DRAFT THEMATIC STUDY

for

THE THIRD REPORT ON THE STATE OF THE WORLD'S PLANT GENETIC RESOURCES FOR FOOD AND AGRICULTURE

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PHENOTYPING AND GENOTYPING FOR THE CONSERVATION AND SUSTAINABLE USE OF PLANT GENETIC RESOURCES FOR FOOD AND AGRICULTURE

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Abbreviations

APPF	Australian Plant Phenomics Facility
CBD	Convention on Biological Diversity
CIMMYT	International Centre for Maize and Wheat Improvement
СТ	Computed Tomography
DArT-Seq	Diversity Arrays Technology Sequencing
DPPN	German Plant Phenotyping Network
DSI	Digital Sequence Information
EPPN	European Plant Phenotyping Network
EURISCO	European Search Catalogue for Plant Genetic Resources
FIGS	Focused Identification of Germplasm Strategy
GBS	Genotyping by Sequencing
GWAS	Genome-Wide Association Studies
HCRF	Hemispherical Conical Reflectance Factor
HTPP	High-throughput Phenotyping Platform
IPK	Leibniz-Institute of Plant Genetics and Crop Plant Research
ITPGRFA	International Treaty on Plant Genetic Resources for Food and
	Agriculture
LiDAR	Light Detection and Ranging
MAP	Manned Aerial Platform
MCPD	Multi-Crop Passport Descriptor
NAPPN	North American Plant Phenotyping Network
NDVI	Normalized Difference Vegetation Index
NPPN	Nordic Plant Phenotyping Network
PGRFA	Plant Genetic Resources for Food and Agriculture
QTL	Quantitative Trait Loci
REST-Seq	Restriction Fragment Sequencing
RESCAN	Restriction Enzyme Site Comparative Analysis
RGB	Red, Green, and Blue
RSA	Root System Architecture
SBG	Sequence Based Genotyping
SNP	Single Nucleotide Polymorphism
SSR	Simple Sequence Repeat
TILLING	Targeting Induced Local Lesions in Genomes
WGRS	Whole Genome Resequencing
WUE	Water Use Efficiency

Abstract

1 Conserving and utilizing diverse plant genetic resources is crucial for achieving global food 2 security targets. Accurate phenotyping and genotyping of large sets of plant genetic 3 resources for food and agriculture (PGRFA) can help characterize the inherent and 4 enormous diversity of these resources for their better management and efficient utilization 5 in crop improvement. Modern DNA sequencing and genotyping technologies enabling 6 simultaneous identification and mapping of thousands of genetic markers in hundreds of 7 samples have facilitated detailed characterization of large PGRFA collections and breeding 8 populations across the globe. This has been exemplified by the detailed genetic profiling 9 of germplasm accessions, breeding lines and varieties belonging to, not only major crops, 10 but also less studied and so-called orphan crops. Hence, these large-scale sequencing and 11 genotyping efforts have rendered novel genetic diversity accessible for research and 12 breeding of crop species. Concurrent developments in plant phenotyping have also greatly 13 strengthened trait mapping, gene discovery, crop breeding and germplasm management 14 efforts. However, the high-volume and complexity of phenotypic and genotypic datasets 15 presents unprecedented challenges with respect to analysis of large data sets, storage, 16 access and sharing. This thematic background study highlights the major trends in 17 genotyping and phenotyping of PGRFA since 2010. The key breakthroughs related to 18 high-density genotyping and large-scale phenotyping of both natural diversity panels and 19 artificially-created mapping populations are discussed. This review also underscores the 20 future requirements for the efficient screening and management of PGRFA to accelerate 21 their sustainable use.

1. Introduction

Measurement methods that describe variations in plant phenotypes are the cornerstone of plant breeding. Plant phenotypes are determined by genetic, environment and genotype by environment (G×E) interactions. Phenotyping refers to evaluation of "structural, physiological, and performance-related traits" of plants (Großkinsky et al. 2015). Crop phenotypic performance involves a complex interaction between genotypes and environmental factors, which include climate, soil factors, abiotic/biotic factors, and crop management methods.

29 Over the past two decades, the characterization and evaluation of PGRFA was conducted 30 using mainly field-based measurements focused on visually observable morphological 31 traits with high heritability. Manual measurements that formed the basis of plant 32 evaluations were cumbersome, time-intensive, destructive and often subjective. 33 Harnessing the immense potential of PGRFA relies, to a significant extent, on the accuracy 34 and precision of the methods and tools being used for their phenotypic assessment. To 35 this end, non-invasive phenotyping systems driven largely by the image and sensor 36 technologies facilitating accurate and precise measurements in both controlled and field 37 conditions, are contributing to overcome the bottlenecks of traditional phenotyping 38 methods.

39 The idea of using genotype as a screening tool for genetic variations and a surrogate for 40 variations in external phenotypes has revolutionized crop improvement. Genotyping refers 41 to a procedure that assays individual's DNAs to examine their differences at genetic levels. 42 DNA marker technologies have given great impetus to efforts aimed at genetic screening. 43 Ease of assaying DNA at reduced cost and greater scales drove the innovations in DNA 44 marker systems, leading a recent shift from low-throughput PCR-based systems.

45 Since 2010, DNA marker technologies have witnessed remarkable improvements in terms 46 of their throughput, accuracy, reproducibility, ease of assaying and cost effectiveness. 47 Concurrent with evolving technologies in general, and in the DNA sequencing landscape 48 in particular, methods for identifying and mapping genetic markers in the genome have 49 also undergone a paradigm shift to support genetic mapping and breeding efforts. The 50 advent of next generation sequencing (NGS) and third generation sequencing (TGS) 51 technologies, with their constant refinements in their throughput, scalability, resolution, 52 time and cost, has resulted in another rapid increase in both the quantity and quality of 53 genome assemblies reported for land plants.

54 Alongside the development of high-density genotyping technologies, the notable 55 improvements in plant phenotyping capacities, especially in terms of mobility, 56 affordability, throughput, accuracy, scalability, data storage and analytics, have significantly 57 enhanced the ability to bridge the gap between genetic information and the phenotypic 58 manifestations of that information (Zhu et al. 2021). Moreover, the acquisition of high-59 quality phenotyping data from large samples is of paramount significance to realize the full 60 potential of cutting-edge genotyping technologies for crop improvement. This thematic 61 background study highlights the major trends in the adoption of modern genotyping and 62 phenotyping platforms to facilitate sustainable use of plant genetic resources for food and 63 agriculture (PGRFA).

2. Advances in large-scale phenotyping of PGRFA

64 The latest developments in plant phenotyping, driven largely by the evolving sensor and 65 imaging technologies, have helped relieve the long-standing "phenotyping bottlenecks" in 66 plant research and breeding. PGRFA characterization has greatly benefited from the 67 increased scale and accuracy of advanced plant phenotyping methods and technologies 68 that can record morphological, physiological and biochemical changes at relatively high 69 resolutions (Li et al. 2021). Recent developments in robotics, artificial intelligence, 70 advanced imaging and data analysis have paved the way for the increased adoption of 71 PGRFA phenotyping in an automated/semi-automated, cost-efficient, non-destructive 72 and non-invasive fashion (Table 1).

73 2.1 High-throughput Phenotyping Platforms

74 The development of high-throughput plant phenotyping platforms (HTPPs), with higher 75 accuracy and precision, represent a breakthrough in plant biology and genetic research. 76 Increased understanding of diversity within and among accessions by using high-quality 77 molecular data and accurate phenotypic values facilitates the selection and use of valuable 78 genetic variation in crop improvement as well as transforming genebank management 79 practises.

80 HTPPs involve the accurate acquisition and analysis of numerous multi-dimensional81 phenotypes during various plant growth stages at the organism level, including the cell,

tissue, organ, individual plant, plot, and field levels (Song et al., 2021). HTPPs employ multiple advanced sensors (Bohra et al. 2021) and are equipped with data collection algorithms to perform large-scale phenotyping tasks. The sensors operate on various technologies that capture images as reflectance, multispectral, hyperspectral, red green and blue imaging (RGB), light detection and ranging (LiDAR), and infrared imaging.

87 One example of a High-throughput Phenotyping Platform is TraitMill, developed by the 88 private company CropDesign, and was among the first automated platforms that allowed 89 the high-throughput evaluation of yield parameters on transgenic rice lines (Reuzeau et al. 90 2010). In the public sector, the establishment of the Australian Plant Phenomics Facility 91 (APPF) pioneered state-of-the-art phenomics technologies involving hyperspectral, 92 choloryphyll fluorescence and RGB imaging using the platforms PlantScan and TrayScan, 93 developed by Photon Systems Instruments at the High Resolution Plant Phenomics Center 94 in Canberra, Australia as part of the Commonwealth Scientific and Industrial Research 95 Organisation (CSIRO).

96 2.2 HTPP application and advancements in multi-trait capturing using automated sensors and 97 computations

98 Research in different crops has demonstrated the use of sensors in large-scale plant 99 phenotyping, including maize and sorghum (Shafiekhani et al. 2017), wheat (Deery et al. 100 2019; Madec et al. 2017), cotton (Andrade-Sanchez et al. 2014), and soybean (Sagan et al. 101 2019). Sensor systems such as the conveyor belt system, operating on the 'plant-to-sensor' 102 mode, captures images of the crop by keeping plants on a moving belt that passes in front 103 of a camera stand, ensuring consistent imaging (Li et al. 2021). For example, the conveyor 104 belt system was used to study the effects of zinc and an arbuscular mycorrhizal fungus on 105 tomato (Brien et al. 2020). The LemnaTec Field Scanalyzer also uses the 'sensor-to-plant' 106 mode and has been employed to accurately monitor crop performance via measuring plant 107 height, spike number, and the normalized difference vegetation index (Virlet et al. 2017). 108 Several studies using the Scanalyzer 3D have also demonstrated the growing potential of 109 imaging techniques for accurate plant phenotyping (Nguyen et al. 2019).

110 The Plant Accelerator in Adelaide, Australia, is part of the APPF and is a cutting-edge 111 plant phenotyping system equipped with multiple sensors that has been used in 112 phenotyping different crops, including rice (Mazis et al. 2020) and chickpea (Atenio et al. 113 2017). Other examples employing high-throughput image analysis include the screening of biomass accumulation in barley cultivars under drought stress (Neumann et al. 2015) and
the monitoring of water-use dynamics for quantifying leaf water content in maize (Ge et
al. 2016).

117 Obtaining visual representations of water and other elements within a plant could help in 118 optimizing the breeding and management strategies in relation to fertilization and 119 irrigation, breeding trial conductance and stress conditions like drought. The application 120 of hyperspectral imaging in wheat has led researchers to develop distribution maps for 121 water and nitrogen content within plants (Bruning et al. 2019). Similarly, digital features 122 extracted from image data were used for the quantitative measurements of the drought 123 response in rice and the analysis was extendable to other gramineous crops, such as maize 124 (Duan et al. 2018). However, a crucial factor in the adoption of HTPPs is the degree of 125 correlation between the traits measured by sensor systems and the resulting plant 126 performance in the field (Bai et al. 2019).

127 Computed tomography (CT) is another method used to provide a thorough evaluation of 128 the external and internal features encompassing plant morphology and anatomy. In wheat, 129 3D morphological images created by X-ray micro-CT were used to accurately identify spike 130 kernels (Liu et al. 2020). Advanced procedures and tools, such as RootAnalyzer (Chopin 131 et al. 2015) and RootScan (Burton et al. 2013), have also uncovered the diversity of root 132 traits through the analysis of cross-section images in wheat and maize, respectively.

Portable instruments are widely used to measure crop phenotypic traits owing to the ease in operation, portability and low cost (Yang et al. 2020). However, their applications for high-throughput phenotyping are limited by detection scale and efficiency. Mobile phenotyping systems with multiple sensors have been successfully used to collect plotlevel, blur-free phenotypic data in soybean and wheat (Bai et al. 2016).

138 Monitoring of plant growth and yield in sorghum during the 1998 growing season by a 139 Cessna 206 aircraft was among the first examples of airborne digital imagery in plant 140 phenotyping (Yang et al. 2000). Aerial plant phenotyping systems with 3D imaging 141 generated accurate data in potatoes, capturing plant height and canopy coverage (Xie et al. 142 2022). Similarly, thermal imaging data from a manned aerial platform (MAP) resulted in 143 the acquisition of data on canopy temperature covering thousands of research plots, thus, 144 demonstrating the potential airborne thermography for the rapid measurement of crop 145 phenotypic traits (Deery et al. 2016).

146 Applications of crop phenomics or high-throughput crop phenotyping in different species 147 were reviewed by Yang et al. (2020). The author reviewed related articles in Web of Science, 148 which the following order: wheat (30 percent), rice (13 percent), maize (17 percent), 149 Arabidopsis (13 percent), barley (7 percent), and others (20 percent). A bibliometric analysis 150 by Costa et al. (2019) based on the publications on plant phenotyping research made over 151 the last 20 years (1997-2017) showed that majority of the analysed papers (41.8 percent) 152 were authored by the EU researchers followed by the USA (15.4 percent), Australia (6 153 percent) and India (5.6 percent).

A dramatic rise in the use of modern plant phenotyping, with more than 90 percent of the publications available since 2010. Plant phenotyping systems were expanded from *Arabidopsis*, a model plant, to real crops over the past two decades. Importantly, the analysis of the trend highlighted the pressing need to expand the knowledge, infrastructures and expertise and international collaborations that provides greater opportunities for participation of the researchers, organizations and countries from the developing world.

160 2.3 Global, regional and local phenotyping networks

161 Collaborations among the public and private scientific sectors have resulted in the 162 formation of plant phenotyping networks that use advanced technologies to monitor plant 163 growth and development at different levels. One such plant phenotyping network is the 164 International Plant Phenotyping Network (IPPN) that involves various regional and 165 national partners: EMPHASIS, European Plant Phenotyping Network (EPPN), North 166 American Plant Phenotyping Network (NAPPN), Nordic Plant Phenotyping Network 167 (NPPN), PhenomUK, German Plant Phenotyping Network (DPPN), and the (https://www.plant-phenotyping.org/; 168 PHENOME Networks https://phenome-169 networks.com/en/). Other automated phenotyping facilities include the Bellwether 170 phenotyping platform at the Donald Danforth Plant Science Center, USA and the high-171 throughput rice phenotyping platform (HRPF; Yang et al. 2014).

3. Advances in genotyping of PGRFA

172 Recent advances in genotyping have facilitated rapid generation of high-throughput 173 marker data in a cost-effective manner. The growing affordability to advanced genotyping 174 technologies has contributed to DNA analysis of large samples, leading to their 175 comprehensive genetic characterisation. Enhanced ability to describe genetic differences 176 in diverse collections and artificial populations has accelerated population genetics studies

177 and trait mapping and germplasm management efforts.

178 3.1 High-density single nucleotide polymorphism arrays

179 The increasing availability of reference genome sequences over the past decade, in 180 combination with resequencing of multiple genomes, has given a great impetus to the 181 discovery and application of single nucleotide polymorphism (SNP) markers in plant 182 genetic research and molecular breeding (Mammadov et al., 2012). The need to genotype 183 SNPs in large samples for genetic diversity, trait mapping and gene discovery has led to 184 the establishment of a variety of high-throughput genotyping platforms with varying levels 185 of multiplexing, such as Illumina GoldenGate, Illumina Infinium BeadChips, and more recently, the Kompetitive allele specific PCR (KASPTM) assay (Mir et al., 2013). 186

187 The identification of large-scale high-quality SNP datasets, following the resequencing of 188 several genomes in different crop species, has facilitated the development of fixed SNP 189 arrays for genetic diversity analysis, the construction of high and ultra-high density genetic 190 maps and the identification of genome-wide marker-trait associations for important 191 agronomic traits (Thomson et al., 2017). A review by Rasheed et al. (2017) discussed 192 advances and challenges associated with the development and application of diverse high-193 throughput genotyping platforms in different crop species. The high cost associated with 194 the development of crop-specific SNP arrays, along with ascertainment bias towards 195 variants present in the population, which are involved in array development limits, have 196 led to the use of fixed arrays for population genetic studies (Geibel et al. 2021).

197 Recent examples of the establishment of genome-wide SNP arrays in crop plants include 198 50 thousand in rice (Chen et al. 2014, Singh et al. 2015), 660 thousand (Sun et al. 2020) 199 and 820 thousand (Winfield et al. 2016) in wheat, 600 thousand in maize (Unterseer et al. 200 2014), 50 thousand in barley (Bayer et al. 2017), 480 thousand in apple (Bianco et al. 2016), 201 60 thousand in Brassica (Clarke et al. 2016), 63 thousand (Hulse-Kemp et al. 2015) and 202 80 thousand (Cai et al. 2017) in cotton, 50 thousand in chickpea (Roorkiwal et al. 2018), 203 50 thousand in cowpea (Muñoz-Amatriaín et al. 2017), and 58 thousand in groundnut 204 (Pandey et al. 2017).

205 3.2 Low-depth whole genome resequencing

Advances in DNA sequencing technologies have paved the way for the adoption of sequence-based methods for plant genotyping. The sequence-based methods enable the 208 simultaneous discovery and the mapping of large numbers of genetic markers within a 209 short period of time. For instance, Huang et al. (2009) pioneered the research on 210 demonstrating the utility of sequence-based methods in the genetic mapping of a biparental 211 population. The study showed that sequencing-based genotyping is 20 times faster in data 212 collection relative to the traditional PCR-based DNA marker systems and was 35 times 213 more precise in determining recombination breakpoints. Since then, WGRS has been 214 employed for understanding genetic diversity, evolutionary and domestication history as 215 well as functional gene discovery across several crop species (Varshney et al., 2017a, 2017b, 216 2019). Additionally, WGRS of diverse accessions has allowed high-resolution identification 217 of gene-trait associations underlying important plant phenotypes through genome-wide 218 association studies GWAS on rice, chickpea, soybean, pigeon pea, common bean, linseed 219 and Brassica (see Bohra et al. 2020 and references therein).

Several other methods that use NGS for genotyping have been proposed in recent years, which include diversity array technology sequencing (DArT-Seq), sequence-based genotyping (SBG), restriction fragment sequencing (REST-Seq), restriction enzyme site comparative analysis (RESCAN), and specific-locus amplified fragment sequencing (SLAF-Seq). Of these GBS, DArT-Seq and SLAF-Seq have dominated the genetic research in plants over the last decade (Rasheed et al. 2017).

226 3.3 Moderate to low-density genotyping assays for breeding applications

227 For the purpose of molecular breeding, customized genotyping platforms that 228 accommodate a finite number of SNP markers can offer significant cost savings over using 229 high-density genotyping platforms. One of such genotyping platforms, the KASPTM, 230 represents a significant improvement in allele-specific PCR and has garnered wide 231 recognition and application amongst plant scientists for tracking and stacking genomic loci. The flexibility and efficiency of the KASPTM platform has allowed its widespread use 232 233 for varietal identification (Tang et al. 2022) and genomics-assisted breeding (Saxena et al. 234 2021).

4. Application of phenotyping and genotyping for the conservation and sustainable use of PGFRA

The advances in phenomics and genomics have enhanced our capacity to characterize and use the germplasm collections for trait discovery and varietal improvement. Ready access to PGRFA, particularly CWR and landraces that contain valuable genetic diversity, 238 is of vital importance to food security and climate adaptation of future crops. This was 239 evident from elucidation of genetic contributions of GKP 10017, an accession of wild 240 groundnut (Arachis cardenasii), towards 251 lines and cultivars in 30 countries in 241 Africa, Asia, Oceania and the Americas. The genetic influence of GKP 10017 improved 242 the tolerance level of groundnut lines and varieties against various diseases and pest 243 including root knot nematode, late leaf spot and rust (Bertioli et al. 2021). In this study 244 establishment of the chromosome-scale genome assembly of GKP 10017 in combination 245 of diagnostic SNPs and pedigree research facilitated a systematic analysis of the genetic 246 exchanges following international collaborations.

247 4.1 Genotyping applied to the conservation and management of PGRFA in genebanks

248 Genetic marker technologies have been applied for the estimation of diversity in PGRFA 249 collections (Varshney et al. 2021a; Bohra et al. 2022a, b). As previously mentioned, 250 advances in DNA sequencing technologies have led to a dramatic shift in the scale of 251 molecular characterization of germplasm collections and breeding populations. In Table 2, 252 selected DNA sequencing and genotyping technologies have been summarized, which 253 facilitated the large-scale profiling of germplasm collections in different crops. For 254 example, Milner et al. (2019) analysed collections at the Leibniz-Institute of Plant Genetics 255 and Crop Plant Research (IPK)'s ex situ genebank that encompasses cultivars, landraces 256 and crop wild relatives by using more than 100,000 SNP markers that were obtained by 257 the GBS technique. Similarly, Singh et al. (2019) employed DArT-Seq and GBS platforms 258 to characterize 1,143 Aegilops tauschii accessions from the Wheat Genetics Resource Center 259 (WGRC) in the United States of America, the International Maize and Wheat 260 Improvement Center (CIMMYT) in Mexico and Punjab Agricultural University (PAU) in 261 India.

The past decade has witnessed an increased application of genome sequencing for the in-262 263 depth genetic characterization of reference genotypes and large crop germplasm 264 collections (Box 1). The latest examples using WGRS include cassava [241 accessions 265 (Ramu et al. 2017) and 388 accessions (Hu et al. 2021)], sunflower (493 accessions, Hübner 266 et al. 2019), common bean (683 accessions, Wu et al. 2020), chickpea (429 accessions, 267 Varshney et al. 2019), pigeon pea (292 accessions, Varshney et al., 2017a), pearl millet (994 268 accessions, Varshney et al. 2017b) and lettuce (445 accessions, Wei et al. 2021). Besides 269 WGRS, high-density genotyping platforms (GBS, DArT-Seq, SNP arrays, etc.) have also 270 been employed for the characterization of diverse germplasm across different crop species,

as exemplified by the 80 000 accessions of wheat (Sansaloni et al. 2020), 2,815 accessions
of maize (Romay et al. 2013), 14 000 accessions of soybean (Bandillo et al. 2015), 1 628
accessions of sorghum (Girma et al. 2020), 10 038 accessions of pepper (Tripodi et al.

274 2021) and 271 accessions of cassava (Bredeson et al. 2016).

275 Pairwise identity-by-state (IBS) comparisons following high-density genetic profiling of germplasm collections can also help identification of near-identical samples in large 276 277 collections. This approach was applied to the study of genetic diversity, intra- and inter-278 populations, of two durum wheat landraces "Russello" and "Timilia" from Sicily (Taranto 279 et al. 2022). Results showed that the Russello landrace was in fact two genetic groups, 280 differing in important traits related to gluten quality and adaptation. This study highlighted 281 that a more in-depth assessment of genetic diversity should be undertaken in future 282 breeding programs. It also indicated that intra-population genetic diversity should be 283 considered for conservation and documentation efforts.

Sequencing and genotyping germplasm can significantly contribute towards the identification of gaps in germplasm collections and mislabelling of biological status in genebank historical records. This was exemplified by the genome analysis of chickpea accessions that elucidated a wild-specific allele of the *SHATTERPROOF2* homolog, which assisted in the identification and correction of the mislabelling of the chickpea accession ICC 16369 (Varshney et al. 2021b).

290 Furthermore, the development of molecular passport data is used to augment collection 291 management efforts by identifying different conservation gaps and duplicated accessions 292 as well as correcting historical passport records. For instance, the analysis of 1 143 293 Aegilops tauschii accessions from WGRC, CIMMYT and PAU using genome-wide SNPs 294 has allowed the identification of 564 accessions as unique, thus, revealing more than 295 50 percent redundancy levels among the Ae. Tauschii collections that were hosted in the 296 three genebanks (Singh et al. 2019). Similarly, high-density genotyping of the IPK barley 297 collections data helped in correcting the biological status of Ethiopian accessions from 298 'wild' to 'landrace' in the genebank information system (Milner et al. 2019).

299 4.2. Genotyping applied to the characterization and evaluation for sustainable use of PGRFA

300 The availability of the high-density sequencing and genotyping data on large germplasm 301 collections will guide strategies for creation of the diversity sets for their enhanced use in 302 plant breeding programs. Based on the genome-wide marker information, genomic 303 prediction could support optimizing selection strategies for choosing worthy germplasm 304 accessions in the absence of phenotypic information. For example, by generating GBS data 305 on 962 sorghum accessions, Yu et al. (2016) investigated the efficacy of genomic prediction 306 as a novel and cost-effective strategy for "turbocharging" genebanks. A training set of 299 307 accessions with information on both its phenotype and genotype was used to assess this 308 approach. Likewise in wheat, the genomic prediction involving GBS-analysed 7745 309 germplasm accessions and 325 cultivars, which enabled the identification of suitable 310 parents and donors for grain yield and resistance to yellow rust (Schulthess et al. 2022). 311 Hence, availability of detailed information related to genotype and phenotype of the 312 accessions would unleash the true breeding potential of each seed stored in the genebank 313 for future use.

314 Molecular characterization was applied to several subsets of different crop species in Italy. 315 Researchers at the Research Centre for Olive, Fruit and Citrus Crops undertook the 316 molecular assessment of about 400 peach accessions using IPSC 9K SNP array (Micheletti 317 et al. 2015, Verde et al. 2012). The entire peach collection (about 900 accessions) had also 318 been characterized using SSR markers. Furthermore, about 400 apple local accessions of 319 Central Italy were characterized with 20K SNP arrays. Other studies have also focused 320 on wheat, where a subset of 200 bread wheat accessions was analyzed by SNPs and 321 phenotyped for relevant agronomic and qualitative traits (Lazzaro et al. 2019, Ormoli et 322 al. 2015, Talini et al. 2020).

323 Researchers at the Swiss National Genebank carried out analysis of 502 bread wheat 324 (Triticum aestivum) and 293 spelt (Triticum aestivum spelta) accessions using a 15K SNP array. 325 It highlighted the importance of old landraces as promising sources of novel genes (Müller 326 et al. 2017). Genomic data in combination with expert knowledge considerations 327 facilitated the development of core collections for apple (Broggini et al. 2022), pear 328 (Urrestarazu et al. 2019) and chestnut (Pereira-Lorenzo et al. 2020). In France, the 329 COREPOM project (2011-2014), funded by the Foundation for Research in Biodiversity, 330 enabled the genetic characterization of various collections of genetic resources of 331 horticultural crops including apple for developing a core-collection that represents the 332 cultivated biodiversity at the national scale (Roux-Cuvelier et al. 2021).

333 In summary, notable advances in plant genotyping and phenotyping capacities over the 334 last ten years have opened up possibilities of having detailed genotype-phenotype maps of 335 thousands of accessions to enable the selection of suitable accessions even in the absence of phenotypic information. Acquisition of large-scale genotypic and phenotypic
information on germplasm sets may also help develop genetic sequencing and prediction
models to assess the value of a germplasm accession that lacks morphological
characterization data.

340 4.3 Applying focused identification of germplasm strategy with genotyping

341 In the context of climate change adaptation, the focused identification of germplasm 342 strategy (FIGS) enhances the possibilities of finding adaptive traits through customization 343 of large germplasm collections using an ecogeographic approach (Bohra et al. 2022a, b). 344 The use of genotyping on subsets identified using FIGS have allowed for the rapid 345 identification of accessions with traits of interest. For example, Bhullar et al. (2009) 346 performed allele mining for powdery mildew resistance gene Pm3 in a subset of 1 320 347 landraces of wheat that was customized by applying FIGS approach on a large genebank 348 collection of 16 089 accessions. Analysis of wheat germplasm collection using FIGS has 349 identified subsets for specific traits such as resistances to Russian wheat aphid (El 350 Bouhssini et al. 2010), stem rust (Endresen et al. 2012), yellow or stripe rust (Bari et al. 351 2014). Similarly, FIGS facilitated identification of sources for resistance to net blotch in 352 barley (Endresen et al. 2011) and drought adaptation in faba bean (Khazaei et al. 2013).

353 As discussed by Bohra et al. (2022a), the recent research has underscored the great scope 354 for the implementation of emerging machine learning algorithms for creation of FIGS 355 sets to facilitate selection and breeding decisions. A combination of FIGS and core 356 collection approach has been found to be more effective in creation of objective-driven 357 core subsets to accelerate utilization of germplasm collection in crop improvement. For 358 instance, Haupt and Schmid (2020) applied FIGS-informed core collection approach in 359 >17 000 soybean accessions from the USDA Soybean Germplasm Collection and 360 identified two diversity panel of 183 and 366 accessions for future utilization in abiotic 361 stress adaptation in soybean.

362 4.4 Direct application of genotyping to crop improvement

The use of PGRFA, particularly the crop wild relatives (CWRs) and landraces, for broadening the genetic base of breeding programs faces a variety of challenges. Prebreeding and germplasm enhancement programs provide an avenue to devise strategies to accelerate PGRFA use for varietal improvement. The identification and introgression of quantitative trait loci (QTL) in different genetic backgrounds, particularly from wild germplasm often results in unpredictable breeding outcomes (Bohra et al. 2022a). There
remains tremendous scope for combining this approach with other breeding methods
such as those involving multiple diverse parents e.g. wild nested association mapping
(NAM) populations in barley (Nice et al. 2017).

The development of multi-parent populations (MPPs) takes advantage of the availability of cost-effective genotyping in combination with the need for high-resolution trait mapping has stimulated the efforts to generate such valuable mapping resources across different crops (Bohra et al. 2020). These MPP s harbouring genes for biotic and abiotic stress tolerance are important to incorporate yield stability and climate change adaptation of future cultivars, such as in the case of (*Hordeum vulgare* L.) with cases, such as scald, powdery mildew, leaf rust and Fusarium head blight (Novakazi et al. 2020).

5. Database development to accelerate PGRFA use

379 Recent advances in the field of omics, which is a term used to encompass different fields 380 of biology, such as genomics, transcriptomics, proteomics, metabolomics and phenomics, 381 have created novel avenues to accelerate PGRFA use by integrating data from multiple 382 omics platforms. example, DivSeek International Network For the 383 (https://divseekintl.org/) intends to harness omics and big data technologies with the help 384 of crop researchers, genebank managers, database and computational experts. There has 385 been a greater emphasis on providing all germplasm and associated information, such as 386 seed or propagation materials, passport data, characterization data and evaluation data held 387 by the genebanks, as open-access to the public for research, breeding and education. 388 Various types of descriptors of internationally-agreed standards, such as the multi-crop 389 passport descriptor (MCPD V.2.1; Alercia et al., 2015), have been developed and adopted 390 to facilitate this exchange of the information related to plant genetic resources.

391 5.1 Current examples of genetic databases and genebanks providing genetic passport data for PGRFA

The information on several of these subsets can be obtained from online platforms that store details about PGRFAs from genebanks worldwide. For example, <u>Genesys</u> (<u>https://www.genesys-pgr.org/</u>) is a global platform providing passport data of about 4 185 326 accessions with 256 subsets, including core and mini-core collections as well as 444 characterization and evaluation sets of 40 crops. This also includes accessions with specific traits, such as tolerance to biotic and abiotic stresses, photoperiod insensitivity and quality. Core collections are available for sorghum (2 246 accessions), pearl millet (2 094 399 accessions), soybean (small seeded: 1 466 accessions; large seeded: 111 accessions), 400 subterranean clover (97 accessions), cassava (629 accessions), whereas mini core 401 collections have been reported in rice (600 accessions), Oryza glaberrima (350 accessions), 402 Triticum timopheevii (92 accessions), and A. tauschii (40 accessions), cowpea (376 accessions). 403 As demonstrated in rice (Kumar et al. 2020), wheat (Pascual et al. 2020) and common bean 404 (Kuzay et al. 2020), generation of large-scale sequencing and genotyping data in recent 405 years has facilitated more detailed investigations of the existing diversity panels, which has 406 in turn allowed optimization of these subsets to have better representations of the genetic 407 diversity of the crop species. Similarly, the germplasm resource information system 408 (GRIN)-global (https://www.grin-global.org/) has been developed in a joint effort by the 409 Global Crop Diversity Trust, Bioversity International, and the Agricultural Research 410 Service of the United States Department of Agriculture (USDA) that is being used and 411 evaluated by various national and international genebanks worldwide.

412 5.2 Characterization and evaluation data

413 Characterization and evaluation data are made available through the European Search Catalogue for Plant Genetic Resources (EURISCO), which also provides passport data 414 415 related to nearly over 2 million accessions conserved ex situ by about 400 institutes from 416 43 member countries. Such data will also soon be available through GENBIS, the 417 NordGen search catalogue (https://www.nordic-baltic-genebanks.org/gringlobal/about). 418 A number of national genebanks also have searchable databases. For example, molecular 419 and morphological characterization of diverse accessions of the national PGRFA 420 genebank of Switzerland is freely available (https://www.pgrel.admin.ch/pgrel/), where 421 specific traits can be queried and any registered user can create a virtual subset/list for the 422 desired traits. Similarly, the Government of Poland reported that the characterization and 423 evaluation data of 83 percent (16 506 accessions) of their national grasses collection has 424 been made available at the NRI National Centre for Plant Genetic Resources 425 (https://wyszukiwarka.ihar.edu.pl/pl).

The availability of global and independent information systems enhances the interoperability among genebank passport, phenotypic and genotypic data for improved germplasm management and use. In addition, the generation of massive sequencing information and other omics data on germplasm resources has led to the development of digital sequence information (DSI), which entails information, *inter alia*, from DNA and RNA sequences, protein sequences to metabolites and other macromolecules. It may also 432 include associated information and traditional knowledge 433 (http://www.fao.org/3/cc6622en/cc6622en.pdf). Fair and equitable sharing of DSI 434 arising from germplasm resources remains arguable in the context of biodiversity-related 435 international instruments, such as the Convention on Biological Diversity (CBD) and the 436 Nagoya Protocol and International Treaty on Plant Genetic Resources for Food and 437 Agriculture (ITPGRFA). Therefore, evidence-informed discussions, training programs, 438 coordinated efforts and favourable policy regimes are needed to address the challenges 439 associated with access and benefit-sharing arising from germplasm in the current 440 digitization era, particularly in relation to the developing countries that lag behind in the 441 utilization of new technologies and the acquisition of biological data.

6. International and national initiatives in PGRFA phenotyping and genotyping

442 International collaborations have increasingly used whole genome sequencing approach 443 and other high-density genotyping platforms for in-depth genetic characterization of the 444 large crop germplasm collections. High-throughput DNA sequencing has allowed 445 screening of genetic diversity in large sets of germplasm accessions, unleashing the 446 potential of "Germplasm genomics" for plant improvement in the post-NGS sequence 447 era. Sharing of DNAs and associated information is imperative to understand within-448 species diversity. Recent efforts on genome sequencing of hundreds of diverse accessions 449 of a species, as witnessed in rice (Wang et al. 2018) and chickpea (Varshney et al. 2021b) 450 foster strong collaborative environments to leverage phylogenetic research for guiding 451 future improvement strategies.

452 The utility of the large germplasm collections was greatly constrained by the lack of 453 knowledge about the traits for genetic and breeding potential, with <1 percent accessions 454 used in crop improvement. Searching traits or alleles from large germplasm collections for 455 breeding is complicated by resource- and labour-intensive nature of knowledge generation 456 and germplasm management. In this context, acquisition and access to the quality data on 457 germplasm characterization and evaluation paves the way for creation of trait-specific 458 collection subsets. There is a need to improve the generation and quality of 459 characterization and evaluation information, implement mechanisms for documentation 460 and access to information, so that it can be used in plant breeding programs. Workable 461 subsets of germplasms capturing sufficient genetic variation have been created for efficient 462 use in breeding in rice, maize soybean, common bean, chickpea, groundnut, pigeon pea, 463 cassava, cowpea, bean, sorghum and millets (Guo et al. 2014, Kuzay et al 2020).

7. Conclusions

464 Diversity in phenotypes and genetic architectures of germplasm archived in genebanks 465 serves as a raw material for selection and breeding. Estimation of this diversity is thus 466 crucial to accelerate their utilization in research and breeding, while guiding conservation 467 and management efforts. The progress has been greatly constrained by the challenges 468 encountered in germplasm characterization efforts through conventional phenotyping and 469 genotyping methods. The increase in accuracy and scales of both plant phenotyping and 470 genetic profiling over the last decade has been remarkable. Evolving landscape of 471 sequencing and genotyping technologies have facilitated low-cost and time-efficient 472 analysis of large plant DNA samples. The concurrent advances in plant phenotyping 473 systems have complemented modern genetic profiling technologies for providing new 474 insights into genomic architecture of germplasm resources. International collaborations 475 involving multi-disciplinary teams are key to harness the enormous potential of genotyping 476 and phenotyping advances.

477 Modern sequencing technologies have massively scaled-up the discovery of genome-wide 478 variants, including SSR, but more importantly, with the use of SNP markers. With the cost-479 effectiveness of evolving sequencing and genotyping platforms, it is now possible to 480 genotype large samples in a cost-effective, automated and accurate manner. Generation of 481 the large-scale genotypic information in combination with phenotypic and other datasets 482 provides novel opportunities for incorporating new breeding techniques like GS and 483 prediction models to guide germplasm selection, conservation and management efforts 484 (Yu et al. 2016; Schulthess et al. 2022). Equally importantly, detailed characterization of 485 PGRFA creates novel avenues for the development of manageable subsets of germplasm 486 accessions for research and breeding.

HTPPs	Phenotype measured	Crops	References
LemnaTec Scanalyzer 3D	Biomass, leaf water content, plant height, width, compactness, drought stress, nitrogen content, chlorophyll status	Wheat, barley, sorghum, maize, chickpea, oak	Neumann et al. (2015), Chai et al. (2021), Mazis et al. (2020), Ge et al. (2016)
HRPF	Drought stress, tiller number	Rice	Yang et al. (2014), Duan et al. (2018)
PHENOARCH	Growth rate of ear and silk	Maize	Brichet et al. (2017)
GLYPH	Water use efficiency (WUE), drought stress	Soybean	Peirone et al. (2018)
GiARoots	Root system architecture (RSA)	Rice	Galkovskyi et al. (2012)
DART; Ez-Rhizo; DIRT; ROOTNAV	RSA	Legumes and cereals	Atkinson et al. (2019)
Crop Phenology Recording System (CPRS)	Nitrogen content, leaf area index	Rice	Fukatsu et al. (2012)
Field Scanalyzer	Canopy height, spike number, canopy closure, canopy temperature, Normalized Difference Vegetation Index (NDVI)	Wheat	Virlet et al. (2017)
LeasyScan	Canopy transpiration, plant height, leaf area, WUE	Peanut, cowpea, pearl millet, maize	Sunil et al. (2018), Vadez et al. (2015)
Phénofield	Water stress, nitrogen stress	Wheat	Beauchene et al. (2019)

Table 1. List of selected high-throughput phenotyping platforms and example studies on different crop species.

Mini-Plot	Disease severity	Barley	Thomas et al. (2018)
NU-Spidercam	Plant height, ground cover, canopy temperature	Soybean, maize	Bai et al. (2019)
BreedVision	Moisture content, lodging, tiller density or biomass yield	Wheat	Busemeyer et al. (2013)
Phantom (UAV)	Carotenoid content	Lettuce	Mascarenhas Maciel et al. (2019)
3DR Solo	NDVI, chlorophyll red-edge index	Maize	Fawcett et al. (2020)
Quadcopter (UAV)	(CHL), hemispherical-conical reflectance factors (HCRF)		
Octorotor (UAV)	Canopy height, canopy coverage, vegetation index	Rice	Wan et al. (2020)
Matrice 600 Pro (UAV)	Yield	Cotton	Feng et al. (2020)
Ebee, UAV	Yield	Wheat	Hu et al. (2020)
Robinson R44 Raven helicopter, (MAP)	Canopy temperature	Wheat	Deery et al. (2016)
Air Tractor AT- 402B, (MAP)	Pest severity	-	Yang and Hoffmann (2015)
RapidEye, (Satellite)	Nitrogen stress	Wheat	Basso et al. (2016)
Fluorescence explorer (Satellite)	Terrestrial vegetation (Photosynthesis)	-	Drusch et al. (2017)
Phenomobile Lite	Plant height, biomass, ground cover	Wheat	Jimenez-Berni et al. (2018)
GPhenoVision	Canopy height, width, growth rate, projected leaf area, volume, yield	Cotton	Jiang et al. (2018)
phenoSeeder	Seed morphological and chemical constituent of seed	Rapeseed, barley	Jahnke et al. (2016)

Сгор	Accessions	Genotyping method	Reference
Barley	22 626	Genotyping by sequencing (GBS)	Milner et al. (2019)
Chickpea	3 366	Whole genome resequencing (WGRS)	Varshney et al. (2021b)
Maize	2 815	GBS	Romay et al. (2013)
Pepper	10 038	GBS	Tripodi et al. (2021)
Rice	3 134	Diversity arrays technology sequencing (DArTseq)	Ndjiondjop et al. (2018)
Rice	3 010	WGRS	Wang et al. (2018)
Sorghum	1 628	GBS	Girma et al. (2020)
Soybean	14 000	50K SNP chip	Bandillo et al. (2015)
Wheat	80 000	DArT-seq	Sansaloni et al. (2020)
Wild wheat (Aegilops tauschii)	1 143	GBS	Singh et al. (2019)
Cassava	388	WGRS	Hu et al. (2021)
Common bean	683	WGRS	Wu et al. (2020)
Tomato	838	WGRS	Zhou et al. (2022)
Wheat	8 000	GBS	Schulthess et al. (2022)
Lettuce	445	WGRS	Wei et al. (2021)
Sorghum	400	WGRS	Boatwright et al. (2022)

 Table 2. Characterization of large germplasm collections using sequencing and high-density genotyping.

Box 1. Developing next-generation genomic resources for key African crops

In the Africa region, the African Orphan Crops Consortium (AOCC) aims at understanding and exploiting the genetic diversity of key crops for providing adapted and integration African high-yielding varieties for into farming systems (http://africanorphancrops.org/about/). The consortium has started developing genome assemblies of 101 crops including okra, onion, amaranth, custard apple, papaya, watermelon. A complete list of crops selected for genome sequencing can be found at https://africanorphancrops.org/meet-the-crops/. Equally importantly, AOCC via African Plant Breeding Academy (AfPBA) initiative, led by UC Davis, focuses on building long-term capacity in Africa to efficiently use modern genomic and breeding tools for enhancing crop variety development programs.

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Annex: Glossary of Terms

Crop Wild Relatives (CWRs): Close relatives of cultivated species, representing a rich source of genetic diversity for crop improvement.

Diversity Panel: A collection comprising accessions representing a diverse population of a species.

Digital Sequence Information (DSI): A placeholder term that covers nucleotide sequence data (DNA/RNA) to other omics information (transcriptomes, proteins and metabolites) associated with genetic resources.

Focused Identification of Germplasm Strategy (FIGS): An approach that efficiently identifies suitable germplasm with desirable traits e.g., disease and pest resistance and adaptation traits by using geographic and agro-climatic information.

Genome-wide association studies (GWAS): An approach that tests association of a genetic marker with traits of interest from a diverse set of genetic material.

High-throughput phenotyping: Automated and non-invasive methods that record precise and accurate measurements on hundreds of plants at different levels of biological organization.

KASPTM: A high precision technology used for genotyping individuals based on polymerase chain reaction specific to an SNP or indel. The assay uses two allele-specific forward primers and one common reverse primer for genotyping.

Landrace: A heterogenous form of domesticated species that is well adapted to local environments.

Nested association mapping (NAM): A multi-parent strategy for dissection of complex traits that uses series of interconnected RILs derived from crossing a common parent with diverse founders.

Next generation sequencing (NGS): A group of high throughput technologies that enables sequencing of millions of small fragments of DNA in a highly paralleled fashion.