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Abundance and polymorphism of microsatellite markers in the tea tree (Melaleuca alternifolia, Myrtaceae)

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Abstract The sequencing of 831 clones from an enriched microsatellite library of *Melaleuca alternifolia* (Myrtaceae) yielded 715 inserts containing repeat motifs. The majority of these (98%) were dinucleotide repeats or trinucleotide repeats averaging 22 and 8 repeat motifs respectively. The AG/GA motif was the most common, accounting for 43% of all microsatellites. From a total of 139 primer pairs designed, 102 produced markers within the expected size range. The majority of these (93) were polymorphic. Primer pairs were tested on five selected *M*. *alternifolia* genotypes. Loci based on dinucleotide repeats detected on average a greater number of alleles (4.2) than those based on trinucleotide repeats (2.9). The loci described will provide a large pool of polymorphisms useful for population studies, genetic mapping, and possibly application in other Myrtaceae.

Key words Simple sequence repeats \cdot Enriched microsatellite library · Molecular marker · Myrtaceae ' *Melaleuca*

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Introduction

Microsatellites, or simple sequence repeats (SSRs), were initially described in humans (Litt and Luty 1989; Weber and May 1989). Similar findings quickly followed in other mammalian species such as mice (Love et al. 1990), pigs (Johansson et al. 1992) and cattle (Kemp et al. 1993). Their potential as useful markers for plants was promptly recognised, resulting in their successful isolation and application within many species. The majority of early studies involved crop species such as rice (Wu and Tanksley 1993), barley (Saghai Maroof et al. 1994) and wheat (Roder et al. 1995). More recently, there has been an increase in the characterisation of SSRs in woody species such as bur oak (Dow et al. 1995), eucalypts (Byrne et al. 1996) and *Swietenia humilis* (White and Powell 1997).

The principal reason for the increasing success of SSRs as a molecular tool is that they provide a higher incidence of detectable polymorphisms than other techniques such as RFLPs and RAPDs (Powell et al. 1996b). Furthermore, these markers have an abundant and uniform distribution throughout the genome, are co-dominant and segregate in a Mendelian fashion. Their screening relies on simple PCR technology and requires only small amounts of DNA. The reproducibility of SSRs is such that they can be efficiently used by different laboratories to produce consistent data.

The application of SSRs provides a successful approach to marker-assisted selection in plant breeding practice (Gupta et al. 1996; Powell et al. 1996 a). The ability of these hypervariable regions to reveal high allelic diversity is particularly useful in distinguishing between close crosses. As a result, they are now considered as the marker of choice for inbreeding crops with little intraspecific polymorphism (Roder et al. 1995).

The wider use of molecular biology techniques in breeding projects is usually a reflection of their efficiency. Until recently developing SSR markers for new species was a laborious and costly exercise, thus limiting their potential applications. Characterisation relied on searches through published sequences, only possible for a minority of species, or on the production of highly involved genomic DNA libraries. In a comparison between methods used to produce SSR markers in sorghum, Brown et al. (1996) concluded that despite an overall low yield, the screening of genomic-DNA libraries was more efficient than database searching or testing SSRs designed for other species. Recently, the development SSR enrichment techniques, in which selective genomic libraries containing pre-screened inserts are prepared, has increased the efficiency of SSR characterisation in new species (Edwards et al. 1996; and see Powell et al. 1996 a for other examples). The availability of such technology opens new opportunities for large-scale SSR characterisation in species with no previous sequence knowledge.

Melaleuca alternifolia (Maiden and Betche) Cheel, commonly known as the tea tree, is restricted to North Eastern New South Wales and South Eastern Queensland within Australia (Wrigley and Fagg 1993). The species is the principal source for tea tree oil, highly valued in the pharmaceutical and cosmetic industries for its broadspectrum germicidal properties. Traditionally tea tree oil production relied on leaf material harvested from natural stands but the recent expansion of the industry has resulted in a shift towards plantations. Most of the existing plantations have been established from a limited genetic pool based on anecdotal knowledge. Previous research points to the presence of great genotypic and chemotypic variation throughout the species (Butcher et al. 1992, 1994; Rossetto et al., in preparation, Homer et al., in preparation) as well as the high heritability of oil characters (Butcher et al. 1996). An efficient tree breeding strategy is therefore likely to increase both the quality and the quantity of yield. The development of useful SSR markers linked to specific traits will facilitate the screening of progeny at early growth stages, thus accelerating selective breeding programs.

The present study uses enrichment techniques to efficiently produce a larger number of SSR markers for this economically important species. These markers will be employed in a variety of applications such as population studies and integration in a *M*. *alternifolia* genetic map. Such a comprehensive study provides an opportunity to investigate the type and distribution of repeat motifs in the tea tree and to compare these results with those of other species.

Materials and methods

Construction of an enriched microsatellite library and the sequencing of clones

The microsatellite enrichment procedure was based on that described by Edwards et al. (1996). The following synthetic oligo-

nucleotides were used in the procedure: $(CT)_{15}$, $(CA)_{20}$, $(ACT)_{14}$, $(AGA)_{14}$, $(CAA)_{14}$, $(CTA)_{14}$, $(CTT)_{14}$, $(CTG)_{10}$, $(CAG)_{10}$, $(GAC)_{14}$, $(AGC)_{14}$, $(CAT)_{14}$, and $(ACA)_{14}$.

Transformed cells were plated onto LB-agar plates containing $100 \mu g/ml$ of ampicillin and $50 \mu g/ml$ of X-galactosidase. White colonies were grown overnight in 5 ml of LB broth with 100 μ g/ml of ampicillin. Plasmid DNA was extracted using the High Pure Plasmid Kit (Boehringer Mannheim). Sequencing was performed by the dideoxynucleotide chain-termination method using an M13 forward 24-mer. DNA sequencing was carried out on an ABI 377 sequencer at commercial sequencing centers.

Primer design, DNA extraction and PCR analysis

Primers were designed from within the regions flanking the repeat motifs for trinucleotide repeats greater than seven and dinucleotide repeats greater than 12 using dedicated software (MacVector 6.0). Primer selection criteria were based on GC content, the meltingtemperature curve and the lack of secondary structure.

Primers were screened against five individuals including the original genotype from which the library was constructed (as a positive size control), two parents of a selected cross, and two individuals known to be genetically distinct from a pilot population genetic study (Rossetto et al., in preparation). DNA was extracted using a modified CTAB method (Maguire et al. 1994).

PCR reactions were performed in a 12.5-µl mixture containing 10 mM Tris-HCl pH 8.3 and 50 mM KCl, 2.5 mM $MgCl₂$, 0.5 units
of Tax DNA gelynamics (Bookingsa Manubaim) 0.2 mM of soch of Taq DNA polymerase (Boehringer Mannheim), 0.2 mM of each $dNTP$, $2.0 \mu M$ of each forward and reverse primer, 25 ng of template DNA and DNA-free water. PCR reactions were run on a Perkin Elmer 9600 or 9700 thermocycler. The cycling conditions were: 94° C for 3 min, followed by 30 cycles of 94° C 30 s, optimal annealing temperature (ranging from 48° C to 56° C, see Table 4) 30 s, 72 $^{\circ}$ C 1 min, and a final extension step at 72° C 5-min prior to cooling at 4° C.

Primer evaluation

Amplification products were resolved using three electrophoretic methods. Polyacrylamide gels (10%) run at 250 V for 3.5 h in 0.5 TBE and visualised by silver staining (Promega Silver Staining Kit). Agarose gels (3%) run at 80 V for 3.5 h in $1 \times$ TBE and stained with ethidium bromide. Gels were photographed and the size of the amplified fragments was determined by the distance travelled on the gel as compared to a 50-bp ladder. Of these primers 40 were also labelled with ABI fluorescent dyes (TET, HEX or FAM) and visualised following separation by capillary electrophoresis on an ABI 310 sequencer.

Results

Enrichment

Of the 831 clones sequenced a total of 826 (99.4%) contained inserts, of which 715 (86.0%) included microsatellite repeat motifs (Table 1). Of these repeats 541 (75.7%) were unique (i.e. not previously sequenced). Redundant sequences were mainly trinucleotide repeats (91.2%) the majority of which contained combinations of C-G repeat motifs. The rate of redundant sequences was not linear, the first half of the inserts sequenced contained only 2.9% redundant trinucleotide repeats and 0.6% redundant dinucleotide repeats, whereas the second half contained 13.6% and 1.0% respectively. Insert size varied between 79 and 491 bp, with the average being 216 bp.

Microsatellite description

The majority (98.3%) of repeat motifs were dinucleotide or trinucleotide repeats (Table 1). On average, dinucleotide repeats had a much higher number of repeats (21) than trinucleotide repeats (8), the maximum recorded being 72 and 55 respectively (Fig. 1). The remaining six SSRs were two tetramers, one pentamer, two hexamers and one heptamer, with the number of repeat motifs ranging from three to five.

Table 2 shows that the most common repeat motif was the AG/GA group which represented over 43% of all microsatellites detected in *M*. *alternifolia*. This was followed in frequency by the GGC/GCG/GCC

Table 1 Microsatellite enrichment success for *M*. *alternifolia* DNA libraries. The total number of positive colonies successfully sequenced and the frequency of redundant and unique sequences (divided into different categories) is shown

! Compound microsatellites include perfect and imperfect sequences

Fig. 1 Frequency of different-sized dinucleotide repeats and trinucleotides repeat motifs in *M*. *alternifolia*

 α Includes all repeat motifs with frequency lower than 1.0%

Table 3 Size distribution of inserts sequenced from a microsatelliteenriched *M*. *alternifolia* DNA library, and the frequency of sequences lacking an adequate flanking region or a microsatellite repeat

group which represented over 37% of the detected microsatellites.

Primer design and polymorphism

Overall, 363 (64.8%) sequences could be considered useful as they contained either dinucleotide repeats with more than 12 repeat motifs, or trinucleotide repeats with more than eight repeat motifs. However, of these sequences 162 (28.9%) did not have sufficient flanking sequences to permit the design of a PCR primer pair. Table 3 shows that there was no correlation between the insert size and the lack of flanking sequence, except for inserts larger than 300 bp.

Of the 201 sequences considered suitable for primer design 139 primer pairs were designed. Of these 102 (73.4%) produced a fragment of the expected size, with 93 (66.9%) showing polymorphism (Table 4). Of the unique sequences 17.0% produced polymorphic primer pairs. However, the overall success figure (i.e. the number of polymorphic microsatellites out of the 831

Table 4 List of the primers developed for *M*. *alternifolia* using enrichment methods. The repeat motif for each locus and the 5' to 3' sequences of the forward and reverse primers are indicated (imperfect repeats are italicised) together with the annealing temperature used (T), the expected size of the original sample (in base pairs), the presence of polymorphism (Y/N represents the successful/unsuccessful detection of polymorphism) and the number of alleles detected in the sample tested

Table 4 Continued

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Code	SSR sequence	$5'$ to $3'$	Primer sequences	T	Size	P	A
scu056TT	(CT)21	Fwd	CAC ACA AGC GGG AGT TTT ATC A				
		R _{vs}	TAC TGT GGG TGG TGG AGT TGA G	53	160	Y	
scu062TT	(AG)21	Fwd	TGG TTG GAT CGT TGG CAA				
		R _{vs}	CGC ACA CCC ATT TCT TCT CA	53	128	Y	
scu063TT	(TC)20	Fwd	CGC ATT GGT CCC TAG CAG TT				
		R _{vs}	CGT AAC ATC AAC ACA AAC GAA AC	53	178	Y	4
scu064TT	(TC)24	Fwd	CGT GGG CGT GCT CTT TCA AA				
		R _{vs}	TGA ATG GCT TAG GGA AGG AGG T	56	212	Y	6
scu066TT	(CT)23(GC)7	Fwd	TCC ACT TTT CCT CGT CTC TGC TA				
		R _{vs}	CCA GGA CTC GTT GAG ATA ATC CA	56	254	Y	4
scu067TT	(GCC)8	Fwd	GCG GGG TTT CCA TTT CAT GG				
		R _{vs}	AGA CGA ACC ACA AGG TCT GTC GT	56	124	Y	\mathcal{D}
scu069TT	(TG)17 (AG)16	Fwd	TTC GCT CTG CAA CAA GCA				
		R _{vs}	GGA TGG AGG GGT TCT TCA A	50	116	v	

inserts sequenced) is lower (11.2%). Limitations in the resolution of agarose and polyacrylamide gels could underestimate the polymorphism.

Out of the 102 primers designed which produced fragments of the expected size, 77 (75.5%) were derived from dinucleotide repeats and 25 (24.5%) from trinucleotide repeats (Table 4). The maximum number of alleles detected from dinucleotide loci from the five tested individuals was seven and with an average of 4.2 with no substantial difference between perfect and imperfect repeats. The maximum number of alleles for trinucleotide repeats was five with an average of 2.9. Perfect trinucleotide repeats produced almost twice as many alleles as imperfect repeats.

The occasional occurrence on non-specific banding patterns did not affect the interpretation of the results as they fell outside the expected size range. Within the screening phase, agarose and polyacrylamide gels produced comparable results and therefore the expected higher resolution of polyacrylamide did not justify its greater labour intensity. In order to obtain a precise marker size, the use of capillary electrophoresis run with an internal size standard proved to be the optimal procedure.

Discussion

The overall SSR enrichment procedure was successful and efficient for *M. alternifolia* and a total of 102 primer pairs was obtained from the total of 541 sequences containing unique SSRs.

As previously reported for other plant species (Liu et al. 1996; Ma et al. 1996; Panaud et al. 1996) the $(AG)_{n}$ repeat motif was more common than $(AC)_n$ in the tea tree (Table 2). $(AT)_n$ is usually the most common repeat motif in plants (Powell et al. 1996 a) but being a palindromic sequence it is excluded from the enrichment process and therefore its frequency in *M*. *alternifolia* remains unknown. Previous studies, summarised in

Gupta et al. (1996), reported that the most common trinucleotide repeat motifs in plants are $(AAG)_n$ and $(AAT)_n$, with some species-specific variation. In con trast, these repeat motifs were not represented in the tea tree whereas the $(GGC)_n$ group, interestingly not included as a probe during the enrichment phase, was the most abundant. In a large-scale characterisation study on *Lycopersicon* Smulders et al. (1997) found that $(AAG)_n$ and $(AAT)_n$ are particularly common within intron sequences. As a result, these repeat motifs might be more commonly detected during database searches.

The frequency of dinucleotide repeat motifs (52.3%) was only slightly higher than that of trinucleotide repeat motifs (46.0%), but the near absence of large repeat motifs was unexpected particularly since the enrichment procedure was expected to successfully select for larger repeat motifs (Table 1). It is difficult to decide if this result re#ects SSR abundance in *M*. *alternifolia* or is a consequence of the enrichment procedure. Smulders et al. (1997) also found that dinucleotide repeats represented approximately half of the SSRs detected in *Lycopersicon*. However, the frequency of trinucleotide repeats was lower, with a considerable number of large repeat motifs being identified (Smulders et al. 1997).

A total of 102 primer pairs produced fragments of the expected size from the initial 831 clones sequenced. A similar success rate was reported in sorghum by Brown et al. (1996). Two major factors affected the success rate for the identification of useful loci in the tea tree: sequence redundancy and lack of a flanking sequence. The presence of redundant inserts emphasises the probability of diminished returns as a larger number of clones from the same library is sequenced (Table 1). In the tea tree, this appears to be particularly true for C-G trinucleotide repeat motifs and could be connected to their unexpected high frequency. Sequence redundancy could represent a potential ine friciency for large-scale projects. The number of nonredundant clones was still high but proximity to the

origin of the insert further reduced the number of potentially useful sequences. As inserts are size-selected between 100 bp and 50 bp increasing this size bracket might alleviate this problem; however, a larger insert size would require forward and reverse sequencing and so increase costs. Furthermore, despite the fact that the average dinucleotide repeat is 42-bp long, size does not appear to be correlated with the absence of a sufficient flanking region in inserts smaller than the 30-bp insert (Table 3). Even over 300 bp the problem is still encountered with the longest insert in this study $(491$ bp) not containing a sufficient flanking sequence to design a forward primer.

When primer pairs could be designed, the majority (66.9%) produced polymorphic fragments within the expected size range (Table 4). This success rate was higher than that achieved in other studies (Roder et al. 1995). Heterozygosity was also high, thus increasing the probability of distinguishing between random individuals. With *M*. *alternifolia*, loci based on dinucleotide repeats generally produced greater polymorphism (4.2 alleles) than those based on trinucleotides (2.9 alleles). The interpretation of binding patterns produced by dinucleotide repeats was not a problem, especially if using fluorescently labelled capillary electrophoresis. The advantage of fluorescently labelled primers has been reported in previous studies (see Diwan and Cregan 1997 for example).

This extensive study supplied a large number of loci which will provide an abundant pool of polymorphisms useful for several applications. The enrichment procedure enhanced the efficiency of detection of useful loci. Over 85% of the clones sequenced contained SSRs and 12.3% of these produced PCR primers (monoand poly-morphic). The application of multiplexing and automated sequencing should further improve the efficiency of these markers.

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