Genetic Diversity Analysis of Chinese Plums Based on Whole-genome Resequencing

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Abstract

Plum is gaining importance due to their extensive genetic diversity and nutritional attributes beneficial for human health. Single-nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) are the most abundant form of genomic polymorphisms and are widely used in population genetics research. Here, we used the high-quality SNPs generated from high-depth whole-genome resequencing of 67 *Prunus* accessions to evaluate the genome-level diversity and population structure. The 67 plum accessions were classified into four groups, the southern cultivar group (SCG), the northern cultivar group (NCG), the foreign cultivar group (FG), and the mixed cultivar group (MG), basing on the results of the phylogenetic analysis, the principal component analysis, and the population structure analysis. Several cultivars from South China were observed distributing in the other three groups, and gene flow was detected between the SCG and the FG. For the two groups mainly consisted of plum landraces, the genetic diversity indices including the private allele number, the observed heterozygosity, the expected heterozygosity, and the nucleotide diversity of the SCG were higher than those of the NCG. We speculated that, for SCG, the genetic background was relatively broader, the genetic exchange was more frequent with other groups, and the possible origin center of Chinese plum was at the Yangtze River Basin in South China. This study provided detailed genetic variation features of plum cultivars, and preliminarily dissected their genetic diversity and population structure, laying a foundation for breeders to use diverse germplasm and allelic variants towards developing improved plum varieties.

36   **Keywords:** *Prunus salicina* Lindl., whole-genome resequencing, population structure,

37   genetic introgression

1. Background

Plum is one of the most important fruit crops in the world, possessing extensive genetic diversity and high economic value. The largest plum producer is China, with an annual production of 6,801,187 metric tons in 2018, accounting for 53.9% of the world's total (FAOSTAT, 2018). Within the genus, *Prunus*, Chinese plum (*Prunus salicina* L., 2n = 2x = 16), also known as Japanese plum, is widely grown for fresh market consumption and the canning industry, which includes both pure Chinese plum and its hybrids with other diploid plum species, such as *Prunus simonii* Carr., *Prunus cerasifera* Ehrh., *Prunus americana* Marsh., and others (Liu et al., 2007).

Chinese plum originates from the Yangtze River Basin, and now there are abundant plum germplasm resources in China (Hartmann and Neumulle, 2009). With its long growing history and extensive geographical distribution, there are more than 800 indigenous plum cultivars in China derived from *Prunus salicina* L. alone. Over 600 of them are now preserved at National Germplasm Repository for Plums and Apricots (NGRPA) located in Xiongyue, Liaoning Province, China (Zhang, 1990; Liu et al., 2006). Yu et al. (2011) carried out comprehensive phenotyping of 405 Chinese plum cultivars and its hybrids from NGRPA, totally 32 morphological and agronomic characters were investigated, of which their coefficients of variations (CVs) were calculated ranging from 14.85% to 47.09%, suggesting that the genetic variability of Chinese plums distributed widely.

Genetic variability is the prerequisite for any plant breeding program. Learning the extent and structure of genetic variation in germplasm collections is a crucial step for

the efficient conservation and utilization of biodiversity in cultivated crops, and using

diverse plum resources to broaden the genetic base of worldwide plum cultivars is the

critical objective for plum breeders (Liu et al., 2007; Urrestarazu et al., 2018).

Previous efforts have been made to understand the genetic diversity of plum better.

Zhang and Zhang (1998) took the lead in collecting plum germplasm resources and

evaluating their genetic diversity on the basis of morphological traits and isozyme

polymorphisms, whereas, morphological traits were highly susceptible to

environmental factors, so the estimates of genetic diversity were not precise; while

isozymes had a low degree of polymorphism and hence were not efficient enough for

the characterization of germplasm genetic diversity (Khush, 2002). Overcoming the

above-mentioned problems, DNA-based markers became widely applied in plum

genetic diversity analysis, including random amplified polymorphic DNAs (RAPDs)

(Liu et al., 2006; Ben et al., 2015), simple sequence repeats (SSRs) (Pop et al., 2018;

Zhang et al., 2018; Acuña et al., 2019), inter-simple sequence repeats (ISSRs) (Liu et

al., 2007; Wu et al., 2019). In addition, benefiting from the advances in

next-generation sequencing (NGS) technologies, genotyping by sequencing (GBS),

provides a great wealth of information that makes it possible to identify thousands of

single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs), which, after adequate filtering, allow us to

carry out detailed genetic diversity studies (Elshire et al., 2011; Urrestarazu et al.,

2018; Salazar et al., 2019; Zhebentyayeva et al., 2019).

By conducting DNA-based marker assessments, Chinese plums were generally

classified into two major groups, the southern cultivar group (SCG) and the northern

cultivar group (NCG) (Qiao, 2003; Liu et al., 2005; Wei et al., 2019). The *P. salicina*

system in South China was rather primitive than that in North China basing on a

palynology study, and the spread of *P. salicina* was from the south to the north (Guo,

2006). However, simply cultivar clustering works are inadequate for the integrated

study of genetic diversity of Chinese plum. As described in peach, large scale SNP

data-based diversity analysis boosted the deciphering of the evolution and

domestication of peach germplasm resources (Cao et al., 2014; Yu et al., 2018; Li et

al., 2019).

In the present study, we used for the first time SNP markers generated from high

depth whole-genome resequencing data to elucidate the pattern of genetic diversity,

structuration, and domestication of a diverse *P. salicina* collection. An in-depth

understanding of their genetic relationships could benefit plum germplasm

conservation and utilization, and lead to new cultivar improvement.

2. Materials and Methods

2.1 Plant materials

A diverse collection consisting of 67 *Prunus* spp. accessions, including 65 *P. salicina*

accessions and two *P. simonii* accessions, were selected for the whole-genome

resequencing study (Table S1). All these trees were held at NGRPA located in

Xiongyue county, Liaoning Province, China (40°18′ N, 122°16′ E) at a density of 3.0

× 4.0 m, trained to the open vase system with three or four main branches, and were

maintained under conventional management and pest control operations.

2.2 DNA extraction, library preparation, and sequencing

Genomic DNAs were isolated from the young and healthy leaf samples of the 67

accessions using a modified CTAB protocol (Doyle and Doyle, 1990). The quality

and integrity of the DNAs were examined using a NanoDrop® spectrophotometer

(ND-1000, Thermo Fisher Scientific Inc., USA) followed by electrophoresis on 1%

agarose gels. Quantification of the DNA samples was assessed with Qubit™ (2.0

Fluorometer, Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA, USA).

High molecular weight DNA aliquots with 230/260 and 260/280 ratios ranging

between 1.8 – 2.0 and 1.8 – 2.2, respectively, were then sent to BGI (Shenzhen, China)

for library construction and sequencing. The insert-size of the libraries was 500 bp,

and the length of pair-end reads was 150 bp. All the libraries were sequenced using

the Illumina HiSeq 2500 platform (Illumina, San Diego, CA, USA).

2.3 Reads mapping, SNP calling, and SNP annotation

The qualified paired-end reads of each accession were aligned against the peach

reference genome v2.0 (Verde et al., 2013) using BWA v0.7.12-r1039 with the

parameters mem -t 4 -k 32 –M (Li and Durbin, 2010), and SNPs were identified using

SAMtools v1.4 (Li et al., 2009). Low-quality SNPs were filtered out by minimum

minor allele frequency (mnMAF < 0.01) and missing data per site (MDpS > 10%),

and finally converted into Variant Call Format file (VCF). Gene-based SNP

annotation was performed using the ANNOVAR package v2018-04-16 (Wang et al.,

2010). Based on the reference genome annotation, SNPs were categorized as

occurring in exonic regions (overlapping with a coding exon), intronic regions

(overlapping with an intron), upstream and downstream regions (within a 1 kb region

upstream or downstream from the transcription start site), or intergenic regions.

Additionally, the heterozygosity was calculated using VCFtools v0.1.14 (Danecek et

al., 2011).

2.4 Population structure analysis

TreeBeST v1.9.2 software was used to calculate the distance matrix (Vilella et al.,

2009). RAxML v8.2.12 was used to construct the ML phylogenetic tree, and 1000

bootstrap replicates were used (Stamatakis et al., 2014). The obtained phylogenetic

tree was visualized using MEGA v5.05 (Tamura et al., 2011).

The principal component analysis was performed using the PLINK v1.07 software

with default parameters (Purcell et al., 2007).

We used ADMIXTURE v1.23 to infer the population structure (Alexander et al.,

2009). To identify the best genetic clusters K, cross-validation error was tested for

each K value from 2 to 10. The termination criterion was 1e-6 (stopping when the

log-likelihood increased by less than 1e-6 between iterations).

2.5 Linkage disequilibrium (LD) analysis

Linkage disequilibrium (LD) was calculated using SNPs with MAF greater than 0.05

through PLINK v1.07 software with the following setting: --file --r2 --ld-window

99999 --ld-window-kb 200 --out. LD decay was calculated based on the squared

correlation coefficient (r^2) values between two SNPs and the physical distance

between the two SNPs (Purcell et al., 2007).

2.6 Gene flow analysis

The TreeMix v1.13 software was used to evaluate the gene flow among different

groups with the parameters -se-bootstrap-k 1000 -m, where the number (-m) varied

from one to three (Pickrell and Pritchard, 2012).

2.7 Genetic diversity and differentiation analysis

To evaluate the genetic diversity and differentiation, we used a 100-kb sliding window

with a step size of 10 kb to calculated the number of private alleles (A_P), the observed

heterozygosity (Ho), the expected heterozygosity (He), the nucleotide diversity (π),

the Tajima's D value, Wright's F-statistic (F_{IS}), and the population-differentiation

statistics (Fixation index, F_{ST}) using VCFtools v0.1.14 (Danecek et al., 2011).

3. Results

3.1 Markers development based on whole-genome resequencing

We collected 67 plum accessions representing different geographic and morphological

characteristics (Table S1). The 67 plum accessions were sequenced using the Illumina

HiSeq 2500 platform with a sequence depth higher than 20×; a totally 462.6 Gb clean

data were retained with an average of 6.9 Gb for each accession after filtering of the

low-quality reads. The quality of the sequencing data was high with a Q30 > 85%,

and a GC content slightly fluctuated around 38.0%, and the average mapping rate was

87.49% (Table S1). We mapped the reads to the peach genome due to the relative

phylogenetic relationship, and nearly 87.49% of reads could be mapped. We

constructed SNPs calling based on the unique mapped reads, and a total of 16,600,033

SNPs and 2,107,664 INDELs were identified across the 67 accessions using

SAMtools v1.4 software, and 14,549,234 highly informative and well well-distributed

SNPs were obtained after filtering, which ensured the accuracy and reliability of

subsequent genetic diversity and population structure analyses (Figure 1).

Approximately 43.81% of the SNPs were located in intergenic regions, and 11.88%

were located in coding regions. The non-synonymous to synonymous substitution

ratio (dN/dS) for the SNPs in the coding regions was 15.92. Transitions were found in

a proportion of 59.58% (10315764/16600033), with a transition/transversion ratio

(Ts/Tv ratio) of 1.47 (Figure 1, Table 1).

3.2 Phylogenetic analysis

We constructed a phylogenetic analysis based on the high-quality and high-density

markers across the genome. A phylogenetic tree of the 67 accessions was been built

for better visualization of sample distribution and relationships (Figure 2a). The

accessions could be divided into four main groups revealed by the phylogenetic tree.

The plum cultivars from Sichuan, Guizhou, Yunnan, Guangdong, Guangxi, Zhejiang,

and Fujian Province clustered as the Southern cultivar group (SCG). The Northern

cultivar group (NCG) comprised plum cultivars mainly from Hebei, Henan, Shandong,

Shaanxi Province, and the south part of Liaoning Province. The foreign cultivar group

(FG) included plum cultivars from the USA and Japan. The mixed cultivar group (MG)

consisted of newly selected cultivars from the NGRPA and several cultivars from

SCG and FG. Notably, we could find that there were several cultivars from the south

part of China distributing in the other three groups.

3.3 Population structure analysis

Population genetic structure analysis was performed based on high-quality SNPs.

We used different population K values in this study to calculate the population

structure (Figure 2b). When the K value was equal to 2~4, the NCG exhibited a

consistent genetic constitution with SCG, suggesting the NCG was derived from SCG

and also underwent an environment/human selection to some extent. We could also

find that the population structure of SCG was complicated, mostly when the K value

was higher, suggesting the higher genetic diversity of SCG, which was consistent with

the π value analysis (Figure 3b). For FG, we could find that the population structure

was relatively independent comparing with SCG and others. Thus, we proposed that

the existence of intra-species hybrid in the group and led to a high π value (Figure

3b).

3.4 Principal component analysis

We performed principal component analysis (PCA) on the 67 plum accessions to give

a better understanding of the relationships between different cultivar groups (Figure

2c). Based on the two-component, the SCG exhibited a relatively close relationship

with NCG, which was consistent with the phylogenetic analysis and population

structure analysis. NCG could be considered as a more independent subgroup of SCG

and may be derived from a specific ecotype. Samples from SCG showed some degree

of correlation, suggesting the close relationship between SCG and others.

3.5 Genetic diversity analysis

As shown in Table 2, the expected heterozygosity (He) of the *Prunus* populations

varied between 0.234 and 0.304; the observed heterozygosity (Ho) of the *Prunus*

populations ranged between 0.328 and 0.429; Wright's F-statistic (F_{IS}) of the *Prunus*

populations varied between –0.241 and –0.146; the number of private alleles (A_P) in

the *Prunus* populations varied between 546 and 31,285; the nucleotide diversity (π)

ranged between 0.00358 and 0.00467. The mean nucleotide variation of *P. salicina*

was higher than that of other perennial crops, such as peach ($\pi = 0.0015$) (Verde et al.,

2013), cassava ($\pi = 0.0026$) (Kawuki et al., 2009), and apricot ($\pi = 0.0027$) (Li et al.,

2020), but lower than that of date palm ($\pi = 0.0092$) (Hazzouri et al., 2015). The

Tajima's D values of the four groups were all tested positive (1.002 – 1.497) and

significantly different from zero. Thus, the null hypothesis of neutral evolution could

be rejected. As shown in Figure 3a, the LD decay rate was fastest in the SCG and was

lowest in the FG, suggesting a lower frequency of genetic recombination in the FG, as

they included artificially hybridized cultivars.

3.6 Genetic differentiation analysis

The F_{ST} between the four groups varied between 0.0485 and 0.1303 (Fig. 3). The F_{ST}

value of MG-FG, MG-SCG, and SCG-NCG pairs was relatively lower among all the

group-pairs analyzed, indicating that the genetic differences within populations were

higher than those between populations and the possible genetic exchange between

populations. The F_{ST} value between the NCG and FG groups were the largest among

all the groups analyzed, which may have been due to geographical isolation, low gene

flow between populations, and significant genetic differences.

3.7 Gene flow analysis and inferred evolutionary path

We analyzed the gene flow between the four geographic groups (Figure 4b, 4c).

Allowing one or two migration events (m = 1 or 2), we observed that gene flow

occurred between the SCG and FG accessions, which likely reflected their many

shared genomic components due to hybridization in their domestication and breeding

histories. Considering the geographical locations of SCG and NCG, though these two

ecological groups were close to each other, we found no gene flow between them,

indicating a relatively independent domestication process.

4. Discussion

SNPs have become tremendously important as markers for genetics research in plants

because they have been found to be in high frequency, display a lower mutation rate

compared to SSR-based markers, and they are uniformly distributed across the

genome (Dirlewanger et al., 2002). NGS is a kind of low-cost technologies to

discover large numbers of SNPs for extensive genetic studies, including

within-species diversity analysis, linkage map construction, and genome-wide

association studies (GWAS), which is allowing significant advances in plant genetics

and breeding (Cao et al., 2016; Yu et al., 2018; Li et al., 2019; Pinosio et al., 2020).

The genus *Prunus* has shown conserved intraspecific and intragenic collinearity in the

Rosaceae family, and peach has been considered as a model species for the genus

Prunus regarding multiple genetic types of research (Arús et al., 2012; Carrasco et al.,

2018; Marti et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2020). On these bases, for the first time, we

conducted high-depth (~20×) whole-genome resequencing of 67 plum accessions

using the peach genome sequence as a reference, obtaining an average of 6.9 Gb

high-quality data for each acquisition, which ensured the accurate and comprehensive

population genetic analysis.

Based on the high-quality SNPs, the 67 plum accessions in this study were divided

into four groups, the SCG, NCG, FG, and MG, supported by the phylogenetic tree, the

population structure analysis, and the PCA results, which were partly in accordance

with the previously obtained results through RAPD, ISSR, and SSR marker assessing

(Qiao, 2003; Liu, 2005; Wei et al., 2019). We noticed that several cultivars from the

south part of China distributed in other three groups (Figure 2a), combining with the

fact that the *P. salicina* system in South China was rather primitive than that in North

China basing on a palynology study, we speculated that, for SCG, the genetic

background was relatively broader, the gene exchange was more frequent with other

groups, and the possible origin center of Chinese plum was at the Yangtze River Basin

in South China (Guo, 2006; Hartmann and Neumulle, 2009; Topp et al., 2012; Wei et

al., 2019). For the five newly selected cultivars from the NGRPA in MG, one of their

parents was from the USA ('Blackamber', 'Friar') or Japan ('Akihime') and the other

parent was native to China, and the gene flow between SCG and FG was detected

(Figure 4). Thus, we assumed that those cultivars in MG were genetically related. As

mentioned in other studies, most of the Chinese plum cultivars from Japan and the

improved Chinese plum hybrids from the USA were found distributed across Chinese

indigenous plum group through dendrogram analysis (Liu et al., 2006; Liu et al., 2007;

Wei et al., 2019), which was according with the *P. salicina*-predominant genetic

components of improved Chinese plum hybrids (Faust and Suranyi, 1999), and in

agreement with the fact that China-originated plum cultivars were initially introduced

to Japan, and then imported to the USA in 1870 from Japan by Luther Burbank

(Hartmann and Neumulle, 2009).

Southwest China was speculated as a primitive domestication center of plum as

there were wild plum populations discovered in Yunnan, Sichuan, and Guizhou

Province (Wei et al., 2019). Suggesting by the high Shannon index of diversity, the

high value of average sufficient allele, and the high expected heterozygosity, the

Chinese plums cultivated in southwest China were tested with high genetic diversity

using ISSR and SSR markers (Chen et al., 2014; Wei et al., 2019). Additionally, by

analyzing the phenotyping variation of 405 plum accessions distributed in different

geographical regions in China, the fruit weight of cultivars in South China exhibited

the most significant coefficient of variation (Yu et al., 2011). The π, Ho, and He of the

SCG calculated with SNPs in our study were higher than those of the NCG,

corresponding with the higher genetic diversity of the SCG; these genetic diversity

indices of the SCG were lower than that of the FG and MG, presumably due to the

artificial hybridized cultivars in the FG and MG.

Generally, the genetic differentiation between populations is considered moderate

when the F_{ST} value is higher than 0.05 and is considered highly differentiated when

the F_{ST} value is higher than 0.15 (Xu, 2009). In our study, the NCG-FG pair possessed

the highest F_{ST} value, following by the SCG-FG couple. In contrast, the F_{ST} value of

the MG-FG was significantly lower as there were five newly selected plum cultivars

by NGRPA in the MG with foreign lineage from the FG. Human intervention via the

artificial selection of favorable phenotypic traits to enhance production and improve

desirable agronomic traits can both reduce the levels of genetic variability and skew

allele frequencies (Tajima, 1989).

5. Conclusions

In the current study, using high-quality SNPs generated from high-depth

whole-genome resequencing of 67 *Prunus* accessions, we provided detailed genetic

variation features of plum cultivars, and preliminarily dissect their genetic diversity

and population structure, laying a foundation for breeders to use diverse germplasm

and allelic variants towards developing improved plum varieties.

Acknowledgments

This work was supported by National Natural Science Foundation of China (31401826), the Program of Conservation and Utilization of Crop Germplasm Resources (2018NWB003) and National Crop Germplasm Resources Platform of China (NICGR2018-056).

Data availability

All of the raw reads of the plum accessions generated in this study have been deposited in the public database of National Center of Biotechnology Information under PRJNA659814.

Authors' contributions

ZQP and LWS conceived and designed the experiments. SF and WX performed the experiments. WX, SF and ZQP analyzed the data and wrote the paper. LN, ZYP, XM, MXX and ZYJ collected samples and managed the materials. LWS revised the manuscript. All authors have read and approved the final manuscript.

Conflict of interest

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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Figure 1. The statistics of markers generated from the whole-genome resequencing of

the 67 plum accessions. a) The chromosome-scale SNP distribution; b) The

distribution of transition/transversion ratio (Ts/Tv ratio); c) The counts of different

types of transitions and transversions; d) The counts of genome-wide insertions and

deletions.

Figure 2. The population structure of the 67 plum accessions. a) Neighboring-joining

phylogenetic tree constructed using SNPs at fourfold degenerate site. Each group was

color coded; b) Bayesian model-based clustering of the 67 plum accessions with the

number of ancestry kinship (*K*) from 2 to 10; c) Principle Component Analysis (PCA)

of the 67 plum accessions. FG, the foreign cultivar group; MG, the mixed cultivar

group; SCG, the southern cultivar group; NCG, the northern cultivar group.

Figure 3. The genetic diversity of different groups. a) The decay of linkage

disequilibrium (LD) measured as the squared correlation coefficient (r^2) by pairwise

physical distance; b) The nucleotide diversity (π) of different groups; c) The genetic

differentiation analysis between groups. The values between pairs indicate population

divergence (F_{ST}). FG, the foreign cultivar group; MG, the mixed cultivar group; SCG,

the southern cultivar group; NCG, the northern cultivar group.

Figure 4. The inferred evolutionary path (a) and gene flow analysis between

populations as inferred by TreeMix using a model with one (b) and two (c) admixture

events. Admixtures are colored according to their weight. FG, the foreign cultivar

group; MG, the mixed cultivar group; SCG, the southern cultivar group; NCG, the

northern cultivar group.

Table 1. Statistics of variations across different chromosomes

Categories	Numbers	Ratio
Raw SNPs	16,600,033	88.73%
InDels	2,107,664	11.27%
Filtered SNPs	14,549,234	87.65%
Intergenic regions SNPs	7,272,007	43.81%
Coding regions SNPs	1,971,748	11.88%
Transition	10,315,764	59.58%
Transversion	6,999,126	40.42%
Transition/Transversion	--	147.00%
Non-synonymous SNPs	1,855,201	94.09%
Synonymous SNPs	116,547	5.91%

513 **Table 2**.The statistical values of genetic diversity within different populations.

Groups	Private allele number (Ap)	Observed heterozygosity (Ho)	Expected heterozygosity (He)	Nucleotide diversity (π)	Wright's F-statistic (F_{IS})	Tajima's D
FG	31,285	0.4290	0.3036	0.00467	-0.2411	1.4974
MG	30,112	0.3658	0.2846	0.00433	-0.1560	1.0094
SCG	27,287	0.3365	0.2606	0.00395	-0.1460	1.0022
NCG	546	0.3280	0.2336	0.00358	-0.1829	1.3211

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