E. Lerceteau-Köhler · G. Guérin · F. Laigret · B. Denoyes-Rothan

Characterization of mixed disomic and polysomic inheritance in the octoploid strawberry (*Fragaria* \times *ananassa*) using AFLP mapping

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Abstract A two-way pseudo-testcross strategy, combined with Single Dose Restriction Fragment (SDRF) marker analysis, was used for genetic mapping in the octoploid cultivated strawberry Fragaria x ananassa (2n $= 8x = 56$). Based on a 113 full-sib progeny from a cross between the variety Capitola and the clone CF1116, we generated two parental maps using Amplified Fragment Length Polymorphism (AFLP) markers. Ninety two percent of the markers (727 out of 789) showed ratios corresponding to simplex markers (the majority being SDRF markers), and 8% (62 out of 789) fitted a multiplex ratio. Linkage maps were first established using SDRF markers in coupling phase. The female map comprised 235 markers distributed among 43 co-segregation groups, giving a map size of 1,604 cM. On the male map, 280 markers were assigned to 43 co-segregation groups, yielding a map size of 1,496 cM. Once the co-segregation groups were established, their association was tested using repulsion-phase markers. In total, taking into account associations representing the same linkage groups, 30 linkage groups were detected on the female side and 28 on the male side. On the female map, 68.3% of the pairwise marker linkages were in coupling versus 31.7% in repulsion phase, and the corresponding figures on the male map were 72.2% and 27.8%, respectively. In addition, both groups linked only in the coupling phase and groups linked in the repulsion phase were characterized. The observations suggest that the meiotic behavior of the F . \times ananassa genome is neither fully disomic nor

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E. Lerceteau-Köhler Centre Interrégional de Recherche et d'Expérimentation de la Fraise (Ciref), Lanxade, F-24130, Prigonrieux, France

G. Guérin · F. Laigret · B. Denoyes-Rothan (\bowtie) INRA- Unité de Recherche sur les Espèces Fruitières et la Vigne, BP 81, F-33883 Villenave d'Ornon Cedex, France e-mail: denoyes@bordeaux.inra.fr Tel.: +33-5-57-12-24-60 Fax: +33-5-57-12-24-39

fully polysomic, but rather mixed. The genome may not be as completely diploidized as previously assumed.

Keywords AFLPs · Fragaria x ananassa · Linkage map · Polyploidy · Strawberry

Introduction

The cultivated strawberry *Fragaria* \times *ananassa* (2n = $8x$ = 56) belongs to the Rosaceae family. It was described and named in 1766 by the French botanist Duchesne. The species originated from chance hybridizations that occurred in some European botanical gardens between two octoploid species, Fragaria virginiana and Fragaria chiloensis, imported from the New World at the end of the 16th century and the mid-18th century, respectively. The genomic constitution of the parental species remains unknown. Based on cytological experiments, several genomic formulas have been proposed for F . \times ananassa. The first was AABBBBCC (Federova 1946), but it was later modified to AAA'A'BBBB (Senanayake and Bringhurst 1967) and more recently to AAA'A'BBB'B' (Bringhurst 1990), based on data suggesting it has a highly diploidized genome. However, its composition is still being debated, and the type of meiotic behavior (poly- or di-somic) remains unclear, although determination of these characteristics is important for understanding the evolution of the genus and for developing appropriate breeding strategies.

The segregation pattern analysis of molecular markers is considered a reliable method for determining meiotic behavior (see, for instance, Qu and Hancock 1995). Two methods have been proposed to distinguish between disomy and polysomy: analysis of the ratio of single to multiple dose markers (Da Silva et al. 1993), and comparison of the number of loci linked in coupling versus the repulsion phase (Sorrells 1992; Wu et al. 1992). Low frequencies of multi-dose or the absence of repulsion-phase linked markers, are found in polysomy. Analysis of repulsion-phase markers through mapping has

been greatly simplified in polyploid species by the use of single-dose restriction fragments (SDRFs), as proposed by Wu et al. (1992). An SDRF marker is defined as a DNA fragment that is present on just one chromosome in one of the parents and can be identified by a 1:1 segregation, regardless of the organism's ploidy. Such markers have been used in several species, e.g. cassava (Fregene et al. 1997), alfalfa (Diwan et al. 2000) and rose (Rajapakse et al. 2001), and have generated interesting conclusions concerning genome behavior in various plants, e.g. sugar cane (Hoarau et al. 2001).

At the molecular level, most of the studies using molecular markers reported so far for the genus Fragaria have been carried out on the diploid *Fragaria vesca*. These studies have included segregation analyses (e.g. Arulsekar et al. 1981), punctual linkage-analysis between specific traits and isozymes (e.g. Williamson et al. 1995; Yu and Davis 1995), ISSR-PCR markers (Cekic et al. 2001) or genes (Deng and Davis 2001), and investigations leading to the first linkage map of the genus (Davis and Yu 1997). At the octoploid level, there has been only one such published study, reporting linkage between RAPD markers and the resistance gene to Phytophthora fragariae Rpf1 (Haymes et al. 1997). The characterized region encompassed 22 cM and displayed disomic behavior.

In the study presented here, we developed linkage maps of the cultivated strawberry F . \times ananassa using AFLPs as SDRF markers in order to improve our knowledge of the genome and our understanding of its meiotic behavior.

Materials and methods

Plant material

To develop the linkage map we used a progeny of 119 individuals from a single full-sib family. This population size was chosen to allow us to distinguish a 1:1 ratio from all other segregation ratios at the 99% confidence level (Wu et al. 1992). The female parent (Capitola: CA75.121-101 \times Parker) is a selection from the University of Davis (California, USA) and the male, CF1116 [Pajaro \times (Earlyglow \times Chandler)], is a reference from the Inter-Regional Centre for Research and Experimentation on strawberry (Ciref, France). The cross was chosen for its suitability for disease resistance and fruit quality analysis. The mapping progeny was obtained in 1999.

AFLPs

DNA was extracted using a Dneasy Plant Mini Kit from Qiagen, starting with about 90 mg of young leaves ground in liquid nitrogen.

The digestion and ligation steps of the AFLP analysis were performed on 125 ng of DNA using an AFLP Core Reagent kit from Gibco BRL, Life Technologies. The following steps were adapted from Vos et al. (1995), following a two-step amplification strategy using *EcoRI* and *MseI* primers. The first amplification was carried out with primers containing one selective nucleotide (EcoRI+A and MseI+C) in a total volume of 50 μ l with 1x reaction buffer (Sigma), 0.2 mM of each dNTP, 0.3 μ M of each primer, 1.5 mM $MgCl₂$, 1 U of Taq DNA polymerase (Sigma) and 5μ l of the ligation product, diluted 10-fold. This amplification was carried out according to Vos et al. (1995), except that 28 cycles were used instead of 20. The 30-fold diluted products were then used as templates for the second amplification, using primers containing three selective nucleotides $(EcoRI+3/MseI+3)$, including one $Eco\overline{RI}+3$ primer labeled with $(\gamma^{-33}P)$ ATP. These steps were carried out according to Vos et al. (1995). Following the amplification, reaction products were mixed with an equal volume of 98% formamide, 10 mM of EDTA, bromophenol blue and xylene cyanol. After denaturation, $4 \mu l$ of each sample was loaded on a 4.5% denaturing polyacrylamide gel that had been preequilibrated in TBE $(0.5 \times)$ buffer at a constant 95 W for 30 min. The reaction products were then separated, under the same conditions, for 110 min. Following the electrophoresis, the gel was dried and exposed to a Kodak Biomax MR X-ray film. Then, two independent readers visually recorded the presence (or absence) of clearly visible bands.

Other types of markers

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In addition to the AFLP markers, two putative genes of F . \times ananassa were mapped, alcohol transferase (AAT) and dihydroflavonol 4-reductase (DHFR), using the following pairs of primers:

AAT_FOR: 5'-GTACTATCCACTCTCTGGAAGG-3' and

AAT_REV: 5'-TAAGTTCACTGCCTGGGC-3' for AAT,

DHFR_FOR: 5'-GGCTCGTCATGAGACTCCTC-3' and

DHFR_REV: 5'-GTGAATCGTGGCATCGTG-3' for DHFR.

These primer pairs were based on sequences from GenBank accession numbers AF193789 (Aharoni et al. 2000) and AF029685 (Moyano et al. 1998), respectively.

Each amplification began with 4-min denaturation at 94 $^{\circ}$ C, followed by 35 cycles of 45 s at 94 $^{\circ}$ C, 1 min at 52 $^{\circ}$ C (for AAT; 1 min at 55 °C for DHFR) and 2 min at 72 °C, followed by a final elongation step of 10 min at 72 $^{\circ}$ C. The amplification products were separated on 2% agarose gels and recorded visually.

In addition, the Prunus persica microsatellite BPPCT028 was used to evaluate the possible presence of selfings among the progeny (see Dirlewanger et al. 2002 for the amplification conditions and sequence).

Linkage-map construction

Each polymorphic marker was tested by χ^2 analysis for goodness of fit ($\alpha \leq 0.01$) to the segregation ratios expected for simplex (singledose) and multiplex markers under both disomic and polysomic inheritance (see Table 1). For simplex markers that differ between the two parents (i.e. presence in one and absence in the other), the expected segregation ratio is 1:1 (SDRF markers) whatever the chromosome pairing (Wu et al. 1992). For simplex markers present in both parents, the expected segregation ratio is 3:1 in both disomic and polysomic inheritance. For multiplex markers, several expected segregation ratios in disomic and polysomic inheritance deduced in the octoploid context from Da Silva and Sobral (1996) were tested.

The linkage-map development strategy combined the use of undistorted Single-dose restriction fragments (SDRFs) and the double pseudo test- cross strategy developed by Grattapaglia and Sederoff (1994). The pseudo test-cross configurations Aaaaaaaa × aaaaaaaa (presence of a band in Capitola and absence in CF1116) and aaaaaaaa x Aaaaaaaa (absence of a band in Capitola and presence in CF1116) were kept to develop the female and male linkage maps, respectively.

Due to the difficulty of accurately detecting repulsion-phase linkage in cases of polyploids with polysomic inheritance, as described in Wu et al. (1992) and detailed recently in Qu and Hancock (2001), a two-step mapping procedure was applied (Grivet et al. 1996; Fregene et al. 1997). First, linkage analysis was performed with MAPMAKER/EXP 3.0 (Lander et al. 1987) using coupling markers with a $\text{LOD} \geq 5.0$ and a recombination frequency of $\theta \leq 0.35$. The groups of linked markers in coupling phase are referred to below as co-segregation groups. The recombination frequency value was chosen according to Wu et al. (1992), who showed that the maximum detectable recombination fraction for detecting coupling linkage with a family size of 110 was 0.389. The LOD value was then decreased to 3.0 to test the association between co-segregation group ends. The linkage was accepted when one marker from a group was linked to more than one marker from another group. Possible genotyping errors were checked before map construction using the error detection system in MAPMAKER/EXP 3.0. In a second step, the linkage between the coupling- and repulsion-phase markers was tested by pairwise comparisons using MAPMAKER/EXP 3.0 with a LOD value of 5.0 and then with a LOD of 3.0, to evaluate the possibility of more linkages being present. Since the assignment of "1" or "0" to alternate alleles at a locus was arbitrary, the marker matrix had been previously recoded (1 to 0 and 0 to 1). Groups linked in repulsion phase were discerned from the linkages. The preferential chromosome pairing observed in disomic inheritance could be differentiated from the random pairing characteristically observed in polysomic inheritance and where groups remained in the coupling phase. The Kosambi mapping function (Kosambi 1944) was used to convert the recombination fractions into map distances.

The ratio of markers linked in coupling- versus repulsion-phases was tested by χ^2 analysis of goodness of fit ($\alpha \leq 0.01$) for the 1:1 ratio corresponding to disomy, and for the 1:0 ratio observed in cases of polysomy. This ratio was calculated first by pooling all the co-segregation groups and secondly by separately considering each group (in coupling or in the repulsion phase).

Finally, pairwise linkage between single-dose markers segregating in 1:1 and 3:1 ratios was tested using JOINMAP 2.0 (Stam 1993) at a LOD of 5.0 in order to detect associations between male and female co-segregation groups. The 3:1 segregating markers were added to the maps as accessory markers.

The expected genome length was estimated following Hulbert et al. (1988).

Results

Population screening for selfing

Based on a careful analysis of the AFLP profiles, we suspected the presence of contaminants amongst our progeny. This suspicion was later confirmed by segregation analysis of the Prunus persica microsatellite (BP-PCT028) (data not shown), which revealed the presence of six individuals derived from selfing. Subsequent mapping was therefore carried out on 113 individuals instead of 119.

Repartition of the markers according to dose ratios

Forty AFLP primer combinations (E-AXX/M-CXX) were used for this study. Based on a sample of nine primer combinations, and considering all observed bands (including monomorphic bands), the percentage of bands segregating in the progeny between Capitola and CF1116 was estimated to be about $42\% \pm 7$. The 40 primer combinations generated a total of 890 polymorphic bands with an average of 22 ± 6 polymorphic bands per combination (range, 10 to 40). In addition, two markers (AAT and DHFR) corresponding to the two studied genes were obtained.

The markers were tested for closeness to the various segregation ratios presented in Table 1. The number of AFLP markers in each class is summarized in Table 2. Among the 890 markers, 28 (3.2%) did not fit any of the tested ratios from Table 1 and can be regarded as distorted. For 73 (2, 2 and 69 when the parents were 1/0,

Table 1 Segregation ratios of disomic and polysomic octoploids^a. $1/0 =$ presence of the marker on the female side, absence on the male side; $0/1 =$ absence of the marker on the female side, presence of the marker on the male side; $1/1 =$ presence of the marker on the female and male sides. ND = Null-dose marker, $SD = Single$ dose marker, DD = Doubledose marker, TD = Triple-dose marker, $4D =$ Four-dose marker

^a Deduced from Da Silva and Sobral 1996

^b Only segregations with markers present on non-homologous chromosomes (e.g. Aa Aa aa aa) are reported. When the marker is present on homologous chromosomes (e.g. AA aa aa aa) no segregation is observed

^c Segregation ratios higher than 63:1 are not considered

 $a = 1/0$ = presence of the marker on the female side, absence on the male side; $0/1$ = absence of the marker on the female side, presence of the marker on the male side; $1/1$ = presence of the marker on the female and male sides

^b Markers fitting none of the tested ratios from Table 1

^c Markers fitting both a simplex or a multiplex segregation ratio and for which the proper dose therefore remains undefined

^d Ratios in bold correspond to disomic behavior and underlined ratios to polysomic behavior. Ratios that are both bold and underlined correspond to both types of behavior

0/1 and 1/1 respectively) of the 862 remaining markers, their segregation ratio cannot be precisely identified since they could correspond to both simplex and multiplex markers. Ninety two percent of the markers (727 out of 789) fitted simplex ratios and 8% (62 out of 789) fitted multiplex ratios. Among the 727 markers characterized as simplex, the majority (548) were in pseudo-test cross configurations and so were the SDRF markers (257 showing a band on the female side and 291 a band on the male side). They were therefore used to develop the female and male linkage-maps. The 179 remaining simplex markers were present in both parents and fitted a 3:1 ratio, which is observed regardless of whether the inheritance is disomic or polysomic.

The multiplex markers (62) were divided into two classes according to their inheritance, disomic or polysomic (Table 2). However, since the size of the population was relatively low, most of the multiplex marker segregation-ratios fitted more than one ratio, so the multiplex markers were not further analyzed.

Linkage maps

Female and male linkage-maps were developed based on the SDRF markers in coupling-phase. Out of 257 markers displaying the Aaaaaaaa × aaaaaaaa configuration on the female side, 235 (91.4%) mapped onto 43 co-segregation groups, including four with a LOD value of 4.0. Seven (F28, F32, F37, F38, F40, F42 and F43) of these cosegregation groups comprised only two SDRF markers, but the average number of markers per group was 5.5. The co-segregation group size ranged from 2.9 to 101.8 cM, and the total map size equaled 1,604 cM (Fig. 1). The average marker density was 8.4 (\pm 7.9 cM). The male map included 280 markers out of 293 (aaaaaaaaa × Aaaaaaaa configuration; 291 AFLP and two putative genes; 95.9%), which were also assigned to 43 co-segregation groups (three at $LOD > 4.0$ and one at $LOD > 3.0$), with a size ranging from 1.0 to 149.2 cM (Fig. 2). Of these, seven groups (M28, M30, M35, M37, M38, M41 and M43) had only two SDRF associated markers whereas the average number of markers per group was 6.5. The experimental size reached 1,496 cM and the average marker density was 6.3 (\pm 7.0).

Once the co-segregation groups had been established, their association was tested using repulsion-phase markers. The association was accepted when more than one linkage in the repulsion-phase was detected. The proportion of linkages between markers in coupling and in the repulsion-phase was then calculated. On the female side, 68.3% of the pairwise linkages were in coupling versus 31.7% in the repulsion-phase (LOD > 3.0), and on the male side 72.2% and 27.8% were in coupling and in the repulsion-phase, respectively. In both cases, the ratios were significantly different from a $1/1$ ratio ($P < 0.0001$) and a 1/0 ratio $(P < 0.0001)$, corresponding to the proportions of coupling and repulsion linkage expected in preferential pairing and random pairing, respectively. On the female map, 26 co-segregation groups were associated in pairs through repulsion linkages, resulting in 13 linkage groups (Fig. 1). Three co-segregation groups (F10, F24, F26) were in repulsion phase, each with one unlinked marker, and 14 co-segregation groups remained unassociated. Therefore, since one association between two cosegregation groups represented one linkage group, there were 30 linkage groups in total on the female side $(13 +$ $14 + 3$). The corresponding analysis for the male map

Fig. 1 Linkage map of the female parent (Capitola). Linkage groups were named by following their size. Uncertain marker orders in the co-segregation groups (alternate orders not ruled out at a LOD = 1) are represented by a *dotted line*. The 3:1 segregating markers are underlined and not included in the count of groups with only two markers. Linkage in the repulsion phase between two markers is represented by a *dashed line* (LOD = 3.0). Boxes represent linkage groups in the repulsion phase. The genetic distance, in centimorgans, of each marker to its closest neighboring marker is given in parenthesis

Fig. 2 Linkage map of the male parent (CF1116). Linkage groups were named by following their size. Uncertain marker orders in the co-segregation groups (alternate orders not ruled out at a $LOD = 1$) are represented by dotted lines. The 3:1 segregating markers are underlined and not included in the count of groups with only two markers. Linkage in the repulsion phase between pairs of markers is

represented by a *dashed line* (LOD = 3.0). Boxes represent linkage groups in the repulsion phase. DHFR stands for dihydroflavonol 4 reductase and AAT for alcohol transferase. The genetic distance, in centimorgans, of each marker to its closest neighboring marker is given in parenthesis

revealed that 30 co-segregation groups were associated in pairs through repulsion linkages, forming 15 linkage groups, 11 co-segregation groups showed no association (Fig. 2) and two groups (M16, M43) were in the repulsion phase, each with an unlinked marker. Twenty eight linkage groups were finally deduced $(15 + 11 + 2)$. In six out of eight cases, the repulsion linkage confirmed groups built at a LOD value of 4.0 (i.e. F2/F16, F5/F19, F17/F38, F7/F23, F13/F22, M5/M33).

Chi-square analysis based on the number of markers linked in the coupling phase and in the repulsion-phase, expected for disomic and polysomic inheritance performed separately on each linkage group, revealed several contrasting types of meiotic behavior. Among the 26 female and 30 male co-segregation groups for which at least two repulsion linkages were observed, this proportion fitted a 1/1 ratio for 20 (10 + 10) female and 26 (13 + 13) male linkage-groups, suggesting preferential chromosome pairings. Among the 14 female and 11 male unassociated groups, the proportion fitted a 1/0 ratio for nine and seven linkage-groups, respectively, including some large ones like F1, F4 and M1, suggesting random pairing $(P = 0.05)$. For six female and four male cosegregation groups, no fit with either a 1/1 or a 1/0 ratio was observed, suggesting an intermediate behavioral type, between complete preferential chromosome pairing and random pairing. The remaining groups were either associated with one unlinked marker or insufficient markers were present to carry out a chi-square test.

Association between female and male maps

The 179 markers fitting strictly a 3:1 ratio were tested for linkage with the 1:1 markers and included in the maps as accessory markers. Ninety markers were mapped on the female side and 102 on the male side. Homology observed between the co-segregation groups of the two maps was considered real when more than one 3:1 segregating marker was found in both male and female co-segregation groups. Fifteen such associations were detected and are summarized in Table 3. For two other

Fig. 2 (continued)

Table 3 Association between female and male linkage groups through 3:1 segregating markers

Female linkage groups ^a	Male linkage groups ^a	Number of 3:1 segregating markers
F1	M4	3
F ₄	M ₂₆	4
$F5 + F19$	M8	3
$F7 + F23$	M30	$\overline{2}$
$F8 + F32$	M ₁₄	3
F ₉	$M24 + M36$	3
F10	$M20 + M42$	4
F ₁₄	M21	3
F15	M ₁₆	3
F34	$M17 + M25$	5
F24	$M13 + M23$	3
$F25 + F43$	$M18 + M31$	5
F ₂₉	$M5 + M33$	3
F30	M1	3
$F35 + F36$	M12	5

 $a^{(+)}$ corresponds to linkage groups in the coupling/repulsion phase

associations, the homology between female and male groups could not be determined with certainty. In the first case, the co-segregation group M2 was associated with two different co-segregation groups, F26 and F27, with three markers for each association, whereas no linkage

was detected between F26 and F27. In the second case, M15 was associated with F21 through seven markers and with F2 through two markers, whereas F2 was also associated with $M3 + M6$ through three markers. These results suggest that M15, M3 and M6 represent the same linkage group on the male side, and F2 and F21 the same linkage group on the female side, but these hypotheses need confirmation. In many cases, the mapping of 3:1 segregating markers on both the coupling and repulsion groups confirmed the linkage associations previously observed between these groups. For example, agt/cg_139 and atg/cag_277 were both mapped on F8 and F32 (Fig. 1), and agt/ctg 470, aca/cat 181 and acc/cta 133 were mapped on M24 and M36 (Fig. 2).

Genome size

Considering all the tested markers, we estimated the female genome length to be 2,870 cM $(Z = 5)$ with a 95% confidence interval of 2,670–3,100 cM. The male genome length was estimated to be 1,861 cM ($Z = 5$) with a 95% confidence interval of 1,767–1,963 cM. Therefore, the percentage of the genome mapped so far amounts to 55.9% and 80.4% for the female and male parents, respectively.

Discussion

Linkage maps and genome size

This study demonstrated that AFLP markers can be useful for mapping the genome of octoploids. Large numbers of simplex markers in a pseudo test-cross configuration were detected, enabling them to be considered SDRF markers and for reliable linkage maps to be constructed. Analysis of the SDRF markers in coupling phase resulted in 43 female and male co-segregation groups, although 56 were expected since each chromosome (homologous or homoeologous) should correspond to a single co-segregation group in coupling phase amongst both the female and male linkage groups (Grivet et al. 1996). The genome is therefore not fully covered by markers and some parts are under-represented. A low number of SDRF markers remained unlinked, which suggests that the SDRFs are not evenly distributed across the whole genome.

The linkage groups resulting from the association of co-segregation groups through markers linked in the repulsion phase were clearly established and the risk of false association can be regarded as rather low. Indeed, the groupings were based on high numbers of markers linked in the repulsion phase (at least five), with the exception of the association between F25 and F43, where only two linkages were detected. In random pairing observed in polysomic inheritance, repulsion-phase linkage between two SDRFs on two particular homologous chromosomes is generally very difficult to demonstrate, since it requires both pairing of the chromosomes being considered, and observation of recombination between the loci (Sorrells 1992). The associated co-segregation groups were not integrated into a unique linkage group since such integration would bias the recombination distance between markers (Qu and Hancock 2001).

The observed map sizes (female and male) corresponding to the sum of the size of each co-segregation group were quite similar. However, the size is probably over-estimated since repulsion-linkage groups were represented by two co-segregation groups and were therefore counted twice. The F . \times ananassa map we developed was about three to four times larger than the 445-cM RAPD map from the diploid *F. vesca* (Davis and Yu 1997). However, since none of the maps covered the entire genome, no conclusion could be drawn about the relationship between the two genomes. The diploid map included a high level of distorted markers with an excess of maternal alleles: skewing has not been observed in our cross.

The estimated genome size for the female parent was much higher than that calculated for the male parent, suggesting that the recombination frequency is higher in the female than in the male gametes. This difference could be artifactual, or it could reflect a genuine biological process, as reported in several other species [e.g. tomato (de Vicente and Tanksley 1991); barley (Graner et al. 1991)]. Similarly, male gametes reportedly recombine at a greater rate in certain cases too; for instance in the genus *Pinus* (Plomion and O'Malley 1996; Lerceteau et al. 2000) and Manihot esculenta (Fregene et al. 1997).

Genome behavior and composition

We have been able to characterize groups linked in coupling phase, and others linked in repulsion phase. Since the global ratio of markers linked in coupling phase to those linked in repulsion phase fitted neither a 1:1 ratio nor a 1:0 ratio, both completely disomic and completely polysomic behavior of the genome was rejected, according to Sorrells (1992) and Wu et al. (1992). The observed ratio was intermediate between these two extremes, which may reflect mixed meiotic behavior of the genome. Since the genome is not fully covered, we cannot exclude the possibility of bias, making the association between groups either impossible or partial. However, for large groups such as F1 or M1, the fact that no linkage between markers in repulsion phase was detected supports the existence of groups in the strictly coupling phase.

The proportions of multiplex (8%) and simplex (92%) markers did not correspond to any of the theoretical ratios described by Da Silva et al. (1993), in which a polysomic octoploid is characterized by multiplex and simplex proportions of 0.3 and 0.7, respectively, and a disomic octoploid by the proportions of 0.44 and 0.56. The high proportion of simplex markers might be related to the high heterozygosity of the F . \times ananassa species observed in breeding (Hancock et al. 1991).

The mixed behavior of the genome of the cultivated strawberry suggested by our data has been reported in other polyploid species that have been subjected to extensive mapping efforts. In cassava, a species so far regarded as either a segmental allopolyploid or allopolyploid, a significant amount of random pairing has been observed (Fregene et al. 1997). Another example, given by Hoarau et al. (2001) is an interspecific cultivar of sugar cane (Saccharum officinarum × Saccharum spontaneum) for which complete polysomy was rejected and the possibility of complete local disomy was suggested.

This is the first study which suggests a mixed meiotic behavior of the genome of F . \times ananassa. Most cytological studies of the species have demonstrated that bivalent-pairing occurs regularly in F . \times ananassa (Ichijima 1926; Longley 1926; Powers 1944) with the exception of Mok and Evans (1971), where multivalents were observed, attributed to secondary associations of bivalents referred to as pseudo-multivalents (Ibrahim et al. 1981). Byrne and Jelenkovic (1976) confirmed in a larger study that all the chromosomes paired as bivalents, and concluded that the species displayed cytological diploidisation. However, homologues of autopolyploids often associate randomly into bivalents rather than

multivalents (see, for example, Qu et al. 1998). Consequently, diploidisation and disomy cannot be fully demonstrated purely on the basis of cytological studies such as those mentioned above. At the molecular level, disomy has been reported for punctual regions of the genome [e.g. PGI (Arulsekar et al. 1981)] and the resistance gene to P. fragariae, Rpf1 (Haymes et al. 1997).

Several genome compositions have been proposed for the cultivated strawberry. Federova (1946) suggested the formula AABBBBCC, based on cytological observations. This was later modified to AAA'A'BBBB due to homologies between the A and C genomes (Senanayake and Bringhurst 1967). More recently, compiling cytological work of Byrne and Jelenkovic (1976) and the isozyme segregation patterns of Arulsekar et al. (1981), Bringhurst (1990) has suggested AAA'A'BBB'B' to be the genomic formula of the octoploid strawberry $(F. \times \text{ananassa})$, Fragaria chiloensis and Fragaria virginiana), which would reflect a high level of diploidisation in the genome. However, our results would rather support the formulas proposed by Federova (1946) and Senanayake and Bringhurst (1967): AACC or AAA'A' for the disomic part (represented by the groups in repulsion phase) and BBBB for the polysomic part (represented by the groups in coupling phase).

In the present study, we suggested a di-polysomic behavior of the genome of F . \times ananassa based on linkage maps. Such a mixed behavior cannot be extrapolated to any of the polyploid Fragaria species. In the genus Vaccinium the inheritance type (tetrasomy vs disomy) depends on the inter-specific cross studied and is a function of the homology between the species (Qu et al. 1998). Mixed behavior has been reported for the genome of several polyploid species. The development of linkage maps for species for which little molecular work has been carried out should give new insights into the complexity of polyploid species, including those considered the simplest, the allopolyploids. The addition of codominant markers, such as microsatellites, to our maps, or the mapping of multiplex markers, would greatly help further investigations into the characterization of homoeologous groups within and between species for a better understanding of the evolution of the genus.

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