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Vlatko Galić, Violeta Anđelković, Natalija Kravic, Nikola Grčić ...+7 more authors

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Published on: 24 Nov 2020 - bioRxiv (Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory)

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1 **First results on diversity patterns and selective sweeps in a Southeast European**
2 **panel of maize inbred lines as combined with two West European panels**

3
4 Vlatko Galić¹, Violeta Anđelković², Natalija Kravić², Nikola Grčić², Tatjana Ledenčan¹,
5 Antun Jambrović^{1,3}, Zvonimir Zdunić^{1,3}, Stéphane Nicolas⁴, Alain Charcosset⁴, Zlatko
6 Šatović^{3,5}, Domagoj Šimić^{1,3,*}

7

8 ¹ Agricultural Institute Osijek, Južno predgrađe 17, HR31000 Osijek, Croatia;

9 vlatko.galic@poljinis.hr

10 ² Maize Research Institute Zemun Polje, Slobodana Bajića 1, 11185 Belgrade, Serbia

11 ³ Centre of Excellence for Biodiversity and Molecular Plant Breeding (CroP-BioDiv),
12 Svetošimunska cesta 25, HR10000 Zagreb, Croatia

13 ⁴ GQE - Le Moulon, INRAE, Univ. Paris-Sud, CNRS, AgroParisTech, Université Paris-
14 Saclay, 91190 Gif-sur-Yvette, France

15 ⁵ Faculty of Agriculture, University of Zagreb, Svetošimunska cesta 25, HR10000
16 Zagreb, Croatia

17

18 **Abstract:** More than one third of European grain maize is produced in South Eastern
19 Europe (SEE) and utilization of historical maize material developed in SEE for its favorable
20 alleles and diversity has long been speculated. However, molecular information on diversity
21 of the SEE maize genetic material is scarce. The objectives of this study were i) to analyze
22 diversity patterns in a large panel of densely genotyped historical accessions from SEE, ii)
23 to compare the data with those obtained from other two European panels, and iii) to identify
24 genomic regions that have undergone selection (selective sweeps) in response to
25 adaptation to SEE conditions. 572 accessions of the historical inbred lines from Maize
26 Research Institute Zemun Polje gene bank representing the SEE material were genotyped
27 using the 600k maize genotyping Axiom array. The genotyping results were merged with
28 two European panels DROPS and TUM. Genetic structure and diversity were analyzed
29 using neighbor-joining cladogram, PcoA, Admixture, Structure and sNMF. To detect the
30 selective sweep signals, Tajima's *D* statistic and RAiSD were employed. The best number
31 of ancestral populations was *K*=7, whereby one of them is a subpopulation containing
32 inbreds belong exclusively to the SEE panel. The prevalence of inbreds linked to historical
33 US inbred lines Wf9, Oh43, Pa91 and A374 was detected in SEE. Possible soft selective
34 sweep was detected in chromosome 2 in region harboring a gene linked to promotion of
35 flowering PPF1. Additional scan for selective sweeps using the RAiSD methodology yielded
36 four signals in chromosomes 5 and 6, all in gene-rich regions. Several candidates of
37 selection were identified, influencing the plant morphology and adaptation. Our study
38 provides the first step towards the re-utilization of the SEE genetic materials for use in
39 modern maize breeding. Phenotypic analysis is needed for assessment of SEE accessions
40 for favorable alleles, and identification of breeding targets.

41 **Keywords:** South Eastern Europe; maize genetic resources; genetic structure; selective
42 sweep;

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1 **1. Introduction**

2 Maize (*Zea mays* L.) breeding is based on the selection of the favorable progenies from
3 the designed crosses between inbreds bearing favorable alleles/favorable genetic
4 background (Hallauer et al., 2010). This type of advanced-cycle pedigree breeding scheme
5 might lead to the available maize germplasm becoming more elite, although more genetically
6 narrow (Lu and Bernardo, 2001; Reif et al., 2005). Due to the distinct heterotic patterns in
7 maize breeding (Lee and Tracy, 2009), population-level diversity is maintained, but to
8 sustain the long-term breeding progress, exploiting of the new germplasm resources is
9 inevitable, especially for adaptation traits (Bouchet et al., 2013; Romero Navarro et al., 2017;
10 Wegary et al., 2019).

11 Modern maize hybrids grown around the world today, are mostly single crosses
12 developed through tangled crossing and testing schemes in target populations of
13 environments by multi-national companies. Only marginal market shares are held by the
14 small companies and public institutions. The global seed market can be separated into two
15 tiers. The first tier represents 10 largest companies owning 69% of the world market and
16 only three of which reported sales of >3000 \$m for 2018, and the other represents all other
17 stakeholders. This trend can be easily extrapolated to maize only, especially due to the fact
18 that maize seed business accounts for 42% of the global seed market of all crops with global
19 sales of nearly 18 billion US\$ in 2018 (FAO/IHS Markit Agribusiness Consulting, 2019).

20 However, the evolution of the seed business was driven by the evolution of maize
21 breeding itself, initially mainly through the public breeding programs. During the 19th century,
22 the US corn market was prevailed with seeds of many open pollinated varieties (OPVs)
23 adapted to temperate environments from several early breeding programs, such as Reid
24 Yellow Dent, Lancaster Sure Crops, Leaming corn, etc. By the year 1933, first significant
25 acreages of the double cross hybrid corn were reported (Troyer, 2009) with substantially
26 higher yields compared to OPVs. Further developments in hybrid breeding were observed,
27 especially with development of Stiff Stalk Synthetic during the 1930s. From the 1950s there
28 was a rapid shift from breeding maize by farmers for farmers, to breeding by seed companies
29 which led to further increase in grain yields. Interestingly, 87% of the maize genetic material
30 utilized in U.S. during the mid-2000s could be traced back to only five historical OPVs, with
31 highest leverage of the variety adaptness to surpass thousands of other, today-probably
32 extinct OPVs (Arca et al., 2020; Coffman et al., 2020; Troyer, 2004).

33 European perspective on the maize breeding was somewhat different than the US one.
34 Some of the first introductions of maize into the parts of Europe after the discovery of
35 Americas probably failed on the wider scale, due to the low levels of adaptation to European
36 climatological conditions. It is well established that during the early 16th century, several
37 populations of Caribbean origin were widespread in southern Spain and Italy, but it was
38 probably not until the separate introductions of the Northern Flints later in the same century,
39 that the maize has been broadly adapted to European mid-latitudes (Mir et al., 2013;
40 Rebourg et al., 2003; Tenaillon and Charcosset, 2011).

41 South Eastern Europe (SEE), consisting primarily of the Balkan Peninsula, can be
42 considered as a European counterpart to the US Corn Belt with well adapted late temperate
43 germplasm and more than 20% of the crop areas under maize (Leff et al., 2004). Moreover,
44 more than 35% of the European grain maize was produced in Serbia, Romania and Hungary
45 and continental Croatia in the period from 2010 – 2014 (USDA, 2020). In more recent
46 reports, Croatia, Serbia, Romania and Hungary in 2018 and 2019 together contributed 52%
47 and 51%, respectively of the European Union + Serbia total maize grain production
48 (Eurostat, 2019; Republic of Serbia, 2020).

49 In the former Yugoslavia, a large number of the local landraces (>2000) classified into
50 18 races, showed large within-race and among-race variability and expected heterozygosity
51 (Geric et al., 1989; Ignjatović-Mićić et al., 2013) probably reflecting the multiple origins and
52 introductions of maize to these areas also seen in words in different languages designating
53 maize as Turkish maize, or “kolombač” a word straining from the word Columbus in

1 Montenegro (Leng et al., 1962). Based on the morphological assessment, landraces of the
2 former Yugoslavia resemble many different historical populations such as Amarillo de Ocho
3 (Small-ear Montenegrin flints), US Northern Flints (Eight-rowed flints), Old Southern Dents
4 (Many-rowed Soft Dents), etc. along with several more recent OPVs from late 19th century
5 such as Hichory King (Large kernel dents), and early 20th century introductions of Golden
6 Mine and Queen of Prairie (Rumski zlatni zuban) (Andjelkovic and Ignjatovic-Micic, 2012;
7 Babic et al., 2012; Kozumplik and Martinić-Jerčić, 2000).

8 After the World War II, some of the European traditional varieties were used to develop
9 hybrids adapted to European conditions (Tenailon and Charcosset, 2011), and were
10 crossed to materials developed from the US imported double-cross hybrids such as WF9 x
11 Hy, Hy x Oh07, W32 x W187, etc. during the 1950s (Brkić et al., 2003; Hadi et al., 2013).
12 Growing the locally bred maize hybrids was so popular in the SEE during the 1960s, that it
13 was even speculated to surpass the production of the US hybrids in the following decades
14 (Leng et al., 1962). The source of that-time modern introduced US germplasm was the
15 organized production of US double cross hybrids in Yugoslavian public research institutes
16 as part of the American Aid plan through the Foreign Organization Administration from the
17 original inbreds (Tavčar, 1955). The imported inbreds were: Wf9, 38-11, Hy, L317, N6, K148,
18 K150, M14, W32, W187, A374, A375, and Oh07.

19 Data about molecular diversity of maize genetic material in SEE is scarce (e.g. Şuteu
20 et al. 2013 (Şuteu et al., 2013)). Nonetheless, utilization of the SEE maize for its favorable
21 alleles and diversity has been long speculated (Leng et al., 1962), with most of the materials
22 still deposited in gene banks. One such bank is Maize Research Institute Zemun Polje
23 (MRIZP) gene bank conserving >6000 accessions, of which >2000 are the maintained local
24 landraces collected throughout the former Yugoslavia and > 4000 accessions are the inbred
25 lines and landraces originating from 40 different countries (Vančetović et al., 2010)
26 representing one of the largest maize collections in the world (Gouesnard et al., 2017). The
27 view on the relevance of the plant genetic resources has at least two converging aspects.
28 First is the conservation of the biodiversity that has been narrowed by the way the historical
29 diversity has been utilized (Planchenault and Mounolou, 2011). The other aspect is to use
30 all available modern breeding tools such as dense genotyping, high throughput phenotyping,
31 etc. to mine and utilize the favorable variability by overcoming the issues such as linkage
32 drag (Hölker et al., 2019; Ortiz et al., 2010; Sood et al., 2014; Unterseer et al., 2016).

33 The objectives of this study were i) to analyze diversity patterns in a large panel of
34 densely genotyped historical accessions from SEE, ii) to compare this genetic diversity with
35 two European diversity inbred line panels, and iii) to identify genomic regions that have
36 undergone selection (selective sweeps) in response to adaptation to SEE conditions.

37 **2. Material and Methods**

38 ***Plant material***

39 The 572 accessions of the Maize Gene Bank of the Maize Research Institute Zemun
40 Polje (MRIZP) were used to carry out this study. Accessions i.e. inbred lines were chosen
41 in a way to represent the diversity of introduced or de-novo developed material from the SEE
42 breeding programs along with several inbreds with collection attributes from other countries.
43 In the SEE panel, there were 220 accessions collected from Bulgaria, 132 from ex-
44 Yugoslavia, 54 from Romania, 42 from Hungary, 18 from ex-Czechoslovakia, 13 from
45 Poland, 7 from Greece, along with inbreds that did not originate from SEE: 47 from ex-
46 USSR, 12 from USA, 8 from Mexico, 7 from Iran, 3 from France, 2 from Canada, 2 from ex-
47 East Germany, 1 from ex-People's Republic of Korea, 1 from Pakistan, 1 from Switzerland,
48 1 from Argentina and 1 of unknown origin. All additional information about the used inbred
49 lines is available as Supplementary table S1.

50 ***Genotyping and data management***

1 The MRIZP accessions of the SEE panel were genotyped with Axiom™ 600k Maize
2 SNP Genotyping Array with 616,201 variants of which 6,759 represent insertions/deletions
3 (Unterseer et al., 2016, 2014). All steps of the DNA analysis were conducted by
4 TraitGenetics GmbH, Germany including standard protocols of DNA extraction and marker
5 quality control. Two other publically available genotypic matrices anchored with the same
6 genotyping array were used to conduct this study. First was data from Unterseer et al.,
7 (2016) on 155 elite Dent or European flint / Northern Flint inbred lines, mainly from German
8 and French public breeding programs (TUM panel) and the second was the data from Millet
9 et al., (2016) on 247 dent inbred lines (DROPS panel). Most of the inbred lines from both
10 data sets were European developments along with the most important US ex-PVP and
11 public inbreds. Additional information about the inbred lines is available in Supplementary
12 table S1.

13 The data from all three datasets were merged using a custom R script and
14 insertions/deletions were removed, leaving 500,167 overlapping positions. Positions were
15 further filtered for heterozygotes (2.5%) and missing data (5%) in Tassel software (Bradbury
16 et al., 2007) version 5.2.64 leaving a final set of 460,243 filtered positions. The positions
17 were imputed using the LinkImpute method (Money et al., 2015) with 50 sites in high linkage
18 disequilibrium and 30 nearest neighbors. For population structure analysis, all positions
19 were thinned to 1000 base pair distance, leaving 166,755 sites.

20 ***Population structure***

21 Population structure was determined by combining several methods:
22 Neighbor-joining cladogram was constructed in Tassel and edited using a FigTree software
23 (Rambaut, 2018) version 1.4.4.
24 Principal coordinate analysis (multi-dimensional scaling, PcoA) was performed with thinned
25 marker set with identity-by state distance matrix as input in Tassel software version 5.2.64.
26 To correctly infer the underlying genetic structure of the assessed germplasm, Admixture
27 analysis was run (Alexander and Lange, 2011) in Ubuntu 20.04 terminal with 166,755
28 imputed and thinned sites. The cross-validation error did not reach minimum until the
29 maximum number of 15 inferred populations. Another method for inference of ancestry was
30 sparse nonnegative matrix factorization algorithm (sNMF) (Frichot et al., 2014) in which
31 cross-entropy criterion was employed to find the best value of K, but similarly to Admixture
32 cross-validation results, minimum was not reached until the last assumed ancestral
33 population.
34 To infer the optimal number of ancestral populations (K), 10,000 positions were randomly
35 sampled from the imputed and thinned set of 166,755 sites and analyzed with STRUCTURE
36 software (Pritchard et al., 2000), version 2.3.4. The K was set from 1 to 15 and 5 runs were
37 carried out per each K with 5,000 burn-in cycles and 15,000 replicates. Based on the findings
38 of Puechmaille (Puechmaille, 2016) that uneven sampling of subpopulations leads to
39 underestimates of true number of K, parameters MedMed K, MedMeanK, MaxMed K and
40 MaxMean K were calculated using the StructureSelector software (Li and Liu, 2018).
41 Additionally, parameter deltaK (Evanno et al., 2005) was calculated.
42 Spatial projections of the calculated ancestry coefficients were performed using a
43 Bioconductor package LEA (Frichot and François, 2015) following methodology described
44 in Jay et al. (2012). Pie charts of the average ancestries of samples with assigned putative
45 origin were mapped to 15 European locations, and Kriging on dominant spatial patterns was
46 performed. Single coordinates were added to each country of origin, while the historical
47 inbreds from ex-East Germany were assigned to Germany pool, ex- Czechoslovakian
48 inbreds were mapped between today Czech Republic and Slovakia and ex-Yugoslavian
49 inbreds were mapped on Serbian-Croatian border harboring the largest ex-Yugoslavian
50 breeding programs.

51 ***Parameters of genetic diversity and selective sweeps***

1 Nucleotide diversity π was assessed as $\pi = 2 * \sum_{i=2}^n \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} x_i x_j \pi_{ij}$ where x_i and x_j
2 are the respective frequencies of the i -th and j -th sequences, π is the number of
3 nucleotide differences per nucleotide site between the the i -th and j -th sequences, and n
4 is the total number of sequences in the sample. Watterson estimator θ was calculated as
5 $\theta = 4N_e\mu$, where N_e is effective population size, and μ is an estimate of per-generation
6 mutation rate. Tajima's D was calculated from the aforementioned parameters as $D = \frac{d}{\sqrt{\hat{V}(d)}}$
7 , where d represents difference between two values of θ , and \hat{V} is a variance of this
8 difference. Scan for selective sweeps was carried out using a sliding window analysis with
9 a step size of 100 bp, and a window size of 500 bp in Tassel software version 5.2.64.
10 Another, more stringent protocol for sweep detection was also carried out, namely Raised
11 Accuracy in Sweep Detection (RAiSD) (Alachiotis and Pavlidis, 2018). In RAiSD protocol,
12 three signatures of selective sweeps are calculated: first signature is the local reduction of
13 the polymorphism level quantified by parameter μ^{VAR} . The second signature shows the shift
14 in the site frequency spectrum (SFS) toward low- and high-frequency derived variants and
15 is termed μ^{SFS} . The third signature (μ^{LD}) shows a localized pattern of linkage disequilibrium
16 (LD) levels, characterized by high LD on each side of a putative mutation and low LD
17 between loci that are located on different sides of the beneficial allele. The final parameter
18 μ is calculated from the three above mentioned parameters. Window size in the analysis
19 was set to 50 base pairs. RAiSD software version 2.8. (Alachiotis and Pavlidis, 2018) was
20 run in the Ubuntu terminal using the full imputed SNP matrix.

21 3. Results

22 Genotyping data summary

23 In the filtered and imputed dataset, there was a total of 460263 SNPs, 460241 of which
24 were segregating. Average minor allele frequency (MAF) was 0.255, and high values of
25 Tajima's D (4.105) were observed. When SEE panel genotyping data was combined with
26 two other European panels with publicly available data for Affymetrix Axiom 600k chip (Millet
27 et al., 2016; Unterseer et al., 2016), all 460263 loci were found to be segregating, with similar
28 MAF and slightly higher Tajima's D of 4.661 (Table 1)
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30

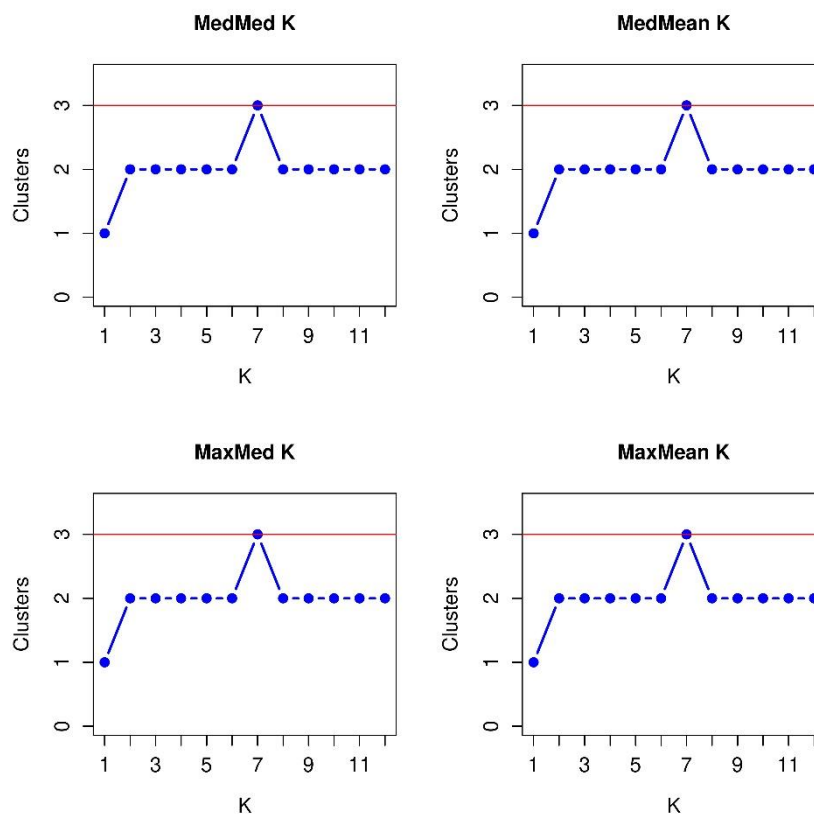
31 Table 1. Summary of genotypic data for the SEE maize panel as well as publicly
32 available genotypic data for the two West European panels of DROPS (Millet et al.,
33 2016) and TUM (Unterseer et al., 2016).

Panel	Number of inbreds	Number of sites (all panels)	Segregating sites	Average MAF	π per bp	θ per bp	Tajima's D
SEE	572	460263	460241	0.255	0.340	0.144	4.105
DROPS	247		460242	0.245	0.333	0.164	3.264
TUM	155		460239	0.264	0.359	0.178	3.351
Total	974		460243	0.255	0.346	0.134	4.661

34

1 **Number of ancestral populations (K) and admixture analysis**

2 The used methods Admixture and sNMF failed to reach minimum values of cross-
3 validation error and cross-entropy, respectively up to the maximal inferred number of 15
4 assumed ancestral populations, although the presence of a “knee” was observed in cross-
5 entropy analysis (not shown). STRUCTURE algorithm was run with a random subset of
6 10,000 markers and gave two conflicting groups of results depending on the employed
7 methodology (Supplementary figure 1). The ΔK method (Evanno et al., 2005) gave an
8 estimate of five ancestral populations, while LnP(K) method (Pritchard et al., 2000) gave an
9 estimate of seven ancestral populations. The third method employed to support the decision
10 on best number of K proposed by (Puechmaille, 2016) converged in all four estimated
11 parameters (MedMed K, MedMean K, MaxMed K and MaxMean K) on value of K=7 (Figure
12 1) which was used for further analyses. F_{ST} values between the assumed ancestral
13 populations can be seen in Table 2. The first population (K1) represents European flints,
14 present in all three assessed panels, but dominant in the TUM panel. Second population
15 (K2) represents parts of the Stiff Stalk Synthetic-derived germplasm, namely B73, and
16 inbreds developed in Italy present in the DROPS panel. The third population (K3) is
17 represented by the Mo17-related inbreds, i.e. Lancasters. In fourth population (K4) are the
18 lines derived from Stiff Stalk Synthetic, namely B14 and A632. The fifth population (K5)
19 bears lines derived from Wf9, Oh43 and Pa91. Markedly, in sixth population (K6) in samples
20 with population memberships >0.9 are almost exclusively inbreds from SEE panel, except
21 from a single line from USA, namely A374 (historical Minnesota line) which represents
22 historical US germplasm strained from Reid Yellow Dent. The seventh population (K7) was
23 represented with lodent pool, focused around lodent progenitor line PH207. Most interesting
24 was the complete lack of lodent inbreds from the SEE panel with only two inbreds with
25 ancestral coefficients of 0.706 in K7 from Hungary and ex-Yugoslavia (Supplementary table
26 1).



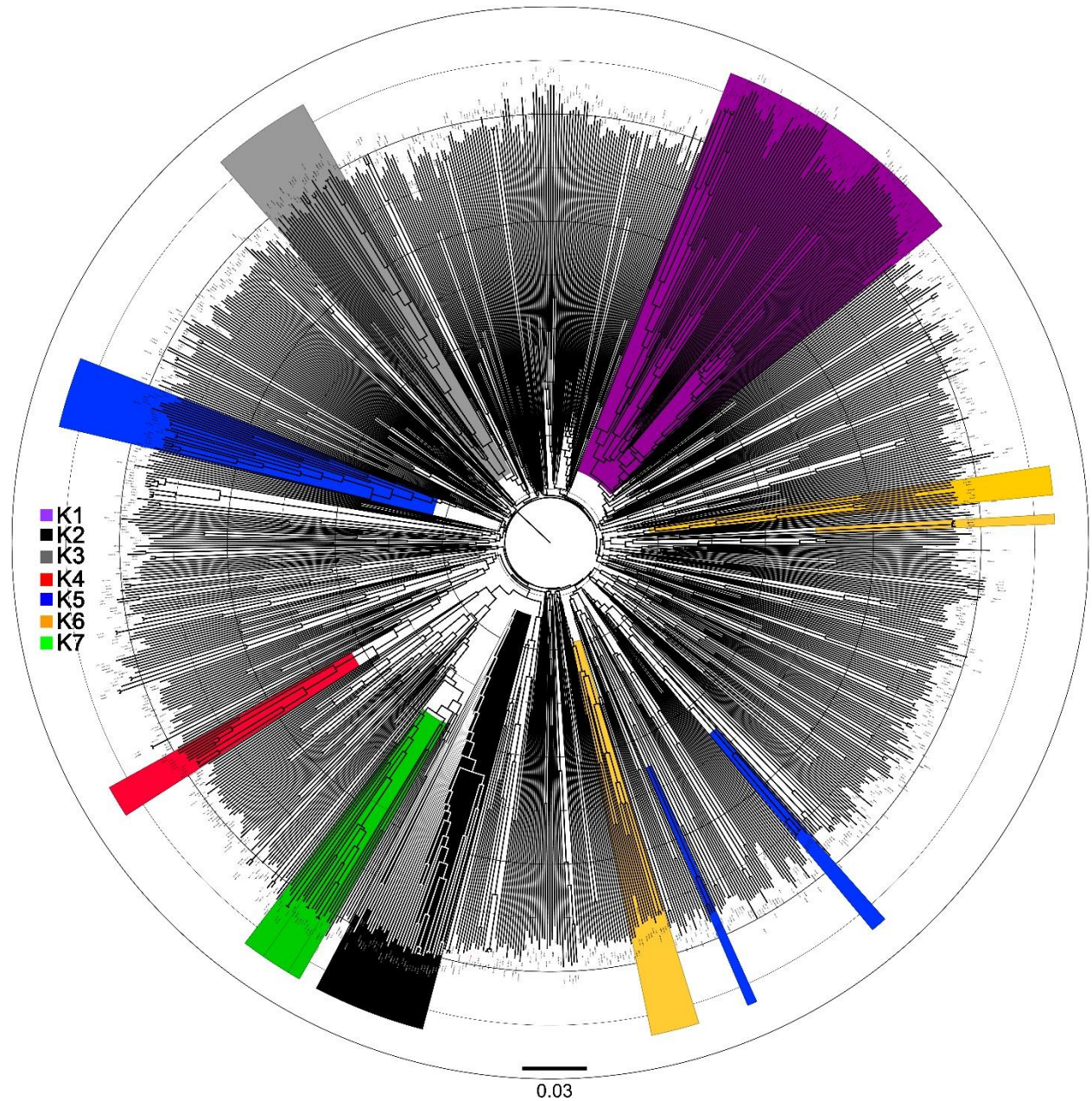
1 Figure 1: Selection of best number of ancestral populations (red line) using a
2 method developed by Puechmaille (2016).

3 Table 2. Mean dissimilarity (F_{ST}) between ancestral populations

	K1	K2	K3	K4	K5	K6
K2	0.476					
K3	0.367	0.582				
K4	0.389	0.495	0.506			
K5	0.273	0.478	0.365	0.395		
K6	0.209	0.404	0.301	0.311	0.186	
K7	0.438	0.625	0.521	0.536	0.421	0.347

4 Based on STRUCTURE results, a highlighted neighbor joining cladogram was
5 constructed (Figure 2). In the cladogram, highlighted are the clades in which inbreds with
6 membership coefficients >0.9 are found. In the cladogram, populations K1, K2, K3, K4 and
7 K7 are distinguished, while individuals of populations K5 and K6 appear scattered on
8 different branches.

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Figure 2. Neighbor joining cladogram of combined three European maize panels SEE, DROPS and TUM (n=974). Highlighted are the clades with inbreds with membership coefficients in admixture analysis >0.9.

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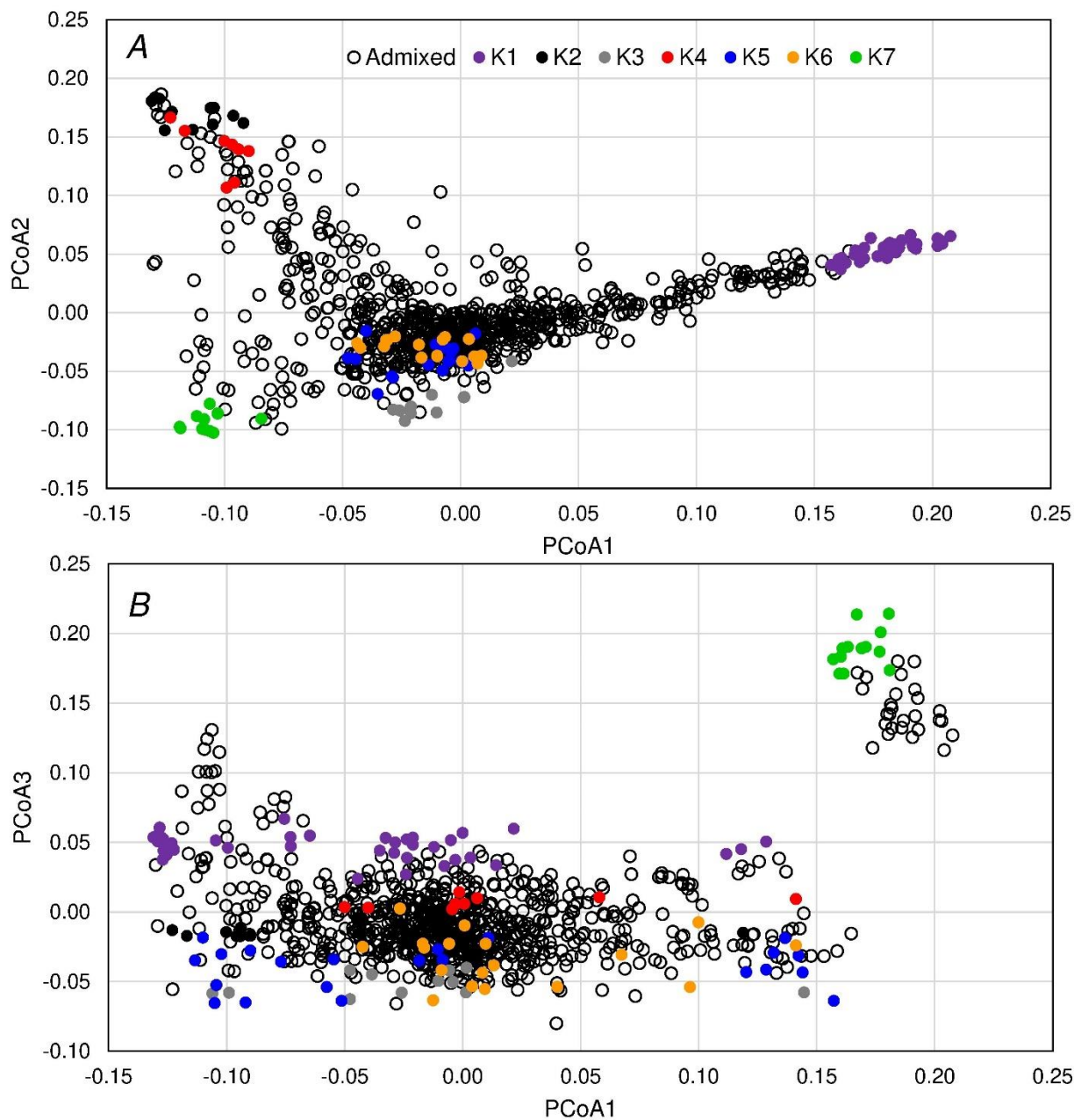
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Principal coordinate analysis (PcoA) was employed to further analyze the obtained diversity patterns (Figure 3). Compared to the neighbor joining clustering results, only K1 and K7 showed distinct appearance across three examined planes. Lack of distinctness visible between groups with membership coefficients >0.9 K2 and K4, as well as K5 and K6 was partially in agreement with results of neighbor joining clustering. Only the first two coordinates showed eigenvalues >2 (Table 3), with slight decrease in eigenvalues up to the last assumed coordinate (Table 3). Appearance and the spread on the scatterplots (Figure 3) was in accordance with mean pairwise differences in Table 2. Smallest spread was accompanied with lowest observed F_{ST} values within populations (Table 2), especially in K2 (0.178) and K7 (0.228)



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Figure 3. Principal coordinate analysis (PcoA) results of the 974 assessed inbred lines from the three European maize panels. Figure A shows principal coordinates 1 and 2, while principal coordinates 1 and 3 are shown in B. The inbred lines with Admixture membership coefficients >0.9 are shown in color.

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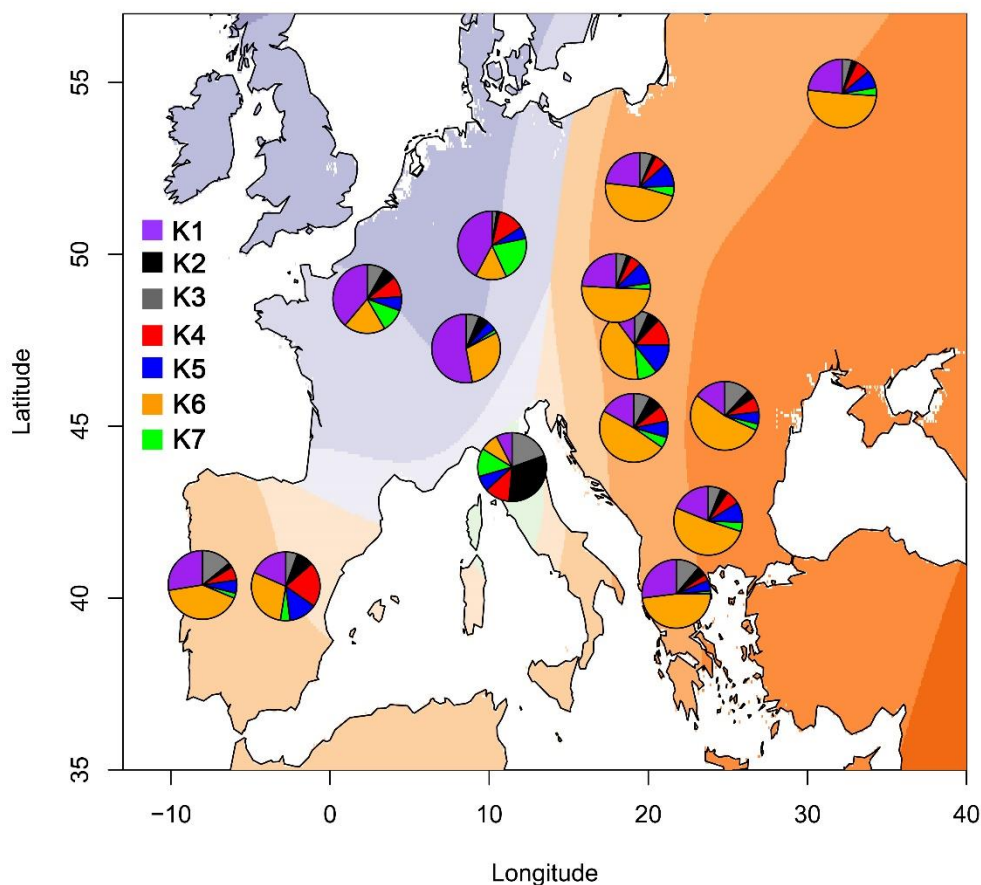
1

2 Table 3. Eigenvalues of the assessed components from the PcoA analysis.

PcoA	eigenvalue
1	4.28
2	2.42
3	1.85
4	1.46
5	1.31
6	1.23
7	1.06

3

4 Kriging of the mean population membership coefficients to 15 known and putative sites
5 of origin of the assessed maize inbred lines showed three different dominant geospatial
6 patterns. First pattern was mostly represented by Germany, France and Switzerland, with
7 prevailing European flint genetic group. The germplasm related to B73 and Mo17 (K2 and
8 K3) was dominantly represented in Italy, while Spain, Portugal, Greece, Bulgaria, Romania,
9 ex-Yugoslavia, Hungary, ex-Czechoslovakia, Poland and ex-USSR showed dominant
10 germplasm from K6 with varying shares of other materials. Higher mean ancestral
11 coefficients linked to historical Minnesota inbreds were also observed in these countries.



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13 Figure 4. Pie charts of the mean population membership coefficients for the 15
14 European countries with known or putative origin of inbred lines assessed in the

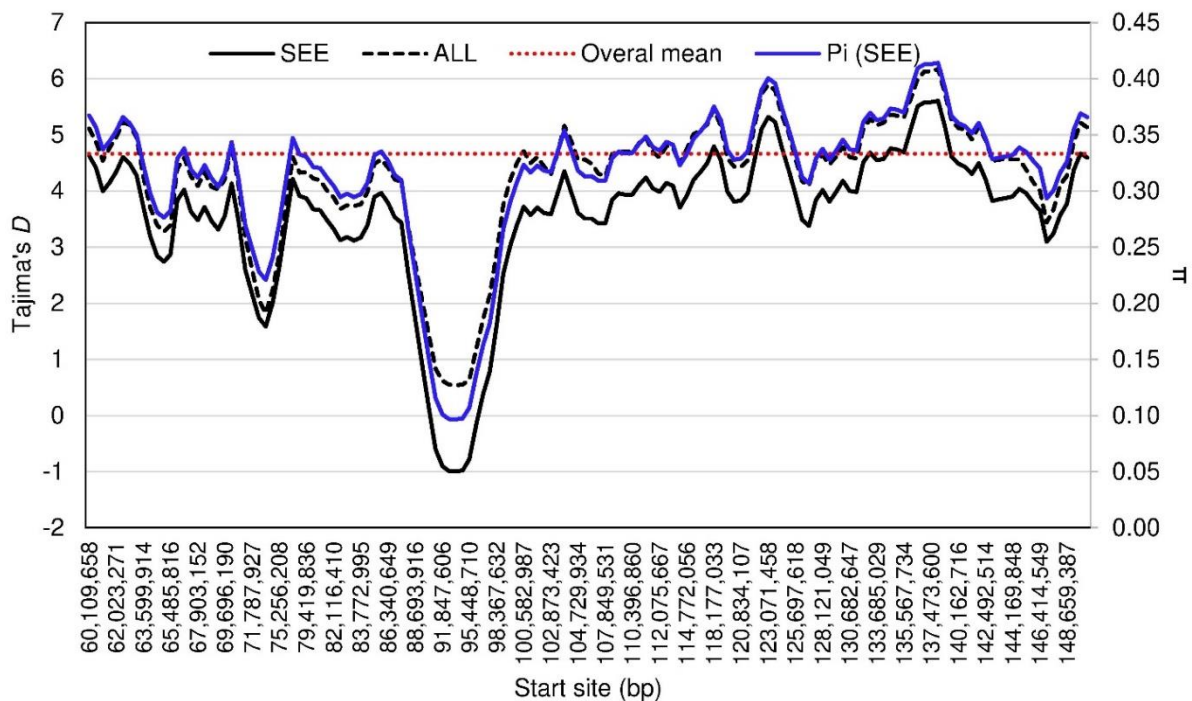
1 three maize genotyping panels. Different layers of color represent the results of
2 geospatial kriging of the dominant patterns of population membership coefficients.

3

4 **Scans for selective sweeps**

5 In the scan for selective sweeps based on Tajima's D statistics, a single large genomic
6 region with negative values of D was detected in the SEE panel on chromosome 2 between
7 90 and 95 MBp. The negative value of D was caused by lower values of parameter π (Figure
8 5). In this region, on the position 91.2 MBp, a gene coding for Flowering promoting factor-
9 like 1 protein is found. BLAST of the cDNA coding sequence gave 84-100% sequence
10 covers in maize, sorghum, and weeping love grass possibly indicating a conserved gene in
11 C4 grasses.

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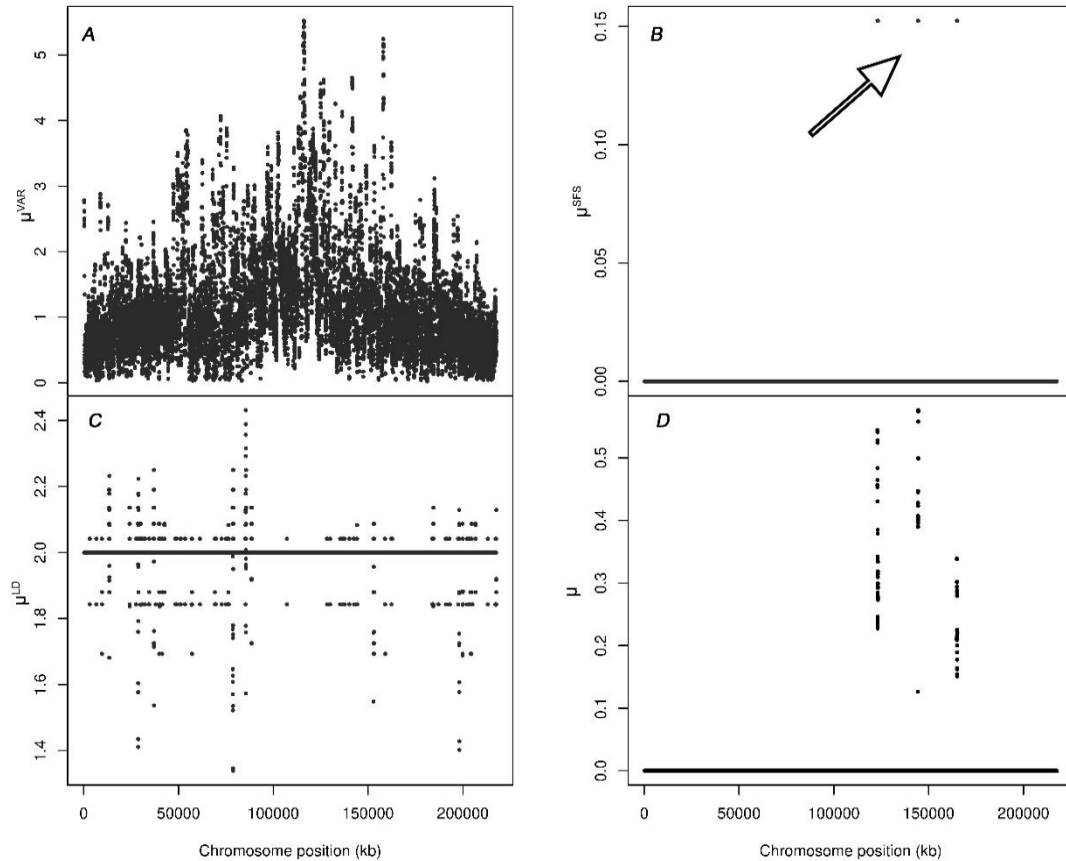


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14 Figure 5. Tajima's D and π values (blue line, secondary axis) for a region on
15 chromosome 2 associated with flowering promoting factor-like 1.

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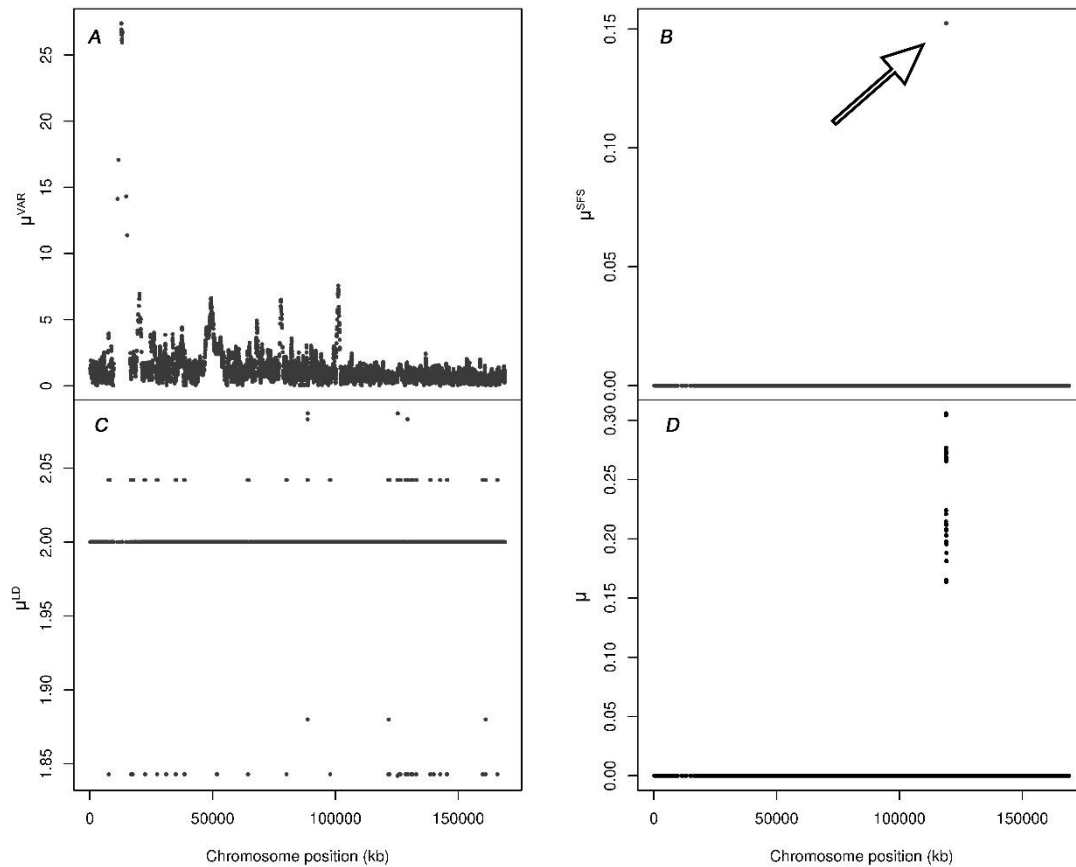
17 The further scan for selective sweeps was run using the tool RAiSD. The first parameter
18 of the RAiSD analysis μ^{VAR} quantifying the variations per 50 bp window showed most
19 variation around the centromere region of chromosome 5 (Figure 6A). The second
20 parameter μ^{SFS} assessing the shifts from the expected site frequency spectra showed three
21 positions with non-zero estimates (Figure 6B), at start positions 122994833, 144327275 and
22 164884576, respectively. The μ^{LD} parameter showed expected lower LD values for putative
23 positively selected positions (Figure 6C) resulting in final estimates of sweep statistics (μ) of
24 0.54, 0.58 and 0.34, respectively (Figure 6D).



1
2 Figure 6. Four RAiSD μ parameters (Figure 6A - μ^{VAR} ; Figure 6B - μ^{SFS} ; Figure 6C
3 - μ^{LD} , and Figure 6D - μ for potential selective sweeps on chromosome 5 in the SEE
4 maize panel.

5 Another selective sweep signal was detected with RAiSD on chromosome 6 (Figure 7).
6 The values of μ^{VAR} , μ^{SFS} and μ^{LD} resulted in final estimates of sweep statistics (μ) of 0.31
7 on start position 118933183 bp. The search for candidate genes within the regions with non-
8 zero μ statistics was carried out within MaizeGDB interface. Within the region with start
9 position 122994833 bp in chromosome 5, a gene coding for *gras17* –GRAS transcription
10 factor is found (Table 4). In position 144327275 bp several protein coding genes are found,
11 namely bHLH transcription factor, putative protein phosphatase 2C 76 and Rhodanese-like
12 domain-containing protein 4 chloroplastic. Within the last detected putative selective sweep
13 in chromosome 5, position 164884576 bp, protein coding genes for Polyadenylate-binding
14 protein-interacting protein 3, RS21-C6, Os02g0478550-like, rps27b and Spotted leaf protein
15 11 are found. In the Chromosome 6 within the region in which selective sweep signal was
16 detected, is the protein coding gene *bzip59* - bZIP-transcription factor 59, and
17 uncharacterized genes TIDP3136 and AC209629.2_FG003.

18



1

2 Figure 7. Four RAiSD μ parameters (Figure 6A - μ^{VAR} ; Figure 6B - μ^{SFS} ; Figure 6C
3 - μ^{LD} , and Figure 6D - μ for potential selective sweeps on chromosome 6 in the SEE
4 maize panel.

5

6 Table 4. Candidate genes within potential selective sweeps on chromosomes 5 and
7 6

Chromosome	Start position	Final position	μ (max)	Candidates
5	122994833	123266341	0.54	gras17 -GRAS transcription factor
5	144327275	144538840	0.58	bHLH transcription factor 139, putative protein phosphatase 2C 76, Rhodanese-like domain-containing protein 4 chloroplastic
5	164884576	165073595	0.34	Polyadenylate-binding protein- interacting protein 3 (CID3), RS21-C6, Os02g0478550-like, rps27b, Spotted leaf protein 11 (SLP11)
6	118933183	119093347	0.31	bzip59 - bZIP-transcription factor 59, TIDP3136, AC209629.2_FG003

8

9

1 4. Discussion

2 This study represents a historical perspective on the germplasm of the SEE and
3 provides the first information needed to successfully utilize the favorable genetic information
4 by overcoming the issues of the classical breeding approach.

5 For $K = 7$, the joint STRUCTURE analysis of the three European panels showed one
6 flint group and six dent groups represented notably by B73, Mo17, B14, Wf9, A374 related
7 SEE inbreds and lodent lines, respectively. While subpopulations K1-K4 contained inbreds
8 belonging to all three genotyping panels, there is a clear prevalence of the lines from SEE
9 in K5 and K6 subpopulations with admixture coefficients >0.9 . The first represents the Wf9,
10 Pa91 and Oh43 based germplasm, and the latter representing the germplasm based on "A"
11 lines, namely A374 from Minnesota breeding programs (Schaefer and Bernardo, 2013).
12 These two groups have already been identified earlier as separate subpopulations of the
13 temperate maize germplasm (Hansey et al., 2011; Schaefer and Bernardo, 2013). The
14 prevalence of these lines in SEE probably reflects the early reports on the import of the
15 historical US germplasm after the WWII (Tavčar, 1955) and their use for breeding with locally
16 adapted landraces (Hadi et al., 2013; Leng et al., 1962). This was also confirmed by some
17 of the more recent studies on the genetic structure of SEE germplasm (Şuteu et al., 2013).
18 Most of these accessions are obsolete, and are not directly present in the contemporary
19 temperate breeding germplasm (Mikel, 2011; Romay et al., 2013) except small amounts of
20 Wf9 and Oh43 (Coffman et al., 2020). On the other hand, the lodent germplasm (K7) is
21 almost completely lacking in the SEE panel. This is caused primarily by the historical nature
22 of the SEE panel, along with the fact that the lodent progenitor line PH207 was not publicly
23 available until 2002 (Mikel and Dudley, 2006). It might be worthwhile to re-evaluate this
24 resource with modern tools, especially since the local SEE landraces have been used in
25 breeding with these accessions possibly offering certain resource of alleles for adaptation
26 traits. This is reflected through the high allelic diversity present in this panel (Table 1)
27 accompanied by the very high estimates of the Tajima's D . High D values represent the
28 effects of balancing selection (Tajima, 1989). This might have been influenced by the
29 population contraction or possibly by the selection within the known heterotic patterns. The
30 familiar examples of the balancing selection are heterozygote advantage (overdominance
31 in case of heterosis) and frequency-dependent selection with rare-allele advantage. The
32 frequency dependent selection possibly strains from the fact that the present results
33 represent the genotyping results of a genetic resource collection in which many inbreds
34 represent the maintained admixed accessions with local landraces where selection for
35 certain favorable phenotypic type has occurred.

36 Plotting the results on the map of Europe with spatial projections of dominant patterns
37 on coordinates revealed the three different underlying patterns of the distribution of ancestry
38 coefficients. Namely, the main pattern in the Western Europe represented by the accessions
39 from France, Germany and Switzerland is mostly of European Flint materials which is in
40 accordance with the results of (Bouchet et al., 2013). Another pattern was represented solely
41 by the accessions from Italy, closely related to the Stiff Stalk Synthetic germplasm. The third
42 pattern represented by the inbreds Wf9, Pa91 and Oh43 can be observed in Spain, Portugal
43 and most of Eastern and Southeastern Europe. The larger proportions of the lines
44 associated with materials from Minnesota in SEE can also be observed (Figure 4, blue),
45 although the sampling of Portugal, Spain and Italy was generally biased towards the dent
46 materials with underrepresentation of European flint in these countries.

47 The scan for selective sweeps using Tajima's D statistic yielded very high estimates of
48 D throughout the genome. The high estimates of D are expected in cases of balancing
49 selection, and heterotic patterns in maize that maximize the heterotic effects make the
50 balancing selection inevitable, especially in commercial germplasm. However, the possible
51 signal of a soft selective sweep was detected on chromosome 2, where a gene coding for
52 *Flowering promoting factor-like 1* (FPF1) protein is found. FPF1 is involved in floral
53 development and transition from vegetative to reproductive phase of plant. BLAST of the

1 cDNA sequence gave 84-100% covers in maize, sorghum and weeping love grass
2 (*Eragrostis curvula*), possibly indicating a gene conserved in C4 grasses. Soft sweeps appear
3 to be the signature of a main mechanism of adaptation, i.e. they do not result in a large shift
4 in the site frequency spectrum leaving the genetic variation within position slightly changed
5 (Luikart et al., 2018). Moreover, variation in flowering regulation provides maize the means
6 of adaptation to different latitudes and longitudes (Bouchet et al., 2013; Romero Navarro et
7 al., 2017) influenced by different day lengths, temperatures, and stressors (Brandenburg et
8 al., 2017). However, another reason for this signal might be the selfing of the first pollinating
9 progenies for many generations in breeding programs causing this putative soft sweep
10 signal as overexpression of this gene leads to shortening of time to flowering (Wang et al.,
11 2014). The original inbreds in complete linkage disequilibrium were probably left unaffected,
12 thus preventing the hard sweep signal.

13 The further scan for selective sweeps was performed using the Raised Accuracy in
14 Sweep Detection (RAiSD) methodology (Alachiotis and Pavlidis, 2018). RAiSD was chosen
15 because it combines the three known signals of selective sweeps in calculation of μ statistic:
16 local reduction of polymorphism levels, shift in the site frequency spectra, and the localized
17 patterns of linkage disequilibrium within the 50 bp windows thus providing the increased
18 accuracy of true positive detection of approximately 97%. The detection of a selective
19 sweeps is under the strong influence of the migration and bottlenecks which is especially
20 applicable to the breeding germplasm, regularly exchanged between breeders, companies
21 and plant genetic resource offices. This can generate the large number of false positives, so
22 defining the cutoff of at least 95% is advisable. In our work, the shown sweep signal statistics
23 μ on chromosomes 5 and 6 (Figures 6d and 7d) both fall below the 99th percentile for the
24 individual chromosomes in which the signals were detected. It appears that all four detected
25 sweep candidate loci were driven by the highly altered site frequency spectra (SFS, Figure
26 6b and Figure 7b). The changes in SFS are usually caused by the background selection for
27 beneficial variants, which increase in frequency accompanied by the decrease in frequency
28 of positions not linked to beneficial variants (Pavlidis and Alachiotis, 2017). All sweep signals
29 were detected within the gene-rich regions. In the region with start position 122994833 bp
30 in chromosome 5, GRAS transcription factor (*gras17*) is located. The *gras17* is involved in
31 processes of meristem initiation and regulation of transcription with highest expression
32 levels in shoot and leave tips (Stelplflug et al., 2016). The GRAS family of transcription
33 factors is very large with only a few characterized genes with known physiological roles (Guo
34 et al., 2017), so it is not possible to establish the cause of background selection of one
35 variant over other. In the second position on chromosome 5 (144327275 bp), the basic Helix-
36 Loop-Helix (bHLH) transcription factor was detected. The most famous of bHLH transcription
37 factor gene is a *BARREN STALK1* which regulates formation of axillary tissues including
38 tillers (Woods et al., 2011), possibly indicating selection against tillering. The bHLH139
39 detected in this study is still uncharacterized, but its duplications through the genome
40 indicate an important biological role (Zhang et al., 2018). Selective sweep might thus also
41 indicate the selection of a single morphological type in some morphological characteristic,
42 or adaptation to certain environmental factors. Of the candidates located in the last detected
43 region in chromosome 5 (164884576 bp), two have overlapping roles and might have been
44 inadvertent targets of selection. The first is *CID3*, coding for Polyadenylate-binding protein-
45 interacting protein 3, involved in responses to auxin stimulus (Wada et al., 2012). The
46 second is *SPL3* (Spotted leaf protein 11), involved in flowering, with elevated expression
47 levels in reproductive organs (Shikata et al., 2009). Although there are known roles for these
48 two genes, some other uncharacterized gene might also have been under selection causing
49 the detected signal. On chromosome 6, position 118933183 bp, a basic leucine zipper
50 transcription factor 59 (*bZIP59*) is located with molecular function involved in DNA-binding
51 transcription factor activity. The *bZIP* represents a large family of transcription factor, with
52 some known genes included in the protein storage in grain, such as *Opaque2* (Yang et al.,
53 2016), and many factors included in the seed development which might have influenced the
54 selection (Wang et al., 2019).

1 5. Conclusions

2 The distinct genetic structure patterns were detected in the SEE when genotyping
3 results were analyzed in pan-European context provided by the two other publically available
4 complementary European panels. Some of the prevailing ancestral patterns in historical
5 accessions from SEE can be explained by several historical references on the import and
6 use for breeding of certain historical inbreds, such as Wf9, Pa91, Oh43 and A374 (Tavčar,
7 1955). High nucleotide diversity in the SEE panel might also be partially caused by the use
8 of local landraces in pedigrees of some inbreds (Leng et al., 1962). Soft sweep signal
9 detected in the region of chromosome 2, harboring the gene FPF1, with known role in
10 induction of flowering might have been caused by the extensive pollination of the first
11 flowering progenies in crosses from which the inbreds were developed. Additional scan for
12 selective sweeps using the RAI_{SD} methodology yielded three more sweep signals in
13 chromosome 5, and a single sweep signal in chromosome 6. All sweeps were detected in
14 regions harboring genes affecting morphology and flowering, possibly indicating the
15 inadvertent selection for the best-adapted or the favorable-appearance types. Our study
16 provides the first step towards the utilization of this rich resource of the genetic materials for
17 use in breeding. Accompanying phenotypic analysis is needed for assessment of the SEE
18 accessions for favorable alleles, and identification of breeding targets.

19 **Funding:** This research was funded by the EU project “Biodiversity and Molecular Plant
20 Breeding”, grant number KK.01.1.1.01.0005, of the Centre of Excellence for Biodiversity and
21 Molecular Plant Breeding (CroP-BioDiv), Zagreb, Croatia.

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