RAPD Genome Maps of Douglas-Fir

K. V Krutovskii, S. S. Vollmer, F. C. Sorensen, W. T. Adams, S. J. Knapp, and S. H. Strauss

NOTICE: This material may be protected by copyright law.

We present linkage maps and estimate genome length for two hybrid individuals of Douglas-fir [*Pseudotsuga menziesii* (Mirb.) Franco], a coniferous tree species of wide distribution in the western United States. The hybrids were produced by crosses between the coastal (var. menziesi~) and interior (var. *glauca*) varieties. Haploid megagametophytes from 80 seeds of each individual were analyzed using 81 10-by random amplified polymorphic DNA (RAPD) primers selected for polymorphism, fragment strength, and repeatability in preliminary segregation analysis. Most (82-90%) of the segregating fragments followed the expected 1:1 Mendelian segregation; however, 10-18% showed significant segregation distortion (P < .05) among megagametophytes of the two trees. In one tree, 201 of 221 segregating loci analyzed were combined into 16 major linkage groups of 4 or more loci (plus 1 group of 3 loci, 3 groups with pairs of loci, and 11 unlinked loci); in the other, 238 of 250 segregating loci were combined into 18 major groups (plus 2 groups of 3 loci each and 6 unlinked loci). Analyses of the distribution of markers indicated highly significant clustering in both trees (P < .001). Including flanking regions and unlinked loci, both trees had linkage maps of similar length, 2600 cM and 3000 cM; expected total map size ranged from 2800 to 3500 cM based on method-of-moments estimation. When a common RAPD protocol was used, more than one-third of the RAPD markers segregated in both hybrids. These maps of Douglas-fir are among the largest reported for conifers, a possible consequence of its 13 haploid chromosomes.

Gametic segregation and linkage in conifer trees can be directly analyzed using RAPD markers. The haploid megagametophyte of conifer seeds avoids problems of dominance of RAPD markers and allows any tree to be mapped without making controlled crosses (Adams 1983). The availability of hundreds of RAPD primers allows creation of dense linkage maps. RAPD markers have been used to produce genome maps for a number of trees [see Neale and Harry (1994) and Neale et al. (1994) for a review]. Inheritance of RFLP and RAPD markers have been established in Douglas-fir [Pseudotsuga menziesii Mirb. (Franco)] (Carlson et al. 1991; Jermstad et al. 1994), and both markers are being used in ongoing genome mapping studies (Carlson J, personal communication; Jermstad Κ. personal communication).

The goals of this study were to determine the genetic length of the Douglas-fir genome and to create a set of markers to use in mapping quantitative trait loci (QTL) in a related investigation of adaptive trait variation between the coastal and interior varieties (var. *menziesii* and

var. *giauca*, respectively). We studied segregation in progeny of hybrids between the two varieties, whose high heterozygosity should facilitate linkage mapping.

Materials and Methods

Plant Materials

Two unrelated intervarietal Douglas-fir hybrid trees, IOD and 3B (Rehfeldt 1977), were crossed with one another and with pollen from single, unrelated coastal and interior males, the latter giving "varietal pseudobackcrosses." This mating structure (3 crosses per hybrid mother tree) was created to study how QTLs donated by maternal parents were influenced by varietal (paternal) genetic background. Crosses on 3B were made in a coastal test plantation near Corvallis, Oregon. Crosses on IOD were made in an interior test plantation near Moscow, Idaho. Seeds collected from these controlled crosses were used for both mapping and to establish an experimental seedling population for QTL analysis. Because the maps presented in this article are based solely on data from

From the Departments of Forest Science (Krutovskii, Vollmer, Adams, and Strauss) and Crop and Soil Science (Knapp), Oregon State University, and USDA Forest Service (Sorensen), Corvallis, Oregon 97331-7501. We thank Dr. Gerald Rehfeldt for arranging the controlled crosses and consulting on study design, Dr. Jim Holloway for help with computer software, and Dr. Pat Hayes for the comments on the manuscript. This work was supported by grants no. 99-37300-0332 and no. CO 119A of the USDA NRI Plant Genome Program; indirect support was provided by NSF grant no. 9300083. We also thank the USDA Forest Service for support. Address reprint requests to Dr. Strauss at the address above or e-mail: strauss@fsl.orst.edu. © 1998 The American Genetic Association 89:197-205



Figure 1. RAPD phenotypes generated by UBC primer no. 254 among megagametophytes of Douglas-fir hybrid trees 10D and 3B, using Promega (A) and Stratagene (B) *Taq* polymerases, respectively. Locus U254_380, common to both trees, is indicated by horizontal arrows (see also *Group 6* in Figure 2). Four samples of hybrid 10D amplified with both polymerases are indicated by vertical arrows. The rightmost lane contains a DNA size marker with fragment lengths of 1.3, 1.1, 0.9, and 0.6 kb (Ø174 DNA/HaeIII digest).

megagametophytes, which derive from maternal tissues, cross-structure is unlikely to have had a significant influence on their content. Megagametophytes were carefully removed in nursery beds at an early stage of seedling development (stage 4: Krutovskii et al. 1997) and frozen until DNA extraction.

DNA Analysis

Total genomic DNA was isolated from individual megagametophytes following a modified CTAB procedure (Tsumura et al. 1996). DNA concentration was estimated by fluorometer Hoefer TKO 100. The extraction normally yielded 2.5 p,g of DNA per megagametophyte (range 1.0-5.0 wg). We standardized working DNA preparations to 0.4 ng/p,l in a TE buffer (10 mM Tris, 0.1 mM EDTA pH 8.0) and stored them at 4°C.

The screened random 10 by primers were from Operon Technologies Inc. (primers OP-A8, -A9, -A16, -C4,-B5, -B8, -E12, -E17, -G9, X10, X12, -F7, -J1, and -Y17) and the Biotechnology Laboratory of the University of British Columbia (UBC #100600). Polymerase chain reactions (PCR) were carried out in 96 well microtiter plates following standard procedures (Aagaard et al. 1995) in a volume of 25 Ri with final concentrations of 10 mM Tris-HCI reaction buffer (Promega or Stratagene); 1.5 MM MgCl2 (Stratagene) or 1.8 mM MgClz (Promega); 100 RM each of dATP, dTTP, dCTP, and dGTP; 0.2 p,M primer; 2 ng template DNA; and 1 unit of Taq (Thermus aquaticus) DNA polymerase from either Promega (hybrid IOD) or Stratagene (hybrid 313) (catalog numbers M1864 and 600131, respectively). The change in Taq polymerase was necessitated by repeated failures of batches of enzyme after mapping of the first hybrid tree, 1 OD. The wells were overlaid with 50 R1 of mineral oil, and amplification was performed in an MJR Research model PTC-100 thermocycler using settings of 3 min denaturation at 93°C followed by 44 cycles of 1 min of denaturation at 93°C, 1 min annealing at 37°C, 2 min extension at 72°C, and a final extension step of 10 min at 72°C. The reaction ended with an indefinite hold at 4°C.

Amplification products were electrophoresed using 32 cm x 20 cm, 2.0% agarose gels run for 4-5 h at 3.2 V/cm in TBE, pH 8.0 (Maniatis et al. 1982). Eighty megagametophytes were genotyped from each hy brid. Hybrid IOD seeds, which were analyzed first, were processed in two sets of 48 and 32 megagametophytes, respectively. To allow comparison of RAPD fragments between hybrids, four megagametophyte DNA samples of IOD that had been analyzed with Promega *Taq* were also included during analysis of 3B with Stratagene *Taq*. We ran 96 samples plus 6 standard x174 DNAs (*HaeIII* digest) on each gel (Figure 1). Gels were stained with 1 p,g/ml ethidium bromide for 30 min in TBE, then destained in distilled water for 2 h and photographed. **Primer Screening**

A total of 505 (491 UBC and 14 OPERON) primers were initially screened using four to eight megagametophytes in hybrid IOD (Table 1), of which 170 that gave some sharp, strongly amplified DNA fragments were selected for further testing. In a second screening with eight megagametophytes, a final selection of 96 primers was made based on the repeatability of fragments and the presence of at least one segregating fragment. This set was used for segregation analysis of the first set of 48 megagametophytes of hybrid IOD. The final IOD map we present was produced using 81 (76 UBC and 5 OPERON) primers that amplified successfully with both megagametophyte sets, giving 221 segregating loci; the 3B map was produced using 69 (64 UBC and 5 OPERON) primers and 250 segregating loci.

Segregation and Linkage Analysis

Segregation and linkage analyses were performed using the GMENDEL (Holloway and Knapp 1993) and MapMaker (Lander

Table 1. Screening of RAPD primers using megagametophytes of Douglas-fir hybrid trees

		Primers		Segregating fragments		
Stage	Tree	Screened	Selected	Screened	Selected	
Primary screen with first set of 4- 8 megagametophytes	10D	505	170	906	422	
Secondary screen with second set of 8 megagametophytes	10D	170	96	616	247	
Segregation and linkage analysis with 80 megagametophytes	10D 3B	96 81	81 69	247 259	$221 (2.7^{a})$ $250 (3.6^{a})$	

^o Number of segregating fragments per selected primer.

Table 2. Efficiency of search for segregating RAPD loci in conifers

	Primers	Primers			ng loci				
Species	Screened	Selected	%	Total	Per screened primer	Per selected primer	With segregation distortion ^a (%)	Reference	
Picea abies (L.) Karst.	328	96	29	186 ^b	0.6	1.9	79 ^c	Binelli and Bucci 1994; Bucci et al. 1995	
P. glauca (Moech) Voss.	300	69	23	61 ^b	0.2	0.8	31 ^d	Tulsieram et al. 1992	
Pinus brutia Ten.	95	15 ^e	16"	42 ^{b,e}	0.5^{e}	2.8°	61 ^{d,e}	Kaya and Neale 1995	
P. elliottii Englm.	420	66	22	123	0.3	1.8°	10^{d}	Nelson et al. 1993	
	288/	91	32	127°	0.5^{e}	1.4^{e}	12°	Kubisiak et al. 1995	
P. palustris Mill	576	128	16	188	0.3	1.5	8 ^c	Nelson et al. 1994	
	288/	113	39	157e	0.5^{e}	1.4	13^{c}	Kubisiak et al. 1995	
P. pinaster Ait.	520	102	20	263	0.5	2.6	2^{g}	Plomion et al. 1995b	
P. strobus L.	288′	96	33	97	0.3	1.0	30	Echt and Nelson 1997	
P. sylvestris L.	220	104	47	298	1.4	2.9	5	Yazdani et al. 1995	
Taxus brevifolia Nutt.	345	67°	28	102 ^b	0.3	1.5"	30 ⁻	Göçmen et al. 1996	
Pseudotsuga menziesii	142	40	33	95	0.5	2.4	10 ^c	Jermstad et al. 1994	
(Mirb.) Franco	505	96	19	247	0.5	3.1	18 ^c	This study	
Mean	345^{h}	83	25 ⁿ	153	0.5^{h}	1.9	20^{c}		

Sample sizes for screening when the number of megagametophytes sampled varied from 4 to 8.

^a Percentage of segregating loci with segregation distortion.

^b Loci showing segregation distortion were excluded.

 $^{\circ}P < .05.$

^d Calculated using the number of loci showing segregation distortion provided in this article, although the probability level used to test segregation was not stated.

e Average of estimates provided in this study.

'Primers had been prescreened in previous experiments.

 ${}^{s}P < .01.$

^h Mean excludes data from Kubisiak et al. (1995) and Echt and Nelson (1997) because primers were prescreened.

et al. 1987) programs. Segregating markers were scored for presence (1) or absence (0) of the amplified RAPD fragment, and () for missing data (i.e., failed or unscorable reactions). C statistics (« = 0.05; Sokal and Rohlf 1981) were used to test the null hypothesis of 1:1 segregation of markers. All pairwise r and LOD values were computed for 221 and 250 loci in IOD and 313, respectively. The C statistic was also computed to distinguish between independent segregation and genetic linkage under the null hypothesis that haplotypes segregate 1:1:1:1. Preliminary grouping was performed using likelihood odds (LOD) of 4.0-5.0 as a threshold for linkage. The probability of a type I statistic error for this test is a = 10-Y, where Y is the critical value such that LOD, >Y. A LOD threshold score of 4 means that we expected 2 out of 24,310 pairwise recombinations for IOD and 3 out of 31,125 pairwise recombinations for 3B to be statistically significant by chance alone.

Simulating annealing and multiple pairwise methods were used for locus ordering. Monte Carlo and bootstrap simulation with 100 iterations were applied to test the ordering and obtain confidence intervals for mapped positions of loci (Holloway and Knapp 1993). MapMaker functions, including NEAR and PLACE with relaxed LOD thresholds of 2.5-4.0, were used to map some of the unlinked loci and

to merge some linkage groups. Map distances in centiMorgans were calculated using the Kosambi mapping function. Hypothetical expected map size was estimated using a method-of-moments estimator following Chakravarti et. al. (1991) and Hulbert et al. (1988). Two-point linkages at LOD values of 3.5 and 4.0 between distinct loci were determined and used to provide map size estimates. To study the distribution of markers over the map, the Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Lilliefors (on standardized data) one-sample test (Sokal and Rohlf 1981) was used to compare the shape and location of distribution of linkage intervals between adjacent loci with a normal distribution (SYSTAT 1992).

Results and Discussion Primer Screening

Our selected set of 96 primers used for initial analysis of hybrid IOD gave 616 storable fragments (6.4 per primer on average), nearly half of which segregated (Table 1). Our efficiency of searching for segregating loci was comparable to similar studies in other conifer species (approximately 0.5 loci per screened primer; Table 2). Of the 247 segregating loci scored for IOD, 45 (18%) showed statistically significant segregation distortion at the 5% probability level. Of the 261 segregating loci scored for 3B, 27 (-10%) showed statisti

cally significant segregation distortion at the 5% probability level. Recombination estimators are still valid when distortion is observed at only one locus of a pair (Bailey 1961; Holloway and Knapp 1993; Ott 1991). However, segregation distortion for RAPD markers could result from comigration of fragments coded by multiple loci, competition among annealing sites for reaction components, or other nonbiological causes. Thus, of the loci showing significant segregation distortion, 18 in IOD and 16 in 3B showed only a relatively mild level of distortion (.01 < P < .05), and gave strong and reliable fragments which were retained in the linkage analyses (using the GMENDEL option to correct for segregation distortion). In sum, 81 primers and 221 segregating loci for IOD and 69 primers and 250 loci for 3B were included in the linkage maps.

Codominant Loci

Loci producing two cosegregating fragments of similar size in "repulsion phase" and amplified by the same primer were considered to be codominant, as demonstrated by Grattapaglia and Sederoff (1994) using Southern hybridization. Four such loci were found in IOD and seven in 3B (see underlined locus names marked by 'c' at the end in Figure 2). Thus, of all polymorphic loci we mapped, 2-3% (4 of 221 and 7 of 250) were putatively codom



hand side of the linkage groups. Kosampi distances (CM) are given on the left-hand side. The locus name starts with the capital letter of primer source (U stands for UBC and O for OPERON primers) followed by the serial number (number (from 100 to 600 for UBC, and alphanumeric values of G9, G10, G12, F7, and J1 for OPERON primers), and the size of amplified DNA fragment (number of nucleotide base pairs). Loci showing segregation distortion are depicted within boxes and are followed by s; codominant loci are underlined and followed by c. Loci common to both hybrids are shown by arrows. Loci that mapped to different locations in the two hybrids are shown with their locus names followed by the circled number of the other linkage group. Synthetic genetic linkage groups of two Douglas-fir hybrid trees, 10D (white bars) and 3B (dark bars). Circled numbers refer to linkage group designations for each tree. Locus names are given on the right-Figure 2.



inant and 97-98% dominant. Similar estimates have been made by others [e.g., 3% in longleaf pine (Nelson et al. 1994), 2% in eucalypts (Grattapaglia and Sederoff 1994), and 3% in maritime pine (Plomion et al. 1995b)].

Grouping and Ordering of RAPD Loci

Using LOD scores of 3.5, 4.0, or 5.0 as thresholds for grouping, most loci could be classified into 18 to 33 linkage groups of two or more loci. The number of linkage groups of three or more loci was only slightly different in the range of LOD scores of 3.0 to 4.0. Linkage groups and locus orders (see below) produced by GMENDEL and MapMaker were nearly identical.

We used exhaustive searches of all possible locus orders for groups with eight loci and less. For larger groups we applied GMENDEL kSAR, gSAR, and SAR functions to evaluate the position of each locus by examining various sets of its nearest neighbors. The simulated annealing method was used to improve ordering. The orders within groups obtained with a linkage criterion of LOD = 3.5 were nearly the same as those of the groups obtained with a linkage criterion of LOD = 4.0, differing only at some flanking loci that became unlinked under the higher LOD criteria. The only significant exception was that group 4 in tree IOD (Figure 2) was split into three groups and one unlinked locus under the LOD of 4.0. However, after analysis of all interorder estimates (r, G, and LOD), we found that this linkage group was valid after exclusion of a single problematic locus.

Segregation Distortion

Loci showing significant (P < .05) segregation distortion were widely distributed along the map (Figure 2). An exception was two tightly linked loci, U530_760s and U584_1600s in group 4 in IOD. Clustering of distorted markers has been commonly reported in mapping studies (e.g., Byrne et al. 1995; Cai et al. 1994; Jacobs et al. 1995; Mukai et al. 1995; Philipp et al. 1994; Uzunova et al. 1995). Segregation distortion in conifers, which usually maintain high genetic loads, has frequently been attributed to linkage between markers and detrimental or lethal genes (see Bucci and Menozzi 1993; Lanaud et al. 1995; Mukai et al. 1995; and Sorensen 1967 for references).

The number of RAPD loci that significantly deviate from Mendelian expectation has varied widely among mapping studies of trees (2-79%, mean of 20%: Table 2), but

has often been well above that expected due to chance alone. The 18% of loci that we identified with significant distortion is far above the expected level of 5%, suggesting that biological (e.g., linkage to deleterious genes) or technical factors (e.g., low agarose-gel resolution, inconsistent PCR amplification) also influence ratios. Comigrating and overlapping polymorphic fragments can cause significant deviation from the expected 1:1 segregation of RAPDs in some cases (e.g., Plomion et al. 1995b).

Although there is no consensus among researchers as to whether markers showing segregation distortion should be used in linkage studies (see Kubisiak et al. 1995 for references), they have often not been included because of concerns over PCRrelated problems. However, when linkage analyses included distorted markers many of them map to linkage groups. Bradshaw et al. (1994) observed that the proportion of distorted RAPD markers which failed to map to linkage groups (3 out of 16, or 19%) was comparable with the overall fraction of unlinked loci (19 out of 111, or 17%) in Populus. Nine of 20 and 8 of 14 distorted loci mapped in longleaf and slash pine trees, respectively (Kubisiak et al. 1995).

Although they can often be mapped, inclusion of distorted markers can weaken map structure. Kubisiak et al. (1995) reported that inclusion of distorted markers did not allow further convergence of either the longleaf or slash pine maps, and the number of linkage groups increased (e.g., from 19 to 22 in slash pine after distorted markers were included). We included 18 distorted markers in linkage analysis of hybrid IOD and 15 in the analysis of 3B. The percentage of unlinked loci among distorted markers, 22% in IOD and 7% in 313, was higher than for normally segregating markers (3% and 2% for IOD and 313, respectively). Moreover, when intervals with one or two distorted markers are considered separately, they had greater average map distances in both our maps. Mean linkage intervals were 16.4 for those involving distorted markers versus 12.5 cM for those with only nondistorted markers (t = 1.84, P < .06) in IOD, and 18.6 versus 9.2 cM (t = 4.57, P < .01) in 3B, respectively (Figure 3).

Comparison of Hybrid Maps

RAPD patterns revealed by the same primer were very different for IOD and 3B (Figure 1), a consequence of having to use *Taq polymerases* from different commercial sources

(described in materials and methods). The Stratagene polymerase gave one-third more mappable fragments than did the Promega polymerase (3.6 versus 2.7 bands per primer; Table 1), and only 24 out of 221-250 loci (10-11 %) were comparable for both hybrids (Figure 2). However, when a common amplification protocol was used, the level of conservation of RAPD loci was much higher. Between the 80 megagametophytes of 3B and the 4 control megagametophytes of IOD amplified using Stratagene Taq, 138 loci (-51%) were common, including 103 (-38%) segregating loci among the total 271 studied. This number of comapping loci is very likely to be an underestimate because many segregating loci in 10D were missed due to use of only four megagametophyte samples.

Comparison of the two maps indicated that some linkage groups were common (for instance, Group 7 appears to include linkage groups 4 and 17 in 10D and groups 1 and 2 in 313; see Figure 2). Thus, the total number of linkage groups of more than three loci can be reduced to 13-15 major groups, in good correspondence with the haploid set of 13 chromosomes in Douglas-fir. In some cases common loci were closely located, like pairs 0309-570/ U500-830 (3.0 cM in linkage group 4 in 10D and 2.5 cM in linkage group 1 in 313; see Figure 2). However, there were several cases when closely linked loci in one hybrid were unlinked in another. For instance, loci U249-1160, OG9-870, and U254-910 were located in the same linkage group in 313, but were located in linkage groups 1, 5, and 10 in 10D (Figure 2). The explanation may be that these loci are not the same, but rather contain similarly sized fragments. This may also account for several other mapping discrepancies (marked loci in Figure 2). Thus individual RAPD markers should be employed cautiously when comparing different genotypes.

Map and Genome Sizes

Trees 3B and 10D had 18 and 20 linkage groups, contained 244 and 210 mapped loci, covered 2279 and 2468 cM, and had average distances between adjacent loci of 10.1 and 12.9 cM, respectively (Table 3). Using a 30 cM map scale we can account for an additional 150 and 210 cM for flanking regions and 180 and 330 cM for unlinked loci, giving respective observed map sizes of approximately 2,600 and 3,000 cM and predicted map sizes of 2,810 and 3,540 cM. These estimates are in reasonable agreement with those of another RAPD analysis in Douglas



Figure 3. Distributions of linkage intervals for adjacent loci in genetic linkage maps of hybrids 10D and 3B. Normal intervals are those where both loci that define an interval do not show segregation distortion at the 5% level; segregation distortion intervals are those where at least one of the two loci that defines the interval show distortion. m = mean distance between adjacent loci \pm standard error; N = number of intervals; P = the probability in Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Lilliefors (on standardized data) one-sample test comparing the distribution of linkage intervals between adjacent loci with that of a normal distribution.

Table 3. Summary of genome maps of two Douglas-fir hybrid trees

	Tree 10D (221 loci)	Tree 3B (250 loci)
Linkage criteria	$r_{\rm max} = 0.25 - 0.35$, $LOD_{\rm min} = 3.0 - 4.0$	$r_{\rm max} = 0.25, {\rm LOD}_{\rm min} = 4.0$
Number of linkage groups	20: $16 > 3$ loci, $1 = 3$ loci, $3 = 2$ loci	18: $16 > 3$ loci, $2 = 3$ loci
Number of unlinked loci	11	6
Average distance between adjacent loci		
(cM)	12.9 ± 0.7	10.1 ± 0.5
Total size of linkage groups (cM)	2,468	2,279
Total map distance of flanking regions (cM) ^a	210	150
Total map distance of unlinked loci (cM) ^b	330	180
Total observed map size (cM) ^c	3,008	2,609
Predicted map size $(CM)^d$	3,540	2,810
Estimated genome coverage (%) ^e	85	93

^a Assuming that 26 of the 40 ends of the 20 linkage groups for 10D and of the 36 ends of the 18 linkage groups for 3B trees cover 26 true telomeric regions (2×13 chromosome pairs in Douglas-fir), we can account for 210 cM for the other 14 of the 40 ends [(40 - 26) × 15 = 210 cM] for tree 10D, and 150 cM for the other 10 of the 36 ends [(36 - 26) × 15 = 150 cM] for 3B.

^b Assuming 30 cM for each of 11 and 6 unlinked loci for 10D and 3B, respectively.

^c Sum of total map distances for linkage groups, flanking regions, and unlinked loci.

^d Estimated using a method-of-moments estimator following Hulbert et al. (1988) and Chakravarti et al. (1991).

^e Ratio between total observed and predicted map sizes.

6rir, where estimates for two trees varied from 2,100 to 2,300 cM (Carlson J, personal communication). However, they are significantly higher than estimates from an ongoing RFLP study of approximately 1,000 cM (Jermstad K, personal communication). The reasons for this difference are unclear, but may relate to the map locations of the cDNA-RFLP probes versus RAPD markers or the different quantitative analyses employed.

The Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Lilliefors one-sample test of normality of linkage intervals (on standardized data) revealed that the RAPD markers tended to cluster in both trees (P < .001; Figure 3). Clustering of RAPD and RFLP markers, though observed by several workers (e.g., Eucalyptus grandis and E. urophylla, Grattapaglia and Sederoff 1994; Hordeum uulgare, Giese et al. 1994; Secale cereale, Philipp et al. 1994), has only rarely been statistically tested, and has sometimes been found to conform to expectations under normality (Bucci et al. 1995; Byrne et al. 1995; Plomion et al. 1995b). Visual inspection of our maps (Figure 2) suggests that most clusters are medial, indicating that many may represent centromeres-areas where recombination is typically reduced (e.g., Chen and Gustafson 1995; Tanksley et al. 1992). Medial or submedial clusters of markers appear to be present in linkage groups 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, and 8 (Figure 2). Medial clusters of markers were present in P. syluesMs (groups 1, 3, 7, 8, 9, 10, 13; Yazdani et al. 1995), Eucalyptus nitens (e.g., groups 1, 4, 9, 10; Byrne et al. 1995), and in several other published maps [e.g., Citrus (Cai et al. 1994), P. pinaster (Plomion et al. 1995a,b), P. radiata (Devey et al. 1996), P. taeda (Neale and Sederoff 1991), and Eucalyptus (Grattapaglia and Sederoff 1994)].

There were a number of gaps in our linkage maps. Map densities on the order of 15-20 cM have been recommended for QTL detection (e.g., Beckmann and Soller 1983; Darvasi et al. 1993). However, despite a low average distance between adjacent loci (9-12 cM) and the high percentage of genome coverage based on comparison of our observed and predicted total map sizes (85-93%, Table 3), there were many intervals larger than 20 cM. Assuming a random distribution of markers, a 3000 cM genome, and 95% probability that the maximum distance between loci is less than 20 cM, we would expect to achieve near saturation with 279 loci (Table 4), roughly 35 to 70 more loci than were placed on linkage groups for the two trees in this study. However, because of the tendency for clustering of markers, we

Table 4. Expected mapping efforts required to create a 3000 cM genetic linkage map

Intervals exceeding maximum expected distance (%) Observed Expected number of markers (cM) P_0 10D 3B required (n^a) Expected^b Ratio .90 20 20 12 1.6 10 214 15 34 22 10 2.8229 .95 20 20 12 5 3.2 279 15 34 22 5 5.6372

^o Variables k (genome size in cM), P (probability of coverage), c (maximum distance between adjacent markers), and n (total number of markers) as used in the equation: $n = \lfloor \log(1 - P) / \log(1 - 2 \cdot c/k) \rfloor \cdot 1.25$, which assumes a random distribution of markers (following Beckman and Soller 1983; Lange and Boehnke 1982; Nelson et al. 1993).

^b Assuming random distribution of markers for 3B and 10D, respectively.

^c Ratio between observed (average for 3B and 10D) and expected number of intervals exceeding maximum expected distance.

observed 1.6- to 5.6-fold more intervals that exceeded the 15 or 20 cM thresholds than expected (Table 4), indicating that a substantially higher number of markers may be required for near saturation. Targeted saturation of poorly mapped areas, including unlinked markers and the ends of short linkage groups, is likely to be a more cost-effective strategy to achieve saturation than adding markers at random (e.g., Giovannoni et al. 1991).

Our maps and estimated genome sizes are among the largest published to date for Pinaceae (Table 5). Unlike most Pina

ceae species and the other members of the genus Pseudotsuga, which have 12 haploid chromosomes (e.g., Price et al. 1974), Douglas-fir has an extra chromosome and thus a haploid number of 13. Of the 13 chromosomes, 5 have medial and 6 have subterminal centromeres, while 2 of the smaller chromosomes have terminal centromeres (Livingston 1971). In contrast, there are no terminal centromeres in the large majority of species in Pinaceae, and molecular phylogenetic evidence clearly demonstrates that this condition is a derived one within the genus Pseudotsuga

(Strauss et al. 1990). The telocentrics have been suggested to originate from breakage of one of the ancient metacentric chromosomes, or possibly stimulated by a reciprocal translocation (Thomas and Ching 1968). If true, the genome length of Douglas-fir should be only modestly larger and its genome size nearly the same as for other species in the family. Data on genome length (Table 5) show that Douglas-fir is at the high end, but within the range of estimates for other species. Recent estimates of nuclear DNA content (O'Brien et al. 1996) show that Douglas-fir, at 38 pg (2C), is very close to the mean of 40 pg (range 11-88) for 41 Pinus species (data in O'Brien et al. 1996) and to the mean of 37 pg (range 24-63) for 74 Pinaceae species (Price et al. 1974).

Our results show that Douglas-fir has a large and complex genome, and that a large number of markers will be needed for comprehensive QTL and marker-aided selection projects. Cooperative efforts are currently under way to integrate genome maps and markers for the species (Neale D and Carlson J, personal communication).

References

Aagaard JE, Vollmer SS, Sorensen FC, and Strauss SH, 1995. Mitochondria) DNA products are frequent among

Species ^a	Markers	N⁵	Linkage groups [.]	Markers mapped	Covered by linkage groups (Morgans)	Estimated total map length ^d (Morgans)	Predicted map size ^e (Morgans)	Expected coverage' (%)	Density per linked marker (cM)	Reference
Picea abies	RAPD	96	17-26	165	3.6	4.6 ^g	_	_	22	Binelli and Bucci 1994; Bucci et al. 1997
Pinus elliottii	RAPD	66 91	13–22 13–19	73 91 ^h	0.8 0.9	2.2 1.5	2.9–3.4 2.3–2.4	64–75 62–65	10.7 16.1	Nelson et al. 1993 Kubisiak et al. 1995 [,]
P. palustris	RAPD	$102 \\ 113$	16–22 18–21	133 122 ⁿ	1.6 1.4	2.3 1.9	2.6–2.7 2.3–2.4	85–87 81–83	14.7 13.0	Nelson et al. 1994 Kubisiak et al. 1995
P. pinaster	RAPD RAPD + proteins	102 142	13–18 12–13	$\begin{array}{r} 263\\ 436\ +\ 27\end{array}$	1.4 ⁱ 1.9*	1.6/	1.2–1.4 1.4–2.3	90–100 93–100	9–10 8.3	Plomion et al. 1995b Gerber and Rodolphe 1994; Plomion et al. 1995a, 1996
P. radiata P. sylvestris	RAPD + RFLP + SSR RAPD	25 104	14–22 14	195 261 ⁿ	1.4 2.6		_	_	7 10.1	Devey et al. 1996 Yazdani et al. 1995
P. stroous P. taeda Mean	RAPD + SSR + STS RFLP	76 92	12-17 12 14-20	91 + 5 191 184	0.8–1.0 ⁷ 1.7 1.7	1.2–1.6′ — 2.4	2.1-2.6'	58-60 ⁷ 	14–16 ⁷ 8.5 12 5	Echt and Nelson 1997 Grattapaglia et al. 1992
Pseudotsuga menziesii	RAPD	81	16-20	210-244	2.3–2.5	2.8-3.2	2.8-3.5	91-98	10-13	This study

° The haploid number of chromosomes in all species except Pseudotsuga menziesii (n = 13) is 12. ° Number of RAPD primers.

Major (>3 loci) and total number of groups, "Including unlinked markers with 30 cM map scale, ends

of linkage groups, and linked pairs. P Estimated following Hulbert et al. (1988) and Chakravarti et al.

(1991). 'Ratio between estimated (observed) and predicted map sizes. 3 Estimated in this article as

indicated (footnote d). "Loci with significant segregation distortion were excluded from analysis.

For 152 to 173 framework markers.

Including 20 cM at both ends of five small linkage groups. ° For

244 framework markers. ~ For 69 framework markers.

Table 5. Estimates of genome size for Pinaceae

RAPD profiles and strongly differentiated among races of Douglas-fir. Mol Ecol 4:441-447.

Adams WT, 1983. Application of isozymes in tree breeding. In: Isozymes in plant genetics and breeding, part A (Tanksley SD and Orton TJ, eds). Amsterdam: Elsevier Science; 381-400.

Bailey NTJ, 1961. Mathematical theory of genetic linkage. London: Clarendon.

Beckmann JS and Soller M, 1983. Restriction fragment length polymorphisms in genetic improvement methodologies, mapping and costs. Theor Appl Genet 67:3513.

Binelli G and Bocci G, 1994. A genetic linkage map of Picea obies Karst., based on RAPD markers, as a tool in population genetics. Theor Appl Genet 88:283-288.

Bradshaw HD Jr, Villar M, Watson BD, Otto KG, Stewart S, and Stealer RE, 1994. Molecular genetics of growth and development in Populus. III. A genetic linkage map of a hybrid poplar composed of RFLP, STS, and RAPD markers. Theor Appl Genet 89:167-178.

Bucci G, Binelli G, and Menozzi P, 1995. Identification of a new set of molecular markers in Picea abies Karst. as revealed by random amplification techniques. In: Population genetics and genetic conservation of forest trees (Baradatt Ph, Adams WT, and Miiller-Starck G, eds). Amsterdam: SP13 Academic Publishing; 121-127.

Bocci G, Kubisiak TL, Nance WL, and Menozzi P, 1997. A population 'consensus', partial linkage map of Picea abies Karst. based on RAPD markers. Theor Appl Genet 95:643-654.

Bucci G and Menozzi P, 1993. Segregation analysis of random amplified polymorphic DNA (RAPD) markers in Picea abies Karst. Mol Ecol 2:227-232.

Byrne M, Murrell JC, Allen B, and Moran GE 1995. An integrated genetic linkage map for eucalypts using RFLP, RAPD and isozyme markers. Theor Appl Genet 91:869-875.

Cal Q, Guy CL, and Moore GA, 1994. Extension of the linkage map in Citrus using random amplified polymorphic DNA (RAPD) markers and RFLP mapping of cold-acclimation-responsive loci. Theor Appl Genet 89:60614.

Carlson JE, Tulsieram LK, Glaubitz JC, Luk VWK, Kauffefdt C, and Rutledge R, 1991. Segregation of random amplified polymorphic DNA markers in F, progeny of conifers. Theor Appl Genet 83:194-200.

Chakravarti A, Lasher LK, and Reefer JE, 1991. A maximum likelihood method for estimating genome length using genetic linkage data. Genetics 128:175-182.

Chen JM and Gustafson JP, 1995. Physical mapping of restriction fragment length polymorphisms (RFLPs) in homoeologous group 7 chromosomes of wheat by in situ hybridization. Heredity 75:225-233.

Darvasi A, Weinreb A, Minke V, Weller JI, and Soller M, 1993. Detecting marker-QTL linkage and estimating QTL gene effect and map location using a saturated genetic map. Genetics 134:943-951.

Devey ME, Bell JC, Smith DN, and Neale DB, 1996. A genetic linkage map for Pious radiata based on RFLP, RAPD, and microsatellite markers. Theor Appl Genet 92:673-679.

Echt CS and Nelson CD, 1997. Linkage mapping and genome length in eastern white pine (Pious strobus L.). Theor Appl Genet 94:1031-1037.

Gerber S and Rodolphe F, 1994. An estimation of the genome length of maritime pine (Pious pinoster Ait.). Theor Appl Genet 88:289-292. Giese H, Holm-Jensen AG, Mathiassen H, Kjaer B, Rasmussen SK, Bay H, and Jensen J, 1994. Distribution of RAPD markers on a linkage map of barley. Hereditas 120:267-273.

Giovannoni JJ, Wing RA, Ganal MW, and Tanksley SD, 1991. Isolation of molecular markers from specific chromosomal intervals using DNA pools from existing mapping populations. Nucleic Acids Res 19:6553-6558.

Go4men B, Jermstad KD, Neale DB, and Kaya Z, 1996. Development of random amplified polymorphic DNA markers for genetic mapping in Pacific yew (Taxus brevifolia). Can J For Res 26:497-503. Grattapaglia D, Chaparro J, Wilcox P, McCord S, Werner D, Amerson H, McKeand S, Bridgwater F, Whetten R, O'Malley D, and Sederoff R, 1992. Mapping in woody plants with RAPD markers: applications to breeding in forestry and horticulture. In: Proceedings of the Symposium on Applications of RAPD Technology to Plant Breeding, Minneapolis, Minnesota, November 1, 1992. Minneapolis: Crop Science Society of America/American Society for Horticultural Science/American Genetic Association; 3740.

Grattapaglia D and Sederoff R, 1994. Genetic linkage maps of Eucalyptus *grandis and* Eucalyptus urophyllo using a pseudo-testcross: mapping strategy and RAPD markers. Genetics 137:1121-1137.

Holloway JL and Knapp SJ, 1993. GMENDEL 3.0. users guide. Corvallis: Oregon State University.

Hulbert SH, Ilott TW, Legg EJ, Lincoln SE, Lander ES, and Michelmore RW, 1988. Genetic analysis of the fungus, Bremia loctucae, using restriction fragment length polymorphisms. Genetics 120:947-958.

Jacobs JME, van Eck HJ, Arens P, Verkerk-Bakker B, Hekkert BL, Bastiaanssen HJM, El-Kharbotly A, Pereira A, Jacobsen E, and Stiekema WJ, 1995. A genetic map of potato (Soloaum tuberosurn) integrating molecular markers, including transposons, and classical markers. Theor Appl Genet 91:289-300.

Jermstad KD, Reem AM, Henifin JR, Wheeler NC, and Neale DB, 1994. Inheritance of restriction fragment length polymorphisms and random amplified polymorphic DNAs in coastal Douglas-fir. Theor Appl Genet 89: 758-766.

Kaya Z and Neale DB, 1995. Utility of random amplified polymorphic DNA (RAPD) markers for linkage mapping in Turkish red pine (Pious brutia Ten.). Silvae Genet 44: 110-116.

Krutovskii KV, Vollmer SS, Sorensen FC, Adams WTh, and Strauss SH, 1997. Effects of megagametophyte removal on DNA yield and early seedling growth in coastal Douglas-fir. Can J For Res 27:964-968.

Kubisiak TL, Nelson CD, Nance WL, and Stine M, 1995. RAPD linkage mapping in a longleaf pine x slash pine F, family. Theor Appl Genet 90:1119-1127.

Lanaud C, Risterucci AM, N'Goran AKJ, Clement D, Flament MH, Laurent V, and Falque M, 1995. A genetic linkage map of Theobromo cacao L. Theor App] Genet 91: 987-993.

Lander E, Green P, Abrahamson J, Barlow A, Daly M, Lincoln S, and Newburg L, 1987. MapMaker: an interactive computer package for constructing primary genetic linkage maps of experimental and natural populations. Genomics 1:174-181.

Lange K and Boehnke M, 1982. How many polymorphic genes will it take to span the human genome? Am J Hum Genet 34:842-845.

Livingston GK, 1971. The morphology and behavior of meiotic chromosomes of Douglas-fir (Pseudotsugo meaziesh). Silvae Genet 20:75-82.

Maniatis T, Fritsch EF, and Sambrook J, 1982. Molecular cloning. Cold Spring Harbor, New York: Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory Press. Mukai Y, Suyama Y, Tsumura Y, Kawahara T, Yoshimaru H, Kondo T, Tomaru N, Kuramoto N, and Murai M, 1995. A linkage map for sugi (Cryptomerio japonica) based on RFLP, RAPD, and isozyme loci. Theor Appl Genet 90: 835-840.

Neale D and Harry D, 1994. Genetic mapping in forest trees: RFLPs, RAPDs, and beyond. AgBiotech News Inf 6:107N-114N.

Neale DB and Sederoff RR, 1991. Genome mapping in pines takes shape. Probe 1:1-3.

Neale DB, Kinlaw CS, and Sewell MM, 1994. Genetic mapping and DNA sequencing of the loblolly pine genome. For Genet 1:197-206.

Nelson CD, Kubisiak TL, Stine M, and Nance WL, 1994. A genetic linkage map of longleaf pine (Pious palustris Mill.) based on random amplified polymorphic DNAs. J Hered 85:433-439.

Nelson CD, Nance WL, and Doudrick RL, 1993. A partial genetic linkage map of slash pine (Pious elliottii Engelm. var. efliottu) based on random amplified polymorphic DNAs. Theor Appl Genet 87:145-151.

O'Brien IEW, Smith DR, Gardner RC, and Murray BG, 1996. Flow cytometric determination of genome size in Pious. Plant Sci 115:91-99.

Ott J, 1991. Analysis of human genetic linkage. Baltimore: Johns Hopkins University Press.

Philipp U, Wehling P, and Wricke G, 1994. A linkage map of rye. Theor Appl Genet 88:243-248.

Plomion C, Bahrman N, Durel CE, and O'Malley DM, 1995a. Genomic mapping in Pious pinoster (maritime pine) using RAPD and protein markers. Heredity 74: 661-668.

Plomion C, Durel CE, and O'Malley DM, 1996. Genetic dissection of height in maritime pine raised under accelerated growth conditions. Theor Appl Genet 93:849-858.

Plomion C, O'Malley DM, and Durel CE, 1995b. Genomic analysis in maritime pine (Pious pinaster): comparison of two RAPD maps using selfed seeds and open-pollinated of the same individual. Theor Appl Genet 90: 1028-1034.

Price HJ, Sparrow AH, and Nauman AF, 1974. Evolutionary and developmental considerations of the variability of nuclear parameters in higher plants. 1. Genome volume, interphase chromosome volume, and estimated DNA content of 236 gymnosperms. In: Brookhaven Symposia in Biology, Number 25. Basic mechanisms in plant morphogenesis, June 4-6, 1973. New York: Brookhaven National Laboratory; 390-421.

Rehfeldt GE, 1977. Growth and cold hardiness of intervarietal hybrids of Douglas-fir. Theor Appl Genet 50:315.

Sokal RR and Rohlf FJ, 1981. Biometry, 2nd ed. San Francisco: W H. Freeman.

Sorensen F, 1967. Linkage between marker genes and embryonic lethal factors may cause disturbed segregation ratios. Silvae Genet 16: 132-134.

Strauss SH, Doerksen AH, and Byrne JR, 1990. Evolutionary relationships of Douglas-fir and its relatives (genus Pseudotsuga) from DNA restriction fragment analysis. Can J Bot 68:1502-1510.

SYSTAT, Inc., 1992. SYSTAT for Windows: statistics, version 5. Evanston, Illinois: SYSTAT, Inc

Tanksley SD, Gana] MW, Prince JP, de Vicente MC, Boniebale MW, Broun P, Fulton TM, Giovannoni JJ, Grandillo S, Martin GB, Messeguer R, Miller JC, Miller L, Paterson AH, Pineda O, Roder MS, Wing RA, Wu W, and Young ND, 1992. High density molecular linkage maps of the tomato and potato genomes. Genetics 132:1141-1160.

Thomas G and Ching KK, 1968. A comparative karyotype analysis of *Pseudotsugo menziesii (Mirb.*) Franco, and *Pseudotsugo* wilsoniana (Hayata). Silvae Genet 17: 138-143.

Tsumura Y, Ohba K, and Strauss SH, 1996. Diversity and inheritance of inter-simple sequence repeat polymorphisms in Douglas-fir *(Pseudotsugo menziesit) and* sugi (Cryptomeria japonica). Theor Appl Genet 92:40-f5.

Tulsieram LK, Glaubitz JC, Kiss G, and Carlson JE, 1992. Single tree genetic linkage mapping in conifers using haploid DNA from megagametophytes. Biotechnology 10:686-690.

Uzunova M, Ecke W, Weissleder K, and Robbelen G, 1995. Mapping the genome of rapeseed (Brossica napus L.). 1. Construction of an RFLP linkage map and localization of QTLs for seed glucosinolate content. Theor Appl Genet 90:194-201.

Yazdani R, Yeh FC, and Rimsha J, 1995. Genome mapping of Pious syluestris (L.) using random amplified polymorphic DNA markers. For Genet 2:109-116.

Received March 5, 1997

Accepted September 29, 1997

Corresponding Editor: David B. Wagner