

A High-Density Rice Genetic Linkage Map with 2275 Markers Using a Single F₂ Population

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ABSTRACT

A 2275-marker genetic map of rice (*Oryza sativa* L.) covering 1521.6 cM in the Kosambi function has been constructed using 186 F₂ plants from a single cross between the *japonica* variety Nipponbare and the *indica* variety Kasalath. The map provides the most detailed and informative genetic map of any plant. Centromere locations on 12 linkage groups were determined by dosage analysis of secondary and telotrisomics using >130 DNA markers located on respective chromosome arms. A limited influence on meiotic recombination inhibition by the centromere in the genetic map was discussed. The main sources of the markers in this map were expressed sequence tag (EST) clones from Nipponbare callus, root, and shoot libraries. We mapped 1455 loci using ESTs; 615 of these loci showed significant similarities to known genes, including single-copy genes, family genes, and isozyme genes. The high-resolution genetic map permitted us to characterize meiotic recombinations in the whole genome. Positive interference of meiotic recombination was detected both by the distribution of recombination number per each chromosome and by the distribution of double crossover interval lengths.

RICE (*Oryza sativa* L.) is not only an important food crop but also a model plant (Havukkala 1996; Izawa and Shimamoto 1996) because of its small genome size (Arumuganathan and Earle 1991), its high synteny to other monocots (Ahn and Tanksley 1993; Kurata *et al.* 1994a; Moore *et al.* 1995), its efficient transformation system (Shimamoto *et al.* 1989; Hiei *et al.* 1994; Song *et al.* 1995), the availability of large-scale analyses of expressed sequence tags (ESTs; Sasaki *et al.* 1994) and dense molecular genetic maps (McCouch *et al.* 1988; Saito *et al.* 1991; Causse *et al.* 1994; Kurata *et al.* 1994b; reviewed by Nagamura *et al.* 1997), large-insert libraries (Umehara *et al.* 1995), and abundance of genetic resources. Dense linkage maps are essential for key organisms. Such maps facilitate high-resolution genetic mapping and positional cloning of important genes, allow genetic dissection of quantitative trait loci, assist in local comparisons of synteny, and provide an ordered scaffold on which complete physical maps can be assembled. The usefulness of genetic maps thus largely depends on their density.

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The Rice Genome Research Program in Japan (RGP) has been developing a rice molecular linkage map using 186 F₂ plants derived from a single cross between the *japonica* variety Nipponbare and the *indica* variety Kasalath. We previously reported a 300-kb interval genetic map with 1383 molecular markers including 883 ESTs (Kurata *et al.* 1994b). Using the 1383-marker map, we have investigated synteny between rice chromosomes and those of hexaploid bread wheat (Kurata *et al.* 1994a), identified duplicated segments between rice chromosomes 11 and 12 (Nagamura *et al.* 1995), detected segregation distortions in an *indica-japonica* rice cross (Harushima *et al.* 1996), compared genetic distance and order of DNA markers in five *japonica-indica* crosses (Antonio *et al.* 1996b), mapped quantitative trait loci conferring heading time (Yano *et al.* 1997), and constructed the first-generation physical map with an ordered yeast artificial chromosome (YAC) library (Umehara *et al.* 1996, 1997; Antonio *et al.* 1996a; Saji *et al.* 1996; Wang *et al.* 1996; Koike *et al.* 1997; Shimokawa *et al.* 1996; Tanoue *et al.* 1997; reviewed by Kurata *et al.* 1997).

The genome coverage with YACs using all the 1383 markers in the first-generation physical map was about half of the rice genome (Kurata *et al.* 1997). Higher marker density was needed to construct a more complete physical map of the rice genome and to clone genes for important traits.

To construct a more dense genetic map, additional molecular markers have been produced at either targeted sites (Monna *et al.* 1995, 1997) or random sites. As a result, 934 new markers have been added to the map. To determine the centromere positions on the 12 rice chromosomes, 139 markers were assigned to respective chromosome arms through dosage analysis, as described in Singh *et al.* (1996). The main source of the markers mapped at random sites were ESTs in rice (Sasaki *et al.* 1994; reviewed by Yamamoto and Sasaki 1997). Two types of ESTs were mapped: randomly selected ESTs and those showing similarity to interesting genes such as ribosomal protein genes (Wu *et al.* 1996) and aspartate aminotransferase genes (Song *et al.* 1996).

One of the aims of this mapping study was to elucidate situations of 3532 randomly selected ESTs from Nipponbare callus, root, and shoot libraries. The polymorphism frequency of ESTs between *japonica* and *indica* cultivars, redundancy of ESTs, and copy number of each EST were determined, and a similarity search of mapped ESTs was made. We scored genotypes of markers with care to avoid map inflation. Only a high-resolution and marker-dense genetic map constructed from a single cross would permit us to characterize positions and frequencies of meiotic recombination events in the entire genome in detail.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Plant DNA, Southern hybridization, and map construction: The 186 F₂ plant mapping population used was derived from rice cultivars Nipponbare and Kasalath as described previously (Kurata *et al.* 1994b; Nagamura *et al.* 1995). To continue construction of the rice genetic map using the same progeny, genomic DNA of F₂ plants from ~100 F₃ seedlings was retrieved. The quality of the retrieved DNA was confirmed by Southern blot analysis using seven RFLP markers (C198, C582, C1135, and R1925 on chromosome 3, R3011 on chromosome 6, S779 on chromosome 8, and R2316 on chromosome 11). DNA extraction, electrophoresis, blotting, probe labeling, and detection were performed as described previously (Kurata *et al.* 1994b; Nagamura *et al.* 1995). Linkage analysis was performed using MAPMAKER/EXP 3.0 (Lander *et al.* 1987) as described in Kurata *et al.* (1994b). Preferred orders of markers with different positions on entire chromosomes were checked by the "ripple" command with window size 5 and an LOD threshold of 2.0.

Markers: The sources of polymorphic DNA markers for map construction were cDNAs from Nipponbare callus (C numbers), cDNAs from Nipponbare root (R numbers), randomly selected Nipponbare genomic clones (G numbers), *NotI*-linking Nipponbare genomic clones (L numbers), Nipponbare YAC-end clones (Y numbers), Nipponbare subtelomere clones (TEL numbers), and wheat clones (W numbers), as described previously (Kurata *et al.* 1994a,b; Ashikawa *et al.* 1994). Four additional types of polymorphic DNA markers analyzed in this study were cDNAs from Nipponbare shoot (S numbers), cDNAs from shoot of a near-isogenic line, "LR," for photoperiod sensitivity-1 gene (Yokoo and Kikuchi, 1978; F numbers), barley clones from the North American Barley Genome Mapping Project and Andreas Graner (B num-

bers), and maize clones from the University of Missouri (M numbers). Nipponbare shoot cDNA libraries were prepared from etiolated shoot (S with numbers <10,000) and green shoot (S with numbers >10,000) with the SuperScript Plasmid System (Bethesda Research Laboratories, Gaithersburg, MD), as described in Sasaki *et al.* (1994). The cDNA inserts of C, R, and S were sequenced from the 5' end for 300–400 bp, and were searched for sequence similarities in both the PIR (Rel. 48.0) and SWISS-PROT (Rel. 33) protein databases with version 2.0u5 of the FASTX program (Pearson and Lipman 1988). The BLOSUM50 matrix was used as a substitution matrix for scoring similarity (Henikoff and Henikoff 1992). After a similarity search, clones showing the best score with the expected value <0.0001 were considered as functionally identical clones. We used random amplified polymorphic DNA markers (P numbers) and sequence-tagged site markers (T numbers) as described previously (Fukuoka *et al.* 1994; Kurata *et al.* 1994b; Monna *et al.* 1994, 1995; Miyao *et al.* 1996). Forty-three P markers were converted to RFLP markers by cloning the amplified polymorphic fragment. Markers denoted with V and other symbols are clones developed by other research groups. Morphological markers of phenol staining (*Ph*), brown pericarp (*Rc*), and alkali digestion (*alk*) were examined phenotypically using the F₃ seeds from 186 F₂ plants (Lin *et al.* 1994).

Determination of location of RFLP markers on chromosome arms and centromere mapping: The locations of RFLP markers were determined by dosage analysis in F₁ primary and secondary trisomics of IR36 and MaHae, as described in Singh *et al.* (1996). The positions of the centromeres were mapped as being between the nearest two markers located on the short and long arms of a chromosome.

Analysis of recombination: The positions of recombination in the 186 F₂ plants were estimated from the interval between the marker positions in homozygous and heterozygous genotypes, respectively; the number of recombinations and the segment length of each genotype were analyzed by the 4th Dimension Macintosh relational database.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Genetic map: We have mapped a total of 2275 markers with 1174 discrete positions on the rice genome, covering 1521.6 cM in the Kosambi function as shown in Figure 1. If we assume that this map covers the whole genome (haploid 4.3 × 10⁸ bp; Arumuganathan and Earle 1991), then the markers are located every 190 kb on average. The orientation of seven linkage groups (chromosomes 1, 2, 3, 4, 8, 11, and 12) has been reversed from our previous map (Kurata *et al.* 1994b), following the conclusions of Singh *et al.* (1996) on centromere mapping.

We have added 934 new markers to the previous map that was composed of 1383 markers covering 1575 cM using the same F₂ population (Kurata *et al.* 1994b), and we omitted 42 markers for various reasons. The main source of additional markers was cDNA from Nipponbare shoot libraries. The map length was determined by the 1174 frame markers that were the most informative among cosegregated markers at discrete positions in the current map, and the average score of genotypes for the frame markers was 182.5 out of 186 plants. There were 1090 codominant frame markers.

There were only 19 sites where the best marker order was not significantly higher than the second one at the LOD threshold of 2.0, in the 1174 frame marker order. Most of the second marker order of these sites was inversions between the two most proximal markers that contain double crossovers. The decrease in the total length of the current map is mainly caused by corrections of genotypes associated with markers. Although the map is shorter, the new markers have extended the short arm ends of chromosomes 3, 6, 7, and 8 by 1.1, 0.9, 0.8, and 1.7 cM, respectively, and the long arm ends of chromosomes 8 and 9 by 1.3 and 1.4 cM, respectively. Our new genetic map appears to cover the whole genome, because the extensions of the map ends by the additional 934 markers were <2 cM. Our previous map was one of the densest molecular maps, and the average distance between adjacent markers was 1.1 cM. The markers, however, were not evenly distributed. The marker-dense regions where the nearest markers were <2 cM apart were composed only 33% of the total, and there were 60 gaps where the distance between adjacent markers was >5 cM. The additional 934 markers have increased the coverage of the marker-dense region to 46%, and they have decreased the number of gaps to 39.

The first-generation physical map of the rice genome was constructed with Nipponbare YAC clones by landing on our previous genetic map; it covered half of the rice genome (Umehara *et al.* 1996, 1997; Antonio *et al.* 1996a; Saji *et al.* 1996; Wang *et al.* 1996; Koike *et al.* 1997; Shimokawa *et al.* 1996; Tanoue *et al.* 1997; reviewed by Kurata *et al.* 1997). We expect to construct a physical map with >70% genome coverage using the current high density molecular genetic map.

To determine centromere positions on our genetic map, 139 markers on 12 chromosomes were identified to specific chromosome arms through dosage analysis according to the previous work (Singh *et al.* 1996), and tentative centromere locations on the 12 chromosomes are shown in Figure 1. In chromosomes 1, 7, 9, and 11, the centromere was located at one specific map position where markers on opposite arms cosegregated at 73.5, 49.3, 0.8, and 55.5 cM from the ends of short arms, respectively. For chromosomes 2-6, 8, 10, and 12, centromere locations are defined by two flanking markers on opposite arms that span 0.3-, 6.8-, 3.6-, 1.4-, 1.1-, 3.5-, 5.5-, and 3.3-cM lengths, respectively. Since the maximum resolution of the genetic map in this population using 186 F₂ plants is 0.3 cM, the centromere position on chromosome 2 is either 48.6 or 48.9 cM from the end of the short arm. Seventeen markers cosegregated at the centromere position of chromosome 9. Four nonoverlapping YACs were assigned by using 11 markers at the centromere position of chromosome 9; the minimum tiling path for this region is estimated to be 1.8 Mb (Antonio *et al.* 1996a). In chromosomes 1, 7, and 11, total lengths of nonoverlapping YACs as-

signed at the centromere are ~2.3, 1.9, and 1 Mb, respectively (Wang *et al.* 1996; Koike *et al.* 1997; Tanoue *et al.* 1997). Since the average physical length per centimorgan at this genome size (haploid; 4.3×10^8 bp) (Arumuganathan and Earle 1991) and the total genetic map length (1521.6 cM; see Table 2) is 280 kb, recombination in the centromeric region must be suppressed. An inhibition of meiotic recombination by centromeres was first suggested by Dobzhansky (1930) and demonstrated through a cloned centromere in yeast (Lambie and Roeder, 1986). There are marker-dense positions on chromosomes 3-6, 8, 10, and 12, where more than five markers cosegregated in every region between centromere-flanking markers (Figure 1). Many markers at these positions cosegregated because of the presence of the centromere.

Much more frequent recombination in regions of chromosomes distal to the centromere has been proposed, based on studies on tomato (Tanksley *et al.* 1992), linkage analysis of the C bands of wheat (Curtis and Lukaszewski 1991), and deletion mapping of wheat (Werner *et al.* 1992). In the rice genetic map, the inhibition of meiotic recombination by the centromere must be limited to the narrow region around the centromere because the values of physical length per centimorgan are sometimes lower than expected values, even within 5 cM from the centromere. For example, the physical length per centimorgan between R643 and C492 was <182 kb (Koike *et al.* 1997), and C492 was 1.1 cM from the centromere on chromosome 7 (Figure 1). Another example is that the end clones of a 319-kb insert YAC (Y1053) were 2.3 cM apart from each other, and they were mapped as being in the vicinity of the centromere on chromosome 10, as shown in Figure 1 (Umehara *et al.* 1995; Shimokawa *et al.* 1996).

The limited influence of rice centromeres on recombination inhibition is similar to the situation reported in the physical map of chromosome 4 of *Arabidopsis thaliana* (Schmidt *et al.* 1995). In wheat, recent comparison of a physical map with the genetic map with an array of 65 deletion lines for homoeologous group 5 chromosomes revealed that recombination was suppressed in the centromeric region, and that the frequency of recombination might depend on the region rather than on the relative distance from the centromere (Gill *et al.* 1996). This recent finding concerning the distribution of recombinations in wheat is similar to that in rice.

Anonymous cDNA screening for markers: In the Rice Genome Research Program, a large number of cDNAs from various rice tissues and calli have been isolated and characterized with the aim of cataloging all expressed genes in rice (Sasaki *et al.* 1994; reviewed by Yamamoto and Sasaki 1997). These sequenced anonymous cDNA clones from Nipponbare callus, root, and shoot libraries were the main sources of RFLP markers in this map. We have analyzed RFLP between Nippon-

bare and Kasalath by eight kinds of restriction enzymes, *Bam*HI, *Bgl*III, *Eco*RV, *Hind*III, *Apa*I, *Dra*I, *Eco*RI, and *Kpn*I, for 3532 randomly selected cDNA clones. The numbers of cDNA clones analyzed from each tissue library were as follows: 1072 from callus, 1117 from root,

727 from etiolated shoot, and 616 from green shoot. From the results of Southern blot analyses, 1310 clones (37% of analyzed anonymous cDNA clones) were used and mapped at 1403 loci in the current genetic map. Nearly half of the analyzed clones could not be used for

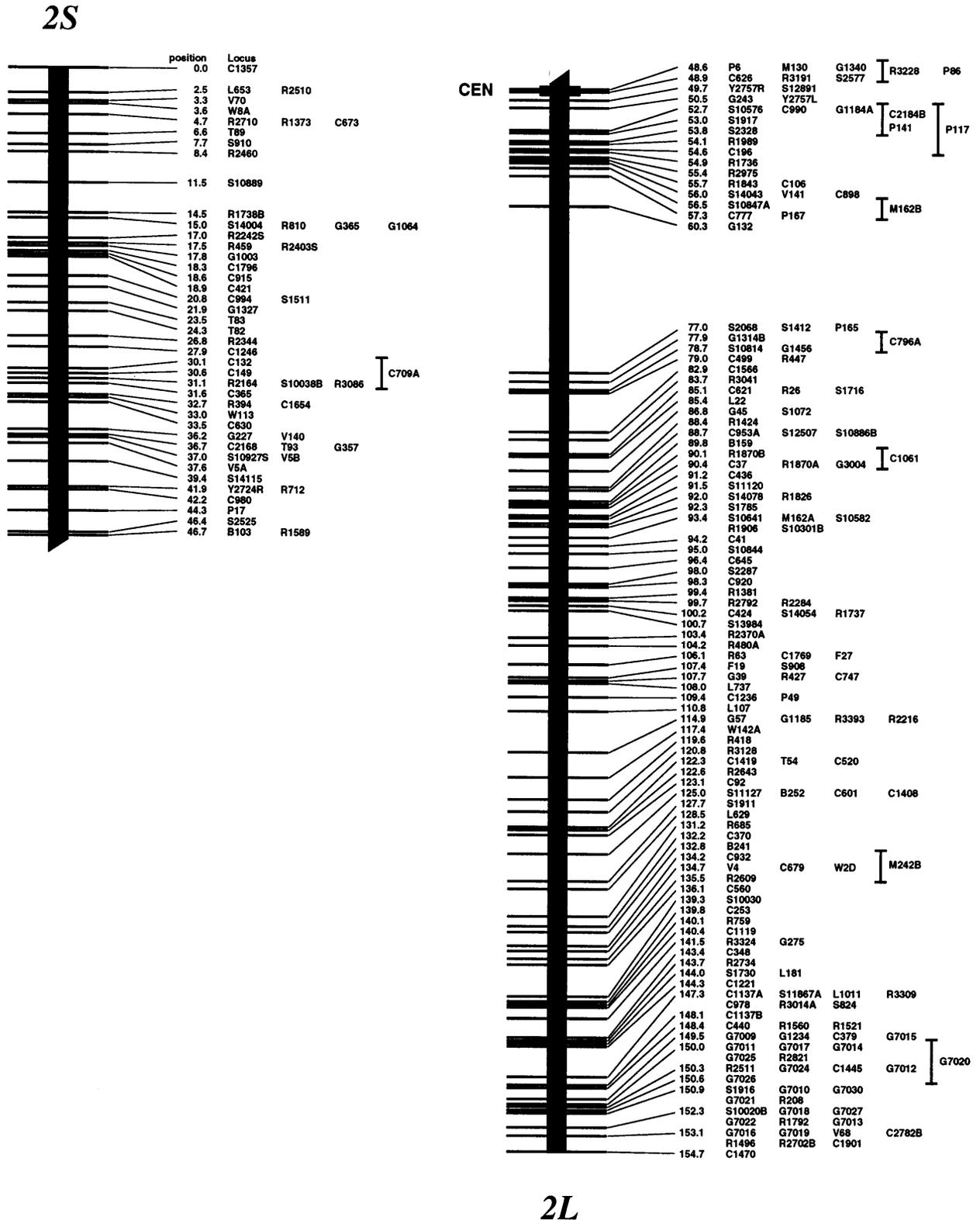


Figure. 1—Continued.

RFLP mapping because they showed monomorphic bands (705 clones), multiple bands, or smeared background (887 clones). Another 630 cDNA clones (18% of analyzed clones) showed the same Southern banding patterns as the previously mapped cDNA clones.

A summary of the frequency of redundant clones in 3532 anonymous cDNA clones is given in Table 1. Twenty-seven clones appeared redundantly more than six times in RFLP analysis. All the sequences of these clones showed similarities to known genes except C854 on chromosome 1. One-third of the highly redundant clones were mapped at more than one locus, and only four clones were considered to be single-copy genes by

Southern analyses. With few exceptions, the redundant clones did not show tissue specificity. The alcohol dehydrogenase 1 clone (C496 on chromosome 1*I*) appeared only in the callus library. Chlorophyll a/b-binding protein (S10558 on chromosome 3) appeared only in the green shoot library. Two types of tissue-specific thionin that were toxic to various bacteria, fungi, animal cells, and plant cells appeared highly redundant. One clone (R1382 on chromosome 7) appeared only in the root library, and the other (S1809 on chromosome 6) appeared only in the etiolated shoot library.

Most of the cDNA markers derived from Nipponbare have allelic bands in the Kasalath genome in

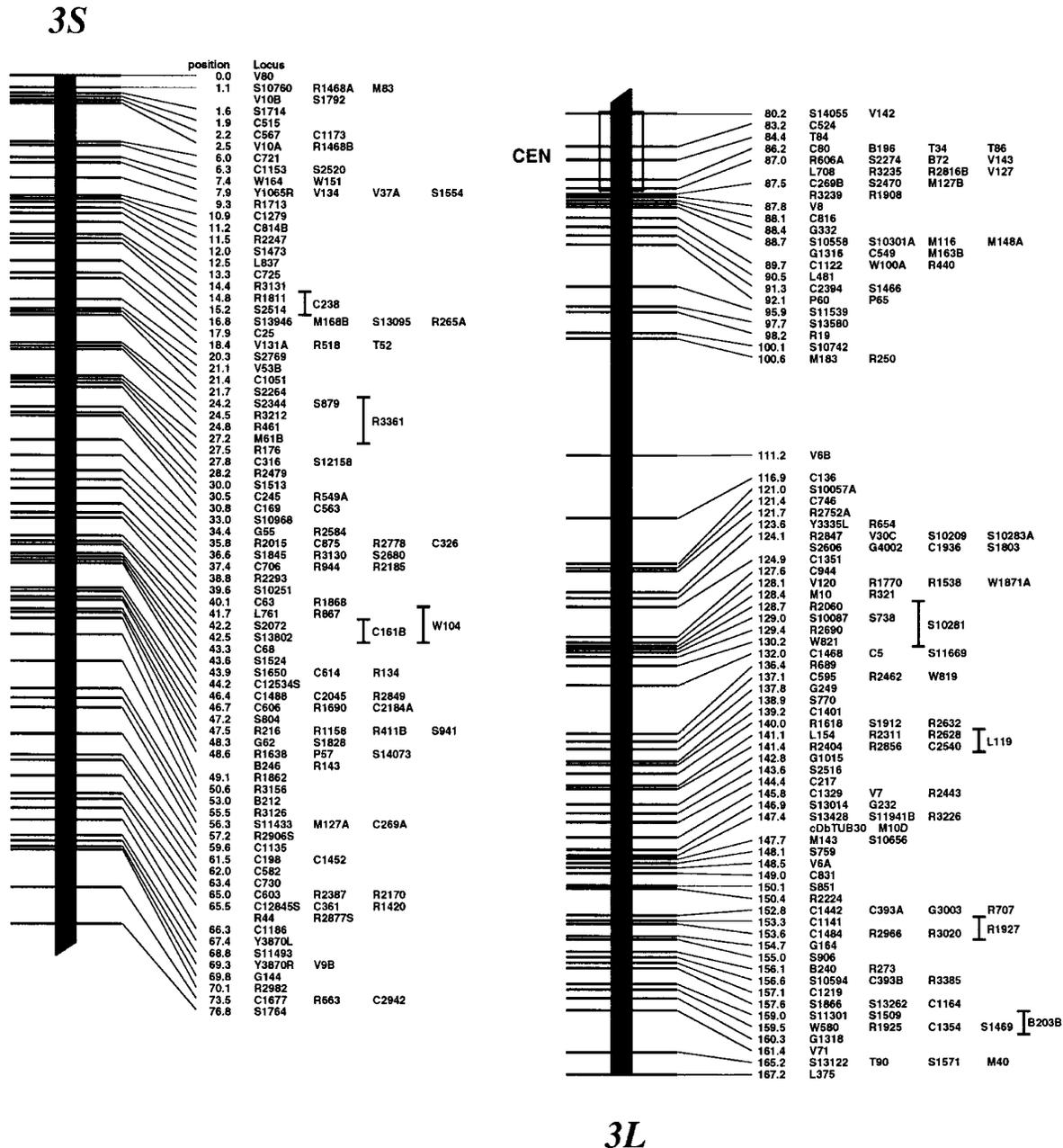


Figure. 1—Continued.

Southern analyses. To learn the frequency of expressed genes in Nipponbare that have no allelic gene in the Kasalath genome, we focused on the single-copy clones. Of the 3532 analyzed cDNA clones, 1307 were considered to be single-copy genes. Among the 1307 single-

copy clones, 650 clones were mapped, 234 clones were redundant to previously mapped clones, and 423 clones were monomorphic. Four single-copy Nipponbare cDNA clones showed no allelic bands in the Kasalath genome. These four loci are S14051 at ~123.5

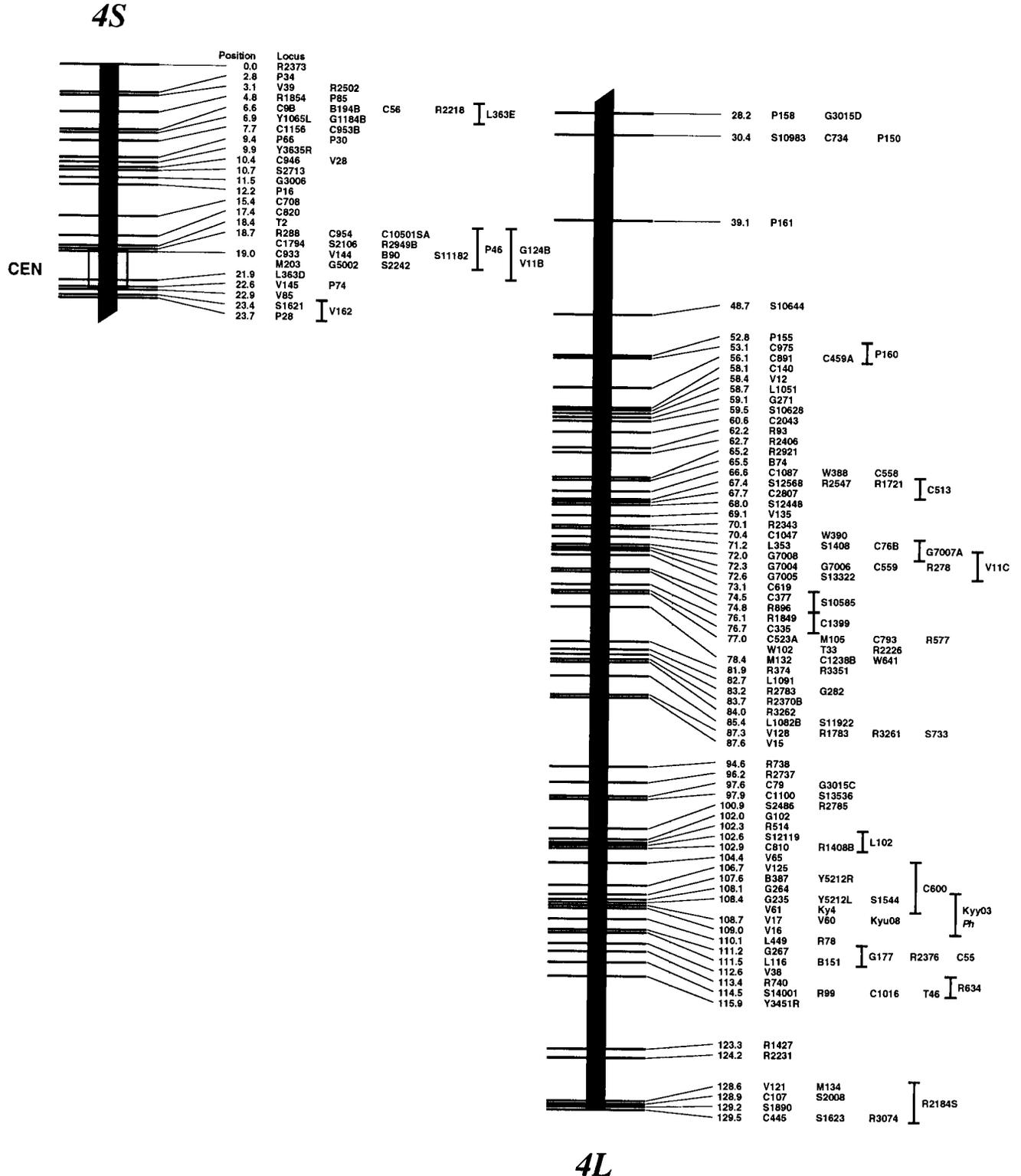


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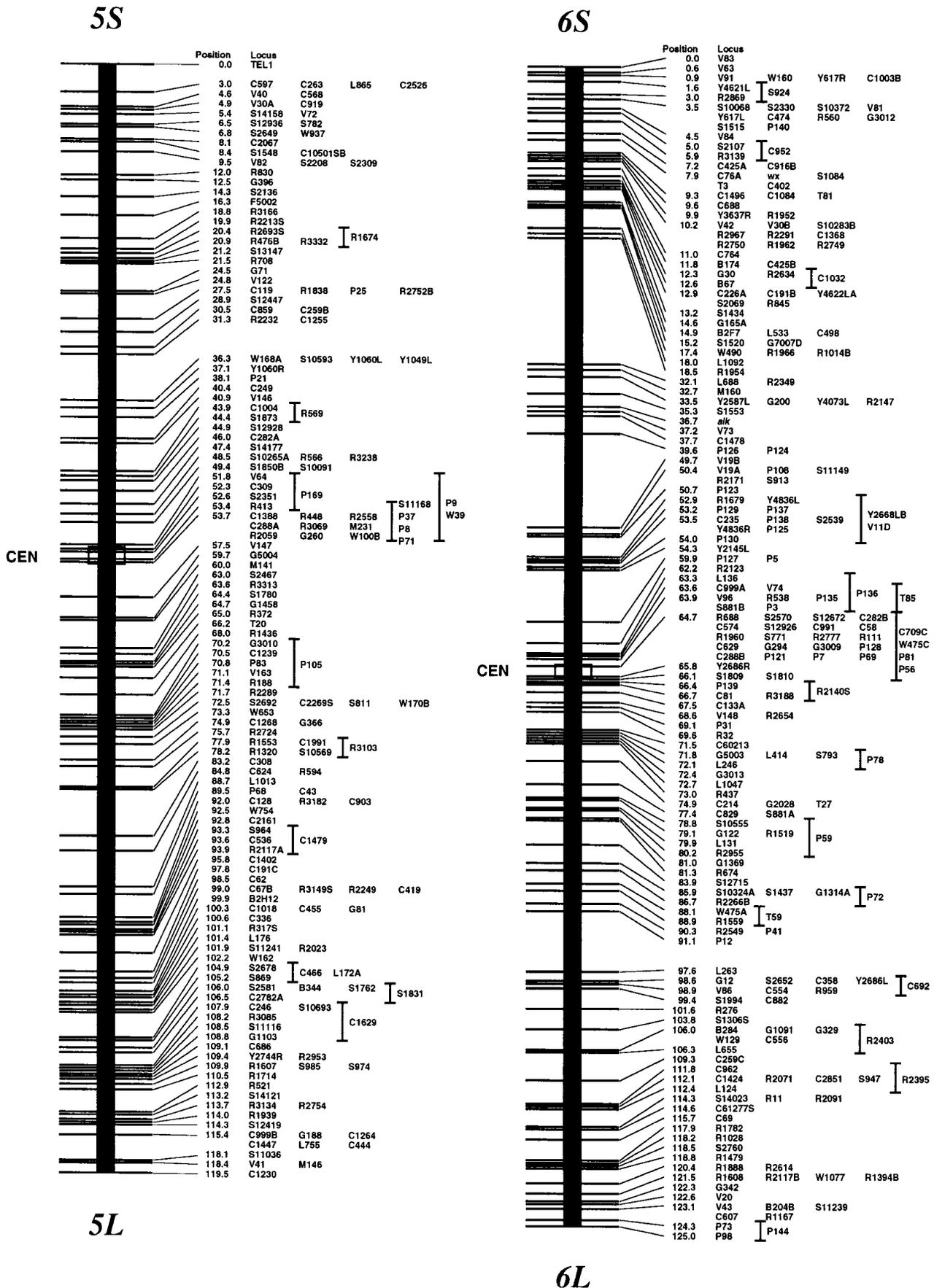


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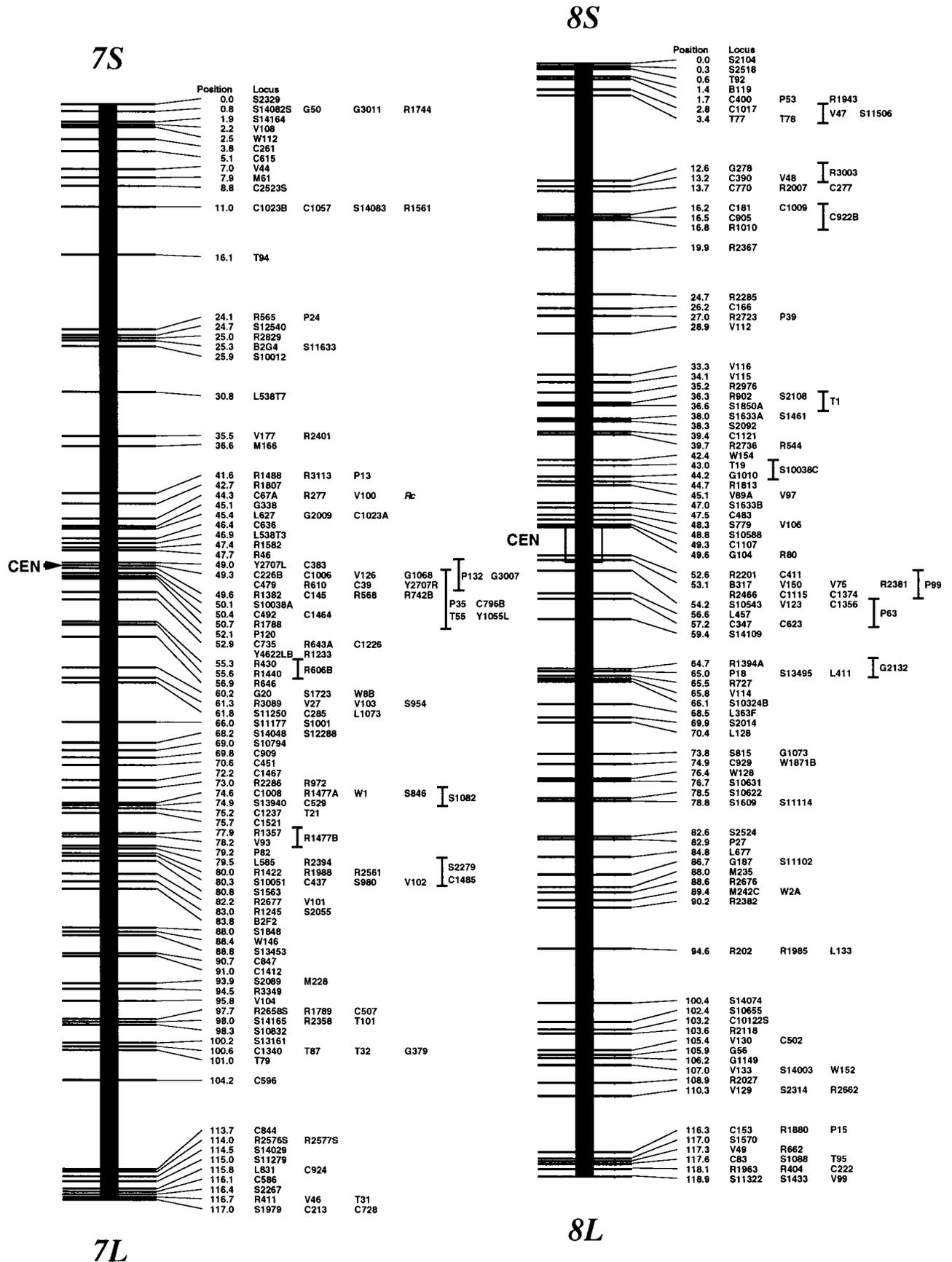


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cM on chromosome 1, C708 at 15.4 cM on chromosome 4, S846 at 74.6 cM on chromosome 7, and R887 at 50.8 cM on chromosome 12. There are no common features in the location of these genes. The sequences of the four clones showed no similarities to known genes.

Sequence similarities to known genes in PIR release 48 (82,182 sequences) and SWISSPROT release 33 (52,205 sequences) were sought for the sequences of

all mapped cDNAs with version 2.0u5 of the FASTX program (Pearson and Lipman 1988). The 585 cDNA clones representing 615 loci show significant similarities with known genes (detailed results will be accessible at <http://www.dna.affrc.go.jp:84/>). Of the 615 loci, 201 loci were mapped by the additional clones, and 414 loci were mapped in our previous map (Kurata *et al.* 1994b). Kurata *et al.* (1994b) detected similarities between 258 loci with known genes in PIR release 37. The

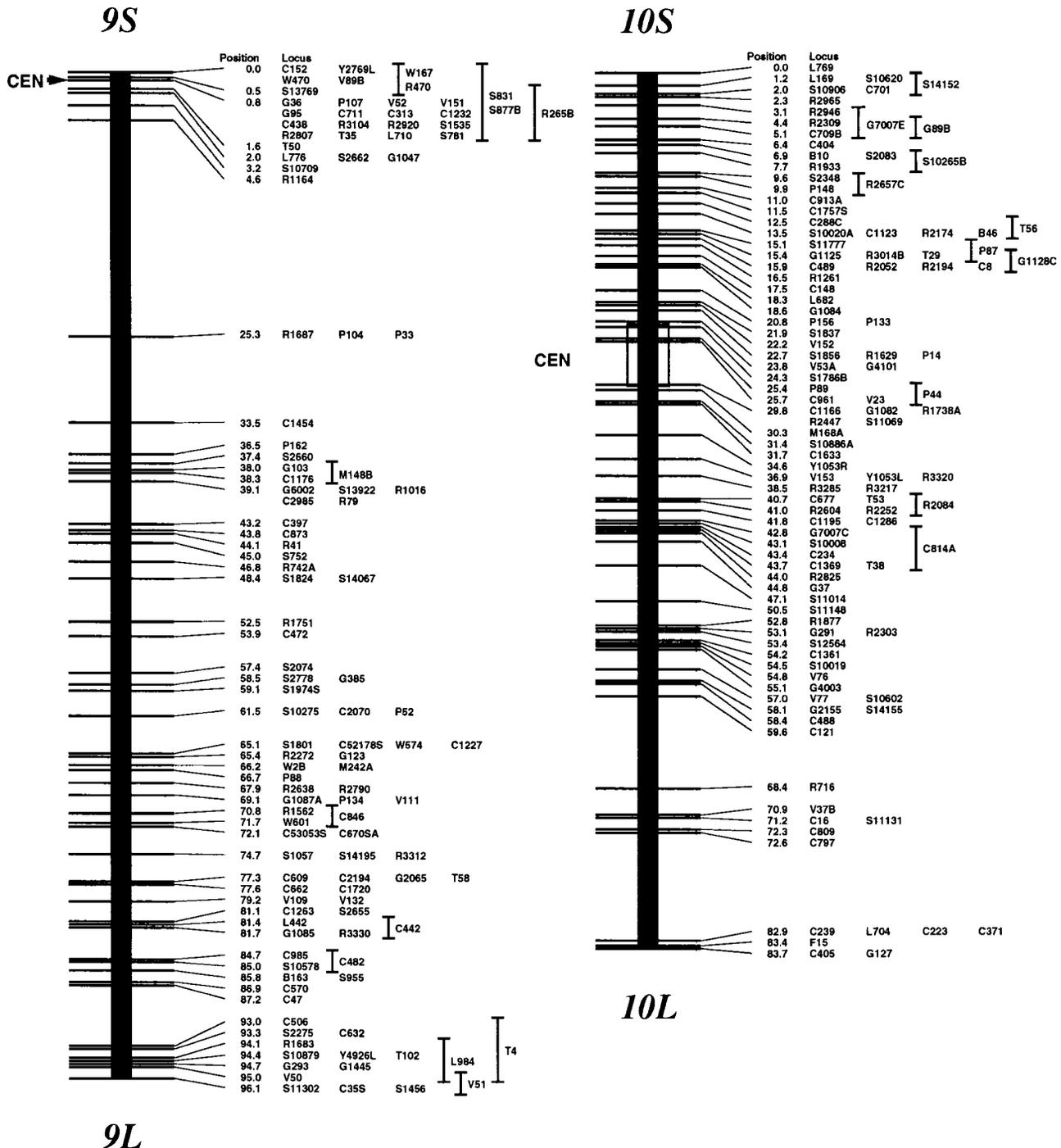


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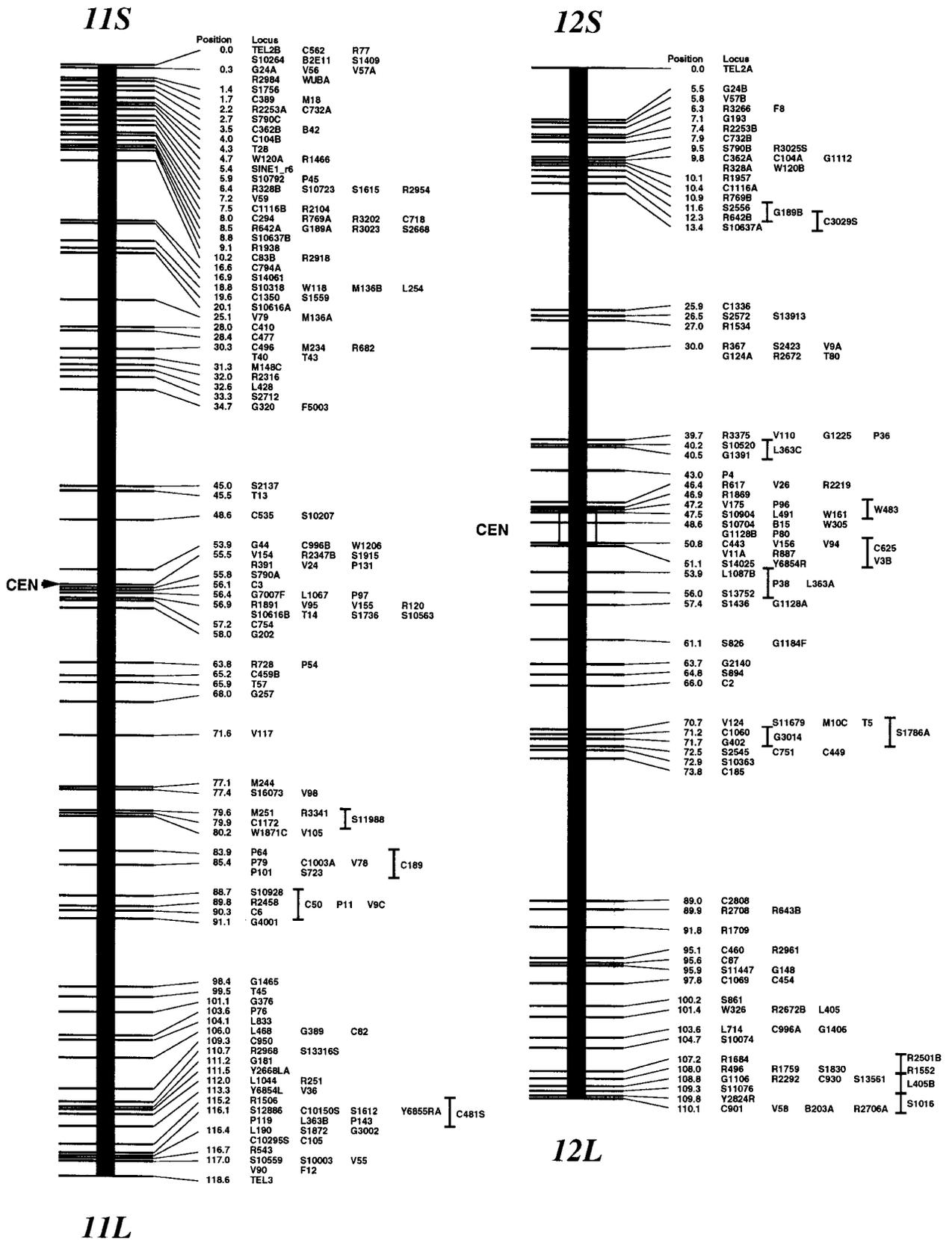


Figure. 1—Continued.

TABLE 1
Redundancy of randomly selected 3532 ESTs revealed by RFLP analysis

A	B	Protein	Organism	C	D	E	F	G	H	Loci
2	194									
3	41									
4	26									
5	8									
6		Methionine adenosyltransferase (EC 2.5.1.6)	<i>Acanthamoeba castellanii</i>	0	5	0	1	M	3	R2167, chr1, 58.4 cM: R2280, chr1, 65.9 cM: R476B, chr5, 20.9 cM
6		Nonspecific lipid transfer protein Cw-21	<i>Hordeum vulgare</i>	0	0	6	0	M	3	S790C, chr11, 2.7 cM: S790A, chr11, 55.8 cM: S790B, chr12, 9.5 cM:
6		Hemoglobin	<i>H. vulgare</i>	5	1	0	0	M	1	C245, chr3, 30.5 cM:
6		Aspartate aminotransferase, cytoplasmic isozyme 2 (EC 2.6.1.1)	<i>Arabidopsis thaliana</i>	4	1	1	0	M	1	C250, chr1, 132.4 cM:
6		GOS2 protein	<i>O. sativa</i>	3	2	1	0	M	1	C1467, chr7, 72.2 cM:
6		Glutathione S-transferase I	<i>Z. mays</i>	0	6	0	0	M	1	R37, chr1, 132.4 cM:
7		Phosphoglycerate kinase (EC 2.7.2.3), cytosolic	<i>Triticum aestivum</i>	5	1	1	0	M	2	R2403S, chr2, 17.5 cM: R2403, chr6, 106 cM:
7		DNA-binding protein MNB1b	<i>Z. mays</i>	4	2	1	0	S	1	C607, chr6, 123.1 cM:
7		—	—	1	1	4	1	S	1	C854, chr1, 126.8 cM:
7		5-Methyltetrahydropteroyltriglutamate-homocysteine methyltransferase (EC 2.1.1.14)	<i>Haemophilus influenzae</i>	0	4	2	1	M	1	R1759, chr12, 108 cM:
8		dTDP-glucose 4-6-dehydratases homolog	<i>A. thaliana</i>	2	6	0	0	S	1	C614, chr3, 43.9 cM:
8		Tubulin α -1 chain	<i>O. sativa</i>	4	2	1	1	M	1	C1468, chr3, 132 cM:
8		Transmembrane protein	<i>Z. mays</i>	0	3	4	1	M	1	R427, chr2, 107.7 cM:
8		Thionin precursor, leaf	<i>H. vulgare</i>	0	8	0	0	M	1	R1382, chr7, 49.6 cM:
9		Histone H4 (TH091)	<i>T. aestivum</i>	8	1	0	0	M	4	C79, chr4, 97.6 cM: C2161, chr5, 92.8 cM: C1521, chr7, 75.7 cM: C2070, chr9, 61.5 cM:
9		Ubiquitin precursor Ubi-1	<i>Z. mays</i>	2	5	1	1	M	1	R810, chr2, 15 cM
9		ADP, ATP carrier protein precursor	<i>O. sativa</i>	3	6	0	0	M	2	C92, chr2, 123.1 cM: R2266B, chr6, 86.7 cM:
9		Heat shock protein 82	<i>O. sativa</i>	5	3	1	0	M	2	R1562, chr9, 70.8 cM: C985, chr9, 84.7 cM:
9		Leaf-specific thionin precursor	<i>H. vulgare</i>	0	0	9	0	M	1	S1809, chr6, 66.1 cM:
10		Heat shock protein 70	<i>O. sativa</i>	3	6	1	0	M	5	C549, chr3, 88.7 cM: C1000, chr1, 143.5 cM: R2702B, chr2, 153.1 cM: R3182, chr5, 92.0 cM: S1524, chr3, 43.6 cM:
10		Glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase, cytosolic	<i>Ranunculus acer</i>	6	4	0	0	M	1	C37, chr2, 90.4 cM:
14		Chlorophyll a/b-binding protein II precursor	<i>O. sativa</i>	0	0	0	14	M	1	S10558, chr3, 88.7 cM:
17		Alcohol dehydrogenase 1 (EC 1.1.1.1).	<i>O. sativa</i>	17	0	0	0	M	1	C496, chr11, 30.3 cM:
17		Glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate dehydrogenase 2 (EC 1.2.1.12)	<i>Caenorhabditis briggsae</i>	7	10	0	0	S	1	R896, chr4, 74.8 cM:
18		Fructose-bisphosphate-aldolase (EC 4.1.2.13), cytosolic	<i>O. sativa</i>	9	7	1	1	M	3	R2657A, chr1, 158 cM: R2657C, chr10, 9.75 cM: C2269S, chr5, 72.5 cM:
19		Enolase 2 (EC 4.2.1.11)	<i>Z. mays</i>	7	10	1	1	M	2	C913A, chr10, 11 cM: R2185, chr3, 37.4 cM:
26		Translation elongation factor eEF-1 α chain	<i>T. aestivum</i>	8	9	8	1	M	1	R518, chr3, 18.4 cM:

Column A indicates the number of redundancy of clones that show the same RFLP image by eight restriction enzymes. Column B shows the clone frequency with the redundancy less than six. The columns titled Protein and Organism show the name and organism of the most similar protein appearing in PIR database R48.0 and SWISS-PROT R33. Columns C–F show the redundancy in callus, root, etiolated shoot, and green shoot libraries, respectively. Column G represents the estimated number of gene copies by Southern analysis, and columns S and M represent the mean single copy and multiple copies, respectively. Column H shows the number of loci mapped by respective clone and name, and locations of the loci are presented in the column titled Loci.

TABLE 2
Distribution of the number of recombinations per chromosome and plant

Chromosomes	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	Total
Genetic length	181.7	154.7	167.2	129.5	119.5	125	117	118.8	96.1	83.7	118.6	110.1	1521.9
Mean	3.56	3.01	3.25	2.49	2.31	2.40	2.30	2.32	1.78	1.62	2.31	2.06	29.43
Variance	2.64	1.89	2.17	1.43	1.61	1.58	1.16	1.17	0.94	0.94	1.38	1.00	23.87
Coefficient of dispersion	0.740	0.628	0.667	0.573	0.697	0.658	0.506	0.504	0.525	0.581	0.598	0.485	0.811
Minimum	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	19
Maximum	8	8	8	6	7	6	5	5	5	4	6	4	46

increase in the number of known gene loci is caused in part by enlargement of the target amino acid sequence database: PIR release 48 has 25,333 more sequences than release PIR 37.

Many family genes were located in the genetic map. Ribosomal protein genes, protein kinase genes, peroxidase genes, and histone genes were mapped at 69, 31, 27, and 20 loci, respectively. Among the 69 ribosomal protein clones, 43 were the genes for the large subunit, and the other 26 clones were for the small subunit. The locations of the 69 ribosomal protein genes were scattered on the 12 chromosomes, as reported previously (Wu *et al.* 1995). No ribosomal protein clones appeared more than six times in anonymous cDNA screening (Table 1). The locations of the protein kinase genes were also scattered throughout the entire genome, except on chromosomes 4 and 10, and no clones appeared frequently in anonymous cDNA screening. Peroxidase clones were mapped on all chromosomes except chromosomes 8 and 9. Histones H1, H2A, H2B, H3, and H4 were mapped at 1, 6, 3, 5, and 5 loci, respectively. Most histone clones were from the callus cDNA library. Three of four nucleosome histone clones, histones H2A, H3, and H4, appeared ~10 times each among the 3532 clones in the anonymous cDNA screening. The other nucleosome histone clone, H2B, appeared five times. The evolution of the histone H4 gene is known to have been one of the slowest, and the sequence variations of histone H4 genes in the public sequence databases are less than those of histone H2A genes (Thatcher and Gorovsky 1994). The differences in the sequence and the Southern images among histone H2A clones mapped at six loci were larger than those among histone H4 clones mapped at five loci. The variations of histone H4 genes in the rice genome is also less than that of histone H2A genes.

Forty-nine isozyme loci are known in rice: 31 have been associated with respective chromosomes, and 13 have been mapped in classical linkage maps (Mori-shima and Glaszmann 1990; Kinoshita 1993). Although no isozyme marker was used, cDNA clones that were putatively identified as isozyme genes have been mapped in the present high-density linkage map. Isocitrate dehydrogenase 1 (*Icd-1*), malate dehydrogenase 1

(*Mal-1*), and aspartate aminotransferase 1 (*Got-1*) were associated with chromosome 1. C399 (isocitrate dehydrogenase) and R886 (malate dehydrogenase) were mapped at 43.4 and 110.6 cM on chromosome 1, respectively. Three aspartate aminotransferase isozyme genes, *Got-1*, *Got-2*, and *Got-3*, were associated with chromosomes 1, 6, and 2, respectively. On the other hand, four loci were determined by aspartate aminotransferase cDNA clones in the present map (Song *et al.* 1996). Either of the two loci mapped by the cDNA clones on chromosome 1, C250 at 132.4 cM or R1764 at 146.7 cM, may correspond to *Got-1* in the classical map. C60213 at 71.5 cM on chromosome 6 and C2168 at 36.7 cM on chromosome 2 would correspond to *Got-2* and *Got-3*, respectively. Two phosphoglucose isomerase isozyme loci, *Pgi-1* and *Pgi-2*, were associated with chromosomes 3 and 6, respectively. C1329 and V7 at 145.8 cM on chromosome 3 would correspond to *Pgi-1*, and either V19A at 50.4 cM or V19B at 49.7 cM on chromosome 6 would correspond to *Pgi-2* (Nozue *et al.* 1996). The phosphogluconate dehydrogenase isozyme locus, *Pgd-2*, and the catalase isozyme locus, *Cat-1*, would correspond to R2869 at 3.0 cM and R1167 at 123.1 cM,

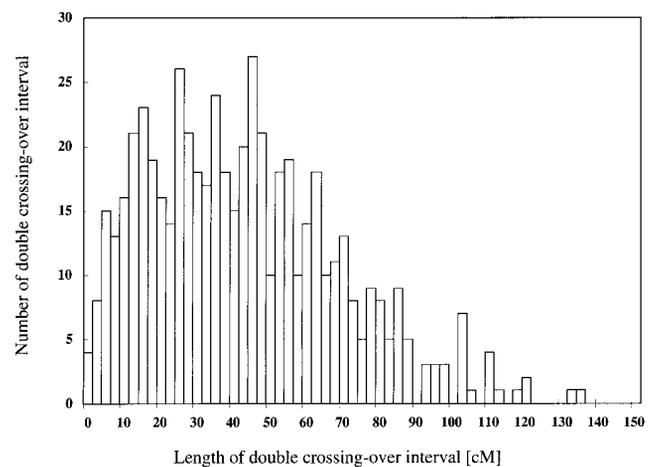


Figure 2.—Histogram of the length of the 555 double crossover intervals. Bars represent the number of the crossover intervals of the categorized range. The range width is 2.5 cM.

respectively, both on chromosome 6. The alanyl aminopeptidase isozyme locus, *Amp-2*, would correspond to R1963 at 118.1 cM on chromosome 8. The alcohol dehydrogenase isozyme locus, *Adh-1*, would correspond to C496 at 30.3 cM on chromosome 11.

Detection of crossover interference: A genetic distance is defined on the assumption that recombination occurs at random in the map; however, the occurrence of one crossover inhibits the formation of another nearby, a phenomenon known as "crossover interference" or "chiasma interference" (Sturtevant 1915; Muller 1916). Because of the low number of informative classical markers segregating in a single cross, only limited information about the process of recombination in the whole genome could be obtained from each cross. In plants, the cytologically observed number of chiasmata during meiosis has been considered to correspond to the number of crossovers, and interference has been studied by counting chiasmata (Hal dane 1931). Recent investigations, however, give different results. Estimated numbers of crossovers by chiasmata counts are fewer than those by RFLP linkage map length (Nilsson *et al.* 1993), and the distribution of crossovers estimated by RFLP linkage map does not indicate interference (Säll and Nilsson 1994). To resolve this matter, we investigated the numbers and locations of the meiotically recombined positions in each analyzed plant.

The numbers of recombinations were determined by counting the genotype changes from homozygote to heterozygote and *vice versa*, along with the map for each plant. The distributions of the number of recombinations per chromosome and per plant were analyzed, and the means and the variances are listed in Table 2. If the recombinations on each chromosome were completely random, a Poisson distribution with the variance equal to the mean would be expected (Hal dane 1931). A coefficient of dispersion, a ratio of a variance to a mean of distribution, can be used to test the Poisson distribution. This value will be near 1 in distributions that are essentially Poisson, <0.795 in the 186 samples of repulsion for 1% significance. In the distribution of number of recombinations per each chromosome, the values of the coefficient of dispersion were significantly <1, indicating that interference was effective within a chromosome (Table 2). The value of the variance linearly increased with the value of the mean, suggesting that the strength of the interference was almost the same on every chromosome. Because the value of the coefficient of dispersion of the distribution of the number of recombinations per plant was not significantly <1, the interference was effective only within chromosomes.

An estimated mean value for the number of recombinations per plant from the total genetic map length, 1521.9 cM, is 30.4; however, the mean value of recombinations per plant estimated by counting the genotype

changes along with the map for each plant is 29.4. The difference may be caused by the Kosambi map function for the intervals between markers, since the differences were larger on chromosomes with large gaps, for example, chromosomes 9 and 12.

Positive interference is also suggested by the lower frequency of double crossovers within short intervals than would be expected in the absence of interference. Because we have used F₂ plants to construct the linkage map, we could not distinguish which gametes were the result of recombination and thus determine all double crossovers. Heterozygous intervals between the same homozygous genotypes, however, are the result of double crossover. We observed 555 double crossovers with various intervals in the 186 analyzed plants. The distribution of the double crossover intervals is shown in Figure 2. A constant frequency would be expected if there were no interference on an infinitely long chromosome, given adequate marker density. However, the number of double crossover intervals with <5 cM was significantly lower than that of longer intervals, even though the genome coverage with shorter interval marker density is 80%. The low numbers of intervals at >60 cM would be caused by the limits of chromosome length.

Clone and data availability: All clones and probes developed by RGP have been deposited and are available for research purposes from the MAFF DNA Bank at the National Institute of Agrobiological Resources (<http://bank.dna.affrc.go.jp>). All the cDNA and genomic sequence data have been deposited at DDBJ, and they are available through DDBJ, GenBank, or EMBL. Detailed information about the DDBJ sequence accession numbers, the gene name with a significant similarity, insert size, Southern hybridization image, and F₂ segregation data for all DNA markers will also be accessible (<http://www.dna.affrc.go.jp:84/>). For wheat (W), barley (B), and maize (M) clones, the corresponding locus names on the molecular maps of those species will also be accessible at that same electronic address.

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