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Congruence of random amplification of polymorphic deoxyribonucleic acid (RAPD) and simple sequence repeats (SSR) markers in genetic characterization of willow (Salix spp.)

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Willow (Salix spp.) includes closely related dioecious polyploid species, which are obligate outcrossers. Natural populations of willows and their hybrids are represented by a mixture of highly heterozygous genotypes sharing a common gene pool. Random amplified polymorphism DNAs (RAPD) and microsatellites (simple sequence repeats, SSRs) are useful methods for studying genetic diversity of willow (Salix spp.). RAPD delivers a large number of data points from a single experiment and is a useful method for distinguishing between closely related individuals. SSR markers are very robust tools, and we have identified several markers that show high levels of polymorphism in willow. Genetic characterization of 94 genotypes (four female, ten male, and 80 half sibs) of Salix collected from Naganji Nursery of University of Horticulture and Forestry, Solan, Himachal Pradesh, India were analyzed using 10 SSRs and 15 RAPDs PCR-based molecular markers. RAPD analysis yielded 87 polymorphic fragments (98.9%), with an average of 5.8 polymorphic fragments per primer. Similarly, SSR analysis produced 33 bands, out of which 26 were polymorphic (78.8%) with an average of 2.6 polymorphic fragments per primer. The genetic diversity was high among the genotypes (Nei's genetic diversity = 0.354 and Shannon's information index = 0.536) as measured by combination of both RAPD and SSR markers. The mean coefficient of gene differentiation (Gst) was 0.037, indicating 96.6% of the genetic diversity resided within the genotypes. It was found that the genetic diversity among genotypes was broader, suggesting the importance and feasibility of introducing elite genotypes from different hybrids for willows germplasm conservation and breeding programs.

Key words: Salix sp., female, male, half sibs, molecular markers, genetic diversity, Random amplified polymorphism DNAs (RAPD), simple sequence repeats (SSRs).

INTRODUCTION

There are more than 300 Salix species, and they are widespread in both the Northern and the Southern hemispheres, excluding Australasia and New Guinea.

Willows are dioecious but may reproduce as well sexually as by vegetative propagation. The willows are typical tree-forming pioneer species in alluvial plains and riparian

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zones. The delimitation between these polyploid taxa relies on relatively few diagnostic features in the morphology. Consequently, large overlaps exist which make it difficult to identify samples from the field unambiguously (Berlin et al., 2011). In many cases the two species coexist in mixed stands.

Artificial hybridization is possible, but the taxonomic identity as well as the identification of their metapopulations remains difficult. Different elements such as the lack of qualitative diagnostic characters, the frequent occurrence of intermediate morphological forms and the successful interspecific controlled crosses support the hypothesis that S. alba and S. fragilis may hybridize frequently in nature (Triest et al., 2000). S. viminalis L. and S. schwerinii E. Wolf are dioecious willows that are phenotypically very similar. Both are multi-stemmed shrubs with long and slender leaves and are commonly found along streams and rivers and in other wet areas. As other Salix species, the sex-ratio is often female biased (Ueno et al., 2007). In S. sachalinensis, for example, clonal propagation was less important than expected (Ueno et al., 2007). S. viminalis has a vast natural distribution ranging from Ireland and United Kingdom in the west to Siberia in the east. The exact boundaries of the natural range in Western Europe are uncertain due to extensive cultivation in the past.

A number of problems have been highlighted, including a largely undefined genetic pool of clonal lines which can be used as progenitors in a breeding programme and limited information on the genetic basis of many agronomically important traits. Within the last 20 years, molecular biology has revolutionized conventional breeding techniques in all areas. Biochemical and Molecular techniques have shortened the duration of breeding programs from years to months, weeks, or eliminated the need for them all together.

The use of molecular markers in conventional breeding techniques has also improved the accuracy of crosses and allowed breeders to produce strains with combined traits that were impossible before the advent of DNA technology. Many of the willow cultivars exploited for biomass production are closely related genetically and can be difficult to distinguish using traditional morphological criteria (Ngantcha, 2010). The objective of this study was to compare the effectiveness of both the PCR-based molecular approaches to determine the genetic relationships among several genotypes of willows parents and their hybrids.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Plant material

Ninety four (94) genotypes (80 half sib, four females and 10 males) of

Salix sp. were collected from Naganji nursery farm of the Dr. Y.S.Parmar University of Horticulture and Forestry, Nauni, Solan (H.P.) India, (Table 1a). Although these plants showed distinctive taxonomic traits of the different willow species, they were chosen for their great variability in terms of morphological traits such as young and mature leaves, bark colour etc.

DNA extraction

The young leaf samples were collected during the period of March to October in sampling bags under aseptic conditions. The leaves were stored at -20°C for DNA extraction. Total genomic DNA was extracted from the frozen leaves (2 g) by the CTAB method (Saghai-Maroof et al., 1984) with minor modifications, which included the use of 200 mg of polyvinyl pyrollidone per sample. The extracted DNA was then treated with 20 µL of 10 mg/ml of RNase and incubated at 37°C for 60 min. After incubation with RNase, equal volume of phenol: chloroform: isoamyl alcohol (25:24:1) was added and mixed gently by inverting the microcentrifuge tube followed by centrifugation at 10,000 rpm for 5 min at room temperature. The supernatant was pipetted out into a fresh tube. The sample was then extracted twice with equal volume of chloroform:isoamyl alcohol (24:1). The DNA was precipitated by adding 0.6 volumes of isopropanol and 2.0 M NaCl. To the above, 20 µL of sodium acetate and 1 volume of 80% ethanol were added. incubated for 30 min and centrifuged at 5,000 rpm for 3 min to pelleted the DNA. The pellet was then washed with 70% ethanol twice, air-dried and finally suspended in 40 to 50 µL of TE buffer. The yield of the extracted DNA and purity was checked by running the sample on 0.8% agarose gel along with standard (non restriction enzyme digested) lamda DNA marker (Biogene, USA). The extracted genomic DNA was tested for purity index (A₂₆₀/A₂₈₀ absorbance ratio) on Nano drop spectrophotometer. A value of 1.8 of extracted DNA samples indicate high purity, whereas the value < 1.8 or > 1.8 denotes the contamination of proteins and RNA respectively (Sambrook et al., 1989).

RAPD markers

PCR amplification was carried out in a 25 µL total reaction volume containing 30 ng genomic DNA, 1.5 mM MgCl₂, 1 µM of primers and 1 unit of Taq DNA polymerase (Pharmacia) (Barcaccia et al., 1997). Amplification was performed in a 9700 Thermal Cycler (PerkinElmer) under the following temperature profile: initial denaturation for 5 min at 95°C was followed by 3 cycles of 2 min at 95°C, annealing temperature of 35°C for 1 min, 72°C for 2 min for extension, 37 cycles at 94°C for 15 s, 36°C for 30 s, 72°C for 1 min and 72°C for 10 min. The rates of temperature change adopted for heating and cooling were + 1°C/2.9 and -1°C/2.4 s, respectively. Amplification products were electrophoresed on 1.5% agarose gels run at constant voltage and 1X TBE buffer for approximately 2 h, visualized by staining with ethidium bromide (Sambrook et al., 1989) and photographed under UV light (using DC120 camera, Kodak).

SSR markers

A set of 10 pairs of SSR primers (Table 2) (synthesized by Life Technologies, Inc.) were used in this study. PCR reactions were performed with a protocol reported earlier (Barcaccia et al., 2003)

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Table 1a. List of the 94 *Salix* genotypes.

Female	Half sibs	Half sibs	Half sibs	Half sibs	Male
Salix tetrasperma	Half sib 1	Half sib 21	Half sib41	Half sib61	Salix alba
Salix matsudana x Salix alba (J7990)	Half sib 2	Half sib22	Half sib42	Half sib62	Salix babylonica
Salix matsudana (PN227)	Half sib 3	Half sib23	Half sib43	Half sib63	Salix tetrasperma
Salix matsudana (SE-69-002)	Half sib 4	Half sib24	Half sib44	Half sib64	Salix matsudana (PN722)
-	Half sib 5	Half sib25	Half sib45	Half sib65	Salix rubence
-	Half sib 6	Half sib26	Half sib46	Half sib66	Salix udensis (SX59)
-	Half sib 7	Half sib27	Half sib47	Half sib67	Salix alba X Salix babylonica (131/25)
-	Half sib 8	Half sib28	Half sib48	Half sib68	Salix matsudana X Salix alba (NZ1140)
-	Half sib 9	Half sib29	Half sib49	Half sib69	Salix matsudana X Salix alba (NZ1179)
-	Half sib 10	Half sib30	Half sib50	Half sib70	S.matsudana X S.alba (NZ1002)
-	Half sib11	Half sib31	Half sib51	Half sib71	-
-	Half sib12	Half sib32	Half sib52	Half sib72	-
-	Half sib13	Half sib33	Half sib53	Half sib73	-
-	Half sib14	Half sib34	Half sib54	Half sib74	-
-	Half sib15	Half sib35	Half sib55	Half sib75	-
-	Half sib16	Half sib36	Half sib56	Half sib76	-
-	Half sib17	Half sib37	Half sib57	Half sib77	-
-	Half sib 18	Half sib38	Half sib58	Half sib78	-
-	Half sib 19	Half sib39	Half sib59	Half sib79	-
-	Half sib20	Half sib40	Half sib60	Half sib80	-

with minor changes. The volume of PCR solution was 25 μ L, containing 10 mM Tris-HCl, 50 mM KCl, 1.5 mM MgCl₂, 300 μ M each of dCTP, dGTP, dATP and dTTP, 800 μ M of primer, 1.5 U of Taq DNA polymerase (Pharmacia Biotech) and 30 ng of genomic DNA. Amplification reactions were performed in a 9700 Thermal Cycler (PerkinElmer) using a touchdown cycling profile.

The optimized PCR amplifying conditions used were: initial denaturation at 95°C for 3 min, followed by 2 cycles of 1 min at 95°C, an annealing temperature of 1 min at 63°C and 2 min at 72°C followed by a reduction in annealing temperature by 1°C every two cycles until a final annealing temperature of 56°C was reached. The last cycle was repeated 26 times and was ended by a final step at 72°C for 10 min.

The amplified fragments were separated on 2% agarose gels with 1X TBE buffer (Sambrook et al., 1989) at 150 V for 3 h. Photographs (DC120 camera, Kodak) of the polymerized genomic fragments were taken after staining of the agarose gels with ethidium bromide.

Data collection and analysis

The genetic relationship among the entire genomic DNA under study was assessed by comparing the RAPD and SSR fragments separated according to their size. The banding pattern of each of the primer was scored as present (1) or absent (0), each of which was treated as an independent character. Only the reproducible bands were observed for scoring and the light bands were omitted as they were not reproducible. The Jaccard's dissimilarity coefficient (J) was calculated, subjected to cluster analysis by bootstrapping and neighbor-joining method using the program DARWIN (version 5.0.158). Statistically unbiased clustering of collected genotypes was performed using STRUCTURE (version 2.3.1).

POPGENE software was used to calculate Nei's unbiased

genetic distance among different genotypes with all markers. Data for observed number of alleles (Na), effective number of alleles (Ne), Nei's gene diversity (H), Shannon's information index (I), number of polymorphic loci (NPL) and percentage of polymorphic loci (PPL) across all the 94 genotypes were analyzed Nei et al. (1979). Within group diversity (Hs) and total genetic diversity (Ht) were calculated within the species and within three major groups (based on the male, female and half sib genotypes) by using POPGENE software Nei (1978). The RAPD and SSR data were subjected to a hierarchical analysis of molecular variance (AMOVA) (Excoffier et al., 1992), using three hierarchical levels; individual, population and grouping based on their male, female and half sib genotypes. The non-parametric analysis of molecular variance (AMOVA) was done via GenAlex (Excoffier et al., 1992), where the variation component was partitioned among individuals within populations, among populations within groups and among groups. The resolving power of the RAPD and SSR primers was calculated according to (Prevost and Wilkinson, 1999). The resolving power (Rp) of a primer is: $Rp = \Sigma IB$ where IB (band informativeness) takes the value of: 1-[2* (0.5-P)], P being the proportion of the 94 genotypes containing the band.

In order to determine the utility of each of the marker systems, diversity index (DI), effective multiple ratio (EMR) and marker index (MI) were calculated according to Powell et al. (1996). DI for the genetic markers was calculated from the sum of squares of allele frequencies: $DI_n=1-\sum pi^2$ (where pi is the allele frequency of the ith allele). The arithmetic mean heterozygosity, DI_{av} , was calculated for each marker class: $DI_{av}=\sum Di_{n/n}$, (where n represents the number of the markers (loci) analyzed). The DI for the polymorphic marker is: $(DI_{av})p=\sum Di_n/n_p$ (where, n_p is the number of polymorphic loci and n is the total number of loci). EMR (E) is the product of the fraction of polymorphic loci and the number of polymorphic loci for an individual assay EMR (E) = $n_p(n_p/n)$. MI is defined as the product of the average diversity index for polymorphic bands in any assay and the EMR for that assay, MI=DI_{avp} x E.

Table 1b. List of primers used for RAPD amplification, GC content, total number of loci, the level of polymorphism, resolving power and PIC value.

Primer	Primer sequence	% GC content	Annealing Temperature	Total number of loci	NPL	PPL	Number of fragments amplified	Rp	PIC
OPA-15	GGGCCACTCA	70	42	6	6	100	123	7.235	0.785
OPJ-2	GGAGAGACTC	60	41.7	6	5	83.3	144	8.471	0.795
OPJ-4	CACAGAGGGA	60	41.7	7	7	100	94	5.529	0.791
OPG-8	GGGTTTGGCA	60	38	5	5	100	116	6.824	0.783
OPJ-10	CAAGGGCAGA	60	45.5	4	4	100	93	5.471	0.713
OPJ-19	GGCAGGCTGT	70	42	6	6	100	127	7.471	0.793
OPJ-8	AACGGCGACA	60	41	6	6	100	122	7.176	0.782
OPJ-7	TTCCCCGCGA	70	41	6	6	100	118	6.941	0.779
OPG-6	AGGACTGCCA	60	45.5	6	6	100	119	7.00	0.781
OPG-11	GGTGAACGCT	60	43.8	6	6	100	123	7.235	0.785
OPH-10	CCAACGTCGT	60	42	6	6	100	123	7.235	0.785
OPH-15	GGTCGGAGAA	60	36	6	6	100	122	7.176	0.782
OPH-18	TCGGACGTGA	60	36	6	6	100	123	7.235	0.784
OPH-1	AGACGTCCAC	60	36	6	6	100	123	7.235	0.785
OPH-2	ACGCATCGCA	60	36	6	6	100	125	7.353	0.783

NPL, Number of polymorphic loci; PPL, Percentage of polymorphic loci; Rp, resolving power; PIC, polymorphism information content.

Polymorphism information content (PIC)

The frequency of the polymorphism obtained in the genotypes was calculated on the basis of presence (1) and absence (0) of the bands amplified. The PIC was calculated according to Anderson et al. (1993) based on the allele pattern of all the willow genotypes by employing the following formula:

$$PIC_{i}=1-\sum_{j=1}^{n}Pij^{2}$$

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Molecular analysis using RAPD markers

The RAPD technique had been successfully used in a variety of taxonomic and genetic diversity studies and it was found suitable for use with Salix sp. genotypes because of its ability to generate reproducible polymerphic markers. A total of 94 plant samples were fingerprinted using 15 RAPD makers. These primers produced multiple band profiles with a number of amplified DNA fragments varying from 4 to 7. All the amplified fragments varied in size from 100 to 2000 bp. Out of 88 amplified bands, 87 were found polymorphic (98.8%) (Table 1b). The observed high proportion of polymorphic loci suggests that there is a high degree of genetic variation in the Salix sp. The resolving power of the 15 RAPD primers ranged from 5.471 for primer OPJ-10 to a maximum of 8.471 for primer OPJ-2. Polymorphism information content (PIC) refers to the value of a marker for detecting polymorphism within a population or

set of genotypes by taking into account not only the number of alleles that are expressed but also the relative frequencies of alleles per locus. As evident, RAPD marker 'OPJ-2' showed the highest level of polymorphism with PIC value of 0.795, whereas the PIC values for the rest of the RAPD markers were in the range of 0.713 to 0.791. A dendrogram analysis based on bootstrapping and neighbor joining (NJ) method grouped all the 94 genotypes into three main clusters which are further extensively divided into mini clusters (Figure 1a). Similarly, an unbiased clustering of genotypes based on STRUCTURE program without prior knowledge about the populations clustered all the 94 genotypes into three major clusters.

Under the admixed model, STRUCTURE calculated that the estimate of likelihood of the data that is, ΔK reached its maximum value when K = 3 (Figure 1b [A]), suggesting that all the populations fell into one of the 3 clusters albeit small interference (Figure 1b [B]). This result is almost similar to the splitting in the NJ tree. Overall the cluster analysis strongly suggested that the 94 sampled genotypes can be divided into 3 clusters, however, there is no distinct clustering of genotypes based on their 4 female, 10 male, and 80 half sibs.

The genetic diversity of 94 genotypes was calculated in terms of Na, Ne, H, I, Ht, and PPL with respect to three different groups such as 4 female, 10 male and 80 half sibs revealed higher values, indicating more variability among the genotypes (Table 3). Polymorphic loci of 100% were calculated using POPGENE among four females, 10 males, and 80 half sib's genotypes. Three

Table 2. List of primers used for SSR amplification, GC content, total number of loci, the level of polymorphism, resolving power and PIC value.

Primer	Primer sequence	% GC content	Annealing Temp.	Total number of loci	NPL	PPL	Number of fragments amplified	Rp	PIC
SB-243	FP-ACT TCA ATC TCT CTG TAT TCT	47	53	2	1	50	36	2.118	0.105
SB-243	RP-CTA TTT ATG GGT TGG TCG ATC			3	2	66.7	83	4.882	0.656
00.00	FP-CCA CTT GAG GAG TGT AAG GAT	53	54.5	3	2	66.7	81	4.765	0.646
SB-38	RP-CTT AAA TGT AAA ACT GAA TCT			2	2	100	61	3.588	0.450
00.400	FP-CTA TTT GGT CTC AAT CAC CTT	53	58	3	2	66.7	84	4.941	0.656
SB-199	RP-CTT TAC CTC AGA AAA TCC AGA			5	4	80	96	5.647	0.736
00.05	FP-CTC AGC AAC TTA ATC CAA CTA	53	59	6	6	100	117	6.882	0.777
SB-85	RP-GTT TGT TAG GGG AGG TAA GAA			2	2	100	52	3.059	0.488
OD 00	FP-TAA TGG AGT TCA CAG TCC TCC	44	54.3	4	3	75	56	3.294	0.563
SB-80	RP-ATA CAG AGC CCA TTT CAT CAC			3	2	66.7	57	3.353	0.526

NPL. Number of polymorphic loci: PPL, percentage of polymorphic loci, Rp, resolving power and PIC, polymorphism information content.

groups containing genotypes with different sexes such as female, half sibs and males showed Nei's genetic diversity (H): 0.390, 0.412 and 0.398, respectively and of Shannon's information index (I): 0.563, 0.601 and 0.583 (Table 3), respectively showed a higher genetic differentiation within each of the three groups. The respective values for overall genetic variability for Na, Ne, H, I, Ht, Hs, Gst, NPL, PPL and Gene flow (Nm) across all the 94 genotypes were also given in Table 4. The rate of gene flow estimated using Gst value was found to be 70.93 which is very high. Analysis of molecular variance among genotypes based on three major groups with respect to 4 female, 10 male, and 80 half sibs plant indicated that majority of genetic variation (99.53%) occurred among genotypes, while the variation between the three

groups was minimum (0.50%) (Table 5).

SSR analysis

The 10 SSR primers selected in the study generated a total of 33 SSR bands (an average of 3.3 bands per primer), out of which 26 were polymorphic (78.8%) (Table 2). Among the dinucleotide repeat types (AG)n and (GA)n were produced more number of bands followed by (CT)n, and (AC)n. Similarly among the trinucleotide repeat types, (CTC)n produced more number of bands. The primers that were based on the (GA)n, (AG)n and (CT)n motif produced more polymorphism than the primers based on any other motifs used in the present investigation. We

obtained good amplification products from primers based on (AG)n and (GA)n repeats, despite the fact that (AT)n di-nucleotide repeats are thought to be the most abundant motifs in plant species (Martin and Sanchez-yelamo, 2000). Similar results were obtained in grapevine (Moreno et al., 1998), rice (Blair et al., 1999), Vigna (Ajibade et al., 2000), wheat (Nagaoka and Ogihara, 1979) and Salix (Singh et al., 2013). A possible explanation of these results is that SSR primers based on AT motifs are self-annealing, due to sequence complementarity, and would form dimers during PCR amplification (Blair et al., 1999) or it may be due to its-non annealing with template DNA due to its low Tm. The resolving power (Rp) of the 10 SSR primers ranged from 2.118 to 6.882 (Table 2). Similarly the PIC value

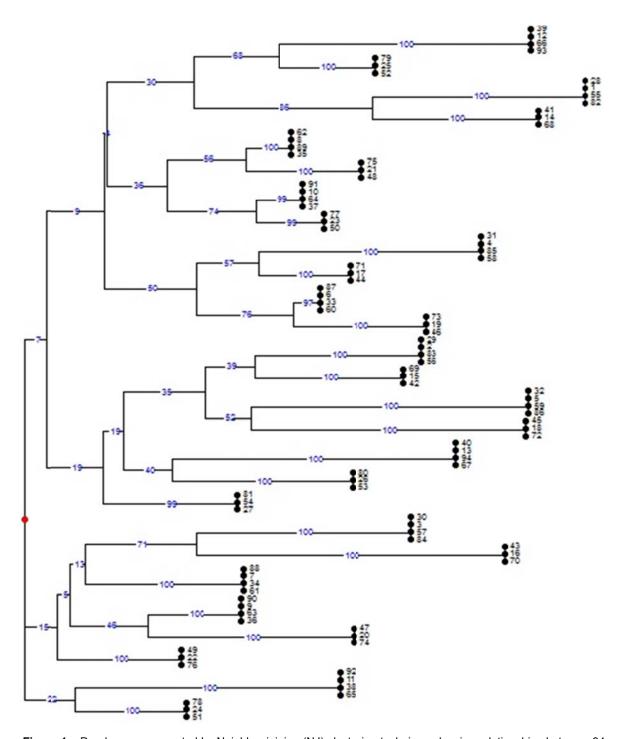


Figure 1a. Dendrogram generated by Neighbor joining (NJ) clustering technique showing relationships between 94 genotypes of Salix based on RAPD profiling. Number indicates bootstrap support values.

ranges from 0.105 to 0.777 demonstrating uniform polymorphism rate among all the 10 SSR primers.

The complete data set of 723 bands was used for cluster analysis based on bootstrapping and NJ method. The genotypes were clustered into three major clusters, well supported by bootstrap value of > 20 (Figure 2a). The estimated likelihood of the clustering of data using

STRUCTURE was found to be optimal that is, ΔK reached its maximum value when K=3 (Figure 2b [A]), suggesting that all the populations were distributed with high probability into one of the 3 clusters (Figure 2b [B]). The clustering pattern of the genotypes were almost similar to the splitting in the NJ tree, however, there is no distinct clustering of genotypes based on their 4 females,

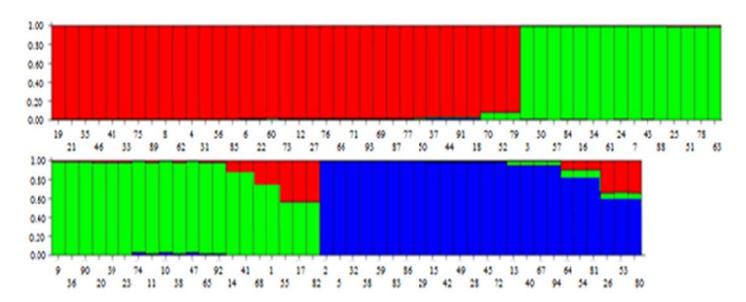


Figure 1b. A model based clustering of 94 genotypes of *Salix sps* based on RAPD profiling and using STRUCTURE without prior knowledge about the populations and under an admixed model. (A) The relationship between K and Δ K., that is, Δ K is reaches its maximum when K = 3, suggesting that all genotypes fall into one of the 3 clusters. (B) Grouping of genotypes when K = 3. The genotypes were more likely clustered with respect to one of the 3 clusters. Genotypes from different clusters are represented with different colours.

Table 3a. Summary of genetic variation statistics RAPD profiling among the genotypes of Salix sps grouped according to sex.

Sex	Sample size	Na	Ne	н	ı	Ht	NPL	PPL
Male	10	2.00 (0.00)	1.698 (0.234)	0.398 (0.094)	0.583 (0.108)	0.398 (0.009)	61	100
Half sibs	80	2.00 (0.00)	1.720 (0.178)	0.412 (0.065)	0.601 (0.071)	0.412 (0.004)	61	100
Female	4	1.917 (0.279)	1.697 (0.284)	0.390 (0.132)	0.563 (0.182)	0.390 (0.017)	60	91.67

Table 3b. Summary of genetic variation statistics SSR profiling among the genotypes of Salix sps grouped according to sex.

Sex	Sample size	Na	Ne	н	I	Ht	NPL	PPL
Male	10	2.00 (0.00)	1.561 (0.174)	0.351 (0.074)	0.533 (0.086)	0.351 (0.005)	59	100
Half sib	80	2.00 (0.00)	1.389 (0.070)	0.278 (0.036)	0.450 (0.045)	0.278 (0.001)	59	100
Female	4	1.983 (0.129)	1.677 (0.188)	0.396 (0.073)	0.581 (0.094)	0.396 (0.005)	58	98.33

10 males and 80 half sibs plants.

A relatively high genetic variation was detected among the genotypes categorized into 3 different groups. Genetic diversity analysis in terms of Na, Ne, H, I, Ht, Hs, and PPL reveals higher value for the group with 4 female, 10 male, and 80 half sib plants. This disparity may be because of more number of genotypes included in the group with 4 female, 10 male and 80 half sibs (Table 3). Overall genetic variability across all the 94 genotypes in

terms of Na, Ne, H, I, Ht, Hs, Gst, NPL, PPL and Gene flow (Nm) were also included in Table 4.

The Nei's genetic diversity index was 0.296 and Shannon information index was 0.471 demonstrating high rate of genetic variability. AMOVA for among groups (0.88%) and among genotypes (99.16%) indicated that there are more variations across the genotypes and not among the groups (Table 5). The estimated gene flow was 32.83.

Table 4. Overall genetic variability across all the 94 genotypes of Salix sps based on RAPD only, SSR only and combination of both RAPD and SSR markers.

Marker	Sample size	Na	Ne	Н	I	Ht	Hs	NPL	PPL	Gst	Nm
RAPD	94	2.00 (0.00)	1.721 (0.179)	0.412 (0.065)	0.601 (0.071)	0.412 (0.004)	0.410 (0.004)	61	100	0.042	70.93
SSR	94	2.00 (0.00)	1.422 (0.063)	0.296 (0.031)	0.471 (0.038)	0.296 (0.001)	0.291(0.001)	59	100	0.025	32.83
RAPD + SSR	94	2.00 (0.00)	1.572 (0.201)	0.354 (0.078)	0.536 (0.086)	0.354 (0.006)	0.350 (0.006)	120	100	0.037	49.5

Gst, Genetic differentiation; Nm, gene flow.

Table 5. Summary of analysis of molecular variance (AMOVA) based on (a) RAPD only (b) SSR only and (c) combination of both RAPD and SSR markers among the genotypes of *Salix sp.* Levels of significance are based on 1000 iteration steps.

Source of variation	Degree of freedom	Variance component	Percentage of variation	P-value
Based on RAPD profiling				
Among groups	2.0	0.042	0.496	-
Among genotypes	91.0	8.953	99.53	< 0.001
Based on SSR profiling				
Among groups	2.0	0.063	0.880	-
Among genotypes	91.0	7.094	99.16	< 0.001
Based on combination of both RAPD and SSR profiling				
Among groups	2.0	0.069	0.944	-
Among genotypes	91.0	7.242	99.06	< 0.001

RAPD and SSR combined data for cluster analysis

Based on combined data set of RAPD and SSR markers, the dendrogram obtained gave similar clustering pattern like RAPD and SSR (Figure 3a). This result is corroborate with STRUCTURE analysis; the estimated likelihood of distribution for all the 94 genotypes was highest for example, ΔK was maximum with K=3 (Figure 3b [A]), reveals that all the genotypes were clustered better (with high likelihood probability) with 3 clusters (Figure 3b [B]). Other genetic variation studies were also performed on RAPD and SSR combined data

which are represented in different tables (Tables 3, 4 and 5). The differences found among the dendrograms generated by RAPDs and SSRs could be partially explained by the different number of PCR products analyzed reinforcing again the importance of the number of loci and their coverage of the overall genome, in obtaining reliable estimates of genetic relationships as observed by Loarce et al. (1996) in barley. Another explanation could be the low reproducibility of RAPDs (Karp et al., 1997). The genetic similarity of these genotypes is probably associated with their similarity in the genomic and amplified region.

Comparative analysis of RAPD with SSR markers

RAPD markers were found more efficient with respect to number of polymorphism detection (based on average NPL value), as they detected 61 polymorphism loci as compared to 59 polymorphism loci for SSR markers. This is in contrast to the results obtained for several other plant species like wheat (Nagaoka and Ogihara, 1997) and *Vigna* (Ajibade et al., 2000). More polymerphism in case of RAPD than SSR markers might be due to the fact that 10 SSR primers used in the study only amplified 732 numbers of fragments

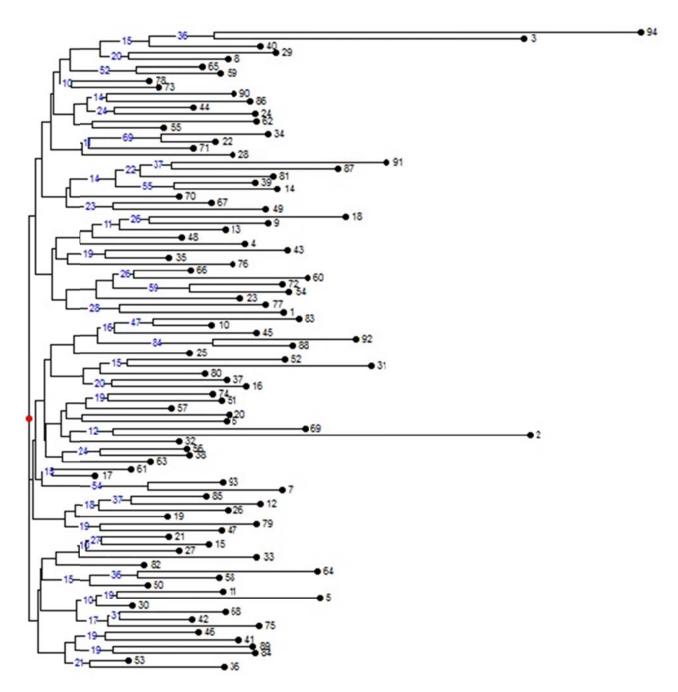


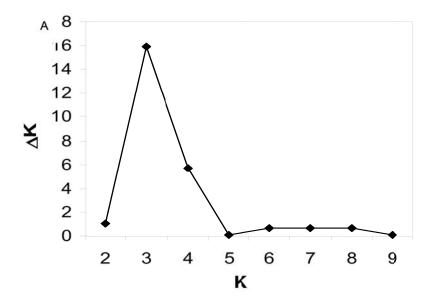
Figure 2a. Dendrogram generated by Neighbor joining (NJ) clustering technique showing relationships between 94 Salix genotypes based on SSR profiling. Number indicates bootstrap support values.

(Table 2). While in case of RAPD, all the 15 primers which were used in the investigation amplified 1795 number of fragments (Table 1). Similar polymorphism pattern was also observed in case of *Jatropha* (Gupta et al., 2008) and *Podophyllum* (Alam et al., 2009). This shows that RAPD data is more close to RAPD+SSR combined data. A possible explanation for the difference in resolution of RAPDs and SSRs is that the two-marker techniques target different portions of the genome. The

mean effective multiplex ratio is more for RAPD (6.246) than that for SSR (4.588) and similarly marker index is more for RAPD (0.876) than that for SSR (0.751) markers.

Conclusion

In this study, we may conclude that molecular analyses of



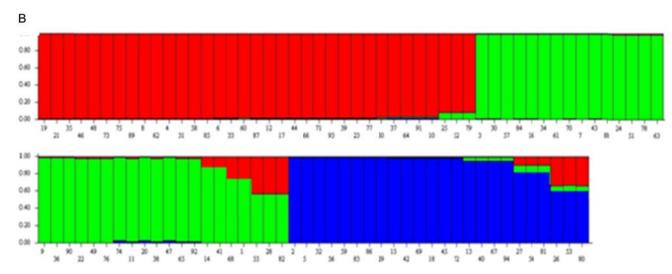


Figure 2b. A model based clustering of 94 genotypes of *Salix sps* based on SSR profiling and using STRUCTURE without prior knowledge about the populations and under an admixed model. (A) The relationship between K and Δ K., i.e. Δ K is reaches its maximum when K = 3, suggesting that all genotypes fall into one of the 3 clusters. (B) Grouping of genotypes when K = 3. The genotypes were more likely clustered with respect to one of the 3 clusters. Genotypes from different clusters are represented with different colours.

both RAPD and SSR markers were extremely useful for studying the genetic relationships of *Salix* genotypes. The results indicates the presence of high genetic variability, which should be exploited for the future conservation and breeding of willow sp. Since no single, or even a few plants, will represent the whole genetic variability in willow, it is essential to maintain sufficiently large populations in natural habitats to conserve genetic diversity in willow to avoid genetic erosion. Based on polymorphic feature, genetic diversity, genetic similarity, and gene flow among the populations of *Salix* based on molecular markers study, we recommend that any future conservation plans for this species should be specifically designed to include representative populations with the

highest genetic variation for both in situ conservation and germplasm collection expeditions.

Conflict of Interests

The author(s) have not declared any conflict of interests.

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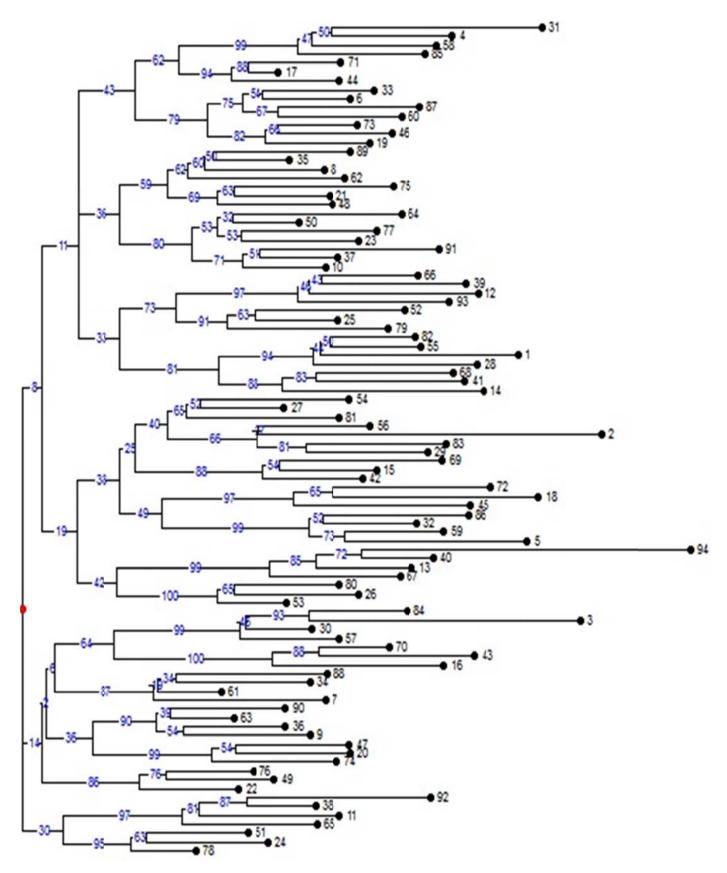
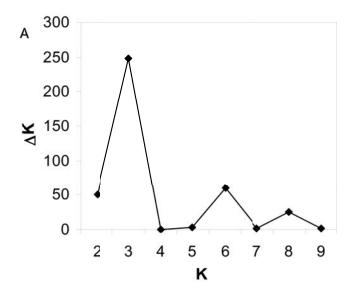


Figure 3a. Dendrogram generated by neighbor joining (NJ) clustering technique showing relationships between 94 genotypes of Salix based on combination of both RAPD and SSR profiling. Number indicates bootstrap support values.



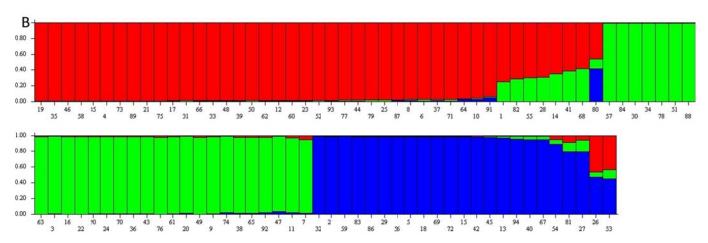


Figure 3b. A model based clustering of 94 genotypes of *Salix sps* based on combination of RAPD and SSR profiling and using STRUCTURE without prior knowledge about the populations and under an admixed model. (A) The relationship between K and Δ K., that is, Δ K is reaches its maximum when K = 3, suggesting that all genotypes fall into one of the 3 clusters. (B) Grouping of genotypes when K = 3. The genotypes were more likely clustered with respect to one of the 3 clusters. Genotypes from different clusters are represented with different colours.

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