

Analyzing genetic diversity and molecular characteristics of wild centipedegrass using sequence-related amplified polymorphism (SRAP) markers

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Abstract

Centipedegrass [*Eremochloa ophiuroides* (Munro) Hack.] is commonly used as a low-maintenance warm-season turfgrass owing to its excellent adaptation to various soil types. A better understanding of the genetic diversity pattern of centipedegrass is essential for the efficient development and utilization of accessions. ~~In this study, 55 pairs of primers were used~~ This study used 55 pairs of primers to detect the genetic variation and genetic structure of 23 wild centipedegrass accessions by SRAP markers. A total of 919 reliable bands were amplified, among which 606 (65.80%) were polymorphic. The average polymorphic information content (PIC) value was 0.228. The unweighted pair group method with arithmetic mean (UPGMA) clustering analysis grouped the 23 accessions into two clusters. Meanwhile, the structure analysis showed that the tested accessions possessed two main genetic memberships ($K = 2$). The Mantel test ~~showed a significant correlation between~~ significantly correlated the genetic and geographic distance matrices ($r = 0.3854$, $p = 0.000140$). Furthermore, geographical groups showed moderate genetic differentiation, and the highest intragroup genetic diversity was found in the Sichuan group ($He = 0.201$). Overall, the present research findings could promote the protection and collection of centipedegrass and provide comprehensive information to develop novel breeding strategies.

Keywords: *Eremochloa ophiuroides*; SRAP; genetic diversity; phenotype

Introduction

Centipedegrass [*Eremochloa ophiuroides* (Munro) Hack.] is a perennial warm-season diploid grass species ($2n = 2x = 18$) that belongs to the genus *Eremochloa* in the family Poaceae. Centipedegrass originated in southwest China, and the wild population is reportedly mainly

34 distributed in the southern Yangtze River region of China (Hanna & Burton, 1978; He *et al.*,
35 2022). With beautiful leaves, low plant height, drought and barren tolerance, high coverage rate,
36 and strong disease resistance (Cai *et al.*, 2022; Li *et al.*, 2020), the centipedegrass is a relatively
37 ideal broad-leaved grass species, suitable for building sports and leisure lawn, requiring low
38 maintenance and management. In addition, it can consolidate soil, protect slopes and
39 embankments, and prevent soil and water loss, which plays an important role in slope vegetation
40 restoration (Islam & Hirata, 2010; Liu *et al.*, 2008). Therefore, centipedegrass is a pioneer plant
41 for slope ecological restoration. Although centipedegrass is widely distributed in China, with
42 diverse populations and great potential for development, there are few varieties adapted to
43 specific regional climates, which poses a real challenge to the demand for new centipedegrass
44 varieties with long green periods, high overwintering rates, and adaptation to climate change in
45 non-local environments.

46 Evaluation of genetic diversity in germplasm resources can provide useful information for plant
47 breeding programs (Gawali *et al.*, 2006). Analysis of the genetic variation in various markers
48 such as morphology, agronomic traits, and DNA molecular markers showed significant
49 differences between different accessions and populations (Xuan *et al.*, 2005; Zhao *et al.*, 2011;
50 Milla-Lewis *et al.*, 2012). Compared with other biochemical markers, DNA molecular markers
51 have superior characteristics, such as higher polymorphism, more accurate experimental results,
52 and independence from environmental conditions and developmental stages (Massa *et al.*,
53 2001). Furthermore, they represent a robust and quick approach to detecting the genetic
54 variability of germplasm. Over the years, several molecular markers like amplified fragment
55 length polymorphism (AFLP), random amplified polymorphic DNA (RAPD), and inter-simple
56 sequence repeat (ISSR) have been used to elucidate the genetic diversity of centipedegrass
57 accessions (Xuan *et al.*, 2005; Zhao *et al.*, 2011; Milla-Lewis *et al.*, 2012; Massa *et al.*, 2001).
58 Sequence-related amplified polymorphism (SRAP) is a new PCR-based approach whereby two
59 sets of primers are designed based on the G and C contents in gene exons to amplify the open
60 reading frame (Li & Quiros, 2001; Robarts & Wolfe, 2014). Compared with other common
61 dominant markers, it is easier to operate, low-cost, and more functional. Therefore, in recent
62 years, SRAP molecular marker technology has been widely used for the study of genetic
63 diversity in a large number of grass species, such as *Russian Alfalfa* (Shamustakimova *et al.*,
64 2021), *Buchloe dactyloides* (Wu *et al.*, 2019), *Dactylis glomerata* (Zeng *et al.*, 2008).

65 Few studies have hitherto used SRAP to explore the genetic diversity of centipedegrass
66 accessions. This study combined SRAP molecular markers with the seven morphological
67 indexes to reveal the genetic and morphological diversity of 23 centipedegrass accessions. This
68 study aimed to reveal the population genetic structure of these materials at the molecular level.
69 Besides, morphological diversity analysis was conducted to obtain more comprehensive
70 information, which is of great significance for preserving valuable genetic resources, selecting

71 high-quality germplasm resources, and developing new varieties.

72 **Materials and Methods**

73 **Plant Samples and DNA Extraction**

74 A total of 23 wild centipedegrass accessions were collected in this study collected from Sichuan
75 province (n = 9), Chongqing municipality (n = 6), abroad (n = 1), and other parts of China (n =
76 7) (Table S1, Fig. S1). In early May 2016, seven morphological traits were measured and scored
77 in the experimental field of Hanchang town, Chengdu city in China (30°35'24"N, 103°31'48"E),
78 which were erect branch leaf length (EBLL), erect branch leaf width (EBLW), stolon leaf length
79 (SLL), stolon leaf width (SLW), stolon internode length (SIL), stolon internode diameter (SLD),
80 and grass height (GLH) (Table S2). We divided the 23 accessions into three groups according
81 to their geographical origins: Sichuan (9 accessions), Chongqing (6 accessions), and Other
82 areas (8 accessions). Dispersed geographical groups with few individuals were classified into
83 the same group.

84 Genomic DNA was extracted using a ~~plant~~Plant Genomic DNA Extraction Kit (DP305, Beijing
85 Tiangen). The concentration of DNA was detected by ultramicro spectrophotometer.
86 Completely tested DNA samples were diluted to 10 ng/μL with sterile ddH₂O and stored at -
87 20°C for PCR amplification.

88 **SRAP Analysis**

89 A total of 215 pairs of SRAP primers were randomly combined to screen polymorphic primers
90 for 23 wild centipedegrass accessions. SRAP amplification system: 15 μL SRAP reaction
91 system: DNA template 3 μL (10 ng μL⁻¹), MIX 7.5 μL (dNTP 240 μmol L⁻¹, Taq enzyme 1.0
92 U μL⁻¹, Mg²⁺ 2.5 mmol L⁻¹), upstream and downstream primer 0.3 μL (10 μmol L⁻¹) each,
93 ddH₂O 3.6 μL, and Taq enzyme 0.3 μL. The SRAP-PCR reaction was performed as follows:
94 predenaturation at 94°C for 5 min, 5 cycles of denaturation at 94°C for 1 min, annealing at 35°C
95 for 1 min, stretching at 72°C for 1 min, 35 cycles of denaturation at 94°C for 1 min, annealing
96 at 50°C for 1 minute, 72°C for 1 minute, final extension at 72°C for 10 minutes and storage at
97 4°C. The PCR products were separated by 6% modified polyacrylamide gel and detected by
98 silver staining. Gel clear photographs were used for the following analysis.

99 **Data Analysis**

100 The polymorphic bands were statistically analyzed according to the electrophoresis results. The
101 presence and absence of stripes were recorded as 1 and 0, respectively. Finally, a (0, 1) matrix
102 was generated for statistical software analysis. The number of polymorphic bands (NPB),
103 percentage of polymorphic bands (PPB), marker index (MI), and resolution (RP) were
104 calculated to evaluate the ability of SRAP primers to identify marker differences. PIC was used

105 to evaluate the value of markers for detecting population polymorphism. PIC was calculated by
106 the following formula:

$$107 \quad \text{PIC} = 1 - \sum P_i^2$$

108 Where P_i is the frequency for the i th microsatellite allele (Riek *et al.*, 2001). The GenAlex 6.51
109 procedure (Peakall, 2012) was used to estimate the effective number of alleles (N_e), Shannon
110 information index (I_s) and pairwise population F_{ST} values (F_{ST}) among the geographical
111 groups. At the same time, principal coordinates analysis (PCoA) was used to analyze the
112 information quality of specific SRAP primers. In addition, NTSYS-pc software was used for
113 cluster analysis of the unweighted pair group method with arithmetic mean (UPGMA), and a
114 tree diagram was generated. The relationship between morphological indexes, climatic data,
115 and genetic similarity coefficients of all germplasms was determined by the Mantel test (Zeller
116 Katherine *et al.*, 2016). Otherwise, we further evaluated the genetic structure of the population
117 of 23 germplasm resources using the STRUCTURE 2.3.3 software (Pritchard *et al.*, 2000), with
118 population K set to 1 - 10. The number of iterations for the burn-in and post-burn periods was
119 set to 10^4 and 10^5 for the Markov chain Monte Carlo simulations. Then the online program was
120 used to determine the optimal K value (Dent A & Bridgett M, 2012).

121 **Results**

122 **Primer polymorphism analysis**

123 ~~55~~ Fifty-five pairs of qualified primers were screened from 215 pairs of primers, and the
124 polymorphism of 23 wild centipedegrass accessions germplasm resources was evaluated. The
125 results showed that the number of reliable bands amplified by each primer pair was 7 (M14E07)
126 - 23 (M01E07), and a total of 919 reliable bands were amplified. The polymorphic bands per
127 primer pair ranged from 16.67% (M07E07) to 90% (M01E20 and M17E10), with an average
128 of 65.8%. The polymorphism and recognition ability of primers were evaluated by PIC, MI and
129 RP. The average PIC value was 0.228, and the PIC value of primer M12E19 was the highest
130 (0.312). The average MI and RP values were 1.85 and 5.40, respectively, indicating the high
131 utility of the primers.

132 **Clustering, PCoA, and Population Structure Analysis**

133 Based on the (0, 1) matrix, UPGMA analysis showed that all accessions could be divided into
134 two clusters (Fig. S3). Cluster I was mainly from Chongqing and other areas, and ~~the~~ cluster II
135 was mainly from Sichuan. Through principal coordinates analysis, another clustering of 23 wild
136 centipedegrass accessions was performed to generate a scatter plot (Fig. 1). The results showed
137 that PCoA divided 23 accessions into two clusters. The molecular variation explained by
138 principal coordinate 1 was 14.31%, which was roughly the same as the result of UPGMA tree.
139 A tree map was constructed based on morphological trait data, and all accessions could be

140 divided into two groups at an average distance of 30.399, indicating that they could be grouped
141 independently regardless of geographic distribution (Fig. S4). The population structure of 23
142 wild centipedegrass germplasms was analyzed by the Bayesian method. When the Evanno
143 method was performed, the optimal ΔK was 2 (Fig. S5). Accordingly, the optimal number of
144 subpopulations in this study was two (namely, two genetic members) (Table S4 and Fig. 1).
145 Assuming that the accessions with a Q value more than 0.8 were "pure" (Forsberg *et al.*, 2014),
146 69.56 % of the germplasm was attributed to the pure subgroup. The proportion of mixed
147 germplasm resources in Sichuan was the largest (Table S5).

148 Genetic Structure of the Inferred Geographic Groups and Mantel Analysis

149 The 23 wild centipedegrass accessions could be divided into three categories: Sichuan,
150 Chongqing, and other areas. It was found that Sichuan had the highest genetic diversity ($H_e =$
151 0.201 , $I = 0.312$) (Table 2). The analysis of molecular variance (AMOVA) showed that genetic
152 variation within geo-groups accounted for 88% of the total variation, and the F_{st} among geo-
153 groups was 0.115, indicating a moderate degree of genetic differentiation among geo-groups
154 (Table 3). The genetic distance between the three geographic groups was evaluated. We found
155 that the differentiation between Chongqing and Sichuan was the lowest ($F_{st} = 0.051$) (Table 4).
156 Mantel analysis showed no correlation between the genetic and morphological distance
157 matrices ($r = -0.0003$, $p = 0.5093$). When the genetic distance matrix correlated with climate
158 factors, BIO14 (precipitation in the driest month) ($r = 0.2513$, $p = 0.0063$), BIO15 (precipitation
159 seasonality) ($r = 0.2623$, $p = 0.0434$), and BIO17 (precipitation in the arid region) ($r = 0.2354$,
160 $p = 0.0141$) were highly correlated with genetic distance (Fig. 2, Table S6). At the same time,
161 a correlation was observed between geographical distance and the genetic matrix ($r = 0.385352$,
162 $p = 0.000140$).

163 Discussion

164 Genetic polymorphism and identification ability of SRAP primers

165 Compared with other molecular markers, SRAP has the advantages of simplicity, high
166 efficiency, high yield, and good repeatability (Budak *et al.*, 2004; Gao *et al.*, 2020; Li *et al.*,
167 2019). ~~In~~The present study, 55 SRAP markers were used to evaluate the genetic diversity of
168 23 wild centipedegrass accessions. Using 55 SRAP markers, 919 scorable fragments were
169 obtained with an average of 16.7 fragments per marker, higher than reported in a study by Zheng
170 *et al.* (2017) in 80 bermudagrass accessions (13.08 fragments per marker) but lower than
171 detected by Yuan *et al.* (2018) in 73 Kentucky bluegrass accessions (18.6 fragments per marker).
172 This finding indicates that the primers screened in this study have very good practicability in
173 ~~the study of~~studying genetic diversity. Among the 919 fragments, 606 polymorphic bands were

174 found, higher than in an RAPD study (42.41%) by Xuan *et al.*(2005). This finding indicated
175 that centipede grass germplasm has high genetic diversity.

176 It is widely acknowledged that the primer efficiency index represents the overall utility of a
177 specific primer during the identification of many accessions; higher values are associated with
178 higher efficiency and amount of information on primers. In this study, the average MI (1.85)
179 and RP (5.40) values of primers were higher than the SRAP and EST-SSR markers in prairie
180 grass (MI = 1.348, RP = 1.897 and MI = 0.67, RP = 1.14) (Yi *et al.*, 2021; Sun *et al.*, 2021).
181 Besides, the primer pairs M11E01 (MI = 4.58, RP = 9.91) and M11E09 (MI = 3.74, RP = 9.39)
182 had the highest MI and RP values, indicating that these primers had high genetic identification
183 values for centipede grass germplasm. Besides, the average PIC value of SRAP markers was
184 0.228, indicating the high utility of selected primers.

185 **Genetic Diversity of Centipede grass**

186 In this study, the overall genetic diversity of centipede grass was higher ($H_e = 0.165$) than the
187 average value (0.104) of *Hemarthria compressa* (Huang *et al.*, 2012), since the accessions
188 collected in the latter study were concentrated in Yunnan-Guizhou-Sichuan region, the
189 geographical distribution range is limited. Xuan *et al.* (2005) used RAPD to study the genetic
190 diversity of centipede grass and reported an average value lower than in the present study (0.04
191 vs. 0.165), which may be attributed to the collection of resources from only five provinces, ~~and~~
192 ~~†. These provinces were from the southeast region, which led to low genetic diversity. In the~~
193 ~~present study, the 23 wild centipede grass accessions were collected from a wide geographical~~
194 ~~distribution, which accounted~~ The 23 wild centipede grass accessions in the present study were
195 collected from a wide geographical distribution, accounting for their higher genetic diversity.
196 Accordingly, the high genetic diversity of centipede grass germplasm may be related to its
197 geographical distribution and biological characteristics. Indeed, centipede grass is a perennial
198 cross-pollination plant with self-incompatibility (Hanna & Burton, 1978). Furthermore, its wide
199 geographical distribution accounts for its adaptability to different ecological environments. In
200 addition, the seed-setting rate of wild centipede grass germplasm is low. Accordingly, the
201 characteristic of stolon asexual reproduction derived from long-term adaptation and evolution
202 can help maintain the population's genetic diversity (Hanna, 1995; Liu *et al.*, 2003).

203 **Genetic differentiation of populations caused by geographical isolation and climatic** 204 **differences**

205 The clustering results showed ~~that there were~~ significant differences between the Sichuan
206 population and the non-Sichuan population, and other materials except Sichuan were clustered
207 into one group. The reason for this result may be due to human factors, ~~;~~ that is, the species
208 resources in a certain area are brought to another place to grow, and then the gene exchange
209 occurs, which is consistent with the research results of *Elymus nutans*(Chen *et al.*, 2009). Our

210 AMOVA results showed a certain degree of genetic differentiation among different geographic
211 populations ($F_{st} = 0.115$), which was higher than previous studies (0.0643) (Susana R *et al.*,
212 2012), it is also higher than Yi *et al.* (2021) in prairie grass species (0.045). Usually, genetic
213 differentiation is caused by the lack of effective gene exchange. Centipedegrass has a wide
214 geographical distribution, including Jiangsu, Zhejiang, Fujian, Hunan, Hubei, and other regions,
215 which limits the gene exchange between distant germplasm and may lead to a certain degree of
216 genetic differentiation between different geographical populations. Our results also
217 substantiated a significant correlation between geographical and genetic distances ($r =$
218 0.385352 , $p = 0.000140$), indicating that geographical isolation led to genetic differentiation,
219 similar to findings reported by Chen *et al.* (2020). The geographical distribution of the 23
220 accessions collected in this study was relatively dispersed, and the geographical distance was
221 heterogeneous. These factors affected the gene exchange between geographical groups,
222 resulting in greater genetic differences. In addition, climate can lead to genetic variation through
223 natural selection, and environmental adaptability is an important factor in genetic differentiation.
224 Our results showed a significant correlation between BIO14, BIO15, BIO17, and genetic
225 distance, and these three climatic factors are associated with rainfall. This finding may be due
226 to the fact that only some genotypes may survive and prevail with rainfall, which may lead to
227 a decrease in genetic diversity among species populations and even altered gene interactions,
228 consistent with findings reported by Tan *et al.* (2018).

229 **Conclusion**

230 ~~In this study, we~~ This study evaluated the genetic diversity and population genetic structure of
231 23 wild centipedegrass accessions by SRAP, PCoA, UPGMA, and AMOVA. The UPGMA tree
232 map divided all accessions into two clusters, which was roughly consistent with the results of
233 PCoA. AMOVA revealed that the genetic variation within geographical groups was greater
234 than between geographical groups. Overall, the findings of this study can help better understand
235 the genetic diversity of centipedegrass and lay the groundwork for future research.

236 **Additional files**

237 Table S1. Accession number and collection source of the centipedegrass.

238 Table S2. Seven morphological traits measured in 23 centipedegrass.

239 Table S3. Primer name and sequence of SRAP.

240 Table S4. Q value of 23 centipedegrass accessions in two groups.

241 Table S5. Distribution of the Q value of centipedegrass germplasm in the 3 geographical groups.

242 Table S6. Correlation data of climate data and geographical groups mental analysis.

243 Fig. S1. Geographical distribution of 23 wild centipedegrass species used in this study.

244 Fig. S2. Amplification profiles of 23 centipedegrass accessions with primer combination M15 +
245 E03 (left), M15 + E08 (right), M9 + E14 (left) and M9 + E20 (right) (accessions 1 to 23 from
246 left to right).

247 Fig. S3 UPGMA dendrogram of 23 centipedegrass accessions based on genetic distance.
248 Fig. S4. UPGMA dendrogram delineating 23 wild centipedegrass accessions based on seven
249 morphological traits.
250 Fig. S5. STRUCTURE estimation of the number of subgroups for the K values ranging from 1
251 to 10, by delta K (ΔK) values.

252 **Author Contributions**

253 Xiaoyun Wang performed the experiments, analyzed the data, prepared figures and/or tables,
254 and drafted the work or revised it critically for important content.

255 Wenlong Gou performed the experiments, analyzed the data, and drafted the work or
256 revised it critically for important content

257 Ting Wang performed the experiments, analyzed the data, and prepared figures and/or
258 tables.

259 Yanli Xiong analyzed the data, and drafted the work or revised it critically for important
260 content.

261 Yi Xiong performed the experiments, and prepared figures and/or tables.

262 Qingqing Yu performed the experiments, and prepared figures and/or tables.

263 Zhixiao Dong analyzed the data, and prepared figures and/or tables.

264 Xiao Ma conceived and designed the experiments, and drafted the work or revised it
265 critically for important content.

266 Nanqing Liu conceived and designed the experiments, and drafted the work or revised it
267 critically for important content.

268 Junming Zhao conceived and designed the experiments, analyzed the data, and drafted the
269 work or revised it critically for important content.

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