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# Gene for gene alignment between the Brassica and Arabidopsis genomes by direct transcriptome mapping

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Abstract We report a global gene for gene alignment of the genomes of Brassica oleracea and Arabidopsis thaliana by construction of a transcriptome map based on B. oleracea cDNAs obtained from leaf tissue. cDNAs were synthesized from total RNA extracted from individual F2s of a mapping population resulting from crossing double-haploids of broccoli and cauliflower. The map consisted of 247 cDNA markers obtained by the SRAP technique. After sequencing 190 of the polymorphic cDNA bands, FASTA detected 169 sequences with similarity to genes reported in Arabidopsis. There was extensive colinearity between the two genomes for chromosomal segments rather than for whole chromosomes, often showing inversions and deletions/insertions. Large-scale duplications were observed in the B. oleracea genome, but were unevenly distributed, arguing against ancient triplication of the entire genome. The most duplicated segments corresponded to those found on Arabidopsis chromosomes 1 and 5, whereas chromosomes 2 and 4 were the least represented in Brassica. Clear differences in the similarity score value of related sequences allowed the identification of orthologs. Transcriptome mapping is an efficient approach that allows gene-for-gene alignment between a fully sequenced and a poorly characterized genome.

Keywords Comparative genomics · Transcript profiling · cDNA

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# Introduction

The availability of the Arabidopsis and rice genome sequences provides the opportunity to analyze the similarities and differences between and within crop plants at a global genomic level (Arabidopsis Genome Initiative 2000; Lan et al. 2000; Paterson et al. 2000; Chen et al. 2002). It is clear that we are far from sequencing the genomes of most major crops; however, the conservation of gene sequences and gene order among taxa during their evolution in spite of million of years of divergence can be exploited through comparative genomics. In the past two decades great progress has been made in this area of research for several major crops. This trend will continue, and will certainly play a major role in current and future research activities. For comparative genomics, several tools based on DNA hybridization are commonly used, such as RFLP (restriction fragment length polymorphism), EST (expressed sequence tag) and physical mapping combined with genetic mapping (Cavell et al. 1998; O'Neill and Bancroft 2000; Draye et al. 2001; Fulton et al. 2002; Parkin et al. 2002). The cultivated species of the Brassicaceae in particular have benefited from this activity mainly due to the availability of the Arabidopsis genome sequences. However, the sequence information from this species reveals large-scale genome duplications, not only in Arabidopsis but also in most species in the plant kingdom, posing a challenge to the researcher. Often these are ancestral duplications involving the entire genome, making it difficult to pinpoint candidate genes for important traits (Arabidopsis Genome Initiative 2000). For example, 60% of the Arabidopsis genome is duplicated, which complicates comparative genetic mapping due to cross-hybridization of duplicated regions. In order to alleviate this problem, the development of new tools to improve comparative mapping is essential for transferring information from a sequenced genome to a non-sequenced one.

As EST data rapidly accumulate in many crops, these sequences become a useful resource to study large-scale gene expression with microarrays (Schena et al.1995; Lockhart et al. 1996; Baldwin et al. 1999) or serial analysis of gene expression (SAGE) (Matsumura et al. 1999), which is based on the detection of transcripts from different tissues or produced under different environmental conditions. However, these techniques can be applied only to a few individuals, otherwise they become impractical, expensive and imprecise, especially when dealing with duplicated genomes. Furthermore, they become prohibitively expensive for co-segregation analysis involving large populations such as those used for crop-breeding programs. A more sensible approach in this situation is to develop transcriptome maps based on direct mapping of transcript polymorphisms. Brugmans et al. (2002) demonstrated the feasibility of this approach using cDNA-AFLP polymorphisms in segregating populations of diploid potato and Arabidopsis. In this report, we developed a transcriptome map in Brassica oleracea by visualizing transcript polymorphism with cDNA-SRAP, a PCR-based method designed to detect coding sequence polymorphisms of greater simplicity than cDNA-AFLPs (Li and Quiros 2001). Sequencing of the markers generated by this approach allowed us to align gene-forgene chromosomal segments of the Arabidopsis and the B. oleracea genomes. This method is another important tool of comparative genomics allowing alignment of genes of a well-characterized model species, such as Arabidopsis, with those of a crop plant, such as B. oleracea.

## Materials and methods

#### Plant material

An F2 population was developed from a cross of double-haploid lines of cauliflower, 'An-Nan Early', and broccoli 'Early Big'. Eighty eight F2 plants and their parental lines were used to construct the transcriptional map. This mapping population was used to carry out genetic analysis of three major genes involved in aliphatic glucosinolate synthesis (Li et al. 2001).

#### RNA extraction

We extracted RNA with phenol-chloroform (Sambrook et al. 1989). Two grams of young leaves were ground in liquid nitrogen, then adding 5 ml of extraction buffer (100 mM of Tris-HCl, pH 8.0, 100 mM of NaCl, 20 mM of EDTA and 1% sodium N-lauroyl sarcosine) and 5 ml of phenol:chloroform (3:1, Tris balanced phenol, pH 8.0, from Life Science Technologies, Calif.). The tissue was homogenized with a polytron at 3,000 rpm for 1 min and then centrifuged at 2,700 rpm for 5 min. The supernatant was washed once with chloroform. RNA was precipitated by adding 1/10 3 M sodium acetate and 2 vol of ethanol, and washed with 70% ethanol. The pellet was dissolved in 2 ml of deionized water, and then we added 2 ml of 4 M LiCl. The tubes were kept on ice for 4 h followed by centrifugation at 10,000 rpm. The pellet was washed briefly and dissolved in de-ionized water. DNA was removed with RNA-free DNAse I (Amersham Pharmacia Biotech, Calif.) following the manufacturer's protocol. The DNAse I was removed with phenol:chloroform  $(3:1)$ . The RNA concentration was determined with the aid of a spectrophotometer.

Table 1 List of primers used in the present study

Primer name	Primer sequence 5'-3'
ME <sub>2</sub>	TGAGTCCAAACCGGAGC
ME <sub>8</sub>	TGAGTCCTTTCCGGTGC
EM1	<b>GACTGCGTACGAATTCAAT</b>
EM <sub>2</sub>	GACTGCGTACGAATTCTGC
DC1	TAAACAATGGCTACTCAAG
OD <sub>3</sub>	<b>CCAAAACCTAAAACCAGGA</b>
OD <sub>8</sub>	CACAAGTCGCTGAGAAGG
OD10	AGGAGGGAAAGGTCTGGT
OD12	<b>TTGAATATCCAGTGTAAGGTT</b>
OD13	AACAGCGAAACGATCCAGA
OD15	<b>GCGAGGATGCTACTGGTT</b>
OD17	<b>GTTAGTATCAAGGTTAGAGTT</b>
OD22	<b>TACACCAGCCAAGGATGC</b>
OD <sub>24</sub>	<b>GATGCTTCTCGTCCACAA</b>
OD26	<b>CTATCTCTCGGGACCAAAC</b>
OD30	<b>GCGATCACAGAAGGAAGGT</b>
OD32	<b>ACTGTGATGTCGTTACTGAT</b>
OD34	CAATCAGGGCGTAGCAGT
SA <sub>4</sub>	TTCTTCTTCCTGGACACAAA
SA7	<b>CGCAAGACCCACCACAA</b>
SA8	<b>GGATGAAGCGACAAGTC</b>
SA9	<b>GTTGAGAGTGTTGATTGGT</b>
SA12	TTCTAGGTAATCCAACAACA
<b>SA14</b>	TTACCTTGGTCATACAACATT
SA17	<b>ATAAGAATCAGCAGACGCAT</b>
<b>SA18</b>	<b>ACGAGTTGCGGAAGTGG</b>
SA21	GAATGCAGGAGAACACGTT
GA <sub>2</sub>	TTGAACTGGCAGAAAGGGT
GA <sub>3</sub>	<b>TCATCTCAAACCATCTACAC</b>
GA5	<b>GGAACCAAACACATGAAGA</b>
GA11	CATTGTGGTGGTTATTGTCA
GA12	CACCACCATCATCATATCTT
GA13	<b>GTACCTGCAAGTGCTTCA</b>
GA18	GGCTTGAACGAGTGACTGA
GA19	TTAAGGGCATAAAACATGGAT
GA25	<b>TACTCCAGCCCAAATACAC</b>
GA27	GAACGAAGCAAAGGATGAGA
<b>GA28</b>	<b>GGTGATACACTTCAGATG</b>
GA30	<b>CTCTCCACCGCACATATC</b>
GA33	<b>GTTATGGGAAATTAGGTGAG</b>
GA34	<b>CCAAATGGAACAAAATGATG</b>
<b>GA38</b>	CCTCTTCTTTAGCCGTTGA
GA45	<b>AGTGGTATTTTTGCAGTTCTA</b>
PM <sub>8</sub>	<b>CTGGTGAATGCCGCTCT</b>
<b>PM18</b>	AAGCGATCAAAGCGGGTG

#### cDNA synthesis

M-MLV reverse transcriptase (Invitrogen, Calif.) was used to synthesize single-strand cDNA following the manufacturer's protocol, except that only  $1/10$  of the specified Oligo (dT)<sub>15</sub> primer concentration was used; 50  $\mu$ g of total RNA was added to make 100  $\mu$ l of the reaction mixture and incubated at 37 °C for 2 h. After incubation,  $400 \mu l$  of water was added to bring the total volume to 0.5 ml. Then, we added 1/10 vol of 3 M sodium acetate and 0.7 vol of iso-propyl alcohol. The tubes were placed on ice for 3 min and then centrifuged at 14,000 rpm for 3 min. The cDNA pellet was washed with 70% ethanol once and then dissolved in 100  $\mu$ l of deionized water.

Fingerprinting of cDNA with the sequence related amplified polymorphism (SRAP) protocol

We applied the SRAP protocol to fingerprint 88 cDNA samples using 47 primer combinations following the procedure of Li and Quiros (2001) (Table 1). In order to detect and isolate polymorphic bands for sequencing, we used three steps. (1) For detecting polymorphism we ran all the 88 F2 and two parental samples in a LI-COR sequencer  $IR^2$ , model 4,200, after amplifying the cDNAs with two primers, one of which was labeled with IRDye 800 or IRDye 700, (LI-COR, Lincoln, Neb.). (2) For collecting DNA from the polymorphic bands we re-amplified only the DNA of the two parental cDNAs with the same primer combination used for the LI-COR assay, except that one of the primers was labeled with  $(\gamma^{33} P)$ -ATP. The amplicons were separated by denaturing acrylamide-gel electrophoresis and detected by autoradiography (Li and Quiros 2001). All bands showing polymorphism between these two parental lines were cut from the dried gel. The DNA was eluted from the gel with buffer (0.5 M of ammonium acetate, 10 mM of magnesium acetate, 1 mM of EDTA, pH 8.0, 0.1% SDS) by shaking at 300 rpm at 37  $^{\circ}$ C overnight, and precipitated with ethanol. (3) In order to align the polymorphic bands with the isolated bands from both gel systems the DNA from the isolated bands was re-amplified for 30 cycles as follows:  $94 °C$  for 50 s, 55 °C for 50 s and 72 °C for 40 s. The PCR products from these bands were run side by side in the LI-COR system along with the amplified products of the two parental lines used previously for detecting polymorphism. This approach allowed us to match the corresponding bands whose sequences were used for comparative analysis to the Arabidopsis sequences. The specific marker for the BoGSL-ELONG gene (Genbank AF399834) was obtained by amplification of the cDNA samples with specific primers for this gene, PM8 and PM18 (Table 1) as follows: 94 °C for 50 s, 55 °C for 50 s and 72  $\degree$ C for 60 s for 35 cycles. The amplicons were fractionated by agarose-gel eletrophoresis, which allowed us to detect polymorphism for this sequence (Li and Quiros, unpublished).

#### Phenotypic analysis

The phenotypes for genes BoGSL-PRO and BoGSL-ELONG, (the presence of 3-carbon and 4-carbon aliphatic glucosinolates, respectively) in B. oleracea were determined in the F2 mapping population as reported by Li et al. (2001).

#### Sequence analysis and map construction

Sequences were produced by the LI-COR  $IR<sup>2</sup>$  sequencing using the manufacturer's protocol. The sequences were analyzed with the FASTA searching program (Pearson and Lipman 1988) allowing to match the Arabidopsis homologs to the Brassica cDNA markers, including their map positions and gene products when known. E-values of less than  $10^{-5}$ , showing over 70% identity in more than 100 nt, were considered as high confidence matching between two sequences. The transcriptome map in B. oleracea was constructed with Mapmaker version Mac 2.0 with a LOD value of 3.0.

# **Results**

Using 48 primer combinations, we detected 281 polymorphic bands as markers in 88 cDNA pools from the same number of plants. Each primer combination gave 1– 15 polymorphic bands with an average of 6.0 bands per primer set. Most (78.9%) of the polymorphic bands showed dominant expression, the rest of the markers were co-dominant (Table 2). Since the size of some bands was too small to be informative, we sequenced only 190 of the polymorphic bands, most of which had a size larger than 100 bp. The FASTA search allowed us to identify 169 sequences having similarity to the genes reported in Arabidopsis. Of these, 113 had high confidence matches,

whereas 56 matched at a lower confidence level displaying E values higher than  $10^{-5}$  due to their smaller size. There were 132 unique sequences, each of which represented a single expressed gene, if multiple amplifications of the same gene are not counted. Sequence analysis allowed unambiguous identification of multiple amplifications of the same gene. This event is illustrated by the fact that nine dominant markers, T9, T61, T63, T64, T66, T87, T88, T137 and T152, amplified by five different primer sets hit the same *Arabidopsis* gene, namely glycine SRC2-like (Genbank NM-100778) (Table 2, Fig. 1). In another case four primer sets amplified three co-dominant markers, T138, T146, T156, and one dominant marker, T120b. All these markers corresponded to a gene coding for a glycine-rich protein (Genbank NM-120087) in Arabidopsis. Similar cases were observed for genes similar to glutathione transferase, the putative ribosomal protein L17, the DAG-like protein and for other several unknown proteins in Arabidopsis.

The band intensity observed roughly represents the abundance of the template cDNAs, and presumably that of their corresponding RNAs in the pools. This interpretation is based on the fact that multiple markers displaying the same gene matches, but amplified with different primer combinations, showed the same band intensity (data not shown).

When we checked the sequences that appeared to be codominant in the gels, we found indeed that most had nearly identical sequences as expected for alleles at the same locus, except for insertions or deletions, which might correspond to splicing-site changes. However, there were two markers, T22, and T131, which in spite of appearing codominant in segregation pattern and mapping to the same region, displayed two totally different sequences indicating that they were not allelic.

Two other interesting results are worthwhile mentioning. One is that only 40% of the 132 unique Arabidopsis genes identified by the Brassica cDNA marker sequences had available ESTs or were supported by cDNA sequences in *Arabidopsis*. This finding indicates that SRAP might detect some genes with low levels of expression or detect gene expression more evenly than ESTs from cDNA libraries. Another surprise was that 3% of marker sequences displaying strong band intensity did not match any genes in Arabidopsis. These transcripts might originate from non-protein coding RNAs (MacIntosh et al. 2001) or genes that have been lost in Arabidopsis, but further studies are needed to pinpoint their origin and nature.

After assembling the 281 cDNA markers and the phenotypic marker, [presence of the 3-carbon side chain glucosinolates (*Bo GSL-PRO* gene) (Li et al. 2001)] with Mapmaker, we produced a transcriptome map consisting of 247 markers. This map also included two cDNA markers for two members of the isopropyl malate synthase-like gene (IPMS), which presumably determine carbon side-chain length in aliphatic glucosinolates. (Li et al. 2001; Li and Quiros 2002). Perfect co-segregation was observed for the presence of 3-carbon and the 4-carbon



Table 2 List of sequenced cDNA markers from B. oleracea including their properties, locations and their physical correspondence to the Arabidopsis genome

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<sup>a</sup> W= weak band, VW= very weak, S= strong, VS= very strong b D=dominant, CO-D, co-dominant

d o

 for co-dominant markers the size of a single allele is shown \*T22 and T22a, co-dominant marker

Fig. 1 cDNAs from F2 population and parental lines (br =  $b$ roccoli,  $cw = \text{caulf lower}$ amplified with primer combination DC1 + ODD10.  $1 =$  dominant marker T212,  $2 =$  dominant marker T211,  $3 = \text{co-dominant marker}$  T210, 4 = dominant marker T209



Fig. 2 Nine linkage groups (L1 to L9) in the transcriptional map of B. oleracea. Vertical bars indicate corresponding sizes on Arabidopsis chromosomes  $(C1 = \text{chromosome } 1 \text{ to } C5 =$ chromosome 5). On the left of each group genetic distance in cM is shown. On the right, next to the marker number, the physical location of the corresponding gene is shown in MB



Fig. 2 (continued)



b

glucosinolates and the presence of cDNA markers matching the IPMS Arabidopsis homologs on chromosomes 1 (corresponding to the *Brassica* gene *BoGSL*-PRO) and 5 (corresponding to the Brassica gene BoGSL-ELONG). The markers in the map fell into nine linkage groups, which were named arbitrarily since we did not attempt at this time to align them to those of other existing B. oleracea maps (Hu et al. 1998). The largest group contained 49 markers, and the smallest one had 16 markers. Of the 247 mapped markers we produced, 149 sequences had homologs in Arabidopsis. These sequences allowed us to do a gene-for-gene global genome alignment between B. oleracea and Arabidopsis (Fig. 2, Table 2). Based on the conservation of gene order in these two species, we found broad colinearity between the two

genomes for chromosomal segments rather than for whole chromosomes. In general, the Brassica linkage groups were composed of multiple syntenic Arabidopsis chromosome segments dispersed on all chromosomes and often showing inversions and deletions/insertions (Fig. 2). For example, in linkage group 3, there were syntenic segments corresponding to three Arabidopsis chromosomes, including two overlapping segments for chromosome C5, but positioned at different locations on the Brassica linkage group. Interestingly, nearly all markers on linkage group 5, except T22, hit genes on chromosome 1 in Arabidopsis, but covered two duplicate but inverted and overlapping regions, the first one ranging from genes at positions15–29 Mb and the second one from 11 to 29 Mb of chromosome 1 of Arabidopsis (Fig. 2).

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 $C<sub>1</sub>$ 



Fig. 3 Diagrammatic representation of Arabidopsis chromosome 1 (C1, in MB) showing, between the two horizontal lines, duplicated regions in 7 to 8 copies of B. oleracea linkage group (LG) segments. cDNA markers on linkage groups corresponding to coding sequences in C1 are shown at their approximate positions. These markers had high confidence scores with Arabidopsis, mostly maintaining gene order, with a few exceptions (asterisk). Refer to Table 2 for corresponding Arabidopsis sequences to these markers. The black bubble indicates a cluster of up to 20 markers (see Fig. 1 for details)

Inspection of the B. oleracea genome structure using the Arabidopsis genome as a reference, revealed extensive duplication in the B. oleracea genome, as reported before by many other studies (Quiros 2001). The distribution of the duplicated segments, however, was uneven. For example, Arabidopsis chromosome 1 aligned to 11 segments from eight Brassica linkage groups (Figs. 2, 3). Most of these display up to six overlapping duplicated regions. There were four segments located on linkage groups 1, 2, 4 and 8 with similar gene order and content as that observed at the top arm of chromosome 1 in Arabidopsis, covering the regions ranging from 0.2 to 18.5, 4.3 to 10.4, 2.5 to 12.2 and 3.5 to 10.6 Mb on the Arabidopsis physical map, respectively. Similarly, for the rest of chromosome 1, the region spanning from 10 to 30 Mb was also aligned to four segments of linkage groups 1, 5 and 6 in the B. oleracea transcriptome map. Arabidopsis chromosome 5 aligned with seven segments derived from four Brassica linkage groups displaying up to six overlapping duplications, although five of them included larger overlapping areas (Fig. 2). Arabidopsis chromosome 3 was mainly represented by a segment on linkage groups 2 and 7, containing homologs for genes at

positions 4.7 to 21.4 MB and 0.5 to 1.2 MB, respectively. There were four other segments, but containing only two markers each, on linkage groups 4, 6 and 8. Three of these segments displayed short overlapping duplications. Arabidopsis chromosomes 2 and 4 were under represented in the Brassica genome. On linkage groups 2 and 4 there are two overlapping segments corresponding to Arabidopsis chromosome-2 regions at positions 15.8–19.2 Mb and 7.3 to 17.1, respectively. Additionally, linkage group 2 has a rearranged segment for genes included at 14.4 to 15.7 MB, and linkage group 3 included a short segment containing two markers matching genes at positions 12.2 and 22.0 MB. We could not find duplications in the *Brassica* linkage map for Arabidopsis chromosome 4. Two segments for this chromosome were present on linkage group 3 at positions 0.8–2.0 MB and group 6 at positions 9.8–15.7 MB.

## **Discussion**

The observed polymorphism of the transcriptome markers observed comes from template differences due to SNPs (Brugmans et al. 2002), and splicing-site changes resulting in transcripts of different size (e.g., BoGLS-ELONG, Li and Quiros 2002). Although we did not score band intensity, the quantitative appraisal of the bands is expected to disclose many more polymorphisms, like those reported in budding yeast (Brem et al. 2002). For such an evaluation it would be ideal to work with gene circuits where gene members are known to be coordinately regulated.

Our report on the alignment of both genomes is based on the Brassica gene members displaying the highest level of similarity to their orthologs in Arabidopsis. It was possible to align the chromosomal segments of both species by their similarity values as well as their expected sequential order based on the *Arabidopsis* homologs on those segments. Not surprisingly, some of the cDNA marker sequences often hit more than one gene in Arabidopsis due to the extensive duplication in the genome of this species. However, there was a clear difference in their similarity score values for most of these genes, thus allowing the identification of orthologs and eliminating the ambiguity often observed by EST mapping, unless extensive computer algorithms are applied (Fulton et al. 2002). Therefore, it is clear that when dealing with duplications, a common situation in plant genomes, transcriptome mapping for cross-genome comparisons is superior to maps generated by DNA hybridization. Our approach makes comparative genomics straightforward and precise.

The large number of sizable duplications, as well as the uneven representation of these segments in B. oleracea observed in our study, is not unexpected considering the high level of duplication in Arabidopsis thaliana, which is nearly equivalent to that expected for a tetraploid (Arabidopsis Genome Initiative 2000). B. oleracea has almost twice the number of chromosomes of Arabidopsis. Therefore, assuming that the Brassica species derive from an ancestral lineage undergoing a similar level of duplications as the lineage leading to Arabidopsis, one would expect to find mostly four copies of chromosomal segments, which was not the case. We observed instead that some segments, like those corresponding to Arabidopsis chromosome 1 are in seven to eight copies in the Brassica genome, whereas other segments, like those corresponding to Arabidopsis chromosomes 2 and 4 are poorly represented, with few or no copies. Incidentally, these two chromosomes are the ones reported to contain sizable duplicated segments in Arabidopsis, which indicate that the Arabidopsis and Brassica lineages are quite divergent from each other. This is consistent with their estimated time of separation of over 20 million years, and their placement in different tribes (Wroblewski et al. 2000). The lack of even representation of all five Arabidopsis chromosomes in the duplicated segments of the Brassica genome argues against ancient hexaploidy or the triplication of the whole genomes followed by gene loss in Brassica, as suggested by Cavell et al. (1998) and Parkin et al. (2002) among others, based mostly on DNA hybridization analysis. Our results certainly contradict the statement of Gale and Devos (1998) stating that the Arabidopsis genome is "essentially triplicated in the diploid Brassica species". If such was the case, one would expect to find six copies per segment for all five Arabidopsis chromosomes evenly distributed in the Brassica genome. Instead, the variable number of duplications and rearrangements we observed is rather consistent with events of higher complexity than simple polyploidization, leading to the synthesis of Brassica genomes including also aneuploidy and chromosomal rearrangement (Quiros 2001).

Transcriptome mapping not only places genes on the map accurately but also detects gene function directly based on their co-segregation with the trait they control. For example, a candidate gene for 4-C side-chain glucosinolates BoGSL-ELONG was identified by this approach after finding a cDNA marker for this gene that was completely linked to the presence of 4-carbon glucosinolates (Li and Quiros 2002). Another important advantage of transcriptome mapping worth stressing is the fact that repetitive DNA, introns and gene spacers are excluded from the sample. This greatly reduces the effective genome size, making it much easier to find a marker physically closely associated to a gene, such as the 3-carbon side-chain glucosinolate trait determined by the BoGSL-PRO candidate gene included in the map. The perfect co-segregation of a cDNA marker matching an IPMS Arabidopsis homolog and presence of 3-carbon glucosinolates is good evidence that it is the right candidate gene.

Multiple amplification of the same gene by different primer sets demonstrates that a single gene transcript can be found efficiently when there are differences in gene expression between the two alleles at a locus detected by segregation in a mapping population. Additionally, since genes with tissue-specific expression are the rule in eukaryotes, we could dissect the whole genome into different pools, where each pool is a genome subsample, by isolating RNA from different tissues. In the present study we used young leaves to extract RNA, and, not surprisingly, the analysis of the sequences indicate that most of the genes detected are related to plant growth, such as genes coding for photosystem proteins. This advantage could be very useful for species with large genomes.

In conclusion, transcriptome mapping is an efficient and relatively low-cost approach superior to DNA hybridization techniques allowing gene alignment between a fully sequenced and a poorly characterized genome. Furthermore, this procedure allows gene-expression studies and quick development of markers associated with genes of economic importance for cloning and marker-assisted selection.

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