

Large-scale DNA polymorphism study of *Oryza sativa* and *O. rufipogon* reveals the origin and divergence of Asian rice

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Received: 31 October 2005 / Accepted: 25 October 2006 / Published online: 12 January 2007
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Abstract Polymorphism over ~26 kb of DNA sequence spanning 22 loci and one region distributed on chromosomes 1, 2, 3 and 4 was studied in 30 accessions of cultivated rice, *Oryza sativa*, and its wild relatives. Phylogenetic analysis using all the DNA sequences suggested that *O. sativa* ssp. *indica* and ssp. *japonica* were independently domesticated from a wild species *O. rufipogon*. *O. sativa* ssp. *indica* contained substantial genetic diversity ($\pi = 0.0024$), whereas ssp. *japonica* exhibited extremely low nucleotide diversity ($\pi = 0.0001$) suggesting the origin

of the latter from a small number of founders. *O. sativa* ssp. *japonica* contained a larger number of derived and fixed non-synonymous substitutions as compared to ssp. *indica*. Nucleotide diversity and genealogical history substantially varied across the 22 loci. A locus, RLD15 on chromosome 2, showed a distinct genealogy with ssp. *japonica* sequences distantly separated from those of *O. rufipogon* and *O. sativa* ssp. *indica*. Linkage disequilibrium (LD) was analyzed in two different regions. LD in *O. rufipogon* decays within 5 kb, whereas it extends to ~50 kb in *O. sativa* ssp. *indica*.

Communicated by M. Morgante.

Electronic supplementary material The online version of this article (doi:10.1007/s00122-006-0473-1) contains supplementary material, which is available to authorized users.

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Introduction

Rice is one of the most important crops supporting more than one-third of the world population (Khush 1997). Asian cultivated rice *Oryza sativa* can be classified into two subspecies, ssp. *indica* and ssp. *japonica* (hereafter abbreviated as *indica* and *japonica*, respectively) based on their gross morphology and growth habitats (Oka 1988). The wild species *O. rufipogon* is widely accepted as the ancestor of *O. sativa* (Oka and Chang 1959). *O. sativa* is a self-pollinating species, whereas a high frequency of outcrossing is reported in *O. rufipogon* (Chang 1995). Africa has its own cultivated rice, *O. glaberrima*, which is believed to have been domesticated from the wild species *O. barthii*, independently from Asian *Oryza*. Draft sequences of the whole genomes are available for both *indica* (cv. 93-11; Yu et al. 2002) and *japonica* (cv. Nipponbare; Goff et al. 2002). More recently, a high quality whole genome sequence was published by the International Rice Genome Sequencing Project (2005). Based on the draft genome sequences, Feltus et al. (2004) compared *indica* and *japonica* sequences to study their

divergence over the entire genome. According to them, 9.2% of the genome is deficient and 1.5% of the genome is rich in polymorphism between *indica* and *japonica*. Ma and Bennetzen (2004) compared a total of 37 kb of sequence of the genomes of *indica*, *japonica* and an African cultivated species, *O. glaberrima*, and reported that the average rate of nucleotide substitution in *indica* is larger than in *japonica*, when *O. glaberrima* is used as an outgroup. Nasu et al. (2002) studied DNA polymorphism in 417 regions of *Oryza* genome to develop SNP markers for breeding purposes. This study used three *japonica*, two *indica* and one *O. rufipogon* accessions as DNA materials, and showed that the *O. rufipogon* accession was more closely related to *japonica* than to *indica*. Nonetheless, Nasu et al. (2002) did not analyze the data from the viewpoint of population genetics. Several reports are available in which DNA polymorphism in individual loci of *Oryza* was studied in detail: *Adh1* (Yoshida et al. 2004), *Adh1* and other three loci (Zhu and Ge 2005). However, no report is available to date that studied nucleotide sequence polymorphism of *Oryza* at a genome-wide scale using DNA material from representative accessions of *O. sativa* and *O. rufipogon* with the aim to obtain the evolutionary history of these taxa and their DNA sequences. Such multi-locus genomics studies carried out in *Drosophila melanogaster* (Glinka et al 2003; Orengo and Aguade 2004) and *Arabidopsis* (Nordborg et al. 2005) have already provided novel insights into the evolution and population genetics of the organisms.

In order to elucidate genetic diversity and relationships of *O. sativa* ssp. *indica*, ssp. *japonica* and *O. rufipogon*, we studied DNA sequence variation in 22 loci and one region spanning over 26 kb regions of chromosomes 1, 2, 3 and 4 using 30 accessions of *Oryza*. This large-scale DNA polymorphism survey data was used to (1) infer the genetic relationships between *O. sativa* and *O. rufipogon*, and to (2) estimate the levels of genome-wide nucleotide diversity of *O. sativa* and *O. rufipogon*. Furthermore, the same data set was employed to (3) study the “divergence population genetics” of *O. sativa* ssp. *indica* and ssp. *japonica*. Finally, to evaluate the possibility of association mapping in *Oryza*, the extent of linkage disequilibrium (LD) in *Oryza* was studied for *O. sativa* and *O. rufipogon* by analyzing SNPs detected by DNA sequencing and EcoTILLING (Comai et al. 2004).

Materials and methods

DNA materials

Plant materials used in the DNA polymorphism study of the 22 loci included seven *O. sativa* ssp. *indica*, ten

ssp. *japonica*, ten *O. rufipogon*, two *O. glaberrima* and one *O. barthii* accession (Table 1). Additionally, an accession of *O. australiensis* (IRRI acc. no. 101397) was used. For LD study, we included DNAs from other 7 *O. sativa* accessions and 14 *O. rufipogon* accessions together with the above-mentioned accessions (Suppl. Table 1). Seeds of these accessions were obtained from Kobe University and the National Institute of Genetics, Mishima, Japan. Genomic DNA was extracted from young leaves of each accession by a standard protocol.

Loci studied

A total of 22 loci (RLD3–RLD32) distributed throughout chromosomes 1, 2, 3 and 4 were selected for DNA sequence analysis (Fig. 1; Suppl. Table 2). First, EST sequences were chosen, and their corresponding genomic regions were used for DNA sequencing, so that all the studied loci were located inside or close to expressed genes. Sizes of studied loci varied from 621 bp (RLD9) to 1,201 bp (RLD25) with a mean of

Table 1 Plant materials used in the study

Code no.	Species	Variety	Origin
1-B	<i>O. barthii</i>	W720	Mali
2-G	<i>O. glaberrima</i>	W401	Guinea
3-G	<i>O. glaberrima</i>	W440	Guinea
4-R	<i>O. rufipogon</i>	CT55	Vietnam
5-R	<i>O. rufipogon</i>	YG2A	Myanmar
6-R	<i>O. rufipogon</i>	CB22	Cambodia
7-R	<i>O. rufipogon</i>	SN	Thailand
8-R	<i>O. rufipogon</i>	W1236	Australian New Guinea
9-R	<i>O. rufipogon</i>	W1294	Philippines
10-R	<i>O. rufipogon</i>	W108	India
11-R	<i>O. rufipogon</i>	W1956	China
12-R	<i>O. rufipogon</i>	W1964	China
13-R	<i>O. rufipogon</i>	W1965	China
14-J	<i>O. sativa</i> ssp. <i>japonica</i>	Kakehashi	Japan
15-J	<i>O. sativa</i> ssp. <i>japonica</i>	Himenomochi	Japan
16-J	<i>O. sativa</i> ssp. <i>japonica</i>	Unrei17	China
17-J	<i>O. sativa</i> ssp. <i>japonica</i>	Somewake	Japan
18-J	<i>O. sativa</i> ssp. <i>japonica</i>	Yumekogane	Japan
19-J	<i>O. sativa</i> ssp. <i>japonica</i>	Koshihikari	Japan
20-J	<i>O. sativa</i> ssp. <i>japonica</i>	Iwatekko	Japan
21-J	<i>O. sativa</i> ssp. <i>japonica</i>	Akitakomachi	Japan
22-J	<i>O. sativa</i> ssp. <i>japonica</i>	Dunghan Shali	Hungary
23-J	<i>O. sativa</i> ssp. <i>japonica</i>	Nipponbare	Japan
24-I	<i>O. sativa</i> ssp. <i>indica</i>	Kasalath	India
25-I	<i>O. sativa</i> ssp. <i>indica</i>	IR36	–
26-I	<i>O. sativa</i> ssp. <i>indica</i>	101	Taiwan
27-I	<i>O. sativa</i> ssp. <i>indica</i>	415	India
28-I	<i>O. sativa</i> ssp. <i>indica</i>	435	Sri Lanka
29-I	<i>O. sativa</i> ssp. <i>indica</i>	1034	China
30-I	<i>O. sativa</i> ssp. <i>indica</i>	C8005	India

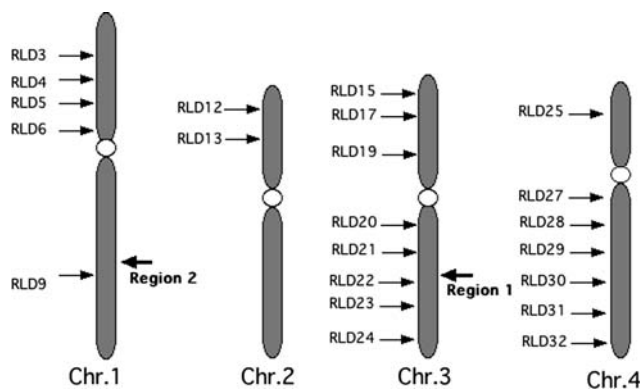


Fig. 1 Distribution of 22 loci and two regions studied on four chromosomes of *Oryza*

897 bp. Sizes of exons contained in the loci varied from 0 bp (RLD21) to 934 bp (RLD29).

The extent of LD was studied for two genomic regions (Regions 1 and 2) using DNAs from 24 *O. sativa* and 24 *O. rufipogon* accessions (Fig. 1; Suppl. Table 1). Region 1, studied by DNA sequencing, spans over ~200 kb in the long arm of chromosome 3 (26.9 Mb), while Region 2, studied by EcoTILLING, covers ~250 kb region in the long arm of chromosome 1 (34.3 Mb). These two regions were selected randomly from chromosomes 1–4. In both cases, PCR primers were designed to amplify around 1 kb regions each separated by 10–20 kb distance inside the two regions. The total size of Region 1 used for DNA sequencing was 6.2 kb, whereas that of Region 2 for EcoTILLING was 13.5 kb.

DNA sequence analysis

DNA fragments of each locus were amplified by PCR and sequenced on both strands by direct sequencing method using sequencing primers located at 300 bp interval using RISA384 (Shimadzu) and ABI377 (ABI) DNA autosequencers. Thus, most of the investigated regions were sequenced four times. Sequence readouts were assembled by Sequencher (GeneCodes) for the 22 RLD loci and AutoAssembler (ABI) for the Region 1. Quality of base-calling was checked by visual inspection of the chromatograms on Sequencher (GeneCode) and AutoAssembler (ABI). In case of discrepancy between the sequence reads of the two strands or ambiguity in base-calling, additional sequencing primers were employed to confirm the sequence. A heterozygous polymorphic site was observed only in RLD3 for the accession nos. 10-R and 11-R. For the rest of positions, we did not detect heterozygosity, presumably because most of accessions

used for the study have been maintained by selfing for several generations. In the heterozygous site of RLD3 for 10-R and 11-R, the rarer nucleotide in the population was selected to represent their state for further analysis. DNA sequences were deposited in DDBJ, EMBL and GenBank DNA databases under the accession numbers, AB260142–AB260845. Sequences were aligned by CLUSTAL-W software at DDBJ, and used for further analysis. Aligned DNA sequences were analyzed by DnaSP (Rozas and Rozas 1999) and MEGA (Kumar et al. 2004) programs for estimation of population genetics parameters including π (Nei 1987) and θ (Watterson 1975), Tajima's D statistic (Tajima 1989) and genetic distance, D_{ij} , between the populations i and j (Nei 1987). Hudson, Kreitman and Aguade (HKA)'s test (1987) was carried out using the program "HKA" publicly distributed by Jody Hey at Rutgers University, USA (<http://www.lifesci.rutgers.edu/~hey-lab>). McDonald and Kreitman (MK)'s test (1991) was performed using DnaSP (Rozas and Rozas 1999). For tree construction, PHYLIP program (Felsenstein 2005) was used. A "phylogenetic" tree with the entire sequence of 22 loci was made by the neighbor-joining (NJ) method (Saitou and Nei 1987) based on pair-wise distances among the DNA sequences calculated by F84 model (Kishino and Hasegawa 1989; Felsenstein and Churchill 1996). Trees for individual loci were made by the parsimony method (Eck and Dayhoff 1966). For both NJ and parsimony trees, bootstrap resampling of sites (500 and 100 times, respectively) were applied to obtain the confidence levels of tree branches. LD measurement (r^2 ; Hill and Robertson 1968) and Chi-square test of statistical significance of LD for the polymorphisms detected in Regions 1 and 2 were implemented using DnaSP program (Rozas and Rozas 1999). Decay of LD with physical distance was estimated using non-linear regression according to Hill and Weir (1988) as described by Remington et al. (2001) and Ingvarsson (2005). Inter-chromosomal LD measurement, counting the number of fixed and shared polymorphism between two taxa, and Tajima's relative rate test were carried out by using Perl scripts written by the authors.

EcoTILLING

For conducting EcoTILLING (Comai et al. 2004), a sequence of 5'-GCTACGGACTGACCTCGGAC-3' was incorporated at the 5'-end of the locus specific upper primer and a sequence of 5'-CTGACGTGATG CTCCTGACG-3' was attached to the 5'-end of locus specific lower primer and are referred to as UniU and UniL, respectively. UniU and UniL were also labeled with IRD-700 and IRD-800, respectively. The TILLING

PCR was divided into two steps. The first PCR was carried out in a reaction volume of 20 μ l having 2.25 ng genomic DNA, 4 mM each dNTPs, 0.4 U TaKaRa ExTaq and 6 μ M each of tailed amplification primers. The following thermal cycling profile was used: 95°C for 2 min/35 cycles of 95°C for 1 min, 55°C for 1 min, 72°C for 1 min 30 s/72°C for 7 min. Amplification was checked on 1% agarose gel using 5 μ l reaction mixture. The remaining reaction mix was diluted with 90 μ l of sterile water and purified using MILLIPORE Multi-Screen™ Plates as per manufacturer's instructions. Purified amplified products were eluted by dissolving in 30 μ l sterile water and further diluted 20 times (final dilution \sim 1/40 \times). The second PCR was carried out in 10 μ l reaction volume consisting of 2 μ l diluted amplified product, 2 mM each dNTPs, 0.2 U TaKaRa ExTaq and 0.2 μ M each of upper and lower primer mix. Upper primer mix was prepared by mixing labeled and unlabeled UniU primers in 3:7 ratio, and lower primer mix was made by mixing labeled and unlabeled UniL in a ratio of 2:3. The following cycling profile was used: 95°C for 2 min/35 cycles of 95°C for 1 min, 55°C for 1 min, 72°C for 1 min 30 s/72°C for 7 min/99°C for 10 min/90°C for 20 s with touch down of 0.3°C/cycle for 70 cycles. CEL-I digestion, purification and other steps were followed as described elsewhere (Colbert et al. 2001; Comai et al. 2004) except that Surveyor™ nuclease was used at 0.05 μ l/reaction.

Results

Relationships between *O. sativa* and *O. rufipogon*

The nuclear genome undergoes recombination, so that genealogical relationship of DNA sequences in a locus does not necessarily correspond to those of other loci in individuals that exchange DNA by crossing and recombination. However, for taxa that are substantially differentiated from each other, we should be able to infer their relationships by “phylogenetic” analysis of DNA sequences from a large number of nuclear loci. Thus, based on DNA sequence alignment of \sim 20 kb genomic sequence derived from 22 loci, a tree was constructed by the NJ method (Saitou and Nei 1987; Fig. 2). Bootstrapping resampling was applied to obtain confidence levels of clusters in the tree. The two African species *O. glaberrima* and *O. barthii* (hereafter designated as African) were well separated from the Asian species *O. rufipogon* and *O. sativa*. Separation of these African and Asian *Oryza* was supported 500 times in 500 bootstrapping resamplings. The *japonica* accessions used in the present study represented a

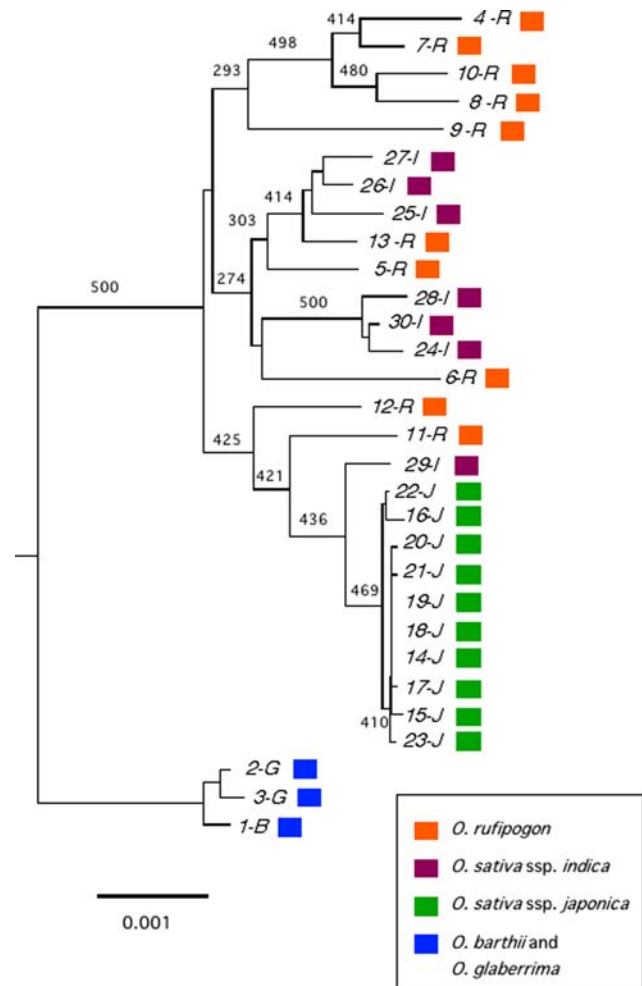


Fig. 2 A “phylogenetic” tree of *Oryza* species based on the sequences of 22 loci. The tree was made by NJ method (adapted from Saitou and Nei 1987) using a distance matrix among the 30 *Oryza* sequences. Values on branches indicate the number of times these branches were supported in 500 bootstrapping resamplings

genetically uniform group. Furthermore, *japonica* had two accessions of *O. rufipogon* (code nos. 11-R and 12-R) as sister groups (supported 421 and 425 times in 500 bootstrap resamplings, respectively), and three *indica* accessions (25-I, 26-I and 27-I) had one *O. rufipogon* (13-R) as a sister group (supported 414 times in 500 bootstrap resamplings). These results suggest that *indica* and *japonica* were independently domesticated from *O. rufipogon*. Genetic diversity of *O. sativa* was included in that of *O. rufipogon*. An accession (29-I) phenotypically classified as *indica* belonged to the cluster of *japonica* accessions.

DNA polymorphism in *O. sativa* and *O. rufipogon*

Nucleotide diversity (π) in the 22 loci (RLD3–RLD32) and one region (Region 1) spanning \sim 26 kb, including

both coding and non-coding regions, was 0.003 for Asian *Oryza* (*O. sativa* and *O. rufipogon*) (Table 2). It is noteworthy that the *japonica* materials studied here contained extremely low diversity ($\pi = 0.0001$). In contrast, *indica* had one order much larger diversity ($\pi = 0.0027$). The wild species *O. rufipogon* ($\pi = 0.0034$) contained a larger diversity than *O. sativa* ($\pi = 0.0024$). For the non-coding regions, the corresponding values were 0.0035 for Asian *Oryza*, 0.0028 for *O. sativa*, 0.0032 for *indica*, 0.0001 for *japonica* and 0.0039 for *O. rufipogon*. To examine whether the pattern of polymorphism observed over the whole region was in agreement with the neutral mutation hypothesis (Kimura 1983), Tajima's test (Tajima 1989) was applied. There was a significant deviation from neutrality only in the non-coding regions of *japonica* ($D = -1.9$, $P < 0.05$).

Next, DNA polymorphism was studied within each locus to examine their evolutionary history. For this purpose, all the accessions of *O. sativa* and *O. rufipogon* were used together to represent the Asian population. In most cases, this treatment can be justified as the latter is considered to be a wild progenitor of the former, and these two taxa are indeed phylogenetically interrelated (Fig. 2). Nucleotide diversity of silent sites (non-coding regions and synonymous sites of coding region) for *O. sativa* and *O. rufipogon* varied largely across the loci ($\pi = 0-0.013$, Suppl. Table 3) with an average value of $\pi = 0.003$. Tajima's test (Tajima 1989) applied to the pooled samples of *O. sativa* and *O. rufipogon* detected a statistically significant deviation from the neutral mutation expectation in RLD15 ($D = 2.74$, $P < 0.01$), RLD21 ($D = -1.9$, $P < 0.05$) and RLD27 ($D = -1.83$, $P < 0.05$). About half (11) of the loci showed positive D values, and half (10) showed negative D values.

Neutral mutation hypothesis (Kimura 1983) predicts that interspecific divergence and intraspecific polymorphism are positively correlated. HKA test (1987) uses this prediction to test whether the levels of interspecific divergence and intraspecific polymorphism are consistent to each other for more than two regions of the

genome. As African *Oryza* species suitably serve as the outgroup for the Asian *Oryza* species studied here (Fig. 2), we applied the HKA test to the divergence between African and Asian species, and the polymorphism within the Asian species for multiple loci. We excluded RLD9, RLD15 and RLD22 from the test as in these loci validity of the use of African as outgroup was ambiguous (see below), so that the total number of loci used for the test was 19. Overall, HKA test did not reject the neutrality of the loci [χ^2 ($df = 18$) = 15.4, $P = 0.64$]. Large χ^2 values were contributed from RLD25 and RLD24, both of which had disproportionately large African–Asian divergence as compared to the polymorphism inside Asian group (Suppl. Table 3; Suppl. Fig. 1).

We tried to apply the MK's test of neutrality to the data. However, for most of loci, this test was not applicable as the number of fixed mutations between African and Asian *Oryza* were too small. Even in the loci where the test was applied, we could not detect significant deviation from the neutral expectation (Suppl. Table 4).

Both the numbers of synonymous and non-synonymous segregating sites are small in *japonica*, followed by *indica* and *O. rufipogon* across the loci studied (Suppl. Table 5). There is no remarkable tendency that either of *indica*, *japonica* or *O. rufipogon* exhibits a non-synonymous/synonymous ratio different from those of other species.

It is reported that changes in the recombination frequency per unit of physical distance affect nucleotide diversity (Hudson and Kaplan 1988). To see whether there is such a tendency in *Oryza*, we first estimated the linkage distance (in cM) of each locus from chromosome ends by consulting a genetic map based on a cross between *japonica* and *indica* (Suppl. Table 2; Harushima et al. 1998). For each locus, we obtained linkage distances and physical distances to the two adjacent loci. Linkage distance was divided by physical distance, and the ratios from the two flanking regions were averaged to represent an estimate of recombination per site of the

Table 2 Summary of DNA polymorphism in *O. sativa* and *O. rufipogon* ($\times 10^{-3}$) over the 22 loci and Region 1

Subgroup (N)	All regions (26,140 bp)			Coding regions (6,999 bp)			Non-coding regions (19,141 bp)		
	π	θ	Tajima's D	π	θ	Tajima's D	π	θ	Tajima's D
<i>O. sativa</i> + <i>O. rufipogon</i> (27)	3.0 \pm 0.04	3.1 \pm 0.04	-0.20	1.7 \pm 0.03	1.9 \pm 0.05	-0.26	3.5 \pm 0.05	3.6 \pm 0.04	-0.19
<i>O. sativa</i> (17)	2.4 \pm 0.11	2.0 \pm 0.04	0.80	1.3 \pm 0.05	1.1 \pm 0.05	0.61	2.8 \pm 0.13	2.3 \pm 0.05	0.82
ssp. <i>indica</i> (7)	2.7 \pm 0.16	2.5 \pm 0.08	0.33	1.2 \pm 0.09	1.4 \pm 0.11	-0.76	3.2 \pm 0.19	2.9 \pm 0.1	0.53
ssp. <i>japonica</i> (10)	0.1 \pm 0.01	0.2 \pm 0.02	-1.63	0.1 \pm 0.02	0.2 \pm 0.03	-0.51	0.1 \pm 0.01	0.2 \pm 0.02	-1.90*
<i>O. rufipogon</i> (10)	3.4 \pm 0.07	3.7 \pm 0.07	-0.34	1.9 \pm 0.08	2.0 \pm 0.1	-0.41	3.9 \pm 0.1	3.7 \pm 0.48	-0.49

* Statistically significant ($P < 0.05$)

locus. However, there was no significant correlation observed between the levels of nucleotide diversity and the estimated recombination rates around the loci in Asian *Oryza* studied here (data not shown).

Divergence of *indica* and *japonica*

The two major subspecies of *O. sativa*, *indica* and *japonica* are thought to have diverged more than 1 million years ago (Bennetzen 2000). It is interesting to examine whether the divergence patterns of DNAs between *indica* and *japonica* are similar across the loci or not. Therefore, we calculated the distances between *indica* and *japonica* for each locus (indicated as D_{ij} , Suppl. Table 3). They were variable ($D_{ij} = 0\text{--}0.0148$) and the mean value was 0.0033, which is higher than the value estimated for the distance between the *japonica* cultivar Nipponbare and the *indica* cultivar 93-11 by whole genome sequence comparison ($D_{ij} = 0.001$; Feltus et al. 2004).

In order to judge whether the rates of divergence between *indica* and African and that between *japonica* and African were different, we applied the relative rate test of Tajima (1993) for each of the 22 loci (Table 3). For the majority of loci, *indica*–African and *japonica*–African distances were not different. However, the

Table 3 Tajima's relative rate test results

Locus	<i>indica</i> -African and <i>japonica</i> -African	
	No. pairs	No. sig.*
RLD3	70	0
RLD4	70	0
RLD5	70	0
RLD6	70	0
RLD9	70	30 ($j < i$)
RLD12	70	0
RLD13	70	0
RLD15	70	10 ($j > i$)
RLD17	70	0
RLD19	70	0
RLD20	70	0
RLD21	70	3 ($j < i$)
RLD22	70	60 ($j < i$)
RLD23	70	0
RLD24	70	0
RLD25	70	0
RLD27	70	0
RLD28	70	0
RLD29	70	0
RLD30	70	0
RLD31	70	0
RLD32	70	0

$j < i$ indicates that *indica*–African divergence is larger than that of *japonica*–African

*Number of pairs with divergences between *indica*–African and *japonica*–African differ with statistical significance at $P < 0.05$

three loci RLD9, RLD15 and RLD22 showed significant departure from equality of substitutions in a substantial number of *indica* and *japonica* accession pairs. This inequality of African–*indica* and African–*japonica* distances can be graphically seen in Fig. 3. In RLD15, African–*japonica* distance ($D = 0.012$) was almost three times larger than African–*indica* distance ($D = 0.004$), whereas in RLD9 the relationship was reverse. To understand the causes of inequality of African–*japonica* and African–*indica* distances for RLD15, RLD9 and RLD22, we constructed parsimonious trees for these loci using African species as outgroup and compared them with trees of 19 other loci (Fig. 4). Most of the 19 loci had long internal branches connecting Africa and Asian species (e.g. RLD25). However, in RLD15, the external branch connecting *japonica* group and other Asian accessions was exceptionally long. Similarly, in RLD9 and RLD22, the branches connecting a *indica*–*O. rufipogon* group and other Asian accessions were exceptionally long (data not shown). Tree shape like that observed for RLD15 may be obtained in two circumstances. The first is that evolutionary rates between *indica* and *japonica* lineages are not equal. The second is that the choice of outgroup for tree construction was not appropriate. To test the latter possibility, we selected *O. australiensis* as outgroup. *O. australiensis* with the EE type genome is a wild species known to be distantly related to all the *Oryza* species used in the present study that have the AA type genomes (Ge et al. 1999; Vaughan et al. 2003). The RLD15 region could be amplified from *O. australiensis* DNA by PCR, whereas the RLD9 and RLD22 regions could not. The most parsimonious tree of RLD15 incorporating *O. australiensis* sequence is given in Fig. 5a based on the polymorphism data in Suppl. Table 6. In this case, no long external branch specific to *japonica* was observed anymore. The *O. australiensis*–*indica* distance (72 mutations, $D = 0.078$) is equal to the *O. australiensis*–*japonica* distance (74 mutations, $D = 0.081$), so that we do not need to assume different evolutionary rates for *indica* and *japonica* lineages. However, quite surprisingly, the tree topology obtained with *O. australiensis* as outgroup indicated that *japonica* sequences are separated from African sequences and the rest of Asian sequences (461 times out of 500 bootstrap replications), which was in striking contrast to the tree obtained from the 22 loci (Fig. 2). It is noteworthy that an *O. rufipogon* accession 11-R clusters with *japonica* in RLD15. This result suggests that RLD15 region of *japonica* has a history different from other genomic regions.

DNA polymorphism in Asian *Oryza* can be classified into those fixed in one of the groups, *indica*, *japonica* and *O. rufipogon*, or shared between two of these

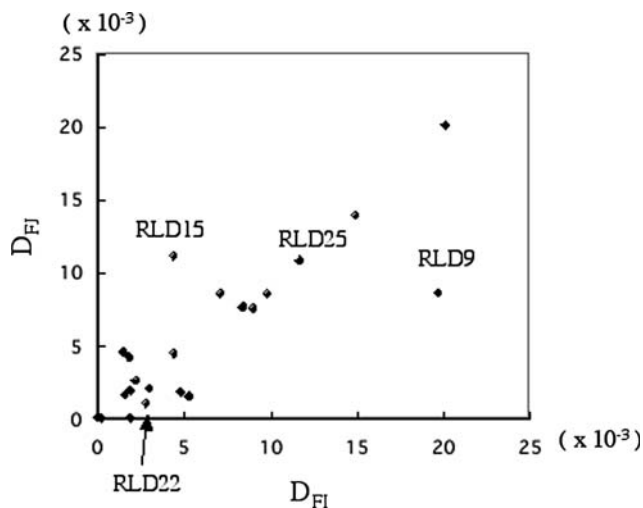


Fig. 3 Relationship between African *Oryza-O. sativa* ssp. *japonica* distance (D_{FJ} —y-axis) and African *Oryza-O. sativa* ssp. *indica* distance (D_{FI} —x-axis)

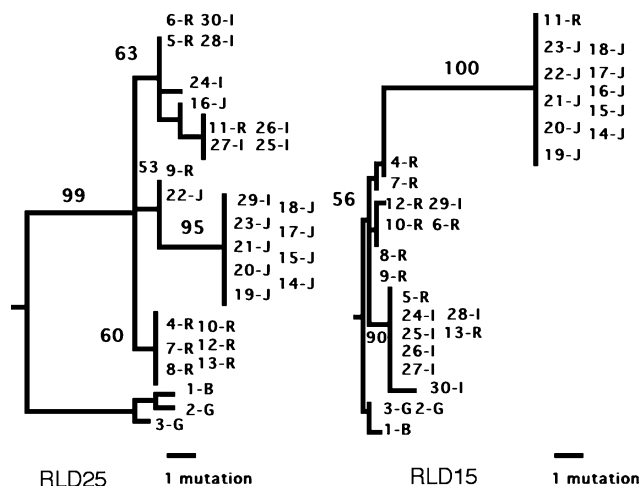


Fig. 4 Most parsimonious trees for the two loci RLD25 and RLD15 constructed by using sequences of African *Oryza* (*O. glaberrima*—2-G, 3-G and *O. barthii*—1-B) as outgroup. The code numbers correspond to those given in Table 1 The numbers on branches are bootstrapping probabilities (%)

groups. There were 69 shared and zero fixed mutations detected between *indica* and *O. rufipogon*, whereas only three shared and six fixed mutations between *japonica* and *O. rufipogon* (Suppl. Table 7). The number of fixed mutations in *japonica* is disproportionately larger than that of *indica*.

Coding site divergence between *indica* and *japonica*

Next, we focused on divergence on coding sites of each locus. For each locus, the most parsimonious tree was constructed, and for the non-synonymous substitutions, the ancestral and derived states were inferred for *indica*, *japonica* and *O. rufipogon* (Table 4). We

excluded the three loci RLD9, RLD15 and RLD22 from the analysis as the use of African as the outgroup in these loci are not secure (see above). There was only one amino acid change that was almost fixed in *indica* (RLD31-430; Ser → Leu). In contrast, there were six amino acid changes that were fixed or almost fixed in *japonica*. Synonymous mutations can be divided into “preferred” and “unpreferred” mutations (Akashi 1995). We can classify the derived mutations to “preferred” or “unpreferred” by consulting a table of preferred codons in *Oryza* (Kawabe and Miyashita 2003). Both *indica* and *japonica* had one fixed substitution in “preferred” to “unpreferred” direction and one in “unpreferred to preferred” direction, respectively, and no difference in the tendency of synonymous mutations detected between *indica* and *japonica*.

Extent of linkage disequilibrium in *Oryza*

Linkage disequilibrium is a measure of non-random association of alleles of different loci in a population. The degree of LD is determined by the recombination rate between the loci, which is governed by the mating system (inbreeding vs. outcrossing) of the organisms, by epistatic selection of two distant loci, and by migration (Gillespie 2004). Knowledge on the levels of LD is practically important to evaluate the feasibility of association mapping to identify the genomic regions containing loci controlling agronomic performance of the crops (Gupta et al. 2005).

Significant LD can arise simply by the mixture of genetically distant groups in the population. To evaluate this possibility, we measured LD among all the loci distributing over the four chromosomes. The rationale behind is that LD detected for two loci from different chromosomes are not caused by genetic linkage but by population substructuring. As is evident from Suppl. Table 8a, there was almost no LD between two loci from different chromosomes in *O. rufipogon*, whereas there was extensive LD in *O. sativa* (Suppl. Table 8b). This LD of *O. sativa* across the genome is caused by the extensive divergence between *indica* and *japonica*, as the significant LD substantially decreased if *indica* and *japonica* were studied separately (Suppl. Table 8c, d). The level of DNA polymorphism in *japonica* was too low to derive a meaningful picture on LD in this subspecies. Therefore, we focused on intra-chromosomal LD only for *O. rufipogon* and *O. sativa* ssp. *indica* for the rest of study.

To study the LD levels in *Oryza*, we analyzed two genomic regions with two different methods of SNP detection: DNA sequencing and EcoTILLING, a novel high-throughput technique for detection of DNA poly-

Table 4 Summary of derived non-synonymous mutations in Asian *Oryza*

Locus/site	African <i>Oryza</i> (3)	<i>indica</i> (7)	<i>japonica</i> (10)	<i>O. rufipogon</i> (10)
RLD6-558	Ala (GCC)	Ala (GCC)6:Pro (CCC)1	Ala (GCC)	Ala (GCC)
RLD6-679	Gly (GGC)	Gly (GGC)6:Asp (GAC)1	Asp (GAC)	Gly (GGC)
RLD6-810	Ala (GCA)	Ala (GCA)5:Thr (ACA)2	Ala (GCA)	Ala (GCA)9:Thr (ACA)1
RLD13-74	Asn (AAT)	Asn (AAT)	Asn (AAT)	Asn (AAT)4:Ser (AGT)6
RLD13-440	Gly (GGG)	Gly (GGG)6:Ala (GCG)1	Ala (GCG)	Gly (GGG)
RLD19-403	Gly (GGC)	Gly (GGC)6:Ala (GCC)1	Gly (GGC)	Gly (GGC)
RLD24-358	Ala (GCA)	Ala (GCA)	Ala (GCA)	Ala (GCA)9:Gly (GGA)1
RLD25-205	Val (GTT)	Val (GTT)6:Ile (ATT)1	Val (GTT)2:Ile (ATT)8	Val (GTT)
RLD25-236	Met (ATG)	Met (ATG)6:Arg (AGG)1	Met (ATG)2:Arg (AGG)8	Met (ATG)
RLD27-109/110	Thr (ACA)	Thr (ACG)4:Met (ATG)3	Thr (ACG)	Thr (ACG)9:Met (ATG)1
RLD27-340	Asn (AAC)	Asn (AAC)6:Ser (AGC)1	Asn (AAC)	Asn (AAC)
RLD27-498	Val (GTT)	Val (GTT)6:Ile (ATT)1	Ile (ATT)	Val (GTT)7:Ile (ATT)3
RLD27-820	Ala (GCG)	Ala (GCG)	Ala (GCG)	Ala (GCG)9:Val (GTG)1
RLD27-852	Asp (GAT)	Asp (GAT)	Asp (GAT)	Asp (GAT)9:Asn (AAT)1
RLD29-185	Val (GTG)	Val (GTG)	Val (GTG)	Val (GTG)6:Met (AGT)4
RLD29-360	Thr (ACG)	Thr (ACG)	Thr (ACG)	Thr (ACG)6:Met (ATG)4
RLD29-619	Ser (AGT)	Ser (AGT)	Ser (AGT)	Ser (AGT)9:Thr (ACT)1
RLD31-430	Ser (TCG)	Ser (TCG)1:Leu (TTG)6	Ser (TCG)	Ser (TCG)6:Leu (TTG)4
RLD31-537	Ala (GCA)	Ala (GCA)	Ala (GCA)	Ala (GCA)9:Ser (TCA)1
RLD31-676	Met (ATG)	Met (ATG)	Met (ATG)	Met (ATG)9:Lys (AAG)1
RLD31-777	Asp (GAT)	Asp (GAT)	Asn (AAT)	Asp (GAT)

Bold-face letters indicate that the derived mutation represents >75% of alleles of a given taxon

morphism (Comai et al. 2004). The results are presented separately for *O. rufipogon* and *indica* in Fig. 6. In *O. rufipogon*, DNA sequencing of Region 1 detected 95 sites useful for LD measurement (Fig. 6a). The majority (83%) of site-pairs had the r^2 values <0.2. Statistically significant LD was detected in 875 pairs among 4,552 comparisons (19%). Similarly, EcoTILLING of Region 2 detected 94 informative SNPs for LD measurement, and r^2 values were <0.2 in 84% of the cases (Fig. 6b). Significant LD was observed in 892 pairs among 4,406 comparisons (20%). In *O. rufipogon*, the levels of LD in Regions 1 and 2 were similar. As the regression curve indicates, LD rapidly decays in *O. rufipogon*. Examination of intra-locus LD for 22 loci (Suppl. Table 8a) shows that only the three loci RLD15, RLD24 and RLD32 have average r^2 values more than 0.5, and the rest exhibited low values of r^2 . These results suggest that LD in *O. rufipogon* decays within <5 kb.

For *O. sativa* ssp. *indica*, DNA sequencing of Region 1 identified 62 SNPs useful for LD measurement (Fig. 6c), and 789 out of 1,893 comparisons (42%) were statistically significant ($P < 0.05$). EcoTILLING of Region 2 identified 67 SNPs (Fig. 6d), and 738 out of 2,211 comparisons (33%) were significant. Levels of LD were similar in Region 1 and Region 2 (Fig. 6c, d). LD decay of *indica* is slow as compared to *O. rufipogon*, and the regression curve indicates that substantial LD extends over 50 kb region in this subspecies.

Discussion

Relationship between *O. sativa* ssp. *indica*, ssp. *japonica* and *O. rufipogon*

Genetic relationships between *O. sativa* and *O. rufipogon* were studied by constructing a tree using the entire 20 kb sequence of 22 loci (Fig. 2). The tree indicated that *O. sativa* accessions do not form a unique group separated from *O. rufipogon* accessions. Rather, most *O. sativa* accessions have *O. rufipogon* accessions as sister groups. This finding supports the hypothesis that *O. sativa* cultivars were independently domesticated from wild *O. rufipogon* in multiple occasions (Second 1982; Ishii et al. 1988; Cheng et al. 2003; Bautista et al. 2001). Over the 22 loci and Region 1 in the genome, nucleotide diversity of non-coding regions in *O. sativa* and *O. rufipogon* is low ($\pi = 0.003$; Table 2). This is half of the value obtained for the genome of *Arabidopsis* ($\pi = 0.006$, Nordborg et al. 2005). It is noteworthy that nucleotide diversity in *japonica* was extremely low ($\pi = 0.0001$; Table 2). This result indicates that our *japonica* samples studied here have a short coalescence time, and they must originate from a small number of founders that presumably were genetically close to *O. rufipogon* genetically close to the 11-R accession used in the present study.

Fig. 5 Evolutionary history of RLD15 locus. **a** The most parsimonious tree of RLD15 using *O. australiensis* as out-group. The values on branches indicate the number of times the branches were supported after 500 bootstrap resamplings. **b** and **c** Organismal tree (black line) and DNA tree (red line) for the “trans-species polymorphism” hypothesis (**b**) and the “introgression hypothesis” (**c**)

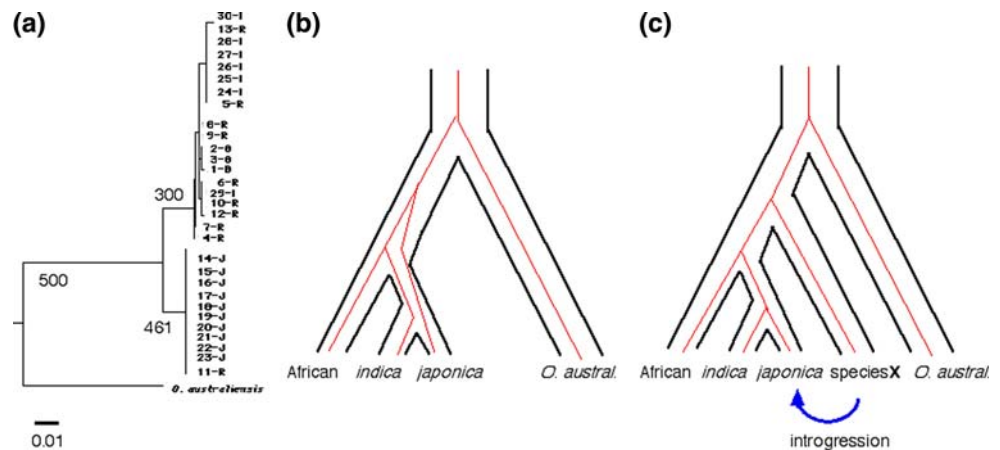
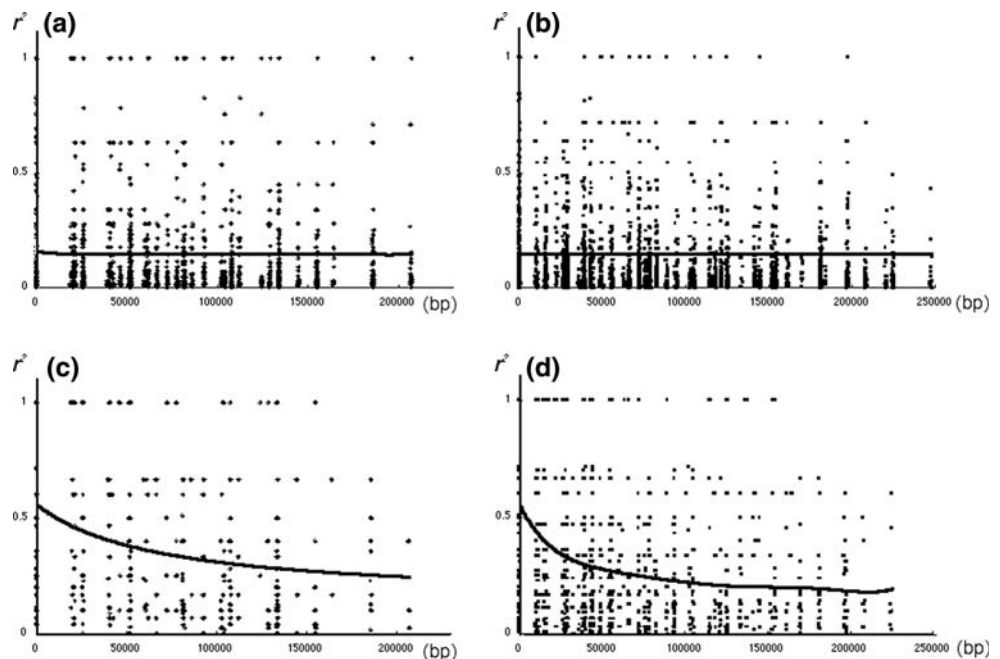


Fig. 6 Extent of LD in *Oryza*. Each spot represents distance (bp) between the two polymorphic sites (*x*-axis) and LD of them as measured by r^2 (*y*-axis). Regression curves were fitted according to Hill and Weir (1988). Each graph corresponds to DNA polymorphism detected in **a** *O. rufipogon* Region 1 as studied by DNA sequencing; **b** *O. rufipogon* Region 2 as studied by EcoTILLING; **c** *O. sativa* ssp. *indica* Region 1 as studied by DNA sequencing and **d** *O. sativa* ssp. *indica* Region 2 as studied by EcoTILLING



Divergence population genetics of *O. sativa* ssp. *indica* and ssp. *japonica*

The present study confirmed that both *O. sativa* ssp. *indica* and ssp. *japonica* were derived from *O. rufipogon*. It was also shown that *indica* contains more than an order of magnitude larger genetic diversity as compared to *japonica*. In other words, the effective size of *indica* population is much larger than that of *japonica*. This large difference in population effective size prompted us to compare the nature of mutations in *indica* and *japonica* with reference to *O. rufipogon*. Such approach was named “divergence population genetics” by Kliman et al. (2000) and has been applied to *Drosophila* species, where it provided fruitful results. When we compared the shared and fixed polymorphism between the pairs of *indica*, *japonica* and *O.*

rufipogon, there was a remarkable difference between *indica*–*O. rufipogon* and *japonica*–*O. rufipogon* pairs (Suppl. Table 7), namely all the polymorphisms in *indica*–*O. rufipogon* comparison was shared between the two taxa, whereas there were only three shared polymorphism and six fixed mutations between *japonica* and *O. rufipogon*. This result suggests that *japonica* has accumulated unique mutations after its divergence from *O. rufipogon*. Furthermore, patterns of derived non-synonymous mutations are also different between *japonica* and *indica* (Table 4). The *japonica* samples contained a larger number of non-synonymous fixed mutations as compared to *indica*. This finding can be explained by two possibilities: (1) positive selection, presumably artificial selection, imposed on the *japonica* genome, (2) accumulation of slightly deleterious mutations in the *japonica* genome resulting from its

small population size. As it is highly improbable that we detected trace of positive selection in randomly selected tiny portion of the genome as studied here, we prefer the possibility (2). It is theoretically established that slightly deleterious mutations have a larger probability of fixation in a population with a smaller effective size than that with a larger effective size (Ohta 1976). Higher allozyme heterozygosity in contrast to low nucleotide diversity has been reported in *D. melanogaster* in comparison to *D. simulans* (Aquadro et al. 1988). The authors suggested that this may be explained by a smaller effective size of *D. melanogaster* than that of *D. simulans*. A study of divergence and polymorphism of three *Drosophila* species, *D. simulans*, *D. mauritiana* and *D. sechellia* (Kliman et al. 2000) showed that *D. sechellia* with the lowest effective population size had accumulated larger number of mutations than other species, and that at synonymous sites, *D. sechellia* accumulated significant excess of unpreferred substitutions. Kliman et al. (2000) suggested that this pattern of divergence in *D. sechellia* is explained by the accumulation of slightly deleterious mutations in *D. sechellia* with the small effective size. We hypothesize that a similar mechanism may explain the larger number of fixed non-synonymous polymorphism in *japonica* as compared to *indica*.

Heterogeneity in DNA polymorphism and genealogy across the loci

Nucleotide diversity of 22 loci of Asian *Oryza* (pooled samples of *O. sativa* and *O. rufipogon*) is heterogeneous (Suppl. Table 3). Tajima's *D* also varied across the loci. RLD15 showed statistically significant positive value of Tajima's *D*, which is caused by the large divergence between *japonica* and *indica* sequences in this locus (see below). In contrast, RLD21 and RLD27 had significant negative values of Tajima's *D*, which is caused by a larger number of singleton mutations in these loci (7/10 for RLD21 and 6/9 for RLD27). Genealogy of DNA also varied across the loci (Fig. 4). These results suggest that different loci have been placed under different evolutionary forces including natural selection. In the present study, we could not detect significant relationship between the recombination rate and the amount of DNA polymorphism as observed in *D. melanogaster* by Begun and Aquadro (1992). The current study was carried out over very large physical distances, with a rough estimation of recombination per kilobase, so that such a correlation may be addressed more appropriately by a better estimation of recombination rate (see Glinka et al. 2003; Orengo and Aguade 2004). *O. sativa* ssp. *indica* and ssp. *japonica*

are well-separated entities of rice cultivars, so that it is meaningful to compare the divergence pattern between these two subspecies. For most of the loci studied, the divergence between *indica* and African is similar to that between *japonica* and African (Fig. 3), and we could not detect a general tendency that the *indica*–African divergence is larger than *japonica*–African divergence as noted by Ma and Bennetzen (2004).

Genealogy of RLD15 locus

Genealogical analysis of RLD15 locus of *O. sativa* and *O. rufipogon* using African species as outgroup generated a tree with a long branch connecting *japonica* and other Asian *Oryza* (Fig. 4). When *O. australiensis*, a more distantly related species, was used as outgroup, this long branch disappeared, so that we do not need to assume an accelerated evolution in the *japonica* lineage. However, in this case, *japonica* formed a group outside other Asian species that clustered with African species (Fig. 5a). The discrepancy of tree topologies in Figs. 2 and 5a can be explained by either of the two hypotheses (Fig. 5b, c).

The first one, “trans-species polymorphism hypothesis,” postulates that the bifurcation of RLD15 DNA lineages occurred in a population of the common ancestor of African species as well as Asian *O. rufipogon* (Fig. 5b). The two DNA lineages (alleles) were maintained in *O. rufipogon* population for a substantial time before each of them was inherited by *O. sativa indica* and *japonica*, respectively. Such DNA polymorphisms could be maintained in a population for a long time by (1) strong balancing selection imposed on the tightly linked genomic region, or by (2) mere chance. An extreme case of balancing selection is diversifying selection as exemplified in MHC genes in primates (Lawlor et al. 1988) and self-incompatibility genes in plants (Ioerger et al. 1991). Such “trans-species polymorphism” occurs by chance as well when the divergence of the species is quite recent as seen in *Drosophila* (Hey and Kliman 1993).

The second hypothesis is the “introgression hypothesis.” In this case, the RLD15 region of *japonica* species was replaced by recombination with a DNA sequence from a yet unknown species (species X) that has diverged from the AA genome group of *O. sativa*, *O. rufipogon*, *O. glaberrima* and *O. barthii*. If this is the case, the introgression should have occurred before the domestication of *japonica* as an *O. rufipogon* accession (11-R) is also included in this *japonica* cluster.

At the moment we have no good reason to choose one from these two hypotheses. These two mechanisms may together simultaneously function to result in the

observed patterns. An extended study of DNA polymorphism around RLD15 using materials including *Oryza* taxa with the genomes B, C and D (Vaughan et al. 2003) will clarify the evolutionary history of this genomic region of *japonica*. Feltus et al. (2004) compared genome sequences of *indica* and *japonica* rice, and noted that there are highly divergent as well as very similar regions between the two sequences. Interestingly, the chromosome region harboring RLD15 corresponds to the region exhibiting a high genetic divergence between *indica* and *japonica* DNA sequences (Feltus et al. 2004). This suggests a possibility that the rest of genomic regions showing large divergence between *indica* and *japonica* sequences could have a similar history as RLD15. The “phylogenetic” analysis using the DNA sequences of 22 loci included RLD15. Removal of this locus from the analysis did not change the tree topology as shown in Fig. 2 (data not shown) as its contribution among the entire sequence was small.

Linkage disequilibrium in *Oryza*

DNA sequencing and EcoTILLING in the two genomic regions of *Oryza* showed that levels of LD are remarkably different between *O. rufipogon* and *O. sativa* ssp. *indica* (Fig. 6). LD in *O. rufipogon* decays within 5 kb, whereas it extends to 50 kb in *O. sativa* ssp. *indica*. This difference in the extent of LD may partly be explained by the breeding behavior of the species. Lower levels of LD in *O. rufipogon* are expected because *O. rufipogon* experiences higher rate of outcrossing as opposed to *O. sativa* which is strictly a self-pollinated crop (Khush 1997). In maize, a cross-pollinated crop, LD declines fast within a distance of 1,500 bp (Remington et al. 2001), whereas in *Arabidopsis*, a selfing species, LD extends to approximately 20 kb (Nordborg et al. 2002, 2005). For practical purposes, the low LD in *O. rufipogon* would be advantageous for association-based cloning of genes controlling phenotypic traits by using a large number of markers. In *O. sativa* ssp. *indica*, we will be able to use markers spaced 50 kb apart on average to carry out a rough agronomic trait mapping and marker-assisted selection.

In conclusion, this large-scale DNA polymorphism study of *O. sativa* and its wild relatives revealed the origin and divergence of cultivated rice in unprecedented details. In view of rapid development of high-throughput sequencing and SNP-finding technologies, in the near future we will be able to address the origins of *indica* and *japonica* rice in further detail, and identify the causal mutations that allowed their domestication from wild progenitors.

Acknowledgments SR conducted this work under financial support from Japanese Society for Promotion of Sciences, Tokyo. RT thanks B. Till, L. Comai and S. Henikoff, Washington University, Seattle, USA for training him with TILLING technique. We thank N. Kurata, National Institute of Genetics, Mishima, Japan for providing rice seeds, and J. Rozas, University of Barcelona, Spain for guiding us with the DnaSP program, two anonymous reviewers and M. Morgante, University of Udine, Italy for valuable comments to the earlier version of the manuscript. This work was supported by the “Program for Promotion of Basic Research Activities for Innovative Biosciences” (Japan), “Iwate University 21st Century COE Program: Establishment of Thermo-Biosystem Research Program” and “JSPS grant no. 18310136” to RT.

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