

Development of a genetic linkage map and identification of homologous linkage groups in sweetpotato using multiple-dose AFLP markers

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Abstract Sweetpotato genomic research is minimal compared to most other major crops despite its worldwide importance as a food crop. The development of a genetic linkage map in sweetpotato will provide valuable information about the genomic organization of this important species that can be used by breeders to accelerate the introgression of desired traits into breeding lines. We developed a mapping population consisting of 240 individuals of a cross between ‘Tanzania’, a cream-fleshed African landrace, and ‘Beauregard’, an orange-fleshed US sweetpotato cultivar. The genetic linkage map of

this population was constructed using Amplified Fragment Length Polymorphism (AFLP) markers. A total of 1944 (‘Tanzania’) and 1751 (‘Beauregard’) AFLP markers, of which 1511 and 1303 were single-dose markers respectively, were scored. Framework maps consisting of 86 and 90 linkage groups for ‘Tanzania’ and ‘Beauregard’ respectively, were developed using a combination of JoinMap 3.0 and MAPMAKER/EXP 3.0. A total of 947 single-dose markers were placed in the final framework linkage map for ‘Tanzania’. The linkage map size was estimated as 5792 cM, with an average distance between markers of 4.5 cM. A total of 726 single-dose markers were placed in the final framework map for ‘Beauregard’. The linkage map length was estimated as 5276 cM, with an average distance between markers of 4.8 cM. Duplex and triple-dose markers were used to identify the corresponding homologous groups in the maps. Our research supports the hypothesis that sweetpotato is an autopolyploid. Distorted segregation in some markers of different dosages in this study suggests that some preferential pairing occurs in sweetpotato. However, strict allopolyploid inheritance in sweetpotato can be ruled out due to the observed segregation ratios of the markers, and the proportion of simplex to multiple-dose markers.

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Introduction

Sweetpotato, *Ipomoea batatas* (L.) Lam. is the seventh most important crop in terms of production with more than 122 million metric tons produced annually worldwide (CIP 2005; FAOSTAT 2006). The polyploid nature of sweetpotato ($2n = 6x = 90$), outcrossing behavior, and numerous mating incompatibilities, make sweetpotato breeding difficult. Breeding efforts are complicated by the fact that most traits of economic significance exhibit quantitative inheritance (Collins et al. 1999; Jones 1986). The sweetpotato breeding community lacks a detailed genetic linkage map to facilitate the breeding process. To date, two independent genetic maps of sweetpotato have been reported (Kriegner et al. 2003; Ukoskit et al. 1997). However, neither of these maps identified all of the expected linkage groups, and as a result they have provided very little information on the genomic organization of this important crop.

Constructing genetic maps in polyploids has historically been challenging, and has most successfully been accomplished for allopolyploid species. This is due to their similarity to diploids in terms of the segregation patterns and chromosomal pairing (Hermesen 1984; Sybenga 1996). Genetic mapping in polyploids is difficult for several reasons. First, a large number of possible genotypes are expected in a segregating population due to the larger number of alleles combining in a particular event given the ploidy level of the genome. This is especially true in autopolyploid species. Second, the genotype of an individual is not always readily inferred through its marker phenotype. Third, the type of ploidy (allopolyploidy or autopolyploidy) of many crops is unclear, making it difficult to determine patterns of inheritance (Ripol et al. 1999; Wu et al. 1992). This latter aspect is particularly important, given that in an autopolyploid species, corresponding chromosomes in the different genome copies are homologs and, therefore, can pair randomly between each other. In contrast, for allopolyploids chromosomes may originate from 2 or more different genomes and during meiosis will pair preferentially to their homologs from the same genome, and in lower frequency to a homeologous chromosome (Ramsey and Schemske 2002; Sybenga 1996).

A commonly used approach to construct molecular genetic maps in polyploids is based on the use of single-dose fragments (SDF). Wu et al. (1992)

illustrated this method using both autopolyploid and allopolyploid species with different ploidy levels. As single-dose markers are markers present in one parent in a single copy, during gamete formation only half will carry the marker. Thus, regardless of the ploidy of the genome, half the progeny will possess this fragment and half will not. SDFs combined with other mapping strategies such as testcross and pseudo-testcross approaches, have been used to construct linkage maps in several polyploid species, including potato, sugarcane, and eucalyptus (da Silva et al. 1993; Ghislain et al. 2004; Grattapaglia and Sederoff 1994; Hoarau et al. 2001; Ripol et al. 1999), and for sweetpotato (Kriegner et al. 2003; Ukoskit and Thompson 1997).

The identification of the homologous chromosomes is very important in genetic mapping analysis of polyploids, since only homologous chromosomes pair and recombine during meiosis. Thus, the identification of all homologous groups is crucial for understanding the genomic constitution of sweetpotato and its inheritance mechanisms. Sweetpotatoes have been characterized as allopolyploids (Jones 1965; Magoon et al. 1970; Ting and Kehr 1953) and as autopolyploids (Nishiyama et al. 1975; Ukoskit and Thompson 1997). More recently, Kriegner et al. (2003) using the segregation ratios of AFLP markers hypothesized that sweetpotatoes are auto-allopolyploids, that is mainly autopolyploids, but with some preferential pairing. Mwangi et al. (2002) in a study of resistance to *Sweetpotato Feathery Mottle Virus* in sweetpotato, after combining their molecular findings with observed greenhouse results, hypothesized a hexasomic or a tetradisomic inheritance.

In soybean, Cregan et al. (1999) used simple sequence repeats (SSR) to align homologous chromosomes, and they were able to organize the total number of groups into the basic number of chromosomes ($2n = 2x = 40$). Similarly, in sweetpotato Kriegner et al. (2003) using double-dose AFLP markers identified 13 and 10 homologous groups in the maps of Tanzania and Bikilamaliya, respectively. However, a single complete set of six homologous chromosomes as expected was not identified. In this study, we report on the development of framework genetic linkage maps of two sweetpotato cultivars based on SDF AFLP markers. Multiple-dose markers were then incorporated and used to identify homologous chromosomes. The long-term objectives of this

project are to use our molecular genetic linkage map to facilitate the introgression of desired traits into our breeding lines, and open the door for marker-assisted selection (MAS) for important traits in sweetpotato. The resulting genetic map will be used to perform QTL analyses of several economically important traits including yield, starch and beta-carotene content and root knot nematode resistance.

Materials and methods

Plant material

The mapping population consisted of a cross between the African landrace ‘Tanzania’ (female), and ‘Beauregard’ (male). ‘Tanzania’ is a sweetpotato landrace from sub-Saharan Africa, and is a cream-fleshed, high dry matter (ca. 30%) sweetpotato. ‘Tanzania’ is also resistant to root-knot nematodes (Cervantes-Flores et al. 2002a, b) and tolerant to *Sweet Potato Feathery Mottle Virus* (SPFMV) and *Sweetpotato Chlorotic Stunt Virus* which together lead to *Sweetpotato Virus Disease* (SPVD) (Mwanga et al. 2002). ‘Beauregard’ is the most widely grown sweetpotato in the US, and is an orange-fleshed, low dry matter (ca. 18%) cultivar. It is very susceptible to most root-knot nematode species (Cervantes et al. 2002a, b), and to SPFMV and SPCSV. Both ‘Beauregard’ and ‘Tanzania’ have been used extensively as parents in sweetpotato breeding programs in the US and east Africa, respectively. To develop the mapping population, crosses were made using ‘Tanzania’ as the female parent and ‘Beauregard’ as the male parent. Reciprocal crosses were not done due to low production of pollen in ‘Tanzania’. A total of 250 progeny were selected randomly for genetic studies and construction of the genetic linkage map. Each clone in the mapping population was maintained in the greenhouse in order to conduct disease screenings and DNA analysis. The mapping population was also placed into tissue culture for long-term maintenance and future use by other sweetpotato breeding programs and researchers.

DNA preparation

Genomic DNA was extracted from young sweetpotato leaves for each progeny of the mapping

population. The DNA was extracted using a modified CTAB DNA extraction procedure (Doyle and Doyle 1990; Murray and Thompson 1980). The quality and quantity of the DNA was determined by comparison with a standard weight Lambda DNA (New England Biolabs, Ipswich, Massachusetts) by electrophoresis on a 1% agarose gel stained with ethidium bromide and visualized under UV light. In order to perform AFLP analysis, the DNA concentration was adjusted to have 250–500 ng of DNA in 25 µl of dilution.

AFLP procedure

The AFLP procedure was conducted according to a modified protocol from Vos et al. (1995) (Myburg et al. 2001). Diluted DNA was digested with *EcoRI* and *MseI*. After ligation of the adapters, pre-amplification was done using primers with one selective nucleotide, followed by amplification using primers with 3 selective nucleotides. The *Eco* primers in the selective amplification were IRDye™ labeled (LI-COR, Lincoln, Nebraska) for detection. Sample preparation for the LI-COR sequencers Models 4000 and 4200 (LI-COR, Lincoln, Nebraska) was done according to the manufacturer’s procedure with minor modifications as explained by Myburg et al. (2001). AFLP band separation and detection were performed by polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis using the LI-COR sequencers. Primer combinations were surveyed with the two parents and six progeny to select those combinations that produced patterns with a large number of polymorphic fragments. Selected primer combinations were used to develop AFLP markers in the mapping population.

Marker scoring

Polymorphic markers were visually scored and recorded as 1 (present) and 0 (absent). Bands present in the two parents, but segregating in the progeny were similarly scored. Ambiguous bands were considered as missing data for map construction purposes. Band sizes were determined by comparison with the gel-mobility of the AFLP bands against an IRDye™ 50–700 bp Sizing Standard (LICOR, Lincoln, Nebraska). Band size estimations were done using the AFLP Quantar® software (Keygene products, Wageningen, Netherlands). All

scored markers were assigned a quality rating according to their band intensity, and only medium and high quality bands were considered for linkage analysis. The format for the marker names consisted of three parts: the code of the *Eco* primer (e.g., E32), the code of the *Mse* primer (e.g., M38) and the corresponding polymorphic band number (e.g., 2). Thus, in this example the resulting name would be E32M3802. Additionally, the band size in bp was recorded for each polymorphic band scored (data shown in Appendix A, available online). AFLP band sizes were not used in the marker nomenclature due to space constraints.

Segregation of markers

The mapping population was analyzed as a double pseudo-testcross (Grattapaglia and Sederoff 1994). Marker dosage of each AFLP marker was determined by analyzing the observed segregation ratios (presence vs. absence) of the markers in the mapping progeny, according to the predicted allele dosage as expected by four cytological hypotheses in sweetpotato as described by Jones (1967) (Table 1). All markers were analyzed for their goodness-of-fit to the appropriate expected segregation ratios using the χ^2 test ($\alpha = 0.01$) with 1 df. Markers were classified into four groups according to their segregation ratios: (a) Simplex or single dose, markers that are present in a

single copy only in one parent and that segregate in a 1:1 (presence:absence) ratio in the progeny (segregation of these markers is not affected by the type of ploidy); (b) Duplex or double dose, markers present in one parent in two copies and that segregate in a hexasomic (4:1), tetrasomic (5:1) and disomic or tetradisomic (3:1) fashion; (c) Triplex or triple dose, markers present in one parent in three copies and that segregate in a hexasomic (19:1), tetradisomic (11:1) and disomic (7:1) ratio; and (d) Double simplex, markers present in both parents in a single-dose condition that segregate in a 3:1 ratio in the progeny.

Linkage analysis

As described by da Silva et al. (1993) using the pseudo-testcross mapping strategy, polymorphic markers derived from each parent were grouped into separate sets corresponding to each parent and were analyzed independently to construct separate framework maps. In each set, single-dose markers were analyzed and grouped into linkage groups using JoinMap[®] 3.0 (Van Ooijen and Voorrips 2001) and MapMaker EXP 3.0 (Lander et al. 1987) at a LOD 3.0 for each parent. Linkage grouping was confirmed at LOD's 4, 5, and 6, to assure consistency of results. Due to the large quantity of markers, we first analyzed the data using JoinMap[®] 3.0. Then, according to the grouping in JoinMap[®], data

Table 1 Expected segregation ratios (presence:absence) for the inheritance of a dominant marker in hexaploid sweetpotato, according to four cytological hypotheses (Jones 1967)

Marker dosage	Hypothesis I		Hypothesis II and III		Hypothesis IV	
	Autohexaploid (hexasomic)		Tetradiploid (tetradisomic, tetrasomic, disomic)		Allohexaploid (disomic)	
Simplex	Aaaaaa	1:1	Aaaa aa	1:1	Aa aa aa	1:1
Duplex	AAaaaa	4:1	aaaa Aa	1:1	Aa Aa aa	3:1
			AAaa aa	5:1 ^b	AA aa aa	1:0
			Aaaa Aa	3:1 ^c		
Triplex	AAAaaa	19:1	aaaa AA	1:0 ^a		
			AAAa aa	1:0	Aa Aa Aa	7:1
			AAaa Aa	11:1	AA Aa aa	1:0
Quadruplex	AAAAaa	1:0	Aaaa AA	1:0		
			AAAA aa	1:0	AA Aa Aa	1:0

^a Disomic inheritance

^b Tetrasomic inheritance

^c Tetradisomic inheritance

(Source: Kriegner et al. 2003)

subsets of less than 1000 markers were prepared. This procedure was implemented due to the limitation of MapMaker to handle only up to 1000 markers. Subsets of markers were analyzed in MapMaker to obtain the final linkage groups at LOD 3.0.

The order of single dose markers was obtained by a two-point analysis (JoinMap[®]) and a multipoint analysis (MapMaker EXP) using the functions ‘compare’ or ‘order’, followed by a ripple analysis to confirm marker order. Marker order was assessed by both JoinMap[®] and MapMaker. The resulting maps were analyzed for marker order consistency between the output of the two programs, and those markers with ambiguous order or co-segregating were dropped. Two or more markers were considered co-segregating if they mapped to the same location in the map and their map distance was near to or equal to zero. The final marker set was re-analyzed with both programs and when the order of the SDF markers in the framework map was consistent and confirmed, their order was fixed for further analysis. All map distances were calculated according to the Kosambi mapping function (Kosambi 1944).

Duplex markers were incorporated into the fixed order of the simplex markers in the framework map. For this purpose, recombination fraction (r) and LOD scores for simplex/duplex and for duplex/duplex marker configurations were calculated under the assumption of hexasomic and tetrasomic genetic configurations. All single-dose markers were used for the calculations to avoid losing any relevant information. Calculations were performed under the assumption of random pairing of homologous chromosomes, and absence of double reduction by numerically maximizing the log-likelihood as follows:

$$L = X_{AB} \log p_{AB}(r) + X_A \log p_A(r) + X_B \log p_B(r) + X_0 \log p_0(r)$$

where L is the log-likelihood of the probability of the multiplex marker to be linked to the mapped SDF, r is the recombination fraction and X_{AB} , X_A , X_B , X_0 are the observed numbers of offspring in each phenotypic class. Phenotype probabilities for the marker pair are given in Table 2. LOD scores were calculated for each pair as: $\log_{10}(\text{likelihood for$

Table 2 Marker pair configurations and expected phenotypic frequencies used in this study

Hexasomic inheritance marker-pair configuration ^a	Phenotype probabilities	Tetrasomic inheritance marker pair configuration	Phenotype probabilities
Simplex/simplex coupling AB/00/00/00/00/00 × 00/00/00/00/00/00	AB 1/2(1 - r) A 1/2r B 1/2r 0 1/2(1 - r)	Simplex/simplex coupling AB/00/00/00 × 00/00/00/00	Equal to hexasomic inheritance
Simplex/duplex coupling AB/0B/00/00/00/00 × 00/00/00/00/00/00	AB 1/2 - 1/5r A 1/5r B 3/10 + 1/5r 0 1/5 - 1/5r	Simplex/duplex coupling AB/0B/00/00 × 00/00/00/00	AB 1/2 - 1/6r A 1/6r B 1/3 + 1/6r 0 1/6 - 1/6r
Duplex/duplex coupling AB/AB/00/00/00/00 × 00/00/00/00/00/00	AB 4/5 - 2/5r + 1/5r ² A 2/5r - 1/5r ² B 2/5r - 1/5r ² 0 1/5 - 2/5r + 1/5r ²	Duplex/duplex coupling AB/AB/00/00 × 00/00/00/00	AB 5/6 - 1/3r + 1/6r ² A 1/3r - 1/6r ² B 1/3 - 1/6r ² 0 1/6 - 1/3r - 1/6r ²
Simplex/triplex coupling AB/0B/0B/00/00/00 × 00/00/00/00/00/00	AB 1/2 - 1/20r A 1/20r B 9/20 + 1/20r 0 1/20 - 1/20r	Simplex/triplex coupling	- -
Duplex/triplex coupling AB/AB/0B/00/00/00 × 00/00/00/00/00/00	AB 4/5 - 1/4r + 1/20r ² A 1/10r - 1/20r ² B 3/20 - 1/10r - 1/20r ² 0 1/20 - 1/10r + 1/20r ²	Duplex/triplex coupling	- -

^a Distribution of alleles of two loci in a base chromosome group (chromosomes are separated by “/”). “A”: presence of band at locus A, “B”: presence of band at locus B, “0”: absence of band. (Source: Krieger et al. 2003; Ripol et al. 1999)

$r = \hat{r}) - \log_{10}(\text{likelihood for } r = 0.5)$. The estimation of recombination fractions (r) and LOD scores and the grouping of duplex and triplex markers were performed in R environment for statistical computing (Ihaka and Gentleman 1996) as described above. Duplex and triplex markers were selected on base of their close linkage ($r < 0.25$, $\text{LOD} > 5$) to the markers from the two individual linkage groups of the SD marker map.

The most likely positions of the duplex and triplex markers were defined by the JoinMap 3.0 (Van Ooijen and Voorrips 2001) 'Map' function using estimates for r and LOD from all simplex–simplex, simplex–duplex, simplex–triplex combinations. For this purpose, pairwise distance files were prepared for each linkage group, keeping the map order of the SD markers fixed. After placing every multiplex marker, a ripple analysis was performed. Two or more linkage groups were considered and declared homologous if they possessed the same multiple-dose markers within the same parental map (da Silva 1993).

The naming of the linkage groups of each parental map were constructed according to a format that consisted of three main parts: the code of the corresponding parental line ($T = \text{'Tanzania'}$ or $B = \text{'Beauregard'}$), a number between 1 and 15 (identified as 01–15) corresponding to the homologous group that the linkage group belongs for that specific parental map, and then followed by a number between 1 and 90 (written as 01–90) representing the linkage group number. For example, T01.06 would refer to the linkage group 6 that belongs to the homologous group 1 in the Tanzania map. The last number was assigned consecutively depending on the homologous groups they belong. Linkage groups that could not be assigned to any homologous group in the parental maps, were named according to their map of origin (B or T), with the number 00 to indicate that no homologous group could be assigned, and a number not assigned previously (e.g., B00.90.)

Results

Marker data

Primer pre-screening was performed on both parents and six progeny. Primers that produced good quality polymorphic bands segregating in this small subset of

progeny were selected for evaluation in the entire mapping population. Of a total of 384 primer combinations screened, 342 were selected to develop AFLP fragments in the mapping population. Each primer combination yielded an average of 13 polymorphic markers, ranging from 1 to 28 scored markers per primer combination. Those primer combinations that yielded low quality or difficult to score fragments were rejected. Overall, the total number of AFLP markers scored was 4,499, of which 2,814 were single dose according to the χ^2 goodness of fit test. These single dose markers were used to construct the respective framework linkage maps in each parent.

For the 'Beauregard' map, 1,303 out of 1,751 markers (74.4%) were single dose ($P < 0.01$), and 219, 310 or 241 markers were duplex assuming disomic, tetradisomic and hexasomic inheritance, respectively. A total of 104 markers showed distorted segregation, accounting for 5.9% of the markers scored in 'Beauregard'. Also, six and four triple-dose markers, assuming tetradisomic and hexasomic inheritance, were scored.

For the 'Tanzania' map, 1,511 out of 1,944 markers (77.7%) were single-dose and 227, 302 and 188 were duplex assuming disomic, tetradisomic and hexasomic inheritance. Additionally, a total of 59 markers showed distorted segregation, accounting for 3% of the markers scored in 'Tanzania'. Similarly, seven markers were triple-dose assuming hexasomic inheritance.

Linkage analysis

The single-dose molecular markers of each parent were analyzed to form the genetic linkage groups using a combination of JoinMap and MapMaker as described above. Molecular markers were grouped into 90 and 86 linkage groups for 'Beauregard' and 'Tanzania', respectively. The grouping of markers was not affected at the different LOD score levels that were tested. AFLP markers were not distributed homogeneously across linkage groups in both parents, but tended to be clustered. This was especially true for several groups, which had many markers clustering together or within short distances, such that several order arrangements were possible. The number of markers in the preliminary groups ranged from

2 to 34 markers in the Beauregard map, and from 2 to 51 markers in the Tanzania map.

In ‘Beauregard’, the preliminary framework map was constructed with 1,179 single-dose markers, leaving 124 markers unlinked. After exhaustive analysis of the mapping data and linkage grouping using the two mapping programs, and the removal of all markers with ambiguous order or that co-segregated with other markers, a total of 726 single-dose markers were ordered in the final framework linkage map. The linkage map length was estimated as 5276 cM, with an average distance between markers of 4.8 cM. The number of mapped SD markers in the genetic chromosomes of the final framework map ranged from 2 to 18 markers, and the estimated length of the chromosomes ranged from 8 to 97.8 cM, with an average size of 58.6 cM, with only 10 groups containing three or less single-dose markers (Fig. 1).

In ‘Tanzania’, the preliminary framework map was constructed with 1,359 single-dose markers with total of 152 markers remaining unlinked. Upon removal of the all markers with ambiguous orders or that co-segregated with other markers, a total of 947 single-dose markers were placed in the final framework linkage map. The linkage map size was estimated as 5792 cM, with an average distance between markers of 4.5 cM. The number of mapped SD markers in the genetic chromosomes of the final framework map ranged from 2 to 24 markers, with an estimated chromosomal length ranging from 2 to 130 cM, and an average size of 67.3 cM, with only seven linkage groups containing three or less single-dose markers (Fig. 2).

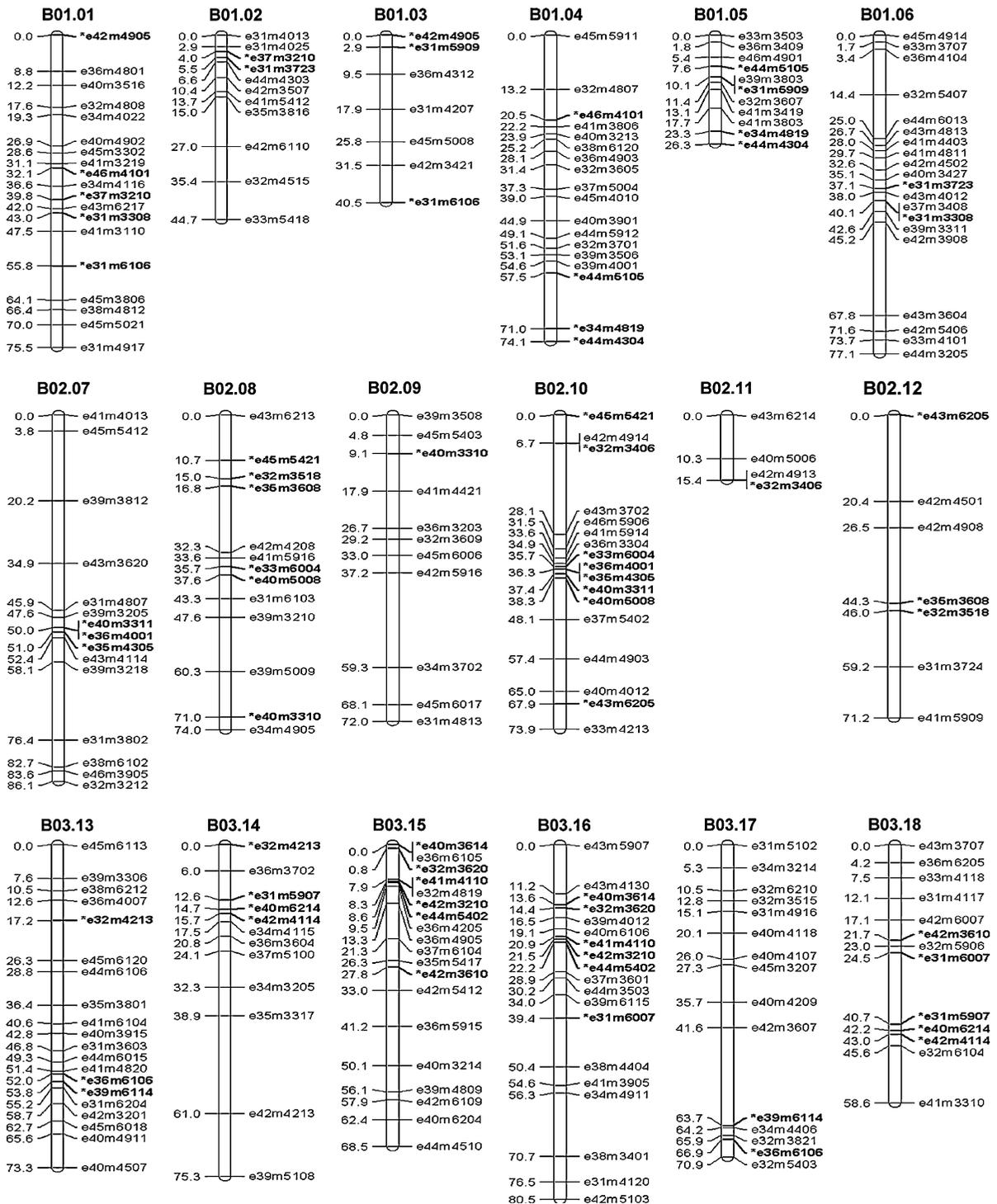
Duplex markers were analyzed against the fixed single-dose marker framework map of each parent using the approach explained above. The use of multiple-dose markers was explored for its application to highly heterozygous crops by Ritter et al. (1990) and later extended for autopolyploids by Ripol et al. (1999) and Meyer et al. (1998). Duplex markers enabled us to identify homologous chromosomes. As expected, most duplex markers aligned to only two different linkage groups, and by complementation these markers were able to align in most cases to six linkage groups per homologous group. In total, 234 duplex markers revealed 84 homologous relationships in ‘Beauregard’, and 216 duplex markers revealed 75 homologous relationships in ‘Tanzania’. After completing the alignment, 15 homologous

Fig. 1 Linkage map of ‘Beauregard’ based on AFLP markers. Each linkage group is identified by parental map (B) and a nomenclature that identifies homologous groups (1–15) and linkage groups (1–90). Using this nomenclature, B01.01 refers to ‘Beauregard’ homologous group 1, linkage group 1. Duplex markers are shown in bold and preceded by an asterisk (*). Single-dose markers were analyzed and grouped into linkage groups using JoinMap® 3.0 (Van Ooijen and Voorrips 2001) and MapMaker EXP 3.0 (Lander et al. 1987) at a LOD 3.0 for each parent. Linkage grouping was confirmed at LOD’s 4, 5, and 6, to assure consistency of results. Multiplex markers were incorporated into the fixed single-dose marker framework map

groups were identified with duplex markers in the ‘Beauregard’ map, and in the ‘Tanzania’ map. Additionally, homology of several groups in the ‘Tanzania’ maps was confirmed by 3 triplex markers, which mapped to two or three linkage groups. However, 6 and 11 linkage groups remained unassigned to any of the homologous groups in the ‘Beauregard’ and ‘Tanzania’ maps respectively.

Discussion

The framework genetic maps presented in this paper represent the most comprehensive genetic linkage maps available for sweetpotato. Since the mapping population was derived from a broad cross between two very distinct sweetpotato cultivars, ‘Beauregard’ and ‘Tanzania’, which are important varieties in the US and East Africa, respectively and have been used as parental materials by breeders, we believe that the population represents a valuable genetic resource for the sweetpotato community. The significant differences between the parental phenotypes and the segregation of these traits in the progeny, will allow researchers to investigate and map a large number economically important traits. Currently, in our breeding program, we are using this population as our core mapping population to investigate the inheritance of root-knot nematode resistance, sweetpotato feathery mottle virus resistance, and of root quality traits such as beta-carotene content, dry matter content, as well as other traits. The use of ‘Tanzania’, which was also used in a previously published map (Kriegner et al. 2003) as a parental line of another cross with the clone ‘Bikilamaliya’, will allow sweetpotato breeders or geneticists to use that resource to construct an integrated map once codominant markers are available and mapped into our framework map.



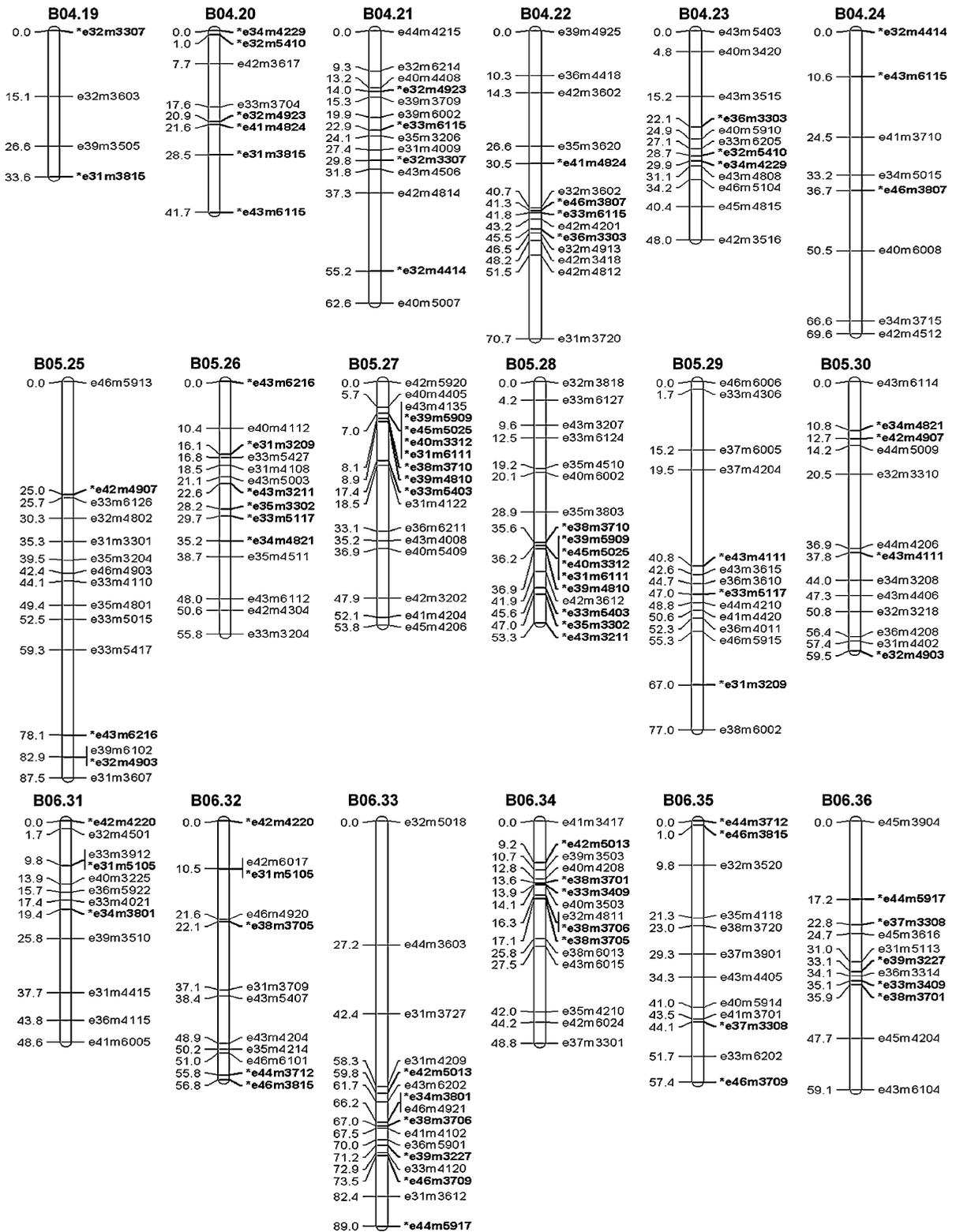


Fig. 1 continued

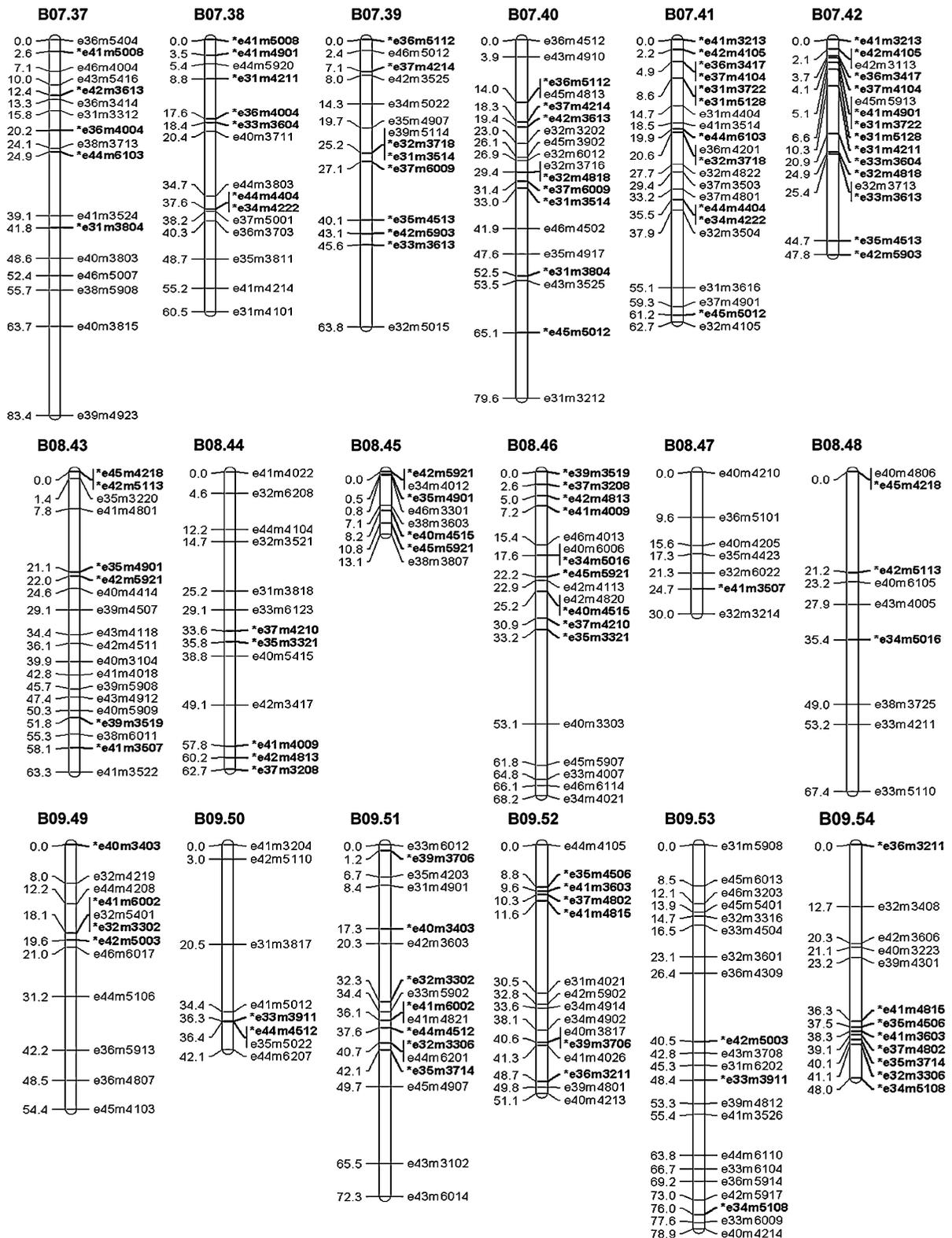


Fig. 1 continued

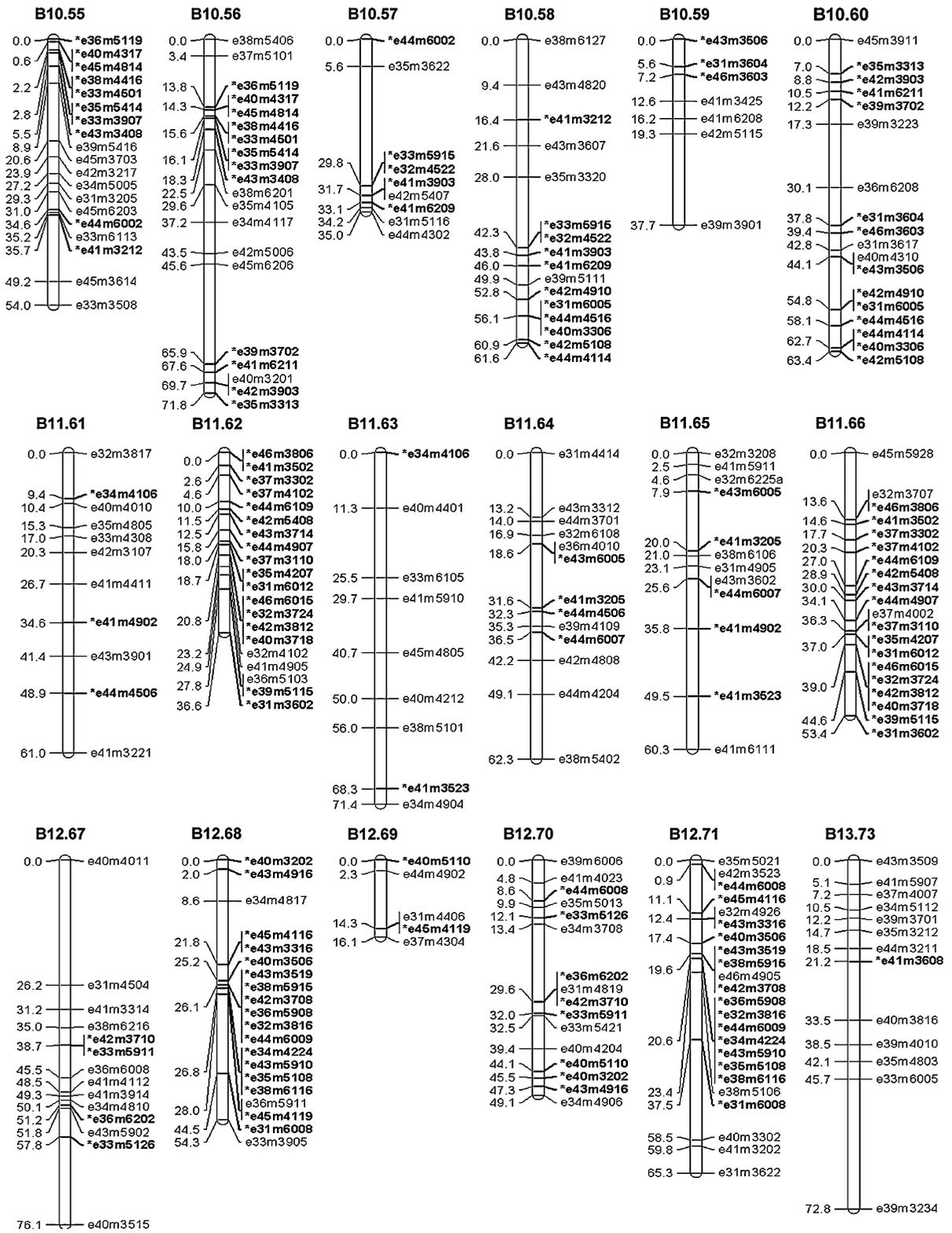


Fig. 1 continued

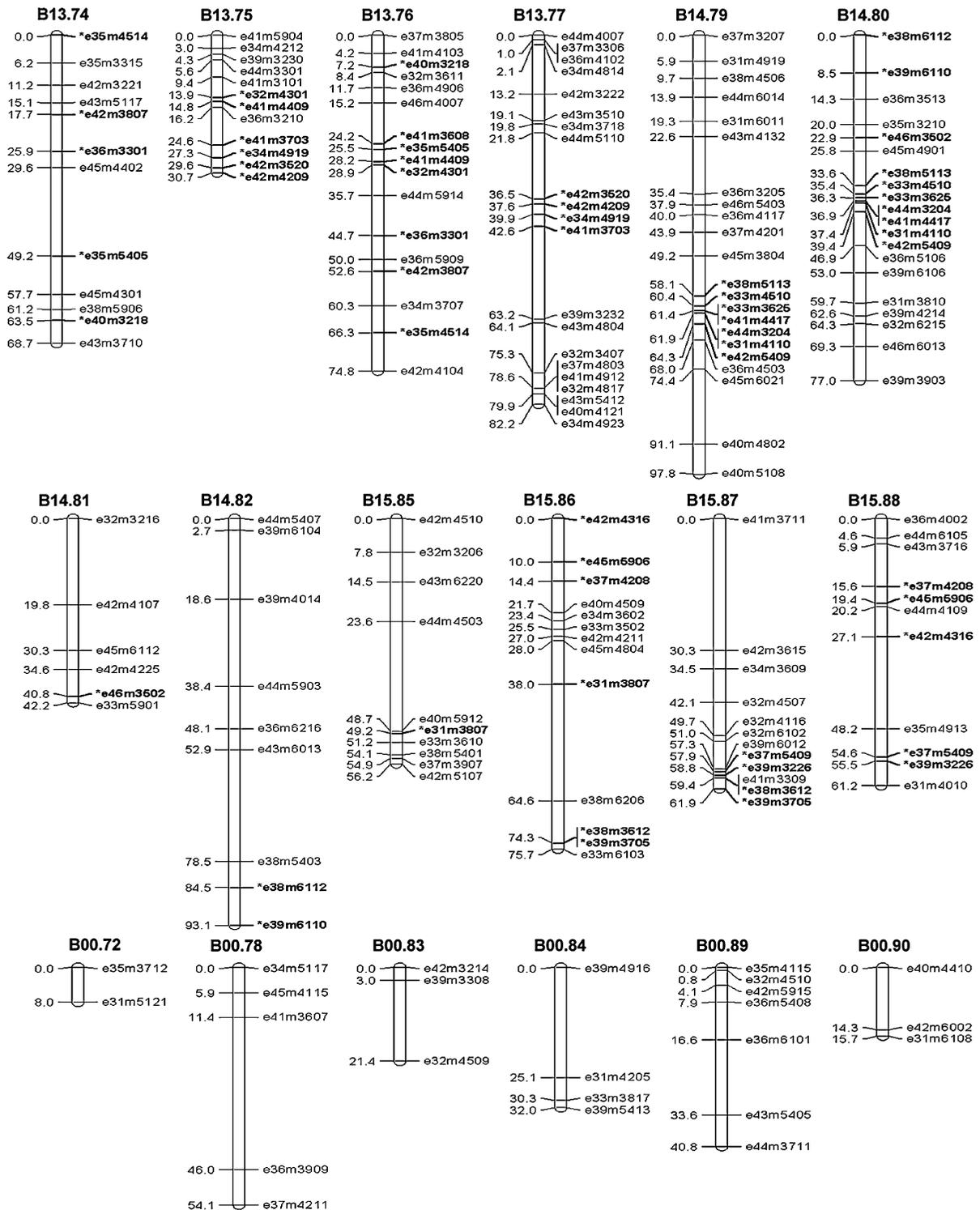


Fig. 1 continued

The size of the mapping population enabled us to evaluate a large number of recombination events, and the number of single-dose markers screened facilitated the construction of the framework maps with an average distance of 4.6 cM between markers. Our use of a combination of software packages to arrive at consensus framework maps based on single-dose AFLP markers increases our confidence in the output. In addition, by using duplex and triple-dose markers in both maps we were also able to identify nearly all 15 homologous chromosomal groups. This number is the expected number of homologous chromosomal groups in sweetpotato given that the basic number of chromosomes is 15. Thus, this provides a solid framework map and resource for further understanding the mode of inheritance and genetics of this important crop.

In developing the initial framework map, the amount of available single-dose molecular markers was critical, because during subsequent analyses approximately 40% of the markers were removed due to co-segregation or ambiguity. After the removal of markers with ambiguous order locations, consistency was achieved using either MapMaker or JoinMap software for calculating the marker order of the linkage groups. Inherently, linkage groups containing large numbers of markers are difficult to resolve, since most algorithms calculate precise ordering for linkage groups containing a small number of markers (Liu 1998).

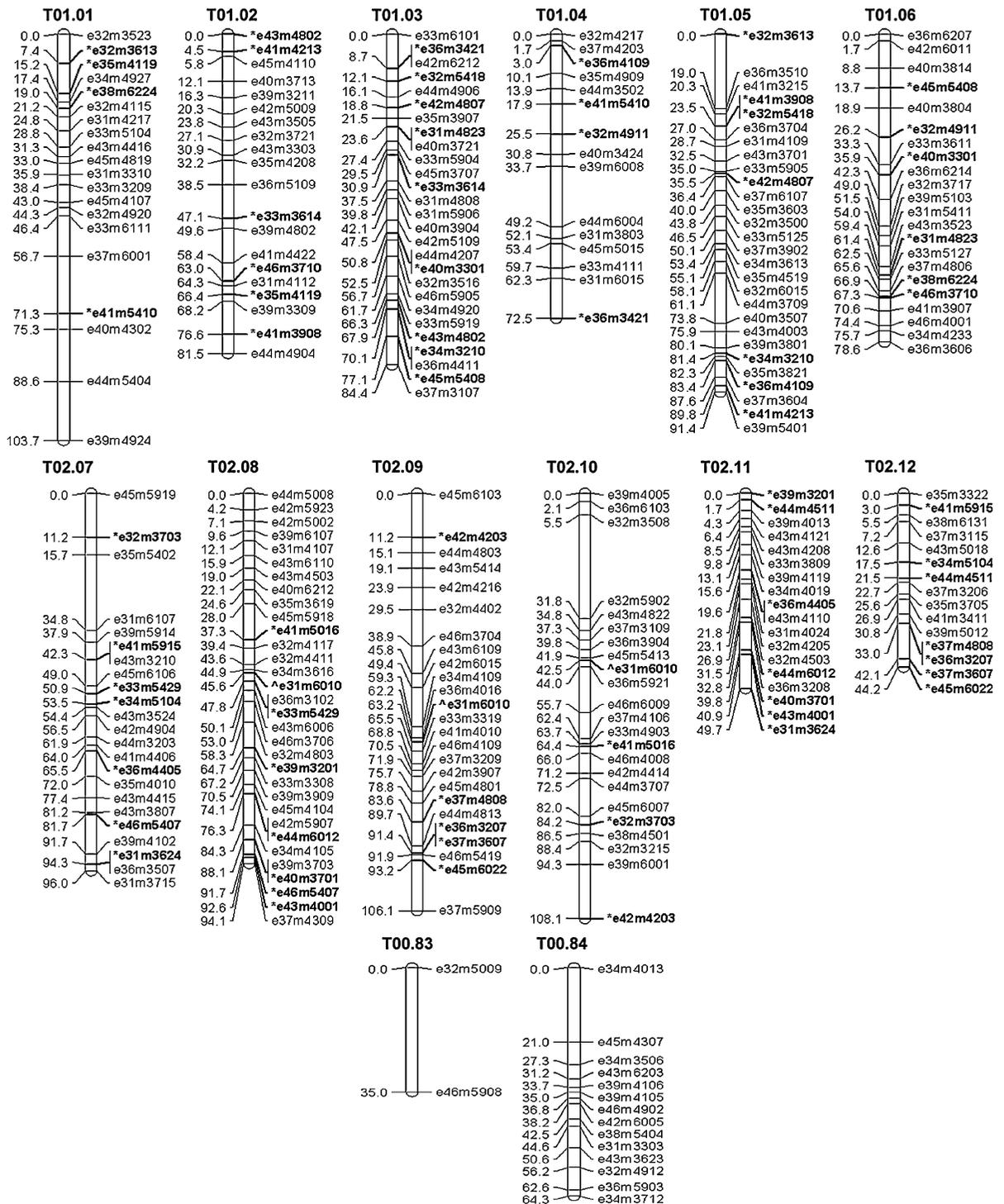
The use of both JoinMap and Mapmaker was useful for handling the initial amount of data, especially considering that MapMaker can only handle data containing up to 999 markers. It was necessary to conduct extensive analyses of the data using the two programs to achieve consistent results. We observed one case in which the markers in the ‘Tanzania’ map were grouped together in JoinMap and split into two groups using MapMaker, even at a very low LOD value. After the removal in JoinMap of some of the markers localized to a different group by Mapmaker, the linkage grouping was the same in Joinmap. The framework map was considered reliable when both software outputs were consistent in terms of grouping and marker order. Map distances were not considered relevant when assessing consistency, due to the inherent difference in the algorithms used by each program.

Similar to the observation in most species (Cregan et al. 1999; Fregene et al. 1997; Grattapaglia and

Fig. 2 Linkage map of ‘Tanzania’ based on AFLP markers. ▶ Each linkage group is identified by parental map (T) and a nomenclature that identifies homologous groups (1–15) and linkage groups (1–90). Using this nomenclature, T01.01 refers to ‘Tanzania’ homologous group 1, linkage group 1. Multiplex markers shown in bold fonts and preceded by: (*) duplex markers and (^) triplex markers. Single-dose markers were analyzed and grouped into linkage groups using JoinMap® 3.0 (Van Ooijen and Voorrips 2001) and MapMaker EXP 3.0 (Lander et al. 1987) at a LOD 3.0 for each parent. Linkage grouping was confirmed at LOD’s 4, 5, and 6, to assure consistency of results. Multiplex markers were incorporated into the fixed single-dose marker framework map

Sederoff 1994; Tanksley et al. 1992), and in previous maps of sweetpotato (Kriegner et al. 2003), disregarding the type of marker technology used, we observed that approximately 28% of the single-dose AFLP markers mapped into clusters in our maps. Tanksley et al. (1992) suggested that clustering of markers might have a biological basis reflecting suppressed or reduced genetic recombination in heterochromatic regions surrounding the centromeres and/or telomeric regions. This reduction or suppression at such regions has been observed in several cytological studies conducted in different organisms (Gill et al. 1996; Lefevre 1970; Roberts 1965). Also, as observed in other crops (Isidore et al. 2003; Truco et al. 2007) AFLP markers generated by the enzymatic combination Eco RI/Mse I tend to cluster due to the uneven distribution across the genome. Clustering is likely observed because the A–T rich regions that EcoRI recognizes are more frequent in the pericentromeric heterochromatin, where suppression of recombination may occur (Isidore et al. 2003). These clustered markers were the main source of disagreement on marker ordering, but these differences were solved after removal of close and/or low quality markers. The minimum distance between single-dose markers in our framework map was 1 cM, because at this distance all remaining markers could be placed at a unique order in their respective linkage groups.

Suppressed recombination of chromosomal regions could have strong implications in sweetpotato breeding, since many genes could be located in regions that rarely recombine. In several cases, during breeding one might observe significant linkage drag, reducing the likelihood of obtaining superior genotypes that contain certain specific traits of interest without carrying other undesirable alleles (Tanksley



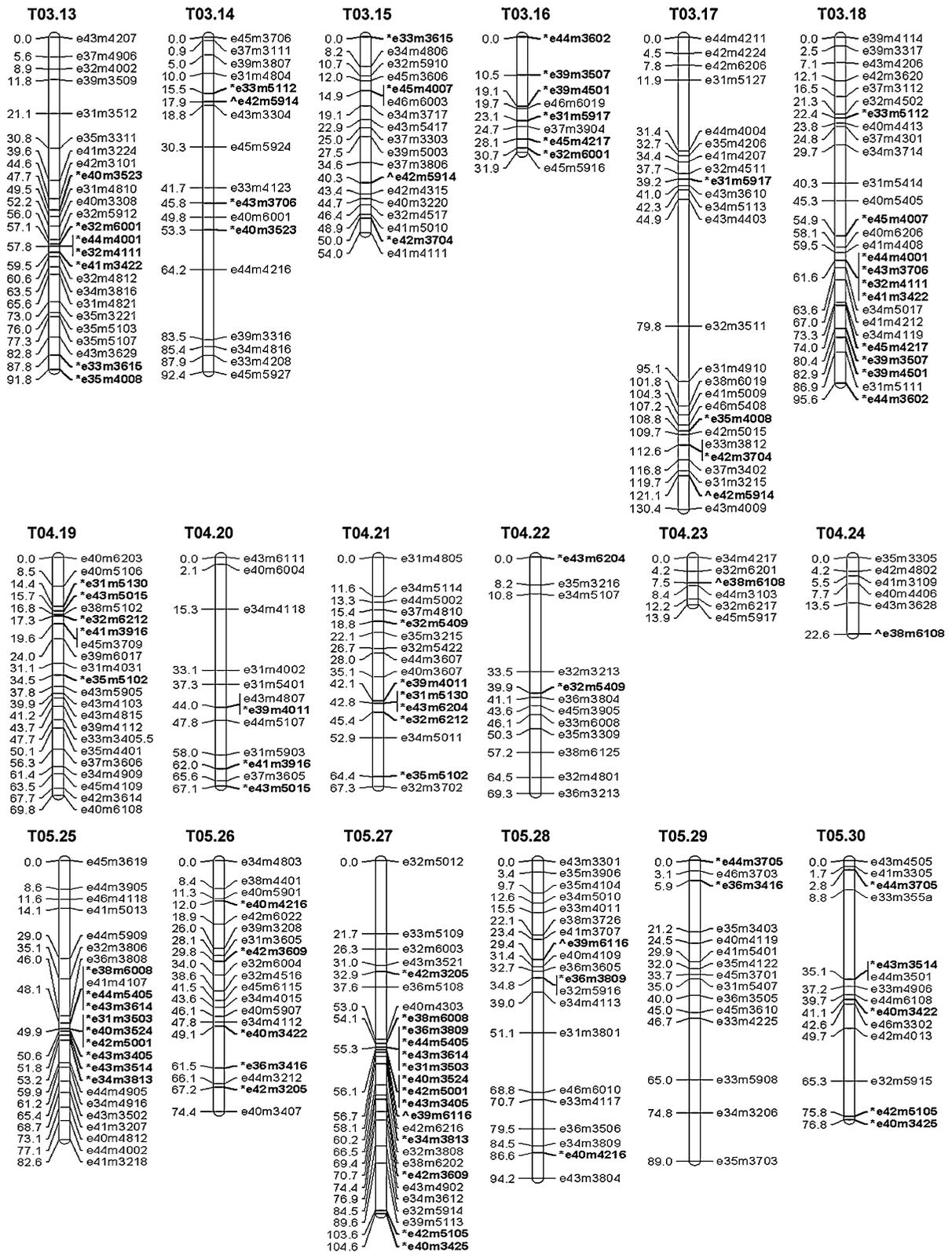


Fig. 2 continued

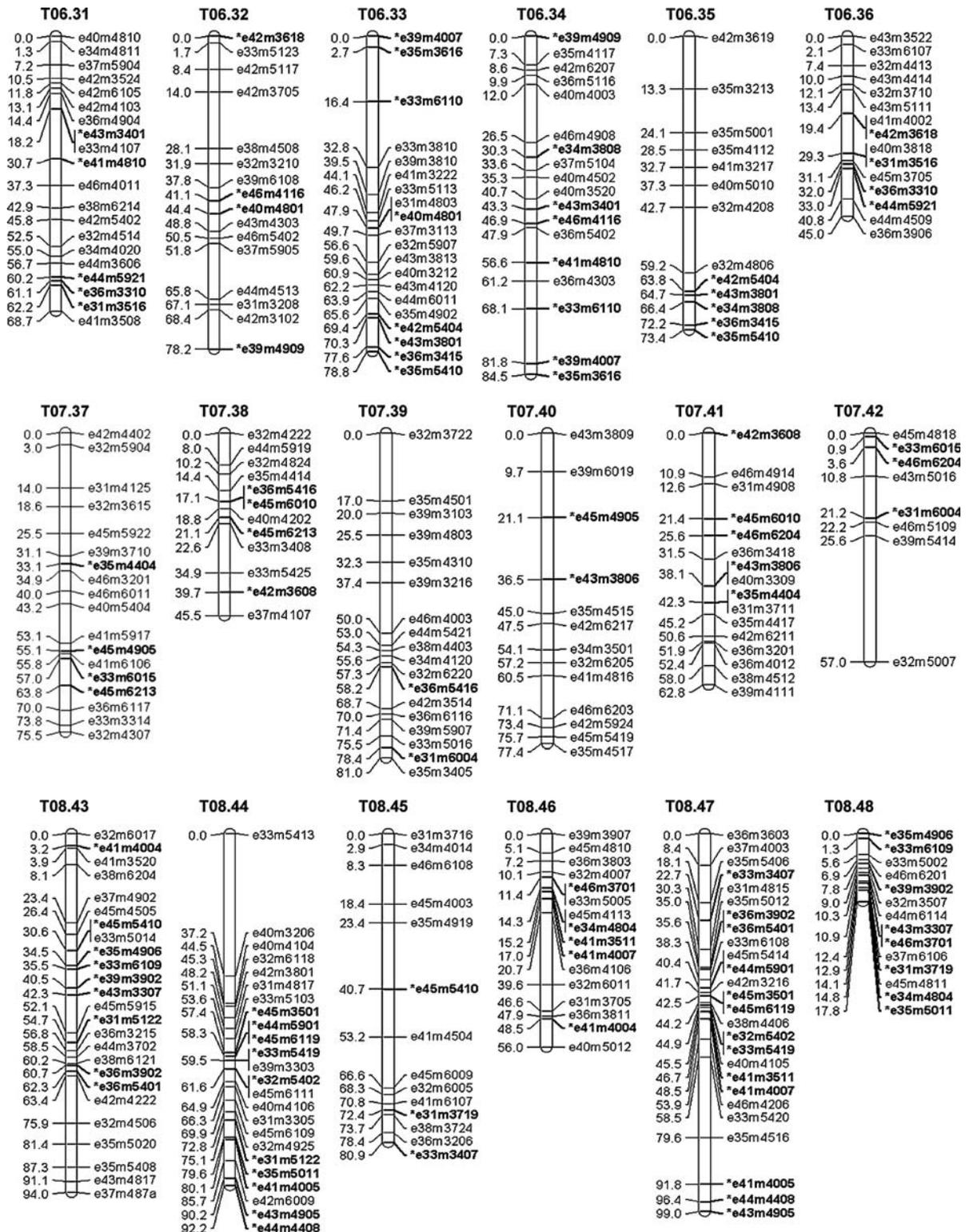


Fig. 2 continued

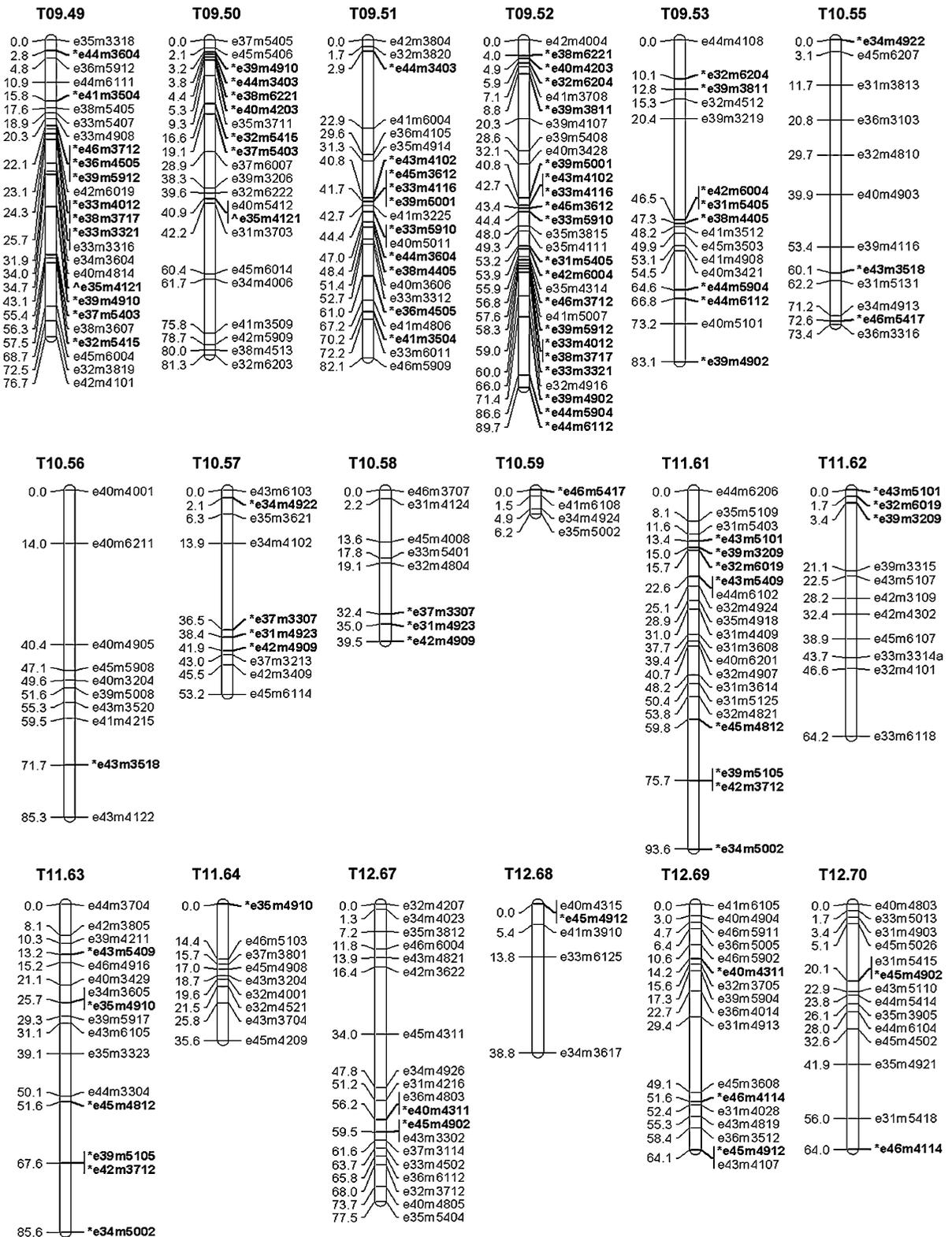


Fig. 2 continued

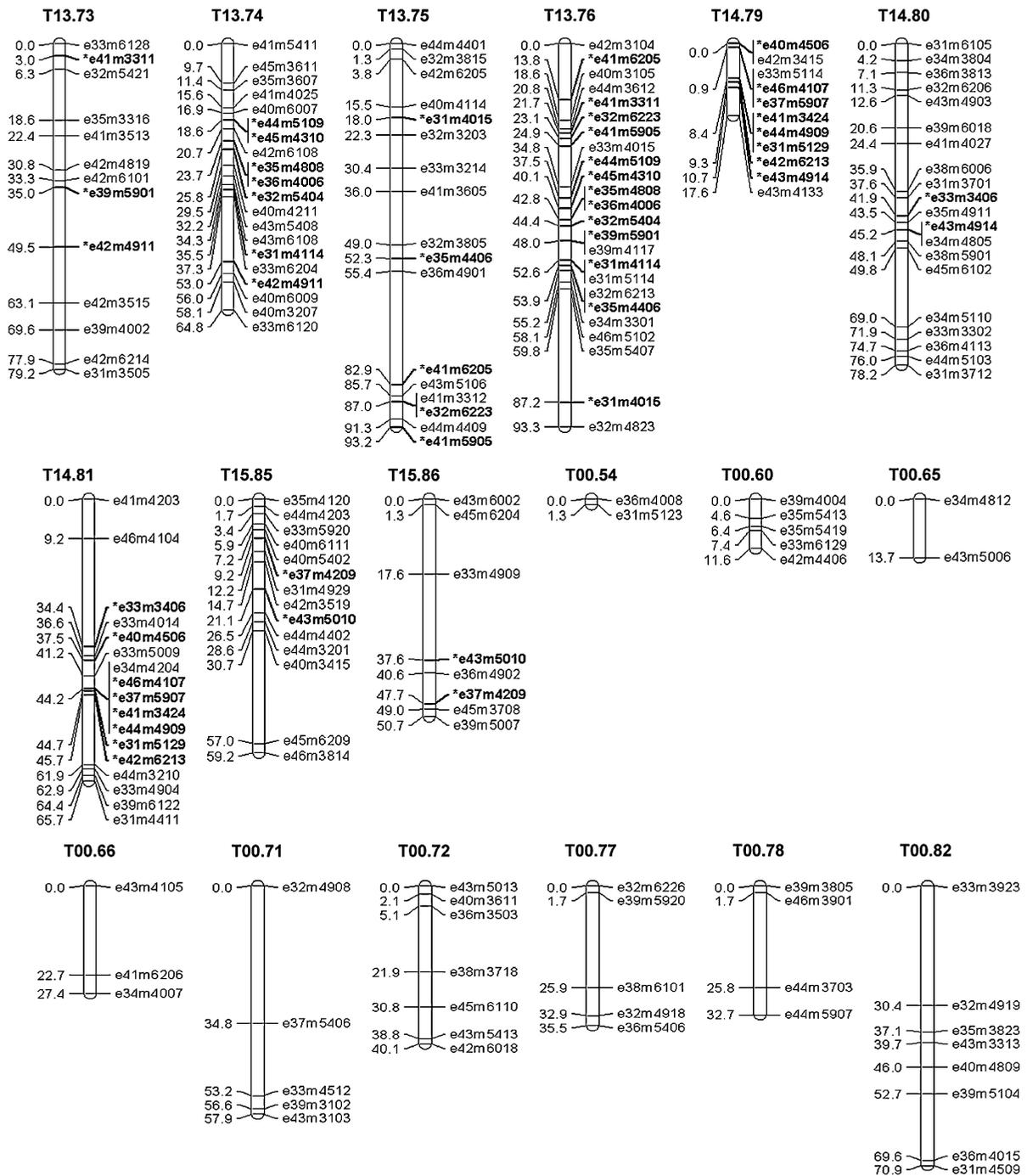


Fig. 2 continued

et al. 1992). In fact, in our applied breeding program we have observed strong linkages of some traits in the sweetpotato phenotypes in several different populations, e.g., flesh and skin color of the storage

root (Yencho, personal observations). Therefore, in those regions with suppressed recombination, a higher number of recombination events may be needed for a fine resolution and detailed mapping.

Considering our markers resolved into 90 and 86 linkage groups for ‘Beauregard’ and ‘Tanzania’, respectively, we believe that our data is of good quality, since the actual number of chromosomes is 90. Size differences and number of markers of the chromosomes in the genetic linkage map might not be due exclusively to marker clustering, but to the physical size differences of the chromosomes in sweetpotato. Cytological studies have shown that sweetpotato has very small chromosomes, which vary in size by several fold (Sinha and Sharma 1992). Also, in other species, a high correlation was observed between the chromosome’s physical size and the number of markers per chromosome (Castiglioni et al 1999; Tanksley et al. 1992). Nevertheless, the distribution of markers can vary within regions of the chromosomes with regions also showing low density of markers, which are presumed to be regions with high levels of recombination, or regions with low numbers of genes (Lindahl 1991; Tanksley et al. 1992). Approximately 18% of the single-dose markers in our maps were separated by more than 15 cM, however we cannot speculate on the physical meaning of this observation, as map distance is only based on the percentage of recombination between the markers, and may not reflect the true physical proximity of the markers.

The total length of our maps was approximately 1500 cM larger than those obtained by Kriegner et al (2003). Of special interest is the length of the common parental map, ‘Tanzania’. Size differences could be simply explained by the better coverage of our map, since our framework map comprises 947 single-dose markers, which is more than twice the amount of markers mapped by Kriegner et al. (2003) or the maps reported by Mwangi et al. (2002). Also, the difference in the interval distance, which affects the overall map length, could be explained in part by the higher divergence of the parental clones used to construct our maps. The higher heterogeneity between ‘Beauregard’ and ‘Tanzania’ can probably cause some reduction in the recombination frequencies in those chromosomal regions with more divergent sequences (Schnable et al. 1998; Opperman et al. 2004; Chetelat et al. 2000), thus decreasing the distance between markers in certain regions of our maps.

Based on flow cytometry estimations of the nuclear genome size of sweetpotato, the haploid DNA content is between 1.55 and 2.25 pg/C nuclei or between 1515 and 2200 Mbp (Kriegner 2001;

Ozias-Okins and Jarret 1994). Considering the length of our maps, we hypothesize that the typical average distance between markers should be approximately 300 Kbp. However, it is important to note that this value can vary tremendously depending on the specific chromosomal region due to the differences in recombination frequencies between markers along the map and more research is required to validate this assertion.

The percentage of simplex markers to non-simplex markers for the data from both parents was in agreement with the expected ratio for an autohexaploid (75% simplex and 25% non-simplex), supporting the hypothesis that the genome of cultivated sweetpotatoes is primarily autopolyploid. Similar findings have been reported by Ukoskit and Thompson (1997) using RAPDs, and Kriegner et al. (2003) using AFLPs. This proportion is assessed by considering only duplex and triplex markers, as they are the only informative multidose markers when dealing with dominant markers, given that a greater dosage would yield monomorphic bands. A similar criterion based on the comparison between expected and observed proportion of single- to multiple-dose markers was used to evaluate ploidy type in *Saccharum spontaneum* (da Silva and Sorrells 1996).

Duplex markers generally aligned to two different linkage groups and by complementing alignments, 103 homologous connections were observed in ‘Beauregard’ and 99 in ‘Tanzania’. The connected linkage groups were assumed to be putative homologs, and by inference if one element of a pair was homologous to a third linkage group, then its pairing group was assumed also to be homologous to the third group. Some homologous groups were connected by several duplex markers. For example, groups B11.62 and B11.66 were connected by 17 duplex markers and groups B12.68 and B12.71 were connected by 14 duplex markers in the ‘Beauregard’ map. Similarly, in the ‘Tanzania’ map, groups T05.25–T05.27 and T08.44–T08.47 were connected each by 8 duplex markers, while groups T14.79–T14.81 were connected by seven duplex markers.

A similar situation was observed for triple dose markers. Each triplex marker aligned to 3 or 2 linkage groups, and by inference the connected groups were considered homologous (e.g., groups T02.08–T02.09–T02.10, T03.14–T03.15, and T05.27–T05.28). No markers aligned to more groups than their dosage

number, suggesting that the data is reliable. The fairly large numbers of duplex markers allowed us to almost completely identify all 15 homologous groups in ‘Beauregard’ and ‘Tanzania’. However, there were six linkage groups of ‘Beauregard’ that remained ungrouped due to lack of bridging connections between these linkage groups and those already assigned to a homologous group. In general, the assumption for homology detection using multiple-dose markers is that homologous segments are only present on homologous chromosomes, and therefore there is an absence of duplication of the chromosomal region in non-homologous chromosomes (da Silva et al. 1995; Ripol et al. 1999).

According to Ripol et al. (1999) approximately 200 duplex markers would be needed to guarantee the identification of complete homologous groups in an octaploid species containing 64 chromosomes. Thus, increasing the number of duplex marker in our case may have helped to arrange our unassigned chromosomes into one of the 15 homologous groups. A similar case was observed in ‘Tanzania’ with 11 linkage groups that could not be assigned to any of the homologous groups. In ‘Tanzania’, we were able to assign 75 out of the 86 linkage groups into 15 homologous groups, with eight complete homologous groups (i.e., containing six linkage groups each), and six incomplete homologous groups (i.e., containing 2, 3, 4 or 5 linkage groups). In ‘Beauregard’, we were able to assign into homologous groups 84 out of the 90 linkage groups, resulting into 11 complete homologous groups (i.e., each containing 6 linkage groups) and 4 incomplete homologous groups, which were only missing 1 or 2 chromosomes.

Similar to Kriegner et al. (2003), our results support the proposed autopolyploid nature of sweetpotato. Our observation of distorted segregation in some markers of different dosages in this study suggests that some preferential pairing occurs in sweetpotato. However, strict allopolyploidy can be ruled out due to the observed segregation ratios of the markers and the proportion of simplex to multiple-dose markers. This conclusion is also supported by earlier observations of meiotic pairing in sweetpotato chromosomes, where bivalent as well as multivalent associations including hexavalents were observed (Magoon et al. 1970). These results are also in agreement with findings of Ukoskit and Thompson (1997) who, based on the ratio between single-dose

and multiple-dose RAPD markers, concluded that sweetpotatoes were most likely autopolyploids. Given the observation that irregular pairing during meiosis can occur in polyploids, it is possible that some of the homologous chromosomes in sweetpotato may not recombine in a given generation. Thus, we believe that this may have reduced our ability to identify all homologous linkage groups in our map.

To the best of our knowledge, the sweetpotato genetic maps described herein represent the most comprehensive genetic mapping resource available for sweetpotato. These maps will provide a valuable tool to the sweetpotato research community for conducting genetic analysis in this species and for future studies of the inheritance of economically important traits via analyses of quantitative trait loci (QTL). Currently, this mapping population is maintained in-vitro and in the greenhouse by the NC State Sweetpotato Breeding and Genetics Program, and it is available to the sweetpotato research community for research and breeding purposes. In many other crop species, genetic mapping populations have been used to identify economically important genes. This is especially true for small grains and cereals (Becker et al. 1995; Cregan et al. 1999; Harushima et al. 1998; Yu and Wise 2000; Zwart et al. 2005), maize (Castiglioni et al. 1999), tomato (Broun and Tanksley 1996; Tanksley et al. 1992), potato (Costanzo et al. 2005; Gebhardt et al. 1989; Ghislain et al. 2001; Li et al. 2005; Milbourne et al. 1998), and other species where diploid relatives exist (Dugo et al. 2005; Qu and Hancock 1997; Sargent et al. 2004). For sweetpotato, the construction of a dense molecular genetic map is the first step needed for more detailed studies on the mode of inheritance of this species, which is as of yet unclear (Kriegner et al. 2003), and possibly provide new opportunities for accelerating the introgression of economically important traits into breeding lines by providing important information on trait inheritance, and where feasible and appropriate through the incorporation of MAS.

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