

**MORPHOMOLECULAR CHARACTERISATION OF THE VARIANTS OF
PIPER NIGRUM L VARIETY PANNIYUR 1**

SMITHA BHASI

Thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirement for the degree of

Master of Science in Agriculture

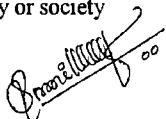
**Faculty of Agriculture
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2008

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I hereby declare that this thesis entitled **Morphomolecular characterisation of the variants of *Piper nigrum* L variety Panniyur 1** is a bonafide record of research work done by me during the course of research and that the thesis has not previously formed the basis for the award of any degree diploma associateship fellowship or other similar title of any other university or society



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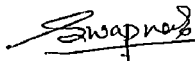
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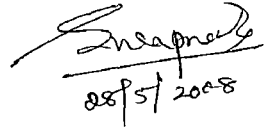
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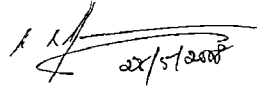
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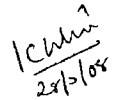
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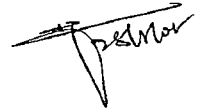
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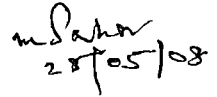
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CONTENTS

	Page No
1 INTRODUCTION	1 2
2 REVIEW OF LITERATURE	3 27
3 MATERIALS AND METHODS	28 33
4 RESULTS	34 48
5 DISCUSSION	49 58
6 SUMMARY	59 60
7 REFERENCES	<u>xxix</u>
APPENDICES	
ABSTRACT	

LIST OF TABLES

Table No	Title	Page No
1	Morphological traits of forty plants of black pepper variety Panniyur 1	35
2	Range and Frequency of character states of quantitative characters in the forty plants of black pepper variety Panniyur 1	36
3	Mean Standard deviation and Coefficient of variation of the morphological traits in forty plants of Panniyur 1 variety of black pepper	38
4	Correlation Matrix	40
5	Mean of important yield contributing characters observed among the plants belonging to the major and minor clusters of the dendrogram	41
6	Quality and quantity of DNA isolated from the forty plants of black pepper variety Panniyur 1	43
7	Sequence of the selected primers for amplification of DNA from the forty plants of black pepper variety Panniyur 1	44
8	Polymorphism exhibited by different primers on the forty plants of black pepper variety Panniyur 1	45

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure No	Title	Page No
1	Dendrogram generated from morphological analysis of forty plants of black pepper variety Panniyur 1	40 41
2	Dendrogram generated from molecular analysis of forty plants of black pepper variety Panniyur 1	48 49

LIST OF PLATES

Plate No	Title	Page No
1	Variants of black pepper variety Panniyur 1 maintained at the RARS Ambalavayal Field view	36 37
2	Leaf characteristics of the variants of black pepper variety Panniyur 1	36 37
3	Spike characteristics of the variants of black pepper variety Panniyur 1	36 37
4	RAPD profile of the forty plants of black pepper variety Panniyur 1 using the primer OPB 8	46 47
5	RAPD profile of the forty plants of black pepper variety Panniyur 1 using the primer OPA 10	46 47
6	RAPD profile of the forty plants of black pepper variety Panniyur 1 using the primer OPA 14	46 47
7	RAPD profile of the forty plants of black pepper variety Panniyur 1 using the primer OPA 15	46 47
8	RAPD profile of the forty plants of black pepper variety Panniyur 1 using the primer OPB 6	46 47
9	RAPD profile of the forty plants of black pepper variety Panniyur 1 using the primer OPB 20	46 47
10	RAPD profile of the forty plants of black pepper variety Panniyur 1 using the primer OPE 3	47 48

11	RAPD profile of the forty plants of black pepper variety Panniyur 1 using the primer OPB 1	47 48
12	RAPD profile of the forty plants of black pepper variety Panniyur 1 using the primer OPB 17	47 48
13	RAPD profile of the forty plants of black pepper variety Panniyur 1 using the primer OPF 5	47 48
14	RAPD profile of the forty plants of black pepper variety Panniyur 1 using the primer OPE 20	47- 48
15	RAPD profile of the forty plants of black pepper variety Panniyur 1 using the primer OPA 12	47- 48
16	RAPD profile of the forty plants of black pepper variety Panniyur 1 using the primer OPA 20	47- 48
17	RAPD profile of the forty plants of black pepper variety Panniyur 1 using the primer OPB 13	47 48
18	RAPD profile of the forty plants of black pepper variety Panniyur 1 using the primer OPA 8	47 48

LIST OF APPENDICES

Sl No	Title	Appendix No
1	CTAB Extraction Buffer	I
2	50 X TAE Buffer	II
3	1X TE buffer	III
4	Gel Loading Buffer	IV

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

μ l	Microlitre
μ M	Micromolar
AFLP	Amplified fragment length polymorphic DNA
bp	base pair
CTAB	Cetyl trimethyl ammonium bromide
CV	Coefficient of Variation
DNA	deoxy ribonucleic acid
dATP	deoxy Adenosine Tri Phosphate
dCTP	deoxy Cytosine Tri Phosphate
dGTP	deoxy Guanosine Tri Phosphate
dTTP	deoxy Thiamine Tri Phosphate
dNTPs	deoxy Nucleotide Tri Phosphates
EDTA	Ethylene Diamine Tetra Acetic acid disodium salt
HCl	Hydrochloric acid
IISR	Indian Institute of Sp ace Resea ch
ISSR	Inter Simple Sequence Repeats
M	Molar
ml	millilitre
mM	Millimolar

NaCl	Sodium Chloride
NaOH	Sodium hydroxide
OD	Optical Density
ng	Nanogram
PCR	Polymerase Chain Reaction
pH	Per Hydrogen
PVP	Poly Vinyl Pyrrolidone
RAPD	Random Amplified Polymorphic DNA
RARS	Regional Agricultural Research Station
RFLP	Restriction fragment length polymorphism
SCAR	Sequence Characterized Amplified Region
SD	Standard Deviation
SDS	Sodium Dodecyl Sulphate
SSR	Simple Sequence Repeats
STMS	Sequence Tagged Microsatellite sites
TAE	Tris Acetic acid EDTA
TE	Tris EDTA
Tris HCl	Tris (hydroxyl methyl) amino methane Hydrochloride
VNTR	Variable Number of Tandem Repeats

Introduction

1 INTRODUCTION

Black pepper *Piper nigrum* L. often referred to as the King of spices is the most traded spice crop. India is a major producer, consumer and exporter of black pepper in the world and Indian black pepper is well known for its quality and fetches premium price. India with more than 40 per cent share of the world area under pepper contributes to about 23 per cent of the total pepper production in the world.

Among the thousand reported species in the genus *Piper* about one hundred and ten have are originated in the humid tropical evergreen forest of the Western Ghats of India. Majority of the present day Indian cultivars are land races representing direct introduction from the wild. Advanced cultivars have been derived mostly by clonal selection from landraces though a few are of hybrid origin. As India is the primary centre of diversity of *P. nigrum* the indigenous genetic resources are reservoirs of useful genes for plant improvement programme. The development of improved cultivars through hybridization has made a major contribution to increased productivity and quality of plants in different crop plants.

The first ever hybrid of black pepper Panniyur 1 (Uthirankotta x Cheriya Kaniyakaadan) is the most popular pepper variety grown in India and has recorded the highest potential yield of 8800 kg dry pepper/ha. It is the most widely cultivated improved varieties of black pepper in Kerala since its release in 1971. It is an early bearing variety and performs well under open conditions and is suitable to almost all pepper growing regions.

Black pepper is propagated vegetatively through rooted cuttings. The propagation can be either through the traditional three nodal cuttings or through the split bamboo method. Generally it has been assumed that there exists no

variation among vegetatively propagated crops (Eckert and Barret 1993) and the off springs are true to type. However, contradictory to this assumption, there are reports on significant variation among clonal propagation in many crops (Mekuria et al 1999, Gabrielsen 1998, Novak et al 2000, Diggle et al 1998, Esselman et al 1999). Similar reports are there among the different black pepper cultivars also (Ibrahim et al 1985, Prasannakumari 2001, Chandy et al 1984, Kanakaswamy et al 1985, Mathew and Mathew 2001) and the variation noticed was mainly in terms of yield.

Intra clonal variability was reported in black pepper in the local variety Karimunda (Ratnambal et al 1985) and Pradeepkumar et al (1999) reported intra clonal variability in yield in the hybrid Panniyur 1 at the RARS Ambalavayal. Pradeepkumar et al (2003) in another study reported the variability in yield contributing factors and quality parameters in a population of Panniyur 1 plants through cluster analysis. The standard deviation was the greatest for berries per spike (SD 17.710) and yield (SD 12.901); the lowest variability was observed for piperine content (SD 0.238). Among the quality characteristics, oleoresin content exhibited more variability than piperine content. The plants were grouped into five clusters based on their mean performance.

Such reports deserve serious concern and in-depth analysis as pepper is a leading commercial crop of India, important in the domestic as well as international market. The present study was taken up in this context utilising the progeny of the forty variant plants reported by Pradeepkumar et al (2003) from RARS Ambalavayal. The objective was to assess the extent of variability with respect to morphological traits including yield parameters as well as the molecular analysis of genetic variability.

Review of literature

2 REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Piper is the most diverse genera among basal lineages of angiosperms (Gentry et al 1990) Being the largest genus in the family Piperaceae it consists of more than one thousand species occurring through out the tropical and subtropical regions (Parthasarathy et al 2006) According to Purseglove et al (1981) out of this one hundred and ten are of Indian origin

2.1 BLACK PEPPER A MAJOR SPICE OF KERALA

The genus *Piper* includes *Piper nigrum* (black pepper) *Piper longum* *Piper colubrinum* *Piper betle* *Piper chaba* *Piper brachystachyum* etc which are commonly used in our indigenous system of medicine (Nazeem et al 2003)

Black pepper often referred to as the King of spices is the most important spice in the world (Pradeepkumar et al 2001) The popular names King of Spices and Black Gold designated to black pepper reveal the importance the crop has attained world over It is believed to have originated in the sub mountainous tracts of the Western Ghats (Rahman et al 1987 Joseph and Skaria 2001)

India is a major producer consumer and exporter of black pepper in the world (George et al 2005) It has the largest area of 2.11 lakh ha under this crop (Radhakrishnan et al 2004) and earns more than US \$70 million foreign exchange per year (Arunkumar et al 2006) Maximum exports were observed during the periods 1999-2000 (42824 metric tonnes) 1996-97 (47893 metric tonnes) and 1993-94 (48743 metric tonnes) (Vasanthakumar 2006)

Apart from India, black pepper is widely cultivated throughout Vietnam Indonesia Malaysia Thailand Tropical Africa Brazil Sri Lanka and China

(Joseph and Skaria 2001) Kerala contributes to more than 90 per cent of area as well as production of black pepper in our country (Vasanthakumar 2006)

2 1 1 Plant description

The black pepper plant is a stout glabrous climbing shrub with small cordate leaves when young gradually getting larger later sending out flowering branches with large leaves and fruits. Leaves are simple alternate cordate varying in breadth broadly ovate 5-9 nerved. This is a dioecious plant with minute flowers in spike which vary in length. Fruit is globose one seeded drupe bright red when ripe. Seed is globose (Joseph and Skaria 2001)

2 1 2 Uses of black pepper

Black pepper is used in human dietaries, medicine and preservative and in perfumery (Srinivasan 2007)

Black pepper is used in cuisine worldwide at all stages of the cooking process and as a table condiment. It is used universally in sauces, poultry gravies, processed meats, snack foods etc. Black pepper is added to fruitcakes and gingerbread and is also used as a light seasoning on fresh fruit (Vasanthakumar 2006)

Being a native of Western Ghats, pepper forms an important ingredient of several indigenous medicines of India (Vasanthakumar 2006) as well as African and Chinese systems. In Ayurvedic system of medicine, black pepper is known in different names such as Maricam (killer of poison), Krishna (corrosive), Ooshana (giving burning sensation) and Vellayam (antihelminthic). The whole plant is being used as medicine in various ayurvedic preparations (Nybe and Sujatha 2001). Black pepper can be used as a stimulant, carminative, digestive, stomachic, nervine, deobstruent, resolvent, cholagogue, diuretic, emmenagogue and antiperiodic. Pepper is much employed as an aromatic stimulant against

cholera as an antiperiodic for malarial fever and alternative to arthritis disease (Joseph and Skaria 2001)

2.1.3 Value added products

Black pepper contains chiefly resin (chavicolin) volatile oil and an alkaloid piperine. The presence of resin makes black pepper a stimulant while volatile oil imparts to the odour and aromatic taste and the alkaloid piperine gives the febrifuge property. The accumulation pattern of various chemical constituents of commercial importance in black pepper berries of two cultivars showed that oleoresin, piperine, essential oil and starch show a manifold increase one to two months before complete maturity of the berries. Certain wild types of black pepper and local land races are reported to contain more piperine and oleoresin (Mathai et al. 1981)

2.1.3.1 Black pepper oleoresin

Black pepper oleoresin is a mirror image of the flavour pungency and aroma components and is obtained by extraction of pepper powder using organic solvents viz. ethyl acetate, ethylene dichloride, hexane, ethanol, acetone etc. When freshly made, pepper oleoresin is a dark green, viscous heavy liquid with a strong aroma. One kilogram of oleoresin when dispersed on an inert base can replace fifteen to twenty kilogram of spice for flavouring purpose (Vasanthakumar 2006)

2.1.3.2 Piperine

Piperine is produced from oleoresin through centrifugation and its content ranges from four to six per cent in dry pepper and thirty five to fifty per cent in oleoresin (Vasanthakumar 2006). According to Srinivasan (2007) dietary piperine enhances the digestive capacity and significantly reduces the

gastrointestinal food transit time. The most far reaching attribute of piperine has been its inhibitory influence on enzymatic drug biotransforming reactions in the liver. It enhances the bioavailability of a number of therapeutic drugs. It is non genotoxic and possesses anti mutagenic and anti tumor influences.

2.1.3.3 Pepper oil

Pepper oil is obtained through steam or water distillation of berries. It is used in perfumery and in flavouring (Vasanthakumar 2006). The analysis of volatile components and the odour characteristics of Japanese pepper using gas chromatography showed that geraniol, citronellal, linalool and methyl cinnamate were perceived to be important to the basic flavour (Jiang and Kubota 2004).

2.1.4 Crop improvement in black pepper

Majority of the present day Indian black pepper cultivars numbering about 100 are land races representing direct introduction from the wild (Ibrahim et al 1984) and most of the varieties released for cultivation are clonal selections from the existing land races (George et al 2005). As India is the primary centre of diversity of *P. nigrum* the indigenous genetic resources are reservoirs of useful genes for plant improvement programmes (Pradeepkumar et al 2001).

The development of improved cultivars through hybridization has made a major contribution to increased productivity and quality of plants in different crop plants (George et al 2005). In black pepper combining yield and quality parameters has been a perennial goal for improvement programmes (Pradeepkumar et al 2003). One of the major research aims of different institutions is developing high yielding good quality varieties of black pepper with tolerance to diseases and pest (Saji and Sasikumar 2006). More emphasis is now given in improvement programmes for quality parameters like piperine

oleoresin and oil rather than bulk pepper as the export of value added products is now gaining importance (Kumar et al 2003)

Twelve improved varieties have been released and a few more are in the pipeline at the AICRPS centre at Panniyur as well as at Indian Institute of Spice Research (IISR) Kozhikode Panniyur 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6 & 7 from Pepper Research Station (PRS) Panniyur yielding between 1.27-2.57 tonnes/ha and Pancham Pournami, Sreekara and Subhakar with 2.3-2.8 tonnes/ha. IISR Malabar Excel, IISR Girmunda and IISR Sakthi with 1.05-2.1 tonnes/ha from IISR and PLD 2 with 2.4 tonnes/ha from Central Plantation Crop Research Institute (CPCRI) Palode are promising varieties both in research and in farmer's field with respect to yield and other spike quality parameters. Of this Panniyur 1, 3 and IISR Malabar Excel and Girmunda are hybrids and others are clonal selection from landraces (Ravindran et al 2000)

So far sixteen improved varieties are developed or recommended for release (Saji and Sasikumar 2006)

2.1.4.1 Panniyur 1

The first ever hybrid of black pepper Panniyur 1 (Uthirankotta x Cheryakamyakaan) is the most popular pepper variety grown in India (Pradeepkumar et al 2001) and it has recorded the highest potential yield of 8800 kg dry pepper/ha¹ (NRCS 1991). Panniyur 1 has been holding the status of one of the widely cultivated improved varieties of black pepper in Kerala since its release in 1971 (Pradeepkumar et al 2003). It is the most popular variety among the seventy distinct cultivars of black pepper (Mathai et al 1981, George et al 2005)

Panniyur 1 is an early bearing variety and performs well under open situations and is suitable to all pepper growing regions but is not suited to heavily shaded areas (Ravindran and Johny 2000 Saj and Sasikumar 2006). The spikes are long with large berries compact and spiral. The average dry yield is 1242 kg/ha and the drage is 35.3 per cent and the potential yield is 8800 kg/ha. The yield per vine is 2.2 kg green pepper. The maximum length of a spike is 17 cm. The maximum number of berries on a spike is 125. Thousand berry weight and volume are 155 g and 145 cc respectively. The oleoresin content is 11.8 per cent piperine is 5.3 per cent and essential oil is 3.5 per cent (Edison et al. 1991).

2.2 VARIATION IN VEGETATIVELY PROPAGATED CROPS

2.2.1 Vegetative propagation of crops

Most perennial flowering plants combine sexual reproduction with some form of asexual reproduction through vegetative propagation for example by rhizomes, bulbils, cuttings, layering, tillering or rooting of surface runners (Cook 1983, Eckert et al. 1999). In angiosperms vegetative propagation is extremely wide spread and common (Albert et al. 2003). It is considered that vegetative propagation can ensure true to type offspring and hence can ensure the genetic fidelity.

2.2.2 Vegetative propagation in black pepper

Black pepper is usually propagated through pre-rooted cuttings. Pepper develops different types of aerial shoots:

- a) Primary stem or climbing stem
- b) Runner shoots which originate from the base of the vines
- c) Fruit bearing lateral branches
- d) Hanging shoots

Different planting materials will produce different types of plants. In India generally cuttings from the runner shoots are used or raising rooted planting materials. Runner shoots of high yielding and healthy vines in the garden is selected and 2-3 node cuttings are planted either in nursery beds or polythene bags filled with fertile potting mixture. This traditional method does not provide enough planting materials to meet the requirements. So alternative methods of rapid multiplication techniques were devised for large scale production of rooted pepper cuttings (Package of practices 2007). These include

- a) Rapid multiplication of rooted pepper cuttings using split bamboo method
- b) Pit method (single node from runner shoots are used for rooting)
- c) Rooted lateral or fruiting branches are propagated as bush pepper

2.2.3 Variations among vegetatively propagating or clonal plants

Generally it has been assumed that there exists no variation among vegetatively propagated crops (Eckert 2002) and the off springs are true to type. It was assumed that genetic diversity was lower for clonal plants than for non clonal plants (Harper 1977). However a growing body of data indicated that populations of clonal plants could maintain considerable amounts of genetic diversity (Ellstrand and Roose 1987, Hamrick and Godt 1989, Eckert and Barrett 1993, Widen et al 1994). Reports show that asexual species are as genetically diverse as sexual ones (Hamrick and Godt 1989).

Asexual modes of reproduction in most arctic plants have led to the common assumption that they contain low levels of genetic diversity (Bierzychudek 1985, Peck et al 1998). But investigation of some arctic autogamous species e.g. *Diaba* spp (Brochmann et al 1998), *Saxifraga oppositifolia* L (Abbott et al 1995, Gabrielsen et al 1997) and *Silene acaulis* (L.) (Abbott et al 1995, Philipp 1997) have revealed high levels of genetic

variation According to Jefferies and Gottlieb (1983) in the arctic seashore grass *Puccinellia phryganodes* (Trin.) high levels of clonal variation were observed within and among population According to Novak et al (2000) clonal diversity was found in populations of the apomixtic vine *Bryonia alba* a herbaceous plant According to Verburg et al (2000) though low clonal diversity was found in young population of *Circaea lutetiana* it was high in the established population Studies of the arctic alpine *Carex bigelowii* and the alpine *Carex curvula* demonstrated high levels of clonal variability (Jonsson et al 1996 Steinger et al 1996)

2.2.4 Molecular characterization for assessment of genetic variability in vegetatively propagated crops

One method for assessing variation in vegetatively propagated crops is through its morphological characterization Since those morphological traits are much governed by complex genetic interactions morphological characterization alone will not be much reliable in assessing genetic diversity (Karp et al 1998) and here the real role-play by molecular markers come

Identification of different clones in populations of clonal plants has been greatly facilitated by the use of molecular markers Since they are genotypic markers (Bretting and Widrechner 1995) they are used to study the differences among strains at molecular level They are useful for diversity assessment in a number of plant species (Waugh and Powell 1992) and are direct manifestations of genetic content (Weising et al 1995) They serve as reliable indices of genetic variation

Currently molecular markers are being used not only for the assessment of genetic variability and characterization of germplasm but also for the identification and fingerprinting of genotypes estimation of genetic distances between populations inbred and breeding material detection of monogenic and

qualitative trait loci marker assisted selection identification of sequence of useful candidate genes etc (Koruzon 2001) The genetic markers can be very well used for clonal identification linkage mapping population diversity taxonomy evolutionary studies determining the genetic fidelity during micro propagation germplasm conservation and so on (Bretting and Widrechner 1995)

Molecular markers are widely classified into biochemical markers and DNA based markers Biochemical markers have been used since long for the characterization of variation in plants De Michele et al (1991) reported that some isozyme variants are not selectively neutral An allozyme study of the arctic alpine pseudo viviparous grass *Poa alpina* L revealed large within population variation (Nordal and Iversen 1993) In arctic and alpine populations of *Polygonum viviparum* L intermediate to high levels of genetic diversities were detected based on isozyme electrophoresis and bulbil colour (Bauret 1996) The allozyme analysis of three alpine populations of the herbaceous perennial *Polygonum viviparum* a plant with no observed sexual reproduction revealed genetic diversity (Diggle et al 1998) Genetic diversity and structure of fifteen populations of *Phragmites australis* were investigated using starch gel electrophoresis and the analysis based on seventeen enzyme loci coding for eight enzyme systems showed that there exist a high level of genetic variability (Gou et al 2003) According to Sasikumar (1999) isozyme technology was effectively used in the identification of two interspecific hybrids of *Piper*

Isozymes are unstable markers during plant development and standardization of sampling procedures is sometimes difficult and is considered to be inappropriate as universal markers (Cooke 1984) Because of its plasticity ubiquity and stability DNA is the ideal molecule for analysis of variation (Anolles et al 1991) Therefore the isozymes have been replaced by DNA based molecular markers (Anolles and Trignano 1997)

The various types of molecular markers utilized to evaluate DNA polymorphism are generally classified as hybridization based markers and Polymerase Chain Reaction (PCR) based markers (Joshi et al 1999). The hybridization based DNA marker techniques utilize labeled nucleic acid molecules as hybridization probes (Anolles et al 1991). Probe molecules range from synthetic oligonucleotides to cloned DNA. Some of the important hybridization based DNA techniques are Restriction Fragment Length Polymorphism (RFLP), Hyper Variable Sequences and Variable Number of Tandem Repeats (VNTRs).

PCR based DNA marker techniques utilize an *in vitro* enzymatic reaction to specifically amplify a multiplicity of target sites in one or more nucleic acid molecules (Anolles and Trigiano 1997, Michelli and Bova 1996). Among the PCR based marker techniques the important ones are Amplified Fragment Length Polymorphism (AFLP), Microsatellites, Sequence Characterized Amplified Region (SCAR) and Random Amplified Polymorphic DNA (RAPD). As the PCR based DNA markers evolve rapidly enough to be variable within a population they are much suited for detecting genotypic diversity (Esselman et al 1999).

Analysis of variation in clonal populations using molecular markers such as allozymes (Widen et al 1994) and polymerase chain reaction (PCR) based markers like RAPD (Esselman et al 1999, Persson and Gustavsson 2001, Hangelbroek et al 2002, Albert et al 2003), Inter Simple Sequence Repeat (ISSR) (Esselman et al 1999, Li and Ge 2001) and AFLP (Albert et al 2003, Escaravage et al 1998, Suyama et al 2000) is reported in a number of crop species.

Differences in molecular patterns have been demonstrated previously within and among different cultivars of the olive tree *Olea europaea* which is usually propagated asexually (Mekuria et al 1999). Chen et al (2006) reported

that molecular analysis of three natural populations of *Caldesia caldasii*, a highly clonal marshy herb revealed a high level of genetic variation at the species level

Assessment of asexual genetic variability in *Agave foeniculis* using AFLP shows difference at the population level while this pattern is conserved in the samples from the same plant (Infante et al 2003)

According to George et al (2005) ISSR primers were successfully tested for assessing the genetic diversity of spice germplasm including different species of cardamom *Vanilla and Piper* and were also useful in identifying the selected cultivars of black pepper and also hybrids of black pepper

2.2.4.1 Random amplified polymorphic DNA (RAPD)

Polymerase chain reaction in conjunction with random primers is used for fingerprinting genomes (Welch and McClelland 1990) for population biology studies (Astley 1992) identification of genome specific markers and other uses (Williams et al 1990 Erlich et al 1991) The major advantage of this approach lies in the fact that it allows exploration of large genomic portions

Analysis of RAPD offers several advantages The most important advantage is that RAPD is not a labour intensive procedure It is not necessary to construct or maintain a genomic library RAPD requires smaller quantities of genomic DNA than RFLP analysis Also it is less costly compared to RFLP Generation of RAPD is quicker than RFLP and can be used to detect even single gene mutations (Williams et al 1990)

2.2.4.1.1 RAPD in detection of genetic variability

Several authors have applied the RAPD technique to investigate genetic variability and found the technique very efficient and reliable (Brown et al

1993 Munthali et al 1996) RAPD can be used to detect genetic variation at the intra as well as interspecific level (Aboelwafa et al 1995)

RAPD markers were found to be very useful in assessing the genetic variability in vegetatively propagated crops Morphological variations noticed on these crops may or may not result in variations on molecular analysis and several reports are available on the same

According to Palacios and Gonzales (1997) no genetic variability was observed in the rare and endangered *Limonium cavanillesii* using RAPD markers and this was the lowest level of genetic variation detected in plants using RAPD markers RAPD analysis of *Allium ampeloprasum* var *babingtonii* revealed no polymorphism suggesting that all sampled individuals are part of a single clone (Treu et al 2001)

Vega et al (2001) reported one of the lowest levels of polymorphism 0.8% detected for a plant species by RAPD analysis was for *Agave tequilana* var *azul* plants Seven population of *Alternanthera philoxeroides* a clonally propagated aquatic plant on molecular analysis using RAPD and ISSR markers showed that its genetic diversity is extremely low (Wang et al 2005) According to Li et al (2006) RAPD and ISSR markers used to analyze genetic structure of six populations of invasive plant *Eichhornia crassipes* indicate that the genetic diversity is extremely low

Hamrick and Godt (1989) reported that asexual species are as genetically diverse as sexual ones According to Gabrielsen and Brochmann (1998) high levels of diversity are detected in the arctic clonal plant *Saxifraga cernua* using RAPD markers

In the clonal grass *Calamagrostis porteri* spp *insperata* diversity was detected using allozymes RAPD and ISSR markers (Esseiman et al 1999)

RAPD analysis of fifteen African plantain landraces revealed no polymorphism among the landraces but variation within landrace resulted (Newbury et al 2000)

Studies on genetic diversity of nine varieties of *Morus* spp showed that the overall extent of polymorphism was very high and the RAPD data were useful in distinguishing between the nine varieties of *Morus* spp (Bhattacharya and Ranade 2001)

Genetic diversity amongst landraces of a dioecious vegetatively propagated plant betel vine using RAPD was proved by Ranade et al (2004) Significant genetic variation was reported in a perennial clonal aquatic weed *Leersia hexandra* using ISSR technique (Song et al 2006)

According to Prakash et al (2007) the degree of genetic diversity observed between seven species of *Rhus* L a woody genus belonging to the family Anacardiaceae with RAPD markers suggests that this approach could be used for studying the phylogeny of the genus

RAPD markers have been used to characterize germplasm in several important crop species including *Carica papaya* L (Stiles et al 1993) rice (Fukoka et al 1992) apple (Koller et al 1993) and pigeon pea (Ratnaparkhe et al 1995)

According to Hu and Quiros (1992) four RAPD markers could successfully discriminated fourteen broccoli (*Brassica oleracea italica*) and twelve cauliflower (*B. oleracea botrytis*) cultivars RAPD markers have been used to characterize the three main cultivated sub populations viz Criollo Forestro and Trinitario of cocoa clones (Wilde et al 1992)

Mulcahy et al (1993) characterized twenty five accessions of apple representing eight cultivars (Golden Delicious Delicious Gala Jonathan Jonagold Florina Fior di Cassia and Imperate Dallago) with RAPD which could give a distinctive fingerprint for each of the cultivars

RAPD markers have been used successfully to detect genetic variation among lowland and upland rice cultivars and the genetic characterization and classification of Japonica cultivars into temperate and tropical groups (Yu and Nguyen 1994) Nine primers were used to specify nine genotypes of *Musa* representing AA AAA AAB and BB genotypes through RAPD technique (Howell et al 1994)

RAPD markers were used for fingerprinting genotypes within and between *Annona* species (Renning et al 1995) The use of RAPD analysis for *Mangifera* germplasm classification and clonal identification is reported by Schnell et al (1995) Graham and Mc Nicol (1995) generated RAPD markers from different *Rubus* species in order to access the degree of similarity between species Iqbal et al (1995) used RAPD markers to establish polymorphisms among local sugarcane varieties and polymorphisms were detected

Lashermes et al (1996) have successfully employed RAPD markers to analyze genetic diversity among cultivated and sub spontaneous accessions of *Coffea arabica* Machado et al (1996) reported that RAPD used for assessing the polymorphism and genetic variability between thirty nine mediterranean *Mandarin* genotypes revealed a low level of genetic variation between accessions whereas their hybrids with other *Citrus* species showed greater genetic dissimilarity

Analysis of genetic variability in forty eight coconut types belonging to East African Tall types by RAPDs microsatellite primed PCR and ISTR analysis detected large number of DNA polymorphism and allowed the identification of

single genotypes by individual specific fingerprints (Duran et al 1997) Varghese et al (1997) evaluated the applicability of RAPD markers in 24 clones cultivated rubber tree *Hevea* and the statistical analysis indicated the absence of a distinct geographical grouping because of the breeding history of *Hevea*

According to Verma et al (1999) RAPD analysis allows the identification and discrimination of the individual genotypes of Basmati rice including the identification of duplicates in genetic resource collections. A relatively large genetic diversity was observed within the germplasm collection. Interspecific and intraspecific/varietal variations were observed in the RAPD analysis of forty two accessions of *Vitis* representing thirteen species (Wang et al 1999). According to Lanham and Brennen (1999) RAPD markers were used to fingerprint and to examine genetic diversity among twelve genotypes of gooseberry. Six hazelnut (*Corylus avellana*) cultivars were identified using RAPD markers (Galderisi et al 1999). RAPD analysis was done to determine intra specific variability in *Andrographis paniculata* (Padmesh et al 1999). In the RAPD technique used for cultivar identification of eleven aubergine cultivars out of twelve primers nine revealed polymorphism in cultivars (Kochieva et al 1999).

RAPD analysis was carried out by Egashira et al (2000) to investigate genetic diversity of Peruvianum-Complex (PC) species of highly polymorphic wild tomato relatives and the genetic relationship between the PC and the Esculentum Complex (EC) species including the cultivated species. RAPD technique was used to detect the genetic variation at the level of DNA among aromatic and non aromatic cultivars by Baishya et al (2000). RAPD and SSR markers were used to characterize genetic relationship among forty six accessions in two *Cucumis melo* L. subsp (*Cantaloupensis odoratus*) and subsp *agrestis* (Conomon and Flexuosus) groups (Jack et al 2000). Evaluation of the genetic diversity among twenty seven superior tea accessions (*Camellia sinensis* Var *sinensis*) from Korea, Japan and Taiwan by Kaundun et al (2000) using RAPD

PCR markers showed that three primers were sufficient to distinguish all the twenty seven accessions. RAPD analysis was used to assess the genetic diversity of clones of a subset collection of wild apple (Vetnam and Gebhardt 2000)

According to Choudhary et al (2001) RAPD profiling was successfully employed to distinguish forty eight aromatic rice genotypes and among fifty eight screened primers 96.5% detected polymorphism among the genotypes

RAPD technique used to analyze the genetic diversity of wild and cultivated clone populations of *Ensete ventricosum* (Enset) demonstrated that cultivated clones clustered distinctly from wild samples which suggest that the present day cultivated enset clones have been introduced to domestication from a limited number of wild progenitors (Birmeta et al 2004)

According to Wolf et al (1995) RAPD marker technique has potential applications in the identification, registration and protection of black pepper accessions. Efforts were done in *Piper longum* to find out the genetic difference among the varieties using RAPD analysis by Philip et al (2000). Molecular characterization of black pepper cultivars using RAPD markers was successfully done by Pradeepkumar et al (2003)

2.2.4.1.2 RAPD and linkage maps

RAPD assay has been used by several groups as an efficient tool for identification of markers linked to agronomically important traits which are introgressed during the development of near isogenic lines. Traits of interests studied include jointless pedicel (Wing et al 1994), disease resistance (Martin et al 1991) and spotted wilt virus resistance (Chaque et al 1996) in tomato, anthracnose resistance in mango (Subramanian et al 1996), scab resistance in apple (Hong et al 1997, Tartarini 1996), leaf minor resistance (Moriera et al

1999) and lettuce infectious yellows virus resistance in *C. crinita* (McCreight 2000)

The three RAPD markers viz OPH 11 OPJ 06 and OPL 15 were found to have significant association with the trait seed oil content in Indian mustard (Sharma et al 1999)

Genetic linkage maps have been created in banana (Faure et al 1993) sweet cherry (Stockinger et al 1996) *Citrus* (Christofani et al 1999) rose (Debener and Mattiesch 1999) and oil palm (Moretzsohn et al 2000) using RAPD

In an effort to map the loci affecting the cooking quality traits in basmati rice a doubled haploid population from the basmati indica (Hasan Serai) into non basmati japonica (Xiang Nuo 4) hybrid generated earlier was genotyped using 121 RAPD markers and a linkage map was constructed. Single factor analysis of variants revealed significant association with some of the markers and cooking quality traits (IARI 1999)

According to Moury et al (2000) four RAPD markers were successfully used to determine the hypersensitive resistance to tomato spotted wilt virus (TSWV) in pepper

2.2.4.1.3 RAPD and taxonomic studies

RAPD markers have been widely used for taxonomic and related studies. Demeke et al (1992) investigated the potential use of RAPD for taxonomic studies in *Brassica Sinapis* and *Raphanus* taxa. Results showed that *Raphanus sativus* and *Sinapis alba* were distinct from the *Brassica* taxa

Dunemann et al (1994) investigated the use of RAPD markers for taxonomic studies in *Mallus*. Eighteen accessions of wild species and twenty seven apple cultivars were tested with twenty nine pre selected primers. The analysis of the bands using unweighted pair group arithmetic average showed the relationship among the cultivars which was in agreement with the known lineage. A dendrogram generated for wild species gave relationships that were in accordance with the known phylogenetic information.

The technical simplicity of the RAPD technique has facilitated its use in the analysis of phylogenetic relationships in several plant genera e.g. roses (Debener et al 1996) blueberry (Levi and Rowland 1997) barley (Noli et al 1997) *Cymbidium* (Obara okeyo and Kako 1998) etc.

The genetic closeness of various species of *Vanda* was determined using RAPD markers. Strip leaved *Vanda* sp (including *Vanda sandersoniana*) and *Ascocentrum miniatum* were more closely related to each other than to the terete leaved *Vanda* sp studied. RAPD analysis supported the suggestion that terete leaved *Vanda* trees and *V hookeriana* be classified in the separate genus *Papilionanthe* and that *V sandersoniana* should remain in the genus *Vanda* (Lim et al 1999).

According to Nazeem et al (2003) RAPD can be successfully used to evaluate the genetic diversity among the nine important *Piper* species.

According to Renuka et al (2005) RAPD markers were found to be useful in analyzing the diversity among seven *Piper* species.

2.2.4.1.4 RAPD and soma clones

RAPD analysis was used to detect genetic variation in micropropagated Cavendish bananas (Damasco et al 1996). Four different types of somaclonal

analyses were defined and characterized in banana plants generated by neofertile culture which allows the elimination of off types before planting (Walther et al 1997) RAPD was applied to monitor the genetic fidelity of micropropagated meadow fescue viz *Festuca pratensis* (Valles et al 1993) Norway spruce (Heinze and Scheidtt 1995) and strawberries (Kumar et al 1995) According to Lu et al (1996) RAPD were useful for establishing a genetic basis for somaclonal variation in rice Somaclonal variants were reported in *Triticum aestivum* (Brown et al 1993) populus (Rani et al 1995) beet (Munthal et al 1996) peach (Hashmi et al 1997) tomato (Hong et al 1999) grapes (Verdsson et al 1999) and pigeon pea (Prasannalatha et al 1999) using RAPDs Plants regenerated by somatic embryogenesis from long term callus cultures derived from five garlic cultivars subjected to RAPD analysis revealed variation (Al Zahin et al 1999)

In the genus *Pepper* RAPD technique has been successfully utilized to identify somaclonal variants of *Pepper longum* (Parami et al 1997) Analysis of the genetic fidelity of micropropagated plants of black pepper using both morphological and molecular characterizations reported that micropropagated plants are morphologically similar and RAPD and ISSR profiling also did not show detectable variations (Prabhu and Kumarin 2005)

2.2.4.1.5 RAPD and hybrids

Wang et al (1994) reported RAPD fingerprinting as a convenient tool for the identification protection and parentage determination of rice hybrids Their study included rice plants selected in Northern China (each comprising the male sterile the restorer the hybrid F1 and the maintainer lines of rice cultivar) and the results obtained were useful for identification of each single plant line

Truksan and Proclazka (1996) reported different banding pattern based on the DNA polymers used for testing three lines of cucumber used for the

production of hybrid seeds. Lohle et al (2000) has obtained the following results. It is concluded that RAPD was not suitable for verifying the hybridity of seeds.

RAPD markers have been successfully used to test the paternity of Japanese pear hybrid (Banno et al 2000). RAPD markers are now widely used for the identification of artificial and natural hybrids in different crops. Sheng et al (2000) reported that RAPD techniques have been used for the identification of hybrids and the parent determination as well.

According to George et al (2005) one of the problems faced by pepper breeders was the difficulty in identifying true hybrids from the crossed progenies before planting. RAPD can be successfully used in selecting true hybrids based on shared bands in male parent and offspring at the early stage of the plant.

According to Jooju et al (2005) RAPD analysis can help identification of true hybrids of black pepper. The primer used in the study was found useful in identification of hybrids in the cross HP780 x *P. ligularis* (Wild).

According to Kshore et al (2005) genetic analysis of black pepper hybrids and their parents based on RAPD revealed a moderate degree of diversity among the cultivars examined.

2.2.4.1.6 RAPD for identification of somatic hybrids

RAPDs have been used to characterize molecularly both interspecific and intraspecific somatic hybrids.

Bard et al (1992) proposed RAPD for the identification of inter and intraspecific somatic hybrids along with sexual hybrids at an early stage in potato.

Four RAPD primers were found successful for the identification of hybrids between *Solanum tuberosum* and *Solanum tuberosum* and the somatic hybrids showed a combination of the parental banding pattern whereas regenerants from one of the parents had a similar banding pattern as that of the parent (Xu et al 1993)

2.2.4.1.7 RAPD in sex determination

Early identification of sex in dioecious plants like papaya (Somri 1998) and nutmeg (Shibu et al 2000) was possible with the help of RAPD markers

Male sex associated RAPD markers were identified for the first time in *Piper longum* (Banerjee et al 1999). The markers could successfully differentiate genotypically between the male and female parents

In the molecular characterization of black pepper and related twenty species using RAPD polymorphism both male and female line showed genetic variation and formed different clusters (Sinoj 2005). According to Kripa (2005) RAPD polymorphism using female plants of twenty two species of *Piper* showed polymorphism

2.2.5 Variation in genus *Piper*

Ravindran et al (1992) reported that the genus *Piper* is known to have wide distribution in tropical and pan tropical region. Around three thousand binomials have been reported in this genus all over the world

According to Ravindran et al (1992) it is taxonomically a very difficult genus because of greater range of variability among the species and minute nature of flowers. In this regard Howard (1973) states that the family Piperaceae is one of the worst nesses in plant taxonomy. The reasons of this variability are

considered to be due to the nature of breeding systems. Efficient pollen dispersal mechanism is absent in *Piper* establishing an effective isolation barrier between population units and individuals. This barrier prevents the free gene flow and thus the population will remain discrete (Ravindran et al. 1990).

Various attempts to classify the *Piper* species based on morphological, cytological (Sharma and Bhattacharya 1959) and chemical constituent data (Rahiman 1984, Sebastian et al. 1996, Sebastian et al. 2000) have been carried out. But all these classifications failed to create a concrete grouping of *Piper* species.

The genus *Piper* thus warrants the application of the more relevant genotypic marker assisted classification systems for the genome analysis. Nazeem et al. (2003) utilized dominant markers such as RAPD and AFLP for the evaluation of relatedness among nine *Piper* species including *Piper nigrum*, *P. longum*, *P. colubrinum*, *P. chaba*, *P. arboreum* etc. and the results showed high variability among the species.

2.2.5.1 Morphological variations in *Piper nigrum*

Majority of the present day Indian cultivars of black pepper are land races representing direct introduction from the wild (Ibrahim et al. 1984). Considerable variations exist among the landraces with respect to an array of plant morphological characters giving them the status of distinct plant types each with its own characteristic features (Mathew et al. 2006). In black pepper cultivars, greater amount of variation exists for yield when compared to components of yield such as spike and berry characters (Ibrahim et al. 1985, Ravindran and Babu 1994, Prasannakumari 2001). There are also several reports on intraspecific variability in *Piper nigrum* (Chandy et al. 1984, Karakaswamy et al. 1985, Mathew and Mathew 2001). However, these groupings were not based on D² analysis. Multivariate analysis of fifty cultivars

of black pepper in Kerala's Malabar District analysis showed that it can be grouped into 11 clusters (Mathe et al 2006). Mathe et al (2007) has also done the assessment and conservation of intra specific variability in *Piper* spp. occurring in the Western Ghats of Indian Peninsula.

2.2.5.2 Molecular variation in *Piper nigrum*

Molecular characterization of thirteen landraces and nine advanced cultivars of *Piper nigrum* L. using RAPD markers showed variation among the samples and cultivar specific bands (Pradeepkumar et al 2001).

RAPD analysis in eight cultivated types and four related species of black pepper by Hareesh (2005) showed that all the cultivated types tested genetically differ from each other to a large extent. The RAPD profiles also indicated that cultivars Sreekara and Subhkara differ from each other though it is difficult to distinguish between them morphologically.

Molecular and morphological characterization of seven black pepper lines by Sreedevi (2005) showed that all exhibited common features with respect to morphology and RAPD banding pattern. Assessment of genetic fidelity of black pepper regenerated from somatic embryos using morphological characters and RAPD showed 100 per cent uniformity between regenerated plants and with the original parent (Das et al 2005).

Identification and examination of the genetic similarity in cultivated *Piper* spp. varieties Irumanyan, Karunda, Panniyur I, Ampriyan and *P. attenuatum* based on RAPD markers revealed a moderate degree of diversity (Kishore 2005). RAPD markers proved its utility for analyzing the genetic relationship of selected *Piper* species of South India by Raji (2005).

According to Hidayath (2005) RAPD and ISSR markers were found to be useful in the assessment of genetic diversity among twelve released varieties of black pepper. According to Renuka et al (2005) a single ISSR primer could genetically differentiate seven species of black pepper under study and ISSR has proved to be of better option in genetic diversity studies. Standardization of ISSR profiling was done in *Piper nigrum* by Kumaran (2005) and used the technique for studying the genetic fidelity of micropropagated plants.

According to Reddy (2005) ISSR marker is found to be useful in discriminating cultivated varieties of black pepper. Microsatellites used to genetically differentiate different cultivars of black pepper revealed high genetic variability among cultivars with up to one base pair resolution between piper species and within cultivars of the same species (Joy and Sonia 2006).

According to Nazeem et al (2003) AFLP can be successfully utilized for the evaluation of genetic relatedness among nine *Piper* species.

2.2.5.3 Variation in Panniyur 1

Ratnambal et al (1985) reported that there exists intraclonal variability in black pepper variety Karimunda.

Pradeepkumar et al (1999) reported that some of the true to type vegetatively propagated vines of Panniyur 1 in the RARS Ambalavayal found to exhibit variation in yield potential under the identical environment of soil and other physical factors. In the analysis of yield spanning over twenty years plants with high mean yield and low standard deviation have been identified among the vines of Panniyur 1.

According to another study by Pradeepkumar et al (2003) for the analysis of variability in yield contributing factors and quality parameters in a randomly

selected population of Panniyur involving forty two vines through hierarchical Euclidean cluster analysis (Spark 1973) considerable variation of characters under study and the highest standard deviations was observed for berries/spike (SD 17.710) and yield (SD12.901) while lowest for piperine content (SD 0.238). The correlation analysis of the data has revealed that all the yield contributing factors have positive influence on the final yield of the crop. The clones can be clustered ideally to five clusters based on their mean performance. It points towards the existence of phenotypic variability in Panniyur 1.

According to Ibrahim et al (1985) in black pepper greater amount of variation exist for yield when compared to components of yield such as spike and berry characters but the heritability is the lowest and high correlation of yield with spike length and berries/spike was observed (0.31 and 0.44 respectively).

According to Shujari et al (2005) biochemical and physiological parameters influencing productivity in black pepper studies using biochemical constituents and isozyme profiling showed that reducing sugar, starch, total carbohydrate and protein content present in leaves and stem of juvenile pepper vines may influence productivity.

Studies on variation in yield and growth performance of cuttings derived from top, middle and bottom nodal explants of the five high yielding varieties viz Panchami, Pournami, Panniyur 1, Panniyur 3 and Panniyur 5 revealed intraclonal variability in black pepper (Manoj 2005).

According to Shahanas et al (2005) the possibility of intraclonal variability in Panniyur 1 due to the position of the cuttings (top, middle, bottom) using RAPD technique revealed no intraclonal variability at the genetic level.

Materials and methods

3 MATERIALS AND METHODS

The study entitled Morphomolecular characterization of variants of *Piper longum* L variety Panniyur 1 was conducted at the Department of Plant Biotechnology, College of Agriculture Vellayani Thiruvananthapuram and in the Block V of Panniyur 1 at the Regional Agricultural Research Station (RARS) Ambalavayal during the year 2006-2007. Details regarding the experimental materials used and methodology adopted for various experiments are presented in this chapter.

Stem cuttings of the forty plants that showed variation among a population of Panniyur 1 in a 4 ha plot at the RARS were planted in another plot in July 2000. This thesis is based on the morphological and molecular characterization of the above forty variant plants of Panniyur 1. These variant plants were denoted as V1 to V40 serially. Among the forty plants, ten plants were severely affected by foot rot and hence replanted.

3.1 Morphological analysis

The morphological observations for the study were taken by consulting the descriptor of black pepper (IPGRI 1995). The major morphological characters for which observations were taken include

- 1 Internodal length (cm)
- 2 Length of lamina (cm)

3	Breadth of lamina (cm)
4	Shape of leaf lamina
5	Spike yield per plant (kg)
6	Number of spike per plant
7	Length of spike (cm)
8	Number of berries per spike
9	1000 berry weight (g)
10	Drying percentage (%)

The observations were recorded as given below

- 1) **Internodal length** Average of five randomly selected internodal lengths
- 2) **Length of lamina** Average of five randomly selected mature leaves measured from the base of the midrib to the tip
- 3) **Breadth of lamina** Average of five randomly selected mature leaves measured at the maximum width
- 4) **Shape of lamina** The shape of leaf lamina was recorded from the leaves of the lateral branches
- 5) **Spike yield per plant** Data from the records at the RARS Ambalavayal
- 6) **Number of spikes per plant** Data from the records at the RARS Ambalavayal
- 7) **Length of spike** Average of five randomly selected spikes

- 8) **Number of berries per spike** Average of five randomly selected spikes
- 9) **Thousand berry weight** Average of well developed twenty five berries taken from five randomly selected spikes and converted for thousand berries
- 10) **Drying per cent** Data from the records at the RARS, Ambalavayal

3.1.1 Statistical analysis

All the recorded observations except the spike yield and number of spikes per plant were subjected for statistical analysis since replanting caused considerable variation among the plants in those eliminated characters. The similarity coefficient was constructed using Hierarchical Euclidean cluster analysis and a dendrogram was constructed to analyze the distance between the clones (Spark 1975)

3.2 Molecular analysis

3.2.1 DNA isolation

For isolation of genomic DNA, tender leaf tissues were used. The leaves collected were stored at 80°C (Sanyo Ultra Low). C-TAB method was followed for isolation (Doyle and Doyle 1987). Five gram leaf tissue per sample was chopped coarsely and washed thoroughly in distilled water. Two per cent (0.1 gram per sample) Poly Vinyl Pyrrolidone (PVP) was added and the sample was ground well in frozen liquid nitrogen using mortar and pestle. The fine powder was then transferred to 15 ml extraction buffer (2% w/v C-TAB, 1.4 M NaCl, 100 mM Tris HCl (pH 8), 20 mM EDTA and 0.1% v/v β -mercaptoethanol) and subjected to incubation temperature of 55°C for 2 hours. The supernatant was transferred to a 15 ml tube

Each tube was treated with 500 μ l of 100% isopropanol and centrifuged at 7000 rpm 4 °C for 7 minutes. Equal volume of chloroform isoamyl alcohol (24:1) was added to the supernatant and centrifuged at 7000 rpm 4 °C for 7 minutes and further precipitated using 100% (5 times volume) chilled ethanol. The precipitate was centrifuged at 10000 rpm 4 °C and washed twice with 70% ethanol and dissolved in 80 μ l TE buffer (10 mM Tris HCl pH 8, 1 mM EDTA) and this was stored at 4 °C.

All the materials used in the preparation and storage of reagents including reagent bottles, conical flasks, centrifuge tubes, spatula, glass rods, funnels and tips of micro pipettes were autoclaved before use.

3.2.2 Quantification of DNA

DNA quantification was carried out with the help of UV spectrophotometer (Spectronic Genesis 5). The spectrophotometer was calibrated at 260 nm and 280 nm wavelength using TE buffer. The optical density (OD) of the DNA sample dissolved in TE buffer was recorded at both 260 nm and 280 nm. Since the OD of 1.0 at 260 nm represents 50 μ g/ml of DNA, the quantity of DNA in the sample was estimated by employing the following formula:

Amount of DNA (μ g/ml) = $A_{260} \times 50 \times \text{Dilution factor}$ (where A_{260} is absorbance at 260 nm)

The quality of DNA could be judged from the ratio of the OD values recorded at 260 nm and 280 nm. A ratio of 1.8 indicates good quality DNA. The DNA samples were also analyzed for the quality through electrophoresis using 0.8% agarose gel.

3.2.3 RAPD analysis

The DNA samples were first screened with thirty five arbitrarily designed decamer primers supplied by Operon Inc., CA, USA. Out of them, fifteen primers which produced the highest number of bands were selected for amplifying DNA from all the forty samples.

The components of the amplification reaction were optimized and a typical 25 μ l PCR mixture comprised 20 ng genomic DNA; 2.5 μ l 10X assay buffer; 2 mM $MgCl_2$; 200 mM each of dATP, dGTP, dCTP and dTTP; 0.75U Taq DNA polymerase and 1 mM primer. PCR reactions were carried out in a Programmed Thermal Cycler (PTC 100, M. J. Research. Inc). After a pre-denaturation step of 4 minutes at 94 °C, amplification reactions were cycled 40 times at 94 °C for 1 minute, 35 °C for 1 minute and 72 °C for 2 minutes followed by 5 minutes at 72 °C. Amplification products were separated by electrophoresis on 1.2% agarose gel in 1X TAE buffer (0.04 M Tris Acetate, 0.001 M EDTA).

3.2.4 Agarose gel electrophoresis

Agarose gel electrophoresis was carried out in a horizontal gel electrophoresis unit (Genie, Bangalore). Various conditions required for carrying out the gel electrophoresis were standardised. The required amount of agarose was weighed out (0.8 per cent for visualizing the genomic DNA and 1.2 per cent for visualizing the amplified products) and added to 1X TAE buffer. Uniform dissolution of agarose was achieved by boiling in microwave oven. After cooling to about 50 °C, ethidium bromide was added to a final concentration of 0.5 μ gml⁻¹. The

mixture was poured immediately to preset template with appropriate comb. After solidification, the comb and sealing tapes were removed and the gel was mounted in an electrophoresis tank filled with 1X TAE running buffer. The gel was completely covered on the surface by the buffer. The DNA sample was mixed with required volume of gel loading buffer (0.25% bromophenol blue, 30% glycerol, 70% sterile water). Each well was loaded with 15 μ l of sample. One of the well was loaded with 1.0 μ l of DNA molecular marker along with gel loading buffer. Electrophoresis was performed at 55 volts (running voltage @ 5 V/cm; where cm = distance between cathode and anode) until the loading dye reached three fourth of the length of the gel. The gel was visualized and documented using Gel documentation unit (Bio-Rad).

The PCR product was scored for the presence (+) or absence (-) of bands. The number of monomorphic bands, number of polymorphic bands was recorded. Thus banding pattern of all the fifteen primers for the forty samples were scored as 1 and 0 in the excel sheet and subjected for further statistical analysis.

3.2.5 Data analysis

A genetic similarity matrix was constructed using Jaccard's similarity coefficient values and this matrix was subjected to an unweighted pair-group method for arithmetic average analysis (UPGMA) to generate a dendrogram using average linkage procedure. All these computations were carried out using NTSYS-pc version 2.02 (Rohlf, 1998) software and the dendrogram constructed was used to asses the association and distance between the variants under study.

Results

4. RESULT

Investigation on the 'Morphomolecular characterisation of the variants of *Piper nigrum* L. variety Panniyur-1' was carried out at the Department of Plant Biotechnology, College of Agriculture, Vellayani and in the Block V of Panniyur-1 at the RARS, Ambalavayal during the year 2006-2007. The results of the investigations are presented in this chapter.

4.1 Morphological analysis

Observations on different morphological traits like internodal length (cm), length of lamina (cm), breadth of lamina (cm), shape of lamina, number of spike per plant, spike yield per plant (kg), length of spike (cm), number of berries per spike, thousand berry weight (g) and drying percentage (%) were taken from the forty variant plants of Panniyur-1 maintained at the RARS (Plate1). The observations (Table 1) were subjected to Euclidian cluster analysis.

1) **Internodal length:** The internodal length in the forty plants (Table 2) ranged from 4.9 to 8.9 cm and the mean value was 6.96 cm. The lowest value (4.9 cm) was recorded by V39 and the highest (8.9 cm) by V3. Out of the forty plants under study twenty seven plants recorded the value ranging from 6-7 cm.

2) **Length of lamina:** The value varied from 13-19 cm with a mean length of 16.02 cm. The lowest value was recorded by V26 and V31 (Plate2 A) and the highest by V38 and V40 (Plate2 B). Among the forty plants, twenty recorded a value ranging from 16-17 cm.

Table 1. Morphological traits of forty plants of black pepper variety Panniyur-1.

Plant No.	IL (cm)	LL (cm)	BL (cm)	NS	SY (kg)	SL (cm)	B/S	BW (g)	D (%)
V1	6.6	16.2	12.3	85.0	1.2	12.5	62	150	30.0
V2	7.2	16.5	11.2	50.0	3.2	10.5	60	150	27.1
V3	8.9	13.8	8.7	40.0	0.6	14.0	83	150	28.8
V4	5.5	14.5	10.5	56.0	1.2	12.5	44	150	29.4
V5	8.6	13.2	12.0	10.0	0.9	14.5	96	150	21.6
V6	7.1	16.0	12.2	102.0	2.4	15.5	99	150	25.0
V7	8.4	18.0	12.5	87.0	1.1	16.5	67	150	25.5
V8	6.7	16.5	13.5	63.0	2.8	17.5	82	150	22.4
V9	7.2	15.8	11.8	77.0	1.3	19.0	105	150	27.6
V10	8.1	16.5	12.5	70.0	1.8	14.5	61	150	23.9
V11	6.7	17.0	11.5	20.0	1.8	15.0	81	150	26.0
V12	5.3	16.4	12.7	40.0	0.6	17.5	72	150	24.0
V13	7.5	16.0	11.0	23.0	1.8	19.0	89	150	27.3
V14	6.0	16.0	11.0	52.0	1.9	16.5	54	150	26.1
V15	7.5	15.5	11.5	42.0	0.6	16.0	50	150	26.7
V16	8.2	17.5	13.0	41.0	0.9	14.5	71	200	23.9
V17	7.2	15.5	10.5	28.0	1.8	16.0	76	150	30.0
V18	8.5	15.0	10.5	122.0	2.4	17.5	77	150	33.2
V19	6.6	17.5	11.5	46.0	1.7	16.0	79	150	33.3
V20	6.5	18.0	13.0	75.0	1.1	13.0	64	200	39.5
V21	7.2	17.0	12.0	37.0	1.3	15.5	76	150	37.5
V22	6.7	16.0	12.5	42.0	1.5	17.5	95	150	30.0
V23	7.8	17.0	13.5	10.0	0.9	17.5	56	150	28.9
V24	7.2	15.0	11.0	63.0	2.2	17.0	71	150	28.0
V25	7.7	17.0	13.0	127.0	3.0	20.0	100	150	27.0
V26	6.5	13.0	9.5	56.0	2.0	16.0	91	150	26.0
V27	8.0	13.5	10.0	30.0	1.2	13.5	57	200	32.1
V28	6.5	18.0	13.0	63.0	2.9	16.5	102	200	36.9
V29	6.7	15.5	10.9	67.0	1.1	19.5	92	150	29.2
V30	7.1	16.0	12.0	35.0	1.3	15.0	78	150	26.5
V31	6.5	13.0	9.0	10.0	1.0	17.0	75	150	26.3
V32	7.4	14.5	11.5	158.0	3.7	17.0	99	200	31.6
V33	5.4	16.5	11.7	23.0	2.3	18.0	78	200	30.6
V34	7.1	15.5	9.7	NA	NA	16.5	99	150	36.4
V35	6.4	17.0	12.7	10.0	1.0	18.5	97	200	37.8
V36	5.4	14.5	12.0	40.0	1.0	12.5	68	200	35.0
V37	5.8	16.0	12.5	160.0	3.9	16.5	73	200	33.0
V38	7.9	19.0	13.5	90.0	2.0	20.0	109	200	31.1
V39	4.9	16.5	12.5	10.0	0.5	17.5	71	150	35.6
V40	6.0	19.0	12.5	32.0	2.2	15.4	78	200	34.2

Abbreviations : IL - Internodal length (cm), LL - Length of leaf (cm), BL - Breadth of lamina (cm), NS - Number of spike per plant, SY- Spike yield per plant (kg), SL - Length of spike (cm), BS - Number of berries per spike, BW - 1000 berry weight (g), D % - Drying percentage (%), NA - Not available.

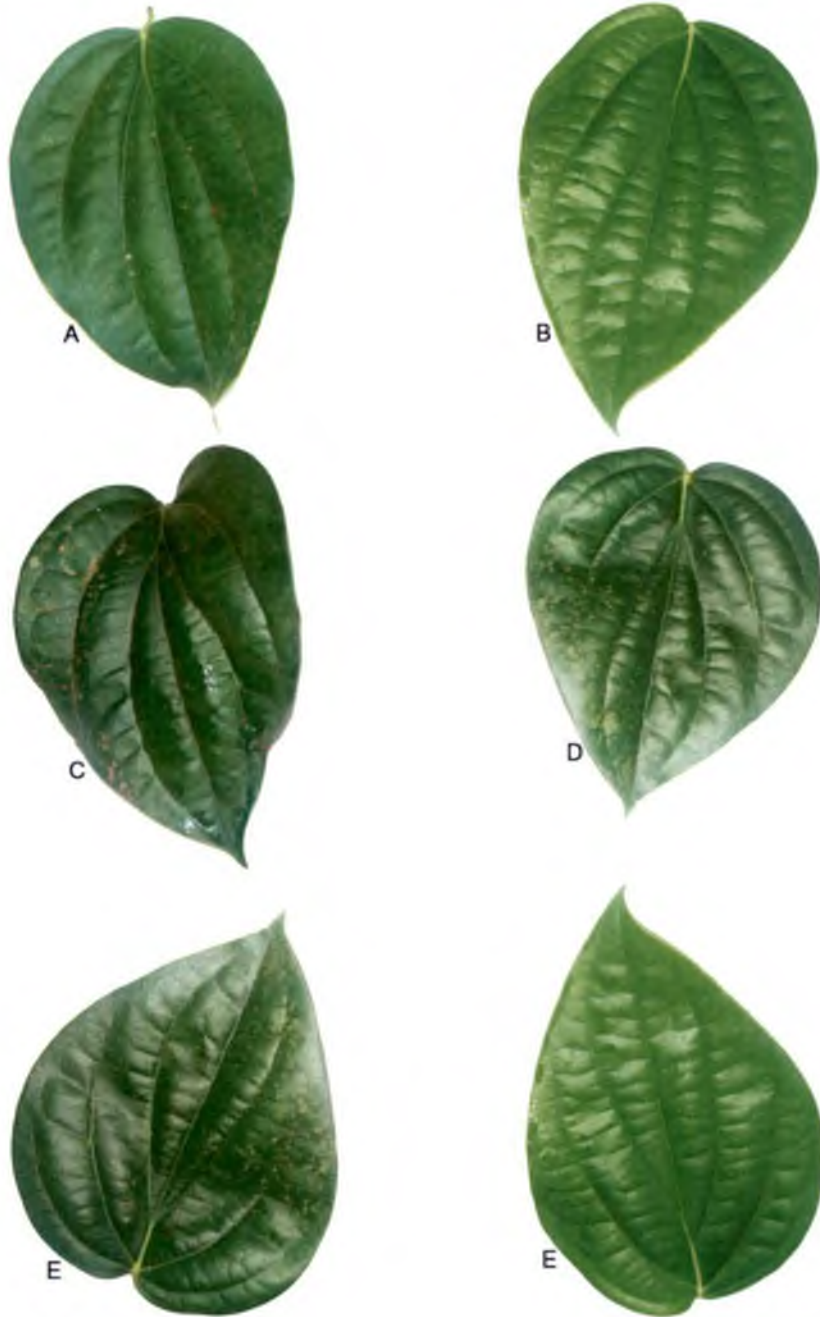
Table 2. Range and Frequency of character states of quantitative characters in the forty plants of black pepper variety Panniyur-1.

Sl. No.	Character	Character state	Range	Frequency
1	Internodal length (cm)	Low	4-5	6
		Medium	6-7	27
		High	8-9	7
2	Leaf length (cm)	Low	13-15	15
		Medium	16-17	20
		High	18-19	5
3	Leaf Breadth (cm)	Low	8-10	9
		High	11-14	31
4	Number of spike per plant	Low	10-50	24
		Medium	60-100	10
		High	110-160	5
5	Spike yield per plant (kg)	Low	0.5-1.85	25
		Medium	1.75-2.85	10
		High	2.85-3.85	4
6	Length of spike (cm)	Low	10.5-14.5	12
		Medium	15.5-19.5	27
		High	20.5-24.5	1
7	Number of berries per spike	Low	44-64	9
		Medium	65-85	18
		Medium-High	86-106	12
		High	106-109	1
8	1000 berry weight (g)	Low	150-170	30
		Medium	171-191	0
		High	192-212	10
9	Drying percentage (%)	Low	21-24	5
		Low-Medium	25-28	15
		Medium	29-32	11
		Medium- High	33-36	6
		High	37-40	3

Plate 1- Variants of Panniyur-1 maintained at the RARS, Ambalavayal-Field view



Plate 2 - Leaf Characteristics of the Variants of Panniyur -1



A - Leaf with minimum length

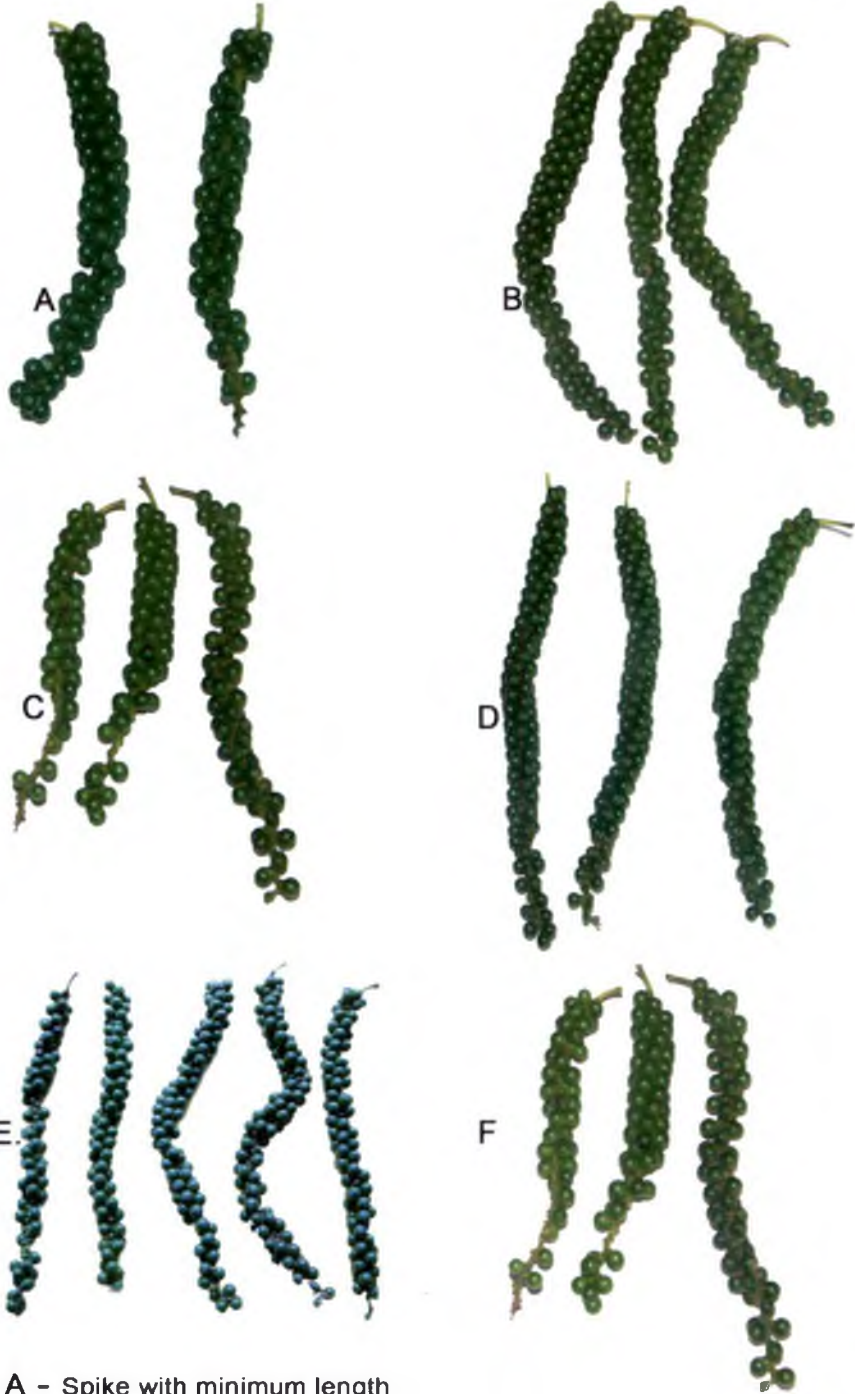
C - Leaf with minimum breadth

B - Leaf with maximum length

D - Leaf with maximum breadth

E - Leaf showing cordate shape

Plate 3 - Spike characteristics of the variants of Panniyur -1



- A - Spike with minimum length
- B - Spike with maximum length
- C - Spike with minimum number of berries
- D - Spike with maximum number of berries
- E - Spike with spiral and compactly arranged berries
- F - Spike with less spiral and less compactly arranged berries

3) **Breadth of lamina** The value varied from 8.7135 cm with a mean breadth of 11.7 cm. The lowest value was recorded by V3 (Plate 2 C) and the highest by V23 and V38 (Plate 2 D). Among the forty plants thirty one plants recorded a value ranging from 11.14 cm.

4) **Shape of lamina** The shape of the leaves of all forty plants was cordate (Plate 2 E).

5) **Number of spike per plant** The value varied from 10-160 Nos. with a mean value of 54.8. The lowest number of spikes were observed in V23, V31, V35 and V39 (10 Nos.) and the maximum in V37 (160 Nos.).

6) **Spike yield per plant** The value varied from 0.385 kg with a mean yield of 1.63 kg. The lowest spike yield was recorded by V39 (0.5 kg) and the maximum by V37 (3.9 kg). Majority of the plants (25 Nos.) recorded a value ranging from 0.5185 kg.

7) **Length of spike** The value varied from 10.5200 cm with a mean spike length of 16.12 cm. The lowest value was recorded in V2 (Plate 3 A) and the highest in V25 and V38 (Plate 3 B). Majority of the plants (27 Nos.) recorded a value ranging from 15.3-19.5 cm.

8) **Number of berries per spike** It ranged between 44-109 with the mean value of 78.43. The lowest value was recorded in V4 (Plate 3 C) and the highest in V38 (Plate 3 D). Eighteen plants showed a value ranging from 65-85. The berries were arranged in a compact and spiral manner in most of the plants (Plate 3 E). However, in some of the plants the spiral nature and compactness was comparatively less (Plate 3 F).

9) **Thousand berry weight** It showed a range of 150-200 g and the mean value was 163.75. Thirty plants recorded a value ranging from 150-170 g.

10) **Drying per cent** It showed a range of 21-39.5 per cent and the mean value was 29.62. The highest value was recorded by V20 and the lowest by V5. Fifteen plants showed value ranging from 25-28 %.

4.1.1 Statistical analysis

All the observations except the spike yield per plant and number of spikes per plant were subjected for Euclidean cluster analysis. As some of the plants were replanted, the traits spike yield per plant and number of spikes per plant were excluded for statistical analysis. Among the morphological characters studied, the maximum variation was noticed in the number of berries per spike (44-109) with a Coefficient of variation (CV) of 20.95, followed by drying percentage (21-39.5%) with a CV 15.38. The lowest CV (9.36) was recorded for length of lamina. The Standard Deviation (SD) was maximum for thousand berry weight (22.61) followed by number of berries per spike (SD 16.432) (Table 3).

Table 3 Mean, Standard deviation and Coefficient of variation of the morphological traits in forty plants of Panniyur 1 variety of black pepper

Character	Mean	Standard Deviation (SD)	Coefficient of Variation
Internodal length (cm)	6.96	0.973	13.98
Length of leaf lamina (cm)	16.02	1.499	9.36
Breadth of leaf lamina (cm)	11.71	1.221	10.43
Spike length (cm)	16.12	2.181	13.53
Number of berries per spike	78.43	16.432	20.95
1000 berry weight (g)	163.75	27.61	13.81
Drying %	29.62	4.555	15.8

4.1.2 Correlation analysis of the data

Correlation analysis of the data was carried out to find out the extent of inter relationships of the individual factors.

It is revealed that all the yield contributing factors had positive influence on the final yield of the crop except drying percentage (Table 4). Spike length was highly correlated with number of berries per spike (0.5734). Thousand berry weight was highly correlated to drying percentage (0.49481). Length of leaf lamina was found to be highly correlated to leaf breadth (0.7388). The highest correlation was observed between leaf length and breadth (0.7388) followed by the correlation of spike length with the number of berries per spike (0.5734).

The data was further subjected for the construction of dendrogram to analyse the degree of relatedness and distances between the plants under study (Fig. 1).

From the hierarchical Euclidean cluster analysis it was observed that none of the plants showed 100 per cent similarity at a clusteral distance 1.0. At a distance of 2 it formed five clusters. At a clusteral distance of 10 the plants can be grouped into two clusters based on their mean performance. The major cluster comprised of twelve plants and a minor cluster comprised of eleven plants. The cluster mean of the differentiating characteristics like spike length, number of berries per spike and thousand berry weight are given in Table 5.

Table 4 CORRELATION MATRIX

	IL	LL	BL	SL	NB	1000BW	D %
IL	1 0000						
LL	0 0992	1 0000					
BL	0 1161	0 7388	1 0000				
SL	0 0061	0 1960	0 1908	1 0000			
NB	0 1575	0 0757	0 0904	0 5734	1 0000		
BW	0 1807	0 2743	0 3060	0 0506	0 1150	1 0000	
D%	0 3119	0 2581	0 0395	0 0222	0 0812	0 4948	1 0000

Abbreviations IL Internodal length (cm) LL Length of leaf (cm) BL Breadth of lamina (cm) SL Length of spike (cm) NB Number of berries per spike BW 1000 berry weight (g) D % Drying percentage (%)

Fig 1 Dendrogram generated from morphological analysis of forty plants of black pepper variety Panniyur 1

Hierarchical cluster analysis Dendrogram using Average Linkage (Between Groups)

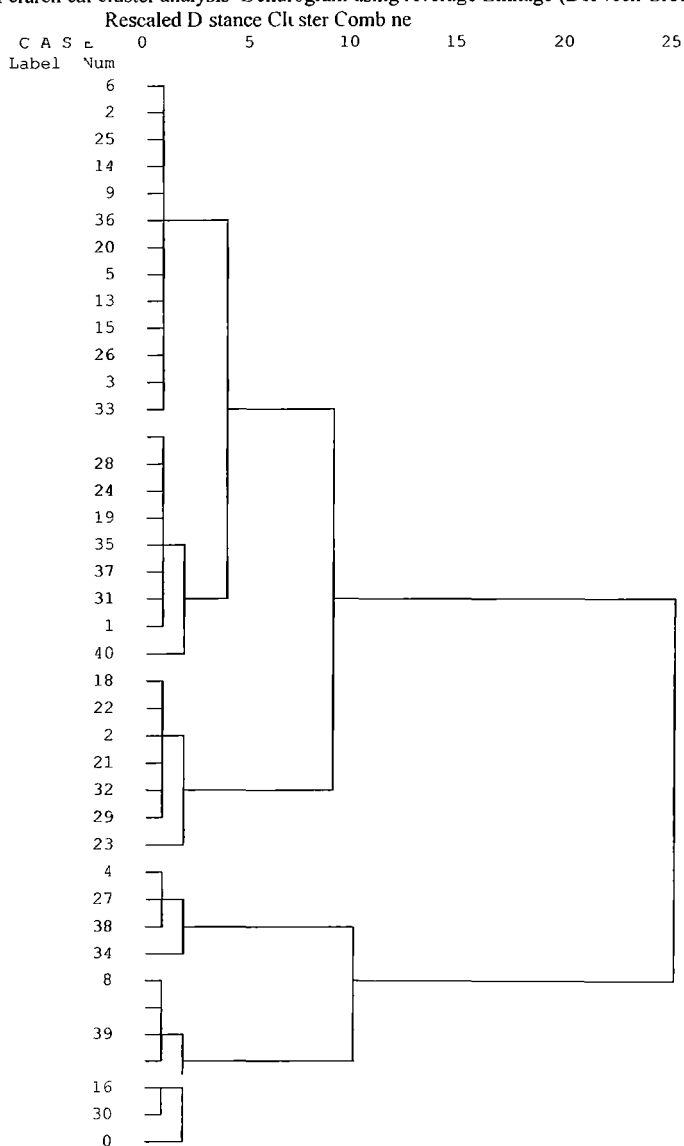


Table 5 Mean of important yield contributing characters observed among the plants belonging to the major and minor clusters of the dendrogram

Cluster No	No of plants in each cluster	Mean of variables		
		Number of berries per spike	Spike length	Drying per cent
1	29	79.58	16.28	29.92
2	11	75.56	15.68	28.84

4.2 Molecular analysis

4.2.1 DNA isolation

Fully opened tender leaf tissues yielded good quality DNA

4.2.2 Purification of DNA

DNA pellets obtained were brown in colour. Addition of PVP and β mercaptoethanol to the extraction buffer was effective in preventing the browning of the pellet. The DNA yield of the 40 plants ranged from 60 to 510 $\mu\text{g/ml}$. The OD ratios (Table 6) ranged from 1.5 to 2.0.

4.2.3 Gel electrophoresis

On agarose gel electrophoresis the samples yielded good quality DNA

4.2.4 PCR and molecular analysis of the amplified products

The fifteen primers selected had nucleotide sequence with a GC content of 60-70 per cent (Table 7). The number of bands resolved per amplification was primer dependent and varied from a minimum of 5 to a maximum of 11. The fifteen primers generated 104 scorable bands with an average of 6.9 bands per primer. Out of these 104 bands 69 were polymorphic and 35 monomorphic showing 66.34 per cent polymorphism (Table 8).

Three primers (OPA 8, OPA 20 and OPB 13) gave monomorphic bands in all the forty samples. Twelve primers showed polymorphism and the extent of per

Table 6 Quality and quantity of DNA isolated from the forty plants of black pepper variety Panniyur 1

Sl No	Plant	A260	A280	O D Ratio (A260/A280)	DNA yield ($\mu\text{g/ml}$)
1	V1	0.004	0.002	2.0	120
2	V2	0.003	0.002	1.5	90
3	V3	0.003	0.002	1.5	90
4	V4	0.003	0.002	1.5	90
5	V5	0.002	0.001	2.0	60
6	V6	0.005	0.002	1.5	90
7	V7	0.002	0.001	2.0	60
8	V8	0.008	0.005	1.6	240
9	V9	0.005	0.003	1.7	150
10	V10	0.010	0.007	1.4	300
11	V11	0.004	0.002	2.0	120
12	V12	0.006	0.004	1.5	180
13	V13	0.004	0.002	2.0	120
14	V14	0.002	0.001	2.0	60
15	V15	0.007	0.005	1.4	210
16	V16	0.003	0.002	1.5	90
17	V17	0.003	0.002	1.5	90
18	V18	0.002	0.001	2.0	60
19	V19	0.009	0.006	1.5	270
20	V20	0.002	0.001	2.0	60
21	V21	0.002	0.001	2.0	60
22	V22	0.002	0.001	2.0	60
23	V23	0.002	0.001	2.0	60
24	V24	0.003	0.002	1.5	90
25	V25	0.005	0.003	1.7	150
26	V26	0.017	0.010	1.7	510
27	V27	0.002	0.001	2.0	60
28	V28	0.007	0.005	1.4	210
29	V29	0.005	0.002	1.5	90
30	V30	0.006	0.004	1.5	180
31	V31	0.009	0.006	1.5	270
32	V32	0.004	0.002	2.0	120
33	V33	0.003	0.002	1.5	90
34	V34	0.005	0.005	1.7	150
35	V35	0.005	0.002	1.5	90
36	V36	0.006	0.005	2.0	180
37	V37	0.006	0.004	1.5	180
38	V38	0.005	0.002	1.5	90
39	V39	0.005	0.002	1.5	90
40	V40	0.004	0.002	2.0	120

Table 7 Sequence of the selected primers for amplification of DNA from the forty plants of black pepper variety Panniyur 1

Primer	Sequence
OPA 8	5 GTGACGTAGG 3
OPA 10	5 GTGATCGCAG 3
OPA 12	5 TCGGCGATAG 3
OPA 14	5 TCTGTGCTGG 3
OPA 15	5 TTCCGAACCC 3
OPA 20	5 GTTGCATCC 3
OPB 1	5 GTTTCGCTCC 3
OPB 6	5 TGCTCTGCCC 3
OPB 8	5 GTCCACACGG 3
OPB 13	3 TTCCCCGCT 5
OPB 17	5 AGGGAACGAG 3
OPB 20	5 GGACCCTTAC 3
OPE 3	5 CCAGATGCAC 3
OPE 20	5 AACGGTGACC 3
OPF 5	5 CCGAATTCCC 3

Table 8 Poly morphism exhibited by different primers on the forty plants of black pepper variety Pann yur 1

Primer	No of bands	No of monomorphic bands	No of Polymorphic bands	Percent Polymorphism
OPB 8	11	1	10	90.9
OPA 10	7	1	6	85.7
OPA 14	7	1	6	85.7
OPA 15	7	1	6	85.7
OPB 6	7	1	6	85.7
OPB 20	7	1	6	85.7
OPE 5	8	2	6	75
OPB 1	9	3	6	66.6
OPB 17	9	3	6	66.6
OPF 5	8	3	5	62.5
OPE 20	5	2	3	60
OPA 12	10	7	3	30
OPA 20	3	3	0	0
OPB 15	3	3	0	0
OPA 8	3	3	0	0

ce polymorphs varied with each primer

The primer OPB 8 generated 11 scorable bands. Out of these 11 bands 10 were polymorphic and one monomorphic. The plants V26 and V28 developed specific bands of 300 bp and 400 bp while 500 bp band was specific to V29 (Plate 4) and showed about 90.9 per cent polymorphism.

The primer OPA 10 produced 7 scorable bands. 6 were polymorphic and 1 was monomorphic (Plate 5). It generated 85.7 per cent of polymorphism.

Out of the 7 scorable bands produced by the primer OPA 14, 1 band was monomorphic. The plant V18 developed a unique band of 2000 bp and 2500 bp and the plants V14 and V18 generated a specific band of 1000 bp and 1500 bp (Plate 6). This primer generated a polymorphism of 85.7 per cent.

The primer OPA 15 produced 7 scorable bands. Out of them 6 were polymorphic and 1 was monomorphic. This primer produced 85.7 per cent polymorphism (Plate 7).

The primer OPB 6 produced 7 scorable bands. Out of them 6 were polymorphic and 1 was monomorphic. The plants V6, V7, V9, V10 and V30 developed a specific band of 250bp and V6, V7, V9, V10, V23, V24, V25, V28, V29, V30, V31 and V32 developed a specific band at 500 bp (Plate 8). It showed 85.7 per cent polymorphism.

The primer OPB 20 produced 7 scorable bands. Out of them 6 bands were polymorphic and 1 monomorphic. It could generate 85.7 per cent polymorphism (Plate 9).

Plate 4 (OPB-8)



500bp
1000bp
3000bp

Plate 5 (OPA-10)



Plate 4: RAPD profile using primer OPB-8
Plate 5: RAPD profile using primer OPA-10
m1 : 100bp DNA ladder
m2 : 500bp DNA ladder

Plate 6 (OPA-14)



Plate 7 (OPA-15)



Plate 6: RAPD profile using primer OPA-14
Plate 7: RAPD profile using primer OPA-15
m : 500bp DNA ladder

Plate 8 (OPB-6)



Plate 9 (OPB-20)



Plate 8 : RAPD profile using primer OPB-6
Plate 9 : RAPD profile using primer OPB-20
m1 : 100bp DNA ladder
m2 : 500bp DNA ladder

The primer OPE-3 produced 8 scorable bands. Out of them 6 bands were polymorphic and 2 were monomorphic. Out of the 6 polymorphic bands 1 bands at 500-1000 bp and 2 bands between 1000-1500 bp were specific to only clone V38 (Plate 10). It produced 75 per cent polymorphism.

The primer OPB-1 produced 9 scorable bands. Out of them 3 were monomorphic and 6 polymorphic, with 62.5 per cent polymorphism (Plate 11).

Out of the 9 scorable bands produced by the primer OPB-17, 3 were monomorphic and generated 66.6 per cent polymorphism (Plate 12).

The primer OPF-5 produced 8 scorable bands and 5 bands were polymorphic and 3 were monomorphic. The plants V3, V26, V29 and V35 generated a specific band of 1500 bp (Plate 13) and produced 87.5 per cent polymorphism.

Out of the 5 scorable bands produced by the primer OPE-20, 3 were polymorphic and 2 were monomorphic and revealed 60 per cent polymorphism (Plate 14).

Out of the 10 scorable bands produced by OPA-12; 7 were monomorphic and 3 were polymorphic. The plant V32 generated a specific band of 400 bp (Plate 15) and showed 30 per cent polymorphism among the plants.

The primer OPA-20, OPB-13 and OPA-8, produced 3 bands each and all were monomorphic to all clones (Plate 16, 17, 18). Out of the fifteen primers under study the plant V18 showed variation in nine different primers while V14 made variation in eight primers.

Plate 10 (OPE-3)



Plate 11 (OPB-1)



Plate 10: RAPD profile using primer OPE 3
Plate 11: RAPD profile using primer OPB 1
m1 : 100bp DNA ladder
m2 : 500bp DNA ladder

Plate 12 (OPB-17)

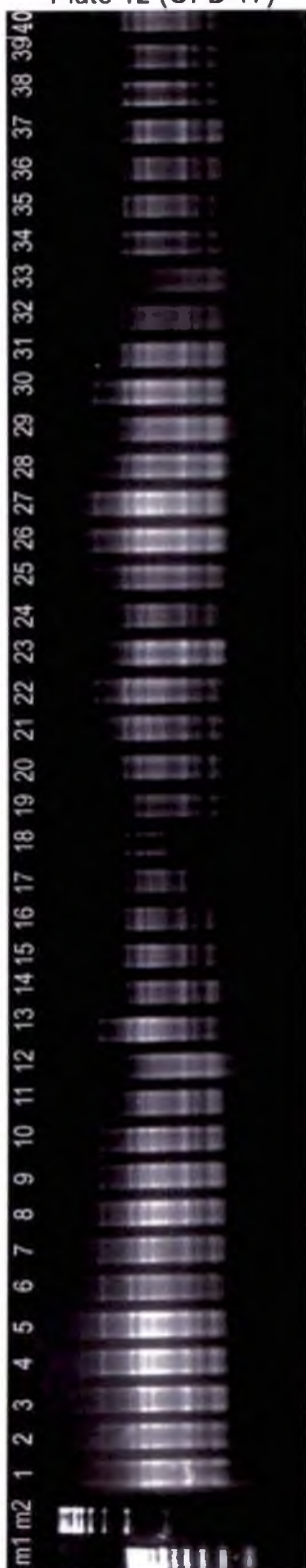


Plate 13 (OPF-5)



Plate 12: RAPD profile using primer OPB 17
Plate 13: RAPD profile using primer OPF 5
m1 : 100bp DNA ladder
m2 : 500 bp DNA ladder

Plate 14 (OPE-20)



Plate 15 (OPA-12)



Plate 14: RAPD profile using primer OPE 20
Plate 15: RAPD profile using primer OPA 12
m1:100bp DNA ladder
m2:500bp DNA ladder

Plate 16 (OPA-20)



Plate 17 (OPB-13)



Plate 18 (OPA-8)



Plate 16: RAPD profile using primer OPA- 20
Plate 17: RAPD profile using primer OPB -13
Plate 18: RAPD profile using primer OPA -8
m1: 100bp DNA ladder
m2: 500bp DNA ladder

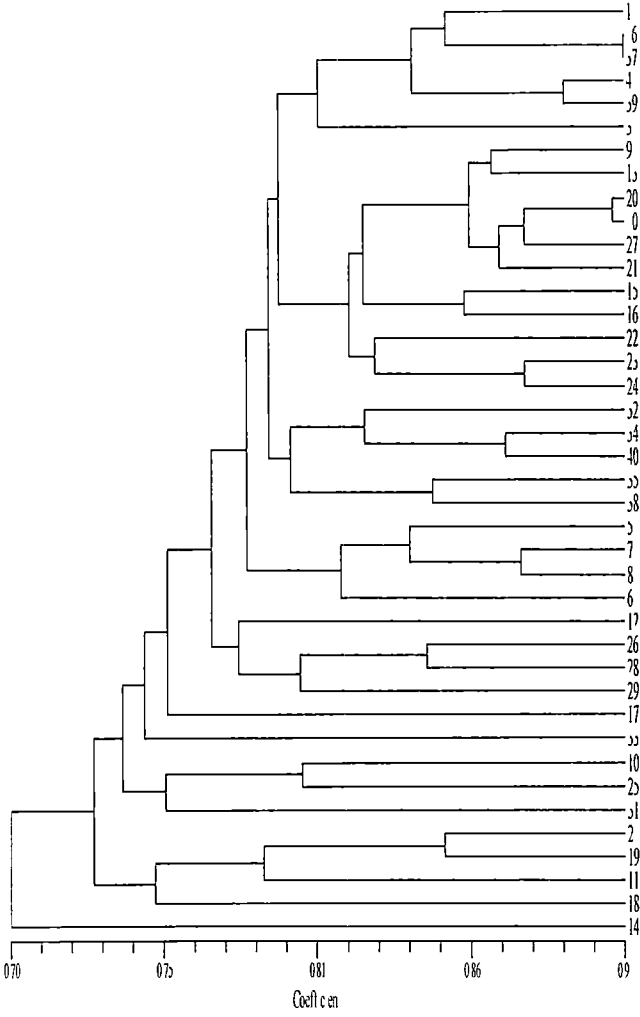
4.2.5 Statistical analysis

Jaccard's similarity coefficient values for each pairwise comparison between the plants were calculated and a similarity coefficient matrix was constructed. The matrix was subjected to unweighted pair group method for arithmetic average analysis (UPGMA) to generate a dendrogram (Fig. 2) using average linkage procedure. All these computations were carried out using NTSYS pc version 2.02 software.

In the dendrogram at the similarity index below 0.70 the plants grouped into two major clusters indicating thirty per cent dissimilarity. None of the plants were showing 100 per cent similarity. All the forty plants under study formed individual clusters at a similarity index 0.91 except V56 and V37. Ninety per cent similarity was observed between the plants V20 and V50. At a similarity index below 0.70 the dendrogram showed a cluster including all the plants except V14.

The plants V6 and V12 as well as V13 and V20 were closely placed in the dendrograms generated by both morphological and molecular analysis.

Fig 2 Dendrogram generated from molecular analysis of forty plants of black pepper variety Panniyur 1



Discussion

5 DISCUSSION

Spices are high value export oriented products extensively used for flavouring food and beverages and also in medicines, cosmetics and perfumery. Black pepper often referred to as the King of spices is the most traded spice. India is a major producer, consumer and exporter of black pepper in the world and Indian black pepper is well known for its quality and fetches premium price.

Panniyur I (Uthirankotta x Cheryakan yakadan) the first ever hybrid of black pepper is the most popular variety grown in India. It has recorded the highest potential yield of 8800 kg dry pepper/ha (NRCS 1991). It is the most widely cultivated improved variety of black pepper in Kerala since its release in 1971 (Pradeepkumar et al. 2003).

Black pepper is propagated vegetatively through rooted cuttings either through the traditional three nodal cuttings or through the split bamboo method (Bavappa and Gunasange 1978). The bamboo method (rapid multiplication technology) can provide one million rooted cuttings per hectare per year. However, even such an efficient method of vegetative propagation is insufficient to meet the demand for planting materials as large number of plants are required for establishing new plantations as well as to replace the senile or disease affected plants. Black pepper propagation through cuttings had been in practice for decades with the notion that vegetative propagation ensures true to type nature of progenies and clonal fidelity. However, contradictory to this assumption there are reports on variation among clonal progenies and such variations are supported by molecular marker analysis data. Differences in molecular marker

patterns have been demonstrated previously and among the fruits of the olive tree *Olea europaea* (Mekuria et al. 1999) usually propagated asexually. Also in the artichoke plant *Syntherisma* which mainly reproduces clonally via bulbils RAPD marker analysis could indicate asexual variability (Gabrielsen 1998). The allozyme analysis of alpine population of the herbaceous perennial *Polypodium vulgatum* a plant with observed sexual reproduction also revealed genetic diversity (Duggle et al. 1998). Clonal diversity was found in populations of the apomictic vine *Bignonia alba* (Novak et al. 2000). In the clonal grass *Calamagrostis polytricha* diversity was detected using allozyme RAPD and ISSR markers. In black pepper also intraclonal variation has been reported. The first such report was in the local variety Karimunda (Ratnambal et al. 1985). The highest variability was observed in the number of spikes (ranging from 5472 spikes) and quality characters such as dragee (ranging from 33.43%) and oleoresin content (7.15%).

According to Pradeepkumar et al. (1999) there exists intraclonal variability with respect to yield among the hybrid clone Panmyr 1 at the RARS Ambalavayal. Pradeepkumar et al. (2003) reported the variability in yield contributing factors and quality parameters in a population of Panmyr 1 plants through cluster analysis. The standard deviation was the greatest for berries per spike (SD 17.710) and yield (SD 12.901) the lowest variability was observed for piperine content (SD 0.238). Among the quality characteristics oleoresin content exhibited no variability than piperine content. The plants were grouped into five clusters based on their performance.

Such reports deserve serious concern and in depth analysis as pepper is a leading commercial crop of India important in the domestic as well as international markets. The present study was taken up in this context utilizing the progress of the

forty variants reported by Pradeepkumar et al (2003) at the RARS Aribala. The objective was to assess the extent of variability with respect to morphological traits including yield parameters as well as the molecular analysis of genetic variability. The findings of the study indicated the presence of variability in the morphological traits as well as at the molecular level.

5.1 Morphological characterisation

In the present study the forty identified variants at the RARS were subjected to morphological analysis excluding the characters like spike yield per plant and number of spikes due to replanting. The results revealed significant variation (Table 2).

The maximum variation was noticed in number of berries per spike (coefficient of variation CV 20.95) followed by dry weight percentage (CV 15.58). The Standard deviation was maximum for the thousand berry weight (SD 22.61) followed by number of berries per spike (SD 16.432). According to Pradeepkumar et al (2003) also the standard deviation of the variants was the highest for number of berries per spike followed by spike yield. Manoj (2005) has also reported the existence of intracultural variability in Pannur I on morphological characterisation.

The correlation analysis of the data showed that all the yield contributing factors had positive influence on the final yield of the crop similar to the results of Pradeepkumar et al (2003). Spike length was highly correlated with number of berries per spike (0.5734).

In the dendrogram generated none of the plants showed 100 per cent similarity at a distance of 1.0. At a distance of 2 the forty plants were grouped into

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five clusters. At a clusteral distance of 10 the plants grouped into two clusters with a major cluster comprising of twenty nine plants and a minor cluster comprising of eleven plants. According to the morphological characterization by Pradeepkumar et al (2003) the clones of Panmyur 1 were grouped to five clusters.

The results of the present study indicate existence of variability at the intraclonal level. According to Clevering and Lissner (1999) clonal diversity can be due to environmental or genetic factors. But the black pepper plants showing variability in the present study were grown under the same environmental conditions at the RARS. So environmental factors may not have played a significant role in the variability noticed among the plants.

The mean values of the morphological characters in the present study were compared with that of the recorded data of Panmyur 1 at the time of release (Edison et al 1991). Out of the six characters considerable variations were observed with respect to two characters viz number of berries (78 as per the present study as against 125 as per the published data) and drage percentage (29.6 as per the present study as against 35.3 as per the published data). Variations were observed with respect to other characters like leaf length (16.02 cm as per present study as against 14.9 cm from published data), leaf breadth (11.7 cm from present study as against 10.8 cm from published data), spike length (16.12 cm from present study as against 17 cm from published data) and thousand berry weight (163 g from present study as against 155 g from published data).

5.2 Molecular characterization

The modified C-TAB method (Doyle and Doyle 1987) used in the present study could yield 60-100 µg/ml of good quality DNA per sample and the O.D. ratio

raned for 15-20. This might be due to the interference of various compounds in the plant tissue during the isolation procedure. Pepper normally contains large amount of phenols pigments and polysaccharides. They interfere with the isolation of DNA. They impair the quantity and purity of isolated DNA and also inhibit the activity of most of DNA synthesizing and modifying enzymes which may lead to difficulties during the RAPD analysis. Hence modifications in the protocol are important in overcoming these difficulties.

The quantity and quality of the isolated DNA depends on the source of tissues as well as the efficient disruption of the plant cell wall (Babu 2000). Tender leaves used were easily disrupted during isolation steps and hence could yield more quantity of DNA. Moreover tender leaves contained actively dividing cells with lesser intensity of extra nuclear materials like proteins, carbohydrates and other metabolites that interfere with isolation of nucleic acid which in turn improve the quality of DNA (Mondal et al 2000).

The DNA was slightly brown in colour and could be rectified by the addition of two per cent PVP in the extraction buffer. The inclusion of the antioxidant β mercaptoethanol along with PVP during extraction improved the quality of DNA as observed by the reduction in browning. Mondal et al (2000) reported similar observation in tea. Weising et al (1995) reported that high phenol oxidation in coffee tissues damaged DNA and proteins. Reduction in browning could be due to the binding of PVP to phenolic compounds and its coprecipitation as well as inhibition of the action of polyphenol oxidase.

The concentration of agarose gel was an important factor for the separation of DNA fragments. A low concentration of agarose was ideal for the separation of genomic DNA. Gels of high molecular weight while small DNA fragments gave

better separation on a high concentration agarose gel (0.8% gel) was used for DNA samples while 1.7% was used for RAPD analysis. The DNA obtained was of good quality and hence proved that storage of leaves at low temperature (80°C) did not interfere with the yield and purity of DNA.

Identification of different clones in populations of clonal plants has been greatly facilitated by the use of molecular markers. Several reports showed that among different molecular markers RAPD has been in wide use for assessing genetic variability. RAPD technique has been successfully applied to easily identify different clones in populations of clonal plants (Esseleman et al (1999), Persson and Gustavsson (2001), Hangelbroek et al (2002), Albert et al (2003)). They are useful for diversity assessment in a number of plant species (Waugh and Powell 1992) and are direct manifestations of genetic content (Weising et al 1995). They serve as reliable indices of genetic variation. For tissue culture plants also RAPD has enabled the test of fidelity of micro propagation methods (Rani et al 1995). Moreover RAPD analysis is fast and easy. It is comparatively cheap and free from environmental influences. Hence RAPD was selected in the present work to analyze genetic variation.

In the present study PCR amplification of the forty samples were carried out using fifteen screened primers. In *Brassica L.* a stable classification of related species is reported using RAPD with seventeen primers (Demeke et al 1992). However number of polymorphisms may be more important than the number of primers for the generation of a stable phenogram (Bhat and Jarret 1995). Number of polymorphisms required to generate a stable phenetic analysis will vary with the plant material under investigation and the sequences that are amplified. The GC content of the primers used in the present study was 60-70 percent. Primers with a GC content of at least 50 percent are generally used (Weising et al 1995).

Out of the total of 104 bands (average of 6.9 bands per primer) generated by the fifteen primers, 69 bands were polymorphic and 35 monomorphic and could generate 66.34 per cent polymorphism. The number of bands resolved per amplification varied from a minimum of 3 to a maximum of 11. Three primers showed no polymorphism (OPA 8, OPA 20 and OPB 15) in the forty plants. Unique bands found in some plants with certain primers indicate variation in the sequence pattern among the plants.

In the dendrogram at the similarity index 0.70 the plants grouped into two major clusters indicating thirty per cent dissimilarity. None of the plants were showing 100 per cent similarity. All the forty plants under study formed individual clusters at a similarity index 0.91 except V36 and V37. Ninety per cent similarity was observed between the plants V20 and V30. At a similarity index below 0.70 the dendrogram showed a cluster including all the plants except V14.

In the present study using RAPD, 66.3 per cent variability was observed at the molecular level among the forty plants. It is interesting to note such intraclonal variability in Panniyur I in view of the general notion that there exists no variability during vegetative propagation. Hence the possible reasons for such variability need to be analysed. Further studies are required to confirm the variability in the present study since chances of error cannot be ignored. PCR based RAPD methods are felt to have technical limitations including repeatability, the possibility of impurities and the homology of RAPD bands (Hadrys et al. 1992, Bachman 1994, Karp et al. 1996). RAPD is limited regarding the number of bands that can be generated in each run (Gonzalez et al. 2000). Hence further confirmation tests using other prominent markers like ISSR, AFLP etc. are needed. Moreover, the study has been conducted only at the RARS, Ambalavayal. It needs further analysis wherever such variability is

observed in other Panivuril growing tracts. If a ability cannot be detected such studies the possibility of a mixup of varieties at the RARS may also be a concern.

Another probability may be the high rate of somatic mutation. It is suggested as one of the causes of the variation detected using molecular markers in *Calamagrostis polystachya* spp. *lanceolata* (Esselsmann et al. 1999). The accumulation of somatic mutations is reported to confer advantage to plants in the evolutionary race against pests since it is the only source of new genetic mutations in asexual plants (Gill et al. 1995). Somatic mutation is suggested to be the cause of high level of polymorphism detected by RAPD and ISSR in *Cladonia gracilis* a perennial clonal herb (Chen et al. 2006). The age of the clonal plants may also play a significant role in the accumulation of somatic mutations (Persson and Gustavsson. 2001).

During the life cycle somatic mutations may accumulate forming mosaics that have no ontogenetic relevance but during asexual reproduction these mutations can become fixed and are transmitted to the descendants. In a mathematical analysis Otto and Orive (1995) found that small differences in cell replication rates during development could translate into large differences in the proportion of mutant cells within the adult especially when development involves many cell divisions. In another mathematical model Pineda Krch and Lagerstrom (1999) show that somatic mutation in one of the initial cells in a shoot apical meristem can go to fixation rapidly implicating that it is theoretically possible to obtain genetically different individuals through a succession of chimeric offshoots without sexual reproduction. In plant propagation of off types is reported to be due to the chimeric organization and persistence of mutations (Szymkowiak and Sussex 1996). Preferential cultivation of somatic mutants that may exhibit better characteristics is also reported to be a cause for fixation of the variation. According to Smonds (1996) at least

of banana and plantain unique to Africa have arise though somatic mutation of early introductions followed by preferential cultivation. Langhe (1961) recorded 56 AAB clones believed to be somatic mutations from a single introduction.

Another possible reason for variation can be genomic clashes in hybrids. According to Landry et al (2007) separate evolutionary lineages even though accumulate genetic differences at orthologous genes could maintain similar phenotypes and during this divergence the molecular co evolution of genes ensures that their functions are maintained despite the accumulation of differences in regulatory and coding sequence (Dover and Flavell 1984). Crosses between species or populations can reveal such co evolution among genes. In hybrids from two species alleles that have not previously occurred together may interact and produce novel phenotypes.

Regulatory incompatibilities associated with hybridity can be pointed out as another possible reason for intra clonal variability in Panniyur. Interaction among elements of transcriptional networks may lead to novel expression phenotypes in interspecific hybrids (Landry et al 2007). Divergence in cis and trans between species can interact in hybrids to produce novel patterns of expression. Such regulatory incompatibilities may occur even in intraspecific hybrid situations involving parents with distinct differences in traits. The parents of Panniyur 1 Uthirankotta and Cheryakaniyakadan are well distinguished into two distinct plant types or cultivars as they have accumulated continuous variation in course of time (Mathew et al 2006) and centuries of cultivation by vegetative means have fixed these differences in them (Ranade et al 2004). They are phenotypically and genotypically well distinct. Even though the parents are freely compatible slight genomic changes in the parents can lead to new alleles in daughter cells after hybridization. These alleles that have not previously occurred together may interact

and produce novel phenotypes. Thus the occurrence of ontological variability due to genomic changes due to regulatory incompatibilities in Panniyur I can not be ruled out.

Another possible reason for variability can be transposons which are genetic elements that can move within and between chromosomes and can alter gene expression or serve as sites of chromosome breakage or rearrangement. According to Wessler (2007) these elements can exist in the genome in a quiescent state that is subjected to reactivation by biotic and abiotic means termed genomic stress. They can control the expression of the structural genes at the locus where it resides (Burr and Burr 1981). However the role of these transposons in black pepper is not studied yet. Presence of transposons may also be a possibility of variation in Panniyur I.

The findings of the present study reveal variation among the clones of Panniyur I at both the morphological and molecular level. However the variability should be confirmed by the use of more number of reproducible primers and other molecular markers. Also samples should be collected from Panniyur I plants growing in various other agroclimatic conditions also and analysed for variability. A better understanding of the factors responsible for such variability would help us to design strategies to overcome this intracultural variability problem.

Summary

SUMMARY

The thesis entitled Morphomolecular characterization of variants of *P. perfoliata* variety Panniyur 1 was conducted at the Department of Plant Biotechnology College of Agriculture Vellayani Thiruvananthapuram and in the Block V of Panniyur 1 at the RARS Ambalavayal during the year 2006-2007. Morphological and molecular analysis could reveal variability among the plants. The salient features of the study are summarised below.

On morphological analysis of the forty plants the maximum variation was noticed in number of berries per spike (Coefficient of variation CV 20.95) followed by drying percentage (CV 15.58). The Standard Deviation was maximum for the thousand berry weight (SD 22.61) followed by number of berries per spike (SD 16.452). The correlation analysis revealed that all the yield contributing factors have positive influence on the final yield of the crop. Spike length was highly correlated with number of berries per spike (0.5754). In the dendrogram generated, none of the plants showed 100 per cent similarity at a distance of 1.0. At a distance of 2.0 the forty plants were grouped into five clusters. At a clusteral distance of 1.0 the plants grouped into two clusters with a major cluster comprising of twenty nine plants and a minor cluster comprising of eleven plants.

Modified CTAB method was used for the isolation of DNA. All the samples yielded good quality DNA. Gel electrophoresis was carried out using 0.8 per cent and 1.2 per cent agarose gel for DNA and RAPD analysis respectively.

The conditions for RAPD were also standardised. 25 µl PCR mixture comprised 20 ng genomic DNA, 2.5 µl 10X assay buffer, 2 mM MgCl₂, 700 mM each of dATP, dGTP, dCTP and dTTP, 0.75U Taq DNA polymerase and 1 mM

primer PCR reactions were carried out in a Programmed Thermal Cycler (PTC 100 M J Research Inc) After a pre denaturation step of 4 minutes at 94 °C amplification reactions were cycled 40 times at 94 °C for 1 minute 35 °C for 1 minute and 72 °C for 2 minutes followed by 5 minutes at 72 °C Amplification products were separated by electrophoresis on 1.7% agarose gel in 1X TAE buffer

The fifteen primers selected had nucleotide sequence with a GC content of 60-70 percent Out of the 104 bands (average of 6.9 bands per primer) generated by the fifteen primers 69 bands were polymorphic and 35 monomorphic and could generate 66.34 percent polymorphism Three primers (OPA 8 OPA 20 and OPB 13) showed no polymorphism Unique bands found in some plants with certain primers indicate variation in the sequence pattern among the plants

In the dendrogram at the similarity index 0.70 the plants grouped into two major clusters indicating thirty per cent dissimilarity None of the plants showed 100 per cent similarity All the forty plants under study formed individual clusters at a similarity index 0.91 except V56 and V37 Ninety per cent similarity was observed between plants V20 and V30 At a similarity index below 0.70 the dendrogram showed a cluster including all the plants except V14

The findings of the present study needs further confirmation using more number of primers and other molecular markers The variability of Paivur in other major pepper growing tracts also needs to be investigated

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Appendices

APPENDIX I

CTAB extraction buffer

C T A B	2 % v/v
NaCl	1.4 M
Tris HCl (pH 8)	100 mM
EDTA	20 mM
β mercaptoethanol	0.1 % v/v

APPENDIX II

50X TAE buffer

Tris Acetate	0.04 M
EDTA	0.001 M

APPENDIX III

1X TE buffer

Tris HCl (pH 8)	10 mM
EDTA	1 mM

APPENDIX IV

Gel loading buffer

Bromophenol blue	0.25 % v/v
Glycerol	50 % v/v
Sterile water	70 % v/v

**MORPHOMOLECULAR CHARACTERISATION OF THE VARIANTS OF
PIPER NIGRUM L VARIETY PANNIYUR 1**

SMITHA BHASI

**Abstract of thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirement for the
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**Faculty of Agriculture
Kerala Agricultural University Thrissur**

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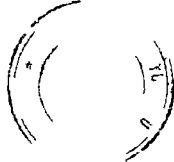
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ABSTRACT

The study entitled Morphomolecular characterization of variants of *Piper gr n L* variety Panniyur 1 was conducted at the Department of Plant Biotechnology College of Agriculture Vellayani Thiruvananthapuram and in the Block V of Panniyur 1 at the Regional Agricultural Research Station (RARS) Ambalavayal during the year 2006-2007 with a objective of characterizing the variants of black pepper variety Panniyur 1 based on morphological traits and RAPD profiles

Black pepper often referred to as the King of spices is the most important spice in the world. The first ever hybrid of black pepper Panniyur 1 (Uth rankotta x Chenyakaniyakadan) is the most popular pepper variety grown in India and also in Kerala. In black pepper propagation through cuttings is being practiced for decades for producing true to type plants. However contrary to this belief there are reports for the existence of variability. Variability was reported even at the intraclonal level. The first such report in black pepper was in the local variety Karimunda (Ratnambal et al. 1985). According to Pradeepkumar et al. (1999) there exists intraclonal variability in yield among the hybrid clone Panniyur 1 at the RARS Ambalavayal. Such reports deserve serious concern and in depth analysis as pepper is a leading commercial crop of India important in the domestic as well as international markets. The present study was taken up in this context utilizing the progeny of the forty variant plants reported by Pradeepkumar et al. (2003) from the RARS Ambalavayal. The objective was to assess the extent of variability with respect to morphological traits including yield parameters as well as the molecular analysis of genetic variability.

On morphological analysis of the forty plants considerable variation was observed. The maximum variation was observed in number of berries per spike, fruit length, fruit diameter, fruit weight, fruit yield, fruit drying percentage. The analysis of the dendrogram showed that



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none of the plants were 100 per cent similar at a distance of 1.0. At a distance of 2.0 the clones can be grouped into five clusters. At a distance of 1.0 the plants can be grouped into two clusters comprising a major group with twenty nine plants and a minor group with eleven plants.

Molecular analysis also revealed variability accounting for 66.34 per cent polymorphism. In the dendrogram at the similarity index 0.70 the plants grouped into two major clusters indicating thirty per cent dissimilarity. None of the plants were showed 100 per cent similarity. All the forty plants under study formed individual clusters at a similarity index 0.91 except V36 and V37. Ninety percent similarity was observed between the plants V20 and V30. At a similarity index below 0.70 the dendrogram showed a cluster including all the plants except V14.

The present findings need further confirmation with more number of primers and other molecular markers like ISSR, AFLP etc. The occurrence of variability among the clones of Panniyur 1 in other major pepper growing tracts also needs to be investigated in detail.