

## Genetic Diversity and Structure of *Oryza rufipogon* Griff. Populations in the Philippines

Sandy Jan E. Labarosa<sup>1\*</sup>, Neah Rosandra Sevilla<sup>2</sup>, Dindo Agustin A. Tabanao<sup>2</sup>,  
Nenita B. Baldo<sup>1</sup>, Helen L.V. Ebuña<sup>1</sup>, and Joy M. Jamago<sup>1\*</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Department of Agronomy and Plant Breeding, College of Agriculture  
Central Mindanao University, Musuan, Maramag, Bukidnon 8710 Philippines  
<sup>2</sup>Plant Breeding and Biotechnology Division, Philippine Rice Research Institute  
Science City of Muñoz, Nueva Ecija 3119 Philippines

*Oryza rufipogon* Griff., or “Rufi” in the Philippines, was previously known to be found only in Lake Apo, Bukidnon. However, a new population was identified in Lake Napalit in the same province. A better understanding of the genetic diversity of both Rufi populations using molecular methods may be beneficial to further ascertain its usefulness in rice breeding and in the development of effective conservation strategies. Population genetic analysis was conducted to estimate the degree of genetic diversity and population structure of the two Philippine Rufi populations using 98 genome-wide simple sequence repeat (SSR) markers. Four *Oryza sativa indica* and three *O. sativa japonica* cultivars were added for comparison. Results indicate that both Rufi populations exhibit low genetic diversity but with significant population structure and differentiation. Low genetic diversity suggests that both populations might be in a genetic bottleneck, perhaps due to observed unsustainable farming practices near their habitat and lack of awareness among locals of their importance. Also, geographical isolation that prevented gene flow between the two populations, as well as the unique climatic conditions between the two lakes might have contributed to the significant population structuring and differentiation. Thus, *in situ* and *ex situ* conservation should be observed for both Rufi populations in the Philippines.

Keywords: conservation genetics, crop wild relatives, diversity analysis, *Oryza sativa*, simple sequence repeats

### INTRODUCTION

*Oryza rufipogon* Griff. (nicknamed “Rufi”, AA genome,  $2n = 2x = 24$ ) is the ancestor of the cultivated Asian rice (*Oryza sativa* L.) (Song *et al.* 2005). For breeding, Rufi and 20 other wild rice species offer a reservoir of genetic diversity as essential sources of resistance and tolerance to some biotic and abiotic stresses, among others (Jacquemin *et al.* 2013). Rufi has resistance mechanisms to various pests and diseases, such as bacterial leaf streak (He *et al.*

2012), rice tungro disease (Shibata *et al.* 2007), and other biotic stresses (Shibata *et al.* 2007). It also has tolerance mechanisms to several environmental stresses like acid sulfate soils (Bui and Nguyen 2017) and chilling stress (Cen *et al.* 2018).

Bon and Borromeo (2003) reported that the only natural populations of Rufi in the Philippines were in Lake Apo, Barangay Guinoyoran, Valencia City, Bukidnon. However, in a class excursion by Jamago and her students in 2012, they recorded the existence of new natural populations along Lake Napalit, Barangay Pigtauranan, Pangantucan,

\*Corresponding Authors: sandyjanlabarosa@gmail.com  
f.joy.jamago@cmu.edu.ph

Bukidnon. This new population might harbor novel alleles useful for current and future rice breeding programs. Balos and Jamago (2013) compared some morpho-ecological parameters of Rufi populations in both lakes *in situ*. Their findings showed that Lake Apo populations (Apo) had longer leaves, culms, and awns than the Lake Napalit populations (Napalit). Also, they reported that Lake Napalit had higher average rainfall (73.50 mm) and was relatively colder (23.5 °C) than Lake Apo (average rainfall: 26.33 mm; average temperature: 25.3 °C). These variations in morphological and ecological parameters between the two populations offer an opportunity for researchers and breeders to explore for their possible use in rice breeding programs.

This study estimated the magnitude of genetic diversity and determined the population structure of *in situ* populations of *O. rufipogon* Griff. in the Philippines using SSRs. Further, allelic patterns and degree of population differentiation across the populations were also calculated. Information on Rufi's genetic diversity and population structure would provide more clarity on its potential for utilization and even insights for its conservation.

## MATERIALS AND METHODS

### Leaf Sampling and Genotyping

Twenty-seven and 14 Rufi strains from Lake Napalit (~ 1,041 masl) and Lake Apo (~ 640 masl) populations, respectively, were sampled *in situ* in 2014 spaced at least 30 m to minimize the collection of leaves from possible clonal plants. Leaf sampling was done by cutting 4–5 in from tips of flag leaves. Leaf cuttings per strain were secured in individual 200 ml centrifuge tubes that were placed immediately in an icebox before storing at –20 °C until DNA extraction. Total genomic DNA was extracted from lyophilized leaf tissues following the modified cetyltrimethylammonium bromide method of Perez and colleagues (2012), then dissolved in triethylenediaminetetraacetic acid buffer. DNA samples were quality-checked through electrophoresis on 1% agarose gel. DNA stocks of four *O. sativa indica* (*i.e.* NSIC Rc192, PSB Rc14, PSB Rc18, and PSB Rc82) and three *O. sativa japonica* cultivars (*i.e.* Azucena, Li-Jiang-Xin-Tuan-Hei-Gu, and Nipponbare) from the Philippine Rice Research Institute were added for comparison.

One-hundred twenty-eight polymorphic genome-wide SSR markers for *O. sativa* were initially selected based on a 3-mb bin system to allow uniform marker distribution in the chromosomes. These were used to evaluate the genetic variation of 41 Rufi samples, including seven *O. sativa* cultivars, for comparison. Polymerase chain reaction

(PCR) was conducted per 6- $\mu$ l reaction solution composed of 1.55  $\mu$ l sdH<sub>2</sub>O, 1.5  $\mu$ l 10x PCR buffer, 0.6  $\mu$ l 25 mM magnesium chloride, 0.35  $\mu$ l 5mM deoxynucleoside triphosphates, 0.5  $\mu$ l forward primer, 0.5  $\mu$ l reverse primer, 1.0  $\mu$ l 1:100 (concentrated suspension: storage buffer) *Taq* DNA polymerase, and 1.5  $\mu$ l diluted DNA.

Each locus was amplified using a PTC-100® Thermal Cycler (Bio-Rad Laboratories, Inc., Hercules, CA, USA) for 2 h and 30 min, following the PCR profile: 5 min initial denaturation at 94 °C, followed by 35 cycles of 1 min denaturation at 94°C, 1 min annealing at 58 °C, and 2 min extension at 72 °C; then a final extension at 72 °C for 5 min. PCR products were subjected to 6% polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis in 1x TBE buffer at 90 V for 1–2 h depending on the size of PCR products. Gels were stained using an ethidium bromide solution for 10–15 m. DNA bands were visualized using the AlphaImager® HP system (ProteinSimple, San Jose, CA, USA). Detected allelic bands were scored from the fastest to the slowest migrating alleles by letters *a*, *b*, *c*, and so on.

### Data Analysis

A total of 128 SSR markers were initially selected to assess the genetic diversity and population structure of 41 Rufi samples along with seven rice cultivars for comparison, which represented the two *O. sativa* subspecies, *i.e.* *japonica* and *indica*. SSR markers with > 20% missing band across all samples were excluded and only 98 markers were retained for further analysis (Appendix I). Rufi samples per lake were examined for genetic diversity per population. Genetic diversity indices per population were assessed by calculating the mean number of alleles, observed heterozygosity ( $H_o$ ), expected heterozygosity ( $H_e$ ), Shannon information index (I), and fixation index (F). Calculations were performed using GenAEx ver. 6.5 (Peakall and Smouse 2012). In addition, allelic richness (AR) and private allelic richness (PAR) were calculated using the rarefaction method implemented in HP-Rare v1.1 (Kalinowski 2005). This accounts for the differences in sample size between the pre-defined population groups of Rufi and *O. sativa*.

Moreover, the population structure of Rufi and rice populations were evaluated by phylogenetic analysis. The pairwise genetic distance matrix for all 48 genotypes was constructed using Nei's genetic distance (Nei 1972). Neighbor-joining (NJ) tree was used for cluster analysis. A boot function from "poppr" package (Kamvar *et al.* 2015) was used to build and visualize the unrooted dendrogram following 1000 bootstraps. The analysis was done using R (R Core Team 2020). Two models were implemented to determine the patterns of the genetic structure of populations. Model 1 only analyzed the Apo and Napalit Rufi populations, whereas Model 2 included the *japonica*

and *indica* rice cultivars. A systemic Bayesian clustering approach applying Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) estimation was performed using STRUCTURE ver. 2.3.2 (Pritchard *et al.* 2000). The analysis was set using the admixture ancestry model, with the number of assumed populations (K) set from 1–10, and each was run 10x. Each run started with 500,000 burn-in periods followed by 500,000 MCMC iterations. MCMC was ran using a correlated allele frequency model based on the default frequency model information under the advanced option of STRUCTURE. Results from STRUCTURE were collated and imported to the web-based application Structure Harvester (Earl and von Holdt 2012) to calculate for Evanno’s delta K (Evanno *et al.* 2005), which determined the optimal number of genetic cluster groups.

Locus-by-locus analysis of molecular variance (AMOVA) with 1000 permutations for Models 1 and 2 was calculated to determine the primary source of genetic variation at each locus. Further, pairwise  $F_{st}$  analysis (Weir and Cockerham 1984) for Model 2 was used to determine the degree of genetic divergence among populations. Both AMOVA and pairwise  $F_{st}$  were calculated using Arlequin ver. 3.5.2.2 (Excoffier and Lischer 2010). Pairwise  $F_{st}$  results were visualized using the R script developed by Wong (2017).

## RESULTS

### Genetic Diversity Analysis

AR and PAR corrected for sample size,  $H_o$ ,  $H_e$ , I, and F were calculated to describe the genetic diversity of Rufi populations in comparison to *O. sativa* accessions. Results suggested that Napalit populations of Rufi were more genetically diverse than Apo populations (Table 1). However, the genetic diversity of Rufi in both populations was lower compared to the cultivated rice accessions

in both the *japonica* and *indica* group (Table 1). This higher diversity observed among *O. sativa* compared to Rufi might be due to its diverse countries of origin, and which were also bred for different ecotypes and came from different genetic background. The former is different from the natural populations of Rufi – which were geographically isolated, with restricted gene flow, and might have been predominantly inbred – resulting in heterozygote deficiency.

### Population Structure and Differentiation

Population genetic structure was analyzed using the NJ tree based on Nei’s genetic distance. Unrooted NJ tree showed a clear separation between the two *Oryza* species, where both Rufi populations were genetically closer to each other than to the rice cultivars (Figure 1a). However, Nap13 from Napalit appeared to be an intermediate between Rufi and *O. sativa* accessions, suggesting that this strain is either a hybrid between the two species or a weedy variant.

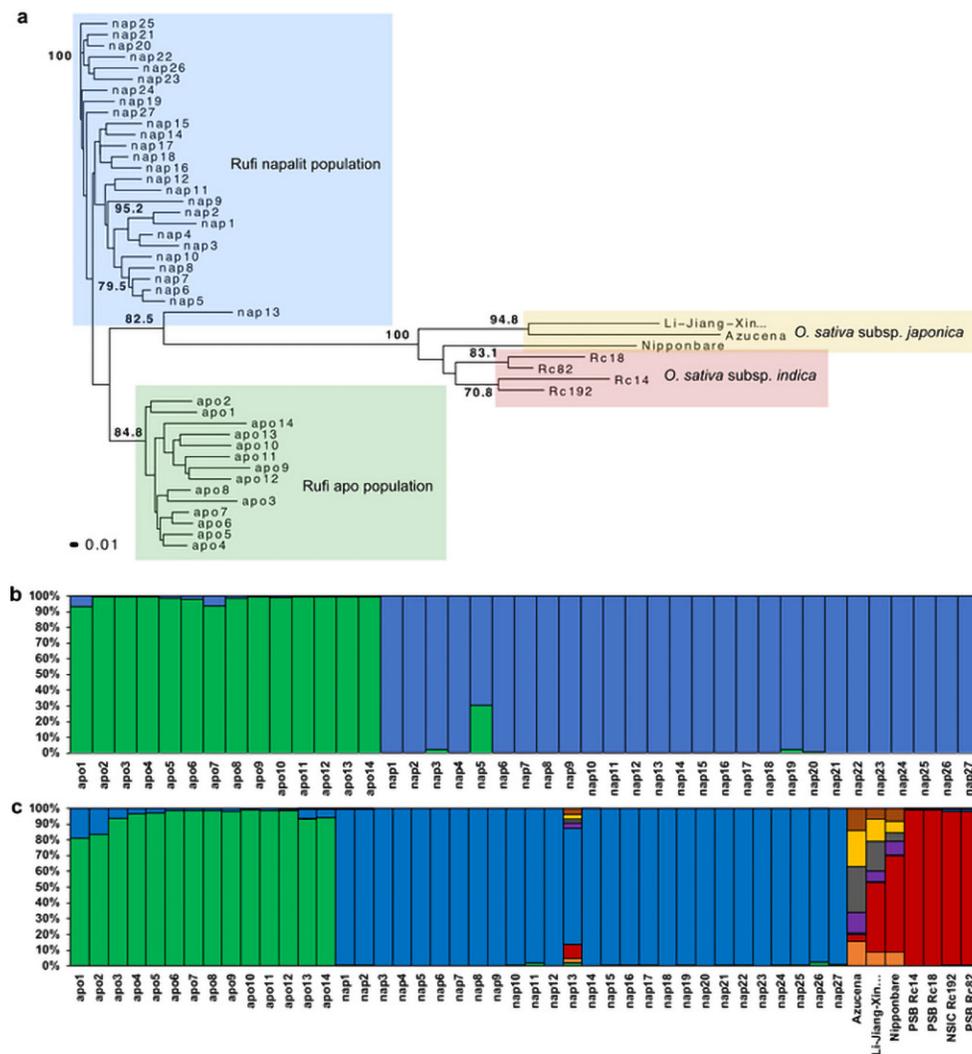
Furthermore, Bayesian clustering results showed a major peak of Evanno’s  $\Delta K$  at  $K = 2$  for Model 1 (without *O. sativa* accessions; Appendix II) and a major peak at  $K = 8$  for Model 2 (with *O. sativa* accessions; Appendix II). Two genetic clusters were inferred for Model 1, as represented by the colors green and blue. Most of the Apo samples belonged to the green cluster, with five admixed individuals (*i.e.* Apo1, Apo5, Apo6, Apo7, and Apo8) detected (Figure 1b). On the other hand, Napalit samples had cluster membership of more than 70% strains in the blue cluster – with Nap3, Nap5, and Nap19 as admixed genotypes (Figure 1b).

In contrast, eight genetic clusters were inferred for Model 2, each represented by a color (Figure 1c). These results show that *indica* cultivars have at least 98% cluster membership per strain to the red cluster, whereas

**Table 1.** Genetic diversity parameters showing that Rufi populations have lower diversity compared to the *O. sativa* cultivars.

Population		AR	PAR	Ho	He	I	F
Apo	Mean	1.17	0.21	0.079	0.167	0.277	0.487
	SE			0.020	0.021	0.034	0.060
Napolit	Mean	1.19	0.25	0.079	0.191	0.321	0.549
	SE			0.019	0.021	0.033	0.053
Japonica	Mean	1.37	0.31	0.024	0.211	0.308	0.863
	SE			0.012	0.024	0.035	0.042
Indica	Mean	1.57	0.59	0.026	0.446	0.699	0.938
	SE			0.012	0.020	0.035	0.025

Note: SE – standard error; AR – allelic richness corrected for sample size; PAR – private allelic richness corrected for sample size;  $H_o$  – observed heterozygosity;  $H_e$  – expected heterozygosity; I – Shannon Information Index; F – fixation/inbreeding index



**Figure 1.** (a) Unrooted NJ tree based on Nei's genetic distance from 98 SSR loci. Numbers above branches indicate bootstrap support values above 70%. (b–c) Bayesian clustering showed the estimated proportion of membership (%) to inferred genetic cluster for Model 1 (b) and Model 2 (c). Each color represents one genetic cluster.

*japonica* cultivars are admixed genotypes of six clusters: brown, yellow, gray, purple, red, and orange. Such might actually show that the tested modern *indica* cultivars were developed from a common parent, whereas the traditional *japonica* cultivars showed diverse origins from an evolutionary perspective. In addition, most of the Apo strains had a membership of more than 80% genotypes to the green cluster and all were admixed with the blue cluster. On the other hand, most of Napalit strains had a cluster membership of more than 80% to the blue cluster. Moreover, Nap11 and Nap26 were admixed individuals to the green cluster, whereas Nap13 was admixed with the other clusters. This is also consistent with the result of the NJ tree. This further suggests that Nap13 could be either a hybrid between Rufi and *O. sativa*,

specifically the *japonica* group, or a weedy variant.

However, the geographical distribution of genetic clusters in Lake Napalit (Figure 2) showed that the nearest rice field from Nap13 is ~200–300 m. Also, Nap4, Nap5, and Nap6 – which had direct connection to the rice field *via* a small creek – did not show any admixture gradient with *O. sativa*. This indicates that direct gene flow from this rice field to the Rufi population is probably non-existent, and the admixture might be due to other unknown causes for now. When combined with the NJ tree results, Bayesian clustering indicated a robust genetic structuring of all Rufi individuals, with both Rufi populations distinct from each other and from *O. sativa* groups.

AMOVA for Model 1 determined that variation within



**Figure 2.** Geographic distribution of the STRUCTURE clusters of Rufi samples for Model 2 ( $K = 8$ ) in Lake Napalit ( $n = 27$ ). Red area indicates the approximate location of the nearest rice field in Lake Napalit. Maps were generated using <http://umap.openstreetmap.fr/en/>.

populations contributed greater than the variation among populations in differentiating the two Rufi populations (Table 2). This might indicate that specific adaptations to the local conditions per lake or specific mutations among individuals within the population have caused this distinction. For Model 2 AMOVA, variation among populations contributed higher to the genetic separation of different Rufi and *O. sativa* groups compared to variation within populations (Table 2). This suggests that the domestication process, plant breeding, and perhaps genetic drift contributed to this differentiation.

Pairwise  $F_{st}$  of all defined populations, including *O. sativa* groups, showed that Napalit and Apo Rufi populations are very genetically distinct ( $P < 0.05$ ) from the *japonica* (vs. Apo:  $F_{st} = 0.68956$ ; vs. Napalit:  $F_{st} = 0.64159$ ) and *indica*

(vs. Apo:  $F_{st} = 0.6454$ ; vs. Napalit:  $F_{st} = 0.61761$ ) groups (Figure 3). Moreover, of the two Rufi populations, Napalit is genetically closer to the *O. sativa* groups, perhaps because of Nap13, specifically to the *japonica* group.

## DISCUSSION

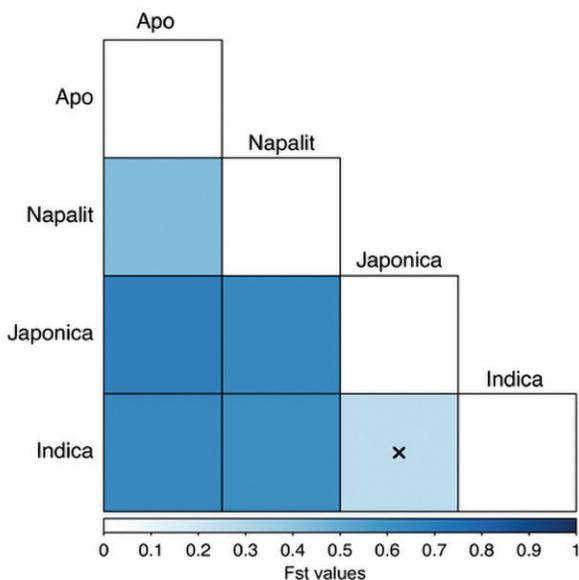
### Genetic Diversity and Differentiation

This is the first study to report on the molecular genetic diversity of the two in situ Rufi populations in the Philippines. Both Rufi populations possess low SSR variation compared to Rufi populations from China ( $N_a = 3.7$ ,  $H_o = 0.57$ ,  $H_e = 0.46$ ; Wang *et al.* 2020) and Malaysia

**Table 2.** Locus-by-locus AMOVA summary table for both Model 1 and Model 2.

Source of variation	Sum of squares	Variance component	Variation (%)	P-value
<b>Model 1 (average for 78 loci)</b>				
Among populations	247.380	6.89851	42.97198	0.00000
Within populations	693.712	9.15500	57.02802	
Total	941.091	16.05350		
<b>Model 2 (average for 95 loci*)</b>				
Among populations	726.356	13.13295	56.01069	0.00000
Within populations	898.641	10.31427	43.98931	
Total	1624.997	23.44723		

\*RM12460 and RM473 have no amplicon for all individuals within the *japonica* and *indica* groups while RM219 has no amplicon for individuals within the *japonica* group; thus, these three loci were excluded from the analysis.



**Figure 3.** Pairwise  $F_{st}$  information between the pre-defined populations for Rufi and *O. sativa* showed that Napalit and Apo Rufi populations are very genetically distinct from *O. sativa* groups. Note: the darker the color, the higher the  $F_{st}$  values, the more genetically distinct the population is to its pair. Box marked with “x” is not significantly different at ( $P < 0.05$ ).

( $N_a = 3.98$ ,  $H_o = 0.583$ ,  $H_e = 0.673$ ; Ngu *et al.* 2010). In addition, Rufi populations in the Philippines might be experiencing or had experienced genetic bottlenecks which may explain its low genetic diversity. Habitat fragmentation of both Rufi populations may have had negatively impacted its genetic diversity by limiting gene flow between the two populations (Chen *et al.* 2017), increased incidence of inbreeding (Gao and Gao 2016), and rapid genetic erosion due to observed human activities such as fishing, grazing of buffalo, and tourism along the lakes.

The present study also detected a high level of population differentiation despite having low genetic diversity. This high differentiation can be attributed to the increased incidence of inbreeding – probably selfing, resulting in genetic drift within the population (Fan *et al.* 2016) – as evident in low heterozygosity and high  $F$  values for the two populations (Bower and Hipkins 2017). However, the result of AMOVA for Model 1 indicates that variation within the population has the greatest contribution to the genetic differentiation between the two populations. This means that natural selection and adaptation due to differences in elevation, temperature, and other parameters in each lake ecosystem may be the primary force in the genetic differentiation of the two populations (Gao and Gao 2016).

In addition, the study also reported high genetic differentiation between populations of Rufi and *O. sativa*

groups based on the AMOVA results for Model 2 and pairwise  $F_{st}$  values. These results corroborated with the results of past studies conducted in Rufi populations in China that also showed high genetic differentiation (Wang *et al.* 2020).  $F_{st}$  results indicate that Rufi populations, especially Napalit, is genetically closer to the *japonica* group, which is also similar to the results of Xie and colleagues (2010).

### Implication for Conservation and Management of Rufi

Genetic diversity of crops and its crop wild relatives is an important evolutionary aspect of a species to cope with a changing environment (He *et al.* 2019), as well as its utilization in plant breeding programs (Lopes *et al.* 2015). This study had revealed that both Philippine Rufi populations have low genetic diversity and might be in a genetic bottleneck. If undesirable human activities are left unchecked and unregulated, these *in situ* populations may eventually be lost. *Ex situ* conservation for Rufi from Lake Apo has been around for years now in the genebank of the International Rice Research Institute (accession numbers: IRGC 1010785, IRGC 105568, and IRGC 80774) and from Lake Napalit by the Genetic Resources Division of the Philippine Rice Research Institute. However, *ex situ* conservation for threatened populations alone is not enough, as Xie and colleagues (2010) reported that *ex situ* collection of Rufi in China exhibited lower genetic diversity compared to *in situ* counterparts – despite suffering from population decline over the years. Thus, a combination of *in situ* and *ex situ* conservation strategy must be in place for both populations. Moreover, Xie and colleagues (2010) suggested that reintroduction of germplasm from an existing *ex situ* collection may promote the long-term maintenance of genetic diversity and improve the gene flow of *in situ* populations; hence, this may be done for the Apo population due to its smaller population size and genetic diversity than in Lake Napalit. Nonetheless, spatial isolation of both Rufi populations from cultivated rice must also be carefully considered to effectively maintain their genetic integrity.

### CONCLUSION

Our present study on the genetic diversity and structure of Rufi populations in the Philippines revealed that: 1) Rufi populations in the Philippines exhibit low genetic diversity, perhaps due to geographical isolation, increased incidence of inbreeding, and genetic drift; 2) the two populations of Rufi are very distinct from each other, probably because of natural selection and specific adaptation to the lake’s unique climatic conditions; 3) the Rufi population from Napalit is closely related to *O. sativa japonica*; and 4) both Rufi populations are in a serious

genetic bottleneck and implementation of both *ex situ* and *in situ* conservation approaches may prevent local extinction of this species in the Philippines.

## ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We would like to thank the local government units of Brgy. Guinoyoran, Valencia City, and Brgy. Pigtauranan, Pangantucan in Bukidnon for the consent to establish and conduct the study in Lake Apo and Lake Napalit, respectively. We would also like to express our gratitude to the Philippine Rice Research Institute – Central Experiment Station for supporting and funding this research project.

## STATEMENT ON CONFLICT OF INTEREST

We declare no conflict of interest.

## NOTES ON APPENDICES

The complete appendices section of the study is accessible at <https://1drv.ms/u/s!AsD1AFpQmMeCgugfaF9VrecxJ5BdHg?e=dv5jyI>

## REFERENCES

- BALOS JL, JAMAGO JM. 2013. Comparative characterization of *in situ* *Oryza rufipogon* Griff. populations in Lakes Apo and Napalit, Bukidnon. In: Dayrit FM ed. Transactions of the National Academy of Science and Technology at the 35<sup>th</sup> NAST Annual Scientific Meeting; 2013 10–11 July; Manila, Philippines, 14p.
- BON SG, BORROMEO TH. 2003. Discovery & Re-Discovery Of Wild Rice Populations In The Philippines. Philippine Journal of Crop Science 27(1): 53–58. <https://www.cabi.org/gara/FullText-PDF/2009/20093019283.pdf>
- BOWER AD, HIPKINS V. 2017. Genetic Diversity and Population Structure in the Rare, Endemic Baker Cypress (*Hesperocyparis bakeri*). Madroño 64(2): 71–82. <https://doi.org/10.3120/0024-9637-64.2.71>
- BUI C, NGUYEN T. 2017. QTL analysis on rice genotypes adapted to acid sulfate soils in the Mekong river delta, Vietnam. Vietnam Journal of Science, Technology, and Engineering 59(4): 26-31.

- CEN W, LIU J, LU S, JIA P, YU K, HAN Y, LI R, LUO J. 2018. Comparative proteomic analysis of QTL CTS-12 derived from wild rice (*Oryza rufipogon* Griff.), in the regulation of cold acclimation and de-acclimation of rice (*Oryza sativa* L.) in response to severe chilling stress. BMC Plant Biology 18(1): 1–17. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12870-018-1381-7>
- CHEN Y, LIU Y, FAN X, LI W, LIU Y. 2017. Landscape-Scale Genetic Structure of Wild Rice *Zizania latifolia*: The Roles of Rivers, Mountains and Fragmentation. Frontiers in Ecology and Evolution 5: 17. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fevo.2017.00017>
- EARL DA, VON HOLDT BM. 2012. STRUCTURE HARVESTER: a website and program for visualizing STRUCTURE output and implementing the Evanno method. Conservation Genetics Resources 4(2): 359–361. DOI: 10.1007/s12686-011-9548-7
- EVANNO G, REGNAUT S, GOUDET J. 2005. Detecting the number of clusters of individuals using the software structure: a simulation study. Mol. Ecol. 14: 2611–2620. DOI: 10.1111/j.1365-29X.2005.02553.x
- EXCOFFIER L, LISCHER HEL. 2010. Arlequin suite ver 3.5: A new series of programs to perform population genetics analyses under Linux and Windows. Molecular Ecology Resources 10: 564–567
- FAN XR, REN XR, LIU YL, CHEN YY. 2016. Genetic structure of wild rice *Zizania latifolia* and the implications for its management in the Sanjiang Plain, Northeast China. Biochemical Systematics and Ecology 64: 81–88. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bse.2015.11.017>
- GAO L-Z, GAO C-W. 2016. Lowered Diversity and Increased Inbreeding Depression within Peripheral Populations of Wild Rice *Oryza rufipogon*. PLOS ONE 11(3). <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0150468>
- HE F, PASAM R, SHI F, KANT S, KEEBLE-GAGNERE G, KAY P, FORREST K, FRITZ A, HUCL P, WIEBE K, KNOX R, CUTHBERT R, POZNIAK C, AKHUNOVA A, MORRELL PL, DAVIES JP, WEBB SR, SPANGENBERG G, HAYES B, ...AKHUNOV E. 2019. Exome sequencing highlights the role of wild-relative introgression in shaping the adaptive landscape of the wheat genome. Nature Genetics 51(5): 896–904. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41588-019-0382-2>
- HE WA, HUANG DH, LI RB, QIU Y, FU, SONG, JD, YANG HN, ZHENG JX, HUANG YY, LI XQ, LIU C, ZHANG YX, MA ZF, YANG Y. 2012. Identification of a Resistance Gene *bls1* to Bacterial Leaf Streak in Wild Rice *Oryza rufipogon* Griff. Journal of Integrative Agriculture 11(6): 962–969. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S2095-3119\(12\)60087-2](https://doi.org/10.1016/S2095-3119(12)60087-2)

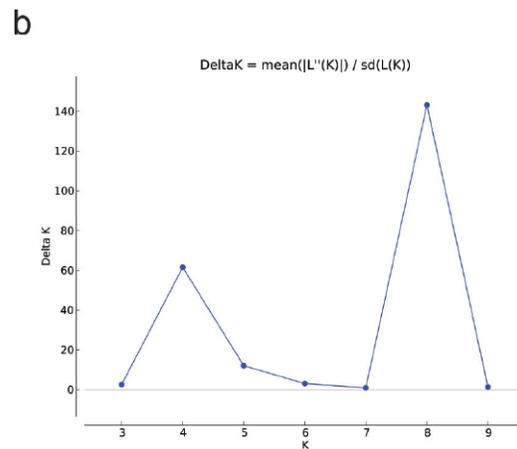
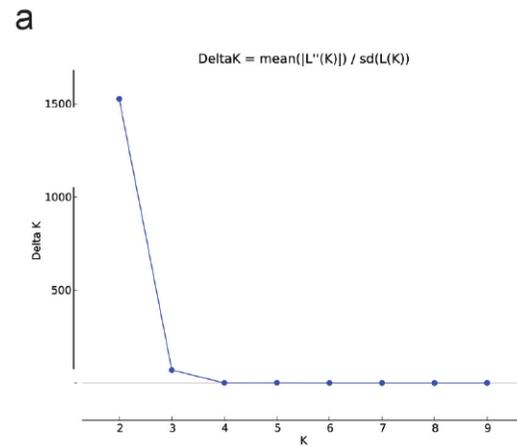
- JACQUEMIN J, BHATIA D, SINGH K, WING RA. 2013. The International Oryza Map Alignment Project: development of a genus-wide comparative genomics platform to help solve the 9 billion-people question. *Curr Opin Plant Biol* 16: 147–156. 10.1016/j.pbi.2013.02.014
- KALINOWSKI ST. 2005. hp-rare 1.0: a computer program for performing rarefaction on measures of allelic richness. *Molecular Ecology Notes* 5: 187–189.
- KAMVAR ZN, BROOKS JC, GRÜNWALD NJ. 2015. Novel R tools for analysis of genome-wide population genetic data with emphasis on clonality. *Frontiers in Genetics* 6: 208. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fgene.2015.00208>
- LOPES MS, EL-BASYONI I, BAENZIGER PS, SINGH S, ROYO C, OZBEK K, AKTAS H, OZER E, OZDEMIR F, MANICKAVELU A, BAN T, VIKRAM P. 2015. Exploiting genetic diversity from landraces in wheat breeding for adaptation to climate change. *Journal of Experimental Botany* 66(12): 3477–3486. <https://doi.org/10.1093/jxb/erv122>
- NEI M. 1972. Genetic distance between populations. *American Naturalist* 106: 283–392.
- NGU MS, SABU KK, LIM LS, ABDULLAH MZ, WICKNESWARI R. 2010. Genetic Structure of *Oryza rufipogon* Griff. Natural Populations in Malaysia: Implications for Conservation and Genetic Introgression of Cultivated Rice. *Tropical Plant Biology* 3(4): 227–239. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12042-010-9060-3>
- PEAKALL R, SMOUSE PE. 2012. GenA1Ex 6.5: genetic analysis in Excel. Population genetic software for teaching and research-an update. *Bioinformatics* 28: 2537–2539.
- PEREZ LM, PASTOR HM, DOMINGO JM, MANANG-HAYA TE, TABANAO DA, MANIGBAS NL. 2012. Detecting Hybrid Admixtures Through DNA Analysis. *Philippine Journal of Crop Science* 37(1): 42–46.
- PRITCHARD T, JAMJOD S, DONNELLY P. 2000. Inference of population structure using multilocus genotype data. *Genetics* 155: 945–959.
- R CORE TEAM. 2020. R: A language and environment for statistical computing. R Foundation for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria. Retrieved from <https://www.R-project.org/>
- SHIBATA Y, CABUNAGAN RC, CABAUTAN PQ, IL-RYONG C. 2007. Characterization of *Oryza rufipogon*-derived resistance to tungro disease in rice. *Plant Disease - PLANT DIS* 91: 1386–1391. 10.1094/PDIS-91-11-1386
- SONG ZP, LI B, CHEN JK, LU BR. 2005. Genetic diversity and conservation of common wild rice (*Oryza rufipogon*) in China. *Plant Species Biol* 20: 83–92.
- WANG J, SHI J, LIU S, SUN X, HUANG J, QIAO W, CHENG Y, ZHANG L, ZHENG X, YANG Q. 2020. Conservation recommendations for *Oryza rufipogon* Griff. in China based on genetic diversity analysis. *Scientific Reports* 10(1): 14375. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-020-70989-w>
- WEIR BS, COCKERHAM CC. 1984. Estimating F-statistics for the analysis of population structure. *Evolution* 38: 1358–1370.
- WONG W. 2017. Extract FST Mat data from Arlequin XML output. Retrieved on 04 Oct 2020 from <https://nicolawongwaiyee.wordpress.com/>.
- XIE J, AGRAMA HA, KONG D, ZHUANG J, HU B, WAN Y, YAN W. 2010. Genetic diversity associated with conservation of endangered Dongxiang wild rice (*Oryza rufipogon*). *Genetic Resources and Crop Evolution* 57(4): 597–609. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10722-009-9498-z>



SSR Loci	Chromosome number	Expected PCR product size	Annealing temperature (°C)	Primer sequence	Repeat motif
RM215	9	148	55	caaaatggagcagcaagagc fgagcaacctctctctgtag	(CT)16
RM219	9	202	55	cgctggatgatgtaaaagcct catatcgcaatcgcctg	(CT)17
RM223	8	165	55	gagtgagcctfgggctgaaac gaagggcaagctctggcactg	(CT)25
RM229	11	116	55	cactcacacgaacgactgac cgcaeggtctctggaatgt	(TC)11(CT)5C33(CT)5
RM23654	9	186		CTCCGATGCCTTCTCCTTTGC AAAGGGAGTAGCAAGCCGAGTGG	(CTT)9
RM241	4	138	55	gagccaaataagatcgtga fgcaagcagcagatttagtg	(CT)31
RM25121	10	133		GGTATGACATGTGGCTCCTACCG CGATCTAAGAGCGTTTGCAGTGG	(TCTA)5
RM256	8	127	55	gacagggagfgattgaaggc gftgattcgccaaggcg	(CT)21
RM257	9	147	55	cagttcagagcaagagtactic ggatcggagcftggcatatg	(CT)24
RM258	10	148	55	tgcgtgatgtagctgcacc fggaccttaaaagctgtgc	(GA)21(GGA)3
RM26	5	112	55	gagtcgacgagcgcaga ctgcgagcgcactgaaca	(GA)15
RM26547	11	459		TTGATTCGTTCTTGGGTACC GCTCCAGGAGAGTAATAGCTTCG	(AG)10
RM26801	11	165		GCCTTCATCCGTAATCCATAAGC GAGTACCACATGGCATTATGAGAGC	(TCTA)7
RM27191	11	372		CGGGAAGTCCTTAGGTGATGG TCTGGATCATGTCACCATTGC	(ACG)8
RM277	12	124	55	eggfcaaatcaicaccctgac caaggcttcgaagggaag	(GA)11
RM28048	12	93		TTCA GCCGATCCATTCAATCC GCTATTGGCCGGAAAAGTAGTAGC	(CGC)8
RM281	8	138	55	accaagcaccagfgaccag gftctatacagtcacatg	(GA)21
RM28130	12	175		CAGCAGACGTTCCGGTTCTACTCG AGGACGGTGGTGGTGTACTGG	(GAG)7
RM282	3	136	55	ctgftcgaaggctgacac cagtcctgctgctgcaag	(GA)15
RM284	8	141	55	atctctgatactcattccatcc cctgtacgftgacccgaagc	(GA)8
RM287	11	118	55	ttccctgtaagagagaatc gftatttggfgaagcaac	(GA)21
RM288	9	125	55	ccggcagfcaagctctg acgtacggagcgtgacgac	(GA)7G6(GA)7
RM289	5	108	55	ttccatggcaacaaagcc ctgtgcaacgaacttccaaag	G11(GA)16
RM300	2	121	55	gcttaaggactctctgcaacc caacagc-gatccacatc	(GTT)14
RM301	2	153	55	ttactcttggfctgfgtag ctaacgacagcatagatgacc	(GT)5G2(GT)8T2(GT)3
RM310	8	105	55	ccaaaacattaaataatcatg gctftggctatcaatc	(GT)19
RM3143	1	98	55	AGCCTGGATAAGATGGTTCCG CGAGAAAGACCCAGTTTCTGC	(CA)17
RM337	8	192	55	gtaggaagggaaggccagag cgatagatagctgctgfggccc	(CTT)4-19-(CTT)8
RM349	4	136	55	tfgcattcggfggaggcg gtccatcctccctatgctgc	(GA)16
RM3549	2	168	55	GATCCTCCACACCAACAAC AACGAACGACCAACTCCAAG	(GA)12

SSR Loci	Chromosome number	Expected PCR product size	Annealing temperature (°C)	Primer sequence	Repeat motif	
RM3658	4	169	55	AGCGGAGGTACGGATCTC	TTTCTCTCTCTCTTCCCC	(GA)14
RM3735	4	138	55	GCGACCGATCAGCTAGCTAG	ATAACTCCCTCCCTTGCTGCC	(GA)16
RM3843	4	172	55	ACCCTACTCCCAACAGTCCC	GGGGTCGTACGCTCATGTC	(GA)23
RM402	6	133	55	gagccatggaagatgcatg	tcagciggccatgacaatg	(ATA)7
RM407	8	172	55	gattggagagacgagccatc	ctttttcagatcigcctcc	(AG)13
RM416	3	114	55	eggagttagggtttggagc	tcagtttcacacgtctteg	(GA)9
RM4194						
RM422	3	385	55	ttaaccctgcatccgctc	ccatccaaatcagcaacagc	(AG)30
RM432	7	187	55	ttctgtctcaactggttg	agctgctgacgtgatcaatg	(CATC)9
RM434	9	152	55	gcccataccctctaacctc	caagaaagatcagtgctgfgg	(TC)12
RM441	11	189	55	acaccagagagagagagagagag	tctgcaacggctgataagatg	(AG)13
RM444	9	162	55	gctccaccctgcttaagcctc	tgaagaccatgcttctgaggg	(AT)12
RM447	8	111	55	cccttggctgctctctctc	acgggcttctctctctctc	(CTT)8
RM461	6	195	55	ggagaccggagagacaacctc	tgatgctggtttgacitgctac	(AAAC)6
RM470	4	83	55	tcctcatcggcttctcttc	agaaaccgtttctacgtcacg	(CTT)14
RM473	7	97	55	tatctgctctccatcgcctc	aaaggatgtgctggtagaatg	(TCTA)14
RM486	1	104	55	ccccctctctctctctctc	tagccacatcaacagctfgc	(CT)14
RM510	6	122	55	aaccggattgcttctgccc	tggagcagcagcagcagattc	(GA)15
RM511	12	130	55	cttcgctcggctgacgac	aacgaaagcgaagctgctc	(GAC)7
RM524	9	198	55	tgaagagacaggaaccgtaggg	tctgatatacggcttctctgg	(AT)11
RM529	1	273	55	ccccctctctgtaagctcc	gaagaaacaatgctgctctg	(CT)12
RM530	2	161	55	gcactgaccacgactgtttg	accgtaaccctggatctatcc	(GA)23
RM536	11	243	55	tcctctctgcttggctc	acacaccaacaagaccacac	(CT)16
RM544	8	248	55	tgtgagccctgagcaataaacg	gaagcgtgtgatatacgcctg	(TC)9
RM546	3	268	55	ggagatgtagaagtagacggcg	gatcactgctctctctctg	(CCT)7
RM551	4	192	55	agcccagactgacatgattg	gaagcggagagagatcaacag	(AG)18
RM5515	9	123	50	CGCACAGGAGAAAATCCAAC	TAGCATTATGGGGTGGAAAGG	(TG)12
RM552	11	195	55	cgcaattgtggattcagtg	tgcctcaaccctgacgtctcc	(TAT)13
RM556	8	93	55	actcnaaccctcaactgcaac	tagcacaactgaaacaagctggc	(CCAG)6
RM5639	3	123	55	GGAAGAACAAGATTGCTCGG	GTGCCAATTATTTCCGTC	(AAG)13

SSR Loci	Chromosome number	Expected PCR product size	Annealing temperature (°C)	Primer sequence	Repeat motif
RM5777	9	198	55	AAAGATCGAGATGGCGAGAG	TCTACCCGGTCAAAAATCCTC
RM590	10	137	55	caatcgcctcctccalc	ggagftggggcttfttcg
RM6	2	163	55	gtccctccaccacaattc	tgtctactgttggctgcaac
RM6063	7	157	55	GTCGCTAGTTCACTGCCAAG	TGGGGGAGGATAGGATTAGG
RM6142	10	100	55	TCCTCCTCACCTGCTTCTCC	TACAGAGGCTACTACCACGACG
RM6365	4	191	50	GCTTGCAITGGAGGAGAGAAC	TGGAAGAACAATCTCAAAGCCC
RM6374	2	127	55	TGAGGACGCTGATTGTCAAC	GCTGCCCTAATTATTTACC
RM6407	1	145	50	TGAAATGGTGGAGTCCAAGG	ACGGAGCCACTGACAGGTC
RM6776	7	169	50	AGCCCGGACATGCAAAAAC	GAAAGCAGGCCGAAAATCTCCTC
RM7193	6	139	50	ATGTGGGAATTTCTAGCCCC	CCCTAGTTTTCCAAATGGCC
RM7417	10	142	55	CGCAGCAGCTGTTCTACATG	TGCTTGCAAGGTCATCTGAG



Appendix II. Estimated number of optimal clusters (K) calculated using the Evanno method which showed a major peak at K=2 for Model 1 (a) and at K=8 for Model 2 (b).