DEVELOPMENT AND FINE MAPPING OF MARKERS CLOSELY LINKED TO THE SCMV RESISTANCE LOCI SCMV1 AND SCMV2 IN EUROPEAN MAIZE (Zea mays L.)

Dissertation zur Erlangung des Grades eines Doktors der Agrarwissenschaften der Fakultät III – Agrarwissenschaften I – Pflanzenproduktion und Landschaftsökologie der Universität Hohenheim

von
Diplom-Agrarbiologin
Christina M. Dußle
aus Cleebronn

2002
Die vorliegende Arbeit wurde am 12. Juni 2002 von der Fakultät III - Agrarwissenschaften I - (Pflanzenproduktion und Landschaftsökologie) der Universität Hohenheim als „Dissertation zur Erlangung des Grades eines Doktors der Agrarwissenschaften (Dr. sc. agr.)“ angenommen.


Dekan: Prof. Dr. K. Hurle (i.V.)
Berichterstatter, 1. Prüfer: Prof. Dr. A.E. Melchinger
Mitberichterstatter, 2. Prüfer: Prof. Dr. A.J.P. Pfitzner
3. Prüfer: Prof. Dr. R. Blaich
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## ABBREVIATIONS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Description</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AFLP</td>
<td>Amplified fragment length polymorphism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ANOVA</td>
<td>Analysis of variance</td>
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<tr>
<td>BC</td>
<td>Backcross</td>
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<tr>
<td>bp</td>
<td>Base pair</td>
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<tr>
<td>BSA</td>
<td>Bulked segregant analysis</td>
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<tr>
<td>CAPS</td>
<td>Cleaved amplified polymorphic sequence</td>
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<tr>
<td>cDNA</td>
<td>Complementary DNA</td>
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<tr>
<td>CIM</td>
<td>Composite interval mapping</td>
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<tr>
<td>cM</td>
<td>CentiMorgan</td>
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<tr>
<td>CTAB</td>
<td>Hexadecyltrimethylammonium bromide</td>
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<tr>
<td>DNA</td>
<td>Deoxyribonucleic acid</td>
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<tr>
<td>HPV</td>
<td>High plains virus</td>
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<tr>
<td>indel</td>
<td>Insertion/deletion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JGMV</td>
<td>Johnson grass mosaic virus</td>
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<tr>
<td>LOD</td>
<td>Log₁₀ odds ratio</td>
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<td>LRR</td>
<td>Leucine-rich repeat</td>
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<td>M</td>
<td>Mole</td>
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<td>MAS</td>
<td>Marker-assisted selection</td>
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<td>MDMV</td>
<td>Maize dwarf mosaic virus</td>
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<tr>
<td>min</td>
<td>Minute</td>
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<tr>
<td>MMV</td>
<td>Maize mosaic virus</td>
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<tr>
<td>MSV</td>
<td>Maize streak virus</td>
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<tr>
<td>NBS</td>
<td>Nucleotide-binding site</td>
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<tr>
<td>PCR</td>
<td>Polymerase chain reaction</td>
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<tr>
<td>QTL</td>
<td>Quantitative trait locus (or loci depending on the context)</td>
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<tr>
<td>QTL × E</td>
<td>QTL × environment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RAPD</td>
<td>Random amplified polymorphic DNA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RFLP</td>
<td>Restriction fragment length polymorphism</td>
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<tr>
<td>RGA</td>
<td>Resistance gene analogue(s)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SCAR</td>
<td>Sequence characterized amplified region</td>
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<tr>
<td>SCMV</td>
<td>Sugarcane mosaic virus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SNP</td>
<td>Single nucleotide polymorphisms</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SSR</td>
<td>Simple sequence repeat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>STS</td>
<td>Sequenced tagged site</td>
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<tr>
<td>tBSA</td>
<td>Targeted bulked segregant analysis</td>
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<tr>
<td>TPIB</td>
<td>Tissue print immunoblotting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WSMV</td>
<td>Wheat streak mosaic virus</td>
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</table>
1. General Introduction

Resistance to sugarcane mosaic virus

Sugarcane mosaic virus (SCMV) is one of the most important virus diseases in European maize. It can cause serious yield losses in susceptible cultivars (Fuchs et al. 1995). SCMV and the closely related maize dwarf mosaic virus (MDMV) have been found in some regions of Germany since the 1980s (Fuchs et al. 1984). Whereas MDMV is a widespread viral disease in the southern U.S. Corn Belt (Louie et al. 1991), SCMV is more prevalent than MDMV in Germany (Fuchs et al. 1996). Diagnostic symptoms for both SCMV and MDMV include stunting (Fig. 1.1.), chlorosis (Fig. 1.2.), reduction in plant weight, and therefore, a reduction in yield (Fuchs et al. 1995).

Fig. 1.1. SCMV infection in European maize. The susceptible plants in the foreground show reduction of plant height, compared to the resistant plants in the background.
SCMV was formerly denoted as a strain of MDMV, MDMV-B (Shukla et al. 1989). SCMV as well as MDMV belong together with wheat streak mosaic virus (WSMV), Johnson grass mosaic virus (JGMV) and sorghum mosaic virus (SrMV) to a group of related pathogenic potyviruses in maize (Kuntze et al. 1995). Chemical control of SCMV is not possible because of the non-persistent mode of virus transmission by aphids. Hence, the most efficient method to control SCMV infections is the cultivation of resistant maize varieties.

Resistance to SCMV, MDMV and WSMV with U.S. germplasm was investigated in a number of studies. Inbred Pa405 showed complete resistance to MDMV and SCMV inoculation under both field and greenhouse conditions (Louie R. et al. 1991). Roane et al. (1977) concluded that resistance to MDMV in maize inbred Oh7B is controlled by a single dominant gene. Rosenkrantz et al. (1987) reported five genes in Pa405 causing resistance to MDMV. Mikel et al. (1984) identified three genes in Pa405, where one gene is essential with either of the other two for complete resistance to a mixture of MDMV and SCMV. One to three major genes in Pa405 causing resistance to MDMV strains A, B, D, E, and F were reported by Findley et al. (1984). Louie et al. (1991) confirmed a single dominant gene conferring resistance to all five strains of MDMV.
Restriction fragment length polymorphism (RFLP) analysis mapped a major gene, \textit{Mdm1}, near the centromere of chromosome 6 that causes resistance to MDMV in Pa405 (McMullen et al. 1989). \textit{Mdm1} is perfectly cosegregating with the nucleolus organizer region (\textit{nor}) and closely linked to the RFLP marker \textit{csu70} (0.2 cM) in maize (Simcox et al. 1995).

Kuntze et al. (1997) screened 122 early-maturing European maize inbreds under both greenhouse and field conditions. Three lines (D21, D32 and FAP1360A) displayed complete resistance and four lines (D06, D09, R2306 and FAP1396A) displayed partial resistance to SCMV and MDMV. Field trials and segregation analysis uncovered one to three genes involved in resistance to SCMV in different crosses (Melchinger et al. 1998). Two major genes, \textit{Scmv1} on the short arm of chromosome 6 and \textit{Scmv2} near the centromere of chromosome, were mapped by Melchinger et al. (1998). QTL analysis confirmed the two major resistance genes (\textit{Scmv1}, \textit{Scmv2}) and uncovered three minor QTL affecting SCMV resistance on chromosomes 1, 5, and 10 in cross D32 (resistant) × D145 (susceptible) (Xia et al. 1999). Both major resistance genes are essential for expression of complete resistance to SCMV. Whereas \textit{Scmv1} suppresses the expression of SCMV symptoms during all stages of infection, \textit{Scmv2} was expressed in later stages of plant development (Xia et al. 1999). Due to the relatively small numbers of genes, SCMV resistance is employed as a model for oligogenic inherited disease resistances. In the present study, the gene action of \textit{Scmv1} and \textit{Scmv2} was investigated in a different population than employed by the previous authors.

\textbf{Resistance gene analogues}

One strategy towards the identification of resistance genes is the application of conserved homologous sequences within resistance genes. Genes conferring resistance to the major classes of plant pathogens, including bacteria, fungi, nematodes and virus, have been isolated from different plant species. Sequence comparisons among these genes have revealed significant similarities in general structure, and conservation of specific domains that participate in protein-protein interactions and signal transduction. The majority of plant disease resistance genes contain nucleotide-binding sites (NBS) and a leucine-rich repeat (LRR) domain (Seah et al. 1998).
A sensitive and efficient method to identify and characterise resistance gene analogues (RGAs) is the polymerase chain reaction (PCR) amplification using degenerate primers based on conserved motifs of NBS-LRR genes (Yu et al. 1996). This approach has been successfully used in the monocotyledon species maize, wheat, barley and rice (Collins et al. 1998, Seah et al. 1998, Leister et al. 1999, Mago et al. 1999) and in dicotyledonous species such as potato, lettuce and Brassica napus (Leister et al. 1996, Meyers et al. 1998, Joyeux et al. 1999). In several studies, mapped RGAs showed close linkage to disease resistance loci indicating that this approach can contribute to the identification of candidate resistance genes in different species and can provide starting points for cloning strategies. Eleven classes of non-cross-hybridising sequences with amino acid identity to known NBS-LRR resistance proteins were amplified in maize by Collins et al. (1998). Four of them mapped to the potential resistance gene clusters on chromosomes 6S and 3L, containing as well SCMV resistance genes Scmv1 and Scmv2.

**Bulked segregant analysis**

A major obstacle in elucidating the biochemical basis of disease resistance in plants is the lack of cloned resistance genes (Simcox et al. 1995). This deficiency was overcome with the cloning of plant disease resistance genes by the use of methods like transposon tagging and chromosome walking (Johal et al. 1992, Martin et al. 1993). Cloning a gene by chromosome walking for example requires a high-resolution map in the region around the gene of interest (Martin et al. 1993). Furthermore, recovery of individuals with crossovers between the target locus and flanking molecular markers is a prerequisite for determining the direction and physical distance to be crossed during a chromosome walk (Simcox et al. 1995). Genetic studies of traits with complex inheritance require for their mapping the determination of genotypes at several hundred polymorphic loci in several hundred individuals. Because only a minority of markers are expected to show linkage and association for a particular trait, a simple screen of genetic markers to identify those showing linkage in pooled DNA samples can greatly facilitate gene identification.
To obviate the analysis of thousands of individuals for mapping, Arnheim et al. (1985) first suggested the idea of using pooled DNA in the context of case-control studies in human genetics. These authors argued that alleles in linkage disequilibrium with a disease would be enriched or deficient in a pooled sample of affected individuals in comparison with a pooled control sample. Thus, beyond testing association for specific alleles, this principle was used to search for associated alleles at specific genes, as they successfully did for HLA class II DR and DQ alleles in insulin dependent diabetes mellitus (IDDM) (Arnheim et al. 1985). In plant genetics, the first method using samples of pooled DNA for identification of markers in trait associated genome regions was invented by Michelmore et al. (1991) and named bulked segregant analysis (BSA). This method involves comparing two pooled DNA samples of individuals from a segregating population originating from a single cross. The individuals within each pool were identical for the trait of interest, but arbitrary for all other genes. For example, one pool contains resistant plants, whereas the other pool contains plants susceptible to a particular disease. Employing molecular markers with these two pools reveals markers that are polymorphic between both pools and, therefore, linked to the target region harboring the gene of interest (Michelmore et al. 1991).

BSA was initially proposed for screening qualitative traits known to express variation at a single locus of large effect (Giovannoni et al. 1991, Michelmore et al. 1991). However, the simplicity and low cost of BSA have led to its use for more complex traits (Mackay et al. 2000, Chagué et al. 1997). This method depends on the marker type and the segregating population employed. For a dominant trait like SCMV, a BC population combined with amplified restriction length polymorphism (AFLP) markers seems to be the most efficient way to find markers tightly linked to the resistance genes (Mackay et al. 2000). AFLP markers generate in a single reaction many more polymorphic bands than any other PCR-based markers such as simple sequence repeat (SSR) or random amplified polymorphic DNA (RAPD) markers.

The availability of molecular markers flanking the SCMV resistance genes Scmv1 and Scmv2 provides a very efficient tool for rapid introgression into maize breeding germplasm by marker-assisted selection (MAS). Therefore, Xu et al. (1999) constructed a genetic linkage map for the SCMV resistance regions on chromosomes 6S and 3L harbouring the resistance genes Scmv1 and Scmv2 by means of BSA with 27
symptomless BC individuals of cross (F7 \times \text{FAP1360A}) \times \text{F7}. The authors mapped 12 AFLP markers to the Scmv1 and 11 AFLP markers to the Scmv2 region. Based on these results, the regions on chromosomes 3 and 6 were enriched in this study with further AFLP and SSR markers to construct a high-resolution map for these resistance gene regions. As a tool for marker enrichment in the target regions, a modified targeted BSA (tBSA) was developed (Lübberstedt et al. 2002). This method reduces the experimental effort in analysing large numbers of putatively linked markers and enables the selection of closely linked markers without analysing all individuals of the mapping population.

**Marker conversion**

The use of AFLP markers for genetic map construction in plants has accelerated genome analysis and genetic improvement. However, it is difficult to employ the AFLP technique directly in MAS and map-based gene cloning due to its high cost and complicated procedure (Xu et al. 2001). Therefore, conversion of AFLP markers into sequence-specific PCR-based primers is essential to expand the usefulness of this technique.

Different molecular marker types have been successfully converted into sequence-specific PCR based sequenced tagged site (STS) markers such as sequence characterized amplified regions (SCARs) and cleaved amplified polymorphic sequences (CAPS) (Adam-Blondon et al. 1994, McDermott et al. 1994, Horvath et al. 1995, Barret et al. 1998, Bradshaw Jr et al. 1994, Cheung et al. 1997, Jung et al. 1999). The converted CAPS and SCAR markers are very reliable, less expensive, easy to apply, and, therefore a helpful tool in large-scale and locus-specific applications like MAS and map-based cloning (Bradeen et al. 1998, Shan et al. 1999). Conversion of AFLP markers has also been attempted (Shan et al. 1999, Bradeen et al. 1998, Qu et al. 1998, Schwarz et al. 1999, Xu et al. 2001). Polymorphisms revealed by AFLPs include single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs), insertion and deletions (indels), and microsatellites (Bradeen et al. 1998, Wei et al. 1999). However, AFLP marker conversion turned out to be more difficult than conversion of any other marker type. Many converted AFLP markers lost their sequence-specificity or even their ability in amplification of genomic DNA (Shan et al. 1999). The reasons regarding the difficulties of conversion remain so
far unknown. In this study two dominant AFLP markers, closely linked to resistance genes Scmv1 and Scmv2, were converted into an indel and a CAPS marker.

For map-based cloning and MAS thousands of individuals have to be screened with molecular markers. Hence, easy manageable molecular markers converted of AFLP markers can accelerate both procedures. Cloning of the SCMV resistance genes implies detailed information about the gene action and the localization of the target genes. Therefore, molecular markers linked with the target genes and a comprehensive linkage map are essential tools towards the identification of the genes conferring resistance to SCMV.

The objectives of this study were to

1. determine precisely the location of Scmv1 and Scmv2 on chromosomes 3 and 6 in cross F7 × FAP1360A,
2. determine the gene action of the alleles present at these loci,
3. enrich the SCMV resistance regions covering Scmv1 (chromosome 6) and Scmv2 (chromosome 3) with AFLP and SSR markers employing the tBSA,
4. evaluate RGAs as potential candidate genes for Scmv1 and Scmv2, and
5. convert AFLP markers into codominant, simple PCR-based markers as a tool for marker-assisted selection and for map-based cloning of Scmv1 and Scmv2.

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characterisation of a family of disease resistance gene analogs from wheat and barley.
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Molecular mapping and gene action of Scm1 and Scm2, two major QTL contributing to SCMV resistance in maize

C. M. Duyle\textsuperscript{1}, A. E. Melching\textsuperscript{1}, L. Kunze\textsuperscript{1}, A. Stork\textsuperscript{1} and T. Lubberstedt\textsuperscript{1,2}

\textsuperscript{1}Institute of Plant Breeding, Seed Science, and Population Genetics, University of Hohenheim, D-70333 Stuttgart, Germany;
\textsuperscript{2}Corresponding author

With 1 figure and 2 tables

Received November 25, 1999; Accepted February 21, 2000
Communicated by C. Jung

Abstract

Sugarcane mosaic virus (SCMV) is one of the most important virus diseases of maize in Europe. In this study, the gene action at two major quantitative trait loci (QTL) affecting resistance to SCMV in maize was mapped and characterized. A total of 121 F\textsubscript{1} lines from cross F7 (susceptible) × FAP1360A (resistant) were evaluated for SCMV resistance in replicated field trials across two environments under artificial inoculation at seven scoring dates. The genotypic variance was always highly significant and heritability increased up to 0.91 for later scoring dates. The method of composite interval mapping was employed for QTL mapping using four simple sequence repeat (SSR) markers flanking two regions identified in a previous study with cross D145 × D32. The presence of two QTL for SCMV resistance, one on chromosome 6 (Scm1 region) and one on chromosome 3 (Scm2 region), was confirmed. These two QTL (together explained between 15% first score) and 62% (95% confidence) of the phenotypic variance at various stages of plant development. Gene action was additive for the Scm2 region but completely dominant for the Scm1 region. Comparison of results of this study with those obtained for cross D145 × D32 suggested that the resistance alleles in the two populations are identical for the Scm1 region but different for the Scm2 region.

Key words: Zea mays — QTL mapping — sugarcane mosaic virus — SCMV resistance — SSR markers

Molecular mapping and gene action of SCMV in maize is important for developing resistance to SCMV by introgression of SCMV-resistant maize with disease resistance in maize and other crops. This study aimed to identify and characterize the genetic basis of SCMV resistance in maize. A total of 121 F\textsubscript{1} lines from the cross F7 (susceptible) × FAP1360A (resistant) were evaluated for SCMV resistance in replicated field trials across two environments under artificial inoculation at seven scoring dates. The genotypic variance was always highly significant and heritability increased up to 0.91 for later scoring dates.

The method of composite interval mapping was employed for QTL mapping using four simple sequence repeat (SSR) markers flanking two regions identified in a previous study with the cross D145 × D32. The presence of two QTL for SCMV resistance, one on chromosome 6 (Scm1 region) and one on chromosome 3 (Scm2 region), was confirmed. These two QTL (together explaining between 15% first score) and 62% (95% confidence) of the phenotypic variance at various stages of plant development. Gene action was additive for the Scm2 region but completely dominant for the Scm1 region. Comparison of results of this study with those obtained for the cross D145 × D32 suggested that the resistance alleles in the two populations are identical for the Scm1 region but different for the Scm2 region.

Materials and Methods

Plant material: The two early-maturing European inbred lines F7 (fin) and FAP1360A (dom) of Zea mays were crossed and the F\textsubscript{1}, and F\textsubscript{2} generations were subsequently added to produce a random set of 121 F\textsubscript{1} lines. Line FAP1360A is completely resistant to SCMV, whereas line F7 is highly susceptible

Artificial inoculation: Virus inoculum for testing resistance against the SCMV isolate 'Sechuan' was prepared as described by Fuchs and Grünzig (1999). Young leaves with typical mosaic symptoms of the SCMV-infected maize variety 'Bermuda' were homogenized using five volumes of 0.01 M phosphate buffer at pH 7.0. Carbondioxide was added to the sap. During sap preparation and mechanical inoculation, the inoculum was kept at 4°C. Plants in the three-to-four-leaf stage were mechanically inoculated twice at weekly intervals by an airbrush technique using a tractor-mounted air-compressor at a constant pressure of 800 kPa (Fuchs et al. 1998).

Agronomic trials: The parental F\textsubscript{1}, plants of the 121 F\textsubscript{1} lines were evaluated in 1995 for resistance to SCMV at Hohenheim, Germany. The 121 F\textsubscript{1} lines from cross F7 × FAP1360A plus two entries of the F\textsubscript{1}, generation, two entries of the B, generations to the susceptible parent F7 and one entry for each parent were evaluated
in 1996 for resistance to SCMV at Eckartsweier and Hohenheim. The 136 entries were tested in a 13 × 10 replicate design (Patterson and Williams 1976).

Plots consisted of single rows, 0.7 m apart and 3 m long, which were overplanted and later thinned to a final density of 9 plants/m² with a total of 30 plants per row. Resistance to SCMV was visually scored 2 weeks after initial inoculation for the first time. The number of plants with virus symptoms was recorded at weekly intervals on seven dates (VIR1 to VIR7) at each location. The number of infected plants was converted into a percentage of plants with disease symptoms.

Leaf collection and DNA extraction: Leaves were harvested from 10 plants of each F₂ line grown in the greenhouse. Equal amounts of leaf material from each plant per line were bulked for DNA extraction to determine the marker genotype of the parental F₁ plants. Harvested leaves were freeze-dried and ground to powder. DNA extraction was performed according to the cetyltrimethylammonium bromide (CTAB) method (Heggestad et al. 1996).

SSR analyses: Four microsatellite (SSR) markers were employed to genotype a random subset of 118 parental F₁ plants of the 121 F₁ lines, plus F₀ and F₀F₀ derived from chromosome 3, and ph025 and ph077 from chromosome 6, flanking the Ssm1 and Ssm2 regions, respectively. The distance between the flanking markers determined for cross number 1 was 6.6 cM for chromosome 3 and 28.4 cM for chromosome 6 (Xu et al. 1999). Sequences of these primers were obtained from the data base (http://coestate.agon.mssnet.edu/Coop/SSR-Prone/SSR1.html) and synthesized by American Pharmacia Biotech (Freiburg, Germany). Polymerase chain reaction (PCR) amplification and Metaphor gel (FMC, Rockland, USA) electrophoresis were performed according to Lübbers et al. (1998).

Segregation and linkage analyses: Segregation at each marker locus was checked for deviations from Mendelian segregation ratios (1:2:1) and allele frequency 0.5 by χ² tests (Weir 1999). A linkage analysis of the SSR markers was conducted with software package MAPMAKER 3.0b (Lander et al. 1987) using Hudson's mapping function. The threshold used for declaring linkage was set to a LOD value of 3.0 and a maximum distance of 50 cM.

Statistical analyses: The biometric analyses of phenotypic data (VIR1 to VIR7) and QTL mapping were performed as described in detail by Xu et al. (1999) without further data transformation. Briefly, adjusted entry means and effective error mean squares were used to compute combined analyses of variance (ANOVA) across environments. The means of squares for entries were subdivided into orthogonal contrasts (1) between both parents lines F₀ and F₀F₀, (2) between the means of both parents (P) and the mean of the 121 F₁ lines (E₁), (3) among the means of generations F₂ and F₃, and (4) among the variation among the 121 F₁ lines. A corresponding subdivision was conducted on the entry × environment interaction sums of squares. Estimates of variance components σ²_P (genotypic variance), σ²_E (genotypic × environment interaction variance), and σ²_E (error variance) of F₂ lines and their standard errors were calculated as described by Stace (1971, p. 411). Heritabilities (h²) on an entry-mean basis, were estimated as described by Hathaway and Miranda (1981, p. 50):

$$ h^2 = \frac{\sigma^2_P}{\sigma^2_P + \sigma^2_E + \sigma^2_E / re} $$

where r = number of replications and e = number of environments. Exact 99% confidence intervals of h² were calculated according to Knapp et al. (1985). Phenotypic correlations among scoring dates were calculated by applying standard procedures. Composite interval mapping (CIM) (Zeng 1994) was employed for mapping of QTL and estimation of their effects as described by Weir et al. (1997). A LOD threshold of 3.0 was chosen for declaring putative QTL significant. For the analysis of data from each environment and also for the joint analyses across environments, cofactors were selected by stepwise regression. Final selection was for the model that minimized Akaike’s information criterion with penalty = 3.0 (Jensen 1993). QTL positions were determined at the local maxima of the LOD (log₁₀ odds) ratio plot curve in the regions under consideration. The proportion of the phenotypic variance (dP²) explained by a single QTL was obtained from the squares of the partial correlation coefficient (R²) (Mehlhoff et al. 1998b). Estimates of R² value and gene effects at QTL as well as tests for QTL × environment (QTL × E) and epistatic epistatic interactions among QTL were obtained by fitting a model that included all QTL for the respective trait simultaneously (Mehlhoff et al. 1998b). All computations were performed with software package FLABQTL (Uc and Melchinger 1996).

Results

Phenotypic data

Both parents differed significantly (P < 0.01) in their SCMV resistance at both environments; no infected plant was found for FAP1360A while the proportion of infected plants of parent F₇ at the seventh scoring reached 100% at Eckartsweier and 99% at Hohenheim. The mean proportion of infected plants across all 121 F₁ lines averaged across both environments increased from 5.4% at the first scoring date (VIR1) to 32.5% at the final scoring date (VIR7) (Table 1). As reflected by the mean proportion of infected plants, the disease onset (VIR1) started at a higher level at Hohenheim than at Eckartsweier (X = 0.1%). This difference prevailed until the final scoring date (VIR7) with X = 51.1% at Hohenheim and X = 28.5% at Eckartsweier. The F₂ and F₃ generation did not differ significantly in the mean proportion of infected plants. No infected F₃ plant could be identified from VIR1 to VIR3, but their mean proportion increased to 5.2% until VIR7. The phenotypic correlation of F₁ line means between both environments ranged from 0.4 (VIR1) to 0.85 (VIR7), demonstrating a similar ranking of infected F₁ lines at both environments for the final scoring date. No significant (P < 0.05) difference existed between the means of both parents (P) and the mean of all 121 F₁ lines (E₁) for VIR7.

Genotypic variances dP² for SCMV resistance were highly significant (P < 0.01) for scoring dates VIR2 to VIR7 (Table 1). Estimates of dP² were significant only for VIR1, VIR2, VIR3 and for later scoring dates (≥ VIR3) considerably smaller than dE². Heritabilities for VIR2 to VIR7 ranged from 0.42 to 0.92.

Segregation of SSRs

All four SSR markers showed a codominant segregation in agreement with the expected ratio, 1:2:1. Allele frequencies did not deviate significantly (P > 0.05) from 0.5 at any marker locus. The estimated map distance determined from genotypes of parental F₁ plants of the 118 F₁ lines was 15.4 cM for markers ph025 and ph033 on chromosome 3 and 30.7 cM for markers ph026 and ph077 on chromosome 6.

QTL analyses

With the four codominant SSR markers, the presence of two QTL on chromosomes 6 and 3 for SCMV resistance in the population F₁ × FAP1360A was confirmed. The largest QTL on chromosome 6 was detected at all scoring dates; it explained between 16 and 54% of dP² for VIR1 to VIR7. The QTL on chromosome 6 showed significant additive (a) and dominance (d) effects, with a decreasing degree of dominance (ratio d:a) from VIR1 (1.7) to VIR7 (0.94). The QTL on chromosome 3 was identified only at the final scoring date (VIR7); it explained...
Table 1: Estimates of means, variance components, andheritabilities for resistance tobacterial leaf spot (BLS) in 121 F_{2} lines from maize population F_{7} × FAP1360A measured in two environments.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parameter</th>
<th>VIR1</th>
<th>VIR2</th>
<th>VIR3</th>
<th>VIR5</th>
<th>VIR7</th>
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<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>5.0 ± 3.2</td>
<td>17.5 ± 6.3</td>
<td>55.3 ± 11.5</td>
<td>7.0 ± 9.6</td>
<td>995 ± 3.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F_{2}</td>
<td>0.0 ± 0.0</td>
<td>0.0 ± 0.0</td>
<td>9.0 ± 0.0</td>
<td>9.0 ± 0.0</td>
<td>0.0 ± 0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F_{3}</td>
<td>2.2 ± 1.3</td>
<td>7.0 ± 2.6</td>
<td>10.0 ± 1.7</td>
<td>20.3 ± 1.1</td>
<td>280 ± 3.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F_{4}</td>
<td>3.4 ± 0.3</td>
<td>5.6 ± 0.5</td>
<td>11.8 ± 0.9</td>
<td>21.5 ± 1.6</td>
<td>329 ± 2.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E_{1}</td>
<td>1.7 ± 1.1</td>
<td>7.4 ± 2.4</td>
<td>20.7 ± 4.3</td>
<td>41.4 ± 5.7</td>
<td>496 ± 3.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Variance components:

|  | E_{2} | 14.2 ± 4.1** | 8.1 ± 11.4** | 294.1 ± 42.0** | 335.3 ± 34.4** |
|  | 9.3 ± 3.7** | 14.2 ± 4.5** | 12.5 ± 7.1 | 7.3 ± 10.3 | 29.2 ± 12.1** |
|  | 15.0 ± 1.5 | 20.7 ± 2.6 | 39.9 ± 3.9 | 58.5 ± 5.7 | 61.6 ± 6.0 |

Heritability (F_{2} lines): n.s. 0.42 0.76 0.89 0.92
90% C.I. on \(h^{2}\): n.s. (0.16, 0.59) (0.65, 0.82) (0.86, 0.92) (0.88, 0.95)

**Significant at \(P = 0.01\).

1. Scoring of BLS symptoms at the first, second, third, fifth and seventh days are denoted VIR1, VIR2, VIR3, VIR5 and VIR7, respectively.

2. Standard errors are attached.

3. Confidence intervals of \(h^{2}\) were calculated by the method of Knapp et al. (1985).

n.s. = not calculated, because \(E_{2}\) was negative.

Table 2: Parameters associated with quantitative trait locus (QTL) significantly affecting resistance to BLS in 121 F_{2} lines from maize population F_{7} × FAP1360A

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Chromosome</th>
<th>Position</th>
<th>Parameter</th>
<th>VIR1</th>
<th>VIR2</th>
<th>VIR3</th>
<th>VIR5</th>
<th>Trait (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>8-10</td>
<td>a</td>
<td>-11.2**</td>
<td>-1.5</td>
<td>-11.2**</td>
<td>-1.5</td>
<td>-11.2**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>d</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>14-18</td>
<td>a</td>
<td>-2.4**</td>
<td>-4.5**</td>
<td>-11.9**</td>
<td>-21.4**</td>
<td>-33.5**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>d</td>
<td>-4.1**</td>
<td>-7.3**</td>
<td>-15.9**</td>
<td>-24.2**</td>
<td>-31.1**</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>R^{2}</td>
<td>16.1</td>
<td>28.5</td>
<td>43.6</td>
<td>54.5</td>
<td>55.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Significant at \(P = 0.01\).

1. Estimates of total \(R^{2}\) obtained by a simultaneous fit of the two QTL affecting the respective trait using a model with additive and dominance effects.

2. Chromosomal position of the QTL calculated for VIR1 to VIR7.

15% of \(E_{2}\) and showed only a significant additive effect. At both loci the QTL alleles conferring resistance to BLS were contributed by the resistant parent FAP1360A. Neither significant \((P < 0.25)\) epistatic nor QTL × E interactions were detected for both QTL on chromosomes 3 and 6 for all scoring dates.

Discussion

Comparison of the Scm1 and Scm2 region in different populations:

In a companion study with 220 F_{2} lines derived from cross D32 (completely resistant) × D145 (highly susceptible), Xia et al. (1999) found major effects on BLS resistance for the Scm1 region on chromosome 6S and the Scm2 region on chromosome 3L. Furthermore, the additive gene effects were four times larger for the Scm1 region than for the Scm2 region at VIR7. Xu et al. (1999) identified two major genes (Scm1 and Scm2) in a BC population of \((F_{7} × FAP1360A)\) backcrossed five times to the susceptible parent F_{7}. With regard to resistance breeding as well as cloning of genes, there are two important questions: (1) Is the same number of resistance genes segregating in both crosses? (2) Are the alleles segregating at the QTL in the Scm1 and Scm2 region identical?

A major difference between our results of cross F_{7} × FAP1360A and those of Xia et al. (1999) for cross D145 × D32 is the tenfold higher mean infection level of F_{2} lines at VIR7 in the latter study, which was even more pronounced at earlier scoring dates (VIR4: 7% vs. 49%). Furthermore no F_{2} line showed complete resistance to BLS at VIR7 in D145 × D32 compared with 5% in the present study. These different infection levels could be due to environmental effects, because only one environment, Eckartsweiler 1996, was common in both studies. However, a comparison of results from the common environment confirmed the different infection levels for both populations presented in Fig. 1. Hence, it seems safe to conclude that the lower infection level in cross F_{7} × FAP1360A compared with cross D145 × D32 is attributable to genetic differences.

A possible explanation for these findings is a smaller number of segregating resistance genes in population F_{7} × FAP1360A due to the presence of fixed resistance genes in the susceptible parent F_{7}. Surprisingly, it was possible to detect Scm2 by bulked segregant analysis, although the effect of the Scm2 region was much smaller compared with the Scm1 region (Xu et al. 1999). However, from the ratio \((R^{2}/h^{2})\), which yields an
estimate of the total genetic variance explained by the QTL in the model (Melchinger 1997), one can conclude that the two QTL found in the present study explain only about 70% of the total genetic variance for VIR7. Therefore, in addition to the two QTL in the Scm1 and Scm2 region, it is likely that further QTL with small effects segregate in cross F7 × FAP1360A. This is in close agreement with the corresponding estimates reported by Xia et al. (1999), who identified three minor QTL on chromosomes 1, 5 and 10 in addition to the two major QTL in the Scm1 and Scm2 regions.

Comparison of the Scm1 region in both crosses

The Scm1 region had a much larger effect on virus resistance at all scoring dates than the Scm2 region in cross F7 × FAP1360A, as well as in cross DI45 × DI32. However, gene effect of the Scm1 region was partial dominance in cross DI45 × DI32 and complete dominance in cross F7 × FAP1360A. This is most likely attributable to the influence of the different alleles in the susceptible parents F7 and DI45, because DI32 and FAP1360A probably carry the same resistance alleles according to the results of the high-density fingerprinting approach in this region (Xu et al. 2000). A further explanation could be epistatic effects between Scm1 and other genomic regions influencing virus resistance. In conclusion, the general mode of inheritance of genes at the Scm1 region appears to be similar for both populations and an indication of similar identity.

Comparison of the Scm2 region in both crosses

The other major QTL (Scm2) was detected for all scoring dates except VIR1 by Xia et al. (1999) and displayed increasing R² values and partial dominance for resistance to SCMV. The effect of the Scm2 region was much smaller than for the Scm1 region in both populations DI32 × DI45 (Xia et al. 1999) and F7 × FAP1360A. Xu et al. (2000) suggested the presence of different resistant loci in the Scm2 region of the three European inbred lines FAP1360A, D21 and D32. The fact that it could be detected at a later stage of plant development for cross F7 × FAP1360A corroborates that the resistance genes of the Scm2 region are not identical for the populations DI45 × DI32 and F7 × FAP1360A. A clustering of resistance genes in the Scm2 region has also been reported by Xu et al. (2000). However, identity of Scm2 in both populations cannot be ruled out completely.

Joint action of Scm1 and Scm2

The discrepancies between the distances of the flanking SSR markers in the analysis of Xu et al. (1999) and our results could be due to the different sizes of the mapping populations. Whereas Xu et al. (1999) mapped 40 resistant BC2 plants, the mapping population in the present study included 118 F2 lines. Furthermore, the higher degree of homozygosity in the BC2 plants could influence the recombination frequency in meiosis, so that the marker distances in the F2 lines seemed to be larger than in the BC2 population.

Xu et al. (1999) suggested that Scm1 is not sufficient for
resistance without additional resistance genes. Also, Quint et al. (1999) suggested in a comparison of the recombination frequencies of cross F7 × FAP1360A and D21 × D308 that further resistance genes are required for complete resistance to SCMV. In the present study, no epistatic effects were found between the two major QTL Sen1 and Sen2 for all scoring dates except VIR1 in population D145 × D32 (Xia et al. 1999). The results of the present study support the hypothesis that the genes in the Sen1 region are sufficient for resistance in earlier stages of plant development, whereas the genes in the Sen2 region is expressed only at a later stage of plant development and contributed a higher degree of resistance in population D145 × D32 and F7 × FAP1360A. A similar kind of resistance to MDMV was described by Mikel et al. (1994). The segregation of resistance genes to MDMV fitted a two-gene model at an earlier and a three-complementary-gene model at a later stage of plant development.

Based on a literature survey, resistance genes to different pathogens are often clustered in the same chromosome regions of the maize genome (McMullen and Simcox 1995). It is unknown whether resistance genes cluster due to linkage or whether some of them are identical and display pleiotropy. In support of closely linked but different major resistance genes, some susceptible plants were found in a test of alienness between the three European dent inbreds D21, D32 and FAP1360A (Lübbertstedt et al. 1999). Only cloning of these genes can resolve the question of whether the Sen1 and the Sen2 regions each harbour only a single locus or clusters of resistance loci and whether the genes present at these loci in the resistant inbreds D32 and FAP1360A are identical or not. Further research is underway to accomplish this goal.

Acknowledgements

The present study was supported by a grant from the Deutsche Forschungsgemeinschaft, Grant No. U150/2. The authors gratefully acknowledge the skilled technical assistance of E. Miron and B. Devens-Sawda at Hochheim, as well as the staff of the Plant Breeding Research Station at Eckartsweier in conducting the field trials.

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Fuchs, E. and M. Grünitz, 1995: Influence of sugarcane mosaic virus (SCMV) and maize dwarf mosaic virus (MDMV) on the growth and yield of two maize varieties. J. Planti. Dis. Protect. 102, 44–49.


Clustering of QTL conferring SCMV resistance in maize

Abstract

Sugarcane mosaic virus (SCMV) is an important virus disease of maize (Zea mays L.) in Europe. In this study, we mapped and characterized two major quantitative trait locus (QTL) regions conferring resistance to SCMV in a maize population consisting of 121 F$_3$ lines from cross F7 (susceptible) × FAP1360 (resistant). This population was evaluated for SCMV resistance in replicated field trials across two environments under artificial inoculation. Two previously identified chromosome regions (chromosome 6S and 3L) containing QTL conferring resistance were mapped with 24 SSR markers by composite interval mapping. Both regions together explained between 33.0% and 71.1% of the phenotypic variance for SCMV resistance at various stages of plant development. The Scmv1 region harbored two QTL rather than one QTL as identified in previous studies. Clustering of QTL for SCMV resistance was confirmed for at least one chromosome region.

Key words: QTL mapping, SSR markers, SCMV resistance, Zea mays

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Introduction

Sugarcane mosaic virus (SCMV) and maize mosaic virus (MDMV) are two important diseases in maize (*Zea mays* L.) and related crops, causing serious yield losses in susceptible cultivars (Fuchs and Grünzig 1995). Direct chemical control of SCMV and MDMV is impossible due to non-persistent transmission of both viruses. Therefore, the most efficient way to control virus infections is by cultivation of resistant maize varieties.

Effective natural resistance against SCMV and MDMV has been identified in U.S. maize germplasm such as inbred line Pa405 (Louie et al. 1990). The studies in Pa405 indicated that there were one to five genes conferring resistance to SCMV, MDMV, and wheat streak mosaic virus (WSMV) (Louie et al. 1991, McMullen et al. 1994, Simcox et al. 1995). Likewise, in a study with 122 early maturing European maize inbred lines, three lines (D21, D32 and FAP1360A) were identified to be completely resistant to SCMV and MDMV under both field and greenhouse conditions (Kuntze et al. 1997). Melchinger et al. (1998a) proposed that one to three genes confer resistance to SCMV in different crosses, and two resistance genes, *Scmv1* and *Scmv2*, mapped to the short arm of chromosome 6 and the centromere region of chromosome 3.

In order to develop tools for marker-assisted selection (MAS) as well as cloning of the major genes for SCMV resistance, both regions were analyzed in cross F7 × FAP1360A by bulked segregant analyses (BSA) (Xu et al. 1999) and in cross D145 (susceptible) × D32 (resistance) by QTL analyses (Xia et al. 1999). Dußle et al. (2000) employed a QTL approach to confirm the location and gene action of both regions in a population of 121 F3 lines from cross F7 × FAP1360A using four SSR markers flanking both regions. In the present study, 24 polymorphic SSR markers were applied to QTL analyses of the same population. Our objectives were to (1) address the question of whether single or clustered QTL within both regions are responsible for SCMV resistance, and (2) determine the exact position and gene action of the respective loci.
Materials and Methods

Plant materials

The two early-maturing European maize inbred lines FAP1360A (dent) and F7 (flint) were crossed and the F₁ and F₂ generations were subsequently selfed to produce a random set of 121 F₃ lines as described in detail by Dußle et al. (2000). Line FAP1360A is completely resistant to SCMV, whereas line F7 is highly susceptible (Kuntze et al. 1997). For the present study, only a subset of 118 F₃ lines could be analyzed due to lack of seed for three F₃ lines.

Artificial inoculation

Virus inoculum for testing resistance against SCMV isolates “Seehausen” was prepared as described by Fuchs and Grüntzig (1995). Young leaves with typical mosaic symptoms of the SCMV-infected maize variety ‘Bermasil’ were homogenized using 5 volumes of a 0.01 M phosphate buffer at pH 7.0. Carborundum was added to the sap. During sap preparation and mechanical inoculation, the inoculum was kept at + 4°C. Plants at the three- to four-leaf stage were mechanically inoculated twice at a weekly interval by an air brush technique with a tractor-mounted air compressor at a constant pressure of 800 kPa (Fuchs et al. 1996).

Agronomic trials

The parental F₂ plants of the 121 F₃ lines were evaluated in 1995 for resistance to SCMV at Hohenheim. The 121 F₃ lines from cross F7 × FAP1360A plus two entries of the F₁ hybrid, three entries of the F₂ generation, two entries of the BC₁ generation to the susceptible parent F7 and one entry for each parent were evaluated in 1996 for resistance to SCMV at Eckartsweier and Hohenheim. The 130 entries were tested in a 13 × 10 alpha lattice design (Patterson and Williams 1976). Plots consisted of single rows, 0.7 m apart and 3 m long, which were overplanted and later thinned to a final density of 9 plants/m² with a total of 20 plants per row. Resistance to SCMV was
visually scored two weeks after initial inoculation for the first time. The number of plants with virus symptoms was recorded at weekly intervals for seven dates (VIR1 to VIR7) at each location. The number of infected plants was converted into percentage of plants with disease symptoms.

**Leaf collection and DNA extraction**

Leaves were harvested from 16 plants of each F₃ line grown in the greenhouse. Equal amounts of leaf material from each plant per line were bulked for DNA extraction to determine the marker genotype of the parental F₂ plant. Harvested leaves were freeze-dried and ground to powder. DNA extraction was performed according to the CTAB method (Hoisington et al. 1994).

**SSR analyses**

Twenty-four SSR markers were employed to genotype the parental F₂ plants of the 118 F₃ lines. The markers were polymorphic based on the alleles between the parental lines FAP1630A and F7 as previously reported by Xu et al. (1999) and Dußle et al. (2002). Eleven markers were located on chromosome 3 and 13 markers on chromosome 6. Sequences of these primers were obtained from the maize database (http://teosinte.agron.missouri.edu/Coop/SSR-Probes/SSR1-hmt) and synthesized by Amersham Pharmacia Biotech (Freiburg, Germany). PCR amplification and MetaPhor® gel electrophoresis were performed according to Lübberstedt et al. (1998). Additionally, pic19, a RGA-CAPS marker, was used for genotyping according to the procedure described in detail by Quint et al. (2002a).

**Segregation and linkage analyses**

Segregation at each marker locus was checked for deviations from Mendelian segregation ratios (1:2:1 or 3:1) and allele frequency 0.5 by chi-square tests (Weir 1990). A linkage analysis of the SSR markers was conducted with software package Mapmaker 3.0b (Lander et al. 1987) using Haldane’s mapping function. The threshold
used for declaring linkage was set to a LOD value of 3.0 and a maximum distance of 50 cM.

**Statistical analyses**

The biometric analyses of the phenotypic data (VIR1 to VIR7) and QTL mapping were performed as described in detail by Xia et al. (1999) without further data transformation. Combined analysis of variance (ANOVA) for the phenotypic data of resistance to SCMV in the 121 F$_3$ lines of cross F7 × FAP1360A was identical with that reported by Dußle et al. (2000). We employed the method of composite interval mapping (CIM) (Zeng 1994) for mapping of QTL and estimation of their effects as described by Bohn et al. (1996). A LOD threshold of 3.0 was chosen to declare a putative QTL significant. For the analyses of data from each environment and also for the joint analyses across environments, cofactors were selected by stepwise regression. Final selection was for the model that minimized Akaike’s information criterion (AIC) with penalty = 3.0 (Jansen 1993). QTL positions were determined at the local maxima of the LOD (log$_{10}$ odds ratio) plot curve in the regions under consideration. The proportion of the phenotypic variance ($\sigma^2_p$) explained by a single QTL was obtained by the square of the partial correlation coefficient ($R^2$) (Melchinger et al. 1998b). Estimates of $R^2$ values and gene effects at QTL as well as tests for QTL × environment (QTL × E) and digenic epistatic interactions among QTL were obtained by fitting a model including all QTL for the respective trait simultaneously (Melchinger et al. 1998b). All computations were performed with software package PLABQTL (Utz and Melchinger 1996).

**Results**

**Phenotypic data**

Both parents differed significantly ($P<0.01$) in their SCMV resistance; no infected plants were found for resistant parent FAP1360A while 99% of plants for susceptible parent F7 were infected at the final scoring dates. The mean proportion of infected
plants across all F₃ lines increased from 3.4% at VIR1 to 32.9% at VIR7. Genotypic variances for SCMV were highly significant (P<0.01) at VIR2 to VIR7. Heritabilities for VIR2 to VIR7 ranged from 0.42 to 0.92. For a detailed report of the phenotypic data, see Dußle et al. (2000).

**Segregation of SSR markers**

Nineteen SSR markers showed a codominant segregation ratio (1:2:1) and five markers displayed a dominant segregation ratio (1:3). Allele frequencies did not deviate significantly (P<0.05) from 0.5 at any marker locus. For marker umc1143, the observed genotype frequency deviated significantly (P<0.001) from the Mendelian expectation (1:2:1) as heterozygous genotypes were underrepresented. The map spanned about 126 cM with all 24 SSR markers, covering 57.6 cM (11 markers) on chromosome 3 and 68.7 cM (13 markers) on chromosome 6 (Fig. 1). pic19 was mapped in the middle between markers umc1143 and phi126 on chromosome 6 (Fig. 1C).

**QTL analyses**

With the linkage maps based on twenty-four SSR markers, both QTL regions on chromosome 3 and 6 were confirmed to confer SCMV resistance in the population of cross F7 × FAP1360A (Table 1). All QTL alleles affecting resistance to SCMV were contributed by the resistant parent FAP1360A. One QTL on chromosome 3 ($Scmv2$ region) was identified between markers umc1300 and phi053 at all scoring dates except for VIR3 and VIR4 (Fig. 1A and Fig. 2). It explained between 12.4% and 30.1% of the phenotypic variance ($\sigma_p^2$), decreasing from VIR1 to VIR2 but increasing from VIR 5 to VIR7. The QTL region on chromosome 6 ($Scmv1$ region) was identified at all seven scoring dates. At VIR1 and VIR2, one QTL was identified at position 45 cM between markers bmc1432 and umc1753, and explained 21.2% and 32.4% of $\sigma_p^2$, respectively. However, two QTL were identified from VIR3 to VIR7. The first one ($Scmv1a$) was located at position 33-36 cM between markers phi126 and bmc1432, and the second one ($Scmv1b$) at position 51 cM between markers bmc1600 and bmc1867 (Fig. 1C and Fig.
2). Scmv1a explained between 23.8% and 33.3% of $\sigma_p^2$ from VIR3 to VIR7, and Scmv1b explained between 22.7% and 33.2% of $\sigma_p^2$. All three QTL together explained between 33.0% and 71.1% of $\sigma_p^2$ from VIR1 to VIR7 with increasing values in later stages. Scmv2 showed partial dominance for resistance to SCMV, while gene action was overdominant for Scmv1a and additive for Scmv1b. No significant (P<0.05) digenic epistatic interactions were found between these QTL. Significant (P<0.05) QTL × E interactions were detected for both QTL regions for some dates of SCMV scoring (Table 1).

**Discussion**

**Comparison of the Scmv1 and Scmv2 regions in cross F7 × FAP1360A**

In a previous study with the same maize population of 121 F3 lines from cross F7 × FAP1360A reported by Dußle et al. (2000), two major QTL regions (Scmv1 and Scmv2) for SCMV resistance were identified on chromosomes 6 and 3 with the aid of four SSR markers (Fig. 1B and Fig. 1D, phi126 and phi077 on chromosome 6, and phi029 and phi053 on chromosome 3, flanking the Scmv1 and Scmv2 regions, respectively). Gene action was additive for Scmv2, but completely dominant for Scmv1. Meanwhile, further SSR markers were developed with the progress in the maize genome project. In the present study with the same plant materials and field data, the locations of QTL and their gene actions were confirmed based on a much denser linkage map with 24 polymorphic SSR markers covering these two regions. Scmv2 was identified at the same location, but gene action was partial dominant. Furthermore, the Scmv1 region was resolved into two closely linked QTL (Scmv1a and Scmv1b) at scoring dates VIR3 to VIR7. The single QTL in the Scmv1 region at VIR1 and VIR2 is most likely a ‘ghost’ QTL derived from Scmv1a and Scmv1b (Fig. 2) due to the low heritability for the first two scoring dates, which results in a low power of QTL detection and resolution.

Two major genes for SCMV resistance (Scmv1 and Scmv2) were also identified in a BC5 population of cross F7 × FAP1360A with the high resolution maps based on
RFLP, SSR and AFLP markers by BSA analyses (Xu et al. 1999). Furthermore, these two regions were enriched with SSR and AFLP markers in generations BC5, BC7 and BC9 of cross F7 × FAP1360A by applying targeted BSA (tBSA) (Dußle et al. 2002). This permits a direct comparison of BSA and QTL analyses for both regions in the same cross. Scmv1 was mapped between the SSR markers phi126 and phi077 by Xu et al. (1999), and was mapped 2.4 cM distal to SSR marker bmc1432 by Dußle et al. (2002) (Fig. 1D). One QTL (Scmv1a) was located at the position of 33-36 cM adjacent to SSR marker bmc1432 in the present study. It seems safe to conclude that this gene is located at the same position in both analyses. However, the second QTL (Scmv1b) was exclusively identified by QTL analyses at the position of 51 cM between markers bmc1600 and bmc1867. In previous studies, a genetic model supposing one major gene in each of both regions, Scmv1 and Scmv2, was applied. Both QTL in the Scmv1 region were mapped as a single ‘ghost’ QTL because with the population and mapping program (Crimap) employed, it was not possible to resolve two tightly linked QTL. Furthermore, this ‘ghost’ QTL was located adjacent to the position of Scmv1a due to its overdominant gene action, conferring a higher degree of resistance in BC individuals than the additively acting QTL Scmv1b.

The order of SSR markers in the Scmv1 region agreed well with the results of Dußle et al. (2002), but differences were observed for the map distances. For example, the distance between markers phi126 and phi077 was 37.4 cM compared to 69.7 cM in the latter study. The presence of a second redundant resistance QTL could explain the inflated map distance. As explained by Dußle et al. (2002), instead of estimating the correct map position of a segregating marker relative to one of the real QTL, the markers identified by BSA would be grouped to the ‘ghost’ QTL, and, therefore, to the same linkage group. In this case, the position of the markers linked to one of the real QTL might be changed and the map distance would be overestimated. Consequently, if there are two QTL in the Scmv1 region, the QTL approach with unselected F3 lines seems more appropriate to map this region than BSA with a BC population.

Scmv2 was 1 cM distant from marker phi053 in the present study (Fig. 1) but in about 5 cM distance with BSA (Xu et al. 1999, Dußle et al. 2002). Furthermore, the order of SSR markers and map distance for the Scmv2 region was largely consistent with the BSA fine mapping study of Dußle et al. (2002). In contrast to the Scmv1
region, this is an indication for either one QTL or extremely tightly linked QTL in the *Scmv2* region.

**Comparison of the *Scmv1* and *Scmv2* regions in different crosses**

In a previous study with a maize population of 220 F3 lines from cross D145 (susceptible) × D32 (resistant) reported by Xia et al. (1999), two major QTL regions (*Scmv1* and *Scmv2*) for SCMV resistance were identified on chromosomes 6S and 3L, showing the same location as confirmed in the present study. The gene effects were much larger for the *Scmv1* region than for the *Scmv2* region at all scoring dates in both crosses D145 × D32 and F7 × FAP1360A. Gene action of the *Scmv1* region was partially dominant at all scoring dates in cross D145 × D32 similar to the supposed ‘ghost’ QTL at VIR1 and VIR2 in cross F7 × FAP1360A. It is very likely that the organization of the *Scmv1* region is identical in both crosses, as suggested by identical haplotypes of both resistant lines D32 and FAP1360A in this region (Xu et al. 2000) The gene action of the other major QTL region (*Scmv2*) was partially dominant in both crosses. Obviously, the resistance attributable to the *Scmv2* region is influenced by the stage of plant development, because this QTL was not detected at VIR1 in cross D145 × D32 and likewise at VIR3 and VIR4 in cross F7 × FAP1360A. The latter also suggests that the resistance alleles in the *Scmv2* region differ in both crosses. This is agreement with Xu et al. (2000) and Quint et al. (2002a), who identified different marker haplotypes and RGA alleles in the three resistant lines FAP1360A, D32, and D21. However, it is unclear for the *Scmv2* region whether there is allelic variation for one single resistance gene or also a cluster of tightly linked genes.

**Clustering of resistance genes in the *Scmv1* and *Scmv2* regions**

Resistance genes conferring resistance to different pathogens are often clustered in the same chromosome regions of the maize genome (McMullen and Simcox 1995). For instance, chromosome 6S includes resistance genes for SCMV, MDMV, WSMV, high plains virus, rice bacterial streak, sorghum bacterial stripe, and southern corn leaf blight. Likewise, the cluster on chromosome 3L contains genes conferring resistance to SCMV,
WSMV, high plains virus, maize mosaic virus, and maize chlorotic dwarf virus (Quint et al. 2000). Close linkage of different resistance genes seems more likely than pleiotropy for resistance to different pathogens in cross F7 × FAP1360A (Xu et al. 1999). In fact, Lübberstedt et al. (1999) suggested the presence of closely linked major genes for SCMV resistance because some susceptible plants were found in F2 populations when testing for allelism between the three European resistant inbreds FAP1360A, D32, and D21. Moreover, field experiments, BSA (Xu et al. 1999), and QTL analyses (Xia et al. 1999, Dußle et al. 2000) do not exclude the presence of more than one SCMV resistance gene in the Scmv1 region. Our results from QTL analyses in cross F7 × FAP1360A support the hypothesis of closely linked but different major resistance genes in the Scmv1 region. Cloning the SCMV resistance genes is necessary to resolve the question of whether they each harbor a single locus or clusters of resistance loci and whether the genes present at these loci in the resistant inbreds D32 and FAP1360A are identical or not. However, clustered target loci will complicate map-based gene isolation.

Quint et al. (2002a) suggested that pic19 is a candidate for Scmv1, although the authors could not distinguish between close linkage and identity of pic19 and Scmv1. In the present study, pic19 was mapped between SSR markers umc1143 and phi126, outside the Scmv1 region (Fig. 1C). Hence, pic19 seems to be no candidate for Scmv1 based on its map position reported here. However, Quint et al. (2002b) argued that pic19 might have been mapped as a single-copy ‘ghost’ marker analogous to ‘ghost’ QTL due to the high sequence similarity of the linked pic19 homologues, which can result in a wrong map position. Therefore, pic19 homologues should not be excluded as candidates for Scmv1a or Scmv1b without further investigations.

Acknowledgements The present study was supported by a grant from the Deutsche Forschungsgemeinschaft, Grant No. LU601/2. The financial support to Mr. L. Yuan from German Ministry of Agriculture is gratefully acknowledged. We also thank Nadine Burkarth for her support in the SSR analyses.
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**Fig. 1 A, B:** The genetic maps obtained by linkage analysis of 118 F₃ lines of cross F7 × FAP1360A with 24 SSR markers. **A:** Centromere region of chromosome 3 harboring *Scmv2*. **B:** Short arm of chromosome 6 harboring the *Scmv1* region (*Scmv1a* and *Scmv1b*). *y* = RGA-CAPS marker pic19; *x* = dominant markers; *z* = genotype frequencies deviated significantly from the Mendelian expectation (1:2:1); *v* = four markers used in the previous study by Dußle et al. (2000). **C, D:** The genetic maps obtained by joint linkage analyses of the BC1, BC5, BC7, and BC9 populations of cross F7 × FAP1360A with 25 SSR markers and 34 AFLP markers (AFLP markers not shown) (Dußle et al. 2002). **C:** Centromere region of chromosome 3 harboring *Scmv2*. **D:** Short arm of chromosome 6 harboring the *Scmv1* region.
Fig. 2: QTL likelihood maps showing the LOD scores on chromosome 3 *(Scmv2)* and chromosome 6 *(Scmv1)* at various scoring dates (VIR1, VIR3, VIR5, VIR7). A LOD threshold of 3.0 was chosen for declaring a putative QTL significant.
Table 1: Parameters associated with putative quantitative trait loci (QTL) significantly affecting resistance to SCMV in 118 F₂₃ lines of maize population F7×FAP1360A at various scoring dates (VIR1 to VIR7).

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*, ** = Significant at the 0.05 and 0.01 probability level, respectively. ns = no significant.

¹ QTL position based on the linkage map (Fig. 1)
² a = Additive effect and d = dominance effect of QTL. R² estimates the phenotypic variance (%) explained by detected QTL. Total R² refers to the simultaneous fit of all putative QTL affecting the respective trait using a model with additive and dominance effects. a × E and d × E = Interaction between QTL and environment for the a and d effect, respectively.
³ Scoring of SCMV symptoms at scoring dates VIR1 to VIR7.
Abstract Quantitative trait loci (QTLs) and bulked segregant analyses (BSA) identified the major genes Scmv1 on chromosome 6 and Scmv2 on chromosome 3, conferring resistance against sugarcane mosaic virus (SCMV) in maize. Both chromosome regions were further enriched for SSR and AFLP markers by targeted bulked segregant analysis (tBSA) in order to identify and map only markers closely linked to either Scmv1 or Scmv2. For identification of markers closely linked to the target genes, symptomless individuals of advanced backcross generations BC5 to BC9 were employed. All AFLP markers, identified by tBSA using 400 EcoRI/MseI primer combinations, mapped within both targeted marker intervals. Fourteen SSR and six AFLP markers mapped to the Scmv1 region. Eleven SSR and 18 AFLP markers were located in the Scmv2 region. Whereas the linear order of SSR markers and the window size for the Scmv2 region fitted well with publicly available genetic maps, map distances and window size differed substantially for the Scmv1 region on chromosome 6. A possible explanation for the observed discrepancies is the presence of two closely linked resistance genes in the Scmv1 region.

Keywords AFLP · Fine mapping · Maize · SSR · Sugarcane mosaic virus · Targeted BSA

Introduction
Sugarcane mosaic virus (SCMV) is an important pathogen of maize (Zea mays L.) in Europe, causing yield losses in susceptible cultivars (Fuchs and Grüntzig 1995). It is transmitted by aphids in a non-persistent manner. Since the use of insecticides for control of the aphid vectors is ineffective, cultivation of resistant maize varieties is the only way to control SCMV.

Kuntze et al. (1997) identified three dent inbreds (D21, D32 and FAP1360A) displaying complete resistance to SCMV and maize dwarf mosaic virus (MDMV) under both field and greenhouse conditions in early maturing germplasm. Segregation and QTL analyses uncovered two genomic regions on chromosomes 6S and 3L with major effects on SCMV resistance in two independent populations. This led to the assumption of one major resistance gene in each region: Scmv1 on chromosome 6 and Scmv2 on chromosome 3 (Melchinger et al. 1998; Xia et al. 1999; Dußle et al. 2000).

Xu et al. (1999) applied 54 AFLP primer combinations in a bulked segregant analysis (BSA) and identified 23 markers clustering in either of both regions on chromosomes 3 and 6, confirming oligogenic inheritance of SCMV resistance in cross F7 × FAP1360A. This was also in agreement with studies demonstrating that BSA can be applied to oligogenic inherited traits (Chagué et al. 1997). Bulked segregant analysis (BSA) has been proven to be very effective for identification of closely linked markers in target regions (Michelmore et al. 1991), especially if combined with AFLPs (Ballvora et al. 1995; Thomas et al. 1995; Cervera et al. 1996). However, if hundreds or thousands of AFLP primer combinations are employed, a large number of markers are identified and must subsequently be mapped to determine their position relative to target genes. Therefore, we applied a new targeted BSA (tBSA) approach to select AFLP markers within a narrow genetic window surrounding the target genes.
The objectives of our study were to: (1) saturate the SCMV resistance regions surrounding the Scmv1 (chromosome 6) and Scmv2 (chromosome 3) regions with AFLP and SSR markers, and (2) perform fine-scale mapping of SCMV resistance genes relative to the SSR and AFLP markers.

**Materials and methods**

Plant materials, SCMV inoculation and scoring

In order to reduce the size of donor segments of symptomless individuals employed in tBSA, advanced backcross generations (BCi, i = 5 to 9) were produced. The early maturing European maize inbreds, FAP1360A, resistant to SCMV, and F7, highly susceptible to SCMV (Kuntze et al. 1997), were crossed to produce the F1 generation and were then backcrossed nine times to F7 with two generations per year. SCMV evaluation was performed during the summer seasons at Hohenheim in 1995, 1996, 1997, 1998 and 1999 in the generations BC1 (backcross 1), BC3, BC5, BC7 and BC9, respectively. BCi individuals without SCMV symptoms were employed to produce BC2, BC4, BC6 and BC8 seeds, which were randomly chosen to produce the next BC generation in the winter nursery. BC6, BC8 and BC9 families were planted and again evaluated during the summer of 2000. In order to identify escapes (i.e. symptomless but genetically susceptible BCi plants) and exclude these false positives from mapping, BCi-S1 families, produced by self-fertilizing symptomless BCi individuals, were planted and inoculated at Hohenheim 2000 (see Table 1).

All families were planted in a randomized block design with one-row-plots of 25 plants in two replications. BCi plants as well as BCi-S1 families were artificially inoculated with SCMV at the three- to four-leaf stage twice at a 1-week interval by the air brush technique described by Fuchs et al. (1996). First, scoring of mosaic symptoms was conducted 2 weeks after initial inoculation. Virus symptoms were recorded in weekly intervals at seven dates in years 1995 to 1998. In 1999 and 2000, symptoms were recorded at four dates in 2-week intervals. In addition, BC1 plants were grown in the greenhouse in 1997 to produce plant materials unscreened for SCMV resistance. Two BC1 individuals, BC1-1 and BC1-2, were employed for chromosome assignment of AFLP markers putatively linked to SCMV resistance genes.

Leaf collection and DNA extraction

Leaf material was harvested individually at flowering time after SCMV symptoms were fully developed. Harvested leaves were freeze-dried and ground to a powder. DNA extraction was performed according to the CTAB method (Hoisington et al. 1994) with one additional purification step using chloroform/isooamylalcohol to obtain high quality DNA.

SSR analyses

A total of 81 simple-sequence repeat (SSR) markers mapping to the short arm of chromosome 6 (Bin 6.00 and 6.01, http://www.agron.missouri.edu/ssr.html) and near the centromere region of chromosome 3 (Bin 3.04 and 3.05, http://www.agron.missouri.edu/ssr.html) were chosen to screen the parental lines FAP1360A and F7 for polymorphism. SSR markers polymorphic between the parental lines FAP1360A and F7 were employed in assays of the BC5, BC7 and BC9 individuals chosen for tBSA. Sequences of all SSR markers were obtained from the maize database (http://www.agron.missouri.edu/ssr.html) and synthesized by Metabion (München, Germany). PCR amplification and MetaPhor gel-electrophoresis were performed as described by Lübbenstedt et al. (1998).

**AFLP analyses**

We followed the AFLP protocol by Vos et al. (1995) with minor modifications. Genomic DNA (250 ng) was restricted with 2.5 units of EcoRI and MseI at 37 °C for 3 h according to the manufacturers’ instructions (Gibco BRL, Life Technologies). After complete digestion, 5 pmol of the EcoRI adapter (5′-CTCGTAGACTGTAGTCCCTG-3′), 3′-CATCGTCCGACGGTATAA-5′), 50 pmol of the MseI adapter (5′-GAGCGTAGATCCTGGAG-3′; 3′-TACCTAGGACTCTAT-5′) (Zabeau and Vos 1993), 1 unit of T4 DNA ligase and 1 × ligation buffer (Gibco BRL, Life Technologies) were added and the mixture incubated for 2 h at 23 °C. Pre-amplification was performed with EcoRI and MseI primers each having one selective nucleotide. The 25-µl pre-amplification reaction was conducted with 10 pmol of EcoRI (5′-GA-CTCGTAGACCGACTGTTA-3′) and MseI (5′-GAGCGTAGATCCTGGAG-TGA+A+N-3′) single-nucleotide primers, 5 µl of 1:10-diluted ligated DNA, 1 unit of Taq polymerase, 10 × PCR-buffer and 0.2 mM of dNTPs (Amersham Pharmacia Biotech, Freiburg, Germany). Pre-amplification PCR-cycle profiles were performed as described by Vos et al. (1995) with a final extension cycle at 72 °C. The EcoRI primers were end-labeled with γ32P-ATP for the selective amplification of the restricted fragments. Five microliters of a 1:50-diluted pre-amplified DNA was selectively amplified in a 20-µl reaction using 1 pmol of EcoRI and 10 pmol of MseI primers with three selective nucleotides, 1 unit of Tag DNA polymerase, 10 × PCR buffer and 0.2 mM of dNTPs using the PCR-cycle procedure described by Vos et al. (1995). AFLP markers were named according to the standard list for AFLP primer nomenclature (Keygene, The Netherlands, http://wheat.pw.usda.gov/npgepages/keygene/AFLPs.html).

Targeted bulked segregant analysis (tBSA) and mapping

AFLP analyses for tBSA were conducted in four successive steps (2002) (Fig. 1). The symptomless BC7 individual 7R-7 was selected for Step 1 due to short donor regions in both target regions including Scmv1 and Scmv2 (Fig.1, Step 1). The resistant parent FAP1360A was included as a control in Step 1. Step 2 was included to analyze these linked AFLP bands with BC1 individuals, known to carry the donor segments for either the chromosome 3 (BC1-1) or the chromosome 6 (BC1-2) region (Fig.1, Step 2). Based on the AFLP and SSR markers identified by BSA (Xu et al. 1999) all donor alleles were present on chromosome 3 but absent on chromosome 6 for BC1-1, and vice versa for BC1-2. Consequently, BC1-1 and BC1-2 allowed assignment of AFLP markers to the Scmv1 or the Scmv2, or none of both regions.

All symptomless BC7 individuals were selected with the flanking SSR markers phi029 and phi073 on chromosome 3, and phi126 and phi077 on chromosome 6, according to the genetic map of Xu et al. (1999). Due to the iterative process of tBSA, symptomless BC8 and BC9 individuals were evaluated with SSR markers closer linked to the target genes than the SSR markers employed for BC7 individuals. BC9 individuals were selected with the SSR markers bmc1600 (distal to Scmv1), phi126 (proximal to Scmv1) and bmc1432 (cosegregating with Scmv1 in the symptomless BC5 individuals) for chromosome 6. The donor region for chromosome 3 was evaluated with SSR markers bnlg420 (distal to Scmv2), bmc1113, bmc1035 (proximal to Scmv2) and bmc1456 (cosegregating with Scmv2 in the symptomless BC5 individuals). AFLP bands identified in Step 1 and 2 were analyzed with two different DNA pools for each target region consisting of symptomless BC1 individuals (Fig.1, Step 3). Pool A contained symptomless BC5 to BC9 individuals with the donor allele present at the SSR locus closest linked proximal to the target gene but absent at the SSR marker distal to the target gene. Pool B consisted of symptomless BC1 individuals lacking the donor allele at the
proximal, but present at the distal SSR marker. Based on the results of the SSR analysis, 4, 10, 10 and 11 symptomless BC5 to BC9 individuals were selected for pools 3A, 3B, 6A and 6B, respectively. AFLP bands present in both pools for one chromosome were expected to be within the interval of both flanking SSR markers employed in Step 3. The individuals of pools 3A and 3B, or pools 6A and 6B, were individually genotyped in Step 4 of the tBSA for mapping (Fig. 2, 3).

Six AFLP markers (E32M62-1, E33M61-2, E38M47-1, E38M47-2, E38M47-3 and E38M47-4) previously mapped on chromosome 3, and three AFLP markers (E33M61-1, E35M62-1 and E38M60-2) previously identified on chromosome 6, in a BC5 population of F7 × FAP1360A (Xu et al. 1999) were mapped with the respective Step-4 individuals in order to join both linkage maps. Vice versa, all markers identified in the present study were additionally mapped in the BC5 population of cross F7 × FAP1360A previously employed by Xu et al. (1999).

Statistical analyses

Fine-scale mapping of SCMV resistance genes was done using the software Cri-Map (Green et al. 1990), taking into account the meiotic interdependence of progenies and ancestors within a population of BC individuals from different generations. Based on the results of segregation analysis (Melchinger et al. 1998), QTL analysis (Dußle et al. 2000) and BSA (Xu et al. 1999), a gene model with two complementary dominant genes was assumed for the present study. Map distances were calculated using the mapping function of Kosambi (1944). Graphical genotyping of individuals of Pool6A and 6B was conducted with GGT software (Van Berloo 1999).
Results

Evaluation of SCMV resistance in field trials

The infection level of the susceptible parent F7 in 1998 (100% susceptible individuals) and 2000 (100% susceptible individuals) was higher than in 1999 (95% susceptible individuals). In 2000, an average of 1.8% of the resistant FAP1360 individuals were infected, whereas in 1995 to 1999 all plants of the resistant parent FAP1360A remained symptomless. In addition, the 27 segregating BC6 families of symptomless BC5 individuals, evaluated in 1998 and 1999, showed a smaller proportion of symptomless individuals in 1998 (2%) than in 1999 (8%).

The mean proportion of symptomless individuals within a segregating BC family was 10.4%, calculated over BC generations BC6 to BC9, and ranged from 6.9% to 15.4% (Table 1). The proportion of symptomless individuals within the 17 segregating BC7-S1 families was 40.0%, varying from 32.0% to 47.8% (Table 1). Eight of the 80 BC6-S1, BC8-S1 and BC9-S1 families were completely SCMV susceptible in 2000 (Table 1). In addition, 13 BC6 families of symptomless BC5 individuals employed for mapping by Xu et al. (1999) were completely susceptible, as well as BC8 families from two symptomless BC7 genotypes. Consequently, these symptomless BCi individuals with fully susceptible BCi or BCi-S1 progenies were excluded for Steps 3 and 4 of tBSA.

Identification of polymorphic SSR markers linked to SCMV resistance genes

Out of 81 SSR markers (41 SSRs for chromosome 3, 40 SSRs for chromosome 6) screened for the susceptible parent F7 and the resistant parent FAP1360A, 25 SSR markers were polymorphic: bmc1432, bmc1433, bmc1600, bmc1867, bmc2097, bnlg107, bnlg161, bnlg238, bnlg391, phi077, phi126, umc1143, umc1229 and umc1753, on the short arm of chromosome 6; bmc1035, bmc1113, bmc1456, bmc1638, bnlg420, phi053, umc1025, umc1030, umc1102, umc1300 and umc1351, from the centromere region of chromosome 3. These SSR markers were included in the genetic map (Fig. 4).

Identification of AFLP markers putatively linked to SCMV resistance genes

About 12% of the 456 AFLP primer combinations did not amplify any band in one of the two individuals analyzed in Step 1 because of technical problems such as primer labeling. These 56 AFLP primer combinations were not repeated. On average, 36 AFLP bands were reliably scored for each of the other 400 AFLP primer combinations. In total, 5,600 AFLP bands were polymorphic between the resistant parent FAP1360A and the susceptible parent F7. A total of 3,008 polymorphic bands
originated from the susceptible parent F7 and 2,592 bands originated from the resistant parent FAP1360A.

In Step 1 of the tBSA, 49 of 400 AFLP primer combinations identified 56 marker bands present in the symptomless BC7 plant 7R-7, but were absent in the susceptible parent F7. Fifteen of the 56 polymorphic AFLP bands, revealed bands in both BC1 individuals BC1-1 and BC1-2 for Step 2 of the tBSA. Out of the remaining 41 AFLP bands, polymorphic between BC1-1 and BC1-2, 15 were present only in BC1-1 (donor region on chromosome 6) and 26 only in BC1-2 (donor region on chromosome 3). For chromosome 3, 18 AFLP bands were identified in pool 3A as well as in pool 3B, whereas eight AFLP bands were present in only one of the two pools (Table 2). For chromosome 3, six AFLP markers were present in both pools 6A and 6B. Nine AFLP bands were identified in either pool 6A or 6B. In total, 24 AFLP bands and 13 SSR markers were found to be located within the flanking SSR marker intervals employed by tBSA (Fig. 4).

Fine-scale mapping of Scmv1 and Scmv2 with SSR and AFLP markers

All markers identified with the BCi individuals of cross F7 × FAP1360A for the chromosome-6 region mapped originated from the susceptible parent F7 and 2,592 bands originated from the resistant parent FAP1360A.

Table 1 Different backcross (BCi) and self-fertilized backcross (BCi-S1) families of cross F7 × FAP1360A evaluated for sugarcane mosaic virus (SCMV) disease symptoms during the summer seasons 1997 to 2000

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Generation</th>
<th>Number of symptomless ancestor individuals</th>
<th>Number of planted families</th>
<th>Number of segregating families</th>
<th>Proportion of segregating families (%)</th>
<th>Total number symptomless of</th>
<th>Mean proportion of symptomless individuals within a segregating family (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1997</td>
<td>BC5</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>BC3</td>
<td>75a</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>26.6</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1998</td>
<td>BC7</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>BC5</td>
<td>130a</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>11.5</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1999</td>
<td>BC6</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>BC5</td>
<td>37b</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>70.2</td>
<td>79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>BC8</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>BC7</td>
<td>13b</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>84.0</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>BC9</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>BC7</td>
<td>27</td>
<td></td>
<td>27.2</td>
<td>104</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>BC7-S1</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>BC5</td>
<td>17b,e</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>174</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>BC6-S1</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>BC5</td>
<td>37b</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>91.9</td>
<td>252</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>BC8-S1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>BC7</td>
<td>8b</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>75.0</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>BC9-S1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>BC7</td>
<td>35b</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>91.4</td>
<td>231</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a Families of unselected BC individuals
b Families of symptomless BC individuals
c Weighted average of segregating families
d Weighted average of symptomless individuals within a segregating family
e No of seedlings available for nine BC7-S1 families tracing back to a symptomless BC7 individual

Fig. 4 High-resolution maps of chromosome regions harboring the SCMV resistance genes Scmv1 and Scmv2. Left: centromere region of chromosome 3 harboring Scmv2. Right: short arm of chromosome 6 harboring Scmv1. The maps were generated by joint linkage analyses of the BC1, BC5, BC7, and BC9 populations of cross FAP1360A × F7 with 25 SSR and 34 AFLP markers. SSR markers are indicated by lowercase italics. a = SSR markers used for preselection of symptomless BC7 individuals, b = SSR markers used for preselection of symptomless BC9 individuals, c = AFLP markers previously mapped with 27 symptomless BC5 individuals (Xu et al. 1999), 1, 2, 3 = Scmv1a, Scmv1b and Scmv2 identified by QTL analysis (Yuan et al. 2002)
Table 2 AFLP primer combinations mapped in step 4 of the tBSA, identifying marker bands tightly linked to either Scmv1 (chromosome 6) or Scmv2 (chromosome 3)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Chromosome 3</th>
<th>Chromosome 6</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Marker</td>
<td>EcoRI</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E38M51</td>
<td>ACT</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E33M52</td>
<td>AAG</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E94M53</td>
<td>TTT</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E82M57</td>
<td>TAT</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E84M59</td>
<td>TCC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E82M59</td>
<td>TAT</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E34M58</td>
<td>AAT</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E80M49</td>
<td>TAC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E94M48</td>
<td>TTT</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E46M48</td>
<td>ATT</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E45M61</td>
<td>ATG</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E84M53</td>
<td>TCC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E86M61</td>
<td>TCT</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E88M62</td>
<td>TGC</td>
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<tr>
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<td>TCT</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E38M54</td>
<td>ACT</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E80M53</td>
<td>TAC</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[ \text{Select} \text{ive bases of the respective } \text{EcoRI and MseI AFLP primers} \]

in an interval of 93.2 cM flanked by the SSR markers umc2097 and umc1143 on the short arm of chromosome 6. All newly identified AFLP markers were located within the interval of the markers, phi077 and phi126, employed for pre-selection of symptomless BC7 individuals (Fig. 4). SSR markers bnlg238 and umc1229 restricted the donor region on chromosome 6 of BC7 individual 7R-7. Between both SSR markers, all SSR markers revealed the marker allele of the resistant parent. Markers assigned for the chromosome-3 region mapped in a 72.2-cM window between SSR markers umc1025 and umc420 near the centromere region of chromosome 3. The AFLP markers identified for the chromosome-3 region mapped into a window of 31.2 cM between the pre-selected markers bnlg420 and bmc1113.

Discussion

Selection of AFLP markers by tBSA

About 3% of the 2,592 polymorphic bands originating from FAP1360A were expected to map to the target regions, given a total genetic map length of the maize genome of about 1,600 cM (Helenjaris et al. 1988; Gardiner et al. 1993) and about 30 cM between SSR markers umc1030 and umc1102 (chromosome 3) and 15 cM between umc1143 and umc1229 (chromosome 6) for the donor regions, according to the intermated B73 × Mo17 (IBM) map (http://www.cafrn.missouri.edu/mmp/ibm-maps.htm). However, only 41 AFLP markers (1.6%) were located at either of both target regions in Step 2 of tBSA. One explanation is an inflated ratio of genetic versus physical map distance due to an increased level of recombination in both genome regions, which would result in the identification of a lower number of physically equidistant distributed AFLP markers. Gill et al. (1996) and Künzel et al. (2000), by detailed physical and genetic mapping studies of grass genomes supported the hypothesis that much of the meiotic recombination occurs in genes and most recombination events are restricted to few chromosome regions containing gene clusters. Putative resistance gene clusters harboring Scmv1 and Scmv2 might be gene-rich regions with increased recombination rates in the direct neighborhood of the centromere.

Another explanation is an unequal distribution of EcoRI/MseI AFLP markers across the maize genome (Castiglioni et al. 1999; Vuylsteke et al. 1999). Only a small number of EcoRI/MseI AFLP markers mapped to the respective regions above umc102 on chromosome 3 and above phi077 on chromosome 6 in two maize populations (Vuylsteke et al. 1999). This suggests an under-representation of EcoRI/MseI AFLP markers in the SCMV target regions. For comparison, out of 1,753 SSRs mapped in total (http://www.agron.missouri.edu/ssr.html), 131 SSRs mapped to Bin regions 3.04/05 and 6.00/01, harboring Scmv2 and Scmv1, respectively. Therefore, about 7% of all SSR markers mapped to about 5% of the total genetic map (http://www.agron.missouri.edu/maps.html). Consequently, the AFLP markers analyzed in the present study seem to be underrepresented in the Scmv1 and Scmv2 regions compared to the SSR markers.

Fifteen out of 2,600 polymorphic AFLP markers (0.6%) were present in both BC1 individuals of Step 2. Five of these bands were identified in the resistant bulk but not in the susceptible bulk and are, therefore, associated with SCMV resistance. These markers might be linked to a third locus apart from Scmv1 or Scmv2, not detected by Xu et al. (1999) because of the lower number of markers screened in their BSA study. Alternatively, these bands might be located on donor segments close to Scmv1 or Scmv2 shared by both Step-2 individuals. However, this is unlikely, because both BC1-1 and BC1-2 have been genotyped with 31 AFLP and SSR markers in the Scmv1 and the Scmv2 region prior to their selection as diagnostic genotypes. The other ten bands seem not to be involved in SCMV resistance. Since, on average, 0.4% of the genome derive from the donor in BC7 10, out of 2,600 might be attributable to residual heterozygosity.

By tBSA, fewer markers linked to the target genes were identified in Step 1 compared to conventional BSA (Xu et al. 1999). This was expected due to the short donor regions of the BC7 individual 7R-7 employed for marker identification in Step 1. Xu et al. (1999) identified 23 AFLP markers linked with either Scmv1 or Scmv2 analyzing 54 AFLP primer combinations. In contrast, only 24 markers with 400 primer combinations were uncovered in the present study. Whereas the bulks employed by Xu et al. (1999) spanned the whole region between distant SSR markers, the individual 7R-7 covered only about 43% of these donor regions. As shown in Fig. 3, the segments of pools 6A and 6B were overlap-
ping between markers E33M62 and umc1753, which spanned only 16.4 cM (17%) of the whole donor region analyzed by Xu et al. (1999). Pools 3A and B overlapped in a region of 19 cM (data not shown) and, therefore, only 26% of the donor region was analyzed by Xu et al. (1999). Consequently, only 1/5 of the number of markers identified by Xu et al. (1999) were expected in the present study. However, the number of 24 AFLP markers identified in the present study is 25% lower than expected. Compared to the study of Xu et al. (1999), who found up to four bands linked to the SCMV resistance genes for 7 of 11 primer combinations, only one primer combination revealed more than two specific bands in the present study. For BSA only those primer combinations were selected amplifying high quality results (Dr. Xu, personal communication), as recommended by the manufacturer (http://www.lifetech.com/Content/TechOnline/molecular_biology/manuals.pps). The primers of the present study were randomly chosen, which might explain the differences in the quantity of amplified bands with a single primer combination.

Comparing the number of 56 AFLP markers identified in Step 1 of tBSA to the number of 24 AFLP markers assigned to a genetic window around the target genes in Step 3, the number of markers, mapped individually in Step 4, were reduced by 60%. Since all AFLP markers identified by tBSA were mapped within the pre-selected SSR marker intervals, tBSA seems to enrich markers in the target regions while substantially reducing the subsequent mapping effort.

Comparison of linkage maps

A comparison of SSR marker distances in the present study and the inter-mated B73 × Mo17 map (IBM map, http://www.cafr.missouri.edu/mmp/ibmaps.htm) revealed a good fit of the SSR marker orders on chromosome 3. Map distances between SSR markers umc1030 and umc1102 were 39 cM (IBM) and 40.3 cM (Fig. 4). The order and map distances of SSR markers employed in tBSA were consistent with results of previous studies including an independent population of cross F7 × FAP1360A used for QTL mapping (Xu et al. 1999; Yuan et al. 2002). Therefore, the estimates of map positions and the distances of AFLPs in addition to SSR markers seem to be reliable for the chromosome-3 region.

In contrast, map distances between SSR markers bnlg161 and umc1229 on chromosome 6 spanned 13 cM (IBM) versus 56 cM in the present study, and 31 cM in the study of Yuan et al. (2002). Moreover, the genetic distance between SSR markers bmc1432 and umc1229 was three-times larger in the present study compared to the QTL study conducted for the same cross (Yuan et al. 2002). In addition, the distance between SSR markers umc1143 and bnlg161 spanned 2 cM in the IBM map, 8.5 cM in the present study and 24.5 cM in the QTL analysis of Yuan et al. (2002). Although marker orders were consistent for the Scmv1 region, map distances seem to be overestimated in the present study. Alternatively, because the QTL (Yuan et al. 2002) and the tBSA map spanned a similar map size, marker distances of the IBM map might be underestimated.

A possibility for the larger distances, at least in some subregions of chromosome 6, could be the presence of more than one SCMV resistance gene in the Scmv1 region. This would also explain the lack of clustering of AFLP markers identified in Steps 3 and 4 close to Scmv1. Yuan et al. (2002), in a companion QTL analysis of cross F7 × FAP1360A, identified two QTLs in the Scmv1 region, Scmv1a and Scmv1b, at four out of seven scoring dates. Assuming two QTLs were located in the target region on chromosome 6, both QTLs could: (1) interact complementary, i.e. both QTLs are simultaneously required to confer SCMV resistance, or (2) act redundantly, and each QTL confers a sufficient degree of resistance. In the first case, selection for symptomless individuals would act against single recombinations (but favor double cross-overs) between both resistance genes over BC generations. As a consequence, map distances would tend to be underestimated due to the lack of recombinants between resistance genes.

In the case of two linked QTLs, where one QTL is sufficient for resistance expression, symptomless BC1 individuals applied in Step 3 of tBSA would carry only one of both flanking SSR markers, and either one or both linked QTLs. Hence, the donor regions of some bulk 6A and 6B individuals would not overlap and, therefore, complicate the mapping of the hypothetical Scmv1 gene in Step 4. Because Cri-Map is not able to dissect two linked QTLs, instead of a single postulated Scmv1 gene, markers being recombinant between both linked QTLs would be mapped incorrectly and most-likely map distances would be inflated.

QTL analysis uncovered overdominant gene action for Scmv1a, whereas Scmv1b showed additive gene action (Yuan et al. 2002). Therefore, Scmv1a confers a higher degree of resistance in BC1 individuals than Scmv1b. The resistance allele of Scmv1a should be present in Step-3 individuals with a higher likelihood than Scmv1b. In contrast, Scmv1b should only be present in some of the individuals. As shown in Fig. 3 all individuals of pools 6A and 6B harbored the small overlapping region around Scmv1a between AFLP marker E33M61-1 and SSR marker bmc1432, explaining the low number of markers found in the Scmv1a region. Additionally, all 317 symptomless BC5 to BC9 individuals carried the small overlapping region for Scmv1a. Therefore, the presence of only one SCMV resistance gene on chromosome 6 and selection of the Scmv1b region by chance cannot be ruled out entirely. In contrast, only individuals of pool 6B should harbor the resistance marker alleles of the Scmv1b region. However, three pool-A individuals, which should not carry the Scmv1b region based on the selection of SSR markers, harbored the donor allele for AFLP marker E37M56 distal to Scmv1b due to a double-crossover. This might explain the clustering of AFLP markers in this region. Two of these three individuals
trace back to the same BC5 individual. Clear evidence of whether the Scmv1b region is present by selection or by chance is not possible because of the small number of individuals applied for tBSA. For 25% of 317 symptomless BC7 to BC9 individuals analyzed with the flanking SSR markers, the donor region below SSR marker bmc1600 was missing. Although Scmv1b seems to be redundant for SCMV resistance, individuals carrying this donor region are likely to have favored expression of resistance to SCMV compared to individuals lacking this donor region. Consequently, clustering of at least two SCMV resistance genes on chromosome 6 seems to be very likely.

Assessment of the gene model chosen for tBSA

Based on earlier studies (Melchinger et al. 1998; Xu et al. 1999; Dußle et al. 2000), the gene model underlying the SCMV resistance in cross F7 × FAP1360A was assumed to involve two dominant, independently inherited, complementary acting resistance genes, Scmv1 and Scmv2. According to this gene model a proportion of the 25% segregating families, as well as symptomless individuals within the segregating families, was expected for all BCi generations. The proportion of segregating families in generations BC7 and BC8 fitted well with the expected values. In contrast, in the case of two linked redundant genes on chromosome 6 and one complementary resistance gene on chromosome 3, the proportion of resistant individuals within a segregating BCi family is expected to be 37%. However, proportions of symptomless plants within and among segregating families in all other generations was generally below 25%. These results could be due to the threshold character of the SCMV resistance, incomplete penetrance, environmental effects or due to selection of an incorrect genetic model. Melchinger et al. (1998) found a varying proportion of susceptible individuals in the heterozygous F1 generation of cross F7 × FAP1360A under field and greenhouse conditions. In the present study, six BC6 families with no symptomless individuals in 1998 showed a mean proportion of 22% symptomless individuals in 1999. Furthermore, no symptomless individuals were found in the BC8 families tracing back to symptomless BC7 individuals 7R-15 and 7R-16. In contrast, self-fertilization of 7R-15 and 7R-16 individuals revealed segregating BC7-S1 families with 40% symptomless individuals. These results indicated that incomplete penetrance affects heterozygous more than homozygous individuals. Therefore, evaluation of the progenies of the symptomless individuals is essential to assure the presence of the target regions and exclude false-positive individuals from further analysis. However, misclassification of symptomless BCi individuals in years with a high infection level seems to be very unlikely, because heterozygous individuals are much more affected by incomplete penetrance than homozygous ones. In conclusion, incomplete penetrance or environmental effects explain well the small proportion of symptomless individuals within the BCi and BCi-S1 generations and obscures the derivation of a genetic model for inheritance of SCMV resistance from segregation data alone.

The question of whether (1) the Scmv1 region contains only one or more resistance genes against SCMV, and (2) the Scmv1 and the Scmv2 regions each harbor only a single locus or clusters of resistance loci against different viruses and other pathogens, can only be solved by cloning of these genes. Cloning of the Scmv1 region has been complicated because of the putative presence of two resistance genes in this region and the resulting difficulties in mapping the markers closely linked to one of the two resistance genes in that target region. Identification of recombinants between both QTLs is necessary to analyze them independently. In contrast, markers identified for the Scmv2 region seem to be suitable for MAS and map-based cloning.

Acknowledgements The present study was supported by grants from the Deutsche Forschungsgemeinschaft, Grant No. LU601/2-3. We thank Susanne Dreisigacker, Sebastian Haesler and Nadine Burkhardt for their support with the SSR analyses. The skilled technical assistance of Franz Mauch and Astrid Karg in conducting the field trials is gratefully acknowledged.

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Hoisington DA, Khairallah MM, Gonzales-de Leon D (1994) Laboratory protocols: CIMMYT Applied Molecular Genetics Laboratory, CIMMYT, Mexico, DF


Abstract
In a previous study, bulked segregant analysis with amplified fragment length polymorphisms (AFLPs) identified several markers closely linked to the sugarcane mosaic virus resistance genes \textit{Scmv1} on chromosome 6 and \textit{Scmv2} on chromosome 3. Six AFLP markers (E33M61-2, E33M52, E38M51, E82M57, E84M59 and E93M53) were located on chromosome 3 and two markers (E33M61-1 and E35M62-1) on chromosome 6. Our objective in the present study was to sequence the respective AFLP bands in order to convert these dominant markers into more simple and reliable polymerase chain reaction (PCR)-based sequence-tagged site markers. Six AFLP markers resulted either in complete identical sequences between the six inbreds investigated in this study or revealed single nucleotide polymorphisms within the inbred lines and were, therefore, not converted. One dominant AFLP marker (E35M62-1) was converted into an insertion/deletion (indel) marker and a second AFLP marker (E33M61-2) into a cleaved amplified polymorphic sequence marker. Mapping of both converted PCR-based markers confirmed their localization to the same chromosome region (E33M61-2 on chromosome 3; E35M62-1 on chromosome 6) as the original AFLP markers. Thus, these markers will be useful for marker-assisted selection and facilitate map-based cloning of SCMV resistance genes.

Keywords
AFLP · CAPS · Indel marker · Maize · Marker conversion · Sugarcane mosaic virus (SCMV)

Introduction
Sugarcane mosaic virus (SCMV) is one of the most important virus diseases of maize (\textit{Zea mays} L.) and causes serious yield losses in susceptible cultivars (Fuchs and Grüntzig 1995). It is naturally transmitted by aphids in a non-persistent manner, which makes control of SCMV vectors rather inefficient. Therefore, cultivation of resistant varieties is the most promising approach for controlling SCMV.

Kuntze et al. (1997) screened 122 early-maturing European inbred lines for resistance to SCMV and MDMV (maize dwarf mosaic virus) and identified three dent inbreds (D21, D32 and FAP1360A) displaying complete resistance under both field and greenhouse conditions. Two major genes, \textit{Scmv}1 and \textit{Scmv}2 (previously named \textit{Scm}1 and \textit{Scm}2), conferring resistance to SCMV were mapped to chromosome arms 6S and 3L, respectively, in cross D145 × D32 by quantitative trait loci (QTL) analysis (Xia et al. 1999) and in cross \textit{F7} × FAP1360A by bulked segregant analysis (BSA) (Xu et al. 1999) and QTL analysis (Dussle et al. 2000). As resistance against SCMV is strongly affected by environmental conditions (Melchinger et al. 1998), molecular markers turned out to be a good tool to determine the resistance genotype.

Identification of molecular markers closely linked to the SCMV resistance genes is an essential step towards both marker-assisted selection (MAS) and map-based cloning of these genes. Xu et al. (1999) identified 23 tightly linked amplified fragment length polymorphism (AFLP) markers for both major resistance genes by BSA: 11 markers linked to \textit{Scmv}2 on chromosome 3 and 12 linked to \textit{Scmv}1 on chromosome 6, including one AFLP marker cosegregating with \textit{Scmv}1.

Although the AFLP technique is powerful and reliable in identifying markers closely linked to genes of in-

Communicated by G. Wenzel

C.M. Dussle · M. Quint · M.L. Xu · A.E. Melchinger
T. Lübberstedt (✉)
Institute of Plant Breeding, Seed Science, and Population Genetics, University of Hohenheim, 70593 Stuttgart, Germany
e-mail: thomas.luebberstedt@agrsci.dk
Fax: +49-4558-113301

Present address:
M.L. Xu, College of Biosciences and Biotechnology, Yangzhou University, 225009, Yangzhou, PRC

Present address:
T. Lübberstedt, Danish Institute of Agricultural Sciences, Research Centre Flakkebjerg, 4200 Slagelse, Denmark
terest, it has some disadvantages for use in MAS and map-based cloning. Limitations to the large-scale, locus-specific application of AFLPs include their dominant type of inheritance, the intensity of labour involved, and the high costs. Hence, conversion of AFLP markers into sequence-specific polymerase chain reaction (PCR) markers is required for screening large breeding populations at low costs.

Sequence-specific PCR markers have been successfully developed by conversion of different marker types such as RFLPs, RAPDs and SSRs, (Bradshaw et al. 1994; Cheung et al. 1997; Jung et al. 1999). The conversion of AFLP markers into PCR-based markers has been accomplished for several species such as carrot (Bradeen and Simon 1998), brassica (Negi et al. 2000), asparagus (Reamon-Büttner et al. 2000), soybean (Meksem et al. 2001), apple (Xu et al. 2001), barley and wheat (Shan et al. 1999). However, the conversion of AFLP markers seems to be more difficult than the conversion of other marker types due to the loss of their sequence specificity after amplification of the AFLP-derived internal primers (Shan et al. 1999). Hence, AFLP polymorphisms related to EcoRI or MseI restriction site differences will not be reflected in primers from an internal sequence (Shan et al. 1999).

The objective of the study reported here was to sequence the respective AFLP bands linked to SCMV resistance genes in order to convert these dominant markers into either indel (insertion/deletion) or cleaved amplified polymorphic sequence (CAPS) markers. These AFLP markers were previously identified by BSA to be closely linked with Scmv1 on chromosome 6 (two markers) or Scmv2 on chromosome 3 (six markers). Our goal was to obtain codominant, simple PCR-based markers as a tool for marker-assisted selection as well as for map-based cloning of Scmv1 and Scmv2.

Materials and methods

Plant materials

Inbred lines used in this analysis were the SCMV-resistant European inbred lines FAP1360A, D21 and D32 and the highly susceptible lines F7, D408 and D145. The mapping population consisted of (1) a subset 87 F2:3 families derived from a cross between D32 and D145 previously used by Vuylsteke et al. (1999) to develop a high-density AFLP map (1,355 markers), and (2) 27 resistant BC3 individuals from the cross (F7 × FAP1360A) × F7.

Isolation and cloning of tightly linked AFLP markers

AFLP markers flanking Scmv1 (E35M61-2, E33M61-1) and Scmv2 (E33M61-2, E33M52, E38M51, E82M57, E84M59, E93M53) were identified in a BSA employing four DNA samples: both parental lines FAP1360A (resistant parent) and F7 (susceptible parent), as well as a resistant and a susceptible bulk (Xu et al. 1999). AFLP markers were named according to the standard list for AFLP primer nomenclature (Keygene, The Netherlands, http://wheat.pw.usda.gov/ggpages/keygene/AFLPs.html). AFLP primer pairs corresponding to the tightly linked AFLP markers were used to re-amplify the linked AFLP markers from resistant parent FAP1360A. The resulting bands were excised from the dried gel with a sharp, clean razor blade. The sliced DNA-containing gel was transferred into an Eppendorf tube, eluted twice with 200 µl TE (1 h each) and once with 200 µl ddH2O (2 h). The eluted gel was then mixed with 50 µl ddH2O and kept on boiling water for 5 min to release the DNA from the gel. After the gel debris was spun down, the DNA-containing supernatant was transferred into a new Eppendorf tube and used as template for the subsequent amplification.

For a given linked AFLP marker, the corresponding primer pair and the same reaction conditions as for the main amplification of AFLPs (Vos et al. 1995) were employed to re-amplify the isolated AFLP marker bands. Re-amplification products were excised from an agarose gel, extracted with Nucleospin Kit (Macherey & Nagel) and blunt-end cloned into the pBluescript vector.

Conversion of AFLP markers

After cloning, five white colonies from each transformation event were selected. Respective inserts were sequenced using the ALF-Express automated sequencer (Amersham Pharmacia, Freiburg). Sequencing reaction conditions were chosen following the manufacturer’s (Amersham Pharmacia) suggestions, and the DNA sequences were analysed using the ALIGNPLUS 2.0 software package (http://www.scied.com/ses_alim.htm). If the sequencing of these first five clones showed identity for at least three of the five clones, new primers internal to the AFLP selective primers were designed using the PRIMER1.02 programme (http://www.scied.com/ses_pd4.htm) (Table 1). Otherwise, additional five white clones were sequenced to receive a majority of identical sequences for one genotype. The internal primers synthesized for fragments corresponding to the AFLP markers were employed to amplify fragments from the inbred lines F7 and FAP1360A, which represent the parent lines of the mapping population for BSA. Internal primers of the three AFLP markers E33M61-1, E33M61-2 and E35M62-1 were additionally employed on the four inbred lines D21, D32 (SCMV resistant), and D145, D408 (susceptible) in order to evaluate the relationship between polymorphisms and SCMV resistance. The extension “STS” was added to the names of the AFLP marker after synthesizing the internal primers in order to distinguish AFLP markers and converted markers.

Sequenced tagged site (STS) markers that differed in length after amplification were used immediately as indel (insertion/deletion) markers. In the case of an identical sequence length, enzyme recognition sites were identified using the CLONE manager software package (http://www.scied.com/ses_cm6.htm). Sequence regions displaying single nucleotide differences in restriction enzyme recognition sites between parent lines of mapping populations were used to identify CAPS markers, which were separated on a 3% MetaPhor agarose gel in 0.5x TBE buffer.

Linkage and statistical analyses

Based on the segregation data, the STS markers were mapped to previously constructed genetic linkage maps (Xia et al. 1999; Xu et al. 1999). Marker orders and map distances for population D32 × D145 were calculated with MAPMAKER 3.0B (Lander et al. 1987) using a LOD threshold of 3.0 and the mapping function of Kosambi (1944). Marker orders and genetic distances for populations FAP1360A × F7 were calculated with CRIMAP 2.4 (Green et al. 1990) taking into account the meiotic interdependence of progenies and ancestors within a population of BC individuals from different generations.
Results

The polymorphic markers linked to SCMV resistance, obtained after AFLP analysis, were in the range of 200 bp to 300 bp. All sequenced AFLP fragments contained the EcoRI adapter on the one end and the MseI adapter on the other end. Five to ten clones obtained from inbred line FAP1360A were used to design primers for PCR amplification of genomic DNA (Table 1).

Following amplification using these PCR primers, no difference in sequence length was identified for any of the markers between inbred lines F7 and FAP1360A, with sequence lengths ranging from 146 bp for marker E38M51STS to 203 bp for marker E93M53STS. For the additionally analysed inbred lines (D21, D32, D145 and D408), markers E33M61-1STS and E33M61-2STS showed identical sequence length for all six inbred lines (195 bp and 152 bp, respectively). A 152-bp sequence was identified with marker E35M62-1STS for all of the inbred lines D32, D21, D145 and D408, markers E33M61-1STS and E33M61-2STS showed identical sequence length for all six inbred lines (195 bp and 152 bp, respectively). A 152-bp sequence was identified with marker E35M62-1STS for all of the inbred lines D32, D21 and D408 except D145 (160 bp). This polymorphism of 8 bp between the parents of cross D32 × D145 could be easily detected on a 3% MetaPhor agarose gel (Fig. 1). Genetic mapping was performed using 87 F3:2 families of cross D32 × D145, which located E35M62-1STS on maize chromosome 6S between markers phi075 and phi077 within the Scmv1 QTL region previously identified by Xia et al. (1999).

Six out of the eight markers showed identical sequences among the clones within each inbred line. In contrast, markers E33M61-1STS and E84M59STS resulted in single nucleotide differences between the clones within each inbred line. Single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) between inbred lines F7 and FAP1360A were found for the four markers E33M61-2STS, E35M62-1STS, E33M52STS and E84M59STS. Recognition sites for restriction enzymes could be found only for marker E33M61-2STS, resulting in a different number of recognition sites for the restriction enzyme MnlI (Fig. 2). For marker E33M61-2STS, MnlI cuts the fragments of FAP1360A (Fig. 2) and D408 four times. The fragments of inbred lines F7, D21, D32 and D145 were cut only three times with MnlI. Therefore, E33M61-2STS could be used as a CAPS marker (Fig. 3). Mapping of E33M61-2STS with the BC5 mapping population (FAP1360A × F7) confirmed the same segregation pattern with its corresponding AFLP marker E33M61-2 and its location 7.3 cM above Scmv2.

![Fig. 1](image)

**Fig. 1** Polymorphism in population D32 × D145 after conversion of AFLP primer E35M62-1 to the indel marker E35M62-1STS on a 1.5% agarose gel. Lanes: 1 Susceptible parent D145, 2 resistant parent D32, 3–7 genotypes of the mapping population (3, 5 homozygous; 4, 6, 7 heterozygous band pattern)
Four out of the eight investigated markers revealed no SNPs after pairwise comparison of the inbreds. Although only half of the analysed markers showed between one and eight SNPs per inbred pair, 2.1 SNPs were found per inbred pair on average, resulting in one SNP per 71 bp.

Analyses for stop codons identified continuous open reading frames for none of the sequences.

Discussion

In combination with BSA, AFLPs proved to be highly efficient for finding tightly linked molecular markers to the SCMV resistance genes Scmv1 and Scmv2 (Xu et al. 1999). However, AFLP markers are too costly and laborious for high-throughput monitoring of large numbers of genotypes. Hence, the conversion of AFLP markers closely linked to resistance genes is an important step to implement useful markers for MAS and map-based cloning, both of which require large population sizes of thousands of individuals. Marker conversion requires the characterization of the linked marker sequences and the design of locus-specific primers (Paran and Michelmore 1993). Reports on successful AFLP marker conversion are lacking so far in maize. With a size of 500–1500 bp, RAPD fragments are easier to convert to either sequence-characterised amplified region (SCAR) or CAPS markers than AFLP markers (Barret et al. 1998).

Although there are doubts in converting short fragments like AFLPs (Negi et al. 2000), we were able to convert two short AFLP bands (150–300 bp) into PCR-based indel and CAPS markers without using methods like inverse PCR or chromosome walking. In contrast to DeJong et al. (1997) and Negi et al. (2000), who applied either inverse PCR or PCR walking to isolate the flanking regions for conversion of indel markers, we found with E35M62-1STS a polymorphism that could be used directly as an indel marker in populations generated from cross of D32 and D145.

After sequencing five to ten clones for each STS marker, we obtained six markers with identical sequences over most of the clones originating from one inbred. For markers E33M61-1STS and E84M53STS, SNPs were also found within all inbred lines. In total, 8 out of 28 inbreds investigated with the eight markers revealed single nucleotide changes within the inbred lines. The small number of published reports on AFLP marker conversion might be due to similar findings. Because identical sequences for the several clones of one inbred line were found technical problems in sequencing could be ruled out. The probability of residual heterozygosity for the inbred lines is below 0.025% because they were self-fertilized for more than 12 generations. Taking into account that the independent inbred lines revealed the same SNP within these inbreds in every case, it seems very unlikely that these polymorphisms were caused by residual heterozygosity. If we accept, the hypothesis that maize is an ancient tetraploid species (Gaut and Doebley 1997), the whole region harbouring the SCMV resistance gene might be duplicated, even though located at different regions of the genome. Under these conditions the segregation ratio would shift from 1r:3s (1 resistant to 3 susceptible) under a two dominant gene model for BC plants to 1r:7s under a three gene model. Although Xu et al. (1999) found a better fit with a three dominant gene model for the segregation within 20 BC1.5 families of population F7 × FAP1360A segregating for SCMV resistance, the presence of additional SCMV resistance genes beside those on chromosomes 3 and 6 could not be confirmed for population F7 × FAP1360A. In contrast, mapping of the original AFLP markers did locate markers E33M61-1STS and E84M59STS exclusively to chromosomes 6 and 3, respectively.
Clusters of resistance genes originating from duplication during the evolution of maize may have led to slight sequence differences of paralogs, which may differ only in single nucleotides but not in total length. In mapping BAC clones of lettuce in order to analyze resistance gene clusters, Meyers et al. (1998) identified duplicates of AFLP markers in the same chromosome region. Genes conferring resistance to different pathogens are often clustered in the same chromosome region in the maize genome (McMullen and Simcox 1995). The fact that the AFLP markers corresponding to the converted STS markers mapped in the same regions previously reported to harbour clusters of resistance genes (McMullen et al. 1995) allows the assumption that the different marker sequences found within one inbred are linked to different resistance genes in the same chromosome region. The closer a marker is linked to a specific resistance gene, the higher might be the probability of being duplicated with the resistance gene during evolution. Hence, the occurrence of different sequences within one inbred line that map to the same chromosome region seems to be possible due to clustering. However, none of the sequenced AFLP fragments revealed any similarity to sequences known to be conserved within resistance genes.

The development of markers that can be easily handled is a prerequisite to the screening of large populations in order to clone the resistance genes Scmv1 and Scmv2. The converted CAPS and indel markers will be useful to identify recombination events close to Scmv1 and Scmv2. So far, it is unknown whether resistance genes cluster due to linkage or whether some of them are identical and display pleiotropy. In support of the existence of closely linked but different major resistance genes, Lübbertstedt et al. (1999) found some susceptible plants in an allelism test between the three European dent inbreds D21, D32 and FAP1360A. The converted, closely linked markers identified in the present study could be used as probes for BAC screening in order to solve the question of whether the Scmv1 and the Scmv2 regions each harbour only a single locus or clusters of resistance loci.

Rafalski et al. (2001) analysed random cDNA clones in a collection of over 30 maize lines representative for the North American corn germplasm. Their analysis was restricted to coding regions. Sequence alignment revealed one SNP per 70 bp among the 30 lines. The authors emphasized that pairwise comparison between any two lines reveals a lower degree of polymorphism. In similar experiments, Useche et al. (2001) detected one SNP per 49 bp, although in non-coding regions. The low number of one SNP per 71 bp found in our study might be due to the pairwise sequence comparison in contrast to the sequence alignment of a large number of inbreds analysed by the previous authors. Taking into account that only four out of the eight converted AFLP markers showed polymorphism between inbred lines, it seems very likely that extending the fragment size by inverse PCR would increase the number of polymorphic STS-primers.

The CAPS marker E33M61-2STS turned out to be dominant in the mapping population. The polymorphism resulted in the presence of an additional band in the resistant parent FAP1360A that was absent in the susceptible parent F7 (Fig. 3). As in this mapping population the individuals were either homozygous for the susceptible parent allele or heterozygous, mapping with our mapping population of 27 resistant BC3 individuals was not affected. However, even in this dominant case, CAPS markers are easier to apply than the original AFLP markers. In contrast to the AFLP markers, the converted markers do not require purified, high-molecular-weight DNA. Consequently, the application of simple STS markers enables a faster DNA isolation for a high number of individuals required for fine mapping. Additionally, the polymorphisms revealed by STS markers could be separated by an agarose gel, where no radioactivity is required to visualize the results. Compared to the analyses of AFLP markers in which polyacrylamide gels and radioactivity are used, the application of STS markers can reduce costs to about 20%.

The quality of a marker used for MAS depends on its predictive and/or diagnostic value (Borchardt and Weissleder 2000). Whereas the predictive value of a marker is determined by the inheritance of the marker and the linkage between marker and trait, the diagnostic value can be measured as the frequency of the desired linkage phase between marker and trait. Taking into account that resistant individuals of different populations harbour different resistance alleles of the same gene, cosegregation of these markers with the resistance trait in each population (F7 × FAP1360A, D32 × D145, D21 × D408) is not consequently preconditioned. By analysing inbred lines showing resistance, partial resistance and susceptibility to SCMV, Xu et al. (2000) suggested a single common ancestor for the resistance gene Scmv1. In the present study, no marker allele identical for all resistant or susceptible genotypes was identified. Therefore, the diagnostic value of these markers seems to be low. In the case of a low diagnostic value, the allelic phase of a marker has to be checked in each cross before it can be used in MAS (Borchardt and Weissleder 2000). A reason for the lack of resistance-allele-specific, cosegregating markers could be the presence of more than one SCMV resistance gene in the Scmv1 region. Field experiments, BSA (Xu et al. 1999), and QTL analyses (Xia et al. 1999; Dussle et al. 2000) did not preclude the presence of more than one gene in the Scmv1 region. Since different ancestors were expected for Scmv2 (Dussle et al. 2000; Xu et al. 2000) and, therefore, different SCMV resistance genes within the Scmv2 region, it was not possible to develop one single resistance-allele-specific marker for Scmv2.

Acknowledgements The present study was supported by a grant from the Deutsche Forschungsgemeinschaft, Grant No. LU601/2. The authors gratefully acknowledge the skilled technical assistance of Elisabeth Kokai-Kota.
Abstract

Three previously published resistance gene analogues (RGAs), pic13, pic21 and pic19, were mapped in relation to sugarcane mosaic virus (SCMV) resistance genes (Scmv1, Scmv2) in maize. We cloned these RGAs from six inbreds including three SCMV-resistant lines (D21, D32, FAP1360A) and three SCMV-susceptible lines (D145, D408, F7). Pairwise sequence alignments among the six inbreds revealed a frequency of one single nucleotide polymorphism (SNP) per 33 bp for the three RGAs, indicating a high degree of polymorphism and a high probability of success in converting RGAs into co-dominant cleaved amplified polymorphic sequence (CAPS) markers compared to other sequences. SNPs were used to develop CAPS markers for mapping of the three RGAs in relation to Scmv1 (chromosome 6) and Scmv2 (chromosome 3), and for pedigree analyses of resistant inbred lines. By genetic mapping pic21 was shown to be different from Scmv2, whereas pic19 and pic13 are still candidates for Scmv1 and Scmv2, respectively, due to genetic mapping and consistent restriction patterns of ancestral lines.

Keywords  RGA · SNP · CAPS · SCMV · Maize

Introduction

Sugarcane mosaic virus (SCMV) is one of the most important virus diseases of maize and causes serious yield losses in susceptible cultivars (Fuchs and Grünzig 1995). Owing to the non-persistent transmission, control of aphid vectors by chemical means is not effective and, therefore, cultivation of resistant maize varieties is the most efficient method of virus control. In a study with 122 early maturing European maize inbreds, three lines (FAP1360A, D21 and D32) displayed complete resistance and four lines displayed partial resistance (FAP1396A, D06, D09 and R2306) against SCMV and maize dwarf mosaic virus (MDMV) (Kuntze et al. 1997). In field trials, resistance of all three European lines D21, D32 and FAP1360A seemed to be controlled by one to three genes (Melchinger et al. 1998). Linkage mapping and ‘bulked segregant analysis’ (BSA) mapped two major genes, Scmv1 on the short arm of chromosome 6 and Scmv2 near the centromere of chromosome 3 (Melchinger et al. 1998; Xia et al. 1999; Xu et al. 1999; Dußle et al. 2000). Minor quantitative trait loci (QTLs) affecting SCMV resistance were identified on chromosomes 1, 5, and 10 (Xia et al. 1999). For full resistance to SCMV, the presence of both Scmv1 and Scmv2 is essential. Scmv1 suppresses symptom expression throughout all developmental growth stages at a high level, whereas Scmv2 was expressed at later stages of infection (Xia et al. 1999; Dußle et al. 2000).

With the cloning of a number of disease resistance genes (R genes) from several plant species, it became obvious that these R genes share homologies in protein domains such as the nucleotide-binding site (NBS) and leucine-rich repeats (LRRs) (reviewed in Bent 1996; reviewed in Hammond-Kosack and Jones 1996). Degenerate primers based on the amino-acid sequence of these domains have meanwhile allowed successful PCR amplification of several RGAs from various plant species with significant homology to known plant disease R genes. Collins et al. (1998) identified 20 RGA loci in maize, which mapped preferentially to chromosomal regions...
known to carry R genes (McMullen and Simcox 1995). These RGAs can be further analysed for their potential use in marker-assisted selection (MAS) or even the cloning of target genes. The latter approach has been successfully used in maize to clone the Rp1-D gene, a member of the complex locus composed of approximately nine gene homologues, conferring resistance to common rust, *Puccinia sorghi* (Collins et al. 1999).

Most sequence variation is attributable to single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs), with the rest attributable to insertions or deletions of one or more bases, repeat length polymorphisms and rearrangements (The International SNP Map Working Group 2001). In maize, one SNP between two randomly sampled sequences occurs approximately every 104 bp (Tenaillon et al. 2001). Therefore, SNPs are present at sufficient density for comprehensive haplotype analysis as applied in this study.

The objectives of the present study were to: (1) clone three RGAs previously mapped to chromosomal regions known to harbour SCMV R genes from six inbred lines resistant or susceptible to SCMV, (2) measure the frequency of SNP and CAPS occurring within RGAs and evaluate their usefulness as a source for marker development, and (3) map RGA-CAPS markers in relation to *Scmv1* and *Scmv2* to examine their role as candidates for SCMV R genes.

Materials and methods

Plant materials

Seventeen maize inbred lines were analysed for CAPS restriction pattern including: (1) three resistant European dent lines D21, D32, and FAP1360A, (2) three highly susceptible European lines D32, and FAP1396A, (2) three highly susceptible European lines D06, D09, and FAP1396A, (3) three resistant European dent lines D21, D408 (dent), D145 (flint), and F7 (flint), (3) ancestral lines of the cross (D408 × D145) (Vuylsteke et al. 1999 to examine their role as candidates for SCMV R genes.

Materials and methods

Plant materials

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Cloning and sequencing of RGAs

Genomic DNA was extracted from 0.1 g of freeze-dried leaf tissue following the CTAB DNA extraction protocol described by Hoisington et al. (1999). RGAs were isolated and cloned from the parental lines using PCR with specific primers (Table 1) based on the original sequences of pic13, pic19, and pic21. Primer sequences were obtained from the maize database (http://www.agron.missouri.edu/ssr.html). PCR amplification was performed as described by Xu et al. (1999). For verification, pic19 was again sequenced by SEQLAB Sequence Laboratories Göttingen GmbH. The DNA sequences and the deduced amino-acid sequences were analyzed using the ALIGN Plus 2.0 software package (http://www.scied.com/ses_alim.htm).

Generation and mapping of CAPS markers

Sequence regions displaying single nucleotide changes within restriction enzyme recognition sites between parental lines of mapping populations were used to identify RGA-CAPS using the CLONE Manager 3.11 software package (http://www.scied.com/ses_cm6.htm). PCR products were generated using the primers (Table 1) and the amplification conditions listed above. PCR products were digested with restriction endonucleases *NsiIII* (pic19), *RsaI* (pic13), and *MboI* (pic21) at 37 °C for 4 h according to the manufacturers' suggestions. RGAs were separated on 3% MetaPhor agarose gels in 0.5× TBE buffer except for pic21, which was separated on denaturing polyacrylamide gels (SequaGel6, Biocym, Hessisch Oldendorf). Mapping of pic13, pic21, and pic19 was performed with PopA. In addition, pic13 was mapped in oat-maize addition lines and pic19 in PopB (Xu et al. 1999).

Linkage and statistical analyses

RGAs were mapped using data generated in previous studies (Xia et al. 1999; Xu et al. 1999). Marker orders and genetic distances for PopA were calculated with MAPMAKER 3.0b (Lander et al. 1987) using a LOD threshold of 3.0 and the Kosambi mapping function. Marker orders and genetic distances for PopB were calculated with Cri-Map (http://biobase.dk/Embench/Brimapi).

Significant differences among the six inbred lines (resistant: D21, D32, FAP1360A; susceptible: D408, D145, F7) for SNP and CAPS frequencies per 100 bp of RGA sequence were tested by ANOVA using the software package PLABSTAT (http://www.uni-
Analyses of variance for randomised complete block designs were used to obtain a mean value for each RGA sequence. Least significant differences were calculated to test for differences between individual entry means. To determine SNP frequencies, pairwise comparisons between each two of the six inbred lines were performed. CAPS frequencies were calculated in pairwise comparisons of the three parental pairs of the mapping populations PopA, PopB, and PopC.

Genetic similarity of the RGA sequences between the six investigated inbred lines was measured on the basis of SNPs (Table 2) to test the six inbred lines for clustering into the heterotic flint and dent groups or resistant and susceptible lines using the software package NTSYSpc Version 2.02i (Rohlf 1989). The data set consisted of 58 detected SNPs between all six inbred lines for pic19, 14 for pic13, and 15 for pic21. Graphical genotypes of pic19 were displayed by software package GGT:GraphicalGenoTyping (http://www.spg.wau.nl/pv/pub/ggt).

Table 2 Genetic similarities (GS) of RGAs and frequency of SNPs per 100 bp between six maize inbred lines

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* Total number of SNPs between all six investigated inbred lines

hohenheim.de/~ipspwww/soft.html). Analyses of variance for randomised complete block designs were used to obtain a mean value for each RGA sequence. Least significant differences were calculated to test for differences between individual entry means. To determine SNP frequencies, pairwise comparisons between each two of the six inbred lines were performed. CAPS frequencies were calculated in pairwise comparisons of the three parental pairs of the mapping populations PopA, PopB, and PopC.

Frequency of SNPs and probability of conversion into RGA-CAPS

The overall mean for the six genotypes over the three RGAs was 3.05 SNPs per 100 bp (= 1 SNP per 33 bp) of the RGA sequence. SNP frequencies of pic19 (4.70 SNPs per 100 bp) were significantly higher ($P < 0.01$) than those of pic13 (2.86 SNPs per 100 bp) and pic21 (1.61 SNPs per 100 bp). The number of CAPS sites per 100 bp of the RGA sequence was measured for the three parental pairs of the mapping populations FAP1360A/F7, D32/D145, and D21/D408. The number of CAPS varied between 0.00 and 4.15 per 100 bp, with an overall mean of 2.20 CAPS sites per 100 bp. CAPS frequencies of pic19 (3.72) were significantly higher ($P < 0.01$) than those of pic13 (1.69) and pic21 (1.18). PopA revealed the highest degree of polymorphism (3.13), followed by PopC (2.18), and PopB (1.82).

Genetic similarity analyses revealed no clustering into the heterotic flint and dent groups or resistant and susceptible lines (Fig. 1). The graphical haplotype for pic19 was constructed on the basis of the same SNP data for all six inbred lines, revealing conserved sequence blocks.

Results

Isolation of pic13, pic19, and pic21 sequences from six inbred lines

All six RGA alleles of pic19 and pic21 were identical in size and similar to the sequences published by Collins et al. (1998). All pic19 sequences contained continuous open reading frames (ORFs), except those for D145 and D408. Likewise, pic21 sequences of all six inbreds showed continuous ORFs, except F7. The sequence of pic13 was incomplete, i.e. it was sequenced from both ends without identifying overlaps. pic13 showed a continuous ORF for both partial sequences of FAP1360A, D32, and F7. Lines D21, D408, and D145 displayed at least one stop codon.

Development of CAPS markers

CAPS polymorphisms were identified for all investigated RGAs in at least one of the three mapping populations. Sequence alignment between the cloned pic13 fragments revealed a SNP within a RsaI recognition site resulting in polymorphism between D32 and D145.
The sequences of pic21 were polymorphic between D32 and D145 at a MboII recognition site. Digestion of elongated pic19 amplification products with NlaIII generated polymorphisms in all three parental pairs (data not shown). Genetic mapping of pic13, pic21, and pic19 relative to Scmv1 and Scmv2

Amplification of pic13 from oat-maize addition lines showed a PCR product of the expected size only in the oat line carrying an additional maize chromosome 3. Amplification of pic19 and pic21 did not result in differential amplification of the oat line carrying the respective additional maize chromosome. For PopA, pic13 was mapped into the interval of umc102/csu285b on chromosome 3L (Fig. 3), which completely overlaps with the Scmv2-QTL region previously identified by Xia et al. (1999). However, pic13 could not be mapped in PopB because of identical banding patterns between heterozygotes and the recurrent parent F7 for all tested restriction enzymes.

Using PopA, pic21 was located on chromosome 3L but, contrary to pic13, it was located outside the Scmv2
region flanked by markers csu285a and umc3b (Fig. 3). In PopA, pic19 mapped to maize chromosome 6S between markers phi075 and phi077b (Fig. 3). In PopB, pic19 mapped into the marker interval umc1023/E2M7-1 with a map distance of 3.5 cM to Scmv1.

Table 3 Evaluation of restriction pattern of pic19 and pic13 in resistant, susceptible, partially resistant, and ancestral inbred lines

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Inbred lines</th>
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<th>pic19</th>
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<tbody>
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<td>Genotype B</td>
<td>Genotype A</td>
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<td>Susceptible</td>
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<td>X</td>
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RGA analyses in ancestral lines and partially resistant inbreds

Two genotypes were observed when pic13 amplification products were digested with RsaI. F7, FAP1360A, and Co125, the direct ancestor and potential donor of Scmv2.
showed the same restriction banding pattern (genotype B). The remaining inbred lines displayed a different restriction pattern (genotype A) (Table 3).

Three genotypes were observed for pic19 when digested with NlaIII. Besides the three resistant lines FAP1360A, D21, and D32, the potential donors of Scmv1, A632 and FAP954A, and the three partial resistant inbreds D06, D09, and FAP1396A, as well as FAP1360A, showed the same restriction pattern (genotype A). The second restriction banding pattern (genotype B) was observed for the following six lines: V3, WD, Co158, Co125, FAP493B, and F7. The remaining two lines D408 and W401 lack one NlaIII restriction site and thus revealed a third restriction pattern (genotype C) (Table 3). In contrast to pic13, the resistant lines revealed the same restriction pattern.

**Discussion**

One of the long-term aims of molecular marker technology in plant breeding is the selection of superior individuals directly at the level of DNA. RGAs provide an excellent source for the development of molecular markers, especially for resistance traits, because of their high level of polymorphism and their putatively functional character. Thereby, RGAs can be converted to single-copy PCR markers like CAPS (Konieczny and Ausubel 1993), while RGA-RFLPs frequently result in complex banding patterns because of sequence homology to related RGA sequences (Collins et al. 1998). Diagnostic markers like allele-specific RGA-CAPS will have wider applications in MAS strategies in the future.

**SNP and CAPS frequency in three maize RGAs**

Rafalski et al. (2001) analysed random cDNA clones in a collection of over 30 public and private maize lines representative for the North American corn germplasm. This analysis was restricted to coding regions. Sequence alignment revealed one single nucleotide change per 70 bp among the 30 lines. However, the authors pointed out that pairwise comparison between any two lines – such as in the results presented in this article – reveals a lower degree of polymorphism. Useche et al. (2001) performed similar experiments in maize and reported a SNP frequency of only one SNP per 138 bp in coding regions. Another study revealed that maize has an average of one SNP every 104 bp between two randomly sampled sequences (Tenaillon et al. 2001). Hence, the frequency of one SNP per 33 bp originating from single nucleotide changes in pairwise comparisons is significantly higher in the present study. This result confirms the highly polymorphic character of plant RGAs and possibly R genes, which is an important feature in evolutionary processes at R gene loci and especially R gene clusters (Parmiske and Jones 1999).

Among the RGAs, pic19 displayed a significantly higher degree of polymorphism than pic13 and pic21 (Table 2); pic19 might be phylogenetically older than pic13 and pic21 and, therefore, displays a significantly higher degree of polymorphism. A second possibility would be the coding character of pic13 and pic21 in contrast to pic19. Since a SNP in the first two positions within a triplet generates more amino-acid changes, the mutations in coding regions should be mainly in the third position of the triplet. Hence, the significantly higher SNP frequency at the third position of triplets for pic19 suggests expression of the respective sequence, but was not observed in the current study.

The generally high degree of polymorphism of the three RGAs might also be influenced by their map position. Two of the three RGAs map to potential R gene clusters on chromosomes 3L close to the centromere and 6S close to the nucleolus organiser region (nor). In gene clusters the recombination frequency is expected to be very high because of the high density of coding sequences. In many plant species, recombination rates can vary up to an order of magnitude over relatively small intervals (reviewed by Schnable et al. 1998). Detailed physical and genetic mapping of grass genomes revealed the clustering of genes, and supports the hypothesis that much of the meiotic recombination occurs in genes and most recombination events are restricted to few chromosome regions containing gene clusters (Gill et al. 1996; Künzel et al. 2000). The maize genome exhibits a very striking gene distribution with almost all genes present in 10–20% of the genome (Carels et al. 1995). In fact, genes exhibit recombination rates 10 to 100-fold higher than the genome average (reviewed by Lichten and Goldman 1995). In maize, one-fifth of all recombination events in a 140-kb interval between the anthocyaninless1 (a1) and the shrunken2 (sh2) genes were resolved within a 377-bp region of the a1 gene (Xu et al. 1995). It is not known whether the Scmv regions on chromosomes 6 and 3 contain R gene clusters or single pleiotropically acting genes. Zhao et al. (2001) mapped two maize R genes, Rxo and Rpa, to the same position on the short arm of maize chromosome 6S. The authors identified 5–6 RGAs in the direct neighbourhood of Rxo and Rpa. These findings and the high degree of polymorphism for pic19 support the presence of a R gene cluster on chromosome 6S. However, one member of the putative R gene cluster on chromosome 6S, Mdm1, shows 100% linkage with nor (Simcox et al. 1995), whereas Scmv1 and nor were not absolutely linked (Xu et al. 1999). Very low recombination rates are typically exhibited by regions surrounding the centromeres and the nor. Therefore, the putative R gene cluster on chromosome 6S is located in the direct neighbourhood of regions with suppressed recombination. Interestingly, the situation seems to be similar on chromosome 3 with Scmv2 in the direct neighbourhood of the centromere.

The structure of plant materials (flint-dent, SCMV resistant-susceptible; relationship by descent of the three resistant lines) was not reflected by the pic19-based genetic similarity analysis (Fig. 1). Explanations for the lack of grouping of the six inbred lines are either a miss-
ing correlation of the RGA allele sequences with these factors or the above mentioned high degree of polymorphism within RGAs. Furthermore, Xu et al. (2000) identified a 7.2 cM interval containing eight molecular markers as well as pic19 flanking Scmv1 conserved across the three resistant lines D21, D32, and FAP1360A, whereas the susceptible lines displayed a different segregation pattern. Therefore, this 7.2 cM chromosomal segment seemed to be identical in the three resistant lines. However, disagreement of RGA-based genetic similarity analysis with phenotypic, pedigree, and marker data question the utility of SNPs for association or disequilibrium mapping (reviewed in Lazzeroni 2001), at least for this genome region.

Single nucleotide changes in all three RGAs between all six inbred lines generated only two of the possible four SNP alleles except one. The formation of the second SNP alleles was not randomly distributed. Several consecutive SNPs were ordered in sequence blocks (haplotypes) with unidirectional mutations. Most of the sequence blocks contain more than one single SNP (Fig. 1a). Presuming a low number of RGA alleles in European founder materials, the driving force for the development of the high degree of polymorphism and variability within these RGAs seems to be recombination.

In conclusion, RGA-derived markers are especially interesting because of their genomic localisation within R gene clusters which putatively contain numerous genes relevant for plant breeding purposes. The frequencies of SNPs and CAPS are promising prerequisites for conversion of even short RGA sequences into molecular markers. This should further enhance the mapping of RGAs as potential candidates for genes conditioning resistance to pathogens in plant species.

Candidate gene evaluation

The identification of CAPS restriction sites between the parents of three mapping populations facilitated mapping of the three RGAs, pic13, pic19, and pic21, to genomic regions known to be involved in the inheritance of SCMV resistance on chromosomes 3 and 6. To address the question of whether any of the RGAs is a likely candidate for one of the target genes Scmv1 or Scmv2, respectively, we evaluated the following criteria: (1) Linkage with the target gene. A potential role as a candidate gene can be ruled out in case of a large map distance to the target gene. Cosegregation and even tight linkage to the R gene indicates a functional role of the RGA between the six inbred lines with those of the ancestor and partially resistant lines. Sharing the same allele among resistant, partially resistant inbred lines and putative R gene donors on the one hand and different alleles in the other lines on the other hand, indicates a functional role in the inheritance of SCMV resistance. (3) Continuous ORFs as a prerequisite for coding regions. A continuous ORF spanning the complete RGA sequence strongly suggests a coding character on the basis of the statistical probability of the occurrence of stop codons.

Chromosome 6

Mapping in PopA located pic19 within the QTL peak of Scmv1. Mapping in PopB showed two recombinant individuals. However, field experiments, BSA (Xu et al. 1999), and QTL analyses (Xia et al. 1999; Dußle et al. 2000) did not exclude the presence of more than one SCMV R gene in the Scmv1 region. Furthermore, incomplete penetrance of virus resistance and escapes might result in mis-scoreings during the phenotypic evaluation of the mapping populations. Therefore, a functional role of pic19 in the expression of SCMV resistance cannot be ruled out by genetic mapping. Moreover, the three resistant, the partially resistant lines, as well as the putative donors of Scmv1, A632, and FAP954A, displayed the same restriction patterns for pic19 (Table 3). Xu et al. (2000) investigated the chromosomal regions harbouring Scmv1 and Scmv2 by AFLP analyses in the same three resistant European inbreds, their ancestral lines and partially resistant inbred lines. The banding patterns indicated the identity of a 7.2 cM window harbouring the Scmv1 locus in D21, D32, and FAP1360A. Therefore, it is most likely that these three European inbred lines share the same Scmv1 allele at this Mega-locus. Absence of stop codons in all three resistant lines strengthens the possible functional involvement in the expression of SCMV resistance. However, a continuous ORF is not restricted to the resistant lines because the susceptible inbred F7 also showed a continuous ORF. In conclusion, pic19 remains a candidate for Scmv1, but our findings cannot distinguish between close linkage and identity of pic19 with Scmv1.

Chromosome 3

In PopA, pic21 mapped to chromosome 3, and was located approximately 50 cM outside the marker interval flanking Scmv2. Therefore, it was excluded as a candidate gene for Scmv2.

In contrast, pic13 mapped in PopA within the QTL peak of Scmv2. According to Xu et al. (2000), the Scmv2 region in FAP1360A most likely originated from Co125, while all other ancestral lines showed AFLP patterns in this region different from FAP1360A. The authors proposed the following explanations for the origin of the Scmv2 region: (1) Scmv2 in FAP1360A originates from Co125, or (2) Co125 is also the Scmv2 donor of D32 displaying a very short donor region not detectable by the employed flanking markers or another inbred line. The fact that restriction patterns of the potential donor of Scmv2, Co125, and FAP1360A, are identical and show a
different allele at this locus than D21 and D32, confirms the previously published hypothesis of different Scmv2 genes in FAP1360A and D32 (Xu et al. 2000). The presence of Scmv1 seems to be sufficient for conferring partial resistance. Hence, Scmv2 is not necessarily expected to be present in the partially resistant lines, explaining a different genotype in all three partially resistant inbred lines. No continuous ORF was found for pic13 in D21, in agreement with the lack of evidence for Scmv2 in this inbred line.

The mapping results and analyses of ancestor lines cannot distinguish between identity and close linkage of pic19 and Scmv1, and pic13 and Scmv2, respectively. The previously mentioned results of Zhao et al. (2001), as well as studies on the Pto, Cf, and Dm clusters in tomato and lettuce (Martin et al. 1994; Thomas et al. 1997; Meyers et al. 1998), revealed the existence of numerous RGAs in the direct physical neighbourhood of the R genes. At least seven apple Vf gene analogues have been identified from a BAC contig of 290 kb, encompassing the Vf locus (Xu 2001, personal communication). These RGAs showed very similar amino-acid domains except for the LRRs, where deletion of several LRR units and point mutations occurred frequently. Therefore, even in the case of non-identity of pic19 and pic13 with Scmv1 and Scmv2, respectively, they should provide excellent starting points for a map-based approach for cloning of the target genes themselves as well as other members of these clusters, such as MDMV, wheat streak mosaic virus (WSMV), maize mosaic virus (MMV), High Plains virus (HPV), and maize chlorotic dwarf virus (MCDV) R genes. Large and often continuous ORFs of the RGAs investigated in this study indicate that they are part of coding sequences. This is in agreement with large-scale sequencing of the above mentioned tomato and lettuce R gene loci. The majority of RGAs seemed to be functional and expressed, with only a few of them clearly being pseudogenes. Screening of DNA libraries will extend the number of RGAs in these regions and, therefore, broaden the probability of identifying the target genes. In contrast to the simple procedures to clone homologues, establishing potential functions of the RGAs remains challenging. Since the proof of function of a given candidate for a certain resistance is highly dependent on pathogen-specific plant material, exchange of R gene candidates between research groups working on different resistances is essential and can greatly accelerate the cloning of R genes by the RGA approach.

Acknowledgements The present study was supported by a grant from the Deutsche Forschungsgemeinschaft, Grant No. LU601/3. The authors gratefully acknowledge the mapping of SSRs to PopB by Susanne Dreissigacker and the technical assistance of Elisabeth Kokai-Kota.

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General Discussion

SCMV resistance as threshold character

SCMV infected maize plants can be classified as symptomless or susceptible, although SCMV resistance is not inherited as a qualitative trait. The inheritance of SCMV resistance is based on a continuous distribution of disease symptom expression with a threshold, whereas the visible scale, symptomless and susceptible, is discontinuous (Falconer 1961). Hence, individuals whose phenotypic values on the underlying scale exceed the threshold will appear in one visible class while individuals below the threshold will appear in the other. Although the individuals can be divided in two classes concerning SCMV resistance, symptomless individuals can be genetically susceptible (escapes). Vice versa, some individuals might show symptoms, although carrying the resistance alleles due to incomplete penetrance. Therefore, the threshold has to be overcome to assign such an individual to the other class. This overcoming of the threshold is caused by genetic, physiological and environmental factors.

After inoculation of the susceptible inbred lines D145, D408, and F7 with SCMV, up to 20% of the individuals turned out to be escapes (Melchinger et al. 1998). In the same study, 2 to 5% of the F1 plants of the crosses D21 × D145, D32 × D408, and FAP1360 × F7 in field trials and more than 50% under greenhouse conditions showed incomplete penetrance. Furthermore, resistant maize inbreds can show disease symptoms after mechanical inoculation with MDMV and WSMV (Louie 1995). In addition, a high infection level might lead to a collapse of the resistance threshold. Some susceptible phenotypes were found within the resistant inbred line FAP1360A in 2000, where a high infection level was observed. Overcoming the threshold is more likely for heterozygous individuals than for homozygous. In the present study the gene effect for Scmv1a was overdominant, whereas the gene effect for Scmv1b and Scmv2 turned out to be additive. Therefore Scmv1b and Scmv2 might be much more affected by incomplete penetrance than Scmv1a with its larger genetic effect on SCMV resistance. Therefore, an order of stability against overcoming the threshold to susceptibility can be stated as follows: absence of resistance alleles in both target regions Scmv1 and Scmv2 <
presence of resistance alleles in the Scmv2 region < presence of resistance alleles in the Scmv1 region < presence of resistance alleles in both target regions, Scmv1 and Scmv2. Furthermore, epistasis or pleiotropy might cause incomplete penetrance.

Assuming two dominantly acting, complementary resistance genes in F7 × FAP1360A, the discrepancy between the observed proportion of BC families segregating for SCMV and the expected proportion of 25%, is most likely due to the phenomenon of incomplete penetrance. Another possibility could be the presence of additional minor resistance genes besides those identified in Scmv1 and Scmv2 regions, and therefore, a different gene model. The QTL in the regions on chromosomes 3 and 6 explained only 70% of the total genetic variance according to the QTL analyses in this study. Hence, presence of additional resistance genes with minor effects can not be ruled out. Furthermore, Xia et al. (1999) identified in cross D32 × D145 three minor QTL on chromosomes 1, 5 and 10. In contrast, neither BSA (Xu et al. 1999) nor QTL analyses (Xia et al. 1999) identified additional SCMV resistance gene regions in population F7 × FAP1360A other than those on chromosomes 3 and 6. Consequently, phenomena like incomplete penetrance or environmental effects might have lead to the small proportion of symptomless individuals within the BC and BC-S1 generations.

Influence of escapes on the identification of closely linked markers

The causes of escapes could be environmental influences or occurrence of additional resistance mechanisms influencing the behavior of the virus transmitting vectors. Misscoring of the SCMV symptoms is very unlikely. A comparison of visual and serological evaluation with tissue print immunoblotting (TPIB) achieved a consistency of 99% (Hohmann et al. 1996).

The occurrence of escapes can impair the mapping of resistance genes. In this study, molecular markers were mapped with selected symptomless BC individuals. In the case of escapes, resistance and marker alleles of the donor would be absent in at least one of resistance gene regions, which might be incorrectly interpreted as recombination between marker and resistance gene. Consequently, the resistance genes would be misplaced in the genetic linkage map and identification of cosegregating markers would
be impossible. With regard to cloning the resistance genes *Scmv1* and *Scmv2*, identification of the exact position of these genes is necessary. However, the occurrence of escapes obscures the evaluation of the resistant genotype by means of the respective phenotype. To avoid misscoring of escapes, progenies of symptomless individuals selected for tBSA and mapping were evaluated for SCMV resistance after inoculation. On average, 15% of the families tracing back to phenotypically symptomless BC individuals were completely susceptible and, therefore, excluded from further analyses.

**Influence of incomplete penetrance on the identification of closely linked markers**

Incomplete penetrance can change the results of genetic mapping. Phenotypically susceptible individuals would be grouped to the susceptible bulk for BSA although they harbor the SCMV resistance alleles. Consequently, identification of polymorphisms between the resistant and susceptible bulk will be more difficult. In the present study, a modified tBSA with single symptomless individuals instead of pools was employed for identification of markers tightly linked with the SCMV resistance genes. Hence, incomplete penetrance did not influence the mapping results in this case. Furthermore, only those individuals showing a symptomless phenotype were included in further steps of the tBSA.

**Genetic analyses of SCMV resistance**

The application of molecular markers has improved the ability to obtain reliable estimates of the number of genes underlying a trait and to map these genes on the respective chromosomes. Melchinger et al. (1998) mapped the SCMV resistance gene *Scmv1* on chromosome 6S and *Scmv2* near the centromere region of chromosome 3 using one SSR and four RFLP markers. These two SCMV resistance regions were confirmed by a BSA with 23 putatively linked AFLP markers (Xu et al. 1999) and a QTL analysis with four SSR markers in the present study. With the QTL analysis applying 24 SSR markers, the presence of one gene in *Scmv2* region was confirmed. In contrast, this QTL analysis revealed a cluster of at least two closely linked SCMV resistance genes, *Scmv1a* and *Scmv1b*, in the cross F7 × FAP1360A. *Scmv1* mapped as a
single QTL for the first two scoring dates with a similar location as detected by the first QTL analysis, BSA (Xu et al. 1999) and tBSA. However, it was separated for later scoring dates in two QTL, Scmv1a with overdominant gene action and Scmv1b with additive gene action. Consequently, a higher marker density has increased the power of QTL detection in the present study. Furthermore, Xia et al. (1999) identified three minor QTL on chromosomes 1, 5, and 10 conferring resistance to SCMV in population D32 × D145. In contrast, no minor QTL were found for F7 × FAP1360 by BSA (Xu et al. 1999) and in the present study. In agreement with these findings, an oligogenic type of inheritance for resistance to SCMV, MDMV and WSMV was reported (Dollinger et al. 1970, McMullen et al. 1994, Xia et al. 1999).

Fine mapping of SCMV resistance genes on chromosomes 3 and 6 with molecular markers

The identification of closely linked or cos segregating molecular markers being polymorphic for the trait of interest is the most time consuming step for fine mapping. BSA with AFLPs identifies rapidly molecular markers tightly linked to the target locus of a monogenic trait (Ballvora et al. 1995), restricting further mapping analyses to a promising subset of linked markers. Three AFLP markers cosegregating with the Cf-Locus in tomato were found by Thomas et al. (1995) based on pooled DNA samples. Likewise, three tightly linked markers to the Mer locus in Populus were identified from a total number of 11500 AFLP bands by Cervera et al. (1996). Xu et al. (1999) demonstrated that AFLP-based BSA can also be successfully applied to the more complex situation of the oligogenic inherited trait of SCMV resistance. The authors identified with BSA 23 AFLP and 11 SSR markers linked to the SCMV resistance regions Scmv1 on chromosome 6 and Scmv2 on chromosome 3 using BC5 individuals in population F7 × FAP1360A. In the case of an oligogenic trait, the differences with regard to the bands polymorphic between the susceptible and the resistant bulk are no longer qualitative as they are with a dominantly inherited monogenic trait, but quantitative.

Based on the results of Xu et al. (1999) and the utilization of a modified tBSA (Lübberstedt et al. 2002), the SCMV resistance regions were further enriched with 24
AFLP and 19 SSR markers in the present study. Using symptomless BC individuals of advanced BC5 to BC9 generations and an additional step for the tBSA to assign the identified markers to the respective target gene regions \textit{Scmv1} and \textit{Scmv2}, it was possible to reduce the mapping effort by 60\% compared to conventional BSA employed by Xu et al. (1999).

Whereas the SSR marker order was identical and marker distances for the chromosome 3 region were comparable between QTL analysis and tBSA, marker distances and the window size between SSR markers \textit{bnlg161} and \textit{umc1229} were substantially different for the target region on chromosome 6. The presence of an additional resistance gene \textit{Scmv1b}, identified by QTL analysis with 24 SSR markers is the most likely explanation for the larger distances in some subregions of chromosome 6. Because of the population type of BC generations and the small population size, it was not possible to dissect the two QTL on chromosome 6 by tBSA and BSA (Xu et al. 1999). \textit{Scmv1b} seems to act independently of \textit{Scmv1a} and increases SCMV resistance. Consequently, markers identified to be tightly linked to \textit{Scmv2} on chromosome 3 region by tBSA can be immediately used for MAS and map-based cloning. However, the question whether there is a cluster of more than one resistance gene on chromosome 6 conferring resistance to SCMV can only be solved after cloning these genes.

\textbf{Clustering of resistance genes}

Clustering of resistance genes against different pathogens in the same chromosomal regions of the maize genome was previously reported by McMullen et al. (1995). Resistance genes against MDMV (McMullen et al. 1989), WSMV (McMullen et al. 1994) and high plains virus (Marçon et al. 1997) were identified in the same region as SCMV resistance genes on chromosome 6. So far, it is unknown whether \textit{Scmv1}, \textit{Mdm1} and \textit{Wsm1} are identical and display pleiotropic effects against different potyviruses or whether they are closely linked genes. Likewise, the \textit{Scmv2} region on chromosome 3 harbors, besides \textit{Scmv2}, the major resistance genes \textit{Rp3} against \textit{Puccina sorghi} (Sanz-Alferez et al. 1995), \textit{Mvl} against MMV (Ming et al. 1997), \textit{Wsm2} against WSMV (McMullen et al. 1994) and three QTL for resistance to European corn borer, Fusarium stalk rot (McMullen et al. 1995) and common smut. Supporting the existence of closely
linked but different major resistance genes against SCMV, some susceptible plants were detected in an allelism test between the three resistant European dent inbred lines D21, D32 and FAP1360A (Lübberstedt et al. 1999). Quint et al. (2002) observed linkage of three BAC contigs containing homologues of the RGA pic19 with Scmv1 for cross D32 × D145, indicating a cluster of SCMV resistance genes in this region. In the present study, the identification of two linked QTL on chromosome 6, Scmv1a and Scmv1b, conferring resistance against SCMV gave further evidence for the clustering of SCMV resistance genes.

Conversion of AFLP markers into simple PCR-based markers

Because AFLP markers are too expensive and laborious for high-throughput monitoring of large numbers of genotypes, conversion of AFLP markers closely linked to the SCMV resistance genes on chromosomes 3 and 6 is an important step to receive easily applicable markers for MAS and map-based cloning. Additionally, the converted STS-markers can reduce the costs of marker analyses to about 20%. In the present study it was possible to convert AFLP markers into STS markers without intermediate steps like inverse PCR or chromosome walking, suggested by DeJong et al. (1997) and Negi et al. (2000) to elongate the short AFLP fragments. Sequencing five to ten clones of two to eight maize inbred lines (D21, D32, D145, D408, F7, FAP1360A) for tightly 6 AFLP markers for SCMV regions Scmv1 and Scmv2, respectively, uncovered one indel marker E35M62-1STS and one CAPS marker E33M61-2STS. However, a sequence comparison between the six maize inbred lines identified SNPs within as well as among these inbred lines for two AFLP markers. Difficulties of AFLP marker conversion based on the loss of their sequence specificity after amplification with the AFLP-derived internal primers were previously reported (Shan et al. 1999). Unfortunately, it was not possible to generate a STS-markers distinguishing all resistant (D21, D32, FAP1360A) from the susceptible (D145, D408, F7) inbred lines. Consequently, the diagnostic value (Borchardt et al. 2000) of the converted markers seems to be low. Hence, markers being polymorphic in the present study between the inbred lines F7 and FAP1360A have to be checked in each new cross before applying them for MAS (Borchardt et al. 2000).
Alternative strategies for resistance gene identification

In addition to marker analyses, an RGA analysis with pic13, pic19 and pic21 was conducted to examine their role as candidates for the SCMV resistance genes on chromosomes 6S and 3L in the present study. A first mapping of the CAPS markers derived from pic19 and pic13 with 27 resistant BC5 individuals from the cross ((F7 × FAP1360A) × F7) identified pic19 and pic13 as candidates for Scmv1 and Scmv2, respectively. However, mapping of pic19 in a population of 118 F3 lines uncovered a larger distance between pic19 and the SCMV resistance gene. Quint et al. (2002) assumed that three pic19 homologues mapped as a single-copy ‘ghost marker’, comparable to a ‘ghost QTL’, because of their high sequence similarity. As a consequence, the position of the ‘ghost marker’ may change the positions and even the order of other marker loci or QTL in the target region. Likewise, two QTL, Scmv1a and Scmv1b, were found in the present study, which were probably mapped together as one ‘ghost’ QTL for the first scoring dates and in the tBSA analyses. Therefore, pic19 homologues can not be excluded as candidates for these resistance genes on chromosome 6 region.

Isolation of resistance genes by RGA sequences is limited because pseudogenes which accumulate more mutations compared with active genes are the source of polymorphisms between genotypes (Kanazin et al. 1996). Therefore, genetic mapping of RGA sequences may be more important in identifying markers close to resistance genes for subsequent map-based cloning, than for detection of resistance genes. RGA are at present mostly applied for MAS or map-based cloning (Collins et al. 1998, Shen et al. 1998). Application of RGA is a reliable tool for both, resistance gene isolation and MAS if there is a correlation between polymorphism and gene expression. However, if the RGA is a sequence of a pseudogene, it can be employed only for MAS and map-based cloning, but not for resistance gene isolation by candidate gene analysis. The genetic and physical clustering of RGA and the abundance of NBS-LRR genes in plant genomes complicate the utilization of RGA as a tool to isolate biologically characterized genes involved in disease resistances. Consequently, the availability of high-resolution maps for a particular resistance gene and of mutant alleles will be crucial complementary tools (Leister et al. 1999). Hence, at the present stage, RGA can
serve as a companion approach for the identification of markers tightly linked to the
SCMV resistance genes, but cannot substitute molecular marker analyses for fine
mapping.

Conclusion and Prospects

With regard to SCMV resistance as an oligogenic inherited trait it can be concluded
that BSA and tBSA are able to detect segregating markers in the target regions on
chromosome 3 and 6. For a trait like SCMV resistance, MAS might be superior to
conventional phenotypic selection because of (1) the oligogenic inheritance of SCMV
resistance, (2) the strong influence of the environment on the expression of the
resistance genes, (3) the occurrence of incomplete penetrance and escapes due to the
threshold character of SCMV resistance, and (4) the high costs for resistance evaluation.
A further benefit of MAS is the selection in off-season nurseries and before flowering.

However, the threshold character of SCMV resistance confuses the generation of
bulks for BSA and tBSA. Therefore the choice of the population type is of main
importance for the success of identification of closely linked markers for a trait with a
threshold character. Because homozygous resistance loci are less affected by incomplete
penetrance than heterozygous ones, utilization of segregating BC1-S1 families for
marker identification might be superior to BCi individuals. Moreover, the generation of
isogenic lines carrying the single resistance genes separately in different genotypes
might increase the success to identify closely linked markers for all three QTL Scmv1a,
Scmv1b and Scmv2 conferring resistance to SCMV. Whereas the tightly linked SSR,
AFLP and indel markers for chromosome 3 can be applied immediately for MAS or
map-based cloning, generation of isogenic lines will help to identify molecular markers
tightly linked to or cosegregating with either Scmv1a or Scmv1b. Analysis of a large
BC1-S1 population with the molecular markers, known to be tightly linked to either one
of the target genes on chromosome 6 will help to identify rare recombination events
between Scmv1a and Scmv1b, and might therefore pave the way to clone these genes.
General Discussion

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Summary

Sugarcane mosaic virus (SCMV) is an important disease in European maize cultivars (*Zea mays* L.). Because of its non-persistent transmission by aphid vectors, it is not possible to control SCMV directly. Therefore, cultivation of resistant maize varieties is an efficient way to control SCMV infections.

The overall objectives of this study were the genetic analysis of SCMV resistance in cross F7 × FAP1360A and the identification of closely linked markers to the SCMV resistance genes *Scmv1* on chromosome 6 and *Scmv2* on chromosome 3 for map-based cloning and marker-assisted selection (MAS). The technical objectives were to (1) identify in particular the location of *Scmv1* and *Scmv2* on chromosomes 3 and 6 in cross F7 × FAP1360A, (2) estimate the gene action of the alleles present at these loci, (3) enrich the SCMV resistance regions surrounding *Scmv1* and *Scmv2* with amplified fragment length polymorphism (AFLP) and simple sequence repeat (SSR) markers by applying a modified targeted bulked segregant analysis, tBSA, (4) convert AFLP markers into codominant, simple PCR-based markers as a tool for MAS and map-based cloning of *Scmv1* and *Scmv2* and, (5) assess resistance gene analogues (RGAs) as potential candidate genes for *Scmv1* and *Scmv2*.

Two European inbred lines, FAP1360A and F7, were crossed to produce a population with a random set of 121 F$_3$ families. Inbred line FAP1360A, a dent line, was completely resistant to SCMV, whereas F7, a flint line, was highly susceptible. Field trials were evaluated for SCMV resistance across two environments under artificial inoculation at seven scoring dates VIR1 to VIR7. Quantitative trait loci (QTL) mapping with four SSR markers confirmed the presence of two QTL on chromosome 6 (*Scmv1*) and chromosome 3 (*Scmv2*) previously identified in cross D32 × D145. Both QTL together explained between 15% and 62% of the phenotypic variance for the seven scoring dates. The *Scmv1* region showed complete dominance, whereas the gene action for the *Scmv2* region was additive. A second, more detailed QTL analysis based on 24 SSR markers with the same set of F$_3$ families of F7 × FAP1360A resolved two QTL, denoted as *Scmv1a* and *Scmv1b*, on chromosome 6 for scoring dates VIR3 to VIR7. Similar to the previous study, the QTL on chromosomes 3 and 6 explained between 33% and 71% of the phenotypic variance. Whereas gene action for the QTL on
chromosome 3 was additive, gene action was overdominant for Scmv1a and additive for Scmv1b on chromosome 6.

Phenotypic evaluation of BC (backcross) field trials after artificial inoculation resulted in proportions of symptomless individuals within families, segregating for SCMV resistance, between 2.6% and 33.3% in BC6 to BC9 generations. The proportion of segregating families in BC6 and BC9 fitted the expected value of 25% segregating families, assuming an underlying model of two complementary acting dominant genes. However, proportions within segregating families in all BCi generations did not exceed an average of 10%. This could be due to the threshold character of SCMV resistance, incomplete penetrance, environmental effects, or the presence of additional resistance genes.

tBSA is a modification of a BSA, minimizing the experimental input for the analysis of large numbers of linked markers and enables the evaluation of closely linked markers without analysing all individuals of a mapping population. After identification of polymorphisms between the susceptible parent F7 and a symptomless BC7 individual known to carry short donor regions for the SCMV resistance genes on chromosomes 3 and 6, markers were assigned to either one of the resistance gene regions Scmv1 or Scmv2 in step two. In the third step those markers were identified, which were closer linked to the respective target genes, than the flanking SSR markers employed for preselection of the BCi individuals. Mapping was conducted in the fourth step, employing symptomless BC individuals, which were used in step 3 as pools. tBSA was conducted with symptomless individuals of different advanced backcross generations (BC5 to BC9) of cross F7 × FAP1360A. Analyses of 512 AFLP primer combinations and 81 SSR markers identified 24 AFLP and 25 SSR markers adjacent to either Scmv1 or Scmv2. Fourteen SSR and 6 AFLP markers mapped close to Scmv1, whereas 11 SSR and 18 AFLPs were located close to Scmv2. On chromosome 6, AFLP marker E33M61-1 was closest linked proximal to Scmv1, with a distance of 8.0 cM. The closest linked marker distal to Scmv1 was SSR marker bmc1432 with a distance of 2.4 cM. One AFLP marker, E38M51, showed prefect cosegregation with Scmv2 on chromosome 3. Whereas the chromosome 3 map and the results obtained by QTL analysis agreed well, some differences were found for the map distances and the window size on chromosome 6. The reason for the discrepancies between both maps might be the
Summary

presence of two genes on chromosome 6, which were detected by QTL analysis but not by tBSA.

AFLP markers are too costly and laborious for high-throughput monitoring of large numbers of genotypes. Therefore, conversion of AFLP markers tightly linked to SCMV resistance genes into simple and reliable PCR-based markers, like insertion/deletion (indel) or cleaved amplified polymorphic sequence (CAPS) markers, provide useful markers for MAS and map-based cloning. Sequencing of eight AFLP markers closely linked to Scmv1 or Scmv2 resulted in either completely identical sequences between the investigated inbred lines or revealed single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) within the inbred lines. AFLP marker E35M62-1, closely linked to Scmv1 on chromosome 6, was successfully converted into an indel marker. For chromosome 3, AFLP marker E33M61-2 was converted into a CAPS marker. Both converted AFLP markers mapped to the same chromosome region as their original AFLP markers.

RGA analysis was conducted with three previously published resistance gene analogues pic13, pic21, and pic19. These RGAs were mapped in relation to the SCMV resistance genes Scmv1 and Scmv2. They were cloned from three SCMV susceptible (D145, D408, F7) and three SCMV resistant (D21, D32, FAP1360A) maize inbred lines. Development of CAPS of the RGAs and mapping in relation to SCMV resistance genes Scmv1 and Scmv2 identified pic19 and pic13 as potential candidates for these resistance genes. Genetic mapping identified pic21 to be different from Scmv2.

In this study, useful markers were developed for applications in MAS. Because inheritance of SCMV resistance is strongly affected by the environment, MAS enables the selection of resistant individuals independently of field experiments. Furthermore, MAS can assist breeders to identify resistant individuals before flowering and to pyramid resistance genes in elite inbred lines. Another benefit of these closely linked markers is their application for map-based cloning, where thousands of individuals have to be screened with molecular markers cosegregating or at least closely linked with the target genes. Final evidence, whether there are one or more genes clustered on chromosomes 3 and 6, conferring resistance against SCMV, can only be solved after cloning these genes.
Zusammenfassung

Das Zuckerrohrmosaikvirus (sugarcane mosaic virus, SCMV) ist eine wichtige Pflanzenkrankheit im europäischen Maisanbau. Aufgrund der nicht-persistenten Übertragung durch Blattläuse ist es nicht möglich, SCMV direkt zu bekämpfen. Daher stellt der Anbau resisterter Maissorten die einzig wirksame Bekämpfungsmaßnahme dar.

In Rahmen dieser Studie wurde die Resistenz gegenüber SCMV innerhalb der Kreuzung F7 × FAP1360A untersucht. Im Vordergrund stand das Auffinden von eng mit den SCMV-Resistenzgenen Scmv1 und Scmv2 gekoppelten Markern als Basis für die markergestützte Selektion (marker-assisted selection, MAS) und die kartengestützte Klonierung. Die Ziele der Arbeit waren (1) die genaue Charakterisierung der Kartenposition von Scmv1 auf Chromosom 6 und Scmv2 auf Chromosom 3, (2) die Schätzung der Geneffekte und Genwirkungsweise der Chromosomenregionen (quantitative trait loci, QTL) die an der Ausprägung der Resistenz gegenüber SCMV beteiligt sind, (3) das Auffinden von eng mit den Resistenzgenen gekoppelten SSR- (simple sequence repeat) und AFLP- (amplified fragment length polymorphism) Markern mittels einer tBSA (targeted bulked segregant analysis), (4) die Konversion von AFLP-Markern zu einfacher handhabbaren PCR-basierten Markern und (5) die Bewertung von Resistenzgenanaloga (RGA) als mögliche Kandidatengene für Scmv1 und Scmv2.

SSR-Markern und denselben F3-Familien konnten zwei QTL (bezeichnet als Scmv1a und Scmv1b) auf Chromosom 6 für die Boniturtermine VIR3 bis VIR7 gefunden werden. Vergleichbar zu der vorhergehenden Studie erklärten die QTL auf den Chromosomen 3 und 6 zwischen 33% und 71% der phänotypischen Varianz. Die Genwirkungsweise der QTL auf Chromosom 6 waren überdominant für Scmv1a, sowie additiv für Scmv1b. Scmv2 zeigte ebenfalls eine additive Genwirkungsweise.


Zusammenfassung


Die RGA-Analyse wurde mit den Resistenzgenanaloga pic13, pic21 und pic19 durchgeführt. Diese RGA wurden in Bezug auf die SCMV Resistenzgene Scmv1 und Scmv2 kartiert. Drei für SCMV anfällige (D145, D408, F7) und drei resistenten (D21, D32, FAP1360A) Maisinzuchtlinien wurden zur Klonierung dieser RGA eingesetzt. Die
Entwicklung von CAPS-Markern und deren Kartierung identifizierte pic19 (Scmv1) und pic13 (Scmv2) als mögliche Kandidaten für diese Resistenzgene, während pic21 sich eindeutig als nicht identisch mit Scmv2 erwies.

Acknowledgements

I am deeply indebted to Prof. A. E. Melchinger for his scientific support, advice and creative suggestions in the course of the present investigation.

Many thanks to Dr. Th. Lübberstedt for initiating the experiments and for his continuous advice and scientific support.

I wish to thank Prof. Dr. H.F. Utz for all the valuable advices on statistical problems.

My regards to Dr. M.L. Xu who initiated the marker analyses and supported me at the beginning of my studies.

The skilled technical assistance of Mr. F. Mauch, Ms. A. Karg, Ms. B. Devezi-Savula at Hohenheim as well as the staff at the Plant Breeding Station, Eckartsweier, in conducting the field trials is gratefully acknowledged. Many thanks also to Ms. E. Kokai-Kota who carefully assisted the laboratory experiments. Moreover, I highly appreciate the aid of many students, especially A. Pahlisch, S. Dreisigacker, S. Haesler and N. Burkarth who helped me with the marker analyses. Many thanks to L. Yuan who conducted parts of the SSR analyses during his stay at Hohenheim.

I want to thank Ms. B. Boesig for her friendliness and helpfulness in everyday life in the institute.

Finally I want to thank Dr. M. Bohn, Dr. M Frisch, M. Heckenberger, J. Muminovic, Dr. E. Bauer, Dr. M. Wolf, Dr. F. Röber and all the colleagues at Hohenheim for creating a pleasant work environment. I particularly enjoyed the friendship of my laboratory and office mate Marcel Quint.

My personal thanks goes to Markus and last but not least to my parents for their encouragement, great tolerance and patience during the writing up of this treatise.

This research was supported by grants from the Deutsche Forschungsgemeinschaft.
Lebenslauf

Name: Christina Maria Dußle
Geboren: 06.06.1968 in Bönnigheim
Familienstand: ledig

Schulausbildung
1974 – 1979, Grundschule in Cleebronn
1979 – 1986, Zabergäugymnasium in Brackenheim
1986 – 1988, Hölderlingymnasium in Lauffen/N
Abschluss: Allgemeine Hochschulreife

Berufsausbildung
August 1988 – Juli 1990, Ausbildung zur Winzerghilfin
bei Winzermeister Eberhard Link in Lauffen/N
Berufsabschluss: Winzerghilfin

Studium
WS 1991 – SS 1998, Studium der Agrarbiologie in
Stuttgart Hohenheim mit Fachrichtung Pflanzenproduktion
Abschluss: Diplom-Agrarbiologin

1995 – 1998, Wissenschaftliche Hilfskraft im Fachgebiet
angewandte Genetik und Pflanzenzüchtung: Einsatz von
DNA-Markern (Mais)

Berufl. Tätigkeit
August 1990 – September 1991, Arbeiterin bei der Firma
Layher GmbH & Co., KG

Institut für Pflanzenzüchtung, Saatgutforschung und
Populationsgenetik, Universität Hohenheim

Seit Februar 2002, Wissenschaftliche Angestellte an der
Landessaatzuchtanstalt, Universität Hohenheim