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Exploitation of pepper EST–SSRs and an SSR-based linkage map

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Abstract As genome and cDNA sequencing projects progress, a tremendous amount of sequence information is becoming publicly available. These sequence resources can be exploited for gene discovery and marker development. Simple sequence repeat (SSR) markers are among the most useful because of their great variability, abundance, and ease of analysis. By in silico analysis of 10,232 non-redundant expressed sequence tags (ESTs) in pepper as a source of SSR markers, 1,201 SSRs were found, corresponding to one SSR in every 3.8 kb of the ESTs. Eighteen percent of the SSR–ESTs were dinucleotide repeats, 66.0% were trinucleotide, 7.7% tetranucleotide, and 8.2% pentanucleotide; AAG (14%) and AG (12.4%) motifs were

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the most abundant repeat types. Based on the flanking sequences of these 1,201 SSRs, 812 primer pairs that satisfied melting temperature conditions and PCR product sizes were designed. 513 SSRs (63.1%) were successfully amplified and 150 of them (29.2%) showed polymorphism between Capsicum annuum 'TF68' and C. chinense 'Habanero'. Dinucleotide SSRs and EST– SSR markers containing AC-motifs were the most polymorphic. Polymorphism increased with repeat length and repeat number. The polymorphic EST–SSRs were mapped onto the previously generated pepper linkage map, using 107 F_2 individuals from an interspecific cross of TF68 \times Habanero. One-hundred and thirtynine EST–SSRs were located on the linkage map in addition to 41 previous SSRs and 63 RFLP markers, forming 14 linkage groups (LGs) and spanning 2,201.5 cM. The EST–SSR markers were distributed over all the LGs. This SSR-based map will be useful as a reference map in Capsicum and should facilitate the use of molecular markers in pepper breeding.

Introduction

DNA sequence polymorphisms or variations are of great importance in studies of molecular genetics. DNA markers, such as RFLPs, AFLPs, RAPDs, and SSRs have been valuable for analyzing genetic variation, and have helped to facilitate crop breeding (Kumar [1999\)](#page-16-0). Since SSR markers display hypervariability, codominant inheritance, multiallelism, reproducibility, and good genome coverage, they are becoming the preferred marker system (Powell et al. [1996](#page-17-0)). SSRs, first referred to as microsatellites, are a class of DNA sequences consisting of simple motifs of

1–6 nucleotides that are repeated in tandem up to a few dozen times per site (Litt and Luty [1989\)](#page-17-0). Replication slippage and unequal crossing over are the main driving forces for the insertion or deletion of tandem repeats, and lead to frequent variability of the SSRs (Ellegren [2004](#page-16-0)). SSR markers have been useful in a variety of applications such as linkage map construction, gene tagging, and studies of genetic diversity and evolution (Powell et al. [1996](#page-17-0); Varshney et al. [2005\)](#page-17-0).

To develop SSR markers, it is necessary to generate a small-insert genomic library, perform hybridization with SSR oligonucleotides and sequence candidate clones. This is quite time-consuming, costly, and laborintensive. Alternatively, SSRs can be identified in sequence databases and used for SSR marker development (Morgante et al. [1993](#page-17-0)). When the volume of sequence data available for SSR analysis was still limited, this strategy was successfully used in tomato (Smulder et al. [1997\)](#page-17-0), rice (Miyao et al. [1996](#page-17-0)), Arabidopsis (Bell and Ecker [1994](#page-16-0)), and soybean (Akkaya et al. [1992\)](#page-16-0). The subsequent rapid increase in volume of sequence data in several species has facilitated the identification of a large number of SSRs in silico, using computer programs such as Sputnik, SSRFinder, MIcroSAtellite (MISA) and Tandem Repeat Finder (TRF) (summarized by Varshney et al. [2005](#page-17-0)).

Single-pass partial sequencing of the $5'$ or $3'$ ends of cDNA clones corresponding to mRNAs, yielding what are known as expressed sequence tags (ESTs), is a fast and efficient way to analyze the transcribed portion of the genome. ESTs are typically a few hundred base pairs in length and provide a robust sequence resource that can be exploited for gene discovery, genome annotation, and comparative genomics. Over three million sequences, from approximately 200 plant species, have been deposited in the publicly available plant EST sequence databases (Rudd [2003\)](#page-17-0). These EST sequence resources have been shown to have a wide range of applications in the field of genome as well as transcriptome analysis. Contemporary DNA marker types using EST data include single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) (Picoult-Newberg et al. [1999](#page-17-0)), conserved orthologue sets (COSs) (Fulton et al. [2002](#page-16-0)), and EST-derived SSRs (EST–SSRs) (Cordeiro et al. [2001\)](#page-16-0).

SSR-containing ESTs (SSR–ESTs) have been investigated in plants such as Arabidopsis, maize, soy-bean, rice, and wheat (Cardle et al. [2000](#page-16-0); Tóth et al. [2000;](#page-17-0) Morgante et al. [2002](#page-17-0)). They are currently used for genetic mapping, comparative mapping, and analysis of genetic and functional diversity (reviewed by Varshney et al. [2005\)](#page-17-0). Although genomic SSRs are more polymorphic than genic SSRs (Cho et al. [2000;](#page-16-0) Lee et al. [2004a](#page-16-0)), the latter have advantages. First, the large amount of DNA sequence data available reduces the cost of SSR development. Second, the estimated frequency of genic SSRs is higher than of genomic SSRs (Morgante et al. [2002\)](#page-17-0). Third, genic markers are functional markers that can be transferred between species since they derive from putative candidate genes related to traits of interest that are relatively well conserved among taxa (Gupta and Rustgi [2004](#page-16-0)). For these reasons, SSR markers have been developed from the sequence databases of many crops and used in markerassisted breeding programs. EST–SSR markers provide a set of easily shared markers that can be used to unify different genetic maps and establish consensus maps.

The various pepper genome maps constructed to date, have a few simple functional markers in common (Lefebvre et al. [2002](#page-16-0); Livingstone et al. [1999](#page-17-0); Paran et al. [2004](#page-17-0)). Although SSR markers have been introduced into the pepper molecular map (Lee et al. [2004a](#page-16-0)), only a limited number of SSR markers are yet publicly available (Huang et al. [2000](#page-16-0); Tam et al. [2005\)](#page-17-0). Hence, it would be desirable to develop more SSR markers to construct saturated consensus genetic maps, as well as for marker-assisted breeding and germplasm identification. To generate highly informative and genome-wide polymorphic markers, we developed EST–SSR markers by analyzing a pepper EST database (http://www.plant.pdrc.re.kr/ks200201/ pepper.html) (Lee et al. [2004b\)](#page-16-0). These new markers were incorporated into our pepper maps consisting of SSR and RFLP markers (Kang et al. [2001](#page-16-0); Lee et al. [2004a](#page-16-0)). Evenly distributed and informative SSR markers promise to promote the use of linkage maps in pepper genetics and breeding.

Materials and methods

Pepper EST–SSR analysis

A total of 10,232 non-redundant pepper EST sequences (http://www.plant.pdrc.re.kr/ks200201/pepper.html) (Lee et al. [2004b\)](#page-16-0) was used for SSR analysis. The ESTs were generated from seven different cDNA libraries: KS01 (leaves infected with Xanthomonas campestris pv. glycines); KS07 (flower buds); KS08 (anthers); KS09 (young fruits); KS10 (hairy root); KS11 (early root); KS12 (green fruit placenta). We analyzed EST sequence data involving 25,819 sequences using an SGI Origin 3200 Unix machine (SGI Korea, South Korea). The ABI-formatted chromatogram sequences were fed into PHRAP (Ewing and Gree [1998](#page-16-0); Ewing et al. [1998](#page-16-0)) and those that contained 97% or more unambiguous bases and exceeded 100 bp were further analyzed.

Sequences such as vectors, linker and polyA tail of the selected ESTs were trimmed. After trimming, the preprocessed ESTs were clustered into consensus sequences using StackPack (kindly provided by SANBI, http://www.sanbi.ac.za) to find non-redundant sequences. An EST that contained only one sequence was classified as a singleton. Sputnik (http://www.abajian.net), which finds SSRs of length over 11 bp with 2–5 bp motifs, was employed for SSR mining. In this study, the 11 bp length of SSRs were deleted.

ESTs containing polymorphic SSRs were searched against the GenBank non-redundant (nr) database using the TBLASTX algorithm (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/BLAST). The putative functions of ESTs with expected value $<10^{-6}$ by TBLASTX were assigned.

Marker development

We attempted to design primers for all the EST–SSRs using Primer3 (http://www.-genome.wi.mit.edu/cgi-bin/ primer/primer3_www.cgi). It proved to be difficult or impossible to design primers for 388 of the 1,201 EST– SSRs, since they were located at the border of the EST sequences or surrounded by AT-rich sequences. All of the primers were obtained from Bioneer Corporation (Daejon, Korea) and may be ordered from Bioneer (http://www.bioneer.com) by marker name. A total of 813 primer pairs were designed using parameters of product size 100–350 bp, primer length 20–24 bp, and melting temperature 60–68. All the primer pairs were used in the test for polymorphism between Capsicum annuum 'TF68' and C. chinense 'Habanero'. PCR amplifications and gel electrophoresis were performed as described (Lee et al. [2004a\)](#page-16-0). All SSR amplifications were conducted in a PTC 200 DNA Engine Thermal Cycler (MJ Research, USA). After 3 min at 94, 35 cycles were performed with each cycle consisting of 30 s at 94, 30 s at 55 (except for HpmsE004 and -E016 at 60), 60 s at 72 and a final extension of 10 min at 72. Radioisotope-labeled PCR products were electrophoresed on 6% acrylamide gels and exposed to X-ray film. Two SSRs (HpmsE134, HpmsE136) could be analyzed on a single 2% agarose gel because of the considerable length polymorphism in the parental lines.

Mapping EST–SSRs

107 F_2 plants derived from the interspecific cross C. annuum 'TF68' and C. chinense 'Habanero' were used for linkage mapping (Nahm et al. [1997;](#page-17-0) Huh et al. [2001;](#page-16-0) Kang et al. [2001;](#page-16-0) Lee et al. [2004a\)](#page-16-0).

Linkage analysis was performed using the software package MAPMAKER V3.0 (Lander et al. [1987\)](#page-16-0). The pepper SSR-based linkage map was constructed with 243 molecular markers (180 SSR markers and 63 RFLP markers). To identify LGs using informative markers, pairwise comparisons and grouping of markers were performed, using the 'Group' command with a maximum recombination fraction of 25 cM and LOD score >5.0. The 'Order' command was used to construct a frame map (LOD >3 , maximum distance <25 cM), and the ordered markers were confirmed using the 'Ripple' command. The rest of the markers were assigned to their positions with the 'Try' command. Map distances were calculated with the Kosambi mapping function.

Results

Frequency and distribution of SSRs in pepper EST sequences

By analyzing 10,232 non-redundant pepper ESTs comprising 4.56 Mb, we identified 1,201 SSRs in 1,042 ESTs (10.2%). Of the 1,201 SSR–ESTs, 129 (10.7%) contained more than one SSR. The average length of the SSRs was 17.1 bp and there was on average one SSR every 3.8 kb of the ESTs. The portion of the total length of EST sequence that consisted of SSRs, comprised about 0.45%. The 1,201 SSRs consisted of 66.0% trinucleotide, 18.0% dinucleotide, 7.7% tetranucleotide, and 8.2% pentanucleotide repeats (Table 1). Trinucleotide repeats were the predominant form both in frequency and length. The total length of the dinucleotide repeats made up 28.5% of all SSR sequences, whereas that of the trinucleotide repeats made up 56.8%. The average length of dinucleotide repeats was 27.1 bp, about twice that of trinucleotide repeats (14.7 bp). Of the total 10.2% SSRs were complex, which contains more than two repeat motives.

The frequencies of the individual SSR motifs are summarized in Table [2.](#page-3-0) Sixty-six types of motifs were recognized. The AAG motif was the most frequent (14.0%), followed by AG (12.4%), ACC (9.4%), AAC (7.3%), ACT (6.6%), AGT (6.0%), and AGG (5.8%). Other motifs made up less than 5% of the total.

Table 1 SSR frequencies in pepper ESTs

Repeat	Number of	Total length	Average
type	SSRs	(bp)	length (bp)
Di	216 $(18.0)^a$	5,861 (28.5)	27.1
Tri	793 (66.0)	11,686 (56.8)	14.7
Tetra	93(7.7)	1,485(7.2)	16.0
Penta	99 (8.2)	1,537(7.5)	15.5
Total	1201 (100.0)	20,569 (100.0)	17.1

^a Numbers in parentheses are percentages

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Table 2 Distribution of different types of SSRs in pepper ESTs

Repeat type	Motif	Number	Total length (bp)	Average length (bp)
Dinucleotide		216	5861	27.1
	AC	28	493	17.6
	AG	149	4601	30.9
	AT	39	767	19.7
Trinucleotide		793	11686	14.7
	AAC	88	1321	15.0
	AAG	168	2536	15.1
	AAT	50	808	16.2
	ACC ACG	113 48	1639 675	14.5 14.1
	ACT	79	1068	13.5
	AGC	50	766	15.3
	AGG	70	1006	14.4
	AGT	72	1086	15.1
	CCG	55	781	14.2
Tetranucleotide		93	1485	16.0
	AAAC	7	105	15.0
	AAAG AAAT	21 19	325 326	15.5 17.2
	AACC	2	26	13.0
	AACG	\overline{c}	33	16.5
	AACT	$\mathbf{1}$	20	20.0
	AAGG	10	143	14.3
	AAGT	2	26	13.0
	AATC	$\mathbf{1}$	15	15.0
	AATG	$\mathbf{1}$	22	22.0
	AATT	11	166	15.1
	ACAT	5	80	16.0
	ACCT	\overline{c}	28	14.0
	ACGC ACTC	1 1	16 16	16.0 16.0
	AGCC	$\mathbf{1}$	19	19.0
	AGCG	$\mathbf{1}$	13	13.0
	AGCT	1	15	15.0
	AGGG	3	73	24.3
	CCCG	1	18	18.0
Pentanucleotide		99	1537 15.5	
	AAAAC AAAAG	6 23	93 358	15.5 15.6
	AAAAT	8	113	14.1
	AAACG	1	14	14.0
	AAAGT	\overline{c}	32	16.0
	AAATC	$\overline{4}$	66	16.5
	AAATT	$\overline{4}$	57	14.3
	AACAC	4	64	16.0
	AACCC	$\mathbf{1}$	14	14.0
	AACCG	$\mathbf{1}$	15	15.0
	AACGG AAGAC	$\mathbf{1}$ $\mathbf{1}$	14 14	14.0 14.0
	AAGAG	10	150	15.0
	AAGCC	$\mathbf{1}$	14	14.0
	AAGGG	\overline{c}	28	14.0
	AATAC	\overline{c}	30	15.0
	AATAG	$\mathbf 1$	14	14.0
	AATAT	\overline{c}	34	17.0
	AATGT	\overline{c}	39	19.5
	ACAGG	$\mathbf{1}$	14	14.0
	ACAGT	$\mathbf{1}$	14	14.0

The AG motif (12.4%) was the most abundant dinucleotide SSR, while the AT (3.2%) and AC (2.3%) motifs were much less frequent and we detected no GC motifs. Since the poly (A) sequences at the 3^{\prime} ends of the mRNAs were used to obtain the ESTs, the AA motif was excluded. The AG motif had the longest repeat length (30.9 bp), comprising 78.5% of the total length of the dinucleotide repeats. Ten different combinations of trinucleotide repeat motifs are possible and all the ten were detected in the pepper ESTs. AAG (14.0%), ACC (9.4%), and AAC (7.3%) were the most common. The lengths of the trinucleotide repeats ranged from 13.5 to 16.2 bp. There were 20 kinds of tetranucleotide repeat motif. Of these, nine were found just once and five were encountered two or three times. The most frequent tetranucleotide and pentanucleotide motifs were AAAG and AAAAG, respectively. AT-rich EST–SSRs were abundant among the tetra- and pentanucleotides (76.7%).

Marker development and polymorphism of the EST–SSRs

We designed SSR primers for 813 of the 1,201 EST– SSRs. Five-hundred and thirteen of the primer sets successfully amplified one or two PCR fragments from the genomic DNAs of 'TF68' and 'Habanero'. The primer sets that produced PCR products of the expected size from both genomes were used in further mapping. The products amplified from two EST–SSRs (HpmsE064 and -E071) were larger than expected. When null alleles (alleles that did not generate a PCR product) were detected in one or both genotypes, the corresponding SSRs were eliminated. The EST–SSR markers were designated HpmsE001–HpmsE150. The designation 'Hpms' stands for hot pepper microsatellites; it was also used for SSR markers previously developed from genomic libraries (Lee et al. [2004a\)](#page-16-0), and the letter 'E' next to 'Hpms' was added to indicate markers derived from pepper ESTs. We designed primers for 21 mononucleotide repeats and six hexanucleotide repeats. Four mononucleotide repeats (HpmsE006, -E009, -E010, and -E013) and one hexanucleotide (HpmsE005) repeat were found to be polymorphic.

The efficiency of marker development was examined for each repeat motif. To determine the rate of success of PCR amplification and the level of polymorphism of the EST–SSR markers for each SSR motif, several characteristics of marker development were calculated and are listed in Table 3. The average success rate of PCR amplification was 63.1%. The pentanucleotide motif had the highest rate (75.0%) of PCR amplification, followed by tri- (63.8%), di- (61.3%), and tetra- (50.8%) nucleotides. The EST– SSRs with AC, AT, AAC, AGC, ATC, and CCG motifs had success rates above 70%, with those containing AT-motif the most successful in terms of PCR amplification (84%).

EST–SSRs with dinucleotide repeats had higher levels of polymorphism (65.2%) than those with other repeat motifs (trinucleotide 26.7%, tetranucleotide 42.4%, and pentanucleotide 13.3%). Those containing

Table 3 Characteristics of pepper EST–SSRs and efficiency of marker development

Motif	No. of EST-SSRs	No. of designed primers	No. of amplified $EST-SSRs^a$ (%)	No. of polymorphic $EST-SSRsb$ (%)
Di-	216	75	46(61.3)	30(65.2)
AC	28	10	7(70.0)	6(85.7)
AG	149	46	23(50.0)	16 (69.6)
AT	39	19	16 (84.2)	8(50.0)
Tri-	793	511	326 (63.8)	87 (26.7)
AAC	88	58	42 (72.4)	15 (35.7)
AAG	168	114	68 (59.6)	19 (27.9)
AAT	50	31	16(51.6)	8(50.0)
ACC	113	56	38 (67.9)	9(23.7)
ACG	48	36	19 (52.8)	3(15.8)
ACT	79	52	28 (53.8)	2(7.1)
AGC	50	32	23 (71.9)	9(39.1)
AGG	70	44	27 (61.4)	7(25.9)
ATC	72	50	38 (76.0)	12 (31.6)
CCG	55	38	27(71.1)	3(11.1)
Tetra-	93	65	33(50.8)	14 (42.4)
Penta-	99	60	45 (75.0)	6(13.3)
Complex	122	102	63 (61.7)	13(20.6)
Total	1201	813	513 (63.1)	150 (29.2)

Percentage of successfully amplified EST-SSRs per designed primer pair

^b Percentage of polymorphic markers per amplified primer pair

AC, AG, AT, and AAT motifs had polymorphism levels in excess of 50%, with AC the most polymorphic (87%). The relationships among repeat numbers, SSR lengths, and polymorphism levels are shown in Fig. 1. There seems to be a correlation between polymorphism level and repeat number or length. Thirty-five percent of EST–SSRs with more than eight repeats were polymorphic compared with 14.7% of those with less than eight repeats. The polymorphism level for SSR lengths of more than 18 bp was 42.9%, whereas for SSR lengths of less than 18 bp, it was 17.7%.

Production of a pepper SSR-based linkage map

One-hundred and fifty EST–SSRs were polymorphic between the parental lines. Of these 139 could be positioned on the pepper linkage map using 41 SSR and 63 RFLP markers selected from our first (Kang et al. [2001\)](#page-16-0) and second (Lee et al. [2004a](#page-16-0)) SNU maps (Fig. [2\)](#page-5-0). Eleven of the 150 EST–SSR markers failed to show linkage. Forty-one SSR and 63 RFLP markers were selected to serve as anchor markers on the basis of genetic information value, distal location and gapfilling value to ensure full coverage for mapping. Fourteen LGs were generated with 243 markers in LOD >5.0 and maximum distance <25 cM (Fig. [2\)](#page-5-0). Most EST–SSRs were codominant except for HpmsE138, that mapped to a unique location.

Fig. 1 Relationship between SSR length and polymorphism level a, and between repeat number and polymorphism level b. Polymorphism level was calculated as polymorphic markers per amplified primer

Fig. 2 An SSR-based pepper linkage map (SNU3). This map was constructed from 107 F_2 plants derived from an interspecific cross of C. annuum 'TF68' and C. chinense 'Habanero' using 139 new EST–SSR markers with the published anchors of 41 SSRs and 63 RFLPs (Lee et al. [2004a](#page-16-0)). Positions of loci are given in centiMorgan (cM). Multiple markers at the same location were within 5 cM of one another. There is no chromosome 8 in the

linkage map since chromosomes 1 and 8 could not be separated in an interspecific map (Lee et al. [2004a\)](#page-16-0). The previously designated LG 13 and LG 15 (Lee et al. [2004a](#page-16-0)) were merged by this study into chromosome 2 and chromosome 12, respectively, as indicated by the vertical lines. The previous LG 14 and LG 16 are renamed LG a and LG b, respectively. LG c was newly generated in this study solely from the EST–SSRs

Fig. 2 continued

The 180 SSR and 63 RFLP markers were assigned to 14 LGs consisting of 10 large (123–303 cM) and 4 small LGs (28–83 cM), covering altogether 2,201.5 cM, slightly more than other pepper maps (Lefebvre et al. [2002;](#page-16-0) Livingstone et al. [1999;](#page-17-0) Paran et al. [2004](#page-17-0)). The average distance between markers was 9.1 cM and the EST–SSR markers were relatively evenly distributed throughout the genome. Every LG contained more than one EST–SSR marker, and the number of SSRs per LG ranged from 2 to 39. There was no chromosome 8 in the linkage map since chromosomes 1 and 8 could not be separated in an interspecific map because of pseudolinkage due to reciprocal translocation (Livingstone et al. [1999;](#page-17-0) Lee et al. [2004a\)](#page-16-0). The previously designated LG 13 and LG 15 (Lee et al. [2004a\)](#page-16-0) were merged with chromosomes 2 and 12, respectively in this study. The previous LG 14 and LG 16 were renamed LG a and LG b, respectively. A new LG containing only EST–SSRs was generated and named LG c.

Fifty (33.3%) of the 150 EST–SSRs deviated from the expected F_2 ratio of 1:2:1 or 3:1 at $P < 0.01$. 21 were skewed toward the 'TF68 parent', 20 toward 'Habanero', and 2 towards the heterozygote. One dominant

EST–SSR was skewed toward 'Habanero'. Six of the skewed EST–SSR markers showed no linkage. The distorted markers were clustered or scattered on chromosomes 1, 2, 3, 7, 9, 11, 12, and LG a. The regions containing distorted markers were similar to those found in other interspecific mapping populations (Livingstone et al. [1999\)](#page-17-0) except for the regions of chromosome 9 and LG a.

The EST–SSRs were obtained from a pepper-EST database, generated from a variety of tissues; leaves infected with Xanthomonas campestris pv. glycines, flower buds, anthers, young fruit, hairy root, early root, and green fruit placenta. The EST–SSR markers for which sequence homology has been established by BLAST search are listed in Table [4](#page-7-0) (Altschul et al. [1997](#page-16-0)). Of the 150 EST–SSRs, 100 showed homology with putative gene sequences in 20 different organisms, and 71 of them corresponded to genes with known functions. Sequence similarity searches revealed defense-related genes and regulatory factors, as well as structural genes and genes involved in primary and secondary metabolism and signal transduction. The putative functions of 79 markers could not be established.

imp imperfect repeat - not significantly found U unlinked imp imperfect repeat - not significantly found U unlinked

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Discussion

We have developed SSR markers derived from a pepper EST database by in silico mining, and constructed an SSR-based pepper linkage map. A similar approach has been applied in various plant species (Varshney et al. [2005](#page-17-0)). Although genic SSR markers are generally less polymorphic than genomic ones, this disadvantage is balanced by other advantages. The value of EST– SSRs compared to genomic SSRs is enhanced by their transferability across taxa, and their potential as functional markers in defining genes affecting traits of interest. In silico mining of sequence databases allows EST–SSR marker development at a relatively low cost, and requires limited time and labor. Therefore, EST databases may be considered rich and valuable resources for SSR marker and map development.

From our data mining, we found 1,042 SSR–ESTs (10.2%) by screening 10,232 non-redundant pepper ESTs (4.56 Mb), with a frequency of one SSR every 3.8 kb. This frequency is higher than our previous result from GenBank sequence analysis, which yielded one genic SSR every 6.7 kb (Lee et al. [2004a\)](#page-16-0). It is consistent with the finding of Morgante et al. [\(2002](#page-17-0)) that the frequency of SSRs was higher (1.5–2-fold) in ESTs than in genomic DNA across all species despite the relatively small size of the EST sequences. Previous reports and the availability of a pepper EST database encouraged us to pursue the development of EST–SSRs in pepper.

In SSR analysis from a sequence database the first step is to define the SSRs. Since the criteria for SSRs depend on the parameters of the SSR search algorithm (for example, minimum length of SSR, gap, and mismatch penalties), exact comparison of SSR characteristics between different plants is complicated. Despite the different search criteria reported for SSR mining in EST databases, the percentage of EST–SSRs found in this study was similar to that (ranging from -2 to \sim 16%) observed in other species (Gao et al. [2003;](#page-16-0) Morgante et al. [2002](#page-17-0); Temnykh et al. [2000](#page-17-0)).

Kantety et al. ([2002\)](#page-16-0) analyzed SSR distributions in EST databases of barley, maize, rice, sorghum, and wheat. They identified SSRs with a minimum length of 18 (di, tri) to 20 (tetra) bp. In the pepper EST database, 241 SSRs satisfied this criterion. This corresponded to 2.4% of the ESTs, a lower frequency than the average in those five crops (3.2%). The percentages of each motif were 42% dinucleotide, 52% trinucleotide, and 6% tetranucleotide. The proportion of dinucleotide repeat was larger than in the other five crops.

Cardle et al. [\(2000](#page-16-0)) screened SSRs from several plants with length of dinucleotide repeat >15 bp, tri- >15 , tetra- >16 , and penta- >20 . Only 3% of Arabidopsis ESTs contained SSRs. Three-hundred and sixtyfour SSRs (3.6%) satisfied this criterion in pepper, made up of 130 dinucleotide, 204 trinucleotide, 23 tetranucleotide, and 7 pentanucleotide repeats. There was one SSR per every 12.52 kb in the pepper EST database and one SSR per every 13.83 kb in the Arabidopsis EST database. The abundant motifs were AG, AAG, ACC, AAC, and ATC in that order in pepper, compared with AAG, AG, ATC, and AAC in Arabidopsis. The numbers of SSRs with the different trinucleotide motifs were similar in pepper, whereas, AAG and ATC motifs were more abundant than the others in Arabidopsis.

Kumpatla and Mukhopadhyay ([2005\)](#page-16-0) mined and surveyed EST–SSRs in 49 dicot species as well as in pepper. In that study, the criterion for SSRs was less stringent: mononucletide SSRs and 5 dinucleotide repeats were included. Therefore, mononucleotides were most frequent, followed by dinucleotides and trinucleotides, in contrast with the results of our survey of pepper EST–SSRs. Even though their criteria for SSRs differed from ours, several outcomes are almost identical. First, 9.64% of the ESTs contained SSRs. Second, the AG motif was the most abundant in dinucleotides and AAG in trinucleotides. These characteristics represent a general trend in the EST–SSRs of dicot plants, whereas CCG is the most abundant trinucleotide in monocot plants (Temnykh et al. [2001](#page-17-0)). To avoid incorrect mining of $poly(A)$ mRNA and to enhance the level of polymorphism, our stringent criteria for SSR will be suitable for EST–SSR marker development, since the probability of polymorphism increases with increasing length of SSR (Cho et al. [2000](#page-16-0); Temnykh et al. [2001](#page-17-0)).

The mining of pepper SSR-EST data in this study revealed that 66% of SSR–ESTs were trinucleotide repeats. This is in close agreement with other observations in monocot and dicot plants (Kantety et al. [2002](#page-16-0); Morgante et al. [2002](#page-17-0)) and has been attributed to negative selection against frameshift mutations in coding regions (Metzgar et al. [2000](#page-17-0)), and possibly to positive selection for stretches of particular amino acids (Morgante et al. [2002\)](#page-17-0). In contrast, the noncoding regions of eukaryotic genomes have been found to contain mainly dinucleotide repeats (Tóth et al. [2000](#page-17-0)). Morgante et al. ([2002\)](#page-17-0) and Varshney et al. ([2005\)](#page-17-0) demonstrated that the AG motif was the most frequent in dinucleotide SSRs in plant ESTs, and our results are in total agreement with theirs. Although the functions of the SSRs in ESTs are still not clear and some characteristics of the EST–SSRs are quite divergent in different plant species, our results demonstrate that the general trends of EST–SSR characteristics are very similar in plants.

We amplified 513 EST–SSRs in both parental lines in reactions using 813 EST–SSR primer pairs (63.1%). Rates of SSR amplification have generally ranged from 60 to 90% in plants (Varshney et al. [2005\)](#page-17-0). The amplification rate of pepper EST–SSRs is very similar to that of barley EST-SSTs (64%) (Thiel et al. [2003](#page-17-0)) and somewhat lower than the 73% reported in rice (Temnykh et al. [2001](#page-17-0)) and the 83% reported in tomato (He et al. [2003\)](#page-16-0). The lower number of EST–SSR primer sets showing efficient amplification in this study may be due to the loss of priming sites at intron–exon splice sites, the use of two genetically distant Capsicum species as the mapping population, limitations of the primer design software, or primer development from sequences of low quality. The polymorphism level in the parental lines is 29.2%. Although we used an interspecific cross between C. annuum and C. chinense to generate the mapping population, the polymorphism level was lower than what might be expected. A low level of polymorphism (19.8%) in an interspecific mapping population was, however, also reported in cotton EST–SSRs (Park et al. [2005](#page-17-0)). The slightly lower level of polymorphism may be due to self-pollination of domesticated pepper crops and sequence conservation of genic regions. The level of polymorphism of SSRs often increases with increasing SSR length and number of repeat units (Ellegren [2004;](#page-16-0) Sharapova et al. [2002](#page-17-0); Temnykh et al. [2001](#page-17-0)). The polymorphism level in rice decreased in SSRs of less than 18 bp (Cho et al. [2000](#page-16-0)). Similarly, in this study, EST–SSRs of more than 18 bp had higher polymorphism levels than those with less than 18 bp (42.9% vs. 17.7%). Dinucleotides were more polymorphic than tri-, tetra-, and pentanucleotides. This is in agreement with previously reported results from other plant and animal species, which have reported low variability of most trinucleotide SSR loci (Chakraborty et al. [1997;](#page-16-0) Schug et al. [1998](#page-17-0)). In general, EST–SSR markers have been reported to show lower polymorphism than SSR markers derived from genomic libraries (Cho et al. [2000](#page-16-0); Eujayl et al. [2002\)](#page-16-0). Our previous data indicated that genomic pepper SSRs (75%) were twofold more polymorphic than genic SSRs (36%) (Lee et al. $2004a$). In the present study, the polymorphism level of the EST–SSRs was slightly lower than that of the previous genic SSRs. Although these EST–SSRs are less polymorphic than genomic SSRs, several EST–SSRs were found to be highly polymorphic in a study of variety identification in pepper (Kwon et al. [2005](#page-16-0)).

We observed an expansion of map length. Maps of pepper range from about 1,300 to 1,800 cM (Lee et al. [2004a;](#page-16-0) Lefebvre et al. [2002](#page-16-0); Livingstone et al. [1999;](#page-17-0) Paran et al. [2004](#page-17-0)). The linkage map of the EST–SSR markers is larger than these, since it consists mainly of genic markers, and recombination may be more frequent in gene-rich regions than in non-coding regions. In pepper, as in many other SSR-based maps in plants, the SSR markers are distributed relatively evenly over the genome, and provide good coverage of all linkage groups. There are no obvious biases in terms of the chromosomal locations of SSR markers with different motifs. Nevertheless, there are some regions of the pepper genome where EST–SSRs are more frequent. These regions seem to be gene-rich or euchromatic regions. The frequency and map positions of the distorted EST–SSR markers in this study are quite similar to those of previous RFLP and SSR markers (Kang et al. [2001;](#page-16-0) Lee et al. [2004a\)](#page-16-0). In general, distorted markers that grouped together were skewed in the same direction. Segregation distortion has been described in many plant DNA marker-based linkage maps, and has been attributed to causes such as segregation distortion, deleterious recessive alleles, selfincompatibility alleles, structural rearrangements, and differences in DNA content (Moretzsohn et al. [2005;](#page-17-0) Taylor and Ingvarsson [2003](#page-17-0)). Two small linkage groups in the previous study were merged into their respective chromosomes. A small linkage group was formed anew in this study. There were three small linkage groups that could not be assigned to chromosomes. More markers, which will be developed in the future would allow these small LGs to find their respective chromosomes. Direct hybridization of the markers as probes to chromosome by FISH technique could also be helpful, which we plan to pursue. Public or private organizations pursuing pepper breeding program are interested in dissecting agronomically important traits such as fungal and viral pathogen resistance, yield, and fruit quality. To understand complex traits especially at the molecular level, segregating populations and DNA marker systems are essential. In this respect, the cDNA-based markers will not only provide codominant markers, but may also include candidate genes that are linked to, or could be targeted to, the trait of interest (Gupta and Rustgi [2004](#page-16-0)). Thus, the mapping using EST–SSRs may provide useful information for understanding monogenic or polygenic traits and could be utilized in candidate gene approaches (Pflieger et al. [2001\)](#page-17-0). The availability of large numbers of EST–SSR or cDNA-based markers should allow the construction of a high-resolution and marker-dense transcriptional map in the near future.

Currently, there are about 30,000 unigene sets in the pepper EST database (http://www.genepool.pdrc.re.kr). Mining SSRs in smaller sets of database derived from individual ESTs may produce some degree of redundancy. Redundancy arises because several ESTs could be transcribed from one mRNA. To avoid this, researchers need to identify SSRs in consensus sequences that represent unique ESTs. In developing new EST–SSR markers in pepper, therefore, nonredundant EST datasets should be used after clustering newly developed ESTs with the ESTs obtained in this study.

Publicly available markers such as SSRs can facilitate the development of a consensus map, so that map information can be readily shared without comprehensive mapping experiments. The SSR markers in our previous SNU2 map (Lee et al. 2004a) were used to help assign pepper chromosome numbers to unknown linkage groups in a separate pepper map (Ogundiwin et al. [2005\)](#page-17-0). These additional EST–SSR markers may greatly accelerate mapping projects that are under way in pepper as well as in other Solanaceae. The availability of these markers will also benefit other applications such as cultivar identification (Kwon et al. 2005) and marker-assisted selection in pepper.

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