

Introgression of the *low-gossypol seed* & *high-gossypol plant* trait in upland cotton: Analysis of [(*Gossypium hirsutum* × *G. raimondii*)² × *G. sturtianum*] trispecific hybrid and selected derivatives using mapped SSRs

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Abstract In order to select genotypes of *Gossypium hirsutum* genetically balanced and expressing the *low-gossypol seed* & *high-gossypol plant* trait introgressed from the Australian wild diploid species *G. sturtianum*, the [(*G. hirsutum* × *G. raimondii*)² × *G. sturtianum*] triple hybrid was backcrossed to *G. hirsutum* and autopolled to produce backcross and selfed progenies. Two hundred and six mapped SSR markers of *G. hirsutum* were used to monitor the introgression of SSR alleles specific to *G. sturtianum* and *G. raimondii* in the selected progenies. A high level of heterozygosity, varying from 25 to 100%, was observed for all *G. sturtianum*-specific SSR markers conserved in the most advanced progenies. These results indicate the existence of segregation distortion factors that are

associated with the genes controlling the researched trait. This study represents a starting point to map the genes involved in the expression of the trait and better understand its genetic determinism.

Keywords *Gossypium* · Introgression · Microsatellites · Gossypol · *Glandless seed* · Interspecific hybrid

Introduction

The cotton genus *Gossypium* contains 49 diploid and tetraploid species distributed worldwide in both tropical and subtropical areas (Fryxell 1992). The 44 diploid species ($2n = 2x = 26$) are grouped into eight different cytotypes designated A–G and K (Endrizzi et al. 1985; Stewart 1995). They count two cultivated species, *G. herbaceum* and *G. arboreum*. The five tetraploid species (designated (AD)) contain two distinct subgenomes which are related to the A genome of the Asiatic cultivated diploid species and D genome of the American wild diploid species (Wendel and Cronn 2003; Endrizzi et al. 1985). They include two cultivated species, *G. barbadense* and *G. hirsutum*, the latter (upland cotton) being the most important.

Cotton is the world's leading natural fiber crop but also ranks high among the food crops (Lusas and Jividin 1987). For every kilogram of fiber, the plant

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produces about 1.65 kg of seed. With about 21% oil and 23% protein in the seed, this makes cotton the fifth best oil-producing plant in the world and the second best potential source of plant proteins.

The ability to use this nutrient-rich source for food is hampered by the presence of pigment glands containing toxic terpenoid aldehydes throughout the plant, one of the main traits characterizing the *Gossypium* genus. In addition, these terpenoids are induced in response to microbial infections. Gossypol, the main terpenoid aldehyde found in cottonseed, is noxious for monogastric animals and particularly toxic to human (Lusas and Jividin 1987; Alford et al. 1996). This toxicity subjugates this abundant agricultural resource to the ranks of a feed for ruminant animals either as whole seeds or as meal after oil extraction. The gossypol concentration in all food and feed products produced with cotton flour must consequently be very low (0.02–0.04% according to WHO/FAO standards) and has to be systematically controlled. Gossypol and related terpenoid aldehydes confer natural resistance to various insect pests and to fungal and bacterial diseases (Stipanovic et al. 1975; Altman et al. 1990; Calhoun 1997).

A cotton mutant totally devoid of pigment glands was discovered by McMichael (1954) and subsequently used in several breeding programs to create cotton commercial varieties with gossypol-free cotton seed. These efforts were commercial failures because the new glandless cottons, lacking their protective terpenoids, were much more susceptible to insect pest attacks than glanded cotton varieties (Altman et al. 1990).

Ideally cultivated cotton plants should have *glandless-seed* for complete use in food and feed, and show glands on all plant parts to resist insect pests. The *glandless-seed* and *glanded-plant* trait exists only in some Australian wild diploid species belonging to *Sturtia* and *Hibiscoidea* sections (Brubaker et al. 1996). These Australian cottons of C and G genomes are however phylogenetically remote from upland cotton. The formation of gossypol glands in the cultivated upland cotton is controlled by two main alleles, *Gl*₂ and *Gl*₃ (McMichael 1960), located respectively on the homoeologous chromosomes c12 (A_h-genome) and c26 (D_h-genome) (Endrizzi et al. 1985; Samora et al. 1994). Seed gossypol content is controlled mainly by the *Gl*₂ allele (Lee 1965; McCarty et al. 1996). In the Australian wild

species presenting the *glandless-seed* and *glanded-plant* trait, the synthesis of gossypol seems to be controlled by a repressive mechanism, which acts until the cotyledons open and the young plantlets begin to form chlorophyll (Brubaker et al. 1996). After the formation of the chlorophyll all above-ground parts of the plant, issued from *glandless-seed*, are glanded. The genetic determinism for this trait remains unknown.

There are three main crossing schemes can be followed to introgress traits from Australian diploid species into tetraploid *G. hirsutum* (Mergeai 2006). Two of them (the paraphyletic and pseudophyletic methods) give rise to trispecific hybrids and the last one (the aphyletic method) allows the direct exploitation of bispecific hybrids. The bispecific pathway involving *G. hirsutum* and Australian diploids was tried without success by Dilday (1986), Altman et al. (1987) and Rooney et al. (1991). The only glanded plants issued from glandless seeds produced this way were hexaploid, pentaploid and multiple addition materials.

At Gembloux Agricultural University (GAU), bridge crosses, involving *G. raimondii* Ulbrich ($2n = 2x = 26$, 2D₅), and recurrent backcrossings were used to introgress the *glandless-seed* and *glanded-plant* trait from *G. sturtianum* Willis ($2n = 2x = 26$, 2C₁) into *G. hirsutum* $2n = 4x = 26$, 2(AD)_h. The selected plants were euploid ($2n = 4x = 52$) and showed high frequency of chromosome pairing and chiasmata (Mergeai et al. 1997; Vroh Bi et al. 1999a, b).

DNA molecular markers can help the identification of chromosomal regions with favourable alleles associated with traits of interest, facilitating the marker-assisted selection of the best genotypes. Using markers to monitor gene introgression was found to be most useful if linkage maps were available (Hospital et al. 1992). Microsatellites markers have been shown to be evenly distributed along chromosomes in cotton and more and more precise SSR-based linkage maps are now available for this crop (Liu et al. 2000; Nguyen et al. 2004; Guo et al. 2007). These SSRs constitute a good tool to monitor the introgression of alien chromosome fragments in interspecific hybrids.

Sunilkumar et al. (2006) recently reported another attempt to eliminate gossypol in seeds. Using RNAi techniques they produced F2 transgenic plants with

0.1 µg/mg seed gossypol, while maintaining gossypol and related terpenoids in the foliage and floral parts of the plant. This technique represents another possible way to modify seed gossypol, but further testing is still needed to confirm the expression in advanced generations of the *glandless-seed* and *glandled-plant* trait.

The present study was initiated in order to monitor the introgression of chromosome segments from the wild species *G. sturtianum* and *G. raimondii* in selected advanced generations of the [(*G. hirsutum* × *G. raimondii*)² × *G. sturtianum*] (HRS) trispecific hybrid with the aim to map the *low-gossypol seed* & *high-gossypol plant* trait.

Materials and methods

Plant material

All the plants used for the creation of the trispecific allotetraploid hybrid HRS [(*G. hirsutum* × *G. raimondii*)² × *G. sturtianum*], [*A_hD_hD₅C₁*] are maintained in the cotton collection of the Gembloux Agricultural University (GAU). Two cultivars of *G. hirsutum* L. 2(*A_hD_h*)₁ (NC8 and C2), selected in the Democratic Republic of Congo, one accession of *G. raimondii* Ulbr. (2D₅) and one accession of *G. sturtianum* Willis. (2C₁) were used for the creation of the HRS hybrid according to the pseudophyletic introgression method (Mergeai 2006). This method ends with the creation of trispecific hybrids involving *G. hirsutum* and two diploid species. Tetraploid *Gossypium hirsutum* is crossed directly with one of the diploid parents, creating a triploid hybrid. Chromosome doubling gives a fertile allohexaploid which is crossed to the other diploid parent, resulting in the allotetraploid trispecific HRS hybrid.

Variety ‘STAM F’ from Togo was used for backcrossing the HRS hybrid. The scheme to create the trispecific hybrid is detailed in Vroh Bi et al. (1998). Plants selected in the first and next backcross generations were, euploids ($2n = 4x = 52$) and showed a high frequency of chromosome pairing and chiasmata. Figure 1 presents the crossing scheme and generations studied.

One BC₂S₁ plant and one BC₃ plant hybrid produced seeds with very different levels of gossypol glands and were chosen for their ability to give

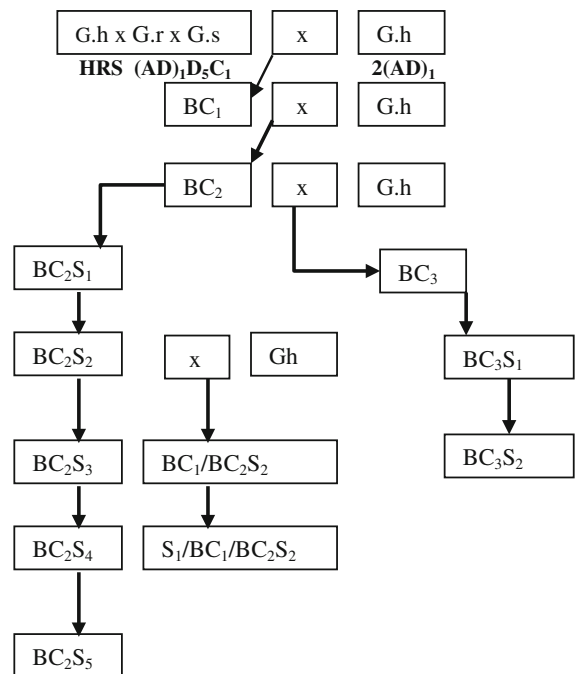


Fig. 1 Selection scheme of HRS derivatives expressing the *low-gossypol seed* and *high-gossypol plant* trait. *G. h* *G. hirsutum*, *G. r* *G. raimondii*, *G. s* *G. sturtianum*, HRS allotetraploid trispecies hybrid

segregating progenies for this trait (Mergeai et al. 1997). These two plants were both self pollinated and backcrossed to *G. hirsutum* cultivar STAM F to produce subsequent progenies. A distilled water solution of growth regulators (100 mg l⁻¹ naphthoxy-acetic acid + 50 mg l⁻¹ gibberellic acid) was applied on the ovary just after pollination to limit the shedding of bolls. Only plants resulting from seeds having the lowest level of gossypol glands visible on their kernel wall and producing the highest proportion of seeds presenting the “*low gossypol seed* and *high gossypol plant*” trait were retained in each generation. All the plants studied in this work were cultivated under greenhouses condition at GAU.

Assessment of gossypol content and external gossypol gland density of the seeds

The external gland density (EGD) was assessed after removing seed integument on soaked kernels according to a visual scale ranging from 0 for totally glandless to 10 for highly *glanded* seeds. *Glandless* or nearly *glandless* BC₂S₂ seeds evaluated this way

were cultured in vitro on the medium of Stewart and Hsu (1977) in a growth chamber regulated at 27°C, with 12 h photoperiod ($10 \mu \text{ Einstein m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$). Seeds belonging to the subsequent generations were sown directly in a substrate made of sand, peat and compost in equal proportions.

The gossypol content of the seeds produced by the low EGD genotypes was assessed seed by seed using the destructive method developed by Benbouza et al. (2002). This method of indirect quantification of the seed gossypol content (SGC) is based on the relation between gossypol content (in % of seed kernel mass) and the number of glands per seed section, following model: $\%G = b \times (N/S)$; where $\%G$ is the content of gossypol in %, N is the number of gossypol glands per seed section, S is the area of the seed section expressed in mm^2 , and b is the regression coefficient calculated for the progeny of a particular genotype. Seeds are cut in two longitudinal sections after removal of the teguments in order to count the

number of glands (Fig. 2). These operations were carried out with a Nikon Eclipse E800 light and fluorescent microscope (Nikon, Tokyo, Japan) using a JVC-3-CCD colour video camera (JVC, Tokyo, Japan) and the Archive Plus program of Sony (Sony Electronics, NJ, Park Ridge, USA) to capture and analyse the images. On the basis of the results obtained by Benbouza et al. (2002), the values of b used in our study for the assessment of $\%G$ were 0.1831 for *G. hirsutum* STAM F control, 0.1217 for the progeny of the BC₂S₁/09 plant and 0.1701 for the progeny of the BC₃/09 plant.

DNA isolation and quantification

DNA was extracted from one to two grams of fresh young leaf using the protocol developed by Benbouza et al. (2006a). DNA was also extracted from BC₂S₅ seeds to increase the number of analysed individuals according to the method outlined by Wang et al.

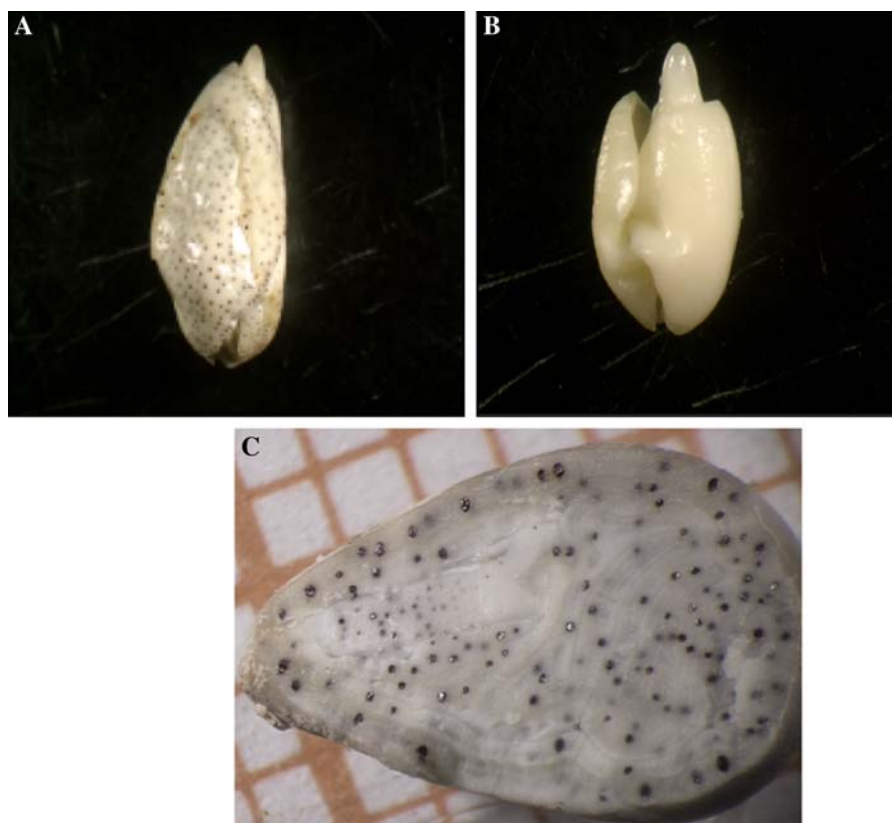


Fig. 2 **a, b** Evaluation of the external gossypol gland density (EGD) for *G. hirsutum* and *G. sturtianum*, respectively. **c** Evaluation of the seed gossypol content (SGC)

(1993). In CIRAD DNA concentration was quantified using a Fluoroskan Ascent FL (Thermo Fisher Scientific Inc., Waltham, USA).

Microsatellite marker analysis

Simple sequence repeat (SSR) markers used were developed at Brookhaven National Laboratory (prefix BNL) and at CIRAD (prefix CIR). The SSRs was chosen from preliminary screenings for their ability to reveal polymorphic alleles specific to either diploid parental species.

Molecular analyses were partly conducted at CIRAD (generations BC₁, BC₂, BC₂S₁, S₁BC₁BC₂S₂, BC₃, BC₃S₁, and BC₃S₂) and GAU (generations BC₂S₅ and S₂BC₁BC₂S₂) as described in Risterucci et al. (2000) and Liu et al. (2000) respectively. Radioactive labelling was used in CIRAD while a silver staining revelation technique was used at GAU (Benbouza et al. 2006b).

Each of the thirteen homoeologous chromosome pairs of the cotton genome map was screened with a minimum of four SSRs except for the c16 which was screened with three SSRs.

All microsatellites used covered almost the entire length of the chromosomes except for c4 and c16 in which only 108.9 cM out of 189.5 cM and 62.8 cM out of 165.8 cM were covered respectively. On an average, there were eight markers per chromosome, varying from 3 on c16 to 18 on c5.

Totally, 206 SSRs were tested on 25 DNA samples including the HRS hybrid, *G. sturtianum*, *G. raimondii*, *G. hirsutum* cultivars C2, NC8, STAM F, and TM1 standard and the following selected progenies: BC₁ (1 genotype) BC₂ (1 genotype), BC₂S₁ (1 genotype), BC₂S₅ (5 genotypes), BC₁BC₂S₂ (2 genotypes), S₁BC₁BC₂S₂ (2 genotypes), S₂BC₁BC₂S₂ (2 genotypes), BC₃ (1 genotype), BC₃S₁ (1 genotype), and BC₃S₂ (2 genotypes).

Results

Production of introgressed materials

The plants of interest were selected according to a two step approach. A non destructive assay (gland density score on kernel surface) was carried out first to identify among the seeds produced by the plants

selected in the previous generation the ones presenting a reduced density of gossypol glands on their kernel. The plants issued from these seeds were later screened for their ability to express the *low-gossypol seed* and *high-gossypol plant* trait. For this purpose, a part of the seeds they produced by selfing was sacrificed to quantify their gossypol content using the destructive method developed by Benbouza et al. (2002) and the density of pigment glands on their aerial parts was visually assessed. Only glanded plants able to produce regularly totally or almost totally glandless seed were finally selected. Special efforts were necessary to produce viable progenies in the early derivative generations. No seed were produced by selfing the HRS hybrid and its direct backcross progeny. On average, despite the application of growth regulator to prevent boll shedding after pollination, about 15 crosses were necessary to obtain one seed with both HRS and BC₁ genotypes. Initially, all the BC₁ seeds produced by the HRS trispecific hybrid were planted in Jiffy pots. This practice resulted in a very low survival rate of the planted seeds. Less than 25% of these first BC₁ seeds gave rise to adult plants. The rest, including all the first totally glandless seeds produced by HRS hybrid, did not germinate or died at a very early stage. To improve their survival rate, all the BC₁ seeds were then cultivated in vitro on the rooting medium developed by Stewart and Hsu (1977). This allowed the rescue of about two-third of the genotypes. In the subsequent generations, in vitro cultivation of the low gossypol seed mature embryos was still necessary until the BC₂S₂. The fertility of the backcross derivatives improved markedly with advancing generations. Pollen stainability was very low in the trispecific hybrid and its BC₁ derivatives (less than 10%) but increased to about 60% in fertile BC₂ plants and was between 95 and 100% in all the subsequent generations. On an average, four crosses were necessary to obtain one BC₂ seed while one backcross of a fertile BC₂ plant gave about 5 BC₃ seeds. BC₂S₁ plants were less fertile than BC₃ materials (about two crosses were necessary to get one seed). The crossing success rate increased to about a dozen seeds per cross for the most advanced generation (BC₂S₅ and S₂BC₁BC₂S₂) All the selected genotypes were multiplied by grafting in at least two copies in order to increase the number of seeds they produced before assessing the inhibition of the seed gossypol synthesis using the SGC method.

Table 1 shows the results obtained for the gossypol content of the seeds produced by the genotypes expressing the researched trait at the highest level in each generation compared to the seeds produced by the STAM F *G. hirsutum* cultivar. Globally, a drastic decrease in the gossypol content of the seed is observed for all the selected HRS derivatives but none of them produced only low-gossypol seed. Actually, the proportion of totally or almost totally glandless seed did not increase significantly with the advance in generations. The seed gossypol content frequency distribution of the HRS derivatives varied according to the generation. It was particularly asymmetric for the seeds produced by the BC₂S₃ and S₁BC₁BC₂S₂ genotypes with about 30% of the tested seeds containing less than 0.1% gossypol. Its shape was more symmetric and close to a normal distribution for the frequencies of gossypol content of the seed produced by the selected BC₂, BC₂S₂ and BC₃ genotypes. The proportion of seeds containing less than 0.1% gossypol varied for these plants between 1 and 3%. For the other selected HRS derivatives (BC₂S₁, BC₂S₄, BC₂S₅, BC₁BC₂S₂, and BC₃S₁) about 5–10% of the seeds had a gossypol concentration lower to 0.1%.

On average, the gossypol content of the seed produced by the BC₂ genotype and its selfed derivatives was about 0.3% while the seeds produced by the selected BC₃ genotype and its selfed derivatives generally contained more gossypol (between 0.4 and 0.6% on an average).

It must be noted that the seeds tested to quantify the gossypol content were not all produced during the same year and that variation in the growing conditions may have affected the expression of the trait.

SSR analysis

SSRs analysis were carried out to monitor the introgression of DNA fragments of the two wild diploid species involved in the creation of the HRS hybrid with the aim to identify the ones that are associated with the *low-gossypol seed and high-gossypol plant* trait. The SSR screening of the selected genotypes was also conducted to try to understand why it was not possible to fix the trait by multiplying the selfing generations from glanded-plants derived from totally or almost totally glandless-seed.

Table 1 Frequency distribution of the gossypol content in the seeds produced by selfing the selected HRS trispecific hybrid derivatives

Parent genotype	% of gossypol assessed according to the destructive SGC method in the kernel of the seeds produced by selfing of the selected parent																Total # of analysed seed	Gossypol content (% ± SD)
	0.000	0.100	0.200	0.300	0.400	0.500	0.600	0.700	0.800	0.900	1.000	1.100	1.200	1.300	1.400	1.500		
STAM F	0.099	0.199	0.299	0.399	0.499	0.599	0.699	0.799	0.899	0.999	1.099	1.199	1.299	1.399	1.499	1.599		
BC ₂ (1 genotype)	1	8	9	12	5	2		23	16	17	6	5	9	3	2	3	103	0.91 ± 0.24
BC ₂ S ₁ (1 genotype)	5	10	28	19	2	0	1	1									37	0.29 ± 0.12
BC ₂ S ₂ (2 genotypes)	1	0	3	16	20	2											68	0.28 ± 0.13
BC ₂ S ₃ (2 genotypes)	34	17	32	13	8	2	0	0	0	5	2						42	0.38 ± 0.09
BC ₂ S ₄ (2 genotypes)	14	40	40	47	13	8	2										113	0.24 ± 0.24
BC ₂ S ₅ (5 genotypes)	13	21	36	40	19	12	2	1									165	0.27 ± 0.15
BC ₁ BC ₂ S ₂ (2 genotypes)	13	20	41	62	76	49	18	2								1	144	0.30 ± 0.15
S ₁ BC ₁ BC ₂ S ₂ (2 genotypes)	152	59	76	91	90	69	19	9	2	2							281	0.38 ± 0.15
BC ₃ (1 genotype)	1	0	1	3	18	18	21	15	6	2	1						569	0.28 ± 0.21
BC ₃ S ₁ (1 genotype)	2	1	2	1	3	3	1	1	1								85	0.59 ± 0.16
BC ₃ S ₂ (2 genotypes)	8	2	2	16	18	20	23	27	12	4	0	2					19	0.42 ± 0.25
																	134	0.57 ± 0.23

The 206 SSR primers used amplified 263 loci all located on the genetic map of Lacape et al. (2003). While all the *G. hirsutum*-specific SSR alleles were conserved in the HRS hybrid, about 40% of both diploid donor parents specific SSR bands were absent in it. Out of 150 SSR alleles (found on 141 mapped SSR loci) amplified specifically in *G. sturtianum*, 93 were introgressed in the HRS hybrid (Table 2) and among the 127 *G. raimondii*-specific alleles found on 118 mapped loci, 69 were present in the trispecific hybrid (Table 3). The same drastic reduction in the number of wild species-specific SSRs was also observed for all the other cotton interspecific hybrids ((*G. hirsutum* × *G. australe*)², (*G. hirsutum* × *G. longicalyx*)², [(*G. hirsutum* × *G. thurberi*)² × *G. longicalyx*]) screened at GAU with SSR markers (data not shown). However, these hybrids conserved the specific SSR alleles of their *G. hirsutum* parents. A similar trend was noticed for the transmission of RAPD wild species-specific markers to [(*G. hirsutum* × *G. raimondii*)² × *G. sturtianum*] and [(*G. thurberi* × *G. sturtianum*)² × *G. hirsutum*] trispecific hybrids (Mergeai et al. 1998) and by McCoy and Echt (1993) on *Medicago* trispecies hybrids. This phenomenon can be partially explained by the high level of heterozygosity observed in the parental diploid species of the HRS hybrid. In *G. raimondii*

and *G. sturtianum*, the rates of heterozygous loci were respectively 29 and 26%. Besides the occurrence of divergence in the sequences flanking the microsatellites, creating a null-allele, which is a very rare phenomenon, the lack of amplification of a SSR allele in a genotype can also result from the production of an undetectable amount of PCR product (Smulders et al. 1997). In the later case the DNA sequences are there but cannot be amplified because of inadequate conditions for their PCR amplification. Farrelly et al. (1995) showed that a reduction in the relative proportion of target to non target DNA in the template concentration can cause a reduction of the amplification potential.

Using RAPD markers, Heun and Helentjaris (1993) analyzed F1 corn hybrids and found that in some instances fragments would be preferentially amplified during the PCR process and result in other fragments not being detected among the amplification products. It is possible that in our interspecific hybrids the association of diploid and tetraploid cotton chromosomes within the same genome create conditions where *G. hirsutum* preferentially amplifies and out competes the diploids. In some instances the *G. hirsutum* SSR products seemed to be present and the expected diploid SSR fragments were missing. The reason for the better PCR amplification of *G. hirsutum* DNA fragments compared to the diploid species has yet to be determined.

Table 2 Conservation of *G. sturtianum* alleles in HRS derivatives

Linkage groups	Total number of specific mapped SSR alleles of <i>G. sturtianum</i>	Total number of <i>G. sturtianum</i> -specific alleles amplified in the selected genotypes of each generation									
		HRS	BC ₁	BC ₂	BC ₂ S ₁	BC ₂ S ₅	BC ₃	BC ₃ S ₁	BC ₃ S ₂	BC ₁ BC ₂ S ₂	S ₁ BC ₁ BC ₂ S ₂
c1–c15	3	2	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
c2–c14	7	7	3	3	4	2	1	1	1	2	2
c3–c17	15	13	11	11	9	5	3	2	2	9	9
c4–c22	9	4	2	2	2	0	1	1	0	1	0
c5–c19	18	12	3	2	2	0	0	0	0	2	0
c6–c25	14	7	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
c7–c16	4	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
c8–c24	11	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
c9–c23	17	10	9	6	6	0	3	1	0	1	0
c10–c20	10	6	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
c11–c21	12	7	4	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
c12–c26	21	15	15	5	6	0	2	2	0	2	0
c13–c18	9	4	1	1	1	0	1	1	0	0	0
Total	150	93	56	35	34	10	14	11	6	19	13

Table 3 Conservation of *G. raimondii* alleles in HRS derivatives

Linkage groups	Total number of specific mapped SSR alleles of <i>G. raimondii</i>	Total number of <i>G. raimondii</i> -specific alleles amplified in the selected genotypes of each generation									
		HRS	BC ₁	BC ₂	BC ₂ S ₁	BC ₂ S ₅	BC ₃	BC ₃ S ₁	BC ₃ S ₂	BC ₁ BC ₂ S ₂	S ₁ BC ₁ BC ₂ S ₂
c1–c15	6	4	3	2	2	0	0	0	0	0	1
c2–c14	11	7	5	5	4	1	0	0	0	1	1
c3–c17	10	2	2	2	2	1	2	2	2	2	2
c4–c22	10	5	2	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0
c5–c19	21	13	10	8	8	8	6	4	4	10	7
c6–c25	10	6	3	3	2	2	3	2	2	1	1
c7–c16	9	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
c8–c24	9	5	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0
c9–c23	14	5	5	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
c10–c20	5	4	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
c11–c21	5	5	5	4	4	3	0	0	0	0	0
c12–c26	11	6	3	2	2	1	0	0	0	0	0
c13–c18	6	3	3	3	3	3	0	0	0	2	2
Total	127	69	44	34	29	21	11	8	8	16	14

For 6 SSRs, introgressed alleles (polymorphic with *G. hirsutum*) of loci mapped on “A_h” linkage groups were found similarly in the two wild parents, *G. raimondii* or *G. sturtianum*, of the HRS hybrid. Such cases were considered as *G. sturtianum* introgression, taking into account the much higher pairing affinities existing between A_h and C₁ chromosomes in the A_hC₁D_hD₅ (HRS) trispecific hybrid where D_h chromosomes find almost perfect D₅ homeologs to pair at metaphase I.

A progressive decrease in the number of conserved alleles specific to *G. sturtianum* and *G. raimondii* was observed in the advanced generations of the HRS hybrid progeny. Out of the 93 *G. sturtianum*-specific alleles generated in HRS hybrid, the S₂BC₁BC₂S₂ and BC₂S₅ selected genotypes conserved 13 and 10 *G. sturtianum*-specific SSR alleles respectively mapped on 3 homoeologous pairs, c2–c14, c3–c17, and c6–c25. In the next backcross generation, the selected BC₃S₂ genotypes kept 6 *G. sturtianum*-specific SSR alleles mapped on the same 3 pairs, c2–c14, c3–c17, and c6–c25. Figure 3 presents the localisation of the conserved chromosomal segments from *G. sturtianum* in the most advanced HRS progenies. In the analysis of the *G. sturtianum*-specific SSR markers introgression results we took into consideration the reciprocal translocation event

that occurred between c2 and c3 in the A_t subgenome. According to Brubaker et al. (1998) and Lacape (unpublished), the breakage that led to this translocation seems to have taken place on c3 between BNL2443-duplicated on c17 and BNL1059-duplicated on c14.

The numbers of *G. raimondii*-specific SSR alleles conserved in the most advanced HRS derivatives expressing the researched trait were respectively 21, 14 and 8 for the BC₂S₅, S₂BC₁BC₂S₂, and BC₃S₂ selected genotypes. These loci are located on c2–c14, c3–c17, c5–c19, c6–c25, c8–c24, c11–c21, c12–c26 and c13–c18 linkage groups.

The introgression from *G. sturtianum* was of two types. In the most frequent situation, SSR alleles characterizing the tetraploid and diploid species were present, and all progenies were heterozygous at the introgressed locus, this was the case for 9 of the 10 introgressed loci in BC₂S₅ progenies (Table 3), while for locus CIR228a of pair c3–c17, the *G. hirsutum* allele was replaced by the co-allele of *G. sturtianum*.

Seven of the 21 loci involving *G. raimondii*-specific SSR alleles found in BC₂S₅ plants were homozygous for *G. raimondii* alleles and 14 were heterozygous. The seven *G. raimondii* homozygous SSR loci were mapped on c3–c17 (BNL3408a), c4–c22 (CIR222a), c5–c19 (BNL2656b), c11–c21

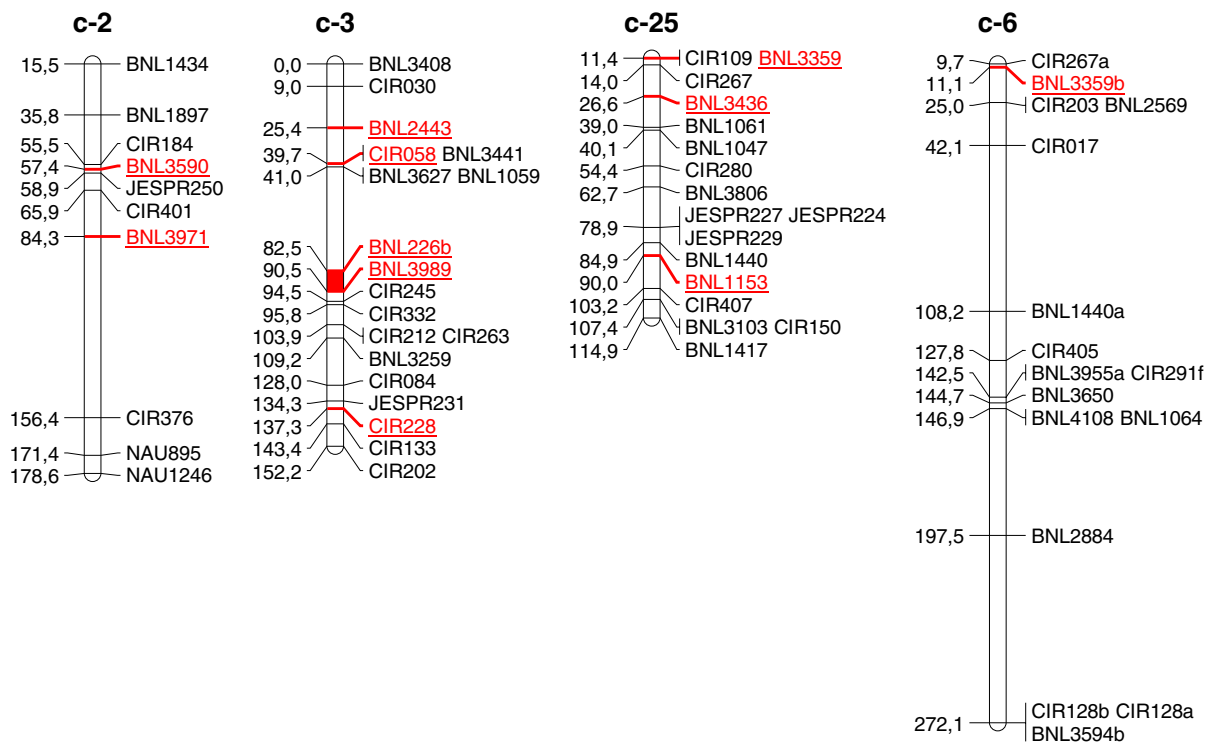


Fig. 3 Localisation of the chromosomal segments from *G. sturtianum* conserved in the selected HRS BC₂S₅ genotypes. All the SSR represented on the map were tested. They are

indicated by prefix BNL, NAU, JESPR and CIR. The introgressed and conserved microsatellites loci in the selected progenies of the trispecies hybrid are *underlined*

(BNL1551a) and c13–c18 (BNL2652a, BNL3558, BNL1721). The linkage groups c1–c15, c7–c16, c9–c23 and c10–c20 did not conserve *G. raimondii* alleles in the BC₂S₅ material.

In the S₁BC₁BC₂S₂ and BC₃S₂ selected genotypes, only BNL3558, mapped on c13–c18, was homozygous for *G. raimondii* alleles. The other SSR loci specific were heterozygous and located on c3–c17, c5–c19, c2–c14, c1–c15 and c13–c18.

G. raimondii-specific SSR loci such as CIR222 and CIR280 were duplicated on non homoeologous chromosomes (c4–c22 and c5–c25).

Discussion

After several generations of backcrossing and selfing and under the selection pressure exerted in each generation, the introgressed segments from the diploid parents were reduced in length in all linkage groups or totally eliminated in advanced selected genotypes.

The application of a selection pressure based on a reduced level of visible gossypol glands on the seed kernel wall in every backcross and selfed generation derived from the HRS trispecific hybrid permitted the isolation of self-fertile plants that produced a certain proportion of completely or nearly *glandless* seeds while they presented a normal gossypol gland density on their aerial parts. All the most advanced selected plants belonging to the BC₂S₅, BC₃S₂ and S₁BC₁BC₂S₂ generations carried *G. sturtianum*-specific SSR alleles mapped on c2–c14, c3–c17 and c6–c25 linkage groups of *G. hirsutum*. The probability to find all these alien chromosomal segments in a fortuitous way in three different genotypes expressing the same trait after so many generations of crossing and selfing is lower than 1/50,000. It is thus highly probable that at least a part of the genes carried by the chromosome of *G. sturtianum* homoeologous to c2–c14, c3–c17 and c6–c25 linkage groups of *G. hirsutum* play a role in the control of the *glandless-seed* and *glanded-plant* trait. These results are consistent with those obtained by Altman et al. (1987)

who found that the only plants derived from totally glandless seeds in the backcrossed progeny of the *G. hirsutum* × *G. sturtianum* pentaploid carried several supernumerary chromosomes of the donor species. These data also prove the soundness of the triple hybrid strategy that was used to introgress the researched trait into *G. hirsutum*. In such hybrids the chromosomes of the American diploid bridge species (*G. raimondii*) should pair with D_h subgenome while the chromosomes of the Australian diploid donor species (*G. sturtianum*) should pair preferentially with the A_h subgenome of *G. hirsutum*, allowing the simultaneous recombination segments of the chromosomal segments from the Australian donor species involved in the control of the researched trait.

The shape of the seed gossypol content frequency distributions observed for the successive generations of selected HRS derivatives were generally in agreement with the hypothesis that more than one gene is involved in the control of the repression of pigment gland morphogenesis in the seed. The genotypes containing all *G. sturtianum* DNA fragments involved in the determinism of the researched trait should be the ones that are able to express it at the highest level. After more than five generations of backcross and selfing, a high level of segregation for gossypol content was still observed in the seeds produced by the selected HRS derivatives. This is probably due to the heterozygous state of the *G. sturtianum* genes controlling the researched trait. The high frequencies of heterozygosity we observed for most of the conserved *G. sturtianum*-specific SSR alleles confirm this hypothesis.

The variation in gossypol content frequency distributions according to the generation of the HRS derivatives can also be due to several factors that might interact with the expression of the genes of *G. sturtianum* that repress the synthesis of gossypol only in the seed.

An important influence of environmental factors on the seed gossypol content was observed by Pons et al. (1953) who compared gossypol content of seeds produced by eight upland cotton varieties in 13 different environments during three consecutive years. According to the location and the year of production, these authors observed for the same *G. hirsutum* variety (Acala 4–42), a variation of the kernel gossypol content ranging from 0.39 to 1.17%. They also found that gossypol content in the kernels

was significantly correlated with the temperature and the rainfall, and that individual cotton varieties differed in their response to environmental factors. As the seeds we used to quantify the gossypol content and establish the frequency distributions presented in Table 1 were not all produced the same year, it is possible that their gossypol content was influenced by the important variations in environment conditions that occurred in Gembloux during their period of production. These changes mainly concerned the temperature and the cumulated amount of solar radiation received by the plants during summer.

The high level of residual heterozygosity can be due to a number of factors. The genetic background in which the chromosome fragments of *G. sturtianum* were introgressed can influence the expression of the *low-gossypol seed and high gossypol plant* trait. This genetic background acts by repressing or modifying genes. The transfer of alleles between species can lead to a break up of the original system (alleles of modifying genes) and result in a reduction of the efficiency of the alleles in the new genetic background (Pauly 1979).

The gene order and spacing on *G. sturtianum* chromosomes may not be conserved and therefore decrease the opportunity for recombination. In this study even in the most advanced selected genotypes, 10 *G. sturtianum* specific SSR fragments were detected on 3 homoeologous chromosomes pairs (c2, c3 and c6–c25). In addition even after several generations of selfing, there was no recombination observed between BNL3436 and BNL1153 on chromosome c25 although these two loci are reported to be separated by 64 cM on the *G. hirsutum* map (Lacape et al. 2003).

In crop species, both inversion and translocation events have been implicated in the genome rearrangements (Livingstone et al. 1999). Brubaker et al. (1998), while developing a comparative RFLP map of the allotetraploid cotton and its diploid progenitors detected 19 loci order differences. The observed inversions were not fully conserved and two reciprocal translocations were confirmed between allotetraploid A_h genome chromosomes, as was a translocation between the two existent A genome diploids. Similar observations were outlined by Rong et al. (2004) when mapping diploid (D) and tetraploid genome (A_hD_h). They confirmed two reciprocal translocations and several inversions between A_h chromosomes.

The high frequencies of heterozygosity of *G. sturtianum* SSR loci conserved after five generations of selfing in the BC₂S₅ progenies, indicate that the cytogenetic/genetic conditions for obtaining homozygosity at high frequencies were not met. Segregation distortion (non-Mendelian inheritance) and restricted recombination are often found in the mosaic genomes of interspecific hybrid populations (Jiang et al. 2000). Both structural and genic mutations accumulated by species prior to hybridization appear to play a role in non-Mendelian inheritance (Rieseberg et al. 1995). Mutations that have accumulated in divergent lineages may be beneficial or benign in their native background, but harmful in alien genetic context. The way these genetic changes interact negatively with the genetic background of the recipient species varies according to their nature. Some act directly during the gamete formation, other induce direct hybrid lethality when present in a heterozygous state, and some need to be present in a homozygous state to cause partial (sublethal and subvital genes) or full (lethal genes) destruction of the zygotes or the seedlings (Lynch and Force 2000). Although *F*₁ sterility or inviability is a common feature of wide interspecific crosses, small introgressions often have indiscernible heterozygous effects while being lethal or sterilizing in the homozygous state (Turelli and Orr 2000).

Birhman and Hosaka (2000) outlined self-incompatibility and zygote selection, which cause unequal segregation of alleles. Preferential transmission through male or female gametes, or both, has been noted for monosomic alien addition chromosomes introgressed into a cultivated crop species background (Maan 1975). In most instances, the preferential transmission is caused by a single gene located on the alien chromosome (Maguire 1963). When segregation distorters or *Gc* genes occur, one of the alleles at heterozygous loci transmits to the progeny at higher frequencies than the expected Mendelian ratio (Sandler et al. 1959). During meiosis, alien *Gc* genes, in the hetero- or hemizygous state, induce breakage in chromosomes not carrying the genes. The gametes with the broken chromosomes are deficient for some loci and are often unviable. The viable gametes will be those carrying the gametocidal alien chromosome (Endo 1979; Nasuda et al. 1998). Rick (1966) has reported gametes eliminator allele (*Ge*) in tomato, which causes abortion of gametes because of

allelic interaction. *Ge* allele induces abortion of the gametes carrying the opposite allele, although the homozygote shows no adverse effect on the formation of the gametes. Our results indicate the presence of the alien SSR markers, BNL3436 and BNL1153, mapped on the c6–c25 linkage groups, in all HRS progenies, from the BC₁ to S₁/BC₁/BC₂S₂, sampled in our study. Therefore, it is possible that such gametocide genes may exist on at least one of the *G. sturtianum* chromosome fragments introgressed in HRS progeny. Becerra and Brubaker (2007) proposed the possible presence of a gametocidal chromosome in *G. australe* species when analysing the frequency of alien chromosome transmission in a *Gossypium* hexaploid bridging population. The same gametocidal genes may exist in *G. sturtianum* species. In cotton, preferential transmission of an additional Australian diploid species chromosome was mentioned by Rooney and Stelly (1991) and Ahoton et al. (2004). Vroh Bi et al. (1999b) observed that out of 70 species-specific AFLP loci of the donor parent *G. sturtianum*, four were systematically present in all the backcross progenies of two tri-species hybrids [(*G. hirsutum* × *G. raimondii*)₂ × *G. sturtianum*] (HRS) and [(*G. raimondii* × *G. sturtianum*)² × *G. hirsutum*] (TSH) suggesting that these fragments were located on chromosomes that were preferentially transmitted.

One of the most important barriers that prevent the development of an interspecific hybrid-derived population in cotton is the hybrid lethality. Several species of the A and D genomes (*G. davidsonii* Kell., *G. klotzchianum* Anders., *G. gossypoides* (Ulbr.) Stendl. and *G. arboreum* L. race *sanguineum*) present two complementary genes of lethality which condition the death of hybrid embryos or seedlings produced with tetraploid cotton plants (Lee 1982; Rooney and Stelly 1989; Percival et al. 1999). Normally, this type of gene should not be present on the *G. sturtianum* conserved chromosome fragments of the selected HRS hybrid derivatives because their simple presence should have prevented the development of any hybrid between the donor and the recipient species.

Functional lethality due to the presence in the homozygote state of recessive alien lethal alleles was observed in an interspecific hybrid of tomato by Bernacchi and Tanksley (1997). Such genes might be present on the chromosome fragments of

G. sturtianum introgressed in the most advanced generations of the selected derivatives of HRS.

The mapped SSRs used here were initially chosen on the “A-genome” of modern tetraploid cotton based on (1) the higher pairing affinity of the donor C chromosomes (large size) for A chromosomes (medium size) than for D chromosomes (small size) (Endrizzi et al. 1985); and (2) the greater efficiency of the seed gossypol gland repression mechanism in the wild Australian species against the “A” genome carrying the *Gl*₂ allele determining seed gossypol gland density than the “D” genome (Mergeai 1992). Considering these two factors, it was expected that the A_n chromosomes of *G. hirsutum* would interact and more likely pair with C₁ chromosomes of *G. sturtianum*. The higher level of introgression observed for *G. raimondii* chromosome fragments compared to *G. sturtianum* where selection pressure was applied to retain only the individuals expressing the researched trait supports the soundness of this hypothesis.

For our future investigations, genomic in situ hybridization (GISH) analyses on the selected materials will be used to measure the amount of introgression and to localize the conserved alien fragments. Cytological analyses will permit us to observe and to score chiasmata associations between cytologically marked chromosomes. Further investigation on populations obtained by crossing the introgressed stocks as male and female parents with *G. hirsutum* varieties will be realized to better understand the segregation distortions observed in our study. The results of these investigations should help identifying the best solutions to break the inhibitory linkages that seem to exist between these segregation distortion factors and the genes controlling the inhibition of the gossypol synthesis only in the seed.

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