Genetic diversity analysis of Chinese plum (*Prunus salicina* L.) based on whole-genome resequencing

Xiao Wei[1,#], Fei Shen[2,#], Qiuping Zhang[1,*], Ning Liu[1], Yuping Zhang[1], Ming Xu[1],

Shuo Liu[1], Yujun Zhang[1], Xiaoxue Ma[1], Weisheng Liu[1,*]

1 *Liaoning Institute of Pomology, Yingkou 115009*

2 *Beijing Agro-biotechnology Research Center, Beijing Academy of Agriculture and*

Forestry Sciences, Beijing 100193

[#] Authors that contributed equally to this work.

[*] Corresponding author: Qiuping Zhang (e-mail: lbzhangqiuping2@163.com) and

Weisheng Liu (e-mail: wsliulaas@163.com)

Abstract

14

15 Chinese plum (*Prunus salicina* L.), also known as Japanese plum, is gaining

16 importance due to their extensive genetic diversity and nutritional attributes beneficial

17 for human health. Single-nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) are the most abundant

18 form of genomic polymorphisms and are widely used in population genetics research.

19 Here, we construed high-density haplotype map by whole-genome resequencing of 67

20 *Prunus* accessions with a depth of ~$20\times$ to evaluate the genome-level diversity and

21 population structure. The phylogenetic analysis, the principal component analysis, and

22 the population structure profiling, indicated that the 67 plum accessions could be

23 classified into four groups corresponding to their origin location, the southern cultivar

24 group (SCG), the northern cultivar group (NCG), the foreign cultivar group (FG), and

25 the mixed cultivar group (MG). Some cultivars from South China were clustered with

26 the other three groups. The genetic diversity indices including the private allele

27 number, the observed heterozygosity, the expected heterozygosity, and the nucleotide

28 diversity of the SCG were higher than those of the NCG. The gene flow from the

29 SCG to the FG was detected as well. We concluded that the origin center of Chinese

30 plum was at the Yangtze River Basin in South China. This study provided genetic

31 variation features and population structure of Chinese plum cultivars, laying a

32 foundation for breeders to use diverse germplasm and allelic variants for improving

33 Chinese plum varieties.

34 **Keywords:** *Prunus salicina* Lindl.; whole-genome resequencing; population structure;

35 genetic introgression

1. Introduction

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 [1]. 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 [2].

Chinese plum possible originates from the Yangtze River Basin, and now there are abundant plum germplasm resources in China [3]. 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 [4,5]. Yu et al. [6] 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

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

59   critical objective for plum breeders [2,7]. Previous efforts have been made to

60   understand the genetic diversity of plum better. Zhang and Zhang [8] took the lead in

61   collecting plum germplasm resources and evaluating their genetic diversity on the

62   basis of morphological traits and isozyme polymorphisms, whereas, morphological

63   traits were highly susceptible to environmental factors, so the estimates of genetic

64   diversity were not precise; while isozymes had a low degree of polymorphism and

65   hence were not efficient enough for the characterization of germplasm genetic

66   diversity [9]. Overcoming the above-mentioned problems, DNA-based markers

67   became widely applied in plum genetic diversity analysis, including random amplified

68   polymorphic DNAs (RAPDs) [5,10], simple sequence repeats (SSRs) [11-13],

69   inter-simple sequence repeats (ISSRs) [2,14]. In addition, benefiting from the

70   advances in next-generation sequencing (NGS) technologies, genotyping by

71   sequencing (GBS), provides a great wealth of information that makes it possible to

72   identify thousands of single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs), which, after adequate

73   filtering, allow us to carry out detailed genetic diversity studies [7,15-17].

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

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

76   cultivar group (NCG) [18-20]. The *P. salicina* system in South China was rather

77   primitive than that in North China basing on a palynology study, and the spread of *P.*

78   *salicina* was from the south to the north [21]. However, simply cultivar clustering

79   works are inadequate for the integrated study of genetic diversity of Chinese plum. As

80　described in peach, large scale SNP data-based diversity analysis boosted the

81　deciphering of the evolution and domestication of peach germplasm resources

82　[22,23].

83　In the present study, we used SNP markers generated from high depth whole-genome

84　resequencing data (an average depth of ~20×) for the first time to elucidate the

85　pattern of genetic diversity, population structure, and domestication of a diverse *P.*

86　*salicina* collection. An in-depth understanding of their genetic relationships could

87　benefit plum germplasm conservation and utilization, and lead to new cultivar

88　improvement.

89

90　**2. Results**

91　*2.1 Markers development based on whole-genome resequencing*

92　We collected 67 plum accessions representing different geographic and morphological

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

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

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

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

97　and a GC content slightly fluctuated around 38.0%. The mapping rate to the peach

98　genome was range from 85.73% to 88.57%, with a average of 87.49% (Table S1). We

99　called SNPs with the unique mapped reads, and a total of 16,600,033 SNPs and

100　2,107,664 INDELs were identified across the 67 accessions using SAMtools v1.4

101　software. After filtering out these in low quality, we obtained 14,549,234 SNPs which

102   could ensure the accuracy and reliability of subsequent genetic diversity and

103   population structure analyses (Figure 1). About 43.81% of the SNPs were located in

104   intergenic regions, and 11.88% were in coding regions. The non-synonymous to

105   synonymous substitution ratio (dN/dS) for the SNPs in the coding regions was 15.92.

106   Transitions were found in a proportion of 59.58% (10315764/16600033), with a

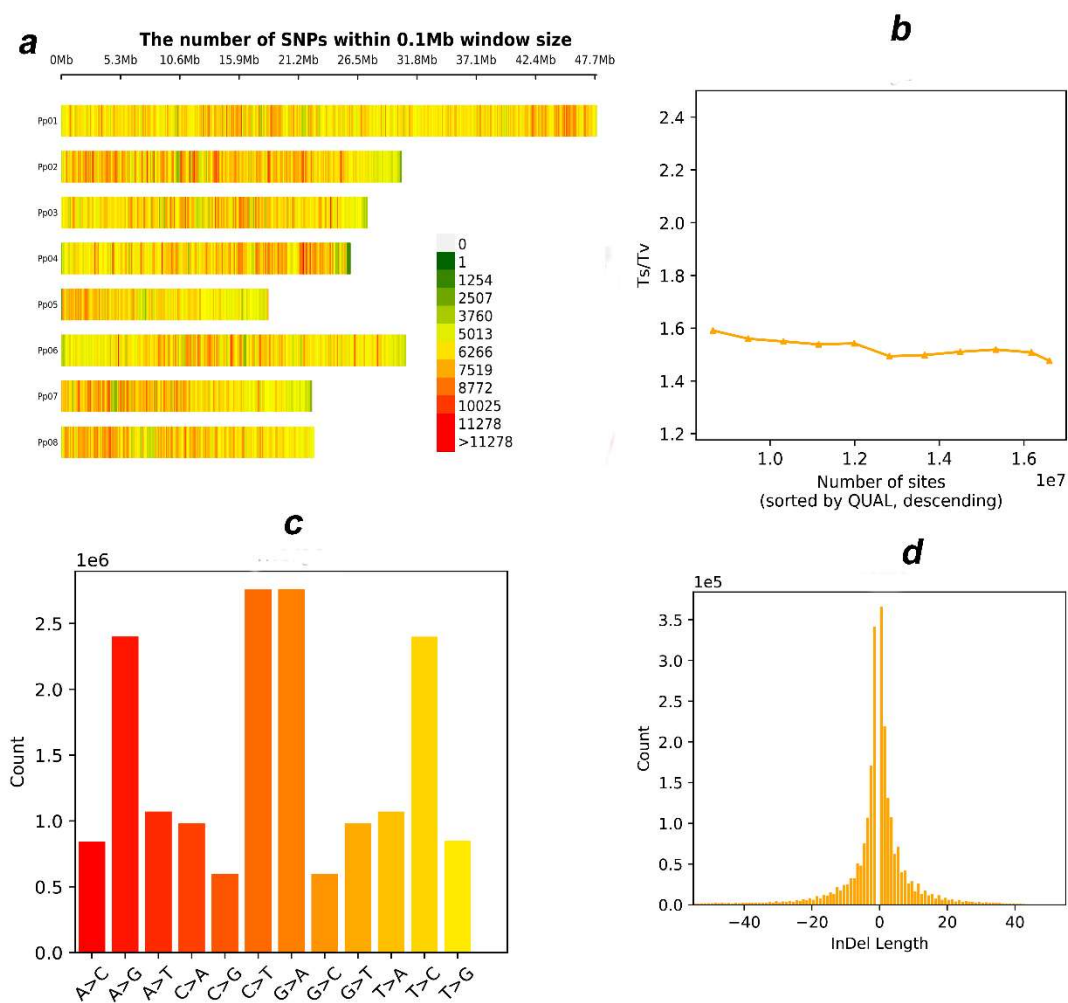107   transition/transversion ratio (Ts/Tv ratio) of 1.47 (Figure 1, Table 1).

108

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

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

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

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

113   deletions.

114   **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%

115   *2.2 Phylogenetic analysis*

116   To exploit the relationship among the Chinese plum, a Neighboring-joining

117   phylogenetic tree of the 67 accessions was constructed with all SNPs (Figure 2a). The

118   phylogenetic tree classified the accessions into four main groups which are

119   corresponding to their origin location: (1) the southern cultivar group (SCG) was

120   comprised of the plum cultivars from Sichuan, Guizhou, Yunnan, Guangdong,

121   Guangxi, Zhejiang, and Fujian Province; (2) the northern cultivar group (NCG)

122   comprised of plum cultivars mainly from Hebei, Henan, Shandong, Shaanxi Province,

123   and the south part of Liaoning Province; (3) the foreign cultivar group (FG) included

124   plum cultivars from the USA and Japan; and (4) the mixed cultivar group (MG)

125   consisted of newly bred cultivars from the NGRPA and several cultivars originated

126   SCG and FG. Notably, we fould 'Saozouli' and 'Shuili' cultivars collected from south

127   China were clustered with NCG, 'Zaohuangli' and 'Jinshali' with FG, and 'Wanshu

128   huanai', 'Huahongli' and 'Abazhoumeiguili' with MG, suggesting that SCG is more
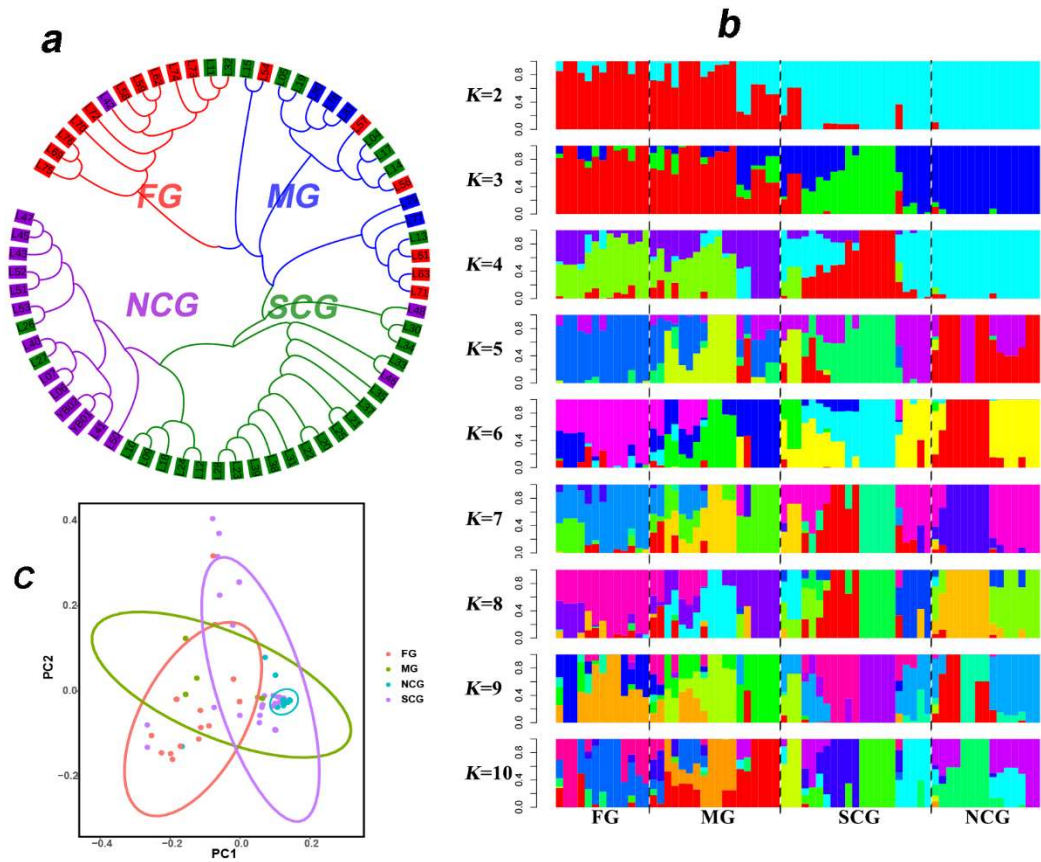
129   diverse than any other group.

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.

2.3 Population structure analysis

Population genetic structure analysis was performed based on high-quality SNPs. We employed 5-fold cross validation to inference the number of ancestor population, K (Figure 2b). The NCG was divergent from SCG when the K >2, suggesting the

141 NCG was derived from SCG. We observed that SCG includes individuals with similar

142 or different genetic structure to these from other groups like NCG and FG, further

143 indicating that it has higher diversity than others. The observation was further

144 supported by genetic diversity analysis with π (Figure 3b). Thus, other groups

145 including FG and NCG potentially associated with SCG during plum evolution.
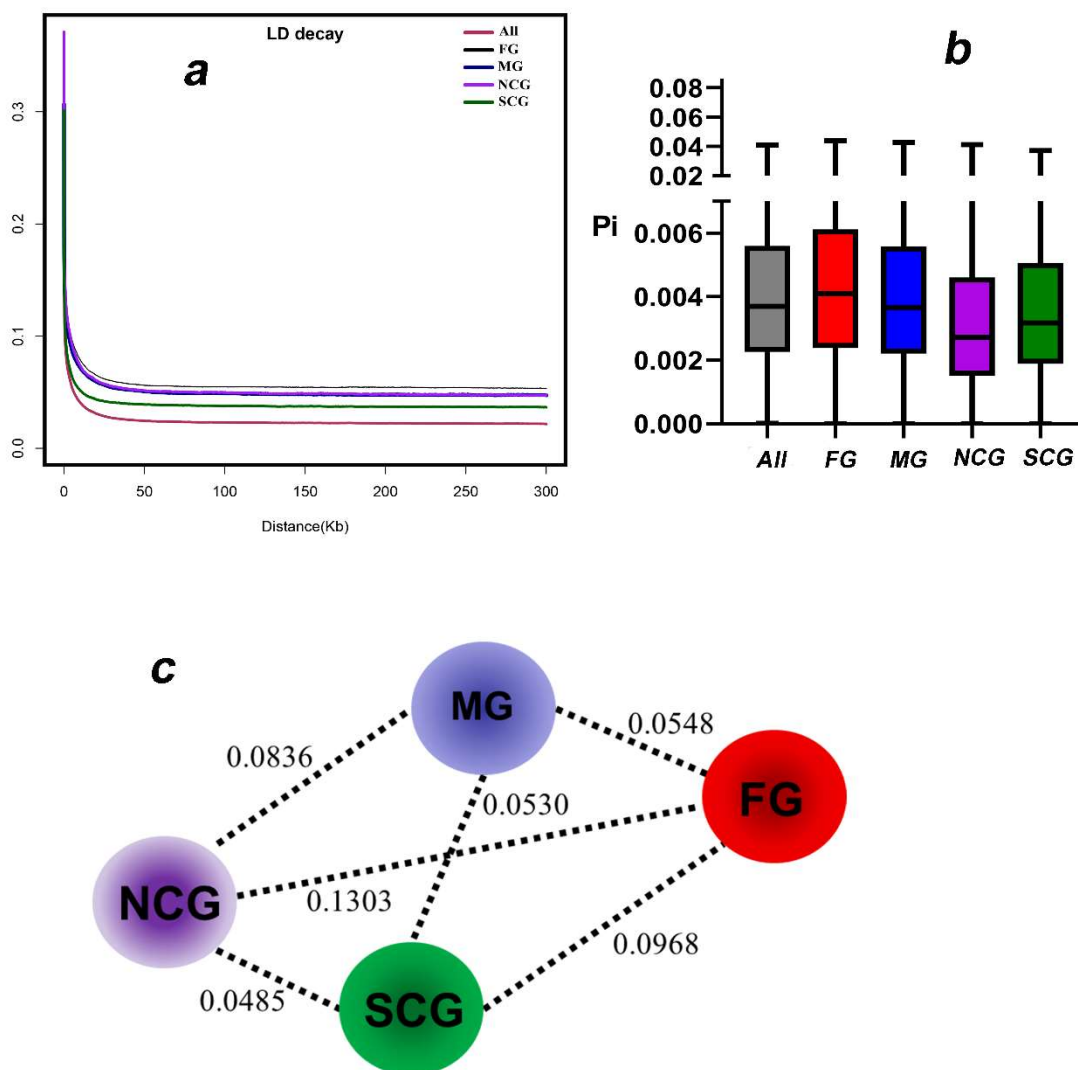

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147 **Figure 3**. The genetic diversity of different groups. a) The decay of linkage

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

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

150 differentiation analysis between groups. The values between pairs indicate population

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

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

153   *2.4 Principal component analysis*

154   To further confirm the relationship among the cultivars, we performed principal

155   component analysis (PCA) toward the 67 plum accessions (Figure 2c). Based on the

156   principal component plot with first two principal components, the NCG exhibited a

157   relatively close relationship with SCG, which was consistent with the phylogenetic

158   tree and population structure analysis. We deduced that the NCG could be considered

159   as a more independent subgroup of SCG and may be derived from a specific ecotype.

160   Furthermore, samples from SCG showed some degree of correlation, suggesting the

161   close relationship between SCG and others. The results further confirm that other

162   groups potentially originate from SCG.

163   *2.5 Genetic diversity analysis*

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

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

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

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

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

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

170   was higher than that of other perennial crops, such as peach ($\pi = 0.0015$) [24], cassava

171   ($\pi = 0.0026$) [25], and apricot ($\pi = 0.0027$) [26], but lower than that of date palm ($\pi =$

172   0.0092) [27]. The Tajima's D values of the four groups were all tested positive (1.002

173 – 1.497) and significantly different from zero. Thus, the null hypothesis of neutral

174 evolution could be rejected. As shown in Figure 3a, the LD decay rate was fastest in

175 the SCG and was lowest in the FG, suggesting a lower frequency of genetic

176 recombination in the FG, as they included artificially hybridized cultivars.

177 **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

178 *2.6 Genetic differentiation analysis*

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

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

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

182 higher than those between populations and the possible genetic exchange between

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

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

185 flow between populations, and significant genetic differences.

186 *2.7 Gene flow analysis and inferred evolutionary path*

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

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

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

190 shared genomic components due to hybridization in their domestication and breeding

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

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

193   indicating a relatively independent domestication process.
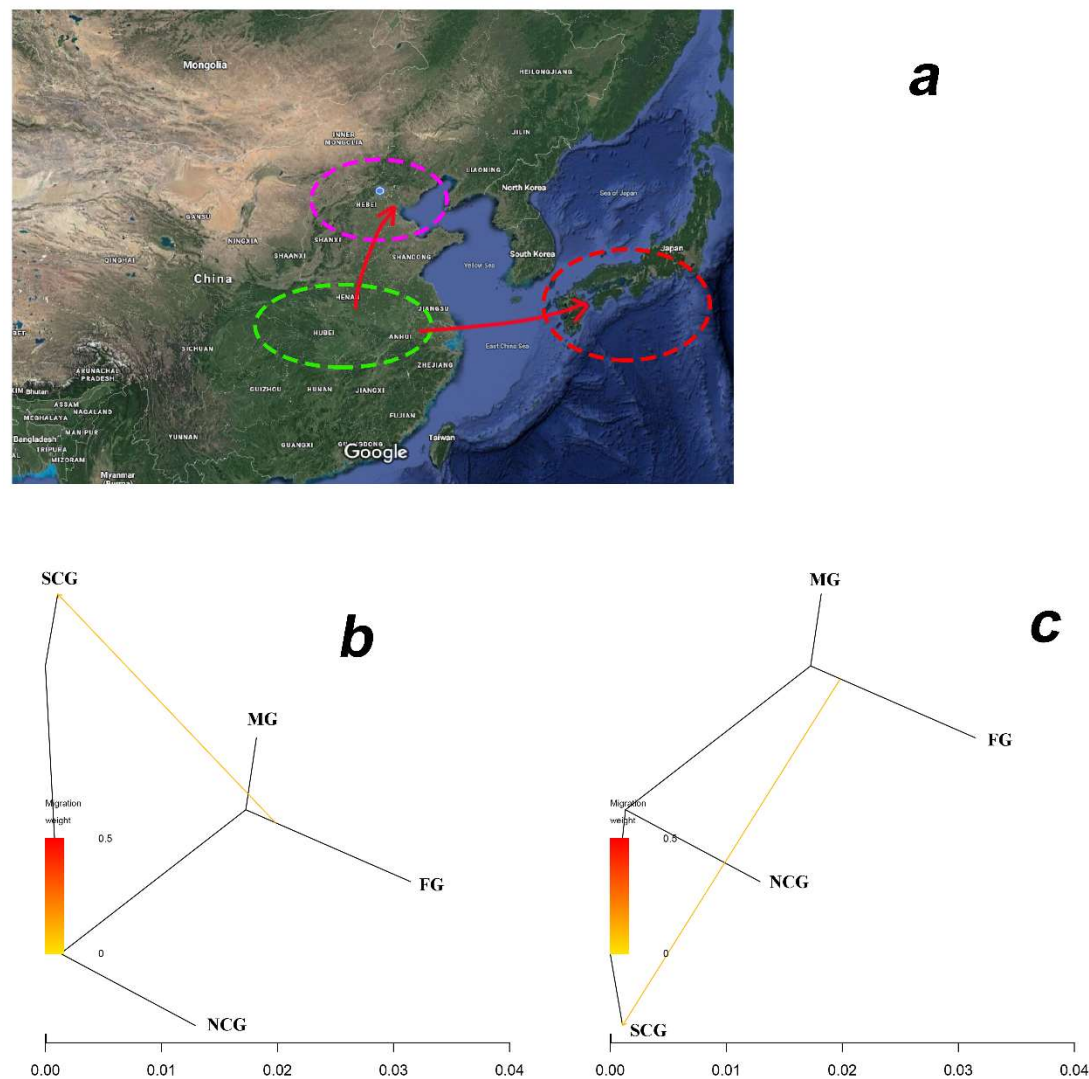

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Figure 4. The inferred evolutionary path (a) and gene flow analysis between populations as inferred by TreeMix using a model with one (b) and two (c) admixture events. Admixtures are colored according to their weight. FG, the foreign cultivar group; MG, the mixed cultivar group; SCG, the southern cultivar group; NCG, the northern cultivar group.

200

3. Discussion

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

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

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

205 genome [28]. NGS is a kind of low-cost technologies to discover large numbers of

206 SNPs for extensive genetic studies, including within-species diversity analysis,

207 linkage map construction, and genome-wide association studies (GWAS), which is

208 allowing significant advances in plant genetics and breeding [6,22,23,29]. The genus

209 *Prunus* has shown conserved intraspecific and intragenic collinearity in the *Rosaceae*

210 family, and peach has been considered as a model species for the genus *Prunus*

211 regarding multiple genetic types of research [30-33]. On these bases, for the first time,

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

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

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

215 population genetic analysis.

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

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

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

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

220 [18-20]. We noticed that several cultivars from the south part of China distributed in

221 other three groups (Figure 2a), combining with the fact that the *P. salicina* system in

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

223 study, we speculated that, for SCG, the genetic background was relatively broader, the

224   gene exchange was more frequent with other groups, and the possible origin center of

225   Chinese plum was at the Yangtze River Basin in South China [3,20,21,34]. For the

226   five newly bred cultivars from the NGRPA in MG, one of their parents was from the

227   USA ('Blackamber', 'Friar') or Japan ('Akihime') and the other parent was native to

228   China, and the gene flow between SCG and FG was detected (Figure 4). Thus, we

229   assumed that those cultivars in MG were genetically related. As mentioned in other

230   studies, most of the Chinese plum cultivars from Japan and the improved Chinese

231   plum hybrids from the USA were found distributed across Chinese indigenous plum

232   group through dendrogram analysis [2,5,20], which was according with the *P.*

233   *salicina*-predominant genetic components of improved Chinese plum hybrids [35],

234   and in agreement with the fact that China-originated plum cultivars were initially

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

236   Burbank [3].

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

238   were wild plum populations discovered in Yunnan, Sichuan, and Guizhou Province

239   [20]. Suggesting by the high Shannon index of diversity, the high value of average

240   sufficient allele, and the high expected heterozygosity, the Chinese plums cultivated in

241   southwest China were tested with high genetic diversity using SSR markers [20].

242   Additionally, by analyzing the phenotyping variation of 405 plum accessions

243   distributed in different geographical regions in China, the fruit weight of cultivars in

244   South China exhibited the most significant coefficient of variation [6]. The π, Ho, and

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

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

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

248   artificial hybridized cultivars in the FG and MG.

249   Generally, the genetic differentiation between populations is considered moderate

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

251   the F_{ST} value is higher than 0.15 [36]. In our study, the NCG-FG pair possessed the

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

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

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

255   artificial selection of favorable phenotypic traits to enhance production and improve

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

257   allele frequencies [37].

258

259   **4. Materials and Methods**

260   *4.1 Plant materials*

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

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

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

264   Xiongyue county, Liaoning Province, China (40°18′ N, 122°16′ E) in a planting

265   density of 3.0 × 4.0 m, trained to the open vase system with three or four main

266   branches, and maintained under conventional management and pest control

267   operations.

268   *4.2 DNA extraction, library preparation, and sequencing*

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

270   accessions using a modified CTAB protocol [38]. The quality and integrity of the

271   DNAs were examined using a NanoDrop® spectrophotometer (ND-1000, Thermo

272   Fisher Scientific Inc., USA) followed by electrophoresis on 1% agarose gels.

273   Quantification of the DNA samples was assessed with Qubit™ (2.0 Fluorometer,

274   Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA, USA).

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

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

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

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

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

280   *4.3 Reads mapping, SNP calling, and SNP annotation*

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

282   reference genome v2.0 [24] using BWA v0.7.12-r1039 with the parameters mem -t 4

283   -k 32 –M [39], and SNPs were identified using SAMtools v1.4 [40]. Low-quality

284   SNPs were filtered out by minimum minor allele frequency (mnMAF < 0.01) and

285   missing data per site (MDpS > 10%), and finally converted into Variant Call Format

286   file (VCF). Gene-based SNP annotation was performed using the ANNOVAR

287   package v2018-04-16 [41]. Based on the reference genome annotation, SNPs were

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

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

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

291   Additionally, the heterozygosity was calculated using VCFtools v0.1.14 [42].

292   *4.4 Population structure analysis*

293   TreeBeST v1.9.2 software was used to calculate the distance matrix [43]. RAxML

294   v8.2.12 was used to construct the ML phylogenetic tree, and 1000 bootstrap replicates

295   were used [44]. The obtained phylogenetic tree was visualized using MEGA v5.05

296   [45].

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

298   with default parameters [46].

299   We used ADMIXTURE v1.23 to infer the population structure [47]. To identify the

300   best genetic clusters K, cross-validation error was tested for each K value from 2 to 10.

301   The termination criterion was 1e-6 (stopping when the log-likelihood increased by

302   less than 1e-6 between iterations).

303   *4.5 Linkage disequilibrium (LD) analysis*

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

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

306   99999 --ld-window-kb 200 --out. LD decay was calculated based on the squared

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

308   between the two SNPs [46].

309   *4.6 Gene flow analysis*

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

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

312   from one to three [48].

313   *4.7 Genetic diversity and differentiation analysis*

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

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

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

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

318   statistics (Fixation index, F_{ST}) using VCFtools v0.1.14 [42].

319

320   **5. Conclusions**

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

322   whole-genome resequencing of 67 *Prunus* accessions, we concluded that the origin

323   center of Chinese plum was at the Yangtze River Basin in South China. This study

324   also provided genetic variation features of plum cultivars and dissected their genetic

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

326   germplasm and allelic variants towards developing improved Chinese plum varieties.

327

328   **Data availability:** All of the raw reads of the plum accessions generated in this study

329   have been deposited in the public database of National Center of Biotechnology

330   Information under PRJNA659814.

331   **Supplementary Materials**: Supplementary material can be found at http://www.

332   **Authors' contributions:** ZQP and LWS conceived and designed the experiments.

333   WX and SF performed the experiments. WX, SF and ZQP analyzed the data and

334 wrote the paper. LN, ZYP, XM, LS, MXX and ZYJ collected samples and managed

335 the materials. LWS revised the manuscript. All authors have read and approved the

336 final manuscript.

341 **Conflict of interest:** The authors declare no conflict of interest.

342

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