

1 Unveiling Elevated Spontaneous Mutation Rates in *Phyllostachys edulis* (Moso
2 Bamboo) through Whole Genome Sequencing (WGS) and Investigating the
3 Impact of Atmospheric and Room Temperature Plasma (ARTP) Induced
4 Mutagenesis

5 **Running Head:** Moso Bamboo: Mutation Rates and ARTP Mutagenesis

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30

31 **Highlight:**

32 Moso bamboo breeding revolutionized—high spontaneous mutations in asexually
33 derived flowering population. ARTP mutagenesis boosts structural variations, shaping
34 innovative breeding approaches.

35 **Abstract:**

36 Moso bamboo, recognized for its wide distribution and economic importance,
37 encounters challenges in varietal enhancement due to its protracted sexual
38 reproduction cycle. This study employed whole-genome resequencing to uncover
39 spontaneous mutations in Moso bamboo and investigated mutagenesis using
40 atmospheric and room temperature plasma (ARTP). Through the sequencing results,
41 we identified the population of flowering bamboo as an asexual breeding line. Notably,
42 the flowering Moso bamboo population, exclusively derived from asexual
43 reproduction, exhibited a high spontaneous mutation rate (4.54×10^{-4} to $1.15 \times$
44 10^{-3} /bp) during sexual reproduction, considering parental and cross-pollination
45 effects. Genetic disparities between offspring and parents exhibited a bimodal
46 distribution, indicating a substantial cross-pollination rate. ARTP mutagenesis
47 increased structural variations in offspring, while changes in SNPs and INDELS were
48 less pronounced. Sanger sequencing validated a gene subset, providing a foundation
49 for spontaneous mutation rate investigation via whole-genome sequencing. These
50 insights, particularly from mutagenized offspring sequencing, contribute to Moso
51 bamboo breeding strategies.

52 **Keywords:** ARTP, moso bamboo, mutagenesis breeding, sexual reproduction,
53 spontaneous mutation rate, whole-genome resequencing.

54 **Abbreviations:**

55 ARTP: atmospheric and room temperature plasma

56 SNP: Single Nucleotide Polymorphism

57 INDEL: Insertion/Deletion

58 SV: Structural Variation

59 FST: Fixation Index

60 Pi: Nucleotide Diversity

61 **Introduction**

62 Moso bamboo is a perennial plant that belongs to the *Poaceae* family and
63 *Bambusoideae* subfamily, representing the most prevalent bamboo species in China.
64 Recognized for its robust vitality, rapid growth, and prolific reproductive ability, it is
65 important for high-quality shoots. Moso bamboo has been extensively applied in wood
66 production and in the creation of artisanal items (P. Li et al., 2015; Y. Li et al., 2013;
67 Liu et al., 2011). The species primarily reproduces asexually, with a sexual
68 reproductive cycle characterized by an exceptionally long-term duration and unknown
69 flowering conditions. These factors contribute to the slow pace of genetic
70 improvement (Ramakrishnan et al., 2020). Mutagenesis breeding technology holds
71 promise in overcoming these limitations, warranting a comprehensive evaluation of
72 the mutagenic effects. Evaluating mutagenic effects based on mutation rates extends
73 the selection timeframe for Moso bamboo breeding, posing a significant challenge in
74 mutagenic effect investigations. Therefore, a novel approach is imperative for
75 assessing the mutagenic effects of diverse treatments on Moso bamboo.

76 Advancements in next-generation sequencing technologies have revolutionized
77 breeding research by integrating molecular genetics (Varshney et al., 2009). In recent
78 years, Moso bamboo has recently been established as a chromosomal-level genome
79 map (Peng et al., 2013; Zhao et al., 2018). Mutagenic breeding strategies in Moso
80 bamboo mainly focus on bamboo seeds, utilizing different sites between mutagenized
81 Moso bamboo and the parental lineage to quantify mutagenic effects. However,
82 exclusive reliance on parental information may fall short of accurately determining
83 mutation sites. Previous studies have suggested that naturally growing bamboo forests
84 within the same geographic region could be asexual reproductive populations (Jiang et
85 al., 2017; C. Li et al., 2021), suggesting that offspring from sexually reproducing

86 Moso bamboo in the same locale may resemble those from self-pollination. If
87 substantiated, this observation could substantially mitigate interference resulting from
88 an unclear parental source in the sequencing backgrounds.

89 A thorough understanding of the inherent spontaneous mutation rate in Moso
90 bamboo is imperative to accurately quantify the mutagenic effects by assessing the
91 differences between mutagenized Moso bamboo and its parents. In natural
92 environments, plants undergo mutations to varying extents during their growth and
93 reproductive processes, which can be influenced by distinct species and cultivation
94 conditions (Bobiwash et al., 2013; Dubrovina & Kiselev, 2015; Whittle, 2006).
95 Currently, investigations into spontaneous mutation rates are mainly concentrated on
96 animals and microorganisms. Studies have reported a spontaneous mutation rate per
97 single nucleotide of 10.12×10^{-10} in *Picochlorum costavermella* (Krasovec et al.,
98 2018), 8.3×10^{-4} in *Acipenser oxyrinchus* (Panagiotopoulou et al., 2017), and $6.95 \times$
99 10^{-9} in the model plant *Arabidopsis thaliana* (Weng et al., 2018). Although the
100 selection of study subjects and sequencing methodologies may vary, it remains
101 evident that distinct species exhibit significant differences in their spontaneous
102 mutation rates.

103 Atmospheric and Room Temperature Plasma (ARTP) mutagenesis, based on the
104 principle of atmospheric pressure radio-frequency glow discharge, has emerged as a
105 novel mutagenesis method in recent years. It has distinct advantages, including
106 cost-effectiveness, simplicity, environmental safety, high mutation rates, and stable
107 heritability of mutations (Ottenheim et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2014). In this study,
108 ARTP was employed to explore the reliability of the aforementioned mutagenic effect
109 evaluation approach. Currently, ARTP is widely applied in mutagenesis breeding
110 within the microbiological domain, with limited systematic investigations on higher
111 animals and plants (Fang et al., 2013; Zhang et al., 2015). Su et al. successfully
112 applied ARTP to *Megalobrama amblycephala* sperm, successfully obtaining the
113 production of fertilized eggs. Sequencing results demonstrated that
114 ARTP-mutagenized offspring exhibited numerous mutations compared to the control

115 group (Su et al., 2022). Recently, He Libin's research team employed ARTP to treat
116 fertilized eggs of *Amphiprioninae*, successfully selecting mutants with a change in
117 skin color from black to red. In summary, ARTP exhibits promising mutagenic effects
118 and can be a novel approach for Moso bamboo mutagenesis breeding (He et al.,
119 2023).

120 This study aimed to determine the reproductive mode of the flowering Moso
121 bamboo population through a comparative analysis of sequencing results from
122 flowering parents, adjacent Moso bamboo, and seedlings of the same plant, but from
123 distinct years. Subsequently, we conducted sequencing on nascent seedlings of
124 flowering parents, enabling a direct comparison of the sequencing results between
125 parents and offspring to derive the natural sexual reproduction mutation rate in Moso
126 bamboo. Finally, Moso bamboo seedlings were sequenced to high-dose ARTP
127 treatment. By comparing these sequencing results with the aforementioned
128 spontaneous mutation rate, a comprehensive evaluation of the mutagenic effects of
129 high-dose ARTP on Moso bamboo seeds was conducted. In summary, this experiment
130 offered an initial basis for the assessment of spontaneous mutation rates in Moso
131 bamboo using high-throughput sequencing technology and proposed a novel approach
132 for evaluating mutagenic effects. The investigation of ARTP-induced mutagenic
133 effects provided substantial evidence that confirmed the reliability of this evaluation
134 approach. Moreover, this study had significant implications for elucidating the genetic
135 underpinnings of Moso bamboo and refining breeding strategies.

136 **Materials and Methods**

137 **Materials**

138 The Moso bamboo population exhibiting regular flowering patterns in the northern
139 region of Guilin, Guangxi Province, China, provided a favorable advantage for
140 sample collection compared to sporadically flowering populations in other areas. Leaf
141 tissues and seeds were collected from both flowering and non-flowering Moso

142 bamboo plants in Guilin, Guangxi Province, China (Gao et al., 2015). In August 2022,
143 we collected leaf samples (M1–M6) and seeds from six flowering Moso bamboo
144 specimens in the northern Guilin area. Additionally, leaf samples (N1–N5) were
145 obtained from five non-flowering Moso bamboo plants in the same bamboo forest as
146 supplementary materials. Additionally, in August 2023, several smaller-sized
147 flowering Moso bamboo plants were discovered in the same vicinity and subsequently
148 transported to the International Bamboo and Rattan Center in Beijing for anatomical
149 observations.

150 Control samples were established at the Sand Lake Forestry Breeding Base in
151 Chuzhou, Anhui, China to elucidate the characteristics of the parent population. All
152 the control samples were sown from bamboo seeds collected from Guangxi in earlier
153 years. Samples of varying heights and stem diameters were selected based on the
154 annual measurements. For aboveground tissues collected in different years, leaves
155 were adopted as the materials from the previous two years, and newly emerging
156 bamboo shoots were collected for the most recent year's samples. Seeds from the
157 offspring of flowering parents were sown at the Taiping Base of the International
158 Bamboo and Rattan Center in Huangshan, Anhui. When the seedlings reached a
159 height exceeding 10 cm, leaf samples were collected from 30 offspring per flowering
160 parent, yielding 150 offspring leaf samples for subsequent sequencing analysis.

161 In the initial experiments, we observed that newly sprouted Moso bamboo seeds
162 demonstrated enhanced ARTP mutagenic effects, with a significant number exhibiting
163 viability after a 20min treatment at 300 W. To further promote the mutagenic effects,
164 we identified a batch of seeds from flowering Moso bamboo offspring (M4 seeds) at
165 the early germination stage, characterized by the highest survival rate, and subjected
166 them to a 30-min ARTP treatment at 400 W. Subsequently, mutagenized seeds were
167 cultivated in a controlled environment at the International Bamboo and Rattan Center
168 in Beijing. Leaf samples were collected at a height of 10 cm or more for subsequent
169 sequencing and analysis.

170 **Methods**

171 **DNA Extraction and Sequencing**

172 Genomic DNA was extracted from young leaves using a cetyltrimethylammonium
173 bromide (CTAB)-based protocol (Healey et al., 2014). The concentration and quality
174 of extracted genomic DNA were assessed using a NanoDrop2000 Spectrophotometer
175 (Thermo Fisher Scientific). Subsequently, DNA libraries with an average fragment
176 size of 350bp were prepared for Illumina/BGI sequencing according to the
177 manufacturer's instructions. After library construction, sequencing was performed on
178 an Illumina HiSeq XTen / BGI platform by a contracted service provider (Biomarker
179 Technologies, Beijing, China), generating 150-bp reads.

180 **Quality Control and Data Alignment**

181 The raw fastq-formatted sequencing data were preprocessed using fastp. This step
182 involved the removal of adapter sequences, poly N sequences, and low-quality reads,
183 resulting in refined data (Chen et al., 2018). Simultaneously, we verified the reliability
184 of the refined data by calculating metrics, including Q20, Q30, GC content, and
185 sequence duplication levels. Finally, we aligned the refined data to the Moso bamboo
186 reference genome (v3 version, obtained from <http://www.bamboogdb.org>) using
187 bwa-mem2 software (Houtgast et al., 2018; Zhao et al., 2018).

188 **Variant Detection and Annotation**

189 The alignment results were sorted and duplicate entries were removed using
190 SAMtools. Subsequently, GATK was employed for variant calling to generate an
191 extensive dataset of variant information. To refine the data, we subsequently applied
192 specific filtering criteria: SNPs within 5 bp of InDels were excluded, as were
193 neighboring InDels within 10 bp, achieved through the varFilter subprogram in
194 bcftools (varFilter -w 5 -W 10). Additionally, no more than two variations were
195 permitted in a 5 bp window. Variants with QUAL < 30, QD < 2.0, MQ < 40, and FS >
196 60.0 were discarded. Other variant filtering parameters adhered to GATK's default
197 values. This rigorous process yielded high-quality SNP and indel data (Danecek et al.,
198 2021; McKenna et al., 2010).

199 Subsequently, the snpEff software was adopted to annotate the precise physical
200 positions of the identified SNPs and indels, categorizing SNPs into intergenic regions,
201 upstream or downstream regions, exons, and introns (Cingolani et al., 2012). SNPs
202 located within coding regions were further delineated as synonymous or
203 non-synonymous mutations, and indels within coding regions were evaluated for their
204 potential to induce frameshift mutations. To capture structural variations (SVs) within
205 the aligned data, Manta software was utilized to obtain insights into extensive
206 structural alterations. Concurrently, Freeec software was applied to identify instances
207 of copy number variation (CNV), thereby obtaining data on copy numbers (Boeva et
208 al., 2011; X. Chen et al., 2015). Moreover, we performed comprehensive gene
209 functional annotation using various databases, including Nr, Nt, Pfam, KOG,
210 SwissProt, KEGG, and GO.

211 **Basic Population Attribute Analysis**

212 To elucidate sequencing relationships and assess population composition across
213 diverse samples, we performed PCA, constructed evolutionary trees, and conducted
214 basic population attribute analyses using vcftools and Arlequin. These analyses
215 consisted of metrics, such as the Fixation Index (FST), Polymorphism Information
216 Content (PI), and Heterozygosity (He) (Danecek et al., 2011; EXCOFFIER &
217 LISCHER, 2010). During the population analysis, we grouped the flowering Moso
218 bamboo parent plants and the surrounding non-flowering Moso bamboo into one
219 population. Other populations were defined by the offspring derived from each parent
220 and the mutagenized population.

221 **Exploration of Flowering Moso Bamboo Parent Population Structure**

222 Based on variant detection, we conducted a comprehensive assessment of the
223 differences in variation among distinct samples. The initial analysis focused on
224 variations within different tissues of five Moso bamboo seedlings, facilitating
225 computation of the mean asexual reproduction mutation rate across three consecutive
226 years. Additionally, we performed a comparative analysis of variants between the
227 flowering parent plants and neighboring non-flowering Moso bamboo, providing

228 valuable insights into the genetic variation among the flowering parent plants. To
229 explore the likelihood of asexual reproduction in the parent population, we analyzed
230 the variation observed in the parent population with the previously determined asexual
231 reproduction mutation rate in the offspring. Concurrently, we employed PLINK
232 software to conduct IBD (identity by descent) analysis, thoroughly evaluating kinship
233 relationships among the offspring of Moso bamboo, flowering parent plants, and
234 parent-offspring pairs (Chang et al., 2015).

235 **Exploration of Natural Sexual Mutation Rate in Moso Bamboo**

236 We quantified the differences in SNPs and indels between each parent and
237 corresponding set of 30 offspring. These counts were normalized to genome length,
238 yielding the gene mutation frequency. Subsequently, we calculated the average gene
239 mutation frequency and determined the positional mutational preference of the
240 identified mutation sites. Non-synonymous mutation sites were accumulated for each
241 parent-offspring pair, and the frequency of occurrence for each site between the parent
242 and offspring was calculated. Finally, genes exhibiting mutation occurrence equal to
243 or exceeding 29 in each offspring population were categorized as high-frequency
244 mutation genes specific to that population. Using Venn diagrams, we identified the
245 intersection of high-frequency mutated genes across the five offspring populations.
246 Functional enrichment analyses using GO and KEGG were conducted to investigate
247 the functional preferences associated with high-frequency spontaneous gene
248 mutations in Moso bamboo sexual reproduction. For validation purposes, 5 genes
249 from a pool of 356 genes were selected and subjected to Sanger sequencing on 6
250 samples. The results were compared using mega7 software (Kumar et al., 2016;
251 Sanger & Coulson, 1975) to ensure the reliability of the sequencing data.

252 **Exploration of the Effects of ARTP Mutagenesis on Moso Bamboo**

253 We selected six Moso bamboo plants that exhibited normal growth after ARTP
254 mutagenesis, ensuring consistency by using seeds from the fourth parent plant for
255 mutagenesis. The leaf samples were selected for resequencing. By comparing the
256 sequencing results with those of their respective parent plants, we identified

257 differential SNP and indel sites. Additionally, we quantified the number of structural
258 variations (SV). These results were then compared with the results obtained by
259 comparing the normal offspring with their parent plants. This approach allowed for
260 the examination of the alterations and distinctive features of the mutation count
261 following ARTP mutagenesis.

262 **Results**

263 **Basic information of sample sequencing**

264 In this study, we conducted high-throughput sequencing on samples from 6 flowering
265 Moso bamboo, 5 non-flowering Moso bamboo from the same bamboo forest, and 17
266 Moso bamboo tissues from different years using the Illumina platform. The analysis
267 yielded 1298.75 Gbp of Clean Data, with a Q30 score of 93.09%. The samples
268 demonstrated an average alignment rate to the reference genome of 98.15%, average
269 coverage depth of 16X and genome coverage of 95.61%. Owing to concerns related to
270 fungal contamination, samples from two different-year Moso bamboo tissues were
271 excluded from further analysis, leaving 15 samples for subsequent examination. All
272 retained samples met the stipulated criteria for comprehensive analysis, exhibiting
273 commendable genome coverage, Q30, Q20, GC content, and other relevant quality
274 metrics (Table S1).

275 Simultaneously, we conducted sequencing on 150 offspring derived from
276 flowering Moso bamboo parent plants using the BGI platform. This endeavor yielded
277 3306.30 Gbp of Clean Data, with a Q30 score of 92.33%. The samples demonstrated
278 an average alignment rate of 99.49% to the reference genome, accompanied by an
279 average coverage depth of 10X and a genome coverage of 94.14%. Notably,
280 sequencing data for all samples exhibited commendable quality, satisfying the
281 requisite standards for further analysis (Table S1).

282 **Population Analysis**

283 We conducted PCA clustering and constructed an evolutionary tree using the SNP

284 data to elucidate the population structure. The results demonstrated that PCA (Figure
285 S1) and evolutionary tree (Figure S2) analysis differentiated asexual reproductive
286 materials from the parent and offspring populations. However, the differentiation
287 between the parent and offspring populations proved challenging, which is potentially
288 attributable to their close kinship. We calculated nucleotide diversity (π) within each
289 population, yielding consistent average π values ranging from 9.69×10^{-4} to $1.04 \times$
290 10^{-3} (Table S1). Furthermore, FST analysis results indicated significantly higher FST
291 values between the mutagenized group and non-mutagenized offspring, as well as
292 between the mutagenized group and parent plants, than the FST values observed
293 between offspring populations and parent-offspring pairs (Table S1). Examination of
294 He values revealed that the SNP heterozygosity of parents was approximately 66%,
295 markedly surpassing the offspring heterozygosity of 42% (Table S2).

296 **Determination of Spontaneous Mutation Rate in Asexual Reproduction**

297 To investigate the spontaneous mutation rate in the multi-year asexual reproduction of
298 Moso bamboo in natural settings, we sequenced five bamboo plants that could
299 distinguish the aboveground tissues of different years by height and diameter width.
300 The sequencing results revealed notable variations among Moso bamboo specimens
301 from the same individual across different years. Specifically, in terms of SNPs, an
302 average of 1,068,616 SNPs and 148,802 indels were identified between tissues from
303 various years, resulting in a gene mutation frequency of approximately $6.01 \times 10^{-4}/\text{bp}$
304 and $8.37 \times 10^{-5}/\text{bp}$ (Table 1). The number of SNPs between samples from one year
305 and those from adjacent years was similar, indicating a relatively high somatic
306 mutation rate during Moso bamboo asexual reproduction, albeit with a gradual
307 accumulation rate. Additionally, we computed kinship relationships among samples
308 from different years, and IBD analysis demonstrated an average PI-Hat value of 0.822
309 (Figure 6B), which was notably higher than the kinship relationships observed among
310 the sampled offspring (PI-Hat approximately 0.090, Table S4).

311 Table 1. Number and frequency of major variations between sample populations

snp	snp/chr	indel	indel/chr	total sv
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clone vs clone	1068616	6.01E-04	148802	8.37E-05	1305
M vs N	1188822	6.69E-04	172534	9.71E-05	1246
M vs M	1236539	6.96E-04	178096	1.00E-04	1129
M vs F	2047904	1.15E-03	236622	1.33E-04	2109

312

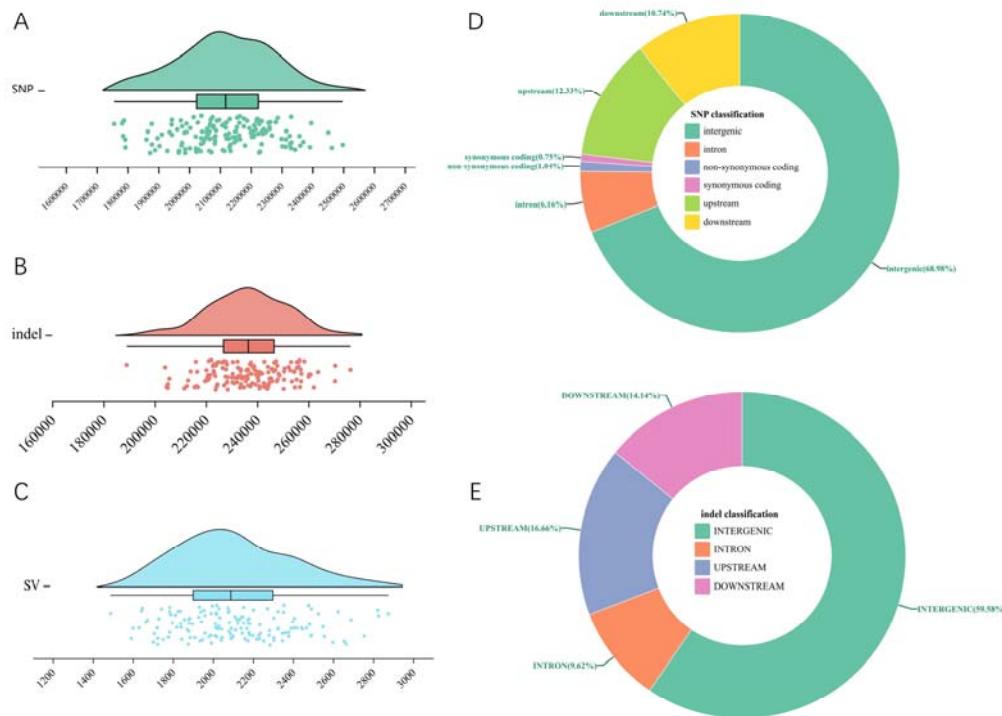
313 **Determination of Mutation Rates in Flowering Bamboos and Nearby Bamboos**

314 To explore the population characteristics of the flowering Moso bamboo parent plants,
315 we sequenced 6 flowering parent plants and 5 neighboring non-flowering Moso
316 bamboo plants. The sequencing results revealed an average of 1,236,539 SNPs within
317 the flowering parent plants, corresponding to a gene mutation frequency of
318 approximately 6.96×10^{-4} /bp. Additionally, the average number of indels among the
319 flowering parent plants was 178,096, resulting in a mutation frequency of
320 approximately 1.00×10^{-4} /bp. In comparison, the differences in SNPs and indels
321 between the flowering parent plants and the adjacent Moso bamboo averaged
322 1,188,822 and 172,534, respectively, leading to gene mutation frequencies of
323 approximately 6.69×10^{-4} /bp and 9.71×10^{-5} /bp (Table 1). Simultaneously, we
324 conducted an IBD analysis of the parent plants to explore their kinship relationships.
325 The IBD results indicated an average PI-Hat value of 0.733 between the flowering
326 parent plants (Figure 6B).

327 **Basic Differences Between Parent Plants and Offspring**

328 To investigate the spontaneous mutation rate during Moso bamboo sexual
329 reproduction, we compared the sequencing results of flowering Moso bamboo parent
330 plants with those of their respective offspring. The results demonstrated an average of
331 2,047,904 differential SNPs between the flowering parent plants and their offspring,
332 yielding an average mutation frequency of approximately 1.15×10^{-3} /bp. Furthermore,
333 we identified an average of 236,623 indels and 2,109 structural variants (SVs)
334 between the flowering parent plants and their offspring, with a single-base indel
335 mutation frequency of 1.33×10^{-4} /bp (Table 1). Moreover, all SNPs, indels, and SVs
336 observed between the offspring and their corresponding parent plants exhibited

337 characteristics of a normal distribution (Figures 1A–C, See Table S3 for details).
338 Subsequent IBD analysis yielded an average IBD index of 0.474 between flowering
339 parent plants and their offspring (Figure 6B).



340
341 Fig. 1. Basic differences between maternal and offspring genomes; A: Total SNPs
342 between mothers and offspring; B: total indel differences between mothers and
343 offspring. C: Total SVs between mothers and offspring. D: Positional preference pie
344 chart for SNP differences between mothers and offspring. E: Position preference pie
345 chart for indel differences between mothers and offspring.

346

347 **Differential Location Preferences Between Parents and Offspring**

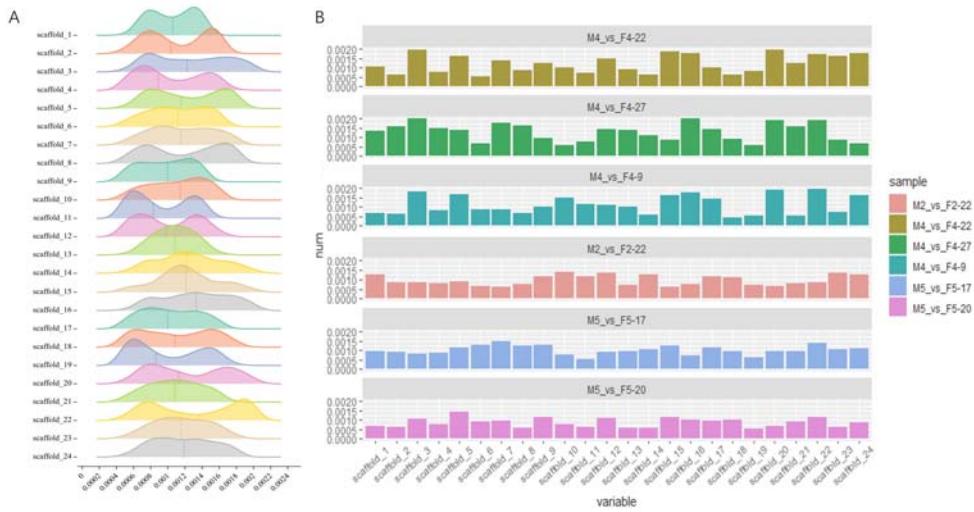
348 To enhance our understanding of spontaneous mutation rates during sexual
349 reproduction in Moso bamboo, we integrated the differential variations observed
350 between flowering Moso bamboo parent plants and their offspring. This
351 comprehensive approach facilitated a detailed analysis of the mutation preferences in
352 sexual reproduction. The results demonstrated that the distribution preferences of both

353 SNPs and indels exhibited similarities, predominantly occurring in intergenic regions
354 and constituting 68.66% of all identified SNPs. Conversely, a minority of SNPs were
355 detected in the coding regions, with non-synonymous mutations accounting for only
356 1.04% of the total SNPs (Figure 1D, Table S3).

357 An analysis of chromosomal positions revealed that the SNP mutation frequency
358 was most pronounced on chromosome 16, whereas chromosome 11 exhibited the
359 lowest frequency. It was worth noting that the frequency of mutation on most
360 chromosomes presented a bimodal distribution, which indicated that there were two
361 types of offspring with different mutation frequencies on these chromosomes between
362 the mother and offspring (Figure 2A). Examination of individual samples with
363 substantial fluctuations in mutation frequencies revealed that approximately half of
364 the chromosomes in these samples manifested elevated mutation frequencies, whereas
365 the remaining half exhibited lower frequencies (Figure 2B).

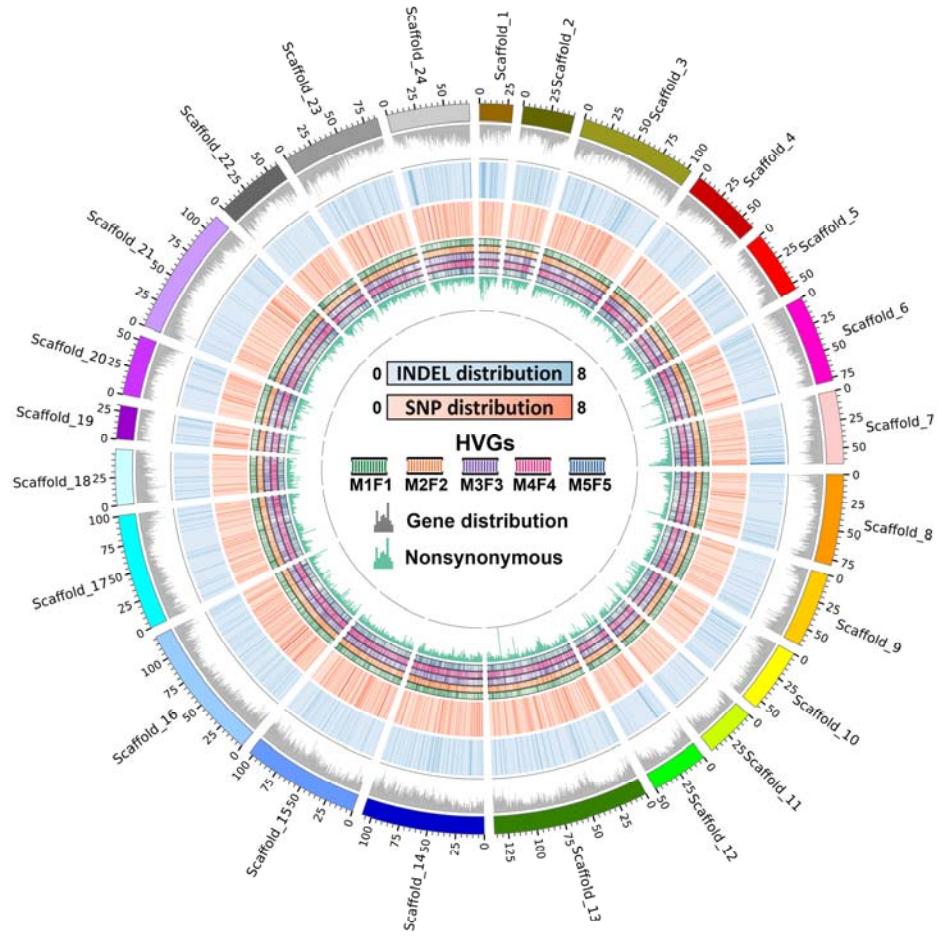
366 Furthermore, the average frequency of indels was highest on chromosome 1 and
367 lowest on chromosome 11. Similar to the SNPs, most chromosomes displayed a
368 bimodal distribution at indel frequencies (Figure S3).

369 Subsequent analyses focused on positional preferences for non-synonymous
370 mutations in the SNPs. Notably, we identified significant clustering of
371 non-synonymous SNPs in the middle-to-late region of chromosome 13. Moreover,
372 distinct regions at the ends of several other chromosomes, including chromosomes 1,
373 6, and 7, also demonstrated notable clustering of non-synonymous SNP mutations
374 (Figure 3).



375

376 Fig. 2. Distribution of SNP frequency differences between mothers and offspring. A:
377 Peak map of SNP frequency differences across various chromosomes between all
378 offspring and their respective mothers. B: SNP frequency differences on various
379 chromosomes for each progeny were independently computed and sorted according to
380 standard deviation. Subsequently, the 3 progenies displaying the highest fluctuations
381 in the SNP frequency of chromosome differences (top histogram) and the 3 progenies
382 with the smallest fluctuations (bottom histogram) were selected to construct a
383 histogram of chromosome difference frequencies.



384

385 Fig. 3. Circos diagram of variation sites between mothers and offspring. This diagram
386 encapsulates the statistical results of the sites of variation between all offspring and
387 their corresponding mothers. The window size was set to 1 Mb, with the outer and
388 inner rings representing: (1) chromosome structure and identification, (2) peak
389 distribution of genes, (3) distribution heat map of indel variations, (4) distribution of
390 differential SNPs, (5)–(8) heat map of high frequency mutation gene distribution
391 between different offspring and mothers, and (9) Peak map of SNP distribution for
392 non-synonymous mutations.

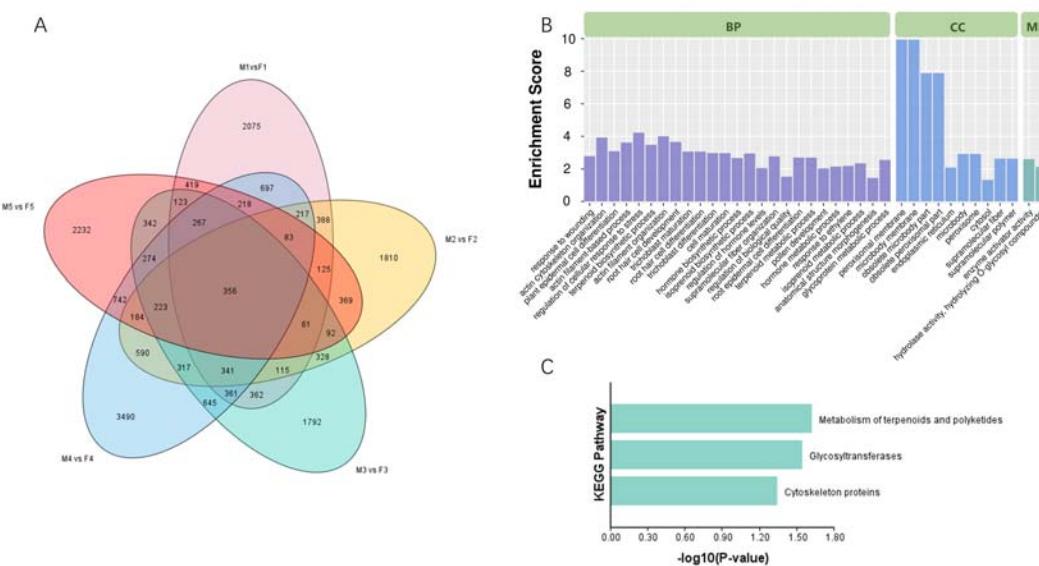
393 **Differential Functional Preferences Between Parents and Offspring**

394 To delineate the functional preferences of mutations in Moso bamboo during sexual
395 reproduction, we compiled all SNPs between parent plants and their offspring and

396 focused on genes exhibiting the highest mutation rates for subsequent GO and KEGG
397 functional enrichment analyses. Our efforts yielded a collection of 356 genes
398 characterized by high mutation rates (Figure 4A; Table S5).

399 GO enrichment results in the Biological Process category indicated that the most
400 enriched processes included "regulation of cellular response to stress" and "actin
401 filament organization." In the Cellular Component category, many genes were
402 enriched in "peroxisomal membrane" and "microbody membrane." In the Molecular
403 Function category, only two categories, "enzyme activator activity" and "hydrolase
404 activity, hydrolyzing O-glycosyl compounds," showed gene enrichment (Figure 4B).

405 The KEGG enrichment analysis suggested three significant pathways:
406 "Metabolism of terpenoids and polyketides," "Glycosyltransferases," and
407 "Cytoskeleton proteins" (Figure 4B). To validate the reliability of the sequencing data,
408 we selected 5 genes from the aforementioned 356 genes and performed Sanger
409 sequencing on 6 samples. The findings demonstrated a high degree of concordance
410 between Sanger sequencing results and those obtained through high-throughput
411 sequencing (Figure S4; Table S6).



412
413 Fig. 4. Functional enrichment analysis of high-frequency mutated genes between
414 mothers and offspring. A: Venn diagram illustrating high-frequency mutated genes

415 shared between the offspring populations and their respective mothers, where
416 high-frequency genes represent those mutated in 29 or more samples within a progeny
417 population. B: GO enrichment map displaying the high-frequency mutant genes. C:
418 KEGG enrichment map of high-frequency mutant genes.

419 **Observation of Floral Organs in Flowering Bamboos**

420 To enhance our understanding of flowering and pollination patterns in Moso bamboo,
421 we conducted anatomical observations of floral organs in flowering specimens. The
422 results revealed that during the initial stages of floral organ development, the stamens
423 exhibited more rapid development, emerging from the flower bud prior to the pistils
424 (Figure 5B and 5E).

425 During maturation, the pistils exhibited close proximity to the stamens, avoiding
426 contact with the anther's pollination region (Figure 5C and 5D). Additionally, the
427 stamens did not disperse pollen but were enclosed within the flower bud; pollen
428 release was initiated upon their emergence from the bud (Figure 5F).

429 Upon the initial emergence of stamens, observations showed that the stigmas of
430 the pistils remained unmarked by discernible pollination events. Nevertheless, stigmas
431 on pistils that had undergone pollination exhibited pollen grains (Figure 5G to 5I).



432

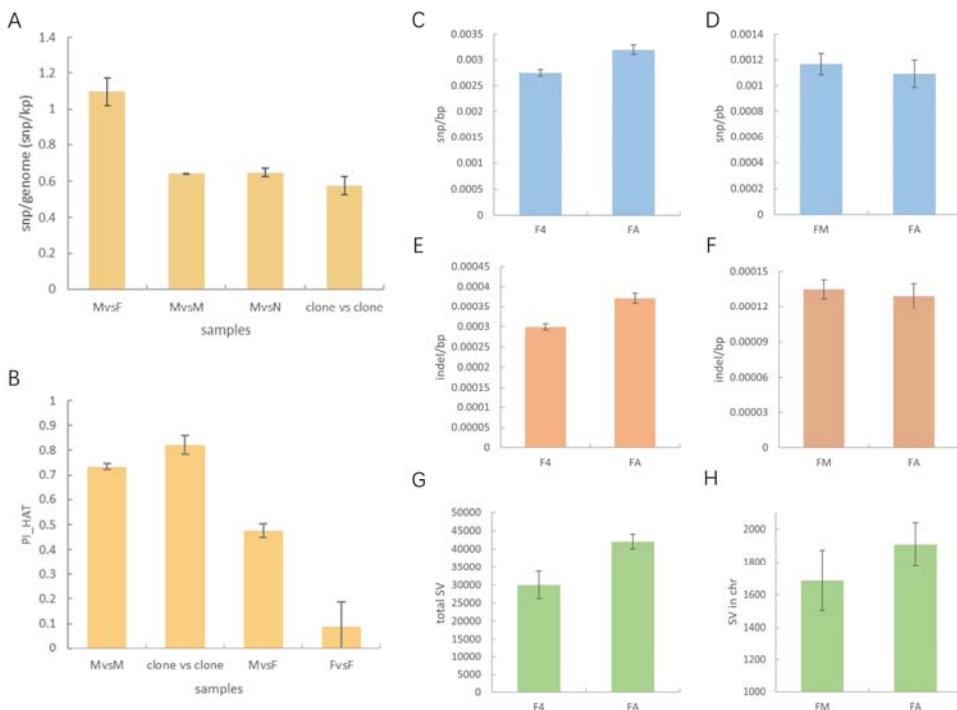
433 Fig. 5. Anatomical illustrations of bamboo flower organs. (A) Bamboo inflorescences
434 at various flowering stages, from left to right: bud, initial flowering, and full
435 flowering stages. (B) Clear view of young tissue containing both the developing pistil
436 and the relatively faster-growing stamen. (C) The proximity of the growing pistil to
437 the stamen suture within the young tissue of the flower. (D) The pistil remains close to
438 the stamen suture as the stamen begins to emerge from the bud, avoiding loose pollen
439 on the anther side. (E) The entirety of the newly emerged stamen. (F) Zooms on the
440 stamen from (E) reveal loose pollen on the exterior, while the interior remains closed.
441 (G) Overall state of the pistil when the anther extends from the bud. (H) A detailed
442 view of the pistil when the anther has just protruded from the bud, highlighting the
443 clean structure of the pistil villi and absence of obvious pollination events. (I)
444 Detailed view of the pistil after pollination, showing visible anther attachment.

445 **Preliminary Assessment of ARTP Mutation Effects**

446 Sequencing analysis of ARTP-mutated seedlings revealed a substantial increase in the
447 occurrence of SNPs, INDELs, and SVs compared to both the control group (offspring
448 of mother plant number four) and the reference genome. Specifically, the mutation

449 group exhibited average counts of 5,690,837 SNPs, 659,534 INDELS, and 42,018 SVs,
450 with increments of 16.52%, 23.97%, and 39.85%, respectively, compared to the
451 control group and reference genome.

452 Compared to the mother plant, the mutation group displayed relatively consistent
453 SNP and INDEL frequencies, whereas the number of SVs was notably higher in the
454 mutation group than in the control group, representing a 13.10% increase relative to
455 the control group (Figure 6C–H).



456
457 Fig. 6. Statistical histograms of variation among samples in each group A: Histogram
458 depicting the SNP mutation frequency among samples in each group. B: Histogram
459 displaying the IBD analysis results among samples in each group. C: Histogram
460 illustrating the SNP mutation frequency of mutagenic progeny and the control group
461 against the reference genome. D: Histogram showing the SNP mutation frequency of
462 mutagenic progeny and the control group against the maternal parent. E: Histogram
463 showing indel mutation frequency of mutagenic progeny and the control group against
464 the reference genome. F: Histogram delineating indel mutation frequency of
465 mutagenic progeny and the control group against the maternal parent. G: Histogram

466 representing the total SV for reference genomes of mutagenic progeny and the control
467 group. H: Histogram showing the total SV of the mutagenic progeny and the control
468 group against the maternal parent.

469 **Discussion**

470 **Population attributes of flowering groups in Moso bamboo are asexual
471 reproductive lineages**

472 The asexual reproductive lineage of Moso bamboo is characterized by a clonal
473 population originating from a single individual that undergoes asexual reproduction
474 via bamboo shoots in a specific area. This reproductive strategy plays a crucial role in
475 the rapid expansion of Moso bamboo forests within specific habitats, facilitating
476 resource allocation, ecological adaptation, and population stability. Therefore, it is
477 plausible that, in their natural environment, Moso bamboo forests within a given area
478 represent asexual reproductive lineages that have endured natural selection processes
479 (H. Zhang & Xue, 2018; Zheng & Lv, 2023).

480 In this study, we conducted resequencing analysis on flowering mother plants
481 and adjacent Moso bamboo. The sequencing results demonstrated minimal genetic
482 differences between the mother plants and their immediate surroundings. We further
483 compared the sequencing data from different tissues of the same Moso bamboo
484 specimen and contrasted them with the genetic distinctions observed in the flowering
485 mother plants and surrounding Moso bamboo. Notably, a similar degree of genetic
486 discrepancies was observed. After IBD analysis, a remarkably akin consanguineous
487 relationship between the maternal and control populations was identified. Any slight
488 discrepancies may be attributed to the accumulation of mutations resulting from
489 longer asexual reproduction in the maternal population than that in the control
490 population. In summary, we designated the flowering mother plant population as an
491 asexual reproductive lineage.

492 **Elevated mutation frequency in sexual reproduction of Moso bamboo**

493 Notable genetic differentiation was observed between the maternal parent and
494 offspring of Moso bamboo. The mutation frequency at the single nucleotide level
495 between offspring and the maternal parent is estimated at 1.15×10^{-3} /bp. Notably, this
496 frequency can include potential sequencing errors and inherent genetic variations
497 within the maternal parent population. Considering these factors, the minimum
498 mutation frequency in the sexual reproduction of Moso bamboo is calculated to be
499 4.54×10^{-4} /bp, a value significantly higher than the mutation rate observed in each
500 generation of *Arabidopsis*.

501 This outcome may stem from various contributing factors. This could be
502 attributed to inherent variations within Moso bamboo populations or to environmental
503 influences from their source habitats. In addition, Moso bamboo may possess intrinsic
504 features that drive this heightened mutation rate. Compared to other grasses, the
505 estimated spontaneous mutation rate per generation in Moso bamboo aligns with that
506 of maize and wheat (Thuillet et al., 2002; Vigouroux et al., 2002). Although the
507 calculation methods may differ, this finding suggests the potential for an elevated
508 genetic mutation rate within grass species.

509 High heterozygosity may contribute to the increase in the spontaneous mutation
510 rate observed during sexual reproduction. The selected flowering maternal parent
511 population displayed relatively high heterozygosity, with SNP sites in the maternal
512 parent population reaching 66%, in contrast to a reduction of 42% in the offspring.
513 This indicated a substantial rate of variation between generations of Moso bamboo
514 while maintaining genetic uniformity. After each sexual reproduction event,
515 heterozygosity experiences a significant reduction, but the natural population always
516 maintains a high level of heterozygosity. These characteristics are somewhat
517 contradictory, leading us to propose a hypothesis: Moso bamboo generates a
518 substantial number of somatic cell mutations during its annual asexual reproduction
519 process. Although the accumulation rate is gradual, over an extended period,
520 these mutations diminish the impact of somatic cell mutations in sexual reproduction

521 and generate new mutations in the process (Nishiyama et al., 2023). From an
522 evolutionary perspective, this strategy aligns with the protracted reproductive cycle of
523 the Moso bamboo. A high mutation rate survival strategy enables the maintenance of
524 greater genetic diversity to withstand the pressures of natural selection.
525 Simultaneously, it employs a self-pollination-like effect in sexual reproduction to
526 counterbalance the effects of excessive accumulation of mutations (Petit & Hampe,
527 2006).

528 **Mutational Site Distribution and Flowering Characteristics Suggest a High
529 Probability of Cross-Pollination in Bamboo**

530 Our analysis of the mutation site distribution between maternal and offspring genomes
531 revealed a notable pattern: a distinct bimodal distribution of mutation frequencies
532 across the majority of chromosomes when comparing offspring to their maternal
533 counterparts. This phenomenon can be attributed to the reproductive modes of
534 bamboo, which include both self-pollination and cross-pollination. In cases of
535 cross-pollination, inherent genetic differences between maternal and paternal bamboo,
536 despite the overall flowering population being asexual, led to more pronounced
537 disparities between offspring and the maternal parent compared to those arising from
538 self-pollination. This resulted in an uneven distribution of mutation frequencies across
539 the chromosomes. Therefore, the bimodal pattern indirectly suggested a higher
540 likelihood of cross-pollination in bamboo.

541 To validate our hypothesis, we conducted a detailed observation of the flowering
542 process of bamboo. The results demonstrated a specific morphological characteristic:
543 female pistils in bamboo closely adhered to the median cleft of anthers before they
544 emerged from the flower bud. This attachment effectively prevented pollen dispersion
545 from the sides of the anthers. Concurrently, we noted that female pistils in bamboo
546 elongated after male anthers, a pattern consistent with observations in another bamboo
547 species, *Bambusa tulda* Roxb, as reported by Chakraborty et al. (2021). Furthermore,
548 our dissection of the newly extended male anthers demonstrated the release of pollen
549 from the sides upon extension from the flower bud, with no anther dehiscence

550 occurring within the bud. In summary, the structural characteristics of bamboo
551 flowering provided a morphological foundation for cross-pollination, thus reinforcing
552 our hypothesis.

553 **Mining and Analysis of High-Frequency Mutational Sites**

554 Through an analysis of mutation frequencies in the genes involved in sexual
555 reproduction, we identified notable high-frequency mutational genes. Notably,
556 PH02Gene41837 and PH02Gene41835, which were located on chromosome 13,
557 exhibited particularly elevated non-synonymous mutation rates during sexual
558 reproduction. Although PH02Gene41837 lacked annotations in GO and KEGG, it was
559 annotated with the Rapid Alkalization Factor in PFAM. Rapid Alkalization
560 Factors represent a class of small proteins in plants and are known for their role in
561 regulating cell growth and development in the extracellular environment. They play
562 pivotal roles in cell wall relaxation, stress resistance, and signal transduction. Previous
563 research has highlighted the heightened expression of Rapid Alkalization Factors
564 during sexual reproduction in plants, particularly in mature ovaries and pollen (Hung
565 et al., 2023; Y. Li et al., 2010; Y. L. Li et al., 2014).

566 PH02Gene41835 is annotated as a chloroplast translocase using multiple
567 databases. With these annotations, this gene encodes a protein situated in the outer
568 membrane of the chloroplast, demonstrating GTP-binding capacity and hydrolase
569 activity. This suggests an involvement in protein targeting to the chloroplast and
570 potential participation in chloroplast metabolic pathways (Kouranov & Schnell, 1997;
571 Schünemann, 2007). Overall, the high non-synonymous mutation rates observed in
572 these genes imply robust selection pressure in their evolutionary history, potentially
573 driven by the need to adapt to specific environmental or functional demands. This
574 adaptation may broaden the functional diversity of these proteins under specific
575 environmental conditions, thereby enabling them to occupy various ecological niches
576 or perform diverse biological functions.

577 **Whole Genome Sequencing Reveals the Mutagenic Effects of Mutagenic
578 Materials**

579 To assess the practical implications of the observed spontaneous mutation rate, we
580 conducted whole-genome sequencing of the bamboo seedlings subjected to ARTP
581 mutagenesis. The sequencing results revealed a substantial augmentation in SNP,
582 indel, and SV occurrences at the reference genome level in the mutated seedlings
583 compared to the non-mutated ordinary offspring. Notably, SVs exhibited the most
584 pronounced increase, aligned with the underlying mutagenic mechanism of ARTP
585 mutagenesis, involving activation of intracellular SOS repair mechanisms (X. Zhang
586 et al., 2015). Compared with the mother plant, the mutation frequency of SNP and
587 indel in the mutated seedlings displayed only slight disparities compared with the
588 control group. Nevertheless, a notable increase in SVs was still evident. This
589 phenomenon can be attributed to the batch effect errors introduced during the
590 mutation statistics (Lou & Therkildsen, 2021; Tom et al., 2017). The mutation group
591 was sequenced subsequent to the mother plant and the normal offspring, potentially
592 resulting in differential data availability. However, the discernible increase in SVs in
593 the offspring following ARTP mutagenesis remains a significant observation.

594 **Supplementary data**

595 The following supplementary data are available at JXB online:

596 Table S1. Sequencing quality of individual samples and population genetic diversity

597 Table S2. Statistics of variation between sample and reference genome

598 Table S3. SNP variation between parents and their offspring

599 Table S4. IBD analysis results between samples

600 Table S5. Genes with high mutation rate in each strain

601 Table S6. Primers and results of sanger sequencing

602 Fig S1. PCA analysis results between samples

603 Fig S2. Phylogenetic tree of all samples

604 Fig S3. Statistical peak map of chromosome-level variation between sample and

605 parent

606 Fig S4. Multi-sequence comparison of sanger sequencing results

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615 **Author Contribution**

616 Bai Yiwei completed the first draft writing and data analysis. Ma Yanjun was
617 responsible for collecting and processing the samples. Chang Yanting completed the
618 paper data management. Zhang Wenbo was responsible for the data visualization of
619 the paper. Deng Yayun and Fan Keke assisted in sample collection and processing.
620 Zhang Xue, Zhang Na, Chu Tiankui and Ye Yaqin reviewed and revised the
621 manuscript. Jiang Zehui and Hu Tao completed the project conception and project
622 management.

623 **Conflict of interest**

624 We declare that we do not have any commercial or associative interest that represents
625 a conflict of interest in connection with the work submitted

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630 **Data availability**

631 All sequencing raw data have been deposited in the NCBI under accession number
632 PRJNA1022845.

633 **Reference**

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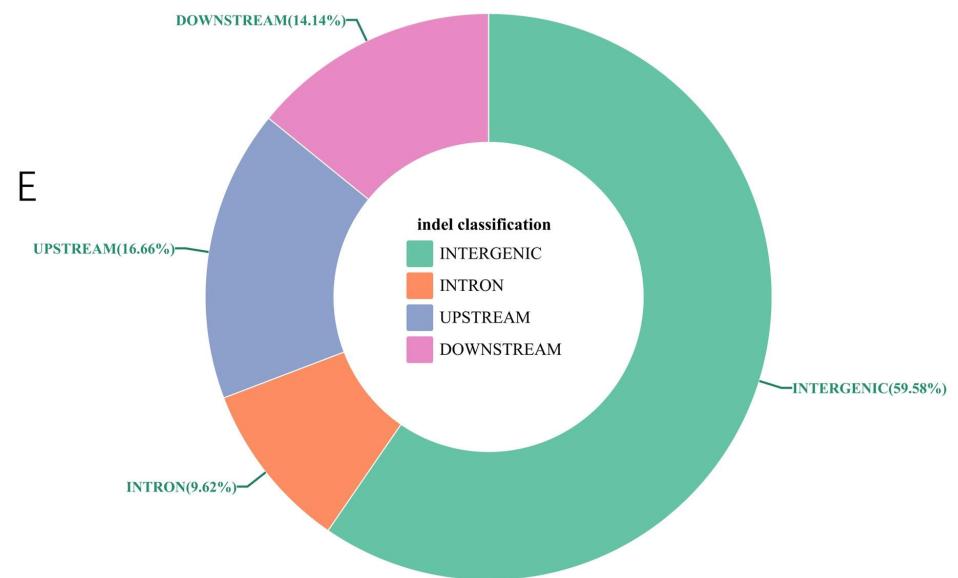
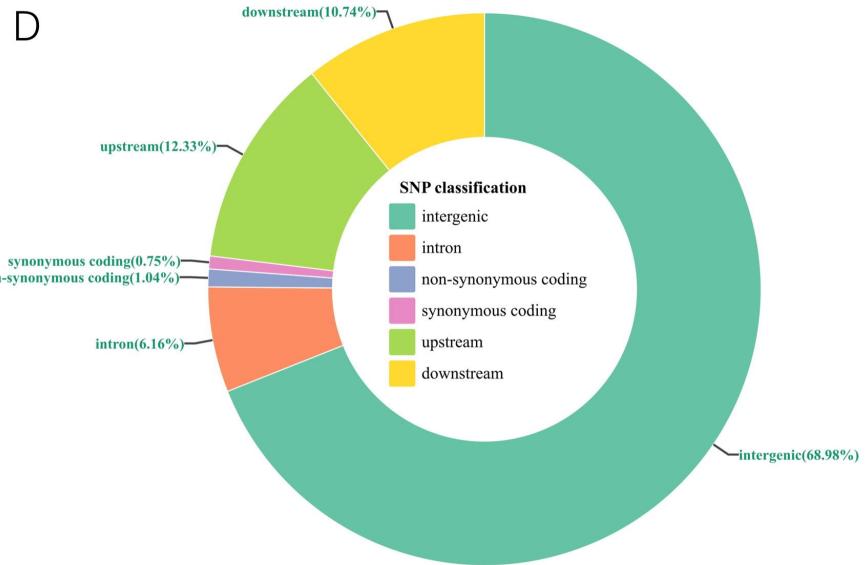
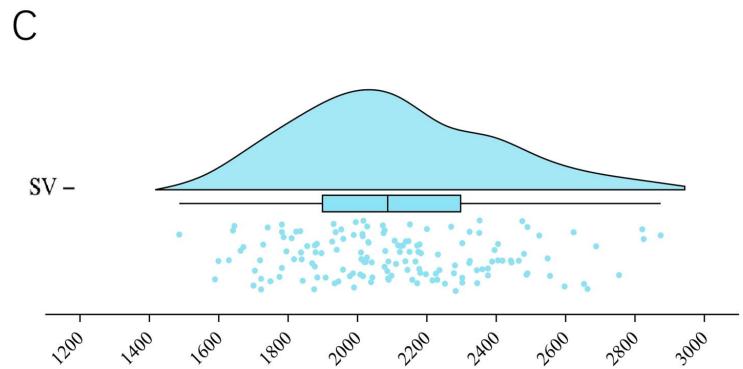
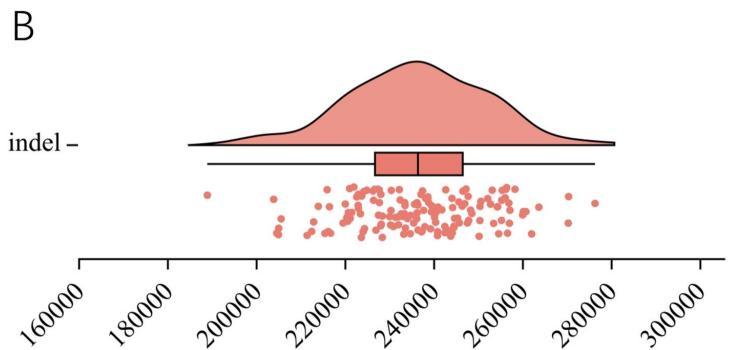
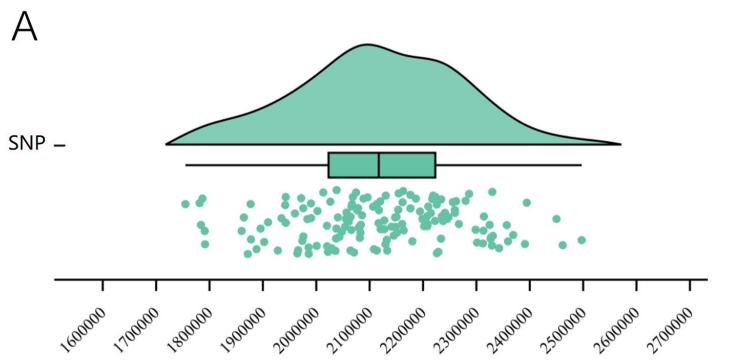
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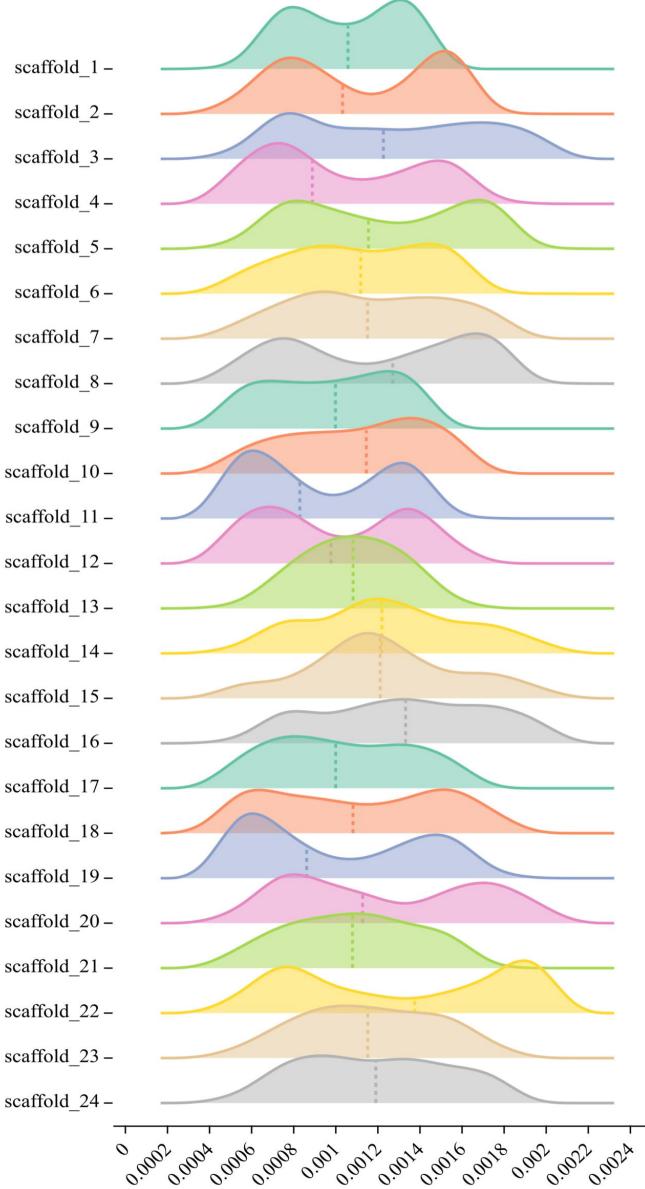
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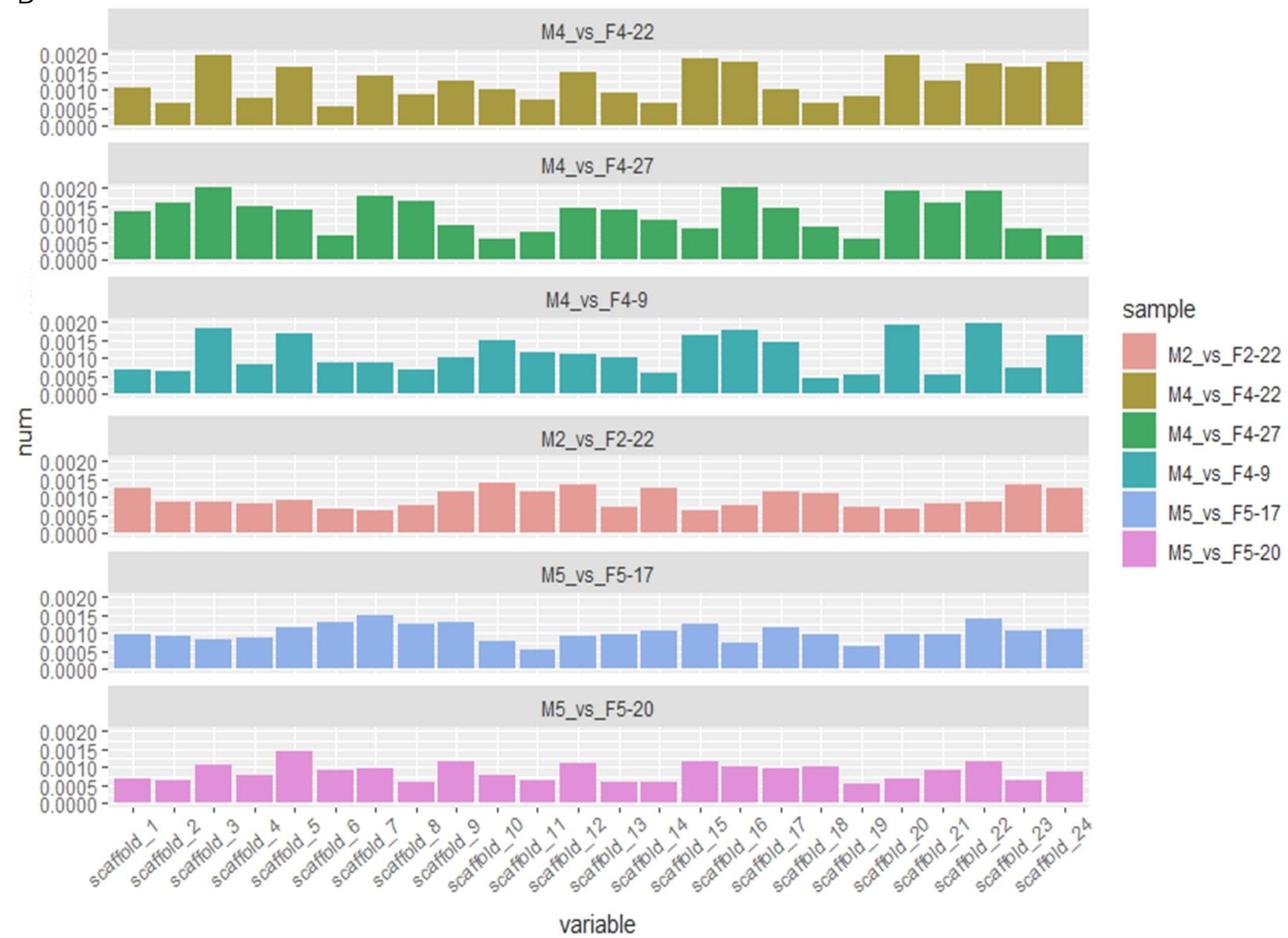
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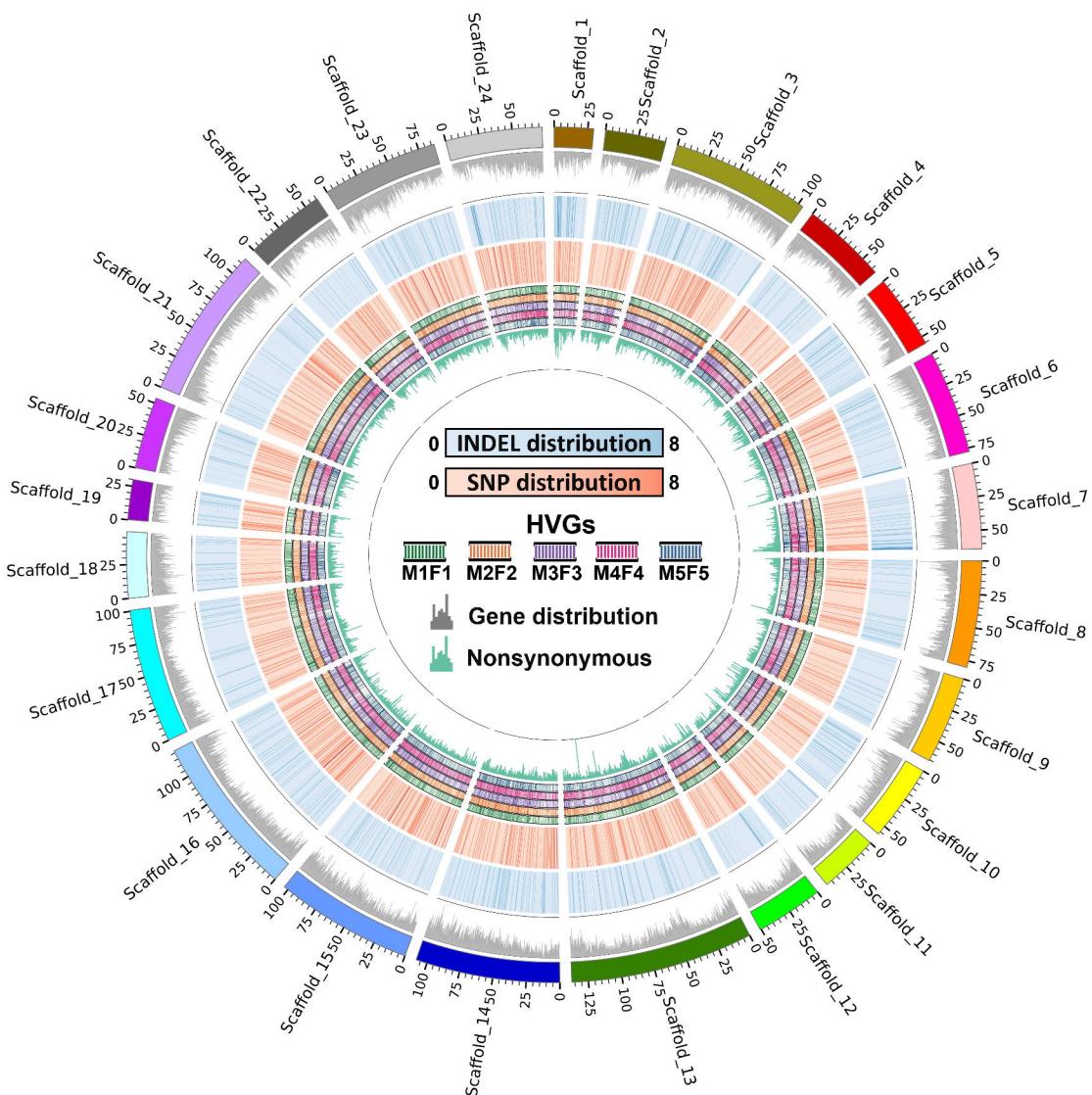


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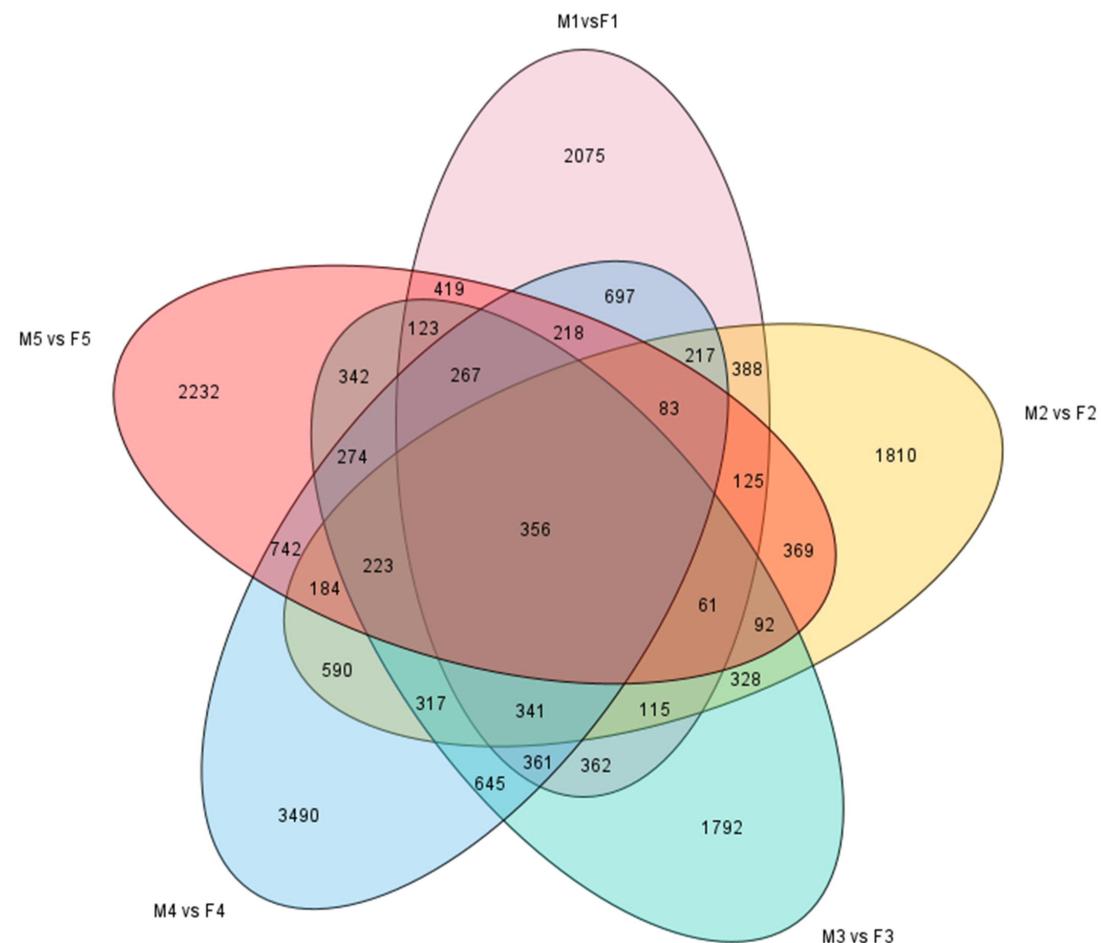


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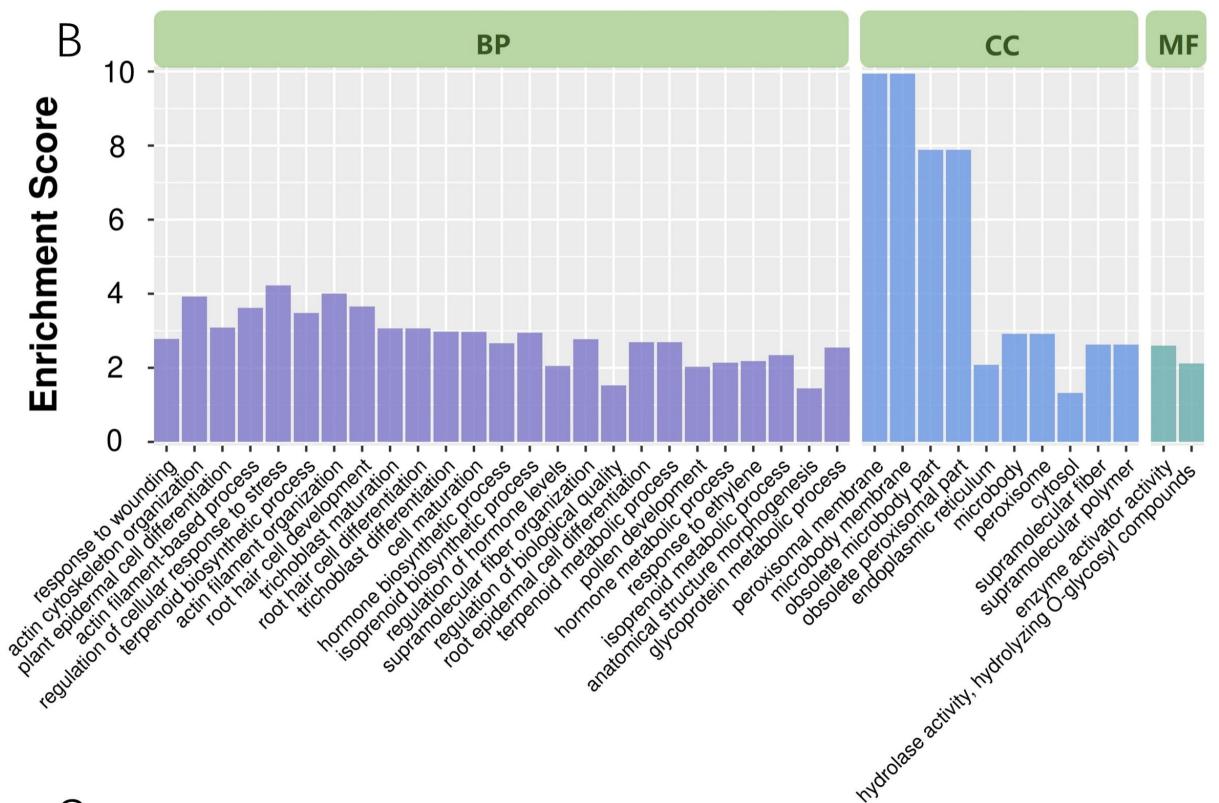




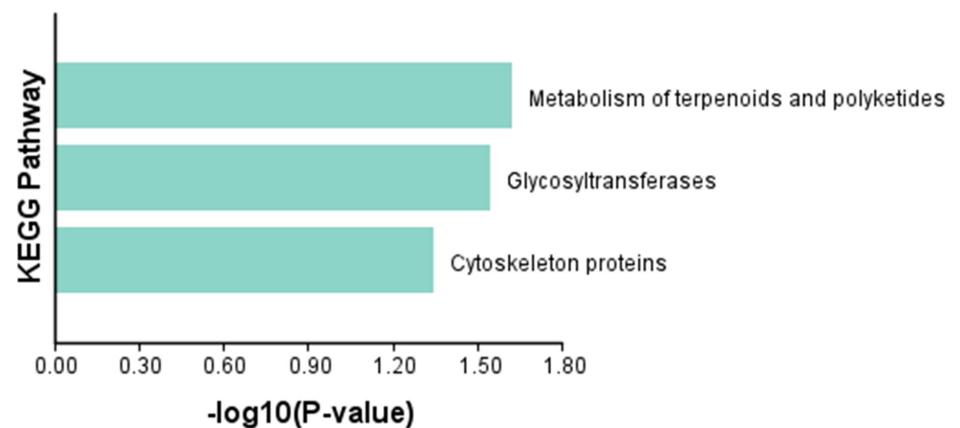
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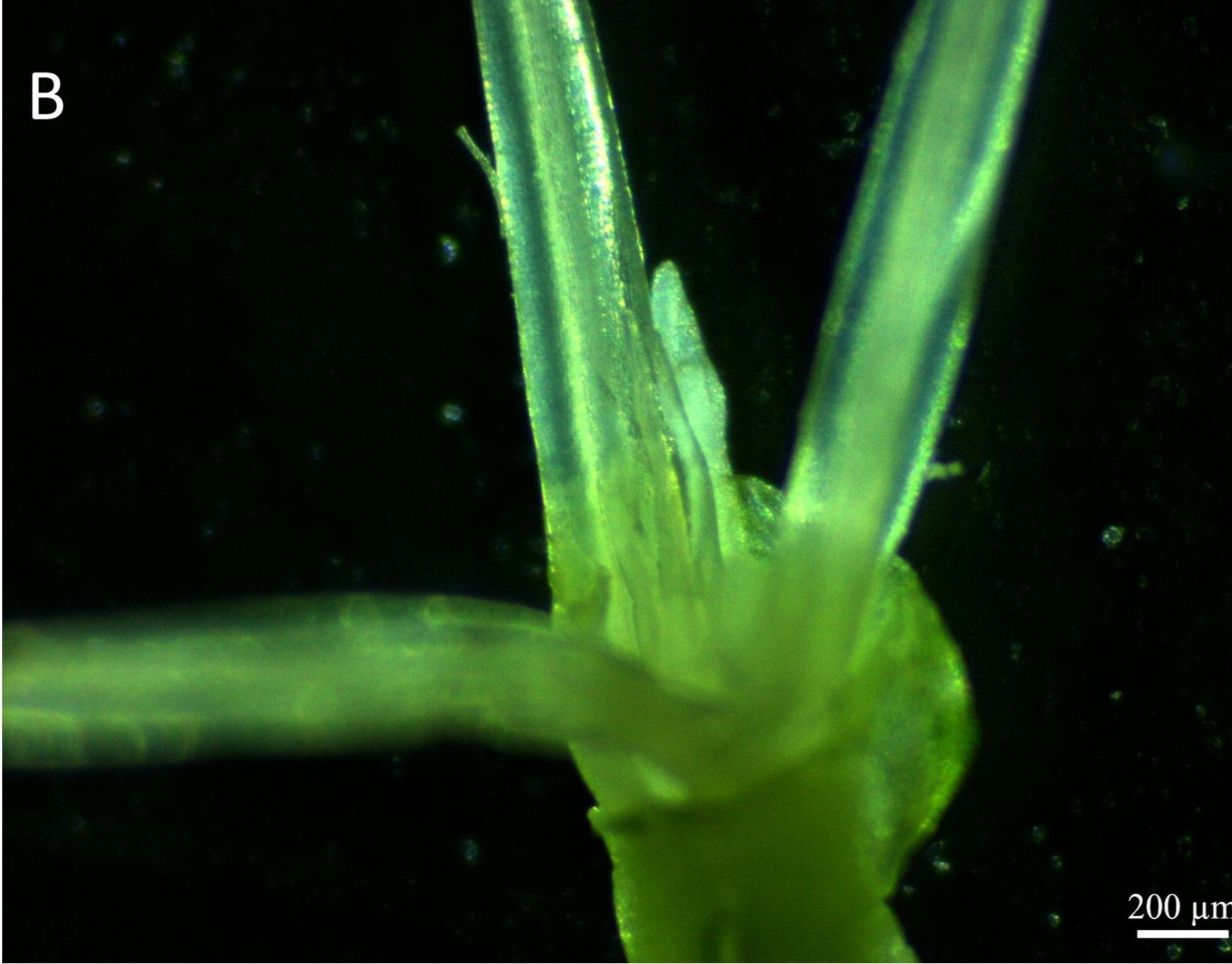
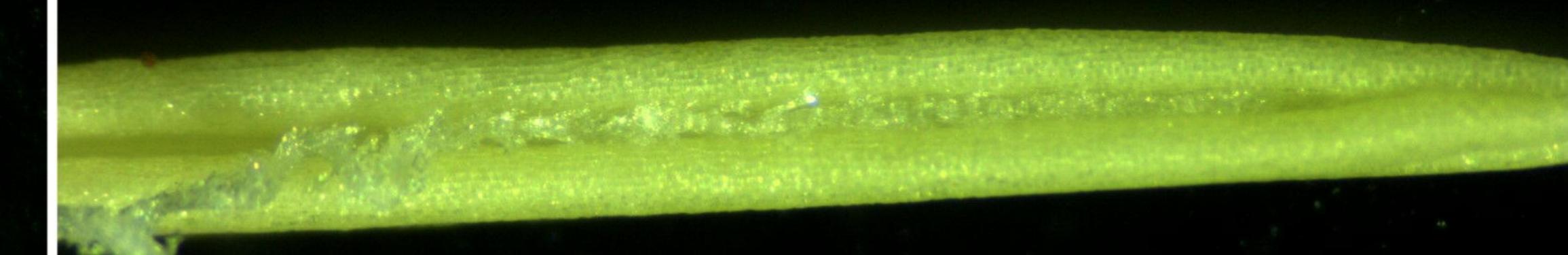
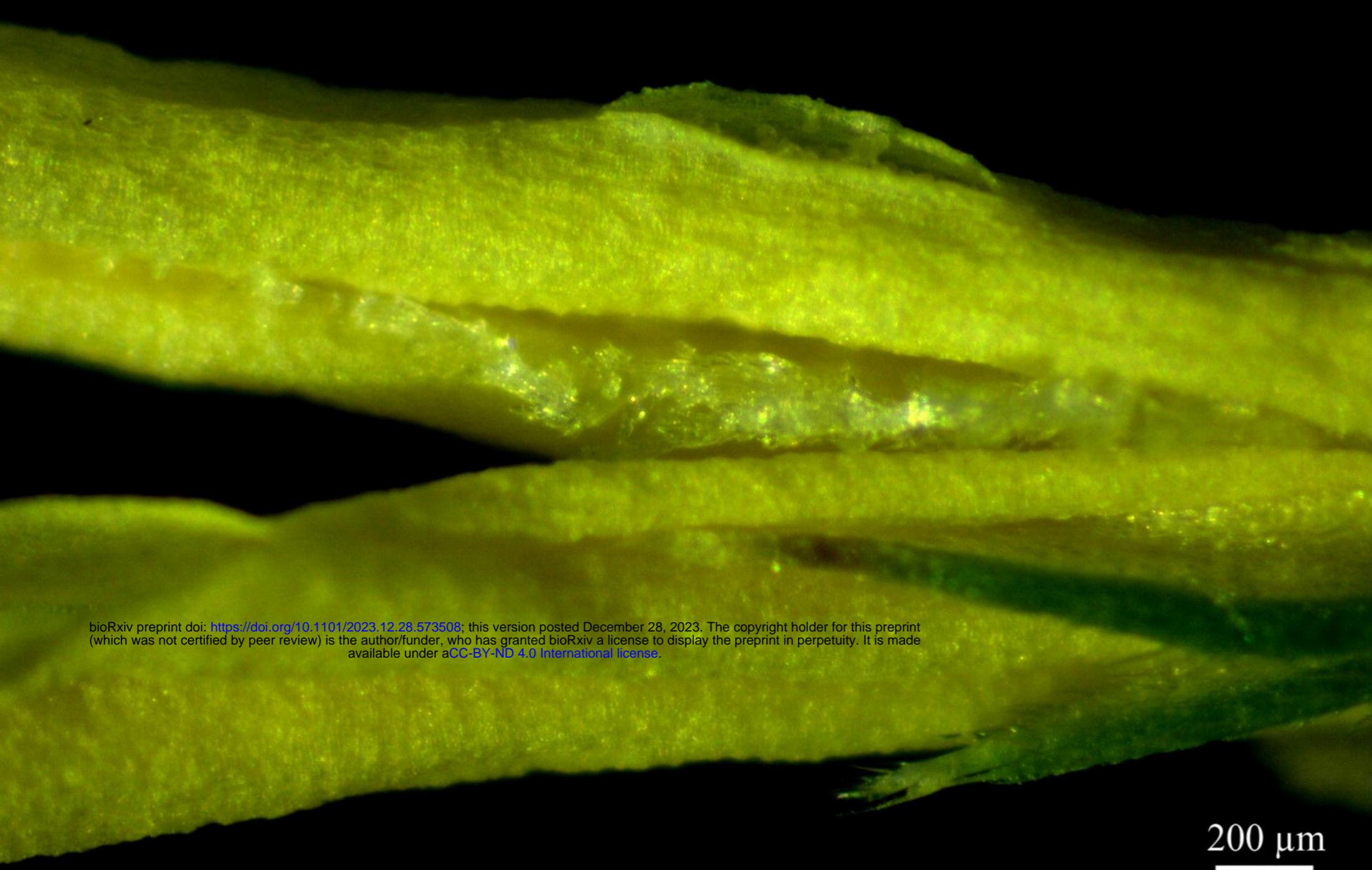
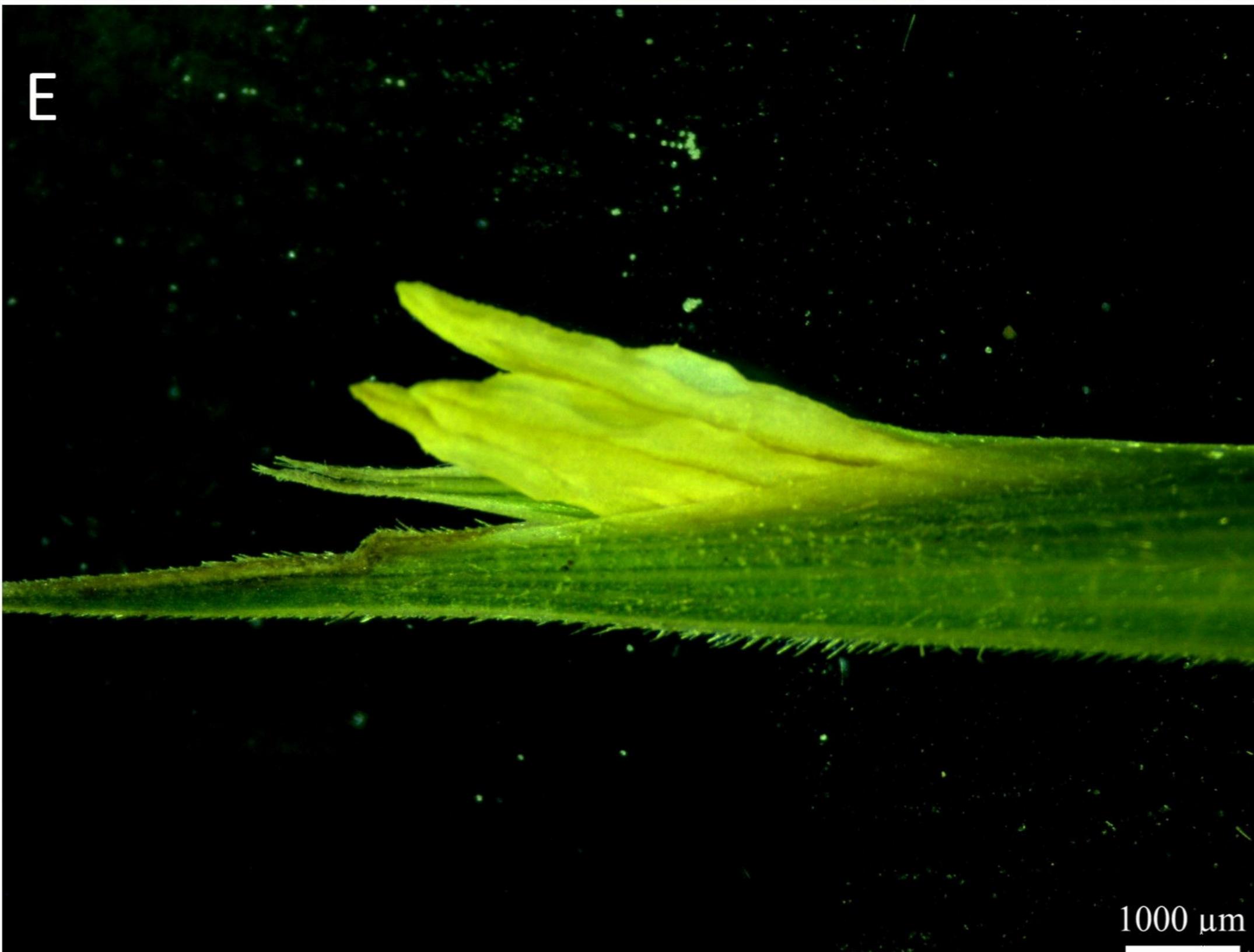
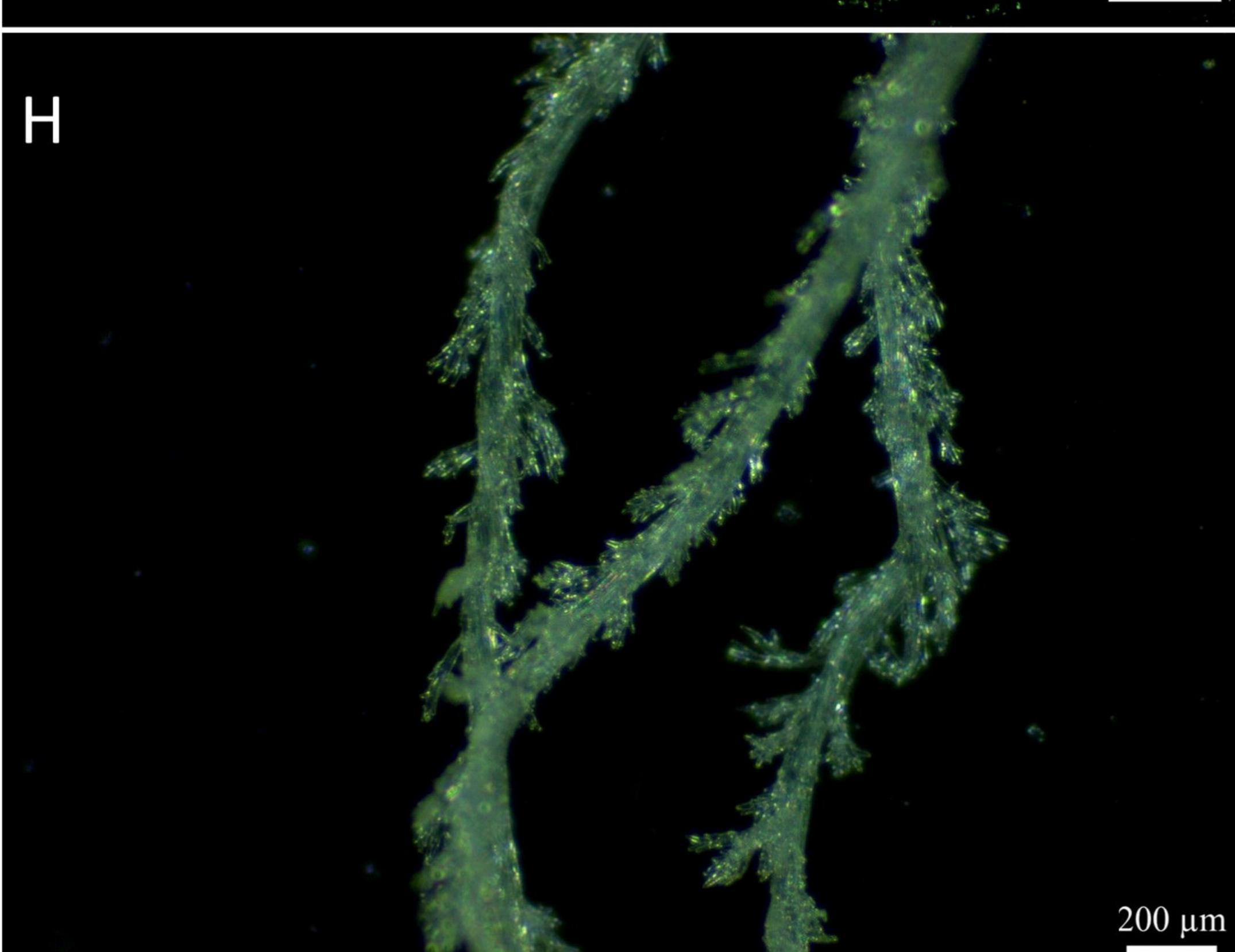


B



C



A**B****C****D****E****F****G****H****I**

