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# Mapping of AFLP markers linked to seed coat colour loci in Brassica juncea (L.) Czern

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Abstract Association mapping of the seed-coat colour with amplified fragment length polymorphism (AFLP) markers was carried out in 39 Brassica juncea lines. The lines had genetically diverse parentages and varied for seed-coat colour and other morphological characters. Eleven AFLP primer combinations were used to screen the 39 B. juncea lines, and a total of 335 polymorphic bands were detected. The bands were analysed for association with seed-coat colour using multiple regression analysis. This analysis revealed 15 markers associated with seed-coat colour, obtained with eight AFLP primer combinations. The marker E-ACA/M-CTG<sub>350</sub> ex-plained 69% of the variation in seed-coat colour. This marker along with markers E-AAC/M-CTC $_{235}$  and E-AAC/  $M-CTA_{250}$  explained 89% of the total variation. The 15 associated markers were validated for linkage with the seed-coat colour loci using a recombinant inbred line (RIL) mapping population. Bands were amplified with the eight AFLP primer combinations in 54 RIL progenies. Of the 15 associated markers, 11 mapped on two linkage groups. Eight markers were placed on linkage group 1 at a marker density of 6.0 cM, while the remaining three were mapped on linkage group 2 at a marker density of 3.6 cM.

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Marker E-ACA/M-CTG<sub>350</sub> co-segregated with Gene1 controlling seed-coat colour; it was specific for yellow seed-coat colour and mapped to linkage group 1. Marker E-AAC/M-CTC $_{235}$  (AFLP8), which had been studied previously, was present on linkage group 2; it was specific for brown seed-coat colour. Since AFLP markers are not adapted for large-scale applications in plant breeding, it is important to convert these to sequencecharacterised amplified region (SCAR) markers. Marker  $E$ -AAC/M-CTC<sub>235</sub> (AFLP8) had been previously converted into a SCAR. Work is in progress to convert the second of the linked markers, E-ACA/M-CT $G_{350}$ , to a SCAR. The two linked AFLP markers converted to SCARs will be useful for developing yellow-seeded B. juncea lines by means of marker-assisted selection.

## Introduction

Seed coat colour in *Brassica* varies from yellow to brown with intermediate shades. The yellow-seeded varieties have inherent advantages over their dark-seeded counterparts in both qualitative and quantitative terms. It is easy to determine the degree of ripeness of yellow seed because the occurrence of chlorophyll is not masked by the colour of the seed coat. A high chlorophyll content in the seeds of mustard causes discoloration of oil, which subsequently needs to be removed by technical processing (Jönsson 1977). As yellow-seeded varieties have a lower chlorophyll content, the problem of chlorophyll discoloration is avoided. Consequently, the yellow-seed trait is economically beneficial to the oil industry. Seeds of yellow-seeded cultivars of rape (Brassica rapa) and rapeseed  $(B. napus)$  have a 2.5% (Daun and De Clereq 1988) higher oil content than those of the dark-seeded varieties. Yellow seeds of B. rapa and B. napus have a 5% (Stringam et al 1974) and 3–4% (Shizadegan and Robbelen 1985) lower fibre content, respectively, compared with those of dark-seeded varieties. They may also have a 2.6–5% higher protein content than dark seeds (Shizadegan and Robbelen 1985; Liu et al 1991). Higher protein and lower crude fibre content are desirable traits in rapeseed meal, which is the most important fodder product of mustard.

Most of the varieties grown for commercial cultivation are dark-seeded, and there are only very few yellow- or light-seeded varieties. The yellow-seeded B. rapa variety Candle has been released for commercial cultivation in Canada (Stringam 1980). The yellow-seeded rape varieties released for commercial cultivation in India are YsPb (yellow sarson) and YID. All of the B. juncea varieties grown for commercial cultivation are brownseeded. Attempts have been made to develop artificially synthesised yellow-seeded varieties of B. rapa, B. napus and B. juncea (Jönsson 1975; Abraham and Bhatia 1986; Rahman 2001) by using the yellow-seeded forms that exist in the natural germplasm of Brassica species. However, breeding for yellow-seeded varieties is complicated by multiple gene inheritance, allotetraploidy, maternal effect and environmental factors (Shizadigan 1986; Van Deynze and Pauls 1994). The identification of markers linked to seed coat colour will facilitate the breeding of yellow-seeded varieties in Brassica. The inheritance pattern of seed coat colour has been studied to understand the genetics of control, which will help in localizing regions of the genome that control this trait. Seed coat colour in *B. rapa* has been shown to be controlled by one (Teutonico and Osborn 1994) to multiple genes (Schwetka 1982). In B. napus a threegene model with the maternal genotype controlling seed coat colour has been proposed (Shirzadegan 1986, Van Deyzne et al. 1995). The inheritance of seed coat colour in B. juncea has been described by Vera and Woods (1982) and Anand et al. (1985). An exclusive maternal inheritance was observed and the brown seed coat was dominant over yellow. A segregation ratio of 15 brown: 1 yellow indicated a digenic control of the trait.

Restriction fragment length polymorphism (RFLP) and random amplified polymorphic DNA (RAPD) markers linked to genes controlling seed coat colour in B. napus have been identified in two different doubled-haploid (DH) mapping populations (Van Deynze et al. 1995; Somers et al. 2001). In another study, a number of RAPD markers for seed coat colour were identified using B. rapa-B. alboglabra addition lines (Chen et al. 1997). In B. rapa, Teutonico and Osborn 1994) mapped a locus controlling seed coat colour to linkage group 5. The bulked segregant analysis (BSA) combined with amplified fragment length polymorphism (AFLP) technology has been used to identify markers linked to seed coat colour in B. juncea (Negi et al. 2000). A recombinant inbred line (RIL) mapping population was used for this purpose, and several linked markers were identified. One AFLP marker linked to the seed coat colour trait was converted to a sequence characterized amplified region marker (SCAR). The investigation reported here is an extension of the work carried out by Negi et al. (2000). We have used AFLP markers to screen the genotype of B. juncea lines varying for seed coat color and having multiple ancestry. The multiple regression approach was employed to determine the associations between AFLP markers and the seed-coat color trait. The associations were further validated for linkage on the RIL mapping population. This study led to the identification of eight additional markers linked to seed-coat colour loci in B. juncea. The position of a one of the genes controlling seed-coat colour was also mapped.

# Materials and methods

#### Plant material

Thirty-six Brassica juncea. (L.) Czern breeding lines and three exotic accessions, all having multiple ancestry, were analysed for association with seed coat colour. The plant material varied with respect to seed-coat colour and various morphological traits such as erucic acid content and glucosinolate content. Detailed descriptions of the lines and accessions are give in Table 1. The lines were scored visually for seed-coat colour. The three exotic accessions and 17 of the B. juncea lines were yellow-seeded, while the remaining 19 lines were brown-seeded. The breeding lines were obtained from PAU (Punjab Agricultural University). The exotic accessions were maintained at TERI (The Energy and Resources Institute), New Delhi. Validation of the associated markers was carried out on a RIL mapping population that was generated and maintained at TERI, New Delhi. A single plant of B. juncea cv. Skorospieka was crossed as female parent to B. juncea cv. RH30. A segregating population was obtained by selfing a single  $F_1$  plant. In total, 144 segregating  $F_2$  individuals were obtained, and these were selfed to generate  $\overline{F}_3$  families. These were further advanced by single-seed descent. The two parents selected represent two genetically and morphologically diverse accessions that differ for a number of traits. Skorospieka is tall, yellow-seeded, late-flowering and resistant to white rust; RH30 is short, brown-seeded, early-flowering and susceptible to white rust. The  $F_6$  individuals were scored visually for seed-coat colour. DNA was extracted from young and lyophilised leaves of 54 individual plants using a modified CTAB method (Weising et al. 1995).

#### AFLP analysis

The AFLP procedure was performed following the protocol developed by Vos et al. (1995) with minor modifications (Das et al 1999). All of the reagents required for the AFLP analysis were obtained from Life Technologies (Gaithersburg, Md.). The PCR reactions were performed in a GeneAmp PCR-9700 thermal cycler. Following the restriction digestion of genomic DNA (300 ng) with restriction enzymes EcoRI and MseI, adaptors specific to EcoRI and MseI overhangs were ligated. Pre-amplification of the adaptorligated DNA was performed using A- and C-selective nucleotides  $(EcoRI+A$  and  $MseI+C)$  under the following cycling parameters: 20 cycles of 30 s at 94 $\degree$ C, 60 s at 56 $\degree$ C and 60 s at 72 $\degree$ C. Selective amplification was conducted using pre-amplified DNA, diluted 50 times, as a template. Primers with three selective bases at their 3' ends were employed and EcoRI primer was end-labeled with *g*-  $[P^{32}]$ -ATP. The cycling parameters were: one cycle of 30 s at 94 $\degree$ C,  $30 \text{ s}$  at 65 °C and 60 s at 72 °C. The annealing temperatures were reduced by  $0.7^{\circ}$ C per cycle during the first 12 cycles, and then 23 cycles were performed at  $94^{\circ}$ C for 30 s,  $55^{\circ}$ C and  $72^{\circ}$ C for 60 s. The samples were size fractionated on 6% polyacrylamide gel and autoradiographed.

### Multiple regression analysis

Associations between the AFLP markers and the phenotypic trait, seed-coat colour, were established using the multiple regression approach (Virk et al. 1996). The trait was treated as a dependent Table 1 List of Brassica juncea lines used in the association mapping study



<sup>a</sup> Less than 2% erucic acid

variable and the various AFLP marker genotypes (scored as 0 and 1) as independent variables. The analysis was based on the model  $Y=a+b_1m_1+b_2m_2+\ldots+b_im_j+\ldots+b_nm_n+d+e$ , which relates the variation in the dependent variable (Y=accession means as a quantitative trait) to a linear function of a set of independent variables,  $m_j$ , representing the AFLP markers. The terms  $b_i$  are the partial regression coefficients that specify the empirical relationships between Y and  $m_i$ , d represents the residual left after regression and e is the random error of Y that includes environmental variation. The stepwise method of spss was employed to determine the most appropriate model. A one-variable (i.e. marker) model was first assessed, and the marker with the highest  $r^2$  was identified. The second variable was then added, and the best two-variable model was selected using the criteria of the largest  $r^2$ . The model fitting was continued until all significant variation in Y was exhausted. Fisher's F-test was carried out for determining the best-fit model. The analysis was carried out at 5% level of significance.

#### Linkage analysis

Genetic segregation data for AFLP markers linked with seed-coat colour among 54 RILs (45 brown-seeded and 9 yellow-seeded) was analysed using mapmaker ver. 3.0 (Lander et al. 1987; Lincoln et al. 1992). A molecular marker linkage map was constructed using a maximum recombination fraction of 0.4 and a LOD threshold of 3.0. Two-point estimates were used to designate preliminary

linkage groups, and multipoint analysis was used to designate the most-likely locus orders. The map distances were converted to centiMorgans (cM) using the Kosambi function (Kosambi 1944).

## **Results**

#### Association mapping

Association mapping of seed-coat colour with AFLP markers was carried out using 39 B. juncea lines of genetically diverse parentages. They varied with respect to seed-coat colour and other morphological traits such as erucic acid content and glucosinolate content. Twenty B. juncea lines were yellow-seeded, while the remaining 19 were brown-seeded. Eleven AFLP primer combinations were employed, and a total of 335 polymorphic bands were detected. The bands were analysed for association with seed-coat colour using multiple regression analysis. Fifteen markers showed significant association and were generated with eight AFLP primer combinations. The eight primer combinations and the size of associated Table 2 AFLP markers associated with seed coat colour and their squared regression values





Fig. 1 a A portion of the AFLP profile generated with primer combination E-ACA  $\times$  M-CTG in a *Brassica juncea* natural population consisting of 39 lines having genetically diverse parentages and varying in seed coat colour. The 350-bp marker associated with yellow seed coat colour is indicated by an arrowhead. b A portion

of the AFLP profile generated with primer combination E-ACA M-CTG in a B. juncea RIL mapping population consisting of nine yellow- and 45 brown-seeded progenies. The 350-bp marker linked with seed coat colour loci is indicated by an *arrowhead* 

markers amplified are shown in Table 2.Of the 15 AFLP markers, six amplified in the yellow lines while the remaining nine showed amplification mainly in the brown lines (Table 2). A representative AFLP profile generated by employing the primer combination E-ACA/M-CTG in the 39 B. juncea lines is shown in Fig. 1a. This primer combination amplified marker E-ACA/M-CT $G_{350}$  in 17 of 20 yellow lines, but the marker was absent in all of the brown lines. E-ACA/M-CT $G<sub>350</sub>$  (indicated by an arrow in Fig. 1a) explained 69% of the variation in seed-coat colour and, along with the markers  $E$ -AAC/M-CTC<sub>235</sub> and E-AAC/M-CTA250, explained 89% of the total variation. These 15 markers together explained 99% of the trait with only a negligible portion (1%) remaining unexplained (Table 2).

#### Linkage mapping

The 15 molecular markers showing association with seedcoat color in the *B. juncea* natural population were validated for linkage in a RIL mapping population, which consisted of nine yellow- and 45 brown-seeded RIL progenies. The associated markers were amplified in the 54 individual RIL progenies and in the two parents with the eight AFLP primer combinations. One of the markers generated by employing the primer combination E-ACA/ M-CTG is shown in Fig. 1b (arrow). This marker, designated E-ACA/M-CT $G<sub>350</sub>$ , was 350 bp in size. It was amplified in the yellow-seeded parent and all of the yellow-seeded progenies but was absent in the brownseeded parent and brown-seeded progenies. No recombinants were obtained, and the marker co-segregated with the gene for seed-coat colour, designated Gene1. Similarly, the remaining 14 markers were validated by gen164



Fig. 2 A genetic linkage map of 11 AFLP markers and the Gene1 locus associated with seed coat colour in B. juncea

erating their AFLP profiles with the seven other primer combinations. Analysis of the data for the presence/ absence of bands detected by all eight primer combinations was carried out on mapmaker ver. 3.0 at a minimum LOD score of 3.0 and at a maximum distance of 40 cM. The linkage map for these markers is shown in Fig. 2. Eight AFLP markers were placed on linkage group 1. The entire interval mapped with AFLP markers around Gene1 for seed-coat colour was 41.5 cM in length with a marker density of 6.0 cM. Marker E-ACA/ M-CTG<sub>350</sub>, (Fig. 1b), which is specific for yellow-seed coat colour, co-segregated with Gene1 and was mapped on linkage group 1. Markers E-ACC/M-CTA<sub>300</sub> and E-AAC/M-CTA<sub>250</sub> flanked Gene1 at a distance of 1.6 cM and 4.5 cM, respectively. Marker E-ACC/M-CTA<sub>300</sub> was present in the yellow-seeded lines, while E-AAC/M-CTA<sub>250</sub> was present in the brown-seeded ones. Other markers present on this linkage group were E-ACC/M-CAT<sub>300</sub>, E-ACC/  $M-CTA<sub>150</sub>$ , E-ACA/M-CTG<sub>200</sub>, E-AAC/M-CAC<sub>250</sub> and E-ACC/M-CAA<sub>200</sub>, which were present at a distance of 21.8, 10.2, 5.7, 2.7 and 19.8 cM, respectively, from Gene1. Linkage group 2 comprised markers E-AAC/  $M-CTC_{235}$ , E-ACC/M-CAT<sub>100</sub> and E-ACC/M-CAT<sub>200</sub>. These markers covered 10.9 cM at a marker density of 3.6 cM. The second gene controlling seed-coat colour in B. juncea could not be mapped as the light reflectance values for seed-coat colour, explaining the bimodal nature of trait inheritance, were not available.

# **Discussion**

In the present study association mapping was successfully employed for the identification of markers associated with the seed-coat colour trait. Fifteen markers were found to be associated significantly and explained 99% of the trait. Of these three markers E-ACA/M-CT $G<sub>350</sub>$ , E-AAC/  $M-CTC_{235}$  and E-AAC/M-CTA<sub>250</sub> explained 89% of the total variation. Marker E-ACA/M-CT $G_{350}$  explained 69% of the variation in seed-coat colour. It was amplified in 17 of the 20 yellow-seeded lines and was absent in all of the brown-seeded lines. Absence of the marker in the four yellow lines could be due to the presence of different alleles for seed-coat colour at this locus in these  $B$ . juncea lines. However, due to our lack of knowledge of the exact parentage of these lines the exact cause of the absence of markers in some of the lines cannot be ascertained. It is possible that these lines were derived from parents distinct from those of other lines. Upon linkage analysis using RILs, this marker found to be amplified in all of the yellow-seeded progenies and was absent from all of the brown-seeded ones. This suggests that the alleles for yellow seed-coat colour in the RILs derived from B. juncea cvs. RH30 and Skorospieka are the same as those amplified in 17 of the 20 B. juncea lines taken for the association mapping study. Association mapping was carried out keeping in view its advantages over conventional mapping strategies. The strategy for association mapping makes use of natural populations or genetic resources. This makes the process faster and less labor intensive than conventional mapping which employs experimental populations such as DH, RIL, backcross and  $F_2$  populations. Further, the linkage disequilibrium is maximised as only genetic markers in close linkage with the trait are identified. This is because the plants tested are products of several breeding cycles, and several opportunities for recombination between the gene and markers have occurred. Unlike conventional breeding strategies, the prediction of plant seed-coat colour at the seedling stage can be carried out on plants of any parental origin and is not affected by the genetic background. This makes the marker-assisted selection programme, which employs markers derived from association mapping more practical. Association mapping has been used extensively in medical genetics but has not been applied in plant genetics. The few reports on association mapping in plants include those on the association of variation with flowering time in maize (Thornsberry et al. 2001), association with morphological traits in rice (Virk et al. 1996), association with salt tolerance and ecogeography in barley (Pakniyat et al. 1997), association with biotic and abiotic stress tolerance in barley (Ivandic et al. 2003)

Linkage mapping studies were carried out to find the centiMorgan distances of the 15 associated markers with respect to genes for seed-coat colour. A RIL mapping population was employed. The advantages of this population over others for mapping and tagging of genes has been discussed by Kole et al. (1997). As compared to segregating populations such as an  $F_2$  or backcross, RILs are immortal. Although DHs are also immortal and can be generated in less time than RILs, it is difficult to produce a DH population in B. juncea as the protocol for microspore culture in this species is not well-established. Moreover, the advanced generations of RILs undergo a larger number of meioses and, consequently, more recombination events than the DHs. This increases the linkage disequilibrium between the marker and the loci for the trait of interest and thus enables finer mapping in RILs than in DHs.

In the previous study by Negi et al. (2000), three AFLP markers were identified as being tightly linked to the seed-coat colour trait and specific for brown-seeded individuals. These markers were E-AAC/  $M-CTA_{250}$ E-AAC/M-CTC<sub>235</sub> and E-ACC/M-CTA<sub>150</sub>, designated as AFLP-5, AFLP-8 and AFLP-29, respectively (Negi et al. 2000). Scoring of these markers in a segregating population easily distinguished yellow- and brown-seeded B. juncea and also differentiated between homozygous (BB) and heterozygous (Bb) brown-seeded individuals. In addition to the three markers identified by Negi et al. (2000), we identified eight more linked markers in this study. These markers were distributed on two linkage groups, which is in agreement with the fact that in B. juncea two independent recessive genes govern the yellow seed-coat colour trait (Vera and Woods 1982; Anand et al. 1985). The three tightly linked AFLP markers identified by Negi et al. (2000) were placed on two linkage groups. Linkage group 1 had the markers E-AAC/  $M-CTA_{250}$  (AFLP-5) and E-ACC/M-CTA<sub>150</sub> (AFLP-29) at a distance of 4.5 cM and 9.7 cM, respectively, from Gene1. Linkage group 2 had the marker E-AAC/M-CTC $_{235}$  (AFLP-8), which was converted to a SCAR by Negi et al. (2000). Of the eight additional markers identified in the present study, two were mapped between Gene1 and marker E-ACA/M-CTG<sub>200</sub> (AFLP-5): marker E-ACA/M-CTG<sub>350</sub> co-segregated with Gene1, while marker E-ACC/M-CTA $_{300}$  was mapped at a distance of 1.6 cM from Gene1.

Studies have also been carried out in B. napus and B. rapa to identify markers linked to seed coat colour. RFLP markers were employed by Van Deynze et al. (1995) in a DH population for this purpose. This study identified a quantitative trait locus (QTL) that explained 24% of the phenotypic variation in the population. In another study by Somers et al. (2001), 11 RAPD markers linked with the *pigment1* gene in *B. napus* were identified. These markers were distributed on three linkage groups. One of these markers, UBC282, explained 72.3% of the phenotypic variation. These results are contradictory to the

results of Van Deynze et al. (1995) who showed that a major gene in *B. napus* controls a large part of variation in seed-coat colour. In the study by Chen et al. (1997), one marker closely linked to the seed-coat colour gene in B. rapa and *B*. *alboglabra* lines was identified and the chromosomal position assigned. In another study, Teutonico and Osborn (1994) reported a 3:1 ratio for segregation of yellow:brown seeds in B. rapa, and the locus controlling the seed-coat colour gene was mapped to linkage group 5.

Markers linked to agronomic traits have the potential to be employed in map-based cloning and marker-assisted selection (MAS) programmes. AFLP markers are generally expensive to generate, dominant in nature and involve the use of radioactivity. This limits their largescale application in marker-assisted plant breeding. For practical applications in MAS, these dominant markers need to be converted to codominant SCAR markers (Paran and Michelmore 1993). The PCR-based assay for SCAR is rapid and non-radioactive and can be used on crude DNA preparations. Maternal inheritance, environmental effects and the recessive character of the yellowseed coat colour trait do not affect this marker (Negi et al. 2000). However, it is difficult to convert AFLP markers to SCAR markers mainly due to the small size of the former (50–400 bp). They do not reveal polymorphism upon conversion to SCAR (Negi et al. 2000). It is easier to convert RAPD markers to SCAR markers as the former generate fragments in the size range of 500–1,500 bp. In order to convert AFLP markers to useful SCAR markers it is necessary to clone the flanking regions. The PCR walking approach has proven to be extremely useful for the isolation of large-sized fragments adjacent to the AFLP markers (Negi et al. 2000). Work is in progress to convert the marker E-ACA/  $M$ -CT $G$ <sub>350</sub>, which is tightly linked to *Gene1* and amplifies only in the yellow lines, to a SCAR marker that could then be employed along with E-AAC/M-CTC $_{235}$  (AFLP-8), which has previously been converted to SCAR, in MAS and thus accelerate the breeding programme. Since the two markers are present on two linkage groups, they may be useful for map-based cloning of the two genes responsible for controlling seedcoat colour loci in B. juncea.

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