# academicJournals

Vol. 15(46), pp. 2613-2619, 16 November, 2016 DOI: 10.5897/AJB2016.15586 Article Number: A6B8C3A61675 ISSN 1684-5315 Copyright © 2016 Author(s) retain the copyright of this article http://www.academicjournals.org/AJB

African Journal of Biotechnology

Full Length Research Paper

# Inbreeding depression in crosses of *coerulea* clones of Walker's Cattleya (*Cattleya walkeriana* Gardner)

Miléia Ricci Picolo, Ceci Castilho Custódio, Nelson Barbosa Machado-Neto\*

Department of Agronomy, Universidade do Oeste Paulista (UNOESTE), Presidente Prudente, São Paulo, Brazil.

Received 25 July, 2016; Accepted 21 September, 2016

Orchids are among the most beautiful flowers and endangered due to habitat destruction and overcollection. *Cattleya walkeriana* is one of the most beautiful flowers joining the small sized plant with medium large and heavily scented flowers. It is widely known and appreciated by its beautiful clones and it has much to offer to breeders because their plants have besides other attributes as small habit and big flowers, many colour variations, form and precocity, becoming flower only four years in *ex vitro* culture. However, in some of the original places it is becoming a red listed species. Notwithstanding, very little is known about the genetics of these flowers and the variability in the species that is widespread in the Brazilian territory. The aim of this work was to estimate the variability among cultivated materials using the F statistics and to verify if there was inbreeding in plant crosses with similar characteristics, employing as a tool the RAPD simple methodology. The results obtained showed that RAPD was good enough to estimate the variability in *C. walkeriana*. The selected primers were able to define colour group, especially the *coerulea*. Inbreeding will occur in crosses of clones with the same colour.

**Key words:** Orchidaceae, deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA), random amplified polymorphic DNA (RAPD), variability, domestication.

# INTRODUCTION

Currently, molecular markers have been used in plant breeding for several objectives, which makes possible more detailed and consistent analysis of their genetics. The establishment of deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA) molecular patterns serves as a parameter for identification of clones and varieties and as a tool for a better taxonomical classification and variability determination in orchids (Chung et al., 2006; Minoo et al., 2006, 2008; Parab et al., 2008; Niknejad et al., 2009; Verma et al., 2009; Oliveira et al., 2010; Xue et a l., 2010; Machado Neto and Vieira, 2011; Sharma et al., 2011; Manners et al., 2013).

The variability estimated by these markers can be used, as any other markers, to estimate the population genetics (F statistics) (Wright, 1978). However, these tools (F statistics) are barely used to follow populations in plant breeding (Sallam et al., 2015). Marker Assisted Selection (MAS) has been a useful tool for plant breeders,

\*Corresponding author. E-mail: nbmneto@unoeste.br. Tel: (+55 18) 32292000.

Author(s) agree that this article remains permanently open access under the terms of the <u>Creative Commons Attribution</u> <u>License 4.0 International License</u>

but has had limited success in improving complex traits (Heffner et al., 2010).

According Minoo et al. (2008), random amplified polymorphic DNA (RAPD) technique has some advantages over other techniques as the easy, rapid achievement of polymorphic markers, low cost, absence of hybridization, detection of polymorphism in highly repetitive genome, and high level of polymorphism compared to other molecular markers. However, either RAPD or any other single primer amplification method (SPAR) (Gupta et al., 1994), present a few disadvantages, such as ambiguity in the interpretation of the bands co-migrating fragments of equal size or close and dominant character in most of the markers obtained, what cannot be a penalty for this (Simmons, 2007). In the orchids study, this method can be used to indicate genetic similarity between these plants, their hybrids and wild ancestors, to offspring prediction of a cross, based on the information from the genotype of early and efficiently, as well as helping in the species classification, or just to measure the raw variability (Costa et al., 2006; Minoo et al., 2008; Niknejad et al., 2009; Oliveira et al., 2010; Xue et al., 2010; Machado-Neto and Vieira, 2011; Manners et al., 2013).

The analysis at molecular level is an advantage for studies on perennial plants, enabling the evaluation of genetic similarity between genotypes (Ambiel et al., 2008, 2010; Machado-Neto and Vieira, 2011) and to collect information on the level of genetic diversity of wild orchids to enable a better conservation of the species (Manners et al., 2013).

In the world flora, orchids are the second largest family, with almost 736 genera and over 26,000 species (Chase et al., 2015), ranging from 7 to 10% of the flowering plant species (Cowan et al., 2006) distributed in five subfamilies: Apostasioideae, Cypripedioideae, Epidendroideae, Orchidoideae, and Vanilloideae (Cameron, 2006). *Cattleya* together with *Cymbidium*, *Oncidium*, *Phalaenopsis* and *Dendrobium* are important commercial ornamental species due to its large spectrum of colours and relatively high cross ability with other genera. Orchid commercialization, both pot plants and cut flowers, is highly significant worldwide, about US\$504 million (De and Medhi, 2015) and is increasing year after year.

The number of described species in *Cattleya* is still a matter of debate, ranging from 49 to 114 species (excluding *Guarianthe* and *Cattleyella* and including *Sophronitis* (Van den Berg, 2014) and Brazil has 98 endemics (Forzza et al., 2013).

*Cattleya walkeriana* belongs to the unifoliate group of the genus and within which it can be considered a small plant. It has a stout rhizome, with three internode pseudobulbs, close to each other. It has long roots, thick and often branched (Menezes, 2011). It is widely known and appreciated by its beautiful clones. It is found in different regions of Brazil, growing over rocks or trees in the states of Goiás, São Paulo, Mato Grosso do Sul, and Minas Gerais, nearby lakes, rivers or swamps and it could be easily cultivated (Menezes, 2011). It has much to offer to breeders because their plants have small habit, large flowers, many colour variations (type: (pink), *alba, semi-alba* and *coerulea*, Figure 1), form and precocity (Menezes, 2011), becoming flower only four years in *ex vitro* culture. However, in some of the original places, it is becoming a red listed species (Brasil, 2008).

Very few is known about the genetics of *Cattleya* species; *Cattleya intermedia* (Machado-Neto and Vieira, 2011) using RAPD; *Catleya elongata* (Cruz et al., 2011) with isozymes and ISSR; *Cattleya coccinea* (Novello et al., 2013); with ISSR in *Cattleya bicolor*, *Cattleya labiata* and *Cattleya schofieldiana* (Fajardo et al., 2014) with SSR and one in *C. labiata* using RAPD and ISSR (Pinheiro et al., 2012). And lesser is known about the inheritance of some characters especially because these plants are perennials and the time between one generation and the following is almost 5 years.

Plant breeding and evolution are related for two reasons; the first is that plant breeding might be defined as evolution guided by man and the second is that both processes have their basis in, and a major effect on, biodiversity (Ceccarelli, 2009).

In populations submitted to constant selection, where just the superior individuals were promoted for reproduction, the alleles controlling characters of interest had their frequency increased, leading to diversity loss in crop plants. In orchids, flower shape and colours have been improved by breeding (Machado Neto and Vieira, 2011). While in wild specimens of *C. walkeriana*, another colour than the type are often not found; it is common to find *alba*, *coerulea* and different colours in bred *C. walkeriana* with exceptionally well-shaped flowers. This species has much to offer for breeders, but it counts just with 109 direct hybrid offspring and it is not much used as parent; for example two related species, *Cattleya loddigesii* and *C. intermedia*, counts with 230 and 217 primary hybrids respectively (RHS, 2016)..

This study aimed at the measurement of the variability and inbreeding in a population submitted to selection and directional crosses of *coerulea* clones of *C. walkeriana*, by means of F statistics (Wright, 1978; Sallam et al., 2015), and to evaluate the ability of RAPD markers in grouping phenotypes of these plants and measure the fixation of the *coerulea* characteristic in the species and among clones. To our knowledge, this work is the first of this kind with this species.

#### MATERIALS AND METHODS

#### Plant

In this work, young and adult plants of *C. walkeriana*, *coerulea* (blue) colour, type (pink), *semi-alba* and *alba* (white flowers), were used. Plants have diverse origin, except the offspring. They are listed in Table 1.

#### **DNA** extraction

DNA extraction and amplifications were done as in Machado-Neto



Type Aurora #12



Alba Aurora #1



Semi-alba Aurora #1

Coerulea 'Blue City'



Coerulea 'ABC'

Coerulea 'Patrícia'

Figure 1. Colour forms of Cattleya walkeriana Gardner.

Table 1. List of Cattleya walkeriana plants, their colour and origin.

Plant	Colour	Origin
Patrícia (parental P1)	Coerulea	Prata - Minas Gerais
Blue City (parental P <sub>2</sub> ) and ABC (parental for Backcross - BC <sub>1</sub> )	Coerulea	Offsprings of selfed DICK (ESALQ) clone from Itajubá, MG.
F1 (first generation, 7 plants)	Туре	(Patrícia x Blue City)
F <sub>2</sub> (second generation, F <sub>1</sub> xF <sub>1</sub> , 11 plants)	Unknown	-
BC1 (first backcross generation - 23 plants)	Unknown	(F1 x ABC)
Rancho Sereno x Patrícia (4 plants) (RSP)	Coerulea	-
Alba (CA)	white	unknown
Puanani (Pu)	Semi alba	
Unnamed clone (SA)	Semi alba	(semi alba "Goiaba" x albescens "Denise Cavasini" – from Guará-SP)
Twins (CWT)	Light pink	-

Prata and Itajubá are nearly 600 km apart.

and Vieira (2011). To identify markers, 120 primers from Operon (Alameda, USA) were initially tested in four plants, one representative of each generation (Parental, F1, F2, BC1) and 33 were primarily chosen (A1, A2, A5, A10, A11, A14, A18, A19, A20, C1, C2, C4, C5, C6, C7, C8, C11, C12, C14, C16, D1, D2, D13, G2, G3, G5, G6, G7, G8, G11, G12, G14, G16) as they were polymorphic. PCR was carried out in a reaction volume of 25  $\mu$ l containing Tris buffer (20 mM Tris-HCl, pH 8.4), 50 mM KCl, 1.5 mM MgCl<sub>2</sub>, 0.4  $\mu$ M of primer, 0.2  $\mu$ M of each dNTP, 1U Taq polymerase and two concentrations of template DNA 25 and 50 ng. RAPD amplifications were performed in a thermo cycler under the following conditions: 94°C for 3 min for initial denaturation and then

40 cycles of 1 min at 94°C, 1 min at 37°C for primer annealing and 90 s at 72°C for chain elongation in a PTC-100 Thermocycler. An extra step of 5 min at 72°C for final elongation was included.

Amplification products were separated by electrophoresis in 1.5% agarose gel. Gels were stained with ethidium bromide and visualized using Electrophoresis Analysis System (Biosystems). Each amplification reaction was repeated at least twice and only clearly distinct and reproducible bands were scored. Weak or low intensity bands were not considered to avoid ambiguous interpretations. The analysis of the bands was performed with the Quantum program - Capt (Vilber -Lourmat) to determine the electrophoretic pattern. The primers selected for the final analysis were

Primers	Nucleotide sequence (5'	3')	Polymorphic bands	Fragment size (pb)
A2	TGC CGA GCT G		10	280 - 1380
A5	AGG GGT CTT G		9	300 - 1190
A10	GTC ATC GCA G		10	250 - 1370
G5	CTG AGA CCG A		10	280 - 1380
G11	TGC CCG TCG T		8	400 - 1460
G13	CTC TCC GCC A		7	350 - 1060
Total	-		54	-

**Table 2.** Nucleotide sequences of the primers, number of bands, polymorphism and size of amplified fragments in *Cattleya walkeriana*.

A2, A5, A10, G5, G11 and G13, because they successfully amplified a total of 54 fragments. Polymerase chain reaction (PCR) was performed as described earlier.

Bands were used to construct a similarity matrix based on the Jaccard coefficient, coding 1 as presence and 0 as absence. The grouping analysis was done using the Unweighted Pair-Group Method Using an Arithmetic Average (UPGMA) algorithm. This analysis was performed with the software NTSYS 2.1 (Rohlf, 2004). Molecular variance analysis (AMOVA) was calculated by total decomposition of its components among and between accessions using the square distances with the Arlequin software (Excoffier et al., 2015).

The fixation index or F statistics of Wright ( $F_{ST}$ ) was generated by the Arlequin software (v. 3.5). The inbreeding coefficient ( $F_{IS}$ ) was calculated by the formula:

$$F_{IS} = 1 + \frac{(1 - F_{IT})}{(1 - F_{ST})}$$

and the general fixation index ( $F_{IT}$ ) was calculated by the formula:

$$F_{IT} = 1 - (\frac{Ho}{He})$$

where *Ho* and *He* were the observed and waited heterozygosity respectively, obtained in Arlequin software.

#### **RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

Table 2 shows the nucleotide sequences used. The fragments generated ranged from 150 to 2500 bp, lying within the boundaries according to Xue et al. (2010), in which the RAPD technique has good reproducibility.

After primers selection, the construction of a dendrogram was made with all RAPD markers selected. According to the band analysis, it was possible to estimate the ability of these markers to group plants by their colour, that efficiency is demonstrated by the dendrogram (Figure 2), which exhibit a group of *coerulea* plants, where  $P_1$  and RSP<sub>1</sub> are in the same branch, but in a different location of  $P_2$  and RSP (P). That both P1 and P2 plants could be regarded as *coerulea* but to different subclades, P1 for group IA and P2 for group IB.

It was expected that all plants from a cross between

"Rancho Sereno" and "Patricia" were in the same branch. because both plants are coerulea. All coerulea plants showed up together in a larger branch. In another clade, F<sub>1</sub> plants, although the same phenotype, were separated by branches indicating genetic proximity, but no similarity (group II - Figure 2). The CWT plant showed next to semi-alba (group III - Figure 2), these last sharing the same clade, and the plant CA in other branch bellow, but close to the semi-alba (group IV - Figure 2). This figure shows the clustering of plants that have flourished (relatives, control and F1) and plants that have not flowered ( $F_2$  and  $BC_1$  generations). Some  $F_2$  plants were close to F<sub>1</sub> ones which indicates a probable phenotypic similarity. The proximity of these plants with those of already known phenotype may indicate that their flower will have the same colour.

As shown in Table 3, for the population studied, there was a high variability, indicated by the overall  $F_{ST}$  (0.017), considering Wright (1978) in which  $F_{ST} > 0.25$  was considered low variability. However, even using coerulea of different origins an increase in the  $\mathsf{F}_{\mathsf{ST}}$  values was showed (0.337 for the parents, 0.539 for F1 and 0.567 for  $F_2$ , 0.465 for all the *coerulea*, and 0.492 for BC<sub>1</sub>) explained by the fact that plants with similar characteristics were crossed and there was a decreasing in the variability meaning a strong differentiation between those plants and the population ( $F_{ST}$  0.017). The selection of plants with the same colour for the initial cross led to endogamy showed in this study by the cross between Patricia x Blue City (Table 1), but it could happen in nature, as a pollinator would choose flower with the same colour, by chance, creating an inbreed population.

In *Cattleya intermedia* (Machado-Neto and Vieira, 2011) and *Cattleya elongata* (Cruz et al., 2011)  $F_{ST}$  values were low indicating a high gene flux among plants (0.016 and 0.100 respectivelly), but for Fajardo et al. (2014) these values are much higher (from 0.177 in *Cattleya labiata* to 0.322 in *Cattleya granulosa*) indicating loss of variability in the last case.

The  $F_{IS}$  values shown (Table 3) are also very informative, as the values are closer to -1, in the overall sample, meaning that there is more heterozygosity in



Figure 2. Grouping of plants of Cattleya walkeriana progeny F1, F2, BC1 and other colour forms.

**Table 3.** Wright's measure of population differentiation ( $F_{ST}$ ) and inbreeding ( $F_{IS}$ ), observed ( $H_o$ ) and estimated Heterosigosity (He) using RAPD markers for *Cattleya walkeriana* offsprings.

Source of variation	Fst	Fis	Ho (±sd)	HE (±SD)
Parents	0.377**	-0.403**	0.496 (0.273)	0.353 (0.140)
F <sub>1</sub>	0.539**	-0.022	0.456 (0.197)	0.446 (0.126)
F <sub>2</sub>	0.567**	-0.320**	0.454 (0.198)	0.344 (0.145)
Coerulea	0.465**	-0.243**	0.496 (0.213)	0.399 (0.135)
BC <sub>1</sub>	0.492**	-0.447**	0.450 (0.211)	0.311 (0.149)
Overall	0.017	-0.734**	0.463 (0.211)	0.267 (0.153)

\*\*P<0.01.

this. On the other hand, there was more homozygosis as the values approaches to zero, exemplified by -0.022 in the F<sub>1</sub> population. Intermediate values as the parents (-0.403), F<sub>2</sub> (-0.320), *coerulea* (-0.243) and BC<sub>1</sub> (0.447) were more heterozygous than F1. These kind of data are very useful for perennials (Guries and Ledig, 1981). The values found in this work for *Ho* and *He* were not statistically different for the populations. In both, F<sub>ST</sub> and  $\mathsf{F}_{\mathsf{IS}},$  there were indications that general population has a good gene flux and driven crosses led to gene diversity loss.

Li and Ge (2006) using RAPD markers found low genetic diversity within populations and high among the studied populations of *Changnienia amoena* (an orchid species). These results were due to small population size, the local extinction because of habitat destruction

and restricted gene flow.

In *Platanthera leucophaea*, another species of orchid, rare and endangered species, the values of  $F_{ST}$  for RAPD and isoenzymes (0.889 and 0.754, respectively) showed a large amount of inbreeding consistent with each other (Holsinger et al., 2002). Moreover, in a study by Pressoir and Berthaud (2004), the allelic fixation index in corn landraces showed little variation between populations ( $F_{ST}$  0.003 to 0.011).

Ambiel et al. (2008, 2010) estimated in *Brachiaria brizantha*, an apomitic species, lower values of  $F_{ST}$  (0.216 and 0.276) indicate a high gene flow. According to Wright (1978) populations with low levels of selection showed lower values of  $F_{ST}$ . Sallam et al. (2015) used the F statistics to follow selection during a barley breeding process, so this could be a very useful tool to follow improvement during breeding program, especially in perennials as orchids.

Wild and cultivated populations differ statistically in various characters likely to be human selected, although plants some cultivated are morphologically indistinguishable their from relative wild plants (Pickersgill, 2007). So, the increase in the F<sub>ST</sub> measured during the breeding generations followed in this work was there the indicator that there was an increase in the inbreeding and in the loss of variability. The targeted character (flower colour) was not being fixed in the generations after the initial cross, but the primers were good enough to group the plants according flower colours.

# Conclusion

RAPD was good enough to estimate the variability in *C.* walkeriana. The selected primers were able to define colour group, especially the *coerulea*.  $F_{ST}$  was a good of inbreeding, occurring in crosses of clones with the same colour and and in the loss of variability driven by the selection.

# **Conflict of Interests**

The authors have not declared any conflict of interest.

#### REFERENCES

- Ambiel AC, Guaberto LM, Vanderlei TM, Machado Neto NB (2008). RAPD grouping of accesses and cultivars of three Brachiaria species. Acta Sci. Agron. 30(4):457-464.
- Ambiel AC, Machado Neto NB, Guaberto LM, Vanderlei TM (2010). Brachiaria germplasm dissimilarity as shown by RAPD markers. Crop Breed. App. Biotechol. 10(1):55-64.
- Cameron KM (2006). A comparison and combination of plastid atpB and rbcL gene sequences for inferring phylogenetic relationships within Orchidaceae. Aliso 22:447-464.
- Ceccarelli S (2009). Evolution, plant breeding and biodiversity. J. Agric. Environ. Int. Dev. 103(1/2):131-145.

- Chase MW, Cameron KM, Freudenstein JV, Pridgeon AM, Salazar G, van den Berg C, Schuiteman A. (2015). An updated classification of Orchidaceae. Bot. J. Lin. Soc 177(2):151-174.
- Chung SY, Choi SH, Kim MJ, Yoon KE, Lee GP, Lee JS, Ryu KH (2006). Genetic relationship and differentiation of *Paphiopedilum* and *Phragmipedium* based on RAPD analysis. Sci. Hortic. 109(2):153-109.
- Costa FR, Pereira TNS, Vitória AP, Campos KP, Rodrigues R, Silva DH, Pereira MG (2006). Genetic diversity among *Capsicum* accessions using RAPD markers. Crop Breed. App. Biotechnol. 6(1):18-23.
- Cowan RS; Chase MW; Kress W; Savolainen V (2006). 300,000 species to identify: problems, progress, and prospects in DNA barcoding of land plants. Taxon 55:611-616.
- Cruz DT, Selbach-Schnadelbach A, Lambert SM, Ribeiro PL, Borba EL (2011). Genetic and morphological variability in Cattleya elongata Barb. Rodr.(Orchidaceae), endemic to the campo rupestre vegetation in northeastern Brazil. Plant Syst. Evol. 294(1-2):87-98.
- De LC, Medhi RP (2015). Orchid a diversified component of farming systems for profitability and livelihood security of small and marginal farmers. J. Glob. Biosci. 4(2):1393-1406.
- Excoffier L, Laval G, Schneider S (2015). Arlequin ver 3.5 An Integrated Software Package for Population Genetics Data Analysis (software) Bern: University of Berne Computational and Molecular Population Genetics Lab (CMPG), 2015. Available at: <http://cmpg.unibe.ch/software/arlequin35/Arl35Downloads.html>. Accessed in: 27 Jan. 2016.
- Fajardo CG. Vieira FA, Molina WF (2014). Interspecific genetic analysis of orchids in Brazil using molecular markers. Plant Syst. Evol. 300(8):1825-1832.
- Forzza RC, Costa A, Walter BMT, Piran JR, Morim MP, Queiroz LP, Martinelli G, Peixoto AL, Coelho MAN, Baumgratz JFA, Stehmann JR, Lohmann LG (2013). Angiosperms. In. List of Brazilian Flora Species. Jardim Botânico do Rio de Janeiro. Disponível em: http://floradobrasil.jbrj.gov.br/reflora/listaBrasil/PrincipalUC/PrincipalU C.do#CondicaoTaxonCP Accessed in: 01 Jul. 2016.
- Gupta M, Chyi YS, Romero-Severson J, Owen JL (1994). Amplification of DNA markers from evolutionarily diverse genomes using single primers of SSRs. Theor. Appl. Genet. 89:998-1006.
- Guries R, Ledig FT (1981). Genetic structure of populations and differentiation in forest trees. In: Conkle MT (ed.). Proceedings of the Symposium on Isozymes of North American Forest Trees and Forest Insects. Berkeley, California. U.S. Forest Service General Technical Report PSW-48. pp. 30-37.
- Heffner EL, Lorenz AJ, Jannink J-L, Sorrells ME (2010). Plant Breeding with genomic selection: gain per unit time and cost. Crop Sci. 50:1681-1690.
- Holsinger KE, Lewis PO, Dey DK (2002). A Bayesian approach to inferring population structure from dominant markers. Mol. Ecol. 11(7):1157-1164.
- Li A, Ge S (2006). Genetic variation and conservation of *Changnienia amoena*, an endangered orchid endemic to China. Plant Syst. Evol. 258(3-4):251-260.
- Machado Neto NB, Vieira LGE (2011). Assessment of genetic diversity in *Cattleya intermedia* Lindl. (Orchidaceae). Braz. Arch. Biol. Technol. 54(5):939-946.
- Manners V, Kumaria S, Tandon P (2011). SPAR methods revealed high genetic diversity within populations and high gene flow of Vanda coerulea Griff ex Lindl (Blue Vanda), an endangered orchid species. Gene 519:91-97.
- Menezes LC (2011). Cattleya walkeriana. Brasília: Ibama. 276 p.
- Minoo D, Jayakumar VN, Veena SS, Vimala J, Basha A, Saji KV, Nirmal Badu K, Peter KV (2008). Genetic variations and interrelationships in Vanilla planiflolia and few related species as expressed by RAPD polymorphism. Gen. Res. Crop. Evol. 55(3):459-470.
- Minoo D, Nirmal Babu K, Ravindran PV, Peter KV (2006). Interespecific hybridization in *Vanila* and molecular characterization of hybrids and selfed progenies using RAPD and AFLP markers. Sci. Hortic. 108(4):414-422.
- Niknejad A, Kadir MA, Kadzimin SB, Abdullah, NAP, Sorkesh K (2009). Molecular characterization and phylogenetic relationship among and within species of *Phalaenopsis* (Epidendroideae: Orchidaceae) based

on RAPD analysis. Afr. J. Biotechnol. 8(20):5225-5240.

- Novello M, Rodrigues JF, Pinheiro F, Oliveira GCX, Veasey EA, Koehler S (2013). Simple-sequence repeat markers of *Cattleya coccinea* (Orchidaceae), an endangered species of the Brazilian Atlantic Forest. Genet. Mol. Res. 12(3):3274-3278.
- Oliveira LRO, Faria RT, Ruas CF, Ruas PM, Santos MO, Carvalho VP (2010). Genetic analysis of species in the genus *Catasetum* (Orchidaceae) using RAPD markers. Braz. Arch. Biol. Technol. 52(2):375-387.
- Parab GV, Krishnan S, Janarthanam MK, Sivaprakash KR, Parida A (2008). ISSR and RAPD markers assessed genetic variations of *Aerides maculosum* – an epiphytic orchid from Goa, India. J. Plant. Biochem. Biotechnol. 17(1):107-109.
- Pickersgill B (2007). Domestication of plants in the Americas: Insights from Mendelian and molecular genetics. Ann. Bot. 100:925-940.
- Pinheiro LR, Rabbani ARC, Silva AVC, Lédo AS, Pereira KLG, Diniz LEC (2012). Genetic diversity and population structure in the Brazilian *Cattleya labiata* (Orchidaceae) using RAPD and ISSR markers. Plant Syst. Evol. 298(10):1815-1825.
- Pressoir G, Berthaud J (2004). Patterns of population structure in maize landraces from the central valleys of Oaxaca in Mexico. Heredity 92(2):88-94.
- RHS (Royal Horticultural Society). 2016 < http://appsrhsorguk/horticulturaldatabase/orchidregister/parentageres ultsasp>
- Rohlf FJ (2004). NTSYS-Pc: numerical taxonomy and multivariate analysis system, version 2.1, user's guide New York: Exeter Software.
- Sallam AH, Endelman JB, Jannik JL, Smith KP (2015). Assessing genomic selection prediction accuracy in a dynamic barley breeding population. Plant Genome 8(1):1-15.
- Sharma SK, Kumaria S, Tandon P, Rao SR. (2011) Single primer amplification reaction (SPAR) reveals inter- and intra-specific natural genetic variation in five species of *Cymbidium* (Orchidaceae). Gene 483:54-62.

- Simmons MP (2007). A penalty of using anonymous dominant markers (AFLPs, ISSRs and RAPDs) for phylogenetic inference. Mol. Phylogenet. Evol. 42(2):528-542.
- van den Berg C (2014). Reaching a compromise between conflicting nuclear and plastid phylogenetic trees: a new classification for the genus Cattleya (Epidendreae; Epidendroideae; Orchidaceae). Phytotaxa 186(2):75-86.
- Verma PC, Chakrabarty D, Jena SN, Mishra DK, Singh PK, Sawant SV, Tuli R (2009). The extent of genetic diversity among *Vanila* species: Comparative results of RAPD and ISSR. Ind. Crops Prod. 29(2):581-589.
- Wright S (1978). Evolution and the genetics of populations. Vol 4 Variability within and among natural populations. University of Chicago Press, Chicago.
- Xue D, Feng S, Zhao H, Jiang H, Shen B, Shi N, Lu J, Liu J, Wang H (2010). The linkage maps of *Dendrobium* species based on RAPD and SRAP markers. J. Genet. Genome 37(3):197-204.