

Genetic diversity and population structure analyses in the Alpine plum (Prunus brigantina Vill.) confirm its affiliation to the Armeniaca section

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1 Genetic diversity and population structure analyses in the Alpine plum

2 (*Prunus brigantina* Vill.) confirm its affiliation to the Armeniaca section

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26 Abstract

27 In-depth characterization of the genetic diversity and population structure of wild relatives 28 of crops is of paramount importance for genetic improvement and biodiversity 29 conservation, and is particularly crucial when the wild relatives of crops are endangered. 30 In this study, we therefore sampled the Alpine plum (Briançon apricot) Prunus brigantina Vill. across its natural distribution in the French Alps, where its populations are severely 31 32 fragmented and its population size strongly impacted by humans. We analysed 71 wild P. 33 brigantina samples with 34 nuclear markers and studied their genetic diversity and 34 population structure, with the aim to inform in situ conservation measures and build a core collection for long-term ex-situ conservation. We also examined the genetic relationships 35 of *P. brigantina* with other species in the Prunophora subgenus, encompassing the Prunus 36 (Eurasian plums), Prunocerasus (North-American plums) and Armeniaca (apricots) 37 38 sections, to check its current taxonomy. We detected a moderate genetic diversity in P. brigantina and a Bayesian model-based clustering approach revealed the existence of 39 40 three genetically differentiated clusters, endemic to three geographical regions in the Alps, 41 which will be important for in situ conservation measures. Based on genetic diversity and 42 population structure analyses, a subset of 36 accessions were selected for ex-situ conservation in a core collection that encompasses the whole detected *P. brigantina* allelic 43 44 diversity. Using a dataset of cultivated apricots and wild cherry plums (P. cerasifera) genotyped with the same markers, we detected gene flow neither with European P. 45 46 armeniaca cultivars nor with diploid plums. In contrast with previous studies, dendrograms 47 and networks placed *P. brigantina* closer to Armeniaca species than to Prunus species. Our results thus confirm the classification of *P. brigantina* within the Armeniaca section; it 48 49 also illustrates the importance of the sampling size and design in phylogenetic studies.

50

51 **Keywords**: Apricot, Prunus, classification, genetic structure, core collection, taxonomy

53 Introduction

54 Many wild crop relatives are endangered, because of fragmented and reduced habitats as well as crop-to-wild gene flow (Cornille et al. 2013b). In order to protect the biodiversity 55 of wild crop relatives, we need to understand their population subdivision and genetic 56 diversity distribution (Allendorf et al. 2012; Fahrig 2003). Studying the genetic diversity of 57 58 crop-related species is not only important for biodiversity conservation but also for the 59 sustainable use of valuable genetic resources through the set-up of ex-situ germplasm collections (Li and Pritchard 2009). Developing such collections requires obtaining a 60 61 sufficient number of individuals to be representative of the species diversity (Frankel and Brown 1983: Glaszmann et al. 2010: Govindarai et al. 2014). Core collections of woody 62 perennial species have the additional advantages of being propagated vegetatively and 63 maintained for decades, as clonemates, in field collections (Escribano et al. 2008). 64

65 Within the genus Prunus L. (stone fruit species), the subgenus Prunus (also called Prunophora Neck. to avoid confusion with the Prunus section and the *Prunus* genus) 66 67 includes three sections: the Eurasian and North American plums (sections Prunus and 68 Prunocerasus Koehne, respectively) and apricots (section Armeniaca (Mill.) K. Koch), 69 which are all native from the Northern hemisphere (Rehder 1940) (Figure 1). It was shown 70 that an ancient radiation of the Prunus genus through the Old and New Worlds and 71 independent dispersal events across the North-American and Eurasian continents gave 72 rise to, on one side, the Prunocerasus species, and on the other side, species of the 73 Prunus and Armeniaca sections (Chin et al. 2014). Following the Rehder's classification, 74 within the Prunophora subgenus the section Armeniaca comprises only diploid species, in which six species are recognized, based on morphological features: P. armeniaca L. 75 (common apricot), P. sibirica L. (wild apricot in Northeastern Asia), P. mandshurica 76 Maxim. (Northeast China and Eastern Russia), P. mume (Sieb.) Sieb. & Zucc. (South 77 78 China and Japan), P. holosericeae Batal (South-West China) and P. brigantina Vill. 79 (Figure 1). The first five species all originate from Asia, ranging from Central to North-East Asia, while *P. brigantina* (synonym *P. brigantiaca*, http://www.theplantlist.org) is native 80 from Europe (Villars 1786). This species still grows in wild, patchy thickets in the Alps 81 82 along the border between France and Italy in the Northern Mediterranean area, where it is considered either as an apricot or a plum species (Hagen et al. 2002; Pignatti 1982). 83

Prunus brigantina, alternatively called the Briançon apricot or the Alpine plum, was
 first reported in the French book <*Histoire des Plants de Dauphiné*> (Villars 1786). It grows
 in arid places in shrub and sparse thickets in the Alps, above 1,400 m altitude. Like other
 Prunus species, *P. brigantina* is hermaphrodite and is pollinated by insects, it flowers in

May and its fruits ripen from August to September (Noble et al. 2015; Tison and De 88 89 Foucault 2014). In natural stands, P. brigantina trees grow 2 to 5 meters high with non-90 spiny branches and have heart leaves with double-serrated teeth (Figure 2a). The full-91 fledged drupe from *P. brigantina* has a small size and appears glabrous with yellowish fruit skin (Figure 2a). In the Alps, *P. brigantina* fruits are collected by locals to make iam 92 93 (Couplan 2009), and their seeds used to be processed for oil production instead of olive 94 or almond (Dupouy 1959). It is locally called 'Marmottier' or 'Afatoulier' and is recognized as an endemic fruit tree in Europe. Its small and fragmented distribution suggests that it 95 96 may be threatened. However, there is currently insufficient information available to 97 evaluate the current genetic diversity of *P. brigantina* or its population subdivision, which 98 could contribute to determine the potential threats to this species or its conservation status 99 (IUCN Red List) (Branca and Donnini 2011), and to develop and inform conservation 100 programs.

101 Previous phylogenetic studies questioned the Rehder's classification of P. 102 brigantina in the Armeniaca section (Hagen et al. 2002; Reales et al. 2010; Takeda et al. 103 1998; Zhebentyayeva et al. 2019). However, only one or two *P. brigantina* samples were 104 analysed, that had not been collected in situ but instead obtained from germplasm 105 repositories such as the Kew Royal Botanical Garden (UK), the Czech national genetic 106 resources of Lednice, the French Centre of genetic resources at INRAE-Montfavet or the Japanese Chivoda experimental station. Because of the ability of *P. brigantina* to be 107 propagated by grafting and its interfertility with species from both sections Prunus and 108 Armeniaca, the analyzed trees could be clonemates or hybrids, and their origin was 109 110 unknown. Moreover, sampling only one or two individuals per species is known to lower 111 the accuracy of phylogenetic analyses (Heled and Drummond 2010; Wiens and Servedio 112 1997). The genetic relationships between *P. brigantina* and other apricot species in the 113 section Armeniaca therefore remain unclear.

114 To provide useful guidelines for *P. brigantina* conservation, a critical first task is first assessing its genetic diversity distribution and population subdivision, in order to assess 115 116 whether local specificities need to be conserved. A second important aspect is to clarify the taxonomic position of the different populations of *P. brigantina*. Indeed, differentiated 117 118 populations assigned to a given Latin species may actually represent different species 119 placed far apart in phylogeny, as found recently for *P. sibirica* (Liu et al. 2019). However, 120 there is currently no robust data on the genetic diversity or population structure of P. brigantina. In the current study, we therefore conducted extensive sampling of P. 121 122 brigantina in its natural habitat and genotyped samples using 34 nuclear markers (Liu et al. 2019). We assessed the genetic diversity of *P. brigantina* and its population structure, 123

as well as its relationship with Eurasian Armeniaca and Prunus species. We questioned 124 the affiliation of *P. brigantina* to either the Armeniaca or Prunus sections. For this purpose, 125 126 we performed a population genetic analysis using datasets with the main members of the 127 Armeniaca and Prunus sections and five outgroup species from the North-American 128 section Prunocerasus. Based on our molecular data, we identified a collection of unique 129 genotypes and selected the best subset for building a *P. brigantina* core collection, 130 maximizing allelic diversity, which will be very useful for further P. brigantina 131 characterization and for stone fruit crop improvement. In contrast to previous phylogenetic studies, our population trees and networks further confirmed that P. brigantina is closer to 132 133 apricot species than to plum species.

134

135 Materials and Methods

136 In situ P. brigantina sampling

A total of 71 wild *P. brigantina* trees were collected in 2017 from three sampling sites, in
southeast France, across the Alps (Figure 2a and Table S1). Young leaves and mature
fruits from each tree were collected for DNA extraction and seedling growth, respectively.
At least one seedling from each sampled tree was kept for possible inclusion in a core
collection.

Representatives of other species of the Armeniaca section (*P. armeniaca*, *P. mume*, *P. sibirica*, *P. mandshurica*), including two *P. brigantina* accessions maintained by the Centre of genetic resources at INRA-Montfavet but with unknown origin, were previously described and genotyped with the same set of molecular markers (Liu et al. 2019).

146

147 *In situ* and *ex situ* sampling of representatives of Prunus and Prunocerasus species

Part of the plum and plum-related material analysed in this study was kindly provided by 148 149 the North-American national repository (ARS-USDA, Davis, California, USA), the 150 Bourran's collection of Prunus (Prunus Genetic Resources Centre or Prunus GRC, 151 France) or was collected in situ, between 2008 and 2019, in Azerbaijan (Caucasia), 152 Kazakhstan and Kyrgyzstan (Central Asia) (Table S1b). One *P. cerasifera* sample (X29) 153 was collected in situ in South-West of France, along the Garonne river (Le Tourne-154 Langoiran) and another one in the French Alps (FR_070) (Table S1b). In total, 82 diploid 155 samples were genotyped in the current study, genotypes for polyploids being difficult to 156 analyse. The diploid samples included representatives from P. cerasifera (N=66) (or

'cherry plum', alternatively called 'myrobolan' in Europe, *P. divaricata* Ledeb. in Caucasia 157 and P. sogdiana in Central Asia) and other species from the Prunophora subgenus: P. 158 mexicana (N=1), P. munsoniana (N=1, also called Prunus rivularis), P. maritima (N=1), P. 159 160 americana (N=1) and P. subcordata (N=1). P. salicina (Japanese plum) samples (N=10) 161 were composed of five cultivated accessions which included one plumcot, a hybrid 162 between P. salicina and P. armeniaca (called 'Rutland' in the ARS-USDA database, P0489) and five wild *P. salicina* accessions, sampled in China (Table S1b), *Prunus* 163 164 cerasifera accessions used in this study originated from Europe (N=13), from Caucasia and Russia (N=29) and from Central Asia (more precisely from Kazakhstan and 165 166 Kyrgyzstan, N=24) (see Table S1b for details).

167

168 DNA extraction, microsatellite markers and polymerase chain reaction (PCR)

169 amplification

170 Genomic DNA was extracted as described previously (Decroocg et al. 2016), either from 171 lyophilized leaves, bark or fresh flowers. We used 34 microsatellite markers distributed 172 across the eight *P. armeniaca* chromosomes and showing good amplification success as 173 well as substantial polymorphism within the different species of the section Armeniaca 174 (Liu et al. 2019). The same set of microsatellite markers were used to amplify PCR fragments in species of the Armeniaca (P. brigantina incl.), Prunus (P. cerasifera incl., see 175 176 supplemental information) and Prunocerasus sections. Detailed information on these 177 microsatellite markers, including their repeat motifs, sequences, and amplification 178 conditions are available in (Liu et al. 2019). PCR amplification and fragment size 179 denotyping were performed on an ABI PRISM 3730 (Applied Biosystems) as described 180 previously (Decroocq et al. 2016). Alleles were scored with the GENEMAPPER 4.0 software (Applied Biosystems). 181

182

183 Analyses of population subdivision and genetic relationships

To assess the probability of observing unrelated individuals with the detected similar genotypes given the population allelic frequencies, we used GENODIVE and the corrected *Nei's* diversity estimate with a threshold of 50 (Meirmans and Van Tienderen 2004). We later retained only one individual of each pair detected as clonemates or siblings for further analyses.

189 We identified population subdivision with the STRUCTURE software v. 2.3.3 (Pritchard et 190 al. 2000), without the use of *a priori* grouping information and assuming that individuals

191 had mixed ancestry with correlated allele frequencies among populations. The clustering method implemented in STRUCTURE is based on Monte Carlo Markov Chain (MCMC) 192 simulations and is used to infer the proportion of ancestry of genotypes in K distinct 193 194 clusters. We simulated K values ranging from 2 to 10 for the *P. brigantina* population and three additional datasets (Table 1 and S1c), obtained with the same genetic markers on 195 196 Armeniaca and Prunus species originating from Central and Eastern Asia (Liu et al. 2019) (Supplemental information). For each K, we ran 10,000 generations of 'burn-in' and 197 198 100,000 MCMC. Simulations were repeated 10 times for each K value; the resulting matrices of estimated cluster membership coefficients (Q) were permuted with CLUMPP 199 (Jakobsson and Rosenberg 2007). STRUCTURE barplots were displayed with 200 201 DISTRUCT 1.1 (Rosenberg 2004). The strongest level of the genetic subdivision was 202 determined using ΔK (Evanno et al. 2005), as implemented in the online post-processing 203 software Structure Harvester (http://taylor0.biology.ucla.edu/structureHarvester/) (Earl 204 and vonHoldt 2012). Principal components analyses (PCA) were performed to investigate 205 the genetic structure of *P. brigantina* using the scatterplot3d R package (Ligges and 206 Mächler 2003) or among the five Prunophora species, using the DARwin software 207 package v 6.0.017 (Perrier and Jacquemoud-Collet 2006). Further genetic differentiation 208 and relationships were also estimated using a weighted neighbour-joining tree as 209 implemented in the DARwin software package v 6.0.017 (Perrier and Jacquemoud-Collet 210 2006).

211 We performed a three-step population subdivision analysis, the first one with only 212 P. brigantina samples, and the second one adding previously obtained datasets of 213 Armeniaca species, including P. armeniaca, P. sibirica, P. mandshurica and P. mume wild 214 and cultivated samples (Liu et al. 2019) (dataset 2 in Table 1). In the third step of the 215 analysis, we added samples of the Prunus (P. cerasifera and P. salicina) and 216 Prunocerasus (P. mexicana, P. munsoniana, P. maritima, P. americana and P. 217 subcordata) sections (dataset 3 in Table 1). The same procedure to investigate population subdivision and structure analysis was used with the Armeniaca, Prunus and 218 219 Prunocerasus diploid samples. In parallel, we also performed a population subdivision 220 analysis along the native distribution of *P. cerasifera* (Supplemental information '*Prunus* 221 cerasifera diversity and population structure analysis' and dataset 4 in Table 1). In P. 222 cerasifera, a Neighbour-Joining tree based on Nei's standard genetic distance was built 223 with a bootstrap of 30,000 in PopTreeW (Takezaki et al. 2014).

In order to test whether there was a pattern of isolation by distance, we performed a Mantel test between a matrix of Edwards' genetic distances and a matrix of Euclidean

- geographic distances in *P. brigantina* using the R adegenet package (Jombart and Ahmed2011).
- 228

229 Genetic diversity, differentiation and core collection constitution

- We used GENALEX 6.501 (Peakall and Smouse 2012) to estimate the number of alleles 230 231 $(N_{\rm a})$, the effective number of alleles $(N_{\rm e})$, i.e., the number of equally frequent alleles that 232 would achieve the same expected heterozygosity as in the sample, the observed 233 heterozygosity (H_0), the unbiased expected heterozygosity (H_E) and the Shannon index 234 (I) (Shannon 1948). Genetic differentiation among genetic clusters (Jost'D) was estimated in GENODIVE (Meirmans and Van Tienderen 2004). The allelic richness (A_r) and the 235 236 private allelic richness (A_p) were calculated after adjustment for sample size differences 237 among groups through the rarefaction procedure implemented in ADZE Allelic Diversity 238 Analyzer v1.0 (Szpiech et al. 2008), setting the sample size to five.
- The maximization (M) strategy (Schoen and Brown 1993) implemented in the COREFINDER software was used to generate a core *P. brigantina* tree collection maximizing the number of alleles based on our dataset. The maximization strategy consisted in detecting the smallest sample that captured 100% of the genetic diversity present within the entire germplasm collection. We further used the Mann-Whitney U test to check the genetic diversity difference between the core collection and the entire *P. brigantina* sample.
- 246

247 Results

248 Genetic diversity and population structuration in *P. brigantina*

Thirty-four microsatellite markers used in a previous study (Liu et al. 2019) were tested 249 250 for our *P. brigantina* population study. Four markers (AMPA109, ssr02iso4G, BPPCT008 251 and BPPCT038) failed to amplify or generated over 50% of missing data and were 252 consequently eliminated. Six other markers (BPPCT030, CPPCT022, CPSCT004, 253 UDP98-412, UDA-002 and PacB26) gave poor amplification in *P. brigantina*, yielding more than 10% missing data. This may be because of poor marker transferability, as most 254 255 of the above microsatellite markers were developed from genomic data on other Prunus 256 species, such as peach, almond, apricot and Japanese plum. The remaining 24 257 microsatellite markers performed well in *P. brigantina* and were used in this study (Table 258 S2). In our *P. brigantina* sample, the number of alleles (N_A) was 121 (mean of 5.04 per

marker) and the number of effective alleles (N_E) 59.57 (mean of 2.48 per marker) (Table S2).

The biologically most relevant genetic clustering of *P. brigantina* was found to be 261 262 K=3: the DeltaK statistics indicated that it was the strongest population subdivision level 263 (Figure S1A) and further increasing K vielded many admixed individuals (Figure S2). The 264 three inferred genetic clusters (blue, yellow and orange colours in Figure 2b and S2) corresponded to three French national parks "Quevras". "Ecrins" and "Mercantour". 265 266 respectively. Weak but significant genetic differentiation (mean Jost's D=0.117) was found 267 among these three *P. brigantina* populations (Table 2). Both the Josts' *D* and the PCA indicated that the *P. brigantina* "Queyras" cluster was the most differentiated from the two 268 269 other ones, the "Ecrins" and "Mercantour" clusters being found genetically closer one to 270 each other (Table 2, Figure 3).

An additional subdivision of the Ecrins cluster was found at K=8, revealing differentiation between the dark blue and yellow clusters (Figure S2). The Mantel test on the three *P. brigantina* clusters indicated no significant relationship between genetic differentiation and geographic distance (*P*=0.308, by Monte Carlo permutation tests, Figure S3), indicating a lack of isolation by distance.

276

277 Genetic relationships between *P. brigantina* and other Prunophora species

278 To obtain a better understanding of the genetic relationships between *P. brigantina* and 279 other Armeniaca species, we combined the current P. brigantina data with a former Armeniaca dataset built with the same 24 microsatellite markers (Liu et al. 2019) (Tables 280 281 1 and S1c). We performed a Bayesian clustering analysis on the full Armeniaca dataset, including wild and cultivated P. armeniaca, P. sibirica, P. mandshurica and P. mume 282 283 (Table 1). We obtained a similar structure as the one described in (Liu et al. 2019) for the 284 previous dataset, and *P. brigantina* differentiated in a distinct cluster, from K=3 and above 285 (vellow colour in Figure S4). No gene flow with other species of the section Armeniaca 286 was detected (i.e. no individuals who would have admixed ancestry between the yellow 287 cluster and other clusters), in particular in between wild *P. brigantina* and cultivated apricots which, yet, partly share habitats over Western Europe (Figure S4). 288

We further questioned the genetic relationship of *P. brigantina* with other members of the Prunophora subgenus, i.e. species of the Prunus and Prunocerasus sections. Because *P. cerasifera* (cherry plum), a species of the Prunus section, is partly sharing habitats with *P. brigantina*, we significantly extended the sampling of *P. cerasifera* species compared to (Horvath et al. 2008), including accessions from the cherry plum native area,

i.e. Caucasia and Central Asia, to obtain a better representation at the species level. We 294 295 then explored the genetic differentiation of this species over its Eurasian distribution. We 296 found genetically differentiated clusters of cherry plums, with contrasted geographical 297 distributions from Central Asia to Europe (detailed results are presented in the 298 supplemental information 'Prunus cerasifera diversity and population structure analysis). 299 Caucasia appears to be a diversification center of wild cherry plums, with two distinct 300 genetic clusters that may result from geographical isolation. This dataset was later merged with representatives of the Prunus, Armeniaca and Prunocerasus sections, to infer the 301 302 origin of *P. brigantina* and its genetic relationships with species of the Prunophora 303 subgenus (Tables 1, S1b and S1c). In the following step, we focused on species that 304 shared, partly, habitats with *P. brigantina*, i.e. *P. cerasifera* and cultivated *P. armeniaca*, 305 together with other Armeniaca (P. mume), Prunus (P. salicina) and Prunocerasus species. 306 For this, we used genotyping data based on 23 microsatellite markers (see the 307 supplemental information 'Prunus cerasifera diversity and population structure analysis').

308 The delta K peaked at K=3, indicating that this was the strongest level of population 309 subdivision (Figure S1B). However, further relevant clustering was observed at higher K 310 values (Figure S5). From K=7 and above, all taxonomic species separated in specific 311 clusters: green for P. brigantina, pink for P. armeniaca, blue for P. cerasifera, grey for P. 312 mume, orange for *P. salicina* and black for Prunocerasus (Figure S5). Again, we could not 313 find any admixture footprints between *P. brigantina* and other Prunus species, while there 314 may be some footprints of introgression from P. cerasifera into P. salicina (see admixed 315 individuals indicated by blue stars in Figure S5), although the blue and orange 316 heterogeneous bars may alternatively result from low assignment power due to the low 317 number of *P. salicina* individuals.

318 We further explored the genetic differentiation and relationships among all 319 Prunophora samples using an unrooted weighted neighbour-ioining tree (Figure 4). In the 320 tree, the delimitation of *P. brigantina* as a distinct species from other apricot and plum 321 taxonomic species was well supported (100% bootstrap support). Prunus brigantina trees 322 appeared genetically closer to the Armeniaca species (P. armeniaca and P. mume) than 323 to other Prunus and Prunocerasus species, which is consistent with Rehder's taxonomy. 324 The principal component analysis (PCA) supported the differentiation of *P. brigantina* from 325 other species of the Armeniaca section, and from the Prunus and Prunocerasus sections 326 (Figure 5). Both the NJ tree and the PCA indicated that plum species (*P. cerasifera* and 327 P. salicina) were partly overlapping, in particular the cultivated Japanese plums and cherry 328 plums; the wild P. salicina trees in contrast appeared well separated from P. cerasifera 329 (Figures 4 and 5). The overlapping may be the result of low power to distinguish the groups

based on few individuals or of hybridization between cultivated trees. One particular case
of hybridization is P0489, cv. Rutland plumcot. Breeders' information indicates that it is a
hybrid between plum and apricot. In our structure barplots, NJ tree and PCA (Figures S5,
4 and 5), P0489 in fact appeared admixed between the two plum species, *P. salicina* and

- 334 *P. cerasifera,* and not with apricot.
- 335

336 Construction of a *P. brigantina* core collection

337 We used the COREFINDER program to identify the smallest core collection that 338 would be sufficient to capture the whole diversity detected based on our 24 microsatellite 339 markers. Based on the maximizing strategy implemented in COREFINDER, we propose 340 the use of a core set of 36 individuals (~49% of the whole P. brigantina sample) that captures 100% of the detected diversity (Figure 6, Table S3). Pairwise comparisons using 341 342 Mann-Whitney U tests showed no significant differences in diversity indexes (I, H_0 , and 343 H_E) between the *P. brigantina* entire Alpine sample (N=71) and the core collection (N=36) 344 (Tables S2, S4 and S5). This indicates that our core collection can be used as an ex-situ 345 germplasm repository.

346

347 **Discussion**

348 The current study showed that *P. brigantina* is still found in a few Alpine valleys, 349 along the border between France and northwest Italy, where it grows above 1,400 m 350 altitude as single isolated trees (except for the plateau of Nevache, where they are present 351 as a denser population), in arid places such as shrub thickets. In France, it is confined to 352 the three southeastern departments of Alpes-Maritimes, Alpes-de-Haute-Provence and Hautes-Alpes. The sustainability of P. brigantina habitat is threatened by forest 353 354 fragmentation. This raises the question of the long-term conservation of this species and 355 no germplasm accessions of *P. brigantina* are reported by EURISCO to be held in 356 European ex-situ collections. Because large field collections of perennial crops are 357 expensive to maintain, the identification of a restricted number of representatives of P. brigantina population for ex situ conservation would be very useful in the perspective of 358 359 Alpine ecosystem restauration and future breeding programs. Core collections are representative subsets of germplasm collections that are developed to improve the 360 361 efficiency of germplasm evaluation while increasing the probability of finding genes of 362 interest (Simon and Hannan 1995). Therefore, our current core collection will serve in the 363 future for *P. brigantina* conservation as well as for stone fruit breeding programs benefiting 364 from P. brigantina resilience characteristics, especially in a context of Mediterranean

climate changes. However, the most efficient strategy for biodiversity conservation
 remains the preservation of the natural habitat of endangered species.

367 Thanks to an extensive dataset of Prunophora species, we also guestioned here 368 the genetic relationships of *P. brigantina* with other species of the Prunus and Armeniaca 369 sections. Species of the Prunocerasus section were not integrated in the analysis except 370 as outgroups because they are naturally distributed on different continents and do not 371 overlap in their respective natural habitats with *P. brigantina*. Through Bayesian analyses. 372 P. brigantina appears as a bona fide species, clearly distinct from other apricot species 373 and from plum species, with no footprint of admixture. Our results are in accordance with 374 previous studies that indicate a clear differentiation of *P. brigantina* from other Armeniaca 375 apricot species (i.e. *P. armeniaca* and *P. mume*) but do not support a close relationship 376 with species of the Prunus section (Chin et al. 2014; Reales et al. 2010; Shi et al. 2013; 377 Zhebentyayeva et al. 2019). This might be due to the fact that our sampling covers a larger 378 diversity panel than in the former studies, both in Armeniaca and Prunus sections, P. 379 brigantina included. Indeed, sampling only one or two individuals per species is expected 380 to lower the accuracy of phylogenetic analyses (Wiens and Servedio 1997). In our 381 analyses, *P. brigantina* was closer to species of the Armeniaca section than to the Prunus 382 section. While P. brigantina should still be considered as an Armeniaca species, it has 383 diverged from *P. armeniaca* long before *P. mume*, thus representing the most genetically 384 distant apricot-related species within the Armeniaca section (Hagen et al. 2002; Liu et al. 385 2019).

386 Contradictory results had been obtained from a phylogeny of Eurasian plum 387 species based on chloroplast DNA sequences (Reales et al. 2010), where P. brigantina 388 grouped together with European Prunus species, such as the polyploid P. spinosa, P. 389 insititia and P. domestica, and the diploid P. ramburii Boiss.species; it was clearly 390 separated from *P. armeniaca* (apricot). The proximity in chloroplast genotypes between 391 P. brigantina and the polyploid Prunus species might indicate the Alpine plum as a 392 parental contributor in interspecific hybridization of polyploid Prunus species 393 (Zhebentyayeva et al. 2019). Organelles are however known to introgress much more 394 often than nuclear DNA and chloroplast genealogies are often discordant from nuclear 395 phylogenies (Coyne and Orr 2004). The other plum species that grouped with P. brigantina 396 in chloroplast genealogy, P. ramburii, is a relict, wild species endemic in the southern 397 Spanish mountains (Sierra Nevada and Sierra Baz) While its distribution is in Europe, it 398 does not overlap with that of *P. brigantina*. Hence, its morphological features are distinct 399 from Alpine plum, forming bushes with tiny, blue/violet drupes and narrow leaves 400 (http://www.anthos.es/index.php?lang=en). Therefore, the incongruence between our

401 results with those obtained earlier based on the chloroplast genome echoes the 402 conclusions of others that despite the many advantages and widespread use of 403 chloroplast DNA in phylogenetic studies, caution has to be taken in the use of organellar 404 variation for inferring phylogeny (Doyle 1992; Lee-Yaw et al. 2019; Soltis and Kuzoff 405 1995).

406 Nevertheless, by extending the sampling set of both P. brigantina and plum 407 species, our study provides compelling evidence that P. briganting grouped in the 408 Armeniaca section. It illustrates the importance of the sample size and sampling design 409 that encompasses here a larger genetic diversity at the species level than in previous 410 studies (Hagen et al. 2002; Horvath et al. 2008; Reales et al. 2010; Zhebentyayeva et al. 411 2019). It also questioned the relevance of the classification into sections of the Prunophora 412 subgenus, at least for the Eurasian sections, i.e. Armeniaca and Prunus. Species of the 413 two sections are sharing habitats and they are interfertile, in particular between diploid 414 species, thus resulting in a number of hybrids and probably new species (Cici and Van 415 Acker 2010; Layne and Sherman 1986). Although the genetic differentiation of the Prunus 416 and Armeniaca sections from the Prunocerasus section is clear (Krüssmann 1978), the 417 relationships among taxa of the two Eurasian sections are not well resolved as illustrated 418 by the role of cross taxa hybridization in Japanese apricot (P. mume) adaptive evolution 419 (Numaguchi et al. 2020). The previous controversial classification of *P. brigantina* either 420 in the Armeniaca section or in the Prunus section reflects the difficulty of assigning a clear 421 barrier between species of those two sections; an analysis of the entire subgenus using a 422 shared set of same nuclear markers could provide greater resolution and would place the 423 findings presented here into a Prunophora-wide perspective.

424

425 **Conclusion**

426 In this study, we found a low level of genetic diversity in natural *P. brigantina* populations 427 and identified three genetically differentiated populations, in the Ecrins, Queyras and 428 Mercantour national parks, respectively. We further successfully established in Bordeaux 429 a core collection of 36 individuals representing the P. brigantina diversity that will be 430 publicly available through the French Genetic Resources Center. In addition, a population 431 NJ tree did not support a close relationship between *P. brigantina* and the other Prunus 432 species, *P. brigantina* being closer to Armeniaca species whilst remaining clearly distinct. 433 While most of the fruit species originate from Asia or America, many crop wild relatives 434 still exist both in their center of origin and along their dispersal routes. For example, in pit 435 and stone fruits, several Prunus, Malus and Pyrus wild species are endemic in Europe

and are often threatened by the rapid changes of land use (Cornille et al. 2013a; Welk et
al. 2016). To inform *in situ* and *ex situ* conservation measures and add value to fruit tree
genetic resources, we recommend in-depth characterization of those wild relatives,
similarly to the current study in the Alpine plum.

440

441 Acknowledgements

442 S.L. is a recipient of a Chinese Scholarship Council PhD grant. Molecular analysis was performed at the GenoToul Get-PlaGe (INRAE Center of Toulouse) and GENTYANE 443 444 (INRAE Center of Clermont-Ferrand) platforms. The authors wish to acknowledge all the 445 people who helped in collecting the samples, in particular, collaborators from Le Plantivore at Château Ville-vieille, Histoire de Confiture at Plampinet, Nevache, C. Gatineau from 446 447 Cervières and the managers of the Queyras and Mercantour national parks. We thank the 448 curators of the French Genetic Resources Centre (Marine Delmas) and of the US ARS-449 USDA repository (John Preece); we acknowledge the care of the plants at the UMR BFP 450 (INRAE) by Jean-Philippe Eyquard and Pascal Briard.

451

452 Statements

Appropriate permissions from responsible authorities for collecting and using Prunus 453 454 samples from Central Asia and Caucasia were obtained by the local collaborators. The official authorization for the survey and sampling of *P. brigantina* genetic resources is 455 456 registered and accessible through the following link: 457 https://absch.cbd.int/database/ABSCH-IRCC-FR-246978. The rest of the samples were 458 kindly provided, with due authorizations, by the curators of the French INRAE Genetic Resources Centre (GRC) and the US ARS-USDA repository, further details are available 459 on their respective databases. 460

461

462 Data availability

The datasets generated by the current study, *i.e.* the SSR genotyping, are available at the INRAE data portal (https://data.inrae.fr/) where they can be freely retrieved.

465

466 Captions for the supplementary Figures presented in a separate PDF file

467 Figure S1. DeltaK plot as a function of K for the *Prunus brigantina* (A) and

468 **Prunophora (B) dataset.**

469 Figure S2. Bayesian clustering on *Prunus brigantina* samples in the French Alps.

470 *Prunus brigantina* dataset included 71 individuals sampled from the French Alps and two

471 samples from the French GRC repository. Each individual is represented by a vertical bar,

472 partitioned into *K* segments representing the inferred proportions of ancestry of its 473 genome.

474 Figure S3. Isolation by distance (IBD) test in *Prunus brigantina*.

a. Distribution of correlation values between genetic and geographic distances under the
assumption of lack of isolation by distance, drawn from permutations; the observed value
of the correlation between the distance matrices, represented by the black diamond, falls
within the expected distribution which indicates the lack of isolation by distance pattern.

b. Pairwise Edwards' distances plotted against Euclidean geographic distances, with local
density of points plotted using a two-dimensional kernel density estimate, displayed in
colour from white to red. The solid line represents the fitted linear regression between
Edwards' genetic and Euclidean geographic distances.

Figure S4. Bayesian analysis on Armeniaca and wild *Prunus brigantina*accessions.

Genetic subdivision among Armeniaca species, *P. brigantina* included, was inferred with STRUCTURE with 24 microsatellite markers. The 648 samples belong to the six Armeniaca species as follows: *P. brigantina* (*N*=73), *P. armeniaca* (European and Chinese cultivated *N*=270 and wild, *N*=204), *P. sibirica* (*N*=84), *P. mume* (*N*=9), *P. mandshurica* (*N*=8). Each individual is represented by a vertical bar, partitioned into *K* segments representing the inferred proportions of ancestry of its genome. Species and origin of the accessions are indicated on the top of the figure.

Figure S5. Bayesian analysis on the *Prunus brigantina* dataset together with an extended Prunophora dataset.

Genetic subdivision among Armeniaca, Prunus and Prunocerasus species was inferred
with STRUCTURE with 23 microsatellite markers (supplemental information for the list of
markers). The 226 samples belong to three different Prunophora species including *P. brigantina* (*N*=73), *P. cerasifera* (*N*=66), *P. armeniaca* (*N*=87), *P. salicina* (*N*=10), *P. mume* (*N*=9), *P. mexicana* (*N*=1), *P. munsoniana* (*N*=1), *P. maritima* (*N*=1), *P. americana*(*N*=1) and *P. subcordata* (*N*=1). The blue stars (*), at the bottom of the bar plots,
correspond to Japanese plums (*P. salicina*) admixed with *P. cerasifera*.

502 Legends for the supplementary tables presented in a separate PDF file

Table S1a. Sampling locations, geographic regions and assigned genetic cluster of *Prunus brigantina* in the French Alps.

505 FR for an origin from the French Alps. Sampling site is indicated in GPS coordinates, N 506 for North, E for East.

507 Table S1b. Sampling locations, geographic regions and/or germplasm repositories 508 of *Prunus cerasifera* samples.

¹ Species affiliation as indicated by the curator of the germplasm collection where the sample is maintained or as identified *in situ*. ² Sampling location in decimal degrees. ³ Origin as indicated in the database of the germplasm repository. n/a, not applicable because admixed and thus not used in the correlation tests

513 Table S1c: List of individuals included in the different datasets.

¹ FR refers to France, AZ to Azerbaijan, CH to China, KR to Kyrgyzstan, KZ to Kazakhstan, 514 OUZ to Uzbekistan, TCH to Czech republic (Lednice repository), TURC to Turkey 515 516 (Malatya repository), US to USA (ARS-USDA Prunus germplasm repository). For more details, see Liu et al (2019). Accession numbers starting with A indicate apricot cultivars 517 and with P, plum cultivars, as displayed in the French GRC database. The sign (-) means 518 519 that the sample is maintained in germplasm repository and was not collected in situ. The 520 cross in the last four columns (dataset 1 to 4) means that this sample was used in the 521 corresponding dataset.

Table S2. Analysis of genetic variability from microsatellite markers for *Prunus brigantina* population.

Na: number of different alleles, and *Ne*: number of effective alleles. *I*: Shannon diversity
index. *He* and *Ho*: expected and observed heterozygosities.

Table S3. The description of individuals retained for the core collection of *Prunus brigantina*

Table S4. Genetic variability of microsatellite markers for the *Prunus brigantina* core collection.

Na: number of different alleles, and *Ne*: number of effective alleles. *I*: Shannon diversity
index. He and *Ho*: expected and observed heterozygosities.

- 532 Table S5. Mann-Whitney U tests (two-tailed) between the whole *Prunus brigantina*
- 533 dataset and its core collection.

534

- 535 Supplemental information presented in a separate PDF file
- 536 Supplemental information '*Prunus cerasifera* diversity and population structure
- 537 analysis'

538

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672	

673 Figures

674 Figure 1. Taxonomy and geographic distribution of the different species in the

675 Armeniaca section. Species classification is based on reports by Rehder (1940). Data

- 676 on species distribution were retrieved from the global biodiversity information facility
- 677 (GBIF) (https://doi.org/10.15468/39omei). Dots represent georeferenced species records
- 678 from 1910 to 2017.

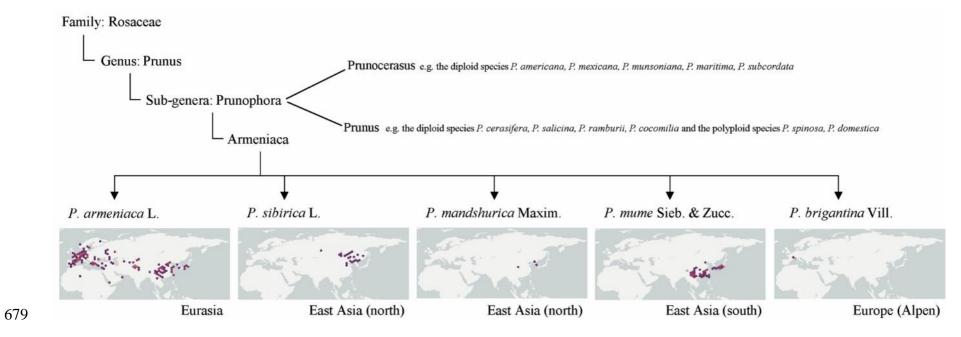
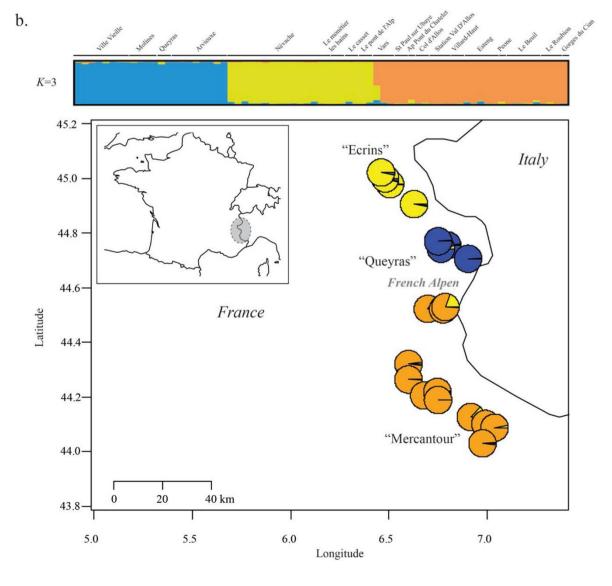


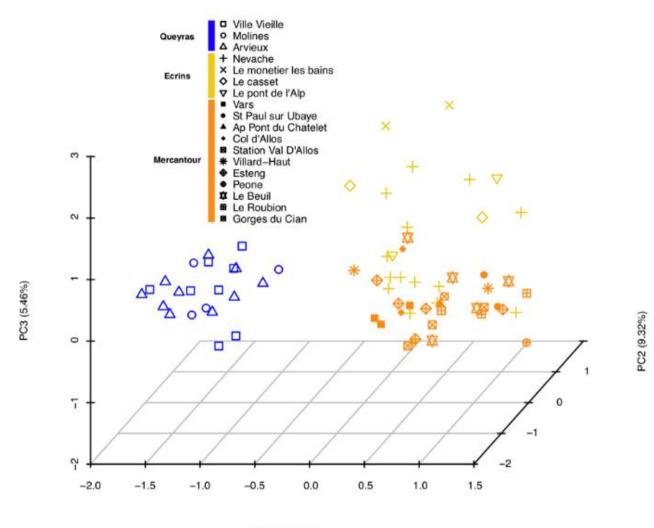
Figure 2. *Prunus brigantina* morphological features, genetic clustering and spatial distribution in the French Alps. a. A *P. brigantina* small tree in its natural habitat (Arvieux) (left), summery leaves (middle) and ripening fruits (right). b. The three genetic clusters of *P. brigantina* inferred from the STRUCTURE analysis (Figure S2 at *K*=3) and their spatial distribution in the French Alps. "Ecrins", "Queyras" and "Mercantour" refer to the three national parks in the southeast of France.

a.





- 689 **Figure 3. Principal components analysis on** *Prunus brigantina*. Colours refer to the
- 690 genetic clusters inferred from the STRUCTURE analysis, according to the barplots at *K*=3
- 691 in Figure S2.



692 693 PC1 (12.72%)

Figure 4. Unrooted weighted neighbour-joining (NJ) tree of *Prunus brigantina* and other Prunophora species. The species are represented by the same colour as the ones used in STRUCTURE barplots (*K*=8, Figure S5). The NJ tree was built with DARwin, bootstrap support values were obtained from 30,000 repetitions. Bootstrap values when greater than 50% are shown above the branches. (*) corresponds to the P0489 plumcot sample. Classification into sections was made according to Krüssmann (1978) and Reales et al (2010).

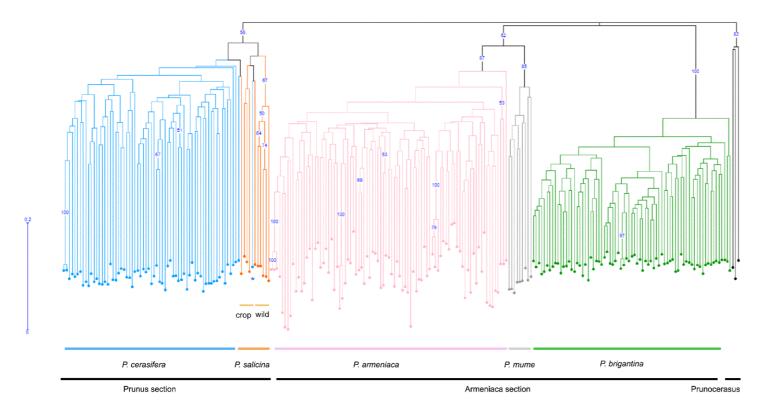


Figure 5. Principal components analysis (PCA) on five Prunophora species performed with DARwin.

The sampling for this analysis included *P. cerasifera* (*N*=66) in blue, *P. armeniaca* (*N*=87)

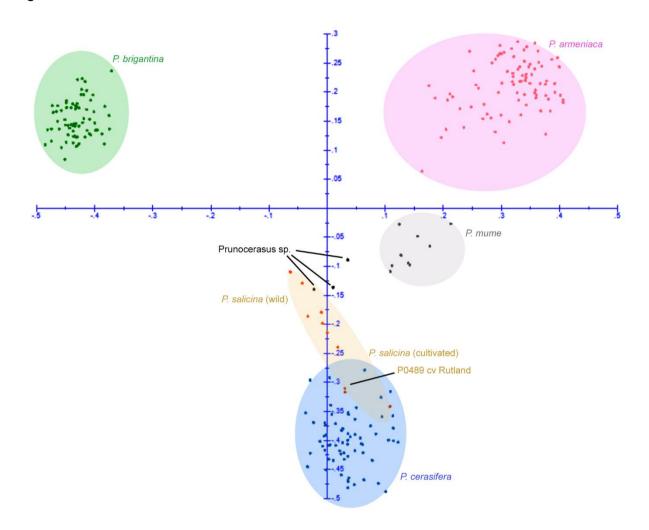
in pink, *P. brigantina* (*N*=73) in green, the Chinese apricot tree *P. mume* (*N*=9) in grey and

Japanese plum, *P. salicina* (*N*=10) in orange. Black dots correspond to *Prunocerasus*

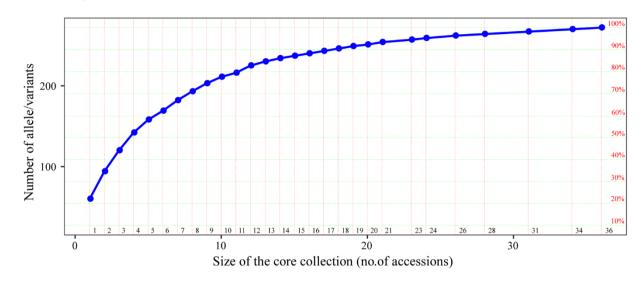
species (*P. mexicana*, *P. munsoniana* and *P. maritima*). Colours refer to the genetic

707 clusters inferred from the STRUCTURE analysis, according to the barplots at K=8 in

Figure S5.



- 711 Figure 6. Identification of the core collection of *Prunus brigantina* population based
- on the strategy maximizing allelic diversity. The genetic diversity in terms of number
- of alleles (left) or percentage of variation compared to the whole dataset (right) is plotted
- for different core collection sizes. Details on the accessions retained for each percentage
- 715 rate are presented in Table S3.



717

- 718 Tables
- Table 1. Different datasets including *Prunus brigantina* and other apricot species in this
 study.
- ^{*} indicate a *P. brigantina* dataset that includes 71 individuals sampled from the French Alps and 2
- samples from the French GRC repository. ^A Prunocerasus species are represented by *P. mexicana*
- 723 (N=1), P. munsoniana (N=1), P. maritima (N=1), P. americana (N=1), P. subcordata (N=1).

Datasets	5 Description	Number of accessions	Number of accessions for each <i>Prunus</i> species under study (N)							
			P. brigantina	P. armeniaca (wild)	P. armeniaca (cultivated)	P. sibirica	P. mume	P. mandshurica	P. salicina	P. cerasifera
1	P. brigantina	73*	73*	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
2	<i>P. brigantina</i> and accessions of other Armeniaca species	648	73*	204	270	84	9	8	-	-
3	<i>P. brigantina</i> and accessions of the <i>Armeniaca</i> , <i>Prunus</i> and <i>Prunocerasus</i> sections $^{\Delta}$	250	73*	-	87	-	9	-	10	66
4	P. cerasifera	66	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	66

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726 Table 2. Pairwise population Jost' D of P. brigantina

Population	Queyras	Ecrins	Mercantour
Queyras	-	0.116	0.14
Ecrins		-	0.097
Mercantour			-