MAIZE GENETICS COOPERATION

NEWSLETTER

81

June 4, 2007

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Division of Biological Sciences and Division of Plant Services University of Missouri Columbia, Missouri

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NOTE: The 50th Maize Meeting will be held at Washington, DC February 27 – March 2, 2008. Registration will be due Nov 27, 2007 Check MaizeGDB for more details.

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I. FOREWORD

The Maize Genetics Cooperation Newsletter exists for the benefit of the maize community as an informal vehicle for communication. Its inception and continuation has been to foster cooperation among those interested in investigating maize. This cooperation has distinguished our field from others and as a consequence has moved it forward at a pace greater than would have occurred otherwise. Your submissions are encouraged to disseminate knowledge about our field that might otherwise go unrecorded.

Because maize is both a commercial species and a genetic model system, the danger exists that the sharing of research materials might be diminished. It is imperative for us to work together to prevent this from occurring. Certainly, basic findings should be transferred to the industrial sector and basic advances in industry should be shared with the academic community for the benefit of both. Published materials must be shared for research purposes with the only restriction being against commercial use.

We remind the readers that contributions to the Newsletter do not constitute formal publications. Citations to them should be accompanied by permission from the authors if at all possible. Notes can be submitted at any time and are entered into MaizeGDB. We set an arbitrary cutoff of January 1, 2008 for the next print copy, volume 81. Electronic submission is encouraged and is done by sending your contributions as attachments, or as text of an email, to MaizeNewsletter@missouri.edu. Submissions must require minimal editing to be accepted.

We encourage the community to carry studies of general scientific interest to the formal literature. However, there is a great need to share technical tips, protocols, mutant descriptions, map information, ideas and other isolated information useful in the lab and field. This year, we call special attention to a number of special reports: the Maize Genome Sequencing Project (see pages 71-72); and the Molecular and Functional Diversity Project (see pages 73-74).

As in the past, Shirley Kowalewski has been responsible for final redaction and layout of the copy. She has performed this task with speed, precision and a great sense of humor. The maize community owes her much gratitude for her continued service in this capacity.

Mary Schaeffer (Polacco) James A. Birchler Co-editors BEIJING, CHINA Chinese Academy of Sciences

RAPD analysis on the variation and mutant types induced by the special environment of space in maize (*Zea mays* L.)

--Zeng, M

In our previous papers, we have observed and obtained some variation and mutant types of qualitative and quantitative traits induced by the special environment of space. For example, mutants include kernel types, multi-ear, ear length, leaf-blade, plant height, and resistance to *B. maydis* and *E. turcicum*, among others (Chinese Space Sci. Technol. 23(6):64-68, 2003; MNL 74:2-3; NNL 79:3). This paper deals with the RAPD analysis of these mutants.

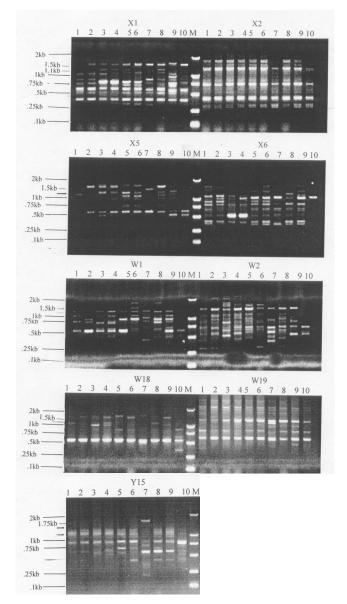


Figure 1. Amplification products from operon primers *Opx1*, *Opx2*, *Opx5*, *Opx6*, *Opw1*, *Opw2*, *Opw18*, *Opw19*, *Opy15*, respectively. 1. U8112CK, 2. *Mut7*, 3. Me141CK, 4. *Mut10*, 5. Yi01-4CK, 6. *Mut1*, 7. XHCK, 8. XH3, 9. Zi24CK, 10. *Mut4*.

Experimental materials included: (1) *Mut7* from U8112 and U8112CK; (2) *Mut10* from Me141 and Me141CK, (3) *Mut1* from Yi01-4 and Yi01-4CK, (4) XH3 from [(XH \times TSPT-HZ4 Pop.) \times *Mut2*]F2 population, (5) *Mut2* from Yi01-4, and (6) Mut4 from Zi24 and Zi24 CK. Nine operons were used (Figure 1, Table 1). Molecular weight standards backgrounds are lane DL2000: 2.0Kb, 1.0Kb, 0.75Kb, 0.5Kb, 0.25Kb, 0.1Kb from top to bottom, respectively.

The results show clearly that there are changes at the molecular DNA level. Mutants (*Mut7*, *Mut10*, *Mut1*, *Mut4*) possess different amplification products compared to their CK comparison. The inbred line XH3 also possesses different amplification products.

Table 1.	Comparison of the	e amplification products	s clearly amplified from	operon primers.
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	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
	U8112CK	Mut7	Me141CK	Mut10	Yi01-4CK	Mut1	XHCK	XH3	Zi24CK	Mut4
	-	More 1.5Kb	—		-		-	More 1.5Kb	-	
Opx1				Less 1.0Kb		Less 1.1Kb				Less 1.1Kb
	—		—		-		-	More 1.5Kb	—	
Opx2										Less 1.1Kb
	-	More 0.5, 1.5Kb	_		—		-	More 1.0,1.5 Kb	-	
Opx5		Less 1.1Kb								Less 1.1Kb
	—		—		—		—	More 1.5Kb	—	
Орхб		Less 1.5Kb								Less 0.5,0.7 5,1.0Kb
	-		_		_	More 1.0,1.5 Kb	-	More 0.5,1.5 Kb	-	
Opw1		Less 1.0Kb								Less 1.0,1.1, 1.5Kb
	-	More 1.0, 0.75Kb	_	More 0.5Kb	—	More 0.25Kb	-		-	
Opw2								Less 0.35Kb		Less 1.1Kb
	-		—	More 1.1Kb	-		-	More 1.0Kb	-	More 0.25Kb
Opw18										Less 1.0,1.5 Kb
	—		—		—		—		—	
Opw19								Less 1.1Kb		Less 0.75Kb
	_		_		—	More 0.4Kb	—	More 0.5Kb	—	More 0.5Kb
Opy15								Less 1.75Kb		

BERGAMO, ITALY CRA - Istituto Sperimentale per la Cerealicoltura

Evaluation of maize hybrid genotypes for resistance to Aspergillus flavus

--Balconi, C; Berardo, N; Ferrari, A; Pisacane, V; Della Porta, G; Verderio, A; Motto, M

The development of plants able to overcome damage caused by fungal pathogens has been a significant challenge for maize breeders. Although selection eliminates genotypes particularly susceptible to diseases, cultivated hybrids frequently show serious fungal infection (Munkvold, Annu. Rev. Phytopathol. 41:99-116, 2003).

Aspergillus flavus and Aspergillus parasiticus are responsible

for both pre- and post-harvest accumulation of aflatoxins (AF) in maize; concern about aflatoxin contamination is due to its potential carcinogenicity (Counc. Agric. Sci. Technol. Rep., CAST, Ames, IA, 2003). Aflatoxin B1 is the principal member of the family; it has an extremely high carcinogenic potential to some species of animals and a widespread occurrence in some food (Moreno et al., Plant Breed. 118:1-16, 1999).

In Italy, attention was focused on aflatoxins in 2003, when particularly favourable climatic conditions caused heavy *A. flavus* attack of maize. Milk produced by farm livestock fed with maize grains contaminated by *A. flavus* showed an unusual presence of aflatoxin M₁ (AFM₁ *milk toxin*) (Piva and Pietri, Informatore Agrario 14:7-8, 2004).

Some limiting factors in breeding for aflatoxin resistance are the spatial and temporal variations in aflatoxin accumulation that require inoculation and a high number of plants, the lack of a reliable and inexpensive screening methodology, and the low metabolic activity of maize plants after physiological maturity (Payne, Crit. Rev. Plant Sci. 10:423-440, 1992). In maize, resistance to aflatoxin is under genetic control and large genotype variability for this trait has been found. Studies in this field allowed identification and development of sources of genetic resistance, such as inbred lines (Mp420, Mp313E, Mp715, Tex6, LB31, Cl2) and populations (GT-MAS: gk) (Betran et al., Crop Sci. 42:1894-1901, 2002). However, the majority of these sources of resistance lack acceptable agronomic performance and adaptation which precludes their direct use in commercial hybrids. Current efforts are to map and characterize the genetic factors involved in resistance and to transfer them through marker-assisted selection to more suitable elite genotypes (Rocheford and White, Proc. Aflatoxin/Fumonisin Workshop 2000, Yosemite, CA, http://www.nal.usda.gov/fsrio/ppd/ ars06.pdf, 2002).

Beneficial secondary traits such as husk covering and tightness, physical properties of the pericarp, and drought or heat stress tolerance are factors contributing to aflatoxin resistance. In general, the hybrids with good husk cover show a greater resistance to insect damage and accumulate lower levels of aflatoxins (Betran et al., Crop Sci. 42:1894-1901, 2002). The incidence and severity of *A. flavus* infection and aflatoxin contamination are highly dependent on genotype, cultural practices, and environmental conditions (Brown et al., In K. K.Sinha and D. Bhatnagar (eds.), Mycotoxins in Agriculture and Food Safety, Marcel Dekker, New York, 1998).

Reliable methods for screening and evaluation of maize genotypes for improving tolerance to *Aspergillus* attacks are a valuable tool in breeding programs to increase crop protection against fungal diseases. Accordingly, the aim of our research was to evaluate and compare 34 maize hybrids (FAO 300-400-500-600-700) for *A. flavus* resistance and for aflatoxin accumulation in field trials. The test included: i) self-pollinated *A. flavus* inoculated ears, ii) selfpollinated non-inoculated ears (SIB), iii) sterile water inoculated ears. The inoculation experiment was replicated at two different planting dates. Environmental conditions, such as temperature and rainfall, were recorded.

At pollination, silk channel (region within the husk between the tip of the cob and tip of the husk where the silks emerge) length was recorded for each hybrid; variability for this trait was observed among the genotypes, with values ranging from 3.1 cm to 10.6 cm (average: 7.0 \pm 1.8). Ten hand-pollinated plants per plot were inoculated with a fresh spore suspension (mixture of 5 *A. flavus* isolates from Northern Italy, supplied by Dr. Battilani-University of Piacenza), 7 days after pollination (DAP) using the non-wounding Silk Channel Inoculation Assay (SCIA method, Zummo and Scott, Plant Disease 73:313-316, 1989). The silks of each primary ear were inoculated with 1.5 ml of 10⁸ spore/ml fungal suspension; controls were non-inoculated and sterile water-inoculated plants.

At maturity, ears were manually harvested and husk cover was evaluated using a visual rating ranging from 1 (good: tight long husks extending beyond the tip of the ear) to 5 (poor: loose short husks with exposed ear tips). Also at this stage, variability among hybrids was recorded for this husk morphological trait; for this parameter 9 hybrids scored 1 (ear tip un-exposed), 21 scored between 1 and 2 (1-2 cm ear tip exposed), and 4 scored between 2 and 3 (2-4 cm ear tip exposed).

After hand de-husking, the severity of ear A. flavus attack was evaluated using rating scales (% of kernels with visible symptoms of infection, such as rot and mycelium growth; Disease Severity Rating, DSR, ranging from 1=0%-no infection, 2=1-3%, 3=4-10%, 4=11-25%, 5=26-50%, 6=51-75%, 7=76-100% visibly infected kernels/ear; see Reid et al., Technical Bull., 1996-5E, Research Branch, Agriculture and Agri-Food Canada, 1996). Individual ear rating using a visual scale, as described above, allowed a discernible screening of the 34 hybrids tested for A. flavus resistance; variability in the hybrid response was observed (DSR: 2.45 ± 0.96). For all entries, non-inoculated (SIB) and sterile waterinoculated ears, as control, had no or very low disease symptoms (DSR respectively, 1.02±0.06 for SIB and 1.01 ± 0.03 for waterinoculated). This result indicates that the non-wounding silk channel inoculation technique applied was effective in inducing A. flavus attack.

After visual inspection, ears of each plot were dried, shelled, and the kernels bulked. To evaluate internal kernel infection, 50 kernels, randomly chosen from each sample, were surfacedisinfected and plated on DRBC agar (King et al., Appl. Environ. Microbiol. 37: 959-964, 1979). Seven days after plating, percentage of kernels showing visible *Aspergillus* mycelium was calculated. Variability among inoculated hybrids was also observed for this parameter, with the value of contaminated kernels ranging from 0 to 88% (average 16.4 ± 1.5). In contrast, controls showed a percentage of internal contaminated kernels lower than that observed in the corresponding inoculated hybrids (SIB: 0.94 ± 1.81 , water-inoculated control: 0.6 ± 1.03).

The level of AFB₁ in ground grain samples of the hybrids under study was evaluated using enzyme-immunoassay-ELISA kit (Kit Ridascreen-Aflatoxin B₁ 30/15-R-Biopharm-Art. Not: R1211). AFB₁ level for inoculated hybrids ranged from 0 to 80 µg/kg (average: 27 ± 4.8), while in the controls AFB₁ was present in trace amounts or absent (SIB: 2.0 ± 2.8 ; water-inoculated control 2.0 ± 5.0). In this case, variability also occurred among hybrids under investigation.

Studies of the correlations between visual ear rot ratings, internal kernel infection evaluation, aflatoxin content, silk channel length at pollination, husk cover ratings, are in progress.

*This work was developed within the framework of the Research Program AFLARID, Italian Ministry of Agriculture, Rome, Italy.

Transcriptome analysis of *opaque2* and *opaque7* mutants in maize endosperm

--Pirona, R; Hartings, H; Rossi,V; Motto, M

In maize, the zein synthesizing system is particularly adapted for the study of the regulating mechanisms of plant genes because i) its expression is restricted to specific tissues and stages of seed development and ii) because of the availability of mutants useful in dissecting the regulatory processes taking place in the developing seed (Pirona et al., Maydica 50:515-530, 2005). Studies on genetic mutations that affect the accumulation of different zeins have demonstrated the existence of several regulatory signals controlling the expression of specific members of the zein family which confer an opaque phenotype to the endosperm (Motto et al., pp: 479-522, In: B. A. Larkins and I. K. Vasil (eds.), Cellular and Molecular Biology of Plant Seed Development, Kluwer Acad. Publ., The Netherlands, 1997). For example, the recessive mutations opaque2 (o2) and opaque7 (o7) induce specific decreases in accumulation of 22 and 19-kD alpha-zeins, respectively, while the opaque15 (o15) mutation exerts its effect primarily on the 27-kD gamma zeins. The recessive mutation opaque6 (o6) and the dominant or semi-dominant mutations Floury (FI2), Defective endosperm *B30 (De*B30), and Mucronate (Mc) cause a more general reduction in accumulation of all zein classes.

The *o2* mutation has been widely studied at the molecular, genetic, and biochemical levels (see Pirona et al., 2005). The product of the *o2* gene is a basic leucine zipper (bZiP) transcriptional regulator that is specifically expressed in the endosperm and activates the expression of 22 kDa alpha-zein and 15 kDa gamma-zein, together with the *B-32* gene, encoding an endosperm specific ribosome nactivating protein. Other possible direct or indirect target genes of the *o2* factor have been shown to belong to various metabolic pathways, suggesting that *o2* may play an important role in the developing grain, as a coordinator of the expression of storage protein, and nitrogen and carbon metabolism genes.

In recent years, the development of extensive maize cDNA libraries, along with computer software to systematically characterize them, has made it possible to analyze gene expression in developing maize endosperm more thoroughly. Accordingly, we have used cDNA microarray technology to investigate the transcription profiles and differential gene expression of maize endosperm from two different opaque mutants (*o2* and *o7*) and in double mutant combination (*o2o7*).

Microarrays were assembled using clones obtained from the EC ZeaStar project (Edwards et al., unpublished results). Briefly, 20 part-normalized cDNA libraries were prepared from tissues covering 5 key stages in both endosperm and kernel development. Approximately 20,000 ESTs were sequenced, aligned, assembled into contigs using a similarity score of 80%, and annotated using BLASTA and TBLASTN software. Contigs and singleton cDNAs were used to construct a unigene set of 8,950 sequences. EST sequences were analyzed with the BLAST2GO software (http://www.blast2go.de). First, homology searches using public domain non-redundant databases were performed and identified significantly homologous sequences for 48.4% of the ESTs considered. These ESTs represented 3,090 single hit (71.3%) and 1,240 multiple hit sequences. Subsequently, an attempt was made to associate biological functions to each of the ESTs show-

sequence homology using the gene ontology ing (http://www.geneontology.org) and KEGG databases (http://www.genome.jp/kegg). Approximately 85% of the ESTs analyzed could be associated with GO database entries. The results of this analysis permitted us to divide the aforementioned ESTs into 24 functional groups with a total of 7,250 clones identified as duplicates.

Microarray slides containing the entire Zeastar unigene set were hybridized with probes derived from endosperm tissue harvested 15 days after pollination (DAP) and derived from the A69Ywt, A69Yo2, A69Yo7, and A69Yo2o7 isogenic lines. To reduce hybridization artifacts, all probes were labelled both with Cy3 and with Cy5 and used in dye-swapping experiments on a series of three independent slides. The expression data obtained were assayed for consistency by performing T-tests at 95% confidence levels.

All microarray experiments were performed in triplicate using dve swapping, hence giving rise to 12 independent measurements for each EST, considering the presence of duplicate spots on each slide. Raw measurements of spot fluorescence intensities were collected from hybridized slides using a Genepix 4100A scanner and Genepix Pro4 software (Axon Instruments, Union, CA). Subsequently, the spot values obtained were corrected for background fluorescence and analyzed using the Vector Xpression3 software (Informax, Frederick, MD). The data were log2 transformed and normalized by equalizing the mean intensity of each channel to 1. To verify reproducibility between spots and between channels, T tests were performed applying a 95% confidence threshold and allowing us to remove inconsistent hybridization results. Ratios between wild type and mutant expression levels were calculated and ESTs exhibiting ratios below 0.5 or over 2 were selected for further analysis.

Average signal values derived from the four probes used were graphed using a logarithmic scale. The graphical representations clearly showed the prevalence of genes with distinct expression patterns in the A69Ywt and A69Yo2 genotypes. Conversely, the A69Ywt and A69Yo7 genotypes show less evident differences in expression levels. The A69Yo2o7 double mutant exhibits differences in expression patterns resembling those obtained for the A69Yo2 genotype. A plot of A69Yo2 vs. A69Yo7 expression levels showed the cumulative effect of both genotypes, revealing a high number of genes with distinct expression patterns.

Consistently performing spots in T-tests were selected and used to calculate wtl mutant expression ratios. Among the ESTs considered, 17.1% exhibited a down-regulated expression profile. The o2 mutation may be associated with 649 down-regulated ESTs. 508 down-regulated ESTs were identified in the A69Yo7 background, whereas 759 ESTs showed a reduced expression pattern in A69Yo2o7. Up-regulated expression profiles were found for 3.23% of the ESTs considered. One hundred and thirteen upregulated ESTs were identified in the A69Yo2, 26 in the A69Yo7, and 86 in an the A69Yo2o7 backgrounds, respectively. Among the ESTs identified, 36.7% exhibited relevant homology with sequences deposited in public databases and could be univocally associated with known biological processes related to amino acid and carbohydrate metabolism, signal transduction, protein turnover, transport and protein folding. In addition, three transcription factors other than o2 appear to be down-regulated. Collectively, the results may provide a framework for investigating a common mechanism that underlies the *o*2 and *o*7 kernel phenotypes.

BERKELEY, CALIFORNIA University of California

Identifying low-copy loci by FISH on chromosomes in 3-D: Position of *p1*, the 22kDa alpha zein cluster, and the 5S *rDNA* locus

--Harper, LC; Wang, R; Cande, WZ

As part of an effort to cytologically map single copy genes to maize pachytene chromosomes, we developed a fluorescent in situ hybridization (FISH) method for identifying low-copy loci on chromosomes in 3-D. The advantage of this 3-D method is that nuclear architecture is preserved, and important structural information, such as the relative position of chromosomes, is maintained. We have routinely used this FISH protocol to analyze the degree of homologous pairing in various maize meiotic mutants; for example, pam1 (Golubovskaya et all., Genetics 162:1979-1993, 2002), phs1 (Pawlowski et al., Science 303:89-92, 2004), sgo1 (Hamant et al., Curr. Biol. 15:948-954, 2005), afd1 (Golubovskaya et al., J. Cell Sci. 119:3306-3315, 2006), and others (Pawlowski et al., Plant Cell 15:1807-1816, 2003). In this article, we report a detailed protocol for this 3-D FISH method. This method, however, is not suitable for routine cytological mapping of single copy genes. To do that, we developed a 2-D FISH protocol which is suitable for cytological mapping, but does not preserve nuclear architecture (Wang et al., Plant Cell 18:529-544, 2006).

Here we report the cytological position of three loci on maize pachytene chromosomes; *p1* on chromosomes 1, the 22kDa alpha zein cluster (*z1C/SF4/az22z1* cluster http://www.maizegdb.org/cgibin/displaylocusrecord.cgi?id=9017693) on chromosome 4, and the 5*S rDNA* loci on chromosome 2L. These loci are genetically mapped, allowing us to use them as anchor points for a cytogenetic map. Some of this data has been used to confirm the RN map generated by Laurie Anderson (Anderson et al., Genetics 166:1923-1933, 2004). As a further check, we used the Morgan2McClintock translator (Lawrence et al., Genetics 172:2007-2009, 2006) to compare our empirically determined positions to those calculated based on the RN maps. We report a detailed protocol of the method, and incorporate the modifications we currently use.

<u>The 5S rDNA locus is located at 2L.85</u>. We routinely detect the 5S rDNA locus with probes directly labeled with fluorescent nucleotides, so we used this probe as a test to see if TSA amplification would work. We compared DIG labeled 5S rDNA probes detected with anti-DIG FITC, or with the TSA amplification method. TSA amplification increased the average signal pixel intensity up to 15-fold above background, which is roughly 2-3 times better detection than with anti-DIG-FITC (data not shown), or with a directly labeled probe (Figure).

To determine the cytological position of the 5S rDNA locus, we traced and computationally straightened chromosome two from seven nuclei (Figure, chromosome 2). The figure is presented in color at (http://www.agron.missouri.edu/mnl/81/06harper.htm; in the near future also at www.maizegdb.org/mnl/81/06harper.htm),

where everything can be seen better. In the top three chromosomes in this panel, DIG-labeled probe was detected with TSA, while in the bottom 4 we used probes directly labeled with fluorescent nucleotides. The *5S rDNA* locus is at an average position of 2L.85 (Table). The most difficult part of this procedure is the successful tracking of the complete length of a chromosome before entering it into the straightening program. Our position of the *5S rDNA* locus is in good agreement with that found previously using a radioactively labeled probe (Wimber et al., Chromosoma 47:353-360, 1974).

To check if our cytological position was in good agreement with the Recombination Nodule map (RN map, see Anderson et al., 2004), we used the Morgan2McClintock translator (Lawrence et al., 2006) (http://golem4.zool.iastate.edu/Morgan2McClintock/), and put in the Genetic 2005 2 map (http://www.maizegdb.org/cgibin/displaymaprecord.cgi?id=940881) for translation. The translator puts the 5*S rDNA* locus at 2L.88, in good agreement with our position of 2L.85.

5S	2L arm length	Distance: cen-5S	position
	2576	2224	0.863354037
	2208	1920	0.869565217
	2464	2072	0.840909091
	2408	2000	0.830564784
	2584	2240	0.866873065
	2528	2128	0.841772152
		ave	0.852173058
		SD	0.016404664

Lengths are reported in pixels

Detection of the 22kDa alpha zein cluster with TSA, at 4S.95. In order to determine if this signal amplification method was sufficient to allow the detection of a much lower copy gene, we used a zein coding sequence from the 22kDa alpha zein cluster, located on 4S, as a probe. This locus contains about 22 copies of the small alpha zein gene, in tandem array (Llaca and Messing, Plant J. 15:211-220, 1998), and we reasoned that this should allow more probe to hybridize to the target sequence. With a DIG-labeled probe, we were not able to detect this locus with anti DIG-FITC, but we were able to detect this locus routinely using the TSA amplification (top 4 chromosomes in the chromosome 4 panel). We can also detect the 22kDa alpha zein cluster, albeit less robustly, by using a zein probe directly labeled with fluorescent nucleotides (bottom 4 chromosomes in the chromosome 4 panel). In both cases, one bright spot was found on a single chromosome very near the telomere. Following chromosome tracing and straightening, we determined its position as 4S.95 (Figure and Table). In order to determine whether the correct chromosome was hit, we used a centromere probe that is specific to centromere 4, and in all cases, the zein probe hybridized to the same chromosome as the centromere 4 probe (data not shown).

Our results consistently put the 22kDa alpha zein cluster at 4S.95 (in the A344 and KYS inbred)--very close to the telomere. The first mapping of the zein cluster was done in the BSSS53 inbred, and zein genes were found 0.4 and 2.2 cM from the *drz1* locus (Chaudhuri and Messing, Mol. Gen. Genet. 246:707-715, 1995). The genes in the 22kDa alpha zein cluster are not on the Genetic 2005 map, but the *drz1* locus is. We used the Morgan2McClintock translator to determine if our position is similar to that found on the RN map. Translating the Genetic 2005 4 map

on Morgan2McClintock, puts *drz1* at 4S.93. This is consistent with our cytological position. However, in other mapping data using the Pioneer composite map, *az22z1*, a single gene in the 22kDa alpha zein cluster, was found completely linked with *csu235* (http://www.maizegdb.org/cgi-bin/displayrecombrecord.cgi?id=

9017699). On the translated Genetic 2005 RN map, *csu235* is at 4S.83. Translating the Pioneer composite 1999 map places *csu235* at 4S.78; even further from our empirically determined cytological position. Possibly, using mapping data from one inbred (BSSS53), a cytological position from another (A344), and an RN map from yet a third inbred (KYS) may not yield a usable mark to anchor the genetic and cytological map. Alternatively, if the mapping in the BSSS53 inbred is the most accurate genetic mapping, there may be no real discrepancy.

zein	4S arm length	Distance: cen-zein	position
	2016	1928	0.956349206
	1784	1696	0.950672646
	1776	1664	0.936936937
	1936	1816	0.938016529
		ave	0.945493829
		SD	0.009553181

Lengths are reported in pixels

<u>The p1 locus is 1L.53</u>. The *p-wr* allele of *p1* contains an array of 6 tandem copies of the *p1* gene (Zhang and Peterson, Plant Cell 17:903-914, 2005). Using this allele as a target, we hybridized *p1* probes to pachytene chromosomes and used TSA amplification for detection. We were able to routinely detect the *p1* gene. We selected 4 cells (two from W22 and two from W23), and completely straightened chromosome 1 from these cells (Figure, chromosome 1 panel). The cytological position of the *p1* locus is the same in both inbreds (Table): 11.53. The *p1* gene has been previously mapped relative to many translocations, and *p1* was found to be distal to T1-5(6899) (1S.32) (Auger and Sheridan, MNL67:46, 1993) and to T1-2b (1S.43) (Anderson, Genetics 26:452--459, 1941), yet proximal to T1-4b (1S.55)(Auger and Sheridan, 1993). This places *p1* between 1S.43 and 1S.55, and in good agreement with out direct findings.

To determine the position of p1 on the RN maps, we translated the Genetic 2005 1 map (http://www.maizegdb.org/cgibin/displaymaprecord.cgi?id=940880) and found p1 at 1L.63. This discrepancy, 10% of the arm length, seems high to us but we have no explanation for this discrepancy.

p1	1S arm length	Distance: cent - p1	position
	2696	1392	0.516320475
	2544	1274	0.500786164
	2464	1360	0.551948052
	2736	1488	0.543859649
		ave	0.528228585
		SD	0.023817591

Lengths are reported in pixels.

We developed a 3-D FISH strategy to detect multi- and lowcopy genes on maize prophase chromosomes in intact nuclei where chromosome organization is preserved. Acquiring data in 3-D allows us to correlate biological events, such as the position of genes and defined heterochromatic blocks (i.e., centromeres, telomeres and knobs) during homologous pairing, recombination and synapsis. We use 3-D FISH (without TSA amplification) and the 5S rDNA probe routinely to assess the degree of homologous pairing in meiotic mutants. We have tried 3-D FISH with and without TSA amplification to detect a number of single copy genes, included kn1, su1, ahd1, bz1 and other. However, we have not been able to reliably detect single copy genes. Thus, this 3-D FISH method is not sensitive enough to use for routine cytogenetic mapping. For that purpose, we recommend using HRgeneFISH (Anderson et al., 2004).

<u>Maize lines and DNAs used</u>. Inbred line A344 was obtained from Inna Golubovskaya (UC Berkeley) and was used for 5S rDNAand zein gene experiments, KYS was obtained from the National Plant Germplasm System (now GRIN) and was used for 5S rDNAand zein gene experiments, *p-wr* lines in W23 and W22 were obtained from Tom Peterson (University of Iowa) and these were used for the *p1* experiments.

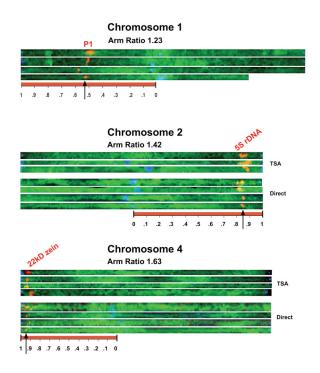
The 22 kDa alpha zein gene was generously provided by Victor Llaca and Jo Messing (Rutgers, NJ). The *p1* gene was generously provided by Tom Peterson (Iowa State Univ., Ames), and the 5S *rDNA* gene was generously provided by Elizabeth Zimmer (Smithsonian Inst.).

Probe labeling. The three probes used in this study where labeled with alkali- stable digoxigenin -11-dUTP (Roche) (DIG) by PCR. Approximately 1 to 10 nanograms of template DNA was added to a standard PCR reaction mix: 2 µl 10x buffer with 15 mM MgCl₂ from Perkin Elmer, 2 µl forward primer 10 pmol/µl, 2 µl reverse primer 10 pmol/µl, 2 µl 1mM dATP, dGTP, dCTP, a mixture of dTTP and dUTP-dig, 2 Units Amplitaq (Perkin-Elmer) and water to 20 µl. Labeling reactions were made in these proportions in various amounts from 20 to 100 µl. A PTC-100 PCR machine (MJ Research, Inc.) was used. For each labeling reaction, a 20 µl unlabeled control reaction was performed, and an aliquot of equal molar volume was run side by side with the labeling reaction in a gel of appropriate concentration for the fragment sizes expected. Incorporation of DIG could be seen visually from the gel shift, and the amount of DIG incorporation was occasionally calculated based on the degree of the gel shift. In addition, gels were blotted and developed as a western with anti-DIG-AP followed by NBT/BCIP detection (Roche protocol). This allowed us to estimate the degree of DIG incorporation in each probe.

Incorporation of DIG-11-dUTP by Taq polymerase was very sensitive to fragment length. We could label fragments of up to 200 bp with a ratio of 1:1 of dTTP and DIG-11-dUTP ("highly-labeled"). Fragments of 500-700 bp were labeled with a 2:1 ratio, and 2 kb fragments could be labeled with a ratio of 9:1 dTTP and DIG-11-dUTP ("low-labeled"). Intermediate sizes required intermediate ratios. We found that a mixture of highly-labeled and low-labeled probe often gave the best results for the zein probe. We also found PCR labeling can give better FISH results than random priming, terminal transferase and nick-translation labeling. We routinely use both PCR labeling and random priming to label probes for use in 3-D FISH.

Fixation and embedding of meiocytes. Maize anthers were removed from living immature tassels and fixed for 30 minutes with 4% formaldehyde (EM grade) in a special buffer designed to preserve chromatin structure, "buffer A" (15 mM Pipes-NaOH, pH 6.8, 80 mM KCI, 20 mM NaCI, 0.5 mM EGTA, 2 mM EDTA, 0.15 mM spermine tetra HCI, 0.05 mM spermidine, 1 mM DTT, 0.32 M sorbitol) (Belmont et al., J. Cell Biol. 105:77-92, 1987; see also Dawe et al., Cell 76:901-912, 1994; Bass et al., J. Cell Biol. 137:5-18, 1997). After fixation, anthers were rinsed in 1X buffer A three times for 30 minutes each. Anthers are stored after fixation and rinsing in the fridge in the dark. For the experiments reported here, anthers were used within 3 weeks after fixation. We have subsequently found that anthers can be used up to two years after fixation with no signs of degradation if they are stored in completely dark, airtight containers at 4 degrees. For FISH, meiocytes were extruded from anthers into 1X buffer A. 10ul of mejocytes in buffer A were transferred by a BSA-coated pipette tip onto a glass 100µl of polyacylamide mix (50µl 30:.8% biscover slip. acrylamide, sterilized, filtered stock, kept at 4C and 50µl 2X buffer A) was catalyzed with 5µl of ammonium persulfate (20%) and 5µl of Na₂SO₃ (20%) and then vortexed; 5µl of this was added to the 10µl of meiocytes on the cover slip and then mixed with the pipette tip very quickly. Another cover slip was immediately placed on top and sometimes a small weight was added to slightly flatten the meiocyte and the contents. The polyacrylamide was allowed to polymerize for 30 minutes. The cover slips were then separated and the resulting pad of meiocytes embedded in polyacryamide was placed in a well containing a prehybridization solution of 50% deionized formamide in 2X SSC (in a standard 6 well plate). This solution was changed three times over the course of 1 hour, and then the hybridization was started.

Fluorescence in situ hybridization (FISH). 50 µl of a probe solution containing labeled DNA (usually 1 µl, but amount determined empirically for each new batch of probe) in 50% formamide and 2X SSC was used for each pad. Probe solution was added to each pad, then the pad was covered with a cover slip and sealed with rubber cement. Probe was allowed to penetrate for 30 to 60 minutes at 36C. Strand separation was induced by placing the slide on a PCR block for 6 minutes at 95C. Pads were then incubated at 30C overnight to allow hybridization. After hybridization, the pads went through a series of 10 to 20 minute washes to remove weakly hybridized probe and excess fluorescent molecules: 2X SSC; 1X SSC, 1X PBS; 1X PBS + 0.1% tween-20; 1X PBS*. To detect single and low copy probes, we developed a tyramide signal amplification method as follows: Pads FISHed DIG-labeled probes were treated with a blocking solution (1% bovine serum albumin, 1X Roche block, in 1XPBS) for 1 hour. Then this block was removed and 150mUnits was added per pad of anti-DIG-POD Fab fragments from Roche (1µl of anti-DIG-POD-poly at 50mUnits per pad and 1µl of anti-DIG-POD as supplied) and left overnight in a humid chamber. Then, excess antibody was removed with at least 5 hours of washing with 1X PBS, changing to fresh solution at least every hour. 100 µl of tyramide-Cy3 solution containing 2 µl tyramide-Cy3 in 98 µl "amplification diluent" (from a tyramide signal amplification kit from NEN) was added to each pad, and allowed to catalyze for 10 minutes. We optimized this time with various probes, testing times from 3 minutes to 2 hours. We found that the longer times simply increased background, and that 10 minutes was optimal for the several probes we used. Following the TSA step, pads were washed with 1X TBS plus 0.05% Tween20, three times immediately, then 4 times, 15 minutes each. Then pads were washed in 1X TBS with no Tween20, two times 10 minutes each. TBS was used instead of PBS so that the DAPI would not precipitate in the next step. DNA was then stained with DAPI (5µg/µl in 1X TBS) for 30 minutes and washed out with 1X TBS three times, 10 minutes each. Pads were mounted in DABCO, by adding and removing the DABCO three times to allow penetration into the pad. Then a 22x22 cover slip was placed on top and sealed with nail polish. (To use directly labeled probes, after this step, we wash in 1X TBS, then complete the DAPI staining step. We do not use the TSA amplification step for analysis of homologous pairing.)



(For color see online.)

Meiocyte Imaging and Deconvolution. Cells were viewed with an Applied Precision Delta Vision Microscope system, consisting of an Olympus 1X70 inverted fluorescence/bright-field microscope and Olympus 100x 1.35 UPlanApo oil-immersion lens. Images were recorded by a Sensys Ch250 CCD camera, controlled by computer. 0.2-0.4µm sections in the z plane were collected; image size was 34µm x 34µm. A single maize meiocyte nucleus is usually 15 to 25 microns in thickness in our preparations (the small weight added during pad polymerization can flatten the nuclei to 15 microns). Three-dimensional data stacks representing individual nuclei were reiteratedly deconvolved using Deltavision 2.1 software (from Applied Precision). Deconvolved three-dimensional images were analyzed with Softworx 2.50 (from Applied Precision) software. The program '3D Model' was used to trace the chromosomes by hand in three dimensions through the x, y and z plane. The program 'Straighten' was used to straighten and then flatten the straightened chromosomes into two dimensions.

Mu killer locus available in multiple inbred backgrounds

--Lisch, D; Slotkin, RK

Mu killer is a dominant locus that can silence the *Mutator* system of transposons heritably and reliably. Lines carrying *Mu*-tagged alleles can be crossed to lines homozygous for *Mu killer* resulting in a rapid loss of activity. Subsequent backcrosses to

low-copy Mu lines (such as commonly used inbreds) result in a rapid reduction in the number of Mu elements, making isolation of linked Mu insertions much easier. The loss of activity can also make PCR-based efforts to isolate insertions considerably easier, as somatic Mu activity is eliminated. By crossing a given Muinduced mutation to both Mu killer and a related line without Mu killer, it is also possible to rapidly test for the possibility that a given mutation is suppressible. In response to requests by cooperators, we have now introgressed Mu killer into five commonly used inbred backgrounds: Mo177, A188, W22, W23 and B73. In each case, the Mu killer locus was introgressed five times into each inbred background and then selfed twice to produce Mu killer homozygotes. These lines will be available in the spring of 2007, when they will be deposited at the Maize Genetics COOP Stock Center (http://maizecoop.cropsci.uiuc.edu/). We also have available homozygous Mu killer lines that carry the bz-mum9 or the a1mum2 reporter alleles, as well as low copy, or minimal Mutator lines that carry a single MuDR element and a single Mu1 element. Further information is available at our web sites: http://plantbio.berkeley.edu/~mukiller/ and http://plantbio.berkeley. edu/~mukiller/mutator/Mutator%20Home.html. Seed requests can be sent directly to Damon Lisch (dlisch@berkeley.edu) or to the Maize Stock Center.

BROOKINGS, SOUTH DAKOTA South Dakota State University

Mapping of ragged (rg^*) mutation using classical and molecular markers

--Whalen, RH; Brozik, M; Auger, D

A recessive mutation resulting in abnormal leaves and shorter plants was found in the inbred W22. This apparently spontaneous mutation was informally designated "*ragged*" (rg^*) in reference to its cut or torn leaves (Fig. 1). It was found to be due to a single



Figure 1. Leaf of rg*/rg* plant. (For color see online.)

recessive gene, and using B-A translocations, was found to be on the long arm of chromosome 5. We mapped it more precisely in a three-point linkage test with *red aleurone* (*pr*) and the SSR molecular marker *umc1221*. The reference allele for *umc1221* has seven tandem copies of CT. Determination of polymorphisms was accomplished through electrophoretic separation in a 3.5 % agarose TAE gel of polymerase chain reaction (PCR) products that included the SSR. The mapping sample was produced by crossing an F1 heterozygous for all three loci by a homozygous testcross parent (Fig. 2). The data from the mapping sample are presented in Table 1.

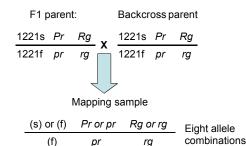


Figure 2. Mapping scheme. 1221s refers to the slower band of umc1221; 1221f refers to the faster band of umc1221. Pr refers to the wild-type allele of pr1; pr refers to the red allele. Rg refers to the wild-type allele of the rg^* locus; rg refers to the mutant allele.

Table 1. Recombination data.

		Family 1	Family 2	Total	
Parentals	umc1221-f Pr Rg	70	80	157	315
	umc1221-s pr rg	77	88	158	
SCOs	umc1221-f pr rg	7	7	14	25
Region 1	umc1221-s Pr Rg	3	8	11	
SCOs	umc1221-f Pr rg	5	2	7	21
Region 2	umc1221-s pr Rg	8	6	14	
DCOs	umc1221-f pr Rg	3	0	3	4
	umc1221-s Pr rg	0	1	1	
Totals		173	192	365	

The rg^* locus is located on the long arm of chromosome 5, 6.8 \pm 1.4 cM from *pr1*, which is 7.9 \pm 1.4 cM from *umc1221*. The map is shown in Fig. 3. This places the new locus distal to *pr1*.

Figure 3. Map of new locus relative to *pr1* and *umc1221*.

CHEONAN, KOREA National Livestock Research Institute, RDA GWACHEON, KOREA Ministry of Science & Technology DAEJEON, KOREA Chungnam National University

Inheritance of ear shank length in maize (Zea mays L.)

--Ji, HC; Lee, JK; Choi, GJ; Kim, KY; Seong, BR; Seo, S; Kim, SH; Lee, HB

The ear shank in maize corresponds to the lower portion of the lateral branch and comprises several nodes and shortened internodes. The inheritance of ear shank length was investigated in sweet corn inbreds la453*sh2* (with a long shank) and Hi38*c1* (a tropical Hawaiian super sweet, with the *brittle1* gene and a short shank). Ear shank lengths of the parent lines were 4.59 cm (Hi38*c1*) and 13.25 cm (la453*sh2*). The ear shank length of F1 hybrids was 14.66 cm, while the length of F2 lines was 12.69 cm (Fig. 1). The ear shank lengths in BC1 and BC2 were 8.88 cm and 15.32 cm, respectively. The average coefficients of variation (CV) were as follows: P1 40%, P2 27%, F1 35%, F2 52%, BC1 56%,

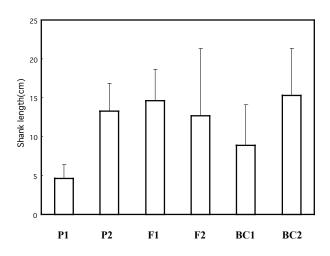


Figure 1. Distribution of ear shank length in parents, F1, F2 and Backcross (BC1, BC2) generations. F1, F2 and BC1 and BC2 populations were derived from the parental inbreds Hi38-71 (short shank) and Ia453sh2 (long shank). P1: Hi38-71, P2: Ia453sh2.

BC2 39%. These results were analyzed by the Generation Mean Analysis (GMA) Method modified from Mather and Jinks (1977). Generation mean analysis of the six generations (Table 1) revealed a highly significant additive effect. The aa [additive x additive] and dd [dominance x dominance] effects were not significant but ad [additive x dominance] effects were significant.

Table 1. Estimates of additive (a), dominance (d), and interaction parameters for the cross ${\rm Hi38c1}(bt) \ x \ la453sh2.$

1	Parameter+	Estimate (±SE)	t test	
	m	12.69±0.27	18.36	**
	а	-6.44±0.43	-6.39	**
	d	3.38±1.42	0.97	NS
	aa	-2.36±1.38	-0.69	NS
	ad	-2.11±0.45	-2.03	
		1 10 0 10	0.00	NS
	dd	1.12±2.13	0.22	NO

+m=midpoint, a=additive effect, d=dominance effect, aa=additive x additive effect, ad=additive x dominance effect, dd=dominance x dominance effect

*, **, ^{NS}; levels of significance.

Broad-sense heritability was 60.51% and narrow-sense heritability was 58.5%. The estimated minimum number of gene loci, using the Castle and Wright formula, was 0.54. Therefore, ear shank length might depend on a single gene acting without any dominance effect, but more study is needed on the relationship between ear shank length and other characters.

> CHISINAU, MOLDOVA Institute of Genetics and Physiology

The influence of ear age on the frequency of maternal haploids produced by a haploid-inducing line

--Rotarenco, VA; Mihailov, ME

Large-scale production of haploids in maize became possible when the ability to induce maternal haploids was revealed in the Stock 6 line. Stock 6 and its derivatives have a wide distribution among maize breeders, who, besides using haploids for breeding work, try to improve the haploid-inducing ability and explain the nature of this phenomenon. Producing haploids every year by applying the same inducer, MHI (Chalyk, MNL 73, 1999), we have noticed that their frequency significantly varies: depending on the method of pollination, artificial or natural (Rotarenco, MNL 76, 2002), in different maternal genotypes and even within one ear (Chalyk, MNL 73, 1999). It is known from the literature that delayed pollination increases the frequency of haploids (Randolph, 1946; Seaney, 1954; Chase, 1969). However, the opposite results have been obtained in our experiments. The main purpose of our work was to estimate the influence of delayed pollination on the percentage of kernels with haploid embryos when a haploid-inducing line was used.

A number of hybrids and inbred lines were crossed with the MHI inducer line by hand pollination. Plants were divided into four groups within one maternal genotype--with two-day, four-day, seven-day and ten-day ears. The start day of the ear-age recording was the day of silk emergence, and such ears were considered one-day ears. When the ears reached the desired age, they were pollinated with the inducer.

After harvesting, those genotypes that had rather good seed set and the best expression of the R1-nj gene (a marker gene allowing kernels with haploid embryos to be identified) were selected. Thus, four inbred lines and four hybrids were used for the experiment (Table 1). The number of ears in each ear-age group varied from 10 to 15. Therefore, the total number of ears analyzed for each genotype exceeded 40. In the lines MK01 and Mo17, a total number of plants of less than 40 were divided into three and two groups, respectively. In the Mo17xB73 hybrid there were 37 plants and they were divided into two groups.

Table 1. Frequencies of haploid induction (%) in the four groups of ears and in general for each genotype, coefficients of correlation.

Maternal genotype	Day of po	ollination afte	General	Coefficient of		
Inbred lines	2 days	4 days	7 days	10 days	average	correlation, r
A464	7.3	5.6	3.9	4.6	5.4	-0.45**
A619	7.1	6.1	4.8	5.3	5.8	-0.34*
MK01	10.3	6.2	6.2	-	7.6	-0.56**
Mo17	6.82	5.4	-	-	6.11	-0.27
On average for lines					6.2***	
Hybrids						
Modavian450	6.2	4.4	4.0	3.8	4.5	-0.39*
Porumbeni295	4.3	2.9	4.5	3.3	3.7	-0.15
Porumbeni359	7.0	4.2	2.6	2.9	4.1	-0.61**
Mo17xB73	5.5	4.2	-	-	4.8	-0.43*
On average for hybrids					4.3	

*, **, *** significant at 5%, 1% and 0.1% level, respectively.

In all genotypes the delay of pollination caused a decrease of frequency of kernels with haploid embryos (Table 1). According to the coefficients of correlation, this decrease was statistically significant for most genotypes. Additionally, a significant difference was revealed between thee averaged percent of haploids in the inbred lines (6.2) and the hybrids (4.3). The average number of haploid kernels per ear did not change significantly, except for the MK01 line (Table 2).

Silk is known to appear gradually in maize. In our experiment, the frequencies of haploid kernels on the bottom and top half of ears were estimated (Table 3). The coefficients of correlation had negative values and in most cases were statistically significant. This kind of estimation at a greater degree showed the decrease of haploid-kernel frequency due to the delayed pollination. The highest percentage of kernels with haploid embryos was on the top half of the two-day ears, 11.3 on average for the lines, and 9.2 for the

Table 2. Average number of haploid kernels per ear in the four groups of ears and in general for each genotype, coefficients of correlation.

Maternal genotype	Day of po	llination afte	r silk emerge	nce	General	Coefficient of
Inbred lines	2 days	4 days	7 days	10 days	average	correlation, r
A464	7.8	7.2	7.8	5.1	7.0	-0.18
A619	10.4	13.8	10.1	8.2	10.6	-0.17
MK01	16.1	9.4	10.7	-	12.1	-0.37*
Mo17	11.2	7.5	-	-	9.3	-0.31
On average for lines					9.7	
Hybrids						
Modavian450	9.4	8.8	10.0	9.6	9.4	0.01
Porumbeni295	11.4	10.6	14.5	9.8	11.6	-0.04
Porumbeni359	11.4	11.2	6.3	6.4	8.8	-0.36
Mo17xB73	14.7	15.0	-	-	14.8	0.02
On average for hybrids					11.1	

* significant at 5% level.

hybrids. Thus, the highest frequency of haploid kernels was in ovules/silks that at the time of pollination were the youngest.

We hypothesize that the reason for the different influence of delayed pollination on the frequency of haploid kernels in our work and in the common opinion (delayed pollination increases haploid frequency) is connected with the unique way of haploid-kernel occurrence caused by inducers. Sarkar and Coe (1966), working with the Stock 6 inducer, found a higher frequency of haploid kernels at the top half of the ears. A spontaneous frequency of haploid induction in maize is 0.1% (Chase, 1951), whereas using inducers allows haploids with frequencies from 2.3% (Coe, 1959) up to 6% (Sarkar et. al, 1994; Shatskaya et. al, 1994; Chalyk, 1999) to be produced. In our experiment, several two-day ears at the top half had frequencies that exceeded 20%. Such essential distinction between the frequencies of spontaneous and induced occurrence of haploids and the contradiction of the influence of delayed pollination can be connected with the different causes of haploidy in these two cases.

Each year among haploids we find plants that have expression of marker genes which belong to the inducer; however, the plants do not differ from other haploids by their phenotype. Probably, these results of gene transformation have some causal reasons, but there is an opinion that it might be a product of the haploid induction. In other words, instead of one normal sperm there are some fragments of its DNA molecule in the embryo sac, and one of these fragments fertilizes the ovule which provokes its development. If we take this as a fact, then the plants produced by the inducers are not real haploids. The assumption above needs to be proved experimentally. Now, we would like to discuss the possible reasons for the decrease of haploid-kernel frequency caused by delayed pollination in our experiment. The reason that might have an influence on the frequency of haploids is heterofertilization. It was found earlier that the frequency of heterofertilization in the MHI inducer is much higher than in a genotype without the haploid-inducing ability (Rotarenco and Eder, MNL 77, 2003). Additionally, this year, an experiment with the goal of revealing the influence of delayed pollination on the frequency of heterofertilization was carried out.

Two groups of plants of a heterogeneous population with twoday (21 ears) and ten-day (11 ears) ears were pollinated by a pollen mixture made (50/50) of the pollen collected from two lines, X28C (possessing the R1-nj gene) and 092 (no marker genes); neither line was a haploid inducer. The frequency of heterofertilization in the two-day-ear group was 0.48 %, and in the ten-day ears 1.97 %. The difference between the groups was significant at the 0.1% level. The average number of kernels per ear was 250. This establishes that the delay of pollination influenced the increase of heterofertilization frequency. Most likely, it is connected with an increase in the number of pollen tubes that penetrate into an embryo sac in older silk. Probably, this occurs because of an increase in the silk diameter during the plant vegetation. Therefore, in the case of single fertilization after pollination with a haploid-inducer in older silk, the opportunity of compensation of missing sperm from another pollen tube is high in comparison with young silk. This might be the reason for the decrease in haploidkernel frequency.

Probably, the significant difference in the haploid frequency between the lines and the hybrids in our experiment is connected with heterofertilization (Table 1). Theoretically, the silk diameter in hybrids is bigger than in inbred lines, and consequently, the frequency of heterofertilization might be higher in hybrids, resulting in a negative influence on haploid induction.

Some additional experiments are needed to before reaching a final conclusion on this problem, but these results might be useful, especially for improving haploid inducers.

Table 3. Frequencies of haploid induction (%) at bottom and top half of ears in the four ear groups, coefficients of correlation.

Maternal genotype	Day of pollination after silk emergence									Coefficient of correlation, r	
	2 days		4 days		7 days	7 days					
	bottom	top	bottom	top	bottom	top	bottom	top	bottom	top	
A464	4.2	8.1	4.8	4.9	3.3	5.2	1.1	4.2	-0.53*	-0.37*	
A619	4.9	10.4	3.3	9.1	1.9	7.6	1.8	7.3	-0.54**	-0.37*	
MK01	7.7	16.2	4.0	11.9	4.1	11.2	-	-	-0.54**	-0.45*	
Mo17	4.0	10.4	2.7	8.9	-	-	-	-	-0.37*	-0.1	
Modavian450	4.0	9.0	3.0	6.8	2.9	5.3	3.1	5.0	-0.19	-0.46*	
Porumbeni295	2.3	7.4	1.7	4.4	2.5	7.1	1.7	5.5	-0.1	-0.17	
Porumbeni359	4.3	11.2	1.6	7.3	0.9	4.6	2.3	3.9	-0.47*	-0.61**	
Mo17xB73	3.5	9.1	2.2	6.8	-	-	-	-	-0.4*	-0.37*	

*, ** significant at 5% and 1% level, respectively

Using oil content to identify kernels with haploid embryos

--Rotarenco, VA; Kirtoca, IH; Jacota, AG

To identify haploids in the dry-seed stage, the *R1-nj* marker gene (anthocyanin coloration of the top of the endosperm and embryo) is widely used. However, there are some inhibitor genes (*C1-I* and others) that are able to block the expression of the marker gene with the result that the selection of kernels with haploid embryos becomes impossible. These inhibitors are especially widespread in flint maize. Thus, there is a need to find an alternative way for the screening of haploid kernels.

Haploid plants differ significantly from diploids by their phenotype (Chalyk and Ostrovsky, 1993). Most likely, an embryo with the haploid number of chromosomes should differ from a diploid embryo by size, too. An embryo is known to contain up to 80% of the oil of a whole kernel, and the oil content has a positive correlation with the embryo size. Therefore, it was supposed that there might be a difference in oil content in kernels with diploid and haploid embryos. The purpose of our work was to compare the oil content in kernels with diploid and haploid embryos.

Eight genotypes (4 inbred lines and 4 hybrids) were selected for the analysis. First, they were crossed with the MHI haploidinducing line (Chalyk, MNL 73, 1999). The selected maternal genotypes had rather good expression of the *R1-nj* gene that allowed the kernels with haploid embryos to be identified easily.

Diploid hybrids of the maternal genotypes and MHI (with colored embryos), and the haploid kernels (with colorless embryos) were used for the analysis of oil content. The sample size for each variant was 100 kernels. The analysis was carried out on the Sakslet's device modified by Rushkovskiy (1962).

The oil percentage of the haploids was lower than the diploids in all genotypes. The results of the analysis are shown in the Table. The averaged excess of the diploids over the haploids was 19.4%. The coefficient of correlation was 0.76 (significant at the 0.1% level).

Genotype		Oil content, %		
	n	n 2n (hybrids with MHI)		
Inbred lines				
A464	4.00	5.23	31.0	
A619	4.60	5.44	18.3	
MK01	4.16	4.75	14.2	
Mo17	4.01	5.04	25.7	
Hybrids				
Modavian450	4.04	4.92	21.8	
Porumbeni295	4.73	5.33	12.7	
Porumbeni359	3.78	4.47	18.3	
Mo17xB73	3.86	4.37	13.2	
On average for all genotypes	4.14	4.94	19.4	

Table. Oil content in kernels with haploid and diploid embryos and differences between them.

Our method of oil testing required the kernels to be ground up. However, there is a method of biochemical analysis (spectral analysis) that does not destroy kernels so that they can be used for further work. Thus, an oil test can be applied as a marker to identify kernels with haploid embryos. Besides solving the problem connected with the *R1-nj*-gene inhibitors, this kind of analysis might be used to mechanize haploid seed selection.

The first attempt to identify haploids by oil content was carried out at the Bavarian State Institute for Agronomy in 2002 (Germany), and the author of this note is very grateful to Dr. Eder for help.

Gamma-irradiation of seeds with haploid and diploid embryos --Rotarenco, VA; Maslobrod, SN; Romanova IM; Mihailov, ME

Haploid plants have recently gained wider utilization in maize breeding programs. This was feasible after highly effective inducers of maternal haploids were discovered (Coe, 1959).

All genes, both dominant and recessive, are expressed at the level of haploid plants due to the absence of the second gene allele. Thus, the use of haploids for induced mutagenesis may allow more efficient identification of mutations. In addition, a higher mutation number may appear at the level of haploid plants in comparison with diploids--the reduction of gene repair efficiency in haploids might be one possible reason.

In order to induce mutations in haploids, their reaction to a mutagenic factor should be evaluated. The aim of this work was to establish the impact of different γ -irradiation doses on seeds with haploid embryos. Both haploid and diploid seeds of the heterogeneous SA population were irradiated. Dry seeds were irradiated at doses of 20, 40, 60, 80 and 100Gy. Soaked seeds (24 hours) were irradiated at doses of 2, 4, 6, 8 and 10Gy. 50 kernels were used in each treatment. Following irradiation, seeds were divided into two replications and grown in a growth chamber for 4 days (28°C). Root (main root) and coleoptile length were measured in seedlings, and the number of roots was counted. The results of the experiment are shown in the Table.

The irradiation of haploid seeds (soaked) resulted in a significant decrease of root length at doses of 4, 6, 8 and 10Gy as compared with control. A similar regularity was found for coleoptile length; however, significant differences were observed only at doses of 6 and 10Gy. This tendency was maintained for the parameter of root number, but the differences were not significant. The dose of 2Gy showed a tendency to stimulation for the three indices mentioned.

The irradiation of haploid dry seeds resulted in a decrease in root length, accompanied by intensification of the inhibiting effect beginning from a dose of 40Gy to 100Gy. As for coleoptile length, a significant difference at a dose of 100Gy was found. A significant reduction was discovered for root number beginning from a dose of 40Gy. A tendency toward stimulation was found at a dose of 20Gy.

The irradiation of diploid seeds (soaked) resulted in a decrease

Table. The parameters of 4-day seedlings after $\gamma\mbox{-}irradiation$ of seeds.

Нар	loids				Diploids		
#	Dose,	Coleoptile	Root	Number of	Coleoptile	Root	Number of
	Gy	length, mm	length, mm	roots, no.	length, mm	length, mm	roots, no.
Soa	ked seeds						
1	Control	53.0±4.97	104.4±6.81	3.4±0.23	70.4±4.62	124.6±7.61	3.7±0.27
2	2	60.8±3.97	107.0±3.43	3.6±0.18	73.1±4.36	133.4±6.54	3.9±0.18
3	4	55.0±4.89	75.9 ^{**} ±5.79	3.0±0.22	71.9±3.66	132.1±4.70	4.3±0.18
4	6	42.5*±4.26	66.3 ^{***} ±5.49	3.0±0.22	73.1±5.11	114.6±7.42	3.3±0.20
5	8	53.0±3.26	76.0**±5.94	3.3±0.17	78.0±3.47	118.5±5.43	4.1±0.16
6	10	44.6*±2.92	50.7***±4.42	3.0±0.16	54.2*±5.25	75.3***±7.50	2.8*±0.26
Dry	seeds						
1	Control	23.7±2.56	71.3±3.79	3.1±0.15	28.2±2.85	74.3±6.06	3.0±0.19
2	20	29.0±2.83	69.2±3.59	3.4±0.14	38.3±2.70	90.2*±4.58	3.3±0.15
3	40	18.9±2.05	49.1***±3.80	2.7±0.17	31.7±2.43	86.5±5.12	2.9±0.17
4	60	21.9±2.26	40.4***±3.30	2.3***±0.18	34.3±2.99	76.3±5.88	3.0±0.24
5	80	17.6±2.19	41.0"**±3.06	2.3***±0.16	29.9*±2.74	79.9±5.23	2.9±0.19
6	100	11.0**±2.00	27.7***±2.62	1.8"**±0.16	19.5*±2.23	53.1**±5.06	1.8**±0.16

*, **, *** significant at 5%, 1% and 0.1% level, respectively

in root length beginning at 6Gy; however, a significant difference was observed only at 10Gy. A similar trend towards stimulation at a dose of up to 8Gy, and a significant decrease at 10Gy was found for coleoptile length. A similar regularity was discovered for root number. The tendency towards the stimulating effect was observed up to 4Gy for root length, and up to 8Gy for coleoptile length and root number.

The irradiation of diploid dry seeds yielded an increase in root length, the reliable increase being found at 20Gy and 40Gy. A dose of 100Gy yielded a significant decrease. The tendency towards stimulation was observed at a dose of up to 80Gy for coleoptile length, but significant stimulation was established at a dose of 20Gy. A significant decrease was found at a dose of 100Gy. A significant decrease was observed at 100Gy for root number. Significant differences were not observed in germination rate between the treatments and regardless of the ploidy of the kernels; average germination rate was 95%.

Based on the results obtained, some conclusions can be made: a significant difference in sensitivity to irradiation was recorded in haploids in comparison with diploids; stimulation of seed-ling growth was found at minimal doses of irradiation in both diploid and haploid seeds, however, the stimulation was insignificant in most cases. This experiment allowed us to identify doses of γ -irradiation that can be employed to induce genetic variation using haploids.

COLUMBUS, OHIO The Ohio State University TOLEDO, OHIO University of Toledo

GRASSIUS: A first step in establishing regulatory networks in maize and other grasses

--Palaniswamy, S; Gray, J; Davuluri, R; Grotewold, E

The increasing amount of genome sequence information in maize and other grasses makes it possible to start building genome-wide regulatory networks. Towards this goal, we have initiated the development of GRASSIUS, the Grass Regulatory Information Server (http://grassius.org/). The ultimate goal of GRAS-SIUS is the integration of information on transcription factors and cis-regulatory elements into regulatory motifs, the building blocks of regulatory networks, across the grasses. Thus, GRASSIUS contains growing databases on maize, rice, sorghum and sugarcane transcription factors (GRASSTFDB) and promoter elements (GRASSPROMDB). As a first step towards the generation of GRASSIUS, a uniform nomenclature system for proteins corresponding to transcription factor was adopted, in which an organismal identifier (e.g., Zm) is followed by a letter code corresponding to the transcription factor family member (e.g., MYB), followed by a number. In this way, for example, a synonym for the C1-encoded protein would be ZmMYB1. Transcription factors from these grasses are currently being grouped into 43 families (Fig. 1), representing the major classes of regulatory proteins identified in other plants (e.g., Arabidopsis, see http://arabidopsis.med.ohiostate.edu/). GRASSIUS is expected to significantly benefit from community input, for example through voluntary curation contribu-

The current release of Grass TFDB classified into 43 families



Figure 1. Initial classification of regulatory proteins into 43 families. (For color see online.)

tions. The Grass Annotation Tool (GAT) is under implementation, which would facilitate easy submission, curation and validation of new and existing experimental data. Experimental data will include plasmid clone descriptions/maps and validated sequences from full-length cDNAs for each transcription family member. Distribution information for clones generated will be made available, translating into time and cost savings for community users. Web services provide a standard way of accessing publishing applications and data sources over the internet, enabling mass acquisition and dissemination of knowledge. We would be making use of existing web services (WSDbfetch, CitationExplorer) to semiautomate the process of acquiring new data for GRASSIUS from literature and from other existing resources and we would also be making GRASSIUS data available as web services (Bio Moby) in a phased manner when a specific plant module in our database is completed. The Web interface for GRASSIUS was developed using the Java J2EE platform, and the databases were developed using MySql. The GRASSIUS database will be constantly updated, thus stay tuned.

CORVALLIS, OREGON Oregon State University

Microarray evidence for ABA-GA antagonism during embryo maturation

--Carroll, KA; Kulhanek, D; Fowler, J; Rivin, C

Complex developmental processes are often controlled by the interplay of positive and antagonistic, or modulating, signaling pathways. The switch between embryogenesis and the maturation phase of maize embryo development involves the interaction of antagonistic signaling pathways governed by abscisic acid (ABA) and gibberellic acids (GAs). Abscisic acid (ABA) is a highly con-

served hormone signal required to induce maturation phase in developing plant embryos. During embryonic development in cereals, bioactive GAs accumulate, peaking prior to the ABA peak that initiates maturation phase. Although ABA's role in maturation is highly conserved in plants, a preceding GA peak is found only in cereals, and its significance is unclear. We have previously used both genetics and manipulation of hormone levels in culture to support our idea that the pre-maturation GA peak antagonizes ABA in controlling maturation-phase processes in maize (White and Rivin, Plant Physiol. 122:1089-1097, 2000; White et al., Plant Physiol. 122:1081-1088, 2000). In these studies, we found that ABA-deficient kernels are viviparous (germinating precociously on the ear) and desiccation-sensitive, but that mutants deficient in both ABA and GA exhibit the wild-type phenotypes of guiescence and desiccation tolerance. Thus, the early GA peak may either intercept the ABA signaling pathway to modulate ABA sensitivity, or participate in a negative regulatory mechanism to suppress maturation independently of ABA.

The wildtype behavior of ABA / GA double-deficiency embryos suggests that gene expression in this genotype is more like that in wildtypes than in ABA-deficient mutants. To test this proposition, we collected early maturation (stage 3) embryos from two types of ears: 1) ears segregating for *vp5* (ABA-deficient kernels) and 2) *d1* homozygotes (bioactive GA deficient) segregating for *vp5* kernels. mRNA was isolated from sibling wildtype and *vp5* homozygous embryos from each type of ear for comparison by microarray analysis. A loop-design hybridization scheme was used to compare the message profiles of the four genotypes, using the maize oligonucleotide array produced by the University of Arizona. Bioconductor and Limma software packages were used to identify genes with significantly different expression based on an adjusted P value p< 0.05.

In a comparison of wildtype and ABA-deficient sibling embryos at Stage 3 of embryogenesis, 75 moderate to highly expressed genes were found to be significantly different in expression between the normal and hormone-deficient condition. Of these genes, 70 were also found to be significantly different in a comparison of sibling embryo mRNAs from the double ABA/GA vs. single ABA-deficient ears, an 89% overlap in expression patterns indicating that gene expression in the double hormone mutants is very similar to wildtype on a broad scale. The differentially expressed genes included well-known maturation genes like the storage globulins and LEA proteins previously shown to be regulated by ABA and the *Vp1* transcription factor, but a wide variety of other genes, not known to be ABA regulated, also appeared in this gene set.

Practical advice on using the maize oligonucleotide microarray

--Carroll, KA; Rivin, C

Microarrays have become a popular method to monitor gene expression levels on a genomic scale. We have been using the array produced by the Maize Oligonucleotide Array Project at University of Arizona. We have generally followed the protocols provided on the project website (www.maizearray.org), and we have also tried modifications. Based on our experience with microarray experiments, we have the following recommendations for people who may be interested in starting a microarray experiment. Please feel free to contact us if you have any questions or would like more information.

1. Successful modifications to the project protocols. We used the protocols for cRNA targets provided on the website with the following alterations.

- a. During RNA purification step we adjusted the total elution volume to 100 μl (65 1st, 45 2nd) instead of the recommended 60 μl. Our yields ranged from 20-40 μg aRNA.
- b. We experienced up to 50% reduction in yield during the Cy Dye coupling step due to cRNA adherence to the column. To help alleviate this we used 50°C DEPC water for the elution steps and also heated the entire column during the elution for ~ 5 minutes in a 50°C hybridization oven. This increased the yield of labeled aRNA to about 80%.
- c. In fear of washing the oligos off the microarray slides, we opted to skip the rehydration steps as recommended in the protocol under *DNA Probe Immobilization* and simply cross-linked and washed the slides as described.

2. Use of aliens as a control feature for cRNA targets. Aliens are control RNAs that can be added to the total RNA as a standard for data normalization and scanning. Stragene alien sequences 1-10 are printed on the maize array. To take advantage of this control, we used mRNA spikes from the Stratagene SpotReport® Alien® cDNA Array Validation System in our amplification and hybridizations. In our hands, the aliens created problems during scanning as they drastically reduced the signals from other features. We also found that the aliens could not be used to manually adjust the scanner for equal red and green intensities. Our core facility has a Perkin Elmer ScanArray 4000 and Genepix software for microarray scanning and analysis. Using this scanner and software the auto PMT setting was found to be optimal for adjusting the signal intensities for all scans (the saturation levels were adjusted from the default settings of .05% to .005 % when using the auto PMT setting).

3. Use of Dyesaver for fluor preservation. Dyesaver, by Genesphere, is a toluene-based material coating which is applied to the slides after hybridization and washing. It is recommended to help preserve the fluorochromes from degradation, especially the Cy5 which is more easily degraded than the Cy3 dye. Our experience is that Dyesaver is expensive and may not be necessary for repeated scanning. As an experiment, we used the "practice" slides supplied to us by the Maize Array Project for two identical hybridizations, one with Dyesaver and the other without. The data from both slides produced similar results. The slide without the Dyesaver was scanned at least 4 times with only a minor loss in fluor intensity, using the auto PMT setting, with laser power settings between 70-90%. Slides that were coated in Dyesaver did maintain their integrity for several months, unlike untreated slides which expire rapidly. The major disadvantages of Dyesaver were the toxic toluene fumes which made it unpleasant to work with, high evaporation rate of the dye during storage drastically reducing the number of slides on which one can actually use the dye, and the overall green hue it gives to the slides.

4. Data analysis using Bioconductor freeware (bioconductor.org), which uses the R computing environment (www.rproject.org), requires writing customized Perl scripts. The main advantage to using Bioconductor is that it is one of the most powerful software packages to use for microarray statistical analysis. The main disadvantage, however, is that it uses a command driven user interface and therefore is not user friendly for most scientists. We needed to create customized scripts effectively filter and normalize our data. In Bioconductor we used the Limma package (also available at www.r-project.org), which uses the empirical Bayesian method to create a linear model to evaluate genes with significant differential expression. We would be happy to share our scripts for filtering, normalization and linear model analysis.

DAEGU, SOUTH KOREA

Kyungpook National University and the International Corn Foundation

Severe epidemics of downy mildew (*Perosclerospora sorghi*) on maize in Cambodia, East Timor and Vietnam

--Kim, SK; Yoon, NM; Kim, HJ; Kim, YB; Chhay, N; Kim, SM; Oeun, KS; Bora, P; Glaudino, N; Fontes, L; Tam, TT; Cho, MC

Downy mildew (*Perosclerospora sorghi*) is still considered the most damaging disease of maize (*Zea mays* L.) in South Asia. Since the early 1990s, downy mildew (DM) has been a minor problem in Thailand, Indonesia, the Philippines and Taiwan. Breeding for resistance materials and the uses of chemicals such as Ridomil have played a catalytic role in reducing the spread of the disease in the region. However, the same disease has produced epidemics in Cambodia, East Timor and Vietnam, recently. A study of DM was carried out in East Timor and Ben Tre Province in Vietnam for three years, and at the ICF/Cambodia Banteay Dek Agricultural Research Station, for two years (2005-2006). This paper reports the results of DM infections at the station and farmers' fields.

In East Timor, severe infections of DM were observed in farmers' fields and the Lapos station of the CIMMYT/Australia maize trials in February 2003. DMR lines evaluated include: a Thailand open-pollinated variety (OPV), Suwan 1, and lines from IITA, Nigeria and CIMMYT, Mexico. Among the IITA DMR materials, TZDMR-ESR-Y appears to be the best. Using Suwan 5, Kalinga (Indonesia), TZDMR-ESR, the project has developed several DMR variety crosses. Both OPV and variety crosses are being tested at research stations and in farmers' fields. DMR materials will be recommended to East Timor.

In Ben Tre Province of Vietnam (the first province of the Mekong Delta), DMR materials from IITA and Thailand have been tested for three years (October, 2002) with the assumption that DM would be the key biotic constraint of maize cultivation in the country. However, DM was observed in March 2006 to be widely present in the country. Waxy hybrids introduced from Thailand and locally bred field corn hybrids were found to be highly susceptible. Five DMR OPVs were selected. The best known DMR OPV, Suwan 1 showed an unknown black ear rot. Maize programs in Vietnam must focus on DMR breeding to block further spread of DM nation wide.

In Cambodia, DM is the number 1 production constraint for maize cultivation. Severe epidemics of DM infection were observed from several farmers' fields in the Phnom Penh area in August, 2005. The program has focused on DMR materials for Cambodia. Ten different plantings have been made to screen

DMR and segregating materials using the ICF/Cambodia Banteay Dek Agricultural Research Station. The station was established by the Government of Hungary 15 years ago. Among the 50 materials tested, four DMR OPVs showed an acceptable level of tolerance. They are Suwan 5 (coded as KC35), Suwan 1 (coded as KC6) from Thailand and TZDMR-ESR-Y (coded as KC25) and TZDMR-LSR-Y (coded as KC4) from IITA. A CIMMYT DMR conversion, EV28-DMR, and several other DMR materials segregate for resistance. DMR genes are being incorporated into farmers' preferred local waxy materials.

> GUELPH, CANADA University of Guelph

http://www.MaizeLink.org: A searchable database linking maize experts from around the world

--Makhijani, R; Wight, C; Radford, D; Kajenthira, A; Papineau, E; Raizada, MN

We have developed a searchable database, online at www.MaizeLink.org, linking maize experts with their colleagues from around the world. Developed at the University of Guelph, the aim of MaizeLink.org is to provide an online environment where researchers can share their challenges, questions and resources with other researchers across sub-disciplines.

MaizeLink.org provides a very easy to use searchable interface to access researcher information from 80 sub-disciplines, including molecular genomics, abiotic stress, agronomy, breeding, ecology, food safety, nutrition, plant disease, agribusiness and social issues. Users have the ability to search by name, institution, country, research keyword or area of technical expertise. Alternatively, users may browse by research subject area. Query results consist of a researcher list linking to individual profile pages. A profile page contains the following customized information, some of which is entered into the database by researchers at the time of registration:

•researcher contact details

- •a summary of a researcher's key challenges
- •a summary of the researcher's interests

•links to the best introductory publications or URLs in the researcher's area of interest or technical expertise

·links to a researcher's favorite URLs

·links to useful technical protocols

In addition, a query auto-generates the following information:

•links to researcher publications in popular databases (e.g., PubMed, Agricola, MaizeGDB)

•links to researcher patents (e.g., U.S., European, Japanese and worldwide patent databases)

•researcher grant abstracts from around the world

MaizeLink.org integrates a bulletin board, a forum to post messages or questions and exchange information online. The bulletin board is completely searchable. Our objective is to make the MaizeLink bulletin board the central communication portal for the world's maize research community by pooling expertise from diverse sub-disciplines.

MaizeLink also includes LifeSciLink, a function that provides access to publications, patents and grant abstracts for all re-

searchers in the life sciences, not only those registered in Maize-Link. A user simply enters a researcher's name, and the system automatically searches a collection of public databases from around the world, returning results on a single page. This functionality is also available separately at http://www.LifeSciLink.org.

In addition, MaizeLink incorporates EquipmentLink, a place for researchers to donate and seek equipment and materials to/from other researchers and educators around the world. The infrastructure required to perform research can be expensive, especially for researchers in developing nations. We hope that EquipmentLink will help to meet this challenge.

Over the coming months, MaizeLink.org will grow to include at least 20 major crops and research model systems, part of the CropLink Global Initiative. Our goal is to make CropLink into the world's most comprehensive online researcher-to-researcher portal for plant science and agriculture.

All of these databases are publicly accessible, and registration is not required to conduct searches. An effort has been made to include Open Source journal databases. Having a customized profile page does require registration, but is open to all graduate students, research fellows and associates, faculty, and private sector scientists with a shared interest in maize. Because many researchers, particularly in the developing world, do not have a webpage/lab page, the profile page is an attempt to provide a basic, free website for all of the world's agricultural researchers. All of our databases are secure and designed to prevent third-party users from sending batch Spam emails. MaizeLink.org is a nonprofit initiative intended solely for research purposes.

We must feed more people in the next 40 years than we have in the last 10,000 years combined. This great challenge will require more extensive collaboration between researchers across diverse crops, subdisciplines and nations. It is our hope that MaizeLink, CropLink, LifeSciLink and EquipmentLink will be useful tools in this endeavor.

> HONOLULU, HAWAII University of Hawaii

Near isogenic lines (NIL) of inbred Hi27

--Brewbaker, JL; Josue, AD

The Hi27 NIL series was initiated in 1967 to provide tropicallyadapted mutants to scientists working in the tropics (MNL 42:37-38). Each mutant was to be backcrossed at least six times to Hi27, a hardy tropical flint inbred that we selfed out of inbred CM104, created in India as a sib-line from the Colombian flint Amarillo Theobromina (pedigree = A Theo 21-B-6#-15-7#). Hi27 generally tolerates most tropical diseases and environmental insults, and is homozygous for loci such as A1 A2 b Bz C-I Mv p-ww PI pr r Y. In 1995, we published a list of mutant loci that had been entered through backcrossing (MNL 69:58-59). All of the mutants listed at that time have now been backcrossed six or more times to Hi27, with the following changes:

(1) Mutants that could not be maintained from the 1995 list: *bk, bt2, lc, mn, pg2, rf, rt, v2* and *w3*

(2) Mutants that have been added to this list: a2, bk2, bt1-A, c2, j2, ms6, ms8, o5, Tlr, y8 and y11

(3) New mutants (temporary symbols) under study: blo (blotch), bst (brown-stripe), dcb (double-cob), lc2 (leaf-color), lfl (leaf-fleck), nl3 (narrow-leaf), os (opaque-small), sky (skinny) and zb232 (zebra)

The complete NIL set now includes 97 mapped genes and the 9 mutants under study. More than 200 genotypes are now available, including many digenic and multi-genic combinations such as bm3 gt and C sh bz wx. All are being provided to the Maize Genetics Coop, e.g., symbolized $sh2^{A}$ Hi27.

Grassy tiller and sweet corn

--Brewbaker, JL

Tillering is a characteristic of early American sweet corns (*sugary1*), but is rarely found in other races or types of maize. We report here that all of the early sweet corns we've tested carry the gene, *grassy tiller (gt)*. Grassy-tillered plants also produce leaves that extend the husks ("husk leaves" or "flag leaves"), a feature not noted in the genetic literature but of utility to processors of temperate sweet corn for removal of husks.

Our breeding of tropical sweet corns in Hawaii has been based entirely on hybrids of temperate (tillered) and tropical (non-tillered) types. All of the >20 open-pollinated populations we've released of this type segregated tillered plants as a recessive trait (Brewbaker, HortSci. 33:1262-4). Tillered plants were also marked by presence of husk leaves that segregated as a recessive monogene (MNL 79:14), now known also to be *gt1*.

In the present study, temperate sweet corn inbreds provided by Bill Tracy (U. Wis.) were crossed with two sources of gt, one based on population WGRComp2 from Jim Coors (U. Wis.) and one, gt^{A} Hi27 from our near-isogenic line series (MNL 69:58-9). The temperate inbreds were:

sugary1: 101t, C5, C40, Hotevilla AZ, P39, P51 *shrunken2:* Ia453*sh*2

Hybrids of these sweet inbreds with *gt* stocks were all highly tillered, with long flag leaves (Figure 1). All F2 populations grown from these hybrids were also 100% tillered. One recombinant inbred population (SET M) based on the cross of la453*sh*2 (tillered) with Hi38*bt* (no tillers) segregated 19 tillered and 27 non-



Figure 1. Grassy tillered hybrid of NIL gt^{A} Hi27 with sweet corn inbred P51. (For color see online.)

tillered RILs, while the F2 of this cross segregated 3:1 for normal to grassy tillered. One of the tillering NILs, M23, was crossed to a *gt* stock and produced only grassy-tillered hybrids.

The number and size of tillers and husk leaves is highly correlated with plant vigor. Experimental trials at Waimanalo, Hawaii, are planted year-round, and corn biomass yields in summer are roughly double those in winter. Yields are reduced largely by low light in our wet winters (Jan. avg. 275 cal/cm⁻²day⁻¹) vs. the dry summers (July avg. 450 cal/cm⁻²day⁻¹). Tiller numbers are reduced in winter; the tiller heights of inbred *gt*^AHi27 were reduced to <6" in winter vs. >18" in summer. Vigorous +/*gt* hybrids often produce small flag leaves in the summer also. High plant density and low nitrogen fertility reduce the expression of tillers and flag leaves. Husk-leaf extension increased greatly in Hawaii's summer trials for many hugely tillering Korean genotypes (MNL 59:14).

Other highly tillering genes include Tlr (tillering) and tb (teosinte-branched), and both of these mutants also have long flag leaves. The genes are on long arm of chromosome 1 and possibly allelic. Both genes have a major effect on ear morphology, unlike gt. The Tlr/Tlr homozygote is extremely grassy in Hawaii and has abortive ears. It resembles Cg (corngrass), a mutant that also leads to tillering and flag leaves.

Teosinte species tiller abundantly like most grasses, presumably based on genes like *TIr.* Our hybrids of maize with Jutiapa teosinte and with *Zea diploperennis* were all highly tillered, showing tillering to be dominant (cf. Fig. 1, Srinivasan and Brewbaker, Maydica 44:353-370). In the referenced study Srinivasan produced 11 hybrids between tropical maize inbreds (with only the single main culm) and *Z. diploperennis* (avg. 18.3 tillers in winter, 29.3 in summer). In summer plantings the F1 plants averaged 5.4 tillers, F2's averaged 3.4, backcrosses to maize averaged 1.6 and backcrosses to Z.d. averaged 2.9. Generation mean analysis showed that narrow-sense heritability was high (81%) and based largely on dominance and epistatic (dd) interactions. At least two loci were inferred. Winter data for the Z.d. x maize populations showed that tillers were reduced an average of 13.8% for the four generations, with similar reduction in heritability.

We have bred a broad-based population, HIC9d, from backcrosses of these Z.d. hybrids to maize. It segregates about 10% tillered plants. The population is highly heterogeneous for tiller and husk leaf extension, and for vigor, prolificacy and many ear traits. It is being tested for allelism of tillering genes to gt and Tlr.

The Maize Genetics Coop gene *gt* is located near the centromere on chromosome 1 and is attributed to Don Shaver (MNL 39:18-22), who writes (pers. commun.) "Earl Patterson had told me that E. G. Anderson found it or discovered it (at Cal Tech)". The *gt* in our NIL set (reported in MNL 69:58-9) derives from the MGC stock *gt/gt id/id* (66Cal, 3327x28) that seems to have the same origin, out of mutants from Bikini in Anderson's collection in 1948, a nursery in which I was privileged to work with Earl, Ed Coe and Andy. However, Walt Galinat (pers. commun.) notes his early interest in tillering and the possibility that the N.E. sugary lines in his program provided the *gt* locus of Shaver, who made hybrids of Galinat's sweet corns with *id* (also found on chromosome 1L) and *pe* stocks in studies of perennialism in maize (Shaver, J. Hered. 58:270-273; MNL 79:39-41). In any event, the two sources appear to be identical alleles.

In view of the rarity of tillering in maize, the independent origin

of *gt* in early American sweet corns or their progenitors appears highly probable. Mysteriously eluding early authors on this subject was the fact that *gt* also controls husk-leaf extension, a feature that became of value to the temperate sweet corn industry by facilitating husk removal during processing. In Thailand, the tropical supersweets with Hawaiian ancestry (many husks but no husk leaves) from 150,000 A. annually are husked following sprays with hot water (Taweesak Pulam, pers. commun.). It is unclear whether genotypes exist with flag leaves but no capacity or totipotency for tillering. We suspect that source of cytoplasm must be considered in unravelling the perennialism of *Z. diploperennis* that has been elusive in maize hybrids with genes like *gt*, *TIr*, *id* and *pe*.

Heterosis among near-isogenic lines of Hi27

--Josue, AD; Brewbaker, JL

Ten mutants in our Hi27 NIL series, one on each of the 10 chromosomes, were chosen for a diallel analysis of heterosis. Each mutant had been backcrossed at least six times to Hi27, hardy tropical flint inbred (see above). Our NILs are sibbed following backcrossing, allowing preservation of some heterozygosity (1.5625% >BC6, 0.0977% >BC10). However, there is much evidence of linkage drag in such conversions, linkage that could also be associated with inter-NIL heterosis. Linkage drag with loci *na1*^Hi27 (3L-101) and *lg2*^Hi27 (3L-113) led us (Ming et al., MNL 69:60) to the *Mv/mv* locus on chromosome 3L-80 (all temperate corn carries allele *mv* for susceptibility to the tropical maize mosaic virus). Current studies in Hawaii seek to use linkage drag in spotting other QTLs of importance to corn breeders.

It can be conjectured that QTLs for yield heterosis are often linked to mutant genes we've backcrossed into Hi27. To test our hypothesis, ten NIL (one per chromosome) were crossed in a diallel manner, including parent Hi27 (Griffing method 2). Mutants selected were located at 1S-55 (gt^Hi27), 2S-11 (Ig^Hi27), 3L-149.0 (a^Hi27), 4S-(55) (bm3^Hi27), 5S-41 (bm^Hi27), 6L-17 (y^Hi27), 7S-16 (o2^Hi27), 8-(0) (rf4^Hi27), 9S-31 (bz^Hi27) and 10L-64 (R-nj^Hi27). Mutant rf4 had been advanced 12 backcrosses. The diallel entries were planted in single-row 5m plots in Field S1-4 at Waimanalo on May 23 and June 21, 2006. Data were taken from two samples per row of 5 plants, with months treated as replications.

Heterosis among the 53 hybrids (two were omitted due to poor stand) was universal for measured traits. Highly significant differences (P<0.001) were observed for yield (as gm. per plant), for ear length and ear diameters in cm. (Table 1), and also for plant heights (not shown). The Experimental Error interaction of NIL x "Reps" (months) was never significant when tested against sampling error, a reflection of the homogeneity of Waimanalo soils on which our breeding nurseries have been grown since the 1960's.

Table 1. ANOVA for yield, ear length and ear diameter.

Source	df	Yield	EL	ED
Entries	63	456.3**	1.60**	0.05**
Reps	1	420.9 ns	2.41*	0.09*
NIL & Parent	10	277.6*	2.04**	0.06**
F1s	52	375.3**	1.10**	0.04**
Heterosis (NIL vs F1s)	1	6,456.4**	22.93**	0.39**
EE (Ent x Rep)	63	115.7 ns	0.39 ns	0.01 ns
SE	128	584.4	3.47	0.13

**,* - Significant at the 5% and 1% level of probability

Means and standard deviations of these three sets of data are summarized in Table 2. The NILs were similar to their parent inbred Hi27, while all hybrids were significantly higher in yield and ear traits. Relative homogeneity characterized all traits, as evident in the standard deviations and CV values.

Table 2. Means and standard deviations for yield and ear traits.

	Yield	EL	ED
Hi27	92.5 ± 16.9	13.8 ± 1.4	3.95 ± 0.17
NILs	93.8 ± 20.4	12.7 ± 1.7	4.05 ± 0.32
Hybrids	121.1 ± 17.8	14.4 ± 1.3	4.25 ± 0.27

Individual variations were seen in GCA (general combining ability) and mid-parent heterosis values, and these will be studied in greater detail following duplicate plantings in 2007. Mutant *bz*^Hi27 had the highest GCA for yield, but it is in a known linkage group with *C*, and would be expected to have greater linkage drag in our conversions to Hi27 (which is *Bz C-I*). GCA for hybrid yield minimized for *rf4*^Hi27 (97.6 gm/plant). However, the *rf4* conversion represented BC12 (~ .0244% heterozygosity) and the malesterile hybrids were grown as a block, both facts helping account for their reduced apparent heterosis for yield.

Heterosis among NIL hybrids clearly can reflect the remnant of heterozygosity among their very distinct temperate dent and tropical flint parents; indeed, we make much use of modified sistersingle crosses in our supersweet tropical breeding to exploit this kind of heterosis. But it is similarly clear that linkage drag with QTLs affecting vigor and yield may play a role in this heterotic response. The dent x flint heterosis is very widely exploited in tropical corn breeding, and localization of significant QTLs may improve our genetic advance.

> IRKUTSK, RUSSIA Institute of Plant Physiology and Biochemistry

Presumable redox control of phosphorylation of the mitochondrial chaperonin hsp60

--Subota, IY; Arziev, AS; Sengenko, LP; Tarasenko, VI; Konstantinov, YM

It was shown previously (MNL 80:14-15) that phosphorylation/dephosphorylation of serine/threonine or histidine residues of the target mitochondrial proteins is presumably involved in the metabolic response of mitochondria under the changes of redox conditions. To date redox-dependent phosphorylation of mitochondrial proteins has not been sufficiently elucidated. Although this modification has been observed in our experiments for at least 8 maize mitochondrial proteins (MNL 80:14-15), the nature of the polypeptides and the function of phosphorylation for these proteins remain poorly understood. In this work, we show that one of the mitochondrial phosphoproteins is the heat shock protein 60 (hsp60).

The mitochondria were isolated from 3-day-old etiolated maize seedlings of hybrid VIR42MV, by a standard method of differential centrifugation. Protein phosphorylation assays were carried out according to Struglics et al. (FEBS Lett. 475:213-217, 2000) with the use of [γ 32P]ATP at 6000 Ci/mmol.

By immunoblotting with specific antibodies, we have identified one of 8 mitochondrial phosphoproteins as mitochondrial chaper-

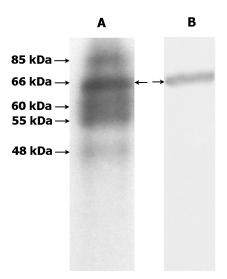


Figure 1. In vitro phosphorylation of redox-sensitive phosphoproteins including 66 kDa (A) were resolved by 12% SDS/PAGE and were immunoblotted (B) with antibody against hsp60.

onin hsp60 (Fig. 1). Mitochondrial chaperonin hsp60 is required for ATP-dependent folding of precursor polypeptides and complex assembly. It also prevents aggregation and mediates protein refolding after heat shock. There is also some evidence of hsp60 involvement in the structure and transmission of mitochondrial DNA nucleoids in *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* (Kaufman et al., J. Cell. Biol. 163:457-461, 2003). We suggest that this evolutionarily conserved hsp60 participates in redox regulation of mitochondrial genome expression and is possibly mediated by reversible redoxdependent phosphorylation.

> KEW, UNITED KINGDOM Royal Botanic Gardens, Kew SAINT PAUL, MINNESOTA University of Minnesota and USDA-ARS

Adding B-chromosomes of Zea mays L. to the genome of Avena sativa L.

--Kynast RG; Galatowitsch, MW; Huettl, PA; Phillips, RL; Rines, HW

B-chromosomes (Bs) are supernumerary dispensable chromosomes described in hundreds of animal and plant species, including maize (*Zea mays* L.). However, Bs have not been reported to exist in hexaploid oat (*Avena sativa* L.).

In order to transfer maize Bs sexually from maize to oat genomes, we chose the maize cultivar Black Mexican Sweet (a well known sweet corn line hosting Bs in different numbers) as the B donor (male parent) and the oat cultivars Starter, Sun II and Paul as potential B recipients (female parent) for inter-species cross-hybridizations. Since all of these direct crossings of Black Mexican Sweet to each of the oat cultivars failed to produce vigorous F1 offspring, we used in a further experimental series as the male parent a backcross line of the maize inbred B73 harboring Bs from Black Mexican Sweet. The B73^B derivative is the 5th backcross generation of the F1 (B73 × Black Mexican Sweet) hybrid to B73. BC5 seeds with hexasomic B addition (BC5-B73^B, 2n = 2x+6B = 26) were generously provided by J. A. Birchler, University of Mis-

souri Columbia. This genotype based on B73 germplasm seemed more promising because, recently, Kynast et al., PNAS 101:9921-9926, 2004) had reported the successful crossing of B73 without Bs to different oat genotypes.

All parental plants were cultivated in growth chambers to deliver favorable environmental conditions for germination and plant growth, and to synchronize the peak of pistil receptiveness in oat plants with the peak of pollen grain release in maize plants. For inter-species crossing, the stigmas of emasculated oat florets were hand-pollinated with freshly shed maize pollen by using a fine camelhair brush. The panicles with pollinated florets were isolated in glassine bags, then 24-48 hours after pollination sprayed with a mixture of 50 ppm 2,4-D and 50 ppm GA₃ and again bagged during further cultivation in the growth chambers.

From 2341 ovaries, 115 immature F1 (oat \times maize) embryos (Table 1) were in vitro rescued 14-15 days after pollination. The F1 embryos were cultivated on modified one-half strength MS-medium. A total of 31 F1 embryos germinated and developed into vigorous plantlets large enough for molecular and cytogenetic analyses. Plantlets were further grown in growth chambers with optimal growing conditions to produce F2 seeds for testing (1) fertility of (aneu)haploid oat plants with added maize Bs and (2) transmission of maize Bs to the offspring in an oat background.

Table 1. Plant material for crossing three different oat cultivars (2n = 6x = 42) by the maize B73⁸ ($2n = 2x+6_B = 26$) and results of maize B-positive offspring production.

Oat cultivars	Starter	Sun II	Paul	Total
Oat panicles	40	53	3	96
Oat florets, emasculated and hand-pollinated	1177	1094	70	2341
F1 proembryos, rescued 14-15 dap*	62	52	1	115
F1 embryos, geminated**	14	16	1	31
Maize (A and/or B)-positive juvenile F1 plantlets	7	6	1	14
(shoot- and root-tested)				
Maize B-positive adult F1 plants*** (tiller-tested)	2	0	0	2
Maize B-positive F2 offspring / Total F2 offspring	20 / 30	0/0	0/0	20 / 30
(shoot- and root-tested)				

*Days after pollination; **Embryos that formed shoot and root with enough tissue for molecular and cytogenetic analyses; ***Plants represent tillers that are clone parts of two clones after extensive tiller cloning of both F1 plants allowing for more F2 seed production

Two F1 plantlets (5811-1 and 5845-1) were found to have retained maize chromosomes in shoot tissues based on results from a PCR assay for *Grande1*, a dispersed LTR-type retrotransposon which is abundant on all A chromosomes (As) and Bs of maize, but absent from all chromosomes of the oat genotypes used in our crossing program. PCR assays involving two B-specific markers (primer pair *p*-2*ndB1* + *p*-2*ndb4* and primer pair *p*-brpt2 + *ptaralb1*; generously provided by J. A. Birchler, University of Missouri Columbia) and a selected set of A-specific markers for maize [chromosome arm-specific SSR markers selected from the 'Maize Genetics and Genomics Database' (http://www.maizegdb.org/)] showed that in both genotypes the *Grande1*-positive PCR products represented the presence of maize Bs and not maize As (Fig. 1).

Cytological analyses on very young, juvenile plantlets revealed that in the F1 plant 5811-1, all ten maize As had been eliminated and a complete set of 21 oat chromosomes plus three maize Bs $(2n = 3x+3_B = 24)$ were retained in its primary root meristem. In the primary root meristem of the F1 plant 5845-1, all ten maize As had been eliminated with a complete set of 21 oat chromosomes and a single maize B retained $(2n = 3x+1_B = 22)$.

Both F1 plants were kept under short-day conditions to allow

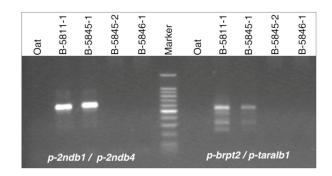


Figure 1. PCR products of B-chromosome-specific markers after electrophoresis in 1.5% agarose; both markers demonstrate the presence of B-chromatin in the two F1 plants 5811-1 and 5845-1 and the absence of B-chromatin in two examples of B-negative F1 plants (5845-2 and 5846-1).

plants to tiller extensively for continuing tiller cloning. Tiller cloning provides an extended source of leaves for the extraction of genomic DNA and RNA, and for further seed production. Both genotypes are descended from a (Starter \times B73^B) cross. Hence they represent B additions in a Starter background. The phenotypes of both mature F1 plants did not differ from those of haploids of Starter without Bs at any point in time during their growth period.

After shifting individual tiller clones into long-day growing conditions, self-pollination produced F2 seed of both genotypes (Table 1). This fertility could be attributed to the frequent formation of numerically unreduced female and male gametes. High fertility had already been observed in oat haploids of Starter, Sun II and Paul without and with individual maize *As* of B73 (Rines et al., In: Jain, Sopory, Veilleux (eds.) Kluwer Acad. Publishers, Dordrecht, The Netherlands, In vitro haploid production in higher plants 4, 205-221, 1997; Kynast et al., 2004).

Cytological and molecular analyses of 20 F2 offspring plants showed that the F1 plant 5811-1 carrying 3 Bs produced three F2 plants with 1 B, six F2 plants with 2 Bs, one F2 plant with 3 Bs, one F2 plant with 4 Bs, and nine F2 plants with highly chimeric root meristems showing cells with 1-5 Bs in different frequencies. All chromosome counts were based on ten cells of root meristems of each F2 offspring. The presence of Bs in root meristem cells was visualized by GISH at high (85%) stringency using Alexa Fluor 488-labeled genomic DNA of maize as the probe without oat competitor DNA (Figure 2).

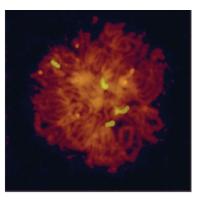


Figure 2. Root prometaphase cell from the F2 plant K1188; the tetrasomic addition of maize Bchromosomes to Starter oat is demonstrated by green fluorescence after GISH with Fluor 488labeled genomic DNA of maize well contrasted against the red-brown counterstained oat chromosomes. (For color see online.)

For the F1 plant 5845-1 carrying one B, none of the 10 F2 offspring tested by cytological and molecular means had Bs, indicating a transmission failure. However, since more F2 seeds were produced, we will analyze a larger offspring population of F1 plant 5845-1 to evaluate the transmission data.

Taking all the data together, our results showed that Bs from maize Black Mexican Sweet can be sexually transferred to the genome of Starter oat, and that haploid oat plants hosting one or three maize Bs are fertile and can set seed after self-pollination. In addition, our results of 30 tested F2 offspring from two maize B-positive F1 plants showed that maize Bs can be transmitted to offspring even when in the presence of only oat chromosomes.

LLAVALLOL, ARGENTINA

Instituto Fitotecnico de Santa Catalina Universidad Nacional De La Plata and CIGEN (CONI-CET-CIC-UNLP)

Maize quality breeding in Argentina. I. Chemical analysis of waxy maize starch

--Corcuera, VR; Caro Solís, C; Garcia-Rivas, G; Tortoriello, C; Salmoral, EM

In 1990, a breeding program was initiated at the Instituto Fitotécnico Santa Catalina and CIGEN, located in Llavallol, province of Buenos Aires, Argentina (22 m.a.s., 34° 48'S; 58° 31'W), with the purpose of obtaining new starch and guality protein genotypes. During the first stage of the program, several maize inbreds were developed, tested and selected following the classic methodology. These inbreds carry single recessive (wx1, o2, o5, O9, O11, sh4) or double recessive (wx1 sh4; wx1 o2) genes. Using some of the inbreds developed, single crosses were obtained and tested in several complete randomized block design field trials with three replicates conducted in Llavallol. During the last year, the starch composition (% amylose and % amylopectin) of twenty-six inbreds and four single crosses was analyzed through molecular fractionation (Curá and Krisman, 1990) and spectrophotometry. The results of the starch molecular fractionation performed in inbreds and single crosses are shown in Tables 1 and 2. The length of the external chains of each α -D glucane may be estimated from the ratio (A) of peaks and shoulder absorbances for the polysaccharide in the presence of I2•KI in a saturated CaCl2 solution. Long external chains of alucopolysaccharides (amylose) usually vield a high "A" value (around 2-4). Smaller values of "A" (around 1-1.8) are typical of the short- and branched-chains of amylopectin. Our results (Table 3) show that the amylose contained in these genotypes has some degree of branching and therefore is not completely linear. The amylopectin of the different genotypes has a similar degree of branching and is moderately branched. The single crosses CIG10, CIG25 and CIG45 have a higher amylopectin content (81 to 88%). As CIG10 was obtained by crossing a "normal" inbred (female) x wx1 (male), its endosperm genotype is Wx Wx wx. The amylopectin content in normal maize (Wx Wx Wx) is about 70 to 75%, thus the expression of only one recessive allele (*wx1*) raises the content of this α -D glucane by ca. 8 to 10 %.

Table 1. Starch content and composition of inbreds.

Genotype	Starch %	Amylose %	Amylopectin %	R
3002 a	68.8	24.2	75.5	3.2
3008	67.8	26.4	73.6	2.8
3014a	69.3	22.0	78.0	3.5
3016a	70.1	20.1	80.0	4.0
3016 b	69.2	29.3	69.9	2.4
3020/1	69.5	21.0	79.0	3.8
3020a	70.7	20.3	79.7	3.9
3022a	73.1	18.0	82.0	4.6
3022a/1	70.0	11.1	89.0	8.0
3022a/2	70.7	16.0	84.0	5.3
3022 b	69.7	15.8	84.2	5.3
3022c	69.5	18.0	82.0	4.6
3043 b	70.9	29.9	70.1	2.3
3074a	69.9	9.0	91.0	10.1
3074b	71.3	17.1	82.8	4.8
3074c	71.9	20.0	80.0	4.0
3078a	71.6	9.0	91.0	10.1
3088	70.1	25.0	75.0	3.0
3092	69.0	20.0	80.0	3.0
3096 b	70.2	17.0	82.0	4.8
3098	69.1	24.0	76.0	3.2
3109	69.4	22.0	78.0	3.6
3115	70.4	29.0	71.0	2.3
3119	69.0	21.6	78.5	3.6
3132 a	70.7	27.1	72.8	2.7
3139a	70.2	24.0	76.0	3.2

R is the ratio of amylopectin to amylose.

Table 2. Starch content and composition of single crosses.

Genotype	Starch %	Amylose %	Amylopectin %	R
CIG10	69.6	18.8	80.7	4.3
CIG24	73.4	20.0	79.9	4.0
CIG25	71.1	12.2	87.8	7.2
CIG45	71.0	11.1	88.9	8.0
CIG47	70.0	22.0	78.0	3.5
CIG50	72.4	20.3	78.7	3.9
CIG66	71.4	29.0	71.0	2.4
R is the ratio of a	mylopectin to amylo	se.		

R is the ratio of amylopectin to amylose.

Table 3. Spectrophotometric analysis of starch molecular components.

AMYLOSE			AMYLOF		
λmax	λmax shoulder	A	λmax	λmax shoulder	A
590.0	415.0	1.43	497.5	408.0	1.22
614.0	415.0	1.48	521.0	411.0	1.27
560.0	415.0	1.35	494.5	410.0	1.21
596.0	415.0	1.44	506.0	410.0	1.23
617.0	414.0	1.50	490.0	408.0	1.20
589.0	414.0	1.42	525.5	411.0	1.28
620.0	415.0	1.49	500.5	411.0	1.22
567.0	415.0	1.45	496.0	412.0	1.20
590.0	410.0	1.48	522.0	411.0	1.27
561.0	410.0	1.45	496.0	409.0	1.21
599.0	410.0	1.46	521.0	408.0	1.28
	λmax 590.0 614.0 560.0 598.0 617.0 589.0 620.0 567.0 590.0 561.0	λmax λmax houlder shoulder 590.0 415.0 614.0 415.0 590.0 415.0 590.0 415.0 596.0 415.0 596.0 415.0 617.0 414.0 620.0 415.0 567.0 415.0 590.0 410.0 561.0 410.0	λmax λmax shoulder A 590.0 415.0 1.43 614.0 415.0 1.48 560.0 415.0 1.48 560.0 415.0 1.44 617.0 414.0 1.50 589.0 414.0 1.50 589.0 414.0 1.42 620.0 415.0 1.49 567.0 415.0 1.49 567.0 415.0 1.45 590.0 410.0 1.45 561.0 410.0 1.45 561.0 410.0 1.45 561.0	λmax shoulder λmax A λmax 590.0 415.0 1.43 497.5 614.0 415.0 1.48 521.0 560.0 415.0 1.44 506.0 596.0 415.0 1.44 506.0 617.0 414.0 1.50 490.0 589.0 414.0 1.42 525.5 620.0 415.0 1.49 500.5 567.0 415.0 1.45 496.0 590.0 410.0 1.48 522.0	λmax hmax λmax shoulder λmax λmax hmax λmax shoulder 590.0 415.0 1.43 497.5 408.0 614.0 415.0 1.48 521.0 411.0 590.0 415.0 1.48 521.0 411.0 596.0 415.0 1.44 506.0 410.0 617.0 414.0 1.50 490.0 408.0 589.0 414.0 1.42 525.5 411.0 620.0 415.0 1.49 500.5 411.0 567.0 415.0 1.45 496.0 412.0 590.0 410.0 1.48 522.0 411.0 567.0 415.0 1.45 496.0 409.0 590.0 410.0 1.48 522.0 411.0 561.0 410.0 1.45 496.0 409.0

A is the ratio of absorbances at the wavelengths λmax and λmax shoulder.

Maize quality breeding in Argentina. II. Determination of lysine and fatty acids by chromatography

--Corcuera, VR; Giraudo, M; Bernatené, EA; Sánchez Tuero, H; Malcowski, I

Within the last decade at the Instituto Fitotecnico Santa Catalina and CIGEN located in Llavallol, a province of Buenos Aires, Argentina (22 m.a.s., 34° 48'S; 58° 31'W), a maize quality breeding program has been underway. Normal genotypes previously developed in Argentina were reconverted to quality protein maize through the incorporation of the *o2*, *o5*, *o11 or o12* genes from Illinois and Bergamo inbreds used as donors. Lysine content in endosperm flour of three inbreds and a single cross has been determined via rp-HPLC. Simultaneously, the germ fatty acid composition of 4 inbreds and three single crosses were analyzed through gas chromatography.

Normally, maize has only 0.3% lysine in endosperm flour, but the expression of the o2 gene can double or treble it. High lysine contents were found in the first inbreds studied (3088: 1.3%; 3098: 0.9% and 3139 II: 0.6%). These inbreds have a high oil content as previously detected by NIR using an Isotec 1227 device (3088: 5.8%; 3098: 6.0% and 3139 II: 7.3%). Also, the single cross 3152, obtained by crossing one of these inbreds as female x a wx1 o2 double recessive male, was a complete success in relation to its high lysine content (0.7%). This hybrid has a good agronomic performance as demonstrated through its average yield during three years running in multilocation trials (9,100 kg/ha). The fatty acid composition of the different genotypes studied may be seen in Tables 1 to 3. Generally, the endosperm of maize without expression of single mutant genes has a composition of 60% linoleic acid and 20 to 27% oleic acid (3:1 ratio). In the case of the high lysine and double recessive wx1 o2 genotypes analyzed, we found a 1.3:1 to 2.2:1 ratio between linoleic and oleic acid. The narrower

Table 1. Fatty acid composition in single mutant gene inbreds.

		% content		
Fatty acid		3115*	3016b**	
16:0	Palmitic	10.04	7.47	
16:1	Palmitoleic	1.25	0.21	
18:0	Stearic	2.44	1.05	
18:1	Oleic	32.16	35.25	
18:2	Linoleic	42.85	50.18	
18:3	Linolenic	1.04	0.8	
20:0	Arachidic	0.56	0.53	
20:1	Arachiidonic	0.32	0.4	
22:0	Behenic	0.39	0.41	
22:1	Erucic	0.32	0.21	
24:1	Lignoceric	1.37	0.95	
*o11 inbred	**wx1 inbred			

Table 2. Fatty acid composition in single-cross hybrids.

		% content	
Fatty acid		3165*	3166**
16:0	Palmitic	9.36	12.83
16:1	Palmitoleic	1.05	no data
18:0	Stearic	2.68	3.77
18:1	Oleic	33.2	27.49
18:2	Linoleic	52.2	38.36
18:3	Linolenic	0.33	no data
20:0	Arachidic	0.68	no data
20:1	Eicosenoic	no data	no data
22:0	Behenic	1.06	no data
22:1	Erucic	0.64	no data
24:1	Lignoceric	4.54	no data
*wx1 o2	**waxy		

Table 3. Fatty acid composition of a single-cross and its parents.

		% content		
Fatty acid		3096b*	3135**	3257
14:0	Myristic	3.00%	0.04	0.03
16:0	Palmitic	8.66	12.25	9.46
16:1	Palmitoleic	0.09	0.09	0.08
17:0	Heptadecanoic	0.06	0.1	0.05
18:0	Stearic	2.03	1.8	1.56
18:1	Oleic	35.84	25.12	28.53
18:2	Linoleic	45.13	55.45	55.87
18:3	Linolenic	0.94	0.82	0.8
20:0	Arachidic	0.54	0.35	0.58
*wx1 o2 femal	e parent	**wx1 o2 ma	le parent	

ratio (1.3:1) was expressed by the *o*11 mutant inbred 3115. All inbreds and single cross hybrids studied showed very low levels of eicosenoic and linolenic acid. The levels of myristic, palmitic, hep-tadecanoic and arachidic acids found in the single cross 3257 (see Table 3), obtained after crossing the inbreds 3096b (\mathcal{Q}) x 3135a (\mathcal{J}), show maaternal inheritance. In contrast, the levels of oleic, linoleic and linolenic acids are paternally inherited. On the other hand, the stearic acid content of the hybrid does not differ significantly from the mid-parent value, showing additive inheritance.

Heterosis percentage of yield traits in quality maize single cross hybrids developed in Argentina

--Corcuera, VR; Bernatené, EA; Poggio, L

During the growing season 2005/06, twenty single cross hybrids, generically termed CIG, and their parents were evaluated in a completely randomized blocks field trial design (three replicates) at the Instituto Fitotécnico de Santa Catalina and CIGEN placed in the location of Llavallol province of Buenos Aires, Argentina (22 m.a.s., 34° 48'S; 58° 31'W). Genotypes were evaluated for minimun potential yield expressed in kilograms/hectare (Y), ear weight (EW), kernel weight per ear (KWE) and cob percentage (% C). All genotypes evaluated were developed within a maize quality breeding program initiated during the 90's. Yield was calculated as follows:

Y= average kernels weight per ear x 71,500 plant per hectare

High parent heterosis (%) was determined for each trait mentioned according to the formula:

$$HP\% = \frac{F1 - HP}{HP} \times 100$$

(F1: single cross value; HP: high-parent value)

The single crosses may be divided into three groups: 1) wx1, 2) o2 and 3) double recessive (wx1 o2 hybrids). Minimum yield varies from 5,326 kg/ha to 8,701 kg/ha for the hybrids CIG133, CIG141, CIG144, CIG158, CIG159 and CIG161. Significant HP heterosis values (%) were found for yield in these hybrids (102.0% to 169.9%; Table 1). Two hybrids (CIG109: 3,632 kg/ha and

Table 1. High Parent heterosis (%) of single cross hybrids.

Genotype	Hybrid	EW	KWE	% C	Yield
wx1	CIG46	2.0	3.2	-39.9	3.2
	CIG67	32.3	35.6	-23.3	35.5
	CIG25	100.0	20.0	-39.4	20.1
	CIG70	82.6	90.9	-18.2	90.9
	CIG77	58.1	63.8	-14.6	64.0
	CIG141	123.8	169.9	-37.1	169.9
	CIG186	35.4	39.8	-14.6	40.0
	CIG8	18.8	13.3	-34.3	13.3
	CIG10	45.8	40.4	-7.3	40.4
o2	CIG187	-20.6	-19.8	-12.2	-19.8
	CIG159	88.4	114.7	-32.6	114.7
	CIG3	29.0	38.1	-47.7	38.1
	CIG109	-41.9	-38.8	-20.0	-38.8
	CIG82	33.5	31.3	-17.1	44.5
	CIG127	-3.4	2.8	-22.2	2.8
	CIG133	74.2	109.0	-38.5	102.0
wx1 o2	CIG144	104.4	151.1	-44.5	151.3
	CIG158	112.8	167.8	-50.4	168.1
	CIG161	135.7	148.9	-36.0	148.9
	CIG164	4.1	8.6	-24.2	8.7

CIG187: 4,762 kg/ha), obtained by crossing very closely related inbreds, showed negative HP heterosis values for all the traits as were. All hybrids showed a negative HP heterosis value for % C. This is due to the fact that the hybrid ears are completely fertile whilst the inbreds normally lack some kernels. Correlation between yield and kernel weight per ear is highly significant (r: 0.99; p: 0.01) and the regression equation between these parameters is Y: 0.887 + 0.99(KWE). In contrast, the correlation coefficient between yield and ear weight (including cob weight), is significant; it is lower (r: 0.83; p: 0.01). As seen in Table 2, the highest hetero-

Table 2. Average HP heterosis for different groups of hybrids.

Genotype	EW	KWE	% C	Yield
wx1	66.41	63.89	-28.74	63.94
o2	22.12	26.8	-24.1	26.84
wx1 o2	65.89	88.5	-33.26	90.46

sis values for Y and KWE were found in the double-recessive hybrids. Yields varied from 3,331 kg/ha for CIG109 to 9,404 kg/ha for the waxy hybrid CIG70. Considering that these single crosses carry one or two mutant genes usually associated with lower yield, the high HP heterosis values and minimum potential yield found in some makes them candidates for commercial release.

MADISON, WISCONSIN University of Wisconsin-Madison COLLEGE STATION, TEXAS Texas A&M University

Quantitative trait loci for ruminal starch degradability of opaque2 maize (Zea mays L.)

--Lebaka, NG; Coors, JG; Gutierrez, A; Menz, MA; Betran, JF

The opaque2 (o2) gene that alters protein composition in maize also influences starch digestibility in ruminants. The softer, less dense kernel texture of o2 grain improves starch digestibility. Unfortunately, the softer kernels of o2 maize also adversely affect agronomic performance (Vasal, Specialty Corns. 2nd Ed., 2001). Breeding efforts were initiated to improve the yield and kernel characteristics of o2 genotypes as part of the Quality Protein Maize (QPM) project at the International Center for Maize and Wheat Improvement. Ruminal starch degradability of o2 maize has been reported (Phillipeau et al., J. Sci. Food Agric. 80:404-408, 2000). Most of the published research results show that ruminal digestibility is inversely related to kernel hardness (Philippeau et al., J. Anim. Sci. 77:238-243, 1999; Philippeau et al., J. Sci. Food Agric. 80:404-408, 2000 and Correa et al, J. Dairy Sci. 85:3008-3012, 2002). To our knowledge there are no published research studies on quantitative trait loci (QTL) that model ruminal starch digestibility in o2 maize.

One-hundred and thirty-six *opaque2* recombinant inbred lines (RILs) spanning a wide range of kernel hardness were evaluated for in situ ruminal degradabilities. The RILs were derived from the cross CML161 *o2/o2* (hard kernels) x B73 *o2/o2* (soft kernels). The inbreds were raised, genotyped and rated for kernel hardness (light box) by Dr. J. Betran's lab at Texas A & M University. A 2.0 g sample (90% dry matter) of kernels ground through a 6 mm Wiley mill screen was used for measurement of in situ ruminal dry matter degradation (RDMD) at 0 and 14-hr incubation (1.5 g per

bag by 2 bag replicates per corn sample in 5 cm x 5 cm dacron bags of 50 micron pore size) in 3 mid- to late-lactation dairy cows fitted with ruminal cannulae and fed ad libitum a total mixed ration comprised of 60% forage (60% corn silage to 40% haylage mix) and 40% concentrate (DM basis).

Correlation analysis was done to determine the relationship between kernel hardness and in situ starch disappearance. Kernel hardness was determined using the score of 1 to 5 (where 1 – hard and 5 – soft). QTL analysis was done using composite interval mapping (Liu, Statistical Genomics, 1998) of QTL cartographer (version 2.5) using Kosambi mapping function and assuming no gene interaction with the threshold LOD score of 2.5.

Dry matter disappearance was positively correlated (r=0.73, p<0.05) with kernel hardness. Results for composite interval mapping analysis are shown in Table 1. The analysis revealed significant QTLs on chromosomes 1, 6 and 7 for 14-hr dry matter disappearance. The QTLs on chromosome 7 occupy about the same position with the *opaque5* locus located near the centromere of the long arm of chromosome 7 (Gibbon and Larkins, Trends Genet. 21(4):227-233, 2005). This suggests the effect of particle size on starch digestibility. The results indicate the positive contribution of B73 (soft endosperm) to improved ruminal starch degradability. For 0-hr DM disappearance, QTLs were detected on chromosomes 3 and 6. Three QTLs were detected for the difference between 14-hr and 0-hr DM disappearance.

Table 1. Detected QTLs for 0, 14 hours and (14 - 0 hr) starch disappearance in opaque2 maize RILs.

Chromosome	Position (cM)	LOD	Additive (%)	R-square					
14-hr incubation									
1	131	2.94	-2.7	0.08					
6	96	4.30	-3.9	0.18					
7	75	3.40	3.0	0.11					
7	83	3.00	2.7	0.08					
	0-hr i	ncubation							
3	114	3.23	2.0	0.08					
6	98	5.07	-3.0	0.19					
	(14-hr - 0-	hr) incubation	on						
7	41	4.37	2.8	0.04					
7	56	3.55	1.6	0.11					
7	61	3.44	1.6	0.11					

14-hr DM disappearance includes both 0-hr and 14-hr minus 0 h disappearance. 0-hr DM disappearance represents an instantaneously soluble part of the total DM that dissolves instantly in the ruminal fluid. The 6-mm ground softer endosperm generally has a higher component of finer particles (instantaneously soluble particles) than harder endosperm. The difference between 0-hr and 14-hr disappearance represents the DM that is degraded in the rumen and therefore the actual ruminal DM degradability. One to three QTLs for the difference were detected on the shorter arm near the centromere of chromosome 7. This position coincides with the position of one of the modifiers located between the locus for opaque2 and the centromere on the shorter arm of chromosome 7 (Lopes et al., Mol. Gen. Genet. 247:603-613, 1995 and Gibbon and Larkins. Trends Genet. 21(4):227-233. 2005). QTLs for the difference did not overlap with QTLs for the other traits, suggesting that the true DM degradability can probably be selected for independent of the other traits. Alleles for improved digestibility came from B73 and those reducing digestibility were contributed by CML161. However, some RILs performed better or worse than the best or worse parent, respectively, indicating the presence of transgressive segregation and possible additive by additive gene interaction.

> MILAN, ITALY University of Milan

Linkage data for sml

--Manzotti, PS; Gavazzi, G

The *sml* gene is a recessive mutation affecting shoot apical meristem maintenance and lateral organ formation. Its introgression in different genetic backgrounds has highlighted the epistatic interaction between *sml* and the unlinked *distorted growth (dgr)* locus. Seeds homozygous for both *sml* and *dgr* loci have a shootless phenotype whereas *Dgr/-sml/sml* seeds produce plants with altered phyllotaxis and abnormal leaf morphogenesis.

Previous data had shown that *sml* lies on the long arm of chromosome 10, and it was established that there is a distance of 21 cM between *sml* and the molecular marker *umc1084* (Pilu et al., Plant Physiol. 128:502-511, 2002); in order to define if its position is centromeric proximal or distal, we made a three-point linkage test of *sml* using the chromosome 10 markers *r* and *o7*. Since homozygous *sml* seedlings are lethal, the test was set up as a modified testcross, as outlined below.

Heterozygous *sml R*-st *O7/Sml r o7* females were outcrossed to *Sml r O7/Sml r O7* male parents and kernels from the cross were separated into stippled (*R*-st/*r*) and colorless (*r/r*) classes, planted, and the resulting plants self-pollinated. The F2 ears were scored for the presence of *o7* and *sml* (upon germination of a sample of 50 seeds from each ear), thus allowing us to trace the chromosomal constitution of the outcrossed heterozygous females in terms of the three markers.

The results, obtained by the analysis of 145 ears, were tabulated and linkage values were calculated (see Table 1).

Table 1. Modified three point linkage data for sml-r-o7.

Region	Phenotype	No. of ears	Totals
0	sml R-st O7	50	
	Smlr o7	33	83
1	smlr o7	11	
	Sml R-st 07	13	24
2	sml R-st o7	14	
	Sml r O7	16	30
1+2	sml r O7	6	
	Sml R-st o7	2	8
total			145

The gene order and distances obtained are as follows:

A successive test was performed using the chromosome 10 markers *r* and *v18*. Heterozygous *Sml R-r V18/sml r v18* plants were selfed and the kernels obtained were divided into coloured and colourless, germinated and scored for the presence of *sml* and *v18*. The results obtained are shown in Table 2.

Table 2. Linkage data between sml, r and v18 as determined in the progeny of Sml R-r V18/sml r v18 selfed plants.

	Phenotype			
	Sml R	Sml r	sml R	sml r
n.	697	55	77	138
	R V18	R v18	r V18	r v18
n.	619	135	51	89
	Sml V18	Sml v18	sml V18	sml v18
n.	588	164	82	60

This allows us to establish this linkage result:

 $sml - 16 \pm 1.3 - r - 24.5 \pm 1.7 - v18$

PASCANI, REPUBLIC OF MOLDOVA Maize and Sorghum Research Institute

Bg transposon transcription from both strands: two products similar to NFI and SET domain proteins may be involved in transcription and chromatin modulation

--Koterniak, VV

<u>Bg transposon sequence and probable Bg-encoded proteins</u>. Analysis of the *Bg* transposon sequence suggests that this mobile element encodes several proteins (designated as PPBg1-PPBg3), described previously (MNL 79:32-35; MNL 80, submitted). The analysis also shows certain regions of *Bg* sequence may form Z-DNA and that *Bg*-encoded proteins have Z-DNA binding properties, indicating a possible autoregulation of this transposon at the transcriptional level (MNL 80, submitted). Structure of all abovementioned proteins was deduced from the strand of *Bg* transposon containing the two longest ORFs. However, some mobile elements (e.g., the maize *MuDR* autonomous element) are transcribed from both strands (Hershberger et al., Genetics 140:1087-1098, 1995). Further analysis of the other sstrand for *Bg* indicates this mobile element may encode 2 further transcription and chromatin modulation proteins.

An 87 amino acid protein encoded by the second strand of Bg element is similar to Nuclear Factor I family of transcriptional regulators. The ORF of the second strand of Bg, from position 724 to 460 (positions for both strands according to the first strand, the sequence of GenBank accession X56877.1), encodes an 87 amino acid protein, designated hereafter as PPBg4 (Fig. 1a). It is unusually rich in tryptophan (7 residues) and has several PS dipeptide residues.

This protein shows significant similarity with the transcription regulators of the nuclear factor I (NFI) family (Fig. 1a), using CLUSTALW analysis at the European Bioinformatics Institute (http://www.ebi.ac.uk) using default parameters. In the human genome, the promoter sites of NFI and Z-DNA forming regions (ZDRs) are near transcriptional start sites (Champ et al., Nucl. Acids Res. 32:6501-6510, 2004). In the case of the *PPBg4* gene, possible ZDRs are located just downstream of the *PPBg4* gene at positions 120 and 402. In addition, a perfect canonical NFI binding site (5'-TGG(N)₆GCCAA-3'; Zorbas et al., J. Biol. Chem. 267:8478-8484) is present at position 1775 of the *Bg* sequence; i.e., at -1051 bp upstream on the opposite strand in relation to the translation start site of *PPBg4*. The SP-rich stretch S29-S35 of PPBg4 (SPSPSTS, Fig. 1b) is similar to the SPTSPSYSP motif contained in the NFI transcriptional activation domain (Wendler et al., Nucl.

a) PPBg4_1_MRQQLQWS-CAAWRQQPHL <mark>PWRRTCWFWLSPSP</mark> STS35 NFI109_MEEDVDTSPGGDYYTSPNSPTSSSRNWT_DIEGGISSPVKKTEMDKSPTN <mark>SPSP</mark> QD <mark>S</mark> PRLS_169
PPBg4_36CCSRGLA-TPRGTPQTDLHVNEVAVSWSLPEPSSTLT47 NFI170 SFTQHHRPVIAVHSGIARSPHPTSALHFPATPILPQTASTYFPHTAIRYPPHLNPQDPLKD 230
PPBg4 48 WEMELLSRRVADGDG 87 NFI 231 WSLACDPATQQPGPSWYLG 250
b) NFI - SPTSPSYS PollI Y <mark>SPTSPS</mark> PPBg4 29 - SP-SPSTS- 35

Figure 1. (a) Alignment of PPBg4 with the transcription factor NF I of *Mus musculus* (GenBank accession AAK21332.1). The T23-S35 sequence similar to the P-4 peptide (Fujii et al., 2003) is underlined. (b) Similarity of the S29-S35 region of PPBg78 with the SPTSPSYSP motif of NFI transcription factor (NFI) and with repeat YSPTSPS of the RNA polymerase II (PoIII). Identical residues are shown in a black background, similar ones are in a grey background.

PPBg5	1	MSCTGLPCNVWIQSNELSTCLLIVGPIICNNLNDILHPNLINNHLSNT	48
CAG25109.1	3427	NNMNNMNNIMNNMNNNMNNIMNIMNIMNIMN	3459
PPBg5	49	IINKFCILNTTSCIYRIVKKHPSTATYHEINNAHHGRT 86	
CAG25109.1	3460	INNNNIFNNDVSNNVDMQHKSDQTCIFNS-NNIH 3492	

Figure 2. Similarity of PPBg5 with a SET-domain protein of *Plasmodium falciparum* (GenBank accession CAG25109.1). Identical residues are shown in a black background, similar ones are in a grey background.

Acids Res. 22:2601-2603, 1994). Another indication that PPBg4 regulates transcription is an unanticipated similarity between the PPBg4 sequence TCWFWLSPSPSTS (residues T23-S35) and the P-4 peptide (TWFWPYPYPHLP) which is known to inhibit transcriptional regulation (Fujii et al., Clin. Cancer Res. 9:5423-5428, 2003).

<u>An 86 amino acid protein, PPBg5, encoded by the second</u> <u>strand of the Bg element is similar to SET-domain proteins.</u> The ATG codon on the Bg second strand, starting from position 2350, may determine the translational start site of another second strand Bg encoded protein. BLAST analysis of this 86 amino acid protein (referred to as PPBG5) revealed its similarity with SET-domain proteins (Fig. 2). Based on known SET domain involvement in histone methylation, transcription activation of repression (reviewed in Schotta et al., Genes Dev. 18:1251-1262, 2004) and transcription elongation in Saccharomyces cerevisiae (Krogan et al., Mol. Cell. Biol. 23:4207-4218, 2003), the SET domain in PPBg5 may be involved in chromatin remodeling processes connected with transcription of Bg.

> PERGAMINO, ARGENTINA EEA INTA Pergamino CORDOBA, ARGENTINA FCA-UNC BUENOS AIRES, ARGENTINA FAUBA

Prediction of maize (Zea mays L.) combining ability using molecular markers and mixed linear models theory

--Ornella, L*; Eyherabide, G; di Rienzo, J; Cantet, J; Balzarini, M

*Present address: Area Comunicaciones (FCIA-UNR), Rosario, Argentina

Predicting the performance of untested single crosses is impor-

tant in hybrid breeding programs. The cost involved in field testing makes it impossible to evaluate all new inbreds and posible combinations. The traditional fixed linear model, coupled with the ordinary least squares estimation used for most plant breeders, is too restrictive because of the independence assumption. Error structure is often more complex than the one used in standard linear models (Balzarini, In Quantitative Genetics, Genomics and Plant Breeding, 2002). In contrast, the general linear mixed model (Henderson, Applications of Linear Models in Animal Breeding, Univ. Guelph, 1984) can easily accommodate covariances among observations. The inclusion of a numerator matrix generates unbiased heritability estimations when maximum likelihood methodologies are used (ML, REML and Bayes), mainly because it takes account of the correlation between observations due to covariance between relatives and the variation due to genetic drift, which is important in finite populations under selection (Sorensen and Kennedy, Theor. Appl. Genet., 1983). The objective of this study was to analyze the effectiveness of best linear unbiased prediction (BLUP) based on molecular (microsatellite) marker data. Field data was obtained from Nestares et al. (Pesq. Agropec. Bras. 34:1399-1406, 1999): topcrosses between a collection of 48 inbred lines and four tester populations (sB73 and sMo17 from the Reid x Lancaster pattern, and HP3 and P5L2 from the local orange flint pattern) were evaluated for grain yield during the 1991/92 season at four environments. All lines but two (B73 and Mo17) were orange flint germplasm developed by INTA from twenty different sources (synthetics, composites, landraces, planned crosses and a commercial hybrid). Molecular data were obtained for twenty-six (26/48) parent lines and the four tester populations using 21 microsatellite markers evenly distributed in the genome (Morales Yokobori et al., MNL 79:36, 2005). We had some problems in molecular characterization of the testers HP3 and P5L2, but used the data, considering the robustness of blup predictors (Bernardo, Crop Sci. 36:862-866, 1996)

Relatedness (r) between parents was estimated using MER

(Moment Estimate of Relatedness) software (Wang, Genetics 160:1203-1215, 2002). $r = 2 \Theta$, where Θ , the coefficient of coancestry, is the probability that, for any autosomal locus, a random gene taken from individual x is identical by descent with a random gene taken from individual y. Three different variancecovariance structures were compared using molecular and/or pedigree data and under the following linear mixed model (Henderson, 1984):

$$\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{X}\mathbf{\hat{a}} + \mathbf{Z}_{\mathbf{I}}\mathbf{a}_{\mathbf{I}} + \mathbf{Z}_{\mathbf{d}}\mathbf{a}_{\mathbf{I}} + \mathbf{Z}_{\mathbf{d}}\mathbf{d} + \mathbf{Z}_{\mathbf{qe}}(ge) + \mathbf{e}$$

Where: **y** is the response vector (yield data of hybrids derived from the crosses between lines and testers), and X, ZI, Zd and Z_{ge} are known design matrices. β is the vector of fixed parameters and a_l, a_t, d are vectors of random effects associated with additive effects of lines, additive effects of testers and dominance effects, respectively. e is the vector of residuals. (ge) is a random effects vector associated with genotype-environment interaction. For the sake of simplicity, we assumed that C_{ge}, the covariance matrix for (ge), is an identity matrix (no correlation between interactions). Residuals were also considered independent.

Assumptions regarding relatedness between parents allows the definition of the covariance matrices A_I, A_t and D:

Model 1) Variance components, Parents unrelated. AI, At and D are identity matrices.

Model 2) Lines and testers are derived from two different ancestral populations, so: $A_i = \{r_{ij}(l)\}$, $At = \{r_{ij}(l)\}$ and $D = \{d_{ij} = 0.25\}$ $r_{ii}(l) r_{ii}(t)$ (given hybrids i and i, $r_{ii}(l)$ is the relatedness between parent lines and rij(t) is the relatedness between testers).

Model 3) Lines and testers are derived from the same ancestral population. al and at can be combined in one vector a of additive effects of parents, $A=\{a_{xy}\}, a_{xy}$ =relatedness between parents (lines and/or testers). $D=\{d_{ij}=0.25(r_{ij}^{(ll)}r_{ij}^{(tt)}+r_{ij}^{(tt)}r_{ij}^{(tt)})\}, r_{ij}^{(ll)}\} r_{ij}(xx)$ is the relatedness between parents of hybrids i and j; (xx): I stands for lines and t stands for testers.

All models were evaluated by restricted likelihood (resLL) and Akaike's information criterion (AIC) (Table 1). Cross-validation

Table 1. Variance analysis of proposed models.

	additive variance	dominance variance	GE variance	error	-2resLL	AIC
Model 1	σ ² i=3.23 σ ² t =7.00	σ^2_d =15.33	$\sigma^2_{ge=}$ 3.87	σ² _e =151.36	6348.8	6358.8
Model 2 Pedigree	σ ² 1=3.38 σ ² t=14.00	σ² _d =15.47	σ^2_{ge} =3.88	σ² _e =151.36	6348.7	6358.7
Model2 microsatellite	σ² ₁ =3.23 σ² _t =11.11	σ² _d =15.60	σ^2_{ge} =3.78	σ² _e =151.36	6348.6	6358.6
Model 3 Pedigree	σ²a=13.88	σ² _d =14.43	or₂ _{ge} =3.83	σ² _e =151.36	6349.7	6357.7
Model 3 microsatellite	σ²a=12.34	σ^{2}_{d} =14.59	σ^2_{ge} =3.82	σ² _e =151.37	6349.3	6357.3

Variance components were estimated via restricted maximum likelihood (REML) using SAS (Sas Institute) PROC MIXED. ** σ_1^2 additive variance due to parent lines, σ_1^2 additive variance due to parent testers, σ_a^2 additive variance of

testers and lines (both groups belong to the same population)

statistics were calculated to assess and compare the predictive ability of some of the proposed models. For each genetic model, the set performance of m missing crosses was predicted based on the formula (Balzarini, 2002):

$$\mathbf{y}_{\mathsf{M}} = \mathsf{C}\mathsf{V}^{-1}\mathbf{y}_{\mathsf{P}}$$

Where $yM = m \times 1$ vector of predicted yields of missing crosses, vP a p x 1 vector of average yields of predictor hybrids. C m x p matrix of genetic covariances between missing and predictor hybrids and V (p x p) phenotypic variance-covariance matrix among the predictor hybrids. We performed predictions for the (25×4) hybrids (m=4, p=100) and did not consider 4 hybrids based on a missing line. Effectiveness of predictions was measured by Spearman correlation (Table 2).

Table 2. Spearman Rank Correlation between observed (BLUP) and predicted hybrid yields (model 2).

Population	Pedigree data	Microsatellite data
26 lines	0.40**	0.36**
lines derived from synthetics	0.45*	0.44
lines derived from composites	0.52**	0.49**
Lines unrelated or highly divergent	0.08	0.02
* Indicates significance at P = 0.05		

ates signif

** Indicates significance at P =0.01.

Conclusions. Inclusion of a numerator matrix (using pedigree or molecular data) generates more precise variance estimates and higher values of heritability when compared with traditional fixed effects models. Molecular data used in these types of crosses (genetically divergent parental populations) did not provide any additional information to that provided by pedigree data.

> PISCATAWAY, NEW JERSEY Waksman Institute GAINESVILLE, FLORIDA University of Florida ROCHESTER, MICHIGAN Oakland University

Suggested guidelines for naming helitrons

--Dooner, HK; Hannah, LC; Lal, S

PREAMBLE: Helitrons are a novel class of transposable elements discovered recently by computational analysis of the complete genome sequences of C. elegans, Arabidopsis, and rice (Kapitonov and Jurka, Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 98:8714-8719, 2001). It has become apparent that, in maize, helitrons are both abundant and highly variable in sequence. There are currently no guidelines for naming these elements, yet they are highly diverse in size and sequence because they can pick up different gene fragments from the maize genome. Their diversity in sequence is presently matched by their diversity in names. For example, they have been named according to the gene where they insert (helitron sh2-7527; helitron ba1-ref) or the names of the locus and ferried gene fragments (helitrons 9002NOPQ and 9008 HI) or identified with a letter (HeIA; HeIB). In an attempt to introduce some order into this chaos, we would like to suggest a nomenclature system for maize helitrons at the onset of the maize genome sequencing project. These guidelines arose from informal discussions at the Maize Genetics Conference in Asilomar in March, 2006. We will adopt these guidelines in our future publications and hope that other researchers working with helitrons will adopt them, as well.

NOMENCLATURE: Although they differ greatly in internal sequences, maize helitrons share substantial sequence homology at their 5' and 3' ends, the latter being more highly conserved. By comparing the 3' terminal 30 nucleotides of maize helitron sequences currently in the database, it is clear that the elements group into two major clades, Hel1 and Hel2. The elements in the larger Hel1 clade share at least 70% sequence identity; those in the smaller Hel2 clade are less related, sharing around 50% identity. We anticipate that many new elements will be identified as helitrons because of conserved sequence features at their 5' and 3' ends (Kapitonov and Jurka, 2001). We propose that new elements be grouped into either Hel1 or Hel2 superfamilies based on the relationship of their 3' terminal 30 bp to the respective consensus sequences. Presently, the consensus sequences for Hel1 and Hel2 correspond to the sequences of HelA and HelB, respectively, in the bz locus of line McC (Lai et al., Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 102:9068-9073, 2005). We also propose a criterion of 50% identity as the cutoff to assign helitrons to a particular superfamily. If, by this criterion, additional helitron superfamilies are identified in the future, they should be named Hel3, Hel4, and so on.

Following the symbol designating the superfamily to which a helitron belongs would be a number provided by a clearing house for helitron nomenclature (see below) and an identifier, in parentheses, consisting of the locus or mutation where the element is found, if known, separated by a colon from the name of the maize line. For simplicity, the entire helitron symbol should be italicized. Thus, the helitron in *sh*2-7527 would be *Hel1-1(sh*2-7527), the first one discovered, and the one in the *bz* genomic region of McC would be *Hel1-3(bz:McC)*. The NOPQ element in locus 9002 of B73 would be *Hel1-x(9002:B73)*, where x would stand for a number assigned by the helitron nomenclature clearing house.

If a helitron is discovered that is virtually identical to a previously described helitron, but at a different locus, than the letter "a" is placed after the number assigned to the first helitron and a letter "b" is placed after the number of the second helitron. Again, the parenthetical identifier would include the locus and line carrying the new helitron. For example, B73 has an almost identical copy of Hel1-3(bz:McC) in chromosome 5S, at the same map location as umc1260. The Hel1 element in the bz locus would become Hel1-3a(bz:McC) and the one in 5S, Hel1-3b(umc1260:B73). If a helitron is discovered that is virtually identical to a previously described helitron at the same locus, but in a different line, then it should be given the same designation as the first one, specifying in the parenthetical identifier the names of the locus and line where found. For example, McC and W22 have a copy of Hel1-3 at the same site in the bz genomic region. The helitron in W22 would then be named Hel1-3a(bz:W22). Note that this designation does not imply absolute sequence identity of the two helitrons (which is, actually, not the case here). As with genes, it will be up to the individual investigator to assess sequence relatedness from the sequence database records. Finally, if a helitron is identified in a BAC sequence not yet associated with any locus, the number of the BAC in the GenBank record can substitute temporarily for the locus name.

Dr. Shailesh Lal at Oakland University, MI, has agreed to serve as clearing house for assigning blocks of numbers to investigators, institutions, or multi-institutional projects, such as the maize genome initiative, that have identified new helitrons.

<u>AUTONOMOUS HELITRONS</u>. An autonomous helitron has not been discovered. Following maize genetics convention, an autonomous helitron can only be defined by a functional test. Therefore, helitrons should not be designated as "autonomous" solely on the basis of sequence homology. If, based on its sequence content, e.g., an intact replicase and helicase, a helitron is considered to be potentially autonomous, it could be called a putative autonomous helitron, yet given a symbol based on the general nomenclature guidelines. It is suggested that, once confirmed, an autonomous helitron be designated *aHel*, followed by an identifier as described above.

ROSARIO, ARGENTINA FCIA-UNR CORDOBA, ARGENTINA FCA-UNC

A machine learning approach for heterotic performance prediction of maize (Zea mays L.) based on molecular marker data

--Ornella, L; Balzarini, M; Tapia, E

A number of statistical methods based on molecular data are currently available for assigning new inbreds to heterotic groups in maize (*Zea mays* L.) with variable results (Reif et al., Crop Sci. 45:1-7, 2005; dos Santos Diaz et al., Genet. Mol. Res. 3:356-368, 2004). We conjecture that the main flaw of traditional statistical models is that they do not capture the non-linear relation between parental data and progeny performance (Tollenar et al., Crop Sci. 44:2086-2094, 2004); alternatively, experimental results show that such non-linearity can be easily captured by supervised machine learning models, i.e., by multiclassifiers (Witten and Eibe, Data Mining: Practical machine learning tools with Java implementations, Morgan Kaufmann, San Francisco, 2000).

The field data analyzed in this study was taken from Nestares et al. (Pesq. Agropec. Bras. 34:1399-1406, 1999). Briefly, our investigation involved 26 inbred lines (all lines but one, B73, were orange flint germplasm developed by INTA from twelve different sources: synthetics, composites, landraces, etc) from a total of 48 evaluated for their combining ability with four testers: sB73 & sMo17 from the Reid x Lancaster pattern and HP3 & P5L2 from the local orange flint pattern. The 48 lines were grouped according to their combining ability with the tester populations into 4 heterotic groups (H1-H4) using the SAS-Fastclus procedure (Nestares et al., 1999). The 26 lines were characterized using 21 SSR (simple sequence repeats) evenly distributed in the genome (Morales Yo-kobori et al., MNL 79:36, 2005).

A dataset comprising 42 attributes corresponding to the 21 SSR (2 alleles of each locus per line) were generated. This dataset contains 26 instances (26 lines) and 4 classes defined by the four heterotic groups (H1 = 4 instances, H2 = 8 instances, H3 = 6 instances and H4 = 8 instances). Finally, we considered six standard multiclassifiers provided by the Java WEKA library (Witten and Eibe, 2000): Naïve Bayes, Support Vector Machines with Radial Basis function kernel-one against all (SVM-RBF), Decision Tree (J48 and random forest), AdaBoost Decision Stumps and Multilayer Perceptron. Classifiers' performances were evaluated by 3-, 5- and 10-fold Cross Validation (3-CV, 5-CV and 10-CV) (we run all classifiers with WEKA's default values). Results are presented in Table 1.

Table 1. 3	3-, 5- and	10-fold CV	error o	on the	heterosis	dataset	using	multiclass	classifiers.
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Multiclassifier	3 CV error	5 CV error	10 CV error
Naive Bayes	0.654	0.692	0.769
SVM-RBF	0.654	0.769	0.769
Decision Tree (J48)	0.808	0.769	0.769
Decision Tree (random forest)	0.731	0.846	0.769
Adaboost-Decision Stump	0.731	0.610	0.770
Multilayer Perceptron	0.770	0.770	0.692
Error Expected by Chance	0.774	0.774	0.774

Considering that our classification results are preliminary, they suggest the usefulness of a molecular based, machine learning approach for solving general heterotic group assignation problems; we must consider the effect of population structure (parents highly divergent) which affects linkage disequilibrium between DNA markers and genes involved in the expression of target traits (Charcosset and Essioux, Theor, Appl. Genet, 89:336-343, 1994). Alternatively, and based on previous work, we hypothesize that further application of feature selection methods, i.e., the selection of highly discriminant molecular markers, might improve heterotic group assignation. This hypothesis is supported in the observed similarity between classification problems involving microsatellite marker and those involving microarray data. In both cases, missing and noisy features might be present in scarce data samples. This type of classification noise can be properly limited by feature selection methods so that resulting data sets can be safely managed by binary based, Coding Theory inspired multiclassifiers (Ornella et al., VIII Argentine Symposium on Artificial Intelligence, Mendoza, Argentina, 2006).

> SAINT PAUL, MINNESOTA University of Minnesota MANHATTAN, KANSAS Kansas State University

Marker-assisted selection without QTL mapping: prospects for genome-wide selection for quantitative traits in maize

--Bernardo, R; Yu, J

The availability of cheap and abundant molecular markers in maize has allowed breeders to ask "How can molecular markers best be used to achieve breeding progress?" without conditioning this guestion on how breeding has traditionally been done. Exploiting molecular markers in breeding has involved finding a subset of markers associated with one or more traits, i.e., QTL mapping. In contrast, genome-wide selection refers to marker-based selection without first identifying a subset of markers with significant effects. Our objectives were to assess, in simulation studies, the response due to genome-wide selection compared with marker-assisted recurrent selection (MARS), and to determine the extent to which phenotyping can be minimized and genotyping maximized in genome-wide selection. We simulated genome-wide selection that comprised evaluating doubled haploids for testcross performance in cycle 0, followed by two cycles of selection based on markers. Individuals were genotyped for a set of 128, 256, 512, or 768 markers, and breeding values associated with each of the markers were predicted and were all used in genome-wide selection. We found that across different numbers of QTL (20, 40, and 100) and

levels of heritability, the response to genome-wide selection was 18 to 43% larger than the response to MARS. Responses to selection were maintained when the number of doubled haploids phenotyped and genotyped in cycle 0 was reduced and the number of plants genotyped in cycles 1 and 2 was increased. Such schemes that minimize phenotyping and maximize genotyping would be feasible only if the cost per marker data point is reduced to about 2 cents. The convenient but incorrect assumption of equal marker variances led to only a minimal loss in the response to genomewide selection. We conclude that genome-wide selection, as a brute-force and black-box procedure that exploits cheap and abundant molecular markers, is superior to MARS in maize.

> SHALIMAR, SRINIGAR, INDIA Sher-e-Kashmir University of Agricultural Sciences and Technology of Kashmir

Studies on genetic variability, correlation and path analysis in maize (Zea mays L.)

--Sofi, PA; Rather, AG

A number of studies in maize have been conducted to elucidate the nature of the association between yield and its components which identified traits like ear length, ear diameter, kernels/row, ears/plant, 100-seed weight and rows/ear as potential selection criteria in breeding programmes aiming at higher yield (Debnath and Khan, Pakistan J. Sci. 2nd Res. 34:391-394, 1991; Agrama, Plant Breed. 115:343-346, 1996; Mohan et al., Natl. J. Plant Improv. 4:75-76, 2002; Tollenaar et al., Crop Sci. 44:2086-2094, 2004). The present study was undertaken to elucidate such character association in local and CIMMYT inbred line crosses of maize in the temperate valley of Kashmir. The present study was carried out in 2004-05. The materials were generated by crossing 15 diverse white maize inbred lines (4 local and 11 exotic) to three phenotypically diverse testers (W_3 , W_5 and $W_3 \times W_5$) in a line x tester design, at trhe winter maize nursery in Amberpet, Hyderabad (India). The parental lines and test crosses were evaluated at two diverse locations of the Kashmir valley, namely Larnoo and Wadura, representing distinct climatic zones. Each genotype was replicated thrice at each location in randomised block design. Each entry was grown in two rows of 2 m length with row to row and plant to plant spacing maintained at 60 and 25 cm, respectively. The recommended practices were followed to ensure a good crop. Data were recorded from 10 randomly selected competitive plants from each replication for 11 quantitative traits, and the data were statistically analysed for correlation coefficients and path analysis as per the methods of Al-Jibouri et al. (Agron. J. 50:633-637, 1958) and Dewey and Lu (Agron. J. 51:515-518, 1959). There was substantial variability for all traits. Grain vield. ear length, ear height, 100-seed weight and ear diameter had high GCV estimates, with high heritability. The genetic advance was higher for plant height, ear length, grain/row and grain yield. The genotypic correlation coefficient revealed that ear diameter, 100seed weight, ear length, kernel rows/ear and kernels/row had the highest significant correlation with grain yield. The path analysis revealed that the highest direct effect on grain yield was exhibited by 100-seed weight, followed by kernels/row, kernel rows/ear, ear

length and ear diameter. Most of the traits exerted their positive indirect effects through 100-seed weight, kernel rows/ear and kernels/row.

Genotypic relationships among traits affecting grain yield elucidate true association as they exclude environmental influences. In the present study, the highest significant positive correlation with grain yield was shown by ear diameter, followed by 100-seed weight. Days to 50% silking and days to pollen shed had significant negative correlation with grain yield. Similar results have been reported in maize by Mohan et al. (2002), Vasic et al. (Acta Agron. Flung. 49:337-342, 2001), Mohammadia et al. (Crop Sci. 43:1690-1697, 2004), Neto and Miranda (Sci. Agric. 58:99016-9018, 2001).

Using the path coefficient analysis revealed positive direct effects on grain yield, with the highest direct effect exhibited by 100-seed weight followed by kernels/row, kernel rows/ear, ear length and ear diameter. Days to pollen shed, days to 50 percent silking and ear height showed negative direct effects on grain yield even though ear height had a positive correlation with grain yield. These traits also shared positive indirect effects on grain yield through other yield traits such as ear length and ear diameter. Ear diameter had the highest indirect effect on grain yield through kernels/row (0.362), followed by ear height (0.316) through rows/ear. In fact, the bulk of the indirect effects on grain yield was exerted by the traits studied through these two traits. Similar results in maize have been reported by Wang et al. (Field Crops Res. 61:211-222, 1998), Vasic et al. (2001), Broccoli and Burak (MNL 74:43-44, 2000), Abdmishani et al. (Maize Genet. Conf. Abst. 46:1-2, 2004) and Mohammadia et al. (2003). Thus, in light of the results obtained in the present study, it can be suggested that the traits such as kernels/row, 100-seed weight, kernel rows/ear, ear length and ear diameter should be used as target traits for improvement of grain yield in maize. Thus, it can be emphasized that the ideal plant type should have higher values of the traits described above, whereas the traits showing negative effects on grain yield should be selected for lower values. In fact, Vasic et al. (2001) used various indices of selection for improvement of grain yield, and were able to show that even with a simple selection for improvement of grain yield.

The conventional path analysis, or the one carried out in the present study, suffers from the limitation of non-independence of predictor variables, often leading to high multicollinearity. In fact, Samonte et al. (Crop Sci. 38:1130-1136, 1998) proposed a sequential path analysis which is based on minimising multicolinearity due to complex interaction of yield component traits, and which delineates the importance of predictor variables into various orders based on their direct effects. Thus multiple regression based path analysis can be improved by stepwise regression analysis by sequentially removing the non-significant predictor variables from analysis. Besides, more and more traits can be included in the path analysis in order to reduce the residual effects.

Triple test cross analysis for detection of epistasis for ear characteristics in maize (Zea mays L.)

--Sofi, PA; Rather, AG; Venkatesh, S*

*Winter Maize Nursery (ICAR), Amberpet, Hyderbad, India

Additive genetic variance is typically considered the most im-

portant process in the inheritance of quantitative traits, followed by dominance, whereas epistasis is of minor significance (Hallauer and Miranda, Quantitative Genetics in Maize Breeding, Iowa State Press, Ames, IA, 1988). However, there is growing evidence that epistasis is an important component of genetic variance. In fact Eta-Ndu and Openshaw (Crop Sci. 39:346-352, 1999) opined that failure to include epistasis in the estimation of genetic components causes bias in such estimates of expected genetic gain under selection. The present investigation was undertaken to characterise the genetic architecture of ear characters in maize by using triple test cross analysis.

The triple test cross procedure is an efficient genetic model and is applicable to segregating and non-segregating populations arising from F2, backcross or homozygous lines. Besides, it is independent of gene frequency, linkage relationship and degree of inbreeding. In addition to the detection of epistasis, it provides unambiguous estimates of additive and dominance components in the absence of epistasis. The material for the present study was generated by crossing 15 white inbred lines (3 local and 11 exotic) of maize viz., WI9, W6, W7, GLET7, GLET27, CML77, CML79, CML111, CML138, CML173, CML213, CML214, CML240, CML244 and CML463 with three testers W3, W5 and W3 x W5. The test crosses were generated in 2004 at the winter maize nursery at Amberpet (Hyderabad). The parental lines, testers and crosses were evaluated at two diverse locations in the Kashmir valley, Larnoo and Wadura, in RBD with three replications at each location. Data was recorded for six ear characters (ear height, ear length, ear diameter, ears/plot, kernel rows/ear, seed weight/ear) from 10 competitive plants from each replication and analysed as per the procedure of Ketata et al. (Crop Sci. 16:1-4, 1973) which is based on the original model proposed by Kearsey and Jinks (Theor. Hered. 23:403-409, 1968).

The epistatic components were tested against their environmental interactions which in turn were tested for significance against their block x environment interactions. The degree and the direction of dominance were determined.

The analysis of variance due to genotypes, lines, testers, crosses, and parents v/s crosses indicates that substantial variability exists in the parental lines for ear traits, and that there were significant differences between parents and crosses. The environmental component was significant for all traits except ears/plot whereas, G x E interaction was significant for all traits except ear diameter, ears/plot and seed weight/ear indicating that environment plays an important role in the expression of these traits as is expected for quantitative traits. Similar results have been reported in maize for ear traits by Satyanarayan (Madras J. Agric. 30:204-208, 1999) and Dodiya and Joshi (Crop Res. 26:114-118, 2003)

Analysis results (Table 1) revealed significant epistasis for all traits except ears/plot, further establishing the fact that epistasis cannot be excluded in the estimation of genetic parameters.

The portioning of epistasis and its fixable [I] and non-fixable [j + I] components revealed the significance of both components for all traits except ear length, ears/plot and seed weight/ear for which additive interaction was non-significant and ears/plot for which (j + I) type was non-significant. Epistasis, as well as its components, interacted significantly with environment for most of the traits. The comparative analysis revealed that the non-fixable [j + I] component of epistasis was greater than its corresponding fixable com-

Table 1. Analysis of variance for detection of epistasis for and ear characteristics in maize.

Source of variation	d.f.	Ear height (cm)	Ear length (cm)	Ear diameter (cm)	Ears/plot	Kernel rows/ear	Seed weight/ear (g)
Epistasis (L1i + L2i-2L3i)	15	451.36**	55.68**	2.07	146.48	4.53**	95.59**
[i] type epistasis	1	493.455**	24.52	2.58*	10.21	5.53**	0.66
[j +l] type epistasis	14	448.367**	57.90**	2.03*	152.13	4.45**	102.38**
Epistasis x blocks	30	56.28	7.04	0.16	44.42	1.15	37.59
[I] type x blocks	2	38.93	3.97	0.91	13.73	0.03	52.85
[j + l} type x blocks	28	57.52	7.25	0.17	42.13	1.23	36.50
Epistasis x environments	15	127.42**	18.09**	0.93**	86.12**	1.13**	29.14**
[i] type x environments	1	103.18*	18.64**	1.12**	13.31	2.10	4.35
[i + I] type x environments	14	129.13**	18.05**	0.91**	91.32**	1.42**	30.91**
[i] type x blocks x environments	2	13.96	3.19	0.06	6.91	3.71	1.34
[j + l) type x blocks x environments	28	46.80	7.25	0.17	15.14	0.12	10.48
Epistasis x blocks x environments	30	44.61	6.98	0.16	14.37	0.24	9.87

ponent for all traits except ear height, ear diameter and kernel rows/ear, where the reverse was the case. The preponderance of non-additive epistasis indicates that hybrid breeding can be employed to exploit this component. However, both components, i.e., [I] and [i + I], can be exploited in intra- as well as inter-population improvement. Similar results in maize have been reported by Wolf and Hallauer (Crop Sci. 37:763-770, 1997) and Leon et al. (Crop Sci. 45:1370-1378, 2005)

The presence of epistasis for almost all ear characters indicates that the estimates of components of variation would be biased to an unknown extent if they are estimated by genetic models assuming absence of epistasis. Regardless of the type of epistasis, the bias tends to be greater in the additive component than the dominance component (Viana, Genet. Mol. Biol. 28:67-74, 2005), which causes over-estimation of narrow sense heritability. Consequently the predicted genetic gain would have an additional bias proportional to that of heritability. It would thus be logical to search for epistasis rather than attributing it to leftover variance after additive genetic variance and dominance are accounted for.

Combining ability analysis for maize (Zea mays L.) lines under the high altitude temperate conditions of Kashmir

--Rather, AG; Najeeb, S; Sheikh, FA*; Shikari, AB*; Dar, ZA

*Rice Research and Regional Station, Khudwani, India

Maize, though widely considered a warm weather crop, is currently grown between 55° north and south latitudes (Shaw, In Corn and Corn Improvement, ASA, Madison, WI, 1988). However, due to a limited frost-free season, earliness assumes a considerable significance in tailoring maize cultivars suitable in high altitude areas.

Ten inbred lines, namely PMI-1, PMI-26, PMI-47, PMI-53, PMI-83, PMI-135, PMI-198, PMI-199, PMI-224 and PMI-401 (designated as P1 to P10), were evaluated in a half diallel mating design to generate 45 F1 crosses. The parents and their crosses were evaluated at two locations: the High Altitude Maize Research Sub Station, Pahalgam (2222m asl;341/2ºN,741/2ºE) and the Regional Research Station of Sher-e-Kashmir University of Agricultural Sciences and Technology in Khudwani (1542m asl;341/2°N,741/2°E), Kashmir, India during Kharif 2005. The experimental material was arranged in a randomized complete block design with three replications per location. Lines and crosses were randomized separately in each experiment. Each entry was represented by two rows of 4m length with a crop geometry of 60 x 20cm and a plant density of 83333 plants per hectare. The data were recorded and analyzed for six quantitative traits (Table 1). Grain yield was calculated using fresh ear weight at harvest, assuming 80% shelling and adjusted to 15% moisture content. Ear height was recorded for the primary ear. Combining ability analysis was performed using Griffing's (Aust. J. Biol. Sci. 9:463-493, 1956) method 2 model II. Pooled analysis over environments was carried out following Singh (Indian J. Genet. 33:469-481, 1973; Indian J. Genet. 39:383-386, 1979)

Pooled analysis of variance for combining ability (Table 1) revealed the presence of highly significance of mean squares due to GCA and SCA for all the characters studied indicating thereby the differences among parental lines for GCA and among crosses for SCA effects. The diversity of test locations was revealed by their highly significant mean squares. Both GCA and SCA effects showed significant interaction with location for all traits. This suggested the differential response of lines and crosses for GCA and SCA effects, respectively, implying thereby that different parental lines are needed to synthesize hybrids for different ecological situations. The SCA effects for grain yield, 50% silking, plant height and ear placement were relatively stable over locations as indicated by lower estimates of SCA x location interaction, whereas the reverse was the case for days to pollen shed and moisture content. The ratio of estimated GCA to SCA variances indicated the preponderance of the latter component in controlling the expression of all traits.

Source of variation	Df	Grain yield per plot (Kg)	Days to 50% pollen shedding	Days to 50% silking	Moisture content (%)	Plant height (cm)	Ear placement (cm)
	Mean se	quares					
Locations	1	0.76**	0.13**	0.13**	0.22**	0.49**	0.44**
GCA	9	0.87**	0.75**	0.44**	0.32**	0.70**	0.89**
SCA	45	0.86**	0.18**	0.19**	0.24*	0.45**	0.58**
GCA x Locations	9	0.66**	0.28**	0.87**	0.30**	0.46**	0.38**
SCA x Locationst	45	0.13	0.30**	0.30**	0.45**	0.14	0.11
Pooled error	108	0.18	0.05	0.04	0.08	0.13	0.14
σ²s/ σ²g		0.021	0.353	0.127	0.065	0.080	0.075

Table 1. Pooled analysis of variances for different traits in a diallel cross of maize

*significant at 5% & !% level respectively

GCA = general combining ability

SCA = specific combining ability

The perusal of GCA effects (data not shown) reveals that P₁₀ was an ideal general combiner for all characters followed by P₁, whereas P9 was a good general combiner for all traits except pollen shed. P4, though a good combiner for grain yield, showed positive significant GCA effects for moisture content and plant height. P8 x P9 is the most desirable cross combination for SCA effects, closely followed by P6 x P10 and P8 x P10. An important inference that can be drawn from these results is that cross combinations involving P₁₀ as one of the parents recorded desirable SCA effects for all or most of the traits studied. P10 thus could serve as a potential donor for all these desirable attributes, and therefore has a special value in the maize improvement programme of the high altitude temperate ecology of Kashmir.

Genetic divergence among local maize (Zea mays L.) cultivars of the Kashmir valley

--Nehvi, FA; Makhdoomi, MI; Yousuf, V; Bahar , FA; Naseer, S; Dar, ZA

Jammu and Kashmir state is a source of biological heritage and 90% of the maize area in the state is under the cultivation of local cultivars with distinct morphological differences for plant type, grain shape and grain colour. These cultivars have adoptability on account of early maturity and resistance to biotic and abiotic stresses. The present investigation was undertaken to study the extent of variability and identify divergent lines for their future use in a breeding programme.

The experimental material was comprised of 50 local maize cultivars collected from maize growing areas of the Kashmir valley, and 4 high yielding maize composites (C8, C15, C6) and super-I were used as controls. 50 cob samples were collected from the villages of Khag, Yusmarg, Neilnag, Dalwash, Kralpathri (District of Budgam): Shopian, Balpora, Malanpora, Tral, Turkwangwam (District of Pulwama); Uri, Gurez, Bandipora, Pattan, Wagoora, Tangmarg, Farozpura (District of Baramula); Qazigund, Dooru, Verinag, Kulgam, Pombai, Pahalgam, Mattan, Kokernag (District of Anantnag); and Kangan Wangat, Satrain, Babanagri, Sonmarg, Dara (District of Srinagar). 25 sampled villages show preference for different grain colours such as orange yellow, yellow, creamish, white and purple. Progeny rows from each sampled cob were planted at K D Research Station. Each plot was 2 rows of 5m length. All recommended agronomic practices were followed to raise an ideal crop. Data on 5 competitive plants from each plot was recorded for maturity, morphological and yield related traits, e.g., days to 50% silking, days to 50% anthesis, days to husk browning, ear height (cm), ear length (cm) and grain yield (kg/ha). Data was subjected to analysis of variance, and coefficient of variability, heritability and genetic advance was estimated as per the methods of Johnson et al. (Agron. J. 47:314-318, 1955). Divergence analysis was computed following Mahalanobis (Proc. Natl. Inst. Sci. India 2:49-55, 1936). The individual contribution of characters towards the D² for each cultivar was determined. Genotypes were grouped into clusters following Tocher's method as described by Rao (Sankhya 19:201-408, 1958)

Genotype variance was highly significant for all characters (Table 1). Days to 50% silking ranged from 71 days (C15) to 87 days (Pul-Tral 26) with a population mean of 78 days, whereas days to 50% anthesis ranged from 69 days (Bar-Bandipora 33) to 85 (Sgr-Sonamarg 16). Pul-Malangpora 30 cultivar recorded the minimum days for husk browning (131 days), whereas the maximum number of days was recorded by Bar-Bandipora 33 (148 days). Population mean for this trait was recorded as 140 days. Most of the local cultivars were observed to be early compared to high yielding composites. Controls recorded a range of 136-143 days for husk browning. Irrespective of the origin, plant height ranged from 118.50 cm (Sgr-Wangat 12) to 218.50 cm (Bud-Khag 3), with a population mean of 185.91 cm. A similar trend of cob samples collected from the districts of Srinagar and Budgam was recorded for minimum and maximum ear height (99.50 cm). The mean ear height was 81.04 cm. Ear length, which is an important yield attributing trait, was minimum in the case of local cultivars (7.93 cm) and maximum in the controls (20.02 cm). A wide range of variability was recorded for yield (kg/ha). The highest yielder (C₆) recorded a yield of 5828.50 kg/ha, whereas a local cultivar for district Pulwama (Pul-Turkwangan 29) recorded the lowest yield (1330.50). Average population yield was recorded as 2052.11 kg/ha. It should be possible to isolate superior genotypes during the selection process (Tables 1-3).

Compo- nents of variance	Days to 50% silking	Days to 50% anthesis	Days to husk browning	Plant height (cm)	Ear height (cm)	Ear length (cm)	Yield (kg/ha)
σ²p	26.30	26.18	27.94	189.74	127.71	3.12	271878.74
σ²g	21.74	13.26	21.93	187.08	125.91	3.12	271855.22
PCV	6.52	6.62	3.78	7.41	13.94		12.93
GCV	5.92	4.72	3.35	7.35	13.84	10.09	12.93
h²	0.82	0.51	0.78	0.98	0.98	0.99	0.99
Genetic Advance	8.73	5.34	8.54	27.97	22.95	3.63	1074.03
Genetic Advance as % of mean	11.09	6.91	6.11	15.04	28.31	20.77	26.63
Mean	79.00	77.00	185.91	140.00	81.04	12.98	2032.11
Range	71.00 to 87.00	71 to 85	118.90 to 218.50	131 to 148	48.50 to 99.50	7.93 to 20.02	1330.50 to 5428.50

Table 1. Components of variance for maturity, morphological and yield related traits in local maize cultivars.

Table 2. Classification of local maize cultivars into different cluster	Table 2.	Classification of	of local maiz	e cultivars into	o different clusters
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Cluster	Cultivars included
Cluster 1	35, 39, 3, 23, 22, 4, 5, 45, 51 C ₈ , 18, 43, 34, 42, 24, 8, 15, 36, 44
Cluster 2	9, 41, 1, 10, 47, 14, 50, 16, 52, 27, 17, 26
Cluster 3	19, 32, 29, 31, 30, 48, 11, 12, 20, 7, 13, 38, 40, 21, 33
Cluster 4	2, 49, 46, 6, 37
Cluster 5	28
Cluster 6	53
Cluster 7	25
Cluster 8	54 Super-1

Bd-Khag 1, Bd-Khag 2, Bd-Khag 3, Bd-Yusmarg 4, Bd-Neilnag 5, Bd-Yusmarg 6, Bd-Dalwash 7, Bd-Dalwash 8, Bd-Kral Pathsia 9, Bd-Kral Pathsia 10, Sgr-Khag 11, Sgr-Wangat-12, Sgr-Satrain 13, Sgr-Babanagri 14, Sgr-Dara 15, Sgr-Sonamarg 16, Sgr-Sonamarg 17, Sgr-Gund 18, Sgr-Gund 19, Sgr-Gulbagh 20, Pul-Shopian-21, Pul-Shopian-22, Pul-Balpora 23, Pul-Malangpora 24, Pul-Tral 25, Pul-Tral 26, Pul-Tral 27, Pul-Turkwangam 28, Pul-Turkwangam 29, Pul-Malangpora 30, Bar-Uri 31, Bar-Gurez 32, Bar-Bandipora 33, Bar-Bandipora 34, Bar-Pattan 35, Bar-Wagoora 36, Bar-Wagoora 37, Bar-Tangmarg 38, Bar-Fareozpur 39, Bar-Uri 40, Ant-Qazigund 41, Ant-Dooru 42, Ant-Verinag 43, Ant-Verinag 44, Ant-Kulgam 45, Ant-Pumbai 46, Ant-Pahalgam 47, Ant-Pahalgam 48, Ant-Mattan-49, Ant-Kokernag 50

Table 3. Cluster means for different traits in local maize cultivars adapted to different temperate conditions of Kashmir.

Cluster	Number	Yield	Days	Days	Days	Plant	Ear	Ear
no.	of	(kg/ha)	to husk	to 50%	to 50%	height	height	length
	cultivars		brown-	silking	anthe-	(cm)	(cm)	(cm)
	in cluster		ing		sis			
1	18	3983.72	181.44	86.81	83.61	152.64	83.14	18.10
2	12	4665.25	173.29	86.88	85.25	157.83	87.63	19.55
3	15	4581.60	173.50	86.33	83.57	151.73	85.00	15.63
4	5	3585.60	167.30	89.30	87.00	155.30	88.50	15.58
5	1	4923.50	167.00	91.50	82.00	157.50	124.00	17.84
6	1	5763.00	189.00	95.50	93.00	156.50	123.00	16.65
7	1	3104.50	194.50	82.50	81.50	162.00	99.00	19.53
8	1	5851.00	163.50	81.50	81.50	158.60	94.50	18.27

SIMNIC-CRAIOVA, ROMANIA University of Craiova

Studies concerning the heredity of some characteristics of the corncob

--Bonea, D; Urechean, V

The great productivity of corn relies heavily on heterosis. In this paper we explore heterosis with the potential to contribute to the creation of valuable new corn hybrids. We performed direct diallel hybridization of five corn inbred lines and analyzed certain characteristics of the corncob in the simple hybrids. We evaluated heterosis using capacity relation (CR) calculated using the formula of M. Jost (1976):

CR=<u>F1-Max.P</u> where Max P is maximum parental value. <u>1(</u>P2-P1) 2

We found (Table) strong heterosis for all the characteristics of the corncob most notably the weight of the corncob for Lc406x Lc407 (222g) and Lc402xLc406 (215.7g) hybrids; the length of the corncob for Lc402xLc 406 (8.35 cm) and Lc402xLc407 (6.5 cm) hybrids; and the number of grains/corncob for Lc402xLc406 (524) and Lc406xW153R (444.5). Our data shows that there is no heterosis effect in the number of grains per corncob for Lc403xLc407 (-77.5) and Lc407xW153R (-7.0) hybrids.

Table 1. The difference between F1 and parent's average and capacity relation of some simple corn hybrids.

No.	Hybrid	d Corncob weight (g)		Corncob (cr	0	Number of grains per corncob	
		F1- x	CR	F1- x	CR	F1- x	CR
1	Lc403xLc402	26.5	+0.74	5.05	-0.83	205	-0.68
2	Lc406xLc402	193	+26.5 7	5.75	-22.0	428	+1.56
3	Lc407xLc402	195	-194	5.7	-3.38	166.5	+29.2
4	W153RxLc402	138	-5.43	3.8	-1.11	147.5	+1.47
5	Lc402xLc403	86	-0.15	3.25	+0.18	167	+0.36
6	Lc406xLc403	137.5	+0.28	2.3	-0.08	252	-0.13
7	Lc407xLc403	68.8	-0.31	3.55	+1.46	48.5	-0.62
8	W153RxLc403	34.2	-0.46	1.06	+0.10	137.5	-0.24
9	Lc402xLc406	215.7	+27.8	8.35	+32.4	524	-2.43
10	Lc403xLc406	92.5	+0.14	3.6	-0.44	202	+0.30
11	Lc407xLc406	155.3	-18.4	2.05	-0.95	286.5	-0.77
12	W153RxLc406	135.4	-2.07	2.55	-0.64	391.5	-2.64
13	Lc402xLc407	207	+206	6.5	+4.0	283.5	-50.5
14	Lc403xLc407	74.5	+0.25	0.55	+0.62	-77.5	+1.60
15	Lc406xLc407	222	+26.7 5	4.95	+3.71	384.5	+1.38
16	W153RxLc407	158	-3.38	3.5	-6.0	231	+3.27
17	Lc402xW153R	187.8	+4.07	5.8	+2.22	324.5	-4.45
18	Lc403xW153R	64.5	-0.02	4.25	-3.47	98.5	+0.45
19	Lc406xW153R	147	+2.34	5.95	+2.83	444.5	+3.13
20	Lc407xW153R	129.5	+2.59	2.50	+4.0	-7.0	-1.12

In summary, we find that for corncob weight, eleven hybrids are positive for heterosis and nine are negative; for corncob length, ten hybrids are positive and ten are negative; for the number of grains per corncob, ten hybrids are positive and ten are negative. Positive hybrids are considered to be valuable and will be promoted through improvement programs.

TURDA, ROMANIA Agricultural Research Station

Breeding implication of intra- and interheterotic group crosses as a source of new inbred lines in maize

--Has, V; Has, I

Advanced cycle pedigree breeding is the most common method for developing maize inbreds. Many of the current elite maize inbreds are derived from only a few progenitor inbreds; this breeding process systematically leads to a narrow maize germplasm within heterotic groups. Maize breeders have sometimes used commercial hybrids as a source of new inbreds. The effects of disrupting heterotic patterns in maize, by selfing from commercial hybrids, are not well understood.

The objective of this study was to compare intra- and interheterotic group crosses as sources of new inbred lines. We evaluated 425 inbred lines, created at the Agricultural Research Station in Turda, Romania. The inbred lines have been derived from different sources of germplasm using conventional breeding techniques of pedigree selection and early-generation yield testing. We used the following sources of germplasm for inbred line development: local varieties 3%, composites 14%, improved elite inbred lines 47% and commercial hybrids 36%.

Twelve of these inbred lines were selected by the year when they were finalized (Table 1). The inbred lines have been crossed with two testers--inbred lines belonging to a flint heterotic pattern. The testcrosses were evaluated in randomised complete block design in two locations for 2 years. Analysis of variance was performed for grain yield, stalk and root lodging, kernel dry matter and selection index (Table 2).

Table 1	Turda inbred	lines listed	by four	decades of	of important	use
	Tulua moreu	11163 113160	by ioui	00000000	n important	u30.

Decade of	Year	Source of germplasm*	Origin of initial material						
important use	finalized	• .	-						
Maternal inbreds (m)									
	1964	LCS	Commercial hybrid KS3						
1961 – 1970	1966	RYD	Local variety Ungheni 247						
	1965	RYD	Commercial variety VIR42						
	1972	RYD x ?	(W153R x W37A) x Mihalt256						
1971 – 1980	1971	RYD x ?	(W153R x W37A) x Mihalt 1745						
	1971	RYD	Commercial hybrid KC3VI						
	1989	WF9 Group x RYD	Commercial hybrid						
1981 – 1990	1987	LSC	W182B x T248-I						
	1988	? x LCS	S54 x MO17						
	1995	RYD	Commercial hybrid						
1991 – 2000	1994	(LSC x RYD) x ID	(T248 x T291) x TB329						
Ī	1996	RYD	TD261 ² x T291						
		Paternal inbreds (n)							
-		ELF	Pop de Lostrano						
-		ELF	PTF x Pop Italia						
	important use 1961 – 1970 1971 – 1980 1981 – 1990	important use finalized 1961 – 1970 1966 1961 – 1970 1965 1971 – 1980 1971 1971 – 1980 1989 1981 – 1990 1987 1988 1995 1991 – 2000 1994	important use finalized Maternal inbreds (m) 1961 – 1970 1966 RYD 1965 RYD 1971 – 1980 1972 RYD x ? 1971 – RYD x ? 1971 RYD x ? 1981 – 1990 1989 WF9 Group x RYD 1981 – 2000 1995 RYD 1991 – 2000 1994 (LSC x RYD) x ID 1996 RYD - Paternal inbreds (n) - ELF						

RYD - Reid Yellow Dent; LSC - Lancaster Sure Crop ID - lodent; ELF - European Late Flint

Table 2. Additive genetic effects (gm) for m=12 inbred lines, n=3; a factorial crossing sys	tem m
x n (12 x 3) x 2 locations x 2 years.	

Trait Inbred lines (m)*	nes (m)* Grain yield Dry matter of not stalk		Percent of plants not stalk lodging at harvest	Selection index
T248 ³	- 0.61	- 0.07	6.77	6.09
T2911	2.17	- 0.34	4.62	6.45
T243 ³	- 1.84	- 0.84	- 6.29	- 8.97
-created in '1960	- 0.28	- 1.25	5.10	3.57
T169a ²	- 11.55	2.00	4.88	- 4.67
T158 ³	1.33	0.17	- 9.14	- 7.64
T160 ³	- 12.98	0.59	2.13	- 10.26
-created in '1970	- 23.20	2.76	- 2.13	- 22.57
TC2433	8.26	- 1.04	- 2.06	5.16
TB366 ²	- 3.07	1.09	- 4.78	- 6.76
TC316 ²	- 0.87	- 2.10	0.56	- 2.41
-created in '1980	4.32	- 2.05	- 6.28	- 4.01
TC344 ³	7.52	- 0.58	- 0.92	6.02
TC335 ²	4.97	0.79	2.80	8.56
TE203 ²	6.67	0.36	1.45	8.48
-created in '1990	19.16	0.57	3.33	23.06
DL 5%	3.14	0.40	3.47	-

*Inbred lines were derived from: 1open-pollinated varieties; 2improved elite inbred lines; 3commercial hybrids.

The new elite inbred lines were crossed with more testers (7-8 inbred lines per year) from different heterotic patterns. They were evaluated (Table 3) by their GCA for the main characters.

The testcross means showed good results for grain yield: TC385A, TA428, TE203, TD268, TC365, TC344, TD345; stalk and root lodging resistance: TD273, TD268, TC335, TC365, TC344; kernel dry matter: TD273, TC335, TE210, TC344, TD345, TD348;

Table 3. General combining ability (GCA)	specific to 11 new Turda inbred lines in maize.
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Inbred line	Year of test-	No. crosse s	Grain yie = 15.5%)		Percent plants stalk I at harve	not odged	Dry matt grain at h		Selection index %*
	ing	3	q/ha	%*	%	%*	%	%*	
				3K of elite					
TC385 A	1999	41	101.3	98	92.0	99	72.0	103	100
	2001 2002	27 35	114.6 113.1	98 109	91.2 91.6	99 95	81.3 80.2	99 99	95 102
GCA/ TC385A		30	108.8	99	91.0 91.9	90 98	76.2	101	99
TA428	1999	66	103.5	100	92.0	99	71.9	103	102
171420	2001	3	127.3	108	82.0	89	81.1	98	95
	2002	67	110.9	106	95.0	99	79.7	98	104
GCA/ TA428			107.7	103	93.3	99	75.9	100	103
TE203	1999	35	98.7	95	92.5	100	76.6	109	104
	2001	85	115.1	98	88.5	96	82.5	100	94
	2002	100	100.9	97	94.3	97	81.9	101	95
GCA/ TE203			106.0	97	91.8	97	81.3	102	96
TD273	1999	13	110.2	97	91.1	98	70.6	101	96
	2001	23	110.5	94	96.3	100	82.6	100	99
GCA/ TD273	2003	77	81.2 90.5	97 96	98.6 97.3	100 100	84.6 82.6	100 100	98 98
TD268	2001	91	90.5 115.2	96 98	97.3 97.1	100	80.8	98	98 102
10200	2001	61	86.5	90 103	97.1	98	82.9	90 98	102
GCA/ TD268	2000	01	103.4	103	90.5 96.9	103	81.6	90 98	100
TC335	1999	21	94.9	92	94.0	102	73.3	105	97
	2001	34	108.4	92	93.6	102	82.4	100	94
	2003	29	85.1	102	96.4	98	84.1	100	99
GCA/ TC335			97.0	95	94.7	101	80.7	101	96
TC365	1999	38	109.3	106	93.5	101	70.7	101	108
	2001	22	125.2	107	97.7	106	81.5	99	112
	2002	40	109.5	105	95.7	99	80.2	99	103
	2003	38	88.9	106	95.8	98	84.5	100	106
GCA/ TC365			106.3	106	95.4	100	79.0	100	107
Compari-	1999	50	103.5	100	92.5	100	70.1	100	100
son mean: Saturn,	2001	50	117.4	_	92.0	_	82.4		
Helga	2002	50 50	104.2 83.8	-	96.5 98.2		80.9 84.4		
(commer-	2003	50	03.0		90.2		04.4		
cial									
hybrids)									
		r		commerc					
TE210	1999	29	102.6	99	92.5	100	72.9	104	103
	2001	44	111.5	95	89.5	97	83.5	101	94
	2003	73	86.1	103	92.2	94	85.9	102	98
GCA/ TE210 TC344	1000	70	97.0	100 100	91.4 94.0	96	82.6 72.8	102	98
10044	1999 2001	125	104.0 119.9	100	94.0 92.4	102 101	82.1	104 100	106 102
	2001	125	111.6	103	92.4 96.6	101	80.4	99	102
	2002	55	90.8	107	94.4	96	84.5	100	107
GCA/ TC344			109.8	104	94.3	100	80.1	100	105
TD345	1999	34	102.7	99	91.5	98	74.3	106	103
	2001	28	112.7	96	92.0	100	83.1	101	97
	2002	56	107.7	103	95.0	98	82.0	101	103
	2003	37	85.3	102	91.8	93	85.0	101	96
GCA/ TD345			102.2	101	92.9	97	81.2	102	100
TD348	1999	10	102.1	99	95	103	70.2	100	101
	2002	55	101.3	97	96.7	100	81.9	101	99
004/754/2	2003	60	84.6	101	93.1	95	84.1	100	95
GCA/ TD348	1999	50	93.3 102.5	99 100	94.8	98 100	82.0 70.1	100 100	97 100
Compari- son mean:	2001	50 50	103.5 117.4	100	92.5 92.0	100	70.1 82.4	100	100
Saturn,	2001	50 50	117.4	1	92.0		82.4	1	
Helga	2002	50	83.8	-	98.2	-	84.4	1	
(commer- cial hybrids)	2000	50	00.0		50.2		.		
	T 1 1	1 1 12					of the two h	1.1.1	

*GCA of the Turda inbred lines has been compared with the mean of the two hybrids.

selection index: TA428, TD268, TC365, TC344, TD345.

In conclusion:

1) The last years were characterized by a genetic gain in inbred lines development.

 GCA effects for the main characters were more favourable for inbred lines derived from improved elite inbreds and commercial hybrids.

 The local populations would be used as sources of inbred lines only after they were improved in a special program by recurrent or reciprocal-recurrent selection.

4) The relative usefulness of intra- versus intergroup populations as sources of new inbreds depends on the particular inbreds used and/or on finding a suitable tester.

Effects of different cytoplasms on quantitative characters in maize

--Has, V; Has, I

The study of cytoplasmic effects on the expression of quantitative characters is important to understanding cytoplasmic-nuclear interactions and their influence on breeding and genetic programs. The genotypes of six early-maturing maize inbreds T248, TC243, TC209, TB367, A654, TC102, T291 were backcrossed eight times into ten cytoplasms other than their own. Thus, each cytoplasmic source of seed was assumed to have the same nuclear genotype. Five characters were studied over two years and two locations. Significant differences among the cytoplasms occurred for plant vigor, date of tasseling and silking, stalk lodging resistance and kernel dry matter.

Table 1. Mean percent of stalk lodging resistance at harvest for each of the ten cytoplasmic sources with six genotypes.

	Inbred geno- type	TC209	T291	T248	TC243	TB367	TC102
Pair no.	Cytoplasmic source	%	%	%	%	%	%
1.	Own cyto- plasm	61.1	32.6	68.6	68.0	66.1	42.6
2.	T 291	61.0	х	71.4	60.8	70.2	53.8**
3.	T 248	61.3	49.9**	Х	68.8	69.6	59.1***
4.	TC 243	55.0	30.7	66.4	Х	72.1*	58.9***
5.	A 654	61.3	56.7***	70.9	60.2	71.5	59.0***
6.	TC 221	61.5	35.5	66.8	63.5	63.3	55.8**
7.	TC 102	55.4	41.4	67.1	69.9	70.5	Х
8.	TC 209	Х	56.6***	69.0	65.5	71.4	44.2
9.	K 1080	58.3	40.2	68.3	62.8	62.5	48.3
10.	TC 316	60.2	30.7	58.800	64.7	74.9**	40.4
	LSD 5%	9.0	9.9	7.0	10.7	5.8	7.9
	1%	12.0	13.4	9.4	14.6	7.8	10.7
	0.1%	15.8	17.7	12.4	19.5	10.3	14.1

Differences in grain yield among cytoplasms were not significant, or their expression was of low magnitude, and probably due to interaction with environments. Differences that did exist were in the direction expected on the basis of inbred performance. The results indicate that differences in inbred performance were not necessarily an indication of cytoplasmic effects in hybrid combination. Results from these experiments provide further support for cytoplasmic effects on some agronomic characters in maize. They also emphasize that the environment can influence the performance of cytoplasm from one year to another.

URBANA, ILLINOIS Maize Genetics Cooperation • Stock Center

Allelism testing of miscellaneous stocks in Maize COOP phenotype only collection

--Jackson, JD

This report summarizes allele testing of miscellaneous stocks characterized by phenotype only in the Maize Genetics COOP Stock Center collection. These particular mutants were sent in by M. G. Neuffer. If possible, crosses were made between known heterozygotes and homozygous plants. Plants were scored at the seedling stage and again at maturity. Ears were scored at maturity. Proposed new designations have been assigned to these alleles. These stocks have been increased and placed on our stocklist. It is expected that with further sorting and allelism testing of mutations characterized by phenotype only, additional alleles of characterized mutants will be discovered and placed in the main collection.

POSITIVE TESTS:			
previous designation	allelism test with g1	new designation	MGCSC: stock #
yg*-N1856A	positive: (g1) x yg*)	g1-N1856A	X05L
previous designation	allelism test with ql1	new designation	MGCSC: stock #
· ·			
gl*-N1843C	positive: (gl*) x gl1	gl1-N1843C	704J
gl*-N1845	positive: (+/gl*) x gl1	gl1-N1845	704K
previous designation	allelism test with sh1	new designation	MGCSC: stock #
sh*-N399A	positive: (+/sh*) x sh1)	sh1-N399A	912AK
previous designation	allelism test with dek5-N874A	new designation	MGCSC: stock #
sh*-N961			333AB
previous designation allelism test with cp2-N1324A		new designation	MGCSC: stock #
sh*-N1105B	positive: (+/sh*) x (+/cp2)	cp2-N1105B	426E

Additional new alleles of *pink scutellum1* found in Maize COOP phenotype-only collection

--Jackson, JD

This report summarizes additional tests of viviparous stocks characterized only by phenotype in the Maize Genetics COOP Stock Center collection (Jackson, MNL 74:69-70, 2000; MNL 78:66, 2004). These new alleles were first noticed during routine propagation of viviparous stocks. Older stocks tend to lose the characteristic pink color of ps1 as they age in storage.

Crosses were made as follows: $+lps^* X +lps^1$ or $+lps^1 X$ +/ps* and ears were scored at maturity for the pink scutellum phenotype. New designations have been assigned to these alleles and they have been placed on our current stocklist. It is expected that with further sorting and allelism testing of other stocks characterized by phenotype only, additional *ps1* alleles will be discovered.

previous designation	allelism test with ps1 new designation		MGCSC: stock #
y-vp*-8105	5 positive	ps1-8105	526H
vp*-8107	5 positive	ps1-8107	5261
vp*-8115	1 positive	ps1-8115	526J
vp*-8208	3 positive	ps1-8208	526K

A survey of viviparous stocks in Maize COOP phenotype-only collection for new alleles of *viviparous9*

--Jackson, JD

This report summarizes allele testing of viviparous stocks characterized only by phenotype in the Maize Genetics COOP Stock Center collection. Here, pale kernels linked to the viviparous trait characterized all stocks. Crosses were made as follows: $+/vp^* X +/vp9$ -R or $+/vp^* X +/vp9$ -Bot100. Ears were scored at early maturity for the segregation of pale kernels. In crosses, most kernels were dormant for the viviparous phenotype. This could be due to the fact that ears were scored at an early stage of maturity. In almost all crosses, pale kernels gave the characteristic greenish almost fluorescent cast found in the vp9-Bot100 allele (Jackson, MNL 73:86, 1999). This color slowly faded with exposure to sunlight.

New designations have been assigned to these alleles and

these have been placed in the main collection. It is expected that with further sorting and allelism testing of viviparous stocks characterized by phenotype only, additional alleles of vp9 will be discovered. Stocks with this same phenotype that were found to complement vp9 will be tested for allelism with other stocks linked to pale endosperm.

Previous designation	Allelism test with vp9	New designation	MGCSC: stock #	Dormant allele
pale y-vp*-85-3140-15	3 positive	vp9-85-3140-15	721A	no
pale y-vp*-87-2286-1	3 positive	vp9-87-2286-1	721B	yes in F2 w/ B73
pale y-vp*-87-2286-2	5 positive	vp9-87-2286-2	721C	yes in F2 w/ B73
pale y-vp*-87-2286-3	4 positive	vp9-87-2286-3	721D	yes in F2 w/ B73
pale y-vp*-87-2286-18	5 positive	vp9-87-2286-18	721E	yes in F2 w/ B73
pale y-vp*-87-2286-25	4 positive	vp9-87-2286-25	721F	yes in F2 w/ B73
pale y-vp*-88-3177-14	5 positive	vp9-88-3177-14	721G	no
y-vp*-88-89-3613-25	10 positive	vp9-88-89-3613-25	721H	variable
y-vp*-99-2226-1	4 positive	vp9-99-2226-1	7211	no
y-vp*-6961	3 positive	yp9-6961	721J	variable
y-vp*-8701	3 positive	vp9-8701	721K	no
vp*-8113	2 positive	vp9-8113	722A	no
y-vp*-81-15	5 positive	vp9-81-15	722B	no
y-vp*-1982-2	7 positive	vp9-1982-2	722C	no
vp*-8204	5 positive	vp9-8204	722D	no
y-vp*-8206	5 positive	vp9-8206	722E	no
y-vp*-8207	5 positive	vp9-8207	722F	no
y-vp*-83-1A	3 positive	vp9-83-1A	722G	no
pale y*-85-3005-22	5 positive	vp9-85-3005-22	722H	yes in F2 w/ B73
pale y*-85-3069-6	4 positive	vp9-85-3069-6	7221	yes in F2 w/ B73
pale y*-89-90-1525-23	2 positive	vp9-89-90-1525-23	722J	yes in F2 w/ B73/Mo17

Additional *r1* haplotype-specific aleurone color enhancer mapping results

--Stinard, PS

In last year's MNL (80:31), we reported that three mutable and two stable r1 haplotype-specific aleurone color enhancers map to the same location on chromosome 2 and are likely allelic. We tested the mutable factors Fcu with arv-m594, arv-m594 with arv-m694, and Fcu with arv-m694. We also tested the stable full color enhancer Arv-V628#16038 with a full color Fcu revertant, Fcu-R2003-2653-6. However, direct linkage tests had not been performed between the mutable factors and the stable factors. We report the results of such tests in this article. We tested linkage of the mutable factor arv-m594 with the stable factor Arv-V628#16038, and the linkage of the mutable factor Fcu with stable Fcu revertants Fcu-R2003-2653-2 the and Fcu-R2003-2653-6.

All tests were conducted as follows: Lines homozygous for the two factors, and homozygous for either r1-q, or for a responsive r1haplotype, were crossed together. The resulting F1's were outcrossed as males to the responsive r1 haplotype R1-r(Venezuela559-PI302355) without any factors present. The parental classes would be expected to have either mutable or full colored aleurones, the double factor recombinant class would be expected to have full colored aleurones, and the recombinant class lacking both factors would be expected to have stable pale aleurones. Kernels from these crosses were classified as mutable, colored, or pale/colorless. The exceptional pale or colorless kernels were planted last summer and the resulting plants selfpollinated and outcrossed to R1-r(Venezuela559-PI302355) in order to test the genotypes of these kernels. Since the only recombinant class that can be detected by these experiments is the class lacking both factors, we doubled the number of recombinants in this class in order to account for the double mutant class for the purpose of calculating linkage values. The results are presented below:

arv-m594 with *Arv-V628#16038*. From the linkage cross, we isolated 29 pale and 8 colorless kernels from a population of 7,475 kernels. Upon further testing of the pale and colorless exceptions, 6 proved to carry *Arv-V628#16038* and 21 carried *arv-m594* and were thus members of parental classes and not recombinants. Ten kernels did not germinate and were not tested. Based on our failure to recover recombinants from among the high proportion of exceptions tested, we calculate that the linkage between these two factors is less than 0.03 ± 0.02 cM. Thus, we conclude that these two factors are very tightly linked and most likely allelic.

Fcu with *Fcu*-*R2003-2653-2*. We isolated one colorless kernel from a population of 3,936 kernels in this test. Upon further testing, this kernel proved to carry *Fcu*-*R2003-2653-2* and was not a recombinant. We calculate that the map distance between these two factors is less than 0.05 ± 0.04 cM.

Fcu with *Fcu-R2003-2653-6*. We isolated two pale and three colorless kernels from a population of 2,040 kernels in this test. Upon further testing, two kernels proved to carry *Fcu-R2003-2653-6* and two carried *Fcu*; one kernel failed to germinate and was not tested. Based on our failure to recover recombinants from among the exceptions tested, we calculate that the linkage between these two factors is less than 0.10 ± 0.07 cM.

While we had strong reason to believe, based on indirect evidence, that the mutable enhancers map to the same location as these stable enhancers, these tests provide direct evidence for this. The two *Fcu* revertants we examined mapped to the same location as *Fcu*, as expected. We report elsewhere in this MNL the identification of two enhancers that map to linked sites. We plan to test these and other enhancers isolated from the Brink *r1* haplotype collection for linkage in order to place them into linkage or "complementation" groups and identify the number of enhancer loci segregating in these lines.

An *r*1 haplotype-specific aleurone color enhancer expressed only in female outcrosses

--Stinard, PS

Members of the Fcu/Arv system of r1 haplotype-specific aleurone color enhancers increase aleurone pigmentation in crosses to specific weakly pigmented r1 haplotypes (Kermicle, MNL 77:52; Stinard, MNL 77:77-79). The enhancers characterized to date have mapped to the same location on chromosome 2, and express equally well in male and female outcrosses to susceptible testers (Stinard, MNL 78:63-64; MNL 79:45; MNL 80:31; MNL 80:33). However, during the course of propagating an accession (R1-r(Venezuela459#16039)) from the Brink r1 haplotype collection donated to the Stock Center by Jerry Kermicle, aberrant ratios appeared in crosses to tester stocks, indicating the possible presence of multiple enhancers. The ratios were not simple Mendelian ratios, and differed depending on the direction of the cross. 1:1 ratios of colored to pale kernels, or ears with completely pale kernels, were invariably obtained when a segregating Arv parent was used as the male parent, but when used as a female, ratios were either 1:1, or showed an excess of colored kernels. Subsequent generations of outcrossing allowed the separation of two enhancers, one (Arv-V459A) that behaves as previously characterized enhancers, producing colored kernels in both male and female outcrosses, and one (*Arv-V459B*) that produces colored kernels in female outcrosses, but only pale kernels in male outcrosses. The ratios of colored and pale kernels on ears of female outcrosses of plants heterozygous for both enhancers deviate from 3:1 ratios and indicate linkage, with an approximate separation of 25 centiMorgans.

Data from testcrosses are presented in Tables 1, 2, and 3; and linkage data are summarized in Table 4. All stocks are in a W22 inbred background, and tests for *Arv* status were conducted using testers and backgrounds carrying responsive *r*1 haplotypes (either R1-r(Venezuela459#16039) or R1-r(Venezuela559-PI302355)).

Data presented in Table 1 summarize the results of reciprocal crosses of plants carrying Arv-V459A and/or Arv-V459B with arv testers. The Arv parents were grown from the male outcross to an arv tester of a plant heterozygous for Arv-V459A and homozygous for Arv-V459B. Under the model presented above, colored kernels from such a cross would be expected to carry both Arv-V459A and Arv-V459B, and pale kernels would be expected to carry Arv-V459B only. The results of reciprocal crosses of such progeny bear this out. All plants grown from colored kernels produced an excess (from a 1:1 ratio) of colored kernels in female outcrosses, and a 1:1 ratio of colored to pale kernels in male outcrosses. This result can be explained if both Arv-V459A and Arv-V459B are expressed in female outcrosses, but only Arv-V459A is expressed in male outcrosses. All plants grown from pale kernels produced a 1:1 ratio of colored to pale kernels in female outcrosses, and only pale kernels in male outcrosses. Again, this result can be explained if Arv-V459B is expressed in female, but not male, outcrosses. The kernel counts of female outcrosses of plants heterozygous for both Arv-V459A and Arv-V459B showed an excess of colored kernels from a 1:1 ratio, but significantly less than a 3:1 ratio (p < 0.05, calculations not shown), suggesting linkage in coupling of these two factors.

Data presented in Table 2 summarize the results of reciprocal crosses of plants carrying *Arv-V459B* with *arv* testers. The *Arv-V459B* parents were grown from kernels from the self-

Table 1. Counts of colored (CI) and pale kernels from reciprocal crosses of plants carrying Arv-V459A and Arv-V459B with arv testers. Families 2005-603 and 2005-604 were planted from the cross: arv X Arv-V459A/+; Arv-V459B. Plants crossed in 2005-603 were grown from colored kernels, and plants crossed in 2005-604 were grown from pale kernels.

	Kernel	No.; Female OC		Kernel Male C			
Arv parent	CI	pale	1:1 χ ²	CI	pale	1:1 χ²	Arv status
source: 2004-8	30-8/827	-6; CI planted					
2005-603-1	247	115	48.1331	146	153	0.164	A + B
2005-603-2	213	142	14.200 ¹	145	132	0.610	A + B
2005-603-4	162	124	5.049 ¹	147	151	0.054	A + B
2005-603-6	170	112	11.929 ¹	99	74	3.613	A + B
2005-603-7	186	100	25.8601	124	122	0.016	A + B
2005-603-8	217	121	27.266 ¹	112	125	0.713	A + B
2005-603-9	220	105	40.692 ¹	85	114	4.226	A + B
source: 2004-8	30-8/827	-6; pale planted					
2005-604-1	89	87	0.023	0	309		В
2005-604-6	171	166	0.074	0	248		В
2005-604-7	147	139	0.224	0	287		В
2005-604-9	221	186	3.010	0	317		В
2005-604-10	183	155	2.320	0	285		В
2005-604-11	147	168	1.400	0	191		В
2005-604-12	120	155	4.455	0	340		В

Two-sided χ^2 value significant at p = 0.05 level.

Table 2. Counts of colored (CI) and pale kernels from reciprocal crosses of plants carrying *Arv-V459B* with *arv* testers. Families 2005-605 and 2006-606 were planted from the cross: [*Arv-V459B*/+] selfed. Plants crossed in 2005-605 were grown from pale kernels, and plants crossed in 2006-606 were grown from colored kernels.

	Kernel No.; Female OC			Kernel No.; Male OC		
Arv parent	CI	pale	1:1 χ²	CI	pale	Arv status
source: 2004-827-7@; paleplanted						
2005-605-4	47	36	1.458	0	263	В
2005-605-5	103	89	1.021	0	216	В
2005-605-6	0	66		0	312	-
2005-605-8	119	128	0.328	0	333	В
2005-605-11	66	51	1.923	0	254	В
2005-605-12	49	62	1.523	0	196	В
source: 2004-827-	source: 2004-827-7@; CI planted					
2005-606-1	165	0		0	351	В
2005-606-3	45	41	0.186	0	250	В
2005-606-4	79	78	0.006	0	262	В
2005-606-5	27	31	0.276	0	335	В
2005-606-6	60	56	0.138	0	284	В
2005-606-9	139	0		0	378	В
2005-606-10	74	91	1.752	0	280	В
2005-606-11	54	0		0	333	В
2005-606-12	48	44	0.174	0	297	В

pollination of a plant heterozygous for *Arv-V459B*. Colored kernels from such a cross would be expected to be either heterozygous or homozygous for *Arv-V459B*, with one copy of *Arv-V459B* transmitted through the female; pale kernels would be expected to carry one copy of *Arv-V459B* transmitted through the male, or be homozygous *arv*. The results of reciprocal crosses of such progeny bear this out. Plants grown from pale kernels produced either 1:1 ratios of colored to pale kernels (parent heterozygous for *Arv-V459B*), or only pale kernels (parent heterozygous for *arv*) in female outcrosses; and only pale kernels in male outcrosses. Kernels grown from colored kernels produced either all colored kernels (parent homozygous for *Arv-V459B*) or 1:1 ratios of colored to pale kernels in male outcrosses. Kernels (parent heterozygous for *Arv-V459B*) in female outcrosses, and only pale kernels in male outcrosses.

Tests were carried out another generation in order to confirm these inheritance patterns. The data presented in Table 3 summarize the results of these tests. The plants tested in family 2005P-94 were grown from colored kernels from the male outcross to *arv* of a plant heterozygous for both *Arv-V459A* and *Arv-V459B*. All such plants would be expected to carry *Arv-V459A*, and half should also carry *Arv-V459B*. The female outcrosses of 3 out of 7 plants tested had ratios of colored to pale kernels that did not deviate significantly from 1:1, indicating parental heterozygosity for *Arv-V459A* only, and the remaining 4 plants had an excess of colored kernels (but not a 3:1 ratio) in female outcrosses, indicating heterozygosity for both *Arv-V459A* and *Arv-V459B*. The male outcrosses of 3 plants segregated 1:1 for colored to pale kernels as expected. The remaining 4 plants were not outcrossed as males.

The plants tested in family 2005P-95 were grown from colored kernels from the female outcross to *arv* of a plant heterozygous for *Arv-V459B*. All such plants would be expected to be heterozygous for *Arv-V459B*. The female outcrosses of all plants tested segregated 1:1 for colored to pale kernels, and the male outcrosses produced pale kernels only, as expected.

Table 3. Counts of colored (CI) and pale kernels from reciprocal crosses of plants carrying Arv-V459A and Arv-V459B with arv testers. Family 2005P-94 was planted from the cross: arv X Arv-V459A/+; Arv-V459B/+. Family 2005P-95 was planted from the cross: Arv-V459B/+ X arv. Both families were grown from colored kernels.

	Kernel	No.; Female OC		Kernel Male (
Arv parent	CI	pale	1:1 χ ²	CI	pale	1:1 χ ²	Arv status
source: 2005-622	2-2/603-6	CI planted					
2005P-94-2	107	107	0	45	60	2.143	A
2005P-94-3	146	71	25.922 ¹	-	-		A + B
2005P-94-4	128	119	0.328	33	40	0.671	A
2005P-94-5	93	110	1.424	40	46	0.419	A
2005P-94-7	157	117	5.8391	-	-		A + B
2005P-94-8	135	88	9.906 ¹	-	-		A + B
2005P-94-10	120	85	5.976 ¹	-	-		A + B
Source: 2005-60	4-6/619-2	; CI planted					
2005P-95-2	147	132	0.806	0	161		В
2005P-95-3	82	94	0.818	0	52		B
2005P-95-4	135	112	2.142	0	67		В
2005P-95-6	108	130	2.034	0	47		В
2005P-95-7	101	101	0	0	106		В

Two-sided χ^2 value significant at p = 0.05 level.

All female outcrosses of plants heterozygous for both Arv-V459A and Arv-V459B in coupling produced ears with ratios of colored to pale kernels deviating from the 3:1 ratio expected of independent segregation (p < 0.05, calculations not shown). Kernel counts from all such ears examined are summarized in Table 4. A chi-square test of homogeneity revealed that the kernel color ratios are reasonably homogeneous in this data set, being homogeneous at the p = 0.01 level, but not at p = 0.05. Since the phenotypes of the parental class carrying both Arv-V459A and Arv-V459B cannot be distinguished from the two crossover classes carrying the individual factors, the number of individuals in this parental class was approximated as being equal to the parental class lacking both factors, namely the pale kernel class. Based on this assumption, the map distance between these two factors is calculated to be 25.2 +/- 0.8 centiMorgans. Direct multi-point linkage tests will be conducted with factors on chromosome 2 in order to verify this result and to better place both factors.

Table 4. Summary of counts of colored (Cl) and pale kernels from the cross: Arv-V459A/+; Arv-V459B/+ X arv.

	Kernel counts		
Arv parent	CI	pale	freq. of Cl
2005-603-1	247	115	0.68
2005-603-2	213	142	0.60
2005-603-4	162	124	0.57
2005-603-6	170	112	0.60
2005-603-7	186	100	0.65
2005-603-8	217	121	0.64
2005-603-9	220	105	0.68
2005P-94-3	146	71	0.67
2005P-94-7	157	117	0.57
2005P-94-8	135	88	0.61
2005P-94-10	120	85	0.59
Totals	1973	1180	0.63

Homogeneity $\chi^2 = 22.767$, df = 10.

Data are homogeneous at the p = 0.01 level, but not at the p = 0.05 level. Linkage between Arv-V459A and Arv-V459B = 25.2 + -0.8 cM.

Tests have not yet been performed to determine whether the differential expression of *Arv-V459B* is due to a dosage effect or to imprinting—this will be the subject of further study. Mapping will be conducted with chromosome 2 markers to determine which (if

either) of these two factors maps to the same position as Fcu, and to determine a more precise location for the second factor.

III. ADDRESS LIST

(Most-current addresses are available on the web (http://www.maizegdb.org))

Abbaraju, HKR; 7300 NW 62nd Ave., PO Box 1004, Johnston, IA USA; 515-253-2299; 515-253-2299; 515-270-3367 (fax); rao.abbaraju@pioneer.com Abedon, B; Marlboro College, Marlboro, VT USA; 802-464-0801; bruceabedon@yahoo.com Aboh, NE; Inst Agric Res Devel, PO Box 25 Ekona, Buea, REPUBLIC OF CAMEROON; 00237-35-42-19; 00237-35-42-19; mbellajoe@yahoo.com Accessions Unit; CAB International, PO Box 100, Wallingford Oxon OX10 8DF, UNITED KINGDOM Acquisitions (Serials); CSIR Central Library Services, PO Box 395, Pretoria 0001, SOUTH AFRICA; 27 12 349 1154 (fax); FButer@csir.co.za Acquisitions Division; University of Nebraska-Lincoln, University Libraries, Lincoln, NE USA; 402-472-3874; 402-472-7005 (fax) Acquisitions/Standing Order; Chester Fritz Library, Box 9000, University of North Dakota, Grand Forks, ND USA: 701-777-4636 Adams, KR; 2837 E. Beverly Dr., Tucson, AZ USA; 520-326-8994 Adams, T; DeKalb Genetics Corp, 62 Maritime Dr., Mystic, CT USA; 860-572-5232; 860-572-5233 (fax); tadams@dekalb.com Adamu, AK; Dept Biol Sci, Fac Sci, Ahmadu Bello Univ, Zaria, NIGERIA; Zaria 50581x108 Agrama, HA; Department of Plant Pathology, NDSU & USDA-ARS, NSCL, Fargo, ND USA; 701-239-1345; 701-239-1369 (fax); agramah@fargo.ars.usda.gov Agricultural Res. Int. -Library; Dr. Maria Uveges-Hornyak, P.O.B. 19, 2462 Martonvasar, HUNGARY Agroceres Imp Exp Ind Com; Biblioteca Central, AV. Dr. Vieira de Carvalho, 40-90 Andar, 01210-900 Sao Paulo - SP, BRAZIL; 00-55-11-222 8522; 00-55-11-223 1620 (fax) Agronomy Library; Department of Agronomy, 2004 Throckmorton Hall, Kansas State University, Manhattan, KS USA Aguiar-Perecin, MLR; Dept Genetica - ESALQ, Universidade de S. Paulo, 13400-970 Piracicaba, SP, BRAZIL; 55 (0) 19 429 4125; 55 (0) 19 433 6706 (fax); mlrapere@carpa.ciagri.usp.br Ajayi, SA; Fal-Institut fur, Pflanzenbau und Gruenlandwirtschaft, Budesalee 50, D-38116 Braunschweig, GERMANY; 49-531-596-634; 49-531-596-365 (fax); adesola.ajavi@fal.de Ajmone-Marsan, P; Ist Sper Cereal, Via Stezzano 24, Milano, ITALY Akula, A; 8520 University Green, Middleton, WI USA; 608-821-3440; 608-836-9710 (fax); anisha.akula@monsanto.com Akula, C; Univ Wisconsin, 1575 Linden Dr, Madison, WI USA; 608-262-5217 (fax); 608-262-0600; cakula@facstaff.wisc.edu Akulova-Barlow, Z; Univ California, 111 Koshland Hall, Berkeley, CA USA; 510-642-9782; zakulova@uclink.berkeley.edu AI, R; 2nd floor bioteknologibygget, P.O. Box 5040, As N-1432, NORWAY; (+47) 64 94 94 82/63; (+47) 64 94 14 65 (fax); ronald.al@ikb.nlh.no Albert R. Mann Library; Cornell University, Ithaca, NY USA; (607)255-7955; (607)255-0318 (fax) Albertsen, MC; Pioneer Hi-Bred Internat Inc, 7250 NW 62nd Ave, PO Box 552, Johnston, IA USA; 515-270-3648; 515-253-2149 (fax); Marc.Albertsen@pioneer.com Alexander, DC; BASF Plant Sciences, 26 Davis Drive, Research Triangle Park, NC USA; 919-541-2024; alexand@basf-corp.com Alexander, DL; Univ Oxford, Dept Plant Sci, South Parks Rd, Oxford OX1 3RB, UNITED KINGDOM Alfenito, MR; 61 Avondale Ave, Redwood City, CA USA; 650-368-1206 Aljanabi, SM; Mauritius Sugar Industry Research Inst, Reduit, MAURITIUS; 230-454-1061 ext 3125; 230-454-1971 (fax); pathology@msiri.intnet.mu Allard, S; Agric & Agri-Food Canada, Bldg 21 CE Farm, 960 Carling Ave, Ottawa, ONT K1A 0C6, CANADA; 613-759-1551; 613-759-6566 (fax) Alleman, M; 253 Mellon Hall, Duquesne University, Dept. Biol. Sci., Pittsburgh, PA USA; 412-396-1660; 412-396-5907 (fax); ALLEMAN@DUQ.EDU Allen, JO; Division of Biological Sciences, 109G Tucker Hall, University of Missouri, Columbia, MO USA; 573 884 2496; allenjo@missouri.edu Altendorf, PR: Syngenta Seeds. 317 330th St. Stanton, MN USA: 507-645-7519 (fax): 507-663-7630; paul.altendorf@syngenta.com Alvarez-Venegas, R: Purdue Univ. Dept Biol Sci, West Lafayette, IN USA; 765-494-2506; 765-496-1496 (fax) Alvey, D; 237 Myrtle Drive, West Lafavette, IN USA; 765-567-2115; 765-567-4046 (fax) Amano, E; Biol Resources Res & Dev Centre, Fukui Prefectural Univ, 88-1, Futaomote, Awara-cho, Sakai-gun, Fukui-ken, 910-41, JAPAN; 81-776-77-1443; 81-776-77-1448 (fax); amano@fpu.ac.jp Ambrose, B; UCSD-Bio 0116, 9500 Gilman Dr, La Jolla, CA USA; 619-534-2514; 619-534-7108 (fax); bambrose@jeeves.ucsd.edu Ananiev, E: Pioneer Hi-Bred Int'l Inc. 7300 NW 62nd Ave, PO Box 1004, Johnston, IA USA: 515-253-2477/5740; 515-270-3367 (fax); evqueni.ananiev@pioneer.com Anderson, John; Colorado State Univ, Biology Dept, Fort Collins, CO USA; 970-491-3348; 970-491-0649 (fax); janderso@lamar.colostate.edu Anderson, L; Colorado State Univ, Dept Biol, Fort Collins, CO USA; 970-491-6802; 970-491-6249 (fax); Iorrie@lamar.colostate.edu Applied Biosystems; Library - Bldg. 700, 850 Lincoln Cntr. Dr., Foster City, CA USA Arbuckle, JA; Syngenta, 317 330th St, Stanton, MN USA; 507-663-7690; 507-645-7519 (fax); john.arbuckle@syngenta.com Arbuckle, S; 1520 St. Olaf Ave., Science Building, Rm 221, Northfield, MN USA Area Director; Midwest Area, USDA-ARS, 1815 N. University, Peoria, IL USA; 309-685-4011; 309-671-7228 (fax) Armstrong, C; Monsanto, GG4C, 700 Chesterfield Parkway West, Saint Louis, MO USA; 636-737-7229 (phone); charles.l.armstrong@monsanto.com Arpat, H; Ohio State University, OARDC, Dept of Agronomy, 1680 Madison Avenue, Wooster, OH USA; 330-263-2882; 330-263-3658 (fax) Arruda, P; Univ. Estadual de Campinas, Cidade Univ. Zeferino Vaz, Distrito de Barao Geraldo, Campinas - SP, BRAZIL; (192)398351; (192)394717 (fax) Arthur, WL; Life Cycle Information Management, Pioneer Hi-Bred Internat Inc, 7300 NW 62nd Ave, PO Box 1004, Johnston, IA USA; Iane arthur@pioneer.com Artim-Moore, L. Ciba-Ag Biotechn, PO Box 12257, Research Triangle Park, NC USA Arumuganathan, K; Univ of Nebraska, Ctr for Biotech, N308, Lincoln, NE USA; 402-472-4197; 402-472-3139 (fax) Assoc Gen Prod Mais; Route de Pau, 64121 Montardon Cedex, FRANCE Atanassov, A; Institute of Genetic Engineering, 2232 Kostinbrod 2, BULGARIA; 359.0721.2552; 359.721.4985 (fax) Auger, DL; South Dakota State University, Dept. of Biology and Microbiology, Box 2140D, Rm 251A NPB, Brookings, SD USA; 605-688-5624 (fax); donald_auger@sdstate.edu Avramova, Z; Purdue Univ, Lilly Hall, West Lafayette, IN USA; 317-434-9837; 317-496-1496 (fax); zavramov@bilbo.bio.purdue.edu Ayala-Osuna, J; Rua Dos Trabalhadores 906, 14870.000 Jaboticabal-SP, BRAZIL; 016-3220260; 016-3224275 (fax) Avcock, HS: Cornnuts Genetic Research, P.O. Box 215. Greenfield, CA USA: 831-674-3131: 831-674-5139 (fax): Harold Avcock@kraft.com Ayers, JE; Dept Plant Pathology, 308 Buckhout Lab, Pennsylvania State Univ, University Park, PA USA; 814-865-7776; 814-863-7217 (fax); jea@psu.edu Azanza, F; Syngenta, Crop Genetic research, 12 Chemin de l'hobit, 31790 Saint-Sauveur, FRANCE; (33)5.62.79.98.09; (33)5.62.79.99.96 (fax); fermin.azanza@syngenta.com Bachman, M; Syngenta, 317 330th St, Stanton, MN USA; 507-645-7519 (fax); 507-645-7684 Bai, Y; Inst. of Plant Physiol., 300 Fengling Road, Shanghai 200032, CHINA Bailey-Serres, J; Botany & Plant Sciences, Batchelor Hall, Univ. Calif. Riverside, Riverside, CA USA; 909-787-3738; 909-787-4437 (fax); SERRES@UCRAC1.UCR.EDU Baker, B; USDA, Plant Gene Expression Center, 800 Buchanan Street, Albany, CA USA; 510-559-5912; 510-559-5678 (fax); bbaker@garnet.berkeley.edu Baker, RF; UC Berkeley, Dept Plant Biol, 111 Koshland Hall, Berkeley, CA USA; 510-642-7948; 510-642-4995 (fax); rfb11@psu.edu

Balint-Kurti, P; NCSU Dept of Plant Pathology, 3418 Gardner Hall, Box 7616, Raleigh, NC USA; (919) 515-3516 (phone); Peter_BalintKurti@ncsu.edu

Ball, J; Dekalb Genetics, 62 Maritime Dr, Mystic, CT USA; 860-572-5274; 860-572-5282 (fax)

Ball, P; Dekalb Genetics, 62 Maritime Dr, Mystic, CT USA; 860-572-5265; 860-572-5282 (fax); pball@dekalb.com

Banerjee, PP; Scientist-Corn Breeding,, The Sehgal Foundation,, International Crop Research Institute for the Semi-Arid Tropics, Patancheru, Hyderabad 502 324, INDIA; P.BANERJEE@CGIAR.ORG

Banziger, M; CIMMYT, Lisboa 27, Apdo Postal 6-641, Mexico City 06600, DF, MEXICO; ++263(4)369120 (phone); ++263(4)301327 (fax); m.banziger@cgiar.org Bar-Zur, A; Moshava, P.O. Box 32, Yokneam 20600, ISRAEL; 972-4-989-4026; 972-4-985-3291 (fax)

Barbazuk, WB; Donald Danforth Plant Sci Ctr, 975 North Warson Rd, Saint Louis, MO USA; 314-587-1278; 314-587-1378 (fax); BBarbazuk@danforthcenter.org Barbour, E; Pioneer Hi-Bred Internat., Inc., 7300 NW 62nd Ave., PO Box 1004, Johnston, IA USA

Barkan, A; Institute of Molecular Biology, University of Oregon, Eugene, OR USA; 541-346-5145; 541-346-5891 (fax); abarkan@molbio.uoregon.edu

Barker, T; Pioneer Hi-Bred Intl, 7300 NW 62nd Ave, PO Box 1004, Johnston, IA USA; 515-270-4312 (fax); 515-270-4312; thomas.barker@pioneer.com

Barrett, B; Washington State Univ, 201 Johnson Hall, Crop & Soil Sci, Pullman, WA USA; 509-335-4838; 509-335-8674 (fax)

Barros, MEC; PO Box 395, Pretoria, 0001, SOUTH AFRICA; 27-12-841-3221

Barry, GF; Monsanto, 800 N Lindbergh Blvd, Saint Louis, MO USA; 314-694-1671 (fax); 314-694-5566

Baskin, T; 109 Tucker Hall, Div. Biol. Sci., University of Missouri, Columbia, MO USA; 573-882-0173; BaskinT@missouri.edu

Bass, HW; Dept Biol Sci, Biology Unit I, Chieftan Way, Florida State Univ, Tallahassee, FL USA; 850-644-9711; 850-644-0481 (fax); bass@bio.fsu.edu

Basso, B; Centro Studi Biol Cell Molec Piante, CNR / Dipartimento di Biologia, Univ di Milano, Via Celoria, 26, Milano 20133, ITALY; 39-02-26604393; 39-02-26604399 (fax); barbara.basso@unimi.it

Baszczynski, CL; Pioneer Hi-Bred International, Inc., 7250 N.W. 62nd Avenue, P.O. Box 552, Johnston, IA USA; (515)270-3693; (515)334-4729 (fax); chris.baszczynski@pioneer.com

Bate, N; 7250 NW 62nd Ave, PO Box 552, Johnston, IA USA; 515-270-5991

Bates, LS; Alteca Ltd., 731 McCall Road, Manhattan, KS USA; 913-537-9773; 913-537-1800 (fax)

Bates, N; Pioneer Hi-Bred Internatl, 7250 NW 62nd Ave, PO Box 552, Johnston, IA USA; 515-270-5991; 515-334-4778 (fax)

Batley, J; Agriculture Victoria, Plant Biotechn Centre, La Trobe University, Bundoora, Victoria 3086, AUSTRALIA; +61 (0) 3 94793618 (fax); +61 (0) 3 94795633; Jacqueline.Batley@dpi.vic.gov.au

Bauer, M; Univ Missouri, 117 Tucker Hall, Columbia, MO USA; 573-882-9228; mjbc4b@mizzou.edu

Bauer, PJ; Dept Plant Biology, 111 Koshland, Univ California, Berkeley, CA USA, 510-642-7948; 510-642-4995 (fax)

Baumgarten, A; Univ Minnesota, 220 Biosciences Ctr, 1445 Gortner Ave, Saint Paul, MN USA; 612-624-8786; baum0217@maroon.tc.umn.edu

Bayram, ME; Washington State Univ, 201 Johnson Hall, Crop & Soil Sci, Pullman, WA USA; 509-335-4838

Baysdorfer, C; Biological Sciences, California State U, Hayward, CA USA; 510-885-3459; 510-888-4747 (fax)

Beavis, WD; Nat Center for Genome Resources, 2935 E Rodeo Park Dr, Santa Fe, NM USA; 800-450-4854x4412; 505-995-4432 (fax); wdb@ncgr.org

Becker, A; Univ Illinois, Department of Molecular & Integrative Physiology, Burrill Hall, 407 S. Goodwin Avenue, Urbana, IL USA; (217) 333-1734; aebecker@uiuc.edu

Beckert, M; INRA Station D'Amelioration des Plantes, 63039 Clermont Ferrand, FRANCE; (33)73 624319; (33)73 624453 (fax); beckert@clermont.inra.fr

Beckett, JB; 607 Longfellow Lane, Columbia, MO USA; 573-445-3472; 573-884-7850 (fax)

Becraft, P; Zoology & Genetics/Agronomy Depts, 2116 Molecular Biology Bldg, Iowa State University, Ames, IA USA; 515-294-2903; 515-294-6755 (fax); becraft@iastate.edu

Bedinger, P; Biology Dept, Colorado State Univ., Fort Collins, CO USA; 970-491-2879; 970-491-0649 (fax); bedinger@lamar.colostate.edu

Beeghly, H; The J.C. Robinson Seed Co., 100 J.C. Robinson Blvd, PO Box A, Waterloo, NE USA; hbeeghly@jcrob.com

Beijing Book Co. Inc.; Periodical Department - 12 COPIES, Sub. No. 660B0090, 701 E. Linden Ave., Linden, NJ USA; (908)862-0909; (908)862-4201 (fax)

Belanger, FC; Dept of Crop Science, Cook College, Lipman Hall, Rutgers University, New Brunswick, NJ USA; 908-932-8165; belanger@aesop.rutgers.edu

Belele, CL; Univ Arizona, 303 Forbes Bldg, Tucson, AZ USA; 520-621-7186 (fax); 520-621-8964; christi@ag.arizona.edu

Bell, D; 304 Pearl St., Blissfield, MI USA; (517)486-3520; (517)486-2631 (fax)

Benedum Library; Salem-Teikyo University, Salem, WV USA

Benfey, PN; New York Univ, 1009 Main Bldg, 100 Wash Sq E, Dept Biol, New York, NY USA; 212-998-3961; 212-995-4204 (fax)

Benito, MI; The Institute for Genomic Research, 9712 Medical Center Dr, Rockville, MD USA; 301-610-5963; 301-838-0208 (fax)

Benner, M; Science and Technology Center, Rider University, 2083 Lawrenceville Rd, Lawrenceville, NJ USA; 609-896-5097; 609-895-5782 (fax); benner@rider.edu

Bennett, MD; Jodrell Laboratory, Royal Botanic Gardens, Kew, Richmond, Surrey, TW9 3AB, UNITED KINGDOM; 44-1181-332-5000; 44-1181-332-5310 (fax); M.Bennett@rbgkew.org.uk

Bennetzen, J; C426A Life Science Building, University of Georgia, Athens, GA USA; 706-542-3910 (fax); maize@uga.edu

Bensen, RJ; Pioneer Hi-Bred Int'l Inc., 7300 NW 62nd Ave., P.O. Box 1004, Johnston, IA USA; 515-270-3645; 515-253-2149 (fax)

Benson, DL; Biogemma, 4640 East State Road 32, Lebanon, IN USA; 765-482-9833; 765-482-9448 (fax); dirk.benson@biogemma.com

Benzion, G; 303 W. Lanvale St., Baltimore, MD USA; 703-308-1119; benzion@USPTO.GOV

Bercury, S; Univ Massachusetts, Dept Biol, Amherst, MA USA; 413-545-9622; 413-545-3243 (fax)

Berger, D; ARS-Roodeplaat, Veg & Ornamental Plant Inst, Private Bag X293, Pretoria 0001, SOUTH AFRICA

Bergquist, RR; 401 East Sixth Street, El Paso, IL USA; 309-527-6000

Bergstrom, D; Biological Sciences, 101 Tucker Hall, University of Missouri, Columbia, MO USA; 573-882-1168; bergstrom@biosci.mbp.missouri.edu

Bergstrom, GC; Dept. Plant Pathology, 316 Plant Science Bldg., Cornell University, Ithaca, NY USA; 607-255-7849; 607-255-4471 (fax); gcb3@cornell.edu

Bergvinson, D; CIMMYT, Apdo. Postal #370, P.O. Box 60326, Houston, TX USA; 525-804-2004; 525-804-7558 (fax); d.bergvinson@cgiar.org

Berke, T; Seminis Vegetable Seeds, 37437 State Hwy 16, Woodland, CA USA; 550-669-6119; 530-666-6791 (fax); terryberke@netscape.net

Berlyn, M; Dept. of Biology, Yale University, New Haven, CT USA; 203-432-9997; 203-432-3854 (fax); mary@fetalpig.biology.yale.edu

Bernal-L, I; Facultadde Quimica ,UNAM Ciudad Universitaria, Mexico City, DF MEXICO; 5622 5279; irmofel@servidor.unam.mx

Bernardo, R; Dept Agron Plant Genetics, University of Minnesota, 411 Borlaug Hall, 1991 Buford Circle, Saint Paul, MN USA; 612-625-6282; 612-625-1268; berna022@umn.edu

Bernot, J; Dept. of Biological Sciences, Duquesne University, Pittsburg, PA USA

Bernstein, B; 4606 Plant Sciences, Univ Georgia, Athens, GA USA; 706-542-1954; bdb@arches.uga.edu

Bertels, P; National Corn Growers Assn, 632 Cepi Drive, Chesterfield, MO USA; 636-733-9004 (phone); 636-733-9005 (fax); bertels@ncga.com

Berthaud, J; UR 31 Centre ORSTOM, 911, Avenue Agropolis, BP 5045, 34032 Montpellier cedex, FRANCE; 33(0)467 41 6165; 33(0)467 54 7800 (fax); berthaud@ird.fr Bertoia, L; Inst Fitotecnico de Santa Catalina (UNLP), C.C.4 (1836) Llavallol, Buenos Aires, ARGENTINA; bertoia@agrarias.net

Bertrand, RL; 14 E Cache La Poudre, Dept. of Biology, Colorado College, Colorado Springs, CO USA; (719)389-6402; (719)389-6940 (fax); rbertrand@cc.colorado.edu Betran, FJ: Dept Soil & Crop Sci. Texas A&M Univ. College Station, TX USA: 979-845-3469: 979-862-1931 (fax): javier-betran@tamu.edu

Betzner, A; Groupe Limagrain Pacific P/L, GPO Box 475, Canberra ACT 2601, AUSTRALIA; 61 2 6125 8593 (fax); 61 2 6125 4011

Bhat, V; Genetic Transformation Lab, ICRISAT, Patancheru, AP 502324, INDIA; 91-8455-82360; v.bhat@edumail.nic.in

Bhattramakki, D; Pioneer Hi-Bred International, Inc., 7300 N.W. 62nd Avenue, Reid 33C, PO Box 1004, Johnston, IA USA; 515-270-3606; 515-270-3367 (fax); dinakar.bhattra@pioneer.com

Bianchi, A; Ist Sper Cerealicoltura, Via Cassia 176, 00191 Rome, ITALY; 06-3295705; 06-3630-6022 (fax)

BIBLIOTECA CENTRAL "G. GOIDANICH"; Facolta di Agraria, Via G. Fanin, 40, 40127 Bologna, ITALY; 39-051-2091510; 39-051-2091511

Bicar, E; Iowa State Univ, Dept Agronomy, 1401 Agronomy Hall, Ames, IA USA; 515-294-0837

Biogemma; 5, Rue Saint-Germain l'AUxerrois, Paris, FRANCE; +33 155 349 400 (phone); +33 155 349 401 (fax)

Biol Laboratories Library; Harvard University, 16 Divinity Ave, Cambridge, MA USA; 617-495-3944

Biotechnicki Znanstveno; Poljoprivredni Institut, Juzno Predgrade 17, 31000 Osijek, CROATIA; 385 41 42 43 41; 385 41 42 04 12 (fax)

Biradar, M; 320 ERML, Crop Sci, Univ. of Illinois, 1201 W. Gregory, Urbana, IL USA

Birchler, J; Biological Sciences, Tucker Hall, University of Missouri, Columbia, MO USA; 573-882-4905; 573-882-0123 (fax); birchlerj@missouri.edu

Bird, RM; 1211 Dogwood Lane, Raleigh, NC USA; 919-787-8452; rmckbird@earthlink.net

Bjarnason, M; IM Aufeld 5, D-77815 Buehl, GERMANY; 49-7227-5691; 49-7227-5691 (fax); bjarnason@t-online.de

Blakey, CA; Cooper Science Bldg, Dept. of Biology, Ball State University, Muncie, IN USA; 765-285-8820; 765-285-2351 (fax); ablakey@bsu.edu

Blauth, S; Penn State, 302 Wartik Lab, University Park, PA USA; 814-863-7958; 814-863-1357 (fax)

Bocanski, J; Faculty of Agriculture, Univ of Novi Said, 21000 Novi Sad, YUGOSLAVIA; bocanski@polj.ns.ac.yu

Bodeau, J; PE Applied Biosystems, 384 Foster City Blvd, Foster City, CA USA; 650-638-6972; jbodeau@genscope.com

Bogorad, L; Biol Labs, Harvard Univ, 16 Divinity Ave, Cambridge, MA USA; 617-495-4292; 617-495-4292 (fax); bogorad@biosun.harvard.edu

Bohn, M; Deparment of Crop Sciences,, University of Illinois,, S-110 Turner Hall, 1102 S. Goodwin Ave., Urbana, IL USA; 217-244-2536; mbohn@uiuc.edu

Bohnert, HJ; Depts. Crop Sciences and Plant Biology,, University of Illinois,, 190 ERML, MC 051,, 1201 W. Gregory Dr., Urbana, IL USA; 217-265-5475; hbohnert@uiuc.edu Bokde, S; 599 Laurel Ave. #3, Saint Paul, MN USA

Bollman, K; Dept. of Biology, Plant Science Institute, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, PA USA

Bomblies, K; Genetics Dept, Doebley Lab, 445 Henry Mall, Univ Wisconsin, Madison, WI USA; 608-265-5804; 608-262-2976; kbomblies@students.wisc.edu

Bommert, P; Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory, 1 Bungtown Road, Cold Spring Harbor, NY USA; 516-367-8369 (phone); bommert@cshl.edu

Bommineni, VR; Athenix Corp, 2202 Ellis Road, Suite B, Durham, NC USA; 919-281-0929; 919-281-0901 (fax); vbommineni@athenixcorp.com

Bongard-Pierce, DK; Dept Molec Biology, Wellman 11, Massachusetts General Hosp, Boston, MA USA; 617-726-5938; 617-726-6893 (fax); BONGARD@MOLBIO.MGH.HARVARD.EDU

Bonjean, A; LIMAGRAIN Agr-Industry Div, D.D.S., B.P. 1 -63270, Chappes, FRANCE

Borovskii, GB; Siberian Inst Plant Physiol Biochem, P.O. Box 1243, Irkutsk-33, 664033, RUSSIA; root@sifibr.irkutsk.su

Bosch, L; Escola Superior d'Agricultura, Comte d'Urgell, 187, 08036 Barcelona, SPAIN; 3-4304207; 3-4192601 (fax)

Boston, RS; Box 7612, Dept Botany, North Carolina State Univ, Raleigh, NC USA; (919)515-3390; (919)515-3436 (fax); boston@unity.ncsu.edu

Bouchard, RA; College of Wooster, Chemistry Dept., Wooster, OH USA; 330-263-2433; 330-263-2378 (fax); rbouchard@acs.wooster.edu

Bowen, B; Lynx Therapeutics, Inc, 25861 Industrial Boulevard, Hayward, CA USA; 510-670-9441; 510-670-9302 (fax)

Boyer, CD; Dept. of Horticulture, Oregon State University, Ag & Life Sciences 4017, Corvallis, OR USA; 503-737-5474

Boyer, JS; College of Marine Studies, Univ of Delaware, 700 Pilottown Rd., Lewes, DE USA

Brading, P; Syngenta Wheat Improve Ctr, Norwich Research Park, Norwich, NR4 7UH Norfolk, UNITED KINGDOM; 44 0 1603 252699 (fax); 44 0 1603 252600

Brar, GS; Monsanto Co., 8520 University Green, P.O. Box 620999, Middleton, WI USA; 608-821-3483; 608-836-9710 (fax)

Braun, D; Department of Biology, 208 Mueller Lab, Pennsylvania State University, University Park, PA USA; 814-865-9131; dmb44@psu.edu

Braun, EL; Department of Zoology, University of Florida, Gainesville, FL USA; 352-392-3704 (phone); ebraun@zoo.ufl.edu

Bray, J; ProdiGene, 101 Gateway Blvd Ste 100, College Station, TX USA; 979-690-9527 (fax); 979-690-8537; jbray@prodigene.com

Brekke, M; Iowa State University, 2104 Molecular Biology Building, Ames, IA USA; 515-294-0022 (phone); 515-294-6755 (fax); mbrekke@iastate.edu

Brendel, V; Iowa State Univ, Dept Zoology and Genetice, 2112 Molecular Biology Bldg, Ames, IA USA; 515-294-9884; 515-294-6755 (fax); vbrendel@iastate.edu Breto, P; Pioneer Hi-Bred Int. Inc., 7300 NW 62nd Ave., PO Box 1004, Johnston, IA USA

Brettell, R; CSIRO, Tropical Ecosystems Research Centre, Private Bag 44, Winnellie NT 0822, AUSTRALIA; 61-8-8944-8486

Bretting, PK; USDA/ARS, NPS, 5601 Sunnyside Ave., Bldg. 4, Room 2212, Beltsville, MD USA; 301-504-5541; 301-504-6191 (fax); pkb@ars.usda.gov

Brettschneider, R; Univ Hamburg-Allgemeine Bot, Ohnhorststr 18, 22609 Hamburg, GERMANY; 49-40-42876-384; 49-40-42876-503 (fax); brettsch@botanik.uni-hamburg.de

Brewbaker, J; Horticulture, Univ of Hawaii, 3190 Maile Way, Honolulu, HI USA; 808-956-7985; 808-956-3894 (fax); brewbake@Hawaii.Edu Brewer, N; 7250 NW 62nd Avenue, P.O. Box 552, Johnston, IA USA; Nathan Brewer@pioneer.com

Briggs, K; Pioneer Hi-Bred Internat Inc, Trait and Technol Development, 7300 NW 62nd Ave PO Box 1004, Johnston, IA USA; 515-254-2623; 515-254-2619 (fax)

Briggs, RW; 112 Hunt St., Towanda, IL USA; 309-728-2187 (fax); 309-728-2187; bbriggs@frontiernet.net

Briggs, S; Diversa Corporation, 4955 Directors Place, San Diego, CA USA; 858-526-5220; 858-526-5770 (fax); sbriggs@diversa.com

British Library; Attn: Stephen Forbes, Acquisitions Unit (DSC-G0), British Library, Boston Spa, Wetherby, West Yorkshire LS23 7BQ, UNITED KINGDOM; 01937 546504; 01937 546176 (fax); stephen.forbes@bl.uk

Britt, A; Section of Plant Biology, U of CA, Davis, CA USA; 916-752-0699; 916-752-5410 (fax); abbritt@ucdavis.edu

Brockman, LL; Cargill Hybrid Seeds, 2600 W. Galena Blvd, Aurora, IL USA; 630-801-2352

Brouwer, CR; Bioinformatics, CuraGen Corporation, 555 Long Wharf Drive, 9th Floor, New Haven, CT USA; 203-974-6405; 203-401-3368 (fax)

Brovko, FA; Inst Bioorgan Chem, Russian Acad Sci, Science Avenue b.6, Pushchino 142292, Russia, Puschino 142290, RUSSIA; brovko@fibkh.serpukhov.su Brown, D; Dept of Biology, Bishops University, Lennoxville J1M 1Z7 Quebec, CANADA; 819-822-9632; 819-822-9661 (fax)

Brown, D, Dept of Blology, Bishops University, Lennoxville J IVI 127 Quebec, CAINADA; 819-822-9632; 819-822-9681 (fa Brown, RL: USDA/ARS/SRRC, 1100 Robert E. Lee Blvd. New Orleans, LA USA: 504-286-4359: 504-286-4419 (fax)

Browne, C; Curtis Hall, University of Missouri, Columbia, MO USA; 573-882-7616; cbrowne@socketis.net

Bruce, WB; Pioneer Hi-Bred International, Inc., 7300 NW 62nd Ave., P.O. Box 1004, Johnston, IA USA; 515-270-4167; (515)270-3367 (fax); wes.bruce@pioneer.com Bruggemann, E; Pioneer Hi Bred Intl, 7250 NW 62nd Ave, PO Box 1000, Johnston, IA USA; 515-270-4167; (515)270-3367 (fax); wes.bruce@pioneer.com Bruggemann, E; Pioneer Hi Bred Intl, 7250 NW 62nd Ave, PO Box 1000, Johnston, IA USA; 515-270-4167; (515)270-3367 (fax); wes.bruce@pioneer.com Bruggemann, E; Pioneer Hi Bred Intl, 7250 NW 62nd Ave, PO Box 1000, Johnston, IA USA; 515-270-4167; (515)270-3367 (fax); wes.bruce@pioneer.com Bruggemann, E; Pioneer Hi Bred Intl, 7250 NW 62nd Ave, PO Box 1000, Johnston, IA USA; 515-270-4167; (515)270-3367 (fax); wes.bruce@pioneer.com

Brutnell, TP; Boyce Thompson Inst, Tower Rd, Ithaca, NY USA; 607-254-1242 (fax); 607-254-8656; tpb8@cornell.edu

Bubeck, D; Pioneer Hi-Bred Intern'l, Inc., 7300 N.W. 62nd Ave, Johnston, IA USA; 515-270-4312 (fax); 515-270-3480 (phone); david.bubeck@pioneer.com

Buckler, CS; Dept Statistics, North Carolina State Univ, Box 8203, Raleigh, NC USA

Buckler, E; Institute for Genomic Diversity, Cornell University, 159 Biotechnology Bldg, Ithaca, NY USA; (607) 255-4520; (607) 255-6249 (fax); esb33@cornell.edu Buckner, B; Div. Science, Magruder Hall, Truman State Univ, 100 East Normal, Kirksville, MO USA; 660-785-4083 (phone); 660-785-4045 (fax); bbuckner@truman.edu Buell, CR; The Institute for Genomic Research, 9712 Medical Center Dr, Rockville, MD USA; 301-838-0208 (fax); 301-838-3558; rbuell@tigr.org

Bueter, B; Swiss Federal Inst. Sci. (ETH) Zurich, Inst. Plant Sci., ETH - Eschikon 33, CH - 8315 Lindau, SWITZERLAND; 41-52-33-92-83; 41-52-33-27-06 (fax)

Buhinicek, I; Bc Institute for Breeding and Production of Field Crops, Marulicev trg 5/I, 10000 Zagreb, CROATIA; +385 1 2760 085; +385 1 2760 323 (fax); ibuhinicek@bc-institut.com

Bullock, WP; Garst Seeds Company, 2369 330th St, P.O. Box 500, Slater, IA USA; 515-685-5116; 515-685-5080 (fax); paul.bullock@garstseedco.com

Bunner, A; Dept Zool & Genet, Friley 3525 Lowe, Iowa State Univ, Ames, IA USA; 515-572-5242; 515-294-0345 (fax)

Bureau, TE; Dept. of Genetics, University of Georgia, Athens, GA USA

Burr, B; Biology Dept, Brookhaven National Lab, Bldg 463, Upton, NY USA; 631-344-3396; 631-344-3407 (fax); burr@bnl.gov

Burr, F; Brookhaven National Lab, Biol Dept, Bldg 463, Upton, NY USA; 631-344-3396; 631-344-3407 (fax); burr@bnl.gov

Bushman, BS; 302 Curtis Hall, Univ Missouri, Columbia, MO USA; 573-882-2033

Butler, GE; Department of Plant Sciences, 303 Forbes Hall, University of Arizona, Tucson, AZ USA; 520-626-3824; (520)621-7186 (fax); ebutler@ag.arizona.edu

Butler, L; 303 Forbes Hall, Department of Plant Sciences, University of Arizona, Tucson, AZ USA; 520-626-2632; (520)621-7186 (fax); loub@ag.arizona.edu Butnaru, G; Univ Stiinte Agricole A Banatului, Disciplina de Genetica, C, Post 136, O,P. 1, Timisoara 1900, ROMANIA; 40.56, 141424; 40.56, 200296 (fax)

Button, A; Mision Biologica de Galicia (CSIC), Pontevedra, SPAIN; 34 986 854800 (phone); 34 986 841362 (fax); abutron@mbg.cesga.es

Byrne, M; Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory, PO Box 100, 1 Bungtown Rd, Cold Spring Harbor, NY USA; 516-367-8836; 516-367-8369 (fax); byrne@cshl.org

Byrne, P; Dept Soil and Crop Sci, Colorado State Univ, Fort Collins, CO USA; 970-491-6985; 970-491-0564 (fax); pbyrne@lamar.colostate.edu

Cabulea lancu, I; Library, Agric Res Station, Str. Agriculturii 27, Turda R03350, ROMANIA; 040-064-311680; 040-064-311792 (fax)

Cai, H-W; Japan Grass-Farm Forage Seed Assoc, 388-5 Higashiakata, Nishinasuno, Tochigi 329-2742, JAPAN

Caldwell, EEO; 4505 Regal Ave NE, Cedar Rapids, IA USA; 319-378-8636

Calgene Inc; Information Center, 1920 Fifth Street, Davis, CA USA; (530)753-6313; (530)792-2453 (fax)

Camara-Hernandez, J; Altolaguirre 1295, Buenos Aires 1427, ARGENTINA; 54-1-521-6464; 54-1-522-1687 (fax)

Camargo, LEA; Depto. Fitopatologia -ESALQ/USP, C.P. 09, 13418-900 Piracicaba-SP, BRAZIL; 55-194-294124; 55-194-344839 (fax); leacamar@carpa.ciagri.usp.br

Campbell, WH; Dept. of Biological Sciences, Michigan Technological Univ., 1400 Townsend Drive, Houghton, MI USA; 906-487-2214; 906-487-3355 (fax); WCAMPBEL@MTU.EDU

Camussi, A; Genetic Unit - Fac of Agriculture, Via S. Bonaventura 13, I-50129 Firenze, ITALY

Cande, WZ; Dept of Molec & Cell Biology, Box 341 LSA, Univ of California, Berkeley, CA USA; 510-642-1669; 510-643-6791 (fax); zcande@uclink4.berkeley.edu

Candela, H; Plant Gene Expression Center, 800 Buchanan Street, Albany, CA USA; hcandela@berkeley.edu

Cao, H; Iowa State Univ, 2154 MBB, Ames, IA USA; 515-294-8202; 515-294-0453 (fax)

Cao, J; B420 Agronomy Hall, Iowa State Univ, Ames, IA USA; 515-294-1659; 515-294-2299 (fax); juncao@iastate.edu

Caren, J; Univ of Florida, Box 110690 Horticultural Sci, Gainesville, FL USA; 352-392-1928x314; JCAREN@nersp.nerdc.ufl.edu

Carey, C; Dept Biol, 303 Forbes Hall, Univ Arizona, Tucson, AZ USA; 520-621-8964; 520-621-7186 (fax)

Cargill Inc; A Balbarani/Seed Division, RUTA 188-KM.77, 2700 Pergamino, Bs As, ARGENTINA; (54-477)33210; (54-477)33243 (fax)

Cargill Inc.; Info Center Library, P.O. Box 5670, Minneapolis, MN USA; 612-742-6498; 612-742-6062 (fax)

Carlson, LA; 7 North Winthrop Street, Saint Paul, MN USA; 612-738-8812; lac1357@attbi.com

Carlson, SJ; Univ of Florida, Plant Pathology Dept, Gainesville, FL USA; 352-392-1792; 352-392-6532 (fax); sujcarl@nervm.nerdc.ufl.edu

Carlson, WR; Dept. of Biol. Sci., University of Iowa, Iowa City, IA USA; (319)335-1316; (319)335-3620 (fax); wrcarlsn@aol.com

Carson, C; Paternity Testing Corporation, 3501 Berrywood Drive, Columbia, MO USA; 573-445-7435 (phone); carson@ptclabs.com

Carson, ML; USDA-ARS Cereal Disease Lab, Univ. of Minnesota, 1551 Lindig Street, Saint Paul, MN USA; (612) 625-6299; (651) 649-5054; mcarson@umn.edu

Cartinhour, S; USDA-ARS & Dept Plant Breeding, 252 Emerson Hall, Cornell Univ, Ithaca, NY USA; 607-255-8091; 607-255-6683 (fax); scartinh@greengenes.cit.cornell.edu

Cartwright, H; Univ California, 9500 Gilman Dr, Rm 3125 M2B, Biology 0116, La Jolla, CA USA; 858-534-7108 (fax); 858-822-2558; heatherc@biomail.ucsd.edu

Casa, A; Cornell Univ, 147 Biotechnology Bldg, Ithaca, NY USA; 607-254-4849; 607-255-6249 (fax); sem30@cornell.edu

Cassab, GI; PO Box 510-3, National Univ Mexico, Cuernavaca, Morelos 62250, MEXICO; 52-73-29-16-60; 52-73-13-99-88 (fax); gladys@ibt.unam.mx

Causse, M; Station Genet Amelior Fruits et Legumes, INRA, BP 94 - 84143, 84143 Montfavet - Cedex, FRANCE; 33 (0) 4 32 72 28 04; 33 (0) 4 32 72 27 02 (fax); MCausse@avignon.inra.fr

Cebeco Zaden B V; P. O. Box 10000, Vijfhoevenlaan 4, 5250 GA Vlijmen, NETHERLANDS; 31-4108-88555; 31-4108-88600 (fax)

Central Agric Library; 42 95 Internat Exch Dept, Bul. Lenin 125, Block 1, 1040 Sofia, BULGARIA

Central Sci Agric Library Raskhn; Foreign Pub Acq/Exh Dept., Orlikov Bystreet, 3, 107139, Moscow, B-139, RUSSIA

Cervantes-Cervantes, M; Lehman College, CUNY, Dept Biol Sci, Davis Hall 131, 250 Bedford Park Blvd W, Bronx, NY USA; 718-960-4994; 718-960-8236 (fax); mcclc@cunyvm.cuny.edu

Chalyk, S; 12 Goldfinch, Apt. 408, North York, Toronto, Ontario CANADA; 416 636 5790; schalyk@hotmail.com

Chandler, V; Dept Plant Sciences, 303 Forbes Hall, University of Arizona, Tucson, AZ USA; 520-626-8725; 520-621-7186 (fax); chandler@ag.arizona.edu

Chandrakanth, E; Crop Biotechnology Center, Texas A&M Univ, College Station, TX USA; 979-260-4563; emani@tamu.edu

Chang, CH; Pioneer Hi-Bred Internati, 7300 NW 62nd Ave, PO Box 1004, Johnston, IA USA; 515-253-2233; 515-253-2619 (fax); shawn.chang@pioneer.com

- Chang, M; BASF Plant Science, LLC, ExSeed Genetics, 2901 South Loop Dr., Bldg 3 Suite 3800, Ames, IA USA; (515)296-5345/0977; 515-296-5349 (fax); changm@basfcorp.com
- Chang, SC; 13, LN36, Chung Shan Rd., Chiayi, ROC, TAIWAN; 05-278-4603

Changsa Inst Modern Agric; Academia Sinica, Library, P.O. Box 10, Hunan 410125, CHINA

Chao, S; USDA-ARS-Western Regional Research Ctr, 800 Buchanan St, Albany, CA USA

Char, B; Plant Gene Expression Center, 800 Buchanan, Albany, CA USA

Charcosset, A; INRA, Station de Genetique Vegetale, Ferme du Moulon, Gif sur Yvette 91190, FRANCE; 33-1-69-33-23-40 (fax); 33-1-69-33-23-35; charcos@moulon.inra.fr Charles, B; #127423, ASPC Tucson, PO Box 24403, Rincon Unit 7-B-6, Tucson, AZ USA

Charles, FS; 1316 Hillshire Meadow Dr, Matthews, NC USA

Charlton, W; Rodney Porter Building, Dept. of Plant Sciences, University of Oxford, South Parks Road, Oxford, OX1 3RB, UNITED KINGDOM; 44-1865-275814; 44-1865-275805 (fax)

Chase, CD; Horticultural Sciences Dept., 1143 Fifield Hall, Univ of Florida, Gainesville, FL USA; 352-392-1928x316; 352-392-6479 (fax); ctdc@mail.ifas.ufl.edu

Chase, SS; Chase Road, P.O. Box 193, Shokan, NY USA; 845 657 2392 (phone); sschase@aol.com

Chaudhuri, S; Monsanto, 1920 5th St, Davis, CA USA; 530-792-2318; 530-972-2453 (fax)

Chen, F; Dept. Plant Industry, Natl. Pingtung Univ. Sci. & Tech., Neipu, Pingtung 91201, TAIWAN; 886-8-774-0267; 886-8-774-0371 (fax); furechen@mail.npust.edu.tw

Chen, J; Institute of Molec Biol, Academia Sinica, Taipei 11529, TAIWAN; 011-8862-2789-9208; 011-8862-2782-6085 (fax); mbjchen@ccvax.sinica.edu.tw

Chen, J; AgReliant Genetics LLC, Lebanon, IN USA; 765-482-9448 (fax); 765-482-9833; jialiang.chen@agreliantgenetics.com

Chen, M; Inst Genetics Devel Biol, Chinese Acad Sci, Anwan, Datun Road 917 Building, Beijing 100101, CHINA; (10)6483-7087; mschen@genetics.ac.cn

Chen, S; Academia Sinica, Institute of Genetics, Datun Road, Andingmen Wai, Beijing, 100101, CHINA

Chen, W; Dept. of Agronomy, Henan Agric. University, ZhengZhou 450002, CHINA

Chen, Z, Louisiana State Univ, Dept Plant Path & Crop Physiol, 1100 Robert E Lee Blvd, PO Box 19687, New Orleans, LA USA; 504-286-4345; 504-286-4419 (fax)

Cheng, K; Yunnan Academy of Agricultural Sciences, Kunming, Yunnan 650205, CHINA

Cheng, PC; Advanced Microscopy and Imaging Lab, Dept Elect Comp Eng, 201 Bell Hall, State University of New York at Buffalo, Buffalo, NY USA; (716)645-3868; (716)645-3868 (fax)

Cheng, RY; Nankai University, Biology Division, Plant Molecular Biology Dept., Tianjin 300071, CHINA

Chernov, AA; Institute of Genetics, Acad Sci Mold Repub, Kishinev, MOLDOVA

Chikwamba, R; Iowa State Univ, G503 Agronomy Hall, Ames, IA USA; 515-294-8832; 515-294-3163 (fax); rchikwam@iastate.edu

Chilton, WS; Dept of Botany, Box 7612, N. C. State University, Raleigh, NC USA; (919)515-3792; (919)515-3436 (fax); schilton@unity.ncsu.edu

Chin, E; Garst Seeds Co, Hwy 210, PO Box 500, Slater, IA USA; 800-831-6630x5229; 515-685-5080 (fax); Emily Chin@GarstSeedCo.com

Choe, B; Agronomy Dept, College of Agriculture, Chungnam National University, Dae-Jon 305-764, KOREA; KOREA-042-821-5723; 82-42-823-8050 (fax)

Choffnes, D; Univ Berkeley, 111 Koshland Hall, Berkeley, CA USA; choffnes@nature.berkeley.edu

Choi, J; Univ of Florida, 2204 Fifield Hall, Gainesville, FL USA; 352-392-1928 x314; 352-392-6479 (fax)

Choi, K; Dept. of Corn Breeding, Upland Crop Div., Crop Experiment Station, Suwon, KOREA; (0331)292-3823; (0331)292-4560 (fax)

Chojecki, J; Plant Bioscience Limited, Norwich Research Park, Colney Lane, Norwich NR4 7UH, UNITED KINGDOM; 44-(0)1603-456500; 44-(0)1603-456552 (fax); ajsc@pbltechnology.com

Chomet, P; DeKalb Plant Genetics/Monsanto, 62 Maritime Drive, Mystic, CT USA; 860-572-5224; 860-572-5282 (fax); Paul Chomet@Monsanto.com

Chongkid, B; Dept. of Agricultural Technology, Fac. of Science & Technology, Thammasat Univ., Rangsit Campus, Pathum Thani 12121, THAILAND; 5160020-39 ext. 1712, 1713; 5160963 (fax)

Chopra, S; Department of Crop and Soil Sciences, 116 ASI Building, Penn State University, University Park, PA USA; 814-863-7043 (fax); 814-865-1159; sic3@psu.edu Choubey, R; Indian Grassl & Fodder Res Inst, Pahuj Dam, Jhansi-Gwalior Road, Jhansi-284003 (U.P.), INDIA; 0517-440908

Chourey, PS; USDA-ARS, Plant Pathology Department, University of Florida, Gainesville, FL USA; 352-392-2806; 352-392-6532 (fax); pschourey@ifas.ufl.edu

Choy, M; Dept Plant Microbial Biol, PO Box 13625, Univ California, Berkeley, CA USA; 510-642-7918; choymy@nature.berkeley.edu

Christensen, DW; Syngenta, 317 330th St, Northfield, MN USA; 507-645-7519 (fax); 507-663-7619

Christensen, T; Botany & Plant Path Dept, 2082 Cordley Hall, Oregon State Univ, Corvallis, OR USA; 541-737-5295; 541-737-3573 (fax)

Chuck, G; 800 Buchanan St., Albany, CA USA; 858-534-7108 (fax); 858-534-2514; gchuck@nature.berkeley.edu

Chughtai, SR; Maize Program, NARC, P.O. NIH, Islamabad, PAKISTAN; (051)241534; 51-812968 (fax)

Chumak, N; Krasnodar Agr Res Inst Lukyanenko, Krasnodar 350012, RUSSIA; 226985

Ciba-Geigy Corp; Library, P.O. Box 12257, Research Triangle Park, NC USA; (919)541-8539; (919)541-8585 (fax)

Cicek, M; Dept Biology, Virginia Tech, Blacksburg, VA USA; 540-231-8951; 540-231-9307 (fax); mcicek@vt.edu

Ciceri, P; Biology Dept 0116, UCSD, 9500 Gilman Dr, La Jolla, CA USA; 619-534-2514; 619-536-7108 (fax); pciceri@biomail.ucsd.edu

Cigan, AM; Pioneer Hi-Bred Internatl, 7300 NW 62nd Ave, Box 1004, Johnston, IA USA; 515-270-3904; 515-270-3367 (fax); mark.cigan@pioneer.com

CIMMYT Library; Apdo. Postal 6-641, 06600 Mexico, D. F., MEXICO; 52-55-5804-2004; 52-55-5804-7558/7559 (fax); Direct from US 650-833-6655; e.orozco@cgiar.org CIRAD; M. Marchand, TA 70/16, 73 Rue Jean-Francois Breton, F 34398 Montpellier Cedex 5, FRANCE

Clancy, M; Univ of Florida, Fifield Hall, PO Box 110690, Gainesville, FL USA; 352-392-1928 x314; 352-392-5653 (fax); clancy@gnv.ifas.ufl.edu

Clark, JK; Dept. of Biology, Starcher Hall, University of North Dakota, Box 9019, Grand Forks, ND USA; (701)777-2621; (701)777-2623 (fax); janice_clark@und.nodak.edu Clark, R; 5210 Genetics, 445 Henry Mall, Madison, WI USA; 608-262-2976 (fax); 608-262-5804

Clayton, K; Dow Agrosciences, 9330 Zionsville Rd, Bldg 306-C2-833, Indianapolis, IN USA; 317-337-3842; 317-337-5989 (fax); kaclayton@dow.com

Close; Dept. Bot. & Plant Sci., Univ. of California Riverside, Riverside, CA USA; 909-787-3318; 909-787-4437 (fax); timothy.close@ucr.edu

Close, P; 4010 Thornwood Dr, Columbia, MO USA; 573-214-3000; pclose@columbia.k12.mo.us

Clutter, M; BIO/BIO, National Science Foundation Room 605N, 4201 Wilson Blvd., Arlington, VA USA; 703-292-1400; mclutter@nsf.gov

Cobb, BG; Texas A&M Univ, Dept Horticulture, College Station, TX USA; 979-845-5615; 979-845-0627 (fax); gregcobb@tamu.edu

Cocciolone, S; ExSeed Genetics, 2901 S. Loop Dr. Bldg. 3, Suite 3800, Ames, IA USA; 515-296-0929; 515-296-5349 (fax); coccios@basf-corp.com

Coe, E; 202 Curtis Hall, University of Missouri, Columbia, MO USA; 573-882-2768; 573-884-7850 (fax); coee@missouri.edu

Coelho, C; 211 Forbes Bldg, Rm 303, Univ Arizona, Tucson, AZ USA; 520-621-9254; coelho@ag.arizona.edu

Coelho, M; BASF Plant Sciences, LLC, 26 Davis Drive, Research Triangle Park, NC USA; 919 547 2906 (phone); 919 547 2482 (fax); mike.coelho@basf.com

Colasanti, JJ; Department of Molecular and Cellular Biology, University of Guelph, Guelph, Ontario Canada; 519-824-4120; jcolasan@uoguelph.ca

Colbert, T; Pioneer Hi-Bred International, Inc., Princeton Research Center, RR1, Box 90A, Princeton, IN USA; Terry.Colbert@pioneer.com

Coleman, C; Dept Botany & Range Sci, Brigham Young Univ, Provo, UT USA; 801-378-3784; 801-378-7499 (fax); cec3@email.byu.edu

Colleoni, C; Iowa State Univ, 2154 Molec Biol Bldg, Ames, IA USA; 515-294-0453 (fax); 515-294-8202; colleoni@iastate.edu

Cone, KC; Biological Sciences, University of Missouri, Columbia, MO USA; 573-882-2118; 573-882-0123 (fax); ConeK@missouri.edu

Conner, J; Dept Biol Environ Sci, Univ Tenn Chattanooga, 615 McCallie Ave, Chattanooga, TN USA; 423-755-4341; 423-785-2285 (fax)

Consonni, G; Dipart Fisioll e Chim Agraria, Univ di Milano, Via Celoria 2, 20133 Milan, ITALY; 39.02.2663057 (fax); 39.02.26607212; gabriella.consonni@unimi.it

Cook, WB; Biology Department, Midwestern State University, 3410 Taft Blvd., Wichita Falls, TX USA; 940-397-4192; 940-397-4442 (fax)

Cooper, J; Univ of Missouri, 105 Tucker Hall, Columbia, MO USA; 573-882-4871; 573-882-0123 (fax)

Cooper, PS; Univ. of Missouri, Div. of Biological Science, Columbia, MO USA; 573-882-1168; 573-882-0123 (fax); cooper@biosci.mbp.missouri.edu

Coors, JG; Department of Agronomy, University of Wisconsin, 1575 Linden Drive, Madison, WI USA; 608-262-7959; jgcoors@facstaff.wisc.edu

Corcuera, RV; Inst Fitotec de Santa Catalina, Garibaldi 3400, Llavallol, Buenos Aires, ARGENTINA; 54 11 42820233 (fax); 54 11 42820233; Yuxkan@hotmail.com

Corke, H; 45 Highwest, 142 Pokfulam Road, Hong Kong, HONG KONG; 011 852 2859 2820; 011 852 2858 3477 (fax)

Corley, S; Univ Oxford, Dept Plant Sci, South Parks Rd, OX1 3RB Oxford, UNITED KINGDOM; 44 0 1865 275030

Cormack, J; Monsanto, 62 Maritime Dr., Mystic, CT USA; (860) 572-5239; (860) 572-5240 (fax)

Cornu, A; Sta d'Amelior des Plantes, B V 1540, 21034 Dijon, FRANCE; 80-63-3159; 80-63-3263 (fax)

Cortes-Cruz, M; Waksman Institute, Rutgers University, Piscataway, NJ USA; (732) 445-0072; moises@waksman.rutgers.edu

Costa, LM; Univ Oxford, Dept Plant Sci, South Parks Rd, OX1 3RB Oxford, UNITED KINGDOM; 0044 1865 275819; illiana.costa@plants.ox.ac.uk

Costich, D; Boyce Thompson Institute for Plant Research Tower Road, Ithaca, NY USA; 607-254-1349 (phone); 607-254-1242 (fax); dc58@cornell.edu

Cota, C; Lehman College, CUNY, Dept Biological Sci, Bronx, NY USA; 718-960-4994; 718-960-8236 (fax)

Courtney, E; 101 Tucker Hall, Univ Missouri, Columbia, MO USA; 573-882-1168

Cowan, CR; Univ California-Berkeley, 345 LSA, Berkeley, CA USA; 510-643-8277; 510-643-6791 (fax)

Cowperthwaite, M; Rutgers Univ, Waksman Inst, Piscataway, NJ USA; 732-445-5735 (fax); 732-445-6247

Crane, VC; Trait and Technology Development, Pioneer Hi-Bred International, Inc., 7300 N. W. 62nd Ave, Box 1004, Johnston, IA USA; (515)270-3645; (515)253-2149 (fax); virginia.crane@pioneer.com

Crawford, M; Monsanto, 3302 SE Convenience Blvd, Ankeny, IA USA; 515-963-4242 (fax); 515-963-4215

Creech, RG; Plant & Soil Sciences, Box 9555, Mississippi State University, Mississippi State, MS USA; 601-325-2699; 601-325-8742 (fax); rgcreech@ra.msstate.edu Cross, JM; 1143 Fifield Hall, Univ Florida, Gainesville, FL USA; 352-392-1928; 352-392-6479 (fax)

CSR; Current Serial Records - CSR, Room 002 (copy 2), 10301 Baltimore Blvd, Beltsville, MD USA

Cui. C: Dow Agrosciences. 9330 Zionsville Rd. Indianapolis. IN USA: 317-337-3599: 317-337-5989 (fax)

Cui, X; Iowa State Univ, B420 Agronomy, Ames, IA USA; 515-294-1659; 515-294-2299 (fax)

Cummings, DP; Dekalb Genetics Corporation, P.O. Box 367, 908 North Independence, Windfall, IN USA; 317-945-7125; 317-945-7152 (fax)

Curlee, K; 9330 Zionsville Road, Building 306/office 1A-180, Indianapolis, IN USA; 317-337-5972; kcurlee@dow.com

Currie, R; SWREC, 4500 E. Mary, Garden City, KS USA; 316-276-8286; 316-276-6028 (fax); RCURRIE@OZNET.KSU.EDU

Dai, JR; 2, Yuanmingyuan West St., Beijing 100094, CHINA; 62892571; 0086-1-62891023 (fax)

Daido, H; Nat Inst Livestock Grassl Sci, Senbonmatsu, Nishinasuno, Tochigi, JAPAN; 81-287-37/7551; 81-287-36-6629 (fax); hdaido@affrc.go.jp

Damerval, C; Station de Genetique Vegetale, Ferme du Moulon, 91190 Gif Sur Yvette, FRANCE; (1)01 69 33 23 66; 33(1)01 69 33 23 40 (fax)

Damon, S; Syngenta Seeds, Inc.,, 4133 E. County Road O, Janesville, WI USA; steve.damon@syngenta.com

Dan, Y; Monsanto700 Chesterfield Pkwy, N GG4B, Chesterfield, MO USA; 636-737-6567 (fax); 636-737-5309

Danilevskaya, O; Pioneer Hi-Bred Internatl, 7250 NW 62nd Avenue, PO Box 552, Johnston, IA USA; 515-270-4128; 515-334-4788 (fax); olga.danilevskaya@pioneer.com Dankov, T; 93-Tzaz Iwan Assen II Str., Sofia 1124, BULGARIA; 43-82-73; nedeva@biofac.uni-sofia.bg

Dannenhoffer, J; Central Michigan Univ, Dept of Biology, 217 Brooks Hall, Mt. Pleasant, MI USA; 517-774-2509

Daohong, X; Maize Research Institute, Jilin Acad., 5 W. Xing Hua Street, Gongzhuling, Jilin, P.R. 13610, CHINA; (86)-04441-215179; (86)-04441-214884 (fax)

- Darrah, L; 110A Curtis Hall, University of Missouri, Columbia, MO USA; 573-882-2349; 573-884-7850 (fax)
- Davis, DW; 101 Tucker Hall, Univ Missori, Columbia, MO USA; 573-882-1168; 573-884-0123 (fax); DavisDo@missouri.edu
- Davis, G; Division of Plant Sciences, 1-31 Agriculture Building, University of Missouri-Columbia, Columbia, MO USA; 573-882-1469 (fax); 573-882-9228; DavisGe@missouri.edu

Dawe, RK; Department of Plant Biology, University of Georgia, Athens, GA USA; 706-542-1658; 706-542-1805 (fax); kelly@plantbio.uga.edu

Day, PR; Center for Ag Molec Biology, Cook College, Rutgers Univ, Foran Hall, Dudley Road, New Brunswick, NJ USA; 908-932-8165; 908-932-6535 (fax); day@aesop.rutgers.edu

de Carvalho, CR; Universidade Federal de Vicosa, Depto Biologia Geral, 36571.000 Vicosa - MG, BRAZIL; 31-899-2568; 31-899-2203 (fax)

De Leon, C; Maize Program, c/o CIAT, Apdo. Aereo 67-13, Cali, COLOMBIA

de Oliveira, AC; Centro de Biotecnologia, Predio 19, Campus UFPel, P.O. Box 354, 96001-970, Pelotas, RS, BRAZIL; 055532757158; 055532759031 (fax); acosta@ufpel.tche.br

Dean, C; BBSRC, John Innes Centre, Colney Lane, Norwich NR4 7UH, UNITED KINGDOM; 011-44-1603-452571; 011-44-1603-505725 (fax); caroline.dean@bbsrc.ac.uk Dean, RA; Dept Plant Path, North Carolina State Univ, 1200 Partners Bldg II, Raleigh, NC USA; 919-513-0020; 919-513-0024 (fax); ralph_dean@ncsu.edu

Debaene, J; Betaseed, Inc., PO Box 858, Kimberly, ID USA; jdebaene@betaseed.com

DeBroux, SS; 700 E. Butler Ave., Delaware Valley College, Doylestown, PA USA; 215-345-1500; 215-345-5277 (fax)

Degenhardt, J; Max Planck Inst Chemical Ecol, Tatzendpromenade 1a, D-07745 Jena, GERMANY; 011-49-3641-643652; 011-49-3641-643650 (fax); degenhardt@ice.mpg.de

Deising, HB; Institut fur Pflanzenzuchtung und Pflanzenschutz, Ludwig Wucherer Str. 2 06099, Halle (Saale), GERMANY; 49-345-5522660 (phone); 49-345-5527120 (fax); deising@landw.uni-halle.de

Delannay, X; Monsanto - N3SB, 800 N. Lindbergh Blvd., Saint Louis, MO USA; 314-537-6611; 314-694-3644 (fax); xavier.delannay@monsanto.com

Deleu, W; Cold Spring Harbor Lab, c/o Jackson Lab, Delbruck Bldg, 1, Bungtown Road, Cold Spring Harbor, NY USA; 516-367-8827; 516-367-8369 (fax); deleu@cshl.edu

Della Vedova, CB; Department of Plant Sciences, University of Oxford, South Parks Road, Oxford, UNITED KINGDOM; chris.dellavedova@plants.ox.ac.uk

Dellaporta, SL; Yale University, Molec Cell Devel Biol, New Haven, CT USA; 203-432-3895; 203-432-3854 (fax); stephen.dellaporta@yale.edu

Delmer, DP; Rockefeller Foundation, 420 Fifth Ave, New York, NY USA; ++1(212)8528342 (phone); ++(212)8528442 (fax); ddelmer@rockfound.org

Delzer, B; Syngenta, 4133 E County Road "O", Janesville, WI USA; 608-757-1102; 608-757-0080 (fax); brent.delzer@syngenta.com

DeMason, D; Botany & Plant Sciences, Univ of California, Riverside, CA USA; 909-787-3580; 909-787-4437 (fax); demason@ucrac1.ucr.edu

Dempsey, E; 7 Prospect St, Cornwall-on-Hudson, NY USA; 845-534-5285

Dennis, ES; CSIRO, Division of Plant Industry, P.O. Box 1600, Canberra, ACT 2601, AUSTRALIA; 61-6-246-5061; 61-6-246-5000 (fax)

Dermastia, M; Department of Biology,, University of Ljubljana,, Vecna pot 111, Ljubljana, SLOVENIA; ++386 1 423 33 88; ++386 1 257 33 90 (fax); marina.dermastia@bf.unilj.si

Deshpande, A; Biology Dept, Purdue Univ, West Lafayette, IN USA; 756-496-1496 (fax); 752-494-4919; adeshpan@bilbo.bio.purdue.edu

- Deutsch, JA; Garst Seed Company, RR 2 Box 16, Marshall, MO USA; 660-886-6363; 660-886-9877 (fax); jim.deutsch@garstseedco.com
- Dev, J; Advan Centre Hill Bioresources, & Biotechnology, COA, HP Agricultural Univ, Palampur, HP 176 062 INDIA; 01894-30314 / 30915; 01894-30511 / 30406; biotech@hpkv.hp.nic.in

Devereaux, A; BASF Plant Sci, 26 Davis Dr, Research Triangle Park, NC USA; 919-547-2423 (fax); 919-547-2905

Dewald, CL; ARS-USDA, 2000 18th St., Woodward, OK USA; 580-256-7449; 580-256-1322 (fax)

Dey, N; Iowa State Univ, 2156 MBB, Ames, IA USA; 515-294-6755 (fax); 515-294-4445; dey@iastate.edu

DH Hill Lib/Acq GX; North Carolina State Univ, Box 7111, Raleigh, NC USA; (919)513-3356; (919)515-7292 (fax); barbara_goist@ncsu.edu

Dhillon, BS; Director of Research, Punjab Agricultural University, Ludhiana-141 004, Punjab INDIA; 0161-2401221 (O) (phone); 0161-2400945; 2407309 (fax); drpau@pau.edu

Dhliwayo, T; Dept. of Agron, Iowa State Univ., 100 Osborn Drive, 1515 Agronomy Hall, Ames, IA USA; 515-294-9721 (phone); tdhliwa@iastate.edu

Dias, A; Ohio State Univ, 218A Rightmire Hall, 1060 Carmack Rd, Columbus, OH USA; 614-292-5379 (fax); 614-688-4954; dias.9@osu.edu

Dias, D; Garst Seed, 2369 300th St, Slater, IA USA; 515-685-5117; 515-685-5080 (fax); dilip.dias@garstseedco.com

Dick, D; Northwest Tech, LLC, 513 N Main, Fairview, OK USA; 580-227-2345; 580-227-3851 (fax); bramco@pldi.net

Diehn, S; Pioneer Hi-Bred Intl, 7250 NW 62nd Ave, Johnston, IA USA; 515-334-4722 (fax); 515-254-2866; scott.diehn@pioneer.com

Dietrich, C; Donald Danforth Plant Sci Ctr, 975 North Warson Road, Saint Louis, MO USA; 314-587-1466; 314-587-1566 (fax); cdietrich@danforthcenter.org

Dijkhuizen, A; Monsanto SAS, Route D'Epincy, Louville La Chenard, FRANCE; +33 2 37 22 18 76; arian.dijkhuizen@monsanto.com

Dilkes, BP; Dept Plant Sci, Forbes Bldg, Rm 36, Univ Arizona, Tucson, AZ USA; 520-621-9154; 520-521-3692 (fax)

Dille, JE; Winthrop College Biology Dept, Rock Hill, SC USA; 803-323-2111; 803-323-3448 (fax); dillej@winthrop.edu

Dilworth, M; Plant Sci Initiatives, National Science Foundation, 4201 Wilson Blvd., Arlington, VA USA; 703-292-8470; mdilwort@nsf.gov

Dinges, JR; 2182 Molec Biol Bldg, Iowa State Univ, Ames, IA USA; 515-294-8202; 515-294-0453 (fax); jdinges@iastate.edu

Director; USDA ARS Natl Seed Storage Lab, 1111 S. Mason St., Fort Collins, CO USA; 970-484-0402; 970-221-1427 (fax)

Dodd, JL; Professional Seed Research, Inc, 7 South 437 Dugan Road, Sugar Grove, IL USA; 630-466-1060; 630-466-1068 (fax)

Doebley, JF; Genetics Department, University of Wisconsin, Madison, WI USA; 608-265-5803/5804; 608-262-2976 (fax); jdoebley@facstaff.wisc.edu

Doley, WP; Global Crop Development Manager, CLEARFIELD Oilseeds and Maize, BASF Corporation, 3000 Continental Drive - North, Mt. Olive, NJ USA; 973 426 2473; 973 886 4523; 973 426 2447 (FAX)

Dolfini, S; Dipartimento di Genetica, University of Milano, Via Celoria 26, 20133 Milano, ITALY; 39 2 266051; 39 2 2664551 (fax)

Dolgikh, Y; Inst of Plant Physiology, ul. Botanicheskaya, 35, Moscow 127276, RUSSIA; 7-095-9039392; 7-095-9778018 (fax); gsc@ippras.ru

Dombrink-Kurtzman, MA; Natl. Ctr. for Agric. Utilization Research, USDA, ARS, 1815 N. University St., Peoria, IL USA; (309)681-6254; (309)681-6686 (fax); dombrink@mail.ncaur.usda.gov

Donahue, PJ; VP Agric Res & Tech Services, Nabisco, Inc., Planters Co., 40906 10th Street, P.O. Box 215, Greenfield, CA USA; 831-674-3131; 831-674-5139 (fax); Pat.Donahue@kraft.com

Dong, J; Monsanto, 800 N Lindbergh Blvd T3A, Saint Louis, MO USA; 314-694-7640; 314-694-8275 (fax)

Dong, Q; Genetics, Development & Cell Biology, Iowa State University, 2104 Molecular Biology Bldg, Ames, IA USA; 515-294-0022; 515-294-6755 (fax); qfdong@iastate.edu Donnison, I; Cell Biol Dept, Inst Grassl & Env Research, Aberystwyth SY23 3EB, UNITED KINGDOM; 44 0 1970 823092; 44 0 1970 828357 (fax); iain.donnison@bbsrc.ac.uk

Doohan, F; John Innes Centre, Norwich Research Park, Colney NR4 7UH, UNITED KINGDOM; 011-44-1603-452571; 011-44-1603-456844 (fax)

Dooner, HK; The Waksman Institute, Rutgers University, P.O. Box 0759, Piscataway, NJ USA; 732-445-4684; 732-445-5735 (fax); dooner@waksman.rutgers.edu Dorweiler, JE; Marquette University, P.O. Box 1881, Milwaukee, WI USA; 414-288-5120; 414-288-7357 (fax); jane.dorweiler@marquette.edu

Dorweller, JE, Marquette University, P.O. Box 1001, Milwaukee, WI USA, 414-200-3120, 414-200-7337 (lax), Jane Doss, B; Univ Georgia, Dept of Genetics/Botany, Athens, GA USA; 706-354-8986

Doust, A; University of Missouri - St Louis, Department of Biology, 8001 Natural Bridge Road, Saint Louis, MO USA; 314 516 6225; 314 516 6233 (fax); adoust@umsl.edu Dow AgroSciences LLC; Attn: Library, 9410 Zionsville Rd., Bldg. 306 C-2, Indianapolis, IN USA; 317-337-3519; 317-337-3245 (fax)

Dowd, P; USDA-ARS, 1815 N. University St., Peoria, IL USA; 309-681-6242; 309-681-6686 (fax); dowdpf@mail.ncaur.usda.gov

Doyle, GG; Curtis Hall University of Missouri, Columbia, MO USA; 573-882-2674

Dr. Rudolf Habelt GmbH; Am Buchenhang 1, 53115 Bonn, GERMANY; buch@habelt.de

Dress, V; Pioneer Hi-Bred Intl, Inc, 7300 NW 62nd Ave, Box 1004, Johnston, IA USA; 515-270-4078; 515-254-2619 (fax); virginia.dress@pioneer.com

Dresselhaus, T; Univ Hamburg, AMP II, Ohnhorststr 18, Hamburg D-22609, GERMANY; 49 40 42816 312; 49 40 42816 229 (fax); dresselh@botanik.uni-hamburg.de Drinic Mladenovic, S; Maize Research Inst, S Bajica 1, MOS1 Zemun-Belgrade, YUGOSLAVIA; 11-2356-704; 11-2356-707 (fax); msnezana@mrizp.co.yu

Drummond, B; Pioneer Hi-Bred Internat., Inc., 7300 NW 62nd Ave., PO Box 1004, Johnston, IA USA

Dubcovsky, J; Dept. of Agronomy & Range Science, University of California, Davis CA 95616-8515, Davis, CA USA; fax (530) 752-4361; jdubcovsky@ucdavis.edu Dudley, JW; Crop Sciences, S112 Turner Hall, University of Illinois, 1102 S Goodwin Ave, Urbana, IL USA; 217-333-9640; 217-333-9817 (fax); jdudley@uiuc.edu Dufour, P; Laboratoire de Marguage Moleculaire, site Ulice, Zac les portes de riom, BP173, 63204 Riom, FRANCE; philippe.dufour@limagrain.com

Duncan, D; Corn Discovery Team Leader, Monsanto Co., 700 Chesterfield Parkway N., Mail Zone GG4C, Saint Louis, MO USA; 636-737-6923; 636-737-6567 (fax); dsduncan@stanford.edu

Duru, N; 403 Tucker Hall, Univ Missouri, Columbia, MO USA; 573-884-3715; 573-882-0123 (fax)

Duvick, JP; PlantGDB Manager, Department of Genetics, Development and Cell Biology, 2258 Molecular Biology Building, Iowa State University, Ames, IA USA; (515) 294-2360 (phone); (515) 294-6755 (fax); jduvick@iastate.edu

Duvick, SA; 1501 Agronomy, Iowa State University, Ames, IA USA; 515-294-5545

Earle, ED; Dept Plant Breed & Biom, Cornell University, 252 Emerson Hall, Ithaca, NY USA; 607-255-3102; 607-255-6683 (fax); ede3@cornell.edu

Eathington, SR; 910 Gaskill, Ames, IA USA; 515-956-3073; 515-232-7170 (fax)

Ecker, JR; Salk Institute Biol Studies, 10010 N. Torrey Pines Road, La Jolla, CA USA; 858-453-4100x1752; 858-558-6379; ecker@salk.edu

Edgerton, MD; Cereon Genomics, LLC, 45 Sidney St, Cambridge, MA USA; 617-551-8292; 617-551-1960 (fax)

Edmeades, GO; Pioneer Hi-Bred Internati., Waimea Research Center, P.O. Box 609, Waimea, HI USA; 808-338-8300; 808-338-8325 (fax); greg.edmeades@pioneer.com

Edwards, D; Agriculture Victoria, Plant Biotechnology Centre, La Trobe University, Bundoora Victoria 3086, AUSTRALIA; +61 (0) 3 94795633; +61 (0) 3 94793618 (fax); Dave.Edwards@dpi.vic.gov.au

Edwards, JW; Ryals Public Health Bldg 327D, Univ Alabama Birmingham, UAB Station, Birmingham, AL USA; 205-975-7762; 205-975-2540 (fax); jedwards@ms.soph.uab.edu

Edwards, K; Functional Genomics Group, OB120, School of Biol Sci, Univ Bristol, Woodland Road, Bristol BS8 1UG, UNITED KINGDOM; 44 0117 3317079; 44 0117 9257374 (fax); K.J.Edwards@bristol.ac.uk

Edwards, M; Monsanto Company, Mail Zone GG3A, 700 Chesterfield Parkway North, Saint Louis, MO USA; (636) 737-5858; marlin.d.edwards@monsanto.com Efremov, A; Max-Planck-Institute, Carl-von-Linne-Weg 10, D-50829 Koln (Vogelsang), GERMANY

Egesel, C; Plant Breeding and Genetics, Department of Field Crops, Canakkale Onsekiz Mart Univ, Canakkale, TURKEY; cemegesel@hotmail.com

Eggleston, W; Department of Biology, Virginia Commonwealth University, 816 Park Ave, Richmond, VA USA; 804-828-1562; 804-828-0503 (fax); Weggles@saturn.vcu.edu Eichholtz, DA; Monsanto, BB4D, 700 Chesterfield Village Pkwy, Saint Louis, MO USA; 314-537-6227; 314-537-6047 (fax); DAEICH@CCMAIL.MONSANTO.COM

Ellis, LC; Geo Wash Carver Ctr Bldg, 5601 Sunnyside Avenue, Rm 4-2192, MAIL STOP 5138, Beltsville, MD USA; 301-504-4788/7050; 301-504-4725 (fax)

Elsing, E; Pioneer Hi-Bred Intl Inc., 1-385 Kaumualii Hwy, PO Box 609, Waimea Kauai, HI USA; 808-338-8325 (fax); 808-338-8300 ext 105; evan.elsing@pioneer.com Elster, R; Inst fur Entwicklungsbiologie, Univ zu Koeln, Cologne 50923, GERMANY; 49 221 470 6281; 49 221 470 5164 (fax)

Emmanuel, S; Inst Agric Res Devel, PO Box 25 Ekona, Southwest Province, Buea, REPUBLIC OF CAMEROON; 00237 31 99 25 (fax); 00237 35 43 71;

evasama@yahoo.com ENEA-Casaccia-INN BIOAG BIMO: BROGLIA - SP 026. Via Anguillarese 301, 00060 S MARIA DI GALERIA, ROMA, ITALY

Erickson, B; Univ Wisconsin, 900 Wood Rd, PO Box 2000, Kenosha, WI USA; canuck_fan@hotmail.com

Ernst, C; 9330 Zionsville Road, Indianapolis, IN USA; 317-337-5123; 317-337-5989 (fax); caernst@dow.com

Erturk, N; Dept. of Biology, Virginia Polytech Inst & State Univ, Blacksburg, VA USA

Esen, A; Dept Biology, Va Polytech Inst & State Univ, Blacksburg, VA USA; 540-231-5894; 540-231-9307 (fax); esen@vt.edu

Espinosa, E; CIMMYT, Apdo 6-641, Lisboa, Mexico City 06 600, MEXICO

Eubanks, MW; Dept. Biology, Box 90338, Duke University, Durham, NC USA; 919-660-7417; 919-660-7425 (fax); eubanks@duke.edu

EURALIS GENETIQUE; Philippe Blanchard, Parc Technol du Canal, 7 rue Hermes, 31520 Ramonville St Agne, FRANCE

Evans, M; Department of Plant Biology, Carnegie Institution of Washington, 260 Panama Street, Stanford, CA USA; 650-325-1521 ext 283; 650-325-6857 (fax); mmevans@stanford.edu

Evans, ML; Dept Plant Biology, Ohio State Univ, Columbus, OH USA; 614-292-9162; 614-292-6345 (fax); evans.20@osu.edu

Eversole, K; Eversole Associates, 3208 Park View Road, Chevy Chase, MD USA; 301-951-3345; 301-951-1846 (fax); eversole@eversole.biz

Evola, SV; Novartis Biotechnology, 3054 Cornwallis Rd, Durham, NC USA; 910-547-1038; 910-547-1030 (fax)

Fabbri, BJ; Monsanto, 800 N Lindbergh N2SA, Saint Louis, MO USA; 314-694-5607; 314-694-1080 (fax); bradon.j.fabbri@monsanto.com

Falbel, T; Department of Biochemistry, University of Wisconsin, 433 Babcock Drive, Madison, WI USA; 608-263-0314; 608-262-3453 (fax); tgfalbel@biochem.wisc.edu

Falque, M; INRA, Station de Genet Veg, du Moulon, Gif-sur-Yvette 91190, FRANCE; 33 169332340 (fax); 33 169332364; falque@moulon.inra.fr

Fang, Z; Engineering West, EBW 347, University of Missouri, Columbia, MO USA; 573-882-6887; fangz@missouri.edu

Farish, G; Biology Dept, Adams State College, Alamosa, CO USA; 719-587-7969; 719-587-7242 (fax); gefarish@adams.edu

Farmer, PR; Boyce Thompson Institute, Cornell University, Ithaca, NY USA; 607-254-6747 (phone); prf4@cornell.edu

Fato, F; Nat Agronomic Res Inst, C.P. 3658, Av. FPLM 2698, Maputo 8, MOZAMBIQUE; ++258(1)460190 (phone); ++258(1)460074 (fax); fatopedro@hotmail.com

Fauron, C; University of Utah, 2100 Eccles Genetics Bldg, Salt Lake City, UT USA; 435-581-4435; 435-585-7177 (fax); christiane fauron@genetics.utah.edu

Feazel, R: Monsanto, Q4A, 800 N, Lindbergh Blvd, Saint Louis, MO USA; (636)737-5250; rhonda feazel@monsanto.com

Federal Documents Section; Exchange & Gift Div, Library of Congress, Washington, DC USA; (202)707-9503; (202)707-2086 (fax)

Fedoroff, NV; Biology, 0519 Wartik Laboratory, University Park, PA USA; 814-863-5717; 814-863-1357 (fax); nvf1@psu.edu

Feix, G; Institut Fur Biologie III, Universitat Freiburg, 79104 Freiburg, GERMANY; 497-6120-32724; 497-6120-32745 (fax); feix01@aol.com

Fellner, M; Department of Cell Biology & Genetics, Palacky University Olomouc, Slechtitelu 11, Olomouc-Holice, CZECH REPUBLIC; +420-58 56 34905; +420-58 56 34870 (fax); emfee@prfhoInt.upol.cz

Feng, D; Pioneer Hi-Bred International, Inc., 7301 NW 62nd Ave, PO Box 85, Johnston, IA USA; 515-334-6358; 515-331-0033; 515-253-2221 (fax); Dongsheng.Feng@Pioneer.com

Feng, JS; Maize Research Institute Shandong, Academy of Agricultural Sciences, 11 Sang Yuan Road, Jinan, Shandong 250100, P.R., CHINA; (0531)860329

Fergason, V; Custom Farm Seed, 100 East Shafer, P.O. Box 380, Forsyth, IL USA; 217-875-2826; 217-875-9437 (fax)

Ferl, RJ; Horticultural Sciences, Univ Florida, Gainesville, FL USA; 352-392-4711 x313; 352-392-4072 (fax)

Fernandes, AM; Av Azarias Jorge, n 1504 Centro Pontalina, Goias 75620/000, BRAZIL; 62-471-1237

Feschotte, C; Univ Georgia, Botany Dept, Miller Plant Sci, Athens, GA USA; 706-542-1857; cedric@dogwood.botany.uga.edu

Feuillet, C; INRA Amélioration et Santé des Plantes, Domaine de Crouelle, 234, Avenue du Brézet, 63039 Clermont-Ferrand Cedex 2, FRANCE; feuillet@botinst.unizh.ch

Fields, N; National Corn Growers Assn, 632 Cepi Drive, Chesterfield, MO USA; (636) 733-9004 (phone); (636) 733-9005 (fax); fields@ncga.com

Fisher, D; Seminis Vegetable Seeds, 7202 Portage Road, DeForest, WI USA; 608-846-7889; 608-846-7892 (fax)

Fisher, DK; Mail Zone AA3E, Monsanto Co., 700 Chesterfield Pkwy North, Saint Louis, MO USA; 314-737-7434

Flament, P; Biocem, Campus Universitaire des Cezeaux, 24 Avenue des Landais, 63170 Aubiere, FRANCE; (33)73 42 79 70; (33)73 27 57 36 (fax)

Flint-Garcia, SA; USDA ARS, University of Missouri, 110 Curtis Hall, Columbia, MO USA; 573-884-7850; flint-garcias@missouri.edu

Fluminhan, A, Jr.; University of Western S?o Paulo, Division of Graduate Studies, Campus II - Rod. Raposo Tavares, km 572, CEP: 19.067-175, Presidente Prudente (SP), BRAZIL; (55) 18-229-2080 (fax); (55) 18-229-2077/2078/2079; fluminhan@posgrad.unoeste.br

Foley, T; Holden's Foundation Seeds L.L.C., P.O. Box 839, Williamsburg, IA USA; 319-668-1100; 319-668-2453 (fax); terry.foley@holdens.com

Fomanka, ES; Inst Agric Res Devel, PO Box 25 Ekona, Southwest Province, Buea, REPUBLIC OF CAMEROON; 00237 31 99 25 (fax); 00237 35 43 71; tumbuf@yahoo.com Forage Crop Breed & Seed Res Inst; 388-5, Higashiakada, Nishinasuno, Tochigi, 329-27, JAPAN; 287-37-6755; 287-37-6757 (fax)

Foster, T; Plant Gene Expression Center, USDA, 800 Buchanan St., Albany, CA USA

Fowler, J; Botany and Plant Path Dept, 2082 Cordley Hall, Oregon State Univ, Corvallis, OR USA; 541-737-5295; 541-737-3573 (fax); fowlerj@science.oregonstate.edu

Fox, T; Pioneer Hi-Bred Internat., Inc., 7300 NW 62nd Ave. NW, P.O. Box 1004, Johnston, IA USA

Frame, B; Iowa State Univ Plant Transformation Facility, G503 Agronomy, Ames, IA USA; 515-294-8832; 515-294-2299 (fax); bframe@iastate.edu

Francis, TR; Novartis Seeds Canada Inc, R. R. 1, Arva, Ont NOM 1C0, CANADA; 519-461-0072; 519-461-0275 (fax)

Frank, C; Dow Agrosciences, 9330 Zionsville Rd, Bldg 306, Indianapolis, IN USA; 317-337-5965; 317-337-5989 (fax)

Frank, M; Dept. of Biology, MC0116, Univ. of California - San Diego, La Jolla, CA USA

Frank, T; Mycogen Seeds, 1985 E 500 N, Windfall, IN USA; 765--945-8145; 765-945-8150 (fax)

Franklin, A; 13209 Padero Court, Saratoga, CA USA; 510-206-9473

Frascaroli, E; Univ Bologna, Di.S.T.A. (Dept Agro-environmental Science and Technology), Viale Fanin 44, I40126 Bologna, ITALY; 39-051-2096241 (fax); frascaro@agrsci.unibo.it

Fredricksen, M; epartment of Plant Biology, University of Illinois, 201 W. Gregory Dr, Urbana, IL USA; 217 265 5473 (phone); bohnertlab@life.uiuc.edu

Freeling, M; Dept of Plant Biology, 111 Genetics & Plant Biology Bldg, Univ of California, Berkeley, CA USA; 510-642-8058; 510-642-4995 (fax); freeling@nature.berkeley.edu

Frenzel, K; Univ Hamburg, Allgemeine Bot, Ohnhorststrasse 18, 22609 Hamburg, GERMANY; 00494-042816-389; 00494-042816-503 (fax)

Frey, M; Lehrstuhl fur Gentechnik Hoherer Pflanzen, Tech Univ Munchen, Lichtenbergstrabe 4, 85747 Garching, GERMANY; 49-89-2891-3532; 49-89-2891-2892 (fax); monika.frey@wzw.tum.de

Freymark, PJ; 16 Cameron Road, P.O. Borrowdale, Harare, ZIMBABWE; 011-263-4-726061; 011-263-4-726061 (fax)

Fridlender, M; Danyel Biotech Ltd., Science Park, P.O.B. 2417, Rehovot, ISRAEL; 971-8-9266056; marcelo@danyel.co.il

Friedman, RB; Cerestar USA, 1100 Indianapolis Blvd, Hammond, IN USA; 219-659-2000 ext 390; 219-473-6607 (fax)

Friedrich, JW; Maize Genetic Resources, Inc, 10570 Hwy. 50 North, Angier, NC USA; 919-894-5594; 919-894-5660 (fax)

Frizzi, A; 62 Maritime Drive, Mystic, CT USA; 860 572 5264; alessandra.frizzi@monsanto.com

Frolich, W; Oberriexingerstr. 32, D-74343 Sachsenheim, GERMANY

Frova, C; Dept of Genetics & Microbiology, University of Milano, Via Celoria 26, 20133 Milano, ITALY; 39 2 26605244; 39 2 2664551 (fax); carla frova@unimi.it

Fu, H; Waksman Inst, Rutgers Univ, Piscataway, NJ USA; 732-445-2307; 732-445-5735 (fax); huihua@waksman.rutgers.edu

Fu, S; 2502 Miller Plant Sci Bldg, Botany Dept, Univ Georgia, Athens, GA USA; 706-542-1010; 706-542-1805 (fax); fsneng@dogwood.botany.uga.edu

Fu, X; Hunan Academy of Agricultural Sciences, Hybrid Rice Research Center, Mapoling, Dong Jiao, Changsha, Hunan 410125, CHINA; 86-731-469-1443; 86-731-469-1877 (fax)

Fu, Y; 975 N. Warson Road, Donald Danforth Plant Science Center, St. Louis, MO USA; yfu@danforthcenter.org

Fuerstenberg, SI; Tilligen, 215A Madson Place, Davis, CA USA; 530-756-4760; 530-756-4928 (fax)

Furtek, DB; Inst. Molecular Biology Labs, Pennsylvania State Univ., 214 Borland Lab, University Park, PA USA; 814-863-7785; 814-863-6123 (fax)

Gabay-Laughnan, S; Plant Biology/265 Morrill Hall, University of Illinois, 505 S. Goodwin Avenue, Urbana, IL USA; 217-333-2919; 217-244-7246 (fax); gabaylau@life.uiuc.edu

Gabonater Kutatointezet; Also Kikoto sor 9, Szeged, HUNGARY

Gai, X; Iowa State Univ, 2104 Molecular Biology Bldg, Ames, IA USA; 515-294-0022; xgai@iastate.edu

Gaillard, A; Maisadour Semences, Unite Biotechnologie, BP 27, 40001 Mont-de-Marsan, FRANCE; 58 05 84 54; 58 05 84 87 (fax); gaillard@maisadour.com

Gale, M; John Innes Centre, Norwich Research Park, Colney, Norwich NR4 7UH, UNITED KINGDOM; 44 1603 450 599; 44 1603 450 024 (fax); mike.gale@bbsrc.ac.uk

Galian, LR; Univ Nac de Lomas de Zamora, Ruta 4 Km 2, CC :95 Cp:1832, Llavallol Bs As, ARGENTINA

Galinat, WC; Eastern Agric. Center, U. Mass., 240 Beaver Street, Waltham, MA USA; 617-891-0650; 617-899-6054 (fax)

Gallagher, C; Lehman College - CUNY, 250 Bedford Park Blvd W, Bronx, NY USA; 718-960-8236 (fax); 718-960-4994; cegallagher_68@yahoo.com

Gallie, DR; Dept. of Biochemistry, University of California, Riverside, CA USA; (909)787-7298; (909)787-3590 (fax); DRGALLIE@UCRAC1.UCR.EDU

Gallo-Meagher, M; Univ Florida, 2183 McCarty Hall, P.O. Box 110300, Gainesville, FL USA; 352-392-1823; 352-392-7248 (fax)

Gao, MW; Zhejiang Agricultural University, Institute of Nuclear-Agric. Science, Hangzhou, Zhejiang 310029, CHINA

Garcia-Olmedo, F; Lab Biochemistry and Molecular Biology, Dept. Biotechnology, E T S Ingenieros Agronomos, 28040-Madrid, SPAIN; 34-1-3365707; 34-1-3365757 (fax) Gardiner, J; Department of Plant Sciences, 303 Forbes Hall, University of Arizona, Tucson, AZ USA; 520 621 7186 (fax); 520 621 8831 (phone); Gardiner@ag.arizona.edu Gardiner, M; Rogers NK Seed Co, 6338 Highway 20-26, Nampa, ID USA; (208)466-0319; (208)467-4559 (fax); michele.gardiner@syngenta.com

Gardner, CAC; USDA-ARS Research Leader, NCR Plant Introduction Station, G214 Agronomy Hall, Iowa State University, Ames, IA USA; 515-294-7967; 515-294-4880 (fax); gardnerc@iastate.edu

Garg, P; Inst Allgemeine Botanik, Univ Hamburg, Ohnhorststr 18, Hamburg, GERMANY; 049-40-42876503 (fax); 049-40-42876390

Garnaat, CW; Pioneer Hi-Bred Int'l, Department of Biotechnology Research, 7300 N. W. 62nd Ave-P.O. Box 1004, Johnston, IA USA; (515)253-2251; (515)270-3367 (fax); carl.garnaat@pioneer.com

Garton, J; 220 Biosciences Ctr, 1445 Gortner Ave, Univ Minnesota, Saint Paul, MN USA; 651-489-5535; jgarton@biosci.cbs.umn.edu

Garwood, DL; Garwood Seed Company, 1929 N. 2050 East Rd., Stonington, IL USA; 217-325-3715; 217-325-3578 (fax)

Garwood, T; Univ Idaho, Biological Sciences, Moscow, ID USA; 208-885-2550; 208-885-7905 (fax)

Gaut, BS; 321 Steinhaus Hall, Dept Eco & Evol, UC Irvine, Irvine, CA USA; 949-824-2564; 949-824-2181 (fax); bgaut@uci.edu

Gavazzi, G; Universita degli Studi di Milano, Dip di Produzione Vegetale, Via Celoria 2, 20133 Milano, ITALY; +39 02-5835-6532; +39 02-5835-6521 (fax); giuseppe.gavazzi@unimi.it

Gay, JL; ISRA/IRAT, B.P. 240, Saint Louis, SENEGAL

Geadelmann, JL; Holden's Foundation Seeds, Inc, 2440 Highway 19 Blvd, Stanton, MN USA; 507-263-3476; 507-263-4839 (fax)

Gebauer, JE; Corn Breeding, Casilla 190, Buin, CHILE; 011(56-2)821-1552; 011(56-2)821-3564 (fax)

Geiger, HH; Univ Hohenheim, 350 Inst Pflanzenzucht, Seed Sci and Pop Genetics, D-70593 Stuttgart, GERMANY; 49-711-459-2644; 49-711-459-2343 (fax); geigerhh@unihohenheim.de

Gengenbach, BG; Agron & Plant Genetics, Univ of Minnesota, 1991 Upper Buford Cir., Saint Paul, MN USA; 612-625-8761; 612-625-1268 (fax); burle@umn.edu

Genschel, U; Tech Univ Munchen, Lehrstuhl fur Genetik, Lictenbergstrasse 4, D-85747 Garching, GERMANY; 49 89 2891 3532; genschel@wzw.tum.de

George, M; CIMMYT, MCPO Box 3127, 1271 Makati, PHILIPPINES; 63-2 761-2406 (fax); 63-2 845-2563 ext 6828; m.george@cgiar.org

Gerau, M; 1-87 Agriculture, Division Plant Sciences, University of Missouri, Columbia, MO USA; mjgf36@mizzou.edu

Gerentes, D; Univ Des Cezeaux - Biogemma, 24 Avenue des Landais, Aubiere 63170, FRANCE; 33 673 42 7981 (fax); 33 473 42 7970; denise.gerentes@biogemma.com Gerke, JP; Univ Missouri, 302 Curtis Hall, Columbia, MO USA; 573-882-2033

Gibbon, BC; Department of Plant Sciences, University of Arizona, Tucson, AZ USA; 520-621-9154; 520-621-3692 (fax); bgibbon@email.arizona.edu

Giedt, C; Univ Idaho, Dept Biol Sci, 229 Gibb Hall, Moscow, ID USA; 208-885-2550; 208-885-7905 (fax)

Gierl, A; Lehrstuhl fur Genetik, Technische Universitat Munchen, Lichtenbergstrasse 4, 85747 Garching, GERMANY; 49-89-289-12890; 49-89-289-12892 (fax); gierl@wzw.tum.de

Gilliam, J; Pioneer Hi-Bred Internat Inc, Crop Protection, 7300 NW 62nd Ave., PO Box 1004, Johnston, IA USA

Gillies, C; Macleay Bldg A12, Univ of Sydney, Sydney NSW 2006, AUSTRALIA; 61-2-351-2688; 61-2-351-4771 (fax)

Giorio, G; c/o Metapontum Agrobios, SS. Ionica Km 448.2, I-75010 Metaponto (MT), ITALY; 39-835-740276; 39-835-745306 (fax)

Girard, L; Plant Biology Dept, 111 Koshland Hall, UC Berkeley, Berkeley, CA USA

Giulini, A; Cold Spring Harbor Lab, 1 Bungtown Rd, PO Box 100, Cold Spring Harbor, NY USA; 516-367-8827; 516-367-8369 (fax)

Glover, DV; Dept of Agronomy, Purdue University, West Lafayette, IN USA; 765-494-8067; 765-494-6508 (fax)

Gobel, E; KWS Kleinwanzlebener Saatzucht AG, Grimschlstrasse 31, Einbeck, GERMANY; 49-5561-311636; 49-5561-311337(fax)

Goday, A; CSIC Dept Genet Molec, Jordi Girona 18, 08034 Barcelona, SPAIN; 36-93-2045904 (fax); 34-93-4006100; adggmm@cid.csic.es

Goettel, W; Waksman Inst - Univ New Jersey, 190 Frelinghuysen Rd, Piscataway, NJ USA; 908-445-3801; 908-445-5735 (fax); goettel@waksman.rutgers.edu

Goff, S; CIBA-GEIGY Biotechnology, 3054 Cornwallis Road, Research Triangle Park, NC USA

Goldman, I; Department of Horticulture, Univ. of Wisconsin, 1575 Linden Drive, Madison, WI USA; (608)262-7781; (608)262-4743 (fax)

Goldman, SL; Dept of Biology, University of Toledo, Toledo, OH USA; 419-530-1540; 419-530-7737 (fax); stephen.goldman@utoledo.edu

Golubovskaya, I; Dept of Molec & Cell Biology, 345 LSA, Univ of California, Berkeley, CA USA; 510-643-8277; innagol@uclink4.berkeley.edu

Gomez, E; Departmento de Biol Cel Genet, Univ de Alcala, Crta Madrid-Barcelona Km 33.600, E-28871 Alcala de Henares, SPAIN; 91-8854758; 91-8854799 (fax); elisa.gomez@uah.es

Goncalvesbutruille, M; Univ Wisconsin, 445 Henry Mall, Room 118, Genetics Dept, Madison, WI USA; 608-262-3286; 608-262-2976 (fax); MGONCALV@STUDENTS.WISC.EDU

Gong, Z; Academia Sinica, Shanghai Inst. of Biochem., 320 Yue-Yang Road, Shanghai 200031, CHINA

Gonzalez de Leon, D; Paseo del Atardecer 360, Villas de Irapuato, Irapuato 36650 Guanajuato, MEXICO; 52-462-31137 (phone/fax)

Gonzalez, G; Inst Fitotecnico de Santa Catalina (UNLP), C.C.4 (1836) Llavallol, Buenos Aires, ARGENTINA; mamilila@yahoo.com

Gonzalez, JM; Urb. San Jose A-10, Yanahuara, Arequipa, PERU; 051 54 251115; 051 54 258898 (fax)

Goodman, MM; Department of Crop Sciences, North Carolina State Univ, P.O. Box 7620, Raleigh, NC USA; 919-515-7039; 919-515-7959 (fax)

Gordon, SH; Ohio State Univ, 1680 Madison Ave, Wooster, OH USA; 330-236-3887 (fax); 330-236-3878; gordon.25@osu.edu

Gordon-Kamm, WJ; Pioneer Hi-Bred Internat Inc, 7300 NW 62nd Ave., PO Box 1004, Johnston, IA USA

Gore, M; Department of Plant Breeding and Genetics, Cornell University, Institute for Genomic Diversity, 175 Biotechnology Building, Ithaca, NY USA; (607) 255-1809 (phone); (607) 255-6249 (fax); mag87@cornell.edu

Gorenstein, Nina; Purdue Univ, Dept Biological Sciences, 1392 Lilly Hall, West Lafayette, IN USA; 765-496-2506; ninagor@bilbo.bio.purdue.edu

Gouesnard, B; INRA Centre de Montpellier, Sta Genet Amel Plantes, domaine de Melgueil, 34130 Mauguio, FRANCE; gouesnard@supagro.inra.fr

Gould, J; Texas A&M, Forest Science Dept, College Station, TX USA; 979-845-5078; 979-845-6049 (fax); gould@tamu.edu

Gracen, VE; Dept. Plant Breeding, 520 Bradfield Hall, Cornell University, Ithaca, NY USA; 607-254-8015; vg45@cornell.edu

Grant, D; G304 Agronomy Hall, Iowa State Univ, Ames, IA USA; 515-294-1205; 515-294-2299 (fax); dgrant@iastate.edu

Grasser, KD; Albert-Ludwigs-Univ Freiburg, Inst Biol 3, Schanzlestr 1, Freiburg, Germany; +49 761 203 2764 (phone); +49 761 203 2745 (fax)

Gray, A; Lourdes College, Sylvania, OH USA; 419-517-8876 (phone); 419-530-7737 (fax); agray@lourdes.edu

Gray, J; Dept of Biology, Univ of Toledo, 2801 West Bancroft St, Toledo, OH USA; 419-530-1537; 419-530-7737 (fax); jgray5@uoft02.utoledo.edu

Great Lakes Hybrids; 2201 229th Place, Boone, IA USA; 515-292-7010; 515-292-1957 (fax)

Green, LS; Biochemistry Dept., 117 Schweitzer Hall, University of Missouri, Columbia, MO USA; 573-771-9076

Greene, TW; Dow AgroSciences, 9330 Zionsville Rd, Indianapolis, IN USA; 317-337-5956; 317-337-3228 (fax); twgreene@dow.com

Greenfield, PL; Crop Science, Univ of Natal, Private Bag X01, Scottsville 3209, SOUTH AFRICA; 0331-2605516; 0331-2605424 (fax)

Greenland, AJ; Zeneca Plant Science, Jealott's Hill, Bracknell, Berkshire RG2 6ET, UNITED KINGDOM; 44-1344-414820; 44-1344-414996 (fax)

Grier, SL; Novartis Seeds, 317 330th St., Stanton, MN USA; 507-663-7662; 507-645-7519 (fax); steve.grier@syngenta.com

Griffin, DP; Univ Minnesota, 220 Biosciences Ctr, 1445 Gortner Ave, Saint Paul, MN USA; 612-625-1738 (fax); 612-625-5241; dgriffin@biosci.cbs.umn.edu

Griffor, M; DeKalb Genetics, 62 Maritime Road, Mystic, CT USA; 860-572-5229; 860-572-5240 (fax)

Grimanelli, D; Institut de Recherche pour le Developpement, 911 Avenue Agropolis, BP 64501, Montpellier cedex5, FRANCE; 33 4 67 41 63 96 (phone); daniel.grimanelli@mpl.ird.fr

Grimmer, MK; Functional Genomics Group, OB120 School of Biol Sci, Univ Bristol Woodland Rd, Bristol BS8 1UG, UNITED KINGDOM; +44 (0) 117 331 7986; Michael.Grimmer@bristol.ac.uk

Grobman, A; Semillas Penta del Peru S.A., Apartado 270227, Lima 27, PERU; 51-1-2227744; 51-1-4220770 (fax); grobman@terra.com.pe

Gross, S; Dept. of Plant Biology, UC Berkeley, 555 Life Sciences Addition, #3200, Berkeley, CA USA; 510-643-1737; 510-642-0355; smgross@berkeley.edu

Grossniklaus, U; Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory, PO Box 100, Cold Spring Harbor, NY USA; 516-367-8825; 516-367-8369 (fax)

Grotewold, E; Ohio State Univ Biotech Ctr, 232 Rightmire Hall, 1060 Carmack Rd, Columbus, OH USA; 614-292-2483; 614-292-5379 (fax); grotewold.1@osu.edu

Grun, S; Lehrstuhl Gentechnik Hoherer Pflanzen, TUM, Lichtenbergstrabe 4, 85747 Garching, GERMANY; 0049-89-289-13746; 0049-89-289-12892 (fax); gruen@wzw.tum.de

Gu, M; Jiangsu Agricultural College, Dept. of Agronomy, Yangzhou, Jiangsu 225001, CHINA

Gu, MG; Institute of Genetics, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Beijing, CHINA

Guiltinan, M; Penn State Biotechnology Institute, 306 Wartik Lab, Dept of Horticulture, University Park, PA USA; 814-863-7958; 814-863-6139 (fax); mjg9@psu.edu

Guo, B; USDA/ARS/CPMRU, PO Box 748, Tifton, GA USA; 912-387-2326; 912-387-2321 (fax); bguo@tifton.cpes.peachnet.edu

Guo, J; Academia Sinica, South China Institute of Botany, Guangzhou 510650, CHINA

Guo, M; Pioneer Hi-Bred Intl, Inc, 7250 NW 62nd Ave, PO Box 552, Johnston, IA USA; 515-253-2146; 515-334-4788 (fax); Mei.Guo@pioneer.com

Gupta, M; Dow AgroSciences USA, 9330 Zionsville Rd, Building 306/C-1, Indianapolis, IN USA; 317-337-5980; 317-337-5989 (fax); mgupta@dow.com

Gutierrez-Marcos, J; Plant Science, Oxford Univ, South Parks Rd, Oxford OX1 3RB, UNITED KINGDOM; 01865-275815; 01865-275074 (fax); jose.gutierrez@plants.ox.ac.uk Gutierrez-Rojas, A; IPGB TAMU 2123 Room 129, Texas AM University, College Station, TX USA; 979-8456317 (phone); and resguti@tamu.edu

Gwyn, J; DeKalb Genetics Corp, 2139 CR 2500 N., Thomasboro, IL USA; 217-694-4141; 217-694-4549 (fax)

Haag, WL; Sasakawa Global 2000, C. P. 4247, Maputo, MOZAMBIQUE; 258-1-490004; 258-1-491417 (fax)

Hajduch, M; RDP ENS-Lyon, 46 Allee d'Italie, Lyon, France; mhagduch@ens-lyon.fr

Hajek, KL; Dept Biol Env Sci, Univ Tennessee-Chattanooga, 615 McCallie Ave, Chattanooga, TN USA; 423-755-4397; 423-785-2285 (fax)

Hake, S; USDA-ARS-PGEC, 800 Buchanan Street, Albany, CA USA; 510-559-5907; 510-559-5678 (fax); maizesh@nature.berkeley.edu

Hall, I; Watson School Biol Sci, 1 Bungtown Rd, PO Box 100, Cold Spring Harbor, NY USA; 516-367-5156; hall@cshl.org

Hall, LN; Oxford Univ, Dept Plant Sci, South Parks Road, Oxford OX1 3RB, UNITED KINGDOM; 865-275030; 865-275147 (fax)

Hallauer, AR; Agronomy Building, 1505 Agronomy Hall, Iowa State University, Ames, IA USA; 515-294-3052; 515-294-3163 (fax); mlents@iastate.edu

Hamilton, RI; 3199 Klondike Road, North Gower, Ontario K0A2T0, CANADA; 613-489-3166; 613-489-3166 (fax); rih@cyberus.ca

Han, CD; Gyeongsang National University, Gazwa Dong, Chinju 660-701, KOREA; 082-591-751-6029; 82-591-759-9363 (fax); cdhan@nongae.gsnu.ac.kr

Hancock, DC, Jr; 213 Curtis Hall, University of Missouri, Columbia, MO USA; 573-882-1722; 573-884-7850 (fax); HancockDC@missouri.edu

Hannah, LC; Veg Crops Dept, Univ of Florida, IFAS, 1143 Fifield Hall, P.O. Box 110690, Gainesville, FL USA; 352-392-1928x315; 352-392-5653 (fax); hannah@ifas.ufl.edu Hansel, WC; Hansel Cons & Mgmt, Box 283, Carrollton, MO USA; 816-542-1616

Hansen, JD; 2254 Molecular Biology Bldg., Iowa State University, Ames, IA USA; 515-294-0347; 515-294-0453 (fax); jdhansen@iastate.edu

Hansen, LA; Novartis Seeds, Inc., 6338 Highway 20-26, Nampa, ID USA; 208-465-8554; 208-467-4559 (fax)

Hansen, S; Univ Hamburg, Ohnhoststrasse 18, D-22609 Hamburg, GERMANY

Hanson, MR; Dept Mol Biol & Genetics, Cornell Univ., Biotech Bldg, Ithaca, NY USA; 607-254-4833/4832 lab; 607-255-2428 (fax); mrh5@cornell.edu

Hanten, J; Novartis Seeds, 317 330th St, Stanton, MN USA; 507-663-7649; 507-645-5621 (fax)

Hantke, S; Pioneer Hi-Bred Intl, Inc, 7300 NW 62nd Ave, P.O. Box 1004, Johnston, IA USA; 515-253-2493; 515-270-3367 (fax)

Harberd, N; John Innes Centre,, Norwich Research Park,, Colney Lane,, Norwich, UNITED KINGDOM; +44-1603 452 571; x2525; nicholas.harberd@bbsrc.ac.uk

Hardeman, K; Dekalb Plant Genetics/Monsanto, 62 Maritime Dr, Mystic, CT USA; 860-572-5282 (fax); 860-572-5279; Kristine hardeman@monsanto.com

Harper, LC; USDA-ARS-PGEC, 800 Buchanan Street, Albany, CA USA; 510-559-5629; ligule@nature.berkeley.edu

Harper, S; Novartis Seeds, Biotech Research Unit, PO Box 12257, Research Triangle Park, NC USA; 919-541-8514; 919-541-8585 (fax)

Harris, JW; Dept of Biology, Tennessee Tech Univ, Cookeville, TN USA; 615-372-3143; 615-528-4097 (fax)

Harris, LJ; Eastern Cereal & Oilseed Res Centre, Agriculture & Agri-food Canada, Bldg. #21, Central Exp. Farm, Ottawa, Ontario K1A 0C6, CANADA; (613)759-1314; (613)759-6566 (fax); harrislj@agr.gc.ca

Harrison, SA; Agilent Technologies, Mailstop BL3-0, 2850 Centerville Road, Wilmington, DE USA; 302 633 8729; scott_harrison@agilent.com

Harry, DE; DataGenetics, 810 E Hammond Ln, Phoenix, AZ USA

Hartl, T; Dow AgroSciences, 9330 Zionsville Rd, Bldg 306/C2-875, Indianapolis, IN USA; 317-337-5989 (fax); 317-337-5958

Hartman, CJ; 155 South St. Rd. 2, Valparaiso, IN USA; 219-462-1927

Has, V; Agricultural Research Station - Turda, Agriculturii 27, 3350 Turda, ROMANIA; 40-264-311680 (phone); 40-264-311792 (fax); hasvoichita@yahoo.com

Hausler, M; Monsanto, PO Box 3010, Ankeny, IA USA; 515-963-4213; 515-963-4242 (fax); mark.c.hausler@monsanto.com

Havecker, E; Iowa State Univ, B420 Agronomy Hall, Ames, IA USA; 515-294-2299 (fax); 515-294-1659; havecker@iastate.edu

Havukkala, I; Genesis R & D Corp. Ltd., P.O. Box 50, Auckland, NEW ZEALAND; 64-9-373-5600; 64-9-373-5601 (fax); i.havukkala@genesis.co.nz

Hawk, JA; Dept Plant & Soil Sciences, University of Delaware, Newark, DE USA; 302-831-1379; 302-831-3651 (fax); jhawk@strauss.udel.edu

Hay, A; Univ California-Berkeley, 800 Buchanan Street, Albany, CA USA; 510-559-5922; 510-559-5678 (fax); ASHAY@nature.berkeley.edu

Hazen, S; Torrey Mesa Research Institute, 3115 Merryfield Row, San Diego, CA USA; 858-812-1192; 858-812-1102 (fax) He. Z: Zheijiang Agricultural University. Biotechnology Institute. Hangzhou. Zheijiang 310029. CHINA

He, Z, Zhejiang Agricultural University, Biolecrinology Institute, Hangzhou, Zhejiang Stouzy, CHINA

Headley, J; Dept Plant Sciences, 303 Forbes Hall, University of Arizona, Tucson, AZ USA; 520-626-8725; 520-621-7186 (fax); jheadley@ag.arizona.edu

Hebert, Y; Sta d'Amel Plantes Fourrageres, INRA, 86600 Lusignan, FRANCE; hebert@lusignan.inra.fr

Hebert-Soule, H; Novartis Seeds S.A., 12 Chemin de L-Hobit, B.P. 27, 31790 Saint Sauveur, FRANCE; 33.5.62.79.99.12; 33.5.62.79.99.96 (fax); dominique.hebertsoule@syngenta.com

Heck, D; Iowa State Univ, Dept Biochemistry, 4178 MBB, Ames, IA USA; 515-294-4042; 515-294-0453 (fax); daheck@iastate.edu

Helentjaris, T; Dept. of Plant Sciences, University of Arizona, Forbes Bldg. 303, Tucson, AZ USA; timhpls@ag.arizona.edu

Helmer, G; North Carolina State Univ, Dept of Botany, Box 7612, Raleigh, NC USA; 919-515-3436 (fax); 919-515-7166

Henderson, D; Univ Georgia, 2502 Plant Sci Bldg, Dept Botany, Athens, GA USA; davidh@dogwood.botany.uga.edu

Hendrick, C; 7250 NW 62nd Ave., Emerson 1st floor (39), Pioneer Hi-Bred International, Inc., Johnston, IA USA; carol.hendrick@pioneer.com

Herbarium Library; University of Wisconsin-Madison, 155 Birge Hall, 430 Lincoln Drive, Madison, WI USA; 608-262-2792; 608-262-7509 (fax); tscochra@facstaff.wisc.edu

Heredia-Diaz, O; Monsanto, 700 Chesterfield Pkway North GG5, Chesterfield, MO USA; 314-537-6902; 314-537-6950 (fax); oscar.heredia@monsanto.com

Hermon, P; Pioneer Hi-Bred Intl, 7250 NW 62nd Ave, PO Box 552, Johnston, IA USA

Hernandez, JM; The Ohio State Univ, 206 Rightmire Hall, 1060 Carmack Rd, Columbus, OH USA; 614-688-4954; 614-292-5379 (fax); hernandez.16@osu.edu

Hetz, W; Institue of Biology, University of Freiburg, Schlanzlestr, 1, 79104 Freiburg, GERMANY

Heun, M; Population Genetics, Dept Chem & Biotechnol, PO Box 5040, Agric Univ Norway, N-1432 AAs - NLH, NORWAY; 47-64947679; 47-64947691 (fax); manfred.heun@ikb.nlh.no

Hiatt, EN; Kentucky Wesleyan College, Dept. of Biology, 3000 Frederica St., Owensboro, KY USA; 270-852-3158 (phone); 270-926-3196 (fax); ehiatt@kwc.edu

Higgs, DC; Univ Wisconsin, 900 Wood Rd, PO Box 2000, Kenosha, WI USA; 262-595-2056 (fax); 262-595-2786; higgs@uwp.edu

Hile, GC; Syngenta, 7113 Alt 49 East, P.O. Box 249, Arcanum, OH USA; 513-692-5164; 513-692-8256 (fax); hilreal@erinet.com

Hill, M; Novartis Biotechnology, PO Box 12257, 3054 Cornwallis Rd, Research Triangle Park, NC USA; 919-541-8580; 919-541-8585 (fax); martha.hill@syngenta.com

Hochholdinger, F; University of Tuebingen, Center for plant molecular biology (ZMBP), Auf der Morgenstelle 28, 72076 Tuebingen, GERMANY; 49-7071 / 29 77 0 24; 49-7071 / 29 50 42 (fax); frank.hochholdinger@zmbp.uni-tuebingen.de

Hodges, T; Botany & Plant Pathology, Agricultural research Building, Purdue University, West Lafayette, IN USA; 765-494-4657; 765-494-5896 (fax); hodges@btny.purdue.edu

Hoegemeyer, TC; Hoegemeyer Hybrids Inc, 1755 Hoegemeyer Rd, Hooper, NE USA; 402-654-3399; 402-654-3342 (fax)

Hoekenga, O; 227 US Plant, Soil and Nutrition Lab, Cornell University, Ithaca, NY USA; 607-255-7308 (phone); oah1@cornell.edu

Hoelscher, A; Monsanto Life Sciences, 700 Chesterfield Pkwy North, MZ BB3G, Saint Louis, MO USA; 314-737-7577; 341-737-5223 (fax); angel.d.hoelscher@monsanto.com

Hoisington, D; ICRISAT, Patancheru, Andhra Pradesh INDIA; 52-55-5804-7575; 52-55-5804-7558 (fax); D.Hoisington@cgiar.org

Holaday, AS; Department of Biological Sciences, Lubbock, TX USA

Holdsworth, MJ; Crop Sciences, Div Agric Sci, Univ Nottingham, Sutton Bngtn Campus, Loughborough, Leicestershire LE12 5RD, UNITED KINGDOM; +44 (0) 115 951 6099; michael.holdsworth@nottingham.ac.uk

Hole, D; Plant Breeding/Genetics, Utah State Univ., Logan, UT USA; 435-797-2235; 435-797-3376 (fax); david.hole@usu.edu

Holland, JB; USDA-ARS, 1238 Williams Hall, NC State Univ Box 7620, Raleigh, NC USA; 919-513-4198; 919-513-7959; james_holland@ncsu.edu

Holley, R; Novartis Seeds, 340 Southside Dr., Henderson, KY USA; 270-827-5787; 270-827-5703 (fax); randy.holley@syngenta.com

Hollick, J; University of California, Department of Plant and Microbial Biology, 111 Koshland Hall #3102, Berkeley, CA USA; 510-643-1734; 510-642-0355 (fax); hollick@nature.berkeley.edu

Holligan, D; 2502 Plant Sci Bldg, Dept Botany, Univ Georgia, Athens, GA USA; 706-542-1857; 706-542-1805 (fax); dawn@plantbio.uga.edu

Holton, H; Univ California-Berkeley, 800 Buchanan Street, Albany, CA USA; 510-559-5922; 510-559-5678 (fax); hehe@nature.berkeley.edu

Holtsford, TP; Biol Sci, Tucker Hall, Univ of Missouri, Columbia, MO USA; 573-882-3016; holtsford@biosci.mbp.missouri.edu

Hong, G; National Center for Gene Research, Chinese Academy of Science, 500 Cao Bao Road, Shanghai 200233, CHINA; 86-21-482-2885; 86-21-482-5775 (fax)

Hoogstraten, R; Monsanto, 1920 Fifth St, Davis, CA USA; 530-753-1510 (fax); 530-792-2230

Hoque, ATMR; Laboratory of Ecology and Systematics, Faculty of Science, University of the Ryukyus, Okinawa, JAPAN; 090-6863-3455 (phone); rafiqcu@yahoo.com Hornstra, L; Keygene NV, 677 A E Wageningen, NETHERLANDS; 31-317-466866; 31-317-424939

Houchins, K; 302 Curtis Hall, University of Missouri, Columbia, MO USA; 573-882-2033; 573-884-7850 (fax); houchinske@missouri.edu

Houghteling, BB; Dept Biology, Ball State Univ, Muncie, IN USA; 765-285-8854; 765-285-8804 (fax)

Houmard, NM; Dekalb, 62 Maritime Dr, Mystic, CT USA; 860-572-5219; 860-572-5240 (fax); nhoumard@dekalb.com

Hsia, A; 30975 Pointe Of Woods Dr, Apt. 23, Farmington Hills, MI USA; hsia@iastate.edu

Hu, G; Dept Plant & Microbial Biol, Plant Gene Expression Ctr, 800 Buchanan St, Albany, CA USA; 510-559-5919; 510-559-5678 (fax); gongshe@yahoo.com

Hu, J; Dept of Botany, University of Georgia, Athens, GA USA; 706-542-1857; 706-542-1805 (fax)

Hu, Y; Univ Georgia, Botany Dept, Miller Plant Sci, Athens, GA USA; 706-542-1805 (fax); 706-542-1857; cloud@dogwood.botany.uga.edu

Huang, Bing-Quan; Biology Dept, Univ of North Dakota, Grand Forks, ND USA; 701-777-4479; 701-772-5041 (fax)

Huang, Danian; China National Rice Research Institute, Hangzhou, Zhejiang 310006, CHINA

Huang, WD; Fudan University, Dept. of Biochem., Handan Road 220, Shanghai 200433, CHINA

Huang, Y; Department of Agronomy, National Taiwan University, Taipei, TAIWAN; (02)2 363-0231 ext. 2727; (02)2 362-0879 (fax); ych@ccms.ntu.edu.tw

Huang, Y; Lab. of Plant Development Physiology and Molecular Biology, College of Life Science, Beijing Normal University, 19, XinJieKouWai Avenue, Beijing, CHINA; ydwang@bnu.edu.cn

Hubbard, L; USDA-ARS-PGEC, 800 Buchanan St., Albany, CA USA; 510-559-5922; 510-559-5648 (fax); LHUBBARD@Nature.Berkeley.EDU

Huber, AL; USDA-ARS, 302 Curtis Hall, University of Missouri, Columbia, MO USA

Hudson, M; Crop Sciences, University of Illinois, 334 NSRC, 1101 W Peabody Dr, Urbana, IL USA; mhudson@uiuc.edu

Hueros, G; Departmento de Biol Cel Genet, Univ Alcala, Crta Madrid-Barcelona Km 33.600, E-28871 Alcala de Henares, SPAIN; 91-8854799 (fax); 91-8854758; gregorio.hueros@uah.es

Huestis, GM; John Innes Centre, Colney Lane, Norwich NR4 7UH, UNITED KINGDOM

Huetl, R; Tech Univ Munchen, Lehrstuhl fur Genetik, Lichtenbergstrasse 4, D-85747 Garching, GERMANY

Huffman, GA; Pioneer Hi-Bred International, 7300 NW 62nd Ave., P.O. Box 1004, Johnston, IA USA; 515-270-3502; 515-270-3367 (fax); Gary.Huffman@pioneer.com Hulbert, S; Kansas State University, Dept. of Plant Pathology, Throckmorton Hall, Manhattan, KS USA; 913-532-1392; 913-532-5692 (fax); shulbrt@plantpath.ksu.edu Humboldt-Universitat; Universitatsbibliothek, Zweigbibliothek Agrarwissenschaften, Invalidenstrasse 42, D-10115 Berlin, GERMANY; 030-20359398; 030-20359398 (fax) Hunsperger, JP; P.O. Box 2217, Gilroy, CA USA; (408)848-1161; jhunsp@ix.netcom.com

Hunter, B; Dept Plant Sci, Forbes Hall, Room 303, Univ of Arizona, Tucson, AZ USA; bhunter@Ag.Arizona.Edu

Hunter, C; 2111 Piilani Hwy., P.O.Box 645, Kihei, HI USA

Hurkman, M; N2499 Hwy. D, Brantwood, WI USA

Hussey, PJ; University of London, Royal Holloway New College, Dept. Biochem., Egham Hill, Egham, Surrey TW20 OEX, UNITED KINGDOM

Ichim, M; Joint Research Centre, IHCP/GMO Sector, TP331, Ispra (VA) 21020, ITALY; 39-0332-789163; 39-0332-785904; mihael.ichim@jrc.it

ICI Seeds; 2369 330th St., PO Box 500, Slater, IA USA

lida, S; Div Gene Expr & Regulation I, Nat Inst for Basic Biology, Okazaki 444, JAPAN; 0564-55-7680; 0564-55-7685 (fax); shigiida@nibb.ac.jp

Illinois Foundation Seeds Inc; Attn: David Deutscher, P.O. Box 722, Champaign, IL USA; 217-485-6420; 217-485-5223 (fax); ddeutscher@ifsi.com

Im, KH; Dept Plant Path, Univ of Florida, Gainesville, FL USA

Inada, N; Univ California, Dept Plant Microbiol, Berkeley, CA USA; inada@biol.s.u-tokyo.ac.jp

Ingham, E; 105 Tucker Hall, Univ of Missouri, Columbia, MO USA; 573-882-3481; 573-882-0123 (fax)

Ingram, G; INRA, RDP, Ecole Normale Superieure de Lyon, 46 Allee d'Halie, 69364 Lyon Cedex 07, FRANCE; 0033 4 72 72 86 07; 0033 4 72 72 86 00 (fax)

Ingvardsen, C; Molecular Genetics and Biotechnology, Dept Plant Biology, Danish Institute of Agricultural Sciences, Research Center Flakkebjer, DK-4200 Slagelse, DENMARK; +45 58 11 34 87; +45 58 11 33 02 (fax); Christina.Ingvardsen@agrsci.dk

- Innes, R; DeKalb Canada Inc., R.R. 2, Glanworth, Ont. NOL 1L0, CANADA
- Inoue, Y; Corn Breeding Lab, Hokkaido Natl Agric Res Ctr, Hitsujigaoka, Toyohira-ku, Sapporo 062-8555, JAPAN; 0287-36-0111

INRA-Montpellier; 9 Place Viala, 34060 Montpellier, FRANCE

INRA-UPS-INA P-G; Station de Genetique Vegetale, Ferme du Moulon, 91190 Gif sur Yvette (EURO I-3, FRANCE

INRA-Versailles; Centre de Versailles, Genetique et Amelioration des Plantes, Bibliotheque, F78026 Versailles Cedex, FRANCE

Inst Breed & Prod Field Crops; Maize Department (Library), Marulicev trg 5/I, 41000 Zagreb, CROATIA; 01-2760-323 (fax); 01-2760-311

Inst Grassl & Envir Res; Librarian, Plas Gogerddan, Aberystwyth, Ceredigion SY23 3EB, WALES

Int'l Triticeae Mapping Initiative; Genetic Resources Conservation Prog., Univ. California, One Shields Ave., Davis, CA USA; 916-754-8503; 916-754-8505 (fax)

INTA-CNIA; Instituto de Genetica "E.A. Favret", Biblioteca, C.C.25, 1712 Castelar, Buenos Aires, ARGENTINA; 54-1-4450-0805 (fax); 54-1-4450-1876; igenet@cnia.inta.gov.ar

lowa State University; Library Chairman, Iowa State Agronomy Reading Room, Room 3020 Agronomy Hall, Ames, IA USA

Irish, EE; Department of Biological Sciences, 312 Chemistry Bldg, University of Iowa, Iowa City, IA USA; 319-335-2582; 319-335-3620 (fax); erin-irish@uiowa.edu IS-UNESP; PO Box 830657, Birmingham, AL USA

Isaac, PG; Agrogene S.A., 620, rue Blaise Pascal, Z.I.-Immeuble Alligator, 77555 Moissy Cramayel, FRANCE; 33-1-64 13 31 80; 33-1-64 13 31 81 (fax); pete.i@agrogene.com

Ishiae, T: Biol Resources Div, JIRCAS, 1-2 Ohwashi, Tsukuba 305-8686, JAPAN: 81-298-38-6305; 81-298-38-6650 (fax) Ishikawa, R; Faculty of Agriculture, Hirosaki Univ, Hirosaki Aomori 036, JAPAN; 011-81-172-39-3778; 011-81-172-39-3750 (fax); ishikawa@cc.hirosaki-u.ac.jp Islam-Faridi, N; Dept Soil and Crop Sci, Texas A&M Univ, College Station, TX USA Istituto Sper Cerealicoltura; Sezione di Bergamo, Via Stezzano 24, 24100 Bergamo, ITALY; 0039 35 313132; 0039 35 316054 (fax) Ito, M; BioScience Ctr, Nagoya Univ, Chikusa, Nagoya 464-8601, JAPAN; 81-52-789-5225; 81-52-789-5226 (fax) Itoh, J-I; Univ California, 111 Koshland Hall, Plant Biol, Berkeley, CA USA; 510-642-8058; ajunito@mail.ecc.u-tokyo.ac.jp Jackson, D; Cold Spring Harbor Lab, 1 Bungtown Rd, P.O. Box 100, Cold Spring Harbor, NY USA; 516-367-8467; 516-367-8369 (fax); jacksond@cshl.org Jackson, JD; USDA/ARS, Maize Genetics Coop Stock Center, S-123 Turner Hall, 1102 S. Goodwin Ave, Urbana, IL USA; 217-333-6331; 217-333-6064 (fax); jday@uiuc.edu Jacqueth, J; Pioneer Hi-Bred Intl, 7300 NW 62nd Ave, PO Box 1004, Johnston, IA USA; 515-270-4369; jennifer.jaqueth@pioneer.com Jahn, M; Cornell Univ, 312 Bradfield Hall, Ithaca, NY USA; 607-255-8147; 607-255-6683 (fax) James, MG; Dept. of Bioch Bioph Mol Biol, Molecular Biology Building, Room 2152, Iowa State University, Ames, IA USA; 515-294-3818; 515-294-0453 (fax); mgjames@iastate.edu Jamoom, E; Univ Florida, Hortic Dept, Gainesville, FL USA; 352-846-8888; Jamoom@ufl.edu Jampatong, C; Natl Corn & Sorghum Res Ctr, Kasetsart Univ, Klangdong, Pakchong, Nakhonratchasima, 30320, THAILAND; 66-44-361108 (fax); 66-44-361771-4 Jampatong, S; Natl Corn & Sorghum Res Ctr, Kasetsart Univ, Klangdong, Pakchong, Nakhonratchasima, 30320, THAILAND; 66-44-361771-4; 66-44-361108 (fax) Janick-Buckner, D; Truman State Univ, Div Sciences, Kirksville, MO USA; 660-785-4305; 660-785-4045 (fax); djb@truman.edu Jankovsky, JP; Biology Dept c/o Tim Nelson, PO Box 208104, Yale University, New Haven, CT USA; 203-432-3862 Jarboe, SG; Purdue University, Department of Agronomy, 1150 Lilly Hall of Life Sciences, West Lafayette, IN USA; 765-494-4772; 765-496-1368 (fax) Jeffries-Griffor, J; DeKalb Genetics, 62 Maritime Rd, Mystic, CT USA Jegla, D; Dept Biol Sci, 316 CB, University of Iowa, Iowa City, IA USA Jenkins, B; Institute of Molecular Biology, University of Oregon, Eugene, OR USA Jewell, DC; CIMMYT Maize Research Station, P.O. Box MP 163, Mount Pleasant, Harare, ZIMBABWE; (263)(4)301807; (263)(4)301327 (fax) Ji, J; Univ Georgia, 4606 Plant Sci, Athens, GA USA; 706-542-1805 (fax); 706-542-1954; Jiabing@dogwood.botany.uga.edu Jia, H; Iowa State Univ, G418 Agronomy Hall, Ames, IA USA; 515-294-0837; hwjia@iastate.edu Jiang, CH; Iowa State Univ, 2288 Molec Biol Bldg, Ames, IA USA; 515-294-3277; CzJiang@iastate.edu Jiang, JM; Univ Wisconsin, Dept Hort, 1575 Linden Drive, Madison, WI USA; 608 262-1878; jjiang1@facstaff.wisc.edu Jiang, N; Univ of Georgia, Plant Sci Building, Athens, GA USA; 706-542-1857; 706-542-1805 (fax); jiangn@msu.edu Jiao, S; 324 Tucker Hall, Univ Missouri, Columbia, MO USA; 573-882-8033 Jin, P; Iowa State Univ, 2188 MBB, Ames, IA USA; 515-294-6755 (fax); 515-294-0337 Jobling, S; Unilever Research, Colworth House, Sharnbrook, Bedford MK44 1LQ, UNITED KINGDOM; 44 1234 222575; 44 1234 222552 (fax) Jockovic, D; Inst Field and Veg Crops, 30 Maksima Gorkog, Novi Sad 21000, YUGOSLAVIA Joets, J; INRA, Station Genet Veg, du Moulon, Gif-sur-Yvette 91190, FRANCE; 11 33 1 69 33 23 (fax); 11 33 1 69 33 23; joets@moulon.inra.fr Johal, G; Purdue University, Dept Bot Plant Path, 1155 Lilly Hall, West Lafayette, IN USA; 765-494-4448; 765-494-0363 (fax); gjohal@purdue.edu John Innes Centre - Library; Norwich Research Park, Colney, Norwich NR4 7UH, UNITED KINGDOM; 44-1603-452571; 44-1603-456844 (fax); jii.LIBRARY@BBSRC.AC.UK Johns, MA; Dept Biological Sciences, Northern Illinois University, DeKalb, IL USA; 815-753-7836; 815-753-0461 (fax); majohns@niu.edu Johnson, EC; 1525 Vine St., Belmont, CA USA; 650-593-1525 Johnson, EH; CIBA-GEIGY Corporation, P.O. Box 1830, Kaunakakai, HI USA; 808-567-6146; 808-567-6753 (fax) Johnson, L; Agricultural Research, Green Giant Co, 1201 North 4th St, Le Sueur, MN USA; 612-665-3515; 612-665-2682 (fax) Johnson, MG; 920 North Hwy 13, Henrietta, MO USA; 816-494-5561; mjohnson@jcrob.com Johnson, MW; Dept of Agronomy, Pennsylvania State Univ, University Park, PA USA; 814-865-0324; 825-863-7043 (fax) Johnson, P; National Corn Growers Assn, 632 Cepi Drive, Chesterfield, MO USA; 636-833-9004 (phone); 636-733-9005 (fax); mpjohnsn@omnitelcom.com Johnson, R; Monsanto Co, 101 West Tomaras Ave, Savoy, IL USA; 217-356-6879; 217-356-7863 (fax); djohnson@dekalb.com Johnson, S; 26663 Timber Road, Kelley, IA USA; 515-232-5777; 515-232-5769 (fax); crdssjohnson@aol.com Johri, MM; Molecular Biology Unit, Tata Inst Fundamental Res, Homi Bhabha Road, Mumbai 400 005, INDIA; 215-2971; 091-22-215-2110 (fax) Jondle, D; Cargill Hybrid Seeds, 1502 N Gault, Saint Peter, MN USA; 507-931-2940; 507-931-9691 (fax) Jones, J. Sainsbury Laboratory, John Innes Centre, Colney Lane, Norwich NR4 7UH, UNITED KINGDOM: 44-1603-452571; 250024 (fax); JONESJ@bbsrc.AC.UK Jones, JE; 8429 Meadow Green Way, Gaithersburg, MD USA Jones, M; 031 Selby Hall, 1680 Madison Ave, Wooster, OH USA; 330-263-3838x2837; 330-263-3841 (fax); jones.390@osu.edu Jorgensen, RA; Dept Plant Sci, Univ Arizona, 303 Forbes Bldg, Tucson, AZ USA; 520-626-9216; 520-621-7186 (fax); raj@ag.arizona.edu Juarez, MT; Cold Spring Harbor Lab, 1 Bungtown Rd, PO Box 100, Cold Spring Harbor, NY USA; 516-367-6818; juarez@cshl.org Julstrom, P; c/o CIMMYT, Lisboa 27, Apdo. Postal 6-641, 06600 Mexico, D.F., MEXICO; 52 5 726 9091; 52 5 726 7558 (fax) Jun, W; Box 8118, Beijing 100081, CHINA Jung, R; Pioneer Hi-Bred Internat Inc, 7300 NW 62nd Ave, PO Box 1004, Johnston, IA USA; 515-270-5934; 515-270-2619 (fax); Rudolf.jung@pioneer.com Juvik, JA; Dept. Nat. Res. Environ. Sci., University of Illinois, 307 ERML, Urbana, IL USA; 217-333-1966; 217-333-4777 (fax); juvik@uiuc.edu Kaeppler, HF; Moore Hall 461, Dept of Agronomy, Univ of Wisconsin, 1575 Linden Dr, Madison, WI USA; 608-262-0246; 608-262-5217 (fax); hfkaeppl@facstaff.wisc.edu Kaeppler, SM; Dept of Agronomy, University of Wisconsin, 1575 Linden Drive, Madison, WI USA; 608-262-9571; 608-262-5217 (fax); smkaeppl@facstaff.wisc.edu Kahler, AL; Biogenetic Services, Inc, 801 32nd Ave, Brookings, SD USA; 605-697-8500; 605-697-8507 (fax); biogene@brookings.net Kaleikau, E; NRI Plant Genome Program, Stop 2241, 1400 Independence Avenue SW, Washington, DC USA; 202-401-1931; 202-401-6488 (fax); ekaleikau@csrees.usda.gov Kalia, V; Regional Research Station, Dhaulakuan-173001, Distt Sirmur (H. P.), INDIA Kallis, R; Univ Illinois, 259 ERML, 1201 S Gregory Dr, Urbana, IL USA; 217-244-5760 Kampani, A; Univ Illinois, 1201 W Gregory Dr, Urbana, IL USA; 217-333-4582 (fax); 217-244-6146 Kamps, TL; University of Georgia, Plant Genome Mapping Laboratory, Center for Applied Genetic Technologies, 111 Riverbend Road, Athens, GA USA; 706-583-0160 (phone); kampstl@yahoo.com Kang, CL; Hunan Agricultural College, Dong Jiao, Changsa, Hunan 410128, CHINA Kang, MS; Department of Agronomy, Louisiana State University, Baton Rouge, LA USA; 504-388-2110; 504-388-1403 (fax); mkang@agctr.lsu.edu Kantety, R; Dept of Agronomy, 1150 Lilly Hall, Purdue University, West Lafayette, IN USA; 765-496-2729; 765-494-6508 (fax) Kaonga, KKE; Ministry of Agriculture, Chitedze Research Station, Box 158, Lilongwe, MALAWI; ++265 707222 (phone); ++265 707041 (fax); maizeagronomy@malawi.net Kaplinsky, N; Univ California-Berkeley, 111 Koshland Hall, Berkeley, CA USA; 510-642-7085; 510-642-4995 (fax); nkaplins@nature.berkeley.edu Karpoff, A; Dept of Biology, Univ of Louisville, Louisville, KY USA; 502-852-5934; 502-852-0725 (fax); AJKARP01@homer.Louisville.edu Karpova, O; Univ Missouri, 105 Tucker Hall, Columbia, MO USA; 573-882-8033; 573-882-0123 (fax)

Kasha, KJ; Dept of Crop Science, Univ of Guelph, Guelph, Ontario N1G 2W1, CANADA; 519-824-4120 EXT 2507; 519-763-8933 (fax)

Kasim, A; Department of Biological Sciences, Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria, NIGERIA; 069-50581 ext. 108; 234 69 50891 (fax)

Kass, LB; L. H. Bailey Hortorium, Dept of Plant Biology, 228 Plant Science Bldg, Cornell University, Ithaca, NY USA; 607-255-2131; 607-255-7979 (fax); Ibk7@cornell.edu Kaszas, E; Syngenta Biotechnology Inc, 3054 Cornwallis Rd, Research Triangle Park, NC USA; 919 765 5040; 919-541-8585 (fax); etienne.kaszas@syngenta.com

Katayose, Y; Rice Genome Res Program, STAFF Inst, 446-1, Ippaizuka, Kamiyokoba, Ippaizuka, Tsukuba-shi, Ibaraki-ken 305, JAPAN; 81-298-38-2199; 81-298-38-2302 (fax); katayose@nias.affrc.go.jp

Katic-Jovanovic, S; 4619 Tamworth Rd, Sylvania, OH USA; +381641335839; sanjabiz@bluegargoyle.com

Kato Y., TA; Colegio de Postgraduados, Inst Rec Genet Productividad, Km 35.5 Carr Mexico-Texcoco, 56230 Montecillo, Texcoco, MEXICO; 595 1 02 30; 595 1 02 30 (fax) Kato, A; Univ Missouri, 117 Tucker Hall, Columbia, MO USA; 573-882-4871; 573-882-0123 (fax); KatoA@missouri.edu

Katsar, CS; Pioneer, A DuPont Company, 7250 NW 62 street, Johnston, IA USA; 515-334-6639; 515-334-6634 (fax); catherine.katsar@pioneer.com

Kaufman, B; Pioneer Hi-Bred Internat, Inc, 10700 Justin Dr., Urbandale, IA USA; (515)334-6478; (515)334-64781 (fax); Benjamin Kaufman@pioneer.com

Kavakli, IH; 379 Clark Hall, Washington State Univ, Pullman, WA USA; 509-335-1047; 509-335-7643 (fax)

Keeling, PL; ExSeeds Genetics L.L.C., 1573 Food Sci Bldg, Iowa State Univ, Ames, IA USA; 515-294-3259; 515-294-2644 (fax); pkeeling@iastate.edu

Kellogg, EA; Dept of Biology, Univ of Missouri - St Louis, 8001 Natural Bridge Rd, Saint Louis, MO USA; 314-516-6217; 314-516-6233 (fax); tkellogg@umsl.edu

Kendall, T; Pioneer Hi-Bred Internat., Inc., 7300 NW 62nd Ave., PO Box 1004, Johnston, IA USA; 515-270-5952; 515-270-3367 (fax); timmy kendall@pioneer.com Kendra, DF; USDA, ARS, NCAUR, 1815 N. University St., Peoria, IL USA; kendrad@ncaur.usda.gov

Kendid, DF, OSDA, AKS, NCAOK, 1015 N. University St., Fedria II. USA, Kendidu Birkan, Usudu Sudu 300

Kennard, WC; Monsanto, 3302 Convenience Blvd, Ankeny, IA USA; 515-963-4209; 515-963-4242 (fax); wayne.kennard@monsanto.com Kermicle, J; 218 Genetics Dept, 445 Henry Mall, University of Wisconsin, Madison, WI USA; 608-262-1253; 608-262-2976 (fax); kermicle@facstaff.wisc.edu

Kerns, MR; Monsanto Company, 3302 SE Convenience Blvd, Ankeny, IA USA; 515-963-4242 (phone); mike.kerns@monsanto.com

Kerns, S; Univ Wisconsin, 1575 Linden Dr, Madison, WI USA; 608-262-5217 (fax); 608-262-6521

Kerstetter, R; Rugers Univ, Waksman Inst, Dept of Plant Biology, 190 Frelinghuysen Road, Piscataway, NJ USA; 732-445-4737; 732-445-5735 (fax); randallk@waksman.rutgers.edu

Kessler, S; Section of Plant Biology, Division of Biological Sciences, Univ California, Davis, CA USA; 916-754-8692; 916-752-5410 (fax); sakessler@ucdavis.edu Ketchum, KA: TIGR, 9712 Medical Center Drive, Rockville, MD USA

Keygene N.V.; Postbus 216, Wageningen 6700AE, NETHERLANDS

Khairallah, M; CIMMYT, Apdo. Postal 6-641, Mexico, D.F. 06600, MEXICO; 415-833-6655; 415-833-6656 (fax)

Khavkin, EE; Inst Agric Biotech, 42 Timiryazevskaya ul., Moscow, 127550, RUSSIA; (7-095)976-6544; (7-095)977-0947 (fax); emil@iab.ac.ru

Kidwell, K; Crop & Soil Sci, 201 Johnson Hall, Washington State Univ, Pullman, WA USA; 509-335-7247; 509-335-8674 (fax); kidwell@mail.wsu.edu

Kiefer, M; Northrup King Co., 317 330th St., Stanton, MN USA

Kim, BD; Dept of Horticulture, Seoul National Univ, 103 Seodoon-dong, Suwon 441-744, KOREA; 82-331-296-2768 (fax); 82-331-296-2768 (fax); kimbd@plaza.snu.ac.kr

Kim, CS; Univ Arizona, 303 Forbes Hall, Tucson, AZ USA; 520-621-3692 (fax); 520-621-9154 Kim, I; Plant Biology Dept, 111 Koshland Hall, UC Berkeley, Berkeley, CA USA

Kim, K; Penn State, 302 Wartik Lab, University Park, PA USA; 814-863-7958; 814-863-7958 (fax)

Kim, S; Iowa State Univ, 2182 Molec Biol Bldg, Ames, IA USA; 515-294-0453 (fax); 515-294-8202; kimst@iastate.edu

Kim, SK; Internat Agric Research Inst, College of Agriculture, Kyungpook National Univ, Taegu 702-701, SOUTH KOREA; kimsk@bh.kyungpook.ac.kr

Kim, W; 2801 W Bancroft St, Univ Toledo, Toledo, OH USA; 419-530-1538; 419-530-7737 (fax)

Kindiger, B; USDA-ARS, Grazinglands Research Laboratory, 7207 West Cheyenne St, El Renó, OK USA; 405-262-5291; BKindige@GRLARS.USDA.GOV

Kinsey, M; DeKalb Genetics Corp, 3100 Sycamore Rd, DeKalb, IL USA; 815-758-9361; 815-758-4106 (fax)

Kirsch, H; Inst Allgemeine Bot, Univ Hamburg, Ohnhorstrasse 18, Hamburg, GERMANY; 049-40-428-16-503 (fax); 049-40-428-15-382

Kishore, VK; Syngenta Seeds, Inc., 1301 West Washington St., Bloomington, IL USA; 309-533-2049 (phone); venkata.kishore@syngenta.com

Kiss, C; 18 Avenue Gallieni, 49130 Les Ponts de Ce, FRANCE; 33-2-41-44-97-97; 33-2-41-44-98-69 (fax)

Klein, AS; Department of Biochemistry, Spaulding Life Science Bldg, University of New Hampshire, Durham, NH USA; 603-862-2455; 603-862-4013 (fax); anita.klein@unh.edu

Kleinhofs, A; Crop & Soil Sci, 201 Johnson Hall, Washington State Univ, Pullman, WA USA; 509-335-4389; 509-335-8674 (fax); andyk@wsu.edu

Kloeckener-Gruissem, B; Neurology, Univ Calif San Francisco, San Francisco, CA USA; (510) 985-3100; (510) 985-3101 (fax); bkg@gallo.ucsf.edu

Koch, KE; 2147 Fifield Hall, Horticulture Dept, Plant Molec Cell Biol, University of Florida, Gainesville, FL USA; 352-392-4711 ext 309; 352-392-6479 (fax); kek@mail.ifas.ufl.edu

Kohashi, J; Dept of Botany, Colegio de Postgrad, Chapingo, Edo de Mex, MEXICO; (595)4-22-00 ext.5294; (595)428-73 (fax)

Koinuma, K; Hokkaido Natl Agric Exp Stn, Hitsujigaoka, Toyohira-ku, Sapporo, Hokkaido 0628555, JAPAN; koinuma@cryo.affrc.go.jp

Kolacz, K; Monsanto, 700 Chesterfield Pkwy, Saint Louis, MO USA; 314-537-7015 (fax); 314-537-6406

Kolomiets, MV; Dept Plant Pathology and Microbiology, 2132 TAMU, College Station, TX USA; 979-458-4624 (phone); 979 845-6483 (fax); kolomiets@tamu.edu

Kongsamai, B; Iowa State Univ, Dept Agron, 1401 Agronomy Hall, Ames, IA USA; 515-294-0896; buppa@iastate.edu

Konstantinov, K; Maize Research Institute, 11185 Zemun-Belgrade, YUGOSLAVIA; (381)11-3756-704; (381)11-3857-707 (fax); kkosana@mrizp.co.yu

Konstantinov, Y; Siberian Inst Plant Phys Bioch, P.O. Box 1243, Irkutsk 664033, RUSSIA; 39-52-46-09-03; 39-52-51-07-54 (fax); yukon@sifibr.irk.ru

Koterniak, VV; 22 Annapearl Ct #2, North York, Toronto, Ontario CANADA; 647-242-9283 (phone); koterniak@hotmail.com

Kowalewski, S; 117 Schweitzer Hall, University of Missouri, Columbia, MO USA; kowalewskis@missouri.edu

Kowles, RV; Biology Department - Box 10, 700 Terrace Heights, St. Mary's University of Minnesota, Winona, MN USA; 507-457-1554; 507-457-1633 (fax); dkowles@smumn.edu

Krakowsky, M; USDA-ARS, P.O. Box 748, Tifton, GA USA; mkrakowsky@tifton.usda.gov

Kramzar, L; Univ Wisconsin, 900 Wood Rd, PO Box 2000, Kenosha, WI USA; 262-595-2786

Krapovickas, A; Inst Botanica del Nordeste, Casilla Correo 209, Corrientes 3400, ARGENTINA

Kravchenko, OA; Sprincenoaia Str. 1, Institute of Genetics, Chisinau, MD 2028, MOLDOVA; (3732)73-81-25; kravchenko@mail.md

Krebbers, ET; DuPont de Nemours & Co., Agricultural Biotechnology, Experimental Station 402/2253, Wilmington, DE USA; (302)695-8577; (302)695-7361 (fax); enno.krebbers@usa.dupont.com

Kreisman, LS; Dept Biol Sci, Gibb Hall, Univ of Idaho, Moscow, ID USA

Kresovich, S; 130 Biotech Bldg, 332 Brookfield Rd, Cornell Univ, Ithaca, NY USA; 607-255-2300/254-1253; 607-255-6249 (fax); sk20@cornell.edu

Krivov, NV; N. M. Tulaykov Research Agricultural Institute of Samara, 41, Carl Marx Street, Bezenchiuc, Samara region RUSSIA; 8(276)2-11-40 (phone); (84676)2-26-66 (fax); krivovn@mail.ru

Kriz, A; 23 Robin Hood Drive, Gales Ferry, CT USA; 860-381-9158 (phone); kriza@basf.com

Krone, T; Asgrow Seed Co, 634 E. Lincoln Way, Ames, IA USA; 515-232-6955; 515-232-6905 (fax)

Kross, H; 526 Science II, Iowa State University, Ames, IA USA; (515)294-4294

Krueger, RW; Monsanto, 800 N. Lindbergh Blvd. C2NA, Saint Louis, MO USA; 314-694-3677; 314-694-5926 (fax); RWKRUE@ccmail.monsanto.com

Kuhn, WE; U.S. Corn Research Director, Pioneer Hi-Bred Internatl., Inc., 7300 NW 62d Ave., PO Box 1004, Johnston, IA USA; 515-270-3362; 515-253-2288 (fax); bill.kuhn@pioneer.com

Kumar, M; Department of Genetics, Rajendra Agric. Univ., Bihar, Pusa (Samastipur)-848125, INDIA

Kumar, S; Project Directorate Veg Res, Post Box # 5002, Varanasi-221005, INDIA; sanjeetk1@mailcity.com

Kunze, R; Freie Universitaet Berlin, Institut fuer Biologie - Angewandte Genetik, Albrecht-Thaer-Weg 6, Berlin, GERMANY; 49-30-838 54345 (phone); r-c-kunze@web.de Kuo, C-H; Iowa State Univ, B420 Agronomy Hall, Ames, IA USA; 513-294-1659; chkuo@iastate.edu

Kutka, FJ; Natural Resources Res Inst, 5013 Miller Trunk Hwy, Duluth, MN USA

Kuzmin, E; Dept Biol Sci, Univ of Missouri, Columbia, MO USA; 573-882-8033; 573-882-0123 (fax); ekuzmin@biosci.mbp.missouri.edu

Kynast, RG; Jodrell Laboratory, Royal Botanic Gardens, Kew, Richmond, Surrey UNITED KINGDOM; +44-20-8332-5319 (phone); r.kynast@kew.org

Labkowitz, M; Dept Plant Biology, 111 Koshland, Univ California, Berkeley, CA USA; 510-642-8058; 510-642-4995 (fax)

Laccetti, LB; DeKalb Plant Genetics, 62 Maritime Park, Mystic, CT USA; 860-572-5247; 860-572-5240 (fax)

LaCognata, U; Hermannswerder 14, 14473 Potsdam, GERMANY; 49-331-27-567-28; 49-331-27-567-77 (fax); lacognata@PlantTec.de

Lai, F-M; BASF Plant Sci, 26 Davis Dr, Research Triangle Park, NC USA; 919-547-2423 (fax); 919-547-2368; laif@basf.com

Lai, J; Waksman Institute, State Univ of NJ, 190 Frelinghuysen Rd, Piscataway, NJ USA; 732-445-3801; 732-445-5735 (fax); jlai@mbcl.rutgers.edu

Lakhamraju, S; 5 Lakeview Avenue, Apt #11, Reading, MA USA; 978-376-8900 (phone); saradalakhamraju@yahoo.com

Lal, S; 346 Dodge Hall, Department of Biological Sciences, Oakland University, Rochester, MI USA; 248-370-2875; 248-370-4225 (fax); lal@oakland.edu

Lambert, A; 11 rue du 11 Novembre, 49124, SAINT BARTHELEMY D'ANJOU, FRANCE; antoine.lambert@limagrain.com

Lambert, CA; Univ Stellenbosch, Dept Genet, Private Bag XI, Stellenbosch 7602, SOUTH AFRICA; 27 21 8085237 (fax); 27 21 8085839

Lambert, RJ; Crop Science, Turner Hall, Univ of Illinois, 1102 S. Goodwin Ave., Urbana, IL USA; rjlamber@uiuc.edu

Lamkey, K; Agronomy Building, Iowa State University, Ames, IA USA; 515-294-7826; 515-294-9359 (fax); KRLAMKEY@IASTATE.EDU

Lampoh, E; Crops Res Inst, PO Box 3785 Kumasi, Ashanti Region, GHANA; 6221

Lanahan, M; Novartis Seeds, 3054 Cornwallis Rd, Research Triangle Park, NC USA; 919-541-8513; 919-541-8585 (fax)

Landi, P; Univ Bologna, Dip Sci techn Agroambientali, Viale Fanin, 44, 40127 Bologna, ITALY; plandi@agrsci.unibo.it

Lane, B; College of Natural Resources, Dean's Office, University of California, Berkeley, CA USA; 510-643-2203; 510-642-4612 (fax); babs@nature.berkeley.edu

Lang, T; USAID/KATHMANDU/6190, Washington, DC USA

Langdale, J; Department of Plant Sciences, University of Oxford, South Parks Road, Oxford OX1 3RB, UNITED KINGDOM; (44)1865275099; (44)1865275147 (fax); jane.langdale@plants.ox.ac.uk

Lange & Springer, Wissenschaftliche Buchhandlung, GmbH & Co. KG, Otto-Suhr-Allee 26/28, D-10585 Berlin, GERMANY; 49 30 342 06 11 or 340 05 233; Baagoe@Lange.Springer.de

Langham, RJ; Univ California, 111 Koshland Hall, Berkeley, CA USA; 510-642-4995 (fax); 510-642-7948; rlangham@nature.berkeley.edu

Langton, S; Pioneer Hi-Bred Intl, PO Box 668, Janesville, WI USA; 608-756-4038 (fax); 608-756-4030; steven.langton@pioneer.com

Lanza, L; Augusto Bench/Ester Eliana Lasry Bench, UNICAMP/CBMEG, Cldade Univ 'Zeferino Vaz', Campinas SP 13083-970, BRAZIL; 55-19-788-1090; 55-19-788-1089 (fax)

Laparra, H; Yale Univ, MCD Biol Dept, 165 Prospect St, PO Box 208104, New Haven, CT USA; 203-432-3894; 203-432-3854 (fax)

Larkins, B; Dept Plant Sciences, University of Arizona, Building #36, Tucson, AZ USA; (520)621-9958; (520)621-3692 (fax); LARKINS@ag.arizona.edu

Lassagne, H; Biogemma, 24 Avenue des Landais, Aubiere, FRANCE; 33-4-73-42-79-70; 33-4-73-42-79-81 (fax); herve.lassagne@biogemma.com

Latshaw, S; Univ Florida, Horticulture Sci, Gainesville, FL USA; 352-392-6479 (fax); 352-392-1928; latshaw@ufl.edu

Laudencia-Chingcuanco, D; Plant Gene Expression Center, USDA-ARS, 800 Buchanan St., Albany, CA USA; 510-559-5968; 510-559-5678 (fax)

Lauria, M; Istituto Sperimentale Cerealicoltura, Via Stezzano 24, Bergamo, Italy; 0039 035 313132; lauria@iscbg.it

Laurie, C; Cereon Genomics, 45 Sidney St, Cambridge, MA USA; 617-551-1920 (fax); 617-551-8134

Laurie, D; JI Centre for Plant Science Res., Colney Lane, Norwich NR4 7UH, UNITED KINGDOM; 44-01603-452571 x2610; 44-1603-502241 (fax); LAURIED@BBSRC.AC.UK

Lauter, N; USDA-ARS, 415 Bessey Hall, Iowa State University, Ames, IA USA; 515 294 9420 (phone); nickl@iastate.edu

Lawrence, CJ; Corn Insects and Crop Genetics Research Unit, USDA-ARS, 526 Science II, Iowa State University, Ames, IA USA; 515-294-4294; triffid@iastate.edu

Leaver, C; Dept Plant Sciences, University of Oxford, South Parks Road, Oxford OX1 3RB, UNITED KINGDOM; 01865 275143; 01865 275144 (fax); chris.leaver@plants.ox.ac.uk

LeBlanc, O; ORSTOM-CIMMYT, Apdo Postal 6-641, 06600 Mexico DF, MEXICO; (52) 5 726 9091; (52) 5 726 7567 (fax); oleblanc@cgiar.org

LeDeaux, J; USDA-ARS, NCSU, PO Box 7614, Raleigh, NC USA; 919-515-4087; 919-515-3355 (fax); john.r.ledeaux@monsanto.com

Lee, D; Section of Plant Biology, Robbins Hall c/o Neelima Sinha, UC Davis, Davis, CA USA

Lee, EA; Dept. of Plant Agriculture, Crop Sci. Bldg., University of Guelph, Guelph, Ontario CANADA; 519-824-4120x53360; lizlee@uoguelph.ca

Lee, HB; Dept Agronomy, Coll Agriculture, Chungnam Natl Univ, 220 Gung-Dong, Yusung-Gu, Taejon 305-764, KOREA; 82-042-821-5721; 82-042-823-8050 (fax) Lee, HS; Zoology Dept, University of Texas, Austin, TX USA

Lee. I: Department of Biology, College of Science, Kyungsung University, Pusan, 608-736, SOUTH KOREA; 051-620-4647; 051-627-4115 (fax)

Lee, M; Department of Agronomy, Iowa State University, Ames, IA USA; 515-294-7951; 515-294-3163 (fax); mlee@iastate.edu

Lee, W; Dow Agrosciences, 9330 Zionsville Rd, Indianapolis, IN USA; 317-337-5920; wslee@dow.com

Lee. Y: Pioneer Hi-Bred Internati. 7250 NW 62nd Ave. PO Box 552. Johnston. IA USA: 515-334-4620: 515-334-4755 (fax)

Leffler, N; DeKalb Genetics Corp, 3100 Sycamore Rd, DeKalb, IL USA; 815-758-9361; 815-758-4106 (fax); nleffler@dekalb.com

Lehmensiek, A; Univ Stellenbosch, Dept Genet, Private Bag XI, Stellenbosch, SOUTH AFRICA; 27 21 8085833 (fax); 27 21 8085837; aleh@maties.sun.ac.za

Leland, T; Monsanto BB3K, 700 Chesterfield Parkway, Chesterfield, MO USA; 314-737-7208; 314-737-5223 (fax); timothy.j.leland@stl.monsanto.com

Lemaux, P; Dept Plant and Microbial Biology, 111 Koshland Hall, University of California, Berkeley, CA USA; 510-642-1589; 510-642-7356 (fax); lemauxpg@nature.berkeley.edu

Lemieux, B; Dept Plant & Soil Sci, Univ of Delaware, Newark, DE USA; 302-831-1390/0593; 302-831-0721 (fax)

Leroy, P; INRA, Domaine De Crouelle, 63039 Clermont-Ferrand, Cedex 2, FRANCE; 33 73 624337; 33 73 624453 (fax); leroy@valmont.clermont.inra.fr

Lesnick, M; Institute of Molecular Biology, University of Oregon, Eugene, OR USA; lesnick@molbio.uoregon.edu

Levin Research Centre Library; Crop & Food Research Library, Private Bag 11600, Palmerston North, NEW ZEALAND; 64-6-356-8300; 64-6-351-7050; mayclairr@crop.cri.nz

Levites, EV; Inst Cytol Genetics, Novosibirsk, RUSSIA

Levy, A; Plant Genetics Department, Weizmann Institute of Science, Rehovot, 76100, ISRAEL; 972-8-342421; 972-8-466966 (fax); LPLEVY@WEIZMANN.WEIZMANN.AC.IL Lewis, LC; Monsanto, 62 Maritime Dr, Mystic, CT USA; 860-572-5226; 860-572-5240 (fax)

Li, B; DuPont Agic Biotechnol, DTP Suite 200, 1 Innovation Way, PO Box 6104, Newark, DE USA; 302-631-2631; 302-631-2607 (fax); bailin.li@usa.dupont.com

Li, B; Iowa State Univ, Agronomy Dept, Plant Transform Fac, Ames, IA USA; 515-294-2299 (fax); 515-294-6341

Li, D; Zhejiang Agricultural University, Biotechnology Institute, Hangzhou, Zhejiang 310029, CHINA

- Li, H: Institute of Genetics. Chinese Acad Sci. Beijing 100101. CHINA: (86-10)64873490: (86-10)64873428 (fax)
- Li, J; Maize Improvement Center of China, Crop Science College, China Agricultural University, Haidan, Beijing 100094, CHINA; lijs@163bj.com
- Li, J; Iowa State Univ, B420 Agronomy, Ames, IA USA; 515-294-1659; 515-294-2299 (fax); jinli@iastate.edu
- Li, K; Iowa State Univ, 5100 MBB, Ames, IA USA; 515-294-6755 (fax); 515-294-0337; kjli@iastate.edu
- Li, LJ; Key Lab MOE Plant Dev Biol, Wuhan University, Wuhan 430072, Hubei CHINA; 86-27-68754505 (phone)
- Li, M; Novartis Seeds, 317 330th St, Stanton, MN USA; 507-663-7622; 507-645-5621 (fax)
- Li, P; Sichuan Agricultural University, Rice Research Institute, Yaan, Sichuan 625014, CHINA
- Li, Q; China Natl. Cente Biotech. Development, P.O. Box 8118, Beijing 10008, CHINA
- Li, WC; Maize Research Institute, Sichuan Agricultural University, Sichuan, CHINA; ++86 (835) 2882716 (phone); ++86 (835) 2883153 (fax); aumdyns@sicau.edu.cn
- Li, XH; Institute of Crop Breeding and cultivation, Chinese Academy of Agricultural Sciences, 30 Baishigiao Road, Beijing, CHINA; ++86(10)68918596 (phone); ++86(10)68975212 (fax); xinhaili2002@yahoo.com.cn
- Li, Y; Inst Crop Germplasm Resources, Chinese Acad Agric Sciences, Beijing 100081, CHINA; 86-10-62186630; 86-10-62186647; yuli@mail.caas.net.cn
- Li, YX; 2312 Food Sciences, Iowa State Univ, Ames, IA USA
- Li, Z; Lehman College, CUNY, Biology Dept, 250 Bedford Park Blvd. West, Bronx, NY USA; 718-960-8643; 718-960-8236 (fax)
- Li, Z; Iowa State Univ, 2288 Molec Biol Bldg, Ames, IA USA; 515-294-3277; zli@iastate.edu
- Librarian; Plant Breeding International, Maris Lane, Trumpington, Cambridge CB2 2LQ, ENGLAND; 02334-850522; (01223) 845514 (fax)
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- Library: Library. Graduate School of Life Sciences. Tohoku University. 1-1 Katahira 2-chome. Aoba-ku Sendai. 980-8577. JAPAN: 022-217-5692: 022-263-9845 (fax)
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- Library VIR; 44 Herzen Street, St. Petersburg, 190000, RUSSIA
- Library, Maize Res Inst; Jilin Acad., 5 W. Xing Hua Street, Gongzhuling, Jilin, P.R. 13610, CHINA; (86)-04441-215179; (86)-04441-214884 (fax)
- Library-Serials; Oregon State University, 121 The Valley Library, Corvallis, OR USA; 541-737-7326; 541-737-8267 (fax)
- Library/Info Serv; Oxford Forestr Inst Plant Sci, Univ of Oxford, South Parks Rd, Oxford OX1 3RB, UNITED KINGDOM
- Lid, SE; Dept Chem & Biotechnol, PO Box 5051, Univ Norway, As N-1432, NORWAY; 47-64949493; 47-64941465 (fax); stein.lid@ikb.nlh.no
- Life Sciences Library; Pennsylvania State University, E404 Paterno Library, University Park, PA USA
- Lightfoot, D; Southern Illinois Univ, P.O. #23086-0006Z, Agriculture 174. Carbondale, IL USA; 618-453-1797; 618-453-7457 (fax); GA4082@siu.edu
- Liljegren, S; Dept of Biology 0116, UC San eiego, La Jolla, CA USA
- Lin, B; Institute of Molecular Biology, National Chung Hsing University, Taichung 402, TAIWAN; (886-4)285-1885; (886-4)287-4879 (fax); bylin@dragon.nchu.edu.tw
- Lin, L; USDA/CSREES/NRICGP, STOP 2241, 1400 Independence Ave. SW, Washington, DC USA; 202-401-5042; 202-401-6488 (fax); Ilin@reeusda.gov
- Lin, Y; Univ Arizona, 303 Forbes Bldg, Tucson, AZ USA; 520-621-8964; ylin@ag.arizona.edu
- Lippman, Z; Cold Spring Harbor Lab, 1 Bungtown Rd, PO Box 100, Cold Spring Harbor, NY USA; 516-367-8369 (fax); 516-367-5154; lippman@cshl.org

Lisch, D: Dept Plant Biol, 111 Koshland Hall, Univ California, Berkeley, CA USA: 510-642-4995 (fax): 510-642-7948; dlisch@berkeley.edu

- Lison, W; Duquesne Univ, Dept Biol Sci, Pittsburgh, PA USA; 412-396-4356; 412-396-5907 (fax)
- Liu, A; Jiangsu Academy of Agric. Science, Institute of Agrobiol. Genet. & Physiol., Nanjing 210014, CHINA
- Liu, F; Iowa State Univ, B420 Agronomy Hall, Ames, IA USA; 515-294-1659; 515-294-2299 (fax)
- Liu, KD; Dept Agronomy, University of Kentucky, Lexington, KY USA; 606 257 3432 phone; kedeliu@hotmail.com
- Liu, LS; Zhongshan University, Biotechnology Research Center, Guangzhou 510275, CHINA
- Liu, Q; Dept of Biology, Univ of Minnesota, Duluth, MN USA; 218-726-7271; 218-726-8142 (fax)
- Liu, X; China National Rice Research Institute, Genetics & Breeding Dept., Hangzhou 310006, CHINA
- Liu, X; South China Agricultural University, Agronomy Dept., Wushan, Tianhe, Guangzhou, Guangdong 510642, CHINA
- Liu, Y; Botany Dept., Univ. Georgia, Athens, GA USA; (706)542-1857; (706)542-1805 (fax)
- Llaca, V; Univ of New Jersey, 190 Frelinghuysen Rd, Piscataway, NJ USA; 732-445-3801; 732-445-5735 (fax); Ilaca@waksman.rutgers.edu
- Loeffel, FA: Agri Pro Res. Center, Rural Route #2 Box 411, Brookston, IN USA; 317-563-3111; 317-563-6848 (fax)
- Lonsdale, DM; European Bioinformatics Institute, Wellcome Trust Genome Campus, Hinxton, Camgridge, UNITED KINGDOM; 44 (0)1223 494468 (fax); 44 (0)1223 494430; davidl@ebi.ac.uk
- Lopez, CG; 125 NW 35th St, Oregon State Univ, Corvallis, OR USA; 591-752-2993; 591-737-0909 (fax); lopezc@css.orst.edu
- Lopez, JA; Univ Arizona, 303 Forbes Hall, Tucson, AZ USA; 520-621-3692 (fax); 520-621-9154; jalopez@ag.arizona.edu
- Lorbiecke, R; Univ Hamburg, Allgemeine Botanik, Ohnhorstrasse 18, Hamburg, GERMANY; 49 40 42816 503 (fax); 49 40 42816 381; lorbiecke@botanik.uni-hamburg.de Lorentzen, JA: Pioneer Hi-Bred Internati, 7300 NW 62nd Ave, PO Box 1004, Johnston, IA USA; 515-270-4020; 515-270-3367 (fax)
- Lorentzen, M; Pioneer Hi-Bred Intl, 7250 NW 62nd Ave, PO Box 552, Johnston, IA USA
- Lorenzen Dahl, L; Pioneer Hi-Bred Internat., Inc., 7300 NW 62nd Ave, PO Box 1004, Johnston, IA USA
- Lorenzoni, C; Istituto di Genetica Vegetale, Universita Cattolica, Sede di Piacenza, 29100 Piacenza, ITALY; (523)599210; (523)599283 (fax)
- Lorz, H; Institut Allgemeine Botanik, Universitat Hamburg, Ohnhorststrasse 18, 22609 Hamburg, GERMANY; 49-40-82282-420; 49-40-82282-229 (fax)
- Love, R; ProdiGene, 101 Gateway Blvd, Suite 100, College Station, TX USA; 979-690-9527 (fax); 979-690-8537; rlove@prodigene.com
- Lowe, B; DeKalb Genetics/Monsanto, 62 Maritime Dr, Mystic, CT USA; 860-572-5216; 860-572-5280 (fax); brenda.lowe@monsanto.com
- Lu, D; Waksman Inst, 190 Frelinghuysen Rd, Piscataway, NJ USA; 732-445-2307; 732-445-5735 (fax)
- Lu, G; Pioneer Hi-Bred Internat., Inc., 7300 NW 62nd Ave., PO Box 1004, Johnston, IA USA

Lu, M: 305 Manter Hall, Univ. Nebraska, Lincoln, NE USA: (402)472-6084

Lu, YG; South China Agricultural University, Guangzhou 510642, CHINA

Lubkowitz, M; Univ California, Dept PlantBiol, 111 Koshland Hall, Berkeley, CA USA; 510-642-8058; 510-642-4995 (fax); mlubkowitz@smcvt.edu Ludwig, S; Sterne, Kessler, Goldstein & Fox, 1100 New York Ave NW, Suite 600, Washington, DC USA; 202-371-2600; 202-371-2540 (fax); sludwig@skgf.com Luebberstedt. T: Research Centre Flakkebjerg, Danish Inst Agric Sciences, DK-4200 Slagelse, DENMARK; ++45-58113484; thomas.luebberstedt@agrsci.dk

Luethy, M; DeKalb Genetics, 62 Maritime Dr, Mystic, CT USA; 860-752-5212; 860-572-5240 (fax)

Lunde, C; PGEC, 800 Buchanan St, Albany, CA USA; 510-559-5922; 510-559-5678 (fax); lundec@berkeley.edu

Luo, Ming; Sichuan Agricultural University, Rice Research Institute, Yaan, Sichuan 62500, CHINA

LUTAN/Acq Library; Attn: Tsai, Shu-Ling, P.O. Box 830429, Birmingham, AL USA

Luthe, DS; Department of Crop and Soil Sciences, 216 Agricultural Sciences and Industries Building, Pennsylvania State University, University Park, PA USA; 814-863-3542; 814-863-7043 (fax); dsl14@psu.edu

Lutz, J; Pillsbury/Green Giant, 1201 N 45th St, LeSueur, MN USA; 507-665-4457; 507-665-2682 (fax); jlutz@pillsbury.com

Lynch, M; 1883 21st Ave, San Francisco, CA USA

Lysikov, VN; Inst. of Genet. of AS RM., st. Paudurie 20, Kishinev-277002, MOLDOVA; (0422)622068; 3732-556180 (fax)

Ma, H; Dept Biol, Life Sci Consortium, 519 Wartik Laboratory, Penn State Univ, University Park, PA USA; 814-863-6144/8082; 814-863-1357 (fax); hxm16@psu.edu Ma, J: Purdue Univ, Biology Hanson, Rm 339, West Lafavette, IN USA; 765-496-1496 (fax); 765-494-0373; jma@bilbo.bio.purdue.edu

Ma, Z; Waksman Institute, 190 Frelinghuysen Rd, Piscataway, NJ USA; 732-445-2307; 732-445-5735 (fax)

MacDonald, MV; Plant Breeding International, Maris Lane, Trumpington, Cambridge CB2 2LQ, UNITED KINGDOM; 01223-840411; 01223-844425 (fax) Maddock, S; Pioneer Hi-Bred Int Inc., 7300 NW 62nd Ave., PO Box 1004, Johnston, IA USA; 515-270-4047; 515-270-3444 (fax); sheila.maddock@pioneer.com

Magbanua, ZV; Univ Georgia, Dept Botany, Athens, GA USA; 706-542-1857; 706-542-1805 (fax)

Magill, C; Texas A & M University, Dept. of Plant Pathology, College Station, TX USA; 979-845-8250; 979-845-6483 (fax); c-magill@tamu.edu

Magorokosho, C; Plant Breeding Dept, Texas A&M Univ, College Station, TX USA; 1-979-85-4195 (phone); magorokosho@tamu.edu

Magrath Library; Serials Dept, University of Minnesota, 1984 Buford Avenue, Saint Paul, MN USA; 612-624-3755; 612-624-9245; c-koeh@maroon.tc.umn.edu Maguire, M; Zoology Department, University of Texas, Austin, TX USA; 512-471-7451; 512-471-9651 (fax)

Maheshwari, JK; National Botanical Res Inst, H.I.G.-130, Sector 'E', Aliganj Extension, Aliganj, 226 020, U.P. - Lucknow, INDIA; 72655; 244330 (fax)

Maitz, M: KWS SAAT AG, Grimsehstr 31, 37 555 Einbeck, GERMANY: 49 5561 311 337 (fax): 49 5561 311 636; m.maitz@kws.de

Maize Breeding Section; Hokkaido Natl. Agric Experiment Stn., Hitsujigaoka, Toyohira-ku, Sapporo 062-8555, JAPAN; 011-857-9317; 011-859-2178 (fax)

Maize Genetics Cooperation - Stock Center,; USDA/ARS & Crop Sci/UIUC,, S-123 Turner Hall,, 1102 S. Goodwin Avenue, Urbana, IL USA; 217-333-6631; 217-333-6064 (fax); maize@uiuc.edu

Malmberg, S; Monsanto Global Seed Group, 3100 Sycamore Rd, DeKalb, IL USA; 815-758-9516; 815-758-4106 (fax)

Maluf, M; Universidade Estadual de Campinas, Campinas, S?o Paulo BRAZIL

Mangano, ML; DeKalb Genetics Corp., 62 Maritime Dr., Mystic, CT USA

Manjunath, S; Monsanto Company, Mail Zone T3A, 800 N. Lindbergh Blvd., Saint Louis, MO USA; 314-694-2985; 314-694-7868 (fax); s.manjunath@monsanto.com Manley, M; Lima Grain Genetics, 4640 E State Rd 32, Lebanon, IN USA; 765-482-9833; 765-482-9448 (fax); marilyn.manley@agreliantgenetics.com

Manolii, V; Dept Plant Sci, Forbes Bldg Rm 36, Univ Arizona, Tucson, AZ USA; 520-621-9154; 520-621-3692 (fax)

Manzocchi, LA; Consiglio Nazionale delle Ricerche, Istituto Biosintesi Vegetali, Via Bassini 15, 20133 Milano, ITALY; (39) 02.23699.408; (39) 02.23699.411 (fax) Marchand, JL; TA 70/16, 73 Rue Jean-Francois Breton, F34398 Montpellier Cedex 5, FRANCE

Marocco, A; Institute of Agronomy, Catholic University, Via E. Parmense 84, 29100 Piacenza, ITALY; 39-0523-599222 (phone); adriano.marocco@unicatt.it

Marshall, L; Holden's Foundation Seeds, L.L.C., P.O. Box 839, 503 S. Maplewood Ave, Williamsburg, IA USA; 319-668-1100; 319-668-2453 (fax); lori.marshall@holdens.com

Marston Science Library; PO Box 117011, L306 MSL University of Florida, Gainesville, FL USA

Martens, M; Northwest Tech, LLC, 513 N Main, Fairview, OK USA; 580-227-2345; 580-227-3851 (fax); bramco@pldi.net

Martienssen, RA; Cold Spring Harbor Labs, P.O. Box 100, 1 Bungtown Rd, Cold Spring Harbor, NY USA; 516-367-8322; 516-367-8369 (fax); MARTIENS@CSHL.ORG

Martin Sanchez, JA: UdL-IRTA Centro R S D, Alcalde Rovira Roure 177, 25006 Lerida, SPAIN; 34-73-702569; 34-73-238301 (fax)

Martin, C; John Innes Ctr Plant Sci Res, Norwich Res Pk, Norwich NR4 7UH, Norfolk, ENGLAND; cathie.martin@bbsrc.ac.uk

Martin, CM; Cereon Genomics, LLC, 45 Sidney Street, Cambridge, MA USA; 617-551-8128; 617-551-1920

Martin, MJ: 10454 NW 114th St. Granger, IA USA: 515-999-2548: 515-685-5204 (fax)

Martin, R; 4017 Ag & Life Sci, Oregon State Univ, Corvallis, OR USA; 541-737-5455; 541-737-3479 (fax); martinr@bcc.orst.edu

Mascarenhas, JP: Department of Biol Sci, State University of New York, Albany, NY USA; 518/442-4388; 518/442-4354 (fax); im558@cnsunix.albany.edu

Mascia, PN; Ceres, Inc., 3007 Malibu Canyon Road, Malibu, CA USA; 310-317-9978 (fax); 310-317-8911; pmascia@ceres-inc.com

Mather, DE; Plant Sci Dept - Macdonald Col, McGill Univ - 21111 Lakeshore, Ste-Anne-de-Bellevue, Quebec H9X 3V9, CANADA; (514) 398-7854; (514)398-7897 (fax); diane.mather@mcgill.ca

Mathur, DS; Div. of Genetics, Indian Agr Res Inst, New Delhi-110012, INDIA; 581481

Matsuoka, Y; 425 Henry Mall, Univ Wisconsin, Madison, WI USA; 608-265-5804; 608-265-2976 (fax)

Matthews, P; S.S. Steiner, Inc., 655 Madison Ave, New York, NY USA; 612-625-9258; pmatthews@hopsteiner.com

Matvienko, M; Celera AgGen, 756 Picasso Ave, Davis, CA USA; 530-297-3027 (fax); 530-297-3058

Matz, EC; Dept of Biology, Building 463, Brookhaven National Laboratory, Upton, NY USA; 516-344-3396; 516-344-3407 (fax); matz@bnl.gov

Maurer, A; 401 N Ann St #7, Columbia, MO USA; 573-875-4362; am70b@mizzou.edu

Mawgood, AL; Univ Wisconsin, Plant Pathology Dept, Madison, WI USA

May, BP; Cold Spring Harbor Lab, PO Box 100, 1 Bungtown Rd, Cold Spring Harbor, NY USA; 516-637-8836; 516-367-8369 (fax); may@cshl.org

May, G; 220 Biosciences Bldg, Dept Plant Biol, 1445 Gortner Av, Saint Paul, MN USA; gmay@maroon.tc.umn.edu

Mazoti, LB; Carlos Croce 145, 1832 Lomas de Zamora, ARGENTINA

Mazur, BJ; DuPont Agr Products, Biotechnol Res & Devel, Experimental Sta E402/3226, Wilmington, DE USA; 302-695-3700; 302-695-7361 (fax); Barbara.J.Mazur@usa.dupont.com

McCarthy Hall, I; 1710 Milvia St, Univ California, Berkeley, CA USA; 510-845-9508

McCarty, D; Vegetable Crops Department, 1255 Fifield Hall, University of Florida, Gainesville, FL USA; 352-392-1928 ext 322; 352-392-6479 (fax); drm@ifas.ufl.edu

McConnell, RL; Research & Product Development, Pioneer Hi-Bred International, Box 1004, Johnston, IA USA; (515)270-3363; (515)253-2478 (fax); rick.mcconnell@pioneer.com

McCormick, S; USDA-ARS-PGEC, 800 Buchanan Street, Albany, CA USA; 510-559-5906; 510-559-5678 (fax); sheilamc@nature.berkeley.edu

McCouch, SR; Cornell Univ, Dept Plant Breeding & Biometry, 252 Emerson Hall, Ithaca, NY USA; 607-255-0420; 607-255-6683 (fax); srm4@cornell.edu

McCullough, AJ; Dept. of Biochemistry, Baylor College of Medicine, Houston, TX USA; 713-798-4622

McCurdy, L; P.O. Box 77, McCurdy Seed Co, Fremont, IA USA; 515-933-4291

McFarlane, C; Ames Seed Farm, 26767 Timber Rd, Kelley, IA USA; 515-232-3648; 515-232-6120 (fax) McFerson, J; Asgrow Seed Co., 634 E. Lincoln Way, Ames, IA USA; (515)232-7170; (515)232-6905 (fax) McGinnis, K; Department of Plant Sciences, University of Arizona, 303 Forbes Hall, Tucson, AZ USA; mcginnis@ag.arizona.edu McLaren, JS; StrathKim Inc, 2214 Stoneridge Terrace Court, Chesterfield, MO USA; 636-530-6943; 636-530-6945 (fax); mclaren@strathkim.com McLaughlin, J; 76 West Bridge Street, Apt. 1, New Hope, PA USA; 215-862-2012 (phone); johnmclaughlin48@msn.com McMullen, M; USDA ARS MWA, Curtis Hall, University of Missouri, Columbia, MO USA; 573-882-7606; 573-884-7850 (fax); McMullenM@missouri.edu McSteen, P; Penn State University, 208 Mueller Lab, University Park, PA USA; 814-865-9131 (phone); pcm11@psu.edu McWhirter, KS; 127 Victoria Road, West Pennant Hills, NSW 2125, AUSTRALIA; 02 9484 7417; 02 9484 7417 (fax); kmcwhirt@ozemail.com.au

McElver, J: Pioneer Hi-Bred Internat Inc. 7300 NW 62nd Ave., PO Box 1004, Johnston, IA USA: 515-270-5943: 515-270-3367 (fax)

Meeley, R; Product Development - Molecular Genetics, Pioneer Hi-Bred International, Inc., 7300 NW 62nd Ave. - Box 1004, Johnston, IA USA; 515-270-3770; 515-253-2149 (fax); bob.meeley@pioneer.com

Meghji, M; Syngenta Seeds Inc., Bloomington, IL USA; 309-823-8578; 309-823-8568 (fax); moez.meghji@syngenta.com

Mei, M; South China Agricultural University, Genetic Engineering Laboratory, Guangzhou 510642, CHINA

Meijer, A; Clusios Lab, PO Box 9505, Leiden Univ, 2300 RA Leiden, NETHERLANDS; 5274891; 5275039 (fax); meijer@rulbim.leidenuniv.nl

Meiklejohn, C; Harvard Univ, Dept Invertebrate Zoology, MCZ 138, 26 Oxford St, Cambridge, MA USA; 617-495-2447

Melanson, D; NCSU/Novartis, 108 E. Whitaker Mill Rd, Raleigh, NC USA; 919-541-8619; 919-541-8585 (fax)

Melchinger, AE; Universitat Hohenheim, Institut fur Pflanzenzuchtung, Postfach 70 05 62 (350/1), D-70593 Stuttgart, GERMANY; 0711-459-2334; 0711-459-2343 (fax); melchinger@uni-hohenheim.de

Melia-Hancock, S; 1-41 Ag, University of Missouri, Columbia, MO USA; 573-882-6566; Melia-HancockS@missouri.edu

Mello-Sampayo, T; R. Padre Francisco 16, 5.F., 1300 Lisboa, PORTUGAL

Messing, J; Rutgers, The State Univ, Waksman Institute, 190 Frelinghuysen Rd, Piscataway, NJ USA; 732-445-4256; 732-445-0072 (fax); messing@waksman.rutgers.edu

Mettler, IJ; Northrup King Co., 317 330th Street, Stanton, MN USA; 507-663-7643; 507-645-7519 (fax)

Meyer, J; Univ Missouri, Curtis Hall, Columbia, MO USA; 573-882-6743; jdmeyer2@wisc.edu

Meyer, T; Pioneer Hi-Bred International, 7300 N.W. 62nd Avenue, P. O. Box 1004, Johnston, IA USA; 515-270-3962; 515-270-3367 (fax); terry.meyer@pioneer.com

Meyerowitz, E; Biology Dept 156-29, California Inst Tech, Pasadena, CA USA; 626-395-6889; 626-449-0756 (fax); meyerow@caltech.edu

Mi, G; Dept Plant Nutrition, China Agricultural Univ, Beijing 100094, CHINA; 86-10-62893886; 86-10-62891016; miguohua@cau.edu.cn

Miao, G-H; Pioneer Hi-Bred Intl, 7250 NW 62nd Ave, PO Box 552, Johnston, IA USA; 515-334-4778 (fax); 515-334-4768; guo-hua.miao@pioneer.com

Michelini, LA; R. Ayrton Playsant, 21, Ponta Grossa, Parana 84100-550, BRAZIL; 55-42-223-2774; 55-42-223-2774 (fax)

Michiels, F; Plant Genetic Systems, Jozef Plateaustraat 22, Gent B-9000, BELGIUM; 32-9-2358475; 32-9-2240694 (fax)

Mickelson, S; 7250 NW 62nd Ave., P.O. Box 552, Johnston, IA USA; suzanne.mickelson@pioneer.com

Mickelson-Young, L; Dow AgroSciences, 9330 Zionsville Rd, Indianapolis, IN USA; 317-337-3805; 317-337-5989 (fax)

Micu, VE; Scientific Res Inst Maize & Sorghum, Pashcani, Criuleni, 278336 Moldova, MOLDOVA; (3732)-22-24-78; (3732)-22-73-02 (fax)

Middle, C; Iowa State Univ, Dept of Agronomy, 1401 Agronomy Hall, Ames, IA USA; 515-294-9233

Miernyk, J; ARS-USDA, Curtis Hall, University of Missouri, Columbia, MO USA; 573/882-8167; 573/884-7850 (fax); miernykj@missouri.edu

Mies, D; Syngenta seeds, PO Box 629, 1002 Old SR15, Milford, IN USA; 217-658-3081; 217-658-3083 (fax); dave.mies@syngenta.com

Mihailov, M; Institute of Genetics, Acad Sci Mold Repub, Kishinev, MOLDOVA; mihailov@mail.md

Mihm, JA; French Agricultural Research, RR2, Box 294, Lamberton, MN USA; 507-752-7274; 507-752-6132 (fax)

Mikkilineni, V; Univ Delaware, 531 S College Ave, Newark, DE USA; 302-837-1969 (fax); 302-831-1044; vmikkilineni@yahoo.com

Mikula, BC; Defiance College, 901 College Drive, Defiance, OH USA; 419-784-4010 EXT 426; 419-784-0426 (fax)

Milach, S; 1991 Buford Circle, Room 411 Borlang Hall, Saint Paul, MN USA; (612)625-6223; (612)625-1268 (fax)

Miles, D; Tucker Hall, Div. Biological Sciences, University of Missouri, Columbia, MO USA; 573-882-7933; milesd@missouri.edu

Millard, M; North Centr Reg Plant Intr Sta, Iowa State University, Ames, IA USA; 515-294-3715; 515-294-1903 (fax); mjmillar@iastate.edu Miller, M: Pioneer Hi-Bred Intl. 7300 NW 62nd Ave. Johnston, IA USA; 515-270-3444 (fax); 515-254-2622; michael.miller@pioneer.com

Min, HK; Hongcheon Maize Exper Sta, 814 Jangnam, Doochon, Hongcheongun, KOREA; 82-366-435-3757; 82-366-435-6876 (fax)

Min, S; China National Rice Research Institute, Genetics and Breeding, 171 Ti Yu Chang Road, Hangzhou, Zhejiang 310006, CHINA

Ming, R; Hawaii Agric Research Center, 99-193 Aiea Heights Dr, Aiea, HI USA; 808-486-5374; 808-486-5020 (fax); rming@harc-hspa.com

Milling, K, Hawaii Agite Research Center, 95-155 Alea Heights DI, Alea, 11 CSA, 600-400-5574, 600-400-5020 (tax), milling@harc-hspa.com Mitkovski, M: Univ Idaho, Biological Sciences, Moscow, ID USA: 208-885-8581: 208-885-7805 (fax)

Milkovski, M, Ohn Idano, Biological Sciences, Moscow, ID OSA, 200-000-000 (RX) Miura, Y; Maize Breeding Station, Hokkaido Natl. Agr. Exp. Stn., Hitsujigaoka, Sapporo 062, JAPAN

Mizukami, Y; Dept Plant Biol, 111 Koshland Hall, Univ California, Berkeley, CA USA; 510-642-6405; 510-642-9017 (fax); mizukami@nature.berkeley.edu

Modena, S; Dept. of Crop Science, North Carolina State Univ., Box 7620, Raleigh, NC USA; 919-515-2246; 919-515-7959 (fax); ab4el@MindSpring.com

Modi, M; 1560 NE Merman Dr, Washington State Univ, Pullman, WA USA; 509-332-6031; 509-335-7643 (fax)

Moeller, EM; Univ. Hohenheim (350 b), Fruwirthstr. 21, D-70599 STUTTGART, GERMANY; tel ++49 711 459 2336; fax ++49 711 459 2343; moellere@uni-hohenheim.de

Moeller, EM; Univ. Hohenheim (350 b), Fruwirthstr. 21, D-70599, Stuttgart, Germany; ++49 711 459 2336 (phone); ++49 711 459 2343 (fax)

Mogensen, HL; Northern Arizona Univ, Dept of Biology, Box 5640, Flagstaff, AZ USA; 520-523-7328; 520-523-7500 (fax); Hans.Mogensen@nau.edu

Molina, MC; Del Valle Iberlucea 3711, 1826 Remedios de Escalada, Buenos Aires, ARGENTINA

Molina-Ochoa, J; Univ Colima, Fac Ciencias Biol & Agropecuarias, Apartado Postal 36, Tecoman 28100, Colima, MEXICO; 332 4 42 37; jmolina@tecoman.ucol.mx

Monde, R; Lilly Hall, Dept. of Agronomy, Purdue University, West Lafayette, IN USA; rmonde@purdue.edu

Mondin, M; Avenida Padua Dias, 11, Caixa Postal 83, Piracicaba, Sao Paulo BRAZIL; 55 19 3433-6706; mmondin@carpa.ciagri.usp.br

Montagu, J; Cold Spring Harbor Lab, PO Box 100, Cold Spring Harbor, NY USA

Moon, JK; 915 E. 3rd St, Myers 300, Indiana Unversity, Bloomington, IN USA; jemoon@indiana.edu

Mooney, M; UC Berkeley, Plant Biology Dept, 111 Koshland Hall, Berkeley, CA USA

Moore, G; John Innes Ctr, Cereal Res Dept, Norwich Res Pk, Norwich NR4 7UJ, UNITED KINGDOM; 01603-452571; 01603-502241 (fax)

Moore, PH; USDA ARS PWA, Experiment Station HSPA, P.O. Box 1057, Aiea, HI USA; 808-487-5561; 808-486-5020 (fax)

Moose, SP; Dept of Crop Sciences, Univ of Illinois, 389 ERML-MC051, 1201 W. Gregory Drive, Urbana, IL USA; 217-244-6308; 217-333-4582 (fax); smoose@uiuc.edu

Moreira-Filho, CA; Dept. de Imunologia do ICP-USP, Av. Prof. Lineu Prestes, 2415, 05508-900 Sao Paulo S. P., BRAZIL

Morgante, M; Dpto Produz Veg e Tecnol Agr, Universita' Di Udine, Via delle Scienze 208, 33100 Udine, ITALY; 39-0432558606; 39-0432558603 (fax); morgante@dpvta.uniud.it

Moro, GL; Novartis Seeds, Caixa Postal 585, 38406-270 Uberlandia MG, BRAZIL; 034-216-6005

Morrow, S; Cargill Hybrid Seeds, 2600 W. Galena Blvd, Aurora, IL USA; 630-801-2326; 630-801-2345 (fax)

Motorga, V; S. C. A. SIMNIC, Str. BALCESTI no. 14, 1100-CRAIOVA, ROMANIA

Motta, A; Univ Milan, via Celoria 26, 20133 Milano, ITALY; 39-02-26604392; 39-02-26604399 (fax)

Mottinger, J; Dept Bioch Microb Mol Gen, University of Rhode Island, Kingston, RI USA; 401-874-2625; 401-874-2202 (fax); john.mottinger@uri.edu

Motto, M: CRA-Istituto Sperimentale Cerealicoltura. Via Stezzano. 24. 24126 Bergamo, ITALY: 39-035-313132: 39-035-316054 (fax): mario.motto@entecra.it Mou, B; Iowa State Univ, 2154 Mol Biol Bldg, Dept Biochem, Biophys & Mol Biol, Ames, IA USA; 515-294-8202; 515-294-0453 (fax)

Moutig, R; Iowa State Univ, Dept Agronomy, 1401 Agronomy Hall, Ames, IA USA; 515-294-3163 (fax); 515-294-5755/8690

Mozoub, D; Lehman College, CUNY, Biology Dept, c/o Elli Wurtzel, 250 Bedford Park Blvd West, Bronx, NY USA

Mroczek, RJ; Biology Department, The University of Arkansas, Fort Smith, 5210 Grand Ave., Fort Smith, AR USA; 479-788-7964 (phone); bmroczek@uafortsmith.edu

Muasya, WNP; National Dryland Res Centre, PO Box 340, Machakos, KENYA; ++254(2)524600 (phone); +254(2)524601 (fax); cimmyt-kenya@cgiar.org

Mudalige, RG; Lehman College/CUNY, 250 W Bedford Park Blvd, Bronx, NY USA; 718-960-4994; 718-960-8236 (fax)

Mueller, T; Univ Wisconsin, 900 Wood Rd, PO Box 2000, Kenosha, WI USA

Muenchrath, DA; Agronomy, Iowa State Univ, Ames, IA USA; 515/294-1360; 515/294-8146 (fax); mnchrath@iastate.edu

Mulcahy, D; Botany Department, Univ of Massachusetts, Amherst, MA USA; 413-545-2238; 413-545-3243 (fax); dmulcahy@bio.umass.edu

Mullen, JA; Trait and Technology Dept, Pioneer Hi-Bred International Inc, 7250 NW 62nd Ave, PO Box 552, Johnston, IA USA; 515 254 2897; 515 334 4788; jeff.mullen@pioneer.com

Mulligan, TP; P. O. Box 523, Cold Spring Harbor, NY USA; 516-367-8829; 516-367-4031 (fax); MULLIGAN@CSHL.ORG

Multani, DS; Pioneer Hi-Bred Intl Inc, 7250 NW 62nd Ave, PO Box 552, Reid E (39L), Johnston, IA USA; dilbag.multani@pioneer.com

Mumm, R; GeneMax Services, 85410 Dudley, Chapel Hill, NC USA; 217-398-1570; 217-398-1571 (fax); rita.mumm@genemaxservices.com

Mundree, SG; Dept Molec Cell Biol, Univ of Cape Town, Private Bag, Rondebosch 7701, SOUTH AFRICA; ++27(21)6503263 (phone); ++27(21)67897573 (fax); mundree@science.uct.ac.za

Mungoma, C; Agriculture Research Institute, c/o GVART, PO Box 54, Fringilla, ZAMBIA; 260-1-213829 (phone); 260-1-213832 (fax); maize@zamnet.zm

Murigneux, A; BIOCEM-Groupe Limagrain, Lab Biol Cell Molec, Campus Univ Cezeaux, 24 av des Landais, 63170 Aubiere, FRANCE; 33-4-73-42-79-70; 33-4-73-27-57-36 (fax); alain.murigneux@biogemma.com

Murphy, M; Pioneer Hi-Bred Intl, 7250 NW 62nd Ave, Johnston, IA USA; 515-270-5991

Murray, MG; Dow AgroSciences, 9330 Zionsville Rd, Indianpolis, IN USA; 317-337-3982; 317-337-4266 (fax); mmurray@dow.com

Musket, T; Division of Plant Sciences, 1-31 Agriculture Building, University of Missouri-Columbia, Columbia, MO USA; 573-882-9228; 573-882-1469 (fax); muskett@missouri.edu

Mustell, RA; One Skyline Drive, Louisiana, MO USA; 573-754-6998; 573-754-6554 (fax); 509-356-5044 (fax); robertmustell@hotmail.com

Muszynski, MG; Syngenta Seeds, 2369 330th St., Slater, IA USA; 515-685-5080; michael.muszynski@syngenta.com

Mutinda, C; KARI, Embu Regional Research Centre, Box 27, Embu, KENYA; ++254(2)6820116 (phone); ++254(2)6830064 (fax); kariembu@salpha.co.ke

Mwala, MS; Crop Science Dept, University of Zambia, P.O. Box 32379, Lusaka, ZAMBIA; ++260(1)295655 (phone); ++260(1)295655 (fax); 260-95-805114 (cell) (phone); mmwala@agric.unza.zm

Mwansa, K; Agric Res Inst, c/o GART, PO Box 54, Fringilla, ZAMBIA; ++260(1)213829 (phone); ++260(1)213832 (fax); maize@zamnet.zm

Myers, AM; Dept Biochem & Biophys, 2110 Molecular Biology Bldg, Iowa State University, Ames, IA USA; 515-294-9548; 515-294-0453 (fax); ammyers@iastate.edu

Nagamura, Y: Rice Genome Res Program, STAFF Inst, 446-1, Ippaizuka, Kamiyokoba, Ippaizuka, Tsukuba-shi, Ibaraki-ken 305, JAPAN; 81-298-38-2199; 81-298-38-2302 (fax)

Nagel, A; Univ Georgia, Miller Plant Life Sci Bldg, m 2502, Dept Botany, Athens, GA USA; 706-542-1857; 706-542-3910 (fax)

Nagel, BA; Mycogen Seeds, 29 North Hwy 51, PO Box 49, Arlington, WI USA; 608-635-4045; 608-635-2206 (fax)

Nagle, B; National Starch & Chemical Co., 5648 West 73rd St, Indianapolis, IN USA; 317-295-4123; 317-295-4121 (fax); Barry Nagle@nstarch.com

Naidin, C; S. C. A. SIMINIC Str., BALCESTI no. 14, 1100-CRAIOVA, ROMANIA

Nakagawa, Yoichi; Takii & Company LTD, P.O. Box 7, Kyoto C. P. O., JAPAN; (075)365-0123; (075)365-0110 (fax)

Naranjo, C; Inst Fitotecn Santa Catalina (UNLP), C.C.4 (1836) Llavallol, Buenos Aires, ARGENTINA; canaranjo@ciudad.com.ar

Nardmann, J; Institut fuer Entwicklungsbiologie, Gyrhofstr. 17, Cologne, Germany; 00492214702488 (phone); j.nardmann@uni-koeln.de

Narro Leon, TP; Avenida La Universidad s/n La Molina, Lima 12-Casilla No 2791, Lima 1, PERU; tonarrol@hotmail.com

National Taiwan Univ Library; Attn: Yi-Ching Huang, Gift & Exchange/Acquisitions, 1, Section 4, Roosevelt Road, Taipei 10617, TAIWAN; 02-2363-0231x2268; 02-2362-7383 (fax)

NCAUR Library, ARS USDA; 1815 N University St, Peoria, IL USA; 309-681-6526; 309-681-6681 (fax); blumenj@mail.ncaur.usda.gov

Nedev, T: Dept Tissue & Cell Cult, Inst of Genetics, Bulgarian Acad Sci, Sofia, BULGARIA: (+359 2) 75 40 41x233; (+359 2) 75 70 87 (fax)

Negrotto, D; Novartis, 3054 Cornwallis Rd, Research Triangle Park, NC USA; 919-541-8686; 919-541-8557 (fax)

Nel. PM: Dept of Genetics. Univ of The Witwatersrand. P.O. WITS. Transvaal 2050. SOUTH AFRICA: 011-716-2154: 011-716-8030 (fax)

Nelsen, TC; USDA-ARS, 1815 N. University, Peoria, IL USA

Nelson, J; UC Berkeley, Plant Biology Dept, 111 Koshland Hall, Berkeley, CA USA; 510-642-7085; 510-642-4995 (fax); inelson@nature.berkeley.edu

Nelson, KS; Pioneer Hi-Bred Internatil, 7300 NW 62nd Ave, Box 1004, Johnston, IA USA; 515-270-4370; 515-270-2608 (fax); kellie.nelson@pioneer.com

Nelson, OE; Deceased, Madison, WI USA; 608-265-4636; 608-262-2976 (fax)

Nelson, TM; Department of Biology, PO Box 208104, Yale University, New Haven, CT USA; 203-432-3860; 203-432-5632 (fax); TIMOTHY.NELSON@YALE.edu

Nemeth, J. Cereal Research Non-Profit Co., Also Kikoto sor 9, Szeged, HUNGARY; 62-54-555; 62-54-588 (fax)

Neuffer, MG; 109 Curtis Hall, University of Missouri, Columbia, MO USA; 573-884-7850 (fax); 573-449-0672; Gneuffer@aol.com

Newman, LJ; 7250 NW 62nd Avenue, PO Box 552, Johnston, IA USA; 515-253-2276; 515-270-5970; 515-334-4788 (fax); lisa.newman@pioneer.com

Newman, TC; MSU-DOE Plant Res Lab, Plant Biology Bldg, East Lansing, MI USA; 517-353-0854; 517-353-9168 (fax)

Newman, TS; Wyffels Hybrids, Inc, P.O. Box 246, Atkinson, IL USA; 309-936-7833; 309-936-7930 (fax)

Newton, K; Dept Biol Sci University of Missouri, Columbia, MO USA; 573-882-4049; NewtonK@missouri.edu

Nguyen, HT; Department of Agronomy, Plant Sciences Unit, 1-87 Agriculture Building, University of Missouri, Columbia, MO USA; (573) 882-5494; (573) 882-1469 (fax); nguyenhenry@missouri.edu

Nguyen, T-T; North Carolina State Univ, Dept Botany, Box 7612, Raleigh, NC USA; 919-515-3436 (fax); 919-515-7166; tuyen_nguyen@ncsu.edu

Nhlane, WG; Ministry of Agriculture, Chitedze Research Sta, PO Box 158, Lilongwe, MALAWI; ++265 707041/7007073 (fax); maizeagronomy@malawi.net

Nieto-Sotelo, J; Univ Nacl Autonoma Mexico, Inst Biotechnol, Dept Plant Mol Biol, Apdo Postal 510-3, Cuernavaca 62250, Morelos, MEXICO; jorge@ibt.unam.mx Nikolau, BJ: Dept. Biochem. & Biophys., Iowa State Univ., Ames. IA USA: 515-294-9423; dimmas@iastate.edu

Nirunsuksiri, W; DowAgro Sciences, 9330 Zionsville Rd, Indianapolis, IN USA; 317-337-5977; 317-337-5989 (fax)

Nishimura, A; BioScience Ctr, Nagoya Univ, Chikusa, Nagoya 464-8601, JAPAN; 81-52-789-5225; 81-52-789-5226 (fax)

Nkwetta, AM; Inst Agric Res Devel, PO Box 25 Ekona, Southwest Province, Buea, REPUBLIC OF CAMEROON; 00237 31 99 25 (fax); 00237 35 43 71

Noble, SW, Jr; Dept of Corn Breeding, Pioneer Hi-Bred Int'l Inc, P.O. Box 385, Johnston, IA USA; 515-270-3318; 515-270-4314 (fax); Stephen Noble@Pioneer.com Nordsaat Saatzucht GmbH; Benshurst 2, 77839 Lichtenau, GERMANY; 0621/78 60 27; 0621/781192 (fax)

Norton, RA; USDA, ARS, NCAUR Mycotoxin R.U., 1815 N. University, Peoria, IL USA; 309-681-6251; 309-671-7814 (fax)

Novartis Seeds AB; Biblioteket, Box 302, 261 23 Landskrona, SWEDEN

Novartis Seeds S.A.; Bibliotheque, 12 Chemin de l'Hobit BP 27, 31790 Saint Sauveur, FRANCE

Nowell, DC; Pannar (Pty) Ltd, PO Box 19, Greytown 3500, SOUTH AFRICA; 27-334-31131; 27-334-71208 (fax)

Nunberg, A; Monsanto, 800 N Lindbergh Blvd, Saint Louis, MO USA; 314-694-5421; 314-694-3914 (fax)

O'Kennedy, MM; CSIR, Food Sci & Technol, POB 395, ZA 0001 Pretoria, SOUTH AFRICA; 27-12-841-2911; 27-12-841-2185 (fax)

O'Sullivan, D; NIAB, Huntingdon Road, Cambridge, UNITED KINGDOM; donal.osullivan@niab.com

Ober, E; 1-87 Agriculture Bldg., University of Missouri, Columbia, MO USA; 573-882-6832; 573-882-1469 (fax)

Odland, W; 411 Borlaug Hall, 1991 Buford Circle, Univ Minnesota, Saint Paul, MN USA; 612-625-6223; 612-625-1268 (fax); odla0014@umn.edu

Ogbeide, OD; N01B Jalan Wawasan, 4/1 Bandar Baru, Ampang, Kuala Lumpur 68000, MALAYSIA; 603-427-05090 (fax); 601-628-49078; DOgbeide@yahoo.com Ogle, CW; P.O. Box 484, Sugar Grove, IL USA; 312-466-4742

Ohta, Y; Kasuga 2-5-1-301, Tsukuba 305, JAPAN

Okagaki, R; Univ Minnesota, Dept Agron Plant Genet, 411 Borlaug Hall, 1991 Buford Circle, Saint Paul, MN USA; 612-625-8756; 612-625-1268 (fax); okaga002@tc.umn.edu Okuno, K; National Inst of Agrobiol Resources, 2-1-2 Kannondai, Tsukuba, Ibaraki 305, JAPAN; 81-298-38-7458; 81-298-38-7408 (fax)

Oldroyd, G; UC Berkeley, Plant Biology Dept, 111 Koshland Hall, Berkeley, CA USA

Olhoft, P; Dept Agron & Plant Genetics, 1991 Buford Circle, 411 Borlaug Hall, Univ of Minnesota, Saint Paul, MN USA; 612-625-9258; 612-625-1268 (fax)

Oliver, MJ; ARS/USDA, 204 CURTIS HALL, UNIVERSITY OF MISSOURI, Columbia, MO USA; (573) 882-9645 (phone); (573) 884-7850 (fax); olivermj@missouri.edu

Oliver, MJ; ARS/USDA, 204 CURTIS HALL, UNIVERSITY OF MISSOURI, Columbia, MO USA; (573) 882-9645 (phone); (573) 884-7850 (fax); olivernj@missouri.edu

Olsen, KS; Univ Norway, As N-1432, NORWAY; 47 64949489; odd-arne.olsen@ikb.nlh.no

Olsen, M; Wilson Genetics, LLC, 14088 Hwy 44, PO Box 44, Harlan, IA USA; 712-755-3841; 712-755-5261 (fax)

Olsen, OA; Pioneer Hi-Bred Intl Inc, Johnston, IA USA; olsenoa@mchsi.com

Ombori, O; Kenyatta University, School of Pure and Applied Sciences, Department of Plant and Microbial Sciences, P.O. Box 43844 (00100), NAIROBI, KENYA; ombori@yahoo.com

Ono, A; Stanford Univ, Biol Sci, Stanford, CA USA; 650-723-2609; 650-725-8221 (fax); ake@leland.stanford.edu

Openshaw, S; 516 3rd St E, Northfield, MN USA; steve_openshaw@yahoo.com

Oro, R; Univ Guelph, Crop Sci Bldg Rm316, Guelph, Ontario N1G 2W1, CANADA; 519-763-8933 (fax); 519-824-4120 ext 3396; roro@uoguelph.ca

Orr, AR; Department of Biology, University of Northern Iowa, Cedar Falls, IA USA; 319/277-4381; 319/273-2893 (fax); ORR@UNI.EDU

Ortega-Corona, A; Norman Borlaug km-12, Valle del Yaqui CP 85000, Obregon, Sonora Mexico; 414-57-00 (phone); ortega.alejandro@inifap.gob.mx

Orton Memorial Library; IICA-CIDIA, Turrialba, COSTA RICA; (506)56-0501; (506)56-1533 (fax)

Osmont, K; Univ California, Berkeley, Dept Plant Microbial Biol, 111 Koshland Hall, Berkeley, CA USA; 510-642-7085; 510-642-4995 (fax); ksosmont@nature.berkeley.edu Osterlund, M; Univ Georgia, 156 Riverbend Res Bldg, Athens, GA USA; 706-583-0160 (fax); 706-583-0168

Osterman, JC; School of Life Sciences, University of Nebraska-Lincoln, Lincoln, NE USA; 402-472-5129; 402-472-2083 (fax); josterman@unl.edu

Ostrander, B; National Starch and Chemical, Plant Genetics Group, 5648 W. 73rd Street, Indianapolis, IN USA; 317-295-4124; 317-295-4121 (fax); brad.ostrander@nstarch.com

Ouzunova, M; KWS Saat AG, Grimsehlstr 31, Einbeck 37555, GERMANY; 49-5561-311-352; 49-5561-311-337 (fax); M.Ouzunova@KWS.de

Owusu, EO; 2082 Cordley Hall, Oregon State Univ, Corvallis, OR USA; 541-737-3308; 541-737-3573 (fax)

Padilla, C; UC San Diego, Dept of Biology, 0116, La Jolla, CA USA

Padmanahban, V; Pioneer Hi-Bred Intl, 7250 NW 62nd Ave, PO Box 552, Johnston, IA USA

Paez, AV; Genetic Enterprises Int'l, 6165 Crabapple Lane, Johnston, IA USA; 515-278-1170; 515-276-9360 (fax); paezgei@worldnet.att.net

Page, B; Univ of Missouri, 117 Tucker Hall, Columbia, MO USA; 573-882-4871; 573-882-0123 (fax)

Pages, M; CSIC Dept Genet Mol, Jordi Girona Salgado 18-26, 08034 Barcelona, SPAIN; 34-93-4006131; 34-3-2045904 (fax); mptgmm@cid.csic.es

Paiva, E; EMBRAPA/CNPMS, Caixa Postal 151, 35701-970 Sete Lagoas-MG, BRAZIL; 31-779-1179; 31-779-1088 (fax); edilson@cnpms.embrapa.br

Palaisa, K; Univ Delaware, Dept Plant Soil Sci, Newark, DE USA; 302-831-0605 (fax); 302-831-2531

Palmer, KE; Dept. of Microbiology, University of Cape Town, Private Bag, Rondebosch 7700, SOUTH AFRICA; 21-650-3269; 21-650-4320 (fax)

Palmer, R; USDA-ARS-CICGR, Iowa State University, Agronomy Department, Room G301, Ames, IA USA; 515-294-7378; 515-294-2299 (fax); rpalmer@iastate.edu

- Pan, D; Space Biol Genetic Res, Wisc Ctr Space Autom Robot, Univ of Wisconsin, 545 Science Drive, Madison, WI USA; 608-265-3552; 608-262-9458 (fax); dpan@facstaff.wisc.edu
- Panavas, T; Univ Massachusetts, Dept Biology, Amherst, MA USA; 413-545-9622; 413-545-3243 (fax); panavas@bio.umass.edu
- Pantuso, F; Universidad nacional de Lujan, Mejoramiento Vegetal, Departamento de Tecnologia, Rutas 5 y 7 (6700) Lujan, Buenos Aires, ARGENTINA; pantuso@mail.unlu.edu.ar
- Pareddy, DR; DowElanco, R&D Building, 306/B-1, 9330 Zionsville Road, Indianapolis, IN USA; (317)337-3646; 317-337-3228 (fax)

Parihar, D; Proagro Seed Co. Ltd., Dhumuspur Road, Badshahpur, Gurgaon, INDIA; 91-124-6361572; 91-124-6361180 (fax)

Park, W; Waksman Inst, Rutgers, The State Univ NJ, Hoes Ln, Piscataway, NJ USA; 732-445-2307; 732-445-5735 (fax)

Park, WJ; Department of Molecular Biology, Dankook University, Seoul 140-714, SOUTH KOREA; 82-2-799-1368; 82-2-793-0176 (fax); parkwj@dankook.ac.kr

Park, Y-J; Purdue Univ, Biology Hanson Rm 339, West Lafayette, IN USA; 765-496-1768; ypark@bilbo.bio.purdue.edu

Parkinson, S; 111 Koshland Hall, Berkeley, CA USA; 510 643-1737 (phone); sep@berkeley.edu

Parlov, D; Bc Inst Breeding & Prod Field Crops, Marulicev trg 5, 10000 Zagreb, CROATIA; +385 1 2760 262; +385 1 2760 323 (fax); bc-uprava@bc-institut.hr

Parrott, W; 3111 Plant Sci, Univ Georgia, Athens, GA USA; 706-542-0928; 706-542-0914 (fax); wparrott@uga.edu

Partas, EC; Maize and Sorghum Res. Inst., Pashcani, Criuleni, 278336 Moldova, MOLDOVA

Parveez, GKA; Genetic Transformation Lab, Palm Oil Res Inst Malaysia, P.O. Box 10620, 50720 Kuala Lumpur, MALAYSIA; 603-8259155x2834/3531; 603-8259446 (fax)

Paszkowski, U; 30, Quai Ernest-Ansermet, Sciences III, rm 2065, Laboratory of Plant Genetics, Geneva, SWITZERLAND; 41-22-379 3107 (phone); uta.paszkowski@bioveg.unige.ch

Pataky, JK; Crop Science, Turner Hall, 1102 S. Goodwin Ave, University of Illinois, Urbana, IL USA; 217-333-6606; 217-244-1230 (fax); j-pataky@uiuc.edu

Paterson, AH; University of Georgia, Rm 162, Riverbend Research Center, 110 Riverbend Road, Athens, GA USA; 706-583-0162/0161; 706-583-0160 (fax); paterson@uga.edu

Patil, MS; Agric. Research Station, Gulburua 585101, INDIA; 21120; 091-08472-21120 (fax)

Paul, A; Dept Horticultural Sciences, 1255 Fifield Hall, Univ Florida, Gainesville, FL USA; 352-392-4711x313; 352-392-6479 (fax); ALP@NERVM.NERDC.UFL.EDU Pauly, MH; Epicyte, 5719 Nancy Ridge Dr, Suite 150, San Diego, CA USA; 858-554-0281; 858-554-0288 (fax)

Pawlowski, W; 402 Bradfield Hall, Cornell University, Department of Plant Breeding and Genetics, Ithaca, NY USA; 607-254-8745 (phone); wp45@cornell.edu

Pe, ME; Diparto Genet Biol Microrg, Via Celoria 26, V piano torre A, Milano, ITALY; +39 02 5835 5012; +39 02 5835 5044 (fax); enrico.pe@unimi.it

Peacock, WJ; Division of Plant Industry, CSIRO, Canberra ACT 2601, AUSTRALIA; 062-465250

Pei, D; Iowa State Univ, Dept Plant Pathol, Ames, IA USA; 515-296-9326; 515-294-9420 (fax)

Pen, S; Glenn Maize France SARL, 'Les Clarines', Rte Chapelle de Rousse, 64290 Gan, FRANCE; 0033 5 59 21 57 57; 0033 5 59 21 57 51 (fax)

Peng, J; State Science & Tech. Commission, China Natl. Ctr. Biotech. Development, 54 Sanlihe Road, Beijing, CHINA

Peng, J; Univ Delaware, 530 S College Rd, Newark, DE USA; 302-831-0605 (fax); 302-831-0854

Penning, B: Univ Missouri, 205 Curtis Hall, Columbia, MO USA: 573-882-7818: 573-884-7850 (fax); bpenning@purdue.edu Pereira de Souza, A; CBMEG/UNICAMP, Caixa Postal 6109, CEP 13083-970, Campinas SP, BRAZIL; 55-19-239-8351; 55-19-239-7030 (fax) Perez, P; Univ Des Cezeaux - Biogemma, 24 Avenue des Landais, 63130 Aubiere, FRANCE; (33) 673 42 7970; (33) 673 42 7981 (fax); pascual.perez@biogemma.com Perotti, E; Lisboa 27, Apdo. Postal 6-641, CIMMYT, 06600 Mexico, MEXICO; 525-804-2004; 525-726-7567 (fax); e.perotti@cgiar.org Peschke, VM; Plant Sciences, GG6A, Monsanto Co., 700 Chesterfield Village Parkway N, Saint Louis, MO USA; (636)737-6939; (636)737-6189 (fax); virginia.m.peschke@monsanto.com Petcu, EM; Res Inst Cereal Indust Crops, N. Titulescu str., nr. 1, Fundulea 8264, ROMANIA; 4021 311 07 22; 4021 311 07 22 (fax); petcue@ricic.ro Peter, J; P.O. BOX 50187, Maamon, Baghdad, IRAQ Petersen, WL; Monsanto-Agracetus, 8520 University Green, Middleton, WI USA; william.l.petersen@monsanto.com Peterson, PA; Dept of Agronomy, Iowa State University, Ames, IA USA; 515-294-9652; 515-294-2299 (fax); pap@iastate.edu Peterson, TA; Dept. of Zoology & Genetics, 2206 Molecular Biology, Iowa State Univ., Ames, IA USA; 515-294-6345; 515-294-6755 (fax); thomasp@iastate.edu Petkolicheva, K; D. Kostoff Inst Genetics, Bulgarian Acad Sci, 1113 Sofia, BULGARIA Pham, H; Cargill Seed Research, P.O. Box 774, Grinnell, IA USA; (515)236-4911; (515)236-3607 (fax) Phelps-Durr. TL: Tucker Hall, University of Missouri, Columbia, MO USA: 573-449-4871: 573-882-0123 (fax) Phillips, RL; Agronomy & PI Genetics, 411 Borlaug Hall, University of Minnesota, Saint Paul, MN USA; 612-625-1213; 612-625-1268 (fax); Phill005@maroon.tc.umn.edu Phinney, BO; UCLA, Mol, Cell & Dvlmt Bio, BOX 951606, 2312 LSB, Los Angeles, CA USA; (310)825-3177; (310)825-3177 (fax); bop@ucla.edu Pieris, S; Iowa State Univ, 1212 Agronomy, Ames, IA USA; 515-294-3163 (fax); 515-294-0837; shayani@iastate.edu Pierozzi, N; S. Citologia - (IAC), Av B de Itapura 1481, Cx Postal 28, Campinas SP 13001-970, BRAZIL; 019-2315422; 012-2314943 (fax) Pilu, R; Univ di Milano, Via Celoria 2, 20133 Milan, ITALY; salvatore.pilu@unimi.it Piraci/Ebsco Brasil; Caixa Postal 65000, 20072-970, Rio de Janeiro - RJ, BRAZIL Pixley, KV; CIMMYT, Lisboa 27, Aptdo. Postal 6-641, 06600 Mexico, D.F., MEXICO Plant Brdg Genet Res Lab; Japan Tobacco Inc, 700 Higashibara Toyoda, Iwata Shizuoka 438, JAPAN; 81-538-32-7111; 81-538-32-8700 (fax) Plant Introduction Stn; USDA-ARS, NCRPIS Agronomy Building Iowa State University, Ames, IA USA; 515-294-1903 (fax); 515-294-2250; nc7mm@ars-grin.gov Plant Variety Protection Office; N. A. L. Building, Room 500, 10301 Baltimore Blvd., Beltsville, MD USA; 301-504-5518; 301-504-5291 (fax); janice.strachan@usda.gov Plehn, SJ; Cargill Hybrid Seeds, P.O. Box 762, Mt. Vernon, IN USA; (812)838-5218; (812)838-8864 (fax) Plesset, J: Plant and Microbial Development. National Science Foundation. 4201 Wilson Boulevard. Arlington, VA USA: (703) 306-1417: jplesset@nsf.gov Podolskaya, AP; N. I. Vavilov All Union Inst Plant Industry, 44 Herzen Street, 190000, St. Petersburg, RUSSIA; 311-99-45; 311-8762 (fax) Poethig, RS; Biology Department, Leidy Labs, Univ Penn, Philadelphia, PA USA; 215-898-8915; 215-898-8780 (fax); SPOETHIG@SAS.UPENN.EDU Poggio, L; Inst Fitotecnico de Santa Catalina (UNLP), C.C.4 (1836) Llavallol, Buenos Aires, ARGENTINA Polacco, J; 117 Schweitzer Hall, Biochemistry Dept, University of Missouri, Columbia, MO USA; polaccoJ@missouri.edu Pollacsek, M; Station Amelior PI-INRA, 63039 Clermont Ferrand, FRANCE; 73-62-43-01; 73-62-44-53 (fax) Pollak, L; USDA-ARS, Dept. Agronomy, Iowa State Univ., Ames, IA USA; 515-294-7831; 515-294-9359 (fax); Impollak@iastate.edu Pollmer, WG; Universitat Hohenheim, Egilolfstr. 25, D-70599 Stuttgart, GERMANY; 49-711-4586315; 49-711-4569008 (fax) Poneleit, CG; Agronomy, University of Kentucky, Lexington, KY USA; 606-257-4934; 606-258-1952 (fax) Ponelies, N; Institut fur Pflanzenzuchtung, Universitat Hohenheim, Fruwirthshr 21, D70599 Stuttgart, GERMANY; 49 (711) 459 2341; 49 (711) 459 2342 (fax) Pooma, W; Ohio State Univ, 218A Rightmire Hall, 1060 Carmack Rd, Columbus, OH USA; 614-292-5379 (fax); 614-688-4954 Prasanna, BM; Division of Genetics, Indian Agricultural Research Institue, New Delhi-110 012, INDIA; ++91(11)25841285 (phone); ++91(11)25846420 (fax); prasanna@ndf.vsnl.net.in Pratt, RC; Dept. Hort. & Crop Science, OSU/OARDC, 1680 Madison Avenue, Wooster, OH USA; 330-263-3972; 330-263-3887 (fax); pratt.3@osu.edu Preciado-Ortiz, RE; Instituto Nacional de Investigaciones, Forestales, Agricolas y Pecuarias, Campo Experimental Bajio, Km. 6.5 Carr. Celaya San Miguel de Allende, Celaya, GTO Mexico; (52) (461) 611 53 89 (phone); (52)(461) 611 53 23-110 (fax); repreciado@yahoo.com Prest, TJ; Syngenta Seeds, 1001 Montana St, Glidden, IA USA; 712-659-3693 (fax); 712-659-3691; Tom.Prest@syngenta.com Presting, G; 1955 East-West Road, Ag. Science #218, Honolulu, HI USA; (808) 956-8861 (phone); (808) 956-3542 (fax); gernot@hawaii.edu Presting, O; DuPont, 10700 Justin Drive, Urbandale, IA USA; 515-251-3029; 515-251-3040 (fax) Prigge, M; Institute Molec Biol, Univ of Oregon, Eugene, OR USA Pring, DR; Dept of Plant Pathology, 1453 Fifield Hall, University of Florida, Gainesville, FL USA; 352-392-3638; 352-392-6532 (fax); drpg@mail.ifas.ufl.edu Prioli, LM: Depto, Genetica, IB/CBMEG, Univ Estad Campinas, CP 6109, Campinas 13083-970, BRAZIL: 55-192-397030; 55-192-394717 (fax) Prioul, J; IBP Bat 630, Universite de Paris-Sud, 91405 Orsay Cedex, FRANCE; 33169336373; 33169336424 (fax); prioul@ibp.u-psud.fr Pruitt, J; Monsanto, 800 N Lindbergh Blvd B2SF, Saint Louis, MO USA; 314-694-1080 (fax); 314-694-3481; jennifer.l.pruitt@monsanto.com Pruitt, RE; Department of Botany and Plant Pothology, Purdue University, 915 W. State Street, West Lafayette, Indiana USA; pruittr@purdue.edu Pryor, AJ; Plant Industry CSIRO, PO Box 1600, Canberra ACT 2601, AUSTRALIA; 61-02-6246 5494; 61-02-6246 5000 (fax); Tony.Pryor@csiro.au Puigdomenech, P; Centro de Investigacion y Desarrollo, c/ Girona Salgado, 18-26, 08034 Barcelona, SPAIN; 34-3-400-61-29; 34-3-204-59-04 (fax); pprgmp@cid.csic.es Purugganan, M; Dept of Genetics, Box 7614, NC State University, Raleigh, NC USA; michaelp@unity.ncsu.edu Qin, L; Institute of Genetics and Crop Breeding, Fuzhou 0591, CHINA Qin, M; USDA-ARS-PGEC, 800 Buchanan Street, Albany, CA USA Qin, T-c; 6-403, villga NO2 of Su Long, Dept Agron Jiangsu Agricollege, East Road of Wen-hui, Yangzhou Jiangsu, CHINA Qiu, F; Iowa State Univ, B420 Agronomy Hall, Ames, IA USA; 515-294-2299 (fax); 515-294-1659; fqiu@iastate.edu Qiu, LJ; G403 Agronomy Hall, Iowa State Univ, Ames, IA USA Qu, F; Institute of Genetics, Lab No. 801, Beijing 100101, CHINA Qualset, CO; Genetic Resources Cons Program, Univ of California, 1 Shields Ave, Davis, CA USA; 530-754-8502; 530-754-8505 (fax); coqualset@ucdavis.edu Quarrie, S; 54, Sycamore Avenue,, Wymondham,, Norfolk NR18 0HX, UNITED KINGDOM; 44-(0)1953-602065 (fax); 44-(0)1953-602065; pekic@eunet.yu Quayle, T; The American University, 113 Sharia Kasr El-Aini, 11511 Cairo, EGYPT; guayle@aucegypt.edu Quebedeaux, B; Dept Nat Res Sci & Landsc Arch, Plant Sci Bldg 2130, University of Maryland, College Park, MD USA; 301-405-4336; 301-314-9308 (fax); BQ1@umail.umd.edu Queijo, M; 499-A Plant & Soil Sci Bldg, Michigan State Univ, East Lansing, MI USA; 517-355-6883; 517-353-5174 (fax)

Quijada, PA; Seminis Vegetable Seeds, 37437 State Highway 16, Woodland, CA USA; 1 (530) 669-6082 (phone); 1 (530) 406-6505 (fax); pablo.antonio.quijada@seminis.com

Qun Hui, L; Fujian Agricultural College, Dept. of Agronomy, Jingshian, Fuzhou, Fujian 350002, CHINA

Rabinowicz, P; Cold Spring Harbor Lab, 1 Bungtown Rd, Cold Spring Harbor, NY ÚSA; 516-367-8836; 516-367-8369 (fax); rabinowi@cshl.org

Raboy, V; USDA-ARS-NSGGRF, PO Box 307, Aberdeen, ID USA; 208-397-4162; 208-397-4165 (fax); vraboy@uidaho.edu

Rabson, R; Div. of Energy Bioscience, Office of Basic Energy Sci, U.S. Dept of Energy, ER-17 GTN, Washington, DC USA; 301-903-2873; 301-903-1003 (fax)

Racchi, ML; Genetics Unit, Univ of Florence, Via San Bonaventura 13, 50145 Firenze, ITALY; 55-573201; 55-580341 (fax)

Radwanski, E; Carthage College, Biology Dept, 2001 Alferd Park Drive, Kenosha, WI USA; 414-551-5865; 414-551-6208 (fax)

Rafalski, AJ; DuPont Agric Biotechnol, Delaware Technol Park, Suite 200, 1 Innovation Way, PO Box 6104, Newark, DE USA; 302-631-2612; 302-631-2607 (fax); J-Antoni.Rafalski@usa.dupont.com

Ragot, M; Syngenta, 12, Chemin de l'Hobit, F-31790 Saint-Sauveur, FRANCE; 33(0)562799902; 33(0)562799996 (fax); michel.ragot@syngenta.com

Raikhel, NV; NV Raikhel, Michigan State Univ, DOE Plant Res Lab, East Lansing, MI USA

Raizada, M; Dept. of Plant Agriculture, University of Guelph, Crop Science Building Room 316, Guelph, Ontario, CANADA; 519 824-4120x3396; 519 763-8933 (fax); raizada@uoguelph.ca

Ramakrishna, W; Purdue Univ, Dept Biology, H339 Hansen, West Lafayette, IN USA; 765-496-1496 (fax); 765-494-4919

Rao, AG; 7300 NW 62nd Ave, PO Box 1004, Johnston, IA USA

Rao, PN; Dept of Botany, Andhra University, Visakhapatnam 530003, INDIA; 54871 ext 390

Rapp, W; Department of Biology, Univ. of Missouri-St. Louis, 8001 Natural Bridge Rd., Saint Louis, MO USA; 314-553-6225; 314-553-6233 (fax)

Rascon Cruz, Q; Facultad de Ciencias Quimicas, Universidad Autonoma de Chihuahua, C.P. 31170, Ciudad Autonoma de Chihuahua, Chih MEXICO; 52 614 4144492 (fax); grascon@uach.mx

Ratnakaya, S; 250 W Bedford Park Blvd, Lehman College, Bronx, NY USA; 718-960-4994; 718-960-8236 (fax); swarnama@hotmail.com

Rattray Arnold Research Stn; P. O. Box CH 142, Chisipite, Harare, ZIMBABWE; 263-74-407; 263-74-407 (fax)

Rauh, B; Abteilung Genetik und Evolution, Max Planck Institut fuer Chemische, Oekologie, Hans-Knoell-Strasse 8, Jena, GERMANY; 49 3641 571402; brauh@ice.mpg.de

Rausch, T; Univ Heidelberg, Botanisches Institut, INF 360, D-69120 Heidelberg, GERMANY; trausch@mail.bot.uni-heidelberg.de

Ravanello, M; Monsanto, 1920 Fifth St, Davis, CA USA; 530-792-2453 (fax); 530-792-2249; monica p.ravanello@monsanto.com

Rayburn, AL; Crop Sci, 320 ERML, 1201 W. Gregory, Univ of Illinois, Urbana, IL USA; (217)333-4777; (217)333-9817 (fax); arayburn@uiuc.edu

Ream, T; 1902 Mirtle Grove, Columbia, MO USA; tomream@hotmail.com

Reddy, AR; School of Life Sci, Univ of Hyderabad, Hyderabad-500 046, INDIA; 0091-40-3010265,3033123; 0091-40-3010120 (fax); arjulsl@uohyd.ernet.in

Reddy, GM; Department of Genetics, Osmania University, Hyderabad-500007, INDIA; 868951 Ext. 375; 91-0842-868087 (fax)

Reddy, V; Univ Georgia, Dept Genetics/Botany, Athens, GA USA; 706-542-1857; 706-542-3910 (fax)

Redinbaugh, MG; USDA-ARS, OARDC, Dept Plant Pathology, Wooster, OH USA; 330-263-3965; 330-263-3841 (fax); redinbaugh.2@osu.edu

Register, JC; Pioneer HI Bred Int Inc, Trait & Technol Dev, Johnston, IA 50131 USA, Johnston, IA USA; jim.register@pioneer.com

Reid, LM; Eastern Cereal & Oilseed Res Centre, Agriculture and Agri-Food Canada, Bldg 121 Central Experimental Farm, Ottawa, Ontario K1A 0C6, CANADA; 613-759-1619; 613-952-9295 (fax)

Reinders, J; Syngenta, 317 330th St, Northfield, MN USA; 507-645-7519 (fax); 507-663-7672

Reiser, L; Dept Plant Biol, 260 Panama, Stanford, CA USA; 650-325-1521; Ireiser@acoma.stanford.edu

Reiss, B; Max-Planck-Inst-Zuchtungsf, Carl von Linne Weg 10, DE-50829 Koln, GERMANY; reiss@mpiz-koeln.mpg.de

Reiter, K; Monsanto, 4179 114th St, Urbandale, IA USA; 515-331-6206; 515-331-6240 (fax)

Reiter, RS; Monsanto, 3302 SE Convenience Blvd, Ankeny, IA USA; 515-963-4211; 515-963-4242 (fax); Robert.S.Reiter@monsanto.com

Remington, D; Department of Biology, University of North Carolina at Greensboro, P.O. Box 26170, Greensboro, NC USA; dlreming@uncg.edu

Ren, N; Gilmer Hall, Biology Department, University of Virginia, Charlottesville, VA USA; nr4g@faraday.clas.virginia.edu

Ren, R; Dow AgroSciences LLC, 9330 Zionsville Rd, Indianapolis, IN USA; 317-337-5994; 317-337-5989 (fax)

Renk, B; Wisconsin Alumni Research Foundation, PO Box 7365, Madison, WI USA; 608-263-2828; 608-263-1064 (fax); bryarenk@facstaff.wisc.edu

Research Library; DeKalb-Pfizer Genetics, 3100 Sycamore Road, DeKalb, IL USA

Retief, AE; Dept of Genetics. J. S. Marais Bldg, Univ of Stellenbosch, Stellenbosch 7600, SOUTH AFRICA; 027-21-9380262; 027-21-9380460 (fax); aretief@mrc.ac.za

Revilla, P; MISION BIOLOGICA DE GALICIA (CSIC), Apartado 28, 36080 Pontevedra, SPAIN; 34 986 854800; 34 986 841362 (fax); previlla@mbg.cesga.es Rhee, S; Carnegie Institution of Washington, 290 Panama St., Stanford, CA USA

Rhee, Y; Univ Wisconsin-Madison, Dept Agronomy, 1575 Linden Drive, Madison, WI USA; 608-262-3660; 608-262-5217 (fax); yrhee@students.wisc.edu

Ribaut, J; CIMMYT, Apdo. Postal 6-641, 06600 Mexico D.F., MEXICO; 595 219 00; 595 219 87 (fax); j.ribaut@CGIAR.org

Rice, D; Pioneer Hi-Bred Internat Inc, 7300 NW 62nd Ave, PO Box 22, Johnston, IA USA

Richter, TE; Plant Path. Dept., Throckmorton Hall, Manhattan, KS USA; (913)532-6176; (913)532-5692 (fax)

Riddle, N; 117 Tucker Hall, University of Missouri - Columbia, Columbia, MO USA

Ridley, S; Biochem Gene Expression, National Science Foundation, 4201 Wilson Blvd, Arlington, VA USA; (703) 306-1441; sridley@nsf.gov

Riera-Lizarazu, O; Dept Crop & Soil Sci, Oregon State Univ, Corvallis, OR USA; 541-737-5879; 541-737-1589 (fax); oscar.riera@orst.edu

Rinehart, C; Univ of Idaho, Dept Biol Sci, 229 Gibb Hall, Moscow, ID USA

Rines, H; Agronomy & Plant Genetics, 411 Borlaug Hall, 1991 Buford Circle, Univ Minnesota, Saint Paul, MN USA; 612-625-5220; 612-625-5058 (fax); rines001@tc.umn.edu Ripoll, P-J; Rhone-Poulenc/IACR Long Ashton, Dept Agric Sci, Univ Bristol, Long Ashton, Bristol BS41 9AF, UNITED KINGDOM; 00-44-11275-392181; 00-44-1275-394281 (fax)

Ritter, M; Univ California-San Diego, Dept Biology 0116, 9500 Gilman Dr, San Diego, CA USA; 619-534-2514; mritter@biomail.ucsd.edu

Riviere, JM; Limagrain Genetics Grand Cult SA, P.O. Box 2, ZA Les Pains, Les Alleuds 49320, FRANCE; 33 2 41 53 04 29 (fax)

Rivin, C; Dept. of Botany, Cordley 2082, Oregon State University, Corvallis, OR USA; 541-737-5281; rivinc@science.oregonstate.edu

Robbins, ML; Department of Crop and Soil Sciences, 116 ASI Building, Penn State University, University Park, PA USA; mlr263@psu.edu

Robbins, WA; P.O. Box 158, Ag. Alumni Seed Imp. Assn., Romney, IN USA; 317-538-3145; 317-538-3600 (fax)

Roberts, JKM; Dept Biochemistry, University of California, Riverside, CA USA; jkmr@ucrac1.ucr.edu

Roberts, JL; Dow Agrosciences Discovery Research, 9330 Zionsville Road, Indianapolis, IN USA; 317-337-3126; 317-337-3228 (fax); jlroberts2@dow.com

Robertson, DS; 1707 Woodhaven Circle, Ames, IA USA; 515-232-2892; DONRRR@aol.com

Robison, G; DeKalb Plant Genetics, 3100 Sycamore Road, DeKalb, IL USA; 815-758-9531; 815-758-4106 (fax)

Rocheford, TR; Crop Sci, W221 Turner Hall, University of Illinois, 1102 S. Goodwin Av., Urbana, IL USA; 217-333-9643; 217-333-9817 (fax); trochefo@uiuc.edu Rocky, S; USDA, NRICGP, 901 D. Street, SW, Room 323, Washington, DC USA

Rogers, Suzanne; Salem-Teikyo University, Salem, WV USA

Rogowsky, P; RCAP, ENS-Lyon, 46 Allee d'Italie, F-69364 Lyon cedex 07, FRANCE; 33-472-72-86-07; 33-4-72-72-86-00 (fax); progowsk@ens-lyon.fr

Ronelus, W; Lehman College, CUNY, Dept Biol Sci, Bronx, NY USA; 718-960-8643; 718-960-8236 (fax)

Rood, T; Pioneer Hi-Bred Internat Inc, 7300 NW 62nd Ave., PO Box 1004, Johnston, IA USA

Rooney, LW; Soil & Crop Sciences Dept, 429B Heep Center, Texas A&M Univ, College Station, TX USA; 979-845-2910; 979-845-0456 (fax); Irooney@tamu.edu Rosato, S; 1220 Oak Villa Road, Dallas, OR USA; 541-750-8750 (fax); rosatoc@ucs.orst.edu

Rosichan, JL; Novartis Seeds, Inc., Research Center, 317 330th St., Stanton, MN USA; 507-663-7642; 507-645-7519 (fax)

Rosielle, A; Monsanto-International Assignment, Mail Stop 5045, 800 N Lindbergh, Saint Louis, MO USA

Ross, A; Iowa State Univ, 1203 Agronomy Hall, Ames, IA USA; 515-294-6868

Rossini, L; Dipartimento di Produzione Vegetale, Sezione di Agronomia, Via Celoria 2, Milan, ITALY; +39-02-50316581; laura.rossini@unimi.it

Rosulj, M; Maize Research Institute, Belgrade, Serbia and Montenegro

Rotarenco, V; Institute of Genetics, Chisinau 2002, Padurii 20 MOLDOVA; (302) 366-5725 (phone); rotarenco_v@scientist.com

Roth, B; LI-COR, Inc., Business Development and Intellectual Property, 4421 Superior Ave., PO Box 4425, Lincoln, NE USA; 402-467-0819 (phone); broth@licor.com Rothstein, SJ; 7250 NW 62nd Ave, PO Box 552, Johnston, IA USA; 515-334-4487; 515-334-4778 (fax)

Rouan, D; Plant Genetic Systems, Plateaustraat 22, Ghent 9000, BELGIUM; 32-92358402; 32-92240694 (fax)

Rout, JR; Monsanto Company, Agracetus Campus, 8520 University Green, Middleton, WI USA; 608-821-3465; 608-836-9710 (fax)

Roux, C; Univ Toulouse, Pole de Biotech Veg, UMR 5546 BP18 Castanet, Tolosan 31326, FRANCE; 33 562 193 502 (fax); 33 562 193 504; roux@smcv.ups-tlse.fr Roy, L; Biology Dept 0116, Univ California, La Jolla, CA USA; 858-822-2558; 858-534-7108 (fax); Iroy@biomail.ucsd.edu

Royo, J; Univ de Alcala, Biologia Celular y Genetica, Campus Universitario, ES-28871 Madrid, SPAIN; 31 91 8854799 (fax); 34 91 8854758; joaquin.royo@uah.es Rubenstein, I: 1838 Parliament Rd, Leucadia, CA USA

Rudenko, G; Stanford Univ, Bio Sci, Stanford, CA USA; 650-723-2609; 650-725-8221 (fax); rudenko@stanford.edu

Ruesch, K; 3800 SW 34th St. Apt J82, Gainesville, FL USA; 352-336-2803; klr@gnv.ifas.ufl.edu

Ruff, TG; Monsanto-Ceregen, 800 N Lindbergh Blvd, N2SA, Saint Louis, MO USA; 314-694-8865; 314-694-1671 (fax); thomas.g.ruff@monsanto.com

Running, M; Donald Danforth Plant Sci Ctr, 975 North Warson Rd, Saint Louis, MO USA; 314-587-1641; 314-587-1741 (fax); mrunning@danforthcenter.org

Rupe, M; Pioneer Hi-Bred Internatl, 7250 NW 62nd Ave, PO Box 552, Johnston, IA USA; 515-270-5991; 515-334-4778 (fax)

Russell, D; Syngenta Biotechnology Inc., POB 12257, 3054 Cornwallis Rd., RTP, NC USA; 919-597-3058 (phone); doug.russell@syngenta.com

Russell, K; Institute of Molec Biol, University of Oregon, Eugene, OR USA

Russell, WK; Univ of Nebraska, Dept of Agronomy, PO Box 830915, Lincoln, NE USA; 402-472-1562; 402-472-7904 (fax); KRUSSELL3@unl.edu

Saab, I; Pioneer Hi-Bred International, Inc., 7301 NW 62nd Ave., Johnston, IA USA; 800-247-6803 ext. 2124; imad.saab@pioneer.com

Sabelli, PA; University of Arizona, Dept. of Plant Sciences, 303 Forbes Building, P.O. Box 210036, Tucson, AZ USA; (520) 621-9154; (520) 621-3692 (fax); psabelli@ag.arizona.edu

Sachan, JKS; Division of Genetics, I.A.R.I., New Delhi-110012, INDIA; 91-011-5783077; 91-011-5752006 (fax)

Sachs, M; USDA/ARS, S108 Turner Hall, 1102 S. Goodwin Ave, Urbana, IL USA; (217)244-0864/333-9743lab; (217)333-6064 (fax); msachs@uiuc.edu

Sadder, M; 350/2 Inst Plant Breed, Univ Hohenheim, D-70593 Stuttgart, GERMANY; 4594429; 4593005 (fax); sadderm@uni-hohenheim.de

Saedler, H; Max-Planck Inst Zuchtungsf, Carl-von Linne-Weg 10, D 50829 Koln, GERMANY; 221-5062-100; 221-5062-113 (fax)

Saghai Maroof, MA; CSES Department, VPI & SU, Blacksburg, VA USA; 540-231-9791; 540-231-3431 (fax); SMAROOF@VT.EDU

Salameh, N; Inst Plant Breeeding Biotech, Univ Hohenheim, Fruwirthstr 21, Stuttgart 70599, GERMANY; 49-711 459 4306; 49-711 459 2343 (fax); salameh@pz.uni-hohenheim.de

Salamini, F; Max Planck Inst Zuchtungsf, Abt Pflanzenz Ertragsphysiol, D-50829 Koln, GERMANY; 49-221-5062400; 0049-221-5062413 (fax)

Salamone, P; 369 Clark Hall, Washington State Univ, Pullman, WA USA; 509-335-1047; 509-335-7643 (fax)

Salerno, JC; PJE. San Sebastian 439, 1405 Buenos Aires, ARGENTINA; 54-1-15-949-3685; 54-1-450-0805/1876 (fax); jsalerno@cnia.inta.gov.ar

Salvador, RJ; Iowa State University, Dept. of Agronomy, 1126 Agronomy Hall, Ames, IA USA; 515-294-9595; 515-294-8146 (fax); RJSALVAD@IASTATE.EDU

San Miguel, P; HANS 339, Dept. of Biological Sciences, Purdue University, West Lafayette, IN USA; 765-494-4919; 765-496-1496 (fax); pmiguel@bilbo.bio.purdue.edu

Sanchez de Jimenez, E; UNAM, Facultad de Quimica, Edificio B, Ciudad Universitaria, Mexico City 04510, DF, MEXICO; estelas@servidor.dgsca.unam.mx

Sanchez-Villeda, H; 210 Curtis Hall Univ of Missouri, Columbia, MO USA; 573-884-3439; 573-884-7850 (fax); sanchezvilledah@missouri.edu Sangtong, V; Iowa State Univ, Agronomy Hall, Rm 1401, Ames, IA USA; 515-294-0837

SanMiguel, PJ; Purdue University, Purdue Genomics Facility, WSLR S039, West Lafayette, IN USA; 1 765 49-66329 (phone); 1 765 49-61219 (fax); pmiguel@purdue.edu

Santos, MA; Dept Genetica Molecular, Centro Invest Desarrollo, Gorge Girona 18-24, 08034 Barcelona, SPAIN; 34-3-4006100; 34-3-2045904 (fax)

Saparno, A; Bldg 21 CE Farm, 960 Carling Ave, Agriculture & Agri-Food Canada, Ottawa, ONT K1A 0C6, CANADA; 613-759-1551; 613-759-6566 (fax)

Saraiva, LS; Genetica Dept Biol Geral, Univ Fed Vicosa, Vicosa, Minas Gerais BRAZIL

Sari-Gorla, M; Univ Milan, Dept Genet & Microbiol, Via Celoria 26, I-20133 Milan, ITALY; mirella.sarigorla@unimi.it

Sarkar, KR; 77B, Ekta Apartments, Block A-2/B, Paschim Vihar, New Delhi 110 063, INDIA; kurasar@del3.vsnl.net.in

Sasaki, T; National Institute of Agrobiological Sciences, 1-2, Kannondai 2-chome, Tsukuba, Ibaraki 305-8602, JAPAN; +81-298-38-2199; +81-298-38-2302 (fax); tsasaki@nias.affrc.go.jp

Sasinowski, M; 110 Liberty Dr, Suite 104, Clemson, SC USA; 864-654-8850; maciek@incogen.com

Satarova, TN; Dzerzhinskaya st., 14, Institute of Grain Farm, Dniepropetrovsk 320027, UKRAINE; biochem@dsma.dp.ua

Sato, Y; PGEC, 800 Buchanan St, Albany, CA USA; 510-559-5922; 510-559-5678 (fax)

Satoh, N; 1 Bungtown Rd., Cold Spring Harbor, NY USA; satoh@cshl.edu

Sauer, M; Plant Sci Inst, Univ Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, PA USA; 215-898-8916; 215-898-8780 (fax); gmsauer2@sas.upenn.edu

Savidan, YH; International Relations Officer, Agropolis, Ave Agropolis, 34394 Montpellier Cedex 5, FRANCE; 33 (0) 467047569; 33 (0) 467047599 (fax); savidan@agropolis.fr

Sawers, RJH; Boyce Thompson Institute, Cornell University, Ithaca, NY USA; 607-255-7158; rjs47@cornell.edu

Sawkins, MC; CIMMYT Intl, Apdo Postal, 6-641, 06600 Mexico D.F., MEXICO; ++52(55)58042004 (phone); ++52(55)58047558 (fax); m.sawkins@cgiar.org

Scandalios, J; Dept. of Genetics, North Carolina State Univ., Box 7614, Raleigh, NC USA; (919)515-7079; (919)515-3355 (fax); jgs@unity.ncsu.edu

Scanlon, MJ; Department of Plant Biology, 140 Emerson Hall, Cornell University, Ithaca, NY USA; 607-254-1156; mjs298@cornell.edu

Scarpella, E: Inst Molec Biol. Clusius Lab. PO Box 9505, 2300 RA Leiden, NETHERLANDS; 31-71-5274837; 31-71-5274999 (fax)

Schaeffer (Polacco), ML; Plant Genetics Research Unit, USDA-ARS, 203 Curtis Hall, University of Missouri, Columbia, MO USA; 573-884-7873; 573-884-7850 (fax); schaefferm@missouri.edu

Schafer, C; Lehrstuhl fur Genetik, Technische Univ Munchen, Lichtenbergstrasse 4, Garching 85747, GERMANY; 28912930; 28912932 (fax)

Scheffler, BE; USDA-ARS MSA Genomics Laboratory, 141 Experiment Station Rd., JWDSRC, Stoneville, MS USA; 662-822-0329 (phone); 662-686-5372 (fax)

Schiefelbein, JW; 4085 Natural Science Bldg., University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, MI USA; 313-764-3579; 313-747-0884 (fax); schiefel@umich.edu

Schmidt, RJ; Univ of California-San Diego, Dept of Biology 0116, 9500 Gilman Dr, San Diego, CA USA; 858-534-1636; 858-534-7108 (fax); rschmidt@ucsd.edu

Schmitt, L; Univ Wisconsin, 1575 Linden Dr, Madison, WI USA; 608-262-5217 (fax); 608-263-5809; Ischmitt@facstaff.wisc.edu

Schnable, P; Iowa State University, 2035B Roy J. Carver Co-Lab, Ames, IA USA; 515-294-5256; Schnable@iastate.edu

Schneeberger, RG; CERES, INC, 1535 Rancho Conejo Boulevard, Thousand Oaks, CA USA; (805) 498-1002 (phone); rschneeberger@ceres-inc.com

Schneerman, MC; University of Illinois, Department of Crop Sciences, 389 ERML, MC 051, 1201 W. Gregory Dr., Urbana, IL USA; 217-244-6146; schneerm@uiuc.edu

Schnicker, B; Cornnuts, 1000 S. Edgewood Ave., P.O. Box 830, Urbana, OH USA; 513-652-1321; 513-653-3675 (fax)

Scholl, R; Arabidopsis Biol Resource Center, Ohio State, 1735 Neil Ave., Columbus, OH USA; 614-292-0603; 614-292-0603 (fax); scholl.1@osu.edu

Schon, CC; KWS Kleinwanzlebener-, Saatzucht AG, Postfach 1463, 37574 Einbeck, GERMANY; 5561/311-352; 5561/311-322 (fax)

Schramke, M; Bio-Rad Laboratories, Life Sciences Group, 2000 Alfred Nobel Drive, Hercules, CA USA; 510-741-6717; 510-741-1051 (fax)

Schreiber, D; Univ Hamburg, Ohnhorstrasse 18, D-22609 Hamburg, GERMANY

Schroeck, G; Univ Wisconsin-Madison, 1575 Linden Dr, Madison, WI USA

Schroeder, S; Univ Missouri, 209 Curtis Hall, Columbia, MO USA; 573-882-8214; 573-884-7850 (fax); schroedersa@missouri.edu Schubert, K; Donald Danforth Plant Sci Ctr, 975 North Warson Rd, Saint Louis, MO USA; 314-587-1211 Schulman, AH; Univ Helsinki, Institute of Biotechnology, P.O. Box 56, Viikinkaari 9, 00014 Helsinki, FINLAND; 358-0-708-59366; 358-0-708-59422 (fax) Schultes, N; Dept Biochem & Genetics, Conn Agric Exper Sta, 123 Huntington St, New Haven, CT USA; 203-789-6912; 203-789-7232 (fax) Schultz, J; Univ Illinois, AW-101 Turner Hall, mc-046, 1102 S. Goodwin, Urbana, IL USA; 217-244-3388; jaschult@uiuc.edu Schultz, L; Curtis Hall, Univ Missouri, Columbia, MO USA; schultzl@missouri.edu Schultz, P; Univ Minnesota, 220 Biological Sci, 1445 Gortner Ave, Saint Paul, MN USA; 612-625-5241; 612-625-1738 (fax); schul073@gold.tc.umn.edu Schwartz, D; Biology Dept, Indiana University, Bloomington, IN USA; 812-855-6060; 812-855-6705 (fax); Schwartz@bio.indiana.edu Science & Engr Library; Washington State Univ, Pullman, WA USA Scott, C; Univ Minnesota, 220 Biol Sci, 1445 Gortner Ave, Saint Paul, MN USA; 612-625-1738 (fax); 612-625-5241; scot0136@tc.umn.edu Scott, LA; Dept Biol Sci, University of Idaho, Moscow, ID USA; Iscott@uidaho.edu Scott, MP; 1407 Agronomy, USDA-ARS, Iowa State University, Ames, IA USA; 515-294-7825; 515-294-9359 (fax); pscott@iastate.edu Seay, N; Quarles & Brady, PO Box 2113, 1 S Pinckney St, Madison, WI USA; 608-283-2484; 608-251-9166 (fax); njs@quarles.com Segal, G; Waksman Institute, State Univ of NJ, 190 Frelinguysen Rd, Piscataway, NJ USA; 732-445-3801; 732-445-5735 (fax); segal@waksman.rutgers.edu Sekhon, RS; 116 Ag. Sci. Ind. Bldg., Penn State University, University Park, PA USA; rss222@psu.edu Selinger, D; Pioneer Hi Bred International, 7250 NW 62nd Ave., P.O. Box 552, Johnston, IA USA; 515-254-2646); 515-334-4778 (fax); David Selinger@Pioneer.com Selzer, G; Research Resources, National Science Foundation Room 615, 4201 Wilson Blvd., Arlington, VA USA; (703)306-1469; gselzer@nsf.gov Senior, L; Syngenta, 3054 Cornwallis Rd, Research Triangle Park, NC USA; 919-597-3041; 919-541-8585 (fax); lynn.senior@syngenta.com Seo, B; 2154 Molec Biol Bldg, Iowa State Univ, Dept Biochem, Biophys & Mol Biol, Ames, IA USA; 515-294-8202; 515-294-0453 (fax) Serials Department; Duke University Library, Durham, NC USA Serials Department; Green Library, Stanford University, Stanford, CA USA; 650-723-4847; 650-725-6874 (fax) Serials Department; 8900 Library, Illinois State Univ, Normal, IL USA; 309-438-7460 Serials Dept; ND State Univ Library, PO Box 5599, Fargo, ND USA Serials Dept - Gifts; 204 Parks Library, Iowa State Univ, Ames, IA USA; 515-294-6013; 515-294-1885 (fax); SPETE@gwgate.lib.iastate.edu Serials Dept.; University Libraries, University of Arkansas, Fayetteville, AR USA; 501-575-5415; 501-575-6656 (fax) Setimela, PS: Maize Program, CIMMYT, PO Box MP 163, Mount Pleasant, Harare, ZIMBABWE; ++263 (4) 301807 (phone); ++263 (4) 301327 (fax); psetimela@cgiar.org Setter, TL; Department of Crop and Soil Sci., Ithaca, NY USA; 607-255-1701; 607-255-2644 (fax); tls1@Cornell.edu Settles, AM; University of Florida, Horticultural Sciences Department, 1301 Fifield Hall, PO Box 110690, Gainesville, FL USA; 352-392-7571; 352-392-5653 (fax); amsettles@ifas.ufl.edu Sevilla P., R; Programa de Maiz, Univ Nacional Agraria, Aptdo 456, La Molina, Lima, PERU; 51-14 495647; 51-14 495670 (fax) Shadley, J; 7018 Chestnut St., Milwaukee, WI USA Shamina, ZB; Academy of Sciences, K. A. Timiryazev Inst. Plant Phys., Botanicheskaya 35, 127276 Moscow, RUSSIA Shands, HL; USDA-ARS, 1111 S. Mason Street, Fort Collins, CO USA; 970-495-3200; 970-221-1427 (fax); hshands@ars.usda.gov Shang, J; Lynx Therapeutics, 25861 Industrial Blvd, Hayward, CA USA; 510-670-9436; 510-670-9302 (fax) Shao, Q; Academia Sinica, Genetics Institute 917 Bldg., Datun Road, Andingmen Wai, Beijing 100101, CHINA Sharopova, N; 220 Biological Science, Univ of Minnesota, Saint Paul, MN USA; 612-624-9230/1771; sharo002@tc.umn.edu Sharp, P; Plant Breeding Institute, University of Sydney, Cobbitty Road, Cobbitty NSW 2570, AUSTRALIA; 61-46-512-600; 61-46-512-578 (fax) Sharp, RE; 1-87 Agriculture, University of Missouri, Dept of Agronomy, Columbia, MO USA; 573-882-1841; ; sharpr@missouri.edu Shaver, DL; Western Corn Genetics Co., 20250 Palou Dr., Salinas, CA USA; 831-455-1492; 831-455-0467 (fax) Shaw, JR; Univ of Florida, P.O. Box 110690, Gainesville, FL USA; 352-392-1928 x314; 352-392-6479 (fax); jshaw@gnv.ifas.ufl.edu Shcherbak, V; Krasnodar Res Inst Agric, c/o Zeneca Moscow, Bolshoi Strochenovski Pereulok, Moscow 113054, RUSSIA; 7-503-2306111; 7-503-2306119 (fax) Sheehan, MJ; 117 Boyce Thompson Institute, Tower Road, Ithaca, NY USA; 607-254-6747 (phone); mjs224@cornell.edu Sheen, J: Dept. of Molecular Biology, Wellman 11, MGH, Boston, MA USA; 617-726-5916; 617-726-6893 (fax); sheen@frodo.mgh.harvard.edu Shen, B; Waksman Institute, Rutgers Univ, 190 Frelinghuysen Rd, Piscataway, NJ USA; 732-445-2307; 732-445-5735 (fax); bzshen@waksman.rutgers.edu Shen, D; Fudan University, Inst. of Genetics, Shanghai 200433, CHINA Shen, JB; P.O. Box 80402, E402/4255, DuPont Co., Wilmington, DE USA; (302)695-1246; (302)695-4296 (fax); jennie.b.shen@usa.dupont.com Shen, YW; Zhejiang Agricultural University, Institute of Nuclear-Agric. Science, Hangzhou, Zhejiang 310029, CHINA Shen, ZT; Zhejiang Agricultural University, Dept. of Agronomy, Hangzhou, Zejiang 310029, CHINA Sheridan Seedroom; Biology, Univ North Dakota, Grand Forks, ND USA Sheridan, W; Biology Department, Univ of North Dakota, PO Box 9019 Univ Station, Grand Forks, ND USA; 701-777-4479 or -4705; 701-777-2623 (fax); bill_sheridan@und.nodak.edu Shi, L; Novartis Agric Discovery Inst, 3115 Merryfield Row, Ste 100, San Diego, CA USA; 858-812-1025; 858-812-1097 (fax); liang.shi@syngenta.com Shiga, T; Sakata Seed Corp, Plant Bio Center, SAKATA SEED Corp, 358 Uchikoshi Sodegaura, Chiba 299-02, JAPAN; 438-75-2369 Shigemori, I; Chusin Agr. Exp. Stn., Sooga Shiojiri, Nagano 399-64, JAPAN; shige@chushin-exp.pref.nagano.jp Shiobara, F; One Bungtown Rd, PO Box 100, Cold Spring Harbor Lab, Cold Spring Harbor, NY USA; 516-367-8827; 516-367-8369 (fax) Short, KE: Carnia Seed (Ptv) Ltd., P.O. Box 7424, Petit 1512, SOUTH AFRICA: (011)965-1905; (011)965-1906 (fax) Shotwell, MA; Dept of Biology, 123 Vincent Science Hall, Slippery Rock Univ, Slippery Rock, PA USA; 724-738-2476; 724-738-4782 (fax); mark.shotwell@sru.edu Shu, G; Pioneer Hi-Bred Internatl, 7300 NW 62nd Ave, Johnston, IA USA; 515-253-5733; guoping.shu@pioneer.com Shunk, RJ; Director Bus Devel Corn Proc Res, National Corn Growers Assoc., 632 Cepi Drive, Chesterfield, MO USA; 636-733-9004; 636-733-9005 (fax); shunk@ncga.com Sichuan University; Biology Dept. Library, Chengdu, Sichuan, CHINA Sickau, DM; B426 Agronomy Hall, Iowa State University, Ames, IA USA; dmsickau@iastate.edu

Siddigui, H; 387, Mir Colony, Tandojam 70050, Sindh, PAKISTAN; 92-221-765759; 92-221-810352 (fax); hamood.siddigui@eudoramail.com

Siddiqui, KA; Int Assoc for Promotion of New, Genetical Approaches to Crop Imp, 387 Talpur Colony, Tandojam Sind, PAKISTAN; 92 2233-5759; 92 2233-5728 (fax)

Sidorenko, LV; 303 Forbes Hall, Department of Plant Sciences, University of Arizona, Tucson, AZ USA; 520-621-8964; lyudmila@ag.arizona.edu

Silverthorne, J; Plant Genome Research Program, Room 615, National Science Foundation, 4201 Wilson Boulevard, Arlington, VA USA; 703-292-8470; 703-292-9062 (fax); jsilvert@nsf.gov

Simcox, KD; Pioneer Hi-Bred Intl Inc., 7300 NW 62nd Ave, PO Box 1004, Johnston, IA USA; 515-270-4178; 515-270-3444 (fax); Kevin Simcox@pioneer.com Simmons, CR: 7250 NW 62nd Ave. Emerson, PO Box 552, Johnston, JA USA: 515 270 5949: carl.simmons@pioneer.com

Simmons, K; USDA/ARS, Nat Program Staff (Grain Crops), Room 4-2230, George Washington Carver Bldg, 5601 Sunnyside Ave, Beltsville, MD USA; 301-504-6191 (fax); 301-504-5560 (phone); kws@ars.usda.gov

Sims, LE; Trait & Technology Development, Pioneer Hi-Bred Internatl, 7300 NW 62nd Ave/P.O. Box 1004, Johnston, IA USA; 515-270-3652; 515-270-3367 (fax); lynne.sims@pioneer.com

Singh, AK; Crop Science Building, University of Guelph, Guelph, ON N1G2W1 CANADA; asheesh@uoquelph.ca

Singletary, GW; Pioneer Hi-Bred Internatl, 7300 NW 62nd Avenue, PO Box 1004, Johnston, IA USA; 515-270-5994; 515-254-2619 (fax); george.singletary@pioneer.com Sinha, N; Section of Plant Biology, Division of Biological Sciences, University of California, Davis, CA USA; 530-754-8441; 530-752-5410 (fax); NRSINHA@UCDAVIS.EDU Sinibaldi, R; 1780 Acacio Ct., Fremont, CA USA; 510-794-6410

Sisco, PH; The American Chestnut Foundation, Southern Appalachian Regional Office, One Oak Plaza, Suite 308, Asheville, NC USA; (828) 281-0047; (828) 253-5373 (fax); paul@acf.org

Sito, FP; Inst Invest Agronomica, Avenida Deolinda Rodrigues Km5, Cx. P. 2104, Luanda, ANGOLA; ++244 (91) 212490 (phone); ++244 (2) 351668 (fax); fsito@nexus.ao Skendzic, E; Uinv Wisconsin, Parkside, Biol Sci, 900 Wood Rd, PO Box 2000, Kenosha, WI USA; 414-595-2459; 414-595-2056 (fax); skendzic@uwp.edu Skibbe, D; Stanford University, 385 Serra Mall MC 5020, Stanford, CA USA; skibbe@stanford.edu

Sleper, DA; Agronomy Dept, 210 Waters Hall, University of Missouri, Columbia, MO USA; 573-882-7320; 573-882-1467 (fax); sleperd@missouri.edu

Slotkin, RK; Univ California, Plant Microbial Biol, 111 Koshland Hall MC-310, Berkeley, CA USA; 510-642-4995 (fax); 510-642-8058; slotkin@UClink.berkeley.edu Smith, A; Lehman College, CUNY, Biological Sci, Bronx, NY USA

Smith, A; Univ Wisconsin, 1575 Linden Dr, Madison, WI USA; 608-262-5217 (fax); 608-262-6521; alansmith@wisc.edu

Smith, AG; Dept Horticultural Science, 356 Alderman Hall, Univ. of MN, 1970 Folwell Av., Saint Paul, MN USA; 612-624-9290; alan@molbio.cbs.umn.edu

Smith, D; Pioneer Hi-Bred Internat. Inc, 7300 NW 62nd Ave., PO Box 1004, Johnston, IA USA; 515-270-3147; 515-253-2125 (fax)

Smith, J; 209 Johnson Hall, PO Box 646420, Washington State Univ, Pullman, WA USA; 509-335-7570; 509-335-8674 (fax)

Smith, JD; PO Box 2132, Department Soil & Crop Sci, Texas A & M University, College Station, TX USA; 979-845-8276

Smith, JSC; Pioneer Hi-Bred Internatl, P.O. Box 1004, Johnston, IA USA; 515-270-3353; 515-270-4312 (fax); stephen.smith@pioneer.com

Smith, LG; Biology Dept 0116, U. C. San Diego, 9500 Gilman Drive, La Jolla, CA USA; 858-822-2531/2558; 858-534-7108 (fax); Ismith@biomail.ucsd.edu

Smith, M; Kansas State University, 4024 Throckmorton Hall, Manhattan, KS USA; 785-532-2328; ssmith@plantpath.ksu.edu

Smith, ME; Cornell Univ, 252 Emerson Hall, Dept of Plant Breeding, Ithaca, NY USA; 607-255-1654; 607-255-6683 (fax); mes25@cornell.edu

Smith, OS; Pioneer Hi-Bred International, 7300 NW 62nd Ave., P.O. Box 1004, Johnston, IA USA; 515-270-3539; 515-270-4312 (fax); howie.smith@pioneer.com Smith, S; HCR 67, PO Box 20, Soutland, MO USA; 573-765-5149

Snape, JW; JI Centre, Norwich Research Park, Colney Lane, Norwich NR4 7UH, UNITED KINGDOM; 44-1603-450000; 44-1603-4502241 (fax); john.snape@bbsrc.ac.uk

Sobral, BWS; Bioinformatics Institute, Virginia Tech, Fralin Biotechnology Center, West Campus Drive, Blacksburg, VA USA; 540-231-9808; 540-231-9882 (fax); oneill@vbi.vt.edu

Soderlund, CA; Plant Science Department, 303 Forbes Building, University of Arizona, Tucson, AZ USA; (520) 626-9600; (520) 626-4272 (fax); cari@genome.arizona.edu Sofi, SA; DEPT. OF PLANT BREEDING & GENETICS, SKUAST-K, SHALIMAR, J&K, SHALIMAR, INDIA; phdpbg@yahoo.com

Sokolov, VA; Institute of Cytology and Genetics, Russian Academy of Sciences, Lavrentjev str., 10, Novosibirsk 630090, RUSSIA; 383-2-33-34-71; 383-2-33-12-78 (fax) Somers, DA; Dept Agron & Plant Genet, University of Minnesota, 1991 Upper Buford Cir., Saint Paul, MN USA; 612-625-5769; 612-625-1268 (fax); somers@biosci.cbs.umn.edu

Somerville, C; Plant Biology Dept, Carnegie Institution, 290 Panama St, Stanford, CA USA; 650-325-1521x203; 650-325-6857 (fax); crs@andrew.stanford.edu

Song, R; School of Life Sciences, Shanghai University, 99 Shangda Road, Shanghai, CHINA; 86-021-66135163 (phone); rentaosong@staff.shu.edu.cn

Song, X; China National Rice Research Institute, 171 Tiyuchang Road, Hangzhou 310006, CHINA

Song, Y; Life Science College, Wuhan University, Wuhan 430072 P.R.O., CHINA; (027)7822712-4505; 7813833 (fax)

Sorrels, M; Dept. of Plant Breeding & Biometry, Cornell University, Ithaca, NY USA; 607 255 1665; 607 255 6683 (fax); mes12@cornell.edu

Sowinski, S; 1 Innovation Way, Delaware Technology Park Suite #200, Newark, DE USA; (302)631-2661; Stephen G.Sowinski@usa.dupont.com

Spangler, R; Harvard Univ Herbaria, 22 Divinity Ave, Cambridge, MA USA; 617-496-1566; 617-495-9484 (fax)

Special Collections; 52 Ellis Library, University of Missouri, Columbia, MO USA; 573-882-0076

Springer, N; Dept Plant Biology, 250 Biosciences Center, 1445 Gortner Ave, Saint Paul, MN USA; springer@umn.edu

Springer, P; Univ of California, Dept Bot and Plant Sci, Riverside, CA USA; 909-787-5785/4549; 909-787-4437 (fax); patricia.springer@ucr.edu

St. Clair, G; Pioneer Hi-Bred Internat Inc, Trait & Technology Dept, 7300 NW 62nd Ave, PO Box 1004, Johnston, IA USA

Stack, S; Department of Biology, Colorado State University, Fort Collins, CO USA; 970-491-6802; 970-491-0649 (fax); sstack@lamar.colostate.edu

Staebell, MS; Pioneer Hi-Bred Internat Inc, 7300 NW 62nd Ave, PO Box 1004, Johnston, IA USA; 515-253-2148; 515-254-2619 (fax)

Staiger, C; Dept. of Biological Sciences, Purdue University, 321A Hansen Bldg., West Lafayette, IN USA; 765-496-1769; 765-496-1496 (fax); CSTAIGER@BILBO.BIO.PURDUE.EDU

Stam, M; SILS, University of Amsterdam, Kruislaan 318, Amsterdam, THE NETHERLANDS; mstam@science.uva.nl

Stapleton, AE; Dept Biological Sciences, Univ North Carolina Wilmington, 601 South College Road, Wilmington, NC USA; (910) 962-7267; (910) 962-4066 (fax); stapletona@uncwil.edu

Start, MA; Syngenta, 317 330th St, Stanton, MN USA; 507-663-7656; 507-645-7519 (fax); maryann.start@syngenta.com

Start, W; DeKalb Genetics, 62 Maritime Drive, Mystic, CT USA; 860-572-5223; 860-572-5240 (fax)

Stec, A; University of Minnesota, Department of Agronomy and Plant Genetics, 1991 Upper Buford Circle, Saint Paul, MN USA; 612-625-1208 (phone); stecx002@umn.edu Steenbock Memorial Library; University of Wisconsin, 550 Babcock Drive, Madison, WI USA; 608-263-2047; guigley@library.wisc.edu

Steffensen, DM; 506 Morrill Hall, Cell Biol, 505 S. Goodwin Ave, University of Illinois, Urbana, IL USA; 217-333-3087; 217-244-1648 (fax); steffnsn@uiuc.edu

Stein, L; Cold Spring Harbor Lab, 1 Bungtown Road, Cold Spring Harbor, NY USA; 516 367 8380; 516 367 8389 (fax); Istein@cshl.org

Stein, N; Inst Plant Genet Crop Plant Res, Department Genbank, AG MOM, Correnstr. 3, D-06466 Gatersleben, GERMANY; +49-39482-5522; +49-39482-5595 (fax)

Stern, DB; Boyce Thompson Inst. Plant Res. Inc., Tower Road, Ithaca, NY USA; (607)254-1306; (607)254-1242 (fax); ds28@cornell.edu

Steward, N; Laboratory of Plant Molecular Breeding, Nara Institute of Science and Technology, 8916-5 Takayama-cho, Ikoma-shi, Nara, JAPAN

Stinard, P; USDA/ARS, S123 Turner Hall, 1102 S. Goodwin Ave., Urbana, IL USA; (217)333-6631; (217)333-6664 (fax); pstinard@uiuc.edu

Stone, B; Univ Missouri, Agronomy, 1-87 Agriculture, Columbia, MO USA; 573-882-6320; 573-882-1469 (fax)

Stuber, CW; Dept of Genetics, North Carolina State Univ Box 7614, 3513 Gardner Hall, Raleigh, NC USA; 919-515-5834; 919-515-3355 (fax); cstuber@ncsu.edu Styles, ED; Biology, Univ of Victoria, PO Box 3020, Victoria BC V8W 3N5, CANADA; 250-477-4337; styles@uvic.ca

Sullivan, H; Pioneer Hi-Bred Internatil, 7300 NW 62nd Ave, Box 1004, Johnston, IA USA; 512-270-4369; 515-253-3367 (fax); hillary.sullivan@pioneer.com

Sullivan, S; Garst Seed Co., PO Box 8, Kunia, HI USA; 808-688-1477; 808-688-1479 (fax)

Sullivan, TD; Pediatrics Department, Clinical Science Center H4/444, 600 Highland Ave., University of Wisconsin, Madison, WI USA; tdsulliv@wisc.edu Sun, C-R; Fudan University, Dept. of Biochem., Handan Road 220, Shanghai 200433, CHINA

Sundaresan, V; Univ of California, LSA 1002, One Shields Ave, Davis, CA USA; 530-754-9677; 530-752-5410 (fax); sundar@ucdavis.edu

Sundberg, MD; Div Biol Sciences, Emporia State Univ, 1200 Commercial St, Emporia, KS USA; 316-341-5605; 316-341-6055 (fax); sundberm@esumail.emporia.edu Sung, TM; Dept of Agronomy, Beijing Agric Univ, 912 Research Building, Beijing 100094, CHINA; 86-010-62891851; 010-62891055 (fax)

Suprasanna, P; Plant Biotechnology Division, Bhabha Atomic Research Centre, Trombay, Bombay 400 085, INDIA; 91-22-556-3060x2571/3276; 91-22-556-0750 (fax) Suresh, J; Dept. of Agronomy, 513 Borlaug Hall, 1991 Buford Cr., Saint Paul, MN USA; (612)625-1208

Surridge, C; MacMillan Publishers, Porters South, 4-6 Crinan St, N19XW London, UNITED KINGDOM; 44-020-7843-4566; 44-020-7843-4596 (fax); c.surridge@nature.com

Suttie, J: CIBA, PO Box 12257, 3054 Cornwallis Rd, Research Triangle Park, NC USA Suzuki, M; 2234 Fifield Hall, Hort Sci Dept, Univ Florida, Gainesville, FL USA; 352-392-1928; 352-392-6479 (fax); msuzuki@mail.ifas.ufl.edu Sveriges Ian bibliotek; Ultunabiblioteket, Forvarvssektionen/Per, Box 7071, S-750 07 Uppsala, SWEDEN; 46 18 67 1090; 46 18 67 2853 (fax) Swiecicki, W; Polish Academy of Sciences, Institute of Plant Genetics, ul. Strzeszynska 34, 60-479 Poznan, POLAND; 48-61-8233-511; 48-61-8233-671 (fax); wswi@igr.poznan.pl Sylvester, A; Department of Botany, 3165, 1000 East University Ave., University of Wyoming, Laramie, WY USA; 307-766-6378 (phone); 307-766-2851 (fax); annesyl@uwyo.edu Szalma, S; 2523 Gardner Hall, NC State University, Raleigh, NC USA; (919) 513-1475 (phone); steve@szalma.com Szick, K; Bot Plant Sci, UC Riverside, Riverside, CA USA Tadmor, Y; Agricultural Research Organization,, Volcani Center,, P.O.B. 6, Bet-Dagan, ISRAEL; +972-4-9539548; +972-4-9836936 (fax) Tagliani, L; Pioneer Hi-Bred Internat Inc, PO Box 1004, Johnston, IA USA; 515-270-4188; 515-270-3367 (fax) Taguchi-Shiobara, F; Dept of Biochemistry, National Inst Agrobiol Sci, Tsukuba, Ibaraki 305-8602, JAPAN; 81-298-38-8388; 81-298-38-8397 (fax); fstagu@affrc.go.jp Taillardat, A; SES Seeds, Mulsans, 41500, Loire-et-cher 41, FRANCE Tan, C C(Jia Zheng); Fudan University, Inst. of Genet., Shanghai 20043, CHINA Tan, Y; Botany Dept, The University of HongKong, Pokfulam Road, HongKong, CHINA Tanurdzic, M; Purdue Univ, HANS311, West Lafavette, IN USA; 765-496-1496 (fax); 765-496-1496; milos@purdue.edu Tao, Q; 320 Yue-Yang Road, Shanghai 200031, CHINA; 86-21-4374430; 86-21-4378357 (fax) Taramino, G; Depart Genet Biol Microrg, Univ of Milan, Via Celoria 26, I-20133 Milano, ITALY Tascilar, D; bo Osman Cad. S8mer Mah.59. Sok. Cile Ap. No:7/5 Seyhan, Adana, TURKEY; 903514500; 903514818; deryaayar@may.com.tr Tatout, C; Biogemma, 24 Avenue des Landais, Aubiere 63170, FRANCE; 33-4-73-42-79-73; 33-4-73-42-79-81 (fax); christophe.tatout@biogemma.com Tausta, SL; Dept of MB&B, 205 Hall-Atwater Labs/Lawn Ave, Wesleyan Univ, Middletown, CT USA; 860-685-3373 Taylor, BH; Dept of Biology, Texas A&M Univ, College Station, TX USA; 979-845-7754; 979-845-2891 (fax) Taylor, LP; Genetics & Cell Biology, 301 Science Hall, Washington State University, Pullman, WA USA; 509-335-3612; 509-335-8690 (fax); Itaylor@wsu.edu Taylor, WC; CSIRO, Division of Plant Industry, G.P.O. Box 1600, Canberra ACT 2601, AUSTRALIA; (61-6)246-5223; (61-6)246-5000 (fax) Techen, N; Univ Hamburg, Inst Allgemeine Botanik, Ohnhorststrasse 18, D-22609 Hamburg, GERMANY; 49 40 822 82382; 49 40 822 82503 (fax) Technical Serv/Serials: Science Library, University of California Riverside, PO Box 5900, Riverside, CA USA Tenbarge, FL; Cerestar USA, 1100 Indianapolis Blvd, Hammond, IN USA; 219-473-2267; 219-473-6607 (fax) Tenborg, R; Pioneer Hi-Bred Intl, Inc, 733 NW 62nd Ave, Johnston, IA USA; 515-270-5951; 515-253-2149 (fax) The Book House; 216 W. Chicago St., CADS2785377, PO999911015, Box S/O, Jonesville, MI USA; 517-849-2117; 517-849-4060 (fax); bhso@thebookhouse.com Theodoris, G; Plant Biol Dept, 111 Koshland Hall, Univ California, Berkeley, CA USA; 510-642-7085; 510-642-4995 (fax); gtheo@nature.berkeley.edu Thomas Cooper Library; Serial Acquisitions-STO, 1ABM1638, Univ of South Carolina, Columbia, SC USA; 803-777-3850; 803-777-6871 (fax); hallj@gwm.sc.edu Thomas, B; MCB 1 Shields Ave, Univ California, Davis, CA USA; 530-752-0269; 530-752-1185 (fax) Thomas, HT; IGER Cell Biology Dept, Plas Gogerddan, Aberystwyth, Dyfed SY23 3EB, WALES; sid.thomas@bbsrc.ac.uk Thomas, S; Natl Renewable Energy Lab, 1617 Cole Blvd, Golden, CO USA; 303-384-7752 (fax); 303-384-7775; steven_thomas@nrel.gov Thompson, RD; INRA-URGAP Legume Unit, BP 86510, 21065 DIJON, FRANCE; 33-380-693-141; 33-380-693-263 (fax); thompson@epoisses.inra.fr Thompson, T; Pioneer Hi-Bred Internatl, 7300 NW 62nd Ave, Dock B Building 33, Johnston, IA USA; 515-270-4305; 515-270-3444 (fax); teresa thompson@pioneer.com Thompson, WF: North Carolina State Univ, PO Box 7612, Raleigh, NC USA; 919-515-3436 (fax); 919-515-7164; WFTB@ncsu.edu Thornsberry, J; Dept of Biology, Northwest Missouri State University, Maryville, MO USA; 660-562-1812 (phone); jthorns@mail.nwmissouri.edu Thornton, K; Pioneer Hi-Bred Intl, 7300 NW 62nd Ave, PO Box 1004, Johnston, IA USA; 515-270-3367 (fax); 515-270-5953; kay thornton@pioneer.com Tierney, ML; Marsh Life Sciences Bldg., University of Vermont, Burlington, VT USA; 802-656-0434; mtierney@moose.uvm.edu Tiffany, D: Corn Research, Pioneer Hi-Bred, Int., Rt. 8, Box 113A, Mankato, MN USA; (507)625-3252; (507)625-6446 (fax); doug tiffany@pioneer.com Tikhonov, AP; CuraGen Corporation, 555 Long Wharf Drive, 13th FI., New Haven, CT USA; 203-974-6330; 203-401-3351 (fax); atik1@yahoo.com. Till, B; Fred Hutchinson Cancer Res Ctr, 1100 Fairview Ave, N. A1-162, Seattle, WA USA; 206-685-1949; 206-685-1728 (fax); btill@fhcrc.org Till, S; Pioneer Hi-Bred Intl, 7300 NW 62nd Ave, PO Box 552, Johnston, IA USA; 515-270-3367 (fax); 515-270-5951; sarah.till@pioneer.com Timmermans, M; Cold Spring Harbor Lab, 1 Bungtown Rd, Cold Spring Harbor, NY USA; 516-367-8835/6818; 516-367-8369 (fax); timmerma@cshl.edu Ting, Y; Biology, Boston College, Chestnut Hill 67, Boston, MA USA; 617-552-2736; 617-552-2011 (fax); tingy@bc.edu Tingey, SV: Du Pont Crop Genetics, P.O. Box 80353, Wilmington, DE USA: 302-631-2602; scott.v.tingev@pioneer.com Tiwari, KR; Pioneer Hi-Bred International, Inc., 2300 Industrial Park Rd., NE, Cairo, GA USA; (229) 378 8240 Ext. 12 (phone); khusi.tiwari@pioneer.com Tochtrop, C: Magruder Hall, Truman State Univ, Kirksville, MO USA; 660-785-4083; 660-785-4045 (fax) Tomas, A; Pioneer Hi-Bred International, 7300 NW 62d Ave, PO Box 1004, Johnston, IA USA; 515-253-2116; 515-253-2149 (fax) Tomes, DT; Agronomic Traits Gene Expression, Box 552, Johnston, IA USA; 515-270-3746; 515-334-4778 (fax); dwight tomes@pioneer.com Tomkins, JP; Clemson Univ Genom Inst, Room 100 Jordan Hall, Clemson, SC USA; 864-656-6419/6422; 864-656-3443 (fax); jtmkns@clemson.edu Tonelli, C; University of Milan, Dept. of Genetics & Microbiology, Via Celoria 26, Milano 20133, ITALY; 39-02-26605210; 39-02-2664551 (fax); chiara.tonelli@unimi.it Topp, CN; 4608 Miller Plant Sciences Building, The University of Georgia, Athens, GA USA; 706-542-1010 (phone); ctopp@plantbio.uga.edu Torrecillas, MG; Dept Prod Animal Fac Cienc Agr, Ruta 4, Km2 (1836), Llavallol, ARGENTINA; 54 11 4282 6263 Tracy, WF: Department of Agronomy, 1575 Linden Drive, University of Wisconsin, Madison, WI USA: 608-262-2587: 608-262-5217 (fax); wftracy@facstaff.wisc.edu Tremaine, M; Monsanto/Agracetus, Agracetus Campus, 8520 University Green, Middleton, WI USA; 608-821-3446; 608-836-9710 (fax); mary.t.tremaine@monsanto.com Trimnell, M; 7301 NW 62nd Ave, Pioneer Hi-Bred International, PO Box 85, Johnston, IA USA; 515-270-3297; 515-270-3667 (fax); mary trimnell@pioneer.com Troyer, AF; Corn Breeder, 611 Joanne Ln, DeKalb, IL USA; 815-758-4375; 630-801-2345 (fax); atrover@uiuc.edu Tsai, CY; Dept Bot, Natl Taiwan Univ, Taipei 10764, TAIWAN Tsanev, V, D. Kostoff Inst Genetics, Bulgarian Acad Sci, 1113 Sofia, BULGARIA Tsiantis, M; Univ Oxford, Dept Plant Sci, South Parks Rd, Oxford OX1 3RB, UNITED KINGDOM; 44-1865-275074 (fax); miltos tsiantis@plant-sciences.ox.ac.uk Tu, Z; Guangdong Acad. of Agric. Sciences, Rice Research Institute, Wushan, Guangzhou, Guangdong 510640, CHINA Tuberosa, R; Universita di Bologna, Dipartimento di Agronomia, Via Filippo Re, 6-8, Bologna I-40126, ITALY; tuberosa@agrsci.unibo.it Tuerck, J; Advanced Technol (cambridge) Ltd, 210 Science Park, Cambridge CB4 0WA, UNITED KINGDOM; 44-1223-420 284; 44-1223-423 448 (fax) Tuttle, A; CIBA-Geigy Corp, PO Box 12257, Research Triangle Park, NC USA Tyers, R; Plant Biol Dept, 111 Koshland Hall, UC Berkeley, Berkeley, CA USA; 510-642-7948; 510-642-4995 (fax); tyersome@nature.berkeley.edu Tyrnov, VS: Genetics Dept. 83 Astrakhanskava Str. Saratov State University. Saratov 410026. RUSSIA: (845-2)240446 (fax): tyrnovvs@info.sou.ru Uhr, DV; Northrup King Co., 340 Southside Drive, Henderson, KY USA; (502)827-5787; (502)827-5703 (fax) Ujije, K; HOKUREN Naganuma Res. Stn., Minami-2, Higashi-9, Naganuma-Cho, Yuubari-Gun, Hokkaido 069-1316, JAPAN: 01238-8-3330; 01238-8-3200 (fax) Ulrich, JF; Cargill, 2600 W. Galena Blvd, Aurora, IL USA; 630-801-2324; 630-801-2345 (fax)

Ulrich, V; P.O. Box 451, Morgantown, WV USA; 304-292-5262

Unger-Wallace, E; Pioneer Hi-Bred Internatl, 7300 NW 62nd Ave, Box 1004, Johnston, IA USA; 515-270-3437; 515-270-3367 (fax); erica.unger-wallace@pioneer.com Univ Georgia Libraries; Acquisitions Dept, Serials Section, Athens, GA USA

Universitat Hamburg; Institut Allgemeine Botanik, Bibliothek, Ohnhorststrasse 18, D-22609 Hamburg, GERMANY; (0049)40-428-16-256; 0049-40-428-16 (fax)

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USDA Nat Agric Library; Current Serial Records - CSR Room 002, 10301 Baltimore Blvd, Beltsville, MD USA

Valdez, V; Lehman College CUNY, Biology Dept c/o Elli Wurtzel, 250 Bedford Park Blvd West, Bronx, NY USA

Valdivia, E; Penn State University, 208 Mueller Lab, Depts of Biology/Plant Physiology, University Park, PA USA; 814-865-3752; 814-865-9131; ERV105@psu.edu

Valentin, H; Monsanto, 700 Chesterfield Parkway North, Saint Louis, MO USA; 314-737-6478; 314-737-6759 (fax); henry.e.valentin@monsanto.com

Vales, MI; 107 Crop Sci Bldg, Univ Oregon, Corvallis, OR USA; 541-737-3539; 541-737-1589 (fax); isabel.vales@orst.edu

Vallejos, E; University of Florida, 1143 Fifield Hall, Gainesville, FL USA; 352-392-1928; 352-392-6479 (fax)

Vallejos, RH; CEFOBI, Univ Nac de Rosario, Suipacha 531, 2000 Rosario, ARGENTINA; 54-41-371955; 54-41-370044 (fax)

Van Deynze, AE; Seed Biotechnology Center, University of California, One Shields Avenue, Davis, CA USA; (530) 754-6444; (530) 754-7222 (fax); avandeynze@ucdavis.edu

van Eldik, G; Bayer BioScience N.V., Technologiepark 38, 9052 Gent, BELGIUM; 32 9 243 05 41 (phone); 32 9 383 67 31 (fax); gerben.vaneldik@bayercropscience.com van Haaren, M; Keygene NV, Argo Business Park, Wageningen 6700 AE, NETHERLANDS; 31.317.424121; 31.317.424939 (fax); Mark.Van-Haaren@KEYGENE.com Van Heeckeren, W: Inst Molec Biol, Univ of Oregon, Eugene. OR USA

Van Montagu, M; Lab Genetics, K L Ledeganckstr 35, B-9000 Gent, BELGIUM; 32-9-264.51.70; 32-9-264.53.49 (fax); mamon@gengenp.rug.ac.be

van Nocker, S; Dept Horticulture, 390 Plant Soil Sci Bldg, Michigan State Univ, East Lansing, MI USA; 517-432-7133/7134; 517-432-3490 (fax); vannocke@pilot.msu.edu Van Schaik, N; Dept Genetics/U Witwatersrand, PO Wits 2050, SOUTH AFRICA; (011) 716-2125; 27-11-403-1733 (fax)

van Staden, D; Research Centre for Plant Growth and Development, School of Botany and Zoology, University of Natal Pietermaritzburg, Private Bag X01, Scottsville, South Africa; 27 0 33 4171208 (fax); 27 0 33 4131131; vanstadenj@nu.ac.za

van Wijk, R; KEYGENE N.V, P.O. Box 216, 6700 AE Wageningen, NETHERLANDS; Tel. (+31) 317 46 68 66; Fax. (+31) 317 42 49 39

Vandenhirtz, J; LemnaTec, 18 Schumanstr., Wuerselen, Germany; +49 (0)2405 4126-12; +49 (0)2405 4126-26 (FAX); joerg@lemnatec.de

Vanderslice, OL; Vanderslice Enterprises, Lake Viking, 106 Mooney Drive, Gallatin, MO USA; 660-663-2946

Vantoai, TT; USDA-ARS-MWA, 590 Woody Hayes Dr, Columbus, OH USA; 614-292-9806; 614-292-9448 (fax); vantoai.1@osu.edu

Varagona, MJ; Monsanto Co., O2B, 800 N. Lindbergh Blvd., Saint Louis, MO USA; 314-694-2007; 314-694-7729 (fax); RITA.J.VARAGONA@Monsanto.com

Vasil, IK; Laboratory of Plant Cell & Molecular Biol, 1143 Fifield Hall, University of Florida, Gainesville, FL USA; 352-392-1193; 352-392-9366 (fax); ivasil@ufl.edu Vaske, DA: Pioneer Hi-Bred Intl, 7300 NW 62nd Ave, Johnston, IA USA; 515-270-3367 (fax); 515-334-4640

Vaudin, M; Monsanto Company, Mail Zone N3SA, 800 North Lindbergh Boulevard, Saint Louis, MO USA; 314-694-3866; 314 694 7826 (fax); mark.vaudin@monsanto.com

Vazquez-Ramos, JM; UNAM, Facultad de Quimica Edificio B, Ciudad Universitaria, Mexico City 04510, DF, MEXICO; jorman@servidor.dgsca.unam.mx

Vega, CRC; ITUZAINGO 5497 DPTO 4, MAR DEL PLATA 7600, ARGENTINA; 0223-4736146; clavega@mdp.edu.ar

Veillet, S; Cargill, Lab Biotech Veg, PO Box 17, Centre de Boissay, Etavipes, FRANCE; 332-3790 4126

Veit, B; Dept Biol and Biotech, Massey Univ, Private Bag 11222, Palmerston North, NEW ZEALAND; B.Veit@massey.ac.nz

Veldboom, L; PO Box 839, Holden's Foundation Seeds, L.L.C., Williamsburg, IA USA; 319-668-1100; 319-668-2453 (fax) Verde, LA; Iowa State Univ, 1010 Agronomy Hall, Ames, IA USA; 515-294-3163 (fax); 515-294-5755

Verde, LA; Iowa State Univ, 1010 Agronomy Hall, Ames, IA USA; 515-294-3103 (fax); 515-294-5735

Vergne, P; RCAP, ENS-Lyon, 46 Allee d'Italie, 69364 Lyon cedex 07, FRANCE; 33/72-72-86-08; 33/72 72 86 00 (fax); Philippe. Vergne@ens-lyon.fr

Vermerris, W; Depts Agronomy Agr & Biol Eng, 1150 Lilly Hall, Purdue University, West Lafayette, IN USA; 765-496-2645; 765-496-2926 (fax); vermerris@purdue.edu Vernadsky Sci Library; P.O. Box 830673, Birmingham, AL USA

Viccini, LF; Dept Biol, Univ Fed Juiz de Fora, Campus Universitario, 36036-330 Juiz de Fora-MG, BRAZIL; 032-231-1998 (fax)

Vidakovic, M; Maize Research Institute, Slobodana Bajica 1, 11080 Zemun, Belgrade, YUGOSLAVIA; 381-11-617434; 381-11-197890 (fax)

Vielle-Calzada, JP; Lab Reprod Devel & Apomixis, CINVESTAV - Plant Biotech, Km 9.6 Libramiento Norte CP 36500, Carraterra Irapuato-Leon GTO, MEXICO; (52-462) 623 96 34 (phone); (52-462) 623 96 00 (phone); (52-462) 624 58 49 (fax); vielle@ira.cinvestav.mx

Vincent, PLD; Curtis Hall, University of Missouri, Columbia, MO USA; 573-882-2674; 573-884-7850 (fax); leszek@missouri.edu

Violic, AD; Vital Apoquindo 180, Santiago (Las Condes), CHILE; (562)229-0685; (562)735-5892 (fax)

Viorica, U; Agricultural Research Station, cod 1100, Sos. Balcesti, Nr. 14, Simnic - Craiova, ROMANIA; simnic36@hotmail.com

Viotti, A; Ist Biol Biotecn Agraria, Via Bassini 15, 20133 Milano, ITALY; 39 02 23699437/9442; 39 02 23699411 (fax); viotti@ibba.cnr.it

Vivek, BS; CIMMYT, Lisboa 27, Apdo. Postal 6-641, Mexico 06600 D.F., MEXICO; 52 595 551 58

Vladova, R; D. Kostoff Inst Genetics, Bulgarian Acad Sci, 1113 Sofia, BULGARIA

Vliegenthart, A; Keygene NV, PO Box 216, 6700 AE Wageningen, NETHERLANDS; 31 317 42 4939 (fax); 31 317 46 6866

Vodkin, LO; 384 ERML, Dept Crop Sci, Univ Illinois, 1201 W. Gregory, Urbana, IL USA; 217-244-6147; 217-333-9817 (fax); I-vodkin@uiuc.edu

Voelker, R; Inst Molec Biol, Univ of Oregon, Eugene, OR USA

Vogel, JM; Dupont Co., PO Box 80402, Wilmington, DE USA; 302-695-6947; 302-695-7361 (fax); julie.m.vogel@usa.dupont.com

Vollbrecht, E; Department of Genetics, Development & Cell Biology, 2206 Molecular Biology Building, Iowa State University, Ames, IA USA; 515-294-6755 (phone); vollbrec@iastate.edu

Von Wettstein, D; Dept Crop Soil Sci, Genet Cell Biol, Washington State Univ, Pullman, WA USA; 509-335-3635; 509-335-8674 (fax); diter@wsu.edu

Voytas, D; Dept. of Botany, Iowa State University, Ames, IA USA; voytas@iastate.edu

Vroh Bi, I; Institute for Genomic Diversity, Cornell University, 175 Biotechnology Bldg, Ithaca, NY USA; 607 255 138; biv2@cornell.edu

Vuylsteke, M; Aventis CropScience N.V., Breeding & Product Devel Sta, Nazarethsesteenweg 77, B-9800 Astene (Dienze), BELGIUM; 32 (0) 9 381 84 59; 32 (0) 9 380 16 62 (fax)

Wageningen Agric Univ; Bibliotheek, 48284, Postbus 9100, 6700 HA Wageningen, NETHERLANDS

Wageningen Agric Univ; Bibliotheek, 96740, Postbus 9100, 6700 HA Wageningen, NETHERLANDS

Waines, JG; Dept of Botany/Plant Sciences, University of California, Riverside, CA USA; 909-787-3706; 909-787-4437 (fax)

Walbot, V; Dept Biol Sci, 385 Serra Mall, Stanford Univ, Stanford, CA USA; 650-723-2227; 650-725-8221 (fax); walbot@stanford.edu

Walden, DB; Dept of Plant Sciences, Univ of Western Ontario, London N6A 5B7, CANADA; 519-661-3103; 519-661-3935 (fax); dwalden@julian.uwo.ca

Walker, EL; Biology Dept, Morrill Science Center, Univ of Mass, Amherst, Amherst, MA USA; 413-545-0861; 413-545-3243 (fax); ewalker@bio.umass.edu

Walker, J; Biol Sci, 308 Tucker Hall, Univ of Missouri, Columbia, MO USA; 573-882-3583; 573-882-0123 (fax); walkerj@missouri.edu

Walker, NS; Institute of Molecular Biology, University of Oregon, Eugene, OR USA; 541-744-6273 (phone); nigel@molbio.uoregon.edu

Walsh, J; Plant Biology Dept, 111 Koshland Hall, UC Berkeley, Berkeley, CA USA; 510-642-8058; 510-642-4995 (fax); justice@nature.berkeley.edu

Walton, J; DOE Plant Research Lab, Michigan State University, East Lansing, MI USA; 517-353-4885; 517-353-9168 (fax); walton@msu.edu

Walton, M; LInkage Genetics, 2411 South 1070 West; Suite B, Salt Lake City, UT USA; 435-975-1188; 435-975-1244 (fax)

Wan, Y; Monsanto Agricultural Group, 700 N Chesterfield Pkwy - GG4H, Saint Louis, MO USA; 314-537-6734

Wang, AS; Novartis Seeds Inc, 317 330th Street, Stanton, MN USA; 507-663-7658; 507-645-7519 (fax); andy.wang@syngenta.com

Wang, B-B; Iowa State Univ, 2128 Molec Biol Bldg, Ames, IA USA; 515-294-0345 (fax); 515-294-3136; icewater@iastate.edu

Wang, BC; Academia Sinica, Institute of Genetics, Beijing 100101, CHINA; 8610-64870491; 8610-64873428 (fax)

Wang, F; Dalian Inst Biotechnology, Liaoning Acad Agricultural Sci, Lingshui Road, Dalian, Liaoning 116023, CHINA

- Wang, G; State Key Lab for Agrobiotechnology, China Agricultural University, Yuanmingyuan Xilu 2, Haidian, Beijing CHINA; 86-10-62732012; gywang@cau.edu.cn
- Wang, HY; Pioneer Hi-Bred Intl, 7300 NW 62nd Ave, PO Box 1004, Johnston, IA USA; 515-254-2775 (phone); 515-254-2619 (fax); wangh@phibred.com
- Wang, L; Dow AgroSciences, 9330 Zionsville Rd, Indianapolis, IN USA; 317-337-5915; 317-337-5989 (fax); Ilwang@dow.com
- Wang, Q; National Natural Science Foundation, Dept. of Life Science, Beijing 100083, CHINA

Wang, R; Syngenta Agric Discovery Inst, 3115 Merryfield Row, San Diego, CA USA; 858-812-1097 (fax); 858-812-1021; ronglin.wang@syngenta.com

Wang, RC; University of California, Department of Molecular and Cell Biology, 345 LSA, 3200, Berkeley, CA USA; 510-643-8277 (phone); 510-643-6791 (fax); rachelciw@berkeley.edu

Wang, WC; Novartis, 3054 Cornwallis Rd, Research Triangle Park, NC USA; 919-541-8580; 919-541-8585 (fax); wen.wang@syngenta.com

- Wang, X; RNA Dynamics, Novartis Agr Discovery Inst, 3115 Merryfield Row, Suite 100, San Diego, CA USA; (858) 812-1053; (858) 812-1097 (fax); xun.wang@syngenta.com
- Wang, X; 303 Forbes Hall, Univ Arizona, Tucson, AZ USA; 520-621-9154; 520-621-3692 (fax)
- Wang, X-Q; BASF Plant Science LLC, 26 Davis Drive, PO Box 13528, Research Triangle Park, NC USA; (919) 547-2423 (fax); (919) 547-2844 (phone); xiging.wang@basf.com

Wang, Y; 2288 Molecular Biology Bldg, Iowa State Univ, Ames, IA USA; 515-294-2922; 515-294-0345 (fax); ybwang@iastate.edu

- Wang, YH; Academia Sinica, Inst. of Cell Biol., 320 Yo-Yang Road, Shanghai 200031, CHINA
- Wang, Z; Corn Genetics & Breeding Res Lab, Shandong Agricultural Univ, Taian, Shandong 271018, CHINA; (0538)8242657-8402; (0538)8221652 (fax)
- Wanous, M: Dept of Biology, Augustana College, 2001 S. Summit Ave, Sioux Falls, SD USA; 605-336-4712; 605-336-4718 (fax)
- Warburton, M; Centro Internacional de Mejoramiento de Maiz y Trigo, APTDO Postal 6-641, 06600 Mexico, D. F, MEXICO; 52-55-5804-7567 (fax); 52 55 5804-2004 x1381 (phone); M.WARBURTON@CGIAR.ORG
- Wardzala, E; 2801 W Bancroft St, Univ Toledo, Toledo, OH USA; 419-530-1538; 419-530-7737 (fax)
- Ware, D; Cold Spring Harbor Lab, 1 Bungtown Road, Cold Spring Harbor, NY USA; ware@cshl.org
- Warner, T; Novartis Seeds Inc, 317 330th St, Stanton, MN USA

Warren, JL; Pioneer Hi-Bred Internat Inc, 7250 NW 62nd Ave, PO Box 552, Johnston, IA USA; 515-270-4390; 515-270-4312 (fax); jana.warren@pioneer.com

- Wasserman, BP; Food Science Dept, Rutgers Univ, New Brunswick, NJ USA; 908-932-9611 x220 phone; 908-932-6776 (fax)
- Weaver, S; Quaker Oats Company, 617 West Main St., Barrington, IL USA; 847-304-2050; 708-304-2166 (fax); 847-304-2149 (fax); 847-304-2062 (fax)
- Webb, CA; Dept Plant Pathol, 4024 Throckmorton Plant Sci Ctr, Kansas State Univ, Manhattan, KS USA; 913-532-2328; 913-532-5692 (fax); webbcr@plantpath.pp.ksu.edu Weber, D; Illinois State Univ, 4120 Biological Sciences, Normal, IL USA; 309-438-2685; 309-438-3722 (fax); dfweber@ilstu.edu
- Weber, G; Institut fur Pflanzenzuchtung, Universitat Hohenheim, Fruwirthshr. 21, D 70599 Stuttgart, GERMANY; 49 (711)459 2341; 49 (711)459 2343 (fax); weberg@uni-hohenheim.de

Weck, EA; 901 College, Northfield, MN USA; 507-663-1244

- Wegary, D; Ethiopian Agric Res Org, PO Box 2003, Addis Ababa, ETHIOPIA; ++251 (7) 650465 (phone); ++251 (7) 650099 (fax); cimmyt-ethiopia@cgiar.org
- Weil, C; Dept. of Agronomy, 1150 Lilly Hall, Purdue University, West Lafayette, IN USA; 765-496-1917; 765-496-2926 (fax); cweil@purdue.edu
- Wen, LY; Univ Florida, P.O. Box 110690, Gainesville, FL USA; 352-392-1928 ext 318; 352-392-6479 (fax); lanying@grove.ufl.edu
- Wen, T; Iowa State University, 2035A Roy J. Carver Co-Laboratory, Ames, IA USA; 515-294-3541; 515-294-5256 (fax); TJWEN@IASTATE.EDU

Wendel, JF; Department of Botany, Bessey Hall, Iowa State University, Ames, IA USA; 515-294-7172; 515-294-1337 (fax); jfw@iastate.edu

Wenxiong, L; Fujian Agricultural College, Dept. of Agronomy, Jingshan, Fuzhou, Fujian 350002, CHINA

Werr, W; Institut fuer Entwicklungsbiologie, Universitaat zu Koeln, Gyrhofstr. 17, 50931 KOELN, GERMANY; 49 221 470 2619; 49 221 470 5164 (fax); w.werr@uni-koeln.de

- Wessler, SR; Department of Plant Biology, University of Georgia, Athens, GA USA; 706-542-1870; 706-542-3910 (fax); sue@plantbio.uga.edu
- West, D; 253 Mellon Hall, Duquesne Univ, Dept Biol Sci, Pittsburgh, PA USA; 412-396-4356; 412-396-5907 (fax)
- West, DR; Dept Plant and Soil Sci, Univ of Tennessee, Knoxville, TN USA; 423-974-8826; 423-974-7997 (fax); DWEST3@UTK.EDU
- Westhoff, P; Ins. Ent. Mol. Bio. Pflanzen, Heinrich-Heine-Univ Dusseldorf, D-40225 Dusseldorf, GERMANY; 49-211-81-12338; 49-211-81-14871 (fax); West@Uni-Duesseldorf.de
- Whalen, RH; Dept of Biology, South Dakota State Univ, Brookings, SD USA; 605-688-4553; 605-688-6677 (fax); richard.whalen@sdstate.edu
- White, DG; Crop Sciences, University of Illinois, N425 Turner Hall, MC 046, 1102 S Goodwin Ave., Urbana, IL USA; (217) 333-1093; donwhite@uiuc.edu

Whitt, S; North Carolina State Univ, 2523 Gardner Hall, Raleigh, NC USA; 919-515-3355 (fax); 919-513-2821; srwhitt@unity.ncsu.edu

Whitwood, W; Seneca hybrids/SVS, 5271 Flat Street, Hall, NY USA; 716-526-5879; 716-526-5350 (fax)

Wick, S; University of Minnesota, Dept. Plant Biology, 220 BioSciences Center, 1445 Gortner Ave., Saint Paul, MN USA; 612-625-4718; 612-625-1738 (fax); swick@biosci.cbs.umn.edu

- Widholm, JM; Crop Sciences, Univ of Illinois, ERML, 1201 W. Gregory, Urbana, IL USA; 217-333-9462; 217-333-4777 (fax); Widholm@UIUC.EDU
- Widstrom, NW; Coastal Plain Exp Sta, PO Box 748, Tifton, GA USA; 912-387-2341; 912-387-2321 (fax); nwidstro@tifton.cpes.peachnet.edu
- Wiedemeier, A; Biol Sci, Tucker Hall, Univ of Missouri, Columbia, MO USA; 573-884-6755; WiedemeierA@missouri.edu

Wienand, U; Inst. Allge. Bot., Univ Hamburg, Pflanzen, AMP I, Ohnhorststrasse 18, D-22609 Hamburg, GERMANY; (49)40 428 16 501; (49)40 428 16 503 (fax); wienand@botanik.uni-hamburg.de

- Wierzba, M; Univ Arizona, 303 Forbes Hall, Tucson, AZ USA; 520-621-9154; wierzba@u.arizona.edu
- Wilkes, HG; Biology De[t, Univ of Mass/Boston, 100 Morrissey Blvd, Boston, MA USA; 617-287-6600; 617-287-6650 (fax)
- Willcox, M; CIMMYT, Apartado Postal 6-641, Mexico, D.F. 06600, MEXICO; 52(5)726-9091 ext.1128; 52(5)726-7559 (fax)
- Williams, AJ; Univ California-Riverside, Botany & Plant Sciences Dept, Riverside, CA USA; 909-787-6376; 909-787-4437 (fax)
- Williams, M; DuPont Crop Genetics Research, Experimental Station Bldg 353 RM 118E, Rt 141 & Henry Clay, Wilmington, DE USA; 302-366-5245 (phone); mark.e. williams@cor.dupont.com
- Williams, P; Inst Molec Biol, 1370 Franklin Ave, Univ Oregon, Eugene, OR USA; 541-346-2546; 541-346-5891 (fax); pascale@molbio.uoregon.edu
- Williams, R; Plant Biology Dept, 111 Koshland Hall, UC Berkeley, Berkeley, CA USA
- Williams, RE; PO Box 294, Pittsfield, IL USA; 217-285-2530
- Williams, WP; USDA-ARS-CHPRRU, Box 9555, Miss. State, MS USA; 601-325-2735; 601-325-8441 (fax)
- Willman, MR; Pioneer Hi-Bred Intl., 1-385 Kaumualii HWY., P.O. Box 609, Waimea, HI USA; 808-338-8325 (phone); mark.willman@pioneer.com
- Willmot, D; USDA-ARS, 301 Curtis Hall, University of Missouri, Columbia, MO USA; 573-884-9165; 573-884-7850 (fax); WillmotD@missouri.edu
- Wilson, LM; BASF Plant Science, 1207 Welcome Circle, Durham, NC USA; 919-547-2560 (phone); wilsonIm@basf-corp.com
- Wilson, WA; Pioneer Hi-Bred International, Windfall Research Center, Windfall, IN USA; Phone: 765-945-8217; william wilson@pioneer.com
- Wineland, R; Pioneer Hi-Bred Internatl, 7300 NW 62nd Ave, Johnston, IA USA; 515-270-5951; 515-253-2149 (fax); robin.wineland@pioneer.com

Wing, R; Arizona Genomics Institute, Department of Plant Sciences, University of Arizona, 303 Forbes Building, Tucson, AZ USA; 520.626.9595; 520.621.7186 (fax); rwing@Ag.arizona.edu

Wingen, L; Max-Planck-Inst Zuechtungsf, Abteilung Molek Pflanzengenetik, AG Theissen, Carl-von-Linne-Weg 10, Koeln D-50829, GERMANY; 49-221-5062-121; wingen@mpiz-koeln.mpg.de

Winter-Vann, AM; CIBA Ag Biotech, PO Box 12257, Research Triangle Park, NC USA

Wise, R; USDA-ARS, 351 Bessey Hall, Dept. Plant Pathology, Iowa State Univ., Ames, IA USA; 515-294-9756; 515-294-9420 (fax); rpwise@iastate.edu

Wittich, PE; Keygene NV, PO Box 216, 6700 AE Wageningen, NETHERLANDS; 31 317 42 4939 (fax); 31 317 46 6866

Wolfe, K; Dept. of Genetics, University of Dublin, Trinity College, Dublin 2, IRELAND; 353-1-608-1253; 353-1-679-8558 (fax); khwolfe@tcd ie

Woll, K; KWS SAAT AG, Grimsehlstr. 31, 37574 Einbeck, Germany; K.Woll@kws.com

Wong, AYM; 100 Whitehorn Cres, Toronto, Ontario Canada; awong01@uoguelph.ca

Wong, JC; Horticulture & Crop Science, Cal Poly, San Luis Obispo, CA USA; 805-756-2279; jcwong@calpoly.edu

Woo, C; 2667 Parker St, Berkeley, CA USA

Woodhouse, MRH; Univ of California, Dept Plant and Microbial Biol, 111 Koshland Hall, Berkeley, CA USA; branwen@berkeley.edu

Woodman, WL; Dept. of Agronomy, Iowa State Univ., Ames, IA USA; 515-294-3635; 515-294-3163 (fax); wlwoodma@iastate.edu

Woodruff, D; 6366 Cobblerock Lane, Salt Lake City, UT USA; 435-277-5526

Woody, L; 271 Quail Run, Roswell, GA USA

Wrobel, R; Dept Veg Crops, University of California-Davis, Davis, CA USA

Wu, F; Pioneer Hi-Bred Inti, 7300 NW 62nd Ave, PO Box 1004, Johnston, IA USA; 515-270-3367 (fax); 515-270-4369; fan.wu@pioneer.com

Wu, MS; Rutgers Univ, 190 Frelinghuysen Rd, Piscataway, NJ USA; 732-445-5735 (fax); 732-445-2307; huihua@mbcl.rutgers.edu

Wu, Y; Inst Biol Chem, Washington State Univ, Pullman, WA USA; 509-335-1047; 509-335-7643 (fax); yujia@wsunix.wsu.edu

Wu, Y; Pioneer Hi-Bred Internatil, 7250 NW 62nd Ave, Johnston, IA USA; 515-270-5991; 515-334-4778 (fax)

Wuhan University; Biology Library, Luojiashan, Wuhan 430072, CHINA

Wurtzel, E; Dept Biol Sci, Davis Hall, Lehman College, City Univ New York, Bronx, NY USA; 718-960-8236 (fax); 718-960-4994, -8643; wurtzel@lehman.cuny.edu

Xia, YJ; B420 Agronomy Hall, Iowa State Univ, Ames, IA USA

Xia, ZA; Academia Sinica, Shanghai Inst. of Plant Physiol., 300 Fonglin Road, Shanghai 200433, CHINA

Xiang, CB; Univ Sci Technol, Hefei, CHINA; ++551 3607332 (phone); xiangcb@ustc.edu.cn

Xiao, Y; 2288 Molecular Biology Bldg, Iowa State University, Ames, IA USA; 515-294-3277; 515-294-0345 (fax)

Xie, C; Pioneer Hi-Bred Intl, 7300 NW 62nd Ave, PO Box 1004, Johnston, IA USA; 515-253-2478 (fax); 515-270-3618; chongqing.xie@pioneer.com

Xie, Y; College of Biology, China Agricultural University, Beijing 100094, CHINA; 86 (10) 62631895; 0086-1-2582332 (fax); daijr@cau.edu.cn

Xiong, C; China National Rice Research Institute, Ti Yu Chang Road 171, Hangzhou, Zhejiang 310006, CHINA

Xu, W; Texas A&M Univ, Agric Res and Ext Center, Route 3, Box 219, Lubbock, TX USA; 806-746-6101; 806-746-6528 (fax); we-xu@tamu.edu

Xu, X; B420 Agronomy Hall, Iowa State Univ, Ames, IA USA

Xu, Y; Genetic Resources Program, International Maize and Wheat Improvement Center, CIMMYT, Apdo. Postal 6-641, Texcoco, Mexico, D.F. MEXICO; 52(55) 5804-2004 (phone)

Xu, Yue; Univ Massachusetts, Biol Dept, Amherst, MA USA

Xu, Z; Rutgers Univ, Waksman Inst, 190 Frelinghuysen Rd, Piscataway, NJ USA; 732-445-5735 (fax); 732-445-2307; zhennan@waksman.rutgers.edu

Xu, ZF; Zhongsan Univ., Biotechnology Res. Center, 135 West Xingang Road, Guangzhou, Guangdong 510275, CHINA

Xu, ZH; Shanghai Inst. of Plant Physiol., 300 Fenglin road, Shanghai 200032, CHINA

Yaklin, P; Pioneer Hi-Bred Internat Inc, Trait & Technol Devel, 7300 NW 62nd Ave, PO Box 1004, Johnston, IA USA

Yamada, M; Mina mi-nakazuma 367-13, Tsukuba, 305-0065, JAPAN; yammy@mail1.accsnet.ne.jp

Yamada, T; Tokyo Inst Technol, Fac Biosci & Biotechnol, Dept Biol Sci, Midori Ku, Yokohama, Kanagawa 226, JAPAN; tyamada@bio.titech.ac.jp

Yamaguchi, J; Plant Gene Expression Center, USDA-ARS, 800 Buchanan St, Albany, CA USA

Yamamoto, K; Rice Genome Res Program, STAFF Inst, 446-1, Ippaizuka, Kamiyokoba, Ippaizuka, Tsukuba-shi, Ibaraki-ken 305, JAPAN

Yamasaki, M; Food Resources Education and Research Center,, Kobe University, 1348 Uzurano, Kasai,, Higoshku, Fukuoka, Hyogo 675-2103 JAPAN; +81-790-49-3124 (phone); +81-790-49-0343 (fax); yamasakim@tiger.kobe-u.ac.jp

Yan, X; Waksman Institute, Rutgers Univ, Piscataway, NJ USA; 732-445-2307; 732-445-5735 (fax)

Yandeau, M; Iowa State Univ, 2102 Molecular Biol Bldg, Ames, IA USA; 515-294-6797; 515-294-0453 (fax); myandeau@iastate.edu

Yang, H; Chinese Academy of Agric. Sciences, Biotech. Research Centre, Beijing 100081, CHINA

Yang, JS; Fudan University, Institute of Genetics, Shanghai 200433, CHINA

Yang, M; Univ Toledo, 2801 W Bancroft St, Biol Sci, Toledo, OH USA; 419-530-7737 (fax); 419-530-1538; yangmanli@yahoo.com.cn

Yang, RC; Fujian Agricultural College, Heterosis Utilization Lab., Chinmen, Fuzhou, Fujian 350002, CHINA

Yang, X; Monsanto Seeds, 1203A Airport Road, Ames, IA USA; 515-956-3071; 515-232-0255 (fax); LOUIS.X.YANG@stl.monsanto.com

Yang, Y; South China Agricultural University, Experimental Center, Guangzhou, Guangdong 510642, CHINA

Yang, YZ; Lehman College, CUNY, Biological Sci, Bronx, NY USA

Yano, M; Rice Genome Research Program, Nat. Inst. Agrobiol. Resources, 2-1-2, Kannondai, Tsukuba, Ibaraki 305, JAPAN; 81-298-38-7468,2302 (fax); 81-298-38-7441,2199; myano@abr.affrc.go.jp

Yao, H; University of Missouri-Columbia, 117 Tucker Hall, Columbia, MO USA; 573-882-0123 (phone); yaoho@missouri.edu

Yasui, H; Plant Breeding Lab, Agriculture Faculty, Kyushu Univ, Higoshi-ku, Fukuoka, JAPAN; 81-92-642-2821; 81-92-642-2822/2804 (fax); hyasui@agr.kyushu-u.ac.jp

Yasumura, Y; Univ Oxford, Dept Plant Sci, South Parks Rd, 0X1 3RB Oxford, UNITED KINGDOM; 44 1865 275030; yuki.yasumura@queens.ox.ac.uk

Yatou, O; Lab Rice Genet Resources, Dept Rice Research, Hokuriku Agric Exp Stn, 1-2-1 Inada, Joetsu-shi, Niiga, JAPAN; 81-255-26-3304; 81-255-24-8578 (fax); yatou@inada.affrc.go.jp

Ye, KN; Zhongsan University, Biotechnology Research Centre, Guangzhou 510642, CHINA

Ye, SY; Shanghai Inst. of Biochem., 320 Yue Yang Road, Shanghai 200031, CHINA

Yim, Y-S; Univ Missouri, 1-87 Agric Bldg, Columbia, MO USA; 573-882-1469 (fax); 573-882-9228

Yingling, R; DeKalb Genetics, 62 Maritime Dr, Mystic, CT USA; 860-572-5209; 860-572-5240 (fax)

Yoder, JI; Dept of Vegetable Crops, Univ of California, Davis, Davis, CA USA; 916-752-1741; 916-752-9659 (fax); JIYODER@UCDAVIS.EDU

Yong, G; Liaoning Academy of Agric. Sciences, Rice Research Institute, Sujiatun, Shenyang 110101, CHINA

You, CB; Chinese Academy of Agric. Sciences, IAAE, Dept. of Biotechnology, P.O. Box 5109, Beijing 100094, CHINA

Young, T; Biochemistry Dept, UC Riverside, Riverside, CA USA; 909-787-4437 (fax); 909-787-3580

Yu, DQ; Zhongsan(Sun Yat-Sen)University, Biotechnology Research Center, Guangzhou, Guangdong 510275, CHINA

Yu, HG; Univ Georgia, Botany Dept, 4610 Miller Plant Sci Bldg, Athens, GA USA; 706-542-1010; 706-542-1805 (fax); hgyu@arches.uga.edu

Yu, J; Dept. Biological Science, Lehman College, 250 Bedford Park Blvd. West, Bronx, NY USA; 212-960-4994; 212-960-8236 (fax)

Yu, JH; Univ Idaho, Dept Biol Sci, Moscow, ID USA; 208-885-2550; 208-85-7905 (fax)

Yu, JM; 2004 Throckmorton Hall, Department of Agronomy, Kansas State University, Manhattan, KS USA; 785-532-3397 (phone); 785-532-6094 (fax); jyu@ksu.edu

Yu, L; China National Rice Research Institute, Library, Tiyuchang Road No. 171, Hangzhou, Zhejiang 310006, CHINA

Yu, O; Donald Danforth Plant Sci Center, 975 North Warson Rd, Saint Louis, MO USA; 314-587-1441; oyu@danforthcenter.org

Yuan, Y; Purdue Univ, Biology Hanson Rm 339, West Lafayette, IN USA; 765-496-1496 (fax); 765-494-0373; yyuan@bilbo.bio.purdue.edu

Yue, YG; Eli Lilly & Co., Bioinformatics, MC625, Lilly Corporate Center, Indianapolis, IN USA; 317-276-5766; ygyue@mail.com

Zavalishina, A; Genetics Dept, Saratov State University, 83, Astrakhanskaya St., 410026, Saratov, RUSSIA; 845-2-240446 (fax); ZavalishinaAN@info.sgu.ru

Zehr, B; Maharashtra Hyb Seeds Co, Rehsam Bhavan, 4th Floor, 78, Veer Nariman Road, Mumbai 400020, INDIA

Zeigler, R; Challenge Program, c/o CIMMYT, Apdo Postal 6-641, 06600 Mexico D.F., MEXICO; ++52(55)58042004 (phone); ++52(55)58047558/59 (fax); rzeigler@cgiar.org

Zeng, M; Institute of Genetics, Academia Sinica, 3 Datun Rd., 100101 Beijing, CHINA; 64854896 (fax); 64857495; zengmengqian@yahoo.com.cn

Zhang, C; Purdue Univ, 335 Hanson, Biology, West Lafayette, IN USA; 765-496-1496 (fax); 765-496-2506; czhang@bilbo.bio.purdue.edu

Zhang, D; Jiangsu Academy of Agricultural Sci., Inst. of Genet. and Physiol., Nanjing 210014, CHINA

Zhang, F; Monsanto U4C, 800 North Lindbergh, Saint Louis, MO USA; 314-694-8415; 314-694-8275 (fax)

Zhang, F; Iowa State Univ, 2288 Molec Biol Bldg, Ames, IA USA; 515-294-3277; fzhang@plantbio.uga.edu

Zhang, GG; Genesis, P.O. Box 50, Auckland, NEW ZEALAND

Zhang, GQ; South China Agricultural University, Dept. of Agronomy, Guangzhou 510642, CHINA

- Zhang, H; Celera AgGen, 1756 Picasso Ave, Davis, CA USA; 530-297-3061; 530-297-3027 (fax)
- Zhang, J; 2288 Molecular Biology Building, Iowa State University, Ames, IA USA; (515)294-2922; (515)294-0345 (fax); jzhang@iastate.edu

Zhang, Q; Huazhong Agricultural University, Nat Key Lab Crop Genet Imp, Wuhan 430070, CHINA; 86-27-87393392; 86-27-87393392 (fax); qifazh@public.wh.hb.cn

Zhang, Q; Dekalb Genetics/Monsanto, 62 Maritime Dr, Mystic, CT USA; 860-572-5275; 860-572-5282 (fax)

Zhang, SH; Inst Crop Breeding Cultiv, Chinese Acad Agric Sci, Beijing 100081, CHINA; ++86(10)68918596 (phone); ++86(10)68975212 (fax); cshzhang@public.bta.net.cn

Zhang, XY; Univ Georgia, Dept Botany, Athens, GA USA; 706-542-1857; 706-542-3910 (fax); xiaoyu@dogwood.botany.uga.edu

Zhang, Y; 2182 Molec Biol Bldg, Iowa State Univ, Ames, IA USA; 515-294-0337

Zhao, Q; Zhejiang Agricultural University, Dept. of Tea Science, Hangzhou, Zhejiang 32100, CHINA

Zhao, S; Pioneer Hi-Bred Internatl, 7300 NW 62nd Ave, Box 1004, Johnston, IA USA; 515-254-2608 (fax); 515-253-2146

Zhao, Z; Trait and Technology Development, Pioneer Hi-Bred Int'l, 7300 NW 62nd Ave., P.O. Box 1004, Johnston, IA USA; 515-270-3644; 515-270-3444 (fax); zuoyu.zhao@pioneer.com

Zhen, Z; Academia Sinica, Institute of Genetics, Beijing 100101, CHINA

Zheng, Kangle, China National Rice Research Institute, 171 Ti Yu Chang Road, Hangzhou 310006, CHINA

Zhixian, L; 11 Sangyuan Road, Maize Research Inst, Shandong Academy of Agri. Science, Jinan, 250100, CHINA; (0531)8963721-2313; (0531)8962303 (fax)

Zhong, C; Botany Dept, 2502 Miller Plant Sci Bldg, Univ Georgia, Athens, GA USA; 706-542-1010; 706-542-1805 (fax)

Zhong, Zhen-Ping; Fujian Agricultural College, Dept. of Agronomy, Fuzhou, Fujian 350002, CHINA

Zhou, H; Xiang Fan Chia Ta, Agric Devel Co Ltd, No.1, Airport Rd, Zhangwan Town, Xiangyang, Hubei 441104, CHINA; (86)-710-2819000; (86)-710-2819001 (fax); hszhou@yahoo.com

Zhou, Kaida; Sichuan Agricultural University, Rice Research Institute, Yaan, Sichuan 625014, CHINA

Zhou, Zhaolan; Chinese Academy of Sciences, Institute of Genetics, Group 601, Beijing 100101, CHINA

Zhu, L; Academia Sinica, Institute of Genetics, Datun Road, Andingmen Wai, Beijing 100101, CHINA; 86-10-62033491; 86-10-64913428 (fax); Ihzhu@genetics.ac.cn Zhu, LH; Nanjing Agric University, Dept Agronomy, Nanjing, Jiangsu 210095, CHINA

Zhu, X; Inst Crop Germplasm Resources, Chinese Academy of Agric Sci, 30 Bai Shi Qiao Road, Beijing, 100081, CHINA; 86-10-62186647; 86-10-62174142 (fax)

Zhu, YG; Wuhan University, Genetics Dept, Wuchang, Hubei 430072, CHINA; 27-7822712-4560; 27-7812661 (fax)

Zhu, ZP; Shanghai Inst. of Plant Physiol., 300 Fengling Road, Shanghai 200032, CHINA

Ziegle, J; Applied Business Systems, 850 Lincoln Center Dr, Foster City, CA USA

Zimmer, E; Lab of Molecular Systematics MRC 534, Support Ctr. Nat'l Museum Nat. History, Smithsonian Inst, Washington, DC USA; 301-238-3444x106; 301-238-3059 (fax); zimmer@onyx.si.edu

Zimmerman, SA; USDA/ARS, Maize Genetics COOP Stock Center, S-123 Turner Hall, 1102 S Goodwin Ave, Urbana, IL USA; 217-333-6631; 217-333-6064 (fax); sazimmer@uiuc.edu

Zimmermann, R; ZMBP, Allgemeine Genetik, Universitdt T|bingen, Auf der Morgenstelle 28, D-72076 Tubingen, Germany; 07071 29 74608 (phone); roman.zimmermann@zmbp.uni-tuebingen.de

IV. MAIZE GENETICS COOPERATION STOCK CENTER



Maize Genetics Cooperation • Stock Center

USDA/ARS/MWA - Soybean/Maize Germplasm, Pathology & Genetics Research Unit

&

University of Illinois at Urbana/Champaign - Department of Crop Sciences

S-123 Turner Hall 1102 South Goodwin Avenue Urbana, IL 61801-4730 (217) 333-6631 [phone] (217) 333-6064 [fax] maize@uiuc.edu [e-mail] http://www.uiuc.edu/ph/www/maize [URL]

3865 seed samples have been supplied in response to 292 requests, for 2006. A total of 82 requests were received from 24 foreign countries. More than 90% of our requests were received by electronic mail or through our on-line order form. Popular stock requests include the IBM RIL mapping populations, Hi-II lines, *ig1* lines, Stock 6 haploid-inducing lines, male sterile cytoplasms, transposable element lines, Maize Gene Discovery Project lines, and Chromatin stocks.

Approximately 11.2 acres of nursery were grown this summer at the Crop Sciences Research & Education Center located at the University of Illinois. Favorable weather in the early spring allowed the timely planting of our first crossing nursery. However, cool, rainy weather hindered germination and emergence in our early plantings, resulting in reduced stands and necessitating the replanting of a few lines. Rainfall was adequate, but like last year, redwing blackbirds started feeding on our second crossing nursery. As soon as we noticed this, we irrigated our second field, which seemed to reduce feeding. Subsequent rainfall seemed to solve the problem, and few rows were lost. Growing conditions were generally good, and supplemental irrigation was not necessary. Moderate temperatures and low plant stress resulted in a good pollination season.

Special plantings were made of several categories of stocks:

1. In the 'Phenotype Only' collection, we have made available an additional 48 stocks in 2006. This low number is due to the reduced stand of our second crossing nursery in 2005. We are still working on 119 phenotype-only stocks from the large collection sent to us by Gerry Neuffer in 1996 and 1997.

2. Plantings were also made from donated stocks from the collections of Alice Barkan (photosynthetic mutants), Ed Coe (*pg15*, *o16*, and *v29* alleles), Jerry Kermicle (various *r1* alleles), Robert Lambert (defective kernel mutants), Rob Martienssen (MTM material), Gerry Neuffer (recent EMS-induced mutants), the North Central Regional Plant Introduction Station (brown midrib and anther ear traits that were found in various PI accessions), Ron Phillips (mutants in various inbred backgrounds), Pat Schnable (*rth1*), Margaret Smith (male sterile cytoplasm lines), and others. We expect to receive additional accessions of stocks from maize geneticists within the upcoming year.

3. We conducted allelism tests of several categories of mutants with similar phenotype or chromosome location. We identified additional alleles of *albescent1*, *Factor Cuna* (*Fcu*), *glossy1*, *defective kernel5*, *collapsed2*, *pink scutellum1*, *viviparous5*, *viviparous9*, and *pale yellow9*. We plan to test additional members of the viviparous, spotted leaf, and pale endosperm classes of mutants. In this manner, we hope to move more stocks from our vast collection of unplaced uncharacterized mutants into the main collection.

4. Occasionally, requestors bring to our attention stocks that do not carry the traits they are purported to carry. We devote field space each year to analyzing these stocks, fixing or enhancing those we can, and soliciting replacements from researchers for those we can't. In those rare instances in which a particular variation or combination of variations cannot be recovered, we modify our catalog to reflect this.

5. We further characterized the *Fcu* system of *r1* aleurone color enhancers. We are working on linkage stocks to refine the map position of *Fcu* alleles using visible kernel and seedling markers on Chromosome 2, and we continued a series of crosses to transposon tag *Fcu* using one of Tom Brutnell's transposed *Ac* lines. We are collecting and characterizing additional alleles of *Fcu* and other *r1* aleurone color enhancers and inhibitors.

6. Two acres were devoted to the propagation of the large collection of cytological variants, including A-A translocation stocks and inversions. In this collection is a series of *waxy1*-marked translocations that are used for mapping unplaced mutants. Over the years, pedigree and classification problems arose during the propagation of these stocks. We have completed testing on these stocks and can now supply good sources proven by linkage tests to include the correct translocated chromosomes. Additional translocations we have received from W. R. Findley and Don Robertson marked with *wx1* are being checked by linkage tests as we did for the main series of *waxy1*-marked translocations. Some of these may replace ones from the main collection that were found to be bad.

7. Stocks produced from the NSF project "Regulation of Maize Inflorescence Architecture" (see: https://www.fastlane.nsf.gov/ servlet/showaward?award=0110189) were grown this summer. Families that were observed in 2005 to segregate mutations were selected to be increased in the nursery. These increases help to confirm the presence of the mutation and maintain adequate seed stock to fill future requests. These mutants are being added to our phenotype-only collection.

We continue to grow a winter nursery of 0.5 acres at the Illinois Crop Improvement Association's facilities in Juana Díaz, Puerto Rico. We had an excellent winter crop last year, and all indications are that the crop will perform well this year. We plan to continue growing our winter nurseries at this location.

We have received 579 additional EMS lines from various inbred backgrounds produced by Dr. Gerry Neuffer (Regulation of Inflorescence Architecture in Maize project). There are sufficient seed for all of these for distribution. We have also received an additional four lines from the Functional Genomics of Maize Chromatin project (see: https://www.fastlane.nsf.gov/servlet/showaward?award= 0421619) from Karen McGinnis.

The 579 lines from Gerry Neuffer's EMS material that were screened for ear and kernel mutations in the lab, were planted in observation fields on the University of Illinois Crop Science Research facility for observation of seedling and adult plant mutations during our annual mutant hunt. In addition to these lines, 2300 lines of MTM material from Rob Martienssen (http://mtm.cshl.edu) were also planted this year to be observed for new adult mutant phenotypes. Unfortunately, the MTM material was apparently extremely susceptible to the cool damp conditions that we had during the few weeks after planting, and therefore had extremely poor stands and was subsequently plowed under. We plan to have another mutant hunt next summer.

Our IT specialist, Josh Tolbert, has continued to make updates and improvements to our curation tools, which are used to maintain data for our collection. These tools input our public stock data directly into MaizeGDB, to give maize scientists access to up-to-date information about our collection. They are also used for our internal database (e.g., inventory, pedigrees, requests). Development of new tools is underway to improve the efficiency of the input processes for pedigree information, and creation of forms required for planting and harvest information. Our web site has also been updated (http://www.uiuc.edu/ph/www/maize).

Samples of 1239 stocks were sent to the National Center for Genetic Resources Preservation in Fort Collins, Colorado for back up. These represent new stocks that had not been previously backed up. Our new inventory system has made selecting ears to be sent and producing a packing list to accompany them a much more efficient procedure.

The new greenhouse space in Urbana has been completed and is being used this winter. Our new seed storage space (which will double our capacity) is presently being built.

Marty SachsPhilip StinardJanet Day JacksonShane ZimmermanJosh TolbertDirectorCuratorBiol Res Tech (Plants)Agric Sci Res Tech (Plants)Information Tech Specialist

ADDITIONS TO OUR CATALOG OF STOCKS SINCE MNL80 (For a complete list of our stocks, see: http://maizegdb.org/cgi-bin/stockcatalog.cgi)

CHROMOSOME 1 MARKERS 116B bz2-m::Ds; Ac2 116BA bz2-m::Ds; Ac2-strong 128DB pg15-N495B

CHROMOSOME 2 MARKERS 213K w3-N1907

CHROMOSOME 4 MARKERS 402G tga1

CHROMOSOME 5 MARKERS 504H v36-N1835 520L nec3-85-3457-40

CHROMOSOME 7 MARKERS 704K gl1-N1845

CHROMOSOME 8 MARKERS 804F elm1-ref

CHROMOSOME 10 MARKERS X02M Oy1-N1460 X06G Og*-Catlin-yel X17G R1-r(standard) X27KA v29-N1224C

CHROMDB STOCKS 3201-22.1 T-MCG4291.007 3201-28.2 T-MCG5297.020 3201-42 T-MCG3832.001 3201-43 T-MCG4585.005 3201-43.1 T-MCG4585.009 3201-44 T-MCG6071.022 3201-45 T-MCG6432.027 3201-45.1 T-MCG6432.034 3201-45.2 T-MCG6432.046

UNPLACED GENES U139J d4

TETRAPLOID N108B Autotetraploid; Oh43

CYTOPLASMIC-STERILE / RESTORER CX36E Wf9 (C) Sterile; cms-C rf1 rf2 rf3 rfC

TOOLKIT T3301-56 Ac-im; r1-sc:m3::Ds

INVERSION I543E Inv5e (5S.21; 5L.75)

PHENOTYPE ONLY

adherent leaf 3608L ad*-N247A 3610O ad*-N2507

anther ear 5802CA an*-PI595561

bleached leaf 3612G blh*-N2325 collapsed endosperm 3602G cp*-N1225B

defective kernel 3706E de*-N1234A 3706EA de*-N1222A

discolored kernel 3605Q dsc*-N1362

etched endosperm 3804M et*-N1344 3804Q et*-N1941

germless 3807LA gm*-N2485B

luteus yellow seedling 3810J I*-N1229B 3811A I*-N1879

miniature kernel 338-02 mn*-MTM5910 438-05 mn*-MTM11139

necrotic leaf 6106K nec*-91g-6045-25

opaque endosperm

3904F o*-N1071 3906D o*-N1246A 3906M o*-N1350A 3907A o*-N1354 3907E o*-N1360

pale green seedling 4301H pg*-N760A 4304L pg*-N2404

shrunken kernel 4006P sh*-N1307C 4007K sh*-NA695

small kernel 4004D smk*-N1432

spotted leaf 4107M spt*-N474A 4107O spt*-N537A

stiff leaf 4010L stf*-N227A

virescent seedling 4506P v*-N688A 4510H v*-N1395B 4511M v*-N2286B

white stripe leaf 3512F whv*-N2288

yellow streak leaf 3812P Ysk*-N2324

yellow stripe leaf 6005L yel-str*-W23 zebra leaf 6006D zb*-78-695

zebra necrotic leaf 6006E zn*-Pl228181

V. MAIZE GENETICS AND GENOMICS DATABASE (www.maizegdb.org)

New Personnel in 2007

Lisa Harper USDA-ARS Plant Gene Expression Center, Albany, CA

Feb 2007, Part-time Curator and Outreach Coordinator

In her first year on staff, Lisa plans to visit 3 cooperator sites: University of Florida, University of Georgia, and University of Arizona. One of her first curation tasks is to better integrate data from the RescueMu and Maize Inflorescence Architecture Projects with the rest of MaizeGDB so that these datasets can be searched via the site's integrated mechanisms.

Taner Sen USDA-ARS at Iowa Sate University, Ames, IA

To begin June 2007, Computational Biologist

Early on, Taner will be working to incorporate a genome browser into MaizeGDB to display the B73 sequence and to serve as a basis for representing gene models. Be on the lookout for inquiries from Taner on your preferences for genome browsing capabilities!

Data Improvements

MaizeGDB has added and facilitated the addition of a wide variety of new data, along with incrementally improving the existing data through regular manual and automated updating. Some of our most noteworthy newer initiatives in this area are described below.

Sequence Pipeline

Public sequence data for all of the Zea species are updated from Volker Brendel's PlantGDB on a monthly basis and linked with relevant manually-curated data within MaizeGDB. Individual sequences are also linked to contigs generated by external projects that include PlantGDB and the Dana Farber Cancer Institute. The Maize Genome Sequencing Consortium's B73 sequences are associated to BACs on a monthly basis from the data releases posted at maizesequence.org.

Editorial Board

We have initiated and currently maintain an Editorial Board whose members contribute a paper each month to be highlighted at MaizeGDB. Perhaps most exciting are reports that the Editorial Board has directly led to the founding of journal clubs on various campuses! Students and faculty alike download the recommended papers and meet to discuss them. The 2006 Editorial Board was made up of: Tom Brutnell (chair), Surinder Chopra, Karen McGinnis, Wojtek Pawlowski, and Jianming Yu. The 2007 Board consists of: Marja Timmermans (chair), Guri Johal, Damon Lisch, Gael Pressoir, and Moira Sheehan.

Data Additions – Larger Sets

<u>TILLING</u>: We have worked extensively with Cliff Weil's team at Purdue to include the output of the Maize TILLING project in MaizeGDB. This includes integrated primer, probe, locus, variation, and gene product data, along with an integrated interface for ordering stocks from the TILLING project. The current schedule (see http://www.maizegdb.org/data_schedule.php) is to update TILLING data twice yearly.

<u>New maps:</u> The Maize Mapping Project and a number of community members have volunteered a number of new maps for inclusion in MaizeGDB. These include new QTL maps, continued refinements of the IBM and IBM Neighbors maps, and maps that describe the structure of the AGI physical maps. The current schedule is to update maps once each spring.

Contributing your data to MaizeGDB

You may contribute data in a number of ways to MaizeGDB. The easiest is very like a 'wiki', where you simply add a comment using the annotation tool. You will first need to register, using the menu item 'annotation' on the top menu bar of the homepage. Once registered, every time you access MaizeGDB, you will be able to annotate any page. Annotations will appear in the monthly updates of the database. A second way is to use the community curation tools. Inquire at mgdb@iastate.edu for access.

If you are developing a project that will generate large datasets and that you would like to submit to MaizeGDB, you need to contact Carolyn Lawrence before you submit the proposal.

New Tools

We have continued our commitment to providing a consistent and clean interface, continued maintenance and improvement of that interface, and integration of new interface options where appropriate. Some noteworthy changes include new map displays and a standalone tool to compare cytological and genetic maps.

<u>Map Display Update:</u> One major interface addition is the inclusion of new map displays designed with the aid of commentary from a number of maize community members. We have added three new options that enable interesting new ways of viewing maps without

cluttering the interface: a sequence view, a primer view, and a scores view.

MaizeGDB	jobs upcoming events sitemap	MaizeGDI Maize Genetics and Genom	B P	docs reports brow	jobs upcoming events sitema wse data tools annotation link:
	for Go!		home 🛿 Search a	ll data 🗾 for	Go!
UMC 98 1 (map)	UMC 98 1 Research Tools	UMC 98 1 w/ Acces	sion #'s		
summary view sequence view primer view score view	Here are some internet resources	summary view sequer	ce view primer view score v	view	
Source: UMC	to aid your investigation into UMC	Download this data in a tab-delimited text file!			
Linkage Group: 1	98 1.	Download the genetic see	nuoncos in EASTA formati		
	Other Map Views	Download the genetic set	quences in FASTA formati		
Mapping Panel(s): Tx303/C0159 IF2 1995-8	See UMC 98 1 @ NCBI	Locus	Map Coordinate Accession		
Panel Type: Immortal F2	See UMC 98 1 @ Gramene	csu804b(dnp)	0 W21728	PUT-157a-Zea_mays-06337	
Parent: Tx303 (female parent)	Visual map display (beta)	rgpc654	6.4 N/A	N/A	
Parent: CO159	Search Tools	csu738	11 AA143916	PUT-157a-Zea_mays-013137	
Number of Members of Population: 54	MaizeGDB Advanced Map Search	tub1 (CBM 1.01)	11 AI665233	PUT-157a-Zea_mays-2487255032	
Related Papers:	Search Google for UMC 98 1 Search Usenet for UMC 98 1	tub1 (CBM 1.01)	11 AY110929	PUT-157a-Zea_mays-2487255032	
(general) Davis, G et al. 1999. Genetics 152:1137-1172		tub1 (CBM 1.01)	11 CC749438	N/A	
This map includes the following loci: (see more details)	SSR candidate selection data	tub1 (CBM 1.01)	11 ×52878	N/A	
Download this map in text format!	summary (text data) for this map.	tub1 (CBM 1.01)	11 ×52879	PUT-157a-Zea_mays-2487255032	
	Maps By Chromosome	umc94a	11.9 N/A	N/A	
Compare this map with 611A x T218 F2 1998 1 Compare ->	1 2 3 4 5	bn18.05a	12 N/A	N/A	
Currently, this map is color-coded. CBM means core bin marker.	6 7 8 9 10	csu589	12 CC832284	N/A	
Display this map with color-coded loci		fus6	12 AI947548	PUT-157a-Zea_mays-0106758	
Locus Coordinate Bin		fus6	12 AW000204	PUT-157a-Zea_mays-237420	
csu804b(dnp) 0.00 1.00		fus6	12 AW052995	PUT-157a-Zea_mays-237420	
rgpc654 6.40 1.00		fus6	12 AY110081	PUT-157a-Zea_mays-0106759	
tub1 (CBM 1.01) 11.00 1.01		fus6	12 CC148925	ZmGSStuc11-12-04.58903.1	
csu738 11.00 1.00		fus6	12 W21618	PUT-157a-Zea_mays-237420	
umc94a 11.90 1.01		bnl5.62a	12.3 N/A	N/A	
bnl8.05a 12.00 1.01		knox1	14 N/A	N/A	
fus6 12.00 1.01					

MainsCDD

Figure 1. This is a map view of UMC 98, arrived at by clicking on UMC 98 on the *tub1* locus record. There are two things to note here. First, right below the name of the map there is a line with "summary view" in bold and links to "sequence view", "primer view", and "score view."

	home 🛛 Se	arch all data	▼ fc	or in the second se	Go
UMC 98 1 w	/ Primers				
	sequence view primer view	score view			
Download this	s data in a tab-delimited text file	1			
Primer Type	Primer	Probe	Locus	Map Coordinate	
N/A	N/A	p-csu804	csu804b(dnp)	0	
N/A	N/A	p-rgp c654	rgpc654	6.4	
N/A	N/A	p-csu738	csu738	11	
N/A	N/A	p-tub1	tub1	11	
N/A	ACTTGCTTGCCTGCCGTTAC	p-phi056	tub1	11	
N/A	CGCACACCACTTCCCAGAA	p-phi056	tub1	11	
N/A	TGCTTCACATTCAGTCACCGTCAG	p-phi097	tub1	11	
N/A	CCACGACAGATGATTACCGACC	p-phi097	tub1	11	
Left End	GCATGGATGAGATGGAGTTCACTG	CL2242_8_ov	tub1	11	
Right End	ATGTTGCTCTCAGCCTCAGTGAAC	CL2242_8_ov	tub1	11	
N/A	N/A	CL2242_8	tub1	11	
Left End	CGCCAGGGTTTTCCCAGTCACGAC	p-umc94	umc94a	11.9	
Right End	AGCGGATAACAATTTCACACAGGA	p-umc94	umc94a	11.9	
N/A	N/A	p-bnl8.05	bnl8.05a	12	
N/A	N/A	p-csu589	csu589	12	
Left End	GTCTTGGCTTTTTGCTCCCTATTT	csu589_PCR	csu589	12	
Right End	CTCGATAAAACAGCCAATTTGTCC	csu589_PCR	csu589	12	
N/A	N/A	p-csu896	fus6	12	
Left End	ACGCCCGCAATCTTTACATCTTCC	CL32446_1_ov	fus6	12	
Right End	AAGACAAGCGGACCAAGGAAGATG	CL32446_1_ov	fus6	12	

Figure 3. Clicking on the "primer view" link takes you to a map view that has four columns: primer, probe, locus, and coordinate. This table identifies probes that detect each locus on the map and also notes those that have primers available.

Figure 2. If you click on the "sequence view," you are shown columns for: the locus name, the map coordinate, an accession number, and a PlantGDB contig.

		home [Search all data 🔽 for
UMC 98 1 w/	Econor		
			ew score view
Locus	Coordin	ate Probe	Map Score
csu804b(dnp)	0	p-csu804	ACCCCCCCCCACCCCACCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCC
rgpc654	6.4	p-rgp c654	АНВНВВННВВНННАНННВННВННАННННВ-НВНВААВННВВААВВНАННН-ВВ
tub1	11	p-tub1	АНВНВВННВВНННАНННВАНВННАННВВНАННВАВААВ-НВВААВВНАНННВВВ
csu738	11	p-csu738	АНВНВСННВВНННАНННВАНВННАНН-ВНАННВАВААВН-ВВААВВСАНННВВВ
umc94a	11.9	p-umc94	АНВНВВННВВНННАННВННВННАННВВНАННВАВААВННВВААВВНАНННВВВ
bn18.05a	12	p-bnl8.05	АНВНВВННВВНННАНН-ВННВННАННВВНАННВАВААВННВВААВВНАНННВВВ
fus6	12	p-csu896	АНВАВСННВВНННАННВННВННАННВВНАННВАСААВННВВААВВНАНННВВВ
csu589	12	p-csu589	АНВНВВННВВ-ННАННВННВННАННВВНАННВАНААВННВВААВВН-ННН-ВВ
bnl5.62a	12.3	p-bnl5.62	АНВНВВННВВНННАНННВННВННАВВНАННВАВААВННВВААВВНАНННВВВ
knox1	14	p-knox1	АНВНВВННВВНННАНННВННВННАННВВНАНННА-АА-ННВВААВННАНННВВ-
umc164c	15	p-umc164	АНВНВВННВВНННАННВННВННАНАВВНАНННАВААВННВВААВННАНННВВВ
csu680a	15.9	p-csu680	АНВНВВННВВННАНННВННВННАННВВНАНННА-ААВННВВНАВННАНННВВВ
asg31	17.3	p-asg31	АНВНВВВНВВННАННАННВННАНАВ-НАНННАВААВННВВНАВННАНННВВВ
cdo507a(ant)	18.3	p-cdo507	АНВНВВВНВВННАНННВННВННАННВННАННАНААВННВВНАВННАНННВВВ
std20b(uce)	19.6	p-pAS20	ACCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCC
php20537b	19.9	p-php20537	АНВН-ВВНННАНННВННВННАН-ВННАНННАВАА-НАВВНАВННННННВВВ
asg59a	19.9	p-asg59	АНВНВВВНВВННАНННВННВННАНАВННАНННАВААВНАВВНАВНННННН
uaz260b(rpL5)	20.8	p-5C05D07	АНВНВВВНВВНННАННННННВННАНАВННАНННАВАА-НАВВНА-ННННННВВВ
umn857b	20.8	p-umn857	АНВНВВВНВВННАННННННВННАННВННАННАВААВНАВВНАВНННННВВВ
ropc385a(rpL5)	20.8	p-rap c385	АНВНВВВНВВННАННННННВННАННВННАННАВААВНАВВНАВНННННВВВ
tda47	22.9	p-tda47	АНВНВВВНВВННАННННННВННАНАВННАНННАВААН-НВННАВННННННВВВ

Figure 4. Clicking on "score view" allows you to see the markers used to generate a particular map along with associated map scores, enabling you to review the raw mapping data for the experiment. Note that not all maps in MaizeGDB have associated scores; if you see the "score view" option, you're in luck!

<u>Morgan2McClintock:</u> The Morgan2McClintock Translator was developed through our continued collaboration with Hank Bass and a new collaboration with Lorrie Anderson. The tool utilizes the maize Recombination Nodule map (Anderson et al., 2003 and 2004) to calculate approximate cytological positions for loci given a genetic map, and to calculate approximate genetic positions for loci given a cytological map (Lawrence et al., 2006). Morgan2McClintock is a stand-alone tool and can be run on any machine enabled to serve PHP. You can use it online at MaizeGDB: from the home page, choose "maps", then choose Recombination Nodule Map to arrive at http://www.maizegdb.org/RNmaps.php). Alternatively, go to:

http://www.lawrencelab.org/Morgan2McClintock.

Maize Community Support

The MaizeGDB team offers support to the maize community in a variety of fashions. This support aids the annual Maize Genetics Conference, provides community addresses for mailings, an abstract submission interface, assembly and printing of the program, and integrates the abstracts into MaizeGDB. It supplies address lists for this Newsletter, and hosts the Newsletter, with links to the database. We facilitate community interaction with the Maize Genetics Executive Committee, including community surveys, elections and community-wide messaging on important issues. We also maintain a community job board (which has had dozens of job postings and has significantly aided at least ten job placements since its initiation), as well as a community calendar of upcoming events that may be of interest to the larger community.

Copies and Schema of MaizeGDB

Full copies of the database as well as individual tables and custom-formatted dumps are provided to individuals who make requests to the MaizeGDB team at mgdb@iastate.edu. Copies support Oracle, MySQL, and Microsoft Access. The current MaizeGDB schema can be accessed at http://www.maizegdb.org/MaizeGDBSchema.pdf.

Five-Year Plan

We are in the process of drafting our five-year plan for the USDA-ARS. Objectives were developed with input from the MaizeGDB Working Group and are available online at http://www.maizegdb.org/objectives.php.

Acknowledgements

MaizeGDB is guided by members of the community of maize geneticists through feedback sent to us through the website, and by guidance from the MaizeGDB Working Group. Current membership includes Volker Brendel, Ed Buckler, Karen Cone, Mike Freeling, Owen Hoekenga, Lukas Mueller, Marty Sachs, Pat Schnable, Tom Slezak (chair), Anne Sylvester, and Doreen Ware.

Citing MaizeGDB

MaizeGDB may be cited using any or all of these references:

Lawrence CJ, Schaeffer ML, Seigfried TE, Campbell DA, Harper LC, 2007. MaizeGDB's new data types, resources and activities. Nucleic Acids Res. 35:D895-900.

Lawrence CJ, Seigfried TE, Brendel V, 2005. The maize genetics and genomics database. The community resource for access to diverse maize data. Plant Physiol. 138:55-58.

Lawrence CJ, Dong Q, Polacco ML, Seigfried TE, Brendel V, 2004. MaizeGDB, the community database for maize genetics and genomics. Nucleic Acids Res. 32: D393-397.

Submitted by the MaizeGDB team May 8, 2007 Mary Schaeffer Lisa Harper Trent Seigfried Darwin Campbell Carolyn Lawrence

VI. MAIZE GENOME SEQUENCING PROJECT

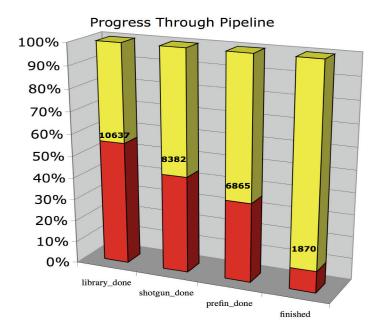
As we enter the second half of the 3-year Maize Genome Sequencing Project, we have begun to significantly accelerate production of draft sequence and are poised to do an effective ramp on improved sequence and submissions. The maize BAC DNA enters our pipeline from shipments of purified and fractioned BACs chosen from the tilepath at Arizona Genomics Institute (AGI). As of April 27, 2007, Washington University Genome Sequencing Center (WUGSC) has received slightly over 12,000 of the predicted 17,000 BAC clones to cover the genome. From each BAC, a plasmid library is created and plated and colonies are picked. We have over 10,630 BACs that have completed this step. Each BAC is given light sequence shotgun of 4-6X coverage, and the sequence is assembled along with fosmids end sequences produced at WUGSC and the original BAC end sequence (BES) performed at AGI. An automated system has been developed to confirm coverage, assembly, and incorporation of BES before completing the production phase. At this stage, the consensus sequence of the assembly is deposited in Genbank as phase I (draft), and 8,382 BACs at this stage now are available. The draft assembly then is screened with a program that will identify repetitive sequence, in order to exclude this sequence from improvement efforts. An automated improvement, or prefinishing, is performed on each BAC, using directed primer walks on subclones that span the gaps for two rounds, if necessary. After completion of the automated prefinishing, a program to utilize genome survey sequence in the form of methyl filtered and high coefficient of time (high Cot) subtractive libraries, along with sequences from mRNA and cDNA libraries, is run to incorporate existing sequence information. A limited manual improvement effort is then made, using directed primer walking on plasmids along with PCR by finishers located at WUGSC, AGI, and Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory (CSHL). The development and refinement of software for tagging repeats, incorporating existing data, and navigating gene regions of the sequence has taken some extra time, but it is now working smoothly, and we expect to see a rapid increase of clones passing through this stage of the pipeline. We currently have completed 1,870 improved BAC clones. After improvement is finished, an automated pipeline submits the sequence to Genbank as phase I, HTGS IMPROVED. There are currently 1,251 entries in Genbank with this designation.

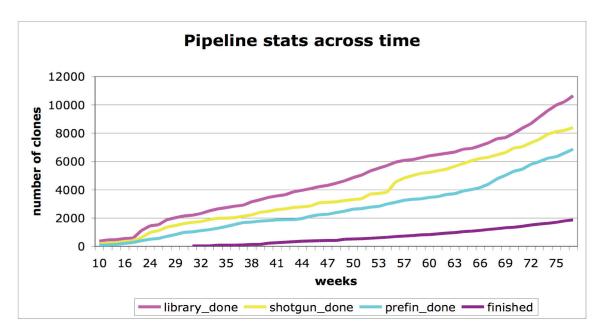
The sequence read data is immediately available in the NCBI Trace Archive and can be downloaded from there (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov.library.vu.edu.au/Traces/trace.cgi#). In addition to the Phase-1 improved category mentioned above, (HTGS_IMPROVED), others available for download from GenBank immediately upon completion are: 1) HTGS_FULLTOP-2 x 384 pairedend attempts (4-5X coverage); completed shotgun phase; initial assembly; 2) HTGS_PREFIN-completed automated improvement phase (AutoFinish); 3) HTGS_ACTIVEFIN-active work being done by a finisher.

In March 2007, the maize annotation pipeline became a fully automated system, analyzing incoming maize clones on a weekly basis. All maize BACs tagged as Phase I HTGS_IMPROVED (1,251 as of April 25, 2007) have been analyzed to date. The maize browser, available at http://www.maizesequence.org provides public access to maize BACs and their underlying annotations. The website is tightly integrated with Gramene (http://www.gramene.org) and provides cross-linkage for comparative analysis with other cereal genomes. Maize BACs are anchored on the agarose FPC map. Each BAC provides an independent sequence map displaying known order-and-orientation and underlying annotations. Presently, BAC annotations include: ab initio gene prediction using Fgenesh, transposon classification of gene models, MIPS repeat annotation, annotation of mathematically defined repeats, and alignment to a variety of cereal data sets, including maize physical markers. All annotations can be viewed graphically and downloaded through the browser. The browser now also provides BLAST functionality over all maize sequences. These include the sequenced maize BACs, as well as peptide translations of predicted genes. The browser also provides access via DAS to remote annotations produced independently by maize collaborators. One such data set includes TWINSCAN predictions curated through a collaboration between Brad Barbazuk and Michael Brent (NSF #0501758).

As the maize sequencing project enters its second half, annotation and visualization efforts are primed for significant milestones. All maize clones, regardless of status, will be automatically annotated on a regular basis to provide users with preliminary annotations. Mature (improved) BACs will be analyzed using an effective evidence-based gene build strategy in collaboration with Gramene that will provide higher-quality gene models. Improved sequences will also undergo peptide-based analysis, such as InterPro/GO, to provide greater context for gene models. As longer tiles of maize sequences become available, the maize BAC sequence maps will be integrated with the FPC map. This will provide a unified view of the physical and sequence map. Other data sets, such as the maize optical map and fullength cDNAs, will also be integrated into the browser as they become available. In the beginning of 2008, it is also expected that whole genome alignment to related organisms, such as rice and sorghum, will be made available. Finally, preparations are being made for whole genome assembly of the maize genome near the end of the project. The assembly will validate the order-and-orientation of the maize *genespace* and will isolate problem regions.

For further general information, please visit the GSC web site, http://genome.wustl.edu/genome.cgi?GENOME=Zea%20mays%20 mays%20cv.%20B73. Weekly updates, usually posted on Friday afternoon, in the form of bar and line graphs are available there, (http://genome.wustl.edu/genome.cgi?GENOME=Zea%20mays%20cv.%20B73&SECTION=research). For access to the Cold Spring Harbor Browser, please visit www.MaizeSequence.org.





Top-line, library_done; next to top line, shotgun_done; next to bottom line, prefin_done; bottom line, finished.

Submitted by Sandy Clifton Washington University, St Louis, MO Apr 27, 2007

VII. MOLECULAR AND FUNCTIONAL DIVERSITY OF MAIZE (www.panzea.org)

Panzea's Nested Association Mapping Population: A Powerful Phenomics Resource for the Maize Community

--Jeffrey C. Glaubitz¹, Michael D. McMullen^{2,3}, James B. Holland^{2,4}, Edward S. Buckler^{2,5}

¹Dept. of Genetics, University of Wisconsin, Madison, WI 53706; ²USDA-ARS; ³Division of Plant Sciences, University of Missouri-Columbia, Columbia, MO, USA 65211; ⁴Crop Science Department, North Carolina State University, Raleigh, NC, USA 27695; ⁵Institute for Genomic Diversity, Cornell University, Ithaca, NY, USA 14853

"If you build it they will come." Well, the Panzea project has built it:

The ultimate germplasm resource to date for localizing QTLs in maize!

The Panzea project (a.k.a. 'Molecular and Functional Diversity of the Maize Genome'; NSF DBI 0321467) is a five-year NSF project headed by John Doebley and involves eight additional investigators at seven institutions (University of Wisconsin, Cornell University, North Carolina State University, University of Missouri, University of California-Irvine, Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory and USDA-ARS). Our overall objectives are to address the two major questions '*How has selection shaped molecular diversity*?' and '*How does this molecular diversity relate to functional trait variation*?' To address these questions, we have performed large-scale SNP discovery in maize and its wild progenitor, teosinte, in more than 3000 randomly chosen genes and in more than 1000 candidate genes for traits of agronomic, developmental, evolutionary and ecological importance. Based on this sequence data, we found that about 2-4% of genes in the maize genome were detectably influenced by artificial selection during the domestication and subsequent improvement of maize (Wright et al., Science 308:1310-14, 2005; Yamasaki et al., Plant Cell 17:2859-72, 2005). You can read more about the results to date from this project (and from its five-year forerunner) via our project publications web page: http://www.panzea.org/lit/publication.html.

Now that we have completed our objectives relating to our first major question, we are devoting our focus to the characterization of functional diversity in both teosinte and maize. To this end, we are engaged in QTL and association mapping experiments both in modern maize and in crosses between teosinte and maize. We are currently working with two teosinte association mapping populations, three teosinte-maize backcross QTL mapping populations, a maize association mapping population and a maize 'Nested Association Mapping' (NAM) population.

The maize NAM population is the centerpiece of our project. Of the numerous resources that we are generating, we expect the NAM population to be the most significant to the maize research community. Nested Association Mapping is a powerful new method for localizing QTL which uses a multifamily RIL mapping population derived from crosses to a common parent (i.e., B73) in order to perform a joint QTL and association analysis. By employing a genomic scan of common parent-specific SNPs in the progeny RILs combined with high density genotyping (or sequencing) of the parental lines, the NAM strategy captures the best of both worlds: the statistical power of QTL analysis is combined with the high chromosomal resolution of association analysis.

We are pioneering the NAM approach in maize. Our NAM population consists of >5000 RILs from 25 families, with 200 RILs per family, all being genotyped at 1500 SNP loci. It forms a permanent QTL mapping resource for the benefit of the maize community. The families were generated by crossing 25 diverse maize inbred lines with B73 as a common parent. Additionally, the well-known IBM mapping population is included as the 26th family. Finally, a collection of 280 diverse maize inbreds from around the world that serves as an association mapping platform for maize has also been included in these experiments.

This summer we will be planting out all of these RILs in three locations (Raleigh, NC; Ithaca, NY; Champaign-Urbana, IL). The parental lines are being sequenced over the next year and a half--these data will make it possible to analyze all populations as one unified experiment, potentially with gene-level QTL resolution. A list of the traits that we are scoring in the NAM population will soon be available from www.panzea.org. We are scoring a number of the most obvious agronomic and developmental traits in these populations, but are unable to score some of the more complex traits. We have created this NAM resource with the hope that maize researchers working on complex, specialty traits will use it to uncover the genetic basis of these traits in a broad sample of maize inbreds.

We invite interested maize researchers to score their own phenotypes of interest in one or more of our NAM 'Fields of Dreams'.

Our only stipulation is that your data set must be deposited in our project database, Aztec, where it will be held privately for two years (members of the Panzea group will not be allowed to analyze it either, without prior permission from you), and then released to the public via www.panzea.org.

We also have extensive experience in creating barcoding tools for phenotyping, and can provide help with this. For further details or to arrange your phenotyping visit(s), please contact:

Ed Buckler, USDA-ARS/Cornell University (esb33@cornell.edu), Jim Holland, USDA-ARS/North Carolina State University (James_Holland@ncsu.edu), or Torbert Rocheford, Univ. of Illinois (trochefo@uiuc.edu).

If you are unable to make it to one of our fields this summer, do not fret! Plans are afoot to have public grow-outs of the NAM population for as many as four subsequent years, as part of the maize phenomics initiative touted by the MGEC. However, at this point funding support is guaranteed only for this summer's grow-out. For educators at institutions focusing primarily on undergraduate teaching, the NAM resource provides an ideal opportunity for research involving undergraduate or Masters students, potentially funded via the NSF's 'Research Opportunity Awards'. Resources from these awards could potentially be pooled with those from other sources to fund one or more future 'public' grow-outs of the NAM population. In addition, for researchers interested in growing out all or part of the NAM population themselves, seed from the entire, fully-genotyped NAM population will be available from the Maize Stock Center in 2008. So if you miss out on this summer, it should not be too late to realize your maize phenomic dream!

VIII. RECENT MAIZE PUBLICATIONS

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sh1 15 32

22kD zein 7 5S rDNA 5 a1 16 a2 15 ahd1 6 arv-m594 32 arv-m694 32 Arv-V459A 33 Arv-V459B 33 Arv-V628#16038 32 ba1-ref 24 Bg1 22 bk1 15 bk2 15 blo 15 bm1 16 bm3 15 16 bst 15 bt1-A 15 bt2
C1 12 15
c2 15 centromere 4 5
C-I 17 cp2 32
cp2-N1105B 32 cp2-N1324A 32
csu235 6 dcb 15
dek5 32 dek5-N874A 32
dek5-N961 32
dgr1 22 drz1 5
Fcu 32 Fcu-R2003-2653-2 33
Fcu-R2003-2653-6 32 33 g1 32
g1-N1856A 32
gl*-N1843C 32 gl*-N1845 32
gl1 32 gl1-N1843C 32
gl1-N1845 32
Grande1 18 gt1 15
Hel1 25 Hel1-3(bz:McC) 25
Hel1-3a(bz:McC) 25
Hel1-3b(umc1260:B73) 25 Hel2 25
Hel3 25 Hel4 25
HeIA 25
HelB 25 hsp60 17
j2 15
kn1 6 lc1 15

lc2 15 lfl 15 lg2 15 ms6 15 ms8 15 Mu killer 7 Mut1 2 Mut4 2 Mut7 2 Mut10 2 MYB 12 na1 16 NFI 22 nl3 15 O11 19 o12 19 o2 4 19 20 21 o5 15 19 o7 4 O9 19 Opw1 2 Opw2 2 Opw18 2 Opw18 2 Opw19 2
Opw19 2 Opx1 2 Opx2 2
Opx5 2 Opx6 2 Opy15 2 os 15 p1 5
p1 5 pale y*-85-3005-22 32 pale y*-85-3069-6 32 pale y*-89-90-1525-23 32 pale y-vp*-85-3140-15 32 pale y-vp*-87-2286-1 32 pale y-vp*-87-2286-18 32 pale y-vp*-87-2286-2 32 pale y-vp*-87-2286-2 32 pale y-vp*-87-2286-3 32 pale y-vp*-88-3177-14 32 pg2 15 pr1 8
ps1-8105 32 ps1-8107 32 ps1-8115 32 ps1-8208 32 p1-wr 6
r1 22 32 33 r1-g 32 R1-nj 10 11 16 R1-r(Venezuela459#16039) 33
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