Citrus

Patrick Ollitrault, Camille Jacquemond, Cécile Dubois and François Luro

Citrus fruits are the most extensively produced fruits in the world. About 90.9 million tonnes were produced in 1999/2000, of which 59.5 million tonnes were sweet oranges (FAO, 2000). The volume of fruit processed is increasing: concentrated and frozen orange juice for a large part of the processed fruit products in the United States and Brazil.

Citrus fruits were domesticated in Southeast Asia several thousand years ago and then spread throughout the world (Fig. 1). Citron (*C. medica* L.) was the first species cultivated in the Mediterranean basin, some centuries before the common era, while other species were introduced only during the second millennium. Citrus crops conquered America following the discovery of the New World during the 15th century. The area of citrus cultivation is today very wide, and it is located approximately between 40°N and 40°S latitude.

The cultivation of citrus faces increasing biotic and abiotic constraints in the major regions of production. Tristeza, a degenerating disease caused by the citrus tristeza virus, *Phytophthora* sp., and nematodes are found today throughout the cultivation areas. Other constraints are regional: cold and blight—which is a degenerating disease of still indeterminate origin—in the United States, citrus variegated chlorosis due to *Xilela fastidiosa* in Brazil, cercosporiosis caused by *Phaeoramularia angolensis* in Africa, and greening or citrus huanglongbing in Asia. Among the abiotic constraints, salinity and calcareous soils are major problems of the Mediterranean basin. The widespread use of grafted plants allows farmers to overcome soil-related constraints (calcareous soils, salinity, telluric parasites) to some extent, as well as tristeza. Scions are selected on the basis of qualitative aspects and, in some countries, characters of tolerance to citrus variegated chlorosis, to mal secco or to cercosporiosis (Ollitrault and Luro, 1997).

BOTANY AND GENETIC RESOURCES

Botany and Taxonomy

Partial apomixis by nucellar embryogenesis, associated with a wide sexual compatibility, has led to the production of clonal populations of interspecific

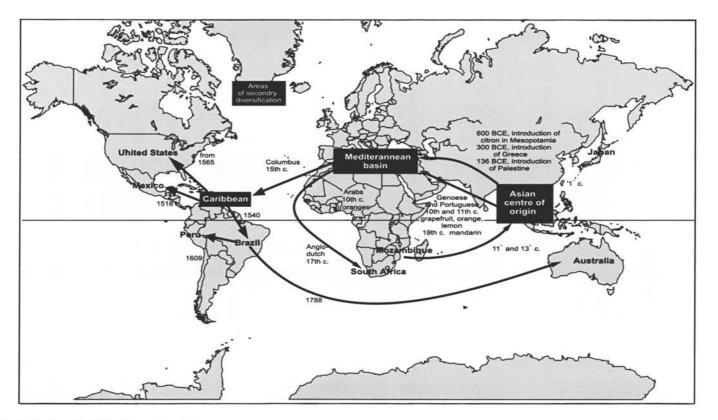


Fig. 1. Regions of origin, dispersal, and diversification of cultivated citrus.

hybrids, which have often been assimilated into new species by taxonomists. Botanic classifications are thus generally complicated. Tanaka (1961) identified 156 species, while Single and Reece (1967) distinguished only 16. The correspondence between these two classifications and the common names is given in Table 1 for the taxa studied in this chapter. In all the *Citrus* species and related genera, the base number of chromosomes (n) is equal to 9 (Krug, 1943). Almost all the *Citrus* are diploid and only a few natural polyploids have been identified, such as *Fortunella hindsii* or the Tahiti lime.

Genetic Resources

There are several collections of citrus throughout the world. They have two objectives, often divergent as to choice of plant material to be conserved: first, to preserve the diversity of Citrus and related genera over the long term, and second, to create orchards to provide grafts of valuable varieties. The collection of the Okitsu Branch (Fruit Tree Research Station) in Japan is the most important for cultivated material from the zones of origin, while the conservatory of the University of Malaysia is remarkable for its collection of Aurantioideae of Southeast Asia. The collections of the USDA (United States Department of Agriculture), IVIA (Instituto Valenciano de Investigaciones Agrarias) in Spain, and the University of Adana in Turkey contain certain Rutaceae related to the citrus but are regularly supplied for the most part by new varieties created throughout the world. The INRA and CIRAD station of San Giuliano, in France, has a unique status because of the favourable phytosanitary conditions of Corsica. It shelters a significant collection of healthy plant material, which includes numerous accessions of Southeast Asia and can be evaluated in the field. The Egid database management software, developed by CIRAD and INRA (Cottin et al., 1995) from the descriptors of the IPGRI (International Plant Genetic Resources Institute), has been adopted by the FAO to set up a global network to manage citrus genetic resources.

ORGANIZATION OF DIVERSITY

Agromorphological Variability

The agromorphological variability of citrus is considerable. It involves pomological and organoleptic characters as well as resistance to biotic and abiotic factors. The *Citrus* genus includes several sources of tolerance of biotic and abiotic stresses, which opens up interesting perspectives for the use of genetic resources in plant improvement.

Among the abiotic factors we can cite: cold tolerance in Satsuma mandarin trees; salinity tolerance in Rangpur lime trees and Cleopatra mandarins;

Code	Cultivar	Name of spec	cies			Genome					Enzyn	natic geno	otype				
		Swingle	Tanaka	Mark		size A			IDH	in mer	MDH-1		PGI		PGM-2		KDH
		and Reece (1967)	(1961)	morpho. iso.		(pg/2C)		AAT		LAP		MDH-2	PGM-			PER	
• Man	darins (M)																
Mks	King of Siam	reticulata hybrid	nobilis	1	1	0.760	22	11	33	44	33	22	33	34	12	12	33
MSW*		reticulata	unshiu	1	1	0.737											
Mso	Satsuma Qwari	reticulata	unshiu	1	1	_	22	11	33	34	33	22	23	33	22	22	33
Mda	Dancy	reticulata	tangerina	1	1	0.736	22	11	33	44	33	22	33	33	22	12	33
Mte	Temple	reticulata hybrid	temple	1	1	0.748	22	11	33	24	33	22	23	23	22	22	33
Mcl	Cleopatra	reticulata	reshni	1	1	0.733	22	11	33	44	33	22	33	22	22	22	33
Мро	Ponkan	reticulata	reticulata	1	1	0.744	22	11	33	44	33	22	33	33	22	11	22
Mco	Common	reticulata	deliciosa	1	1	0.730	22	11	33	45	33	22	34	23	22	12	23
M63	Clementine SRA63	reticulata	clementina	1	1	0.750	22	11	23	24	33	22	24	33	22	22	33
Mmu	Murcott	reticulata hybrid		1	1	0.746	22	11	33	44	33	22	33	33	22	22	33
• Pemi	melos (P)																
Pme	Menara	grandis	sp.	1	1	0.751	22	12	33	22	33	22	22	13	11	12	23
Prk	Reinking	grandis	maxima	1	1	0.774	22	22	33	45	33	22	22	44	11	11	12
Pkp	Kao Pan	grandis	maxima	1	1	0.767	22	12	23	35	33	22	22	13	11	11	12
Psn	Sunshine	grandis	maxima	1	1	0.794	22	22	23	25	33	12	22	33	11	11	11
Ppi	Pink	grandis	maxima	1	1	0.779	22	11	33	55	33	22	22	13	11	11	11
Psp	Seedless	grandis	maxima	1	1	0.787	22	12	33	25	33	22	23	11	11	11	12
Pin	India	grandis	maxima	1	1	0.787	22	22	22	55	33	22	22	33	11	11	12
Pah	Tahiti	grandis	maxima	0	1	-	22	12	33	25	33	22	22	11	11	11	11
Pph	Philippines	grandis	maxima	0	1	1.00	22	22	33	55	33	22	22	11	11	11	11
Psu	Surinam	grandis	maxima	0	1	(4 2)	22	12	23	35	33	22	22	13	11	11	11
Pei	Eingedi	grandis	maxima	1	0	0.763		-	-	-	-		-	-	-	-	-
° ch	Chandler	grandis	maxima	1	0	0.764	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	-	-	-	-
Lime	es (L)																
Lbs	Brazil Sweet	aurantifolia	limettioide	s 1	1	0.756	22	12	33	36	13	22	23	22	12	11	12

Table 1. Analysed Citrus accessions and genetic characteristics

					0	1	
	13	n	0		0	ntd	- 1
۰.	10	$\boldsymbol{\nu}$	ic.	**	CU	ma	•1

Lga	Gallet	aurantifolia	aurantifolia	1	1	0.787	12	12	13	36	13	12	22	22	22	11	12
Lta	Tahiti	aurantifolia	latifolia	1	1	1.170			Sec.							1000	1200
Lme	Mexican	aurantifolia	aurantifolia	1	1	0.779											
Lel	Elkseur	aurantifolia	latifolia	1	1	1.170											
Lbe	Bears	aurantifolia	latifolia	1	1	1.170	22	22	13	36	13	12	22	23	12	11	2
Lca	Calédonie	aurantifolia	aurantifolia	1	1	0.784											
Lki	Kirk	aurantifolia	aurantifolia	1	1	0.779											
Lra	Rangpur	aurantifolia	limonia	1	1	0.772	22	12	13	36	13	22	23	22	22	11	1
Lka	Kanghzi	aurantifolia	aurantifolia	0	1	-	22	22	12	36	13	22	22	22	12	11	2
Lsr	IAC SRA618	aurantifolia	aurantifolia	1	0	1.170	-	-	-	-	5 1 5	-	-	-	-	-	
• Len	nons (C)																
Cme	Meyer	limon	meyeri	1	1	0.772	22	12	23	46	13	22	23	23	12	12	1
Cfi	Fino	limon	limon	1	1	0.784	11111	3 2 13	2.0-1	1000	01211	22.000	-			115	12
Cve	Verna	limon	limon	1	1	-											
Cad	Adamapoulos	limon	limon	1	1	0.769											
Cdx	Doux	limon	limon	1	1	0.778											
Cli	Lisbon	limon	limon	1	1	0.786	22	12	13	46	13	22	24	23	12	12	1
Cvi	Villafranca	limon	limon	1	1	0.776											
Cmo	Monachello	limon	limon	1	1	0.787											
Ceu	Eurêka	limon	limon	1	1	0.777											
Clu	Lunari	limon	limon	0	1	-											
Cst	Santa Teresa	limon	limon	1	0	0.786	-	~	•	. 	-	-	-			-	
• Swe	et oranges (O)																
Owa	Washington Navel	sinensis	sinensis	1	1	0.757								1.5			
Odf	Double Fine	sinensis	sinensis	1	1	0.778											
Ota	Tarocco	sinensis	sinensis	1	1	0.772											
Onh	New Hall	sinensis	sinensis	1	1	0.778											
Ona	Navelina	sinensis	sinensis	1	1	0.755	22	11	23	24	33	22	23	33	12	22	1

Citrus 197

Code	Cultivar	Name of spec	cies			Genome					Enzyr	natic géno	otype	2			
		Swingle	Tanaka	Marl	ker	size .	ADH-1		IDH		MDH-1		PGI		PGM-2	2	SKDH
		and Reece (1967)	(1961)	morphe	o. iso.	(pg/2C)		AAT		LAP		MDH-2		PGM-1		PER	2
Oha	Hamlin	sinensis	sinensis	1	1	0.749	Sec. 1		200	Second Second	S-Mark		1223	1000	STORA MILLER	101	ma inte
Osh	Shamouti	sinensis	sinensis	1	1	0.756									213-		
Opb	Parson Brown	sinensis	sinensis	1	1	0.756										. X.	
Oca	Cadenera	sinensis	sinensis	1	1	0.751											
Ovl	Valencia Late	sinensis	sinensis	1	1	0.757	comments	-	3.4		-	marin	. 10	Notes and	all it is		NG NATE
• Sou	r oranges (B)																
Bfe	Ferrando	aurantium	aurantium	1	1	0.755	1912/E			all and a	1	State and		ALMAN SE	0.610.55	19.7	1349
Bfl	Florida	aurantium	aurantium	1	1	0.755											
Bse	Thornless	aurantium	aurantium	1	1	0.779											
Bma	Maroc	aurantium	aurantium	1	1	0.750											
Bqn	Nice (bouquetier)	aurantium	aurantium	1	1	0.756											
Bqf	Fleurs (bouquetier)	aurantium	aurantium	1	1	0.750	22	11	33	44	33	22	24	13	12	12	22
Bbs	Brazil Sour	aurantium	aurantium	1	1	-											
Bdd	Dai Dai	aurantium	aurantium	1	1	0.756											
Btu	Tuléar	aurantium	aurantium	1	1	-											
Bay	Avanito	aurantium	aurantium	0	1	-											
Bgr	Granito	aurantium	aurantium	1	0	0.753	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
• Citr	ons (K)																
Kdc	Corse	medica	medica	1	1	0.814	Sec. 1	100	e	1 3	CLUMPS	6 (S. 1997)	an Ba	Section of	Culling.		100
Ket	Etrog	medica	limonimedi	ca 1	1	0.821											
Kde	Digite	medica	medica	1	1	0.815	22	22	22	66	11	22	22	22	22	11	22
Kpc	Poncire	medica	medica	1	1	0.807											
Kdi	Diamante	medica	medica	1	Ō	-	-	-	-	-		-	-	-	-		-
Gra	pe fruits (G)																
	Shambar	paradisi	paradisi	1	1	0.749	A STREET	-3.02			12-16-14-1	With States	1	1000	11111	110	111111

Gce	Cecily	paradisi	paradisi	1	1	0.778		19192	and a	1023		P. P. H.		11/11/11	1.1		124
Gal	Alanoek	paradisi	paradisi	1	1	0.759											
Gre	Reed	paradisi	paradisi	1	1	0.772											
Gsr	Star Ruby	paradisi	paradisi	1	1	0.772	22	12	33	25	33	22	22	13	11	12	23
Grb	Red Blush	paradisi	paradisi	1	1	0.788											
Glr	Little River	paradisi	paradisi	1	1	0.784											
Gth	Thomson	paradisi	paradisi	1	1	0.784											
Gma	Marsh	paradisi	paradisi	1	1	0.783											
Gru	Ruby	paradisi	paradisi	1	0	0.781	-	-	-	-		-	-	-	-	-	-
• Oth	er Citrus																
ROL	rough lemon	limon	jambhiri	1	1	0.777	12	12	23	46	13	22	23	22	22	11	22
PEC	pectinifera	reticulata hybrid	depressa	1	1	0.751	22	11	33	24	23	22	33	33	22	12	33
JUN		ichang austera	junos	1	1	0.810	22	12	33	24	23	22	33	13	12	11	22
GUL	-	maxima	pseudogulgul	1	1	0.745	22	12	33	24	33	22	23	11	11	11	22
ICH	ichangensis lemon	ichangensis	ichangensis	1	1	0.774	22	11	22	44	23	22	23	34	12	11	22
BGM	bergamot	aurantifolia	bergamia	1	1	0.771	22	12	13	44	13	22	24	13	12	11	12
PDC	commander pear	limon	lumia	1	1	-	22	12	33	24	33	22	22	34	12	12	22
COM	combava	hystrix	hystrix	1	1	0.803	22	12	33	14	12	22	22	33	11	11	12
INT		paradisi	intermedia	1	1	0.764	22	12	33	23	33	22	23	23	11	12	22
MAC	-	aurantifolia	macrophylla	1	1	0.798	22	22	23	44	12	22	12	23	12	11	22
PEN		aurantifolia	pennivesicula	ta1	1	0.813	22	22	13	22	11	12	22	23	12	11	12
EXE	-	aurantifolia	excelsa	1	1	0.793	22	22	23	44	33	12	12	23	22	11	22
SIA	siamelo	hybrid	hybrid	1	1	0.745	22	11	33	24	33	22	23	33	12	11	12
KPA	khasi papeda	latipes	latipes	1	1	0.780	22	12	34	44	23	23	12	34	12	11	12
HAL	1990 - A. A.	halimii	halimii	1	1	0.778	22	22	22	44	22	23	12	34	22	11	22
VOL		limon	limonia	1	1	0.764	12	12	13	46	13	22	23	22	22	11	12
NAS	nasnaran	reticulata hybrid	amblycarpa	0	1	-	12	12	33	44	33	22	13	33	11	11	12

e 12

*The codes in bold face represent the common enzymatic type in the analyses. All the individuals in a set of rows shaded in grey have the same enzymatic profile.

calcareous soil tolerance in *C. jambhiri, C. macrophylla, C. volkameriana, C. amblycarpa*, and sour oranges; and drought tolerance in Rangpur lime. Tolerance of the major pests and diseases has also been identified: tolerance of *Phytophthora* sp. in some pummelos, sour orange, *C. volkameriana*, and *C. amblycarpa*; African cercosporiosis tolerance in grapefruit, lemon, and Satsuma and Beauty mandarin; tristeza tolerance in Cleopatra mandarin, *C. amblycarpa*, Rangpur lime, *C. jambhiri*, and *C. volkameriana*; blight tolerance in orange; tolerance of citric canker due to *Xanthomonas campestris* in *C. junos* and some mandarins (Satsuma and Dancy, for example); and resistance to phytophagous acarids of Marsh pomelo and mandarins (Satsuma and Dancy). In view of these examples, there seems to be no link between the distributions of sources of resistance to biotic factors and the specific structure of the genus *Citrus*.

On the other hand, the morphophysiological variability is strongly marked between the species, even though certain characters selected by humans have a strong intraspecific diversity (precocity, calibre, colour of fruits). For example, within the genus *Citrus*, the diameter of fruits varies from a few centimetres for certain mandarins and limes to more than 30 cm for some grapefruits. Albedo is nearly non-existent in mandarins but is the essential characteristic of the fruit in the citron. The fruit pulp is green, orange, yellow, or red. Its acidity is nil in some sweet oranges and very high in limes and lemons. Although the leaves of all the species of *Citrus* are monofoliate, their size and shape as well as the shapes of the trees vary considerably according to the species.

A more refined study of the structure of morphological diversity in the genus *Citrus* has been done from 20 descriptors of the vegetative apparatus observed among 74 cultivars. It supports the analysis of relations between morphological diversity and molecular diversity presented in this chapter.

Biochemical and Molecular Variability

Essential oils and polyphenols were the first markers used to characterize varieties (Tatum et al., 1974) and to study the phylogenesis of citrus (Scora, 1988). Isozymes were used routinely to identify the zygotic or nucellar origin of seedlings (Soost et al., 1980; Khan and Roose, 1988; Ollitrault et al., 1992). They also make it possible to specify phylogenetic relations between species (Torres et al., 1982; Hirai et al., 1986; Ollitraul and Faure, 1992; Herrero et al., 1996, 1997). The techniques of direct analysis of DNA polymorphism—DNA, RFLP, RAPD, variable number of tandem repeats (VNTR)—were mainly applied in genome mapping programmes (Durham et al., 1992; Jarrel et al., 1992; Luro et al., 1994b; Fang et al., 1998; Moore et al., 2000) or programmes of varietal characterization and taxonomy (Luro et al., 1994a, 1995; Fang and Roose, 1996; Federici et al., 1998; Nicolosi et al., 2000). Nevertheless, the allelic determinism of these markers is sometimes difficult to clarify, so they have limited use in genetic studies of populations concerning heterozygosity and index of fixation or index of gametic inequilibrium.

Cytogenetic studies and flow cytometry analyses have demonstrated the existence of great variations between species as to chromosome size (Nair and Randhawa, 1969; Ollitrault et al., 1994). They also have proved many cases of structural heterozygosity (Raghuvanshi, 1969; Gmitter et al., 1992; Guerra, 1993; Miranda et al., 1997). These elements on the structure of genomes of different taxa are determinants for analysis of the organization of allelic diversity in evolutionary terms.

In order to study the parameters of population structure, the analysis of allelic diversity presented in this chapter relies on the polymorphism of 9 isozymic systems. The nuclear structural diversity is also examined by evaluation of genome size using flow cytometry. The varietal sampling for the cultivated forms is the same as for the study of morphological diversity. Seventeen non-cultivated *Citrus* spp. complete the analysis.

ISOZYMIC DIVERSITY

Thirty-five alleles were identified for 11 polymorphous loci. Only 5 of these alleles were not observed in cultivars. The null allele of the locus *LAP* (*LAP-6*), identified at the homozygous state in the citrons, was detected in the heterozygous state in a certain number of acid citrus (lemons, limes) when controlled hybrids were examined. Several cultivars of a single species presented identical profiles. This was particularly the case for orange, sour orange, pomelo, and lemon. The 74 cultivars were thus grouped into 30 isozymic genotypes (Table 1).

There appears to be widely varying intraspecific diversity among the edible species (Table 2). The citrons have nil-allelic diversity due to a high homozygosity and the absence of polymorphism between the cultivars analysed. The grapefruit, sweet orange, and sour orange have similar intraspecific structures. The allelic diversity and heterozygosity in them are moderate and the intercultivar polymorphism is nonexistent. Lemons are

	No.	Mean no. of alleles per locus	Total diversity	Intercultiva diversity	r Observed heterozygosity	Deviation of panmixia
Citron	4	1.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	_
Grapefruit	10	1.45	0.23	0.00	0.45	***(5 loci)
Sour orange	10	1.36	0.18	0.00	0.36	***(4 loci)
Sweet orange	10	1.45	0.23	0.00	0.45	***(5 loci)
Lemon	10	1.00	0.42	0.02	0.82	***(9 loci)
Lime	10	2.09	0.34	0.08	0.54	**(2 loci)
Pummelo	10	2.09	0.25	0.13	0.24	ns
Mandarin	10	2.00	0.19	0.10	0.17	ns

Table 2. Structure of intraspecific alle	lic diversity observed for	or 11 loci coding for isozymes

ns: non-significant at threshold of 5%.

**significant at threshold of 1%.

***significant at threshold of 1%.

highly heterozygous but have very little intervarietal polymorphism. Indeed, only the cultivar "Meyer" can be differentiated from the other ones. The limes are also highly heterozygous and manifest a stronger intervarietal polymorphism than the lemons. The pummelos and mandarins have a very high allelic richness, mainly due to significant intervarietal polymorphism. The two species that have great intercultivar diversity—mandarins and pummelos—do not display a significant deviation to panmixis, which undoubtedly demonstrates an important genetic exchange within these taxa. All the other species, with the exception of citrons, which are totally fixed, have an excess of heterozygotes.

The total diversity of the sample of cultivated citruses, in the sense of Nei (1973), is 0.45. It is broken down in a balanced manner in terms of intraspecific diversity (0.23), and interspecific diversity (0.22), with a high value of the G_{ST} coefficient (0.49). This value indicates a marked allelic differentiation between the cultivated taxa. Indeed, it is significant for 10 of the 11 loci analysed. This differentiation between taxa, observed for nearly all the loci, is also found in the multilocus structure evaluated from the 30 genotypes of cultivated *Citrus*. The linkage disequilibrium thus involves 23 locus pairs out of 55 and 9 loci out of 11.

This strong structuration observed within the cultivars is confirmed when one looks at 47 enzymatic genotypes identified, which relates the 30 genotypes of cultivars to 17 other *Citrus* spp. Nine loci out of 11 present significant deviation to panmixis and a shortage of heterozygotes. This type of deviation is classically linked to structures in sub-populations (Walhund effect) and to systems of reproduction that limit gene flow.

The high level of genetic organization observed using genetic parameters of populations is found in the principal coordinates analysis (PCoA)done on the genotypes of cultivars, where 50.4% of the total variance is represented on the 1-2 plane (Fig. 2). The diversity of cultivated *Citrus* is structured around three gene pools: the first contains the mandarins, the second contains the grapefruit and pummelo, and the third is made up of the citrons, which show a marked relationship to the limes. The oranges and sour orange are close to the mandarins, with a probable introgression of pummelo. The lemons, highly heterozygous, may have evolved from a hybridization between the citron/lime group and the group made up of the mandarins, sweet oranges, and sour oranges. Factorial analysis allows us to identify the hybrid forms and their potential parents for this highly organized population.

This organization of cultivated forms around three pools is not called into question by the introduction of non-cultivated forms, as shown by the diversity tree that is constructed by NJ analysis of Dice dissimilarity (Fig. 3). Certain non-cultivated *Citrus* are associated with the groups formed by the cultivars: *C. pectinifera* with the mandarins; siamelo with the oranges; *C. pseudogulgul* and *C. intermedia* with the group of grapefruits and pummelos;

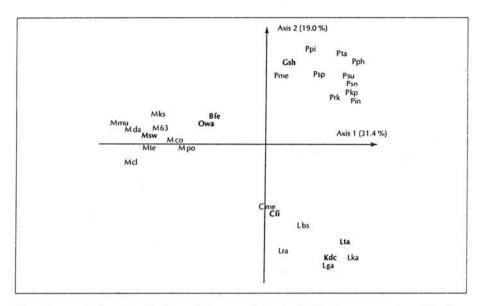


Fig. 2. Isozymic diversity of cultivated citrus on the basis of 11 loci: representation of the first factorial plane of PCoA done on a Dice matrix of dissimilarity between 30 different genotypes identified among 74 cultivars. The codes are the same as those used in Table 1.

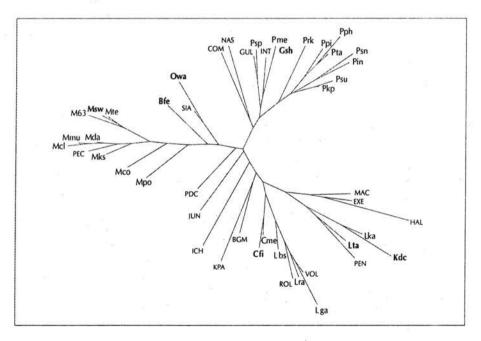


Fig. 3. Isozymic diversity of the genus *Citrus* on the basis of 11 loci: tree representation according to the NJ method, done on a Dice matrix of dissimilarity between 47 genotypes (30 cultivated genotypes and 17 other *Citrus*). The codes are the same as those used in Table 1.

C. pennivesiculata, C. volkameriana and *C. jhambivi* with the group of limes. The others are distinguished from these groups either because they carry alleles that are not observed in the cultivars—as with *C. macrophylla, C. excelsa, C. junos, C. ichangensis, C. latipes, C. hystrix,* and *C. amblycarpa*—or because they have original recombined allelic structures, such as *C. bergamia* or *C. lumia.*

GENOME SIZE

The size of nuclear genomes of individuals is given in Table 1. The diploid genotypes have relatively small genomes, between 0.73 and 0.82 pg of DNA per diploid genome (Fig. 4). The values of 1.17 pg correspond to triploid genotypes; they were observed for four cultivars of lime, Tahiti, Bears, Elkseur, and IAC SRA618. Among the edible species, the interspecific differences are

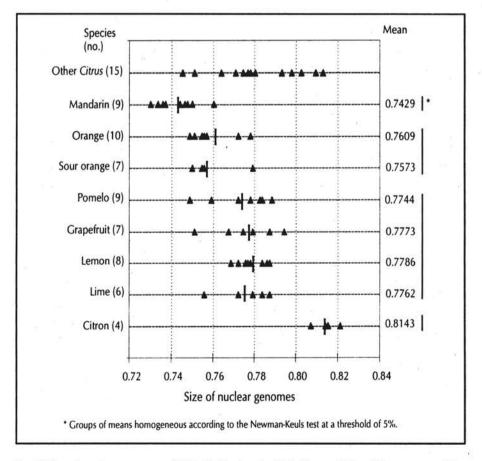


Fig. 4. Size of nuclear genomes of 75 individuals, of which 60 are edible cultivars grouped by species (mean of 3 measurements in picograms of DNA per diploid genome).

statistically significant and represent a deviation of 10% between the mandarins and the citrons (Fig. 5). The other species are divided into two groups of intermediate sizes. One comprises oranges and sour oranges, the other, corresponding to the larger sizes, comprises lemons, limes, grapefruits, and pummelos. The inedible types also have genome sizes between those of mandarins and citrons. Thus, two out of three taxa that structure the diversity, mandarin and citron, have genome sizes that are at the extremes observed in the genus *Citrus*. The other taxa have genome sizes that agree with the genetic affinities determined by isozymic analyses.

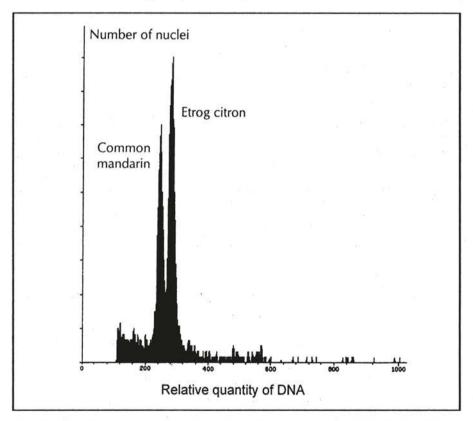


Fig. 5. Relative sizes of nuclear genomes of Etrog citron and common mandarin: flow cytometry of a mixture of nuclei stained with propidium idodide.

RELATIONS BETWEEN THE DIFFERENT LEVELS OF VARIABILITY

Analysis of morphological diversity from 20 vegetative descriptors allows us to find the overall organization around three gene pools previously

identified according to the isozymic data (Fig. 6). The relative positions of cultivated species around these three axes are in the conserved set. On the other hand, the monomorphic species in the enzymatic sense present a morphological dispersal equivalent to that of polymorphic species in the molecular sense (Fig. 7). Two levels thus coexist in the organization of morphological diversity: one major level, which responds to the constraints affecting the evolution of the genome as a whole, and a secondary level, dissociated from the molecular evolution visualized by the isozymes.

Interspecific Organization

Except for the system of gametophytic self-incompatibility, there is no sexual incompatibility within the genus *Citrus*: hybrids are obtained easily for all the interspecific combinations. The notion of specific differentiation could thus be called into question. Nevertheless, this genus seems to be very highly organized to the extent that generalized gametic disequilibrium has been identified for the isozymes and to the extent that the major axes of molecular and morphological structuration appear similar. This indicates an organization into sub-populations between which the gene flows are limited, as confirmed by the deviations from the panmixia observed for almost all loci.

The organization of *Citrus* diversity around three taxa (*C. reticulata*, *C. medica*, and *C. maxima*) confirms the results of numerical taxonomy of Barret and Rhodes (1976), which have suggested that these taxa were the origin of the cultivated *Citrus* group. It is also in agreement with total protein analysis (Handa et al., 1986), isozyme analysis (Herrero et al., 1996, 1997), RFLP and RAPD analysis (Luro et al., 1994a; Federici et al., 1998; Nicolosi et al., 2000) and STMS analysis (Luro et al., in press). The differentiation between these sexually compatible taxa can be explained by foundation effect in three geographic zones and by an allopatric evolution. The pummelos originated in the Malay Archipelago and Indonesia, the citrons evolved in northeastern India and the nearby regions of Burma and China, and the mandarins were diversified over a region including Vietnam, southern China, and Japan (Webber, 1967; Scora, 1975).

The other cultivated species—sweet orange, sour orange, lemon, grapefruit, lime—appeared subsequently by recombinations among the basic taxa, which came into contact during the course of trade and migrations. The enzymatic data—generally high heterozygosity and absence of intervarietal polymorphism, confirmed recently with STMS (Luro et al., in press)—prove that there are typical cases of false species, in which varietal diversification is produced from an ancestral hybrid by accumulation of mutations without the intervention of sexual recombination. It is to be noted that all the cultivars of these species are polyembryonic, which allows us to fix the heterozygosity and to conserve the morphological and pomological type even without manual methods of vegetative propagation, such as layering, budding, or grafting.



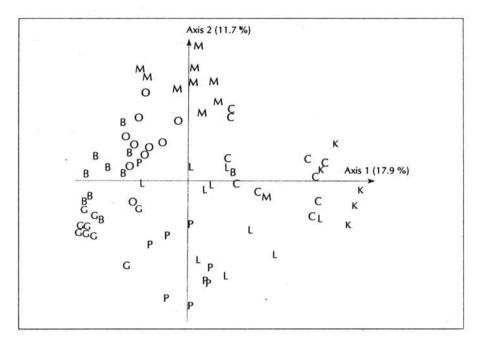


Fig. 6. Morphological diversity: representation of the primary factorial plane of PCoA done on a Sokal and Michener matrix of distance between 74 cultivars on the basis of 20 vegetative descriptors. The codes used are the same as those in Table 1.

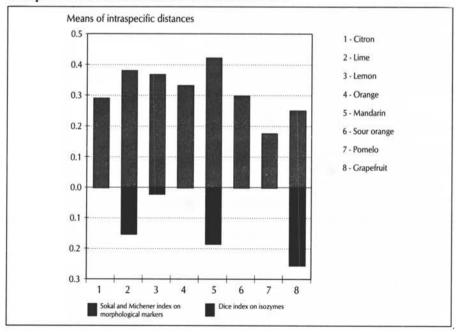


Fig. 7. Simultaneous illustration of the intraspecific dispersal calculated with the isozyme and morphological markers.

Our conclusions are in agreement with the ones obtained by isozyme analysis (Herrero et al., 1996), RFLP (Federici et al., 1998), RAPD and SCAR (Nicolosi et al., 2000), and STMS (Luro et al., in press). Sweet oranges and sour oranges are close to mandarins but have introgressed nuclear genomic fragments of pummelo. The last species also transmits its cytoplasmic genomes to sweet and sour oranges (Nicolosi et al., 2000; Ollitrault et al., 2000). Grapefruit is close to pummelo but includes nuclear genomic fragments of the mandarins/oranges group. It should have resulted from a hybridization between pummelo and sweet oranges introduced in the Caribbean islands after the discovery of the New World by Christopher Columbus. The genetic relationship between citron, limes, and lemons is clearly established by morphological and nuclear molecular markers. Synthesis of nuclear and cytoplasmic data (Ollitrault et al., 2000) indicated that mandarin and pummelo gene pools also contribute to lemon genesis. Nicolosi et al. (2000) suggested that it should result from a hybridization between citron and sour orange. Lime is the only cultivated species for which there is evidence of interspecific origin between cultivated and non-cultivated taxa; it should result from a hybridization between citron and C. micrantha (Nicolosi et al., 2000).

The strong organization, still observed today at the molecular rather than morphological scale indicates that the genetic exchanges between the three original groups are limited. The partial apomixis, linked to the polyembryony, has certainly been an essential element in the limitation of gene flows. Other factors, such as the structural differentiation of genomes, have also favoured the maintenance of gametic disequilibrium by limiting recombination on large portions of the genome. This differentiation in genome size is in agreement with the cytogenetic observations of Nair and Randhawa (1969) and of Raghuvanshi (1969). It testifies to the advanced state that the three basic taxa have reached on the way to real speciation.

Intraspecific Diversification

Intervarietal morphological polymorphism, relatively significant within sweet orange, sour orange, grapefruit, lemon, and lime, is explained largely by human selection. This is particularly marked for the pomological and phenological criteria. It can lead to a rapid morphophysiological evolution, independent of the molecular evolution analyses using isozymes. The most obvious example is that of the clementine. Appearing about a century ago in a seedling of common mandarin planted by Father Clement, it has since been considerably diversified. This diversification, result of a simple selection of bud mutations in the orchard, involves precocity—the period of production today extends from October to March—as well as pomological characters such as calibre, colour, and the presence of pips (Bono et al., 1982).

Over a much longer period, sweet oranges have diversified in the same way. This species, for which molecular studies with isozymes, RAPD (Luro et al., 1994a), and microsatellites (Luro et al., 1995, in press) have not displayed any intervarietal polymorphism, is, however, highly polymorphic for morphological and phenological characters. Even though its introduction in the Mediterranean Basin is relatively recent (around the year 1000), this area constitutes the main centre of diversification, where all the main types of modern sweet oranges have been selected, such as common oranges, blood oranges, and navel oranges (Aubert, in press).

On the other hand, sexual recombination has also played a determining role in the diversification of pummelo, of which the cultivars are all monoembryonic, and of mandarin, certain cultivars of which are monoembryonic. These two have high intervarietal isozymic polymorphism without significant difference in the panmixia.

GENETIC RESOURCE MANAGEMENT

The situation of citrus illustrates the uses and limitations of molecular markers in the construction of core collections. In the evolution of the genus *Citrus* we find factors that, on the global scale, show a good correlation between organization of the phenotypic diversity and organization of the molecular diversity (foundation effect, allopatric evolution, and limitation of gene flow that allow the maintenance of global gametic disequilibrium). For the secondary species, there are also, on the intraspecific scale, evolutionary mechanisms, such as somatic reproduction and strong selection pressures on the mutations affecting morphophysiological characters, which lead to dissociation of the two levels of evolution. In the case of citrus, the chief utility of the marking studies lies in the identification of sequences and evolutionary factors at the origin of taxa and their diversification. Studies on the constitution of a core collection must thus be based more on this general information than on the allelic constitution of individuals.

Among the three basic species, pummelos and mandarins have significant molecular polymorphism. Intraspecific varietal improvement can be done traditionally by sexual hybridization. The management of intraspecific genetic resources can thus be rationalized conventionally in the form of core collections. The results obtained from a collection of 100 mandarin trees indicate the existence of genetic organization on the intraspecific scale, which could help establish, among other things, a sampling strategy on the basis of molecular data.

The set of characters defining the other cultivated species—sweet orange, sour orange, grapefruit, lemon—relies on genotypes that have a relatively high heterozygosity but are stabilized by vegetative propagation. Conservation of the genetic resources of each of these species must be based on the constitution of genotype collections. This intraspecific diversity is difficult to recombine sexually for improvement of the 'species' because the characters

defining the 'species' are thereby recombined. The genotype collections, which aim to conserve the widest adaptive diversity and morphological diversity within each 'species', help inform citrus farmers about cultivars best adapted to particular regions. Classical molecular markers (isozymes, STMS, RFLP, RAPD) offer no information at this level, given the mechanisms of intraspecific evolution described earlier; the stratification must be based mainly on geographic criteria and agromorphological data.

When we discuss citrus diversity in general, genetic resource management can be rationalized also in terms of gene conservation. The three taxa identified as being the origin of most of the cultivated forms thus constitute an essential reservoir since a large part of the allelic diversity exists at the intercultivar level. The mandarins and pummelos seem in this case to be more important in the conservatories. The limes group displaying important genotypic diversity as well as the evidence of the contribution of a fourth taxon (probably C. micrantha; Nicolosi et al., 2000) must also be preserved on a priority basis. Moreover, as our study has shown, certain non-cultivated citrus carry a rich allelic diversity. These taxa thus are not particular genotype combinations arising from hybridization between the three basic taxa of the cultivated forms. It seems essential to conserve them, particularly because they may contribute tolerances to biotic or abiotic factors in the process of stock improvement. Finally, the development of biotechnologies, particularly somatic hybridization, considerably enlarges the gene pool that can be used for the breeding (Grosser et al., 2000). It is thus advisable today to conserve the genetic resources of citrus at the level of the tribe Citreae.

APPENDIX

Plant Material

Seventy-four cultivars representing the 8 species cultivated for their fruits (Swingle and Reece, 1967) and 17 non-edible types, some of which are used as stock, served as the basis of the enzymatic study (Table 1). To the extent possible, 10 cultivars were retained for each species cultivated, with the exception of citron, for which we had only 4 genotypes available in the collection. The trees, protected from any viral or viroidal disease, were cultivated at the agronomic research station of INRA and CIRAD of San Giuliano, in Corsica. Ninety of these genotypes were the subject of a morphological description.

Enzymatic Analyses

Nine enzymatic systems were analysed by electrophoresis on starch gel or polyacrylamide gel (Ollitrault et al., 1992): alcohol dehydrogenase (ADH), malate dehydrogenase (MDH), isocitrate dehydrogenase (IDH), shikimate dehydrogenase (SKDH), phosphoglucomutase (PGM), phosphoglucoisomerase (PGI), peroxydases (PER), leucine aminopeptidase (LAP), and aspartate aminotransferase (AAT). For the locus *PGM-2*, only two allele positions were retained. For the other systems, the interpretation and allelic nomenclature were the same as those of Ollitrault et al. (1992) and were in accordance with the interpretation given by Torres et al. (1978, 1982) for MDH, IDH, PGI, and LAP.

Flow Cytometry Analysis

The nuclear genome size of each of the diploid genotypes was estimated by the mean of three measurements relative to that of a triploid cultivar (Tahiti lime), used as an internal control. Leaf pieces of the sample and of the control were prepared in mixtures and coloured with propidium iodide according to the protocol described by Ollitrault et al. (1994). Two thousand nuclei were then analysed on a Fascan cytometer. The nuclear genome size of each genotype was estimated in picograms per diploid genome from the mean of relative values multiplied by 1.17 pg, which corresponds to the genome size of Tahiti lime estimated by Ollitrault et al. (1994).

Morphological Studies

Twenty qualitative descriptors of the vegetative parts (Table 3) were studied. The set of data on the morphology of citrus was managed by the computerized database system for the citrus germplasm network EGID (Cottin et al., 1995).

1. Erect 2. Spheroid 3. Flat ellipsoid Position of branches	1. Nil 2. Very short (0 to 5 mm) 3. Short (5 to 15 mm) 4. Madium (15 to 40 mm)
3. Flat ellipsoid	3. Short (5 to 15 mm)
2	
Position of branches	1 Madium (1E to 10 mm)
rosmon of branches	4. Medium (15 to 40 mm)
1 Erect	5. Long (> 40 mm)
1. Erect	5743°
2. Spread out	N. Shape of section of young branches
3. Drooping	N. Shape of section of young branches
4. Weeping	1. Angular
Density of foliago	2. Round
Density of foliage	
	O. Leaf edge
2. Dense	1. Crenellate
Surface of trunk	2. Dentate
	3. Entire
2. Rough	4. Undulate
Colour of leaf surface	
1. Light green	P. Leaf form
	1. Elliptical
	2. Oval
of Duringreen	Inverse oval
Colour of underside of leaf in	4. Lanceolate
relation to leaf surface	5. Orbiculate
1. Identical	of orbiculate
2. Lighter	
1075	Q. Length of petiole
	1. Nil
1. Prominent	2. Short (0 to 10 mm)
Not prominent	3. Medium (10 to 15 mm)
1 - 1 - (1 - (1	4. Long (15 to 35 m)
	5. Very long (>35 mm)
2. Obtuse	R. Shape of lamina
Angle of leaf tin	1. Absent
	2. Cordiform
2. Obluse	3. Deltoid
Articulation of leaf	4. Oval
	S. Size of lamina
2. rusen	1. Insignificant
Attachment of petiole to branch	2. Small
	3. Medium
.	
	4. Large
Density of spines	5. Very large (equal to the limb)
1. Nil	
2. Low	T. Colour of young shoots
3. Moderate	1. Anthocyanate
	2. Green
	 Sparse Dense Surface of trunk Smooth Rough Colour of leaf surface Light green Green Dark green Colour of underside of leaf in relation to leaf surface Identical Lighter Nerves on leaf surface Prominent Not prominent Angle of leaf tip Acute Obtuse Angle of leaf tip Acute Obtuse Articulation of leaf Present Absent Attachment of petiole to branch Straight Angled

Table 3. The twenty qualitative morphological descriptors

Statistical Analyses

The parameters of genetic structuration were studied using Genepop software for analysis of deviations at panmixia, differentiation between cultivated taxa (study of allele distribution in the species by the exact test of Fisher), and gametic disequilibrium. The descriptive parameters of the diversity—total diversity, diversity between taxa, diversity between individuals, G_{ST} —are those proposed by Nei (1973). The tree representations and PCoA were done on the basis of the Dice matrix of distance for the enzymatic data and the Sokal and Michener matrix of distance for the morphological data. The trees were constructed by the neighbour-joining method with the help of Darwin software (Perrier et al., 1999).

REFERENCES

- Aubert, B. Text of presentation of the 2000 revision. In: *Histoire Naturelle des Orangers*. A. Risso and A. Poiteau, eds., Connaissance et Memoires Europeenne. (In press).
- Barret, H.C. and Rhodes, A.M. 1976. A numerical taxonomic study of affinity relationships in cultivated *Citrus* and its close relatives. *Systematic Botany*, 1: 105-136.
- Bono, R., Fernandez de Cordova, L., and Soler, J. 1982. Arrufatina, Esbal and Guillermina, three Clementine mandarin mutations recently appearing in Spain. Proceedings of the International Society of Citriculture, 1: 94-96.
- Cottin, R., Allent, V., and Jacquemond, C. 1995. Gestion informatique des ressources génétiques: Egid. In: Symposium Méditerranéen sur les Mandarines. San Giuliano, France, INRA, p. 2.
- Durham, R.E., Liou, P.C., Gmitter, R.G., and Moore, G.A. 1992. Linkage map of restriction fragment length polymorphisms and isozymes in *Citrus*. *Theoretical and Applied Genetics*, 84: 39-48.
- Fang D. and Roose M.L. 1996. Fingerprinting citrus cultivars with inter-SSR markers. Proceedings of the International Society of Citriculture. 185-188.
- Fang, D.Q., Federici, C.T., and Roose, M.L. 1998. A high resolution linkage map of the citrus tristeza virus resistance gene in *Poncirus trifoliata* (L.) Raf. *Genetics*, 150: 883-890.

FAO, 1997. Annuaire production: 1996. Rome, FAO.

- Federici, C.T., Fang, D.Q., Scora, R.W., and Roose, M.L. 1998. Phylogenetic relationships within the genus *Citrus* (Rutaceae) and related genera as revealed by RFLP and RAPD analysis. *Theoretical and Applied Genetics*, 96: 812-822.
- Gmitter, F.G., Deng, X.X., and Hearn, C.J. 1992. Cytogenetic mechanism underlying reduced fertility and seedlessness in *Citrus*. In: Vllth International Citrus Congress, pp. 113-116.
- Green R.M., Vardi, A., and Galun, E. 1986. The plastome of *Citrus*: physical map, variation among *Citrus* cultivars and species and comparison with related genera. *Theoretical and Applied Genetics*, 72: 170-177.
- Grosser, J.W., Mourao-Fo, A.A., Gmitter, F.G. JR., Louzada, E.S., Jiang, J., Baergen, K., Quiros, A., Cabasson, C., Schell, J.L., and Chandler, J.L. 1996. Allotetraploid hybrids between *Citrus* and seven related genera produced by somatic hybridization. *Theoretical and Applied Genetics*, 92: 577-582.
- Grosser, J., Ollitrault, P., and Olivares, O. 2000. Somatic hybridization in *Citrus*: an effective tool to facilitate variety improvement. *In Vitro Cell Development Biology-Plants*, 36: 434-449.

- Guerra, M.S. 1993. Cytogenetics of Rutaceae. 5. High chromosomal variability in *Citrus* species revealed by CMA/DAPI staining. *Heredity*, 71: 234-241.
- Handa, T., Ishizawa, Y., and Oogaki, C. 1986. Phylogenetic study of fraction I protein of *Citrus* and its close related genera. *Journal of Genetics*, 61: 15-24.
- Herrero, R., Asins, M.J., Carbonell, E.A., and Navarro, L. 1996. Genetic diversity in the orange subfamily Aurantiodeae. 1. Intraspecies and intragenus genetic variability. *Theoretical and Applied Genetics*, 92: 599-609.
- Herrero, R., Asins, M.J., Pina, J.A., Carbonell, E.A., and Navarro, L., 1997. Genetic diversity in the orange subfamily Aurantiodeae. 2. Genetic relationships among genera and species. *Theoretical and Applied Genetics*, 93: 1327-1 334.
- Hirai, M., Kozaki, I., and Kajiura, I. 1986. Isozyme analysis and phylogenic relationship of *Citrus. Japanese Journal of Breeding*, 36: 377-389.
- Jarrel, D.C., Roose, M.L., Traugh, S.N., and Kupper, R.S. 1992. A genetic map of *Citrus* based on the segregation of isozymes and RFLPs in an intergeneric cross. *Theoretical and Applied Genetics*, 84: 49-56.
- Khan, I.A. and Roose, M.L. 1988. Frequency and characteristics of nucellar and zygotic seedlings in three cultivars of trifoliate orange. *Journal of the American Society for Horticultural Science*, 113: 105-110.
- Krug, C.A. 1943. Chromosome numbers in the subfamily Arantioideae, with special reference in the genus *Citrus. Citrus Botanical Gazette*, 104: 602-611.
- Luro, F., Laigret F., Bove, J.M., and Ollitrault, P. 1994a. Application of RAPD to *Citrus* genetics and taxonomy. In : Vllth International Citrus Congress, pp. 225-228.
- Luro F., Laigret F., Ollitrault, P., and Bove, J.M. 1995. DNA amplified fingerprinting (DAF), an useful tool for determination of genetic origin and diversity analysis in *Citrus. HortScience*, 30: 1063-1067.
- Luro, F., Lorieux, M., Laigret, F., Bove, J.M., and Ollitrault, P. 1994b. Genetic mapping of an intergeneric *Citrus* hybrid using molecular markers. *Fruits*, 49: 404-408.
- Luro, F., Ris, D., and Ollitrault, P. Evaluation of genetic relationships in *Citrus* genus by means of sequence tagged microsatellites. *Acta Horticulturae*. (In press).
- Miranda, M., Ikeda, F., Endo, T., Moriguchi, T., and Omura, M. 1997. Chromosome markers and alterations in mitotic cells from interspecific *Citrus* somatic hybrids analysed by fluorochrome staining. *Plant Cell Reports*, 16: 807-812.

- 216 Genetic Diversity of Cultivated Tropical Plants
- Moore, G.A., Tozlu, I., Weber, C.A., and Guy, C.L. 2000. Mapping quantitative trait loci for salt tolerance and cold tolerance in *Citrus grandis* (L.) Osb. × *Poncirus trifoliata* (L.) Raf. hybrid populations. *Acta Horticulturae*, 535, ISHS, 37-45.
- Nair, P.K.R. and Randhawa, G.S. 1969. Chromosome morphology of the pachytene stage with respect to different *Citrus* types. In: Ist International Citrus Symposium, pp. 215-223.
- Nei, M. 1973. Analysis of gene diversity in subdivided population. Proceedings of the National Academy of Science of the United States of America, 70: 3321-3323.
- Nicolosi, E., Deng, Z.N., Gentile, A., La Malfa, S., Continella, G., and Tribulato, E. 2000. Citrus phylogeny and genetic origin of important species as investigated by molecular markers. *Theoretical and Applied Genetics*, 100: 1155-1166.
- Ollitrault, P., Dambier, D., Luro, F., and Duperray, C. 1994. Nuclear genome size variations in *Citrus. Fruits*, 49: 390-393.
- Ollitrault, P. and Faure, X. 1992. Système de reproduction et organisation de la diversité génétique dans le genre *Citrus*. In: *Complexes D'Espèces, Flux de Génes et Ressources Génétiques des Plantes*. Paris, BRG, pp. 133-151.
- Ollitrault, P., Faure, X. and Normand, F. 1992. Citrus rootstocks characterization with dark and leaf isozymes: application for distinguishing nucellar from zygotic trees. In: Vllth International Citrus Congress, pp. 338-341.
- Ollitrault, P. and Luro, F. 1997. Les agrumes. In: L'Amélioration des Plantes Tropicales. A. Charrier et al., eds., Montpellier, France, CIRAD-Orstom, pp. 13-36.
- Ollitrault, P., Dambier, D., Froelicher, Y., Luro, F., and Cottin, R. 2000. La diversite des agrumes: structuration et exploitation par hybridation somatique. *Comptes rendus de l'Academie d'Agriculture*, 86-88: 197-221.
- Perrier, X., Flori, A., and Bonnot, F. 1999. Les méthodes d'analyse des données. In: Diversité Génétique des Plantes Tropicales Cultivées. P. Hamon et al., eds., Montpellier, France, CIRAD, collection Repéres, pp. 43-76.
- Raghuvanshi, S.S. 1969. Cytological evidence bearing on evolution in *Citrus*. In: Ist International Citrus Symposium, pp. 207-214.
- Scora, R.W. 1975. On the history and origin of citrus. In: Symposium on the Biochemical Systematics, Genetics and Origin of Cultivated Plants. Bulletin of the Torrey Botanical Club, 102: 369-375.
- Scora, R.W. 1988. Biochemistry, taxonomy and evolution of modern cultivated citrus. In: Vlth International Citrus Congress, pp. 277-289.
- Soost, R.K., Williams, T.E., and Torres, A.M. 1980. Identification of nucellar and zygotic seedlings with leaf isozymes. *HortScience*, 15: 728-729.

- Swingle, W.T. and Reece, P.C. 1967. The botany of *Citrus* and its wild relatives. In: *The Citrus Industry*. 1. *History, World Distribution, Botany and Varieties*. W. Reuther et al., eds., Berkeley, University of California Press, pp. 190-430.
- Tanaka, T. 1961. Citrologia: semi centennial commemoration papers on *Citrus* studies. Osaka, Citrologia Supporting Foundation, 114 p.
- Tatum, J.H., Berry, R.E., and Hearn, C.I. 1974. Characterization of citrus cultivars and separation by thin layer chromatography. Proceedings of the Florida State Horticultural Society, 87: 75-81.
- Torres, A.M., Soost, R.K., and Diedenhofen, U. 1978. Leaf isozymes as genetic markers in *Citrus. American Journal of Botany*, 65: 869-881.
- Torres, A.M., Soost, R.K., and Mau-Lastovicka, T. 1982. Citrus isozymes: genetic and distinguishing nucellar from zygotic seedlings. *Journal of Heredity*, 73: 335-339.
- Webber, H.J. 1967. History and development of the citrus industry. In: The Citrus Industry. 1. History, World Distribution, Botany and Varieties. W. Reuther et al., eds., Berkeley, University of California Press, pp. 1-39.