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Signatures of Environmental Adaptation During Range Expansion of Wild Common Bean (Phaseolus vulgaris)

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Authors

Ariani, Andrea Gepts, Paul

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Signatures of potential environmental adaptation during range expansion of wild common bean (Phaseolus vulgaris) using an integrated landscape genomics approach Andrea Ariani and Paul Gepts* Department of Plant Sciences, Section of Crop and Ecosystem Sciences, University of California, Davis, CA 95616-8780 *Correspondence: plgepts@ucdavis.edu

25 **Abstract**

26 **Background:** Landscape genomics integrates population genetics with 27 landscape ecology, allowing the identification of the putative molecular 28 determinants involved in plant environmental adaptation across their natural 29 geographic and ecological range. Wild *Phaseolus vulgaris*, the progenitor of 30 common bean (P. vulgaris), has a remarkably extended distribution from 31 northern Mexico to northwestern Argentina. Earlier research has shown that 32 this distribution represents a range expansion from Mesoamerica to the southern Andes through several discrete migration events and that the species 33 34 colonized areas with different temperature and rainfall compared to its core 35 area of origin. 36 **Results:** In the current study, we applied a landscape genomics approach to a 37 collection of 246 wild common bean accessions representative of its broad 38 geographical and climatic distribution and genotyped for ~20K SNPs. We 39 applied two different but complementary approaches for identifying loci 40 putatively involved in environmental adaptation: i) an outlier-detection method 41 that identifies loci showing strong differentiation between sub-populations; ii) an association method based on the identification of loci associated with bio-42 43 climatic variables. This integrated approach allowed the identification of 44 several genes showing signature of selection across the different natural subpopulations of this species, as well as genes associated with specific bio-45 climatic variables related to temperature and precipitation. 46 47 Conclusions: The current study demonstrates the feasibility of landscape 48 genomics approach for a preliminary identification of novel candidate genes 49 involved in environmental adaptation in P. vulgaris. As a resource for

- 50 broadening the genetic diversity of the domesticated gene pool of this species,
- 51 the genes identified constitute potential molecular markers and introgression
- 52 targets for the breeding improvement of domesticated common bean.
- 53 **Keywords:** Landscape genomics; Crop Wild Relatives (CWRs); climate
- 54 adaptation; GWAS; natural selection; domestication

Background

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56 Climate change represents one of the primary threats for food security 57 worldwide, but especially in developing countries that rely heavily on 58 agricultural production from smallholder farmers [1,2]. Indeed, several studies 59 have highlighted a predominant role of climate change in reducing agricultural 60 productivity and increasing inter-annual variability in crop yields, thus directly 61 affecting food availability and stability [3,4]. 62 The increase in average temperatures, along with the higher frequency and intensity of extreme weather conditions, will require the development of new 63 64 plant varieties adapted to this changing environment in order to meet future 65 food security needs [5,6]. However, the development of new varieties requires 66 the introduction of genetic diversity into breeding programs to find the correct 67 combinations of favorable alleles in a specific crop [7]. The genetic variability 68 available in domesticated plants is generally low due to the bottleneck effect 69 induced by domestication and subsequent selection during variety 70 improvement (Zamir 2001; Ford-Lloyd et al. 2011; Gepts 2014), thus new 71 sources of genetic diversity need to be introduced into breeding programs. 72 Crop Wild Relatives (CWRs) represent a large, and mostly unexploited, source 73 of genetic diversity readily available for plant improvement under climate 74 change [7,8,10,11]. However, the use of CWRs in breeding programs for improving stress resistance in domesticated species could be hindered by the 75 lack of knowledge of the genetic determinants of resistance and also by 76 difficulties in phenotyping a large number of individuals under agricultural 77 78 conditions [11-13]. One possible solution for overcoming these difficulties is 79 the integration of environmental and genotypic datasets to understand the

80 genetic basis of natural selection in wild populations, an approach known as 81 'landscape genomics' [14,15]. In addition, this approach offers both theoretical 82 and practical applications since it strengthens the understanding of plant 83 natural adaptation but allows also the identification of molecular markers that 84 could be readily applicable for breeding improvement of domesticated plants 85 [16]. 86 Several methods have been developed for identifying signature of natural 87 selection (e.g., selective sweeps) in natural populations. These methods can be divided mostly in outlier-detection methods, which identify hard-selection 88 89 sweeps, and association methods, that identify soft-selection sweeps [14,17]. 90 Outlier-detection methods are based on population differentiation analysis and 91 aim at identifying loci with drastic differences in allele frequencies between 92 populations, as measured by F_{st} [18,19]. Although based on the assumption 93 that alleles fixed within sub-populations could confer an evolutionary 94 advantage in the ecological niche occupied [20,21], these methods do not take 95 directly into account climatic data and could be biased by complex population 96 structure and/or demography [22]. On the other hand, association methods 97 directly correlate genotypic with environmental data and rely on the 98 assumption that variations of allele frequencies across environmental gradients 99 are possible signature of local adaptation [23]. The theory beneath 100 environmental association methods are practically the same as that used in 101 Genome Wide Association Studies (GWAS) [24] Both approaches employ mixed model association approaches for correcting for the confounding effects that 102

could be introduced by population structure and relatedness in the sample

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[25].

105 Common bean (P. vulgaris) is an essential staple crop providing most of 106 proteins and micronutrients in the diet of the majority of the population in 107 several developing countries [26]. The regular consumption of this crop 108 provides several health benefits, like reducing the risks of heart disease, 109 obesity, and diabetes [27]. Its cultivation improves agricultural sustainability 110 thanks to its nitrogen-fixing ability [28]. Common bean shows a surprisingly 111 high genetic diversity, with the presence of at least three geographically 112 isolated and divergent wild gene pools located in 1) Mesoamerica and the northern Andes (MW); 2) the Central Andes (Ecuador and northern Peru; PhI); 113 114 and 3) the Southern Andes (southern Peru, Bolivia, and northwestern Argentina; AW) [29-31]. Common bean was domesticated independently in 115 116 Mexico and the Southern Andes, producing locally-adapted varieties and 117 landraces with specific characteristics [32-38]. The intermediate gene pool in 118 the Central Andes was not domesticated [39,40]. This wild group has been 119 recently identified as a cryptic sister species of *P. vulgaris*, named *Phaseolus* 120 debouckii, which was disseminated from the center of origin of this species in 121 Mesoamerica and remained geographically isolated from the other wild gene 122 pools of this species [41,42]. 123 Wild common bean is an annual vine plants that is found from the state of 124 Chihuahua in northern Mexico (approx. 35° N. Lat.) to the Córdoba province in Argentina (approx. 35° S. Lat.), encompassing almost 70 latitudinal degree or 125 about 10,000 km [43,44]. This species grows in both tropical and sub-tropical 126 environments across the Americas at elevations between 500 and 2,000 m 127 a.s.l. with annual rainfall from 500 to 1,800 ml [43,44,12]. This broad 128 geographic and ecological distribution suggests the existence of genotypes 129

adapted to a wide variety of environmental conditions, which could be useful donors of abiotic stress resistance for improving domesticated common bean production under climate change [44,45].

Future projection of climate changes under different models predict a reduction of suitability for common bean production in areas where this plant is an essential staple crop and also a source of household income, hence endangering food security and increasing rural poverty in already susceptible areas of the world [46]. For this reason, it is essential to understand the molecular mechanisms involved in wild common bean adaptation to different environments and to identify molecular markers that could be useful in breeding improvement of this crop. The application of landscape genomics approaches in wild common bean could help address these issues, as demonstrated previously in several other plant species like soybean, barley, *Medicago truncatula*, maize, and *Brachypodium* [16,47–50].

In the current study, we applied a landscape genomics approach to understand environmental adaptation to a dataset comprised of 246 wild common beans genotyped for ~20K previously developed SNPs [51]. A similar analysis was performed previously in this species using 148 SNPs located in genes putatively involved in adaptation to biotic or abiotic stresses [52]. However, the higher number of markers developed in this study and the broader and more even distribution across the genome of these markers, results in a more comprehensive and precise analysis of environmental adaptation in this species. In addition, the genes identified as associated with environmental variables can be validated and applied in the future for domesticated common bean breeding improvement.

Materials and Methods

Plant material and genotype data

A panel of 246 wild P. vulgaris accessions, previously genotyped with a Genotyping-By-Sequencing (GBS) protocol using the CviAII restriction enzyme [51], was analyzed. The panel was representative of the ecological and geographic distribution of this species and included 157 genotypes of the Mesoamerican (MW), 77 of the Southern Andes (AW), and 12 of the Central Andes (Northern Peru-Ecuador; PhI) gene pools. The SNPs considered in this study were those with a Minor Allele Frequency (MAF) ≥ 0.05 and less than 20% missing data. The list of the accessions sequenced, with gene pool information and geographic coordinates, is available in Additional File 1, while genotyping data in VCF format are available in Additional File 2. The seeds were provided by the International Center of Tropical Agriculture (CIAT, Cali, Colombia) and the United States Department of Agriculture Western Regional Plant Introduction Station (Pullman, WA).

Spatial analysis

Spatial analyses were conducted within the R statistical environment (www.r-project.org) using the dismo package and its dependencies (raster and sp). The geographic coordinates of the individuals analyzed in this study were used for retrieving the 19 bio-climatic summary variables from the WorldClim database (http://www.worldclim.org/). The data were downloaded at a 30-second resolution (approximately 0.86 km² at the equator). In order to identify a subset of bio-climatic variables that best summarizes our dataset, we performed a

Principal Component Analysis (PCA) on the scaled and centered variables using the ChemometricsWithR package [53]. We then selected the first two variables with the highest positive and negative loading in the first four principal components (PC1 to PC4) (Additional File 3). Since some of the selected bioclimatic variables showed a high correlation (Additional File 4), we decided to pick only one of the correlated variables for further analysis. The final bioclimatic variables analyzed in this study were: bio_3 (Isothermality), bio_5 (Max Temperature of Warmest Month), bio_6 (Minimum Temperature of Coldest Month), bio_7 (Temperature Annual Range), bio_12 (Annual precipitation), bio_14 (Precipitation of Driest Month), and bio_18 (Precipitation of Warmest Quarter). In addition to the above-mentioned bio-climatic variables, we included also annual Potential EvapoTranspiration (PET) downloaded from the Global Aridity and PET Database (http://www.cgiar-csi.org/data/global-aridity-and-pet-database).

Genome scans for selection and association analysis

Genome scans for selection (i.e., hard selective sweeps) were performed on the final set of SNPs using the pcadapt R package [54], an algorithm able to detect population structure and outlier loci by performing a PCA analysis on SNPgenotypic data. The best number of sub-populations was inferred by visually evaluating the scree plot of eigenvalues for the different principal components (K); the genomic scans for selection were performed for K in the range 2-5. The p-values obtained by this analysis were corrected using the Bonferroni method and only SNPs with a corrected p-value ≤ 0.001 were considered as significant.

Association analysis (i.e., soft selective sweeps) was performed separately for each of the seven selected bio-climatic variables and annual PET. For this analysis, we used the LFMM algorithm [55] implemented in the LEA R package [56]. This method was developed specifically for identifying signature of environmental selection in genomic data and is able to efficiently correct for population history and isolation-by-distance (IBD). In order to correct for spurious association determined by population structure or IBD, the number of latent factors (i.e., populations) needs to be decided a priori and subsequently evaluated using the genomic inflation factor parameter. Since LFMM is based on Monte Carlo Markov Chain (MCMC) sampling, we ran it multiple times for each association analysis and then averaged the p-values (as suggested in the software documentation). To identify the best number of populations (K) for association with each bio-climatic variable, we performed three runs of the program with K in the range 4-10 and estimated the inflation factor from these runs [57]. Plots of the inflation factor for different values of K (Additional File 5) showed that the best inflation factor for reducing False Discovery Rate (FDR) (i.e., closest to 1) was six for Bio12, Bio14, and Bio5, and 7 for Bio6, Bio18, Bio7, Bio3, and PET. Based on this preliminary screening, we re-ran the program with the best number of K for 10 times with 10,000 MCMC iterations and a burn-in period of 1,000. The p-values where then averaged across the different runs and corrected using the Bonferroni method. SNPs with a corrected p-value ≤ 0.05 were considered as significant.

Identification of putatively selected genes

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The distance between significant SNPs, identified by genome scans or association analysis based on the *P. vulgaris* v1.0 genome annotation (https://phytozome.jgi.doe.gov/pz/portal.html), was evaluated using the GenomicRanges/rtracklayer packages or R [58,59]. Only genes within 5 Kb of a significant SNPs were chosen as putatively selected genes. This 5 Kb upper limit was selected based on the genotyping approach used in this study (that did not allow a full coverage of the genome), but also took into account the presence of possible regulatory regions immediately adjacent to gene sequences [60].

Candidate genes evaluation across genetic groups

For clustering individuals based on genetic groups and visualize allele frequency variations across clusters, we applied a K-means clustering approach using the first 5 PCs obtained from pcadapt analysis. As best number of clusters we selected K=5, as suggested by the scree plot of the eigenvalues obtained with pcadapt. The clustering analysis was performed using the python scikit-learn library [61]. For each genetic cluster we calculate allele frequencies for SNPs tagging candidate genes using VCFtools [62], and plot them on genetic maps using R.

Results

Bio-climatic data analysis

The bio-climatic variables downloaded from the WorldClim database concern mostly temperature and rainfall during the year. These bio-climatic variables were developed for generating biologically informative variables useful for species distribution modeling and landscape genomics approaches. In our analyses, the 19 bio-climatic variables analyzed showed a great degree of correlation, in particular for similar variables like bio_14 (precipitation of the driest month) and bio_17 (precipitation of the driest quarter), or bio_13 (precipitation of the wettest month) with bio_16 (precipitation of the wettest quarter) (Additional File 4).

The loading plot on the first two PCs showed some correlations between bio-climatic variables and principal components, as well as strong correlations between some of the bio-climatic variables analyzed (**Fig. 1A**). In particular, bio_12 (annual precipitation) and bio_4 (temperature seasonality) showed a strong correlation with PC1. On the other hand, bio_5 (max temperature of the warmest month), bio_8 (mean temperature of the wettest quarter), and bio_10 (mean temperature of the warmest quarter) showed a strong correlation with PC2. Interestingly, most of the variables related to precipitation (bio_12, bio_14, bio_16, bio_17, bio_18, and bio_19) were positively correlated with PC1, the variables related to seasonal variation (bio_2, bio_4, bio_7, and bio_15) were negatively correlated with PC1, while the variables related to temperature (bio_1, bio_5, bio_8, bio_9, bio_10, and bio_11) were negatively correlated with PC2.

272 In addition, this PCA on the bio-climatic variables for the genotypes 273 analyzed showed that the first two principal components (PC1 and PC2) 274 explained 75% of the variance (Fig. 1), while PC1 to PC4 explained 275 cumulatively > 90% of the variance (Additional File 6). A plot of PC1 vs. PC2 showed some differences in the distribution of the different gene pools of wild 276 277 common bean in the PC dimensional space. In particular, the majority of genotypes from the Mesoamerican (MW1 to MW3) and Intermediate (PhI) gene 278 279 pools were distributed towards the positive part of PC1, while the Andean group were located in the negative part of this axis (Fig. 1A). Given the origin of the 280 281 genus Phaseolus in the Mesoamerican area (with local descendants represented by MW1 and MW2), three range expansions characterize this 282 283 species: 1) PhI, which established wild populations on the western slope of the 284 Andes in Ecuador and northern Peru; 2) AW, encompassing wild populations in 285 the southern Andes; and 3) MW3, a more recent and perhaps ongoing 286 dissemination to Central America and the eastern slope of the northern Andes 287 [51]. Inspection of Fig. 1A and Additional File 3 shows that the distribution of 288 the PhI group, which resulted from the earliest range expansion event, 289 correlates - on bioPC3 - with Isothermality (bio 3), Temperature Seasonality (bio 4), bio 13 (Precipitation of the Wettest Month), and bio 18 (Precipitation of 290 291 the Warmest Quarter), consistent with a dispersal to an equatorial region. In contrast, the predominant distribution of the southern Andean accessions (AW) 292 in the upper left quadrant of Fig. 1 is consistent with earlier observations that 293 the populations of this gene pool are distributed in cooler and drier locations, 294 295 as shown by correlations with bio 6 (Minimum Temperature of the Coldest 296 Month), bio 9 (Mean Temperature of the Driest Quarter, bio 11 (Mean

Temperature of the Coldest Quarter) and bio_1 (Annual Mean Temperature).

This dissemination occurred with a concomitant lower potential

evapotranspiration [51]. Dispersal of the MW3 group (Fig. 1) increased

lsothermality (bio_3) and decreased Seasonality (bio_4) and Precipitation

Seasonality (bio_15); it also increased Precipitation during the Driest Month

(bio_14) and Driest Quarter (bio_17).

Genome scan of selection

An analysis of the scree plot of the PCA analysis conducted on SNP data showed that the majority of the variance could be explained by the first principal component (15%), even though PC2 to PC5 also explained a considerable amount of variance in the data (**Fig. 2A**). On the other hand, after PC5, no significant increase in the explained variance could be detected. This pattern of the scree plot is representative of a possible range expansion of this species across the Americas, as hypothesized by a prior evolutionary analysis of this same collection [51]. Visual inspection of p-value distribution for genome scans for K=2 and K=3 showed a large proportion of low and high p-values, while for K=4 and K=5 the distribution of p-values was more uniform, especially for K=5 (Additional File 7). For this reason, we selected K=5 for further genome scan analysis.

A plot of genetic PCA analysis performed with the pcadapt algorithm was

able to discriminate between the different wild gene pools of this species (**Fig. 2B**). In particular, the MW1-MW3 and PhI groups were mostly localized on the positive part of PC1, while the AW gene pool was localized towards the

321 negative end of this PC. Interestingly, PC1 mostly differentiated MW vs. AW, 322 while PC2 and PC3 clearly separated the MW+AW groups from the PhI (Fig. 3). 323 The genome scan analysis with K=5 identified 84 significant variants 324 (Bonferroni-corrected p-value \leq 0.001) distributed throughout the 11 325 chromosomes of common bean (**Fig. 4**), tagging 70 annotated genes. The 326 highest number of tagged genes were identified on chromosomes Pv02 and Pv04 with 15 and 11 genes, respectively. The genes identified as selected by 327 328 genome scan analysis were mostly related to plant development (17 genes), hormone response (10 genes), ion homeostasis (5 genes), and response to 329 330 stress (9 genes) (**Table 1**). Among the genes identified, we found several of 331 them related to drought and/or abscisic acid (ABA) response like 332 Phvul.002G331700, a homolog of the Arabidopsis KUP6 involved in potassium uptake transporter and stomata movement; Phyul.002G143100, a glycine-rich 333 334 domain protein (GRP) involved in auxin signaling and stress response; 335 Phvul.004G102800, homologous to Arabidopsis SLAH3 involved in ABA 336 response; Phvul.008G161000, homolog of Arabidopsis CAO, a gene related to 337 chlorophyll biosynthesis and ABA signaling; and Phvul.009G050600, a gene 338 annotated as an importin β protein involved in ABA and drought response in Arabidopsis. 339

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Genome-wide association analysis

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342 A genome-wide association analysis identified 49 genes associated with the 343 bio-climatic variables selected for this analysis. Except for the Bio18 344 (Precipitation of Warmest Quarter) variable, for which no associations were 345 detected, the other variables were associated with at least one gene. The bio-346 climatic variables with the highest number of associated genes were Bio3 347 (Isothermality) with 29 genes, and Bio12 (Annual precipitation) with 11 genes 348 (**Table 2**). The associated genes were located in all 11 common-bean reference 349 genome chromosomes, except for chromosome Pv06 where there were no 350 significantly associated SNPs. Interestingly, some of the genes were associated 351 with more than one bio-climatic variables (Fig. 5), suggesting the possibility 352 that they could be related to multiple environmental stimuli. Among the genes significantly associated with one or more bio-climatic variables, we found 353 354 several of them related to hormone response, ion homeostasis, plant 355 development, metabolism and response to stress, in particular drought (Table 356 2). There was no overlap between the genes identified by genome scan and 357 association analysis. Among the genes identified, we found some interesting 358 candidates probably involved in stress resistance, like Phvul.001G034400, a 359 homolog of Arabidopsis KEA6 involved in potassium homeostasis; 360 Phvul.010G155000, homologous to an *Arabidopsis* phospholipase D α 1 361 (PLDα1) involved in ABA signaling; Phvul.010G035200 homolog of a cytokinin 362 responsive factor homologous of Arabidopsis; and Phvul.008G161700, 363 homologous to an Arabidopsis thioredoxin involved in ROS signaling.

Candidate gene allele distributions

To evaluate the geographic distribution of alleles in candidate genes identified by genome scan and association analysis, we clustered the genotypes into groups with a K-means clustering approach on the molecular PCs calculated with pcadapt. The advantage of a K-means clustering approach, over a standard population structure analysis, is that it clearly assigns individuals to specific clusters. The K-means clustering approach identified three clusters for the MW group, with two clusters (MW1 and MW2) located in Mexico and another (MW3) in Central America and Colombia, plus one cluster each for the intermediate (PhI) and the Andean (AW) group (Additional File 8). Interestingly, the clustering results closely resembled those obtained in a previous study with more advanced population structure approaches (Additional File 1) [51]. The allele frequency distribution of the candidate genes identified by genome scan showed drastic differentiation between the genetic groups identified (Fig. **6**), as expected from the assumptions of the genome scan approach, with some alleles being private for just one of the genetic group (like the alternative alleles for GRP and CAO that are present only in the AW group). On the other hand, the genes identified by association analysis showed a wide variety of allele frequencies distribution across the different genetic groups (**Fig. 7**), even though some genes had only a single allele in some of the populations (like the reference allele for PLD and TRX in the PhI and AW group). In general, the genes identified by association analysis showed a higher variation of allele frequencies in the different MW groups.

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Discussion

Wild common bean (*P. vulgaris*) grows in several areas of Mexico and Central and South America, from northern Mexico to northwestern Argentina across ~70 latitudinal degrees, in different environments with a wide range of altitudes, average temperatures, and rainfall regimes [12,43,44]. Thanks to this exceptional geographic distribution, its complex evolutionary history, and high levels of genetic diversity, this species represents an extraordinary resource for evolutionary studies [29–31,41,42,63,64], but can be also a conceptual framework for testing and validating landscape genomics approaches in wild plant populations and its feasibility for breeding improvement of domesticated crops [16]. In the current study, we identified several genes that could be involved in environmental adaptation in wild common bean by combining genome scan and association analysis. If validated, the genes identified could be useful candidates for improving stress resistance in domesticated common bean.

Genome scan of selection

Genetic PCA analysis clearly separated the three groups of this species, as observed in previous research. In particular, the Intermediate gene pool was shown again to diverge from the Mesoamerican and Andean gene pools, especially along the PC2 and PC3, further supporting the hypothesis that this gene pool is actually a distinct species of *Phaseolus* [41,42]. A genome scan based on genetic PCA analysis identified several genes with a strong signature of selection (hard-selection sweep) that could be involved in environmental adaptation across the geographical range of this species. The identification of

414 several genes involved in plant development and hormone and stress 415 response, suggests that the different populations of this species adapted to 416 their environment by integrating and adjusting to developmental, hormonal 417 and environmental cues. There are several genes among those identified that 418 could be of interest for improving stress resilience in common bean, like the 419 KUP6 potassium (K⁺) transporter located on chromosome Pv02 (Phvul.002G331700). This gene has been directly linked to drought stress by 420 421 regulating ABA response and stomata movements in Arabidopsis [65]. A 422 homolog of this gene located on chromosome Pv03 (Phvul.003G052900) 423 showed a higher genetic and transcriptional diversity in Mesoamerican 424 domesticated beans than in wild ones [66,67]. Due to the possible role of KUP-425 like genes in response to drought stress and their identification as selected 426 genes in both wild and domesticated populations of common bean, further 427 studies should focus on the evolution and diversity of this gene family in this 428 species. 429 Another gene identified in the current study and possibly involved in 430 adaptation to drought response in wild common bean is Phvul.004G102800, 431 homolog of SLAH3 of *Arabidopsis*, which was annotated as an S-type anion 432 channel. This type of channels is rapidly regulated by ABA and stimulate 433 stomata closure by inhibiting inward K⁺ channels, thus reducing K⁺ influx into 434 guard cells [68,69]. In addition to being involved in drought stress response, this same gene has been recently identified also as related to salinity stress 435 436 response in *Arabidopsis* by regulating ion homeostasis between root and shoots 437 [70].

438 The chlorophyll alpha oxygenase (Phvul.008G161000), identified as a gene 439 under selection (and a homolog of *Arabidopsis* CAO), has a primary role in the 440 biosynthesis of chlorophyll b [71]. However, Arabidopsis mutants for this gene 441 showed a reduction of antioxidant compounds (specifically glutathione) in 442 guard cells and an increased ABA sensitivity in comparison to wild type plants 443 [72], suggesting a possible involvement of this gene in adaptive response to 444 stressful environments. Phvul.002G143100, identified as selected within the different sub-445 populations of *P. vulgaris*, is annotated as a glycine-rich domain protein, 446 447 homologous of Arabidopsis GRDP2 gene. GRP are a multi-gene superfamily 448 present in several organisms, including plants [73]. This gene family has been 449 associated in plants with several developmental processes and in responses to 450 both biotic and abiotic stresses [74]. A recent study focusing on the 451 characterization of the direct *Arabidopsis* homologs of this gene (ATGRDP2) 452 demonstrated that this gene regulates plant growth and flowering by 453 accumulating higher level of indole-3-acetic acid and improves abiotic stress 454 response [75]. In particular, the over-expression of this gene in transgenic 455 plants increased growth rate and reduced days to flowering. It also increased 456 salt tolerance in comparison to wild-type plants. In addition to the previous genes identified as selected by genome scan 457 458 analysis and putatively involved in environmental response in plants, was Phvul.009G050600, which is annotated as an importin β-protein homologous to 459 Arabidopsis KPNB1. This gene mediates the import of proteins and protein 460 461 complexes between the cytoplasm and the nucleus and is essential in

regulating signal transduction pathways in response to environmental and

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developmental stimuli [76]. In particular, the Arabidopsis homolog of Phvul.009G050600 (AtKPNB1) has been directly related to ABA and drought response previously [77].

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Genome wide association analysis

Association analysis between genotypic data and bio-climatic variables identified several genes significantly associated with one or more bio-climatic variables, putatively involved in plant development, ion homeostasis, and stress response. Among these genes, several could be useful as potential molecular markers for improving abiotic stress in domesticated common bean. As examples, we identified a gene related to potassium homeostasis and annotated as a K⁺ efflux antiporter (KEA) gene associated with Bio12 (Annual Precipitation) and Bio7 (Temperature Annual Range). Potassium is an essential macronutrient involved in several physiological and developmental processes in all living organism, and in plants this cation is also essential in maintaining 478 plant osmotic potential, cytosolic pH, and stomata movement [78,79]. In addition, variation in K⁺ homeostasis is one of the first response to several abiotic and biotic stresses in plants, allowing the plants to rapidly respond to stressful conditions [80] and making the KEA gene identified in the current study an interesting candidate gene for further analysis. Another gene, significantly associated with Bio14 (Precipitation of Driest Month) is Phvul.010G155000, which is annotated as a phospholipase (PLD α 1). These genes are involved in the biosynthesis of phosphatidic acid (PA), which is an important signaling molecule in response to several stresses in plants [81]. In particular, PA is involved in the ABA signaling cascade and regulates stomata

488 closure in plants by directly interacting and blocking ABI1, an inhibitor of ABA 489 response in plants [82]. This gene regulates stomatal closure and ABA-490 dependent hydrogen peroxide (H₂O₂) production in Vicia faba as well [83], 491 making this gene an interesting candidate for improving drought response in 492 common bean. 493 An additional gene, significantly associated with Bio5 (Max Temperature of Warmest Month), is Phvul.010G035200, annotated as a cytokinin response 494 495 factor homologous of Arabidopsis CRF4. Cytokinin is an essential plant 496 hormone involved in growth and developmental processes [84,85], but in 497 recent years it has also been implicated in the response and adaptation to different environmental stresses [86,87]. CRF genes are a class of plant 498 499 transcription factors responsive to cytokinin that integrate hormonal and 500 environmental signals for adapting plant growth and development in response 501 to the environment [88,89]. The *Arabidopsis* homolog of this gene has been 502 previous related to acclimation to cold temperatures [90]. Since this gene has 503 been associated with temperature variables in wild common bean, it could also 504 be involved in adaptation to temperature variation in this species. Another gene of interest, Phvul.008G161700, is significantly associated with 505 Bio3 (Isothermality) and is annotated as a thioredoxin protein. These proteins 506 507 are involved in the regulation of oxidative stress response and in scavenging 508 reactive oxygen species (ROS) in plants [91]. Other than being simple byproducts of cellular metabolism, ROS molecules has been recognized as 509 important signaling molecules that regulate the response to several 510 environmental stresses in plants [92,93]. Due to their ability to control the 511 redox state of the cell, thioredoxin represents a key component of the ROS 512

signal transduction pathways in plants and in the response to environmental stress [94]. Thus, this gene could constitute another interesting candidate gene for improving stress resistance in domesticated common bean.

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Comparison of genes identified by genome scan and GWAS

Even though the genes identified by outlier-detection methods (hard-selection sweeps) and association methods (soft-selection sweeps) are involved in similar processes, there is no overlap between the candidate genes identified by the two approaches. This could be the direct results of the different assumptions underlying these methods. Indeed, genome scan analysis identify genes that shows drastic variations of allele frequencies between natural subpopulations [14,17]. This approach is independent from bio-climatic variables, thus the SNPs identified as under selection by this analysis could be the results of selective mechanisms not taken into account by association analysis, like soil composition, pathogen pressure and/or competition with other plants. On the other hand, association analyses identify SNPs showing slight variations in allele frequencies across environmental gradients that can increase environmental adaptation in natural populations [14,17]. This selection process usually acts on natural standing variations and favor the presence of multiple alleles and haplotypes, instead of allele fixation within populations [95].

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Conclusions

In conclusion, landscape genomic analysis of wild common bean genotypes allowed us to identify several genes showing a signature of presumed selection

in this species. It is likely that two methods – genome scan and GWAS – are indeed complementary for understanding local adaptation in wild plant populations, as observed previously in other species [49,96] and are a feasible approach for the preliminary identification of novel candidate genes for adaptation to climatic differences along the exceptionally broad habitat of wild common bean. Further corroboration of the actual role of the candidate genes in adaptation will come from introgression of these genes from wild to domesticated beans and a concurrent phenotypic analysis showing improved performance under stress conditions.

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Abbreviations

- 549 CWRs: Crop Wild Relatives; GWAS: Genome Wide Association Studies; SNPs:
- 550 Single Nucleotide polymorphisms; GBS: Genotyping-By-Sequencing; MW:
- 551 Mesoamerican wild gene pool; AW: Andean wild gene pool; Phl: Northern Peru-
- 552 Ecuador gene pool; PCA: Principal Component Analysis; PET: Potential
- 553 EvapoTranspiration; LFMM: Latent Factor Mixed Models; IBD: isolation-by-
- 554 distance; MCMC: Monte Carlo Markov Chain; ABA: abscisic acid; GRP: glycine-
- rich domain protein; PLD α 1: phospholipase D α 1; PA: phosphatidic acid; ROS:
- 556 reactive oxygen species

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558

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571	Availability of Data and Materials
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577	
578	Authors' contributions
579	AA performed the experiment, analyzed the data and wrote the manuscript. PG
580	designed the experiment, supervised the work and wrote the manuscript. All
581	authors approved the final version of the manuscript.
582	
583	Ethics approval and consent to participate
584	Not applicable
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- **Competing interests**
- 590 The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

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- 854 Figure legends
- 855 Figure 1 Bio-climatic data analysis. (A) Loading plot of the PCA analysis. (B)
- 856 Principal Component Analysis (PCA) of the bio-climatic data. Groups are colored
- according to the K-mean clustering analysis conducted in this study, which
- 858 gave results very similar to the STRUCTURE analysis conducted by Ariani et al.
- 859 (2016): MW1, MW2, and MW3: Mesoamerican wild gene pools; AW: Andean wild
- gene pool; PhI: Intermediate wild gene pool.
- 861 Figure 2 PCA analysis on molecular data. (A) Screeplot of the PCA explained
- 862 variance. (B) PCA plot based on molecular data of the different genotyped
- analyzed in the current study. MW: Mesoamerican Wild; AW: Andean Wild; PhI:
- 864 Intermediate gene pool.
- 865 Figure 3 Three-dimensional plot of the PCA analysis on molecular data. Points
- 866 are colored as in Figure 2A.
- 867 **Figure 4** Manhattan plot of the genome scan data with 5 sub-populations (K).
- 868 The blue dashed line represents the significance threshold (Bonferroni p-value
- $869 \leq 0.001$).
- 870 **Figure 5** Chromosome ideogram of the genes identified as associated with the
- 871 bio-climatic variables analyzed. Only chromosomes with significantly
- associated variants are shown. Each circle represents a different bio-climatic
- 873 variable. When available, gene annotations are shown. The centromeric regions
- 874 shown are based on the results from [97].
- 875 **Figure 6** Allele frequency distribution across different genetic groups for
- 876 candidate genes identified by genome scan analysis. *P. vulgaris v1.0* genes
- annotation and ID: (A) Potassium uptake transporter (Phvul.002G331700); (B)
- 878 Glycine-rich domain protein (Phvul.002G143100); (C) ABA response

879 (Phvul.004G102800); (D) Chlorophyll biosynthesis and ABA signaling 880 (Phvul.008G161000); (E) ABA and drought response (Phvul.009G050600). For 881 panel (E) the PhI group was removed due to complete missing data on the 882 SNPs. REF: Reference allele, ALT: Alternative allele, according to the P. vulgaris 883 v1.0 gene version. 884 Figure 7 Allele frequency distribution across different genetic groups for candidate genes identified by association analysis. P. vulgaris v1.0 genes 885 886 annotation and ID: (A) Potassium efflux antiporter (Phvul.001G034400); (B) Phospholipase D α 1 (Phvul.010G155000); **(C)** Cytokinin responsive factor 887 888 (Phvul.010G035200); (D) Thioredoxin (Phvul.008G161700). Reference and Alternative alleles are colored as in Figure 6. 889 890 891 **Additional Files** 892 **Additional File 1 (Additional File 1.csv):** List of the *P. vulgaris* accessions 893 sequenced in the current study, with gene pool information, geographic 894 coordinates, gene pools and genetic group information. 895 Additional File 2 (Additional File 2.vcf): Genotypic data of the P. vulgaris 896 accessions analyzed in the current study 897 Additional File 3 (Additional File 3.csv): Eigenvalues of the different 898 bioclimatic variables along the first four principal components. Additional File 4 (Additional_File_4.pdf): Correlation graphs between bio-899 climatic variables for the different P. vulgaris accessions analyzed. Correlation 900 coefficients are rendered using circles (upper-right part) or by showing directly 901 902 the value (lower-left part). Color are based on color-bar in the right side of the 903 graph.

Additional File 5 (Additional File 5.pdf): Plots of the inflation factor for 904 905 different values of K across the climatic variables selected for association study Additional File 6 (Additional File 6.pdf): Cumulative variance explained 906 907 by the different PCs when performing a PCA on bio-climatic variables Additional File 7 (Additional File 7.pdf): P-values distibution for genome 908 909 scans with 2 (A), 3 (B), 4 (C) or 5 (D) sub-populations. 910 Additional File 8 (Additional_File_8.pdf): Plot of geographic distribution of 911 the wild P. vulgaris analyzed in the current studies. Genotypes are colored 912 based on the different clusters identified by K-means clustering (Additional File 1). 913