1	Adaptive diversity and drought tolerance in <i>Castanea sativa</i> assessed through genic
2	markers (EST-SSR)
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Código de campo cambiado

### 16 Abstract

17 Increasing drought conditions in Mediterranean countries are negatively impacting the survival and productivity of Castanea sativa Mill. The study aimed to select EST-SSR 18 markers associated with drought stress developed in Quercus spp. and evaluate their 19 transferability and polymorphism in C. sativa. Eight EST-SSR markers were selected to 20 examine the adaptive potential of four wild populations of C. sativa in relation to drought 21 tolerance. To validate markers, offspring of the study trees were water stressed and their 22 drought tolerance was assessed. EST-SSR markers and leaf wilting of seedlings after 23 drought treatment revealed a north-south gradient of C. sativa populations. The 24 heritability value obtained for the 'leaf wilting' trait ( $h^2=0.26\pm0.08$ ) indicated that 25 selection for drought tolerance is possible. The differentiation coefficient of markers 26 showing neutral selection (F<sub>ST</sub>=0.080) was lower than the quantitative genetic 27 28 differentiation of populations ( $Q_{ST}=0.28$ ), indicating that selection of drought tolerant trees acted spatially in a heterogeneous manner. When assessing the genetic structure of 29 30 populations, FIR080 was identified as outlier locus under positive selection. When assessing the phenotypic tolerance to drought of offspring, GOT004 and GOT045 were 31 identified as outlier loci under balancing selection and FIR059 was identified as an outlier 32 locus under positive selection. FIR059 showed three private alleles for drought-33 34 susceptible individuals and two private alleles for drought-tolerant individuals and could therefore be considered as a candidate marker to predict drought tolerance in unstressed 35 C. sativa trees. Combined use of functional markers and phenotypic traits is a powerful 36 37 approach to determine genetic variation at the adaptive level in C. sativa. The results illustrate the potential of EST-SSR markers for early selection of drought tolerant plant 38 39 material.

40 Keywords Climate change, water stress, heritability, genetic differentiation, chestnut

### 41 Introduction

42 Global climate change is expected to raise global surface temperature (Duveiller et al., 2018) and enhance the frequency and severity of drought episodes (Vicente-Serrano et 43 al., 2017), decreasing available water and accelerating the decline and mortality of 44 European forest trees (Bréda et al., 2006). The impact of climate change on trees is 45 complex, because diverse combinations of alterations in temperature and precipitation in 46 different tree species can produce varied results and responses (Parmesan, 2006). The 47 ability of forests to react and adapt to environmental changes is mostly due to their 48 elevated intrapopulation genetic diversity and phenotypic plasticity (Jactel et al., 2017; 49 50 Woodcock et al., 2018). A population genomics approach provides useful information about how selection can shape patterns of functional genetic diversity (González-51 52 Martínez et al., 2006; Allendorf et al., 2010). Local adaptation and significant 53 differentiation for genes involved in adaptive traits (e.g. drought tolerance) are key 54 elements in enabling adaptability of tree populations to future scenarios (Petit and Hampe, 55 2006).

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Simple sequence repeat (SSR) markers derived from expressed sequence tags (EST) have 57 58 been increasingly used to assess genetic variation and allow more effective conservation 59 of tree genotypes. They are developed from expressed regions of the genome with known or suggested functions (Scott et al., 2000; Krutovskii and Neale, 2001; Kalia et al., 2011). 60 Although reported to be less polymorphic than genomic SSRs, these markers are superior 61 62 in functional diversity in relation to adaptive variation and interspecific transferability (Varshney et al., 2005; Yatabe et al., 2007). EST-SSRs associated with drought 63 adaptation responses have been evaluated in Quercus spp. (Lind and Gailing, 2013; 64 Sullivan et al., 2013) and several potential markers have highlighted substantial 65

differences in adaptation among different oak species, coinciding with their differentiatedwater stress tolerance.

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The European chestnut (Castanea sativa Mill.) is a widespread tree species present in 69 70 forests from Portugal to the Caucasus and southern England to Crete. The distribution of C. sativa across the Mediterranean basin explains why it is able to adapt to varying 71 72 environmental conditions and shows significant genetic differentiation between and within populations (Lauteri et al., 1998; Martín et al., 2010; Mattioni et al., 2017). In 73 southern and western Spain, the productivity and survival of this species are being 74 75 strongly impacted by arid conditions, temperature increase and water deprivation due to global change. This makes it urgent to evaluate functional genetic diversity associated 76 77 with drought in populations from these areas to identify tolerant genotypes. Differences 78 in adaptive drought-response traits such as growth, morphology and phenology have been 79 reported in C. sativa populations from contrasting climate environments (Lauteri et al., 80 2004; Ciordia et al., 2012; Míguez-Soto and Fernández-López, 2014).

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Natural selection is the central force in evolution and the mechanism by which individuals adapt to their environments. Specific genomic regions that respond to selection (i.e., differentiation after adaptation to local conditions across populations) are expected to appear as outliers from the pattern observed at the neutral genomic level. Detection of outlier loci with unusually high or low levels of variation is therefore extremely useful to separate genome-wide effects caused by demographic processes from adaptive locusspecific effects (Luikart *et al.*, 2003).

In the current climate change scenario, evaluating adaptive genetic variability associated 90 91 with water stress in C. sativa and identifying adapted populations of this tree species are the first steps in its preservation. For this, the objectives of the study were to 1) select 92 93 EST-SSR markers developed in *Quercus* spp. associated with drought stress and evaluate 94 their transferability and polymorphism in C. sativa, 2) use the selected EST-SSR markers to explore the adaptive potential of C. sativa populations in relation to drought stress 95 tolerance, and 3) determine whether the selected EST-SSR markers are able to 96 discriminate between trees according to their drought tolerance. 97

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### 99 Methods

100 Plant material

The distribution of C. sativa in Spain is discontinuous. Forests are more prevalent and 101 102 dense in the north than in the centre and south (Figure 1). This tree species grows from 103 sea level to 1,800 m and adapts to a wide range of climate conditions with annual rainfall ranging from 500 to 2,500 mm. In October 2016, 30-39 healthy and vigorous C. sativa 104 trees from four natural populations (Bergongo, Hervás, Constantina and Montseny), in 105 areas of contrasting climate conditions throughout Spain were sampled (Figure 1 and 106 Supplementary Table S1). Trees were selected at least 70 m apart to minimise the chances 107 108 of sampling intercrossed individuals. Samples of five to six healthy green leaves per tree were collected from twigs about 2-3 m from soil level. 109

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To assess the drought tolerance of the four populations, a greenhouse experiment was performed with one-year-old seedlings. The greenhouse was located in Maceda, Ourense (42°16'34''N, 7°37'29''W; 598 m a.s.l.; Figure 1). In November 2016, 12 mother trees per population were randomly selected from the sampled populations. About 100 seeds

per tree were collected by hand and stored in a cold chamber at 4°C for two weeks. Seeds were sunk in water and those that failed to float were discarded as non-viable. The remaining seeds were immersed in a fungicide solution (2 g L<sup>-1</sup> Thiram 80GD, ADAMA Inc., Spain) for 10 min, rinsed, then stratified in moistened blond peat (Pindstrup Mosebrug Inc., Spain) for two months at 5°C.

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#### 121 Genetic analysis

A total of 749 EST-SSRs designed on EST from Quercus robur and Quercus petraea and 122 associated with bud phenology and drought stress (Durand et al., 2010; Ueno et al., 2010) 123 were initially screened. Markers specifically developed from sequences from genes 124 associated with water stress were selected. For this, functional annotations of EST-SSR 125 markers were obtained by searching in the non-redundant NCBI database (e-value of 1e-126 127 <sup>6</sup>), using as search option 'EST sequences database'. To identify accurately the putative function associated with water stress, the UniProt Knowledgebase (UniProtKB) was used 128 and functional information on proteins (molecular description, taxonomy and sequence 129 data) and literature associated were considered. The analysis showed that 295 EST-SSR 130 markers had no known function, 383 had functions not associated with water stress and 131 only 71 were associated with water stress. Twenty of these 71 EST-SSRs were preselected 132 133 based on the information provided about their polymorphism, linkage group and potential transferability to C. sativa (Durand et al., 2010; Bodénès et al., 2012, Supplementary 134 Table S2). 135

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Genomic DNA was extracted from 18-20 mg lyophilised leaves according to the Qiagen
DNeasy<sup>TM</sup> Plant mini Kit protocol. To test transferability and polymorphism, DNA from *12 C. sativa* trees was amplified and the amplification products were run on agarose gel.

Ten of the 20 EST-SSRs amplified and only eight of these showed polymorphism in all 140 141 samples (Table 1). Based on the size of the products, two multiplex-PCR mixtures were designed, the first including FIR080, GOT004, GOT021 and VIT057 primers and the 142 second including FIR059, FIR094, GOT045 and VIT033 primers (Table 1). The forward 143 primers were labelled with a fluorochrome (6-FAM, VIC, NED, PET; Applied 144 Biosystems, Foster City, California, USA). The amplification was carried out in 20 µL 145 total volume containing 20 ng genomic DNA following the Qiagen multiplex kit protocol. 146 Cycling parameters were 15 min at 95°C, 30 cycles of 30 s at 94°C, 90 s at 57°C and 1 147 min at 72°C, and a final step of 30 min at 72°C. 148

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Amplification products (1 µL) were added to 20 µL formamide and 0.3 µL LIZ and denaturated at 95°C for 5 min. The samples were run on an ABI Prism 3130 Avant DNA sequencer. The resulting raw data were collected applying GeneMapper software (Life Technologies). The alleles were determined by automated binning and checked by visual inspection.

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156 Drought tolerance assessment

In January 2017, germinated seeds were individually measured (length, width and depth), 157 158 weighed and planted in 50-cell rigid plastic root trainers (300 mL volume; 18 cm high,  $5.3 \times 5.3$  cm upper surface) containing vermiculite and blond peat (1:5, pH 5.5). Earlier 159 research by Cubera et al. (2012) showed that this pot size would provide seedlings with 160 161 unrestricted root growth during drought treatments. The plants were arranged following a split-plot random design replicated in four blocks, with the watering treatments acting 162 163 as the main factor (two categories: water-stressed and control; whole plots) and the populations as the split factor (four categories: Bergondo, Hervás, Constantina and 164

Montseny, as shown in Figure 1 and Supplementary Table S1; split plots). In the four 165 166 blocks, the four populations were represented in each whole plot by five individuals from the 12 open-pollinated families. Individuals were randomly positioned within the blocks. 167 The experiment comprised 1,920 plants corresponding to 4 blocks  $\times$  2 watering 168 treatments  $\times$  4 populations  $\times$  12 families  $\times$  5 individuals and therefore included 480 plants 169 per population and 40 plants per family. Additionally, in each root trainer single ramets 170 were planted of clones P011 (commercial hybrid resistant to Phytophthora cinnamomi; 171 González et al., 2011) and Cs-12 (susceptible to P. cinnamomi). Time to germination was 172 assessed weekly. Chestnuts from about 25% of the families did not germinate well or 173 yielded fewer than three plants per block. Plants were kept in natural daylight under 174 greenhouse shade that reduced solar radiation by 50% and hand watered every four days 175 to field capacity until they were well established. 176

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On June 5 2017, when plants were approx. 17 cm in height, two treatments were applied: 178 watering three times a week to field capacity (control), watering every 15 days to field 179 180 capacity (water stress). Soil moisture was checked in 10 cells per block and treatment using a TDR 100 soil moisture meter (Spectrum Technologies Inc., Plainfiel, Illinois, 181 USA) and 12-cm-length rods. Gas exchange of plants checked for soil moisture was 182 183 assessed at midday using a portable differential infrared gas analyser (IRGA) (LCi, ADC Bio Scientific Ltd., UK) connected to a broadleaf chamber. Measurements on June 19 184 185 2017 confirmed differences in soil water content and stomatal conductance  $(g_s)$  between control and water-stressed plants (0.127±0.029 vs 0.041±0.013 cm<sup>3</sup>cm<sup>-3</sup> and 234±25 vs 186  $103\pm19 \text{ mmol CO}_2 \text{ m}^{-2}\text{s}^{-1}$ , respectively). Watering treatments lasted one month. The water 187 stress tolerance of each family was assessed (i) by comparing  $g_s$  values in control and 188 water-stressed plants at the end of treatments, (ii) by visual estimation of the leaf wilting 189

percentage in water-stressed plants at the end of treatments, using 10% intervals, and considering leaves and portions of leaves wilted if they were dry, brown in colour, and (iii) by determining plant mortality 15 days post treatments. Plant height was measured before treatments and plant resprouting was recorded throughout the vegetative period.

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195 Statistical analysis

Intra- and inter-population genetic diversity indices were calculated using GenAlEx 6 196 197 (Peakall and Smouse, 2005): number of total alleles per locus (A); effective number of alleles (Ne); observed (Ho), expected (He) and unbiased expected heterozygosity (uHe); 198 and number of private alleles in populations (Pa). The inbreeding coefficient  $F_{IS}$  (Weir 199 and Cockerham, 1984) was computed using Arlequin 3.11 (Excofier et al., 2005) and its 200 deviation from zero tested by 10,000 allele permutations. Differentiation between 201 202 populations was calculated by FST (Weir and Cockerham, 1984) and RST (Slatkin, 1995). Deficits in heterozygotes attributable to the presence of null alleles were tested for each 203 locus using FreeNA software (Chapuis and Estoup, 2007). LOSITAN software (Antao et 204 205 al., 2008) was used to detect outlier loci; i.e., markers in which the genetic diversity within populations (heterozygosity) and between populations (FST) do not conform to the 206 prediction of neutral selection. Similar heterozygosity and FST values for all loci indicates 207 208 a shared demographic history, loci showing unusually large amounts of FST may mark regions of the genome that have been subject to directional selection, and loci with 209 unusually small amounts of F<sub>ST</sub> may mark regions that have been subject to balancing 210 211 selection. In this respect, directional or positive selection leads to fixation of the favoured allele in a population, and this allele is responsible for progressive adaptation to new 212 213 environments. Balancing selection promotes polymorphism by selecting for diverse 214 alleles at the same locus, favouring two or more alleles simultaneously. Balancing

selection is therefore an important force for maintaining genetic variation in populations
and allows adaptive evolution when the environment changes. Simulation of neutral
selection was conducted under the stepwise mutation model with 50,000 iterations at 95%
confidence level and a false discount rate (FDR) of 0.1.

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The genetic structure of C. sativa populations was analysed by applying a model-based 220 Bayesian approach implemented in STRUCTURE v.2.3.4 software (Pritchard et al., 221 2000) using the admixture model on the whole dataset and the correlated allele 222 frequencies (Falush et al., 2007; Hubisz et al., 2009). The range of possible number of 223 clusters (K) tested was 1 to 7 (putative number of populations plus 3) and six independent 224 runs were performed for each K value, with a burn-in period of 10,000 steps followed by 225  $10^5$  MCMC replicates. To identify the number of clusters (K) that best explained the data, 226 227 the rate of change on L(K) ( $\Delta K$ ) between successive K values was calculated according to Evanno et al. (2005) using STRUCTURE HARVESTER (Earl and vonHoldt, 2012). 228 229 The six runs for each simulation were averaged using CLUMPP software (Jakobsson and Rosenberg, 2007) and represented graphically with DISTRUCT (Rosenberg, 2004). 230

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To quantify differences in drought tolerance in C. sativa among and within populations, 232 233 three models were built including the variables assessed after drought exposure  $(g_s, leaf$ wilting and plant mortality). Stomatal conductance of water-stressed plants was expressed 234 235 as a reduction in  $g_s$  in comparison with non-water-stressed control plants for each of the 236 20 pairs of stressed vs non-stressed root trainers, and data were expressed in percentages. Leaf wilting of plants was individually assessed by visually estimating the proportion of 237 238 dry areas of leaves in relation to the total leaf area, and was expressed in percentages. 239 Angular transformation of the  $g_s$  and leaf wilting percentages (x) was performed to

normalise data  $[y=\arcsin(x/100)^{1/2}]$ . The first and second models were general linear 240 241 mixed (GLM) models and included 'transformed  $g_s$ ' and 'transformed leaf wilting' as the dependent variable, respectively. The third was a generalised linear (GLZ) mixed model 242 and included mortality (parameterised as 0 or 1 if the seedling survived or not) as the 243 dependent variable. 'Block' was used as a fixed factor; 'population', 'block × population' 244 interaction and 'mother tree' (nested within 'population') were used as random factors; 245 and 'individual seed weight', 'time to germination' and 'plant height' were used as 246 covariates. Families with fewer than 14 germinating seedlings were not included in the 247 analyses. The residuals of the models were checked for normality and means were 248 compared using the Tukey HSD test. Because the second model was highly significant 249 (Table 3), the genetic structure of the plant material was used to estimate narrow-sense 250 heritability across populations  $(h^2)$  and population genetic differentiation  $(Q_{ST})$  for the 251 252 'leaf wilting' trait. Calculations were performed following Solla et al. (2016), assuming that native C. sativa stands in Spain are self-incompatible (McKay, 1942). Genetic  $(r_g)$ 253 254 and phenotypic  $(r_p)$  Pearson correlations among the variables 'seed weight', 'time to germination', 'plant height', 'leaf wilting', 'plant mortality' and 'plant resprouting' were 255 obtained using family-mean and individual values, respectively. A Bonferroni correction 256 was applied and significances were divided by the number of statistics involved. 257

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To study spatial variation in selection to drought among *C. sativa* populations, quantitative genetic divergence between populations ( $Q_{ST}$ ) and neutral genetic differentiation between populations ( $F_{ST}$ ) were compared. The  $F_{ST}$  coefficient was calculated by using only markers that were detected under neutral selection according to the LOSITAN software. If  $Q_{ST}$  value is higher than  $F_{ST}$ , directional selection that favours different genotypes in different populations is inferred, which indicates local adaptation

or spatially divergent selection (Saether *et al.*, 2007; Ramírez-Valiente *et al.*, 2018). If  $Q_{ST}$  is lower than  $F_{ST}$ , the same genotypes are favoured equally in the different populations, which indicates stabilizing selection (Saether *et al.*, 2007; Ramírez-Valiente *et al.*, 2018). Finally, if the  $Q_{ST}$  and  $F_{ST}$  estimates do not differ, the observed degree of differentiation in quantitative traits could have been reached by other neutral evolutionary processes.

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272 To determine whether the selected markers associated with drought were able to statistically differentiate the four populations studied, a discriminant function analysis 273 (DFA) was performed. DFA is a supervised projection method in which a priori 274 information about sample grouping in the dataset is used to produce measures of within-275 and between-group variance. This information is then used to define discriminant 276 277 functions that optimally separate the *a priori* groups (Martín *et al.*, 2008). 'Population' was used as the grouping variable and 'alleles of each individual per primer' (n=16) was 278 used as the independent variable list. To determine whether the selected EST-SSR 279 markers were able to discriminate between trees by 'drought tolerance', a second DFA 280 was performed. A priori information about drought tolerance of individuals was obtained 281 from their offspring. Individuals were grouped into drought tolerant (n=8) and drought 282 283 susceptible (n=13) if their progenies wilted 0-50 or 76-100%, respectively. When performing the DFA, individuals wilting from 51 to 75% (n=20) were not considered 284 285 because including them implied less signification than if discarded. Individuals were also 286 grouped by  $g_s$  and mortality, but the discriminant functions were less significant. 'Drought tolerance' was used as the grouping variable and 'alleles of each individual per 287 288 primer' was used as the independent variable list. In both DFA, forward stepwise analysis 289 and casewise missing data deletion were applied. The discriminant functions were

displayed graphically as score scatter plots to observe any groupings among individuals.

291 Models and analyses were performed with STATISTICA v10 (Stat Software Inc., Tulsa,

292 OK, USA).

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#### 294 Results

295 Genetic diversity of the selected EST-SSRs

Ten of the 20 EST-SSRs preselected from *Quercus* were successfully transferable to *Castanea*. Eight showed high levels of polymorphism and were used to assess genetic diversity (Table 1). In the 136 *C. sativa* trees, 39 different alleles were identified. Alleles per locus ranged from 2 to 14 (Table 1), with a mean of 4.88 alleles. Allele frequencies were distributed unevenly within the loci, with 14 catalogued as rare (frequency below 5%; *FIR080, GOT004, FIR059, FIR094* and *GOT045*) and three private alleles in *GOT021* and *FIR059* (Table 1).

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The C. sativa population in Bergondo had the highest level of diversity in number of 304 305 alleles, expected heterozygosity and number of private alleles (Table 2). Bergondo was the only population polymorphic for the eight markers studied; the other three were 306 monomorphic for GOT004. The inbreeding coefficient (FIS) was positive and significant 307 308 in Bergondo and Constantina (Table 2). STRUCTURE software showed that the most probable division with the strongest support in terms of log-likelihood values was 309 detected at K = 2 (Figure 2). Based on K = 2, Bayesian clustering separated C. sativa trees 310 311 into two main groups corresponding to a north-south geographic pattern, with limited admixture among clusters. The percentage of membership, assessed through the 312 313 admixture proportion (Q) of populations in each inferred cluster, permitted grouping of Bergondo and Montseny in cluster I (Q values of 0.87 and 0.69, respectively) and Hervás

- and Constantina in cluster II (*Q* values of 0.92 and 0.80, respectively) (Figure 2).
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#### 317 Phenotypic tolerance to drought and validation of EST-SSRs

Water stress treatment resulted in 32% plant mortality and 64% leaf wilting and reduced 318  $g_s$  by 55-65% in relation to controls. Leaf wilting was the variable that best explained 319 variability in C. sativa seedlings to water stress. Leaf wilting differed significantly among 320 populations (Figure 3) and families (Figure 4) and covaried positively with time to 321 germination (Table 3). Models based on plant mortality and  $g_s$  were not significant at 322 within-population level and were discarded from further analysis. The model based on 323 leaf wilting provided significant estimates of narrow-sense heritability across populations 324 325  $(h^2 = 0.26 \pm 0.08)$  and quantitative genetic differentiation among populations ( $Q_{ST} =$ 326 0.282). Families that had some trees with 100% wilted leaves were able to resprout. This occurred more frequently in trees from Bergondo and Hervás than from Constantina and 327 Montseny (30 and 17% vs 4 and 3% plant resprouting, respectively; P < 0.01) (Figure 4). 328 329 Resprouting rates were higher in families that wilted more due to water stress than in families that wilted less (r = 0.47; P = 0.002) (Supplementary Table S3). At the family 330 level, seed weight and plant height were predictive of leaf wilting and plant resprouting 331 332 (Supplementary Table S3). At the individual level, tall plants from heavy earlygerminating seeds wilted more than small plants from small late-germinating seeds 333 (Supplementary Table S3). 334

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- Clusters of trees from each population were significantly separated by the DFA (Wilks' Lambda test, P < 0.0001). Examination of the Function 1-Function 2 score scatter plots showed overlapping between individuals from Constantina and Hervás and between

individuals from Montseny and Bergondo (Figure 5a), in agreement with STRUCTURE 339 340 software results (Figure 2). The separation between individuals from Constantina and Bergondo was mainly characterised by the Function 1 axis, which showed a negative 341 score gradient for Bergondo and a positive score gradient for Constantina (Figure 5a). 342 Markers FIR080, GOT045, FIR094, GOT021 and VIT033 were significantly involved in 343 C. sativa population discrimination at P < 0.0001, P < 0.0001, P < 0.0001, P = 0.0020344 and P = 0.0379, respectively. LOSITAN software identified FIR080 (F<sub>ST</sub> = 0.233, P <345 0.05) as outlier marker under positive selection associated with local adaptation to water 346 stress (Supplementary Figure S1a). 347

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Clusters of trees by drought tolerance were significantly separated by the DFA (Wilks' 349 Lambda test, P < 0.05). Separation between susceptible and tolerant C. sativa individuals 350 351 (if their progenies wilted 0-50 or 76-100%, respectively) was mainly characterised by the Function 2 axis, which showed a positive score gradient for tolerant individuals and a 352 negative score gradient for susceptible individuals (Figure 5b). Markers FIR080, VIT057, 353 354 FIR059 and GOT045 were of particular interest because they were found to be significantly involved in differentiating C. sativa individuals with different drought 355 tolerances at P = 0.028, P = 0.01, P = 0.041 and P = 0.023, respectively. LOSITAN 356 357 software identified GOT004 (F<sub>ST</sub> = -0.05, P < 0.001) and GOT045 (F<sub>ST</sub> = -0.051, P < 0.001) 0.001) as outlier loci candidates influenced by balancing selection and FIR059 (F<sub>ST</sub> = 358 0.106, P < 0.05) as an outlier locus under positive selection (Supplementary Figure S1b). 359 360 In locus FIR059, private alleles were found in the two tree groups defined: 'drought tolerant' and 'drought susceptible' (Supplementary Table S4). 361

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363 Discussion

This study reaches three significant results: firstly, through molecular markers and quantitative traits, it quantifies variation in drought response in *C. sativa* across the vast area occupied by this species in Spain; secondly, it validates the use of functional molecular markers in *C. sativa* as tools to assess adaptive genetic diversity to drought; and thirdly, it suggests several loci to be used in marker-assisted selection to identify drought tolerant chestnut trees for the first time.

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#### 371 Drought response in C. sativa populations

Bayesian clustering analysis revealed a clear geographic pattern showing two main 372 groups, with northern and southern populations displaying different genetic composition. 373 The significant differences in the level of differentiation among populations from 374 contrasting climate environments in relation to drought could be explained by 375 376 temperature and precipitation gradient (Pereira-Lorenzo et al., 2010). Constantina is the chestnut population with the highest average temperature and Hervás is the population 377 with the lowest mean annual precipitation (Figure 1). Both populations are subjected to 378 379 severe drought conditions, especially during summer. The population separation observed is in agreement with previous results in which EST-SSRs were used and a north-south 380 population distribution associated with bud burst was reported (Martín et al., 2010). DF 381 382 analysis also detected a geographic pattern in C. sativa populations. The clear separation between Constantina and Bergondo populations based on EST-SSR markers (Figure 5a) 383 384 is in agreement with the significant difference observed in leaf symptoms based on 385 phenotypic measurements. Constantina seedlings had the lowest 'leaf wilting' values after water deprivation and Bergondo seedlings had the highest (Figures 3 and 4), 386 387 indicating significant variation in drought response in C. sativa populations.

### 389 EST-SSRs to assess adaptive genetic diversity to drought

390 The eight EST-SSR markers used were successfully transferred to C. sativa and showed considerable polymorphism. Although EST-SSR markers are less polymorphic than their 391 genomic counterparts, several studies have indicated the great efficiency of functional 392 393 markers for assessing adaptive genetic diversity (Luikart et al., 2003; Varshney et al., 2005). This was demonstrated in Quercus ssp. with EST-SSRs associated with adaptation 394 responses to drought (Lind and Gailing, 2013; Sullivan et al., 2013) and in C. sativa with 395 EST-SSRs associated with bud burst (Martín et al., 2010; Cuestas et al., 2017; Martín et 396 al., 2017). 397

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In Mediterranean type ecosystems, climate change is projected to induce longer summer 399 drought periods and higher frequency and severity of drought events. The differentiation 400 401 coefficient obtained through markers associated to drought tolerance and classified by LOSITAN as being under neutral selection( $F_{ST} = 0.080$ ) was lower than the quantitative 402 genetic differentiation of 'leaf wilting' between C. sativa populations ( $Q_{ST} = 0.28$ ), 403 404 providing evidence that selection acted spatially in a heterogeneous manner (divergent selection sensu Ramírez-Valiente et al., 2018). Because drought events involve selective 405 pressure, selection of drought tolerant C. sativa trees can be expected in contrasting 406 407 drought scenarios even in short time intervals.

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In relation to the four outlier markers identified, *FIR080* has a putative function as a *Ricin B-like lectin EULS3* (Supplementary Table S2). The *Arabidopsis thaliana* EULS3 lectin
has recently been linked to the drought stress response and is part of a complex
(carbohydrate) signalling pathway related to stomatal movement (Van Hove *et al.*, 2015).
Locus *GOT004* has a putative function as a *probable aquaporin TIP1-1* (Supplementary

Table S2), associated with the transport of water and small neutral solutes across cell 414 415 membranes in shoots and leaves. Expression of this gene locus was enhanced by water stress, salt stress and exogenous ABA (Liu et al., 1994; Sakurai et al., 2005). Locus 416 GOT045 has a putative function as a probable E3 ubiquitin-protein ligase 417 (Supplementary Table S2) and was described as playing combinatory roles in controlling 418 drought signalling pathways in Arabidopsis thaliana in response to drought stress (Cho 419 et al., 2008; Seo et al., 2012). Locus FIR059, associated with a gene encoding a DEAD-420 box ATP-dependent RNA helicase (Supplementary Table S2), was reported to regulate 421 several stress-induced pathways and to have important functions in the cellular response 422 to salinity and dehydration (Vashisht and Tuteja, 2006; Macovei et al., 2012). 423

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Three of the eight EST-SSR markers used here were studied in Quercus spp. by other 425 426 authors, who identified GOT021 as an outlier locus under divergent selection of Q. rubra and Q. ellipsoidalis populations (Lind and Gailing, 2013; Sullivan et al., 2013). This 427 study identified GOT021 as a neutral marker, but with private alleles for both tolerant and 428 susceptible C. sativa trees (Supplementary Table S4). GOT004 was identified here as an 429 outlier locus potentially under balancing selection, whereas in Q. rubra and Q. 430 ellipsoidalis it was catalogued as neutral (Lind and Gailing, 2013; Sullivan et al., 2013). 431 432 VIT057 was identified here and elsewhere (Sullivan et al., 2013) as a neutral marker. Previous studies using LOSITAN software included a similar number of microsatellite 433 markers as here (Martín et al., 2010; Lind and Gailing, 2013; Sullivan et al., 2013; 434 435 Wojnicka-Poltorak et al., 2016). However, a higher number of screened markers is desirable to confirm results and enhance the discriminative power of the software. 436

437

438 Selection of drought tolerant chestnut trees

Drought tolerance is not easy to assess, because it behaves genetically as a polygenic trait 439 440 and is associated with a complex expression pattern of dehydration-inducible genes (Shinozaki and Yamaguchi-Shinozaki, 1997). Drought tolerance involves mechanisms 441 operating at different spatial and temporal scales (Tardieu et al., 2018). Difficulties arise 442 in interpreting drought tolerance rankings by breeders when phenotypic traits commonly 443 used to assess this trait are unrelated, e.g., at the family level leaf wilting did not correlate 444 with plant mortality (Supplementary Table S3). Plant resprouting, usually ignored in most 445 446 common garden experiments, did not correlate with plant mortality either, and was highest in families that wilted more. All these processes participate in trade-offs between 447 carbon accumulation and the risk of deleterious soil water depletion (Tardieu et al., 2018), 448 and C. sativa drought tolerance is probably modulated by short- or long-term strategies 449 involving traits with high intraspecific variability. Moreover, there is no information on 450 451 maternal effects in C. sativa, although they are widely known to appear at early ontogenetic stages, affecting early-life traits such as seed mass, time to germination and 452 seedling growth (Solla et al., 2011; Vivas et al., 2013; Corcobado et al., 2017). Maternal 453 454 effects seem to have a significant impact on how C. sativa seedlings tolerate drought, as shown in Table 3 (currently under research by Camisón et al.; unpublished results). 455

456

Although previous studies on *C. sativa* explored the genetic basis of several adaptive drought response traits (Lauteri *et al.*, 2004; Ciordia *et al.*, 2012; Míguez-Soto and Fernández-López, 2014), this study estimates for the first time in *C. sativa* a heritability value associated with drought ( $h^2 = 0.26\pm0.08$ ). Chestnut is one of the most important trees in Europe, and current varieties and rootstocks are highly susceptible to drought stress. In the face of global climate change, selection of cultivars and rootstocks with improved drought tolerance is of paramount importance in rural areas where *C. sativa* is 464 cultivated. The heritability value obtained in this study was lower than the heritabilities
465 of 'collar rot' variables assessed after inoculation with *Phytophthora cinnamomi* (Santos
466 *et al.*, 2015), but high enough to indicate genetic control of the variation observed and
467 confirm that selection for tolerance is possible.

468

The GLM model based on leaf wilting indicated significant intrapopulation variability to 469 drought in C. sativa, with the highest and lowest variation in leaf wilting responses in the 470 Constantina and Bergondo populations, respectively (results not shown). Individuals 471 from Constantina and Hervás will be cloned and used as breeding stock or as sources to 472 produce nuts with moderate levels of drought tolerance. However, given the difficulties 473 in identifying drought tolerant tree phenotypes, these results provide evidence that 474 marker-assisted selection would be easier and less prone to errors caused by 475 476 environmental variability. DF analysis identified FIR080, VIT057, FIR059 and GOT045 markers as significantly involved in differentiating C. sativa individuals with different 477 drought tolerances. FIR080 showed one private allele for drought susceptible individuals, 478 and FIR059 showed three private alleles for drought-susceptible individuals and two 479 private alleles for drought-tolerant individuals. Previous evidence and the identification 480 of FIR059 as the only marker under positive selection indicate that it could be used in 481 482 marker-assisted selection to predict drought tolerance in unstressed C. sativa trees.

#### 483 Supplementary material

- 484 Supplementary material is available at Forestry online
- 485 Table S1 Description of the four populations of *Castanea sativa* assessed for adaptive
- 486 genetic diversity to drought
- 487 Table S2 Characteristics of 20 EST-SSRs preselected and their putative functions
- 488 **Table S3** Family-mean (above the diagonal) and individual-seedling (below the diagonal)
- 489 phenotypic correlations between traits assessed in one-year-old *Castanea sativa* seedlings
- 490 exposed to severe water stress. Asterisks indicate significance after applying a Bonferroni
- 491 correction at P < 0.05/15 (\*) and P < 0.01/15 (\*\*) above the diagonal and at P < 0.05/6
- 492 (\*) and P < 0.01/6 (\*\*) below the diagonal; ns = non-significant; = invalid correlation
- 493 Table S4 Private alleles detected in *Castanea sativa* trees grouped into drought tolerant
- and drought susceptible when progenies wilted 0-50 or 76-100%, respectively
- 495 Figure S1 Comparison of F<sub>ST</sub> and He in polymorphic loci to identify outliers and potential
- 496 candidates for selection using LOSITAN software. (a) considering Castanea sativa trees
- 497 grouped into cluster I and cluster II; and (b) into drought tolerant and drought susceptible
- 498 when progenies wilted 0-50 or 76-100%, respectively. Graphical output shows the
- 499 simulated confidence area for neutral loci (pale grey shading).

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# 510 Conflict of interest statement

511 None declared.

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Table 1 Characteristics of the eight EST-SSRs grouped in multiplexes A and B and used to assess adaptive genetic diversity in 136 *C. sativa* individuals from the four populations sampled

Locus	Primer sequence $(5'-3')$	Motif	Dye	Size (bp)	А	Ne	Ho	He	uHe	Pa	F <sub>IS</sub>
Multiplex A											
FIR080	F: ACCATACCTGGCTTCGATGA	ACC	VIC	144-185	6	2.02	0.485	0.505	0.507	0	0.043
	R: AAGGTGAGTTGGTGGTGGAG										
GOT004	F: GGGCATATTGATCGCTTAGG	TG	6-FAM	245-255	3	1.05	0.051	0.050	0.051	0	-0.017
	R: TGAGCATTCATACATTCCATGAT										
GOT021	F: AGAAAGTTCCAGGGAAAGCA	AT	6-FAM	97-101	4	2.33	0.691	0.571	0.573	1	-0.207
	R: CTTCGTCCCCAGTTGAATGT										
VIT057	F: TCAGCAAAATCCCAACTTTGT	AACTCG	PET	141-148	2	1.89	0.551	0.471	0.472	0	-0.168
	R: ACACTTCGCTGTTCCTCGAT										
Multiplex B											
FIR059	F: GGTGGTTTCCGTGAGCATAG	GA	NED	141-186	14	6.59	0.699	0.848	0.851	2	0.177*
	R: TTGCCACACCTTCTCGTTAG										
FIR094	F: CAAAAGCCTCTCACTCTTGAGC	СТ	6-FAM	183-197	4	2.44	0.213	0.590	0.592	0	0.641*
	R: TCAAACCCAAACAAAACGAA										
GOT045	F: TCAACAAAACCCATTAAACCAA	СТ	VIC	126-146	4	1.26	0.213	0.209	0.210	0	-0.015
	R: GGATCGGAGTGAAATGGAGA										
VIT033	F: CATGAAGAACACACACGATGC	CTT	6-FAM	79-81	2	1.73	0.176	0.421	0.423	0	0.583*
	R: TTCGGTGAACTTGAACTAGGC										

692 A, number of alleles; Ne, effective number of alleles; Ho, observed heterozygosity; He, expected heterozygosity; uHe, unbiased expected

heterozygosity; Pa, private alleles; F<sub>1S</sub>, inbreeding coefficient. \*significant at the 0.01 level.

Population	А	Ne	Но	He	uHe	Pa	F <sub>IS</sub>	F <sub>ST</sub>	R <sub>ST</sub>
Bergondo, Galicia	4.00	2.38	0.429	0.471	0.477	11	0.100*	-	-
Hervás, Extremadura	2.88	1.95	0.314	0.328	0.333	1	0.050	-	-
Constantina, Andalusia	3.00	2.27	0.379	0.437	0.444	1	0.143*	-	-
Montseny, Catalonia	2.63	2.03	0.408	0.441	0.448	2	0.090	-	-
Overall	3.13	2.16	0.383	0.419	0.426		0.096	0.093	0.068

Table 2 Genetic diversity parameters for *Castanea sativa* populations obtained from the eight EST-SSR markers 694

A, number of alleles; Ne, effective number of alleles; Ho, observed heterozygosity; He, expected heterozygosity; uHe, unbiased expected 695 heterozygosity; Pa, private alleles; FIS, inbreeding coefficient. \*significant at the 0.01 level; FST, differentiation among populations according to

696 Weir and Cockerham (1984); R<sub>ST</sub>, differentiation among populations according to Slatkin (1995).

697

Effect	Degrees of Freedom	<i>F</i> -ratio	<i>P</i> value
Random factors			
Population	3	3.0	0.044
Population × Block	9	0.6	0.826
Mother tree (population)	37	1.7	0.008
Fixed factor			
Block	3	15.3	0.000
Covariates			
Seed weight	1	0.0	0.982
Time to germination	1	12.9	0.000
Plant height	1	3.2	0.076

**Table 3** Results of the general linear mixed model for analysis of percentage of leaf wilting in *Castanea sativa* seedlings

699 Mother tree (population) = Mother tree nested within population.

# 700 Figure Legends

- 701 Figure 1 Distribution of Castanea sativa in Spain and location (black dots) and
- 702 climographs of the four study populations.







**Figure 3** Leaf wilting of one-year-old *Castanea sativa* seedlings from different populations after one month of severe water stress treatment. Vertical bars are standard errors and different letters indicate significant differences of mean values between populations (P < 0.05) according to the Tukey HSD test.



Figure 4 Leaf wilting of one-year-old *Castanea sativa* seedlings from different families and populations after one month of severe water stress treatment. Half of the families included trees with ca 100% wilting that resprouted (R). PO11 and Cs-12 are commercial clones, vertical bars are standard errors and different letters indicate significant differences of mean values between populations (P < 0.05) according to the Tukey HSD test.



Figure 5 Discriminant function analysis (DFA) score scatter plots of alleles of eight ESTSSRs of *Castanea sativa* trees from different populations (a) and drought tolerances (b).
Drought tolerances of trees were defined based on leaf wilting of progenies after one
month of severe water stress treatment (Figure 4). Bergondo (B), Hervás (H), Constantina
(C) and Montseny (M).

