

Molecular characterization of South and East Asian melon, *Cucumis melo* L., and the origin of Group Conomon var. *makuwa* and var. *conomon* revealed by RAPD analysis

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Abstract The genetic diversity and relationship among South and East Asian melon *Cucumis melo* L. were studied by using RAPD analysis of 69 accessions of melon from India, Myanmar, China, Korea, and Japan. The genetic diversity was large in India, and quite small in Group Conomon var. *makuwa* and var. *conomon* from East Asia, clearly indicating a decrease in genetic variation from India toward the east. Cluster analysis based on genetic distance classified 17 groups of accessions into two major clusters: cluster I comprising 12 groups of accessions from India and Myanmar and cluster

II that included five groups of accessions of Group Conomon var. *makuwa* and var. *conomon* from East Asia. Cluster I was further divided into three subclusters, of which subclusters Ib and Ic included small- and large-seed type populations, respectively. Therefore, this division was based on their seed size, not cultivation area. The large-seed type from east India was differently included in the subcluster of small-seed type (Ib). A total of 122 plants of 69 accessions were classified into three major clusters and subclusters: clusters I and II comprised melon accessions mostly from India and Myanmar, and cluster III comprised Group Conomon var. *makuwa* and var. *conomon* from East Asia. The frequency of large- and small-seed types was different between clusters I and II, also indicating genetic differentiation between large- and small-seed types. One plant of the small-seed type from east India was differently included in cluster III, and two plants from east India were classified into subcluster IV. These results clearly showed that South Asian melon is genetically differentiated by their seed size, and that small-seed type melon in east India is closely related to Group Conomon var. *makuwa* and var. *conomon*.

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Introduction

Melon (*Cucumis melo* L.) is an important horticultural crop, and is consumed as dessert, vegetable, and ornamental fruit, depending on the area and type of melon. A great variation exists in fruit characters, such as size, color and taste of melon fruit, and *C. melo* is considered the most diversified species in the genus *Cucumis* (Jeffrey 1980; Mallick and Masui 1986; Bates and Robinson 1995). Naudin (1859) defined nine tribes of cultivated melon mainly from fruit characters and cultivation area. However, because of the large variation, intraspecific classification is complicated. Various modifications have been proposed (Munger and Robinson 1991). *C. melo* has been classified into seven groups and this taxonomic classification has been used in various analyses (Mliki et al. 2001; Nakata et al. 2005). Wild melons with slender vines and small, inedible fruit is assigned to subsp. *agrestis*, and cultivated melon is classified into various horticultural groups of subsp. *melo*. Groups Cantalupensis and Inodorus have sweet flesh and are cultivated in Europe and USA, and Groups Momordica and Conomon have low sugar content and a smooth skin and are cultivated in South and East Asia. These two geographical origins are also different in seed length: the former is longer 9.0 mm and the latter, except group Momordica, is less than 8.5 mm (Fujishita 1983). Group Conomon, as defined by Munger and Robinson (1991), is divided into var. *conomon* (Group Conomon var. *conomon*) and var. *makuwa* (Group Conomon var. *makuwa*) has been cultivated in Japan and used as different crops (Kitamura 1950). Group Conomon var. *makuwa* is also cultivated in Korea and rarely cultivated in South China. Its fruits with a smooth skin are sweet and fragrant when fully ripened, and they are eaten raw. Group Conomon var. *conomon* fruits with a smooth skin are sometimes eaten raw, but are usually cooked or pickled. Although they do not taste sweet, fully ripened fruits are slightly sweet and fragrant.

More recently, in addition to the classical classification based on morphology, cross compatibility, etc., molecular markers have been used to assess genetic diversity and phylogenetic rela-

tionship in melon. Genetic diversity in the United States and European melon has been examined by using restriction fragment length polymorphism (RFLP) analysis (Neuhausen 1992). Garcia et al. (1998) successfully used random polymorphic DNA (RAPD) analysis to evaluate melon germplasm of Galia and Piel de Sapo market classes. RAPD analysis has been used also to evaluate genetic diversity in germplasm of melon from Africa, Spain, Greece, and Japan (Mliki et al. 2001; Lopez-Sese et al. 2003; Nakata et al. 2003; Staub et al. 2004). RAPD analysis is more efficient than isozyme analysis to detect polymorphism on a single band basis (Staub et al. 1997), and its efficiency is as high as RFLP analysis (Silberstein et al. 1999). Simple sequence repeat (SSR) analysis (Staub et al. 2000) and amplification fragment length polymorphism (AFLP) analysis (Garcia-Mas et al. 2000) are more efficient than RAPD analysis, and thus are suitable to detect polymorphism among closely related breeding materials. However, the genetic relationship among melon germplasm shown by these analyses was similar irrespective of the marker systems used, indicating the usefulness of RAPD technology for phylogenetic analysis in melon. Phylogenetic analysis of melon using their phenotypic and molecular variation successfully separated Western melon from Asian melon, indicating genetic differentiation within cultivated melon (Silberstein et al. 1999; Stepansky et al. 1999). However, most of these studies focused mainly on the United States and European melon.

Less attention has been on East and South Asian melon, but various types of novel genetic resources are included and used in breeding programs. Akashi et al. (2002) and McCreight et al. (2004) evaluated genetic variation in East and South Asian melon by analysis of isozyme polymorphism, and showed that Indian melon is rich in genetic diversity compared with East Asian melon. Akashi et al. (2002) also analyzed the phylogenetic relationship among South and East Asian melon, and showed a difference in seed length between Group Conomon var. *makuwa* and var. *conomon* (4.5–8.5 mm) and Indian cultivated melon (4.0–13.0 mm). The frequency of the small-seed type melon (<9.0 mm)

varied between areas in India, being frequent in the central and eastern areas. Among Indian accessions, genetic differentiation was not detected between local populations, but was detected between large- and small-seed type melons. Their conclusion was also supported by AFLP analysis of East and South Asian melon (Yashiro et al. 2005). According to their report, seven accessions of the small-seed type from east and central India and Myanmar and two accessions of the large-seed type from east India were clustered together with most of the accessions of Group Conomon var. *makuwa* and var. *conomon*, suggesting the existence of the primitive type of Group Conomon var. *makuwa* and var. *conomon* in east India. However, RAPD analysis of melon cultivars from Japanese seed companies, suggested a relationship between melon accessions of Group Conomon and from the southern part of Africa (Nakata et al. 2005). This might be explained either by the introduction of Asiatic Group Conomon to South Africa or by their independent domestication from the same taxa, i.e., subsp. *agrestis*.

The origin of Group Conomon var. *makuwa* and var. *conomon* cultivated in East Asia, genetic diversity and differentiation in Indian melon, and the genetic relationship between Indian melon and Group Conomon var. *makuwa* and var. *conomon* requires further investigation. In this study, therefore, the genetic relationship among South and East Asian melon was studied by using RAPD analysis of 69 accessions of melon landraces from India, Myanmar, China, Korea, and Japan.

Materials and methods

Plant materials

Table 1 summarizes the 69 accessions of melon landraces (*C. melo* L.) used in this study. These accessions were selected mainly from East and South Asia, being 27 accessions from China, Korea and Japan, five accessions from Myanmar, and 37 accessions from India. The number of plants analyzed differed among accessions. From the 69 accessions, only one plant was examined in

16 accessions of Group Conomon var. *makuwa* and var. *conomon*, while two plants were examined in all other accessions, to give a total of 122 plants. Only one plant was necessary for some accession because they were maintained as pure lines in the National Institute of Vegetable and Tea Science (NIVTS), Japan.

Seeds of these accessions were provided by NIVTS, Japan, and the North Central Regional Plant Introduction Station, Iowa State University (USDA), USA. These accessions were first cultivated in the field or glasshouse of Okayama University, and selfed seeds of each accession were used in the experiments. Of the 69 accessions, 64 and 49 accessions were used by Akashi et al. (2002) and Yashiro et al. (2005), respectively.

India is a large country with large geographical and environmental diversity and is generally dry in the western region and wet in the eastern region (Hatakeyama 1964). In this study, Indian accessions were divided into five geographical groups after Akashi et al. (2002) based on annual precipitation in each area: west area (Punjab, Rajasthan, Gujarat, and Maharashtra, IW1-IW12), central area (Madhya Pradesh, IC1-IC16), north area (Uttar Pradesh, IN1-IN12), south area (Tamil Nadu and Andhra Pradesh, IS1-IS14) and east area (Bihar, Meghalaya, and Assam, IE1-IE20). A total of 106 plants from 53 accessions of unknown variety were classified into large-seed type (≥ 9.0 mm) and small-seed type (< 9.0 mm) based on their seed length (Table 1).

DNA extraction

Seeds were sown on filter paper and were grown at 26°C in a 16 h light–8 h dark cycle at light intensity $46.5 \mu\text{M s}^{-1} \text{m}^{-2}$. Ten-day-old seedlings were individually ground in liquid nitrogen, and total DNA was extracted by using the procedure of Murray and Thompson (1980) with minor modifications.

RAPD analysis

Random primers (176; 12 mer, Bex) were tested by using five cultivars of melon: Group Canta-

Table 1 Melon accessions analyzed in this study

Plant number	Accession	Country of origin	Area/variety ^a	Seed size ^b	Seed source ^c	Samples studied by		Cluster number ^e
						Akashi ^d	Yashiro ^d	
JM1	New melon	Japan	var. <i>makuwa</i>	S	1	+	+	III
JM2	New melon	Japan	var. <i>makuwa</i>	S	1	+	-	III
JM3	Kanro	Japan	var. <i>makuwa</i>	S	1	+	+	III
JM4	Kinpyo	Japan	var. <i>makuwa</i>	S	1	+	+	III
JM5	Seikan	Japan	var. <i>makuwa</i>	S	1	+	-	III
JM6	Nanbukin	Japan	var. <i>makuwa</i>	S	1	+	-	III
JC1	Takada-shiro-uri	Japan	var. <i>conomon</i>	S	1	-	+	III
JC2	Tokyo-wase-shiro-uri	Japan	var. <i>conomon</i>	S	1	-	-	III
JC3	Nakasaki-tsuke-uri	Japan	var. <i>conomon</i>	S	1	+	-	III
JC4	Karimori	Japan	var. <i>conomon</i>	S	1	+	+	III
JC5	Hyougo-aoshima-uri	Japan	var. <i>conomon</i>	S	1	+	-	III
KM1	630044	Korea	var. <i>makuwa</i>	S	1	+	-	III
KM2	630044	Korea	var. <i>makuwa</i>	S	1	+	-	III
KM3	630047	Korea	var. <i>makuwa</i>	S	1	+	+	III
KM4	630047	Korea	var. <i>makuwa</i>	S	1	+	-	III
KM5	940147	Korea	var. <i>makuwa</i>	S	1	+	+	III
KM6	940215	Korea	var. <i>makuwa</i>	S	1	+	+	III
CM1	PI 136173	China	var. <i>makuwa</i>	S	2	+	+	II
CM2	PI 136173	China	var. <i>makuwa</i>	S	2	-	+	III
CM3	PI 157070	China	var. <i>makuwa</i>	S	2	+	+	III
CM4	PI 157070	China	var. <i>makuwa</i>	S	2	-	+	III
CM5	76007	China	var. <i>makuwa</i>	S	1	+	+	III
CM6	76007	China	var. <i>makuwa</i>	S	1	-	-	III
CM7	760008	China	var. <i>makuwa</i>	S	1	+	-	III
CM8	760008	China	var. <i>makuwa</i>	S	1	-	-	III
CM9	780143	China	var. <i>makuwa</i>	S	1	+	+	III
CM10	910055	China	var. <i>makuwa</i>	S	1	+	-	III
CM11	910055	China	var. <i>makuwa</i>	S	1	+	-	III
CM12	940178	China	var. <i>makuwa</i>	S	1	+	-	III
CM13	940184	China	var. <i>makuwa</i>	S	1	+	-	III
CM14	Mi-tang-tin	China	var. <i>makuwa</i>	S	1	+	-	III
CC1	940182	China	var. <i>conomon</i>	S	1	+	-	III
CC2	940307	China	var. <i>conomon</i>	S	1	+	-	III
CC3	940307	China	var. <i>conomon</i>	S	1	+	-	III
CC4	P169-1	China	var. <i>conomon</i>	S	3	+	+	III
CC5	P169-2	China	var. <i>conomon</i>	S	3	+	-	III
CC6	P171-1	China	var. <i>conomon</i>	S	3	+	+	III
CC7	P171-2	China	var. <i>conomon</i>	S	3	+	-	III
IW1	PI 116738	India	Punjab	S	2	+	-	I
IW2	PI 116738	India	Punjab	S	2	+	-	I
IW3	Ames 20522	India	Rajasthan	S	2	+	+	II
IW4	Ames 20522	India	Rajasthan	S	2	+	+	II
IW5	PI 164796	India	Maharashtra	S	2	+	+	I
IW6	PI 164796	India	Maharashtra	S	2	+	+	II
IW7	PI 182952	India	Gujarat	L	2	+	+	II
IW8	PI 182952	India	Gujarat	L	2	+	-	II
IW9	PI 164825	India	Maharashtra	L	2	+	+	VI
IW10	PI 164825	India	Maharashtra	L	2	-	+	VI
IW11	PI 116666	India	Punjab	L	2	+	+	I
IW12	PI 116666	India	Punjab	L	2	+	+	I
IC1	Ames 20981	India	Madhya Pradesh	S	2	-	+	II
IC2	Ames 20981	India	Madhya Pradesh	S	2	-	+	II
IC3	Ames 20982	India	Madhya Pradesh	S	2	+	+	II

Table 1 continued

Plant number	Accession	Country of origin	Area/variety ^a	Seed size ^b	Seed source ^c	Samples studied by		Cluster number ^e
						Akashi ^d	Yashiro ^d	
IC4	Ames 20982	India	Madhya Pradesh	S	2	+	+	II
IC5	Ames 20974	India	Madhya Pradesh	S	2	+	+	II
IC6	Ames 20974	India	Madhya Pradesh	S	2	-	+	II
IC7	Ames 20979	India	Madhya Pradesh	S	2	+	+	I
IC8	Ames 20979	India	Madhya Pradesh	S	2	+	+	II
IC9	Ames 20947	India	Madhya Pradesh	S	2	+	+	II
IC10	Ames 20947	India	Madhya Pradesh	S	2	+	+	I
IC11	Ames 21007	India	Madhya Pradesh	L	2	+	+	II
IC12	Ames 21007	India	Madhya Pradesh	L	2	-	+	II
IC13	PI 124435	India	Madhya Pradesh	L	2	+	+	I
IC14	PI 124435	India	Madhya Pradesh	L	2	+	+	I
IC15	Ames 20967	India	Madhya Pradesh	L	2	+	+	I
IC16	Ames 20967	India	Madhya Pradesh	L	2	+	+	I
IN1	PI 175109	India	Uttar Pradesh	S	2	+	+	V
IN2	PI 175109	India	Uttar Pradesh	S	2	+	+	V
IN3	PI 179666	India	Uttar Pradesh	S	2	+	+	I
IN4	PI 179666	India	Uttar Pradesh	S	2	+	+	I
IN5	PI 165508	India	Uttar Pradesh	L	2	+	+	I
IN6	PI 165508	India	Uttar Pradesh	L	2	+	+	I
IN7	PI 116479	India	Uttar Pradesh	L	2	+	+	I
IN8	PI 116479	India	Uttar Pradesh	L	2	+	-	I
IN9	PI 124109	India	Uttar Pradesh	L	2	+	+	I
IN10	PI 124109	India	Uttar Pradesh	L	2	+	-	I
IN11	PI 116490	India	Uttar Pradesh	L	2	+	-	II
IN12	PI 116490	India	Uttar Pradesh	L	2	+	-	II
IS1	PI 164320	India	Tamil Nadu	S	2	+	+	II
IS2	PI 164320	India	Tamil Nadu	S	2	-	+	II
IS3	PI 164323	India	Tamil Nadu	S	2	+	+	II
IS4	PI 164323	India	Tamil Nadu	S	2	+	+	II
IS5	PI 124096	India	Andhra Pradesh	S	2	-	-	II
IS6	PI 124096	India	Andhra Pradesh	S	2	-	-	II
IS7	PI 123501	India	Tamil Nadu	L	2	-	+	I
IS8	PI 123501	India	Tamil Nadu	L	2	+	+	I
IS9	PI 164585	India	Tamil Nadu	L	2	+	-	I
IS10	PI 164585	India	Tamil Nadu	L	2	+	-	II
IS11	PI 123684	India	Andhra Pradesh	L	2	-	-	I
IS12	PI 123684	India	Andhra Pradesh	L	2	-	-	I
IS13	PI 124105	India	Andhra Pradesh	L	2	-	-	I
IS14	PI 124105	India	Andhra Pradesh	L	2	-	-	I
IE1	PI 210542	India	Meghalaya	S	2	+	+	III
IE2	PI 210542	India	Meghalaya	S	2	-	-	II
IE3	PI 210541	India	Meghalaya	S	2	+	+	I
IE4	PI 210541	India	Meghalaya	L	2	+	+	I
IE5	PI 124113	India	Bihar	S	2	+	+	I
IE6	PI 124113	India	Bihar	S	2	+	+	I
IE7	PI 124112	India	Bihar	S	2	+	+	IV
IE8	PI 124112	India	Bihar	L	2	+	+	IV
IE9	PI 166125	India	Bihar	S	2	+	+	II
IE10	PI 166125	India	Bihar	S	2	+	+	II
IE11	PI 124111	India	Bihar	L	2	+	+	I
IE12	PI 124111	India	Bihar	L	2	-	+	I
IE13	PI 124207	India	Bihar	L	2	+	+	I
IE14	PI 124207	India	Bihar	L	2	+	+	I

Table 1 continued

Plant number	Accession	Country of origin	Area/variety ^a	Seed size ^b	Seed source ^c	Samples studied by		Cluster number ^e
						Akashi ^d	Yashiro ^d	
IE15	PI 124208	India	Bihar	L	2	+	+	I
IE16	PI 124208	India	Bihar	L	2	+	+	I
IE17	PI 210076	India	Assam	L	2	+	-	II
IE18	PI 210076	India	Assam	L	2	+	+	II
IE19	PI 210077	India	Assam	L	2	+	+	II
IE20	PI 210077	India	Assam	L	2	-	+	II
MY1	PI 200816	Myanmar	Mandalay	S	2	+	+	II
MY2	PI 200816	Myanmar	Mandalay	S	2	+	+	II
MY3	PI 200819	Myanmar	Mandalay	S	2	+	-	II
MY4	PI 200819	Myanmar	Mandalay	S	2	+	-	II
MY5	PI 200814	Myanmar	Mandalay	S	2	+	+	II
MY6	PI 200814	Myanmar	Mandalay	S	2	+	+	II
MY7	PI 200817	Myanmar	Kachin	S	2	+	+	II
MY8	PI 200817	Myanmar	Kachin	S	2	+	+	II
MY9	PI 200813	Myanmar	Mandalay	L	2	+	-	I
MY10	PI 200813	Myanmar	Mandalay	L	2	+	-	I

^a Var. *makuwa* and var. *conomon* indicate Group Conomon var. *makuwa* and var. *conomon*, respectively

^b Accessions of unknown variety were classified as large-seed type (≥ 9.0 mm) and small-seed type (< 9.0 mm), and indicated by “L” (large-seed type) and “S” (small-seed type)

^c 1 National Institute of Vegetable and Tea Science (NIVTS), Japan, 2 North Central Regional Plant Introduction Station, Iowa State University (USDA-ARS), USA, 3 Okayama University, Japan

^d Plants also analyzed by Akashi et al. (2002) and Yashiro et al. (2005) are indicated by “+”

^e Cluster number shown in Fig. 3

lupensis cv. ‘Earls’ Favourite’ (netted), Group Cantalupensis cv. ‘Rocky Ford’ (netted), Group Cantalupensis cv. ‘Charentais’, Group Conomon var. *makuwa* cv. ‘Kinpyo’, Group Conomon var. *conomon* cv. ‘Takada-shiro-uri’. Eighteen random primers selected for their ability to detect polymorphism and for the stability of PCR amplification were used for RAPD analysis (Table 2). PCR amplification was done in a 10 μ l mixture containing 50 ng genomic DNA, 1 μ l PCR buffer (Sigma[®], St. Louis, MO, USA: 10 mM Tris-HCl (pH 8.3), 50 mM KCl), 2.5 mM MgCl₂, 0.25 U *Taq* polymerase (Pharmacia for primer A07 and Sigma for others), 0.1 mM dNTP and 0.5 μ M primer by using i-Cycler (Bio-Rad Laboratories, Hercules, CA, USA), and PC-707 (ASTEC, Tokyo, Japan). An initial denaturing step at 95°C for 3 min, 40 PCR cycles at 94°C for 1 min, 40°C for 2 min, and 72°C for 2 min were done, and then a final extension at 72°C for 5 min. After the amplification, samples underwent electrophoresis on 1.5% agarose gel (Takara, Tokyo, Japan) at constant voltage 100 V (Mupid-2, Cosmo Bio,

Tokyo, Japan). Then the PCR products were visualized with ethidium bromide staining and their polymorphisms were evaluated.

Table 2 Eighteen random primers used in this study and the size of polymorphic fragments

Primer number	Sequence (5' → 3')	Polymorphic fragments	
		Number	Size (bp)
A07	GATGGATTGGG	2	1,353, 872
A20	TTGCCGGGACCA	2	1,100, 800
A22	TCCAAGCTACCA	1	1,520
A23	AAGTGGTGGTAT	1	1,200
A26	GGTGAGGATTCA	1	1,400
A31	GGTGGTGGTATC	1	800
A39	CCTGAGGTAACT	1	2,027
A41	TGGTACGGTATA	3	1,353, 1,020, 930
A57	ATCATTGGCGAA	1	800
B15	CCTTGGCATCGG	1	600
B32	ATCATCGTACGT	2	900, 700
B68	CACACTCGTCAT	1	1,078
B71	GGACCTCCATCG	1	1,220
B84	CTTATGGATCCG	3	700, 600, 550
B86	ATCGAGCGAACG	2	1,500, 1,350
B96	GTGAAGACTATG	2	850, 750
B99	TTCTGCTCGAAA	1	1,400
C00	GAGTTGTATGCG	1	1,350
Total		27	

Data analysis

DNA fragments were scored as present (1) or absent (0) for 27 markers. Genetic similarity (GS) measured according to Apostol et al. (1993) represented the similarity between two accessions and was calculated by the formula $GS = (N11 + N00)/T$, where N11 and N00 were the number of positive and null bands, respectively, shared between two accessions, and T was the total number of bands scored. The genetic distance (GD) between two accessions was calculated by using the formula $GD = 1 - GS$. Gene diversity (D) within each group and GD between each group were calculated according to Weir (1996) and Nei (1972), respectively. A dendrogram was constructed by using Phylip programs (<http://bioweb.pasteur.fr/seqanal/phylogeny/phylip-uk.html>), based on the GD matrix, by using the un-weighted pair group method with arithmetic averages (UPGMA) cluster analysis. Principal coordinate analysis (PCO; Gower 1966) based on the GS matrix was done to show multiple dimensions of each group and the accessions in a scatter-plot.

Results

RAPD analysis

Eighteen primers produced 27 polymorphic marker bands whose sizes were 550–2,027 bp, and the average number of marker bands of each primer was 1.5 (Table 2). The most polymorphic band was A20–800 amplified from 60 of the 122 plants examined. Polymorphism was detected in two plants of each accession, except two accessions of Group Conomon var. *makuwa* from China (PI 157070 (CM3, CM4), 910055 (CM10, CM11)) and one accession of Group Conomon var. *makuwa* from Korea (630047 (KM3, KM4)). The number of polymorphic marker bands detected within each accession was 1–10. The average number of polymorphic marker bands detected in each population was higher in large- (18.6) and small- (16.0) seed types from South Asia than from Myanmar (9.0) and Group Conomon var.

makuwa and var. *conomon* (6.8) from East Asia.

Genetic relationship between melon populations

Genetic diversity (D) within each geographical region was calculated from the frequency of 27 RAPD markers (Table 3). This ranged from 0.253 to 0.305 (average = 0.281) in large-seed types from India to 0.148–0.278 (average = 0.221) in small-seed types from India, and were higher than for the Myanmar region (average = 0.128). In contrast, the populations of Group Conomon var. *makuwa* and var. *conomon* from China, Korea, and Japan were less diversified (max. = 0.119) than those from India and Myanmar, indicating decreasing genetic diversity from India toward the east.

The GD between the 17 groups of accession S ranged from 0.01 to 0.51 and was 0.21 on average (Table 4). By using cluster analysis based on GD and using the UPGMA method, they were classified into two major clusters: Cluster I comprised 12 accession groups from India and Myanmar, cluster II that included five accession groups of Group Conomon var. *makuwa* and var. *conomon* (Fig. 1). Cluster I was further divided into subclusters from their seed size, not their cultivation area: Ib of small-seed type and Ic of large-seed type. One exception was the large-seed type from east India that was included in subcluster Ib of the small-seed type.

The genetic relationships between the 17 groups of accessions were further analyzed by using PCO based on a similarity matrix. Up to 61.5% of the total variation was explained by the first two axes that explained, respectively, 47.1 and 14.4% (Fig. 2). The genetic relationship shown by the PCO plot in Fig. 2 was similar to that of cluster analysis. The groups of accessions were divided into two groups by the first principal axis (PCO1), one group consisted of Group Conomon var. *makuwa* and var. *conomon* and the other group consisted of accessions from Myanmar and India. The populations from Myanmar and India were separated into large- and small-seed type groups by the second principal axis (PCO2). The large-seed type melon from

Table 3 Gene diversity and number of melon plants classified into six clusters in each group of melon landraces

Country	Variety ^a /seed size	Area	Number of accessions	Cluster						Gene diversity
				I	II	III	IV	V	VI	
India	Large-seed type	West	6	2	2	–	–	–	2	0.253
		North	8	6	2	–	–	–	–	0.278
		Center	6	4	2	–	–	–	–	0.294
		South	8	7	1	–	–	–	–	0.273
		East	12	7	4	–	1	–	–	0.305
	Small-seed type	West	6	3	3	–	–	–	–	0.239
		North	4	2	–	–	–	2	–	0.218
		Center	10	2	8	–	–	–	–	0.224
		South	6	–	6	–	–	–	–	0.148
		East	8	3	3	1	1	–	–	0.278
Myanmar	Large-seed type		2	2	–	–	–	–	–	0.093
	Small-seed type		8	–	8	–	–	–	–	0.163
China	var. <i>makuwa</i>		14	–	1	13	–	–	–	0.104
	var. <i>conomon</i>		7	–	–	7	–	–	–	0.076
Korea	var. <i>makuwa</i>		6	–	–	6	–	–	–	0.091
Japan	var. <i>makuwa</i>		6	–	–	6	–	–	–	0.119
	var. <i>conomon</i>		5	–	–	5	–	–	–	0.071
Total			122	38	40	38	2	2	2	

^a Var. *makuwa* and var. *conomon* indicate Group Conomon var. *makuwa* and var. *conomon*, respectively

east India was plotted close to the small-seed type populations.

All groups of accessions from South Asian were clearly separated from groups of Group Conomon var. *makuwa* and var. *conomon* by cluster analysis (Fig. 1) and by PCO analysis (Fig. 2). To identify South Asian melon populations most closely related to those of Group Conomon var. *makuwa* and var. *conomon*, the GD between five accession groups of Group Conomon var. *makuwa* and var. *conomon* and 12 accessin groups from South Asia was compared (Table 5). The GD was smaller in the populations of small-seed type melon (average distance = 0.25) compared with populations of large-seed type melon (average distance = 0.33); the difference was statistically significant ($t = 1.986^*$, $df = 10$; $t = 4.480^{**}$, $df = 58$). The smallest value was in the small-seed type population from east India (0.20), and then in populations from Myanmar (0.21) and central India (0.22). Among the large-seed type melon, the population from east India showed the smallest value (0.24). These results showed that small-seed type melon from central and east India is related closely to Group Conomon var. *makuwa* and var. *conomon*.

Genetic relationships between 122 plants of melon landraces

The GDs between 122 plants of 69 accessions were calculated from the presence or absence of 27 RAPD markers, and their relationship was analyzed. The average GD was 0.33 and ranged from 0 to 0.74. The largest GD was recorded between Seikan (JM5), Group Conomon var. *makuwa* of Korea, and two accessions of large-seed type melon (PI 124105 (IS13, IS14)) from south India (data not shown). The smallest GD was between 18 pairs of accessions of Group Conomon var. *makuwa* and var. *conomon* from China, Korea, and Japan.

By using cluster analysis and the UPGMA method, 122 plants were classified into six clusters, of which 116 plants were included in clusters I–III (Fig. 3, Table 3). In cluster I, 28 of 38 plants (73.7%) were large-seed type. In cluster II, 29 of 40 plants (72.5%) were small-seed type and one plant (PI 136173; CM1) of Group Conomon var. *makuwa* from China was also included. In Cluster III, 37 plants of Group Conomon var. *makuwa* and var. *conomon* and the accessions of two varieties were not separated. Plant PI 210542 (IE1) of small-seed type

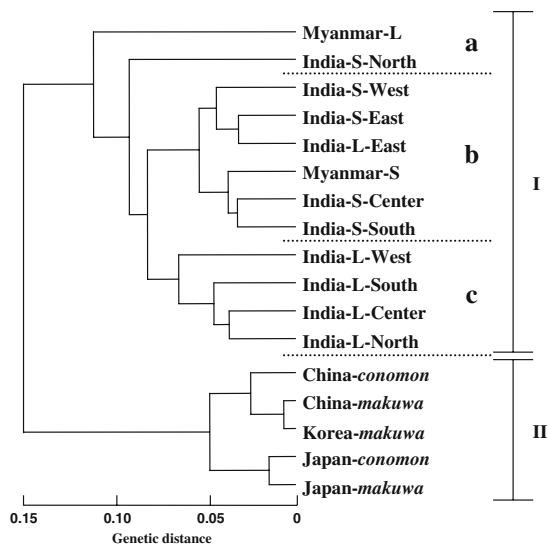


Fig. 1 Genetic relationship between 17 groups of melon landraces, revealed by UPGMA cluster analysis based on GD. *L* Large-seed type, *S* Small-seed type

from east India (Meghalaya) was included in cluster III, and plant PI 210542 (IE2) was included in cluster II. Cluster IV was closely related to cluster III, and comprised plants of

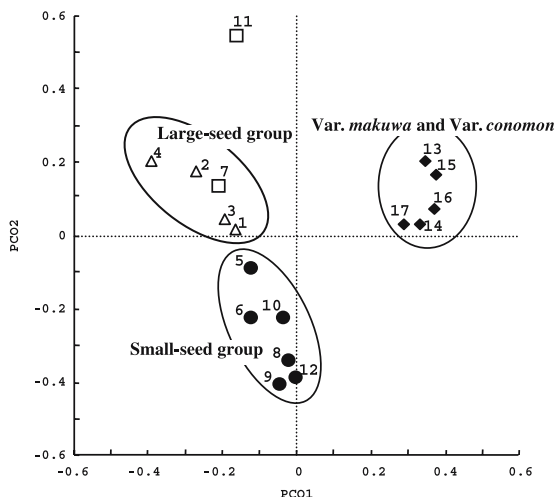


Fig. 2 Distribution on the first two principal co-ordinates of 17 groups of melon landraces from South and East Asia. Symbols represent cluster number of each group of accessions shown in Fig. 1 (Open square box Ia, filled circle Ib, open triangle Ic, filled diamond II). Numeric characters represent the accession group number listed in Table 4

PI 124112 (small-seed type; IE7, large-seed type; IE8) from east India (Bihar). These results, therefore, indicate that South Asian melon is genetically differentiated by its seed size, and that small-seed type melon from east India is closely related to Group Conomon var. *makuwa* and var. *conomon*.

By using PCO analysis based on a similarity matrix between each plant, up to 35.8% of the total variation was explained by the PCO1 and PCO2 axes, which explained 24.5 and 11.3%, respectively (Fig. 4). Most plants of Group Conomon var. *makuwa* and var. *conomon* were closely grouped in the left upper quadrant, and were distinguished from those of South Asia by the PCO1 axis. Melon accessions from South Asia were scattered widely, and most large- and small-seed type accessions were at different positions on the PCO plot separated by the PCO1 and PCO2 axes, indicating the richness in genetic variation and genetic differentiation between large- and small-seed type melons. One plant of small-seed type, PI 210542 (IE1) from east India, which was included in cluster III (Fig. 3), was also included in Group Conomon var. *makuwa* and var. *conomon* on the PCO plot. Plant PI 210542 (IE2) and plants PI124112 (IE8), PI 210076 (IE18), and PI 210077 (IE19) of the large-seed type were closely related to Group Conomon var. *makuwa* and var. *conomon*.

Discussion

Although the ancestral species of cultivated melon is unknown, cultivated melon originated in Africa, was first domesticated in Middle and Near East and spread throughout the world (Robinson and Decker-Walters 1997). Various types of melon have been established in different parts of the world, and their seed sizes are different. The seed length is longer than 9.0 mm in Groups *Cantalupensis* and *Inodorus* cultivated in the Middle and Near East, Europe, and USA (Fujishita and Oda 1965). Group Conomon var. *makuwa* and var. *conomon* cultivated in East Asia are small-seed type (<9.0 mm). Both large- and small-seed types are common in South Asia (Akashi et al. 2002).

Table 5 Genetic distance between groups of melon landraces from India and Myanmar and var. *makuwa* and var. *conomon* in East Asia

Accession group number	China		Korea	Japan		Average
	var. <i>makuwa</i>	var. <i>conomon</i>		var. <i>makuwa</i>	var. <i>conomon</i>	
India (Large-seed type)						
West	0.28	0.30	0.28	0.35	0.31	0.30
North	0.33	0.37	0.37	0.40	0.36	0.36
Center	0.26	0.28	0.29	0.30	0.25	0.27
South	0.46	0.48	0.50	0.51	0.44	0.48
East	0.24	0.24	0.27	0.24	0.21	0.24
India (Small-seed type)						
West	0.28	0.27	0.29	0.29	0.25	0.28
North	0.37	0.35	0.41	0.34	0.29	0.35
Center	0.22	0.24	0.24	0.23	0.18	0.22
South	0.25	0.24	0.29	0.24	0.20	0.24
East	0.22	0.19	0.23	0.20	0.17	0.20
Myanmar						
Large-seed type	0.30	0.38	0.36	0.34	0.29	0.33
Small-seed type	0.22	0.20	0.23	0.21	0.18	0.21

Melon accessions from Europe and USA and those from East Asia were classified into separate clusters by using RAPD analysis (Silberstein et al. 1999; Stepansky et al. 1999). Indian melon accessions were classified into two clusters, Euro-American melon and East Asian melon, by using SSR analysis (Monforte et al. 2003). Fujishita et al. (1993) classified melon accessions into three types by analysis of bitterness of young fruit placenta of the inter-varietal F_1 hybrid: Group Conomon var. *makuwa* and var. *conomon* (East Asia), Group Momordica (South Asia), and Group Cantalupensis and Inodorus (Europe and USA). These results clearly indicate genetic and geographical differentiation in melon, and suggest that seed length of each type of melon is related to such a differentiation.

In this study, the average D was 0.281 and 0.221, respectively, for large- and small-seed types in five geographical groups of accessions from India (Table 3). Group Conomon var. *makuwa* and var. *conomon* from China, Korea and Japan were less diversified (0.092) than South Asian melon, as also indicated by isozyme analysis (Akashi et al. 2002; McCreight et al. 2004) and AFLP analysis (Yashiro et al. 2005). The average GD among South Asian melon accessions (0.15) was larger than among accessions of Group

Conomon var. *makuwa* and var. *conomon* (0.07). Therefore, a specific type of melon may have been selected in East Asia from genetically diversified melon introduced from South Asia, and then differentiated into var. *makuwa* and var. *conomon* as a bottleneck effect, as also suggested by the above studies (Akashi et al. 2002; Yashiro et al. 2005). India has various climate zones. Western India is dry with intermittent rain from June to September, and the east is wet with continuous rainy days from April to early October. A large genetic variation detected in South Asian melon could be partly explained by cultivation under diverse climatic condition and by cultivation of different types of melon in the rainy or dry season. The D may also have been increased by occasional hybridization among large- and small-seed type melons.

In this study, by using cluster analysis and PCO analysis of 17 populations, South Asian melon, except those from east India and Myanmar, were differentiated by their seed size (Figs. 1, 2), as also indicated by isozyme and AFLP analyses (Akashi et al. 2002; Yashiro et al. 2005). Why is South Asian melon, rich in genetic diversity, differentiated by their seed size, and why was small-seed type melon selectively transmitted to East Asia? Small-seed type melons are mostly wet-tolerant under field conditions, and the frequency

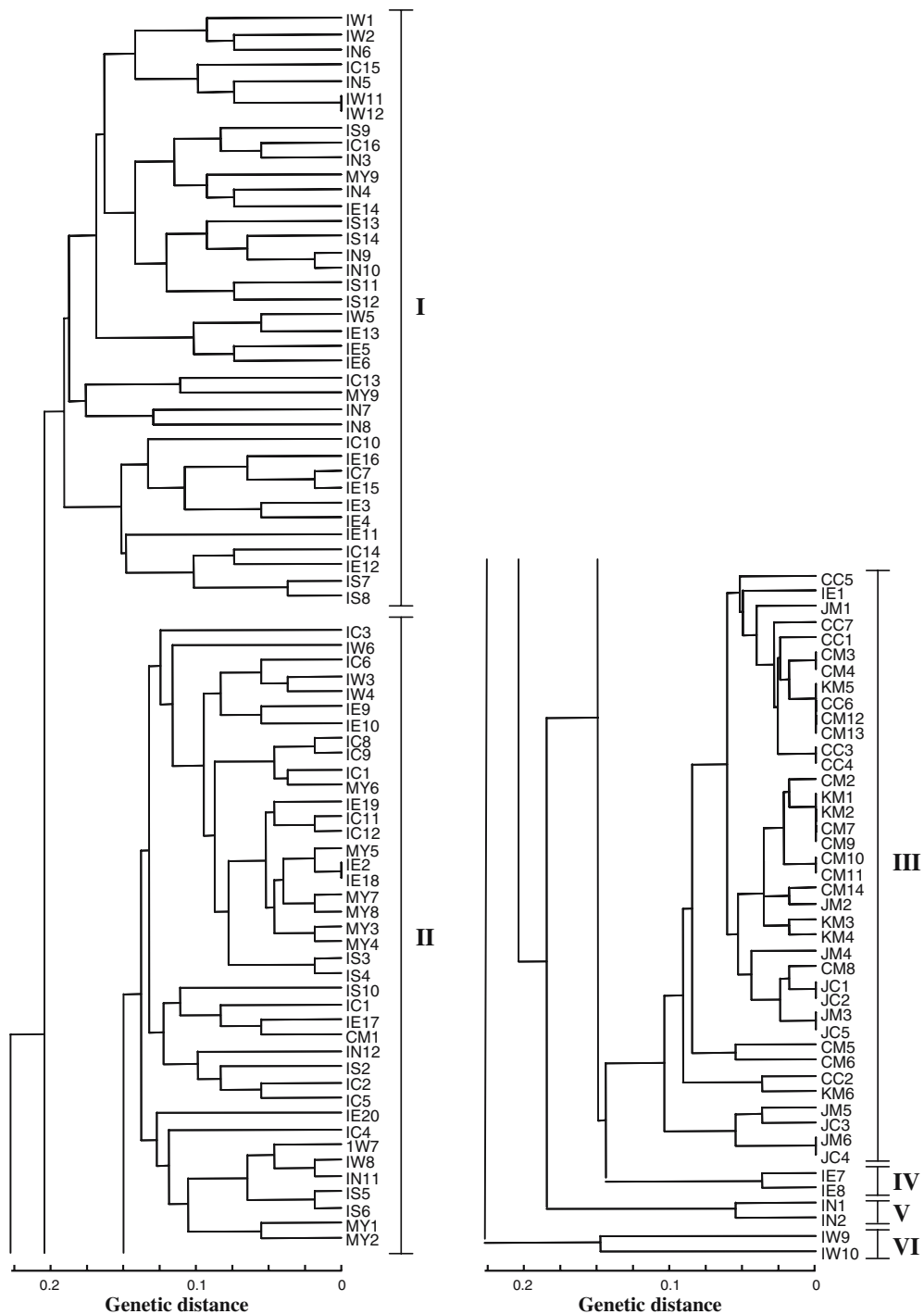


Fig. 3 Genetic relationship between 122 plants of melon landraces from South and East Asia, revealed by UPGMA cluster analysis based on GD. Each plant was indicated by plant number listed in Table 1

of wet-tolerant accessions increases from west to east India (Akashi et al. 2002). This was confirmed by our field trip that mainly small-seed

type melon grows during the rainy season in east India (Kato et al. 2006). Group Conomon var. *makuwa* and var. *conomon* showed a high ability

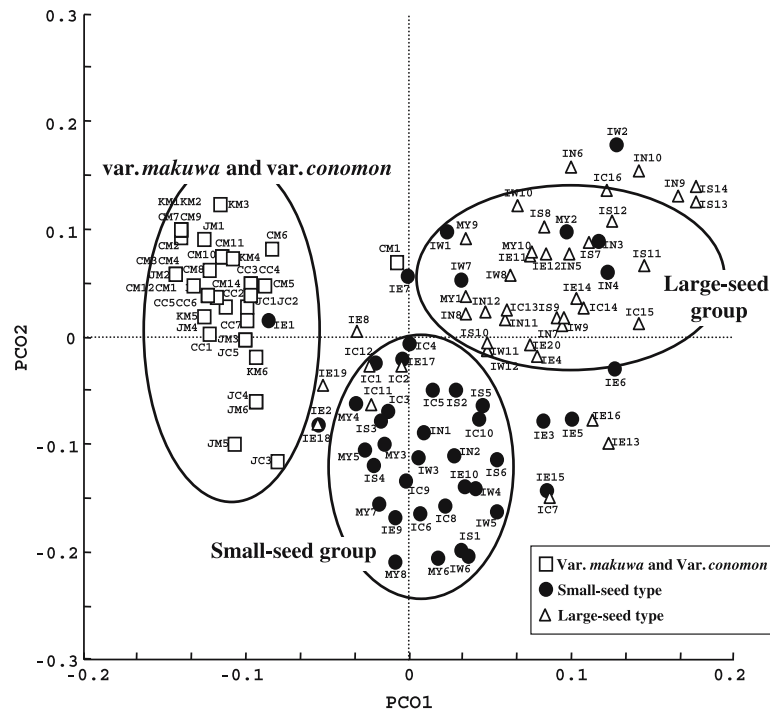


Fig. 4 Distribution on the first two principal co-ordinates of 122 plants of melon landraces from South and East Asia. Symbols represent group/type of each plant, and plant number (see Table 1) is indicated

to germinate under anaerobic conditions in shallow water of depth 10 mm, and melon accessions that showed a high ability to germinate were all of the small-seed type among South Asian melon of this group (Tanaka et al. 2002). Group Conomon var. *makuwa* and var. *conomon* are closely related to the small-seed type of east and central India and Myanmar (Table 5), confirming earlier reports using isozyme analysis (Akashi et al. 2002). Therefore, small-seed type melon with wet tolerance may have originated in central India and was selected under wet condition in east India, resulting in the establishment of Group Conomon var. *makuwa* and var. *conomon* with further eastward transmission. Group Conomon var. *makuwa* and var. *conomon* were genetically inseparable, which can be explained by assuming that Group Conomon var. *makuwa* and var. *conomon* originated from the same gene pool. To confirm this hypothesis, additional melon germplasm should be collected in east India and South east Asia, and be evaluated for molecular polymorphism and wet tolerance.

In the case of identification of the primitive type of Group Conomon var. *makuwa* and var.

conomon in India, by using AFLP analysis, two plants of central India, five plants of east India and two plants of Myanmar were clustered with Group Conomon var. *makuwa* and var. *conomon* (Yashiro et al. 2005). In this study, three plants each of large-seed type (PI 124112 (IE8), PI 210076 (IE18), PI 210077 (IE19)) and small-seed type (PI 210542 (IE1, IE2), PI 124112 (IE7)) from east India were closely related to Group Conomon var. *makuwa* and var. *conomon* (Figs. 3, 4), and thus these plants, especially the small-seed type, could be the primitive type of Group Conomon var. *makuwa* and var. *conomon*. Four plants of two accessions (PI 210542 (IE1, IE2), PI 124112 (IE7, IE8)), whose relationship with Group Conomon var. *makuwa* and var. *conomon* was confirmed by both RAPD and AFLP analyses, showed similarity with Group Conomon var. *makuwa* and var. *conomon*, also by fruit characters such as weight (0.3–1.0 kg), length (13.0–20.0 cm) and width (8.5–10.0 cm) of fruit, smooth skin, and brix of flesh juice (4.0–5.0°). A small-seed type melon from Meghalaya (PI 210542; IE1), which is most closely related to Group Conomon var. *makuwa*

and var. *conomon* by cluster and PCO analyses, showed perfect germination under anaerobic conditions in shallow water of depth 10 mm (Tanaka et al. 2002), and was wet tolerant in the field (Akashi et al. 2002).

The seed length of wild species of *Cucumis* is shorter than 9.0 mm and of cultivated melon in the areas surrounding the Mediterranean Sea is mostly longer than 9.0 mm. Therefore, seed length is reasonably assumed to have increased over the long history of domestication. However, little is known about the origin of small-seed type melon. Nakata et al. (2005) even suggested a relationship between South African melon germplasm and Group *Conomon* var. *makuwa* and var. *conomon* by using analyses of RAPD and SSR polymorphisms, but Indian melon germplasm was not included. Therefore, further study is necessary to uncover the origin of small-seed type melon. RAPD markers analyzed in this study were mostly nuclear markers suitable to detect polymorphism between cultivars or accessions of the same species. However, cytoplasmic markers should be used to analyze long-term evolution, because the cytoplasmic genome is genetically invariable and is transmitted maternally. Chloroplast SSR markers (ccSSR) applicable to a wide range of plant species have been developed by Chung and Staub (2003), and phylogenetic relationships among *Cucurbitaceae* species have been successfully analyzed (Chung et al. 2003). Analysis of the chloroplast genome by using these markers could be effectively used to uncover the origin and differentiation of large- and small-seed type melons and the evolution of *Cucumis* species. Furthermore, the mitochondrial genome is inherited paternally in *Cucumis* species (Havey et al. 1998), and so interesting information should be obtained by analysis of the cytoplasmic genome.

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