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S. Feingold \cdot J. Lloyd \cdot N. Norero \cdot M. Bonierbale J. Lorenzen

Mapping and characterization of new EST-derived microsatellites for potato (Solanum tuberosum L.)

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Abstract Microsatellites, or simple sequence repeats (SSRs) are very useful molecular markers for a number of plant species. They are commonly used in cultivar identification, plant variety protection, as anchor markers in genetic mapping, and in marker-assisted breeding. Early development of SSRs was hampered by the high cost of library screening and clone sequencing. Currently, large public SSR datasets exist for many crop species, but the number of publicly available, mapped SSRs for potato is relatively low (~ 100) . We have utilized a database mining approach to identify SSR-containing sequences in The Institute For Genomic Research Potato Gene Index database (http://www.tigr.org), focusing on sequences with size polymorphisms present in this dataset. Ninetyfour primer pairs flanking SSR sequences were synthesized and used to amplify potato DNA. This study rendered 61 useful SSRs that were located in pre-existing genetic maps, fingerprinted in a set of 30 cultivars from South America, North America, and Europe or a combination thereof. The high proportion of success (65%) of expressed sequence tag-derived SSRs obtained in this work validates the use of transcribed sequences as a source of markers. These markers will be useful for genetic mapping, taxonomic studies, marker-assisted selection, and cultivar identification.

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S. Feingold \cdot N. Norero Laboratorio de Biotecnologìa Agrícola, Propapa EEA Balcarce INTA, CC276 (B7620ZAA) Balcarce, Argentina

J. Lloyd \cdot J. Lorenzen (\boxtimes) Potato Molecular Biology Lab, Plant, Soil and Entomological Science (PSES) Department, University of Idaho, P.O. Box 442339, Moscow, ID 83844, USA

M. Bonierbale Germplasm Enhancement and Crop Improvement Division, International Potato Center (CIP), P.O. Box 1558, Lima 12, Peru

Introduction

Molecular markers detect DNA sequence variation among genotypes. In potato, they have been used for construction of genetic linkage maps (Bonierbale et al. [1988,](#page-8-0) [1994](#page-9-0); Gebhardt et al. [1991](#page-9-0)), trait tagging (Gebhardt et al. [1993;](#page-9-0) Bryan et al. [2002\)](#page-9-0), fingerprinting analysis (Görg et al. [1992](#page-9-0); Milbourne et al. [1997](#page-9-0); Mc Gregor et al. [2000a](#page-9-0); Norero et al. [2004\)](#page-9-0), phylogeny studies (Debener et al. [1990;](#page-9-0) Raker and Spooner [2002](#page-9-0); Izpizua [2004](#page-9-0); Raimondi et al. [2005\)](#page-9-0), and characterization of accessions from germplasm banks (Gebhardt et al. [2004;](#page-9-0) Ghislain et al. [2004](#page-9-0)).

Since 1980, when restriction fragment length polymorphisms (RFLPs) were first used by Botstein et al. ([1980](#page-9-0)) to construct the first molecular map of the human genome, several types of DNA-based markers were developed (reviewed by Vekemans and Jacquemart [1997\)](#page-10-0). These markers were used to make the first linkage maps for potato (Bonierbale et al. [1988](#page-8-0); Gebhardt et al. [1989](#page-9-0)).

Among DNA markers, microsatellites [synonymous with simple sequence repeats (SSRs), Tautz [1989](#page-10-0)] have been chosen over RFLPs or other PCR-based methods such as random amplified polymorphic DNA (Williams et al. [1990\)](#page-10-0) or amplified fragment length polymorphism [(AFLP) Vos et al. [1995](#page-10-0)] because of their simplicity and low DNA requirement. Additional advantages include their ubiquity, distribution across the genome, co-dominant behavior, multiallelism, reproducibility, and high level of polymorphism detected (Milbourne et al. [1997](#page-9-0); Marcucci Poltri [1998;](#page-9-0) Mc Gregor et al. [2000b](#page-9-0)).

SSR markers consist of a variable number of tandem repeats of a simple motif sequence, typically a mono-, di-, tri-, or tetranucleotide repeat. Polymorphisms are detected by PCR amplification with specific flanking primers and subsequent size sieving in agarose or denaturing polyacrylamide gels.

The frequency of SSRs varies between mammals and plants, being five times more frequent in the former

(Lagercrantz et al. 1993). Within plants, the frequency is approximately one every 21.2 kb in dicots and every 64.6 kb in monocots (Wang et al. [1994\)](#page-10-0). In potato, Ashkenazi et al. ([2001](#page-8-0)) estimated that one SSR could be found every 52 kb when screening for five different motifs. This relatively low frequency of SSRs constituted one of the major drawbacks in early SSR developments, as the number of microsatellites found by sequencing libraries made the cost per marker very expensive (Rafalski and Tingey [1993](#page-9-0)). The first SSRs were developed by screening large numbers of clones from genomic li-braries with repetitive probes (Akkaya et al. [1992](#page-8-0); Röder et al. [1995](#page-9-0); Liu et al. [1996](#page-9-0); Bryan et al. [1997\)](#page-9-0). To overcome this constraint, processes were designed to enrich libraries for microsatellite motifs prior to screening, such as by hybridizations to repetitive oligos bound to magnetic beads (Kijas et al. [1994](#page-9-0)) or membranes (Edwards et al. [1996\)](#page-9-0), triplex affinity capture (Milbourne et al. [1998](#page-9-0)), or selective pre-amplification using oligos with repeat motifs (Bryan et al. [1997\)](#page-9-0). However, enrichment techniques can lead to a high level of redundancy (Scott [2001](#page-9-0)).

A more practical, economical, and straightforward approach for species with reasonable DNA sequence database representation is a database search for SSR sequences. This strategy has been successfully used for tomato (Smulders et al. [1997](#page-10-0)), sorghum (Brown et al. [1996](#page-9-0)), rice (Miyao et al. [1996](#page-9-0)), and soybean (Akkaya et al. [1992\)](#page-8-0), among other plant species.

Early development of potato SSRs from GenBank and European Molecular Biology Laboratory (EMBL) databases searches was done by Veilleux et al. [\(1995\)](#page-10-0) and Provan et al. [\(1996\)](#page-9-0), rendering around 30 working markers. Milbourne et al. [\(1998\)](#page-9-0) utilized the EMBL database, an expressed sequence tag (EST) database, and cDNA library screening to develop 112 potato SSRs, of which 65 were mapped. Ashkenazi et al. [\(2001\)](#page-8-0) screened three libraries (two of them enriched for ATT and GT repeats) and searched public genomic databases to obtain 30 new microsatellites. More recently, Ghislain et al. ([2004](#page-9-0)) reported the location of 13 new EST-derived SSRs (STM5000 series) for which primer sequences may be found at http://www.potgenebank.org/.

However, more markers are needed for the construction of saturated and consensus genetic maps, markerassisted breeding, and germplasm bank management. Because ESTs are from expressed genes, they present the possibility of direct gene tagging through candidate gene mapping and contribute to ''functional maps.'' Moreover, selective pressure may reduce genetic variability in the primer region and enhance transferability of the markers across related species (Scott et al. [2000](#page-10-0)).

Milbourne et al. [\(1998](#page-9-0)) reported that 451 potato sequences were publicly available (of which 75 contained SSRs and 30 were suitable for primer design). Subsequent large-scale sequencing programs for potato, tomato, and other related species have released sequences for a large number of ESTs. At the time of writing this paper, 157,197 potato EST sequences were available from http://www.tigr.org, organized into 19,225 tentative consensus sequences (TCs) and 13,226 singletons (release 9.0, May 2004). The objective of this work is to generate new SSRs derived from gene index databases. We report here the development of 61 new SSRs using The Institute for Genomic Research (TIGR) Potato Gene Index database and the mapping of 57 of these.

Materials and methods

Plant material and DNA isolation

Thirty cultivars from Europe, North America, and South America were used for fingerprinting analysis (Table 1), as a sample of the variability in commercial potato germplasm. The selection also included genotypes of Solanum tuberosum ssp. andigena $(4\times)$, ssp. tuberosum \times ssp. andigena (4 \times) and S. phureja (2 \times). Genomic DNA was isolated from in vitro plants supplied by the Propapa Germplasm Bank (INTA-Balc[arce\), according to Haymes \(1996](#page-9-0)).

Forty-two genotypes from each of two segregating diploid populations (BCB and BCT, Bonierbale et al. [1994\)](#page-9-0) were selected to represent the most informative subset based on selective mapping using MapPop,

Table 1 Potato cultivars used for fingerprinting and their origin

Cultivar	Origin
Solanum tuberosum ssp. tuberosum	
Achat	Germany
Achirana INTA	Argentina
Alpha	The Netherlands
Americana INTA	Argentina
Araucana INTA	Argentina
Atlantic	USA
Bintje	The Netherlands
Bonaerense la Ballenera MAA	Argentina
Chieftain	USA
Cruza 148	Mexico
Danva	Denmark
Desiree	The Netherlands
Frital INTA	Argentina
Granola	Germany
Huinkul MAG	Argentina
Kelune INTA	Argentina
Kennebec	USA
Norland	USA
Pampeana INTA	Argentina
Pentland Crown	UK
Ranger Russet	USA
Russet Burbank	USA
Serrana INTA	Argentina
Shepody	Canada
Spunta	The Netherlands
Yagana INIA	Chile
S. tuberosum ssp. andigena	
Collareja 621	CIP
Jaspe	Bolivia
Ssp. tuberosum \times ssp. andigena	
Canchan-INIA	Peru
S. phureja	
Yema de huevo	Colombia

Table 2 Simple sequence repeat (SSR) mapping and fingerprinting results, including map location, StI codes, flanking primer sequences, repeat motif, working annealing temperatures, expected and observed amplicon size, number of alleles, number of patterns,

number of expected bands per genotype, and diversity index (DI) after analyzing 30 diverse potato cultivars and four diploid mapping populations

Blank cell means data not available

^aSuspected multilocus marker, additional location possible

^bRange of annealing temperatures denotes a touchdown profile with 0.5°C decrease per cycle, until lower annealing temperature was reached

version 1.0 software (Vision et al. [2000](#page-10-0)). Genomic DNA from these clones was isolated using the DNeasy plant isolation kit (Qiagen, Valencia, Calif., USA).

Database search for SSR sequences and primer design

Initial candidate SSRs were selected from the Potato Gene Index database (version 4.0, Aug. 2001; http:// www.tigr.org/tdb/tgi/plant.shtml) using the BLAST search algorithm. Subsequent candidate SSRs were selected from a downloaded version (version 7.0, April 2003) of the same database using Sputnik (http://espressosoftware.com/pages/sputnik.jsp), a C-language program that searches DNA sequence files in FASTA format for microsatellite repeats. In some cases, candidate ESTs were prioritized based on presence of motif size polymorphisms in the EST database. Flanking oligonucleotides were designed using the program Primer3 (http://www.genome.wi.mit.edu/genome_software/other/ primer3.html) or FastPCR (Kalendar [2004.](#page-9-0) http:// www.biocenter.helsinki.fi/bi/bare-1_html/fastpcr.htm), using the following initial parameters: target primer length: 20 nucleotides, target T_m : 58°C, target amplicon length: 75–300 bp. Primer sequences and annealing temperatures for SSRs reported in this paper are given in Table [2. Information on additional primer pairs that](#page-2-0) [failed to amplify, were not polymorphic in these map](#page-2-0)[ping populations, or that could not be easily scored will](#page-2-0) [be provided upon request.](#page-2-0)

Polymerase chain reactions conditions and product electrophoresis

Polymerase chain reactions (PCRs) were performed in 20 - μ l volumes containing approximately 30 ng template DNA in 1.5 mM $MgCl₂$, 1X PCR buffer (50 mM KCl; 10 mM Tris-HCl, pH 8.3), 0.2 mM dNTP mix, 0.12 μ M of forward and reverse primers, and 1 U of Taq polymerase. Reactions were performed in 96-well plates in

Fig. 1 Allelic variation of 30 potato genotypes revealed by StI021

MJ thermocyclers (PTC-100 or PTC-200; MJ Research, Watertown, Mass., USA) under the following profile: 3 min initial denaturation step at 95°C, 35 cycles of 30 s at 95°C, 30 s at annealing temperature (Table [2\), 1 min at](#page-2-0) 72 \degree [C, with a final extension step of 5 min at 72](#page-2-0) \degree C. The [indication of a range in the annealing temperature col](#page-2-0)umn in Table 2 [denotes the use of a touchdown profile](#page-2-0) [\(Don et al.](#page-9-0) 1991). In this case, the annealing temperature used in the first cycle was the higher temperature of the range, with a 0.5°C decrease per cycle until the lower temperature was reached; additional cycles at the lower annealing temperature were added to complete 35 cycles in total.

Success of amplification was checked on 1% agarose gels run in 1X TBE (89 mM Tris-Borate, 20 mM ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid) and stained with 0.5X Gel-Star (Cambrex Biosciences, Rockland, Me., USA). Band size on fingerprinting panel was determined by comparison with a 10-bp DNA ladder (InvitroGen Life Technologies, Carlsbad, Calif., USA). PCR products were run on 5% denaturing polyacrylamide gels and silver-stained as detailed elsewhere (Bassam et al. [1991\)](#page-8-0).

Mapping and genetic analysis

Band scoring was performed manually for both mapping and fingerprinting purposes. The genetic location of SSR markers was based on the RFLP framework maps for the BCB and BCT mapping populations (Bonierbale et al. [1994\)](#page-9-0) using MapManager QTX program (Manly et al. [2001\)](#page-9-0). Markers were considered linked to pre-existing RFLP or SSR markers when LOD scores were equal or greater than 3.0. A consensus map derived from the four parental maps from BCB and BCT was obtained using JoinMap, version 3.0 (van Ooijen and Voorrips [2001\)](#page-9-0).

A diversity index (DI) was calculated from fingerprint data as $1-\Sigma p g^2$ where pg is the frequency of an individual genotype, assuming each SSR reveals one locus (Milbourne et al. [1997\)](#page-9-0).

code	Original	Current (v.9.0) ID	tentative annotation
StI001	AF122053	NP28080	msive element binding factor tuber-specific and sucrose-respo
StI002	AJ133765	NP182395	Trithorax homolog 2 (WW domain binding protein 7) (Fragment). (Mus musculus;), partial (98) SP 008550 TRX2_MOUSE invertase, putative similar to
StI004 StI003	AW096896 BE471335	AN096896 TC98002	UP Q944L3 (Q944L3) AT3g45260/F18N11_20, partial (108) similar to
St1005	BE340719	TC105083	uper cysteine rich protein (Fragment), partial (468) $(Q16861)$ S UP Q16861 similar to
StI006	BG096868	TC100002	similar to GB AAD14477.1 4249380 T2K10 ESTs gb 237637, gb AA042498 and gb AA042269 come from this gene. {Arabidopsis thaliana;}, partial (458)
St1007	BG594771	TC96544	weakly similar to Zeatin O-glucosyltransferase (BC 2.4.1.203) (Zeatin O-beta-D- glucosyltransferase)., partial (168)
StI008	BG596262	TC96259	similar to PIR T10265 T10265 arabinogalactan-protein AGP2 - Persian tobacco {Nicotiana alata;}, partial (368)
Stil009	BG888053	TC102749	homologue to PIR T01932 T01932 RNA binding protein homolog - common tobacco (fragment) (Nicotiana tabacum;}, partial (87%)
StI011	BG888359	TC98906	(Fragment), partial (21%) UP Q61402 (Q61402) Gcapl protein
StI012 StI013	STU69633 ¹ TC16934	TC93187 U69633 ¹	similar to PIR T09555 T09555 fibrillarin - Arabidopsis thaliana (Arabidopsis thaliana;), partial (888) >gi 2055384 gb AAB53203.1 (U69633) cold-stress inducible protein
StI014	TC18962	TC99264	similar to UP Q9C5W8 (Q9C5W8) IAA14, partial (71%)
StIO15	TC19128	TC105552	SP Q42429 AGIS_SOLTU Agamous-like MADS box protein AGIS homolog (POTMI-l). {Solanum tuberosum/}, complete
St1016	TC19146	TC93393	homologue to PIR S51529 S51529 SPF1 protein - sweet potato {Ipomoea batatas;}, partial (57%)
StI017	TC20237	TC95133	similar to FIR T48868 T48868 zinc finger protein [imported] - garden pea {Pisum sativum;}, partial (458)
StI018	TC20973	TC98351	$1154505371A$ YO52732 AT4g00850/A_TMO18A10_22 {Arabidopsis thaliana;}, partial (26%) weakly similar to GB AAK96446.1
StI019	TC57834	TC92630	Metallocarboxypeptidase inhibitor, complete homologue to UP 024372 (024372)
St1020	TC58214	TC103360	similar to UP Q8L5W2 (Q8L5W2) bZIP transcription factor ATB2, partial (60%)
5t1021	TC58421	PC94434	1/AB022223 heat shock transcription factor-like protein (Arabidopsis thaliana;) , partial (49%) similar to UP Q94F45 (Q94F45) AT4g18020/T6K21 200, partial (198) GB BAB01258.1 927970 $\frac{6}{7}$ similar
StI022 StI023	TC58809 TC58754	TC93150 TC94901	1779 glycine-rich RNA-binding protein GRP1 - wheat {Triticum aestivum;}, partial (78%) weakly similar to PIR S71779 S7
StI024	TC59697	TC104888	(258) similar to PIR F85438 F85438 nucleoporin-like protein (imported] - Arabidopsis thaliana (Arabidopsis thaliana;}, partial
StI025	TC59810	PC105200	similar to GB AAO63401.1 28950955 BT005337 At2g18870 (Arabidopsis thaliana;), partial (49%)
StI026	TC60726	TC106976	weakly similar to PIR S65081 S65081 wound-induced protein Sn-1, vacuolar membrane - pepper (Capsicum annuum;), partial (528)
StI027	TC67985	TC105598	Protoplast secreted protein 1 precursor. (Saccharomyces cerevisiae;), partial (4%) similar to SP Q12355 PST1_YEAST
Sti028	TC68264	PC104539	YLR437CP, partial (10%) homologue to UP 013577 (013577)
StI029	TC68604	TC97044	similar to UP Q8NH31 (Q8NH31) Seven transmembrane helix receptor, partial (8%)
Sti030	TC69039	TC97970	AT5g61840/mac9_140, partial (338) homologue to UPIQ940Q8 (Q940Q8)
Stro31	TC69334	TC105680	SPIP00127 UCSH_YEAST Ubiquinol-cytochrome C reductase complex 17 kba protein (Mitochondrial hinge protein) (Complex III polypeptide VI). (S. cerevisiae), partial (78)
StI032	TC72009	TC95955	similar to UP 29FJJ6 (29FJJ6) Genomic DNA, chromosome 5, TAC clone:K19B1 (AT5g62460/K19B1_7), partial (658)
Stip33	TC73984	TC111179	similar to UP Q04YG9 (Q04YG9) Heat stress transcription factor HSFA9, partial (29%)
StI034	TC58806	TC94397	similar to GB AAP31934.1 30387537 BT006590 At2g35860 (Arabidopsis thalianar), partial (82%)
StI035	TC66701		rc103721/TC1(similar to GB AAP21357.1 30102878 Br006549 At1g56300 (Arabidopsis thalianar), partial (248)
Stro39 StI037	BG593132 TC70263	TC108138 TC99449	homologue to PIR T07393 T07393 myb-related transcription factor - tomato {Lycopersicon esculentum;}, partial (80%) 3) 1,3-beta-glucan glucanohydrolase, partial (978) similar to UP CAE53273 (CAE5327
StI040		TC93508	(Q7MZZ7) Similar to unknown protein YhhN of Escherichia coli, partial (6%)
StI041	TC19603 TC58603	TC102743	similar to unknown protein (Arabidopsis thaliana;), partial (54%)
StI042	TC59236	TC95093	similar to AAQ89615 (AAQ89615) At3g17205, partial (398)
StID43	TC59569	TC95982	UP Q8MQL7 (Q8MQL7) SD06302p, partial (3%)
StI044	TC59590		rc105347/rc1((Q9W2R6) CG15226 protein, partial (58)
StI045	TC59679	TC105942	similar to PIR T39903 T39903 serine-rich protein - fission yeast (Schizosaccharomyces pombe) {Schizosaccharomyces pombe}}, partial (4%)
StI046	TC59924	TC94217	similar to UP Q98JF1 (Q98JF1) T27G7.9, partial (69%)
StI047	TC60280	TC106106	UP CAF74710 (CAF74710) MYC transcription factor (Fragment), partial (438)
StI048	TC60350	TC95585	homologue to FIR S21495 S21495 tomato leucine zipper-containing protein - tomato (Lycopersicon esculentum;), partial (55%)
StI049	TC61790	TC107030	4W04) Atlg12390, partial (88%) weakly similar to UP Q84W04 (Q8
St1050 StID51	TC62248 TC63163	TC106737 TC99682	similar to (QTX989) Putative MSP1(mitochondrial sorting of proteins) protein, partial (78)
StI052	TC64563	TC101374	weakly similar to UP QSH1T9 (QSH1T9) Phospholipase D delta isoform la , partial (14%) no tentative annotation
StI053	TC64749	TC106350	similar to GB AAD30253.1 4835787 F25C20 ESTs gb R65381 and gb T44635 come from this gene. {Arabidopsis thaliana;}, partial (33%)
StI054	TC65995	TC104083	similar to UP Q9LIR4 (Q9LIR4) Dihydroxy-acid dehydratase (AT3g23940/F14013_13), partial (90%)
StI055	TC66130	TC102626	SP P296771MPPA_SOLTU Mitochondrial processing peptidase alpha subunit, mitochondrial precursor (Alpha-MPP) (Ubiquinol-cytochrome C reductasesubunit II) {8. tuberosum;}, complete
StI056	TC67582	TC95818	similar to UP P93341 (P93341) Phosphoinositide-specific phospholipase C, partial (32%)
StI057	TC68393	TC105136	Starch branching enzyme II precursor , complete homologue to UPIQ9XGA8 (Q9XGA8) UBETT80) 8ETT38(quid $_{too}$
StI059 St1058	TC71385 TC69083	TC103278 TC108804	TcC31.4, $partial (98)$ homologue
StI060	TC72082	TC100258	homologue to GB AAM10292.1 20147151 AY091693 AT3g13810/MCP4 2 {Arabidopsis thaliana;}, partial (15%) no tentative annotation
StI061	TC73738	TC105342	2D10.15, partial (31%) similar to UP Q9LM88 (Q9LM88) F
StI062	TC73922	TC96968	weakly similar to unknown protein (Arabidopsis thaliana;), partial (95%)
StI063		T_AW030425 T_AW030425	weakly similar to UP O65815 (O65815) Cytochrome P450 81B1 (Isoflavone 2'-hydroxylase), partial (368)
StI064	BG890263	TC101810	NADH dehydrogenase subunit 2, partial (5%) (Q9MLPS) similar to UP Q9MLP5
$2.4 + 1.4 - 1.7$			

^{&#}x27;Actual GB number, not in current TIGR 2 T = derived from tomato EST

Results

Database search

A search of the TIGR Potato Gene Index, version 7.0, database gave 555 TC/singleton sequences with a Sputnik score ≥ 15 (corresponding to trinucleotide repeats with ≥ 18 nucleotides or dinucleotide repeats with ≥ 17 nucleotides). Relaxing the score to 14 added nearly another 250 candidate SSRs. Unique sequences containing SSRs with Sputnik scores ≥ 20 (minimum trinucleotide repeat length $= 23$, minimum dinucleotide repeat length = 22) were used for primer design.

Characterization of SSRs

Ninety-four primer pairs were tested in PCR reactions for the three parents (M200-30, B11B, and HH1-9) of the BCB and BCT mapping populations. Most primer pairs (85%) gave products of approximately the expected size range. Seven primer sets did not successfully amplify product, and seven primer pairs gave very highmolecular-weight bands or an apparently non-specific complex pattern. Of the 80 primer pairs that amplified clean products of approximately the expected size, 16 showed either no polymorphism between BCB and BCT parental genotypes or no segregation in the corresponding populations and were dropped from further consideration. Additional details on those primer sets may be accessed at http://marvin.ibest.uidaho.edu/ \sim jlorenze or by request to the corresponding author.

During the course of this study, three pairs of SSRs were shown to be redundant. Although only one of each redundant pair is presented in this paper, the StI codes of the dropped SSRs were reserved, because a partial list of StI primers had been previously presented (Feingold et al. [2004](#page-9-0)). Identifiers for both, original database ID, and current version ID of the successful SSR clones along with their tentative annotation are presented in Table [3.](#page-4-0)

Sixty-one useful SSRs were then mapped, fingerprinted or both (Table [2\). Forty-three of the described](#page-2-0) [SSRs were trinucleotides, while the rest were dinucleo](#page-2-0)[tides \(14\), tetranucleotides \(3\), or a pentanucleotide \(1\).](#page-2-0) [The most common trinucleotide motifs in this set were](#page-2-0) [GAA and TAA \(or their equivalents\), whereas for the](#page-2-0) [dinucleotides the most common motif was AT. Of all the](#page-2-0) [SSRs assayed, 72% contained perfect repeats, 18% were](#page-2-0) [compound motifs, and 10% had imperfect repeats. None](#page-2-0) [of the 61 SSR-containing sequences shared significant](#page-2-0) [homology with already published SSR sequences.](#page-2-0)

Fingerprinting analysis

The chosen SSRs were used to fingerprint a panel of 30 potato genotypes (Table [1\), most of which were](#page-1-0) [tetraploid cultivars. The fingerprinting panel gave a](#page-1-0) [mean of 6.8 bands per SSR \(Table](#page-2-0) 2), with a range of 1– [16 bands per SSR. When considered on a per genotype](#page-2-0) [basis, the mean number of bands per SSR varied from 1](#page-2-0) [to 6.8, with a mean value of 2.6 bands per genotype.](#page-2-0) [Only three SSRs showed more than the expected four](#page-2-0) [bands for some of the fingerprinted tetraploid genotypes](#page-2-0) [\(StI005, StI031, and StI046\), suggesting the amplifica](#page-2-0)[tion of more than one locus.](#page-2-0)

Figure 1 [shows an example of the fingerprinting re](#page-3-0)[sults with StI021. Additional fingerprinting results may](#page-3-0) [be accessed at http://marvin.ibest.uidaho.edu/](#page-3-0) \sim ilorenze.

When used for genotype identification, it is useful to determine the number of unique patterns for candidate markers. The number of unique patterns across all fingerprinted genotypes averaged 11.6, ranging from 1 to 24. One measure of informativeness is a DI (Milbourne et al. [1998](#page-9-0)), which, in this study, varied from 0 (only one pattern for all 30 genotypes) to 0.95. StI005 and StI046 showed the highest values and the highest number of alleles (23 and 24, respectively). The mean DI for the SSRs in this study was 0.81.

The majority of SSRs (84%) showed a size range similar to the expected size, based on the original cDNA sequence used for primer design. In addition to the four candidates that were not included in this study because of very high molecular weight, five of the included SSRs (StI009, StI013, StI014, StI016, and StI050) showed higher-than expected size ranges, suggesting the presence of introns within the amplicons. However, the increased size did not mask the existing allelic variation, and these SSRs were also informative. The band size of four of the markers was not determined because appropriate size markers were not available at the time of analysis.

Map location of SSRs

Of the sixty-one SSRs included in the study, 56 SSRs were mapped to 57 locations distributed across all the 12 potato chromosomes (Fig. [2\). The distribution of the](#page-6-0) [markers varied from one for chromosome X to eight for](#page-6-0) chromosome VI (Fig. 2; Table [2\). The mapped markers](#page-2-0) [revealed between one and four segregating alleles](#page-2-0) (Fig. [3\) in agreement with the diploid constitution of the](#page-7-0) [mapping populations used.](#page-7-0)

Because potato mapping is an example of a pseudotestcross, independent maps were generated for each parent. Thirty SSRs were located in the map for the interspecific parent of the BCT population (M200-30), and 20 were located in the map for the recurrent S. tuberosum parent (HH1-9). Different alleles of 14 of the above markers segregated from each parent; these allelic fragments were assigned similar locations in both parental maps. Similarly, there were 19 SSRs in the M200-30 map for the BCB population, while eight were placed in the map for the recurrent S. berthaultii parent (B11B). These included four allelic pairs which each mapped to similar locations for both parents of the BCB population. Two markers, StI039 and StI048, did not

Fig. 2 Location of 55 mapped simple sequence repeats (SSRs) in a joined restriction fragment length polymorphism potato genetic map derived from BCB and BCT populations (Bonierbale et al. [1994](#page-9-0)). New SSRs are indicated by StI code and are presented in boldface. StI039 and StI048 were mapped in chromosomes XI and VIII, respectively, in a different population without common markers to this one. a Marker suspected to be multilocus; only one location found in this study. b StI054 was linked at 4 cM of TG367 with no additional markers to assess orientation

segregate in the BCB or BCT populations, but were mapped in a different diploid population (Saha [2003\)](#page-9-0). Markers StI042 and StI061 mapped to chromosomes VII and X in the recurrent parent maps for S. tuberosum and S. berthaultii, respectively, but their exact location could not be assessed unequivocally because of low marker coverage in these maps. Although three markers (StI005, StI031, and StI046) were suspected to be multilocus based on number of bands found by fingerprinting (Table [2\), only StI005 showed two map](#page-2-0) [locations \(chromosome III and chromosome VIII,](#page-2-0) Fig. 2).

Discussion

The search of the TIGR Potato Gene Index database (http://www.tigr.org) produced a large number of candidate sequences containing SSRs in potato. Of the 94 sequences that were selected to design primers, a high proportion (85%) gave amplification productsin the range of the expected size, and only 7% did not amplify successfully. These results are in agreement with He et al. ([2003](#page-9-0)), who found that 79% of the primers designed based on 139 SSR-containing sequences of Solanaceae (mostly tomato) retrieved from GenBank (mostly expressed sequences) produced the expected DNA fragments for a set of 19 tomato genotypes. Similar success rates were reported for SSRs derived from a cDNA library and an enriched genomic library (Milbourne et al. [1998](#page-9-0)). One of the concerns in using cDNA sequences for microsatellite development is the unknown final size of the PCR product that could vary depending on the number and size ofintron sequences (Scott [2001\)](#page-9-0). Only nine SSR-containing sequences showed larger than expected sizes due to probable introns; five of the nine were still useful (Table [2\).](#page-2-0)

Fig. 3 Segregation of StI051 alleles in diploid population BCT. H11-9 and M200-30, parental genotypes and their derived progeny (F_1s)

Preference in this study was given to trinucleotide SSRs, based on the hypothesis that di-, tetra-, or pentanucleotide variation would produce shifts in the reading frame that would result in negative selection and a lesser degree of polymorphism. However, no differences were observed for the average DI of the two groups (tri- vs non-trinucleotides). An analysis with Framefinder and ESTscan software tools included in the TIGR Potato Gene Index database (http://www. tigr.org/tgi) predicted that most of the 17 non-trinucleotide SSR sequences were located by both tools in the untranslated region (UTR) of the ESTs, and none were unambiguously predicted by both tools to be translated.

Milbourne et al. ([1998](#page-9-0)) also found that all databasederived sequences containing non-trinucleotide SSRs were found either in 3' or 5' UTRs, or within introns. Only 12% of the SSR-containing sequences were found in exons, all of which were trinucleotides.

The level of polymorphism of the SSRs reported in this work was high. All but one SSR amplicon showed multiple patterns among the 30 Solanum genotypes that were surveyed. The mean DI was 0.81, and the mean number of bands observed was 6.8 per SSR. There was no apparent association between the DI values and the motif size of the repeat, nor between imperfect/compound SSR motifs compared to perfect repeats. Milbourne et al. [\(1997\)](#page-9-0) reported similar values (DI: 0.73, mean bands per SSR: 5.7) when screening a panel of 16 potato cultivars, although Ashkenazi et al. ([2001](#page-8-0)) reported relatively little diversity in potato SSRs. However, the lower figures reported in that study might be attributed to lower genetic diversity in the chosen genotypes or simply the smaller size of the chosen subset.

Only StI062 was monomorphic across the 27 genotypes in the fingerprinting panel (except for three genotypes that did not give any product). Although there was no diversity for this marker across these mostly tetraploid genotypes, the interspecific parent M200-30 of the BCT population was heterozygous, allowing the genetic location to be assessed.

Some markers displayed a reduced DI (e.g., StI040), and were characterized by a main band and weak allelic bands, or no amplification in some genotypes. This may indicate that primers were complementary to a variable region and could be allele-specific. Re-design of such

primers could give a more robust assay with a more normal DI.

Three different *Solanum* species were included in this study: S. tuberosum (ssp. tuberosum, ssp. andigena), S. berthaultii, and S. phureja (Table [1; Figs.](#page-6-0) 1, 2). All primers reported in Table 2 [showed amplification across](#page-2-0) [species. The diploid genotypes represented in the fin](#page-2-0)[gerprinting analysis and the mapping populations gen](#page-2-0)[erally had fewer bands per amplification than the](#page-2-0) [tetraploid genotypes \(data not shown\).](#page-2-0)

One of the reported advantages of cDNA based SSRs is their transferability across the species, in the belief that DNA sequence complementary to primers would be more conserved in transcribed regions versus random or nongenic regions (Scott et al. [2000](#page-10-0)). In this respect, Ashkenazi et al. [\(2001\)](#page-8-0) reported that only half of tomato genomic library-derived SSRs gave amplification products with potato DNA as template. Rossetto ([2001](#page-9-0)) analyzed transferability of SSRs in different species (ranging from *Paspalum* sp. to *Pinus* sp.) and showed that polymorphism rates are high when priming sites are conserved, even between evolutionary distant species, but decrease beyond genus taxa. The SSRs developed from Solanum tuberosum ssp. *tuberosum* L. in this study will likely be very useful in other related species.

Most mapped markers were monolocus in this combined map. Only StI005 mapped to two different loci, on chromosomes III and VIII. This marker also had more than the four expected bands for many of the cultivars of the fingerprinting panel. StI031 and StI046 also presented a mean number of expected bands (alleles) of four or higher (Table [2\), but mapped to single genetic locations](#page-2-0) (Fig. [2\). StI031 showed only two alleles per genotype in](#page-6-0) [the segregating population, but StI046, presented up to](#page-6-0) [seven discrete bands in some diploid genotypes. Many of](#page-6-0) [these bands cosegregated. The available data do not allow](#page-6-0) [us to differentiate whether these linked amplified alleles](#page-6-0) [corresponded to different closely linked loci or to intra](#page-6-0)[genic tandem repeats of priming sites \(Milbourne et al.](#page-6-0) [1998\)](#page-9-0). All other SSR markers reported in this study are believed to be unilocus, and the location of \sim 25% of them was confirmed by mapping in two different maps. In a previous report, a substantial proportion of potato SSRs (20%) were multilocus (Milbourne et al. [1998](#page-9-0)), and the number of multilocus SSRs in that set has been subsequently expanded (Ghislain et al. [2004\)](#page-9-0).

Approximately 100 potato SSRs have been previously mapped (Kawchuk et al. [1996;](#page-9-0) Provan et al. [1996](#page-9-0); Milbourne et al. [1998](#page-9-0); Ghislain et al. [2004\)](#page-9-0). Thus, the 57 additional mapped SSRs presented here represent a >50% increase in the number of mapped potato SSRs. In our hands, the quality of these new SSRs is also very high, comparable to the best of the previously reported SSRs (Milbourne et al. [1998\)](#page-9-0).

With the exception of chromosome X, where only one marker was mapped, SSRs were distributed relatively homogeneously across chromosomes (Fig. [2\).](#page-6-0) [Small clusters of SSRs were found on top of chromo](#page-6-0)[some I, and in proximal regions of chromosomes III, VI,](#page-6-0) [VII, and VIII. Despite being closely linked, these](#page-6-0) [markers should not be considered redundant, because](#page-6-0) [greater map density increases the chances of finding](#page-6-0) [usable polymorphisms for a region in a given popula](#page-6-0)[tion. The present study complements the Milbourne](#page-6-0) [et al. \(1998](#page-9-0)) study on potato SSRs, at least doubling the number of markers for 5 of the 12 potato chromosomes. Interestingly, the SSR density on chromosome X was very low in both studies.

Many recent mapping efforts utilize the AFLP technique (Vos et al. [1995\)](#page-10-0), which generates a high number of anonymous markers per assay. Microsatellites are useful ''anchor'' markers in such studies to relate anonymous AFLP linkage groups to known chromosomes. Multilocus markers are not ideal for such studies because of their ambiguity. The construction of consensus maps is based on the existence of unequivocal common markers. Co-migrating AFLPs can be used for this task (Rouppe van der Voort et al. [1998](#page-9-0)) but require very accurate fragment sizing and depend on segregation of previously mapped fragments in the target population. The high proportion of single-locus SSRs presented here will facilitate their use as anchor markers for identifying linkage groups and comparative mapping across related species.

Microsatellites are especially useful for mapping in tetraploid potato, because they are co-dominant and allow the identification of homologous linkage groups of a given chromosome (Meyer et al. [1998](#page-9-0)). Different SSR alleles from a given locus can be combined to make an artificial duplex locus, useful in duplex–simplex mapping (Meyer et al. [1998](#page-9-0)).

Tagging of agronomically important traits is one of the main applications of markers, both for understanding the genetic base of a trait and for marker-assisted selection in breeding programs. In this respect, the cDNA-based markers developed and characterized in this study will not only provide reproducible co-dominant, easily scored markers, but also may include candidate genes that have the potential of being causally linked to the trait of interest. In this respect, these SSRs can be directly included in ''functional maps,'' based on the putative function of the clones they have been generated from (Table [3\) and may be helpful to understand](#page-4-0) [a causal-effect relationship in co-located, previously](#page-4-0) [mapped QTLs.](#page-4-0)

Development of SSRs has become much more convenient with the advent of EST databases and bioinformatics tools. A high proportion of SSRs tested amplified products of the expected size range that were polymorphic among cultivated potato genotypes and segregating diploid populations. One caveat regarding design should be mentioned. Size variants of several SSRs were not placed in the same contigs in the TIGR database (e.g., StI035 and StI044). This highlights the need to compare chosen target sequences against existing and intended target sequences to minimize redundancy.

Since the advent of these studies, two new resources have become available for assisting in the development of potato/solanaceous SSR markers. The Solanaceae Genomics Network [(SGN) http://www.sgn.cornell.edu/cgibin/legacy/microsats_top.pl] currently lists 609 SSR sequences with suggested primer combinations based on tomato and potato sequences, with map locations for about 15% of those SSRs. However, some map locations were determined by hybridization, and degree of polymorphism in potato remains to be determined. An additional resource (http://hornbill.cspp.latrobe.edu.au/ ssrresults/potato/) lists potato SSR-containing ESTs and suggested primer combinations. However, these ESTs were not first organized into contigs as for the TIGR database utilized in this study or the SGN resource, and would require additional processing to eliminate redundancy before commencing validation with that resource. On the other hand, a recent search of the version 9.0 Potato Gene Index database, which was based upon an additional 63,000 ESTs compared to version 7.0 and has 34% more "unique" sequences (TCs + singletons) than version 7.0, gave 896 sequences with a Sputnik score ≥ 15 , and 1,223 sequences with a score \geq 14 (61% and 52% more than version 7.0, respectively). Many of these sequences can be used as a source for future SSRs.

In conclusion, this study reports on the development and mapping of new potato SSRs. Most of these are of very high quality and will be valuable for characterization of genetic diversity, fingerprinting tetraploid potato cultivars, mapping, and synteny studies within the Solanaceae.

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