An SSR-based linkage map of Capsicum annuum

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Abstract There are five cultivated species of pepper, of which Capsicum annuum is the most widely cultivated as a vegetable or spice and the main experimental material of most pepper breeding programs. However, the number of simple sequence-repeat (SSR) markers known for C. annuum is limited. To develop SSR markers for Capsicum species, we constructed four SSRenriched libraries from the genomic DNA of C. annuum, sequenced 1873 clones, and isolated 626 unique SSR clones. A higher percentage of these SSR markers were taken from dinucleotide motif libraries than from trinucleotide motif libraries. Primer pairs for the 626 SSR clones were synthesized and tested for polymorphisms; 594 amplified products were detected with the expected size. However, only 153 products were

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Present Address: M. Tsuro Faculty of Agriculture, Meijo University, Shiogamaguchi, Tenpaku, Nagoya 468-8502, Japan polymorphic between the parents of our mapping population. Using 106 highly reproducible pairs from the primer pairs, we constructed a linkage map of *C. annuum* in an intraspecific doubled haploid population $(n=117)$ that contains nine previously reported SSRs as well as AFLP, CAPS, and RAPD markers and the trait of fruit pungency. The map contains 374 markers, including 106 new SSR markers distributed across all 13 linkage groups, and covers 1042 cM. The polymorphism information content (PIC) of these new SSR markers was calculated using 14 lines of Capsicum species. The average number of alleles per locus was 2.9 and the average PIC value was 0.46, even within C. annuum. The SSR markers developed in this study will be useful for mapping and marker-assisted selection in pepper breeding, and the linkage map provides a reference genetic map for Capsicum species.

Keywords Capsicum annuum \cdot Linkage map \cdot Molecular marker \cdot Simple sequence repeats

Introduction

Hot and sweet peppers are members of the Solanaceae family. They have been categorized into five species, of which Capsicum annuum is the most widely cultivated as a vegetable or spice and the main subject of breeding programs for

commercial cultivars. The other four species, C. chinense, C. baccatum, C. frutescens, and C. pubescens, are used to produce spice or used as genetic resources for disease resistance genes (Moury et al. [2000](#page-12-0); Caranta et al. [2002](#page-11-0)). Major breeding efforts on peppers focus on fruit traits, productivity, disease resistance, and the regulation of capsaicin content. However, many of these traits are quantitative, and simple selection based on phenotype is not always effective. More recently, the selection of these traits using molecular linkage markers – marker-assisted selection (MAS) – has been recognized as a powerful tool for breeding. Information on linkage maps is indispensable for elucidating quantitative trait loci and obtaining linkage markers. To date, several genetic linkage maps have been published for Capsicum species. These linkage maps are primarily based on restriction fragment length polymorphism (RFLP) markers generated in tomato, as well as on amplified (A)FLP and random amplified polymorphic DNA (RAPD) markers (Lefebvre et al. [1995;](#page-12-0) Livingstone et al. [1999](#page-12-0); Ben Chaim et al. [2001;](#page-11-0) Kang et al. [2001\)](#page-12-0). Because AFLP and RAPD markers are difficult to use as anchor markers, RFLP markers have been used as in their place to integrate these genetic linkage maps (Lefebvre et al. [2002](#page-12-0); Paran et al. [2004\)](#page-12-0). However, RFLP analysis is a complicated and time-consuming procedure that requires a large amount of genomic DNA, and these techniques cannot be routinely used for MAS in breeding programs. To use the information from genetic maps more efficiently in pepper breeding, the development of a high-throughput system for genotyping DNA fragments is necessary.

Simple sequence repeats (SSRs) or microsatellite markers are PCR-based markers that have been developed in many plant species, including most major crops, such as rice, maize, sorghum, wheat, and barley, as well as vegetable crops (Mba et al. [2001](#page-12-0); Suwabe et al. [2002;](#page-12-0) Chiba et al. [2003\)](#page-11-0). SSR markers have the advantage of being multiallelic, highly polymorphic, and codominant, and have been developed and used for the genetic mapping of solanaceous vegetables, including tomato, potato, and eggplant (Broun and Tanksley [1996;](#page-11-0) Smulders et al. [1997](#page-12-0); Milbourne et al. [1998;](#page-12-0) Nunome et al. [2003](#page-12-0)). Unfortunately, the SSR

markers developed in other solanaceous species cannot be used for breeding Capsicum species, despite a close phylogenic relationship among these species. The recent construction of a linkage map with SSR markers in pepper has been reported using an interspecific cross between C. annuum and C. chinense (Lee et al. [2004](#page-12-0)). The map contains 46 SSR markers, which shows a relatively high level of polymorphism in this interspecific cross. However, the level of polymorphism may greatly decrease in crosses between lines of C. annuum. Crosses within C. annuum are more frequently used in pepper breeding. Whether SSR markers generate enough polymorphism and are useful in intraspecific crossing in C. annuum remains to be determined.

In this study, we have developed SSR markers that are useful in intraspecific crosses in C. annuum, constructed a linkage map using these SSR markers, and evaluated their characteristics.

Materials and methods

Plant materials, pungency determination, and DNA extraction

A pepper cultivar, Manganji (C. annuum), which is locally grown in Kyoto, Japan, and has an occasionally pungent and long conical-shaped fruit, was used as one parent. The other parent was cv. Tongari (C. annuum), bred by Nanto Seed, Nara, Japan. The latter bears nonpungent and long block-shaped fruit. A segregating doubled haploid (DH) population $(n=117)$ was developed by the anther culture of an F_1 plant of the two parents and was used for the genetic analysis (TMDH population). The polymorphism detecting ability of the SSR markers developed in this study was examined using a set of seven cultivars and breeding lines of C. annuum and seven lines of related *Capsicum* species (Table [1\)](#page-2-0). All plants were grown in a greenhouse.

The pungency of the mature green fruit of the TMDH population was determined as previously described (Minamiyama et al. [2005](#page-12-0)).

DNA was extracted from young leaves using a DNA extraction kit (Amersham Biosciences, Buckinghamshire, UK).

Table 1 Capsicum annuum lines and Capsicum relatives used in this study

Capsicum annuum		Capsicum relatives		
Species	Name	Species	Name	
C. annuum SCM334		C. baccatum Aji		
C. annuum LS2341		C. frutescens	Wabit	
	C. annuum Bird Pepper	C. frutescens Tabasco		
C. annuum AC2258		C. chinense PI159236		
	C. annuum California Wonder	C. chinense Habanero		
	C. annuum Fushimiamanaga	C. chacoense PI260429		
C. annuum Ryokugei		C. pubescens Rocoto		

Development of SSR markers and marker selection

Four SSR-enriched libraries (motifs GA, GT, AAG, and AAT) were constructed by Genetic Identification Services (GIS, Chatsworth, Calif.) from genomic DNA of C. annuum cv. Manganji. A total of 1873 clones, randomly picked from the enriched libraries, were sequenced by Takara Bio, Shiga, Japan. SSRs were identified from the sequence data using the SSR identification tool that screens for all possible dimeric, trimeric, and tetrameric repeats (http://www.gramene.org/). Unique sequences containing a minimum of five di-, tri-, or tetranucleotide motif repeats were used for primer design using PRIMER 3.0 software (http://www.frodo.wi.mit.edu/) in a setting of the major parameters as follows: primer size from 18 to 27 bp; melting temperatures between 57 and 63°C; PCR product size from 150 to 250 bp.

All primer pairs developed in this study, plus 42 primer pairs that were used in the SNU2 map (Lee et al. [2004\)](#page-12-0), were examined to confirm that the amplification of fragments resulted in sizes expected from the sequence data. The SSR primer pairs were then used to screen the parental lines for polymorphisms. SSRs were amplified under the following ''touchdown'' PCR conditions: one cycle of 94° C for 3 min; 10 cycles of 94°C for 30 s, 60°C for 60 s, decreasing by 1°C per cycle, and 72°C for 60 s; 30 cycles of 94°C for 30 s, 55 \degree C for 60 s, and 72 \degree C for 60 s; a final extension for 5 min. Subsequently, PCR products were labeled with Cyanine 5.5 (Amersham Biosciences) using a modified post-PCR fluorescence-labeling method (Inazuka et al. [1996](#page-11-0)). The labeled

products were precipitated, washed twice with ethanol, and a mixture of the labeled sample and a molecular marker was loaded onto a Beckman CEQ 2000XL sequencer equipped with a 33 cm capillary (Beckman Coulter, Fullerton, Calif.). The resulting electrophoretogram was analyzed using the CEQ 8000 genetic analysis system (Beckman Coulter).

Scoring of DNA polymorphisms in the TMDH population

AFLP analysis was carried out according to Vos et al. ([1995\)](#page-12-0) with some modifications. The total DNA of each plant was digested with the restriction enzymes EcoRI and MseI, ligated to the two adapters for EcoRI and MseI cutting sites, and then preamplified with a pair of preselective primers for EcoRI and MseI. The selective amplifications were performed using six EcoRI primers and eight MseI primers, each with three additional nucleotides at the 3'-ends. The 5'-end of the EcoRI primer was labeled with D2-, D3-, or D4-fluorescent dye (Proligo Japan KK, Kyoto, Japan). Electrophoresis of the PCR products and fragment analysis were carried out using the same method at that used in the post-labeling SSR analysis.

RAPD analysis was carried out in a 12-µl volume containing 0.5 U Taq DNA polymerase (Takara Bio), $1 \times$ buffer (Takara Bio), $200 \mu M$ each of dNTPs, 0.05% Triton X-100, 0.42 μ M of an arbitrary primer, and 12 ng of genomic DNA. Thirty-three 10-mer arbitrary primers that had previously been used to screen the polymorphism between the parental lines (Minamiyama et al. [2005;](#page-12-0) Operon Technologies, Alameda, Calif.) were used. DNA amplification was performed with a Program Temp Control System PC-800 (Astec, Fukuoka, Japan) under the following conditions: one step of 94° C for 3 min; 40 cycles of 94° C for 1 min, 40° C for 2 min, and 72° C for 2 min; a final step of 72° C for 5 min. The PCR products were separated on 2% agarose gels and visualized on a UV transilluminator after staining with ethidium bromide.

SSR primer pairs that detected polymorphisms between the parents were then examined using dye-labeled primers. The 5'-end of forward

primers was labeled with D2-, D3- or D4-fluorescent dye, and then used to score polymorphisms in the TMDH population. The PCR products were analyzed as described above.

The CAPS (cleaved amplified polymorphic sequence) marker linked to the C gene was scored as described previously (Minamiyama et al. [2005\)](#page-12-0).

Linkage map construction

Linkage analysis was performed using JOINMAP3.0 software with a population type code, DH1 (Van Ooijen and Voorrips [2001](#page-12-0)). As the LOD score was less than six, a large number of markers would be disregarded as insufficient linkage markers in calculating the map after grouping. Therefore, the linkage groups were separated using an LOD score of 6.5. Recombination values were converted to genetic distances using the Kosambi mapping function (Kosambi [1944\)](#page-12-0).

Evaluation of SSR markers using Capsicum lines

The selected SSR primers were examined for the detection of polymorphisms using the set of Capsicum lines described above. We calculated the number of alleles and polymorphism information content (PIC) of each marker locus according to Nei's statistic (Nei [1973\)](#page-12-0): PIC = 1– $\sum (p_l)^2$, where p_l is the frequency of the Ith allele at the locus.

Results

Development of SSR markers

We sequenced 1873 clones from four SSRenriched genomic libraries (Table 2). Of these, 957 clones (51%) contained SSR sequences with more than five repeats. We excluded redundancies and clones with flanking sequences that were too short, and finally selected 626 SSR clones for primer construction. Among the four SSRenriched libraries the percentage of clones containing SSR sequences was higher in the GT motif library (71%) than in the GA, AAG, and AAT motif libraries (32–55%). However, the number of primers designed from the GT motif library was the same as that designed from the GA motif library because of the high incidence of duplication in the GT motif library. Thus, a higher percentage of the final primer pairs designed was taken from the dinucleotide motif libraries than from the trinucleotide motif libraries. These 626 primer pairs were tested for polymorphisms between the parents, Manganji and Tongari using the modified post-PCR fluorescence-labeling method, of which 594 primer pairs (95%) amplified products with the expected size. However, only 153 primer pairs (26%) were polymorphic between the parental lines.

Additionally, SSR markers from the SNU2 map (Lee et al. [2004\)](#page-12-0) were examined for polymorphisms between the parental lines. Of the 42 primer pairs, 36 were suitable for use in the postlabeling techniques. Nine primer pairs (25%) among these 36 were polymorphic between the parents.

Construction of linkage map

Dye-labeled primers were synthesized for the selected 153 polymorphic primer pairs. Among these, 106 pairs demonstrated reproducible patterns in the TMDH population. The remaining primer pairs generated fragments; however, they could not be used for mapping because of faint amplifications or ''stutter'' bands. Among the 106

Table 2 Development of markers from four simple sequence repeat (SSR)-enriched genomic libraries in pepper

Repeat motif	Clones sequenced	Clones with SSRs $(\%)$	Primer pairs designed $(\%)$	PCR amplification	Polymorphisms between parental lines $(\%)$
GT/CA	565	401(71)	237(42)	217	48 (22)
GA/CT	553	303(55)	202(37)	196	54 (28)
AAT/TTA	376	119 (32)	90(24)	87	20(23)
AAG/TTC	379	134 (35)	97 (26)	94	31(33)
Total	1873	957 (51)	626 (33)	594	153 (26)

primer pairs, 98 pairs amplified a single locus and eight pairs detected more than two loci. The 106 primer pairs detected 114 loci, of which 95 loci were codominant. Fifteen loci did not appear to be target SSRs because the fragment size obtained differed from that expected from the sequence data. Post-fixed figures of more than two were donated to the primer name in these nontarget loci (Table [3](#page-5-0)). We also mapped nine SSR markers from the SNU2 map.

Consequently, we analyzed 123 SSR loci, along with 228 AFLP markers, 60 RAPD markers, one CAPS marker, and the trait of fruit pungency, and constructed a linkage map. The total map length for the TMDH population was 1042.4 cM with 13 linkage groups (LGs) at LOD 6.5 (Fig. [1](#page-8-0)). The average distance between the markers in our map was 2.8 cM (Fig. [1\)](#page-8-0). We mapped 114 of the 123 SSR markers scored, and the remaining nine were independent. Although clusters of SSR markers were found on some LGs, including LG1, LG2, LG3, and LG5, new SSR markers were distributed throughout all of the linkage groups, with an average distance of 5.7 cM. Of the 114 mapped SSR markers, 28 loci (24.6%) deviated significantly ($p < 0.05$) from the expected ratio in the DH population. The pungency trait locus C and its linkage marker were mapped in LG13 where the SSR marker, CAMS327, was also mapped (Minamiyama et al. [2005\)](#page-12-0).

Characterization and polymorphisms of the SSR markers mapped for the TMDH population

The sequences of 99 primer pairs along with other relevant information are shown in Table [3](#page-5-0). Of the targeted SSRs, 54 were simple repeats and 45 were compound repeats, comprising two or more motifs. Most of the SSRs from the GT-enriched library were GT-AT compound repeats, similar to SSRs reported in eggplant and tomato (Nunome et al. [2003](#page-12-0)). In contrast, SSRs from the other three libraries (GA, AAT, and AAG) were mainly simple repeats. The repeats were often interrupted by several nucleotides, and the length of continuous repeat motifs varied from 5 to 32 motifs, with an average of 12 motifs per clone.

Therefore, the total length of repeats varied from 5 to 39 motifs, with an average of 17 motifs.

The SSR markers used in the TMDH map were then examined for the ability to detect polymorphisms using seven cultivars and breeding lines of C. annuum and seven lines of related Capsicum species (Table [3\)](#page-5-0). The average number of alleles per locus was 2.9 in the C. annuum lines and 4.0 in the Capsicum relatives. The average PIC value was 0.46 in the C. annuum lines and was slightly higher at 0.63 in the Capsicum relatives. The relationship of the PIC values to the mapping position of the SSR markers is shown in Fig. [2](#page-10-0). About one half (34 of 82) of the SSR markers had PIC values greater than 0.7 in the Capsicum relatives; these were considered to be very useful in the mapping study. These highly polymorphic SSRs were distributed throughout 12 LGs, with the exception of LG13, where only one SSR was mapped. Moreover, in the C. annuum lines, 43 of the 87 SSR markers that were polymorphic had PIC values greater than 0.5 and were distributed throughout 12 LGs, again with the exception of LG13.

Discussion

SSR markers are useful in the genetic mapping of low polymorphic crops

Low levels of DNA polymorphism in crop species is an obstacle to applying molecular marker technology in breeding programs. Self-incompatible Brassica crops tend to show high levels of polymorphism among breeding lines and cultivars, whereas other crops, such as eggplant, soybean, and cucumber, tend to show low levels of polymorphic loci within each species (Maughan et al. [1996;](#page-12-0) Bradeen et al. [2001](#page-11-0); Nunome et al. [2001\)](#page-12-0). Therefore, interspecific crosses are sometimes used for mapping populations in these low polymorphic species. Breeding lines of sweet and hot C. annuum also show low levels of polymorphism. Overcoming this low polymorphism is a key to marker technology. AFLP is a powerful technique with which to score a number of polymorphic loci in a single experiment (Vos et al. [1995\)](#page-12-0). In this study, 48 EcoRI/MseI primer

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combinations generated 228 AFLP markers. However, the application of AFLP markers to other populations is difficult because of the use of nonspecific primers. Single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) and SSRs are marker candidates for effective mapping in these low polymorphic crops and can specifically detect a single locus, even in different populations. In general, there are only two alleles at a single SNP locus; however, SNPs may be found in large numbers throughout a genome. In contrast, SSR loci may be far more rare than SNP loci, although enough can be found for ordinary linkage analysis and each SSR locus has many alleles (Goldstein and Schloetterer [1999](#page-11-0)). In model plants, such as rice, tomato, or Arabidopsis, information about SNPs is accumulating, and it is likely that SNPs will be more commonly used in the genetic mapping of these plants in the near future (Torjek et al. [2003;](#page-12-0) Shen et al. [2004;](#page-12-0) Yang et al. [2004](#page-12-0)). However, information on SNPs in most other crops is limited. As a result, SSR is currently a more useful marker in these crops, including Capsicum. SSRs developed for other members of the Solanaceae family are not useful in potato and eggplant (Nunome et al. [2003;](#page-12-0) Ghislain et al. [2004\)](#page-11-0). Therefore, in this study, we developed SSR markers specifically for C. annuum and, because the sequence data for Capsicum are limited, we screened enriched library systems to develop these SSRs.

Development and characterization of SSR markers in Capsicum

We found that 51% of the 1873 clones in the enriched libraries contained SSRs, and we were able to design primers from 65% of these SSRcontaining clones after excluding redundancies and clones with flanking sequences that were too short. The efficiency of the development of SSR markers for *Capsicum* using enriched library technology is similar to the results obtained in ryegrass (Jones et al. [2001](#page-11-0)) and timothy grass (Cai et al. [2003\)](#page-11-0). There were 132 clones with flanking sequences that were too short, and the level of redundancy was 24%, which was lower than the 41% redundancy level found in 4000 clones of timothy grass using SSR-enriched

Fig. 1 Linkage map of pepper (Capsicum annuum) based▶ on a doubled haploid population of a cross between cvs. Manganji and Tongari using 228 AFLP, one CAPS, 60 RAPD, and 123 SSR markers and the trait of fruit pungency. On the left of the vertical double lanes are the map distances in centiMorgans (cM), calculated by the Kosambi function; on the right are DNA markers with identification numbers and names. The SSR markers we developed are indicated in bold and the SSR markers from the SNU2 map (Lee et al. [2004](#page-12-0)) are indicated in italics. For the SSR markers we developed, nontarget loci were given a hyphenated number following the primer name. The markers with asterisks are those showing significant segregation distortion $(p < 0.01)$

libraries produced by GIS. However, the level of redundancy may have been higher in pepper if more clones had been sequenced.

Previous studies have shown that the majority of di- and trinucleotide motifs in plants are likely to be AT/TA and ATT/TAA (Lagercrantz et al. [1993\)](#page-12-0). However, because of the presence of a palindromic sequence, the AT/TA motif is not used in SSR-enrichment procedures. In Brassica rapa, the GA/CT motif is nearly fivefold more abundant than the GT/CA motif (Suwabe et al. [2002\)](#page-12-0). In contrast, we found that the GT/CA motif was slightly more frequent in Capsicum than the GA/CT motif. Moreover, most of the GTcontaining clones had mainly GT-AT compound repeats. Similar results have been reported for other Solanaceae species, such as tomato and potato (Lagercrantz et al. [1993](#page-12-0); Broun and Tanksley [1996;](#page-11-0) Milbourne et al. [1998](#page-12-0); Areshchenkova and Ganal [1999](#page-11-0)), suggesting that these SSR features are common to Solanaceae species.

In this study, we obtained 594 primer pairs that amplified fragments of the expected size. Most of these primer pairs amplified SSR sequences and would be potentially useful in mapping studies of Capsicum species. However, we used only 106 of these primer pairs for the present mapping study. The low percentage of primer pairs used reflects the low polymorphism of the C. annuum population used in this study. Similarly, only 24% of the SSR markers were selected as polymorphic from the SSRs used in mapping based on an interspecific cross (Lee et al. [2004](#page-12-0)). A similar figure was obtained in other mapping populations within C. annuum (data not shown). The PIC

values shown in Table [3](#page-5-0) also demonstrate the lower polymorphism among C. annuum lines compared with that in related species. Other problems may be related to technical aspects. For example, we used a less expensive post-PCR fluorescence-labeling method for the first survey of the primer pairs, dye-labeled primers were synthesized for the selected primer pairs only, some of the primer pairs showed different amplification patterns between the two techniques, the reason for which is not clear, and some of the SSR primer pairs amplified poor or nonreproducible bands, and others sometimes amplified more complex bands and were not suitable for scoring alleles, as described by Röder et al. (1998) (1998) . The redesign of primer pairs may improve the amplification to some extent, and the remaining primer pairs have the potential to be used for mapping in future studies. Some of the primer sequences of the SSR clones will be disclosed elsewhere.

The degree of polymorphism increases with the total length of the repeat among cultivars in tomato (Smulders et al. [1997](#page-12-0)). This correlation was also observed among *C. annuum* in this study: SSRs with fewer than 16 repeats had an average PIC value of 0.37; however, those with more than 17 repeats had an average PIC of 0.54. In contrast, this correlation was not apparent when related species were included in the test of polymorphism because the PIC value of most SSRs shifted into the high range, as in the case of tomato (Smulders et al. [1997](#page-12-0)). Additionally, more than one half of

Fig. 2 The polymorphism information content (PIC) of SSR markers located in each linkage group for 14 genotypes in Capsicum spp

the mapped SSR markers had interruptions in the repeat motif sequence, although this did not reflect the degree of polymorphism.

Map construction based on SSRs

Using the 106 highly reproducible SSR primer pairs, along with nine previously reported SSR, 228 AFLP, one CAPS, and 60 RAPD markers and the trait of fruit pungency, we constructed a linkage map of C. annuum in an intraspecific DH population $(n=117)$. At total of 106 new SSR loci produced by 99 primer pairs were mapped in the present linkage map. The characteristics of these 99 SSRs are shown in Table [3](#page-5-0). The map contained 374 markers, including 106 new SSR markers in 13 LGs, and covered 1042 cM. The total map length of the pepper is estimated to be between 1245 cM and 1762 cM according to previous reports (Livingstone et al. [1999](#page-12-0); Ben Chaim et al. [2001;](#page-11-0) Kang et al. [2001](#page-12-0); Lefebvre et al. [2002](#page-12-0); Lee et al. [2004\)](#page-12-0); however, the map we produced here was shorter than this. We consider that the map we constructed covers most of the Capsicum genome because there were only 38 unlinked markers after the linkage analysis. The 106 new SSR markers were distributed across all linkage groups; however, clusters of SSR markers were found on some of these. A similar clustering of SSR markers has been observed for markers developed from genomic libraries in several crops (Areshchenkova and Ganal [1999](#page-11-0); Jones et al. [2002\)](#page-12-0). Previous studies have also shown that gene-based SSRs generally do not cluster (Scott et al. [2000](#page-12-0); Blair et al. [2003](#page-11-0)). To saturate a linkage map in pepper with SSR markers, it may be necessary to develop the markers from expressed sequence tag (EST) database entries or gene sequences.

A reference map for Capsicum crops

Although many mapping studies have been reported on Capsicum crops, and a number of agricultural traits have been mapped using different mapping populations (Ben Chaim et al. [2001;](#page-11-0) Thabuis et al. [2003\)](#page-12-0), the relative map position of loci found in different mapping populations is difficult to determine without a reference map filled with suitable anchor markers. RFLP markers have been used as anchor markers in previously published maps. However, an RFLPbased map is difficult to use as a reference map because RFLP technology is time-consuming and requires the transfer of probes between laboratories.

A reference map should contain enough polymorphic markers, such as SSRs and SNPs, that are useful in different mapping populations. Although the SNU2 map contains 46 SSRs, it is difficult to use as a reference map. This is due to the fact that maps based on the crossing of C. annuum and C. chinense have the problem of the adhesion of linkage groups due to chromosome interchange (Ben Chaim et al. 2001); in addition, some linkage groups did not contain any SSR markers in the SNU2 map. As well, only 24% of the SSRs are polymorphic in the present mapping population, and the majority of the SSRs in the SNU2 map may shown a low level of polymorphism in intraspecific crosses of C. annuum.

The present map included 114 SSR loci, including eight SSR loci reported by Lee et al. [\(2004](#page-12-0)). Each linkage group contained more than two SSR loci, with the exception of LG13, to which the C locus was mapped. Markers with a high PIC are evenly mapped in most of the linkage groups (Fig. [2\)](#page-10-0). Therefore, the present map would be useful as a reference map for Capsicum crops. The map positions of the loci are easily found using some of the SSR primer pairs presented here. A comparison between the present map and the SNU2 map (Lee et al. [2004\)](#page-12-0) with respect to some of the map positions is as follows: (1) the SSRs mapped in LG1 of the SNU2 map, Hpms1-139, Hpms1-148, Hpms1-214, and CM0011, were mapped on LG11 in the present study and showed consistency in their order; (2) Hpms1-172, Hpms1-216, and HpmsCaSIG19 were on LG10 in the present study, while Hpms1- 172 was on LG11, and Hpms1-216 and HpmsCaSIG19 were on LG7 in the SNU2 map. The reason for this disagreement may be that Hpms1- 172 amplified more than two loci. Therefore, the locus mapped by Hpms1-172 primers in the present study would be different from that mapped in the SNU2 population, and LG10 in the present study may correspond to LG7 in the

SNU2 map. Further studies on mapping the SSRs detected in this study in the SNU2 map or in other pepper maps are needed to clarify these discrepancies.

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