

1 **Identification of simple sequence repeat markers for sweetpotato weevil resistance**

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23

24 **Abstract**

25 The development of sweetpotato [*Ipomoea batatas* (L.) Lam] germplasm with resistance
26 to sweetpotato weevil (SPW) requires an understanding of the biochemical and genetic
27 mechanisms of resistance to optimize crop resistance. The African sweetpotato landrace,
28 ‘New Kawogo’, was reported to be moderately resistant to two species of SPW, *Cylas*
29 *puncticollis* and *Cylas brunneus*. Resistance has been associated with the presence of
30 hydroxycinnamic acids esters (HCAs), but the underlying genetic basis remains
31 unknown. To determine the genetic basis of this resistance, a bi-parental sweetpotato
32 population from a cross between the moderately resistant, white-fleshed ‘New Kawogo’
33 and the highly susceptible, orange-fleshed North American variety ‘Beauregard’ was
34 evaluated for SPW resistance and genotyped with simple sequence repeat (SSR) markers
35 to identify weevil resistance loci. SPW resistance was measured on the basis of field
36 storage root SPW damage severity and total HCA ester concentrations. Moderate broad
37 sense heritability ($H^2=0.49$) was observed for weevil resistance in the population. Mean
38 genotype SPW severity scores ranged from 1.0-9.0 and 25 progeny exhibited
39 transgressive segregation for SPW resistance. Mean genotype total HCA ester
40 concentrations were significantly different ($P<0.0001$). A weak but significant correlation
41 ($r=0.103$, $P=0.015$) was observed between total HCA ester concentration and SPW
42 severity. A total of five and seven SSR markers were associated with field SPW severity
43 and total HCA ester concentration, respectively. Markers IBS11, IbE5 and IbJ544b
44 showed significant association with both field and HCA-based resistance, representing
45 potential markers for the development of SPW resistant sweetpotato cultivars.

46 **Key words:** Hydroxycinnamic acid, SSR markers, sweetpotato weevil

47 **Introduction**

48 Sweetpotato [*Ipomoea batatas* (L.) Lam] is a rich source of carbohydrates,
49 vitamin A, vitamin C, fiber, and minerals (Wolfe 1992; Teow et al. 2007). It is one of the
50 most affordable and nutrient rich among the root and tuber crops in the developing world,
51 and it is particularly important in sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) (Low et al. 2007). The
52 consumption of orange-fleshed varieties rich in β -carotene has been shown to improve
53 the vitamin A status of children and women in SSA (van Jaarsveld et al. 2005; Hotz et al.
54 2012). This, coupled with its ability to yield under marginal soil conditions, with minimal
55 input requirements makes sweetpotato a key crop in the food systems of many SSA
56 countries (Karyeija et al. 1998).

57 Despite the importance of the crop, average sweetpotato storage root yields in
58 SSA are low, about 4.0-10.0 metric t/ha compared to the average root yield of 21.5 metric
59 t/ha in China, the leading global producer of the crop (FAOSTAT 2014). Apart from poor
60 crop management practices, a major reason for low storage root yields in SSA is due to
61 sweetpotato weevil (SPW), which can cause complete yield losses during dry spells (Smit
62 1997).

63 The sweetpotato weevil species, *Cylas puncticollis* (Boheman) and *Cylas*
64 *brunneus* (Fabricius) predominantly occurring in Africa, severely reduce the production
65 and market value of sweetpotato in SSA (Stathers et al. 2003). The major damage is
66 inflicted on the storage roots by larval feeding (Cockerham et al. 1954; Jansson et al.
67 1987). Secondary pathogen infection and induction of sesquiterpenes produced in
68 response to damage makes the storage roots bitter and unacceptable for consumption
69 (Uritani et al. 1975; Sato and Uritani 1981).

70 The concealed feeding behavior of SPWs makes their management difficult
71 (Nottingham and Kays 2002; Odongo et al. 2003). Host plant resistance is a major
72 component of any integrated pest management (IPM) program, but to date, the
73 development of weevil resistant varieties has not been successful in SSA. This is
74 attributed to the complex nature of the sweetpotato genome making crop improvement
75 difficult, limited sources of resistance and lack of knowledge on the genetics of
76 inheritance of sweetpotato weevil resistance even where resistance mechanisms have
77 been identified (Stevenson et al. 2009).

78 Recently, a wide range of sweetpotato genotypes were screened for SPW
79 resistance and compared with a highly susceptible cultivar, *I. batatas* ‘Tanzania’, as a
80 control to identify the biochemical basis of SPW resistance (Muyinza et al. 2012;
81 Anyanga et al. 2013). Considerable variation in the concentrations of hydroxycinnamic
82 acid (HCA) esters in the screened genotypes was recorded with the highest concentration
83 observed in ‘New Kawogo’, an African landrace originating from Uganda. The six HCA
84 esters associated with SPW resistance were identified as hexadecylcaffeic acid,
85 hexadecylcoumaric acid, heptadecylcaffeic acid, octadecylcaffeic, octadecylcoumaric
86 acid and 5-0-caffeoylquinic acids (Stevenson et al. 2009; Anyanga et al. 2013). Their
87 constitutive production in sweetpotato, particularly at the root surface, was established as
88 one of the quantifiable chemical bases of SPW resistance (Anyanga et al. 2013).
89 Development of a rapid chemotyping method for hydroxycinnamic acid esters (HCA),
90 and/or molecular markers linked to them was proposed in as a tool for selecting SPW
91 resistance using marker-assisted selection (MAS) and/or biochemistry-assisted selection.

92 Our knowledge on the inheritance of SPW resistance is limited. While linkage
93 and QTL analysis of storage root yield, dry matter, starch, β -carotene content and root-
94 knot nematode resistance have been reported in sweetpotato (Cervantes-Flores et al.
95 2008a; Cervantes-Flores et al. 2008b; Chang et al. 2009; Cervantes-Flores et al. 2011;
96 Zhao et al. 2013), none has yet been reported for SPW resistance.

97 Development of biochemical and genomic tools to unravel the chemical and
98 genetic basis of resistance to SPW in ‘New Kawogo’ will facilitate the development of
99 SPW resistant germplasm and cultivars. The application of functional genomics in insect
100 ecology has been widely reviewed by Tittiger (2004). Next-Generation sequencing will
101 also contribute to simple sequence repeat (SSR) and single nucleotide polymorphism
102 (SNP) marker discovery for use in marker assisted selection (MAS) and genomic
103 selection for developing SPW resistant cultivars. With the low number of sweetpotato
104 SSR markers published to date compared to other major crops (Buteler et al. 1999; Hu et
105 al. 2004; Schafleitner et al. 2010; Wang et al. 2011), and no SNPs at all, genomic
106 improvement of SPW resistance is still in its infancy.

107 In this study, we used logistic regression to associate published SSR markers
108 (Buteler et al. 1999; Hu et al. 2004; Schafleitner et al. 2010; Wang et al. 2011) to SPW
109 resistance in the ‘New Kawogo’ x ‘Beauregard’ bi-parental population, which is
110 segregating for SPW resistance and other agronomic traits. This is the first time that co-
111 dominantly inherited SSR markers have been used to identify SPW resistance loci in
112 sweetpotato. As more sweetpotato SSR and SNP markers are developed, genomic SPW
113 resistance breeding might be implemented in the future.

114

115

116 **Materials and methods**

117 Plant material

118 The population used in this study consisted of 287 F₁ progeny from a bi-parental
119 cross between ‘New Kawogo’ (NK) and ‘Beauregard’ (B) generated at NaCRRRI in
120 Uganda (0° 32’N, 32° 35’E, 1,150 m.a.s.l). ‘New Kawogo’ (female) is a moderately SPW
121 and sweetpotato virus disease (SPVD) resistant, high dry matter content, white-fleshed
122 released Ugandan cultivar (Mwanga et al. 2001; Stevenson et al. 2009). ‘Beauregard’
123 (male) is a SPW and SPVD susceptible, low dry matter content and orange-fleshed (high
124 β-carotene content) US cultivar (Rolston et al. 1987).

125

126 Genomic DNA extraction and SSR genotyping

127 Genomic DNA was extracted from the young leaves (ca. 100 g) of each progeny
128 and parents using a modified C-TAB method (Doyle and Doyle 1990) and quantified
129 using a NanoDrop ND-1000 spectrophotometer (NanoDrop Technologies, Wilmington,
130 Delaware) at the NaCRRRI Biosciences laboratory. The DNA samples were then shipped
131 to North Carolina State University for genotyping.

132 The sequences of 405 published expressed sequence tags (EST) SSR primers
133 (Buteler et al. 1999; Hu et al. 2004; Schafleitner et al. 2010; Wang et al. 2011) were
134 obtained for this study. The primers were redesigned by addition of the M13 tail
135 universal primer sequence (TGTAACAACGACGGCCAGT) to the 5’ end of the forward
136 primer sequence and then synthesized by Eurofins Genomics (Huntsville, Alabama). The
137 complementary M13 sequence was fluorescently labeled with VIC (green), 6FAM (blue),

138 NED (yellow) and PET (red) tags from Applied Biosystems (Foster City, California) for
139 automated detection of polymerase chain reaction (PCR) products.

140 The genomic DNA was amplified using polymerase chain reaction (PCR)
141 performed in a 10 µl reaction volume. The PCR reaction consisted of 3.0 µl (20-40 ng/µl)
142 DNA template, 1.0 µl 10X PCR buffer, 1.0 µl 15 mM MgCl₂, 0.8 µl 10 mM dNTPs mix,
143 0.2 µl forward primer (1.0 µM), 1.0 µl reverse primer (1.0 µM), 0.5 µl M13 primer (1.0
144 µM), 0.1 µl Taq polymerase (50 U/µl) and 2.4 µl PCR water. The PCR conditions were
145 as follows; one hold at 94.0°C for 4 min, followed by first 15 cycles of 94.0°C
146 denaturation for 30 sec, 55.0°C annealing for 30 sec, and 72.0°C extension for 1 min,
147 then followed by 25 cycles of 94.0°C for 30 sec, 50.0°C annealing for 30 sec, and 72.0°C
148 extension for 1 sec, followed by two holds at 72.0°C for 7 min, and at 4.0°C for infinite
149 time.

150 The PCR amplifications were performed using an Eppendorf Mastercycler
151 (Eppendorf AG, Hamburg, Germany). We did PCR product sizing by capillary
152 electrophoresis using an ABI3730xl Genetic Analyzer (Applied Biosystems, Foster City,
153 California). The allele data was analyzed using GeneMarker 2.2.0 (SoftGenetics, State
154 College, Pennsylvania). Allele scores were converted to binary data, with 1 being allele
155 present and 0 as allele absent. Details of DNA extraction and PCR were described in
156 Yada et al. (2015).

157

158 Field trials and SPW resistance screening

159 The 287 progeny and parents were evaluated for SPW resistance at three sites and
160 two seasons in Uganda during 2012-2013. All experiments were arranged in a
161 randomized complete block design with 3 replications per genotype per site. Each

162 experimental plot consisted of 5 plants spaced 30 cm apart planted on ridges separated by
163 1.0 m.

164 The trials were conducted at the National Semi-Arid Resources Research Institute
165 (NaSARRI) (1° 32'N, 33° 27' E), Ngetta Zonal Agricultural Research and Development
166 Institute (NgeZARDI) (2° 202'N, 33° 62' E), and the National Crops Resources Research
167 Institute (NaCRRI) (0° 32'N, 32° 35'E).

168 The trials were artificially infested with 20 weevils per plot (7 female and 3 male
169 sweetpotato weevils each of *C. puncticollis* and *C. brunneus*) at 90 days after planting to
170 increase the weevil population, and to optimize and even the infestation across the study
171 sites as previously reported (Muyinza et al. 2012). The weevils were reared on storage
172 roots in the laboratory at NaCRRI.

173 During the first season (2012A), the trials were planted in June, 2012 and
174 harvested in November, 2012. The second season trials (2012B) were planted in
175 November, 2012 and harvested in May, 2013. The harvesting of both trials was done at 5-
176 6 months after planting to allow ample time for SPW infestation.

177 We inspected the harvested storage roots and scored SPW severity using a 1 to 9
178 scale, where 1 = no weevil damage symptoms, 2 = unclear weevil damage symptoms, 3 =
179 clear weevil damage symptoms < 5% of roots per plot, 4 = clear weevil damage
180 symptoms at 6 to 15% of roots per plot, 5 = clear weevil damage symptoms at 16 to 33%
181 of roots per plot, 6 = clear weevil damage symptoms in 34 to 66% of roots per plot (more
182 than 1/3, less than 2/3), 7 = clear weevil damage symptoms in 67 to 99 % of roots per
183 plot (2/3 to almost all), 8 = clear weevil symptoms in all roots per plot, 9 = severe weevil
184 damage symptoms in all roots per plot (rotting) as described in Grüneberg et al. (2010).

185 Hydroxycinnamic acid (HCA) ester profiling

186 Storage root samples were brought to NaCRRI and a sub-sample of storage roots
187 from each plot was washed under running tap water and processed. We selected 289
188 genotypes (287 progeny and 2 parents) from NaCRRI and NgeZARDI for HCA analysis.
189 Fresh roots were cut transversely into 2-3 root discs from the middle portion of each root
190 sample, weighed and freeze-dried using a vacuum freeze dryer (True-Ten Industrial Co.
191 Taichung City, Taiwan) for 72 hrs. The periderm and epidermal sections of the freeze-
192 dried root disks were using the edge of a kitchen knife. The separated portions were
193 powdered using a laboratory blender. The freeze-dried samples were weighed and milled
194 at NaCRRI using a Thomas Wiley Mini-Mill (Thomas Scientific, Swedesboro, New
195 Jersey). For HCA extraction, 50 mg of the powdered samples were immersed in methanol
196 (1 ml) in 1.5 ml Eppendorf tubes for 24 hrs. The crude mixture was spun using a mini-
197 centrifuge (BIO-RAD, Hercules, California) at 13000 rpm for 5 min and the supernatant
198 collected for liquid chromatography-mass spectrometry (LC-MS) analysis as described
199 by Anyanga et al. (2013). The profiling of HCA ester concentration was done at the
200 Natural Resources Institute (NRI), University of Greenwich, UK.

201

202 Data analysis

203 All data analysis was performed using 284 progeny and the parents. Analysis of
204 variance (ANOVA) of SPW resistance was conducted using the generalized linear mixed
205 model procedure, PROC GLIMMIX (SAS 9.4, SAS Institute, Cary, North Carolina). We
206 treated the genotypes as fixed effects and block, site and season as random effects. We
207 compared the overall SPW least significant (LS) means of parents to that of progeny

208 (Gtype), and also the individual progeny and parents LS means Gen(Gtype) across sites
209 and seasons using the Turkey-Kramer grouping ($\alpha=0.05$). The genotype means were
210 used to assess the level of transgressive segregation for SPW resistance.

211 Using PROC MIXED and PROC IML (SAS 9.4, SAS Institute, Cary, North
212 Carolina), we analyzed the phenotypic and genotypic variances for SPW severity scores,
213 which were later used to compute the broad sense heritability of SPW resistance in this
214 population.

215 For total storage root HCA ester concentration, analysis of variance was done
216 using PROC GLM with sites as replications. We used the genotype LS means for
217 assessing the level of transgressive segregation for HCA ester production in the
218 population. The Pearson correlation analysis of field SPW severity and HCA ester
219 production of genotypes was done through PROC CORR (SAS 9.4, SAS Institute, Cary,
220 North Carolina).

221 For marker and trait association analyses, we used a total of 133 informative SSR
222 markers out of the 405 markers screened. The SSR markers associated with SPW
223 resistance were identified using regression analysis. We used the genotype best linear
224 unbiased predictions (BLUPs) of SPW resistance and HCA content to identify SSR
225 markers associated with sweetpotato weevil resistance. The genotype SPW resistance
226 BLUPs were analyzed using PROC MIXED (SAS 9.4, SAS Institute, Cary, North
227 Carolina). Then SSR loci and trait regression analysis was conducted using PROC
228 GLIMMIX with genotypes as fixed effects. An SSR marker locus was considered to have
229 significant association with SPW resistance if $p < 0.05$ for the regression analysis.

230

231 **Results**

232

233 Analysis of variance (ANOVA) of SPW resistance

234 Sites had significant effects ($p < 0.05$) on SPW resistance of the genotypes as the
235 mean SPW severity at NaCRRI, NgeZARDI and NaSARRI were 3.6, 2.1 and 5.4,
236 respectively. The genotype x environment (G x E) interaction effect was also significant
237 for SPW resistance in this population. The mean SPW resistance of the parents compared
238 to that of progeny (Gtype) as estimated by SPW severity scores on storage roots was not
239 significant, but differences in mean SPW resistance of individual progeny and individual
240 parents (Gen(Gtype)) across sites and seasons was significant (Table 1).

241

242 Genotype performance and heritability

243 The mean genotype SPW severity scores across seasons at NaCRRI ranged from
244 1.0 to 9.0, with a mean of 3.6 for both seasons (Fig. 1A), with mean SPW severity for
245 ‘New Kawogo’ and ‘Beauregard’ of 2.1 and 7.5, respectively. A total of 18 progeny
246 performed better than ‘New Kawogo’, the resistant parent for SPW resistance at
247 NaCRRI. The top five most resistant progeny in terms of mean SPW severity at NaCRRI
248 were; NKB84, NKB52, NKB280, KNB219 and NKB225. A total of three progeny:
249 NKB217, NKB199 and NKB125 had higher severity scores than ‘Beauregard’, the
250 susceptible parent at this site.

251 At NgeZARDI, mean genotype SPW severity across seasons ranged from 1.0 to
252 7.0 (Fig. 1B) and the mean SPW severity across seasons was 2.1. The mean SPW
253 severity of ‘New Kawogo’ and ‘Beauregard’ were 1.4 and 7.1, respectively. The

254 distribution of genotype performance was skewed to the right, meaning most genotypes
255 showed low SPW damage. Twenty-seven progeny exhibited positive transgressive
256 segregation (performed better than the resistant parent) for field SPW resistance at this
257 site. The top five most resistant genotypes at this site were; NKB219, NKB225, NKB52,
258 NKB72 and NKB115. No progeny had a higher mean SPW severity than ‘Beauregard’ at
259 NgeZARDI.

260 The mean genotype SPW severity scores across seasons at NaSARRI ranged from
261 2.0 to 9.0 (Fig. 1C) with a mean SPW severity of 5.4. The mean SPW severity of ‘New
262 Kawogo’ and ‘Beauregard’ were 3.6 and 8.7, respectively. The total number of progeny
263 exhibiting positive transgressive segregation for SPW resistance at NaSARRI was 19.
264 The top five weevil resistant progeny at this site were; NKB219, NKB225, NKB260,
265 NKB84 and NKB10. The progenies that performed worse than ‘Beauregard’ at this site
266 were NKB17, NKB237, NKB283, NKB282 and NKB127.

267 Mean overall genotype SPW severity across sites and seasons ranged from 1.0 to
268 8.0 (Fig. 1D). The mean overall SPW severity of the parents ‘New Kawogo’ and
269 ‘Beauregard’ were 2.5 and 7.8, respectively. The overall genotype mean SPW severity
270 distribution was skewed to the right and a total 25 progeny showed positive transgressive
271 segregation for overall SPW resistance. Progeny NKB152, NKB257, NKB72, NKB59
272 and NKB260 had the lowest overall mean SPW severity across sites and seasons (most
273 resistant). Progeny NKB219 and NKB225 had low mean SPW severity across the three
274 sites having stable performance for SPW resistance.

275 On analyzing the genotypic and phenotypic variances, the broad sense heritability
276 estimate for field SPW resistance in this population was moderate ($H^2=0.49 \pm 0.047$).

277 Total storage root HCA ester analysis

278 Mean storage root total HCA ester concentrations of genotypes (progeny and
279 parents) were significantly different ($P < 0.0001$). The overall mean total HCA ester
280 concentration of the genotypes was 69.4 ng/g on dry weight basis. The mean total HCA
281 ester concentrations of 'New Kawogo' and 'Beauregard' were 379.6 ng/g and 70.4 ng/g,
282 respectively. Genotype mean total HCA ester concentrations ranged from 4.9 to 379.6
283 ng/g, in progeny NKB175 and 'New Kawogo', respectively. The distribution of genotype
284 mean total HCA ester concentration was skewed to the right and no progeny had higher
285 total HCA ester concentration than 'New Kawogo', the resistant parent (Fig. 2).

286 A weak significant positive correlation was observed between genotype total
287 storage root HCA ester concentrations and field SPW severity ($r = 0.103$, $P = 0.015$). The
288 top five progeny with the highest mean total HCA ester concentration were; NKB257
289 (366.5 ng/g), NKB152 (357.5 ng/g), NKB108 (268.9 ng/g), NKB256 (254.0 ng/g) and
290 NKB265 (237.1 ng/g). In contrast, the progeny that showed the lowest concentration of
291 mean total HCA esters were; NKB175 (4.9 ng/g), NKB285 (5.0 ng/g), NKB182 (6.3
292 ng/g), NKB29 (8.1 ng/g) and NKB223 (8.7 ng/g).

293 Out of the top five best performing progeny for mean total HCA ester
294 concentrations and SPW severities, three (NKB152, NKB257 and NKB108) showed high
295 consistent performance on the basis of SPW severities. Out of the 25 progeny that
296 performed better than 'New Kawogo' for field SPW resistance, nine had total HCA ester
297 concentrations greater than 140 ng/g. Interestingly, some highly susceptible progeny to
298 SPW in the field such as NKB80, NKB151 and NKB283 had high HCA ester
299 concentrations of 163.9 ng/g, 160.5 ng/g and 140.6 ng/g, respectively.

300 Marker-trait association

301 Out of the 405 SSR markers screened, 250 were polymorphic on the parents and
302 selected progeny. However, some of the polymorphic markers later gave ambiguous
303 allele profiles and were discarded. This left 133 useful markers for marker trait
304 association analyses. Marker and mean genotype SPW BLUPs regression analysis
305 indicated that five out of the 133 SSR markers were significantly associated with field
306 SPW resistance (Table 2). However, the variance (R^2 values) explained by these markers
307 was low. The most informative SSR marker was J116A, which explained 8% of the total
308 variance in mean genotype SPW BLUPs.

309 A total of seven SSR markers were significantly associated with mean storage
310 root HCA ester concentrations in this population (Table 3). These markers explained
311 38.5% of the total variance in mean HCA ester concentration in the population. The most
312 highly significantly associated SSR marker to HCA ester synthesis in this population was
313 marker IbL10, which explained 7% of the total variance. SSR markers IBS11, IbE5 and
314 IbJ544b were significantly associated with both HCA ester and field-based SPW
315 resistance in this population.

316

317 **Discussion**

318 Sweetpotato weevil damage escalates in SSA sweetpotato fields during dry spells
319 (Stathers et al. 2003). Our results are in agreement with this finding as NaSARRI, located
320 in a semi-arid part of Uganda had the highest mean weevil severity. At NaSARRI, dry
321 spells typically begin at the end of the each growing season and are characterized by high
322 levels of soil cracks on the sweetpotato mounds and ridges as the storage roots mature.

323 The soil cracks create entry avenues for gravid weevils to lay eggs in exposed storage
324 roots, which then hatch into larvae, the most damaging stage of the SPW (Jansson et al.
325 1987). Severe damage by larvae occurs through concealed feeding within the storage
326 roots.

327 Another reason for SPW escalation during drought is the low amount of water in
328 the soil. As a result, limited amount of water is absorbed and transported throughout the
329 plants and the plants consequently dry up (Mao et al. 2004). Therefore, the translocation
330 of plant defense phytochemicals throughout the plant is also inhibited due to the low
331 amount of water flowing through the vascular tissues (Ni et al. 2009). The significant G x
332 E interaction for SPW resistance observed in our study implies that genotypes should be
333 tested at multiple sites for selecting SPW resistance.

334 The genotypes (progeny and parents) in our study significantly differed in their
335 mean weevil infestation across sites and seasons. Their published levels of SPW
336 resistance informed our choice of the parental genotypes used in this study. ‘New
337 Kawogo’ was reported to be moderately resistant and have high levels of plant chemicals
338 conferring field resistance to SPW (Mwanga et al. 2001; Stevenson et al. 2009), whereas
339 ‘Beauregard’ was reported to be highly susceptible to a host of insect pests including
340 sweetpotato weevils (Rolston et al. 1987). Furthermore, we report here comparatively
341 low levels of HCAs for ‘Beauregard’.

342 We observed a range of field SPW resistance in this population. The large number
343 of progeny showing transgressive segregation is attributed to the diverse nature of the
344 parents selected from different gene pools. Grüneberg et al. (2009) reported that progeny
345 generated from diverse parents from wide gene pools exhibited high levels of diversity

346 and heterosis for key agronomic traits in sweetpotato. Progeny that performed better than
347 ‘New Kawogo’ and had storage root yield have become potential candidates for yield
348 trials and use as sources of genes for future population improvement. A moderately high
349 level of genetic diversity was observed in this population (Yada et al. 2015), which
350 supports the observation of the large number of progeny exhibiting transgressive
351 segregation for SPW resistance.

352 The significant differences in the concentrations of mean total HCA esters among
353 the genotypes could be attributed to random re-assortment of alleles at multiple loci for
354 this trait in this cross. ‘New Kawogo’ (female) was reported to have high concentrations
355 of total HCA esters and high levels of field resistance to SPW (Stevenson et al. 2009;
356 Anyanga et al. 2013). Total HCA esters were reported to have a significant effect on the
357 mortality of sweetpotato weevils in a controlled laboratory experiment on treated
358 artificial diet in a dose dependent response, which is the reason they were hypothesized to
359 be the chemical basis of active and quantifiable SPW resistance in ‘New Kawogo’
360 (Stevenson et al. 2009).

361 The highly skewed distribution of mean HCA ester concentration of genotypes to
362 the right with a mean genotype HCA ester concentration of 69.4 ng/g could be an
363 indication of a rare allele that is qualitatively and recessively inherited. However, we
364 cannot draw this conclusion with the sample size that was used in this study.
365 Hydroxycinnamic acid esters have been shown to play key roles in the biosynthesis
366 pathway of lignin, a key mode of plant defense against pathogenic attack and herbivory
367 (Boerjan et al. 2013). Single genes were isolated and shown to encode the enzymes for
368 lignin biosynthesis including hydroxycinnamate CoA ligase (4CL) in sugarcane (Ramos

369 et al. 2001). The mode of inheritance of HCA esters in sweetpotato needs to be
370 understood for enhancing their application in improving SPW resistance.

371 A few clones including NKB152, NKB257, NKB108, NKB59 and NKB60, from
372 our study showed consistently high levels of field and HCA ester-based weevil
373 resistance. These clones could be candidate parental genotypes for use in population
374 improvement for SPW resistance in SSA. We also observed clones that showed high
375 levels of field resistance in terms of their weevil damage scores but contrarily had low
376 HCA ester concentrations (e.g. NKB72, NKB225, NKB52, NKB158 and NKB279). The
377 resistance in these particular clones could be attributed to other defense mechanisms than
378 HCA synthesis such as: deep rooting, presence of physical morphological barriers (i.e.,
379 heavy pubescence) and quick healing mechanisms to insect wounding. Varieties with
380 deep rooting and heavy pubescence characteristics were reported to sustain low SPW
381 damage in SSA (Stathers et al. 2003).

382 It is noteworthy that some cultivars, for example ‘Ruddy’ (Bohac et al. 2002),
383 ‘Regal’ (Jones et al. 1985) and ‘Sumor’ (Dukes et al. 1987), which are resistant to key
384 insect pests, including the Wireworm-*Diabrotica-Systema* (WDS) complex and *C.*
385 *formicarius* have been released in the US, though they have not become commercially
386 important. To date, no SPW resistant cultivar has been bred and released in SSA despite
387 the rigorous screening for SPW resistance in the global sweetpotato germplasm (Hahn
388 and Leuschner 1981; Thompson et al. 1999; Yada et al. 2011; Jackson et al. 2012;
389 Muyinza et al. 2012). Apart from the limited sources of SPW resistance for sweetpotato
390 improvement in SSA, dual infestation by *C. puncticollis* and *C. brunneus* is another
391 challenge to these efforts. The identification of progeny showing high levels of positive

392 transgressive segregation resistance against both *Cylas* spp. could present a positive effort
393 to address SPW damage in the region.

394 From our study, the broad sense heritability of SPW resistance was moderate
395 ($H^2=0.49$), meaning a substantial amount of SPW resistance in this population is due to
396 genetic variance. The inheritance of SPW resistance has been poorly studied. Thompson
397 et al. (1994) in a set of half-sib families of 19 parental genotypes of varying levels of
398 SPW resistance estimated the narrow sense heritability of SPW resistance through parent-
399 offspring regression as 0.35 and 0.52 for number of damaged storage roots and percent of
400 storage damaged roots, respectively. The moderate heritability estimate in our study
401 means that selection of increased resistance is achievable, but future families for selecting
402 weevil resistance should be generated from top performing progeny in this population.

403 The limited number of SSR markers associated with field- and biochemistry-
404 based SPW resistance in our study could be attributed to the moderate heritability of
405 SPW in this population. This is the first time SSR markers are being associated with SPW
406 resistance in sweetpotato to the best of our knowledge. This study has shown that, SSR
407 loci for resistance to SPW occur in sweetpotato and can be used to enhance the
408 improvement of sweetpotato for weevil resistance. The selected SSR markers could be
409 used for genotyping germplasm and selecting diverse SPW resistant parents. However,
410 there is need to identify QTL linked to resistance to SPW for use in sweetpotato
411 improvement.

412 Future sweetpotato improvement in SSA should exploit the use of HCA ester-
413 based selection (chemotyping) augmented with field phenotyping and laboratory
414 bioassays for long term population improvement. However, efforts to develop a low cost

415 chemotyping platform using LC-MS are still too expensive. The calibration of near-
416 infrared spectroscopy (NIRS) for analysis of total HCA ester concentrations in root
417 samples would enhance throughput screening of breeding materials for population
418 improvement in the region. This approach could be possible since fourier-infrared
419 spectroscopy has already been successfully used for quantification of total
420 hydroxycinnamic acid esters in forages (Allison et al. 2006).

421 In conclusion, our study showed that SPW resistance is a heritable trait that can
422 be mapped with SSR markers. More refined studies for estimating narrow sense
423 heritability for SPW resistance are needed. Field resistance to SPW was significantly
424 influenced by environment; as a result, we recommend further phenotyping of this
425 population for SPW resistance. The positive transgressive segregates need to be screened
426 further to confirm their level of SPW resistance for use in population improvement. Our
427 data needs to be augmented with choice and no-choice feeding bioassay data on the
428 genotypes to draw informed conclusions on the level of SPW resistance in this
429 population. More genomic tools should be developed using the ‘New Kawogo’ x
430 ‘Beauregard’ population through genotyping by sequencing of the entire population for
431 SSR and single nucleotide polymorphism (SNP) marker mining.

432

433 **Compliance with ethical standards**

434 **Conflict of interest:** The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest

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592 **List of Tables**

593 **Table 1** ANOVA of sweetpotato weevil resistance in the progeny and parents of the

594 ‘New Kawogo’ x ‘Beauregard’ mapping population

Source	DF	SS	MS	F Value	Pr > F
Site ^a	2	46.0	23.0	3.6	0.0370
Gtype ^b	1	3.6	3.6	1.4	0.2461
Gen(Gtype) ^c	284	1580.2	5.6	2.1	<.0001
Site*Gtype ^d	2	9.3	4.6	1.8	0.1733
Site*Gen(Gtype) ^e	567	1881.3	3.3	1.3	0.0001
Block(Site*Season)	15	1538.2	102.5	38.8	<.0001
Residual ^f	3892	10284.0	2.6		

595 Trials were conducted at three sites (NaCRRI, NgeZARDI and NaSARRI) and two
 596 seasons in a randomized complete block design (RCBD) with three replicates in Uganda
 597 in 2012

598 DF = degrees of freedom, SS = sum of squares, MS = mean sum of squares (SS/DF)

599 ^a Mean squares tests the significant effect of locations

600 ^b Tests the significant effect of overall least significant mean of the parents vs that of the
 601 progeny across sites and seasons

602 ^c Tests the significant effect of least significant means of individual genotypes (parents
 603 and progeny) across sites and seasons

604 ^d Tests the significant effect of site on overall parent and progeny least significant means

605 ^e Tests the significant effect of genotype x environment interaction

606 ^f Used in ANOVA to test significant effect of extraneous factors

607

608 **Table 2** Association of SSR markers with the best linear unbiased predictions of overall
 609 mean across-sites and seasons sweetpotato weevil severity (SPW_BLUPS) of genotypes

Marker ^a	Number of alleles	Most significant allele ^b	R ²	SPW_BLUP mean	F value	ProbF
J116A	5	J116ANKB210	0.0806	0.0006	4.68	0.000
IbL16	5	IbL16NK183	0.0446	0.0024	2.56	0.028
IBS11	5	IBS11NKB253	0.0443	0.0006	2.48	0.032
IbE5	3	IbE5B218	0.0311	0.0024	2.95	0.033
IbO5	2	IbO5NKB181	0.0233	0.0024	3.31	0.038

610 ^a SSR markers that were highly associated with SPW resistance selected out of 133 SSRs
 611 analyzed in the study

612 ^b Marker allele that had the highest significant association with resistance and also the
 613 allele that accounted for the highest variance for SPW resistance

614 R² = Proportion of SPW severity variance explained by SSR markers

615

616 **Table 3** Association of SSR marker loci with the best linear unbiased predictions of
 617 overall mean across-sites hydroxycinnamic acid (HCA_BLUPS) concentration of
 618 genotypes

Marker ^a	Number of alleles	Most significant allele ^b	R ²	HCA_BLUP mean	F value	ProbF
IbL10	5	IbL10B197	0.0671	0.00248	8.60	0.004
IBS62	5	IBS62B120	0.0654	0.0023	8.50	0.004
IbE5	3	IbE5B218	0.0580	0.0024	2.84	0.011
IBSSR03	6	IBSSR03B219	0.0525	0.002386	2.15	0.039
IBS11	5	IBS11NKB253	0.0510	0.0006	2.73	0.023
IbJ544b	4	IbJ544bNKB197	0.0460	0.0032	2.40	0.030
IbL16	5	IbL16NK183	0.0446	0.0024	2.56	0.028

619 ^a SSR markers that were highly associated with HCA based weevil resistance selected out
 620 of 133 SSRs analyzed in the study

621 ^b Marker allele that had the highest significant association with HCA_BLUPS and also
 622 the allele that accounted for the highest variance for HCA based resistance

623 R² = Proportion of HCA ester concentration variance explained by SSR markers

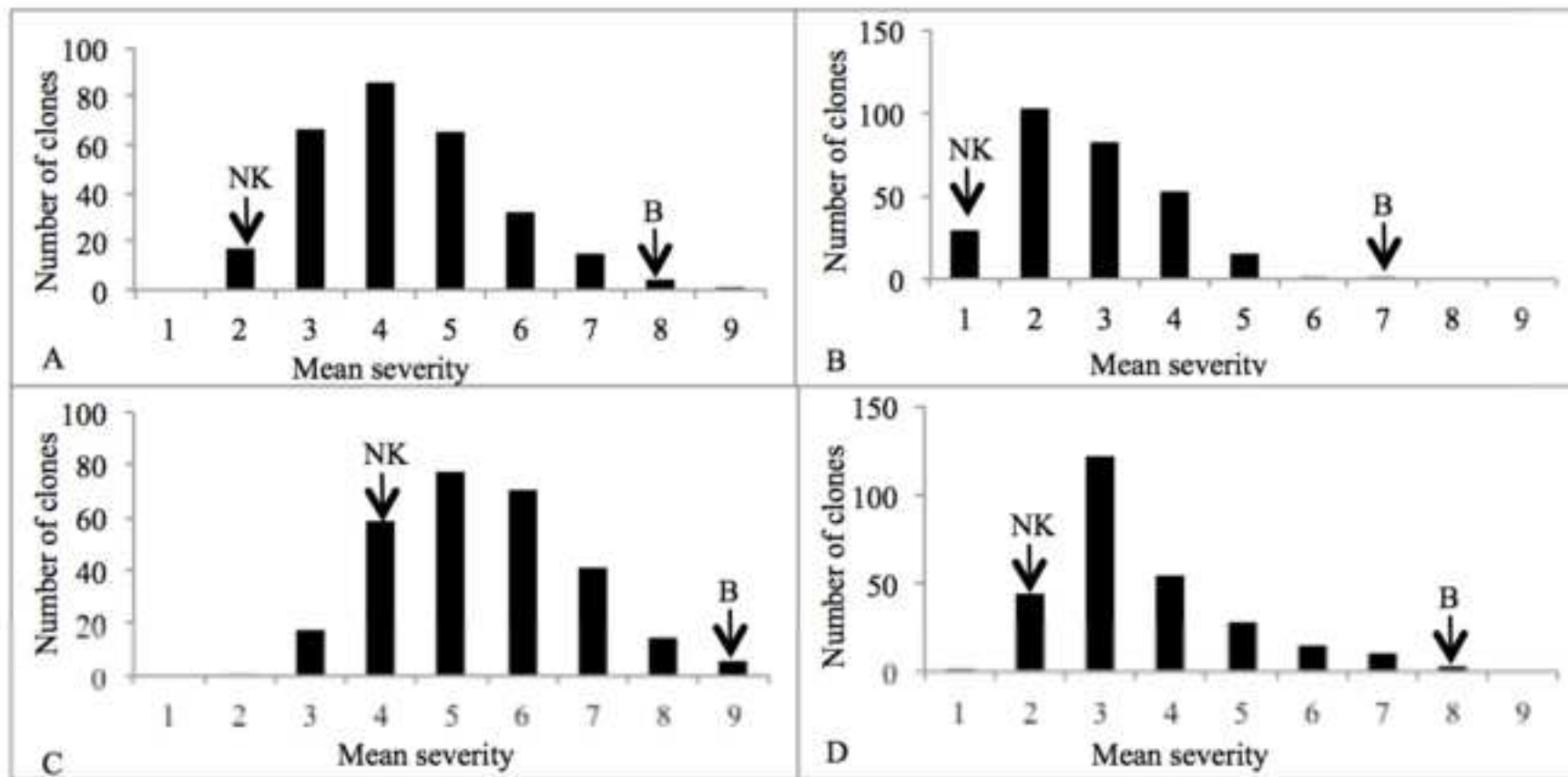
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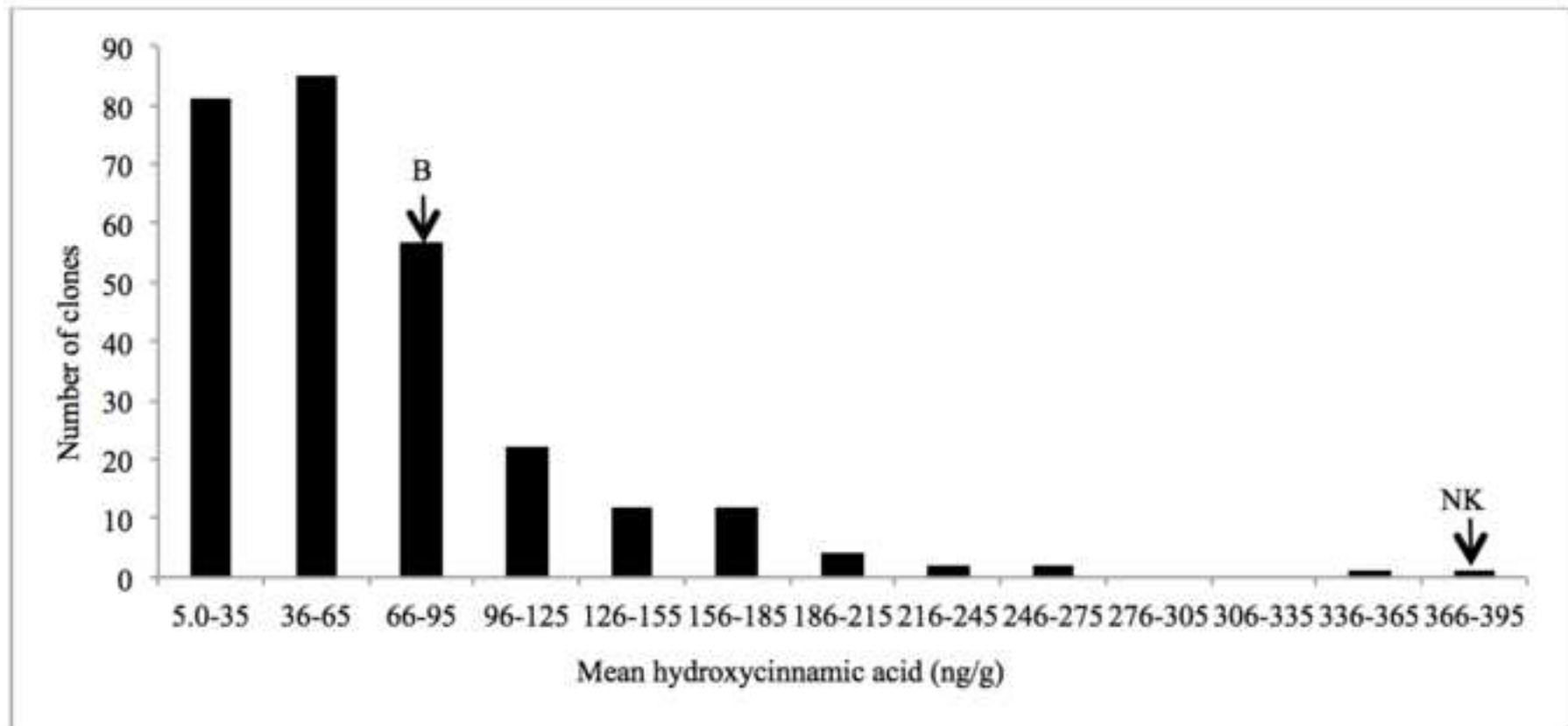
629 **List of Figures**

630 **Fig. 1** Distribution of mean sweetpotato weevil severity in the progeny and parents of the
631 ‘New Kawogo’ (NK) x ‘Beauregard’ (B) mapping population at NaCRRRI (A),
632 NgeZARDI (B), NaSARRI (C), and overall mean across sites and seasons (D), bars
633 represent the number of clones in each class of mean SPW severity scores averaged over
634 seasons for sites, and averaged over sites and seasons for the overall mean

635

636 **Fig. 2** Distribution of mean storage root hydroxycinnamic acid ester content in the
637 progeny and parents of the ‘New Kawogo’ (NK) x ‘Beauregard’ (B) across sites, bars
638 represent the number of clones in each class of mean storage root hydroxycinnamic acid
639 ester content scores averaged over sites

**Fig. 1**

**Fig. 2**