

1 **Genetic characterization of a reciprocal translocation present in a**
2 **widely grown barley variety**

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25 **Abstract**

26

27 Artificially induced translocation stocks have been used to physically map the barley
28 genome; however, natural translocations are extremely uncommon in cultivated
29 genotypes. ‘Albacete’ is a barley variety widely grown in the last decades in Spain and
30 carrying a reciprocal translocation which obviously does not affect its agronomical
31 fitness. This has been characterized by a combination of cytological and molecular
32 genetic approaches. First, similarities between markers on chromosomes 1H and 3H,
33 involved in the translocation, were estimated to determine the boundaries of the
34 reciprocal interchange. Secondly, 1H-3H wheat barley telosome addition lines were
35 used to assign selected markers to chromosome arms. Thirdly, fluorescence *in situ*
36 hybridization (FISH) with rDNA probes (5S and 18S-5.8S-26S) and microsatellite
37 probes ((ACT)₅, (AAG)₅ and (CAG)₅) was used to determine the locations of the
38 translocation breakpoints more precisely. Fourthly, fine-mapping of the regions around
39 the translocation breakpoints was used to increase the marker density for comparative
40 genomics. The results obtained in this study indicate that the translocation is quite large
41 with breakpoints located on the long arms of chromosomes 1H and 3H, between the
42 pericentromeric (AAG)₅ bands and above the (ACT)₅ interstitial distal bands, resulting
43 in the reciprocal translocation 1HS.1HL-3HL and 3HS.3HL-1HL. The gene content
44 around the translocation breakpoints could be inferred from syntenic relationships
45 observed among different species from the grass family Poaceae (rice, *Sorghum* and
46 *Brachypodium*) which was estimated at approximately 2,100 and 750 gene models for
47 1H and 3H, respectively. Duplicated segments between chromosomes Os01 and Os05 in
48 rice derived from ancestral duplications within the grass family overlap with the
49 translocation breakpoints on chromosomes 1H and 3H in the barley variety ‘Albacete’.

50

51 **Keywords** Reciprocal translocation · Barley · Translocation breakpoint ·

52 Fluorescence In Situ Hybridization · Comparative genomics

53

54 **Introduction**

55 Reciprocal translocations, interchanges of chromosome segments between two non-
56 homologous chromosomes, are one of the most common structural chromosomal
57 rearrangements occurring in plant species. Translocations in plants have been widely
58 described by Burnham (1956). Permanent translocation heterozygotes were first
59 observed by Gates (1908) in *Oenothera* species which received generous cytological
60 and genetic study by Cleland (1922) and Belling and Blakeslee (1926). McClintock
61 (1930) was the first to supply cytological evidence of interchanges in economically
62 important crops such as maize. Translocations have been widely utilized in both applied
63 and fundamental scientific research for chromosome mapping, in particular for
64 assigning linkage groups to chromosomes, development of physical maps in plants
65 (Kim et al. 1993; Künzel et al. 2000; Sorokin et al. 1994; Marthe and Künzel 1994), and
66 to improve our understanding of meiotic chromosome pairing behaviour (Rickards
67 1983). They have been reported in a number of crop species, such as rye (Ahloowalia
68 1962; Alonso-Blanco *et al.* 1993; Benito et al. 1994; Catarino et al. 2006), soybean
69 (Mahama et al. 2003), *Prunus* (Jáuregui et al. 2001), *Lens* (Tadmor et al. 1987), pea
70 (Kosterin et al. 1999), wheat (Naranjo et al. 1987) and *Brassica napus* in which a
71 significant higher seed yield effect was showed for the progeny segregating for a
72 reciprocal translocation between N7 and N16 (Osborn et al. 2003).

73 Chromosomal interchanges, and translocations in general, can be artificially induced in
74 somatic or meiotic cells by ionizing radiation or mutagens. They may also occur
75 spontaneously, although there are few cases of spontaneous reciprocal translocations
76 described in cultivated barley. Konishi and Linde-Laursen (1988) investigated 1,240
77 cultivated barley lines and 120 wild barley lines to detect spontaneous reciprocal

78 translocations, which were identified by both semi-sterility associated to test crosses
79 and subsequent Giemsa banding technique. Of the 1,240 cultivated barley lines, four
80 Ethiopian landraces carrying a reciprocal translocation had the same breakpoints at the
81 centromere involving chromosomes 2H and 4H (2HS·4HS and 2HL·4HL), suggesting
82 that their rearrangement chromosomes had a common origin. Of the 120 wild barley
83 genotypes, three carried translocations between chromosomes 2H and 4H, 3H and 5H
84 and 3H and 6H, respectively. Xu and Kasha 1991 identified a chromosomal interchange
85 between chromosomes 3H and 4H using N-banding and *in situ* hybridization techniques
86 in a wild barley cross. The plant heterozygous for the interchange was derived from the
87 backcross of ‘Su Pie’ with pollen from a triploid interspecific F₁ hybrid of ‘Su Pie’ ×
88 tetraploid *Hordeum bulbosum* accession GBC141.

89 One of the consequences of a reciprocal translocation is the suppression of genetic
90 recombination in a translocation heterozygote in the interstitial zone (the chromosome
91 segment between the centromere and the breakpoint). The suppression depends on the
92 centromere coorientation frequency at metaphase I (alternate or adjacent segregations)
93 and upon the chiasmata (crossover) frequency expected in both interstitial segments
94 (Hanson and Kramer 1949; Burnham and Hagberg 1956; Kasha and Burnham 1965;
95 Sybenga 1975). Recombination suppression in the interstitial zone affects the linkage
96 relationships in a translocation heterozygote which results in “pseudo-linkage” between
97 the genes of the two chromosomes involved in the reciprocal translocation and
98 subsequent disturbed linkage maps. Another consequence of reciprocal translocations is
99 the occurrence of gametic sterility of which depends on the frequency of the alternate or
100 adjacent orientation in the quadrivalent. In barley, an excess of alternate over adjacent

101 segregation of the chromosomes at meiotic metaphase I would explain the averaged
102 about 25% of the sterility for the interchange (Kakeda and Miyahara 1995).

103 Plant accessions carrying chromosome rearrangements such as translocations have been
104 identified in the past by its effects on partial pollen and seed sterility (i.e. Jáuregui et al.
105 2001). However, depending on the chromosome breakpoints, a translocation can result
106 in the disruption or misregulation of normal gene function. Thus, special interest resides
107 on the characterization of the physical location of the translocation breakpoints in the
108 genome which can be physically delimited by the combination of cytogenetics with
109 molecular genetics allowing the location of breakpoints for physical mapping of genes
110 on chromosomes. In barley, chromosome identification can be achieved by using *in situ*
111 hybridization with ribosomal RNA probes (Brown et al. 1999). In addition, with
112 labelled SSRs it is now possible to cover the physical map with many landmarks
113 distributed along all chromosome arms (Cuadrado and Jouve 2007). Undoubtedly, this
114 rich set of chromosome markers should help to identify barley breakpoints more
115 precisely than conventional staining techniques.

116 In the present paper, we aim at determining the positions of the translocation
117 breakpoints in the Spanish six-row barley variety ‘Albacete’ in order to know how large
118 the segments are that are involved in the interchange between the two chromosomes.
119 Translocations may have dramatic consequences such as modified phenotypes. In fact,
120 ‘Albacete’ is the only extensively cultivated barley variety known to carry a reciprocal
121 translocation between chromosomes 1H and 3H without any major reduction in fitness.
122 It is adapted to low-yielding West Mediterranean areas and it has been the most widely
123 grown cultivar in the driest Spanish areas for the last decades (over a million ha per

124 year). The translocation was first identified by Cistué (personal communication) upon
125 meiotic analysis of semi-sterile F₁ hybrids involving this variety.

126 In tracing the possible origin of the reciprocal translocation in ‘Albacete’ we use
127 syntenic relationships between different families of the grass family Poaceae. For the
128 location and characterization of the translocation breakpoints we used a combination of
129 molecular genetical and cytological techniques. Dense genetic linkage maps of the
130 chromosomes involved in the reciprocal translocation will be used to identify markers
131 in the vicinity of the translocation. Pseudo-linkage arising from suppressed
132 recombination in the interstitial space may result in increased similarities between
133 markers located on the two chromosomes involved in the reciprocal translocation and
134 can be used to fine-map the recombination breakpoints. Further validation and physical
135 characterisation of the translocation breakpoints will be achieved by wheat-barley
136 telosome addition lines and fluorescence *in situ* hybridization with rDNA probes (5S
137 and 18S-5.8S-26S) and microsatellite probes ((ACT)₅, (AAG)₅ and (CAG)₅) of
138 ‘Albacete’ and doubled haploid lines derived from crosses between ‘Albacete’ and
139 cultivars with a standard chromosome arrangement.

140

141

142 **Materials and methods**

143 **Linkage analysis**

144

145 Two bi-parental doubled haploid (DH) mapping populations were used. The first
146 mapping population, ‘Albacete’ × ‘Barberousse’ (AB), consists of 231 DH lines derived
147 from anther-culture from the cross between the translocation-carrier six-rowed winter
148 variety ‘Albacete’ and six-row winter variety ‘Barberousse’. DNA isolation and
149 genotyping data, SSR and DArT®, were performed according to Farré et al. (2011). The
150 second mapping population, (‘Albacete’ × ‘Plaisant’) × ‘Plaisant’ (APP), consists of 94
151 DH lines derived from the cross of a DH genotype produced from the ‘Albacete’ ×
152 ‘Plaisant’ F₁, which carried the ‘Albacete’ reciprocal translocation, backcrossed to
153 ‘Plaisant’. DNA was extracted from leaf tissue using kit DNeasy Plant Mini Kit
154 (Quiagen, Valencia, CA, USA). A set of 3072 EST-based high confidence SNP markers
155 were genotyped using GoldenGate BeadArray technology (Illumina) as previously
156 described (Close et al. 2009).

157 The allocation of markers to linkage groups as well as their genetic map position were
158 based on the published barley consensus map (Wenzl. et al. 2006) for the AB
159 population and Close et al. 2009 for the APP population. The position of the
160 translocation breakpoints was first inferred by estimating the similarities between
161 markers on chromosomes 1H and 3H on the AB DH population. The similarities were
162 measured by the simple matching coefficient, which for a doubled haploid population is
163 equal to one minus the recombination frequency. The graphical representation of
164 similarities between markers was drawn with the Pajek programme (Batagelj and Mrvar
165 1998).

166

167 **Wheat-barley telosome addition lines**

168 The chromosome arm locations of seven SSR markers on the chromosomes of the
169 barley cultivar ‘Betzes’ were checked on the ‘Chinese Spring’-‘Betzes’ (CS-B) wheat-
170 barley telosome addition lines for chromosomes 1H and 3H. CS-B telosome addition
171 lines for the chromosome 1H and 3H and chromosome arms 1HS, 3HS and 3HL were
172 used to determine the exact position of the centromere and to assign selected markers to
173 chromosome arms. No telosome addition line for chromosome arm 1HL was available.
174 Genomic DNA of plant material from these addition lines were kindly provided by
175 Rafiqul Islam (School of Agriculture, Food and Wine. The University of Adelaide,
176 Australia) and Marion Röder (Leibniz Institute of Plant Genetics and Crop Plant
177 Research. IPK, Germany).

178

179 **Fluorescence *in situ* Hybridization**

180 *Plant material and root tip and chromosome preparation*

181 Root tips were obtained from seedlings of *Hordeum vulgare* cv. ‘Albacete’. Seeds were
182 germinated on moist filter paper for 24 h at 25°C and then kept at 4°C for 72h followed
183 by 25°C for 24h to synchronize cell division. The seedlings were then transferred to ice-
184 cold water for 24h to accumulate metaphases before tissue fixation in ethanol-glacial
185 acetic acid (3:1) (Cuadrado and Jouve 2007). Chromosome preparations were prepared
186 as described by Schwarzacher et al. (1989). Briefly, root tips were macerated with an
187 enzymatic mixture and then squashed in a drop of 45% acetic acid. After removing the
188 cover slips by quick freezing, the slides were air dried.

189

190 *DNA probes and in situ hybridization*

191 The three oligodeoxyribonucleotide probes ((ACT)₅, (CAG)₅ and (AAG)₅) were
192 provided by Roche labelled at their 5' and 3' with digoxigenin or biotin. The novel and
193 rapid non-denaturing FISH (ND-FISH) technique developed by Cuadrado and Jouve
194 (2010) was carried out to detect SSR-enriched chromosome regions.

195 The other probes, pTa71 (a plasmid containing the 18S-5.8S-25S rDNA and the
196 intergenic spacer of *Triticum aestivum*) and pTa794 (contains a 410-bp BamHI
197 fragment of 5S rDNA isolated from wheat *Triticum aestivum*) were labelled by nick
198 translation and PCR, respectively (Leitch and Heslop-Harrison 1992; Leitch and
199 Heslop-Harrison 1993; Pedersen and Linde-Laursen 1994; Brown et al. 1999).
200 Chromosome and probe denaturation and the *in situ* hybridization steps were carried out
201 as described in Cuadrado et al. (2000).

202

203 *Fluorescence microscopy and imaging*

204 Slides were examined with a Zeiss Axiophot epifluorescence microscope. The separate
205 images from each filter set were captured using a cooled CCD camera (Nikon DS) and
206 processed using Adobe Photoshop, employing only those functions that are applied
207 equally to all pixels in the image.

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212 **Results**

213 **Similarities between markers on chromosomes 1H and 3H**

214 In order to identify DArT and SSR markers in the vicinities of the reciprocal
215 translocation breakpoints, we explored similarities, *i.e.* simple matching coefficients,
216 between the markers located on chromosomes 1H and 3H. The allocation of markers to
217 linkage groups as well as their genetic map position were based on the published barley
218 consensus map (Wenzl et al. 2006). Markers with identical segregation patterns were
219 binned and of each bin only one marker was selected to obtain a set of markers well
220 distributed along the chromosomes. A graphical representation of the simple matching
221 coefficients was obtained for a total of 52 markers out of 82 for AB. Figure 1 shows that
222 markers on chromosome 1H and 3H were strongly related. This suggests the presence
223 of a reciprocal translocation between these chromosomes. In Figure 1, the thicker the
224 connecting lines, the higher the simple matching coefficient. So, for the AB population,
225 the markers with the highest simple matching coefficient (>0.90) were located in the
226 consensus map around 59-64 cM and 66-70 cM for 1H (HvM20 and EBmac0501) and
227 3H (Bmac209, Bmac067, Bmag006 and Bmag0136), respectively, which corresponds
228 with the pericentromeric regions of both chromosomes 1H and 3H. Weaker, yet
229 significant, similarities extended for 34 cM on 1H and 30 cM on 3H.

230

231 **1H and 3H wheat-barley telosome addition lines**

232 Wheat-barley chromosome addition lines were then used to assign the chromosome arm
233 location of the SSR markers found to be closely linked to the translocation breakpoints
234 using their presence/absence as detected in hexaploid wheat *Triticum aestivum* cv.
235 ‘Chinese Spring’ (CS) and barley *Hordeum vulgare* cv. ‘Betzes’ using PCR (Table 1).
236 For chromosome 3H, 3 out of 4 SSR markers were found to be located on the short arm

237 and the other one on the long arm. Using 1H wheat-barley addition lines the two SSR
238 markers used mapped on different chromosome arms. HvM20 amplified in both CS and
239 Betzes and, therefore, did not have any diagnostic value.

240

241 **Fluorescence *in situ* hybridization analysis**

242 Further progress in localizing the translocation breakpoints can be expected from direct
243 cytological observations of barley chromosomes by FISH using probes that were used
244 successfully as anchored chromosomal markers. The following locations of pTa794
245 (5SrDNA) were reported: interstitial on chromosome arms 2HL and 3HL, distal on 4HL
246 and proximal on 7HS (Leitch and Heslop-Harrison 1993). In addition to the two NOR-
247 bearing barley chromosomes, 5HS and 6HS, the locations of four minor rDNA loci with
248 pTa71 (18S-5.8S-26S rDNA) were reported on chromosome arms 1HS, 2HS, 4HS and
249 7HS differentiated by their position and intensity (Pedersen and Linde-Laursen 1994).
250 Thus the use of these two ribosomal probes should allow easy identification of all
251 barley chromosomes including chromosomes 1H and 3H.

252 First, two-colour FISH was carried out with pTa71 and pTa794 in pollen mother cells of
253 a hybrid between 'Albacete'×'Plaisant'. The expected chromosome pairing occurred
254 during meiotic I prophase for a heterozygous genotype for the chromosomal
255 arrangement, in which five bivalents and one quadrivalent were observed (Fig. 2a).
256 Bivalents for the two satellited chromosomes, 5H and 6H, with the strongest pTa71
257 signals, and the bivalents formed by chromosomes labelled with both probes, 2H, 4H
258 and 7H, were identified despite the weak signals observed in the Figure 2. Thus,
259 chromosome 1H, with the stronger pTa71 signal between the non-satellited
260 chromosomes, and 3H are the chromosomes involved in the quadrivalent (Fig. 2b,c).

261 We subsequently analysed mitotic metaphases of 'Albacete' (Fig. 2 d-h). Chromosomes
262 2H, 4H, 5H, 6H and 7H showed the expected and distinctive FISH pattern of ribosomal
263 probes. In addition, one pair of submetacentric chromosomes with a rather strong
264 pTa71 signal on its short chromosome arm and pTa794 signal on its long chromosome
265 arm and another pair of metacentric chromosomes without any ribosomal signals,
266 confirmed the presence of a reciprocal translocation resulting in two chromosomal
267 combinations 1HS-3HL and 3HS-1HL, respectively (Fig. 2f). These two chromosomes
268 are shown in Fig. 2i. Therefore, the translocation breakpoints are located below the
269 pTa71 signal on 1HS and above the pTa794 signal on 3HL.

270 More information about the exact position of the translocation breakpoints can be
271 obtained by identifying relocated FISH landmarks on chromosomes 1H and 3H. To this
272 aim three microsatellites probes, (ACT)₅, (CAG)₅ and (AAG)₅ were chosen for their
273 characteristic patterns on these chromosomes (Cuadrado and Jouve 2007). As expected,
274 (ACT)₅ resulted in a distinct pattern of FISH signals on chromosomes 2H, 3H, 4H, 5H,
275 and 6H. The characteristic signals on the long arm of chromosome 3H were found on
276 the translocated chromosomes 1HS-3HL (Fig 2g and i). These results suggest that the
277 translocation breakpoints are located below the pTa71 signal on 1HS and above the
278 (ACT)₅ signal on 3HL (Fig. 2e). The (AAG)₅ microsatellite probe facilitates the
279 identification of all barley chromosomes thanks to a rich pattern of signals of different
280 intensities located in the pericentromeric and interstitial chromosomal regions (Fig. 2h).

281 The characteristic patterns obtained in the translocated chromosomes are similar to the
282 patterns found in other barley varieties with normal 1H and 3H chromosomes and
283 suggest that the translocation breakpoints are located below the pericentromeric AAG
284 signals on the long arms of chromosomes 1HL and 3HL (Fig. 2i-j). Results obtained
285 with the (CAG)₅ probe support the detection and identification of the translocations

286 1HS.1HL-3HL and 3HS.3HL-1HL. The signals obtained in the centromere of
287 translocated chromosomes 3HS-1HL were stronger than on 1HS-3HL (Fig 2j).

288

289 **Fine-mapping of the translocation breakpoint region**

290 In order to increase the marker density around the translocation breakpoints the APP
291 population genotyped with SNP was used. As (AAG)₅ and (ACT)₅ microsatellite probes
292 have proved to be useful to determine the translocation breakpoints on 1H and 3H
293 chromosomes, they were also chosen for detailed cytogenetic characterization of 8 out
294 of 94 DH lines from the APP population (Figure 3). These DH lines were selected
295 according to the ‘Albacete’ SNP allele distribution along 1H and 3H aiming to narrow
296 down the position of the translocation breakpoints. The allocation of markers to linkage
297 groups as well as their genetic map position were based on the published barley
298 consensus map (Close et al. 2009). From Figure 3 it can be observed that 8 markers
299 around 50-52.5 cM on 1H (11_20427, 11_20660, 12_11209, 12_31208, 11_31381,
300 11_20912, 11_21312 and 12_30350) and 30 markers around 43.2-55.6 cM on 3H
301 (12_21533, 11_11002, 11_21101, 11_11086, 11_11501, 11_10137, 11_10328,
302 11_20970, 12_30039, 12_30130, 12_30318, 12_31008, 12_31372, 11_10365,
303 12_10155, 12_31502, 11_10008, 11_20102, 11_10224, 11_20333, 11_20428,
304 11_20439, 11_10456, 11_20796, 11_20856, 11_20890, 11_21062, 11_21147,
305 11_11124 and 11_11337) close to translocation breakpoints.

306

307 **Discussion**

308 The combination of cytogenetics and molecular genetics allowed us to determine the
309 translocation breakpoints on chromosomes 1H and 3H of the barley variety 'Albacete'
310 more accurately than with conventional staining techniques. The success of the
311 combination of methods depends on the locations of the translocation breakpoints and
312 on the presence of differential signals on the chromosomes involved (Xu and Kasha,
313 1991).

314 In the present study, the positions of the translocation breakpoints have been determined
315 using a number of approaches. First, an analysis involving similarities between markers
316 (simple matching coefficients) was used to determine markers located near the
317 translocation breakpoints with a high degree of precision. This approach is equivalent to
318 using recombination frequencies in linkage analysis (Farré et al. 2011). SNP and
319 microsatellite markers putatively flanking the translocation breakpoints were identified
320 in the AB and APP mapping populations in the pericentromeric regions of
321 chromosomes 1H and 3H. Secondly, 1H and 3H wheat-barley telosome addition lines
322 were used to assign a number of markers closely linked to the translocation breakpoints
323 to their proper chromosome arms and to validate the genetic mapping results. For the
324 genomic SSR markers on 3H chromosome, the positions are in good agreement with the
325 positions reported by Künzel and Waugh (2002). They placed 24 microsatellite loci
326 onto the physical RFLP map of barley chromosome 3H using the map position of the
327 translocation breakpoints as reference (Künzel et al. 2000). Our genomic SSR markers
328 on 3H chromosome were identified flanking the centromere (positioned at 55 cM) in the
329 'Lina'×*Hordeum spontaneum* Canada Park genetic map, where Bmac0067, Bmag0136
330 and Bmag006 on the short arm and Bmac0209 on the long arm cover a genetic distance
331 of 5 cM. It is well known that genetic map distances between markers along

332 chromosomes correlate poorly with physical distances, particularly in the large cereal
333 genomes where closely linked markers which genetically map near the centromere
334 represent considerable physical distances (Schwarzacher 2003). As a consequence, most
335 of the chromosomal gene content is trapped in chromosome segments with severely
336 suppressed recombination. According to Künzel and Waugh 002 the region flanked by
337 our four SSR covers 36% of the entire 3H chromosome length on the physical map. For
338 chromosome 1H, no studies were found relating genetic to physical distance using the
339 genomic SSR we identified close to the translocation breakpoint. Although being
340 pericentromeric we may expect results similar to those reported for 3H. In general,
341 Triticeae centromeres are characterised by suppressed recombination (Schwarzacher
342 2003; Rostoks et al. 2002). In barley, suppressed recombination rates in proximal
343 segments and high recombination rates in distal regions were demonstrated by Pedersen
344 et al. (1995). Later, Künzel et al. (2000) reported that most recombination was confined
345 in a relatively small chromosomal region, mostly at the arm ends, alternating abruptly
346 with regions of severely suppressed recombination.

347 Our approach allowed us to identify and genetically delimit the physical regions in
348 which the reciprocal translocation took place. However, as the region involved in the
349 translocation located in the vicinity of the centromeres, given recombination
350 suppression, represents a fairly large physical region in both 1H and 3H chromosomes.
351 FISH was used in an attempt to validate the positions of the translocation breakpoints
352 on the chromosomes involved in the chromosomal interchanges, which was found to be
353 a useful approach to characterize non-recombinant regions.

354 The proposed positions of the breakpoints on the long arms of chromosomes 1H and 3H
355 can be attributed to the combined use of rDNA and microsatellite probes. Once the
356 translocation between chromosome 1H and 3H was confirmed using the ribosomal

357 probes (pTa71 and pTa794) and (ACT)₅, the reasons that led us to concluding that the
358 breakpoints are on the long arms of chromosomes 1H and 3H (resulting in the
359 reciprocal translocation 1HS.1HL-3HL and 3HS.3HL-1HL) are multiple. Firstly, the
360 signals obtained using the (AAG)₅ probe (which were similar to banding patterns
361 obtained by C-banding) on the short arms of both chromosomes are the same as those
362 observed in other barley varieties which indicates that the short arms are complete until
363 the centromere and not involved in the reciprocal interchange (Pedersen and Linde-
364 Laursen 1994; Cuadrado and Jouve 2007). However, a discrepancy in the number of
365 bands on 3HL among different barley varieties was found; some barley lines such as
366 ‘Plaisant’, ‘Gaelic’ and ‘Hispanic’ carried two bands compared with just one for
367 varieties as ‘Albacete’, ‘Dobla’ and ‘Golden Promise’. The lacking of a band near the
368 centromere could be a polymorphism in these varieties (unpublished data). Besides that,
369 it is important to notice that the signal intensity of the pericentromeric band present on
370 3HL is stronger than the one present on 1HL, which is characteristic for all barley
371 varieties. Therefore, these results suggest that the translocation breakpoints are located
372 below this band. Secondly, the differences in intensity found in the centromeres of the
373 translocated chromosomes with the (CAG)₅ probe are consistent with those obtained for
374 Plaisant (a variety with an standard chromosome arrangement). Signals on chromosome
375 3H were stronger than on 1H (Cuadrado and Jouve 2007) suggesting that the
376 translocation breakpoints are located below the centromere on both
377 chromosomes. Thirdly, the interchanged chromosomes 1HS.1HL-3HL and 3HS.3HL-
378 1HL are more similar in total length and more submetacentric and metacentric,
379 respectively, compared with published ‘normal’ barley karyotypes in which centromeres
380 of chromosome 1H, the smallest barley chromosome, and 3H are located at 41 and 44%
381 FL, respectively (arm ratios for 1H and 3H were estimated at 1.4 and 1.3 milliGeNomes

382 (mGN), respectively, and chromosome arms are the following: 51 mGN (1HS), 72
383 mGN (1HL), 64 mGN (3HS) and 83 mGN (3HL); Taketa et al. 2003). To summarize,
384 the different patterns of these SSR probes have proven to be of a great value for
385 localizing and validating the translocation breakpoints on 1H and 3H chromosomes in
386 the Spanish barley variety 'Albacete'. The results obtained in this study suggest that the
387 translocation breakpoints are located on the long arms of both chromosomes between
388 the (AAG)₅ and (ACT)₅ pericentromeric bands for 3HS.3HL-1HL and below the
389 (AAG)₅ pericentromeric band for 1HS.1HL-3HL existing a interstitial zone with
390 suppressed recombination.

391 For barley and other not yet sequenced species synteny conservation with related
392 Poaceae species sequenced genomes such as rice, *Brachypodium*, maize or *Sorghum*
393 (Moore et al. 1995; Sandhu 2002) can be explored and exploited for studying genome
394 evolution and identification of candidate genes for traits of interest. So, an interesting
395 point is to use the shared syntenic relationships observed among different species from
396 the grass family Poaceae to determine the gene content around the translocation
397 breakpoints. We used a reduced set of SNP markers selected from the based on a
398 combination of a cytogenetical and molecular characterization of the APP population
399 lines to explore genome co-linearity of barley with rice, *Brachypodium* and *Sorghum*
400 Mayer et al. (2009) mentioned that the gene contents of 1H and 3H are estimated to be
401 approximately 5,400 and 6,500 genes, respectively, out of an overall 45,000 genes for
402 the entire barley genome. Their results also indicated that approximately 20% of all
403 genes on barley chromosome 1H are located in centromeric and subcentromeric regions
404 with very low recombination frequencies. Similar gene density can be expected for
405 barley chromosome 3H; Smilde et al. (2001) reported a 30-fold reduction of
406 recombination around the barley 3H centromere. The gene contents, as inferred from

407 rice Os01 and Os05 chromosomes, around the translocation breakpoints were estimated
408 as approximately 750 and 2,100 for 1H and 3H, respectively. As a proportion of the
409 genes represent retroelement-like components and pseudo-genes, the final number of
410 functional genes in barley must be smaller. Inferred gene contents for *Sorghum* and
411 *Brachypodium* yielded similar figures, around 1,250 and 1,200 genes for the region on
412 1H and 670 and 600 gene models for 3H, respectively. With such large gene content the
413 use of a candidate gene approach aiming at identifying which gene(s) may have been
414 altered by the translocation and that may confer higher drought tolerance to ‘Albacete’
415 is not practical. An interesting observation arising from the comparative mapping of
416 several Poaceae species is the presence of duplicated segments between chromosomes
417 Os01 and Os05 in rice derived from ancestral duplications within the grass family
418 (Guyot and Keller 2004) which are overlapping with the translocation breakpoints on
419 chromosomes 1H and 3H in ‘Albacete’. Moreover, there are also large grass ancestral
420 genome duplications affecting rice chromosomes Os03 and Os07 homologous to barley
421 chromosomes 2H and 4H. Smaller ancestral duplications are present in regions of the
422 rice genome homologous to barley chromosomes 3H-5H and 3H-6H, which are also
423 involved in spontaneous reciprocal translocations in barley (Konishi and Linde-Laursen
424 1988).

425 In conclusion, the widely grown Spanish barley variety ‘Albacete’ carries a large
426 pericentric chromosome rearrangement between chromosomes 1H and 3H without any
427 major change in fitness. SNP and microsatellite markers located in the proximity of the
428 reciprocal translocation breakpoints were identified in both AB and APP mapping
429 populations within the pericentromeric regions of both chromosomes. The physical
430 characterization suggested that the translocation breakpoints are located on the long
431 arms of both chromosomes between the (AAG)₅ and (ACT)₅ pericentromeric bands

432 for 3HS.3HL-1HL and below the (AAG)₅ pericentromeric band for 1HS.1HL-3HL. The
433 gene content in this region was estimated at approximately 750 and 2,100 gene models
434 for 1H and 3H respectively. Presence of duplicated segments between chromosomes
435 Os01 and Os05 in rice derived from ancestral duplications within the grass family
436 (Guyot and Keller 2004) overlaps with the translocation breakpoints on 1H and 3H
437 chromosomes in the barley variety ‘Albacete’. However, no current evidences of
438 whether similar gene contents on different chromosomes arising from ancestral
439 duplications may play a role in spontaneous chromosomal exchanges through non-
440 homologous chromosome pairing have been published.

441

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445

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629

630 **Figure and table legend**

631

632 **Figure 1. Graphical representation of the simple matching coefficients using 52**
633 **markers for AB population.** The thickness of the lines connecting markers is
634 proportional to the magnitude of the corresponding simple matching coefficient; only
635 simple matching coefficients above 0.7 were indicated with a line. The centromere
636 position is indicated by a white circle. The genetic distances are expressed in map
637 distances (cM) according to the barley consensus map.

638

639 **Figure 2. FISH results with rDNA probes (5S and 18S-5.8S-26S) and microsatellite**
640 **probes ((ACT)₅, (AAG)₅ and (CAG)₅).** (a-c) *In situ* hybridization of rDNA probes
641 pTa71 (red) and pTa794 (green) in pollen mother cells of hybrid between ‘Albacete’ ×
642 ‘Plaisant’ (Arrows indicate the quadrivalent). (d-h) Root-tip metaphase chromosomes

643 from barley (*Hordeum vulgare* cv. ‘Albacete’) after DAPI staining and *in situ*
644 hybridization with biotin-labelled probes (detected by red Cy3) or digoxigenin-labelled
645 probes (detected by green FITC): (d) DAPI staining for DNA; (e) rDNA probes and
646 (ACT)₅ (arrows indicate the characteristic ACT signals on 3HL and arrowheads the 45S
647 rDNA loci on 1HS); (f) pTa71 and pTa794 (arrows indicate the 5S rDNA loci on 3HL
648 and arrowheads the 45S rDNA loci on 1HS); (g) (ACT)₅ (arrows indicate the
649 characteristic ACT signals on 3HL); (h) (AAG)₅ and (ACT)₅ (arrowheads indicate the
650 characteristic ACT signals on 3HL. Lines indicated the pericentromeric AAG signals on
651 chromosomes 1H and 3H); (i-j) translocated chromosomes hybridized with pTa71,
652 pTa794, (AAG)₅, (ACT)₅ and (CAG)₅. Scale bar represent 10 μm.

653

654 **Figure 3. Fine-mapping of the translocation breakpoint region using eight selected**
655 **lines from the APP mapping population.** Schematic representation of the eight
656 selected DH lines (top). Blue and yellow colours indicate ‘Albacete’ and ‘Plaisant’
657 parental alleles respectively. Genomic region in the vicinity of the reciprocal
658 translocation breakpoints are indicated with grey colour. Horizontal dashed lines are
659 drawn every 10 cM with the distance proportional to the number of SNPs markers. Line
660 number are shown using green and red colours according to the presence or not of the
661 reciprocal translocation, respectively (line n°30200 was used as a positive control
662 whereas 3.1 24 as a negative). On the bottom, *In situ* hybridization of (ACT)₅ (red or
663 green) and (AAG)₅ (red) in root-tip metaphase chromosomes 1H and 3H after DAPI
664 staining and *in situ* hybridization with biotin-labelled probes (detected by red Cy3) or
665 digoxigenin-labelled probes (detected by green FITC).

666

667 **Table 1. Presence (+) or absence (-) of 7 SSR markers using CS-B addition lines.**

Fig. 1



