

# Population structure and marker–trait association analysis of the US peanut (*Arachis hypogaea* L.) mini-core collection

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**Abstract** Peanut (*Arachis hypogaea* L.) is one of the most important oilseed and nutritional crops in the world. To efficiently utilize the germplasm collection, a peanut mini-core containing 112 accessions was established in the United States. To determine the population structure and its impact on marker–trait association, this mini-core collection was assessed by genotyping 94 accessions with 81

SSR markers and two functional SNP markers from fatty acid desaturase 2 (*FAD2*). Seed quality traits (including oil content, fatty acid composition, flavonoids, and resveratrol) were obtained through nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR), gas chromatography (GC), and high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) analysis. Genetic diversity and population structure analysis identified four major subpopulations that are related to four botanical varieties. Model comparison with different levels of population structure and kinship control was conducted for each trait and association analyses with the selected models verified that the functional SNP from the *FAD2A* gene is significantly associated with oleic acid (C18:1), linoleic acid (C18:2), and oleic-to-linoleic (O/L) ratio across this diverse collection. Even though the allele distribution of *FAD2A* was structured among the four subpopulations, the effect of *FAD2A* gene remained significant after controlling population structure and had a likelihood-ratio-based  $R^2$  ( $R^2_{LR}$ ) value of 0.05 (oleic acid), 0.09 (linoleic acid), and 0.07 (O/L ratio) because the *FAD2A* alleles were not completely fixed within subpopulations. Our genetic analysis demonstrated that this peanut mini-core panel is suitable for association mapping. Phenotypic characterization for seed quality traits and association testing of the functional SNP from *FAD2A* gene provided information for further breeding and genetic research.

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## Introduction

Cultivated peanut (*Arachis hypogaea* L.) is an allotetraploid species ( $2n = 4x = 40$ , AABB), covering two subspecies and six botanical varieties (Krapovickas and Gregory 1994), and is one of the most important oilseed and nutritional crops in the world. Peanut seeds on average

contain 50% oil and 25% protein plus other useful compounds such as folic acids, tocopherols, flavonoids, and resveratrol (Pancholy et al. 1978; Sobolev and Cole 1999; Wang et al. 2008; Dean et al. 2009). Peanut provides essential nutritional compounds such as fatty acids, protein, and carbohydrates, and also phytochemicals beneficial to human health. For example, consumption of peanut oil with a high amount of oleic acid (C18:1, a monounsaturated omega-9 fatty acid) and a low amount of linoleic acid (C18:2, a polyunsaturated omega-6 fatty acid) may decrease blood pressure, reduce the level of low-density lipoprotein cholesterol (LDL-C), and maintain the level of high-density lipoprotein cholesterol (HDL-C) (O'Byrne et al. 1997; Terés et al. 2008). Consumption of products rich in resveratrol (such as peanuts, grapes, and red wine) may also reduce oxidant-induced apoptosis, LDL oxidation, and risk of coronary heart disease (King et al. 2006; Baur and Sinclair 2006).

During the past four decades, peanut yield and seed quality have been significantly improved through breeding efforts. For example, the yield of 'Florunner' (developed from a cross of 'Early Runner' × 'Florispán' by the Florida Agricultural Experimental Station in 1969) increased 18% compared to 'Early Runner' (Norden et al. 1969). Two experimental lines (F435-2-1 and F435-2-2) were identified from the Florida breeding program with significantly higher oleic-to-linoleic (O/L) ratio of 35:1, compared with 'Florunner' with a O/L ratio of less than 2:1 (Norden et al. 1987). Peanut yield was also greatly increased through breeding programs by utilizing peanut germplasm to enhance the genetic base and improve pest and disease resistance. The yields from newly developed peanut cultivars were increased over 25% as compared to 'Georgia Green' and 'NC-V11' (Isleib et al. 2001). Obviously, most of the peanut yield enhancement and seed quality improvement were derived from breeding programs that relied on genetic resources (germplasm collections).

To promote and enhance the utilization of peanut germplasm in peanut breeding programs, a peanut mini-core was established by utilizing a stratification strategy from the U.S. peanut core collection (Holbrook and Dong 2005). This mini-core contained 112 accessions covering two subspecies [subsp. *hypogaea* and subsp. *fastigiata*] and four botanical varieties [var. *hypogaea* (Waldron) Krapov. & W. C. Greg. from the subsp. *hypogaea* and var. *fastigiata*, *peruviana* (Waldron) Krapov. & W. C. Greg., and var. *vulgaris* Harz (Krapovickas and Gregory 1994) from the subsp. *fastigiata*]. Several desirable traits (such as resistances to leaf spot and tomato spotted wilt virus) have been identified in the mini-core collection and subsequently used in breeding programs (Holbrook and Dong 2005). The genetic diversity of this mini-core has been estimated using

simple sequence repeat (SSR) markers (Barkley et al. 2007; Kottapalli et al. 2007).

Because the O/L ratio is an important chemical trait for seed quality, the genes encoding fatty acid desaturase 2 (*FAD2*, the key enzyme responsible for converting oleic acid to linoleic acid) have been cloned and designated as *FAD2A* on genome A and *FAD2B* on genome B, respectively (Jung et al. 2000a, b). The mutation in *FAD2A* was a single base pair substitution (G:C → A:T) at position 448 after the start codon, resulting in a missense amino acid substitution from aspartic acid to asparagine (D150 N). The mutation in *FAD2B* was a 1-bp insertion (A:T) at position 442 bp after the start codon, resulting in a frameshift (Jung et al. 2000b; López et al. 2000). Based on the gene sequence of *FAD2A* and *FAD2B*, functional DNA markers have been developed for detection of mutations using different platforms: a cleaved amplified polymorphic sequence (CAPS) assay (Chu et al. 2007, 2009), real-time PCR assay (Barkley et al. 2010, 2011), and an allelic-specific PCR (AS-PCR) assay (Chen et al. 2010). The functional SNP marker from *FAD2A* has been used to screen the U.S. mini-core collection by the CAPS assay (Chu et al. 2007). Chemical traits of seed quality (including amino acid, fatty acid composition, and tocopherol and folic acid content) have also been evaluated for the mini-core (Dean et al. 2009).

Although chemical traits of seed quality and genetic diversity for the mini-core have been evaluated, there is a lack of information on marker–trait associations. Association mapping is a powerful approach to search for genotype (marker)–phenotype (trait) correlations within a diverse collection of germplasm or breeding materials (Myles et al. 2009). The peanut mini-core is a subset of samples representing the diversity in the U.S. peanut germplasm collection. Most of the samples in the mini-core are probably unrelated individuals (accessions) and may be good starting materials for initiating association mapping in peanut. Based on the scale (sample size), pre-known information (gene function and pathways), and purpose (questions to be addressed) of the studies, association mapping can generally be divided into two main categories: genome-wide association mapping (GWAS) and candidate gene association mapping (CGAS) (Zhu et al. 2008). Although the functional mutations in *FAD2* genes have been identified, association analysis between the genes (*FAD2*) and traits (oleic and linoleic acids) across diverse genetic backgrounds has not been performed in peanut. To test whether the U.S. peanut mini-core collection is a good panel for conducting association analysis, candidate gene association mapping was initiated between *FAD2* genes (candidate genes) and trait (oleic and linoleic acids). SSR markers were employed to determine the population structure and at

the same time test whether SSR markers were associated with seed quality traits.

Use of previously published data from the mini-core for association analysis is very limited because the data have been collected from different laboratories and generated from seeds harvested from different years and locations. Furthermore, field morphological variation within accessions has been observed for several mini-core entries (Chen et al., unpublished results). In comparison with field morphological observation, chemical analysis of seed quality traits is relatively expensive. Therefore, we only collected seeds from one location but from 2 years for chemical analysis. The objectives of this study were to (1) assess genetic diversity and population structure of this mini-core collection, (2) determine whether the population structure is associated with botanical varieties, (3) validate whether the functional SNP markers in *FAD2A* and *FAD2B* are associated with oleic acid or linoleic acid across this diverse collection, and (4) identify whether the employed SSR markers are associated with the evaluated seed quality traits.

## Materials and methods

### Planting and harvesting seeds from germplasm accessions

Seeds from 94 of 112 accessions within the U.S. peanut mini-core (Table S1) were obtained from the USDA–ARS, Plant Genetic Resources Conservation Unit (PGRU), Griffin, GA. The other 18 accessions were found to be either mixtures in the original collection (i.e., an accession cannot be represented by a single individual plant) or no longer available, and these accessions were not included in further phenotypic and genotypic analysis. With a randomized complete block design, 20 seeds from each accession were planted in two-row 10-feet-long plots in Dawson, GA, during 2008 and 2009. Off-type plants were removed from the field when morphological variation was observed within an accession. In order to confirm the type of botanical varieties, five morphological traits including growth habit, main stem length, presence of flowers on the main stem, leaf color, and stem pigmentation were recorded in the field at 10 and 14 weeks after planting, following the procedures used for standard peanut descriptors (<http://www.ars-grin.gov/npgs>). Peanut plants were harvested at physiological maturity by a small peanut harvesting combine. After drying, pods were photographed and scored for shape, constriction, reticulation, and number of seeds per pod (<http://www.ars-grin.gov/npgs>). Based on field observations and pod descriptors, the botanical variety classification in the GRIN

database was confirmed and recorded when classification data were missing (Table S1). The harvested seeds were used for chemical analysis within one month after harvesting for both years of this study.

### Analyzing chemical traits of seed quality

Before chemical analysis, seed weight (g/100 seeds) was recorded for each accession. Fourteen chemical traits of seed quality were analyzed in the laboratory. Two replicates per accession were conducted for the determination of each chemical compound concentration. The data for each chemical trait were collected from each of the two harvest years with the exception of resveratrol which was only collected in a single year. For all chemical traits, the same sample from each replicate was analyzed twice, and the average was used in data analysis. The details for each chemical trait analysis were given in the Supplementary Methods.

### Oil content

Oil content analysis was performed by following the method described by Wang et al. (2009a) and expressed as percentage (%) of total oil (see Method S1).

### Fatty acid composition

Fatty acid methyl esters (FAMES) were prepared from peanut seeds and analyzed on gas chromatography (GC) system (7890A, Agilent Technologies) using the modified method described by Wang et al. (2009a) (see Method S2).

### Flavonoid content

Two isoflavones (daidzein and genistein) and three flavonols (myricetin, kaempferol, and quercetin) were detected previously in peanut seeds (Wang et al. 2008). Flavonoids were extracted from peanut seeds and analyzed on high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) system (1100 series, Agilent Technologies) generally following methodology of Wang et al. (2008) (see Method S3). Flavonoid compounds were expressed in  $\mu\text{g}$  per gram of seeds.

### Trans-resveratrol content

Trans-resveratrol was prepared from peanut seeds and analyzed on HPLC system (100 Series, Agilent Technologies) following the method described by Wang and Pittman (2008) and expressed in  $\mu\text{g}$  per gram seeds (see Method S4).

## Genotyping with molecular markers

A small slice of seed (~150 mg) from each accession was used to extract DNA by following the instructions from an E.Z.N.A. Plant DNA kit from Omega Bio-Tek (Doraville, GA). DNA concentration was determined by measurement with a fluorometer. All DNA samples were dissolved and diluted in  $0.1 \times \text{TE}$  (1 mM Tris, 0.1 mM EDTA, pH 8.0) to a final concentration of 10 ng/μl for use in PCR. A total of 83 DNA markers (81 SSR markers plus two functional SNP markers on *FAD2A* and *FAD2B*) were employed to genotype 94 peanut accessions.

### Genotyping with SSR markers

SSR markers were from previously published literature (Hopkins et al. 1999; He et al. 2003; Ferguson et al. 2004; Moretzsohn et al. 2004, 2005; Liang et al. 2009; Li et al. 2011; Qin et al. 2011). Eighty-one (26%) of the 308 tested SSR markers showed polymorphisms across a screening panel of eight peanut mini-core accessions. The name and source for the 81 polymorphic SSR markers were listed in Table S2. Different PCR amplification conditions were used based on amplicon size and annealing temperature. Amplicons were separated either on an ABI 377 automated DNA Sequencer (Foster City, CA) following the condition described by Barkley et al. (2007) or on a Mega-gel system (C-DASG-400-50, CBS Scientific Co., Del Mar, CA) following the conditions described by Wang et al. (2009b). After calling the amplicon size, the scored data were inspected to remove minor non-specific DNA bands from the gel images.

### Genotyping with functional SNP markers

Two functional SNP markers of *FAD2* were employed for genotyping. Since a high homology (99%) exists between *FAD2A* and *FAD2B* (Bruner et al. 2001), the real-time PCR assay for detection of functional SNPs for *FAD2A* and *FAD2B* was conducted separately. The real-time PCR assay for *FAD2A* and *FAD2B* functional SNPs genotyping was carried out according to Barkley et al. (2010, 2011) (see Method S5). From real-time PCR analysis, the analyzed accessions were classified into three categories: wild type, heterozygote, and mutant.

### Statistical analysis

#### DNA marker profile

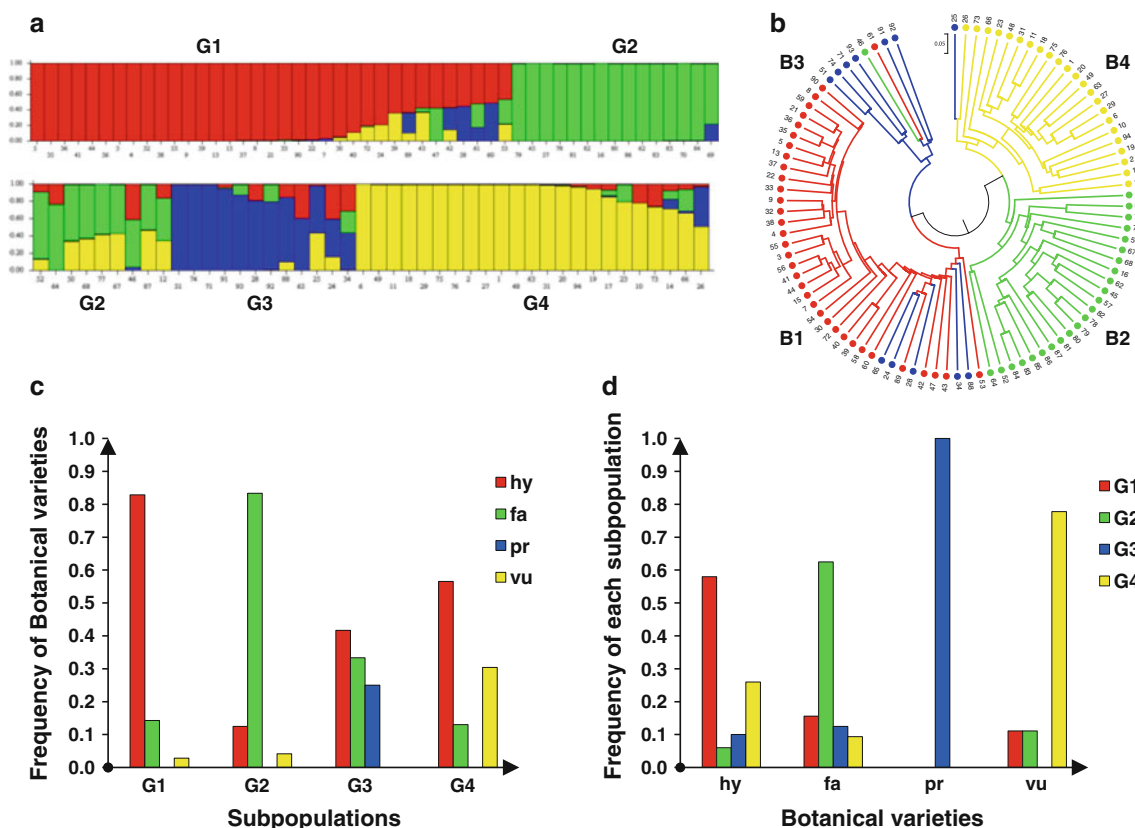
Alleles produced from each accession were scored based on size comparison to a molecular weight ladder.

PowerMarker version 3.25 (Liu and Muse 2005) was used to calculate Chord distance (Cavalli-Sforza and Edwards 1967) among accessions, to compute molecular diversity statistics, and to construct the unweighted pair group method with arithmetic mean (UPGMA) tree with 100 replications of bootstrapping.

#### Population structure analysis

The program STRUCTURE version 2.2.3 (Pritchard et al. 2000; Falush et al. 2003) was used to detect population structure and to assign individuals to subpopulations. This program employs model-based clustering in which a Bayesian approach identifies clusters based on a fit to Hardy–Weinberg equilibrium and linkage equilibrium. The STRUCTURE program was run 10 times for each subpopulation ( $k$ ) value, ranging from 1 to 15, using the admixture model, correlated allele frequency, with 20,000 replicates for burn-in and 20,000 replicates during analysis. The initial upper boundary of fifteen for  $k$  was set because of the current sample size and the outcome that we did find an optimal  $k$  below this boundary. The final population subgroups were determined by the following: (1) the likelihood plot of these models; (2) the stability of grouping patterns across 10 runs; (3) the germplasm information about the materials under study; and (4) the second order rate of change of the likelihood function ( $\Delta k$ ) (Evanno et al. 2005). Based on this information, we chose  $k = 4$  as the optimal grouping. Out of the 10 runs for  $k = 4$ , the run with the highest likelihood value was selected to assign the posterior membership coefficients ( $Q$ ) to each accession. A graphical bar plot was then generated with the posterior membership coefficients (Fig. 1), and plots were also generated for  $k = 2$  and 3 for result interpretation (Fig. S1).

The genetic distances among the four subgroups were calculated as Nei's minimum distance and pairwise  $F_{st}$ . To validate the genetic structure and test for different models, principal component analysis (PCA) was conducted to construct plot of the most significant axes for grouping pattern verification and to obtain axes for further model testing and association mapping (Patterson et al. 2006; Price et al. 2007; Zhu and Yu 2009). The PCA decomposes the overall variation among accessions measured by molecular markers into orthogonal axes (Zhu and Yu 2009). Kinship ( $K$ ) was calculated with SPAGeDi 1.3 (Loisele et al. 1995; Hardy and Vekemans 2002). The combined display of the color-coded subpopulation memberships from STRUCTURE with other analyses (i.e., UPGMA and PCA) and the world map followed that of recent genetic diversity studies (Kwak and Gepts 2009; Wang et al. 2009b).



**Fig. 1** Genetic diversity of accessions within the U.S. peanut mini-core collection. **a** Population structure analysis. The y-axis is the subgroup membership, and the x-axis is the accessions. G (G1–G4) stands for a subpopulation. **b** UPGMA tree analysis. B (B1–B4) stands for a branch or cluster. The UPGMA tree is color coded based

on the results from population structure analysis (red G1, green G2, blue G3, and yellow G4). **c** Frequency of botanical variety within each subpopulation. **d** Frequency of each subgroup within each botanical variety

#### Model comparison and association analysis

To assess the effect of population structure on association mapping of various quantitative traits measured in the peanut mini-core panel, model comparison was conducted using SAS Proc Mixed (SAS Institute 1999). Various mixed models (Yu et al. 2006; Zhu and Yu 2009) with subpopulation membership percentage or PCA as fixed covariates and kinship as a random effect were compared. The dimension of PCA was determined for each trait individually (Zhu and Yu 2009). The best fit model was determined for each trait based on the comparison of the Bayesian information criterion (BIC) values of the different models (i.e., the simple model, Q, PCA, Q+K, and PCA+K). For each trait, the model with lowest BIC value was selected to test the marker–trait association in TASSEL (Bradbury et al. 2007). The potential of this mini-core collection as an association mapping panel was examined by testing a functional SNP marker in *FAD2A* and 81 SSR markers against chemical traits. Subsequently, the quantile–quantile plots of the *F*-test statistics for the SSR markers were generated to assess the adequacy of the

selected model in controlling for type I errors. For the oleic acid, linoleic acid, and O/L ratio, the Q model yielded the best fit and was used in testing the *FAD2A* SNP and SSR markers. In addition, the likelihood-ratio-based  $R^2$  ( $R^2_{LR}$ ) was calculated for the *FAD2A* SNP to provide a general measure for the effect of the functional polymorphism in mixed-model association mapping of the three traits (Sun et al. 2010).  $R^2_{LR}$  allows comparisons across models with different random and fixed components and is a generalized form of  $R^2$  in linear regression model.

#### Results

##### Profile of SSR markers and genotype of *FAD2* functional SNPs

Eighty-one SSR markers were utilized to genotype 94 accessions from the U.S. mini-core collection. A total of 664 alleles were revealed with an average of 8.1 alleles per locus and 0.52 for major allele frequency. The mean polymorphism information content (PIC) was 0.53, and the

**Table 1** Summary statistics for the whole group of peanut accessions and subpopulations detected by structure analysis based on 81 SSR markers

Statistics	Overall	G1	G2	G3	G4
Sample size	94	35	24	12	23
Total number of alleles	664	374	437	318	355
Number of alleles per locus	8.1	4.9	5.4	3.9	4.4
Major allele frequency	0.52	0.72	0.58	0.53	0.67
Genetic diversity	0.59	0.41	0.55	0.56	0.47
PIC <sup>†</sup>	0.53	0.37	0.50	0.51	0.43

<sup>†</sup> Polymorphism information content

**Table 2** Genetic distance between peanut groups from structure analysis

Group	G1	G2	G3	G4
G1	0	0.29	0.16	0.30
G2	0.43	0	0.17	0.19
G3	0.24	0.27	0	0.18
G4	0.47	0.30	0.32	0

The top diagonal is Nei's minimum distance and the bottom diagonal is pairwise  $F_{st}$

mean genetic diversity was 0.59 (Table 1). The *FAD2A* real-time PCR assay revealed three genotypes: 52 wild type (G:C/G:C), 39 mutants (A:T/A:T), and 3 heterozygotes (G:C/A:T). No functional mutant allele (i.e., A:T insertion) from *FAD2B* was identified within the tested accessions and, therefore, was dropped from subsequent analyses.

#### Population structure and genetic diversity

STRUCTURE analysis revealed four subpopulations (or clusters) with relatively low levels of admixture between subpopulations named G1, G2, G3, and G4 which contained 35, 24, 12, and 23 accessions, respectively (Fig. 1a). The level of genetic diversity within G2 (0.55) and G3 (0.56) was higher than that within G1 (0.41) and G4 (0.47) (Table 1). Additionally, the genetic distances among these four subgroups measured by Nei's minimum distance and pairwise  $F_{st}$  were consistent, the genetic distance between G1 and G4 (0.30 and 0.47) being the largest, and the genetic distance between G1 and G3 (0.16 and 0.24) being the smallest (Table 2). The results of principal component analysis (Fig. S2a) showed that the G1 and G3 subgroups were well separated from G2 and G4 subgroups by principal component 1 (PC1). The G2 and G4 subgroups were well separated with some overlap in distribution, but the G1 and G3 subgroups were not well separated by principal component 2 (PC2). The results from STRUCTURE analysis and principal component analysis were consistent.

The UPGMA (unweighted pair group method with arithmetic average) tree analysis clustered 94 accessions into four branches (B1, B2, B3, and B4) (Fig. 1b) based on DNA marker data. First, B1 contained 39 accessions with 34 accessions from subpopulation G1 and five accessions from subpopulation G3. Second, B2 contained 23 accessions that were all from subpopulation G2. Third, B3 contained eight accessions with six accessions from subpopulation G3 and one each from G1 and G2 subpopulations. Finally, B4 contained 24 accessions with 23 accessions from subpopulation G4 and one accession from subpopulation G3. The results from UPGMA tree analysis were generally consistent with the results from STRUCTURE analysis with a few exceptions (Fig. 1a, b).

#### Population structure with botanical variety and geographic origin

Among 94 accessions, there were four botanical varieties (abbreviated as 'fa' for var. *fastigiata*, 'hy' for var. *hypogaea*, 'pe' for var. *peruviana*, and 'vu' for var. *vulgaris*) that were tentatively classified based on morphological data collected from the field and current GRIN taxonomy. The number of accessions for each botanical variety, classified into each subpopulation (G), was listed in Table S1. The frequency of each botanical variety within each subpopulation and the frequency of each subgroup within each botanical variety were presented in Fig. 1c and d, respectively. From the distribution frequency, 58% of the var. *hypogaea* accessions (29/50) were classified into the subpopulation G1, and 63% of the var. *fastigiata* accessions (20/32) were classified into the subpopulation G2. All the accessions (3/3) from the var. *peruviana* were classified into the subpopulation G3, and 78% of the var. *vulgaris* accessions (7/9) were classified into the subpopulation G4. Some discrepancies were also observed. For example, PI 331297 (#46) was classified in botanical variety *hypogaea* but was grouped into G2 in STRUCTURE analysis. In spite of discrepancies, the population structure is obviously associated with the botanical varieties.

Peanut originated in South America. In terms of collection site or country of origin (Fig. S2b), within the subpopulation G1 (containing 35 accessions), 16 accessions were from Asia (eight from Israel), fifteen accessions were from Africa, and the remaining four accessions were from North and South America. Out of 35 accessions, 29 belong to the botanical variety *hypogaea*. This subpopulation mainly represents the botanical variety *hypogaea* from Asia to Africa. Within the subpopulation G2 (containing 24 accessions), 19 accessions were from South America (14 from Argentina), four accessions were from Africa (Zimbabwe), and one accession was from Canada. This subpopulation mainly represents the botanical variety

*fastigiata* (20/24) from South America. Within the subpopulation G3 (containing 12 accessions), five accessions were from Africa (three from Zambia), six accessions were from South America, and one from India. Thus, the G3 subpopulation mainly represents botanical variety *peruviana* from Peru and botanical variety *hypogaea* from Zambia of Africa. Within the subpopulation G4 (containing 23 accessions), five accessions were from South America, 12 accessions from Africa (six accessions were from Zambia), and six accessions from Asia. This subpopulation may be best represented by the botanical variety *vulgaris*. This subpopulation was more diversely spread (covering three continents: Africa, South America, and Asia), but most of the accessions in the botanical variety *vulgaris* (7/9) were classified in this subpopulation.

#### Model comparison and marker–trait association

Model comparisons determined that the mixed model with only the population structure has the best fit for C18:1, C18:2, and O/L ratio. It was identified that after controlling the population structure, the functional SNP marker from *FAD2A* is associated with oleic acid (C18:1,  $P$  value =  $1.75 \times 10^{-5}$ ), linoleic acid (C18:2,  $P$  value =  $2.36 \times 10^{-7}$ ), and O/L ratio ( $P$  value =  $4.58 \times 10^{-5}$ ) with  $R^2_{LR}$  values 0.05, 0.09, and 0.07, respectively. The accessions with the A/A genotype at *FAD2A* locus had a significantly higher level of oleic acid (53.57%), lower level of linoleic acid (26.23%), and higher O/L ratio (2.1) than the accessions with G/G genotype (42.34, 34.92%, and 1.22) (Table 3).

The *FAD2A* SNP had a much stronger association when tested without controlling the population structure, oleic acid (C18:1,  $P$  value =  $2.35 \times 10^{-30}$ ), linoleic acid (C18:2,  $P$  value =  $6.2 \times 10^{-29}$ ), and O/L ratio ( $P$  value =  $2.99 \times 10^{-24}$ ). We further verified that the distribution frequency of the *FAD2A* SNP alleles was different among the four subpopulations. The A/A genotype had a high frequency within G1 (33/35), absent in G2 (0/24), medium in G3 (12/25), and low in G4 (1/23). The heterozygote genotype G/A was present at low frequencies in G1 (1/35),

G2 (1/24), and G3 (1/12), but absent in G4. The G/G genotype was present at a low frequency in G1 (1/35), medium in G3 (6/12), and high in G2 (23/24) and G4 (22/23). This allele distribution pattern led to a reduced significance of *FAD2A* gene to the three traits. But the *FAD2A* genes remained significant when tested with population structure control because the allele distribution pattern was not completely correlated with population structure.

Selected models from model comparison for each trait were used to test individual SSR markers. There were no other associations identified between markers and chemical traits (such as resveratrol and flavonoids). Quantile–quantile plots of F-statistics verified the adequate control of false positives for the mixed model because the deviation of the observed F-statistics for 75 SSR markers from the expected value was minimal (Fig. 2). The six SSR markers that deviated from the expected F-statistics were further examined for allele frequency (Table S3). Because of the presence of alleles with very low frequencies and that most of these markers have a large number of alleles, caution should be given in interpreting these results.

## Discussion

### Peanut mini-core collection

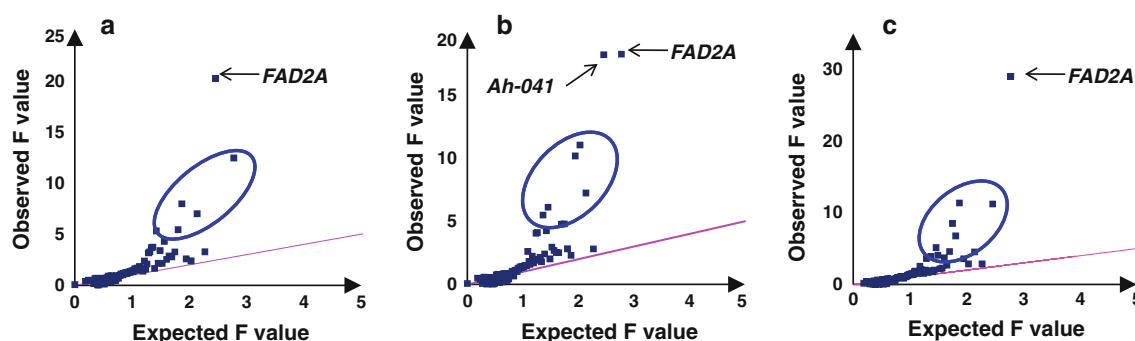
The purpose of establishing a core or a mini-core collection for any crop is to facilitate efficient and economical utilization of plant germplasm for the end users and to identify accessions with desirable traits from a subset of accessions for crop improvement. The core collection (representing 11.2% of the total collection) was established from the entire U.S. germplasm collection, and a mini-core collection (representing 1.5% of the entire collection) was subsequently established from the core collection. In peanut, there are two separate core collections that have been established: the U.S. core collection containing 831 accessions established from 7,432 accessions (Holbrook et al. 1993) and the International Crop Research Institute for the Semi-Arid Tropics (ICRISAT) core collection containing 1,704 accessions established from 14,310 accessions (Upadhyaya et al. 2003). Two mini-core collections were also established from these two separate peanut core collections, the ICRISAT mini-core containing 184 accessions (Upadhyaya et al. 2002) and the U.S. mini-core collection containing 112 accessions (Holbrook and Dong 2005). Due to the ease of procurement of germplasm accessions, the U.S. peanut mini-core was used in this study. We found that two (var. *aequatoriana* and var. *hirsuta*) of the six peanut botanical varieties were not included in the U.S. mini-core, but are part of the ICRISAT mini-core. These varieties were not included because when

**Table 3** Functional SNP marker of *FAD2A* associated with chemical traits important for seed quality

Genotype	n	C18:1 <sup>†</sup>	C18:2	O/L ratio
Wild type (G/G)	52	42.34c	34.92a	1.22c
Heterozygote (G/A)	3	50.81b	28.27b	1.88b
Mutant (A/A)	39	53.57a	26.23c	2.10a

C18:1 oleic acid, C18:2 linoleic acid, O/L the ratio of oleic acid to linoleic acid

<sup>†</sup> a–c: if the letters are different after values, there is a significant difference at  $P = 0.05$



**Fig. 2** Quantile–quantile plots of  $F$ -test statistics with 81 SSR markers and one functional SNP marker for three quantitative traits to show the control of a type I error with the selected model. **a** C 18:1, **b** C 18:2, and **c** O/L ratio. *FAD2A* is a significant marker associated

with all three traits. The six SSR markers including *Ah-041* had significant results but need further investigation due to the low frequencies of the minor alleles (Table S3)

the U.S. core and mini-core were established, these varieties were not part of the U.S. germplasm collection. Clearly, the U.S. mini-core needs to be expanded by adding these two botanical varieties. To date, there have been no reports comparing or using these mini-core collections together by the same end users. It would be desirable to compare these two mini-cores for the purpose of identifying genetic redundancy or common accessions and then use a combined mini-core for screening accessions with desirable traits for peanut improvement. Although it was confirmed that the current U.S. peanut mini-core panel is suitable for association analysis, this panel should be enlarged in order to cover all the peanut botanical varieties.

#### Level of peanut genetic diversity

In comparison with other field crops, there is limited sequencing information available to develop markers in peanut. Even though some projects (such as development of genomic SSRs, EST-SSRs, and BAC-end sequencing) have been completed, the nature of the peanut genome has revealed limited polymorphic DNA markers available for genetic mapping, genotyping, and association studies. Cultivated peanut is a recent allotetraploid ( $AA \times BB \rightarrow AB \rightarrow AABB$ ). Before tetraploidization, a high level of homology may have existed between the A and B genomes of the diploid progenitors. Furthermore, peanut is mainly a self-pollinated species. All these features make development of markers very challenging. Most of the markers used in this study were from previously published reports (Hopkins et al. 1999; He et al. 2003; Ferguson et al. 2004; Moretzsohn et al. 2004, 2005; Liang et al. 2009; Li et al. 2011; Qin et al. 2011). Among 308 SSR markers screened with eight germplasm accessions, only 81 polymorphic markers were identified and used in this study. Although these markers had been prescreened previously and used in other studies, the polymorphism level was still

fairly low ( $81/308 = 26\%$ ). The average number of alleles revealed per locus in this study was 8.1, which was slightly lower than 10.1 alleles from a previous study on peanut germplasm (Barkley et al. 2007), but very close to the 7.9 reported from another study on the peanut mini-core (Kottapalli et al. 2007). As technology advances, low-path shotgun sequencing of several key peanut genotypes may be a quick, economic, and efficient approach to develop markers, especially for a species like cultivated peanut with a low level of genetic diversity.

#### Population structure and genetic diversity with botanical variety and collection site

Structure analysis can estimate the number of subpopulations, the degree of admixture among subpopulations, and the genetic relatedness among accessions. On the other hand, phylogenetic analysis can graphically display relationships between accessions. Structure analysis assigned the accessions into four subpopulations (G1–G4), and UPGMA tree analysis clustered the accessions into four branches (B1–B4). In general, subpopulations identified by STRUCTURE corresponded to a genetic cluster on the phylogeny (G1/B1, G2/B2, G3/B3, and G4/B4). Although the number of accessions in the corresponding subpopulation and branch was different, most of the accessions were classified into the corresponding subpopulation and branch with only a few exceptions. The general separation of two subspecies (subsp. *hypogaea* and subsp. *fastigiata*) was evident because G1 was the group primarily with var. *hypogaea* from subsp. *hypogaea* while G2, G3, and G4 were mostly from other botanical varieties from subsp. *fastigiata* (Fig. 1 and Fig. S1). Our results indicate that the population structure is associated with the types of botanical varieties. The results from population structure analysis and genetic clustering analysis may also reflect the origin of cultivated peanut, world cultivation, and/or

breeding practice. Cultivated peanut originated in South America (possibly in the southern Bolivia–northern Argentina regions). From the center of origin, the cultivated peanut evolved into six botanical varieties. Through cultivation, the cultivated peanuts were introduced and spread out to other continents, but the distribution and cultivation frequency of each botanical variety was not necessarily equal (Table S1 and Fig. S2). The peanut cultivation and distribution also directly affect the germplasm collection by collection sites. The botanical variety *hypogaea* (red triangles) is spread throughout the world, but the botanical varieties *peruviana* (blue diamond) and *fastigiata* (green circles) were mainly restricted in South America and Africa. There is no biological (reproductive) barrier among these four botanical varieties. Some accessions may contain mixtures of genetic components from different subpopulations or from different botanical varieties, and different mixtures were observed within some of the seed sources obtained for use in this study. The botanical variety *peruviana* was not frequently used as breeding material, and it was only classified into the subpopulation G3 and genetic cluster B3. It would be informative to see how the population structure would change with the inclusion of the other two botanical varieties (*aequatoriana* and *hirsuta*) not included in this study.

#### Gene mutation in *FAD2* in peanut

*FAD2* is the key enzyme converting oleic acid (C18:1) to linoleic acid (C18:2) by adding a double bond at the delta-12 position in the hydrocarbon chain in plants. Two functional mutations have been identified on the A and B genome in peanut, respectively (Jung et al. 2000a, b; López et al. 2000). Our association analysis with diverse germplasm validates that polymorphisms in *FAD2* desaturase enzyme are responsible for variations in oleic acid and linoleic acid content. In our study, only the functional mutation for *FAD2A* has been identified in some accessions of the U.S. peanut mini-core collection, but no functional mutations were identified on the B genome. These results imply that the functional mutation on the B genome was a recent event (Norden et al. 1987). Furthermore, there was no functional mutation of *FAD2* identified in the peanut wild species (including the two putative progenitors of the cultivated peanut) (Wang et al. 2010). This also implies that all the functional mutations on *FAD2* occurred after tetraploidization. If the functional mutation on the A genome occurred after tetraploidization, the question that needs to be addressed is whether this functional mutant allele existed in all six botanical varieties.

A survey of the functional mutation allele on *FAD2A* within the U.S. mini-core had been conducted by a CAPS assay (Chu et al. 2007). The CAPS assay suggests that the

functional mutation of *FAD2A* may not occur in subspecies *fastigiata*, but from our real-time PCR assay, at least two accessions from the subspecies *fastigiata* carry the mutant allele. The discrepancy from these two studies can be explained by four possible reasons: The seeds used came from different sources, possible misclassification of the botanical varieties performed in either of these studies, heterogeneity within an accession, or experimental error from the two different platform assays. To confirm these results, more accessions from the subspecies *fastigiata* should be assayed with the two different genotyping platforms or the regions containing this mutation site from these two accessions should be sequenced. The *FAD2A* genotyping revealed several heterozygotes (3 out of 94) in our study, and this was not expected. In theory, the real-time PCR assay should only identify homozygotes and no heterozygotes since peanut is mainly self-pollinated species. However, outcrossing in peanut does occur (Knauff et al. 1992).

#### Marker-assisted selection for enhancing oleate level in peanut

A functional SNP marker from *FAD2A* is associated with oleic acid, linoleic acid, and O/L ratio with  $R^2_{LR}$  values 0.05, 0.09, and 0.07, respectively. The SNP marker was identified from the gene for fatty acid desaturase itself. The results confirmed the gene function of *FAD2A*. Interestingly, the SSR marker *Ah-041* also deviated from the expected *F* value for C18:2 (Fig. 2b), but not for C18:1 and O/L ratio (Fig. 2a, c). In this study, *Ah-041* allele frequency ratio was 2:92, which did not allow a robust comparison and interpretation of results. More research work is needed before drawing a final conclusion in this case. Beyond the U.S. peanut mini-core collection, the functional mutation allele on *FAD2B* was identified in other peanut lines (Norden et al. 1987), and several high oleate peanut cultivars have been developed by integration of this mutant allele. Different marker assays for the detection of this mutant allele have been developed (Chu et al. 2009; Barkley et al. 2010; Chen et al. 2010). In order to enhance the oleate level, both mutant alleles (on *FAD2A* and *FAD2B*) are required and need to be introduced to new peanut cultivars.

In summary, population structure analysis revealed four subpopulations associated with four botanical varieties. In general, this peanut mini-core panel is suitable for association mapping. However, there are six botanical varieties in peanut and the U.S. mini-core only covered four botanical varieties. Accessions from the botanical varieties (vars. *aequatoriana* and *hirsuta*) should be added to the U.S. mini-core and genotyped. The association analysis revealed that one functional SNP marker from the *FAD2A* gene is

associated with oleic acid (C18:1), linoleic acid (C18:2), and O/L ratio. These associations turn out to be ideal for improving seed quality because breeders want to increase the amount of monounsaturated fatty acids (MUFA) and reduce the amount of polyunsaturated fatty acids (PUFA) to improve storage life of food products. The identified DNA markers can be used in marker-assisted selection for improving peanut seed quality. The functional mutation (occurred after tetraploidization) has been identified on *FAD2A*, but not on *FAD2B* (a recent event) within the U.S. mini-core. For researchers to seek germplasm accessions for enhancing oleate level by integration of the functional mutant allele on the B genome in peanut breeding programs, genetic materials from other sources should be exploited.

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