



UNIVERSITI PUTRA MALAYSIA

**GENETIC DIVERSITY AMONG OIL PALM PARENTAL GENOTYPES
REVEALED BY MICROSATELLITE POLYMORPHISM AND ITS
RELATIONSHIP TO PROGENY PERFORMANCE**

NORZIHA BINTI ABDULLAH

T FP 2008 7

**GENETIC DIVERSITY AMONG OIL PALM PARENTAL
GENOTYPES REVEALED BY MICROSATELLITE
POLYMORPHISM AND ITS RELATIONSHIP TO
PROGENY PERFORMANCE**

NORZIHA BINTI ABDULLAH

**THESIS SUBMITTED IN FULFILMENT FOR THE
DEGREE
OF MASTER OF SCIENCE**

**FACULTY OF AGRICULTURE
UNIVERSITY PUTRA MALAYSIA
SERDANG, SELANGOR
2008**



Abstract of this thesis presented to the senate of University Putra Malaysia in fulfilment of the requirement for the degree of Master of Science

**GENETIC DIVERSITY AMONG OIL PALM PARENTAL GENOTYPES
REVEALED BY MICROSATELLITE POLYMORPHISM AND ITS
RELATIONSHIP TO PROGENY PERFORMANCE**

By

NORZIHA BINTI ABDULLAH

October 2008

Chairman: Assoc. Prof. Mohd. Rafii bin Yusop, PhD

Faculty: Agriculture

Oil palm (*Elaeis guineensis* Jacq.) is a perennial crop. One complete cycle of selection takes about 10 to 15 years and due to that, breeding and selection of the crop is slow. By developing marker assisted selection for this species, the time needed for breeding and selection could be decreased to almost half compared to that through conventional method. This study involves investigating the genetic relationship between the parental palms (*dura* and *pisifera*) and their progenies based on microsatellite markers. The general objectives of this study are to estimate genetic diversity between *Dura* and *Pisifera* parental combinations using microsatellite markers and to investigate the association between genetic diversity and progeny performance. Nine microsatellite markers were used to screen selected parental palms (15 parental *duras* and 4 parental *pisiferas*) and their progenies (16 DxP crosses). Data were scored and analysed using Biosys-1 software to calculate the genetic distance values and subsequently constructing the dendrogram. A total of 29 polymorphic bands were generated. The genetic distances among progenies ranged from 0.444 to 0.746. Considerable polymorphism of 94.5% was observed in DxP progenies. Cluster analysis based



on genetic distances revealed associations among progenies which were closely in agreement with the pedigree data. The performance of 16 *Dura* x *Pisifera* progenies was evaluated for quantitative characters. A large variation among the genotypes was detected in these DxP progenies for yield and yield components. Based on *pisifera* components, shell to fruit ratio (S/F) exhibited the highest heritability (58.18%) among the traits examined whereas for *duras* within *pisifera*, the highest heritability correspond to palm height (HT) and rachis length (RL). Correlation analyses between genetic distances and progeny performance were estimated by simple correlation coefficient. The correlation values of genetic distances with progeny performance were mostly non-significant, except for mean nut weight (MNW) and leaf number (LN). However, the correlation of genetic distances with these characters is too low to be used as predictive value. These results indicate that genetic distances based on the microsatellite markers used in this study may not be useful for predicting progeny performance in oil palm.

Abstrak tesis yang dikemukakan kepada Senat Universiti Putra Malaysia sebagai memenuhi keperluan untuk Ijazah Sarjana Sains

**KEPELBAGAIAN GENETIK KELAPA SAWIT GENOTIP INDUK
BERDASARKAN POLIMORFISM PENANDA MIKROSATELIT DAN
HUBUNGANNYA DENGAN PRESTASI PROGENI**

Oleh

NORZIHA BINTI ABDULLAH

Oktober 2008

Pengerusi: Prof. Madya Mohd. Rafii bin Yusop, PhD

Fakulti: Pertanian

Kelapa sawit (*Elaeis guineensis* Jacq.) merupakan sejenis tanaman saka. Satu kitar lengkap pemilihan mengambil masa lebih kurang 10 hingga 15 tahun dan ini mengakibatkan proses biakbaka dan pemilihan bagi tanaman ini adalah perlahan. Dengan meluaskan penggunaan ‘penanda membantu pemilihan’ bagi spesis ini, masa yang diperlukan untuk pemilihan dan pembiakbakaan boleh dikurangkan separuh daripada masa yang diperlukan apabila menggunakan cara ‘lama’. Projek ini melibatkan kajian tentang hubungan di antara induk kelapa sawit (*dura* dan *pisifera*) dan progeni yang dihasilkan berdasarkan penanda mikrosatelit. Objektif umum kajian ini adalah untuk menganggarkan kepelbagaian genetik antara kombinasi-kombinasi pokok induk *dura* dan *pisifera* menggunakan penanda mikrosatelit dan mengkaji hubungan antara kepelbagaian genetik induk kelapa sawit dan prestasi progeni. Sembilan penanda mikrosatelit digunakan untuk menyaring induk yang terpilih (15 induk *dura* dan 4 induk *pisifera*) serta progeni yang terhasil (16 kacukan DxP). Data yang diambil kemudiannya dianalisis menggunakan program Biosys-1 untuk mengira nilai jarak genetik dan seterusnya membina dendrogram. Sebanyak 29 jalur

polimorfisme telah dihasilkan. Jarak genetik antara progeni antara 0.444 hingga 0.746. Polimorfisme bernilai 94.5% terdapat pada progeni DxP. Analisis kelompok berdasarkan jarak genetik menunjukkan hubungan antara progeni dan sangat bertepatan dengan data pedigree. Prestasi 16 progeni *Dura x Pisifera* dikaji untuk ciri-ciri kuantitatif. Variasi yang tinggi antara genotip dikesan di dalam progeni ini bagi ciri hasil dan komponen-komponen hasil. Berdasarkan komponen *pisifera*, nisbah tempurung ke buah (S/F) menunjukkan keterwarisan yang paling tinggi (58.18%) antara ciri-ciri yang dikaji manakala untuk *dura* dalam *pisifera*, keterwarisan yang paling tinggi ialah ketinggian pokok (HT) dan panjang pelepah (RL). Analisis korelasi antara jarak genetik dan prestasi progeni dianggarkan dengan menggunakan pekali korelasi mudah. Nilai korelasi antara jarak genetik dan prestasi progeni kebanyakannya tidak bererti selain purata berat biji (MNW) dan jumlah daun (LN). Walau bagaimanapun, nilai korelasi adalah sangat rendah untuk menjadi nilai penentuan. Keputusan kajian ini menunjukkan bahawa jarak genetik berdasarkan penanda mikrosatelit tidak boleh digunakan untuk menjangka prestasi progeni dalam tanaman sawit.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I wish to express my sincere appreciation to my supervisors Assoc. Prof. Dr. Mohd Rafii Yusop (Chairman), Dr. Maizura Ithnin and Prof. Dr. Ghizan Saleh for their guidance, criticism, encouragements and suggestions during the course of this study.

I am indebted to the Director General, Deputy Director General, Director of Biology and Head of Advance Biotechnology and Breeding Centre of MPOB for their involvements in granting me the sponsorship.

I would also like to acknowledge staffs and workers at MPOB Headquarters, Puan Hasmizawati Zariman, En. Mashairi Dazlan, En. Mohd. Nor Ali, En. Zulkifli Abd. Rahman, En. Zulkifli Yaakub, Cik Jayanthi a/p Nagappan and En. Zubir Mohd Yusof for their help at various stages of the laboratory works.

My gratitude also goes to the plant breeding staff and workers at MPOB Kluang and Keratong Stations for assisting me in the data collections on bunch yields, bunch quality and vegetative measurements.

My gratitude is extended to my parents, Haji Abdullah bin Lot and Hajah Norizan binti Ibrahim, and also my brothers and sister for their support and encouragements throughout the course of this study.



I certify that an Examination Committee has met on 24th September, 2008 to conduct the final examination of Norziha binti Abdullah on her Master of Science entitled “” in accordance with Universiti Pertanian Malaysia (Higher Degree) Act 1980 and Universiti Pertanian Malaysia (Higher Degree) Regulations 1981. The Committee recommends that the student be awarded the degree Master of Science.

Members of the Examination Committee were as follows:

Mohd Said Saad, PhD

Deputy Director
Agribio Resources
Research Management Centre
Universiti Putra Malaysia
(Chairman)

Mihdzar Abdul Kadir, PhD

Associate Professor
Faculty of Agriculture
Universiti Putra Malaysia
(Internal Examiner)

Nur Ashikin Psyquay Abdullah, PhD

Faculty of Agriculture
Universiti Putra Malaysia
(Internal Examiner)

Abd. Rahman Milan, PhD

Horticulture Research Center
Malaysian Agricultural Research and Development Institute (MARDI)
(External Examiner)

HASANAH MOHD GHAZALI, PhD

Professor/Deputy Dean
School of Graduate Studies
Universiti Putra Malaysia

Date:



This thesis was submitted to the Senate of Universiti Putra Malaysia and has been accepted as fulfilment of the requirement for the degree of Master of Science. The members of the Supervisory Committee were as follows:

Mohd Rafii Yusop, PhD

Associate Professor
Faculty of Agriculture
Universiti Putra Malaysia
(Chairman)

Ghizan Saleh, PhD

Professor
Faculty of Agriculture
(Member)

Maizura Ithnin, PhD

Malaysian Palm Oil Board (MPOB)
(Member)

AINI IDERIS, PhD

Professor/Dean
School of Graduate Studies
Universiti Putra Malaysia

Date:



DECLARATION

I hereby declare that the thesis is based on my original work except for quotations and citations which have been duly acknowledged. I also declare that it has not been previously or concurrently submitted for any other degree at UPM or other institutions.

NORZIHA BINTI ABDULLAH

DATE:

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
DEDICATION	
ABSTRACT	ii
ABSTRAK	iv
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	vi
APPROVAL	vii
DECLARATION	ix
TABLE OF CONTENTS	x
LIST OF TABLES	xiii
LIST OF FIGURES	xv
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS	xvi

CHAPTER

1 INTRODUCTION	1
2 LITERATURE REVIEW	
2.1 Origin, Botany and Suitable Environment of Oil Palm	5
2.1.1 Origin	5
2.1.2 Botany	5
2.1.3 Cultivation Requirement	7
2.2 Types of Oil Palm	7
2.2.1 Fruit Types Based on Colors	7
2.2.2 Fruit Forms Based on Shell-Thickness	8
2.3 The Use of Palm Oil and Their Characteristic	11
2.3.1 Food and Non-Food Products	11
2.3.2 Nutritional, Nutraceutical and Pharmaceutical Products	12
2.4 Oil Palm Introduction in Malaysia	12
2.5 Genetic Diversity of Oil Palm	13
2.6 Inheritance and Correlation of Traits in Oil Palm	15
2.7 Oil Palm Breeding in Malaysia	16
2.8 Application of Molecular Marker in Plantation Crops	17
2.8.1 Genetic Markers	17
2.8.2 Morphological Markers	18
2.8.3 Molecular Markers	18
2.8.4 Types of DNA Markers	19
2.9 The Usefulness of Microsatellites in Plant Species	24
2.9.1 Application of Microsatellite Markers in Oil Palm	26
2.10 Marker-Assisted Selection (MAS)	28
2.11 Genetic Distance	29



2.12	Genetic Diversity and Its Relation to Progeny Performance in Crop Plants	31
3	GENETIC VARIATION AMONG OIL PALM PARENTAL GENOTYPES AND THEIR PROGENIES BASED ON MICROSATELLITE MARKERS	
3.1	Introduction	34
3.2	Materials and Methods	35
	3.2.1 Materials	35
	3.2.2 Methods	35
3.3	Microsatellite Analysis	39
	3.3.1 Microsatellite Primers	39
	3.3.2 Labelling of Microsatellite Primers	39
	3.3.3 Electrophoresis of PCR Products	41
	3.3.4 Gel Scoring	42
	3.3.5 Data analysis	42
3.4	Results and Discussion	45
	3.4.1 DNA Extraction	45
	3.4.2 Microsatellite Polymorphisms	45
	3.4.3 Genetic Distance among 19 Parental Palms	50
	3.4.4 Genetic Distance among 16 DxP Progenies	56
3.5	Conclusion	60
4	GENETIC INHERITANCE AND PERFORMANCE OF OIL PALM DxP PROGENIES	
4.1	Introduction	61
4.2	Materials and Methods	62
	4.2.1 Planting Materials	62
	4.2.2 Methods	63
4.3	Statistical Analysis	72
	4.3.1 Analysis of Variance on Data in Individual Replication	73
	4.3.2 Heritability	74
	4.3.3 Correlation among Characters	76
4.4	Results and Discussion	76
	4.4.1 Analysis of Variance and Progeny Performance	76
	4.4.2 Heritability	95
	4.4.3 Performance of <i>Pisifera</i> Palms	104
	4.4.4 Relationships among Phenotypic Characters	112
4.5	Conclusion	120
5	RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN GENETIC DISTANCE AND PROGENY PERFORMANCE	
5.1	Introduction	122
5.2	Materials and Methods	123
	5.2.1 Materials	123
	5.2.2 Methods	123
5.3	Results and Discussion	123
	5.3.1 Correlation Analyses	123



5.4	Conclusion	128
6	GENERAL DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION	129
7	REFERENCES	132
8	APPENDICES	146
9	BIODATA OF THE CANDIDATE	158



LIST OF TABLES

Table No.		Page
2.1	Characteristics of oil palm fruit forms	11
2.2	Comparison of commonly used genetic markers	23
3.1	Number of palms sampled for each progeny code and their pedigree information	36
3.2	List of the primers used in the microsatellite analyses	40
3.3	Number of alleles and assignment of alleles for each primer used	45
3.4	Genetic variability measured on the 16 DxP progenies included in the study	49
3.5	Genetic distance of 19 parental palms included in the study	51
3.6	Genetic distance of parental palms included in the study	54
3.7	Genetic distance of 16 progenies	58
4.1	Generalised analysis of variance of data in individual replication	73
4.2	Mean squares for yield and yield components on evaluation of 16 DxP progenies	77
4.3	Progeny means of 16 DxP progenies for yield and yield components	79
4.4	Mean squares for bunch component characters components on evaluation of 16 DxP progenies	81
4.5	Progeny means of 16 DxP progenies for bunch component characters	84
4.6	Mean squares for vegetative characters on evaluation of 16 DxP progenies	89
4.7	Progeny means of 16 DxP progenies for vegetative characters	91
4.8	Variance components and heritability of yield and its components on evaluation of 16 DxP progenies	96

4.9	Variance components and heritability for bunch component characters on evaluation of 16 DxP progenies	98
4.10	Variance components and heritability for vegetative characters on evaluation of 16 DxP progenies	101
4.11	Mean of <i>pisifera</i> parental effects for yield and yield components of DxP progenies	105
4.12	Mean of parental <i>pisifera</i> contribute for bunch component characters in DxP progenies	107
4.13	Mean of <i>pisifera</i> parental effects for vegetative traits Of DxP progenies	110
4.14	Correlation among phenotypic characters measured on 16 DxP progenies	113
5.1	Correlation between yield characters measured on 16 progenies and genetic distance of the parents	124
5.2	Correlation between bunch component characters measured on 16 progenies and genetic distance of the parents	125
5.3	Correlation between vegetative characters measured on 16 progenies and genetic distance of the parents	127

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure No.		Page
2.1	Fruit types based on external appearance in oil palm	9
2.2	The three oil palm fruit forms, <i>Dura</i> , <i>Pisifera</i> and <i>Tenera</i>	10
3.1	Genotype configuration used for data scoring (Source: Ritter <i>et al.</i> , 1990)	43
3.2	Specific pattern profile obtained from five independent samples revealed by ethidium bromide stained agarose gels	46
3.3	Autoradiogram obtained from nine different microsatellite primers used in the study	48
3.4	Dendrogram revealed by UPGMA cluster analysis for 19 parental palms	52
3.5	Dendrogram revealed by UPGMA cluster analysis for 15 <i>duras</i>	55
3.6	Dendrogram revealed by UPGMA cluster analysis on four <i>pisiferas</i>	57
3.7	Dendrogram revealed by UPGMA cluster analysis for 16 DxP progenies	59
4.1	Bunch analysis method (Blaak <i>et al.</i> , 1963)	64

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ABW	Average bunch weight
AVROS	Algemene Vereniging van Rubber-planters ten Oostkust van Sumatra
BNO	Bunch number
df	Degree of freedom
DIA	Diameter
DNA	Deoxyribonucleic acid
EMS	Expected mean squares
EST	Expressed sequence tag
F/B	Fruit to bunch
FFB	Fresh fruit bunch
FP	Fronde production
h^2_N	Narrow-sense heritability
HT	Palm height
K/B	Kernel to bunch ratio
K/F	Kernel to fruit ratio
KY	Kernel yield
LA	Leaflet area
LAI	Leaf area index
LAR	Leaf area ratio
LL	Leaflet length
LN	Leaflet number
LW	Leaflet width
M/F	Mesocarp to fruit ratio
MPOB	Malaysian Palm Oil Board
NCM 1	North Caroline Mating Design 1
O/B	Oil to bunch ratio
O/DM	Oil to dry mesocarp ratio
O/WM	Oil to wet mesocarp ratio
OY	Oil yield
PCS	Petiole cross-section
r	Correlation coefficient
RL	Rachis length
S.E	Standard error
S/F	Shell to fruit ratio
TEP	Total economic product
TOIL	Total oil



CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Oil palm (*Elaeis guineensis* Jacq.) cultivation has expanded tremendously in recent years and it is now the leading vegetable oil in the world, taking over the top position from soybean in 2006 (MPOB, 2008). For the last few years, Southeast Asia is the dominant region of production for palm oil with Malaysia being the leading producer and exporter. To date, Indonesia has overtaken Malaysia both in terms of planted area and production (Rajanaidu, *et al.*, 2007). In 2007, Malaysia produced approximately 15.8 million tonnes and exported 13.74 million tonnes of palm oil (MPOB, 2008).

Oil palm plays significant role in the socio-economic development of the country especially in rural areas by providing employment and raising income levels. It is an important contributor to Malaysia's Gross Domestic Product (GDP) and also foreign exchange earnings which contributed considerably to bolster the country's economy (MPOB, 2008). The success of oil palm industry in Malaysia is attributed to many factors, among them are favorable climatic conditions, well-established infrastructure, improved management and technologies for oil palm cultivation and establishment of estate type plantations.

In 2007, the total oil palm planted area in Malaysia increased by 3.4% and to 4.3 million hectares. Sabah remained the largest oil palm planted state with 1.27 million hectares or 30% of the total planted area (MPOB, 2008). In Malaysia, oil



palm planted areas can be divided into large estates which are managed by public listed companies, smaller independent estates, independent smallholders and government smallholder settler schemes.

The oil palm remained as a remarkable competitor compared to other vegetable oil crops in terms of oil yield per hectare. The oil from a properly maintained oil palm plantation can be six times higher than those from commercially grown rapeseed (Ernst and Thomas, 1999). Besides that, researches have shown that palm oil contains antioxidants for human diet such as vitamin A and E, as well as other properties which assist in sustaining lower cholesterol levels. Through latest blending and separating technologies, palm oil has good potential as biofuel (Yusof, 2005).

In order to stay in the forefront, Malaysia has launched vast number of technologies in oil palm. Among others are new planting materials to meet the future needs of the industry. Since 1994, 12 planting series and breeding populations have been introduced. For improvement of oil yield, most breeders will consider oil and kernel yields per hectare as the most important characters when producing planting material for commercial release. Other agronomic traits such as short frond, long stalk and high carotene were also emphasized.

Selection of best parental combinations is essential to ensure maximum gain of genetic improvement. It is therefore of greatest importance to obtain the basic knowledge on the diversity, inheritance and genetic pattern of the materials used in

oil palm breeding and selection. The information may be useful in designing breeding programme for oil palm improvement.

The development of molecular markers provides tools for assessing the genetic diversity at the DNA level in plant species (Melchinger and Gumber, 1998). Genetic distances based on molecular markers has been used for grouping of similar germplasm as a first step in identifying diverse parents for promising heterotic expression (Melchinger, 1999).

Besides that, molecular data have frequently been included in several methods of hybrid performance prediction. They have been integrated into yield prediction models in several ways. Among others are for calculation of parental genetic distances and correlation analysis with progeny yield (Lee *et al.*, 1989; Boppenmaier *et al.*, 1992; Ajmone *et al.*, 1998), generation of covariates for specific combining ability (SCA) in the distance and factorial regression interaction models (Charcosset *et al.*, 1998), and calculation of the coefficients of parentage (Bernado, 1993) to be used as covariance between single-crosses in the best linear unbiased prediction (BLUP) method (Bernado, 1995; Charcosset *et al.*, 1998).

Molecular breeding is well suited to a perennial crop like oil palm, in which the economic products are not produced until several years after planting. They offer promising tools in plant breeding, particularly, in identifying and eliminating poorer parents in the early stage. Molecular markers can be used to evaluate the genetic distance among the parental palms. Since hybrid vigor is contributed by genetic complementation between divergent parents, it can be assumed that parents with high

genetic distance coefficients have the tendency to produce more vigorous hybrids (Gupta and Varshney, 2000).

Therefore, molecular markers maybe useful in helping breeders to choose the most promising parental combinations to be tested. Besides that, a number of traits in oil palm such as shell thickness, external fruit colour and fatty acid composition can eventually be tracked using molecular markers. These will fast-track the production of new and improved oil palm planting materials (Rajinder and Cheah, 2005).

The study is composed of two main experiments.

Experiment 1: Genetic variation among oil palm parental genotypes and their progenies based on microsatellite markers

Experiment 2: Genetic inheritance and performance of oil palm DxP progenies

The objectives of this study are 1) to estimate genetic diversity between *dura* and *pisifera* parental combinations using microsatellite markers and 2) to investigate the association between genetic diversity and progeny performance.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Origin, Botany and Suitable Environment of Oil Palm

2.1.1 Origin

Oil palm exists in wild, semi-wild and cultivated part of the tropic, within 10° N and 10° S of the equator in Africa, South East Asia and Central America (Hartley, 1998). Generally, the African oil palm (*Elaeis guineensis* Jacq.), the name was given by Jacquin in 1763, originated from the tropical rain forest region of West Africa. The Latin American oil palm, *E. oleifera* Cortes, is endemic to Central and South America.

Commercially, *E. guineensis* is more important than *E. oleifera*. However, *E. oleifera* that has been hybridized with the *E. guineensis*, has several desirable attributes such as short, slow growth, high unsaturated fatty acid profiles and resistance to fatal yellowing disease (Meunier and Hardon, 1982). The two oil palm species were presumed to have diverged when the American and African continents drifted apart in prehistoric times (Zeven, 1965).

2.1.2 Botany

Oil palm belongs to Palmae or Arecaceae family, subfamily Cocoideae, tribe Cocoineae and the genus *Elaeis*. The genus *Elaeis* consists of two species namely the African oil palm, *E. guineensis* Jacq. and the Latin American oil palm, *E. oleifera* Cortez (Moore, 1973). Another species, *E. odora* which was previously



placed under the genus *Elaeis* has been reclassified in the genus *Barcella* (Uhl and Dransfield, 1987). The term *Elaeis* comes from the Greek word, *elaion*, meaning oil while the word *guineensis* was attributed to the Guinea coast, the expected origin of the oil palm (Hartley, 1998). It is a monocotyledonous plant and a diploid species with chromosome number of $2n=2x=32$ (Rival *et al.*, 1997).

As described by Hishamudin *et al.* (1985), the oil palm is a monoecious plant which grows to a height of 20-30 meters and lives up to 200 years. The trunk is unbranched and crowned with normally 35 to 40 fronds per year. The fronds are arranged around the trunk in two spirals which may be right-handed or left-handed (Latiff, 2000).

Male and female inflorescences normally occur in different cycles, reducing the chances of self pollination (Turner and Gillbank, 1982). At anthesis, the male and female flowers have a strong smell similar to aniseed. As a cross-pollinated species, the pollination is mainly carried out by insects such as the weevil, *Eleidobius kamerunicus*. This species was imported to Malaysia from Cameroons, plays a dominant role in oil palm pollination (Syed, 1979).

Following the pollination, the female inflorescences develop into a fruit bunch. Fruit bunches ripe 5-6 months after pollination. The number of fruits for each bunch varies with age, normally containing more than 1000 fruits and 10-60 kg in bunch weight. The fruit is a sessile drupe varying in shape from nearly spherical to ovoid or elongated with sizes between 2-5 cm and weight ranging from 3 to 40 gram (Turner and Gillbank, 1982). The outer fruits are normally fully formed because of ample space for their development as compared to the inner fruits, inside the bunch,

which tend to be somewhat flattened, smaller and less pigmented. Oil palm bunches bear about 1000-3000 fruits borne on 100-120 spikelets attached to a peduncle from the axil of a frond (Yusof and Chan, 2004). The individual fruit is made up of an outer skin (the exocarp), a pulp (mesocarp), shell (endocarp) and kernel.

2.1.3 Cultivation Requirement

According to Hartley (1998) oil palm needs continuous sunlight about 5-7 hours everyday. It is now grown as a plantation crop in most countries with high rainfall (minimum 1 600 mm/yr) in tropical climates within 10° of the equator. It is suitable to be planted in loose-textures soil on flat land, grown on a wide range of soil types, provided good drainage and pH between 4 and 7 with no stone or gravel layer in the first 1.2 meter below the surface (Hishamudin *et al.*, 1985). The average maximum temperature which is suitable for oil palm ranged from 22 to 24⁰C. Oil palm is a perennial crop with life span reaching 200 years old (Purseglove, 1975). However, the economic life span of oil palm commercial plantation is about 25 to 35 years (Ng, 1972).

2.2 Types of Oil Palm

The oil palm fruit has distinct variations of the external appearance (colour of fruits) and thickness of shell.

2.2.1 Fruit Types Based on Colors

The variation in colors which is controlled by monogenetic inheritance is due to marked differences in the carotene content of the mesocarp (Latiff, 2000). There are three types of fruit which can be distinguished by colour; *nigrescens*,

virescens and *albescens* (Figure 2.1). *Nigrescens* fruits are the most common in oil palm due to high carotenoid contents. These fruits are dark purple or almost black before ripening. The color of the *nigrescens* fruit varies to some extent on ripening, to either entirely red, or black over the upper half but red at the base (Hartley, 1998). When ripe, two types of fruit form are recognized which are described as *rubro-nigrescens* and *rutilo-nigrescens*. *Rubro-nigrescens* is ripe fruit with deep reddish orange in colour and brown cap on upper half.

On the other hand, *rutilo-nigrescens* is ripe fruit of pale orange and black cap on upper half. Another fruit colour type known as *virescens* (relatively uncommon) is green with yellowish cap before ripening. At maturity, the colour of the fruit changes to bright reddish orange. An extremely rare fruit, *albescens*, is characterized by the very small quantity of carotene in the mesocarp. It is pale yellow or ivory when ripe and very dark brown when young (Hishamudin *et al.*, 1985).

2.2.2 Fruit Forms Based on Shell-Thickness

Thickness of oil palm fruit shell has significant overwhelming agronomic importance (Hartley, 1998). The inheritance of shell thickness (internal structure) was elucidated by Beirnaert and Vanderweyen (1941). There are three naturally occurring forms of the oil palm fruit, termed as *dura*, *tenera*, and *pisifera* based on shell thickness (Figure 2.2). The *dura* palm is homozygous dominant ($sh^+ sh^+$) for thick shell (2-8mm) trait that give mesocarp to fruit ratio of about 60% while the *pisifera* palm is shell-less recessive homozygote ($sh^- sh^-$) which is usually female sterile that give mesocarp to fruit ratio about 90%. The shell is absent in the *pisifera*