ORIGINAL ARTICLE



SSR-based molecular profiling of 237 persimmon (*Diospyros kaki* Thunb.) germplasms using an *ASTRINGENCY*-linked marker

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Received: 21 December 2017 / Revised: 16 February 2018 / Accepted: 25 February 2018 / Published online: 15 March 2018 © Springer-Verlag GmbH Germany, part of Springer Nature 2018

Abstract

Pollination-constant non-astringent (PCNA) trait is desirable in persimmon production because it confers natural astringency loss in mature persimmon fruit. Expression of the PCNA trait requires six homozygous recessive PCNA (*ast*) alleles at the single *ASTRINGENCY* (*AST*) locus in hexaploid persimmon. When crossing non-PCNA accessions to breed PCNA offspring, knowledge of *ast* and non-PCNA (*AST*) allele dosage in the parental accessions is important, because more PCNA offspring can segregate from a non-PCNA parent with more *ast* and fewer *AST* alleles. Previously, we have demonstrated that a region linked to the *AST* locus has numerous fragment size polymorphisms with varying numbers of simple sequence repeats. Here, we reveal the polymorphisms in this region in a broad collection of persimmon germplasms. Among 237 accessions, we distinguished 21 *AST* and 5 *ast*-linked fragments with different sizes. Based on the number of fragments detected per individual, we identified 21 non-PCNA accessions with three different *ast* alleles; by crossing these with a PCNA parent, we obtain PCNA offspring under autohexaploid inheritance. Furthermore, *AST* and *ast* allelic combination patterns in hexaploid persimmon were shown to be applicable to cultivar identification of non-PCNA accessions. We directly sequenced *ast*-linked fragments from 48 accessions with one-size peak of *ast*-linked fragment and found two distinctive groups of fragments based on single nucleotide polymorphisms. This result suggests that a bottleneck event occurred during *ast* allele development. We conclude that our fragment size profile can be used to accelerate PCNA breeding that uses non-PCNA parents and to study *ast* allele accumulation in persimmon.

Keywords Astringency · Breeding · Fruit tree · Genetic resources · PCNA · Polyploidy

Introduction

The genus *Diospyros* L. consists of 400 species, among which oriental persimmon (*Diospyros kaki* Thunb.) is the most

Noriyuki Onoue and Shozo Kobayashi should be considered co-first authors.

Shozo Kobayashi is retired.

Communicated by C. Chen

Electronic supplementary material The online version of this article (https://doi.org/10.1007/s11295-018-1239-z) contains supplementary material, which is available to authorized users.

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¹ Division of Grape and Persimmon Research, NARO Institute of Fruit Tree and Tea Science (NIFTS), National Agriculture and Food Research Organization (NARO), 301-2 Mitsu, Akitsu, Higashihiroshima, Hiroshima 739-2494, Japan economically important. The origin of oriental persimmon is believed to be China, and it is a popular fruit particularly in countries of East Asia such as China, Korea, and Japan (Yonemori et al. 2000). Recently, persimmon has become popular in many other countries. According to FAO (Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations) statistics, worldwide persimmon production in 2014 was 5,200,000 t in total, with 71.9% from China, 8.3% from Korea, 4.7% from Spain, 4.6% from Japan, and 3.5% from Brazil. Because many persimmon cultivars have strong astringency owing to soluble tannin in the flesh, deastringency treatment such as postharvest treatment with carbon dioxide is frequently used to make the flesh palatable. Depending on the effect of seed formation on the natural astringency loss in flesh at harvest time, persimmon is classified into four types: (1) pollination-constant nonastringent (PCNA), (2) pollination-variant non-astringent (PVNA), (3) pollination-variant astringent (PVA), and (4) pollination-constant astringent (PCA) (Kajiura 1946). PCNA fruit naturally lose astringency at maturity and become edible without deastringency treatment. However, PVNA fruit sometimes retain astringency in the flesh, because loss of astringency in the whole flesh is dependent on seed formation. PVA fruit lose astringency only in a small portion of flesh around the seeds. PCA fruit always retain astringency in the whole flesh irrespective of the number of seeds. In contrast to the non-PCNA (i.e., PVNA, PVA and PCA) types, which can retain astringency at harvest time, PCNA type accessions lack the ability to accumulate large amounts of soluble tannins during fruit development (Yonemori et al. 2000); this natural astringency loss is highly desirable for commercial production. Therefore, breeding superior PCNA cultivars with high eating quality and productivity is a major goal of our breeding program.

The PCNA trait is recessive to the non-PCNA trait and is qualitatively inherited (Ikeda et al. 1985). Expression of the PCNA trait is under the control of a single locus, ASTRINGENCY (AST), and requires the presence of the recessive ast allele at all copies of the AST locus on each of the six corresponding chromosomes (Akagi et al. 2009; Akagi et al. 2010). D. kaki cultivars are hexaploid $(2n = 6 \times = 90)$, with the exception of a few nonaploid $(2n = 9 \times = 135)$ cultivars, such as 'Hiratanenashi' and 'Miyazakitanenashi' (Tamura et al. 1998; Zhuang et al. 1990). AST and ast alleles generally show autohexaploid inheritance, but segregation of these alleles is sometimes slightly distorted from the ratio expected from the autohexaploid inheritance model (Akagi et al. 2012; Kanzaki et al. 2008; Kono et al. 2016; Mitani et al. 2014b). Although it had been previously believed that PCNA trait originated only in Japan, Wang (1982) reported 'Luotian-tianshi', the PCNA cultivar of Chinese origin. Subsequently, other PCNA cultivars, including 'Tianbaogai' (former name, 'Baogai Tian Shi'), were found in the area where 'Luotian-tianshi' was found (Yonemori et al. 2005). The PCNA trait of Chinese origin (C-PCNA) is genetically dominant to the non-PCNA traits, and the locus responsible for the C-PCNA trait is different from the AST locus (Ikegami et al. 2004, 2006).

Owing to the recessive inheritance of the PCNA trait in the hexaploid persimmon, breeders need to mainly cross PCNA accessions to each other to efficiently acquire PCNA offspring. So far, except for bud sports, only 18 local PCNA cultivars that have been found in the central part of Japan are preserved at the Grape and Persimmon Research Station, NIFTS (Yamada et al. 2012), while more than 1000, 900, and 180 cultivars mostly consisting of non-PCNA types have been reported in Japan, China, and Korea, respectively (Agricultural Research Station 1912; Cho and Cho 1965; Wang et al. 1997). In the persimmon breeding program at the National Agriculture and Food Research Organization (NARO) in Japan, repeated crosses within a small PCNA gene pool resulted in inbreeding depression, represented by reduced fruit weigh, vigor, and productivity (Yamada 1993; Yamada et al. 1994). To avoid inbreeding, we have incorporated non-PCNA cultivars, whose genetic background differs from that of PCNA cultivars (Guo and Luo 2011; Kanzaki et al. 2000; Naval et al. 2010; Parfitt et al. 2015), into the breeding program.

Our strategy is based on a pseudo-backcross (Bouquet 1986; Ruengphayak et al. 2015), in which F₁ non-PCNA offspring from a cross between non-PCNA (Aaaaaa, AAaaaa, AAAaaa, AAAAaa, AAAAAa, or AAAAAA) and PCNA (aaaaaa) cultivars are backcrossed to a PCNA cultivar. However, this strategy still yields only a limited proportion of PCNA offspring in the BC₁ generation: the expected proportion of PCNA offspring from a non-PCNA F₁ parent with Aaaaaa, AAaaaa, or AAAaaa is 50, 20, or 5%, respectively, under an autohexaploid model with non-chromatid segregation (Allard 1960). To avoid unnecessary cultivation of non-PCNA offspring in the selection field, we apply DNA markerassisted selection (MAS) for the PCNA trait. Kanzaki et al. (2010) identified the sequence of an AST- and ast-linked region by screening a genomic library with a 5R probe that showed restriction fragment length polymorphisms (RFLPs) between PCNA and non-PCNA cultivars. Finally, they produced sequence-characterized amplified region (SCAR) markers for this region (termed the '5R adjacent region'). The reliability of a SCAR marker that amplifies the 5R adjacent region has been demonstrated in practical MAS for offspring of 'Taiten' × 'Kanshu'. Discrepancy between phenotypic evaluation by a sensory test and estimated genotype was found in only 3 out of 251 offspring (Mitani et al. 2014a), confirming tight linkage of the region to the AST locus. Therefore, we call this region the AST locus-linked region. Multiplex PCR using a set of three primers (AST-F, PCNA-F, and 5R3R) that hybridize to the 5R adjacent region simultaneously amplifies both AST and ast allele-linked DNA (Kanzaki et al. 2010). We have tested more than 5000 individuals by multiplex PCR (Sato and Yamada 2016) and have found this to be a labor-saving and reliable system for MAS. In the pseudo-backcross strategy with MAS, identifying the copy number of AST and ast alleles in non-PCNA parents is particularly important because this critically determines the segregation rate of PCNA offspring. We can obtain PCNA offspring even at the F₁ generation when a non-PCNA parent with a genotype of AAAaaa, AAaaaa, or Aaaaaa is used. In contrast, pseudo-backcross is necessary to obtain PCNA offspring when a non-PCNA parent with the genotype of AAAAaa, AAAAAa, and AAAAAA is used. Therefore, determination of the copy number of AST and ast alleles among a wide range of non-PCNA germplasms would accelerate efficient PCNA breeding.

Akagi et al. (2010) reported a method to directly estimate the copy number of *AST* and *ast* alleles based on quantitative real-time polymerase chain reaction (qPCR) of the *ast* allelelinked region. They estimated quantitative genotypes at the *AST* locus in 63 non-PCNA cultivars/selections, among which 15 cultivars were either AAAaaa, AAaaaa, or Aaaaaa. Detection of one copy difference of ast allele by qPCR, especially for accessions with higher copy number of ast allele, would require high levels of technical skill. This methodological limitation of qPCR resulted in significant calculation errors in measurements for some accessions. Furthermore, the method elaborately uses three genomic regions to standardize quantity of amplified products linked to ast allele. However, inconsistency of the estimated allele dosage among the references was observed for 32% (20/63) of the accessions. This implies that copy number in the genome and/or sequence of the references can be slightly different among the accessions used. Therefore, estimating exact copy number for any persimmon accessions would be technically difficult even by this ingenious method. As another option to estimate allele dosage at the AST locus, we have previously presented a fragment analysis that detects high polymorphisms in fragment size at the AST locus-linked region (Kono et al. 2016), technically less labor-intensive method than qPCR. We found a total of 12 AST allele-linked fragments of various sizes caused mainly by a simple sequence repeat (SSR) in 14 non-PCNA cultivars. The detected number of AST fragments indicated the minimum AST allele copy number, because we could not determine which allele(s) occurred in more than one copy when the number of detected alleles was fewer than six in hexaploid persimmon. Segregation data of the AST allele and/or progeny genotypes would be required to identify the precise copy number of AST alleles in non-PCNA individuals. However, we considered that the high-throughput fragment analysis using a capillary sequencer could be informative enough to find non-PCNA parents with fewer AST and more ast alleles from a wide range of non-PCNA germplasms, because an accession with a highly polymorphic AST locus-linked region would display more alleles.

In addition to allele dosage estimation, the fragment size analysis described above could be applicable to cultivar identification because of high polymorphism at the *AST* locuslinked region (Kono et al. 2016). Various types of DNA markers have been applied to persimmon cultivar identification, e.g., random amplified polymorphic DNA (RAPD; Badenes et al. 2003; Luo et al. 1995; Yamagishi et al. 2005), RFLP (Maki et al. 2001), retrotransposon-based (Du et al. 2009), and SSR (Naval et al. 2010) markers. A marker technology that reveals a high amount of polymorphism with minimum cost is optimal for practical cultivar identification. Fragment size analysis using multiplex PCR (Kanzaki et al. 2010) could potentially be such as system because it can detect various alleles simply by single multiplex PCR and fragment size analysis (Kono et al. 2016).

The objectives of the present study were (1) to determine the sizes of *AST*- and *ast*-allele-linked fragments (hereafter termed *AST* and *ast* fragments) at the *AST* locus-linked region in 237 persimmon accessions of widely varying genetic backgrounds and (2) to test whether *AST* and *ast* fragment size analysis can be applied successfully for cultivar identification. During the fragment analysis, we identified non-PCNA accessions with a single *ast* fragment peak, which enabled us to identify the sequence of each *ast* fragment. Based on the fragment sizes and sequence polymorphisms, we discuss the possible origin of *ast* alleles.

Materials and methods

Plant materials

Supplemental Table S1 shows the 237 *D. kaki* Thunb. accessions used in this study: these comprise 148 non-PCNA, 3 C-PCNA, and 86 PCNA accessions. The sample population comprised 202 local cultivars, 18 crossbred cultivars, and 17 selections. Bud mutants and synonyms were each counted as a separate accession. The origins of the accessions were Brazil (1), China (19), Israel (2), Italy (12), Japan (193), Japan-China (1), Korea (4), New Zealand (2), Spain (1), and Turkey (2). We treated the selection 310-24 (C-PCNA) as a Japan-China hybrid, because its origin is both Japan ('Taishuu'; PCNA) and China ('Luotian-tianshi'; C-PCNA). All plant materials were obtained from the Grape and Persimmon Research Station, NIFTS, Hiroshima, Japan.

DNA extraction

Approximately 1.0-cm² leaves or one to five dormant buds, whose outer scales were peeled by one or two layers (Kono et al. 2018), were frozen in liquid N_2 and stored at – 20 °C until use. Samples were homogenized under liquid N₂, and 500 µL of pre-wash buffer (0.1 M HEPES-NaOH (pH 8.0), 0.1% (w/v) soluble polyvinylpyrrolidone, and 10 mM dithiothreitol) was added and mixed thoroughly by vortexing; dithiothreitol was added to the buffer just before use. After centrifugation at $20,000 \times g$ at 4 °C for 5 min, the supernatants were discarded. Pellets were resuspended in 1 mL of pre-wash buffer and centrifuged at $20,000 \times g$ at 4 °C for 3 min; the process was repeated three times in total. The final pellets were subjected to DNA extraction with a Nucleon Phytopure Plant extraction kit (GE Healthcare UK Ltd., Little Chalfont, UK). DNA concentration was measured by using a Qubit 3.0 fluorometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific Inc., Waltham, MA, USA).

Fragment size analysis

Multiplex PCR of the *AST* locus-linked region was performed with two fluorescent-labeled forward primers HEX-AST-F (5'-GTTGCATCGCATAGCGGGGTTTGAGG-3'), FAM-PCNA-F (5'-CCCCTCAGTGGCAGTGCTGC-3'), and unlabeled reverse primer 5R3R (5'-GAAACACTCATCCG GAGACTTC-3') (Kanzaki et al. 2010). The 10-uL PCR reaction mixture contained 5 µL of 2× Gotaq Master Mix (Promega, Madison, WI, USA), 0.2 µM of the two forward primers and the reverse primer, and 10-20 ng of genomic DNA. The PCR cycling conditions were as follows: 95 °C for 3 min for initial denaturation, followed by 27 cycles of denaturation at 95 °C for 30 s, annealing at 55 °C for 30 s, polymerization at 72 °C for 1 min, and final extension at 72 °C for 10 min. We increased the number of PCR cycles to 31 when amplification was insufficient. Amplified PCR products were separated by using an ABI 3130xl Genetic Analyzer (Thermo Fisher Scientific Inc.). The size of each amplified fragment was calculated based on the GeneScan 500 ROX Dye Size Standard (Thermo Fisher Scientific Inc.) by using the GeneMapper ver. 5.0 software (Thermo Fisher Scientific Inc.).

For additional SSR markers, we first screened 19 markers (Naval et al. 2010) developed by Soriano et al. (2006) and selected six (ssrdk10, 14, 16, 17, 29, and 30) that showed clear peaks with few stutter bands. PCR was performed by using a specific forward primer for each marker with an M13(-21) tail at the 5'-end, the universal FAM-labeled M13(-21) primer (Schuelke 2000), and a specific reverse primer with a pigtail (5'-GTTTCTT-3') added to its 5'-end to reduce nonadenylated products (Brownstein et al. 1996). The 10-µL PCR reaction mixture contained 5 µL of 2× Gotaq Master Mix (Promega), 0.05 µM of the specific forward primer, 0.2 µM of the specific reverse primer and the universal primer, and 5-10 ng of genomic DNA. PCR conditions were as follows: 95 °C for 2 min for initial denaturation, followed by 26 cycles of denaturation at 95 °C for 30 s, annealing at 50 °C for 45 s, polymerization at 72 °C for 45 s, and final extension at 72 °C for 10 min. We increased the number of PCR cycles to 31 when amplification was insufficient. Separation of PCR products and size analysis were performed as described for the multiplex PCR for the AST locus-linked region. PCR amplification and fragment analysis of AST locus-linked and ssrdk markers were carried out at least twice to ensure the reproducibility of the produced bands.

Direct sequencing

Genomic DNA of 48 non-PCNA accessions (45 genotypes) that showed only one-size peak of *ast* fragment and two PCNA accessions of 'Gosho' (a³⁴⁷a³⁴⁹a³⁵⁵) and 'Gosho-Gose' (a³⁴⁹a³⁵⁵) were used. To avoid the production of chimeric fragments from similar template sequences during PCR, which was observed in our previous study on grape (Kobayashi et al. 2001), we did not clone *ast* fragments from accessions with variably-sized *ast* fragments. PCR to generate *ast* fragments was performed using forward primer PCNA-F and reverse primer 5R3R (Kanzaki et al. 2010). The 30-µL PCR reaction mixture contained 1.5 mM MgCl₂, 0.2 mM dNTPs, 0.2 μ M each primer, 1× ExTaq buffer, 0.25 U ExTaq polymerase (Takara, Kyoto, Japan), and 10–20 ng DNA. The PCR cycling conditions were the same as described for multiplex PCR of the *AST*-linked region in the *Fragment size analysis* section. Amplified *ast* fragments were precipitated with ethanol and dissolved in 10 μ L of TE. Aliquots (1 μ L) of purified PCR products were sequenced by using a BigDye terminator v3.1 cycle sequencing kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific Inc.) with either PCNA-F or 5R3R primer. For the direct sequence analysis of the *ast* fragments of 'Gosho' and 'Gosho-Gose', we used a³⁴⁹ (5'-TAAA GCAATGAACCTTTTGG-3')- and a³⁵³ (5'-TAAA

For the direct sequence analysis of *ast* fragments of 'Aizumishirazu', 'Ichidagaki', and 'Zenjimaru', which have both a³⁴⁹ and a³⁵³ alleles, we performed PCR using either a³⁴⁹-specific forward primer, as described above, and reverse primer 5R3R or a³⁵³-specific forward primer, as described above, and reverse primer 5R3R. Amplified fragments were purified and sequenced using a³⁴⁹-specific forward primer, a³⁵³-specific forward primer, or the 5R3R reverse primer. Nucleotide sequences were analyzed by using GENETYX v. 9 software (GENETYX Corp., Tokyo, Japan).

Data analysis

Polymorphism information content (PIC) value is widely used to measure the information content of molecular markers based on the number and frequency distribution of alleles. The PIC value for each marker having *l* alleles was calculated as follows:

PIC =
$$1 - (\sum_{i=1}^{l} P_i^2) - \sum_{i=1}^{l-1} \sum_{j=i+1}^{l} 2P_i^2 P_j^2$$

where P_i and P_j are the population frequencies of the *i*th and *j*th alleles (Botstein et al. 1980). P_i or P_j for the AST marker was calculated as the occurrence of the given allele divided by the sum of occurrences of AST and ast alleles in 184 genotypes.

Results

The *AST* locus-linked region of 237 persimmon accessions (Supplemental Table S1) was analyzed by using the multiplex PCR system. Since our samples may include unknown bud mutants and/or synonyms, we additionally analyzed these accessions with six SSR markers (ssrdk10, 14, 16, 17, 29, and 30; Naval et al. 2010) to uncover unique genotypes and thus avoid complexity of the sample population. Multiplex PCR for the *AST* locus-linked region and uniplex PCR for each of the six ssrdk markers yielded a total of 101 different alleles; the total allele number per individual accession was 19–32

(Table 1). The combination of the AST locus-linked marker and ssrdk markers identified 184 different genotypes (127 non-PCNA, 3 C-PCNA, and 54 PCNA) (Table 1). Accessions sharing identical genotypes at the set of 7 markers were categorized into 21 groups (Table 2). These groups consisted of known bud sports having the same origin and/ or morphologically similar cultivars with different names, most likely synonyms. Of the 12 accessions introduced from Italy, only 'Shogatsu-Italy' and 'Cioccolatino' exhibited unique genotypes, while the others were categorized into either group 3, 4, 8, 12, 16, or 19 (Table 2). The Korean cultivar 'Chung Nam' showed the same genotype as the Japanese cultivar 'Okayamaokugosho' (group 6). 'Flat Fuyu' and 'Fuyu-New Zealand', which were introduced from New Zealand, showed the same genotype as the Japanese cultivars 'Okugosho' (group 15) and 'Fuyu' (group 14), respectively (Table 2). The other non-Japanese accessions, Brazil (1), China (19), Israel (2), Japan-China (1), Korea (3), Spain (1), and Turkey (2), showed unique genotypes among the 237 accessions.

Among the 184 unique genotypes, 21 *AST* fragments (size, 220–254 bp) and 5 *ast* fragments (size, 347–355 bp) were detected by the multiplex PCR system (Tables 3 and 4). Given the tight link between the 5R adjacent region and *AST* locus in previous studies (Mitani et al. 2014a; Kanzaki et al. 2010), we regarded polymorphisms of the amplified fragments as polymorphisms of *AST* and *ast* alleles at the *AST* locus. We detected 12 rare *AST* (A^{220} , A^{230} , A^{232} , A^{234} , A^{236} , A^{238} , A^{242} , A^{244} , A^{248} , A^{250} , A^{252} , and A^{254}) alleles and one rare *ast* (a^{347}) allele (frequency, < 0.02; Naval et al. 2010). At least one rare allele were found in 14 out of 19 Chinese (IDs: 17, 72, 74, 75, 77, 78, 88, 89, 113, 114, 115,

122, 124, 129), 3 out of 4 Korean (IDs: 29, 107, 190), and 1 out of 1 Brazilian accessions (ID: 63) (Table 3; Supplemental Table S1), suggesting uniqueness of Chinese, Korean, and Brazilian accessions among the 237 accessions. Cultivars from Israel, Italy, New Zealand, Spain, and Turkey did not have any rare alleles (Tables 3 and 4).

The total number of different AST and ast alleles per individual genotype was 2-7 with an average of 4.4 (Table 1). Our samples included a few nonaploid cultivars: e.g., 'Miyazakitanenashi' and 'Hiratanenashi' (Tamura et al. 1998; Zhuang et al. 1990). A total of seven different AST and ast alleles were detected in 'Miyazakitanenashi' $(A^{224}A^{231}A^{233}A^{240}a^{349}a^{353}a^{355})$ only, and a total of six different AST and ast alleles were observed for 'Hiratanenashi' $(A^{224}A^{228}A^{231}A^{250}a^{349}a^{353})$, its four known bud sports, and 'Hiratanenashi-Italy' and 'Tone Hiratanenashi' (group 8 in Tables 2 and 3). Among the 182 genotypes with hexaploidity, 31 non-PCNA genotypes showed a total of six AST and ast fragments, suggesting the presence of one copy of each allele in these genotypes (Table 3). The C-PCNA locus differs from the AST locus (Ikegami et al. 2004), and three C-PCNA accessions, 310-24 (Kono et al. 2016), 'Tianbaogai', and 'Luotian-tianshi' (Akagi et al. 2010) had AST alleles (ID: 19, 40, and 72 in Table 3). In this study, we focused on the genotype at the AST locus-linked region, and thus, we treated the three C-PCNA accessions the same as non-PCNA type. Among the 127 genotypes of hexaploid and nonaploid non-PCNA accessions and 3 genotypes of C-PCNA accessions, the number of AST alleles was 1-6 with an average of 3.4 (Table 3). We identified 40, 13, and 6 genotypes having 4, 5, and 6 different AST alleles per individual, respectively. ast alleles were detected not only in PCNA genotypes, but also

 Table 1
 Summary of the AST locus-linked marker and six ssrdk markers and their discrimination ability for 127 non-PCNA, 3 C-PCNA, and 54 PCNA persimmon genotypes

Marker	Total alleles	Rare alleles	Allele number per individual genotype		PIC	Number of nor C-PCNA geno	n-PCNA and types	Number of PCNA genotypes		
			Range	Mean		Discriminated	Non-discriminated	Discriminated	Non-discriminated	
AST ^a and six ssrdk ^b	101	41	19–32	25.4	_	130	0	54	0	
six ssrdk	75	28	15-27	21.0	_	128	2	50	4	
$AST(A, a)^{c}$	26 (21, 5)	13 (12, 1)	2–7	4.4	0.90	113	17	5	49	
ssrdk10	15	7	2–6	3.8	0.84	38	92	9	45	
ssrdk14	12	3	2–6	3.9	0.85	55	75	9	45	
ssrdk16	12	2	1–6	4.0	0.86	62	68	14	40	
ssrdk17	9	2	1–5	3.2	0.79	21	109	0	54	
ssrdk29	7	3	1–5	2.5	0.70	11	119	0	54	
ssrdk30	20	11	1–6	3.6	0.86	59	71	5	49	

^aAST locus-linked marker

^b Naval et al. (2010)

^c The number for specific alleles (A and a) is in parentheses

 Table 2
 Cultivars with identical genotypes in the AST locus-linked marker and all six ssrdk markers

Group ^a	Name ^b
1	Akagaki (J), Tohachi (J)
2	Akanihon (J), Fuji-Yawatahama (J), Koshuhyakume (J)
3	Amahyakume (J), Kaki Tipo (I)
4	Brazzale (I), Moro (I), Rispoli (I), Zenjimaru (J)
5	Chokenji (J), Kubo (J)
6	Chung Nam (K), Okayamaokugosho (J)
7	Edoichi (J), Kurokuma (J)
8	Hiratanenashi (J), Hiratanenashi-Italy (I), Nakataniwase (J), Spur Hiratanenashi (J), Sugitawase (J), Tone Hiratanenashi (I), Tonewase (J)
9	Hiroshimashimofuri (J), Tenryubo (J)
10	Horaigaki (J), Kikuhira (J)
11	Kubogataobishi (J), Shoujyou (J)
12	Mizushimagosho-Italy (I), Shogatsu (J)
13	Yamatogaki (J), Yamatohyakume (J)
14	Aichiwasefuyu (J), Benisakigake (J), Fuyu-edagawari (J), Fuyu-New Zealand (N), Fuyu-supur type (J), Fuyu-Yamagata (J), Matsumotowasefuyu (J), Matsumotowasefuyu edagawari-Fukui (J), Matsumotowasefuyu edagawari-Wakayama (J), Nishiura (J), Sunami (J), Tanbawasefuyu (J), Fuyu (J)
15	Flat Fuyu (N), Kodagosho (J), Okugosho (J)
16	Fukugosho (J), Giant Fuyu (I), Mikado (J)
17	Fukurogosho (J), Hazegosho (J), Zennosuke (J)
18	Gosho-Fukushima (J), Gosho-Gose (J), Izushikogosho (J), Kaibaragosho (J)
19	Ichikikeijiro (J), Ichikikeijiro-Italy (I), Jiro (J), Jiro-c (I), Jiro-male (J), Maekawajiro (J), Taikakeijiro-e (J), Wakasugikei Jiro (J), Yaizuwasejiro (J)
20	Isahaya (J), Manmosu (J), Mushirodagosho (J)
21	Izushiogosho (J), Ogosho (J)

^a Groups 1-13 are non-PCNA, and 14-21 are PCNA

^b Origins of accessions are marked with (I) for Italy, (J) for Japan, (K) for Korea, and (N) for New Zealand

in a wide range of non-PCNA genotypes. Of the 127 non-PCNA and 3 C-PCNA genotypes, 109 had at least one *ast* allele (Table 3), which is consistent with the prevalence of *ast* alleles in the non-PCNA population studied in Akagi et al. (2010). We identified 19 genotypes composed of 21 accessions (IDs: 2–4, 19–28, 67–71, 111, 190, 203) with 3 different *ast* alleles per individual. Because *ast* alleles were less polymorphic than *AST* alleles, the detected number of *ast* alleles per individual was less than that for the *AST* allele: the number of *ast* alleles in non-PCNA accessions was 0–3 with an average of 1.5 (Table 3).

The *AST* locus-linked marker in this study showed a PIC value of 0.90 (Table 1), which is considered highly informative according to the criteria of Botstein et al. (1980) (highly informative, PIC > 0.5; moderately informative, 0.25 < PIC < 0.5; and relatively uninformative, PIC < 0.25), suggesting that multiplex PCR of the *AST* locus-linked region could be used for cultivar identification. Of the 127 non-PCNA and 3 C-PCNA genotypes, 113 showed a unique *AST* and *ast* allele pattern, whereas only 5 out of 54 PCNA genotypes showed a unique *ast* allele pattern (Table 1). Table 1 shows the discrimination ability of the *AST* locus-linked marker compared

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with six ssrdk markers developed by Soriano et al. (2006). A total of 75 alleles were detected by the six ssrdk markers. Single ssrdk markers had 9 to 20 alleles, including 2 to 11 rare alleles. Observed allele number per individual for each ssrdk marker was 1-5, 1-6, or 2-6 with an average of 2.5 to 4.0. PIC values ranged from 0.70 to 0.86. As a result, a unique genotype based on a single ssrdk marker was found for only 11 to 62 out of 127 non-PCNA and 3 C-PCNA genotypes and 0 to 14 out of 54 PCNA genotypes (Table 1). The set of six ssrdk markers discriminated all genotypes except for two non-PCNA and four PCNA genotypes that could be discriminated by the AST locus-linked marker (Table 1): 'Tamopan' $(A^{224}A^{226}A^{229}A^{236}a^{349})$ had A^{236} , whereas 'Mopanshi' (A²²⁴A²²⁶A²²⁹A²³⁸a³⁴⁹) had A²³⁸ (Table 3); 'Misatogosho' (a³⁴⁷a³⁴⁹a³⁵⁵) did not have a³⁵³, which was present in 'Fukurogosho', 'Hazegosho', and 'Zennosuke' $(a^{347}a^{349}a^{353}a^{355})$ in group 17; and 'Gosho' $(a^{347}a^{349}a^{355})$ had a³⁴⁷, but this was absent in 'Gosho-Fukushima', 'Gosho-Gose', 'Izushikogosho', and 'Kaibaragosho' $(a^{349}a^{355})$ in group 18 (Table 4).

Analysis of *ast* fragments identified 45 non-PCNA genotypes with only one-size peak of *ast* fragment (22, 2, 19, and 2

Table 3 Detected AST and ast alleles in 127 non-PCNA and 3 C-PCNA persimmon genotypes

					of alleles ^a			Detected alleles ^b						
ID	Name	Total	AST		ast		AST				ast			
1	Yukigaki	3	1		2		224				349	355		
2	Sakushumishirazu	4	1		3		222				349	353	355	
3	Tenryubo	4	1	(3)	3	(3)	224				349	353	355	
4	Egosho	4	1	(1-2)	3	(4–5)	231				349	351	353	
5	Rojo Brillante ^c	3	2		1		224	228			353			
6	Yotan	3	2		1		224	228			353			
7	Kanzo (Kanzou)	3	2	(3-4)	1	(2–3)	224	231			353			
8	Ichiryo	4	2		2		222	224			351	353		
9	Kosyuhyakume (Kosyu-hyakume)	4	2	(3–4)	2	(2–3)	224	231			349	353		
10	Okozu	4	2		2		224	231			349	353		
11	Orandagosho	4	2		2		224	231			349	353		
12	Nitari	4	2		2		224	231			349	355		
13	Toyoichi	4	2		2		224	231			351	353		
14	Sangokuichi	4	2	(4)	2	(2)	224	244			349	353		
15	Umurbey	4	2		2		226	231			351	353		
16	Goshogaki-Sagae	4	2		2		226	233			349	353		
17	Heixinshi (Hei-xin-shi)	4	2	(5)	2	(1)	226	254			349	353		
18	Hotoku	4	2		2		231	233			353	355		
19	310-24 ^c	5	2		3		220	228			349	351	353	
20	Kunitomi	5	2	(3)	3	(3)	224	226			349	353	355	
21	Yoshidagosho ^c	5	2		3		224	226			349	353	355	
22	Kasuga	5	2		3		224	228			351	353	355	
23	Yoshino	5	2	(1–2)	3	(4–5)	224	231			349	353	355	
24	Taiten ^c	5	2		3		224	240			349	353	355	
25	Shogatsu-Italy	5	2		3		228	229			349	353	355	
26	Aosa	5	2		3		228	231			349	351	353	
27	Daishiro	5	2		3		228	231			349	351	353	
28	Taigetsu ^c	5	2		3		229	240			351	353	355	
29	Qu-jing-shui-shi	3	3		0		224	232	236					
30	Iwasedo	3	3		0		226	228	231					
31	Kagawagoban	4	3		1		222	224	230		349			
32	Konashiba	4	3		1		222	224	231		349			
33	Shirotodamashi	4	3		1		222	224	231		349			
34	Raotianhong	4	3	(5)	1	(1)	222	226	229		351			
35	Oshorogaki	4	3		1		222	228	231		349			
36	Otani	4	3		1		224	225	226		353			
37	Karasumi	4	3		1		224	225	228		349			
38	Amahachiya	4	3		1		224	226	228		353			
39	Chu-tou-shi	4	3		1		224	226	229		349			
40	Tianbaogai	4	3		1		224	228	229		349			
41	Shinhachiya	4	3		1		224	228	240		353			
42	Bongaki B	4	3		1		224	228	250		349			
43	Emon	4	3	(5)	1	(1)	224	231	240		349			
44	Mixian niuxinshi	4	3		1		226	228	229		349			
45	Atago-Ehime (Atago)	4	3	(4)	1	(2)	226	228	231		349			
46	Moriya	4	3		1		226	228	231		349			
47	Kubo	4	3		1		231	233	250		353			

Table 3 (continued)

			No. of alleles ^a			Detected alleles ^b								
ID	Name	Total	AST		ast		AST					ast		
48	Monbei (Monpei)	5	3	(4)	2	(2)	222	224	225			349	355	
49	Obishi	5	3		2		222	224	231			349	353	
50	Yashima	5	3	(4)	2	(2)	222	226	231			351	353	
51	Gionbo	5	3	(3-4)	2	(2–3)	222	226	233			353	355	
52	Otera	5	3		2		224	228	229			349	353	
53	Dojohachiya (Dojo-Hachiya)	5	3	(4)	2	(2)	224	228	229			349	355	
54	Mizutafuyu	5	3		2		224	228	229			353	355	
55	Zenjimaru	5	3	(4)	2	(2)	224	228	240			349	353	
56	Izaemon	5	3		2		224	229	231			349	355	
57	Kurokuma ^c	5	3	(3)	2	(3)	224	229	240			351	353	
58	Hoshoumaru	5	3		2		224	231	233			349	353	
59	Naganogosho	5	3		2		224	231	233			349	355	
60	Nikkotennenkinenbutsu	5	3		2		224	233	250			351	355	
61	Ibogaki	5	3		2		225	226	231			349	355	
62	Mizushima	5	3	(2–3)	2	(3-4)	225	228	231			351	353	
63	Gailey	5	3		2		225	228	250			349	353	
64	Amahyakume ^c	5	3	(3)	2	(3)	226	228	229			351	353	
65	Aburaden	5	3		2		226	244	250			351	353	
66	Shibumyotan	5	3		2		228	231	233			349	353	
67	Ebo	6	3		3		222	225	231			349	351	353
68	Aburatsubo	6	3		3		222	228	229			349	351	353
69	Cioccolatino	6	3		3		224	226	229			349	351	353
70	Tsurunoko	6	3		3		224	228	229			349	351	355
71	Okayamaokugosho	6	3		3		224	229	232			351	353	355
72	Luotian-tianshi (Luo-tian-tian-shi) ^c	4	4	(6)	0	(0)	220	224	226	228				
73	Toyoka	4	4		0		222	224	228	231				
74	Deng-long-shi	4	4		0		222	226	229	236				
75	Fang-shi Shaanxi	4	4		0		224	226	228	248				
76	Oyotsumizo	4	4		0		224	228	233	240				
77	Fang-shi	4	4		0		225	226	230	236				
78	Bo-ai-shui-shi	4	4		0		229	230	234	236				
79	Eboshi	5	4		1		222	226	230	231		353		
80	Tsukiyo	5	4		1		222	226	231	233		353		
81	Amayotsumizo	5	4	(5)	1	(1)	222	228	231	233		349		
82	Yatsudera	5	4		1		222	228	231	250		353		
83	Omidanshi	5	4	(3)	1	(3)	224	225	228	231		353		
84	Shimofuri	5	4		1		224	225	228	231		353		
85	Togosho	5	4		1		224	226	228	231		349		
86	Harbiye	5	4		1		224	226	228	231		353		
87	Triumph	5	4		1		224	226	228	231		353		
88	Tamopan	5	4		1		224	226	229	236		349		
89	Mopanshi	5	4	(5)	1	(1)	224	226	229	238		349		
90	Yamatohyakume	5	4		1		224	228	231	233		349		
91	Koshumaru	5	4		1		224	228	231	250		353		
92	Rendaiji	5	4		1		224	231	233	240		349		
93	Aoso	5	4		1		225	226	233	250		349		
94	Hegurogaki	5	4		1		225	228	231	240		355		

Table 3 (continued)

			No. of alleles ^a			Detected alleles ^b									
ID	Name	Total	AST		ast		AST						ast		
95	Yukineri	5	4		1		226	228	231	233			355		
96	Hacchiuri	5	4		1		226	229	230	231			353		
97	Suzakunishiki	6	4		2		222	228	229	233			351	353	
98	Yokono	6	4	(3–4)	2	(2–3)	222	229	231	233			349	353	
99	Fudegaki	6	4	(3–4)	2	(2–3)	224	225	231	233			351	353	
100	Jinshi	6	4		2		224	226	228	229			349	351	
101	Shoujyou	6	4		2		224	226	228	231			351	353	
102	Beniemon	6	4		2		224	226	231	240			351	353	
103	Beniwase	6	4		2		224	226	231	250			351	353	
104	Ichidagaki	6	4		2		224	228	231	233			349	353	
105	Aizumishirazu ^c	6	4	(3–4)	2	(2–3)	224	228	231	240			349	353	
106	Hiratanenashi	6	4		2		224	228	231	250			349	353	
107	Cheong-do Si (Chung-do Si) ^c	6	4		2		224	229	231	244			349	355	
108	Yotsumizo ^c	6	4		2		224	231	233	240			349	353	
109	Gofu	6	4		2		225	228	229	231			349	353	
110	Inasa	6	4		2		228	230	240	244			353	355	
111	Miyazakitanenashi	7	4		3		224	231	233	240			349	353	355
112	Hagakushi	5	5	(6)	0	(0)	222	229	231	233	234				
113	Gao-jiao-shi	5	5		0		224	225	226	228	236				
114	Zhai-jia-hong	5	5		0		224	226	228	229	236				
115	Anxi youshi	5	5		0		224	226	228	231	250				
116	Kurogaki	5	5		0		226	228	231	248	252				
117	Shogatsu (Shougatsu) ^c	5	5	(6)	0	(0)	228	229	231	233	240				
118	Dejima	6	5		1		222	224	225	228	231		353		
119	Saijo (Saijyo) ^c	6	5	(5)	1	(1)	222	224	226	231	233		349		
120	Saefuji	6	5		1		224	225	226	228	231		353		
121	Nishimurawase ^c	6	5	(5)	1	(1)	224	225	226	228	240		349		
122	Huo-shi	6	5		1		226	229	231	234	254		353		
123	Kikuhira	6	5		1		228	229	231	232	233		349		
124	Gong-cheng-shui-shi	6	5		1		228	230	231	242	250		351		
125	Inayama	6	6		0		222	224	225	226	228	231			
126	Akagaki ^c	6	6	(6)	0	(0)	222	224	225	226	240	250			
127	Kyara	6	6		0		222	224	226	231	232	233			
128	Mikatanigosho	6	6	(6)	0	(0)	222	224	228	229	231	240			
129	Kakiyamagaki	6	6		0		222	228	229	240	242	250			
130	Sa Kok-Si	6	6		0		224	228	229	231	233	240			
	Range	3–7	1–6		0–3		220-2	254					349-3	355	
	Mean	4.9	3.4		1.5										

^a Allele copy number estimated from qPCR is shown in parentheses (Akagi et al. 2010)

^b The numbers mean called fragment sizes

^c Detected alleles are also presented in Kono et al. (2016)

genotypes for a^{349} , a^{351} , a^{353} , and a^{355} , respectively) (Tables 3 and 5). To gain insight into the *ast* allele, we directly sequenced the amplified *ast* fragments of the 48 accessions with these genotypes. We found that differences in the sizes of the

ast fragments were caused by different numbers of ATdinucleotide SSRs beginning at the 259th nucleotide of the fragment (Fig. 1), which corresponds to the region that was previously reported to cause allele size polymorphisms at *AST* **Table 4** Detected *ast* alleles in 54PCNA persimmon genotypes

ID	Name	No. of <i>ast</i> allele ^a	Detected	ast alleles ^b		
131	Okitsu-21	2	349	353		
132	Gosho-gose	2	349	355		
133	Kishuu	2	349	355		
134	F-2	2	353	355		
135	Gosho	3	347	349	355	
136	Misatogosho	3	347	349	355	
137	Akitsu-19	3	349	351	353	
138	Akitsu-23	3	349	351	353	
139	Kinshuu	3	349	351	353	
140	IIiG-16	3	349	351	355	
141	109–27	3	349	353	355	
142	Fujiwaragosho	3	349	353	355	
143	Fuyu-Israel	3	349	353	355	
144	Ikutomi	3	349	353	355	
145	Izu	3	349	353	355	
146	Jiro ^c	3	349	353	355	
147	Kazusa	3	349	353	355	
148	Midai	3	349	353	355	
149	Mikado	3	349	353	355	
150	Mizugosho	3	349	353	355	
151	Mushirodagosho	3	349	353	355	
152	Ogosho	3	349	353	355	
153	Okitsu-1	3	349	353	355	
154	Okitsu-17 (V-13) ^c	3	349	353	355	
155	Okitsu-22	3	349	353	355	
156	Okugosho	3	349	353	355	
157	Sagiyamagosho	3	349	353	355	
158	Soushuu	3	349	353	355	
159	Suruga	3	349	353	355	
160	Tenjingosho	3	349	353	355	
161	Tokudagosho	3	349	353	355	
162	Yamatogosho	3	349	353	355	
163	Okitsu-25	3	351	353	355	
164	Fukurogosho	4	347	349	353	355
165	Shinshuu	4	347	349	353	355
166	18-4	4	349	351	353	355
167	Akitsu-5	4	349	351	353	355
168	Benigosho	4	349	351	353	355
169	Fuyu ^c	4	349	351	353	355
170	Hanagosho	4	349	351	353	355
171	Kanshu ^c	4	349	351	353	355
172	Okitsu-15	4	349	351	353	355
173	Okitsu-16	4	349	351	353	355
174	Okitsu-2	4	349	351	353	355
175	Reigyoku	4	349	351	353	355
176	Taiga	4	349	351	353	355
177	Taiho	4	349	351	353	355
178	Taishuu ^c	4	349	351	353	355
179	Tanrei	4	349	351	353	355

Table 4 (continued)

ID	Name	No. of <i>ast</i> allele ^a	Detecte	Detected ast alleles ^b					
180	Tokyogosho	4	349	351	353	355			
181	Yoshimotogosho	4	349	351	353	355			
182	Youhou	4	349	351	353	355			
183	Yuubeni	4	349	351	353	355			
184	Okitsu-20	5	347	349	351	353	355		
	Range	2–5	347-35	5					
	Mean	3.3							

^aAST allele was not detected

^b The numbers mean called fragment sizes

^c Detected alleles are also presented in Kono et al. (2016)

fragments (Kono et al. 2016). The sequences of all a³⁴⁹ fragments from 19 Japanese and 5 Chinese accessions were identical (Table 5). Interestingly, the a³⁵³ fragment contained several single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs), resulting in four types of a^{353} (a^{353-1} , a^{353-2a} , a^{353-2b} , and a^{353-2c} ; Fig. 1). The allele a³⁵³⁻¹ was found in six Japanese, one Turkish, one Israeli, and one Chinese accession (Table 5). The alleles a^{353-} ^{2a}, a^{353-2b}, and a^{353-2c} were found in eight, four, and one accessions, respectively, all of which were Japanese (Table 5). Sequences of the a³⁵¹ fragment from two Chinese accessions, 'Raotianhong' $(A^{222}A^{226}A^{229}a^{351})$ and 'Gong-cheng-shui-shi' $(A^{228}A^{230}A^{231}A^{242}A^{250}a^{351})$, were identical, and sequences of the a³⁵⁵ fragment from two Japanese accessions, 'Hegurogaki' $(A^{225}A^{228}A^{231}A^{240}a^{355})$ and 'Yukineri' $(A^{226}A^{228}A^{231}A^{233}a^{355})$, were identical (Table 5). The sequence difference between a^{353-2a} and a^{351} , and between a^{353-2b} and a³⁵⁵ fragments, was one AT repeat of the SSR (Figs. 1 and 2). Fragments a³⁵¹, a³⁵³⁻¹, a^{353-2a}, a^{353-2b}, a^{353-2b} ^{2c}, and a³⁵⁵ (a³⁵³ group) were more similar to each other than to a^{349} , which differs from the a^{353} group at > 10 SNPs (Fig. 2). Consequently, the above seven *ast* alleles were categorized into two groups based on their sequence similarity to a³⁴⁹ (Fig. 2).

Sequences of the a^{353} fragments of 'Amahachiya' ($A^{224}A^{226}A^{228}a^{353}$), 'Omidanshi' ($A^{224}A^{225}A^{228}A^{231}a^{353}$), and 'Shimofuri' ($A^{224}A^{225}A^{228}A^{231}a^{353}$) were consistent with a^{353-2a} and a^{353-2b} except for the 212th nucleotide, where sequence chromatograms showed heterozygous C/T (Fig. 3a). Since the difference between a^{353-2a} and a^{353-2b} is one SNP (C or T) at this position (Fig. 1), these alleles can be notated as 'Amahachiya' ($A^{224}A^{226}A^{228}a^{353-2a}a^{353-2b}$), 'Omidanshi' ($A^{224}A^{225}A^{228}A^{231}a^{353-2a}a^{353-2b}$), and 'Shimofuri' ($A^{224}A^{225}A^{228}A^{231}a^{353-2a}a^{353-2b}$), and 'Shimofuri' ($A^{224}A^{225}A^{228}A^{231}a^{353-2a}a^{353-2b}$) (Table 5). The a^{353} fragment of 'Otani' ($A^{224}A^{225}A^{226}a^{353}$) was consistent with a^{353-2a} except for the 101th nucleotide, where sequence chromatograms again showed heterozygous C/T (Fig. 3b). We denoted the a^{353} fragment with C nucleotide at 101th position as a^{353-2c} ; hence, the allele present in 'Otani' would be $A^{224}A^{225}A^{226}A^{226}$

 $a^{353-2a}a^{353-2c}$ (Table 5). Sequences of the a^{353} fragments of 'Rojo Brillante' ($A^{224}A^{228}a^{353}$) and 'Kanzo' ($A^{224}A^{231}a^{353}$) showed heterozygous chromatograms at several positions (data not shown), indicating the existence of at least two types of a^{353} fragment in these accessions. The sequences of these a^{353} fragments could not be determined because SNPs at multiple sites gave several possible sequence patterns (Table 5).

'Gosho' $(a^{347}a^{349}a^{355})$ and 'Gosho-Gose' $(a^{349}a^{355})$ (and others in group 18) shared the same alleles for all six ssrdk markers, but not the AST locus-linked marker (Table 4); furthermore, the morphological traits of 'Gosho' were very similar to those of the accessions in group 18 (data not shown). Therefore, 'Gosho' could be derived from one of the accessions in group 18 if a mutation of either a³⁴⁹ or a³⁵⁵ gave rise to a^{347} . To determine the origin of the a^{347} allele, we directly sequenced ast fragments amplified with PCNA-F and 5R3R by using either an a^{349} - or a^{353} -specific sequence primer; these primers, respectively, harbor an a^{349} - or a^{353} -group-specific SNP at their 3'-end (G for a^{349} or T for a^{353} group at 47th nucleotide; Fig. 1). The sequence chromatogram for 'Gosho' with the a³⁴⁹-specific primer showed heterozygosity from the 275th nucleotide onward, while that with the a³⁵³-specific primer showed homozygosity in this region (Fig. 3c). This result is consistent with the situation where the a³⁴⁹-specific primer yields the sequences of both the a³⁴⁹ fragment and a related fragment with an AT dinucleotide deletion in the AT repeat region. Chromatograms for 'Gosho-Gose' sequenced with either the a³⁴⁹-or a³⁵³-specific primer showed homozygosity. These results clearly indicate that a³⁴⁷ originated from a³⁴⁹ (Fig. 2).

Fragment analysis revealed that the set of *ast* alleles in the local non-PCNA cultivars having known ancient origin contained either a^{349} or a^{353} or both: 'Aizumishirazu' (originated in the 1300s; $A^{224}A^{228}A^{231}A^{240}a^{349}a^{353}$) 'Ichidagaki' (originated a round 600 years a go; $A^{224}A^{228}A^{231}A^{233}a^{349}a^{353}$), 'Saijo' (originated in 1239; $A^{222}A^{224}A^{226}A^{231}A^{233}a^{349}$), and 'Zenjimaru' (originated in 1214; $A^{224}A^{228}A^{240}a^{349}a^{353}$) (Yamada 1996a, b, c, d)

Table 5 Summary of direct sequence analysis of ast fragments for 48 non-PCNA accessions with one *ast* fragment peak and 3 non-PCNA local cultivars having ancient origin with two ast fragment peaks

ID	Name ^a	ast allele type	ID	Name	ast allele	ast allele type		
31	Kagawagoban (J)	349	6	Yotan (J)	353-1			
32	Konashiba (J)	349	41	Shinhachiya (J)	353-1			
33	Shirotodamashi (J)	349	79	Eboshi (J)	353-1			
35	Oshorogaki (J)	349	80	Tsukiyo (J)	353-1			
37	Karasumi (J)	349	82	Yatsudera (J)	353-1			
39	Chu-tou-shi (C)	349	86	Harbiye (T)	353-1			
40	Tianbaogai (C)	349	87	Triumph (Is)	353-1			
42	Bongaki B (J)	349	91	Koshumaru (J)	353-1			
43	Emon (J)	349	122	Huo-shi (C)	353-1			
44	Mixian niuxinshi (C)	349	36	Otani (J)	353-2a	353-2c		
45	Atago-Ehime (Atago) (J)	349	38	Amahachiya (J)	353-2a	353-2b		
46	Moriya (J)	349	47	Kubo (J) ^b	353-2a			
81	Amayotsumizo (J)	349	83	Omidanshi (J)	353-2a	353-2b		
85	Togosho (J)	349	84	Shimofuri (J)	353-2a	353-2b		
88	Tamopan (C)	349	96	Hacchiuri (J)	353-2a			
89	Mopanshi (C)	349	120	Saefuji (J)	353-2a			
90	Yamatohyakume (J) ^b	349	189	Chokenji (J) ^b	353-2a			
92	Rendaiji (J)	349	118	Dejima (J)	353-2b			
93	Aoso (J)	349						
119	Saijo (J)	349	94	Hegurogaki (J)	355			
121	Nishimurawase (J)	349	95	Yukineri (J)	355			
123	Kikuhira (J) ^b	349						
204	Horaigaki (J) ^b	349	5	Rojo Brillante (J)	353-?	353-?		
236	Yamatogaki (J) ^b	349	7	Kanzo (Kanzou) (J)	353-?	353-?		
34	Raotianhong (C)	351	55	Zenjimaru (J) ^c	349	353-1		
124	Gong-cheng-shui-shi (C)	351	104	Ichidagaki (J) ^c	349	353-1		
			105	Aizumishirazu $(J)^{c}$	349	353-2a		

^a Origins of accessions are marked with (C) for China, (Is) for Israel, (J) for Japan, and (T) for Turkey

^b 'Yamatohyakume' and 'Yamatogaki' (group 13), 'Kikuhira' and 'Horaigaki' (group 10), and 'Kubo' and 'Chokenji' (group 5) are possible synonyms (Table 2)

^c ast fragment was partly sequenced from 28th nucleotide to the 3'-end

(Table 3). We therefore reasoned that revealing the sequences of the a³⁴⁹ fragment of 'Saijo' and the a³⁴⁹ and a³⁵³ fragments of the other three ancient cultivars may shed light on the development of ast alleles in Japan. Assuming that the a³⁴⁹ and a³⁵³ fragments of 'Aizumishirazu', 'Ichidagaki', and 'Zenjimaru' have a³⁴⁹- and a³⁵³-specific SNPs at the 47th nucleotide, respectively (Fig. 1), we conducted PCR with two primer combinations for each cultivar: a³⁴⁹-specific forward and 5R3R reverse primers and a³⁵³-specific forward and 5R3R reverse primers. The size of the PCR products corresponded to that of the region between the specific forward primers and the 5R3R reverse primer (data not shown), supporting the presence of both a³⁴⁹ and a³⁵³-group fragments. Direct sequencing analysis revealed that the a³⁴⁹ fragments of the three cultivars were the same as the corresponding regions of the a³⁴⁹ fragment of the 24 accessions in Table 5. The sequences of the a³⁵³ fragments derived from 'Ichidagaki' and 'Zenjimaru' were the same as that of the corresponding region of a³⁵³⁻¹, and those of 'Aizumishirazu' were the same as that of the corresponding region of a^{353-2a} (Table 5).

Discussion

Information on the AST and ast allele dosage in non-PCNA accessions is important for efficient breeding of PCNA progenies from non-PCNA parents, because parents with fewer AST and more ast alleles have a higher chance of producing PCNA offspring. By conducting high-throughput fragment analysis of the AST locus-linked marker in 237 persimmon accessions using capillary sequencer, we identified a total of 21 AST and 5 ast fragments of different sizes. The number of different-sized fragments indicates the minimum copy number of AST and/or ast alleles. We identified 21 non-PCNA accessions (19 genotypes) with 3 different-sized ast fragments per

Fig. 1 Schematic representation of the AST- and ast-allele-linked regions isolated from genomic libraries of 'Nishimurawase' and 'Jiro', respectively (Kanzaki et al. 2010), and multiple nucleotide sequence alignment of seven ast fragments amplified with PCNA-F and 5R3R primers. Black boxes indicate the 5R probe that was used for library screening. The gray box indicates a large insertion named Indel-3 in the ast allele-linked region. Arrows indicate the positions of primers used for the multiplex PCR. Numbers indicate the positions from the 5'end of the 5R region. Our fragment analysis detected AST allelelinked fragments amplified with AST-F and 5R3R and/or ast allele-linked fragments amplified with PCNA-F and 5R3R. Note that non-proofreading DNA polymerase adds an adenylate to the 3' end of the PCR fragment, resulting in a longer PCR fragment than the actual size of the amplified region. Because the mobility of the labeled singlestranded fragments depends on several factors (i.e., length, sequence, running conditions), size inconsistency between sequencing and fragment analysis can occur (Pasqualotto et al. 2007). For simplicity, we used "called" sizes in this study

		AST-F (-46 <u>5)</u> +1	
AS	ST-F ((-1394) PCNA-F (-593) AST-linked reg	lion
		Indel-3 5R ast-linked region	on
		5R3R (-241)	
a349	1	CCCCTCAGTGGCAGTGCTGCAACCTTTTAAAGCAATGAACCTTTTGGGCAAGGCTGGCT	60
a351	1		60
a353-1	1	T	60
a353-2a	1		60
a353-2D	1		60
a355-20	1	А т ъ	60
1999	-	······	00
a349	61	TCGTTATAGTTTTGAGGCTCCCATCTCAGTGATATTGCAGCAGCTCCCTAAAGTAGTGAA	120
a351	61	$C\ldots\ldots\ldots C\ldots\ldots G\ldots\ldots T\ldots\ldots C\ldots\ldots$	120
a353-1	61	CGC	120
a353-2a	61	CTC	120
a353-2b	61	СТС	120
a353-2c	61	CG	120
4333	01	CG	120
a349	121	GCTTCAAGGCTGGTTGTTGCTGTAATTTTAGAGCTCTCCTTTTTTGGGGGGCCCTAGACAT	180
a351	121	GCC	180
a353-1	121	CCCC	180
a353-2a	121	CCCC	180
a353-2b	121	GC	180
a353-2c	121	GC	180
a355	121	GC.	180
a349	181	${\tt GGGCCTTACTGGCCTATGCCTTAAGCCGGCCCTGATTGCATATTGAGGTTAATAAATA$	240
a351	181	A	240
a353-1	181	A	240
a353-2a	181		240
a353-2D	101		240
a355-20	191	λ π	240
a555	101	······································	240
a349	241	CATGTATATATATATGTATATATATATATATATATAT	294
a351	241	$\ldots \ldots G \ldots \ldots G \ldots \ldots \mathtt{A} \mathtt{T} \ldots \ldots \ldots G \ldots \ldots G \ldots $	296
a353-1	241	GG	298
a353-2a	241	GGATATGG.	298
a353-2b	241	GG	298
a353-2c	241	G	298
a355	241	G	300
a349	295	GTATGCAAAGCATGAGGGGGCATTGTTGGAAAGAAGTCTCCGGATGAGTGTTTC	347
a351	297		349
a353-1	299		351
a353-2a	299		351
a353-2b	299	••••••	351
a353-2C	299		351
a	201		222

individual; these included 17 local non-PCNA cultivars (IDs: 2–4, 20–23, 25–27, 67–71, 190, 203), 3 F_1 crossbred cultivars/selection (IDs: 19, 24, and 28) from PCNA × non-PCNA crosses, and 1 nonaploid seedless cultivar (ID: 111). Compared with other non-PCNA cultivars, these 17 local

cultivars have great potential for use as parents in our pseudo-backcross strategy, because crosses between any of these cultivars and a PCNA cultivar would produce non-PCNA progenies with fewer *AST* and more *ast* alleles and even PCNA progenies at the F_1 generation. Among these 17



Fig. 2 Diagram of the relationship between *ast* alleles. Sequence differences between *ast* allele-linked fragments connected by double-headed arrows are indicated. Relationship between a^{347} and a^{349} is

indicated by a gray double-headed arrow because the complete sequence of the a^{347} fragment was not obtained

Fig. 3 Sequencing chromatograms of ast allelelinked fragments. Black arrows indicate the locations of heterozygous nucleotides. a 'Amahachiya', 'Omidanshi', and 'Shimofuri' show heterozygosity at the 212th nucleotide of a^{353} whereas 'Kubo' and 'Dejima' show homozygosity. b 'Otani' shows heterozygosity at the 101th nucleotide of a^{353} , whereas 'Kubo' shows homozygosity. c Sequencing of 'Gosho' and 'Gosho-Gose' with a³⁴⁹- and a³⁵³specific primers. Note that a³⁴⁹and a³⁵³-specific primer harbors an a³⁴⁹- and a³⁵³-group-specific SNP at its 3'-end. In 'Gosho', sequencing with an a³⁴⁹ specific primer shows heterozygosity beginning from the 275th nucleotide. The other three chromatograms show homozygosity in this region



local cultivars, 'Aosa', 'Chung Nam', 'Hiroshimashimofuri', 'Sakushumishirazu', 'Shogatsu-Italy', 'Okayamaokugosho', 'Tenryubo', and 'Yoshidagosho' bear relatively large fruit (around 300 g) with fewer appearance defects on fruit skin and thus would be primary candidates for parents in the pseudo-backcross strategy. Furthermore, according to AFLP (amplified fragment length polymorphism) analysis, 'Hiroshimashimofuri', 'Sakushumishirazu', and 'Tenryubo' have a different genetic background to that of PCNA cultivars (Parfitt et al. 2015), and so their use would avoid inbreeding depression. On the other hand, a total of 59 non-PCNA genotypes with four or more different AST alleles were identified. If one of these accessions were to be used in the initial non- $PCNA \times PNCA$ cross in the pseudo-backcross strategy, the breeder would need to choose F1 non-PCNA individuals with fewer AST and more ast alleles to backcross to the PCNA parent to efficiently produce PCNA offspring at the BC1 generation.

The minimum numbers of AST and ast alleles determined here were in good accordance with the allele numbers estimated in 63 non-PCNA accessions by qPCR analysis of an ast allele-linked marker (Akagi et al. 2010); of these 63 accessions, 34 were also included in the current study. The numbers of AST and ast allele fragments were equivalent to or smaller than the estimated number of the corresponding alleles in Akagi et al. (2010) with two exceptions: 'Heixinshi' (AAAAAa in Akagi et al. 2010; $A^{226}A^{254}a^{349}a^{353}$ in current study) and 'Omidanshi' (AAAaaa in Akagi et al. 2010; A²²⁴A²²⁵A²²⁸A²³¹a³⁵³ in current study). A possible explanation for this inconsistency is that a one-ast-allele difference could occur in the quantitative genotyping owing to methodological limitation and depending on the reference site used (Akagi et al. 2010). One of the possible genotypes for 'Heixinshi' and 'Omidanshi' deduced from our fragment analysis is AAAAaa, which is one ast allele more, and one ast allele less, respectively, than the genotypes determined for these cultivars by Akagi et al. 2010. Since we identified a^{353-2a} and a^{353-2b} fragments in 'Omidanshi' in the sequence analysis, the genotype of 'Omidanshi' would be A²²⁴A²²⁵A²²⁸A²³¹a^{353-2a}a^{353-2b}

The AST and ast allele data obtained by the sequencerbased fragment analysis is limited in that it represents minimum copy number rather than actual allelic copy number. Excluding the 2 genotypes of 8 nonaploid accessions, 31 genotypes with a total of 6 different AST and ast alleles were assumed to have one copy of each allele, because D. kaki is generally hexaploid. However, for the other 151 genotypes, which showed fewer than six different-sized fragments, the method could not reveal which alleles were duplicated. One solution to this problem is to examine the segregation of the alleles in the F_1 generation of a non-PCNA of interest \times PCNA cross. We previously successfully estimated the copy number of the AST allele of six non-PCNA parents by assessing segregation of each AST allele and F₁ progeny genotypes in the non-PCNA \times PCNA F₁ population (Kono et al. 2016). A different approach is necessary to determine ast allele copy number because the presence of the same ast alleles in both non-PCNA and PCNA parents makes it difficult to deduce copy number and inheritance of the ast allele in the F₁ generation. Crossing PCNA or non-PCNA cultivars of interest with a non-PCNA parent that has no ast alleles would be one solution; here, we successfully identified 23 non-PCNA accessions (21 genotypes) that have no ast alleles. In the same way as for the AST allele, one could estimate ast allele copy number and inheritance in a parent of interest by assessing segregation of each ast allele and/or progeny genotype.

Our results indicate that fragment analysis with the AST locus-linked marker would be applicable for cultivar identification of non-PCNA accessions. The AST locus-linked marker discriminated 87% (113/130) of non-PCNA genotypes, whereas single ssrdk markers discriminated 8% (11/130) to 48% (62/130) of them. PIC value, the number of total and rare alleles, and the mean allele number per individual of the AST locus-linked marker explain its higher discrimination power compared to ssrdk markers. Additionally, the AST locuslinked marker displayed allele size polymorphisms within groups of cultivars with different names but practically indistinguishable morphological traits, most likely synonyms: 'Tamopan' and 'Mopanshi', 'Gosho' and cultivars in group 18, and 'Misatogosho' and cultivars in group 17. It would be possible that a clonal individual derived from the original one was named differently and independently accumulate nucleotide mutations that do not alter phenotype significantly. The fact that the above cultivars shared identical genotypes in the ssrdk markers, but not in the AST locus-linked marker, is consistent with the high discrimination power of the AST locuslinked marker. We previously revealed that polymorphisms in the AST fragment consist of AT repeats, indels, and SNPs (Kono et al. 2016), and here we observed that polymorphisms in the ast fragment consisted of AT repeats and SNPs. These results suggest that the AST locus-linked region has a high mutation rate. In practical germplasm identification, breeders would be interested in verifying the identity of a germplasm with the original cultivar. Partly because persimmons are relatively new to non-Asian countries, germplasm exchange and frequent bud mutation have resulted in mislabeling and confusion of persimmon cultivars (Badenes et al. 2003; Yonemori et al. 2000). Under these conditions, highly polymorphic and cost-effective DNA markers would be an ideal tool for cultivar identification. Distinguishing the size differences of AST and ast alleles by using a capillary sequencer is reproducible and simple. The allele data presented in this study, which covers many persimmon accessions, should work well for screening target accessions. In contrast to the AST allele, the ast allele revealed only five different sizes, suggesting that it is of more recent origin. Low polymorphism of the ast allele limits discrimination of PCNA accessions by the AST locus-linked marker, and thus addition of other markers, such as ssrdk markers, is indispensable. The genotyping data for each of the six ssrdk markers presented in Supplemental Table S2 are readily available.

There are many synonym groups among persimmon genetic resources (Agricultural Research Station 1912; Yonemori et al. 2000). Here, by using the AST locus-linked marker and the six ssrdk markers, we identified several possible synonyms, most of which were suggested as synonyms in previous studies based on morphological traits and isozyme analysis (Fruit Tree Experiment Station of Hiroshima Prefecture 1979; Sugiura et al. 1990; Tao and Sugiura 1987; Tao et al. 1989). Based on AFLP analysis, Yonemori et al. (2008) reported high similarity between Italian accessions 'Brazzale', 'Moro', 'Rispoli', and the Japanese accession 'Zenjimaru' (group 4) and between the Japanese accession 'Amahyakume' and the Italian accession 'Kaki Tipo' (group 3). Since many Italian cultivars are likely to have been imported directly or indirectly (through North America) from Japan in the nineteenth century (Bellini and Giordani 2005), some Italian accessions could be categorized into the same group as the original Japanese accession. We here newly report the following possible synonyms: 'Chung Nam' and 'Okayamaokugosho' (group 6), 'Edoichi' and 'Kurokuma' (group 7), 'Kubogataobishi' and 'Shoujyou' (group 11), 'Mizushimagosho-Italy' and 'Shogatsu' (group 12), 'Yamatogaki' and 'Yamatohyakume' (group 13), and 'Giant Fuyu' and 'Mikado' (group 16). Similar morphological traits within the above groups support the notion that group members are synonyms to each other (data not shown). Except for bud sports, no accession was categorized into a group from which its morphological features differed substantially. All known bud mutants of 'Hiratanenashi', 'Fuyu', and 'Jiro' were categorized into the same group as the original cultivar (groups 8, 14, and 19, respectively).

Our results provide insights into the origin of the *ast* allele. Polymorphisms in *ast* alleles have been reported (Akagi et al. 2010; Akagi et al. 2012; Kono et al. 2016), but there has been no systematic analysis of the distribution and sequences of these alleles among persimmon genetic resources. Here, we found five ast fragments of different sizes among 237 accessions; ast alleles were found not only in Japanese accessions, but also in some accessions from China, Korea (Akagi et al. 2010), and other countries. Excluding accessions with the same allele composition at the AST locus-linked marker and six ssrdk markers as Japanese accessions, Chinese local cultivars in particular had ast alleles; the ast fragment sizes in the Chinese cultivars were either 349, 351, or 353, which is the same as those found in Japanese cultivars. Our finding that the sequences of the a³⁴⁹ allele of 24 accessions (19 Japanese and 5 Chinese) were identical suggests that the a^{349} allele has a common origin in these accessions. The presence of a^{353-1} in 'Huo-shi' (China), 'Harbiye' (Turkey), and 'Triumph' (Israel) as well as in six Japanese accessions also implies that a³⁵³⁻¹ shares the same origin in these accessions.

Depending on sequence similarities of the ast fragment, the eight ast alleles found in this study could be categorized into two groups: the a^{349} group (a^{347} and a^{349}) and the a^{353} group (a^{351} , a^{353-1} , a^{353-2a} , a^{353-2b} , a^{353-2c} , and a^{355}). We did not find any ast alleles that had a moderately similar sequence to both the a^{349} and a^{353} group; therefore, future work to finding the missing link between these two allelic groups is required. In conjunction with the two separated groups of ast alleles, the limited existence of the a³⁴⁹ and a³⁵³ groups in the four Japanese local cultivars with ancient origin suggests that a bottleneck event occurred during ast allele development. A possible scenario is that ast alleles first arose in China and then developed several mutations and that Chinese cultivars with ast allele(s) from the a³⁴⁹ and a³⁵³ groups were by chance introduced to Japan. The same sequence for a³⁴⁹ in Japanese and Chinese accessions, and for a³⁵³⁻¹ in Japanese and Chinese accessions, is consistent with this scenario. To assess this notion, we need to screen many Chinese accessions and characterize their ast alleles. Fragment analysis of the AST locus-linked marker would be useful to screen for ast allelecontaining accessions from among the more than 900 local non-PCNA cultivars in China (Wang et al. 1997).

In this study, we present comprehensive data for the minimum number and characteristics of *AST* and *ast* alleles in 237 persimmon accessions. Based on allelic size polymorphisms, we identified non-PCNA accessions with the larger than average numbers of *ast* alleles. These accessions are important genetic resources that could be used to accelerate PCNA breeding using our pseudo-backcross strategy and to extend the genetic background of PCNA cultivars to prevent inbreeding. In addition, we have demonstrated that the displayed allele data is useful for identification of non-PCNA cultivars. Fragment size and direct sequence analysis of *ast* fragments suggest that *ast* alleles likely originated in China. We conclude that the data presented here will help breeders select non-PCNA parents with more *ast* alleles to more efficiently breed PCNA

offspring and that the data provides new insights into how the *ast* allele has developed.

Acknowledgements We thank Tamami Nakasumi (NIFTS) for technical assistance.

Compliance with ethical standards

Conflict of interest The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

Data archiving statement The data obtained by the direct sequence analysis of the 45 accessions with only one-size peak of the *ast* allele-linked fragment was submitted to DNA Data Bank of Japan (DDBJ). The full list of the data is described in Supplemental Table S3.

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