



Marker-assisted backcross breeding in wheat  
by John Edward Erpelding

A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in  
Crop and Soil Science  
Montana State University  
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Abstract:

DNA marker technology provides a tool for genetic investigations and has potential applications in crop improvement. Genetic linkage maps based on restriction fragment length polymorphisms (RFLPs) have been constructed for many crop species. The development of the polymerase chain reaction (PCR) technology provides an economical alternative to RFLP marker analysis. Mapped low copy RFLP makers can be converted to sequence-tagged-site (STS) markers that are amplified by PCR. The successful application of the approach relies on the ability to emulate RFLP information. The cereals provide a unique system to test the applicability, since a considerable degree of synteny exist between related species and RFLP markers can be transferred between species. STS-PCR amplification products were mapped in wheat using the nullisomic-tetrasomic series and in barley with wheat-barley addition lines. STS amplification products mapped to the same homoeologous group in wheat as the RFLP approximately 70% of the time. Barley STS location corresponded to the RFLP location approximately 60% of the time. RFLP mapping information was transferable 82% of the time between wheat and barley. The same homoeologous chromosomes was identified 74% of the time with the STS-PCR system. Multiple STS locations were generally mapped in wheat. Southern analysis was used to evaluate the homology of the amplification products to the RFLP clone. Homologous sequences were generally amplified, but non-homologous sequences were also amplified. The results indicated that RFLP location could provide an indication of the STS location in both wheat and barley, but amplification of unmapped RFLP locations and non-homologous sequences is a factor to consider in their application.

The potential application of STS markers in a backcross breeding program to introgress Russian wheat aphid resistance into wheat was also investigated. Molecular markers provide a tool in which the genotype of a plant can be evaluated in early generations, allowing for increased selection efficiency. Three recombinant inbred populations were established from crosses between a Russian wheat aphid resistant line, PI372129, and two Montana hard red spring wheat cultivars, Pondera and Newana, in order to evaluate the level of donor genome and potential correlations with phenotypic performance. The percentage of donor genome, based on marker analysis, varied between the lines within the populations. Significant positive correlations between percentage of donor genome with plant height and straw strength were observed for the Pondera single cross population. No significant correlations were observed for the two backcross populations. The backcross population means approached that of the recurrent parent with a decrease in lines significantly different from the recurrent parent. Results suggests that molecular marker could be used to select for the recurrent parent genotype, and provide optimism for marker-assisted selection to recover the recurrent parent phenotype.

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in

**Crop and Soil Science**

**MONTANA STATE UNIVERSITY**  
**Bozeman, Montana**

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APPROVAL

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John Edward Erpelding

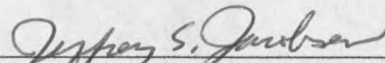
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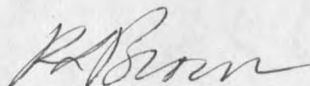
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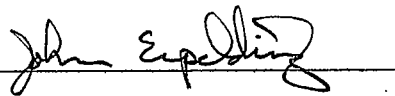
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## ABSTRACT

DNA marker technology provides a tool for genetic investigations and has potential applications in crop improvement. Genetic linkage maps based on restriction fragment length polymorphisms (RFLPs) have been constructed for many crop species. The development of the polymerase chain reaction (PCR) technology provides an economical alternative to RFLP marker analysis. Mapped low copy RFLP makers can be converted to sequence-tagged-site (STS) markers that are amplified by PCR. The successful application of the approach relies on the ability to emulate RFLP information. The cereals provide a unique system to test the applicability, since a considerable degree of synteny exist between related species and RFLP markers can be transferred between species. STS-PCR amplification products were mapped in wheat using the nullisomic-tetrasomic series and in barley with wheat-barley addition lines. STS amplification products mapped to the same homoeologous group in wheat as the RFLP approximately 70% of the time. Barley STS location corresponded to the RFLP location approximately 60% of the time. RFLP mapping information was transferable 82% of the time between wheat and barley. The same homoeologous chromosomes was identified 74% of the time with the STS-PCR system. Multiple STS locations were generally mapped in wheat. Southern analysis was used to evaluate the homology of the amplification products to the RFLP clone. Homologous sequences were generally amplified, but non-homologous sequences were also amplified. The results indicated that RFLP location could provide an indication of the STS location in both wheat and barley, but amplification of unmapped RFLP locations and non-homologous sequences is a factor to consider in their application.

The potential application of STS markers in a backcross breeding program to introgress Russian wheat aphid resistance into wheat was also investigated. Molecular markers provide a tool in which the genotype of a plant can be evaluated in early generations, allowing for increased selection efficiency. Three recombinant inbred populations were established from crosses between a Russian wheat aphid resistant line, PI372129, and two Montana hard red spring wheat cultivars, Pondera and Newana, in order to evaluate the level of donor genome and potential correlations with phenotypic performance. The percentage of donor genome, based on marker analysis, varied between the lines within the populations. Significant positive correlations between percentage of donor genome with plant height and straw strength were observed for the Pondera single cross population. No significant correlations were observed for the two backcross populations. The backcross population means approached that of the recurrent parent with a decrease in lines significantly different from the recurrent parent. Results suggests that molecular marker could be used to select for the recurrent parent genotype, and provide optimism for marker-assisted selection to recover the recurrent parent phenotype.

## CHAPTER 1

### INTRODUCTION

Wheat has a major impact on the economy of Montana as well as the rest of the world. Montana is ranked third in the United States for total wheat production and second in the production of hard red spring wheat, accounting for 15 to 20% of the nation's total (Montana Agricultural Statistics 1994). Wheat is second only to maize in total acreage and production in the United States (Briggle and Curtis 1987). Approximately 20% of the world's arable land (232 million ha) is sown to wheat, which is more than any of the other crop species, thus making wheat the world's leading cereal crop (Briggle and Curtis 1987; Wiese 1977). Wheat is cultivated under the greatest range of environmental conditions and is the most broadly adapted of the cereal crops (Briggle and Curtis 1987). Approximately 40% of the world's population relies on wheat as a staple food, which supplies 20% of the caloric intake (Wiese 1977). Wheat can be used to make a variety of food products, but breadmaking properties unique to hard wheats have contributed to the economic importance of the crop worldwide. Wheat has been under cultivation for over 10,000 years.

It was the conscious efforts of early man to select mutant plants with desirable phenotypes and save this seed to be replanted the following growing season that altered the genetic information being passed to the next generation. These efforts of man, along with environmental selection pressure, have contributed to the evolution of the crop species (Helbaek 1959). Crop evolutionary development proceeded at a very slow rate, but can be considered one of the greatest accomplishments of mankind. The art of breeding plants to meet human needs has since taken on a more scientific approach with the application of the principles of genetics. Plant breeders are faced with new challenges as agriculture continues to evolve. Recent advances in technology offer new tools to further increase the efficiency of the breeding process.

The major endeavor of the plant breeder is to increase the overall productivity of the crop species while maintaining or improving a desired standard of quality. This objective is achievable by the assemblage of many favorable genes into a single cultivar through hybridization followed by selection. The greatest challenge faced by the plant breeder is the identification of plants with the most favorable combination of genes. The dramatic success that is possible is exemplified in maize, where productivity, as measured by the grain yield, has more than doubled within the past 30 years with the introduction in the 1960's of single cross hybrids (Tollenaar et al. 1994). A similar situation exists for wheat where productivity has increased by 250% since the turn of the century, with the majority of this increase occurring within the last 40 years (Slafer et al. 1994). One of the key factors to the continual success in plant breeding is genetic diversity, but the process

of breeding itself erodes this diversity by placing strong selection pressure on a limited set of desirable traits. The resultant narrowing of the germplasm base is of considerable concern, especially with introduced self-pollinated crops where diversity can be dramatically reduced over a relatively short time frame.

The cultivation of crop species with a narrow germplasm base over a wide geographical range provides an opportunity for pests to cause considerable damage. A classic example is the severe wheat stem rust epidemics affecting wheat productivity at the turn of the century. An estimated 38% of the wheat crop was lost due to stem rust (*Puccinia graminis* Pers. f. sp. *tritici* Eriks. & Henn.) in 1916, with a 66% reduction in yield in the North Central states of Minnesota, North Dakota, and South Dakota (Loegering et al. 1967; Roelfs 1982). These losses were so devastating and had such an economic impact that a federal program was initiated to eliminate the principle alternate host, barberry (*Berberis vulgaris* L.), in 1918 (Roelfs 1982). The elimination of barberry reduced the level of inoculum and disrupted the pathogen's sexual cycle resulting in more sporadic epidemics. Stem rust remained a major threat and in 1935 North Dakota suffered the single greatest statewide loss to be reported, estimated to be 57% (Schafer 1987). A more recent example of the potential threat pests can inflict on crop productivity due to the reliance on a narrow germplasm base was the Southern corn leaf blight epiphytotic in 1969 through 1971 affecting maize production. The leaf blight fungus, *Bipolaris maydis* (Nisik.) Shoem., was estimated to have caused \$1 billion in losses in 1970 and in the

process eliminated the wide spread use of Texas male sterile cytoplasm in the hybrid seed corn industry (Smith and White 1988).

Resistance breeding is a major component of many breeding programs, and provides an economical means of controlling crop losses due to pests. The paucity of resistance genes in adapted germplasm has led to investigations of more diverse sources. The ability to transfer the gene(s) to commercial cultivars determines the usefulness of the resistance. One breeding procedure that is commonly used to facilitate the transfer of genes from nonadapted to adapted germplasm is backcrossing. The procedure involves repeatedly crossing derived progeny to the adapted (recurrent) parent. The goal of the procedure is to eliminate the majority of the nonadapted (donor) genome and recover the recurrent parent genome with the addition of the gene of interest. Approximately 99% of the recurrent parent genome may be recovered after six backcross generations. Eight or more backcrosses may be performed to insure a greater recovery of the recurrent parent genome, making the process time consuming (Young and Tanksley 1989). The success in deriving a suitable variety can also be greatly influenced by the starting material. Recent advancements in DNA marker technology may provide a means to increase the overall efficiency of the procedure.

The development of molecular markers and the construction of genetic linkage maps have a number of potential applications that can aid plant breeding endeavors, and thus make the art of plant breeding a more exact science. Molecular markers have been used to study the complex inheritance of quantitative traits, which are under the control of

many genes with small effects and also significantly influenced by environmental factors. Markers have aided in the dissection of these quantitative traits, thus providing the means to evaluate the characters as simply inherited Mendelian factors. The application of markers has allowed specific chromosomal regions to be identified as having major influence on the genetic variation. These markers can then be used to be manipulated the trait more efficiently in the breeding process by providing a means to monitor inheritance. Molecular markers can also serve as linked tags to specific genes of interest. This provides a means to indirectly monitor the transfer of the gene, and allows efficient selection to be practiced without evaluating the phenotype of the gene. Molecular tags allow for early generation screening for the desired gene without being destructive to the plant. Molecular tags for pest resistance genes can reduce the costs associated with screening for the resistant phenotype and reduce the inherent inaccuracies of phenotype selection. Molecular markers can thus be used to monitor the introgression of genes in a backcross breeding program, and based on mathematical models marker-assisted selection should aid in the efficient recovery of the recurrent parent genotype.

We wish to test the potential benefit molecular markers may provide towards increasing the efficiency of backcross breeding for pest resistance. A research project was conducted to evaluate the applicability of marker-assisted selection in the recovery of the recurrent parent phenotype in an effort to introgress Russian wheat aphid resistance into Montana hard red spring wheat varieties.

The wheat and barley projects at Montana State University have initiated an effort to convert mapped low copy restriction fragment length polymorphisms (RFLPs) to sequence-tagged-site polymerase chain reaction (STS-PCR) markers for use in various breeding applications. The conversion of RFLPs to STS-PCR markers involves the sequencing of the ends of the clones followed by the designing of primer sets from the sequence information (Talbert et al. 1994). The primer pairs are then recognized by the polymerase chain reaction (PCR) which initiates the amplification of a specific DNA sequence flanked by the pair. The amplified fragments can be evaluated in a similar fashion as with RFLP markers.

One concern in a number of the genetic analyses is the chromosomal coverage obtained for the STS-PCR markers. A related concern is the correspondence of chromosomal location between species and the ability to predict map location based on RFLP mapping data, since the STS markers have been derived from various RFLP clone sources. A study was conducted to address these concerns and provide information on the applicability of transferring marker data from various species.



## CHAPTER 2

### MAPPING AND EVALUATION OF STS-PCR MARKERS

#### Literature Review

Botstein et al. (1980) proposed the use of RFLPs in the development of a genetic linkage map of the human genome. There has been a concerted effort to develop RFLP maps for many of the crop species. RFLP maps have been developed for wheat (Liu and Tsunewaki 1991; Nelson et al. 1995a,b), barley (Graner et al. 1991; Heun et al. 1991; Kleinhofs et al. 1993), rice (Causse et al. 1994; McCouch et al. 1988), rye (Philipp et al. 1994; Wanous et al. 1995) and oat (O'Donoghue et al. 1995). Genetic maps have also been constructed for the diploid progenitors of wheat and oat to serve as starting points for map development in the cultivated polyploid forms (Gill et al. 1991; Kam-Morgan et al. 1989; O'Donoghue et al. 1992). Map construction for the cereals has been aided by the fact that RFLP clones isolated and mapped from related species often hybridized to homologous sequences in other species (O'Donoghue et al. 1995). Comparative mapping results have indicated a conservation of marker order suggesting that mapping information may be transferable across species (Ahn et al. 1993; Devos et al. 1993; Kurata et al. 1994). The conservation of RFLP map order among the cereals has shown some

correspondence to the genetics underlying similar phenotypes in related crops (Pereira and Lee 1995). Their results suggest that genomic regions in sorghum controlling plant height produce similar phenotypes to the corresponding homoeologous regions in maize due to similar gene action and function. Syntenous relationships among the cereals have also enabled Laurie et al. (1994) to identify a photoperiod response gene on barley chromosome 2H based on comparative mapping data and the known existence of photoperiod response genes on wheat homoeologous group 2 chromosomes. A similar situation has been identified for the wheat vernalization gene (*Vrn1*), located on wheat chromosome 5A, in that homoeoloci have been identified on the homoeologous barley chromosome 5H, loci *Sh2*, and on the homoeologous rye chromosome 5R, locus *Sp1* (Galiba et al. 1995). The ability to capitalize on the genetic conservation in cereals has added to the scope of the mapping data. The refinement of RFLP maps along with the development of new technologies has made this information more applicable to many plant breeding endeavors.

Conversion of mapped RFLP markers to a STS-PCR based marker system offers several attractive features to the plant geneticist. These include the relative ease, greater throughput and safety of PCR analysis, convenience of sharing primer sequences, and the relatively small amount and reduced quality of genomic DNA acceptable for use in PCR applications. The STS-PCR system is also less affected by reaction conditions as compared to other PCR-based approaches.

Olson et al. (1989) proposed the use of STSs as a common language for the development and synthesis of a physical map of the human genome. STS technology has since been extended to several cereals, including wheat (Talbert et al. 1994), barley (Tragoonrung et al. 1992), and rice (Inoue et al. 1994; Williams et al. 1991), where mapped RFLP clones have been sequenced and primer sets designed for use in PCR analysis. The resultant codominant nature of the STS amplification products makes the information content comparable to that obtained from RFLP analysis.

Recent experiments have shown that STS-PCR primer sets developed in wheat and barley may be, as with RFLPs, transferable between the two crops (Talbert et al. 1994), thus increasing their potential usefulness. Storlie and Talbert (1993) showed that primer set ST4,6, developed from a barley chromosome 4H genomic clone, also marked wheat homoeologous group 4 chromosomes. Nieto-Lopez and Blake (1994) found that primer set KSUD14, developed from a *Triticum tauschii* genomic clone and mapped on chromosome 1D, was associated with a gene for Russian wheat aphid resistance on the homoeologous barley chromosome 1H. There are also cases whereby STS primer sets do not appear to amplify homologous sequences between wheat and barley. Talbert et al. (1996) found that four primer sets designed from oat and barley RFLP clones and mapped on barley chromosome 4H did not amplify products from wheat homoeologous group 4 chromosomes. These inconsistent results would suggest a potential limitation to the transferability of STS primer sets between related species.

Transferability of STS marker information between related species would enhance the general utility of STS technology. A research project was conducted to assess transferability of STS primer sets between wheat and barley by determining the chromosomal location of STS products in both species.

### Materials and Methods

#### Plant Material

The 21 nullisomic-tetrasomic lines of 'Chinese Spring' wheat (Sears 1954) and wheat-barley addition lines (Shepherd and Islam 1981), with the exception of addition line 1H which was unavailable, were utilized to map the STS-PCR products in wheat and barley, respectively. DNA was extracted from young leaves of greenhouse grown plants using the procedure of Talbert et al. (1992). Approximately 1.0 g of fresh leaf tissue was ground in 15 mL extraction buffer (100 mM Tris pH 8.0, 50 mM EDTA pH 8.0, 100 mM NaCl, 1% SDS, and 10 mM 2-mercaptoethanol) using a mortar and pestle. The ground samples were then transferred to 30 mL Oakridge tubes and incubated in a water bath for 10 minutes at 65°C followed by addition of 5 mL of 5 M potassium acetate with a 20 minute incubation on ice. The tubes were centrifuged for 20 minutes at 25,000 X g with the resulting supernatants being filtered through miracloth into clean 30 mL Oakridge

tubes containing 10 mL cold isopropanol and 1 mL 5 M ammonium acetate. The tubes were then incubated at  $-20^{\circ}\text{C}$  for 20 minutes with the DNA being pelleted by centrifugation for 15 minutes at 20,000 X g. The supernatants were discarded and the DNA pellets were resuspended in 0.7 mL TE buffer (10 mM Tris-Cl, 1 mM EDTA pH 8.0). Resuspended DNAs were then transferred to 1.5 mL microfuge tubes and 75  $\mu\text{L}$  3 M sodium acetate (pH 7.0) plus 0.5 mL cold isopropanol were added followed by a 30 second centrifugation in a microfuge (15,000 rpm). The resulting supernatants were discarded and the DNA pellets were resuspended in 0.1 mL TE buffer. DNAs were quantified by comparison to a DNA standard separated on a 0.7% agarose gel ran in 1X TBE buffer and stained with ethidium bromide. DNA concentrations were adjusted to approximately 100 ng/ $\mu\text{L}$  for use in PCR assays.

#### STS-PCR Marker Analysis

A total of 97 STS-PCR primer sets was evaluated. Primer sets were developed from several sources: (1) 29 were from genomic clones of *T. tauschii* (KSU); (2) 21 were from barley cDNA clones (ABC and BCD); (3) 31 were from barley genomic clones (ABG, BarG10, and MWG); (4) four were from oat cDNA clones (CDO); and (5) 12 were from wheat genomic clones (WG) (Table 1). Primer set BarG10 was designed from a barley PCR product amplified by *T. tauschii*-derived primer set KSUG10. Primer pairs were developed by sequencing both ends of the RFLP clone using the dideoxy chain termination protocol (Sanger et al. 1977). Approximately 200 base pairs (bp) of sequence





































































































































































































































































