

How 'Bout 'Dem Apples: Has Modern Agriculture Reduced The Genetic Diversity of Apple Cultivars?

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Abstract

This paper uses a dataset of 278,231 SNPs from 1,175 accessions in Canada's Apple Biodiversity Collection (ABC) to assess whether the genetic diversity of newly developed apple cultivars has decreased over time.

Introduction

The domestic apple (*Malus domestica*) is one of the oldest, most commonly cultivated, and most valuable fruit crops in the world, ranking second only to the banana in global gross production value (O'Rourke, 2021). Although today *M. domestica* is produced by many countries – e.g., America, Chile, New Zealand – it likely originated in Central Asia or Western China and evolved from other *Malus* species, primarily *M. sieversii* (Volk et al., 2021). Following initial domestication, *M. domestica* spread from Asia along the Silk Road to Europe and beyond (Volk et al., 2021).

As *M. domestica* spread, trees with desirable traits were developed as cultivars through vegetative propagation (Volk et al., 2021). Asexual reproduction was necessary because apples are typically self-incompatible and highly heterozygous, meaning that a given cultivar must be pollinated by a different cultivar and that the seedlings will exhibit traits not expressed in either parent tree (Volk et al., 2021). Therefore, asexual reproduction was required to maintain desirable traits.

Prior to the industrial era apple production was regional, with small farms breeding cultivars for local tastes using trial and error (O'Rourke, 2021). After industrialization the apple industry became increasingly structured, complex, and globally integrated as new technology allowed apples to be sold over greater distances (O'Rourke, 2021). Today, the apple industry is dominated by large vertically integrated firms that handle all aspects from production to packing to marketing (O'Rourke, 2021). As industry organization became more sophisticated, so to did apple breeding strategies. Controlled breeding programs were established by the early 1800s (Khan et al., 2021). During the 20th century, the apple industry embraced genomics and today uses technologies like genomic sequencing to develop cultivars with desirable traits (Volk et al., 2021).

These structural and technological developments facilitated a large globally connected industry, but they may have come at the cost of genetic diversity. Pre-industrialization, farmers would have presumably combined whatever cultivars were locally available to them and the fragmented nature of the market would have meant high global diversity. But, genetic research has shown that many accessions in collections today are clonally related to just a few commercially dominant cultivars such as McIntosh (Migicovsky et al., 2021).

However, whether the genetic diversity of newly developed cultivars has actually changed over time is an open question. I hypothesize that the genetic diversity of new apple cultivars has decreased as breeding programs have increasingly exploited a small number of commercially successful cultivars. If so, this would support the continued maintenance of heritage cultivars as an important reservoir of potentially valuable genotypes.

Methods

To evaluate apple cultivar genetic diversity, I used a dataset of 278,231 SNPs from 1,175 accessions in Canada's Apple Biodiversity Collection (ABC) that were produced using genotype-by-sequencing and made publicly

available in [Dryad](#) (Migicovsky et al., 2022). To described these accessions, I used a dataset produced as part of Watts et al.'s 2022 phenomic characterization of the ABC and made available on [their lab's github](#).

Accessions were filtered using R version 4.3.2 to include only *M. domestica* with either a cultivation year or a release year (earliest year was used). Accessions were also filtered to remove likely polyploids by using the het function in Plink v1.90 to calculate the fixation index per accession and dropping accessions with a fixation index less than 0 (see PloidismExploration.R). This resulted in 446 remaining accessions. These were split into three time periods: 1800-1899, 1900-1959, and 1960-Present. These time periods were semi-arbitrary, intended to reflect stages in industry development from early industrialization to the modern era.

SNPs were pruned for linkage disequilibrium using the indep-pairwise function in Plink. A window size of 10 SNPs, a window shift of 3 BPs, and an R^2 of .05 were used. SNPs with a minor allele frequency of less than .01 and a missingness of greater than .05 were also removed. Accessions with greater than .1 missingness were removed. This resulted in 154,167 SNPS and 131 accessions for P1, 148,692 SNPs and 158 accessions for P2, and 149,354 SNPs and 148 accessions for P3.

I estimated IBD among cultivars developed in each period as well as the genetic distance (Hamming distance) among cultivars across all periods using Plink. IBD networks were visualized using the tidygraph and ggraph R packages with a Fruchterman-Reingold layout algorithm. Only cultivars with a $\hat{\pi}$ (proportion of inheritance) greater than .125 were considered related (i.e., I filtered for 3rd degree relationships or closer). Genetic distance PCA was completed in R using the same accessions and SNPS.

Results

Per Figure 1, results showed that cultivar relatedness increased in each period. Looking at accession relatedness using IBD, the percentage of accessions that had at least one relationship increased from 44% in P1 to 59% in P2 to 73% in P3. Plotting networks of accessions with at least one relationship, we can see that cultivars became more related to each other in each period as indicated visually by increased number of connections and density of nodes. Extracting the global efficiency of each graph confirms this. From 12% in P1, it increased to 86% in P2 and then 115% in P3.

However, despite increased relatedness across periods, we can also see in Figure 1 that the first two principle components of the genetic distance PCA did not suggest any difference in the genetic diversity of accessions between periods. This can be concluded because accessions from all periods occupy contiguous graph space.

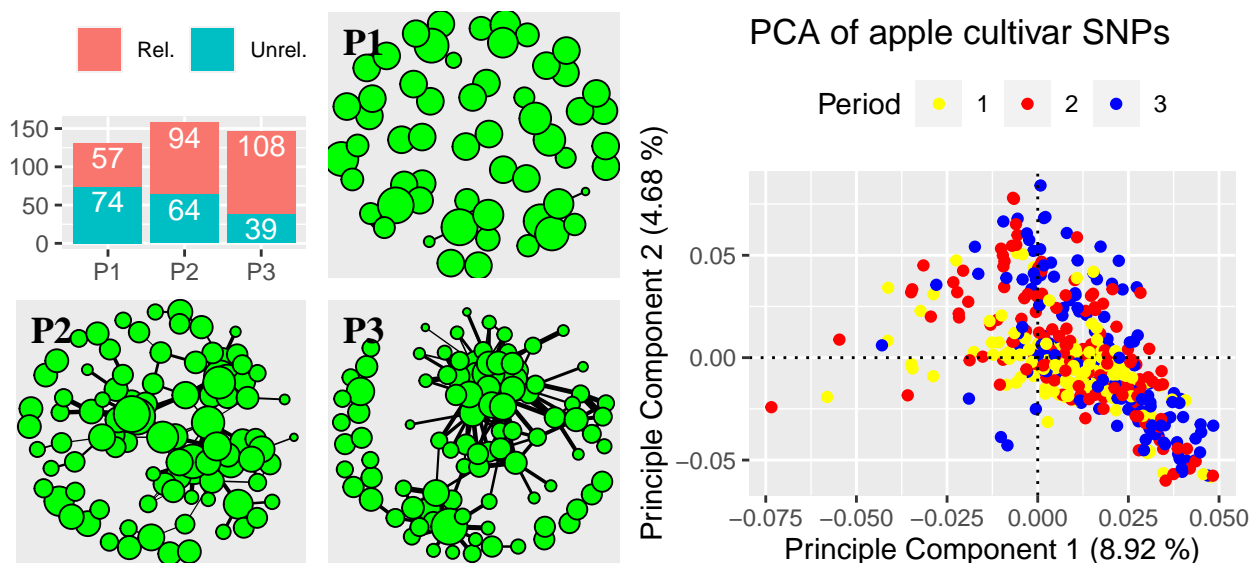


Figure 1: Network graphs of related accessions and PCA of SNPs across all accessions.

Discussion

It's worth mentioning three caveats to this analysis. First, the accessions used in this study are not a random sample of cultivars developed across the different time periods, but instead represent cultivars that happened to be preserved and pass my filters. If preservation and filtering was non-random, then this analysis will be a biased measure of true cultivar relatedness and diversity across periods (and in fact the ABC is biased toward cultivars from Canada and the US).

Second, I picked time periods semi-arbitrarily. It would have been preferable to develop a more detailed understanding of exactly when the apple industry developed new breeding techniques and use that information to define period boundaries. But, this information did not arise in my reading of the literature.

Finally, Plink's estimation of IBD is imperfect. When researchers have compared Plink to other IBD methods, they have found some significant differences (Stevens et al., 2011). That said, there was also significant consistency and I was able to confirm that Plink's IBD results were reasonable by comparing them to known relationships. For example, Plink identified [Sir Prize](#) and [Clear Gold](#) as having a $\hat{\pi}$ of 56% indicating a 1st degree relationship. This makes sense, since Clear Gold is a mutation of a Golden Delicious and Sir Prize is a cross between Golden Delicious and another cultivar.

Caveats aside, I think these results are cause for both caution and peace of mind regarding apple cultivar genetic diversity. On the one hand, newly developed cultivars did become more related to each other over time, supporting the idea that the industry may be increasingly relying on a small number of cultivars to develop new apples whereas in the past it may have used a wider variety. On the other hand, a PCA of genetic distance between cultivars did not show any corresponding loss in genetic diversity over time. My read of these two seemingly disparate results is that the extremely high heterozygosity of apples may have prevented a genetic bottleneck up to now despite the increasing relatedness of new cultivars.

Conclusion

While it is comforting to know that we are not at a stage of apple domestication where breeding has significantly constrained genetic diversity, I would still advocate for continued preservation of heritage apple cultivars on two bases. First, although the increased reliance on a small number of cultivars for breeding new apples has not yet significantly constrained apple genetic diversity, it may in the future and in the case that it does having heritage cultivars available to use for selecting new traits will be important. Second, heritage cultivars represent a window into what phenotypes people found valuable in the past, which is interesting historically and is in a sense a type of cultural heritage that in my opinion is worth preserving.

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Working Style Assessment