

## Research article

### Diversity Analysis of 53 Soybean Accessions Introduced from China Based on Morphological Characteristics and SSR Markers

Rosliana Purwaning Dyah<sup>1</sup>, Kunto Wibisono<sup>1,5</sup>, Rerenstradika Tizar Terryana<sup>2</sup>, Kristianto Nugroho<sup>3</sup>, Ratna Utari<sup>1</sup>, Suparjo<sup>1</sup>, Umar<sup>1</sup>, Puji Lestari<sup>4</sup> and I Made Tasma<sup>1\*</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Research Center for Food Crops, National Research and Innovation Agency (NRIA), Cibinong, Bogor 16911, Indonesia

<sup>2</sup>Research Center for Genetic Engineering, National Research and Innovation Agency (NRIA), Cibinong, Bogor 16911, Indonesia

<sup>3</sup>Research Center for Horticultural and Estate Crops, National Research and Innovation Agency (NRIA), Cibinong, Bogor 16911, Indonesia

<sup>4</sup>Research Organization for Agriculture and Food, National Research and Innovation Agency (NRIA), Cibinong, Bogor 16911, Indonesia

<sup>5</sup>Postgraduate School of Bogor Agricultural University (IPB University), Jl. Raya Dramaga, Bogor, 11680, Indonesia

Curr. Appl. Sci. Technol. 2024, Vol. 24 (No. 3), e0259116; <https://doi.org/10.55003/cast.2024.259116>

Received: 19 June 2023, Revised: 11 August 2023, Accepted: 31 October 2023, Published: 15 February 2024

### Abstract

#### Keywords

genetic diversity;  
morphology;  
principal component analysis;  
principal coordinate analysis;  
soybean;  
SSR marker

Indonesia still faces challenges in meeting its national soybean demand. Genetic diversity can provide new resources to improve soybean production and quality. Genetic diversity of 53 soybean accessions introduced from China, based on morphological characteristics and 17 SSR markers, was analyzed in this study. Principal component analysis (PCA) conducted on morphological characters produced a total diversity value of 64.67% and identified four main components. Based on phylogenetic analysis and principal coordinate analysis (PCoA) two accessions showed low genetic similarity of 78% (China cult-55 and Mi yang niu mao huang), which indicated that they could be selected as parents for plant breeding programs. In addition, 772 SSR alleles at an average of 45 alleles per locus were detected. The average heterozygosity was 0.83, and the average polymorphic information content (PIC) value was 0.96. All SSR markers showed a PIC value  $> 0.8$ , indicating their informativeness in analyzing genetic diversity of soybean. The phylogenetic analysis indicated a genetic similarity of 82% and the accessions were grouped into two main clusters. The phylogenetic analysis depicted that several accessions could be grouped based on the growth type and origin. The results of morphological characterization and molecular markers in the analysis of genetic diversity are beneficial for selecting parental crosses when developing new varieties.

\*Corresponding author: Tel.: (0254) 281055 Fax: (0254) 282507  
E-mail: [i.made.tasma@brin.go.id](mailto:i.made.tasma@brin.go.id)

## 1. Introduction

Soybean is one of the three main food commodities in Indonesia, after rice and corn. Soybean protein content ranged from 35.1-42% [1]. Soybeans with high protein content can be used to meet the nutrition requirements of the population [2]. In Indonesia, soybeans are often consumed in processed forms such as tofu, tempeh, soy sauce, soy milk, etc. [3, 4]. Soybean is a plant with a taproot system, two types of stem growth (determinate and indeterminate), and a trifoliate leaf. Soybean is a self-pollinating plant and has two flower colors (white and purple). The number of seeds per pod produced in soybean ranges from 1-5 seeds and the color of the pods when young is light green and changes to dark brown when pods are mature [5-8]. In 2018, Indonesia's soybean production was 982,598 tons with a productivity of 1.44 tons/ha [9]. However, this production was unable to meet the national soybean demand, which averaged at 2.3 million tons/year. Therefore, Indonesia's dependency on soybean imports increased from 69.7% of domestic consumption in 2013 to 88.1% in 2019 [10]. To achieve soybean self-sufficiency, soybean productivity needs to be increased through plant breeding to develop new superior varieties [11]. The development of new superior varieties can be achieved through various methods including artificial crossing [12, 13], mutation induction [14-17], local variety purification [18], and utilization of introduced varieties [19].

Introduced genotypes with high adaptability such as agronomic performance and higher productivity than local varieties, have the potential to become new superior varieties and can be used as parents in soybean breeding programs [20]. There are several methods that can be used in plant breeding programs, such as hybridization, mutation, genetic transformation, and molecular breeding through the use of marker-assisted selection techniques [21-23]. In previous studies, several plant breeding programs for soybeans were reported. These included soybean breeding for resistance to whitefly [24], molecular breeding to overcome biotic stresses [25], molecular breeding of long juvenile (LJ) trait to improve soybean yield in low latitude tropical regions [12], and mutation breeding methods to develop drought tolerant soybean [22]. Plant introduction (PI) is one of the important sources of targeted traits in soybean breeding programs. For example, LJ trait was obtained by introducing soybean genotypes having LJ character from the USA [12]. The PIs obtained from other countries were intensively tested for their phenotypic performances in the environmental conditions where the soybean variety would be developed. Therefore, for breeding purposes, it is highly necessary to characterize the introduced soybean genotypes to determine their properties both at morphological and molecular levels [26].

Plant morphological characteristics can be used as a reference for identification, mapping of relationships, and taxonomy of plants [27]. However, morphological characters are highly influenced by environmental factors [28], and thus supporting analysis of genetic diversity using molecular markers is needed. Analysis of genetic diversity using molecular markers has advantages because it can be done at early stages of plant growth [29]. In addition, molecular markers are stable, can distinguish between closely related individuals, and are not influenced by environmental factors [30]. Morphological characterization still needs to be done despite its limitations, because an individual selected using molecular markers may not necessarily have the desired morphological character [31, 32]. Therefore, molecular characterization can be used as supporting data for morphological characterization results to obtain comprehensive and complete information on the genetic information of the accession or variety being analyzed.

Molecular markers are parts of DNA sequences scattered throughout the genome that are used to identify genetic differences between organisms or species [33]. In addition to being used for genetic diversity analysis [12], molecular markers can also be used in gene mapping analysis [34, 35], fingerprinting analysis [36], and mutant gene detection [37]. The use of molecular markers in soybean genetic diversity analysis was carried out in previous studies including Rani *et*

*al.* [38] on 96 soybean accessions with 96 SSR and EST-SSR markers, Jain *et al.* [39] on 24 soybean genotypes with 18 RAPD markers, Sulistyo *et al.* [40] on 40 soybean accessions with 13 SSR markers, Slamet *et al.* [41] on 40 soybean genotypes using 20 SSR markers, and Agam *et al.* [42] on 11 mutant soybean genotypes with 12 RAPD markers.

Simple Sequence Repeat (SSR) is a type of molecular marker with modern techniques that are widely used by researchers. SSR markers are efficient in differentiating soybean accessions that are closely related [43]. SSR markers are widely used in genetic diversity analysis of plants including soybean [12]. SSR markers are codominant, highly reproducible, distributed well throughout the plant genome, highly polymorphic, and easily amplified through regular PCR techniques [44, 45]. All those advantages make SSR markers very popular with researchers.

The use of SSR markers for genetic diversity analyses has been widely carried out in various plant species including oil palm [46], rice [47, 48], mung bean [49], and orchids [50]. SSR markers have also been used for genetic diversity analysis of introduced soybean genotypes. These included reports by Lestari *et al.* [51] on 27 introduced soybean accessions analyzed with 15 SSR markers, Terryana *et al.* [52] on 48 introduced soybean accessions analyzed with 15 SSR markers, and Nugroho *et al.* [19] on 35 introduced soybean genotypes originated from various countries and were analyzed with 15 SSR markers.

Some of the introduced soybean accessions used in this study previously underwent molecular characterization using SSR markers and morphological characterization using secondary data from the United States Department of Agriculture (USDA) database [19, 52]. However, the use of SSR marker types was not described in previous studies [19, 52], and such data, along with morphological data derived from planting outcomes in Indonesia, is an important and new source of information for soybean breeding programs. Thus, the aim of this study was to analyze the genetic diversity of 53 Chinese introduced soybean accessions through morphological and molecular characterization approaches.

## 2. Materials and Methods

### 2.1 Study location

The morphological characterization research was conducted at the Cibalagung Experimental Field, Bogor, West Java, Indonesia (250 m above sea level) in 2015. SSR marker analysis was conducted at the Molecular Biology Laboratory, Indonesian Center for Agricultural Biotechnology and Genetic Resources Research and Development (ICABIOGRAD), Bogor, West Java, Indonesia, from July to September 2021.

### 2.2 Genetic materials and SSR markers

The genetic material in this study consisted of 53 introduced soybean accessions from China (Table 1). The 53 introduced soybean accessions from China were selected to initiate new genetic variations that could be used to develop new soybean varieties that were more resistant to biotic stresses such as common diseases and insect pests and were tolerant to abiotic stresses such as drought and salinity, and which offered higher yields under tropical short-day conditions. Genomic DNA of each accession was used for SSR markers analysis. The characteristics of the SSR markers used in this study are presented in Table 2.

**Table 1.** Characteristics of the 53 introduction soybean accessions from GenBank collection, ICABIOGRAD ([www.ars-grin.gov](http://www.ars-grin.gov))

No	Accession Code	Name of Accession	Origin	Type of Growth	Maturity Group*
1	-	China cult-39	China	-	-
2	-	China cult-38	China	-	-
3	-	China cult-34	China	-	-
4	-	China cult-31	China	-	-
5	-	China cult-32	China	-	-
6	-	China cult-28	China	-	-
7	-	China cult-25	China	-	-
8	PI 092573	7768	Jilin	Indeterminate	Group II
9	PI 079737	N2A	Heilongjiang	Determinate	Group II
10	-	China cult-52	China	-	-
11	-	China cult-60	China	-	-
12	-	China cult-41	China	-	-
13	-	China cult-40	China	-	-
14	PI 088302-2	5691	Liaoning	Indeterminate	Group IV
15	PI 602502	Xiong yue xiao huang dou	China	Determinate	Group III
16	PI 567589	Wan dou li da dou	Shandong	Indeterminate	Group III
17	PI 072232	Wong tau	Jiangxi	Determinate	Group III
18	PI 578499	Lu yue bai	China	Determinate	Group II
19	PI 407721	Muim bao jing	Heilongjiang	Indeterminate	Group II
20	PI 291272	Unknown 2	Heilongjiang	Indeterminate	Group I
21	PI 430620	Hou tzu mao	China	Indeterminate	Group IV
22	PI 587991	Liu yue huang	Sichuan	Determinate	Group III
23	PI 587977	Xiao huang dou	Sichuan	Semi-determinate	Group III
24	PI 567361	Lu fang huang dou	Ningxia	Indeterminate	Group III
25	PI 567359	Hua mei dou	Ningxia	Indeterminate	Group III
26	-	China cult-53	China	-	-
27	-	China cult-55	China	-	-
28	-	China cult-60	China	-	-
29	PI 291312	Unknown 3	Heilongjiang	Indeterminate	Group 0
30	PI 070241	8079	Jilin	Determinate	Group I
31	PI 069501	6946	Jilin	Indeterminate	Group II
32	PI 069992	6790	Jilin	Indeterminate	Group II
33	PI 072341	8969	Liaoning	Determinate	Group II
34	PI 092734	7929	Jilin	Determinate	Group II
35	PI 567302	He se huang dou	Gansu	Indeterminate	Group II
36	PI 567525	Cao qing huang dou	Shandong	Semi-determinate	Group II
37	PI 567537	Gu li hun	Shandong	Semi-determinate	Group II
38	PI 567504	Tu er dun	Hebei	Determinate	Group III
39	PI 171429	An yang black	Henan	Determinate	Group IV
40	PI 430595	58-161	China	Indeterminate	Group IV
41	PI 567318	Hua lai dou	Gansu	Determinate	Group IV
42	PI 567368	Xi hi huang dou	Ningxia	Indeterminate	Group IV
43	PI 567476	Yu ci huang	Shanxi	Indeterminate	Group IV
44	PI 567488 A	Di liu huang dou No.2	Hebei	Indeterminate	Group IV
45	PI 567490	Er huang dou	Hebei	Indeterminate	Group IV
46	PI 567571	Ping ding huang	Shandong	Semi-determinate	Group IV
47	PI 567636	Min quan ba yue zha	Henan	Indeterminate	Group IV

**Table 1.** Characteristics of the 53 introduction soybean accessions from GenBank collection, ICABIOGRAD (www.ars-grin.gov) (continued)

No	Accession Code	Name of Accession	Origin	Type of Growth	Maturity Group*
48	PI 567769	Tong shan da mian tao	Jiangsu	Indeterminate	Group IV
49	PI 602991	Ni jiao qi do hei dou	Shandong	Determinate	Group IV
50	PI 567343	Ma huang dou	Gansu	Indeterminate	Group V
51	PI 567402	Shi yue han	Shaanxi	Determinate	Group V
52	PI 567634	Mi yang niu mao huang	Henan	Determinate	Group V
53	PI 567657	Tang he huang dou	Henan	Determinate	Group V

Remarks: \*Maturity group: 0 = early; X = late

**Table 2.** Characteristics of the SSR markers used in this study [53, 54]

SSR markers	Chrom	Type of repetition	Primer sequence (5' → 3')	PCR product size (bp)
Satt002	17	(TA)5tgtacgatt aaaaataaaaata(AT)5	F: TGTGGTAAATAGATAAAAAT R: TCATTTGAATCGTTGAA F: CCAACTTGAATTACTAGAGAAA R: CTTACTAGCGTATTAACCTT	126
Satt009	3	(ATT)14	F: AAAAAGTGAACCAAGCC R: TCTTAATCTTATGTTGATGC	162
Satt030	13	(ATA)21	F: GGGAACTTTTTCTTTCTATTAAAGTT R: GGGCATTGAAATGGTTTAGTC	164
Satt038	18	(ATT)17	F: TGGTTTCTACTTTCTATAATTATT R: ATGCCTCTCCCTCCCT	176
Satt045	15	(AAT)18	F: AAATGATTAACAATGTTATGAT R: ACTTGCATCAGTTAATAACAA	139
Satt063	14	(TAA)20	F: GGGTTATCCTCCCCAATA R: ATATGGGATGATAAGGTGAA	144
Satt114	13	(AAT)17	F: CCATCCCTCCTCCAAATAGAT R: CTTCCACACCCCTAGTTAGTGACAA	108
Satt147	1	(ATA)15	F: CGCGATCATGTCTCTG R: GGGAGTTGGTGTGTTCTGTG	172
Satt191	18	(TAT)19	F: GGGCCCAACTGATATTAAATTGTAA R: GCGCTTGTGTTCCGATTTGAT	226
Satt194	4	(ATT)4gag taaatag(TA)5	F: CACTGTTTCCCCTCT R: AAGATACCCCAACATTATTGTAA	246
Satt197	11	(ATT)20	F: GCGTTAAGGTTGGCAGGGTGGAAAGT R: GCGCAGCTTATACAAAAATCAACAA	173
Satt308	7	(TTA)22	F: GCGTGGCACCCCTGTATAAATAA R: GCGCACGAAAGTTTCTGTAA	170
Satt431	16	(AAT)21	F: TTGGATCTATATTCAAACATTCAAG R: CTGCAAATTGATGCACATGTGTCTA	230
Satt463	7	(AAT)13(GAT) 17 (AAT)19	F: GCGGTTTCATCTGCAGTGTATTATT R: GCGCCACTTAATTATTTCAGATTAATT	221
Satt607	4	(AAT)15	F: GCGGGGTATGAATTAAATGTAGAAT R: GCGCCTCAAAAACAAATGACATATCAT	225
Satt646	4	(TTA)11	F: GCGCCATGAAATTATTGGCAAGTATT R: GCGGTGAAAGAATGGAAACTAAAAATG	199
Sat_140	4	(AT)28		205

Remarks: SSR: Simple Sequence Repeats; Chrom: Chromosom; PCR: Polymerase Chain Reaction; bp = base pair; F: forward; R: reverse

## 2.3 Procedures

### 2.3.1 Experimental field

The research was designed using a randomized block design with three replications. Each accession was planted in a small plot of 3 m x 2 m. The planting distance used was 40 cm x 15 cm with 2 plants per hole. The soil was cultivated precisely following the soil processing protocol for soybean adaptation tests [55]. Before land mapping, the soil was fertilized with manure (3 tons/ha). Fertilization was carried out at 12 days after planting with 50 kg urea, 100 kg SP-36, and 100 kg KCl per hectare. Pest and disease control were carried out once a week. Weed control was intensively carried out as needed in the field [55].

### 2.3.2 Identifying plant morphology

Observation of flower color was carried out during the R1 phase while the flowering time was observed when 50% of the population had flowered. Determination of the maturity time was carried out in the R8 phase when 95% of pods had reached maturity which was indicated by the color of the pods having changed to yellow-brown and the leaves falling. Observation of seed color, hilum color, hair color, plant height, pod number, branch number was carried out after the R8 phase when the plants were harvested. Observation of 100-seed weight was carried out by counting 100 seeds for each sample and then weighing the dry seeds with 12% moisture content. Determination yield/plant was done by weighing the number of seeds from each plant when the seeds were dry with 12% moisture content [56, 57].

### 2.3.3 Isolation, qualitative and quantitative test of genomic DNA

Genomic DNA was isolated from 0.5 g of young leaf samples of each accession using the Doyle and Doyle method [58], modified by adding 2% (w/v) PVP. The resulting DNA pellet was dissolved in 100  $\mu$ L of TE buffer (10 mM Tris [pH 8.0], 1 mM EDTA) and 2  $\mu$ L of 10 mg/mL RNase (Invitrogen, USA) and incubated at 37°C for 1 h.

The qualitative test of genomic DNA was performed by electrophoresis on a 1% agarose gel. The electrophoresis results were then observed under UV light using a UV Transilluminator (UVP, UK). The quantitative test of genomic DNA for each accession was performed using a NanoDrop 2000 Spectrophotometer (Thermo Scientific™, USA).

### 2.3.4 PCR analysis and electrophoresis

PCR analysis using 17 SSR markers was carried out on the genomic DNA of each accession tested (Table 2). The genomic DNA of each accession was amplified in a total reaction volume of 10  $\mu$ L, consisting of 2  $\mu$ L of 20 ng DNA template, 5  $\mu$ L of Kapa2G Fast Ready Mix (KAPA Biosystem, USA), 0.5  $\mu$ L of each 10  $\mu$ M forward and reverse primer, and 2  $\mu$ L of sterile ddH<sub>2</sub>O. The PCR protocol, based on a study conducted by Tasma *et al.* [12, 35], included initial denaturation at 95°C for 5 min, DNA amplification for 35 cycles with denaturation at 94°C for 30 s, annealing of primers at 55°C for 1 min, extension of DNA at 72°C for 1 min, post-extension of DNA at 60°C for 15 min, and DNA incubation at 10°C for 4 min.

The PCR results were then subjected to electrophoresis using an 8% polyacrylamide gel in a vertical electrophoresis tank that had been filled with 1x Tris Borate EDTA (TBE) buffer for 115 min at 90 volts. Visualization of DNA bands was performed using ethidium bromide staining on a UV Transilluminator Gel Doc (Bio Rad, California, USA).

## 2.4 Data analysis

### 2.4.1 Morphological data analysis

The morphological characteristics observed were flowering time, maturity time, flower color, seed color, hilum color, pubescent color, plant height, branch number/plant, pod number/plant, 100-seed weight, and seed yield/plant. Before analysis, qualitative morphological data were converted into quantitative data. Pearson correlation is the most widely used correlation statistic to measure the degree of the relationship between linearly related variables, and Pearson correlation was conducted in this study using R Studio software. PCA and PCoA were performed on all morphological data, and the analysis was conducted using R Studio software [59].

### 2.4.2 Molecular data analysis

Scoring of DNA band patterns was performed using GelAnalyzer software v.2010a [60]. The scoring data were analyzed using the sequential agglomerative hierarchical and nested (SAHN) - unweighted pair group method with arithmetic (UPGMA) program on NTSYS-pc software version 2.1 [61] to obtain a dendrogram of relationships among accessions. Other data analysis was carried out using PowerMarker V3.25 software [62] to obtain statistics on polymorphism information content (PIC), major allele frequency, genetic diversity, and heterozygosity of each SSR marker.

## 3. Results and Discussion

### 3.1 Morphological analysis

Diversity plays a crucial role in plant breeding programs [15]. The assessment of the diversity of a particular crop species creates a foundational data source for selecting parental lines in a plant breeding program. Crossing genotypes from the same cluster is not favorable because it does not result in desirable segregates. When genotypes with similar genetic characteristics are grouped together in the same cluster, it indicates limited diversity [63]. Conversely, genotypes with greater genetic distance, represented by diverged clusters, signify higher diversity between the clusters. The approach to determine diversity within a population can be observed through morphological and molecular characteristics.

The morphological characteristics of soybean accessions introduced from China are presented in Table 3. The flowering time of introduced accessions ranged from 26-34 days after planting (DAP) and maturity time ranged from 67-80 DAP. There were 22 introduced accessions with purple flowers and 31 accessions with white flowers. There were 44 accessions with yellow seed color, yellowish green (1 accession), green (1 accession), brown (3 accessions), dark brown (1 accession), and black (3 accessions). The variation in hilum color included gray, yellow, light brown, dark brown, black, and brown. The variation in pubescent color included gray and brown in balanced proportions. Plant height ranged from 24-74 cm, branch number/plant ranged from 0-4, pod number/plant ranged from 16-58. The weight of 100 seeds ranged from 6.75-23.38 g and seed yield/plant ranged from 2.86-13.26 g.

**Table 3.** Morphological characteristics of 53 Chinese soybean introduction accessions at the Cibalagung Experimental Station, Bogor, West Java

No	Name of Accession	FT (dap)	MT (dap)	FC	SC	HC	PC	PH (cm)	NBP	NPP	100W (g)	SYP (g)
1	China cult-39	28	76	W	Y	Y	GY	53.0	2	29	16.37	9.79
2	China cult-38	28	80	W	Y	DB	GY	45.0	1	32	16.41	6.34
3	China cult-34	28	80	W	Y	LB	BR	49.0	1	36	17.62	10.08
4	China cult-31	26	75	W	Y	Y	GY	52.0	1	28	15.47	8.00
5	China cult-32	26	75	P	Y	Y	BR	39.0	1	23	15.96	6.33
6	China cult-28	26	80	P	Y	Y	BR	43.0	0	25	18.24	8.56
7	China cult-25	28	80	P	Y	Y	GY	62.5	0	37	17.91	6.92
8	7768	28	70	P	Y	Y	GY	43.0	2	32	12.44	6.60
9	N2A	28	76	P	Y	BL	BR	47.5	2	30	14.65	6.98
10	China cult-52	28	75	W	Y	Y	BR	47.5	1	26	16.76	9.68
11	China cult-60	28	76	W	Y	Y	BR	45.0	1	25	16.97	6.19
12	China cult-41	28	76	W	Y	Y	GY	45.5	1	24	15.14	6.62
13	China cult-40	28	76	W	Y	BR	GY	48.0	1	28	13.80	8.75
14	5691	34	80	P	Y	GY	GY	55.0	3	28	16.92	2.86
15	Xiong yue xiao huang dou	34	76	W	Y	BL	GY	56.0	3	58	12.30	11.32
16	Wan dou li da dou	34	70	W	Y	BR	GY	41.0	3	18	17.59	6.88
17	Wong tau	32	70	P	Y	BL	BR	50.0	4	27	11.47	6.35
18	Lu yue bai	30	76	P	GR	BL	BR	37.5	3	27	17.79	8.59
19	Muim bao jing	30	76	W	Y	BR	BR	53.0	2	24	18.81	7.31
20	Unknown 2	32	76	P	BL	BL	BR	60.0	3	49	9.99	7.33
21	Hou tzu mao	32	76	P	YG	BR	GY	42.5	2	34	15.31	9.10
22	Liu yue huang	32	67	W	Y	DB	BR	50.5	3	32	11.73	7.59
23	Xiao huang dou	32	67	W	Y	BR	BR	59.5	3	28	11.66	7.59
24	Lu fang huang dou	28	77	W	Y	DB	BR	51.5	4	31	9.03	3.21
25	Hua mei dou	28	79	W	DB	BR	BR	57.0	4	26	17.67	4.49
26	China cult-53	28	75	P	Y	Y	BR	37.0	1	25	20.95	6.43
27	China cult-55	28	75	W	Y	Y	GY	47.0	1	24	18.70	6.54
28	China cult-60	28	75	W	Y	Y	GY	43.0	0	20	18.25	7.08

Remarks: dap = days after planting, FT = flowering time, MT = maturity time, FC = flower color, SC = seed color, HC = hilum color, PC = pubescent color, PH = plant height, NBP = branch number/plant, NPP = pod number/plant, 100W = 100-seed weight, SYP = seed yield/plant, W = white, P = purple, Y = yellow, GR = green, BL = black, YG = yellowish-green, BR = brown, DB = dark brown, LB = light brown, GY = Gray

**Table 3.** Morphological characteristics of 53 Chinese soybean introduction accessions at the Cibalagung Experimental Station, Bogor, West Java (continued)

No	Name of Accession	FT (dap)	MT (dap)	FC	SC	HC	PC	PH (cm)	NBP	NPP	100W (g)	SYP (g)
29	Unknown 3	28	75	P	Y	Y	BR	45.5	1	28	19.52	7.08
30	8079	28	75	P	Y	BR	GY	42.0	2	34	14.00	10.58
31	6946	28	75	W	Y	BR	GY	62.0	2	28	15.55	7.69
32	6790	28	75	W	Y	BR	BR	53.5	3	38	16.82	9.75
33	8969	28	75	W	Y	LB	GY	36.0	1	27	14.19	8.01
34	7929	28	75	P	Y	BR	GY	61.0	2	30	15.97	7.63
35	He se huang dou	28	70	P	BR	BR	BR	44.5	2	34	11.43	6.30
36	Cao qing huang dou	30	70	P	Y	BL	BR	67.5	3	31	12.56	9.29
37	Gu li hun	30	74	P	Y	BR	GY	52.5	3	40	14.47	10.29
38	Tu er dun	28	78	W	Y	LB	GY	27.0	3	28	20.68	6.37
39	An yang black	28	78	W	BL	BL	BR	39.0	1	20	11.20	4.90
40	58-161	28	74	W	Y	LB	BR	39.0	3	29	23.38	12.36
41	Hua lai dou	30	74	W	BR	BR	BR	24.0	2	28	8.57	6.08
42	Xi hi huang dou	30	80	P	Y	BL	BR	64.5	4	35	10.50	5.33
43	Yu ci huang	30	74	P	Y	BR	BR	70.0	2	34	9.98	5.53
44	Di liu huang dou No.2	30	80	W	Y	DB	BR	58.0	2	32	14.26	7.82
45	Er huang dou	30	80	P	Y	DB	BR	74.0	3	42	8.30	5.90
46	Ping ding huang	26	80	W	Y	BL	GY	32.5	2	21	20.10	8.13
47	Min quan ba yue zha	30	79	W	Y	DB	GY	71.5	2	38	9.38	6.31
48	Tong shan da mian tao	30	79	W	Y	DB	GY	71.0	2	36	17.96	10.06
49	Ni jiao qi do hei dou	30	80	W	BL	BL	BR	39.0	1	16	17.29	6.21
50	Ma huang dou	30	74	P	BR	BR	GY	70.5	3	56	6.75	6.34
51	Shi yue han	30	70	P	Y	LB	GY	47.0	4	39	11.50	8.07
52	Mi yang niu mao huang	30	70	W	Y	DB	BR	52.5	3	34	13.49	10.60
53	Tang he huang dou	30	78	W	Y	DB	BR	45.0	2	34	14.75	13.26
	Average	29.17	75.51					49.99	1.84	30.66	14.87	7.61

Remarks: dap = days after planting, FT = flowering time, MT = maturity time, FC = flower color, SC = seed color, HC = hilum color, PC = pubescent color, PH = plant height, NBP = branch number/plant, NPP = pod number/plant, 100W = 100-seed weight, SYP = seed yield/plant, W = white, P = purple, Y = yellow, GR = green, BL = black, YG = yellowish-green, BR = brown, DB = dark brown, LB = light brown, GY = Gray

Based on the morphological characteristics, flowering and maturity time Table 3, all soybean accessions introduced from China used in this study were able to be classified into the early-maturing group according to the criteria established by Rahajeng and Adie [64]. The maturity group was categorized into 4 groups [64]: early-maturing (<79 days), intermediate (80-85 days), medium (86-90 days), and late-maturing (>90 days). However, based on other morphological characteristics (Table 3), there was diversity observed in qualitative traits such as flower color, seed color, hilum color, and pubescent color. Quantitative traits, such as yield and yield components also exhibited diversity.

The diversity observed in qualitative traits is primarily attributed to genetic factors, whereas the diversity observed in quantitative morphological traits is influenced not only by genetic factors but also by environmental factors [65]. Therefore, a more in-depth evaluation of quantitative traits is necessary as environmental factors significantly impact the expressed traits. Thus, it is important to align the observations of morphological traits with molecular data to ensure that selected parents in plant breeding programs have a significant genetic distance. This is expected to promote the emergence of superior genotypes.

Pearson correlation matrix values for the 11 morphological characteristics indicated that not all characteristics resulted in a significant positive correlation (Table 4). Plant height and pod number/plant showed a significant positive correlation, with a matrix correlation value of 0.54 at  $\alpha = 0.01$  and 0.05. Other morphological characteristics that showed significant positive correlations were branch number/plant and flowering time (0.53), branch number/plant and hilum color (0.43), pod number/plant and branch number/plant (0.38), hilum color and seed color (0.38), pod number/plant and flowering time (0.35), hilum color and flowering time (0.32), pod number/plant and pubescent color (0.29), pubescent color and seed color (0.28), and plant height and flowering time (0.28).

The interconnections between different morphological characteristics can be examined through Pearson correlation analysis (Table 4), which assesses the relationships and associations among observed morphological traits. High and significantly positive values of the Pearson correlation matrix indicate a strong correlation among morphological characteristics [66]. The significant positive correlations obtained in this research facilitate the optimization of genetic improvement of the introduced soybean accessions through crossbreeding with desired target traits to obtain superior genotypes.

**Table 4.** Pearson correlation matrix values of 11 morphological characteristics among 53 soybean accessions introduced from China

Char	FT	MT	FC	SC	HC	PC	PH	NBP	NPP	100W
<b>MT</b>	-0.27									
<b>FC</b>	0.09	-0.11								
<b>SC</b>	0.09	0.09	0.03							
<b>HC</b>	0.32 <sup>b</sup>	-0.19	0.08	0.38 <sup>b</sup>						
<b>PC</b>	-0.05	0.02	0.11	0.28 <sup>b</sup>	0.12					
<b>PH</b>	0.28 <sup>b</sup>	0.06	0.19	-0.11	0.17	-0.02				
<b>NBP</b>	0.53 <sup>ab</sup>	-0.3 <sup>b</sup>	0.14	0.07	0.43 <sup>ab</sup>	0.12	0.27 <sup>b</sup>			
<b>NPP</b>	0.35 <sup>b</sup>	-0.01	0.29 <sup>b</sup>	0.03	0.20	-0.13	0.54 <sup>ab</sup>	0.38 <sup>ab</sup>		
<b>100W</b>	-0.35 <sup>b</sup>	0.26	-0.22	-0.27	-0.37 <sup>ab</sup>	-0.07	-0.43 <sup>ab</sup>	-0.38 <sup>ab</sup>	-0.52 <sup>ab</sup>	
<b>SYP</b>	-0.01	-0.14	-0.17	-0.29 <sup>b</sup>	0.05	-0.07	-0.05	-0.05	0.26	0.26

Remarks: Char = characteristics, FT = flowering time, MT = maturity time, FC = flower color, SC = seed color, HC = hilum color, PC = pubescent color, PH = plant height, NBP = branch number/plant, NPP = pod number/plant, 100W = 100-seed weight, SYP = seed yield/plant, <sup>a</sup> = significant correlation  $\alpha = 0.01$ , <sup>b</sup> = significant correlation at  $\alpha = 0.05$

PCA in this study enabled the reduction of morphological characteristics into 4 principal components with eigenvalue  $>1$ , which explained a total variance of 64.67% in 53 accessions (Table 5). The first principal component with an eigenvalue of 3.08 explains 27.98% of the variance, including flower color, hilum color, plant height, branch number/plant, and pod number/plant. The second principal component with an eigenvalue of 1.66 explains 15.09% of the variance, including the seed color and pubescent color. The third principal component with an eigenvalue of 1.33 accounted for 12.09% of the variance, including maturity time and plant height. The fourth principal component with an eigenvalue of 1.05 accounted for 9.52% of the variance, including maturity time.

**Table 5.** Principal component analysis (PCA) of morphological characteristics of 53 soybean accessions introduced from China

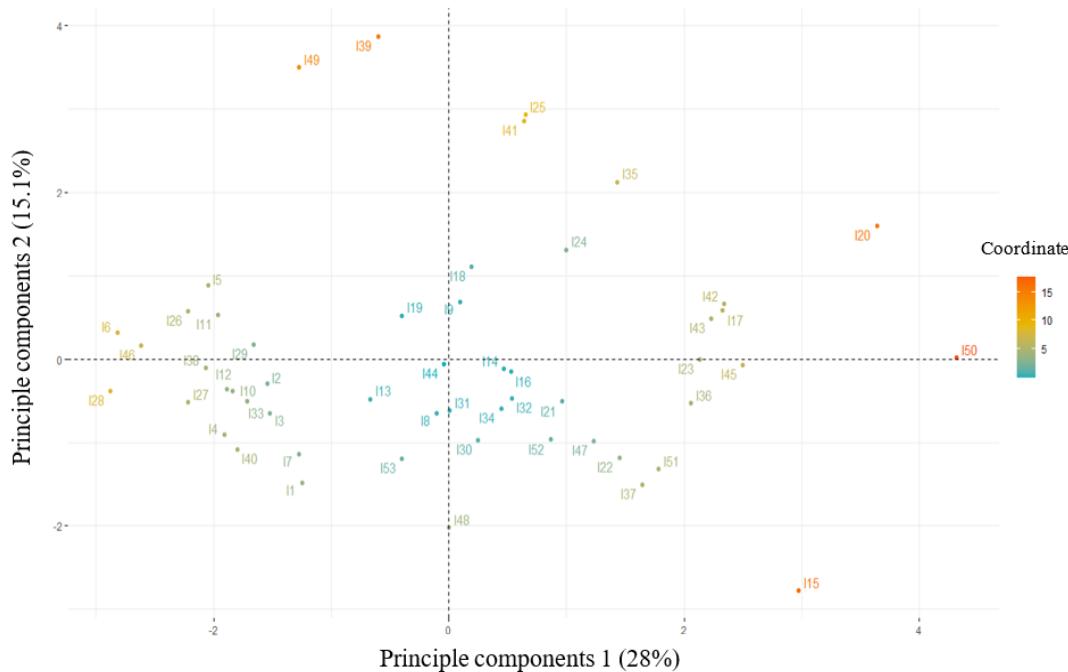
Characteristics	PC 1	PC 2	PC 3	PC 4
Flowering time	<b>0.67</b>	-0.12	-0.25	-0.02
Maturity time	-0.33	0.14	<b>0.63</b>	<b>0.53</b>
Flower color	0.36	0.05	0.37	-0.52
Seed color	0.25	<b>0.76</b>	-0.01	0.31
Hilum color	<b>0.60</b>	0.28	-0.34	0.32
Pubescent color	0.09	<b>0.57</b>	-0.08	0.06
Plant height	<b>0.59</b>	-0.29	<b>0.50</b>	0.13
Branch number/plant	<b>0.73</b>	-0.01	-0.28	-0.07
Pod number/plant	<b>0.69</b>	-0.40	0.30	0.26
100-seed weight	-0.77	-0.15	-0.18	0.09
Seed yield/plant	-0.08	-0.60	-0.41	0.43
Eigenvalue	3.08	1.66	1.33	1.05
Variance (%)	27.98	15.09	12.09	9.52
Cumulative (%)	27.98	43.06	55.16	64.67

Remarks: PC = principal components, the bold numbers contribute to the variance.

PCA is a commonly used analysis for reducing variables and genotypes in a population [67]. The genetic diversity within a population can be assessed through PCA based on observed morphological characteristics. Table 5 shows that 4 principle components were identified which accounted for the genetic diversity of the introduced soybean accessions from China based on eigenvalue scores. The eigenvalue scores are used to determine the number of variables that should be retained. Eigenvalue  $> 1$  were capable of explaining the genetic diversity [68]. Each principle component contributes to the morphological characteristics that generate the genetic diversity. The contribution of each morphological characteristic is determined by the value of the principle component. Morphological characteristics with a principle component value  $>0.5$  were considered to have significant contribution [69]. There are slight differences between the findings of this study and previous studies reported by Terryana *et al.* [52], Nugroho *et al.* [19], and Lestari *et al.* [51], which relied on secondary data. In this study, a total genetic diversity value of 64.67% was observed with 4 principal components, whereas the previous studies reported a total genetic diversity of 46.92% with 2 principal components. This study provides additional information, making it more comprehensive due to the planting location being in Indonesia.

The relative positions of the 53 soybean accessions introduced from China based on morphological characteristics in a two-dimensional space obtained through PCoA can provide opportunities to enhance plant selection activities (Figure 1). The 53 soybean accessions introduced from China tended to spread out and overlap in four quadrants, indicating similarities in morphological characteristics among the accessions. For example, I16 (wan dou li da dou) and

I32 (6790) fall in the same quadrant, indicating similar morphological characteristics based on observations (Table 3) such as flower color, seed color, and hilum color. Additionally, both accessions have the same type of growth, which is indeterminate (Table 1). This suggests that accessions within the same quadrant are not recommended to be used as parents in breeding programs due to their close genetic diversity. There are several introduced soybean accessions that do not overlap and are located in different quadrants, i.e., I15 (Xiong yue xiao huang dou), I20 (Unknown 2), and I50 (ma huang dou), indicating morphological differences. These accessions have a higher chance of being considered as parental candidates in developing new superior varieties.



**Figure 1.** The relative positions of the 53 soybean accessions introduced from China based on morphological characteristics through Principal Coordinate Analysis (PCoA). Number 1-53 are introduced soybean accessions with their characteristics as shown in Table 1.

PCoA is used to assess proximity among individuals based on similarities in traits [70]. The PCoA revealed that a majority of the introduced soybean accessions from China overlapped in the same quadrants (Figure 1). According to Lestari *et al.* [51], the overlapping of soybean accessions in the same quadrants is attributed to similarities in morphological characteristics such as flower color, pod, seed, hilum color, growth type, and others. Consequently, accessions that overlap in the same quadrant cannot be used as parent sources for crossing due to their close genetic relatedness.

### 3.2 Molecular analysis

All SSR markers were able to demonstrate polymorphic band patterns in the 53 soybean accessions introduced from China (Table 6). A total of 772 alleles were detected, with a range of 29-62 alleles per locus and an average of 45 alleles per locus. The average frequency of the main allele was 10%, with the lowest value being 4% (Satt191) and the highest value being 26% (Satt063). The percentage of genetic diversity, indicating the level of genetic variation within a population, ranged from 90% (Satt063) to 98% (Satt191, Satt194, Satt197, and Satt431), with an average of 96%. All SSR markers could detect heterozygous alleles, with values ranging from 0.38 (Satt038) to 1.00 (Satt045, Satt191, Satt431, and Satt646). The polymorphic information content (PIC) ranged from 0.89 (Satt063) to 0.98 (Satt191, Satt194, Satt197, and Satt431), with an average PIC value of 0.96.

**Table 6.** The characteristics of 17 SSR markers used to analyze genetic diversity of 53 introduced soybean accessions from China

Markers	Allele Number	Allele Size (bp)	Main Allele Frequency	Gene Diversity	Heterozigosity	PIC
satt002	32	142-186	0.13	0.94	0.98	0.93
satt009	45	151-270	0.10	0.96	0.98	0.96
satt030	46	156-220	0.07	0.97	0.83	0.97
satt038	37	157-231	0.12	0.95	0.38	0.95
satt045	42	138-202	0.09	0.96	1.00	0.96
satt063	29	119-193	0.26	0.90	0.64	0.89
satt114	30	85-134	0.12	0.95	0.75	0.94
satt147	47	163-252	0.08	0.97	0.98	0.97
satt191	62	188-297	0.04	0.98	1.00	0.98
satt194	60	216-315	0.08	0.98	0.96	0.98
satt197	61	143-247	0.05	0.98	0.98	0.98
satt308	46	134-203	0.07	0.97	0.96	0.97
satt431	62	195-294	0.04	0.98	1.00	0.98
satt463	45	135-284	0.15	0.95	0.62	0.95
satt607	43	222-326	0.09	0.96	0.47	0.96
satt646	44	182-251	0.07	0.97	1.00	0.97
sat_140	41	190-264	0.07	0.97	0.58	0.97
Total	772					
Average	45		0.10	0.96	0.83	0.96

Remarks: PIC = polymorphism information content

Genetic diversity analysis in this studies revealed the detection of 772 alleles (Table 6). It was a higher number of alleles than in the study conducted by Terryana *et al.* [52], in which 226 alleles in 48 soybean accessions using 15 SSR markers were detected. Additionally, the study by Tasma *et al.* [12] reported a lower number of alleles, with 316 alleles detected in 29 soybean genotypes using 27 SSR markers. The larger number of soybean accessions and molecular markers used in this study resulted in a higher number of detected alleles. The number of alleles and the values of genetic diversity derived from SSR marker analysis are interconnected. In this study, a higher number of alleles led to a higher genetic diversity value. This is supported by previous research conducted by Asadi *et al.* [71], who reported that the lowest number of alleles (9

alleles) resulted in a genetic diversity value of 79%, while the highest number of alleles (28 alleles) resulted in a genetic diversity value of 96%.

The genetic diversity within a population can be assessed through heterozygosity values [72]. Measurement of heterozygosity can provide a comparison of the number of individual heterozygous alleles within a population. All SSR markers used in this study indicated heterozygous alleles with an average value of 0.83 (Table 6). The markers satt045, satt191, satt431, and satt646 exhibited a heterozygosity value of 1, indicating that the alleles were 100% heterozygous alleles.

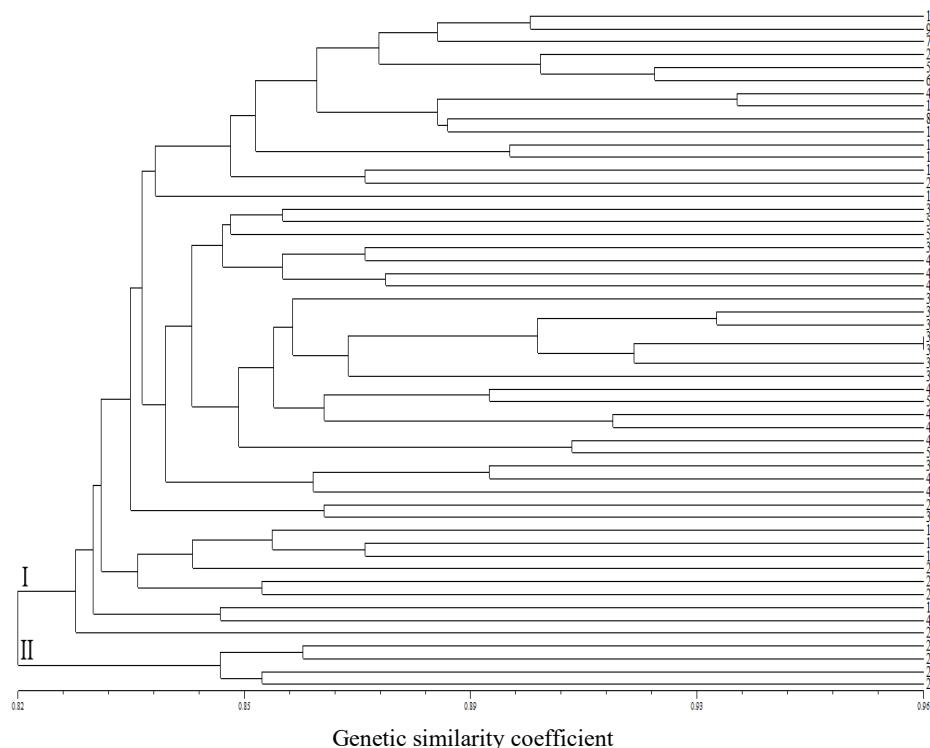
PIC value and genetic diversity were found to be positively correlated [51, 73, 74]. This is consistent with the findings of this study, the marker Satt063, with the lowest genetic diversity value of 90%, has a PIC value of 0.89 (Table 6). On the other hand, the markers Satt191, Satt194, Satt197, and Satt431, with the highest genetic diversity value of 98%, have PIC values of 0.98 (Table 6). According to Tasma and Arumsari [75], the PIC value and the number of alleles depend on the characteristics of the SSR markers and the diversity of the tested accessions. A higher PIC value indicates more informative molecular markers. The PIC value is essential for selecting markers that can distinguish one accession from another. The level of polymorphism can also be determined by the number of alleles generated by each marker. Markers that produce fewer alleles have a lower ability to distinguish the tested samples [76].

Phylogenetic analysis of the 53 soybean accessions introduced from China based on 17 SSR markers in this study resulted in a genetic similarity level of 82% (Figure 2; Table 7). Two main clusters were identified based on the genetic similarity level. Cluster I consisted of 49 accessions, while Cluster II consisted of 4 accessions (China cult-53, China cult-55, China cult-60, and Unknown 3). Several accessions clustered together based on growth type (indeterminate) included Unknown 2, Lu fang huang dou, and He se huang dou in Cluster I. There were also accessions that clustered in Cluster I based on their origin, such as accessions 8079, 6946, 6790, and 7929 from Jilin province, as well as Yu ci huang and Shi yue han from Shanxi province. Additionally, there were soybean accessions that clustered in Cluster I but were of unknown growth type and maturity group such as China cult-38, China cult-32, China cult-28, China cult-52, China cult-40, China cult-31, and China cult-41 (Figure 2).

There were two introduced soybean accessions with the highest genetic similarity value (Table 7), which indicated a very close relationship. These accessions were 6946 and 6790, with a genetic similarity value of 0.96. This genetic similarity value indicated a 96% genetic similarity between the two accessions, with a difference of 4%. Additionally, there were soybean accessions that had a distant relationship, e.g., China cult-55 and Mi yang niu mao huang. The genetic similarity value between these two accessions was 0.78, which meant there was a 78% genetic similarity, or a difference of 22% (Table 7).

Clustering in phylogenetic analysis can be used for parent selection in breeding programs. In this study, the phylogenetic analysis resulted in two main clusters with a genetic similarity of 82% (Figure 2, Table 7). This was consistent with previous studies that reported genetic similarities of 75% with two main clusters [51], 82% with two main clusters [19], and 84% with three main clusters [52]. Accessions within the same cluster show high genetic similarity.

According to Hossain *et al.* [73], genetic similarity values can be used to determine the level of relatedness between analyzed genotypes. The grouping of several accessions in Cluster I was based on growth type, province of origin, and accessions with unknown growth type and maturity group. The low genetic similarity value in parent accessions can result in high genetic diversity for the next generation progenies. Accessions with a low genetic similarity value of 78% (Table 7), such as China cult-55 and Mi yang niu mao huang, can be selected as parents for crossbreeding in the development of new superior varieties. Selection of two accessions as parents was carried out to avoid the occurrence of inbreeding depression. Soybean is classified as a self-



**Figure 2.** Dendrogram of 53 introduced soybean accessions from China based on 17 SSR markers.  
1-53 = number of different soybean accessions introduced from China as listed in Table 1.

pollinating crop. Continuous self-pollination in soybeans will produce homozygous alleles from parents with high genetic similarity. If a homozygous gene has recessive alleles that carry bad traits, then inbreeding depression will occur [77].

The results of genetic diversity analysis based on morphological characters using PCoA and molecular markers using phylogenetic analysis showed consistency in grouping the introduced soybean accessions from China. This consistency was demonstrated by the clustering of four introduced soybean accessions (8079, 6946, 6790, and 7929) in the same cluster based on the phylogenetic analysis (Figure 2). These accessions also clustered in the same quadrant based on PCoA (Figure 1). Furthermore, based on the phylogenetic analysis, two accessions showed low genetic similarity of 78% (Figure 2, Table 7), i.e., China cult-55 and Mi yang niu mao huang. Consistently, according to the PCoA analysis (Figure 1), these two accessions were positioned in different quadrants. Therefore, genetic diversity analysis should be performed by integrating analyses based on morphological characters and molecular markers to select parents for crossbreeding and develop new superior varieties.

**Table 7.** Genetic similarity matrix of 53 soybean accessions introduced from China obtained from the analysis using 17 SSR markers

#### 4. Conclusions

PCA conducted on morphological characters resulted in a total diversity value of 64.67% and identified four main components. In addition, 772 SSR alleles with an average of 45 alleles per SSR locus were detected. The average heterozygosity was 0.83, and the average polymorphic information content (PIC) value was 0.96. All SSR markers showed a PIC value  $> 0.8$ , indicating their informativeness in analyzing genetic diversity of soybean. The phylogenetic analysis indicated a genetic similarity of 82% and grouped the accessions into two main clusters. The phylogenetic analysis showed that several accessions were grouped based on the growth type and origin. Two accessions that showed low genetic similarity of 78% (China cult-55 and Mi yang niu mao huang) can be selected as parents for plant breeding programs based on phylogenetic analysis and PCoA.

#### 5. Acknowledgements

This study was funded by national budgets for the ICABIOGRAD, Ministry of Agriculture fiscal years of 2015 and 2021, together with partial fundings from the 2023 RIIM 3-BRIN-LPDP and the BRIN Research Organization for Agriculture and Food's Rumah Program Bibit Unggul fiscal year 2023. We thank the USDA/ARS USA for providing genetic materials used in this study.

#### References

- [1] Kumar, S. and Pandey, G., 2020. Biofortification of pulses and legumes to enhance nutrition. *Helijon*, 6(3), <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.helijon.2020.e03682>.
- [2] Johnson, K.V.H., Krishna, T.P.A., Dash, M., Thiyageshwari, S., Ceasar, S.A. and Selvi, D., 2023. Food and nutritional security: innovative approaches for improving micronutrient use efficiency in soybean (*Glycine max* (L.) Merrill) under hostile soils. *Journal of Soil Science and Plant Nutrition*, 23(1), 56-70, <https://doi.org/10.1007/s42729-022-01025-1>.
- [3] Tamang, J.P., Anupma, A. and Shangpliang, N.J.H., 2022. Ethno-microbiology of tempe, an Indonesian fungal-fermented soybean food and koji, a Japanese fungal starter culture. *Current Opinion in Food Science*, 48, 1-8, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cofs.2022.100912>.
- [4] Herlina, V.T., Lioe, H.N., Kusumaningrum, H.D. and Adawiyah, D.R., 2020. Nutritional composition of tauco as Indonesian fermented soybean paste. *Journal of Ethnic Foods*, 9(44), 1-17, <https://doi.org/10.1186/s42779-022-00159-y>.
- [5] Singh, R.J., 2017. Botany and cytogenetics of soybean. In: H.T. Nguyen and Bhattacharyya, eds. *The Soybean Genome, Compendium of Plant Genomes*. New York: Springer International Publishing, pp. 11-38.
- [6] Ningsih, F., Zubaidah, S. and Kuswantoro, H., 2019. Diverse morphological characteristics of soybean (*Glycine max* (L.) Merill) pods and seeds germplasm. *IOP Conference Series: Earth and Environmental Science*, 276(1), <https://doi.org/10.1088/1755-1315/276/1/012014>.
- [7] Miranda, C., Scaboo, A., Cober, E., Denwar, N. and Bilyeu, K., 2020. The effects and interaction of soybean maturity gene alleles controlling flowering time, maturity, and adaptation in tropical environments. *BMC Plant Biology*, 20(1), <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12870-020-2276-y>.
- [8] Song, J., Sun, X., Zhang, K., Liu, S., Wang, J., Yang, C., Jiang, S., Siyal, M., Li, X., Qi, Z., Wang, Y., Tian, X., Fang, Y., Tian, Z., Li, W. and Ning, H., 2020. Identification of QTL

and genes for pod number in soybean by linkage analysis and genome-wide association studies. *Molecular Breeding*, 40(6), <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11032-020-01140-w>.

[9] Kementrian Pertanian Republik Indonesia, 2018. *Produksi Dan Produktivitas Kedelai Menurut Provinsi*. [online] Available at: <https://www.pertanian.go.id/home>.

[10] Arif, S., Isdijoso, W., Fatah, A.R. and Tamayis, A.R., 2020. *Strategic Review of Food Security and Nutrition in Indonesia*. Jakarta: World Food Programme.

[11] Rahman, S.U., McCoy, E., Raza, G., Ali, Z., Mansoor, S. and Amin, I., 2023. Improvement of soybean; a way forward transition from genetic engineering to new plant breeding technologies. *Molecular Biotechnology*, 65, 162-180, <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12033-022-00456-6>.

[12] Tasma, I.M., Yani, N.P.M.G., Purwaningdyah, R., Satyawan, D., Nugroho, K., Lestari, P., Trijatmiko, K.R. and Mastur, M., 2018. Genetic diversity analysis and F2 population development for breeding of long juvenile trait in soybean. *Jurnal AgroBiogen*, 14(1), 11-22.

[13] Mawasid, F.P., Syukur, M., Trikoesoemaningtyas, T. and Wibisono, K., 2023. Evaluation to select tomato genotypes with big fruit and verification of genetic advance. *Current Applied Science and Technology*, 23(3), <https://doi.org/10.55003/cast.2022.03.23.004>.

[14] Yali, W. and Mitiku, T., 2022. Mutation breeding and its importance in modern plant breeding. *Journal of Plant Sciences*, 10(2), 64-70, <https://doi.org/10.11648/j.jps.20221002.13>.

[15] Wibisono, K., Aisyah, S.I., Nurcholis, W. and Suhesti, S., 2022. Sensitivity in callus tissue of *Plectranthus amboinicus* (L.) through mutation induction with colchicine. *Agrivita Journal of Agricultural Science*, 44(1), 82-95, <https://doi.org/10.17503/agrivita.v44i1.3058>.

[16] Wibisono, K., Aisyah, S.I., Nurcholis, W. and Suhesti, S., 2021. Performance of putative mutants and genetic parameters of *Plectranthus amboinicus* (L.) through mutation induction with colchicine. *Agrosainstek Jurnal Ilmu dan Teknologi Pertanian*, 5(2), 89-99, <https://doi.org/10.33019/agrosainstek.v5i2.247>.

[17] Dama, H., Aisyah, S.I., Sudarsono, S., Dewi, A.K. and Wibisono, K., 2022. Identification, selection, and response of radiation induced towuti mutant rice (*Oryza sativa* L.) in drought stress conditions. *Atom Indonesia*, 48(2), 107-114, <https://doi.org/10.17146/aij.2022.1198>.

[18] Komariah, A., Noertjahyani, Hardedi and Buhturi, S., 2017. Identification, selection and observation of nuansa sanggabuana soybean, its yield and resistance to diseases. *Asian Journal of Agriculture and Rural Development*, 7(1), 17-27, <https://doi.org/10.18488/journal.1005/2017.7.1/1005.1.17.27>.

[19] Nugroho, K., Terryana, R.T., Reflinur, N., Asadi, N. and Lestari, P., 2017. The genetic diversity analysis of introduced soybean cultivars using microsatellite markers. *Informatika Pertanian*, 26(2), 121-132, <https://doi.org/10.21082/ip.v26n2.2017.p121-132>.

[20] Swarup, S., Cargill, E.J., Crosby, K., Flagel, L., Kniskern, J. and Glenn, K.C., 2021. Genetic diversity is indispensable for plant breeding to improve crops. *Crop Science*, 61(2), 839-852, <https://doi.org/10.1002/csc2.20377>.

[21] Mwangangi, I.M., Kiilu-Muli, J. and Neondo, J.O., 2019. Plant hybridization as an alternative technique in plant breeding improvement. *Asian Journal of Research in Crop Science*, 4(1), <https://doi.org/10.9734/ajrcs/2019/v4i130059>.

[22] Nugroho, K., Kosmiatin, M., Husni, A., Tasma, I.M. and Lestari, P., 2020. Identification of soybean (*Glycine max* [L.] Merr.) mutants and improved varieties having diverse drought tolerance character using SSR marker. *IOP Conference Series: Earth and Environmental Science*, 482(1), <https://doi.org/10.1088/1755-1315/482/1/012014>.

[23] Tasma, I.M., 2015. Pemanfaatan teknologi sekuensing genom untuk mempercepat program pemuliaan tanaman. *Jurnal Penelitian dan Pengembangan Pertanian*, 34(4), 159-168, <https://doi.org/10.21082/jp3.v34n4.2015.p159-168>.

[24] Sari, K.P. and Sulistyo, A., 2018. Assessment of soybean resistance to whitefly (*Bemisia tabaci* Genn.) infestations. *Pertanika Journal Tropical Agricultural Science*, 41(2), 825-832.

[25] Tripathi, N., Tripathi, M.K., Tiwari, S. and Payasi, D.K., 2022. Molecular breeding to overcome biotic stresses in soybean: update. *Plants*, 11(15), 1-24, <https://doi.org/10.3390/plants11151967>.

[26] Pardeshi, P., Jadhav, P., Sakhare, S., Zunjare, R., Rathod, D., Sonkamble, P., Saroj, R. and Varghese, P., 2023. Morphological and microsatellite marker-based characterization and diversity analysis of novel vegetable soybean [*Glycine max* (L.) Merrill]. *Molecular Biology Reports*, 50(5), 4049-4060, <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11033-023-08328-1>.

[27] Carvalho, M., Lino-Neto, T., Rosa, E. and Carnide, V., 2017. Cowpea: a legume crop for a challenging environment. *Journal of the Science of Food and Agriculture*, 97(13), 4273-4284, <https://doi.org/10.1002/jsfa.8250>.

[28] Ahmad, R., Anjum, M.A. and Balal, R.M., 2020. From markers to genome based breeding in horticultural crops: an overview. *Phyton-International Journal of Experimental Botany*, 89(2), 183-204, <https://doi.org/10.32604/phyton.2020.08537>.

[29] Jonah, P.M., Bello, L.L., Lucky, O., Midau, A. and Moruppa, S.M., 2011. Review: the importance of molecular markers in plant breeding programmes. *Global Journal of Science Frontier Research*, 11(5), 5-12.

[30] Hasan, N., Choudhary, S., Naaz, N., Sharma, N. and Laskar, R.A., 2021. Recent advancements in molecular marker-assisted selection and applications in plant breeding programmes. *Journal of Genetic Engineering and Biotechnology*, 19(1), 1-26, <https://doi.org/10.1186/s43141-021-00231-1>.

[31] Rieseberg, L.H., Ellstrand, N.C. and Arnold, M., 1993. What can molecular and morphological markers tell us about plant hybridization?. *Critical Reviews in Plant Sciences*, 12(3), 213-241, <https://doi.org/10.1080/07352689309701902>.

[32] Soltabayeva, A., Ongaltay, A., Omondi, J.O. and Srivastava, S., 2021. Morphological, physiological and molecular markers for salt-stressed plants. *Plants*, 10(2), 1-18, <https://doi.org/10.3390/plants10020243>.

[33] Oliveira, M. and Azevedo, L., 2022. Molecular markers: an overview of data published for fungi over the last ten years. *Journal of Fungi*, 8(8), 1-12, <https://doi.org/10.3390/jof8080803>.

[34] Grover, A. and Sharma, P.C., 2016. Development and use of molecular markers: past and present. *Critical Reviews in Biotechnology*, 36(2), 290-302, <https://doi.org/10.3109/07388551.2014.959891>.

[35] Tasma, I.M., Lorenzen, L.L., Green, D.E. and Shoemaker, R.C., 2001. Mapping genetic loci for flowering time, maturity, and photoperiod insensitivity in soybean. *Molecular Breeding*, 8(1), 25-35, <https://doi:10.1023/A:1011998116037>.

[36] Jahnke, G., Smidla, J. and Poczai, P., 2022. MolMarker: a simple tool for dna fingerprinting studies and polymorphic information content calculation. *Diversity*, 14(6), 1-9, <https://doi.org/10.3390/d14060497>.

[37] Sahu, P.K., Sao, R., Mondal, S., Vishwakarma, G., Gupta, S.K., Kumar, V., Singh, S., Sharma, D. and Das, B.K., 2020. Next generation sequencing based forward genetic approaches for identification and mapping of causal mutations in crop plants: a comprehensive review. *Plants*, 9(10), 1-47, <https://doi.org/10.3390/plants9101355>.

[38] Rani, R., Raza, G., Tung, M.H., Rizwan, M., Ashfaq, H., Shimelis, H., Razzaq, M.K. and Arif, M., 2023. Genetic diversity and population structure analysis in cultivated soybean (*Glycine max* [L.] Merr.) using SSR and EST-SSR markers. *PLoS One*, 18(5), 1-19, <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0286099>.

[39] Jain, R.K., Joshi, A. and Jain, D., 2017. Molecular marker based genetic diversity analysis in soybean [*Glycine max* (L.) Merrill] genotypes. *International Journal of Current Microbiology and Applied Sciences*, 6(6), 1034-1044, <https://doi.org/10.20546/ijcmas.2017.606.119>.

[40] Sulistyo, A., Indriani, F.C., Mejaya, M.J., Sugiharto, A.N. and Agranoff, J., 2019. Genetic

diversity of Indonesian soybean (*Glycine max* (L.) Merrill) germplasm based on morphological and microsatellite markers. *IOP Conference Series: Earth and Environmental Science*, 293(1), <https://doi.org/10.1088/1755-1315/293/1/012006>.

[41] Slamet, S., Saribanon, N., Pardal, S.J., Setia, T.M., Enggarini, W. and Reflinur, R., 2022. Determination of the parents based on molecular analysis for soybean lines development. *Jurnal Sains Natural*, 12(3), 112-123, <https://doi.org/10.31938/jsn.v12i3.391>.

[42] Agam, M.G., Kusmiyati, F., Anwar, S. and Herwibawa, B., 2020. Diversity analysis in soybean (*Glycine max* [L.] Merrill) mutant lines grown in saline soil using agronomic traits and RAPD markers. *IOP Conference Series: Earth and Environmental Science*, 482(1), 1-7, <https://doi.org/10.1088/1755-1315/482/1/012017>.

[43] Shakil, S.K., Sultana, S., Hasan, M.M., Hossain, M.M., Ali, M.S. and Prodhan, S.H., 2015. SSR marker based genetic diversity analysis of modern rice varieties and coastal landraces in Bangladesh. *Indian Journal of Biotechnology*, 14(1), 33-41.

[44] Singh, A.K., Chaurasia, S., Kumar, S., Singh, R., Kumari, J., Yadav, M.C., Singh, N., Gaba, S. and Jacob, S.R., 2018. Identification, analysis and development of salt responsive candidate gene based SSR markers in wheat. *BMC Plant Biology*, 18(1), 1-15, <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12870-018-1476-1>.

[45] Amiteye, S., 2021. Basic concepts and methodologies of DNA marker systems in plant molecular breeding. *Heliyon*, 7(10), 1-20, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.heliyon.2021.e08093>.

[46] Tasma, I.M., 2016. The use of genomic and genetic transformation technologies for oil palm productivity improvement. *Perspektif*, 15(1), 50-72.

[47] Chaerani, C., Dadang, A., Fatimah, F., Husin, B.A., Sutrisno, S. and Yunus, M., 2021. SRAP analysis of brown planthopper (*Nilaparvata lugens*) populations maintained on differential rice host varieties. *Biodiversitas Journal of Biological Diversity*, 22(10), 4266-4272, <https://doi.org/10.13057/biodiv/d221018>.

[48] Sutoro, S., Lestari, P., Reflinur, R. and Kurniawan, H., 2015. Genetic diversity of upland rice landraces from java island as revealed by SSR markers. *Indonesian Journal of Agricultural Science*, 16(1), 1-10.

[49] Reflinur, R., Lestari, P. and Lee, S.H., 2017. The potential use of SSR markers to support the morphological identification of Indonesian mungbean varieties. *Indonesian Journal of Agricultural Science*, 17(2), 65-74, <https://doi.org/10.21082/ijas.v17n2.2016.p65-74>.

[50] Wegadara, M., Dewanti, M., Diningsih, E., Rachmawati, F., Sukma, D. and Sudarsono, S., 2022. Genetic diversity based on SSR markers of 30 *Aeridinae* subtribe orchid genetic resources of Indonesian Ornamental Crop Research Institute, Cianjur, Indonesia. *Biodiversitas Journal of Biological Diversity*, 23(6), 2943-2956, <https://doi.org/10.13057/biodiv/d230621>.

[51] Lestari, P., Putri, R.E., Rineksane, I.A., Handayani, E., Nugroho, K. and Terryana, R.T., 2021. Genetic diversity of 27 accessions of soybean (*Glycine max* L. Merr.) introduced from subtropics based on SSR marker. *Vegetalika*, 10(1), 1-17, <https://doi.org/10.22146/veg.58418>.

[52] Terryana, R.T., Nugroho, K., Reflinur, R., Mulya, K., Dewi, N. and Lestari, P., 2017. Genotypic and phenotypic diversities of 48 introduced soybean accessions originated from China. *Jurnal AgroBiogen*, 13(1), 1-16.

[53] Cregan, P.B., Jarvik, T., Bush, A.L., Shoemaker, R.C., Lark, K.G., Kahler, A.L., Kaya, N., VanToai, T.T., Lohnes, D.G., Chung, J., Specht, J.E., 1999. An integrated genetic linkage map of the soybean genome. *Crop Science*, 39(5), 1464-1490, <https://doi:10.2135/cropsci1999.3951464x>.

[54] United States Department of Agriculture, 2006. *Mapped Soybean SSR Loci*. [online] Available at: <https://sgil.ba.ars.usda.gov/cregan/soyimap3.mht>.

[55] Asadi, Dewi, N., Nugroho, K., Terryana, R.T., Mastur and Lestari, P., 2020. Evaluation of

ssr and important agronomical characters of promising mutant lines of soybean. *Biodiversitas*, 21(1), 299-310, <https://doi.org/10.13057/biodiv/d210137>.

[56] Fehr, W.R., Caviness, C.E., Burmood, D.T. and Pennington, J.S., 1971. Stage of development descriptions for soybeans, *Glycine Max* (L.) Merrill. *Crop Science*, 11(6), 929-931, <https://doi.org/10.2135/cropsci1971.0011183x001100060051x>.

[57] Butar-Butar, D.V. and Lubis, I., 2018. Respon genotipe tanaman kedelai (*Glycine max* (L.) Merrill) dari berbagai negara terhadap kondisi lingkungan tumbuh kebun IPB Sawah Baru. *Buletin Agrohorti*, 6(2), 258-269, <https://doi.org/10.29244/agrob.v6i2.18942>.

[58] Doyle, J.J. and Doyle, J.L., 1990. Isolation of plant DNA from fresh tissue. *Focus (Madison)*, 1(12), 13-15.

[59] RStudio-Team, 2020. *RStudio: Integrated Development Environment for R*. [online] Available at: <http://www.rstudio.com/>.

[60] Lazer I.J. and Horvath-Lazar, E., 2010. *GelAnalyzer 2010a*. [online] Available at: <http://www.gelanalyzer.com/index.html>.

[61] Rohlf, F.J., 2000. *NTSYS-pc: numerical taxonomy and multivariate analysis system, Version 2.2*. New York: Applied Biostatistics, Inc.

[62] Liu, K. and Muse, S.V., 2005. PowerMaker: An integrated analysis environment for genetic maker analysis. *Bioinformatics*, 21(9), 2128-2129, <https://doi.org/10.1093/bioinformatics/bti282>.

[63] Kachare, S., Tiwari, S., Tripathi, N. and Thakur, V.V., 2020. Assessment of genetic diversity of soybean (*Glycine max*) genotypes using qualitative traits and microsatellite markers. *Agricultural Research*, 9(1), 23-34, <https://doi.org/10.1007/s40003-019-00412-y>.

[64] Rahajeng, W. and Adie, M.M., 2013. Early maturity soybean variety. *Buletin Palawija*, 26, 91-100.

[65] Shilpashree, N., Devi, S.N., Manjunathagowda, D.C., Muddappa, A., Abdelmohsen, S.A. M., Tamam, N., Elansary, H.O., El-Abedin, T.K.Z., Abdelbacki, A.M.M. and Janhavi, V., 2021. Morphological characterization, variability and diversity among vegetable soybean (*Glycine max* L.) genotypes. *Plants*, 10(4), 1-11, <https://doi.org/10.3390/plants10040671>.

[66] Terryana, R.T., Safina, N.D., Suryani, S., Nugroho, K. and Lestari, P., 2020. Morphological and molecular based genetic diversity assesment among soybean accessions introduced from subtropical areas. *Jurnal Ilmu-Ilmu Hayati*, 19(3B), 451-465, <https://doi.org/10.14203/beritabiologi.v19i3B.3894>.

[67] Singh, P.K., Shrestha, J. and Kushwaha, U.K.S., 2020. Multivariate analysis of soybean genotypes. *Journal of Agriculture and Natural Resources*, 3(1), 69-76, <https://doi.org/10.3126/janr.v3i1.27092>.

[68] El-Hashash, E., 2016. Genetic diversity of soybean yield based on cluster and principal component analyses. *Journal of Advances in Biology and Biotechnology*, 10(3), 1-9, <https://doi: 10.9734/jabb/2016/29127>.

[69] Anshori, M.F., Purwoko, B.S., Dewi, I.S., Ardie, S.W. and Suwarno, W.B., 2021. A new approach to select doubled haploid rice lines under salinity stress using indirect selection index. *Rice Science*, 28(4), 368-378, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.rsci.2021.05.007>.

[70] Kristamtin, K., Taryono, T., Basunanda, P. and Murti, R.H., 2016. Genetic diversity of local black rice cultivars based on microsatellite markers. *Jurnal AgroBiogen*, 10(2), 69-76, <https://doi.org/10.21082/jbio.v10n2.2014.p69-76>.

[71] Asadi, A., Dewi, N., Nugroho, K., Terryana, R.T., Mastur, M. and Lestari, P., 2019. Evaluation of SSR and important agronomical characters of promising mutant lines of soybean. *Biodiversitas Journal of Biological Diversity*, 21(1), 299-310, <https://doi.org/10.13057/biodiv/d210137>.

[72] Widaningsih, N.A., Purwanto, E., Nandariyah, N. and Reflinur, R., 2014. The use of DNA microsatellite markers for genetic diversity identification of soybean (*Glycine max* (L) Meriil.) as a supplementary method in reference collections management. *Indonesian*

[73] *Journal of Biotechnology*, 19(2), 136-145, <https://doi.org/10.22146/ijbiotech.9306>.  
Hossain, M., Islam, M.M., Emon, R.M., Rana, M.S., Hossain, M.A., Uddin, M.I., Malek, M.A., Khan, N.A. and Nuruzzaman, M., 2020. Microsatellite-based DNA fingerprinting and genetic analysis of some selected aus rice (*Oryza sativa* L.) genotypes. *Annals of Agricultural and Crop Sciences*, 5(3), 1-10.

[74] Mukuze, C., Tukamuhabwa, P., Maphosa, M., Dari, S., Dramadri, I.O., Obua, T., Kongai, H. and Rubaihayo, P., 2020. Genetic diversity analysis among soybean genotypes using SSR markers in Uganda. *African Journal of Biotechnology*, 19(7), 439-448, <https://doi.org/10.5897/ajb2020.17152>.

[75] Tasma, I.M. and Arumsari, S., 2020. Genetic diversity analysis of the Cameroon-originated oil palm accessions assessed with SSR markers. *Jurnal Penelitian Tanaman Industri*, 19(4), 194-202, <https://doi.org/10.21082/jlitri.v19n4.2013.194-202>.

[76] Dalimunthe, S.R., Siregar, L.A.M., Putri, L.A.P., Chairunnisa, T. and Hairmansis, A., 2020. Polymorphism levels of some SSR markers (Simple Sequence Repeat) for parental line identification on low temperature tolerance. *IOP Conference Series: Earth and Environmental Science*, 454(1), 1-9, <https://doi.org/10.1088/1755-1315/454/1/012165>.

[77] Charlesworth, D. and Willis, J.H., 2009. The genetics of inbreeding depression. *Nature Reviews Genetics*, 10(11), 783-796, <https://doi.org/10.1038/nrg2664>.