ORIGINAL PAPER

# Development of chickpea EST-SSR markers and analysis of allelic variation across related species

Shalu Choudhary · Niroj Kumar Sethy · Bhumika Shokeen · Sabhyata Bhatia

Received: 4 January 2008 / Accepted: 24 October 2008 / Published online: 20 November 2008 Springer-Verlag 2008

Abstract Despite chickpea being the third important grain legume, there is a limited availability of genomic resources, especially of the expressed sequence tag (EST) based markers. In this study, we generated 822 chickpea ESTs from immature seeds as well as exploited 1,309 ESTs from the chickpea database, thus utilizing a total of 2,131 EST sequences for development of functional EST-SSR markers. Two hundred and forty-six simple sequence repeat (SSR) motifs were identified from which 183 primer pairs were designed and 60 validated as functional markers. Genetic diversity analysis across 30 chickpea accessions revealed ten markers to be polymorphic producing a total of 29 alleles and an observed heterozygosity average of 0.16 thereby exhibiting low levels of intra-specific polymorphism. However, the markers exhibited high cross-species transferability ranging from 68.3 to 96.6% across the six annual Cicer species and from 29.4 to 61.7% across the seven legume genera. Sequence analysis of size variant amplicons from various species revealed that size polymorphism was due to multiple events such as copy number

Communicated by C. Gebhardt.

Electronic supplementary material The online version of this article (doi:[10.1007/s00122-008-0923-z](http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s00122-008-0923-z)) contains supplementary material, which is available to authorized users.

S. Choudhary  $\cdot$  B. Shokeen  $\cdot$  S. Bhatia ( $\boxtimes$ ) National Institute of Plant Genome Research, Post Box Number 10531, Aruna Asaf Ali Marg, Jawaharlal Nehru University Campus, New Delhi 110067, India e-mail: sabhyata\_bhatia@nipgr.res.in; sabhyatab@yahoo.com

Present Address:

N. K. Sethy

Defence Institute of Physiology and Allied Sciences (DIPAS), Defence Research and Development Organization (DRDO), Timarpur, Delhi 110 054, India

variation, point mutations and insertions/deletions in the microsatellite repeat as well as in the flanking regions. Interestingly, a wide prevalence of crossability-group-specific sequence variations were observed among Cicer species that were phylogenetically informative. The neighbor joining dendrogram clearly separated the chickpea cultivars from the wild Cicer and validated the proximity of C. judaicum with C. pinnatifidum. Hence, this study for the first time provides an insight into the distribution of SSRs in the chickpea transcribed regions and also demonstrates the development and utilization of genic-SSRs. In addition to proving their suitability for genetic diversity analysis, their high rates of transferability also proved their potential for comparative genomic studies and for following gene introgressions and evolution in wild species, which constitute the valuable secondary genepool in chickpea.

#### Introduction

Extensive efforts at sequencing of expressed genomic regions obtained from tissues under different conditions and developmental stages have led to a large number of EST sequences being deposited in the public database for a number of model species as well as economically important plants. Besides providing an effective approach for gene discovery and transcript pattern characterization, these ESTs emerge as a cost-effective, valuable source for molecular marker generation. These easily accessible sequences provide the advantage of in silico analysis and broaden the field of comparative studies in species where limited or no sequence information is available.

Microsatellites or simple sequence repeats (SSRs) are 1–6 bp iterations of DNA sequences that were earlier known <span id="page-1-0"></span>to occur only in the non-coding regions. However, the occurrence of microsatellites in transcribed sequences is now well established and are commonly known as EST-SSRs or genic SSRs (Morgante et al. [2002](#page-17-0); Li et al. [2002,](#page-16-0) [2004\)](#page-16-0). These have been reported from a number of plant species such as Oryza (Cho et al. [2000\)](#page-16-0), Saccharum (Cordeiro et al. [2001](#page-16-0)), Triticum (Gupta et al. [2003](#page-16-0)), Hordeum (Thiel et al. [2003\)](#page-17-0), Medicago (Eujayl et al. [2004\)](#page-16-0), Coffea (Poncet et al. [2006](#page-17-0); Aggarwal et al. [2007](#page-16-0)), Capsicum (Yi et al. [2006\)](#page-17-0) and Citrus (Chen et al. [2006\)](#page-16-0). Similar to genomic SSRs, the EST-SSRs are useful for many applications in plant genetics and breeding such as molecular mapping, genetic diversity analysis and cross-transferability across related species and genera (Varshney et al. [2005a\)](#page-17-0). Moreover, as a result of their association with coding sequences, they provide the possibility of direct gene tagging for QTL mapping of agronomically important traits. The EST-SSRs find higher levels of cross-species transferability than genomic microsatellite markers (Scott et al. [2000;](#page-17-0) Eujayl et al. [2004;](#page-16-0) Zhang et al. [2005\)](#page-17-0) aiding in gene introgression programs, identification of conserved gene order across orthologous linkage groups (Varshney et al. [2005a](#page-17-0), [b\)](#page-17-0), depiction of gene evolution associated with microsatellites and phylogenetic studies.

In chickpea (Cicer arietinum L.), the third most important grain legume crop, research efforts worldwide have led to identification and characterization of a number of microsatellite markers (Hüttel et al. [1999;](#page-16-0) Sethy et al. [2003](#page-17-0); Lichtenzveig et al. [2005](#page-16-0); Choudhary et al. [2006](#page-16-0), Sethy et al. [2006a](#page-17-0)) and their utilization for genome mapping (Winter et al. [2000](#page-17-0)) and phylogenetic analysis of Cicer (Sethy et al. [2006a](#page-17-0), [b](#page-17-0)). More recently, EST sequences from chickpea have been reported (Boominathan et al. [2004](#page-16-0); Romo et al. [2004;](#page-17-0) Buhariwalla et al. [2005](#page-16-0); Coram and Pang [2005](#page-16-0)). Among these, only the study of Buhariwalla et al. [2005](#page-16-0) investigated the use of ESTs as a source of genic markers. But even in this study, of the 106 EST markers developed by them, only 14 contained SSR motifs and these are the only chickpea EST-SSRs reported till date. Hence the need for large scale development of chickpea EST-SSRs was imminent. This would not only help in molecular mapping but would also be of significance in comparative genome analysis in legumes since a high degree of conservation among the genomes of cultivated species and model legumes has been revealed (Weeden et al. [1992](#page-17-0); Choi et al. [2004\)](#page-16-0). A recent study on transferability of both genomic and EST-SSR markers of M. truncatula to pea, chickpea and lentil revealed a high degree of cross-transferability (Gutierrez et al. [2005\)](#page-16-0). However, to be fully effective, genomic information from one species must be transferred in both directions, i.e. from model species to cultivars and vice versa (Gepts et al. [2005](#page-16-0)). Thus, there was an urgent need to develop EST-SSR markers in chickpea and assess their transferability to the model as well as to other nonmodel important legumes and for tracking the introgression of genes from the wild or elite species of chickpea.

The present study was aimed at: (1) development and characterization of chickpea EST-SSRs, (2) assessing the utility of EST-SSRs for genetic diversity analysis, (3) evaluating the cross-transferability of chickpea EST-SSRs among the Cicer species and other legumes, and (4) establishing the molecular basis of variation in alleles from related species and genera.

#### Materials and methods

Plant material and DNA isolation

Chickpea and the wild annual species are classified into various crossability groups. This study includes members of Crossability group I (C. arietinum, C. reticulatum and C. echinospermum) and Crossability group II (C. bijugum, C. judaicum and C. pinnatifidum). Thirty accessions of cultivated chickpea (C. arietinum) were used for the analysis of genetic diversity within species (Table [1a](#page-2-0)). For inter-specific transferability studies, nine accessions belonging to the five wild annual Cicer species were used which included a single accession of C. echinospermum (ICC17159) and two accessions each of C. reticulatum (ICC17121, ICC17164), C. bijugum (ICC17125, ICC17122), C. judaicum (ICC17148, ICC17150) and C. pinnatifidum (ICC17126, ICC17200). For cross-genera studies across legumes, 28 accessions belonging to seven legume genera were used (Table [1](#page-2-0)b). All accessions used in this study were grown at the field site of NIPGR.

DNA was isolated from fresh, young leaf tissue of chickpea and legume accessions using the CTAB method (Doyle and Doyle [1987\)](#page-16-0). Genomic DNA from the wild Cicer accessions was isolated using GenElute genomic DNA miniprep kit (SIGMA Aldrich). The quality and final concentration was estimated by agarose gel electrophoresis using known concentration of uncut  $\lambda$  DNA as a standard.

#### Construction of a cDNA library and identification of EST-SSRs

Total RNA was isolated from 20 DAF seeds of C. arietinum ICCV2; 0.8 g of frozen seeds was ground to a fine powder in liquid nitrogen and transferred to an Eppendorf tube containing 500  $\mu$ l of extraction buffer (200 mM NaOAc pH  $-5.2$ , 1% SDS, 10 mM EDTA pH 8.0) and 500 µl of phenol. This was centrifuged at  $14,000 \times g$  for 10 min at RT. The aqueous phase was separated and extracted twice with phenol:chloroform (1:1) followed by O/N precipitation at 4-C with 0.3 vol of 10 M LiCl for RNA precipitation. The RNA pellet was recovered by centrifugation at 10,000 rpm for 10 min at  $4^{\circ}$ C, and was washed twice with 2.5 M LiCl

<span id="page-2-0"></span>Table 1 A: list of chickpea accessions alongwith their sources, B: list of legume accessions used in this study

S. no.		Acc. no./name		Source		
А						
1		ICCV2 <sup>a</sup>	India			
2	JG62 <sup>a</sup>		-do-			
3		ICC10945 <sup>a</sup>	-do-			
4		ICC15406 <sup>a</sup>	-do-			
5		ICC283 <sup>a</sup>	-do-			
6		ICC12947 <sup>a</sup>	-do-			
7		ICC13124 <sup>a</sup>	-do-			
8		ICC791 <sup>a</sup>	-do-			
9		ICC5383 <sup>a</sup>	-do-			
10		ICC11378 <sup>a</sup>	-do-			
11		ICC5477 <sup>a</sup>	-do-			
12		ICC15802 <sup>a</sup>	Syria			
13		ICC156947 <sup>a</sup>	-do-			
14		ICC16976 <sup>a</sup>	Portugal			
15		ICC7676 <sup>a</sup>	-do-			
16	ICC16800 <sup>a</sup>		-do-			
17	ICC16761 <sup>a</sup>		-do-			
18	ICC12866 <sup>a</sup>			Ethiopia		
19	ICC12726 <sup>a</sup>		-do-			
20	ICC3485 <sup>a</sup>			Jordan		
21	ICC6293 <sup>a</sup>		Italy			
22	ICC3631 <sup>a</sup>		Iran			
23	ICC16487 <sup>a</sup>			Pakistan		
24	ICC8195 <sup>a</sup>		-do-			
25				Algeria		
26	ICC7272 <sup>a</sup> ICC13780 <sup>a</sup>					
27				Spain Tunisia		
28	ICC8444 <sup>a</sup> ICC15518 <sup>a</sup>		Morocco			
29						
30		ICC15407 <sup>a</sup> Pusa $362^b$				
			India			
S. no.	Acc. no.	Species		Common name		
В						
31	NRC37 <sup>c</sup>	Glycine max		Soybean		
32	MAUS47 <sup>c</sup>	-do-		Soybean		
33	<b>PRATAP</b> <sup>c</sup>	-do-		Soybean		
34	<b>BRAGG</b> <sup>c</sup>	-do-		Soybean		
35	IC381277 <sup>d</sup>	Lens esculenta		Lentil		
36	IC334282 <sup>d</sup>	-do-		Lentil		
37	IC384444 <sup>d</sup>	-do-		Lentil		
38	IC383609 <sup>d</sup>	-do-		Lentil		
39	IC411188 <sup>d</sup>	Trifolium alexandrinum		<b>Berseem Clover</b>		
40	IC411189 <sup>d</sup>	-do-		Berseem Clover		
41	IC508311 <sup>d</sup>	-do-		Berseem Clover		
42	IC411183 <sup>d</sup>	$-do-$		Berseem Clover		
43	IC347150 <sup>d</sup>	Cajanus cajan		Pigeonpea		





<sup>a</sup> International Crops Research Institute for the Semi-Arid Tropics (ICRISAT), India

<sup>b</sup> Indian Agriculture Research Institute (IARI), India

<sup>c</sup> Maharana Pratap Agriculture University, India (MPAU)

<sup>d</sup> National Bureau of Plant Genetic Resources (NBPGR), India

<sup>e</sup> Australian Medicago Genetic Resource Centre, SARDI, Australia

and once with 70% ethanol. The pellet was air-dried and dissolved in DEPC-treated ddH2O. One microgram of total RNA was used to construct the cDNA library using the CLONTECH Smart PCR-cDNA synthesis kit according to the manufacturer's protocol. Double-stranded cDNA was introduced into the pCR2.1-TOPO vector for sequencing using the TOPO TA cloning kit (Invitrogen).

Random  $5'$  sequencing of cDNAs was done using the BigDye Terminator technology (Applied Biosystems) in an ABI Prism 3700 automated DNA sequencer. After sequence trimming (removal of low quality sequences, vector regions and sequences\100 bp), the EST sequences were mined for microsatellites consisting of  $\geq$ 5 dinucleotides and  $\geq$ 4 trinucleotides repeats using the TROLL program (Castelo et al. [2002\)](#page-16-0). To reduce redundancy, cluster analysis was performed on microsatellite containing sequences (EST-SSRs) using the CAP3 program (Huang and Madan [1999](#page-16-0)). The identified EST-SSR sequences were deposited in the GenBank to obtain the accession numbers (see Table [2](#page-3-0)). The putative function of the developed chickpea functional markers was found by the BLASTX tool of NCBI, assuming a threshold of  $\langle 1e - 05$ .

#### Generation of EST-SSRs from database

The 1,309 chickpea EST sequences available in the NCBI nucleotide database (up to January 2007) were screened for

<span id="page-3-0"></span>



Table 2 continued

Table 2 continued



Table 2 continued





The designed primer pairs, microsatellite repeat motifs, annealing temperature, expected allele size (bp), Genbank accession numbers and their putative functions based on BLASTX results are The designed primer pairs, microsatellite repeat motits, annealing temperature, expected allele size (bp), Genbank accession numbers and their putative functions based on mentioned. Serial nos 1–34 represent markers desig mentioned. Serial nos 1–34 represent markers designed using the database whereas serial nos 35–60 represent markers designed based on the in-house generated ESTs

the presence of microsatellite motifs using the TROLL program (Castelo et al. [2002\)](#page-16-0) and the same criteria as mentioned above was used.

#### Designing EST-SSR primers

Primers were designed using the Primer3.0 software (Rozen and Skaletsky [1997](#page-17-0)) and designated as CESSR (for in-house generated ESTs) and CESSRDB (for EST-SSRs generated using the database). The parameters used for primer design were: (1) primer length 18–24 bp with an optimum of 20 bp, (2) annealing temperature  $50-60^{\circ}$ C with an optimum of  $55^{\circ}$ C, (3) percentage GC in the range of 40–50, and (4) product size in the range of 100–400 bp. All the oligonucleotides were synthesized from Illumina Inc. (USA).

### Amplification and detection of microsatellite alleles

All PCR amplifications of genomic DNA (including Cicer and legume species) were carried out in a  $15 \mu l$ reaction volume in a BIORAD thermal cycler (Icycler) containing 40–50 ng of genomic DNA, PCR buffer (20 mM Tris–HCl, 50 mM KCl),  $0.75 \mu M$  of each primer,  $0.125$  mM of each dNTP,  $1.5$  mM  $MgCl<sub>2</sub>$  and 0.5 U of Taq DNA polymerase (Life Technology, India). The following touchdown amplification profile was used: (1) initial denaturation  $94^{\circ}$ C 3 min, (2) 18 cycles of 94 $\rm ^{o}C$  50 s, 65 $\rm ^{o}C$  50 s, decreasing annealing temperature  $0.5^{\circ}$ C/cycle,  $72^{\circ}$ C 50 s, (3) 20 cycles of 94 $^{\circ}$ C 50 s, 55 $^{\circ}$ C 50 s, 72 $\degree$ C 50 s, and (4) final extension 72 $\degree$ C 7 min. The amplification products were separated on 6% polyacrylamide gels or 3% Metaphor agarose gels (Cambrex, USA) depending upon the size range, stained with ethidium bromide and analyzed using the gel documentation system AlphaImager 2200 (Alpha Innotech Corp., USA). Fragment sizes for each locus were evaluated using standard size markers. All Cicer species were scored in a binary matrix and analyzed using POPGENE version 1.32 (Yeh and Boyle [1997\)](#page-17-0) and the UPGMA based dendrogram was constructed using NTSYS-pc Version 2.1 (Rohlf [1994\)](#page-17-0).

#### Sequence analysis of amplified fragments

Size variant alleles from different Cicer and legume accessions were amplified and resolved on 6% PAGE gels. The bands were eluted, cloned into pGEM-T Vector (Promega) and transformed to  $DH5\alpha$  cells. After bluewhite selection, plasmids from putative recombinants were isolated using the alkaline lysis method (Sambrook et al. [1989\)](#page-17-0). Sequencing reactions were performed as above. Four to six recombinants from each allele were sequenced

and the sequences were aligned with the original chickpea sequence using CLUSTAL W (1.83).

## Results

Development of functional EST-SSR markers

ESTs from two sources were used for development of the EST-SSR markers in this study. First, using the 1,309 EST sequences reported in the NCBI database till January 2007, representing approximately 0.76 Mb, 133 microsatellite motifs were identified. Second, a cDNA library from immature seed was constructed and used as a source of EST-SSRs. From the 822 seed ESTs generated in-house, 159 EST-SSRs (19%) were identified that clustered into a total of 99 consensus sequences possessing a total of 113 microsatellite motifs. Sequence analysis of the 246 SSR motifs from the two sources  $(133 + 113)$  revealed that 207 (84.1%) were perfect repeats, 29 (11.7%) were imperfect and ten (4.0%) were compound. The copy number of the dinucleotide repeat motifs at the perfect loci varied from 5 to 17 and the trinucleotide motifs from 4 to 14. A diverse range of SSR motifs was present which varied widely with trinucleotide repeats (51.2%) being the most abundant followed by di- (37.3%), tetra- (6.9%) and pentanucleotide (4.4%) motifs. The most frequently occurring dinucleotide motifs were GA followed by TA and GT, whereas among trinucleotides AAG was predominant followed by ATT.

Using the flanking regions of 246 SSR motifs, 183 primers were designed of which 94 could be validated in chickpea acc. Pusa362 and ICCV2. Of these, 34 primers either did not amplify or produced anomalous-sized fragments. Therefore, finally 60 functional EST-SSR markers were developed (described in Table [2](#page-3-0)) of which 49 primer pairs produced single expected sized alleles, whereas 11 primers amplified 2–4 alleles. Based on the BLASTX analysis, putative functions could be assigned to majority (65.0%) of the EST-SSRs that showed significant homology to reported proteins, whereas 18.4% of them represented unknown/hypothetical proteins and 16.6% to novel sequences (Table [2](#page-3-0)).

Intra-specific diversity within chickpea revealed by EST-SSR markers and sequence analysis

To elucidate intra-specific variability, 60 chickpea EST-SSR primers (Table [2](#page-3-0)) were used to amplify the genomic DNA from 30 chickpea accessions listed in Table [1a](#page-2-0). Of these 60 markers, ten produced polymorphic amplification profiles in the 30 accessions, amplifying a total of 29 alleles with a maximum of five alleles with the primer pair CESSR73 in the chickpea cultivars (Table [3\)](#page-8-0). The observed heterozygosity

<span id="page-8-0"></span>**Table 3** Number of alleles  $(N_a)$ , size range of amplified fragments, observed  $(H_0)$  and expected heterozygosity  $(H_E)$ , Shannon's informative index (*I*) and fixation index ( $F_{IS}$ ) values calculated for 30 chickpea accessions at ten polymorphic EST-SSR loci

Locus	$N_{\rm a}$	Size range (bp)	$H_{\rm O}$	$H_{\rm E}$	Ι	$F_{\rm IS}$
CESSR23	$\mathfrak{2}$	399-402	0.00	0.44	0.63	0.08
CESSR42	3	295-303	0.00	0.59	0.94	1.00
CESSR43	$\mathfrak{2}$	386-390	0.00	0.43	0.62	1.00
CESSR47	4	539-650	0.60	0.66	1.20	1.00
CESSR <sub>61</sub>	3	254-262	0.00	0.57	0.92	1.00
CESSR <sub>62</sub>	3	243-295	0.46	0.66	1.06	0.28
CESSR71	2	295-301	0.00	0.44	0.62	1.00
CESSR72	3	342–348	0.00	0.59	0.95	1.00
CESSR73	5	359-445	0.60	0.76	1.47	0.19
CESSR77	2	173–176	0.00	0.50	0.68	1.00
Average	2.9		0.16	0.56	0.91	
SD	0.99		0.2711	0.1110	0.28	

values ranged from 0 to 0.6 and expected heterozygosity ranged from 0.43 to 0.76 with an average of 0.56 (Table 3).

To assess the basis of length variation across chickpea, homologous alleles amplified by primer pair CESSSR73 were cloned and sequenced (Fig. 1). Sequence comparisons revealed the presence of a  $(CTT)$ <sub>n</sub> compound repeat motif. Allelic size variations were mainly due to the presence of an additional repeat motif (CTT) in some of the cultivars accompanied by single base insertions/deletions in the MFR regions. Cultivar specific insertions were observed at position 301 in ICCV2 and deletions at 96, 102 in ICC15406 and 286 in ICC7676. In addition, isolated point mutations were also observed in the MFRs such as at position 195 in ICC7676 (Fig. 1). However, when similar sized alleles from monomorphic loci such as CESSRDB13, CESSRDB27, and CESSRDB44 were sequenced, even though point mutations

alig

EU3

aste sequences

site:

were observed at these loci, no variation in the copy number of repeats was found (data not shown).

Cross-species transferability across Cicer

In order to assess the transferability rates of the chickpea EST-SSR markers across related Cicer species, genomic DNA from nine accessions belonging to five wild, annual Cicer species (listed in '['Materials and methods](#page-1-0)'') were amplified with the same 60 EST-SSR primers used for intra-specific analysis. The transferability rates of chickpea EST-SSRs varied from a high of 96.6% in C. reticulatum to a low of 68.3% in C. judaicum with an average of 82.6% (Table [4\)](#page-9-0). Forty-one markers (68.3%) amplified in all the annual species, of which, 27 were polymorphic across the wild *Cicer* species. Allelic data generated using the 60 EST-SSRs revealed a minimum of one and maximum of nine alleles (CESSRDB47) with a total of 156 alleles at 60 loci leading to an average of 2.6 alleles per locus. Observed heterozygosity  $(H<sub>o</sub>)$  ranged 0.15–0.83 with an average of 0.22 (Table [4\)](#page-9-0). Of the 60 primer pairs, two (CESSRDB3 and CESSRDB5) amplified only in chickpea (and in no other wild species) and were therefore specific to C. arietinum. The EST-SSR markers also exhibited crossability group-specific transferability. Among the first crossability group members (C. arietinum, C. reticulatum, and C. echinospermum), 55 markers (91.6%) were amplified and 24 markers produced polymorphic amplification profiles. Similarly, 41 markers (58.8%) successfully amplified in all the second crossability group members (C. bijugum, C. judaicum, and C. pinnatifidum) and 23 primers detected variation between the three species. Five markers (CESS-RDB7, CESSRDB23, CESSRDB24, CESSRDB41, and CESSR26) exhibited crossability-group-specific transferability to only first crossability group members.



\*\*\*\*\*\*\* \*\*\*\*\* \* \* \*\* \* \* \*\*\*\*\*\*\* \* \*\* \*\*\* \*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*

<span id="page-9-0"></span>



## Sequence analysis of size variant alleles from Cicer species

To investigate the basis of variation among size variant alleles of six Cicer species, fragments amplified in various annual species at the five loci, CESSRDB4, CESSRDB10, CESSRDB26, CESSRDB27 and CESSRDB34, were cloned and sequenced. Multiple alignments of nucleotide sequences from each locus were done and the results for three loci (CESSRDB4, CESSRDB10 and CESSRDB26) are shown in Fig. [2.](#page-12-0) Sequence comparisons at loci revealed that even though there was overall sequence conservation in the internal microsatellite structure and the primerbinding sites, variations such as differences in the copy number of repeat motifs and repeat interruptions accompanied by indels and point mutations in the microsatellite flanking regions (MFR) frequently occurred, all of which contributed to the allelic length variation (Fig. [2;](#page-12-0) Table [4](#page-9-0)). For example, at the CESSRDB4 locus, an addition of three repeat motifs (48–56 bp) accompanied by mutations at positions 26, 44 and 47 resulted in motifs specific for the first and second crossability group members (Fig. [2a](#page-12-0)). Similarly at the CESSRDB10 locus, a mutation  $(T \rightarrow G)$  at nucleotide position 50 and a TAG repeat expansion among members of first crossability group were observed (Fig. [2](#page-12-0)b). At the CESSRDB26 locus the second crossability group alleles were much longer due to insertions in the MFR regions (Fig. [2](#page-12-0)c).

Another interesting feature revealed by sequence comparisons was the crossability-group-specific point mutations and indels. Point mutations (nucleotide positions 26, 44, 47 and 184 in CESSRDB4; positions 34, 45, 50, 115, 121, 143 and 164 in CESSRDB10; positions 92, 145, 193, 205, 210, 219, 223, 224, 234, 252, 266, 267 and 275 in CESSRDB26) and indels [12 bp (48–59) in CESSRDB4], [9 bp (68–76) and 4 bp (106–109) in CESSRDB10] and [14 bp (95–108), 1 bp (161) and (5 bp (255–259) in CESSRDB26] were highly crossability group specific. Additionally in the flanking regions, there were speciesspecific point mutations for example at position 103 in C. arietinum and 198 in C. judaicum at CESSRDB4 locus (Fig. [2](#page-12-0)).

#### Phylogenetic analysis

The allelic data obtained from the 60 chickpea EST-SSR markers were used to visualize the genetic relationships among the 30 chickpea accessions and the six annual Cicer species. After scoring and computing the allelic data, a dendrogram was constructed that clearly separated the members of the first and second crossability groups into clusters I and II (Fig. [3](#page-13-0)). Cluster I corresponded with the first crossability group members grouping all chickpea accessions into Cluster IA and the C. reticulatum and C. echinospermum into Cluster IB. The ClusterIA clearly distinguished all the chickpea accessions except ICC15518 and ICC8195; however, no correlation between the clustering pattern and geographical location was obtained. Cluster II represented the second crossability group species with *C. judaicum* and *C. pinnatifidum* being closely placed together.

### Cross-genera transferability and sequence variation of chickpea EST-SSRs across legumes

Thirty-four of the chickpea functional markers were also utilized to assess their cross-genera transferability across 32 accessions spanning eight legume genera (ESM S1). This analysis revealed varied levels of marker transferability across legumes ranging from 29.4% in P. mungo, 35.2% in P. sativum, 41.1% in G. max and T. alexandrinum, 47.0% in L. esculenta, 50.0% in C. cajan and 61.7% in M. truncatula with an average of 43.6%. Eight markers (23.5%) amplified in all the legume genera though all the accessions of each species were not amplified. Twenty-five markers (74%) amplified in at least one legume species other than chickpea, whereas nine primers (26%) amplified only in the chickpea accessions and no other legume indicating the uniqueness of these loci to the chickpea genome. Twelve markers produced polymorphic amplification profiles across legumes even though intra-specific polymorphism was not observed.

Different sized alleles amplified at various loci across legumes were cloned and sequenced. For example, sequence analysis at CESSRDB56 (Fig. [4](#page-13-0)) demonstrated that although the same-sized alleles had high sequence conservation, variable alleles such as the 228 bp allele in Trifolium revealed polymorphism that was due to both differences of repeat motifs as well as variability of the flanking sequences marked by indels/point mutations. A similar observation was also noted at locus CESSRDB39 amplifying multiple alleles (data not shown).

#### Discussion

This study reports for the first time, development of a large number of EST-SSR markers in chickpea and assesses their transferability across a wide-spectrum of related species and genera, thereby establishing that the chickpea EST-SSR markers are a valuable genetic resource for investigating species relationships and comparative mapping in legumes. The easiest way to develop genic markers is by screening of EST sequences for the presence of hypervariable SSR motifs. In the publicly available EST database of legumes (Fabaceae) nearly 1 million EST

<span id="page-12-0"></span>Fig. 2 Partial sequence alignment of size variant alleles amplified using (a) CESSRDB4 primer across six annual Cicer species (EF595573-EF595577) (b) CESSRDB10 primer across six annual Cicer species (EF595578-EF595582) and (c) CESSRDB26 primer across six annual Cicer species (EF595583-EF595587). The repeat motifs are represented as bold letters, arrows represent primer-binding sites, *2* Indicates alignment gaps and \* represents similar sequences. Characters in bold shaded boxes indicate base substitutions and group specific mutations are demarcated by grey background. C.ari (C. arietinum), C.ret (C. reticulatum), C.ech (C. echinospermum), C.bij

## (C. bijugum), C.jud

- (C. judaicum), C.pin
- (C. pinnatifidum)





#### **(C)** CESSRDB26



<span id="page-13-0"></span>Fig. 3 UPGMA based dendrogram of thirty chickpea accessions and five annual Cicer species was obtained using 60 functional EST-SSR markers and Jaccard's coefficient. Name of cultivars, species and source country are mentioned



Fig. 4 Multiple sequence alignment of alleles amplified from chickpea and two legumes namely M. truncatula (M.tru) and T. alexandrinum (T.ale) at CESSRDB56 locus (EF621420 and EF595632). These primers also amplified alleles from legumes which were of the same size as chickpea and also shared high sequence homology, hence are not shown. Only the size variants are shown. The asterisks represent similar sequences, *dash* indicates alignment gaps. Repeat regions are in boldface, primer-binding sites are represented by underlined letters and characters in bold shaded boxes indicate point mutations

### CESSRDB56

\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\*



sequences are available, of which over 92% represent ESTs derived from M. truncatula, L. japonicus and G. max (Ramı´rez et al. [2005\)](#page-17-0). For chickpea, only about 1,300 ESTs were publicly available (upto January 2007). Hence, our study utilized this resource for developing EST-SSR markers. Moreover, since only a limited number of ESTs were available, our study also undertook to generating new EST sequences and using them for the development of a novel set of functional markers. These markers will not only be a significant addition to the limited set of SSR markers available in chickpea, but will have the added advantage of marker-trait associations.

From the publicly available database and in-house ESTs, a total of 246 SSRs were identified which represented 11.5% of the screened ESTs. This SSR frequency was comparable with those obtained in citrus (10.6%, Chen et al. [2006](#page-16-0)), pepper (10.7%, Yi et al. [2006](#page-17-0)) and in other dicot species (Kumpatia and Mukhopadhyay [2005](#page-16-0)).

However, Kantety et al. [2002](#page-16-0) obtained comparatively lower frequency of EST-SSRs ranging from 1.5 to 4.7% in monocots. The abundance of SSRs mined from a sequence database depends on the SSR search criteria, the size of the dataset and the database mining tools (Varshney et al. [2005a](#page-17-0)). On applying stringent SSR criteria with a minimum of 20 bp, about 5% of ESTs have been shown to contain SSRs in plants (Varshney et al. [2005a](#page-17-0)) whereas the same when applied to this set of chickpea EST sequences, only 3.1% sequences contained SSRs. The abundance of trinucleotide motifs in the chickpea coding sequences (51.2%) was in close agreement with observations in monocot and dicot plants (Kantety et al. [2002;](#page-16-0) Tian et al. [2004;](#page-17-0) Yi et al. [2006](#page-17-0)) establishing the need of the coding regions to maintain the reading frame (Varshney et al. [2002;](#page-17-0) Li et al. [2004\)](#page-16-0). The predominance of GA motifs among dinucleotides in the chickpea ESTs was similar to reports in cereals (Varshney et al. [2002](#page-17-0)) and dicots like Medicago, soybean and Arabidopsis (Tian et al. [2004](#page-17-0)). Similarly among trinucleotides, the abundance of AAG motifs in chickpea was quite consistent with the findings of Li et al. ([2004\)](#page-16-0) and Kumpatia and Mukhopadhyay [\(2005](#page-16-0)). However, earlier studies on chickpea microsatellites have reported the  $(TAA)$ <sub>n</sub> motif to be most abundant (Udupa et al. [1999\)](#page-17-0). Moreover, it was observed that even though the EST-microsatellites contained less number of repeat motifs than the genomic microsatellites (gSSRs) reported earlier (Sethy et al. [2006a](#page-17-0)), they proved to be highly informative in the genetic diversity and cross-species transferability studies (Scott et al. [2000;](#page-17-0) Thiel et al. [2003](#page-17-0)).

Chickpea has been shown to exhibit overall low levels of polymorphism with the various molecular markers analyzed so far and this has been attributed to its selfpollinating nature as well its recent worldwide dispersal (Udupa et al. [1999](#page-17-0)). In this study also, the EST-SSR markers displayed a low level of polymorphism (16%) within chickpea accessions in comparison to earlier reports of 40–60% polymorphism detected by gSSRs (Sethy et al. [2006a](#page-17-0); Lichtenzveig et al. [2005](#page-16-0)). This observation is noteworthy as SSRs located in the coding regions are under strong selection pressure and therefore accumulate few mutations (Varshney et al. [2005a](#page-17-0); Li et al. [2004\)](#page-16-0). However, despite the lower polymorphism, the genic-SSRs are preferable over gSSRs as these are associated with the coding regions of the genome and therefore represent ''true genetic diversity'' that would directly assist in ''perfect'' markertrait associations (Eujayl et al. [2002](#page-16-0); Thiel et al. [2003](#page-17-0)). Other species such as rice (Cho et al. [2000\)](#page-16-0), sugarcane (Cordeiro et al. [2001](#page-16-0)) and wheat (Gupta et al. [2003](#page-16-0)), have also revealed similarly low levels of polymorphism using EST-SSRs compared to genomic SSR markers.

In contrast to the low levels of intra-specific polymorphism with EST-SSRs, the inter-specific polymorphism was significantly higher in the wild relatives of chickpea. Wild genepool is extremely valuable in inter-specific hybridization programs since they serve as sources of resistance/ tolerance to many stresses. Our study with EST-SSR markers will potentially facilitate the transfer of traits of agronomic value into cultivated chickpea thereby leading to the broadening of the narrow genetic base and development of superior genotypes of chickpea. The dendrogram obtained with the EST-SSR markers clearly showed the closeness of C. judaicum with C. pinnatifidum (Fig. [3\)](#page-13-0) which was in agreement with the earlier protein based (Tayyar and Waines [1996](#page-17-0)) and EST-based studies (Buhariwalla et al. [2005](#page-16-0)), whereas using DNA-based marker systems like AFLP (Shan et al. [2005](#page-17-0)) and STMS markers (Sethy et al. [2006b\)](#page-17-0) the closeness of C. pinnatifidum with C. bijugum has been reported. The resemblances of the dendrograms based on protein markers with genic markers suggest that coding sequences of *C. judaicum* and *C. pinnatifidum* may have followed a common evolutionary pathway.

The chickpea EST-SSRs developed in this study revealed much higher rates of transferability (mean 82.6%) across wild annuals than the chickpea-derived gSSRs (68%; Choumane et al. [2000](#page-16-0)). Higher inter-specific transferability was in accordance with other studies (Scott et al. [2000](#page-17-0); Eujayl et al. [2004;](#page-16-0) Zhang et al. [2005\)](#page-17-0), establishing that functional markers were more transferable and therefore more useful than gSSR markers with the added potential of being used in allele-mining for identification of useful agronomic traits. It was also observed that the mean transferability rates across the primary and secondary crossability groups were an average of 96.0 and 74.9%, respectively. This difference could be explained on the basis of an earlier study of Decroocq et al. ([2003](#page-16-0)), which said that the level of sequence conservation of microsatellite loci is inversely proportional to the genetic distance. Similar observations have been made in other species such as wheat (McLauchlan et al. [2001](#page-16-0)) and sugarcane (Cordeiro et al. [2001](#page-16-0)) where the genic markers displayed low level of polymorphism in cultivated accessions compared to other members of the genus thereby directing the breeders to look into the related species for introgression of novel genetic material into the germplasm.

Results from the sequencing data also provided evidence for limited sequence variability within the chickpea alleles in comparison to much higher levels of variation across the orthologous alleles from annual species. Sequence comparisons of size variant microsatellite alleles within chickpea accessions illustrated approx. 95% overall sequence conservation with few indels in the repeat as well as the MFR region (Fig. [1\)](#page-8-0) suggesting the presence of evolutionary constraints within transcribed regions that limit the mutational events and increase sequence similarity. However, sequence comparison of microsatellite alleles from various Cicer species revealed a wide range of length and sequence variability both in terms of band size and allele number. Similar results have also been obtained by Buhariwalla et al. [2005](#page-16-0) thereby establishing that EST based microsatellite markers of chickpea were not only efficient for marker-assisted introgression programs using wild germplasm but also reliable for synteny studies within the genus Cicer. Sequence variations occurred both at the repeat motifs and in the flanking regions and were interestingly found to be crossability-group-specific and therefore highly phylogenetically informative that could help in understanding the evolution of microsatellites in a phylogenetic context since it has been shown that such events at the genic loci might play an important role in speciation or gene functionality diversification during the evolutionary process.

Earlier studies have provided evidence, which shows that microsatellites undergo expansion during the course of evolution (Zhu et al. [2000](#page-17-0); Peakall et al. [1998](#page-17-0)). In our study, there was an expansion of the GGT motif at the locus CESSRDB4 (Fig. [2a](#page-12-0)), resulting in the presence of three additional repeats in members of the first crossability group. At the locus CESSRDB10, expansion of the TAA motif was accompanied by the birth of a new TAG motif (via a  $A \rightarrow G$  mutation) which later expanded in the members of the first crossability group. Such  $A \rightarrow G$ transition was also observed by Messier et al. [\(1996](#page-16-0)) in owl monkey. It has been speculated that base substitution allows the birth of new motifs that subsequently expand by replication slippage (Gordon [1997](#page-16-0)). Recently, the role of microsatellite expansion/deletion in terms of gene regulation is being investigated well in mammals as well as in plants (Li et al. [2004](#page-16-0)). The presence of SNPs in the sequence of similar sized alleles from different chickpea cultivars apparently indicated the limitation of scoring the accessions simply based on the amplicon size on gel. Also, this clearly highlights the prospects of SNP mapping in chickpea as these represent the most fundamental source of variation for molecular marker development.

In our study it was observed that the microsatellite motifs were long but punctuated by imperfections which are most often regarded as an effective mechanism for prevention of infinite growth of microsatellites (Kruglyak et al. [1998](#page-16-0); Palsboll et al. [1999\)](#page-17-0). At the CESSRDB4 and CESSRDB10 loci, base substitutions at positions 44 and 50, respectively, in the first crossability group members implied that such interruptions may have a dramatic impact in the long-term evolution of the microsatellite sequence. On the other hand, the phenomenon of microsatellite purification (loss of interruptions), a mechanism counteracting the accumulation of imperfections is also known to occur (Harr et al. [2000](#page-16-0)). This was observed at locus CESSRDB26 (Fig. [2c](#page-12-0)) where all species, except C. arietinum, harbor "T" at position 246 indicating that T represents the ancestral character state. The occurrence of longer motifs in the focal species in comparison to the related species may also be explained by the hypothesis of ascertainment bias (Ellegren et al. [1997](#page-16-0); Peakall et al. [1998;](#page-17-0) Vigouroux et al. [2002](#page-17-0)) which in our study was demonstrated by sequence comparisons at the CESS-RDB4 and CESSRDB10 loci (Fig. [2](#page-12-0)a, b). The crosstransferability of chickpea EST-SSR markers across legume species was high (mean 43.6%) clearly depicting the conservation of primer-binding sites in genomic DNA over a long evolutionary period. The usefulness of EST-SSR markers over genomic SSRs for transferability across distant relatives has been established in species such as Medicago (Gutierrez et al. [2005\)](#page-16-0), wheat (Gupta et al. [2003\)](#page-16-0), barley (Thiel et al. [2003\)](#page-17-0) and grapes (Scott et al. [2000](#page-17-0)). However in chickpea, no extensive study of cross-genera transferability of genomic SSRs was available, except for a small study by Pandian et al. [\(2000](#page-17-0)), the transferability rates across distant species of genomic versus EST-SSRs could not be compared. Our study showed that the highest rate of transferability of the chickpea EST-SSR markers was to Medicago (61.7%), whereas an earlier study by Gutierrez et al. [\(2005](#page-16-0)) showed significant, yet lower levels of transferability of the Medicago markers to chickpea (36.3%). The difference in the rates of transferability could be attributed to the choice of loci and the overall number of markers analyzed. Our study also demonstrated that the rate of transferability decreases from within the genus Cicer  $(82.6\%)$  to outside the genus  $(43.6\%)$  which was in agreement with earlier reports in cereals (Thiel et al. [2003;](#page-17-0) Gupta et al. [2003](#page-16-0)), grapes and apricot (Decroocq et al. [2003\)](#page-16-0) and *Medicago* (Gutierrez et al.  $2005$ ) suggesting that amplification decreases with increasing evolutionary distance from focal species. Overall, the chickpea markers transferred very efficiently to some members of the galegoid legumes (such as Medicago and Trifolium) as compared to the phaseoloid legumes (such as P. mungo). However, Pisum and Cajanus were exceptions to this. The variable marker transferability rate obtained across different legume genera indicated the occurrence of genus-specific evolutionary events.

In conclusion, our study was the first attempt at characterization of a large number of SSRs from the coding regions of the chickpea genome. This study not only contributed to strengthening the chickpea EST database but also provided the first set of functional SSR markers for evaluating the chickpea germplasm and molecular mapping. In this study, it was established that the chickpea EST-SSRs were highly transferable across a number of distantly related species thereby providing ample opportunity for mining of superior alleles and development of candidate gene markers for use in gene introgression programs and comparative genomics in legumes. Further, our study also provided the molecular evidence for understanding the basis of allelic variation

<span id="page-16-0"></span>within and across species, which demonstrated the presence of complex mutational processes, highlighting the evolution of microsatellites in a phylogenetic context within the genus Cicer.

Acknowledgments We are grateful to the International Crops Research Institute for the Semi-Arid Tropics (ICRISAT) India, National Bureau for Plant Genetic Resources (NBPGR) India, Maharana Pratap Agriculture University (MPAU) India, and Australian Medicago Genetic Resource Centre, SARDI, Australia for providing us the seed material of different accessions of cultivated chickpea, wild Cicer species and other legumes. Financial assistance for this work was provided by National Institute for Plant Genome Research (NIPGR), New Delhi, India and also the Department of Biotechnology (DBT), Government of India by means of a project grant. The fellowship provided to SC by University Grants Commission (UGC), India and to NK and BS by Council for Scientific and Research (CSIR), India is gratefully acknowledged.

#### References

- Aggarwal RK, Hendre PS, Varshney RK, Bhat PR, Krishnakumar V, Singh L (2007) Identification, characterization and utilization of EST-derived genic markers for genome analyses of coffee and related species. Theor Appl Genet 114:359–372
- Boominathan P, Shukla R, Kumar A, Manna D, Negi D, Verma PK, Chattopadhyay D (2004) Long term transcript accumulation during the development of dehydration adaptation in Cicer arietinum. Plant Physiol 135:1608–1620
- Buhariwalla HK, Jayashree B, Eshwar K, Crouch JH (2005) Development of ESTs from chickpea roots and their use in diversity analysis of the Cicer genus. BMC Plant Biol 5:16
- Castelo AT, Martius W, Gao GR (2002) TROLL—Tandem repeat occurrence locator. Bioinformatics 18:634–636
- Chen C, Zhou P, Choi YA, Huang S, Gmitter FG Jr (2006) Mining and characterizing microsatellites from citrus ESTs. Theor Appl Genet 112:1248–1257
- Cho YG, Ishii T, Temnykh S, Chen X, Lipovich L, McCouch SR, Park WD, Ayres N, Cartinhour S (2000) Diversity of microsatellites derived from genomic libraries and GenBank sequences in rice (Oryza sativa L.). Theor Appl Genet 100:713–722
- Choi HK, Mun JH, Kim DJ, Zhu H, Baek JM, Mudge J, Roe B, Ellis N, Doyle J, Kiss GB, Young ND, Cook DR (2004) Estimating genome conservation between crop and model legume species. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 101:15289–15294
- Choudhary S, Sethy NK, Shokeen B, Bhatia S (2006) Development of sequence-tagged microsatellites site markers for chickpea (Cicer arietinum L.). Mol Eco Notes 6:93–95
- Choumane W, Winter P, Weigand F, Kahl G (2000) Conservation and variability of sequence-tagged microsatellite sites (STMSs) from chickpea (Cicer arietinum L.) within the genus Cicer. Theor Appl Genet 101:269–278
- Coram T, Pang E (2005) Isolation and analysis of candidate ascochyta blight defense genes in chickpea, Part I. Generation and analysis of an expressed sequence tag (EST) library. Physiol Mol Plant Pathol 66:192–200
- Cordeiro GM, Casu R, McIntyr CL, Manners JM, Henry RJ (2001) Microsatellite markers from sugarcane (Saccharum spp.) ESTs cross transferable to erianthus and sorghum. Plant Sci 160:1115– 1123
- Decroocq V, Favé MG, Hagen L, Bordenave L, Decroocq S (2003) Development and transferability of apricot and grape EST

microsatellite markers across taxa. Theor Appl Genet 106:912– 922

- Doyle JJ, Doyle JL (1987) A rapid DNA isolation procedure for small quantities of fresh leaf tissue. Phytochem Bull 19:11–15
- Ellegren H, Moore S, Robinson N, Byrne K, Ward W, Sheldon BC (1997) Microsatellite evolution—a reciprocal study of repeat lengths at homologous loci in cattle and sheep. Mol Bio Evol 14:854–860
- Eujayl I, Sorrells ME, Baum M, Wolters P, Powell W (2002) Isolation of EST-derived microsatellite markers for genotyping the A and B genomes of wheat. Theor Appl Genet 104:399–407
- Eujayl I, Sledge MK, Wang L, May GD, Chekhovskiy K, Zwonitzer JC, Mian MAR (2004) Medicago truncatula EST-SSRs reveal cross species genetic markers for Medicago spp. Theor Appl Genet 108:414–422
- Gepts P, Beavis WD, Brummer EC, Shoemaker RC, Stalker HT, Weeden NF, Young ND (2005) Legumes as a model plant family. Genomics for food and feed report of the cross-legume advances through Genomics Conference. Plant Physiol 137:1228–1235
- Gordon AJE (1997) Microsatellite birth register. J Mol Evol 45:337– 338
- Gupta PK, Rustgi S, Sharma S, Singh R, Kumar N, Balyan HS (2003) Transferable EST-SSRs markers for the study of polymorphism and genetic diversity in bread wheat. Mol Gen Genet 270:315– 323
- Gutierrez MV, Vaz Patto MC, Huguet T, Cubero JI, Moreno MT, Torres AM (2005) Cross-species amplification of Medicago truncatula microsatellites across three major pulse crops. Theor Appl Genet 110:1210–1217
- Harr B, Zangerl B, Schlötterer C (2000) Removal of microsatellite interruptions by DNA replication slippage: phylogenetic evidence from Drosophila. Mol Bio Evol 17:1001–1009
- Huang X, Madan A (1999) CAP3: a DNA sequence assembly program. Genome Res 9:868–877
- Hüttel B, Winter P, Weising K, Choumane W, Weigand F, Kahl G (1999) Sequence-tagged microsatellite markers for chickpea (Cicer arietinum L.). Genome 42:210–217
- Kantety RV, Rota ML, Matthews DE, Sorrells ME (2002) Data mining for simple sequence repeats in expressed sequence tags from barley, maize, sorghum and wheat. Plant Mol Biol 48:501– 510
- Kruglyak S, Durrett RT, Schug M, Aquadro CF (1998) Equilibrium distributions of microsatellite repeat length resulting from a balance between slippage events and point mutations. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 95:10774–10778
- Kumpatia SP, Mukhopadhyay S (2005) Miming and survey of simple sequence repeats in expressed sequence tags of dicotyledonous species. Genome 48:985–998
- Li Y-C, Korol AB, Fahima T, Beiles AV, Eviatar Nevo (2002) Microsatellites: genomic distribution, putative functions and mutational mechanisms: a review. Mol Eco 11:2453– 2465
- Li YC, Korol AB, Fahima T, Nevo E (2004) Microsatellites within genes: structure, function, and evolution. Mol Biol Evol 21:991– 1007
- Lichtenzveig J, Scheuring C, Dodge J, Abbo S, Zhang HB (2005) Construction of BAC and BIBAC libraries and their applications for generation of SSR markers for genome analysis of chickpea, Cicer arietinum L. Theor Appl Genet 110:492–510
- McLauchlan A, Henry RJ, Isaac PG, Edwards KJ (2001) Microsatellites analysis in cultivated wheat and wild relatives. In: Henry RJ (ed) Plant genotyping-the DNA fingerprinting of plants. CABI publishing, Wallingford
- Messier W, Li SH, Stewart CB (1996) The birth of microsatellites. Nature 381:483
- <span id="page-17-0"></span>Morgante M, Hanafey M, Powell W (2002) Microsatellites are preferentially associated with nonrepetitive DNA in plant genomes. Nat Genet 30:194–200
- Palsboll PJ, Berube M, Jorgensen H (1999) Multiple levels of singlestrand slippage at cetacean tri-and tetra nucleotide repeat microsatellite loci. Genetics 151:285–296
- Pandian A, Ford R, Taylor PWJ (2000) Transferability of sequenced tagged microsatellite site (STMS) primers across four major pulses. PMB Reporter 18:395a–395h
- Peakall R, Glimore S, Keys W, Morgante M, Rafalski A (1998) Cross species amplification of soybean (Glycine max) simple sequence repeat (SSRs) within the genus and other legume genera: implication for transferability of SSRs in plants. Mol Biol Evol 15:1275–1287
- Poncet V, Rondeau M, Tranchant C, Cayrel A, Hamon S, Kochko AD, Hamon P (2006) SSR mining in coffee tree EST databases: potential use of EST-SSRs as markers for the Coffea genus. Theor Appl Genet 276:436–449
- Ramírez M, Graham MA, Blanco-López L, Silvente S, Medrano-Soto A, Blair MW, Hernández G, Vance CP, Lara M (2005) Sequencing and analysis of common bean ESTs. Building a foundation for functional genomics. Plant Physiol 137:1211– 1227
- Rohlf FJ (1994) NTSYS-pc: numerical taxonomy and multivariate analysis system. Applied Biostatistics, New York
- Romo S, Labrador E, Dopico B (2004) Water stress-regulated gene expression in Cicer arietinum seedlings and plants. Plant Physiol Biochem 39:1017–1026
- Rozen S, Skaletsky HJ (1997) Primer 3. Code available at [http://](http://www.genome.wi.mit.edu/genome_software/other/primer3.html) [www.genome.wi.mit.edu/genome\\_software/other/primer3.html](http://www.genome.wi.mit.edu/genome_software/other/primer3.html)
- Sambrook J, Fritsch EF, Maniatis T (1989) Molecular cloning: a laboratory manual, 2nd edn. Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory, New York
- Scott KD, Eggler P, Seaton G, Rossetto M, Ablett EM, Lee LS, Henry RJ (2000) Analysis of SSRs derived from grape ESTs. Theor Appl Genet 100:723–726
- Sethy NK, Shokeen B, Bhatia S (2003) Isolation and characterization of sequence-tagged microsatellite sites markers in chickpea (Cicer arietinum L.). Mol Ecol Notes 3:428–430
- Sethy NK, Shokeen B, Edwards KJ, Bhatia S (2006a) Development of microsatellite markers and analysis of intra-specific genetic variability in chickpea (Cicer arietinum L.). Theor Appl Genet 112:1416–1428
- Sethy NK, Choudhary S, Shokeen B, Bhatia S (2006b) Identification of microsatellite markers from Cicer reticulatum: molecular variation and phylogenetic analysis. Theor Appl Genet 112:347– 357
- Shan F, Clarke HC, Plummer JA, Yan G, Siddique KHM (2005) Geographical patterns of genetic variation in the world collections of wild annual Cicer characterized by amplified fragment length polymorphisms. Theor Appl Genet 110:381–391
- Tayyar RI, Waines JG (1996) Genetic relationships among annual species of Cicer (Fabaceae) using isozymes variation. Theor Appl Genet 92:245–254
- Thiel T, Michalek W, Varshney RK, Graner A (2003) Exploiting EST databases for the development and characterization of genederived SSR markers in barley (Hordeum vulgare L.). Theor Appl Genet 106:411–422
- Tian AG, Wang J, Cui P, Han YJ, Xu H, Cong LJ, Huang XG, Wang XL, Jiao YZ, Wang BJ, Wang YJ, Zhang JS, Chen SY (2004) Characterization of soybean genomic features by analysis of its expressed sequence tags. Theor Appl Genet 108:903–913
- Udupa SM, Robertson LD, Weigand F, Baum M, Kahl G (1999) Allelic variation at  $(TAA)$ <sub>n</sub> microsatellite loci in a world collection of chickpea (C. arietinum L.) germplasm. Mol Gen Genet 261:354–363
- Varshney RK, Thiel T, Stein N, Langridge P, Graner A (2002) In silico analysis on frequency and distribution of microsatellites in ESTs of some cereal species. Cell Mol Biol Lett 7:537–546
- Varshney RK, Graner A, Sorrells ME (2005a) Genic microsatellite markers in plants: features and applications. Trends Biotechnol 23:48–55
- Varshney RK, Sigmund R, Börner A, Korzun V, Stein N, Sorrells ME, Langridge P, Graner A (2005b) Interspecific transferability and comparative mapping of barley EST-SSR markers in wheat, rye and rice. Plant Sci 168:195–202
- Vigouroux Y, Jaqueth JS, Matsuoka Y, Smith OS, Beavis WD, Smith JSC, Doebley J (2002) Rate and pattern of mutation at microsatellite loci in maize. Mol Biol Evol 19:1251–1260
- Weeden NF, Muehlbauer FJ, Ladizinsky G (1992) Extensive conservation of linkage relationships between pea and lentil genetic maps. J Hered 83:123–129
- Winter P, Benko-Iseppon AM, Hüttel B, Ratnaparkhe M, Tullu A, Sonnante G, Pfaff T, Tekeoglu M, Santra D, Sant VJ, Rajesh PN, Kahl G, Muehlbauer FJ (2000) A linkage map of the chickpea (Cicer arietinum L.) genome based on recombinant inbred lines from a C. arietinum  $\times$  C. reticulatum cross: localization of resistance genes for fusarium wilt races 4 and 5. Theor Appl Genet 101:1155–1163
- Yeh FC, Boyle TJB (1997) Population genetic analysis of codominant and dominant markers and quantitative traits. Belg J Bot 129:157
- Yi G, Lee JM, Lee S, Choi D, Kim BD (2006) Exploitation of pepper EST-SSRs and an SSR-based linkage map. Theor Appl Genet 114:113–130
- Zhang LY, Bernard M, Leroy P, Feuillet C, Sourdille P (2005) High transferability of bread wheat EST-derived SSRs to other cereals. Theor Appl Genet 111:677–687
- Zhu Y, Queller DC, Strassmann JE (2000) A phylogenetic perspective on sequence evolution in microsatellite loci. J Mol Evol 50:324– 338