spacing between beds. Fruits were harvested when they were young for consumption as vegetable. Fruit shape was classified into either elongated slim, elliptical tapered, elongated tapered, elongated elliptical tapered, tapered oblong or short elliptical tapered.

DNA extraction

Genomic DNA samples were extracted from 100 mg of pooled young leaves tissue of 2-weeks-old seedlings from 20 plants per accession using a modified CTAB (cetyltrimethylammonium bromide) method [20]. Precipitated DNA was resuspended in TE buffer (10 mM Tris-HCl; 1 mM EDTA, pH 8.0) containing 2 µg/mL RNase. DNA quality was evaluated by electrophoresis on a 1% agarose gel and was quantified with a NanoDrop 2000c spectrophotometer V 1.6.0. The DNA concentration was adjusted to 50 ng/µL for DArTseq GBS analysis.

Genotyping of accessions of *L. acutangula* using DArTseq

The genomic DNA samples were sent to Diversity Arrays Technology Pty. Ltd., Canberra, Australia, for DArTseq genotype-based sequencing [21]. To this end, DNA was digested using *Pst*I-*Mse*I restriction enzymes as described by Kilian [22]. The digested fragments were then ligated to adapters and amplified by PCR [23], followed by sequencing on Illumina Hiseq2000. The single read sequencing was run for 77 cycles, and sequences generated were

121 handled by DArT analytical pipelines (Diversity Arrays Technology, Australia). In the

122 primary pipeline, poor-quality sequences were filtered from the FASTQ files by applying

123 rigorous selection criteria to the barcode region [24]. Identified sequences per

124 barcode/sample were used for marker calling. These files were then used in the secondary

125 pipeline for DArT P/L's proprietary SNP calling algorithms (DArTsoftseq).

Population structure and data analysis

DArTseq based SNPs were filtered using a call rate of 80% with a co-dominant marker

polymorphism information content (PIC) greater than 0.125. After filtering, 2,834 SNPs were

used for data analysis. The population structure of the 112 *L. acutangula* accessions was

determined using STRUCTURE version 2.3.4 [25]. Ten repeats were performed for each

number of hypothetical subpopulations (K) which were set from 1 to 10. The parameters used

consisted of an admixture model, a burning period of 50,000 steps, and 100,000 Markov

Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC). The STRUCTURE results were further analyzed using the R

package, POPHELPER version 2.3.0 [26]. The optimum number of K was calculated using the

Evanno method [27].

We constructed the phylogenetic trees with the weighted neighbor-joining method [28]

and visualized the data with DARWIN software version 6.0.021 [29]. Principal Coordinates

Analysis (PCoA), expected heterozygosity (H_E), observed heterozygosity (H_O), and pairwise

F_{ST} were calculated using ADEGENET version 2.1.1 [30] in the R statistical environment.

Analysis of Molecular Variance (AMOVA) and Shannon-Weiner Diversity index were

calculated in POPPR version 2.8.3 in R [31]. Jaccard distance was calculated in R software by

using ADE4 version 1.7-13 package [32]. One-way ANOVA test, box plots and Tukey HSD

were carried out using standard R statistics.

Results

Population structure analysis

STRUCTURE analysis of the 2,834 SNPs revealed the highest value of ΔK at K=6 (Fig 1). This value indicated a total of six informative subpopulations found across all *L. acutangula* accessions. Each subpopulation was expressed as Cluster 1-6, representing 7%, 55%, 13%, 8%, 4% and 13% of the total number of accessions, respectively. Cluster 1 consisted of seven accessions from Thailand and one from China (Fig 2). All 62 accessions in Cluster 2 were from Thailand. Cluster 3 was composed of eleven accessions from Thailand and three from Laos. Cluster 4 was made of two, four, two and one accession from Thailand, Vietnam, Philippines and Indonesia, respectively. Cluster 5 consisted of two accessions from Thailand, two from China and one from the USA. Cluster 6 contained seven accessions from Thailand and seven from Bangladesh.

Fig 1. Population structure of 112 *Luffa acutangula* accessions using DArTseq-based SNP markers inferred by STRUCTURE program. a) Number of subpopulations indicated by the highest ΔK, b) Proportion of clustering of individuals to six subpopulations.

Fig 2. Weighted neighbor-joining dendrogram of 112 *Luffa acutangula* accessions based on DArTseq SNPs. Branch colors correspond to clustering by STRUCTURE analysis. Symbols indicate accession's country of origin.

The unrooted phylogenetic tree was able to differentiate the 112 *L. acutangula* accessions into six clades that were consistent with the ΔK at K=6 (Fig 3). We further confirmed the distinction of the six groups with the Principal Coordinate Analysis (PCoA) in which the accessions of cluster 1 overlapped with those of cluster 2 (Fig 4). Axes 1 and 2 combined explained 15.3% of the total variance. Cluster 1 and 2 had some accessions falling in two or

three quadrants suggesting a wide diversity in these two clusters, which were mostly

composed of Thailand accessions.

Fig 3. Phylogenetic tree among the 112 *Luffa acutangula* accessions. The colors of

branches illustrate accessions belonging to different clusters acquired from STRUCTURE

analysis. Six clades were identified as indicated by circle colors.

Fig 4. Principal coordinate analysis (PCoA) of 112 *Luffa acutangula* accessions using

DArTseq-based SNPs.

Genetic diversity

Heterozygosity can be measured by expected heterozygosity (H_E) and observed

heterozygosity (H_O). H_E gives information about the probability of an individual's portion of

heterozygosity for all analyzed loci, while H_O is the portion of heterozygous genes in the

analyzed population [33]. The expected heterozygosity (H_E) as measure of genetic diversity

ranged in the six clusters from 0.338 (Cluster 2) to 0.272 (Cluster 3); the remaining cluster

had values in between: Cluster 1 (0.274), Cluster 4 (0.295), Cluster 5 (0.287) and cluster 6

(0.334). The high H_E in Cluster 2 also corresponded with the highest Shannon & Weiner

diversity index (H) of 4.127. The observed heterozygosity (H_O)for the STRUCTURE

grouping was as follows: Cluster 1 (0.378), Cluster 2 (0.388), Cluster 3 (0.191), Cluster 4

(0.289), Cluster 5 (0.363) and Cluster 6 (0.410). When the observed heterozygosity was

found higher than the expected heterozygosity, a random mating system governs that

particular population [33]. This $H_O > H_E$ was observed in Cluster 1, Cluster 2, Cluster 5 and

Cluster 6 (Table 1). The observed heterozygosity (H_O) in Cluster 4 (0.289) was almost

similar in value to the H_E (0.295), which might indicate that crossing in the population was

almost unplanned [33]. Cluster 3 had the lowest H_E (0.272) and H_O (0.191) from all six

subpopulations, and given that H_O was lower than H_E indicated that Cluster 3 was potentially

an inbred population [33]. The mean SNP polymorphism information content (PIC) had a

range value from 0.125 to 0.375, with a mean of 0.288 (Table 1).

Table 1. Genetic diversity among 112 _Luffa acutangula_ accessions based on

STRUCTURE analysis.

	Cluster 1	Cluster 2	Cluster 3	Cluster 4	Cluster 5	Cluster 6	Total
N	8	62	14	9	5	14	112
H	2.079	4.127	2.639	2.197	1.609	2.639	4.718
H_O	0.378	0.388	0.191	0.289	0.363	0.410	0.357
H_E	0.274	0.338	0.272	0.295	0.287	0.334	0.359
PIC		Min_PIC=0.125		Max_PIC=0.375		Mean_PIC=0.288	

N, number of accessions; H, Shannon & Weiner diversity index; H_O, observed

heterozygosity; H_E, expected heterozygosity; PIC, polymorphism information content.

Pairwise genetic differentiation was highest between Cluster 3 and Cluster 4 (F_{ST}=0.262),

while the lowest was observed between Cluster 1 and Cluster 2 (F_{ST} = 0.089), and also

between Cluster 2 and Cluster 3 (F_{ST} = 0.086) (**Error! Reference source not found.**).

AMOVA based on STRUCTURE clustering showed a higher variation within a population

(87.17%) than between populations (12.83%). However, AMOVA on accessions grouped by

country of origin showed a slightly lower within a population variation (84.94%) and a

somewhat higher between population variation (15.06%). Phi statistics between

STRUCTURE clusters (0.128) indicate a higher degree of differentiation in comparison to

groups generated by country of origin (0.079) (Table 3).

Table 2. Pairwise F_{ST} (genetic differentiation) values among clusters identified by

STRUCTURE analysis.

STRUCTURE Clustering	Cluster 2	Cluster 1	Cluster 3	Cluster 4	Cluster 5	Cluster 6
Cluster 2						
Cluster 1	0.089					
Cluster 3	0.086	0.180				
Cluster 4	0.164	0.230	0.262			
Cluster 5	0.147	0.203	0.202	0.210		
Cluster 6	0.123	0.186	0.127	0.193	0.174	

213 **Table 3. Analysis of molecular variance (AMOVA) of 112 *Luffa acutangula* accessions.**

Grouping of accessions	Sample	Df	Mean Sq	Variance	%	Phi statistics (ϕ)	P-value
Structure clustering	Between populations	5	4312.218	123.098	12.83	0.128	0.001
	Between individuals within populations	106	734.459	-101.542	-10.59		
	Within individuals	112	937.543	937.543	97.75		
	Total	223	916.675	959.099	100.00		
By country	Between populations	7	2425.899	153.389	15.06	0.079	0.001
	Between individuals within populations	104	792.620	-72.461	-7.11		
	Within individuals	112	937.543	937.543	92.05		
	Total	223	916.675	1018.470	100.00		

214 Df, degrees of freedom; Sq, square.

Geographic distribution and genetic diversity

Cluster 1 and 2 represented the genotype characteristics found in Thailand, while Cluster 3

consisted of characteristics belonging to Laos as is clear from the STRUCTURE analysis (Fig

5). Accessions from Vietnam, Philippines and Indonesia were closely related with the

majority of the shared genotypic characteristics for Vietnam, Cluster 4. Defining

characteristics for Cluster 5 from the USA and 6 were originally from the accessions from

Bangladesh and Thailand. The *L. acutangula* accessions from Thailand were much more

diverse when compared to accessions from other countries (Fig 6). In contrast, the accessions

from Laos and Vietnam were highly uniform and had low genotype proportions from

accessions belonging to other countries. Both the Philippines and Indonesia had genotypic

proportions belonging to accessions from Vietnam and Bangladesh. Still, they differed for the

Philippines which contained genotypes from the USA, while Indonesia had from Thailand.

This observation may also correlate to the high composition of accessions belonging to

Thailand.

Fig 5. Genetic diversity proportion of 112 *Luffa acutangula* accessions based on country

of origin. Branch colors indicate country of origin. Side bars correspond to proportion

clustering from Fig 1.

Fig 6. Distribution of *Luffa acutangula* accessions and their corresponding countries.

Colors are based on STRUCTURE analysis bars from Fig 1.

Association of fruit trait and STRUCTURE clustering

The *L. acutangula* germplasm of 112 accessions was diverse for fruit shape and fruit length.

Six main types of fruit shapes were used as typical distinguishable phenotypes: elongated

slim, elliptical tapered, elongated tapered, elongated elliptical tapered, tapered oblong, and

short elliptical conical (Fig 7). One-way ANOVA test of fruit length showed highly

significant differences between STRUCTURE clusters (p-value = 2.91e-09) (S2 Appendix).

Tukey HSD p-values after adjustment for the multiple comparisons for fruit length showed

significant differences for Cluster 1 and Cluster 2, Cluster 1 and Cluster 3, Cluster 1 and 6,

Cluster 2 and Cluster 6, and Cluster 4 and Cluster 6 (S3Appendix). Other cluster

combinations did not show significant differences in fruit length according to Tukey HSD.

Fig 7. *Luffa acutangula* fruit shape. Each cluster shape is represented by an accession with

the least or no admixture. (Source: Personal collection credit to Mr. Anucha Wongpraneekul

and Grimar A. Perez)

Discussion

Population structure and diversity in *L. acutangula*

In this study, we have been able to demonstrate a consistent six population clustering of the

112 *L. acutangula* accessions. Whole-genome DArTseq based SNPs, geographic area of

collection and fruit characteristics were used to study a total of 112 *L. acutangula* accessions.

Analysis using STRUCTURE (Fig 1), weighted neighbor-joining method (Fig 3) and PCoA

(Fig 4) showed a consistent representation of a total of 6 subpopulations. This grouping

consistency was also observed at the level of individual accessions in both STRUCTURE

analysis as well as a phylogenetic dendrogram (Fig 2). The subpopulations Cluster 1- 6

showed distinct genotypic characteristics that can be put to use in genetic improvement

programs.

Geographically, accessions from Thailand made up the majority of Cluster 1 and Cluster 2.

Similar correlations between the population structure and geographic origin were observed in

Capsicum germplasm [34]. Cluster 1 members were collected from the central plain of

Thailand while cluster 2 accessions (n = 62 accessions) were scattered all-over in Thailand.

Cluster 3 was composed of accessions from northern Thailand and Laos. This grouping

observed in Cluster 3 much emphasizes the similarity in cuisine between the north part of

Thailand and Laos. The genotypic characteristics found in the Vietnam accessions (Cluster 4)

were found in accessions collected from Southern Thailand. Besides, the genetic proportion

of Vietnam accessions found in Cluster 4 was more closely shared with accessions from the

Philippines and Indonesia, suggesting a relationship between people from these countries

which shared an ancestral history or the possibility that there were immigrations among

mainland (Vietnam) and islands in southeast Asia (the Philippines and Indonesia) and also

due to the exchange of goods between these countries in the past [35, 36]. The observed

distribution of cluster 4 accessions to the southern part of Thailand point at spreading of

seeds along historic commerce ship routes from the Southern Thailand regions to countries

such as India and China [36, 37]. The primary representative of Cluster 5 genetic was an

accession from the USA, which had an almost unmixed nature based on STRUCTURE

analysis. Two accessions from China and two accessions from Thailand shared genotypic

proportions to this accession in Cluster 5. Cluster 6 was made up of seven accessions from

Thailand and seven from Bangladesh, which together was separated into two groups in the

dendrogram. Cluster 6 genotype characteristic might have been introduced from Nepal

region via Bangladesh [38], but lack of samples from Myanmar, makes it difficult to confirm

the trafficking of this material [36, 39].

Cluster 2 and Cluster 6 are two potential groups for breeding programs due to their high

diversity when compared across all six subpopulations. Both Cluster 2 and Cluster 6 had high

H_O (4.127 and 2.639, respectively) and H_E (0.338 and 0.334, respectively) which indicates a

high degree of diversity and substantial heterozygosity. Overall, Cluster 5 displayed the

lowest diversity and heterozygosity despite being made up of two accessions from Thailand,

two from China and one from the USA.

In a closer look at the genetics of ridge gourd in Thailand such as cluster 1 accessions, we

noted that the spreading of their specific SNPs occurred in accessions collected nearby the

area where the pure cluster 1 representative accessions had been collected (Fig 6). The same

was true for the genetic of cluster 3, which was represented by accessions from Laos. Still,

the other accessions in cluster 3 that were domesticated in Thailand were already mixed with

the genetics of cluster 2, which is the primary governing genotype of ridge gourd in Thailand.

Genetic differentiation among populations

Pairwise genetic differentiation (F_{ST}) was relatively low between Cluster 2 and Cluster 1

(0.089) which is consistent with the PCoA in which the accessions in cluster 1 were found

together with the accessions in cluster 2. Cluster 2 and Cluster 3 pairwise genetic

differentiation was low (0.086), which also is supported by the PCoA. These two clusters

were spread nearby each another, and in the STRUCTURE result, most of the admixed

genetics of accessions in Cluster 2 contains the genetics of Cluster 3. Similar observations

were seen between Cluster 2 and Cluster 5 (0.147), Cluster 2 and Cluster 6 (0.123), and

Cluster 3 and Cluster 6 (0.127) (**Error! Reference source not found.**). Genetic

differentiation of F_{ST} lower than 0.05 was defined as low, F_{ST} between 0.05 and 0.15 as

moderate, F_{ST} between 0.15 and 0.25 as high, and F_{ST} greater than 0.25 as very high [40, 41].

The low differentiation observed between Cluster 2 with the other four Clusters (Cluster 1, 3,

5 and 6) may reflect the Thailand only composition found in Cluster 2, as well as a

substantial diversity found within Cluster 2. Clusters with a pairwise genetic differentiation

between 0.150 to 0.210 (Cluster 2 and 4=0.164, Cluster 1 and 3=0.180, Cluster 1 and

6=0.186, Cluster 4 and 6=0.193, Cluster 5 and 6=0.174, Cluster 1 and 5=0.203, Cluster 3 and

5= 0.202, and Cluster 4 and 5=0.210) showed substantial differentiation between populations

with minor admixture being exchanged across corresponding paired clusters as seen in the

STRUCTURE analysis (Fig 1b) and PCoA. The highest pairwise genetic differentiation

occurred between Cluster 1 and Cluster 4 (0.230), and Cluster 3 and Cluster 4 (0.262). These

two pairs showed minimal to almost no admixture across each paired cluster as seen in the

STRUCTURE analysis, and there was no overlap in the PCoA. Pairwise genetic

differentiation agreed with AMOVA results (Table 3) which showed that the majority of

variation (87.17%) occurred within populations while only 12.83% occurred between

populations.

Country of germplasm collection and genetic diversity

The AMOVA based on grouping according to the country of origin, showed a similar trend to

the AMOVA results of STRUCTURE. A higher within-population variation (84.94%) was

observed when compared to between-population variance (15.06%). Despite this variance

similarity between STRUCTURE and country grouping, between populations, Phi statistics

based on STRUCTURE grouping displayed a higher degree of genetic differentiation (0.128)

than populations generated by country of germplasm collection (0.079) (Table 3).

The within population genetic variation is visible in the phylogenetic tree with

corresponding STRUCTURE clustering proportions. Accessions of highly pure genotypes

that represent each subpopulation from STRUCTURE analysis are LA083 and LA046

(Cluster 1), LA032 and LA029 (Cluster 2), vio55943 and vio55749 (Cluster 3), LA087

(Cluster 4), vio46065 (Cluster 5), and LA080A (Cluster 6) (**Error! Reference source not**

found.). The genetic proportions of these accessions can be observed throughout cluster 1

through cluster 6. This observation corresponds to the higher within population diversity

found in the AMOVA analysis. The lower AMOVA genetic differentiation between

populations observed by country of germplasm collection may partly reflect a substantial

similarity between countries in Southeast Asia as well as a high genetic exchange between

countries. Besides, it might add a new factor to consider in population structure analysis than

the usual geopolitical and biological borders [42].

Part of the South East Asian countries such as Thailand, Laos, Vietnam, Indonesia

and Philippines are separated by various biological barriers and marked by geopolitical

borders. Despite the proximity of Thailand to Laos and Vietnam, Thailand's genetic diversity

includes a low proportion of genetic characteristics from Vietnam, when compared to the

larger proportions from Laos (Fig 6). This observation that may be heavily influenced by

cultural similarities when compared to biological barriers or geopolitical borders can also be

seen in accessions from Indonesia which to a great extent contain genetic proportions from

Vietnam, but none from Laos. However, the Philippines and Vietnam share a similar genetic

characteristic in that both of their accessions contain proportions from Vietnam and

Bangladesh.

352 **Association of fruit traits and country of germplasm collection**

Cluster 1 and cluster 4 primarily consisted of long fruits, and elongated slim and elliptical

tapered fruit shapes, respectively (Fig 7, S1 Appendix). Cluster 1 and 4 accessions from

Thailand, Vietnam, Indonesia, and the Philippines favor long fruits with a wide range of fruit

shapes. Cluster 2 was by far the largest subpopulation that was primarily made up of

accessions collected in Thailand. Cluster 2 was characterized by medium length fruits with an

elliptical tapered fruit shape. However, accessions within Cluster 2 displayed a range of

shapes that stemmed from the representative elliptical conical fruit shape. Accessions from

Thailand and Laos were grouped in Cluster 3, had medium-length fruits with an elongated

tapered fruit shape. This observation between Laos and Thailand represents the similarity in

culture, including food shared across both countries. Medium length fruits characterized by

elongated elliptical tapered were found in Cluster 5, which consisted of accessions from

Thailand, China and the USA. Peculiarly, the accession from the USA in this cluster was

perhaps collected from Asia, the reason being that Luffa is native to Asia and not the

Americas [1, 2]. Cluster 6 was equally composed of accessions from Thailand and

Bangladesh. The fruits of Cluster 6 were short in length with a short elliptical tapered fruit

shape. This observation in Cluster 6 may indicate a selection of accessions from Bangladesh

for breeding purposes in Thailand, or it segregated after being cultivated for some time. The

reason for this could be because the majority of accessions in Thailand are widespread in all

six subpopulations with a medium to long fruit length. However, fruits from Bangladesh are

the only fruits that have significant short fruit lengths found in one out of six subpopulations.

Conclusions

The study found significant genetic diversity within the six populations identified from the *L.*

acutangula germplasm. Phenotypic information, such as the fruit length and fruit shape,

positively followed suit in the variation observed across the six populations inferred by the

genotypic data. At the same time, geographical provenance was reflected in the clustering

analysis, which also showed a relationship to the phenotypic information. This ample

diversity serves as a strong catalyst to utilize such germplasm for breeding programs which

can be geared towards farmer and consumer preference.

Our future objective will be to identify accessions endowed with important agricultural

traits such as reduced bitterness and resistance to plant viruses for farmers in Thailand and

Asia. Such analysis will then be followed by association mapping to identify potential

markers for these traits of interest.

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Supporting information

S1 Appendix. Box plots of fruit length (cm) by STRUCTURE clustering.

S2 Appendix. One-way ANOVA based on STRUCTURE grouping. ***P-value < 0.001.

S3 Appendix. Tukey HSD based on STRUCTURE grouping with a 95% family-wise confidence level. Diff, mean difference between two groups; Lwr, lower endpoint of the interval; Upr, upper endpoint of the interval; P adj, p-value after adjustment for the multiple comparisons.

Fig1

Fig2

Fig3

Fig4

Fig5

Fig6

Cluster 1	Cluster 2	Cluster 3	Cluster 4	Cluster 5	Cluster 6
LA083 35.6 cm	LA029 23.5 cm	vio55943 23.5 cm	LA087 31.1 cm	vio46065 22.9 cm	LA080A 18.4 cm
Elongated slim	Elliptical tapered	Elongated tapered	Elongated Elliptical tapered	Tapered oblong	Short elliptical tapered

Fig7