Mandragora: Phylogenetic and Domestication

Thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of "DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY"

by

Keren Fogel

Submitted to the Senate of Ben-Gurion University of the Negev

June 2012

Beer-Sheva

Mandragora: Phylogenetic and Domestication

Thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of "DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY"

by

Keren Fogel

Submitted to the Senate of Ben-Gurion University of the Negev

Approved by the advisor	
Approved by the advisor	
Approved by the Dean of the Kreitman School of Advanced Graduate Studies	

June 2012

Beer-Sheva

This work was carried out under the supervision of

Dr. Sergei Volis

and Dr. Khalil Kashkush

In the Life Science Department

Faculty of Natural Sciences

Research-Student's Affidavit when Submitting the Doctoral Thesis for Judgment

	, whose signature appears below, propriate statements):	, hereby declare that
I have written the Advisors.	his Thesis by myself, except for the help	and guidance offered by my Thesis
	naterials included in this Thesis are prod 1 I was a research student.	lucts of my own research, culled <u>from the</u>
technical help commaffidavit stating the	orporates research materials produced in nonly received during experimental work contributions made by myself and the or nem and submitted with their approval.	1
Date:	Student's name:	Signature:

Thanks

I want to thank many people that helped me through my PhD:

Dr. Sergi Volis, for the opportunity to perform research on an interesting and unique plant.

Dr. Khalil Kashkush, for the help and support.

Dr. Michele Zaccai, for lending an attentive ear.

Dr. Yuval Sapir, for some of the pictures and helping in the beginning of my work.

Dr. Tu Tieyao, for the remote assistance.

Irena Shulgina, for helping with the lab work.

Asher Dvir, for helping in greenhouse and field and in every opportunity.

Yonghong Zhang for helping in AFLP analyzing.

Pavel Melnikov, for succeeding in germinating some stubborn mandrake seeds.

Zina Kraitshtein, Vadim Khasdan, Adva Levi and Beeri Yaakov, from Khalil's lab for helping me in AFLP and sequencing and for the friendship during my studies.

And thanks to my family:

My parents that have supported me all the way, it is thanks to them that I have reached so far.

My mother and father-in-law who helped whenever needed.

My dear partner-to-life, Shimon Fogel, who encouraged me from my first year of undergraduate studies, urged me through my M.Sc and PhD studies and is always there for me.

I received much of the strength to quest and learn from my belief in G-d, I am thankful for the power that He bestows to me. אַבָּרֵךְ אֶת יְהוָה אֲשֶׁר יְעָצָנִי (תהלים טו ז)

This work is dedicated to my little children:

Nitzan, Shaked and Shachar,

For the happiness they brought to my life.

I'm sure you'll get far!

Table of content

List of figures	3
List of tables	5
List of abbreviations	6
1. Abstract	7
Key words	8
2. Introduction	9
2.1.Historic records and economic potential of Mandragora	9
2.1.1. <i>Mandragora</i> use in the past	9
2.1.2. The economic potential of <i>Mandragora</i> domestication	10
2.2. Scientific background	11
2.2.1. Chemical properties of <i>Mandragora</i>	11
2.2.2. The biology of <i>Mandragora</i>	11
2.2.3. The taxonomy of <i>Mandragora</i>	13
2.2.4. Polyploidy in <i>Mandragora</i>	17
2.3. Chloroplast DNA and Internal Transcribed Spacer (ITS)	18
3. Research hypothesis and objectives	20
4. Materials and Methods	21
4.1. Plants	21
4.2. Methods	25
4.2.1. Self and cross-pollination experiment	25
4.2.2. Morphological measurements	25
4.2.3. Florescence-activated cell sorting (FACS)	26
4.2.4. DNA extraction	27
4.2.5. Fluorescent Amplified Fragment Length Polymorphism (AFLP)	27
4.2.6. AFLP data analysis	30
4.2.7. Chloroplast DNA fragment sequencing	31
4.2.8. Internal Transcribed Spacer (ITS) sequencing	34
4.2.9 Phylogenetic analysis based on cpDNA and ITS sequences	34

5. Results		36
5.1. Self pollinati	ion and cross-breeding	36
5.2. Morphology	and phenology	38
5.2.1. Flower		38
5.2.2. Flowerin	ng time	38
5.2.3. Fruit		42
5.2.4. Seeds		45
5.3. Florescence-	Activated Cell Sorting (FACS)	47
5.4. Amplified Fi	ragment Length Polymorphism (AFLP)	48
5.5. Internal Tran	nscribed Spacer (ITS) sequencing	54
5.6. Chloroplast	DNA sequencing	57
6. Discussion	••••••	64
6.1. Morphology	and FACS	64
6.2. Molecular va	ariation	67
6.3. Concluding 1	remarks	69
7. Appendix		70
8. Literature Cited	ı	80
87		9. תקציר
87		מילות מפתח

List of figures

Figure 1: Examples of different shapes of Mandragora roots	10
Figure 1: Examples of different shapes of <i>Mandragora</i> roots	
Figure 2: Mandragora plants from Israel	
Figure 3: A map of <i>Mandragora</i> distribution	
Figure 4: The increased taxonomic subdivision of the Mediterranean <i>Mandragora</i>	
Figure 5: Mandragora caulescens from Tibet	
Figure 6: Mandragora chinghaiensis from Tibet	
Figure 7: <i>Mandragora</i> cytology	
Figure 8: Mandragora plants in Bergman Campus, BGU	
Figure 9: Percentage of successful self-pollination	36
Figure 10: Mandragora flowers of different country origin	39
Figure 11: Different parameters of <i>Mandragora</i> flower morphology	40
Figure 12: Flowering time frequency distribution for plants of different origin	41
Figure 13: Fruit size of <i>Mandragora</i> plants of different country origin	42
Figure 14: Fruit weight of <i>Mandragora</i> plants of different country origin	43
Figure 15: Fruit shape of Mandragora plants of different country origin	43
Figure 16: Fruits of Mandragora plants of different country origin	44
Figure 17: Mandragora seeds examined in the binocular	45
Figure 18: Mandragora seeds	46
Figure 19: Mandragora seeds examined in the SEM	46
Figure 20: FACS analysis	47
Figure 21: Genetic structure of <i>Mandragora</i> in <i>STRUCTURE</i>	49
Figure 22: Genetic structure of <i>Mandragora</i> in <i>BAPS</i>	51
Figure 23: Principal Coordinates Analysis of Mandragora in GenAlEx.	52
Figure 24: Hierarchical clustering of <i>Mandragora</i> in <i>PRIMER6</i>	53
Figure 25: The NJ tree and the ML tree inferred from the ITS data	56
Figure 26: The NJ tree and the ML tree inferred from the atpB data	59
Figure 27: The NJ tree and the ML tree inferred from the trnL-trnF data	59
Figure 28: The NJ tree and the ML tree inferred from the rbcL-accD data	60
Figure 29: The NJ tree and the ML tree inferred from the trnH-psbA data	60
Figure 30: The NJ tree and the ML tree inferred from the ndhF data	
Figure 31: The NJ tree and the ML tree inferred from the trnC-psbM data	
Figure 32: The NJ tree and the ML tree inferred from the FV data	

Figure 33: The NJ tree and the ML tree inferred from the rpS16-trnK data	52
Figure 34: The NJ tree and the ML tree inferred from the combined cpDNA data6	53
Figure 35: The Maximum Parsimony tree inferred from the combined cpDNA data.	53
Figure 36: SEM observation of <i>Mandragora</i> in the literature	56
Figure 37: Maximum Parsimony tree of <i>Mandragora</i> based on the combined	
sequence data of six plastid markers	58

List of tables

Table 1: Summary of the comparison between the three species of <i>Mandragora</i>	15
Table 2: Summary of the previously reported <i>Mandragora</i> chromosome number	18
Table 3: Accession name, region and geographic coordinates of samples from Isra	.el22
Table 4: name, country and remarks of samples of non-Israeli origin	24
Table 5: List of the adaptors and primers used for fAFLP	29
Table 6: List of the primers, their length and sequence that were used for cpDNA	and
ITS sequencing.	32
Table 7: Percentage of successful cross-pollination in Mandragora plants of different	erent
country origin or from different regions within the country	37
Table 8: List of GenBank accession numbers of ITS and cpDNA sequences	55
Table 9: Summary of the phylogenetic information in Mandragora from ITS	and
cpDNA regions	58
Table 10: The nucleotide polymorphism in the ITS sequence	70
Table 11: The nucleotide polymorphism of the cpDNA sequence	72

List of abbreviations

AFLP Amplified Fragment Length Polymorphism

FACS Florescence-Activated Cell Sorter

ITS Internal Transcribed Spacer

cpDNA Chloroplast DNA

NJ Neighbor Joining

ML Maximum Likelihood

MP Maximum Parsimony

Samples name:

AM Ammiad

ND Nahal Dishon

RP Rosh-Pina

BG Beit Guvrin

Luz Luzit Caves

Keram Keramim

Lah Lahav Forest

Meit Meitar

MT Turkmenistan

1. Abstract

The goal of this study was to resolve the phylogenetic relationships between species of the genus *Mandragora* based on eight regions in the chloroplast DNA, ITS region in nrDNA, AFLP, FACS and different morphometrics (flowers, fruits and seeds morphology). Additionally, characterization of the phenotypic variance and self and out crosses were done as the first step towards domesticating *Mandragora* fruits, and FACS was used to evaluate the ploidy level of *Mandragora* and associate it with its distribution range.

According to the morphometric data (fruits and seeds) and FACS analysis, *Mandragora* plants can be divided into three groups. One group includes *Mandragora* plants from Israel, Turkmenistan and Iran, which are characterized by globular and large fruits, with large seeds and higher DNA content. The second group includes *Mandragora* plants from Cyprus, Turkey, Italy, Spain and Morocco, which are characterized by ellipsoid and small fruits and medium seeds and lower DNA content. Tibetan plants are the third group with the smallest seed and different seed coat morphology.

The results of AFLP and sequencing of ITS and chloroplast DNA are very similar, showing a greater difference between European and Israeli *Mandragora* plants than between Israeli *Mandragora* plants and those from from Turkmenistan and Iran. Therefore, we conclude that *M. officinarum* that included European and Israeli plants is not a single species as was thought previously (Ungricht *et al.*, 1998 and Akhani and Ghorbani, 2003). Additionally, the recognition of *M. turcomanica* as a species of its own (Ungricht *et al.*, 1998 and Akhani and Ghorbani, 2003) is not supported by the data presented herein, as it seems to be very close to Israeli plants.

Thus it appears that the current taxonomy of the genus *Mandragora* L. (Solanaceae) including three species (M. *turcomanica* Mizg. from Central Asia/Iran, M. officinarum L. from the Mediterranean and M. caulescens C.B. Clark from Sino-Himalayan region) must be revised based on the results of this work. It follows from the new results, that M. caulescens is a highly separated clade from M. officinarum - M. turcomanica, while M. turcomanica is not a separate species but a relict population of M. officinarum. Moreover, Mandragora plants from Israel are very close to M. turcomanica, indicating a possible origin of M. turcomanica from the clade that is

present only in Israel. Additionally, this clade of Israel and Turkmenistan differs on DNA content from the clade widespread in Europe.

Key words

Mandragora; Taxonomy; Systematics; phylogeography; phylogeny; Domestication.

2. Introduction

2.1. Historic records and economic potential of Mandragora

Mandragora officinarum L. or mandrake is recognized as *Dudaim* in Hebrew (Fleisher and Fleisher, 1994), and is mentioned twice in the Bible. First in Genesis (30:14-16):

וַיֵּלֶךּ רְאוּבֵן בִּימֵי קְצִיר חָטִים וַיִּמְצָא דוּדָאִים בַּשֶּׁדֶה וַיָּבֵא אֹתָם אֶל לֵאָה אִמּוֹ. וַתֹּאמֶר רָחֵל אֶל לֵאָה: תְּנִי נָא לִי מִדּוּדָאֵי בְּנֵךְ. וַתֹּאמֶר לָה: הַמְצַט קַחְתֵּךְ אֶת אִישִׁי וְלָקַחַת גַּם אֶת דּוּדָאֵי בְּנִי? וַתֹּאמֶר רָחֵל: לָכֵן יִשְׁכַּב עִמֶּךְ הַלַּיְלָה תַּחַת דּוּדָאֵי בְנֵךְ. וַיָּבֹא יַצְקֹב מִן הַשֶּׁדֶה בָּעֶרֶב וַתַּצֵא לֵאָה לִקְרָאתוֹ וַתֹּאמֶר: אֵלֵי תָּבוֹא כִּי שָׂכֹר שָּׂכַרְתִּיךְ בִּדּיּדָאֵי בְּנִי. וַיִּשְׁכַּב עְמָה בַּלַיִּלָה הוּא.

During the wheat harvest, Reuben, the eldest son of Jacob and Leah, found mandrake while walking in the field, and brought them to his mother. Rachel, Jacob's infertile second wife and Leah's sister, agreed to renounce a night with Jacob in order to get the mandrake, probably because she knew it was a cure for infertility. Thus this story shows that the *Mandragora* was an ancient remedy to help childless women conceive.

In another place in the Bible, Song of Solomon (7:14), the wonderful smell of *Mandragora* is praised: הַדּוּדָאִים נָּחָנוּ רֵיחַ וְעַל פְּתָחֵינוּ כָּל מְגָּדִים חֲדָשִׁים גַּם יְשָׁנִים דּוֹדִי צָּפַנְתִּי לְדְּ "The mandrakes give forth fragrance. At our doors are all manner of precious fruits, new and old, which I have laid up for you, my beloved..."

2.1.1. Mandragora use in the past

The roots of the *Mandragora* plant are massive and branched and therefore occasionally have a baby or human-like shape (Figure 1). This special shape of the root is the basis of many legends about the plant (Thompson, 1934; Moldenke and Moldenke, 1952; Berry and Jackson, 1976; Fleisher and Fleisher, 1994; Carter, 2003).

Mandragora was one of the most important medicinal plants in the ancient past. It was used as a pain killer, an anesthetic before surgery, a cure for infertility, a trance-inducing drug, a hallucinogenic, a substance to exile demons, etc (Randolph, 1905; Grover, 1965; Fleisher and Fleisher, 1994; Hanus *et al.*, 2005). The Mandragora's name comes from the term 'man-dragon'. Other names of Mandragora are 'Satan's apple', beid el-jinn' ("jinn's eggs"), 'crazy apple' or 'al tuffah al majnoon'

in Arabic, "yavruchin or abu' l-ruch" ("master of the breath of life") and more of the same style (Fleisher and Fleisher, 1994).



Figure 1: Examples of different shapes of Mandragora roots.

Additionally, the term "Dudaim" in Hebrew means 'love plant' and it was considered to be the most powerful herb of love magic. It was supposed to have an aphrodisiac-like effect and witches used to prepare love potions from its root. The fruits of the plant, also-called love apples, were believed to increase fertility (Randolph, 1905; Thompson, 1934; Fleisher and Fleisher, 1994; Hanus *et al.*, 2005). In kibbutz Mishmar Ha'emeq, Micha Lin produces a mandrake liqueur, marketed under the name "*Mandragora*", which he recommends as a wedding present, to arouse passion.

2.1.2. The economic potential of *Mandragora* domestication

Mandragora appears to be a very promising plant, with great potential for domestication and developing into a crop due to the unique taste and aroma of its fruit. The plant has economic potential in the plant food industry, pharmaceuticals and agriculture and can grow in most soil types with modest irrigation. In addition, this is a new fruit that can easily enter the market, which is constantly searching for innovations.

2.2. Scientific background

2.2.1. Chemical properties of Mandragora

Mandragora belongs to the nightshades family (Solanaceae), and like other plants in this family (such as the tomato and potato) it is toxic when still green, because of its high Alkaloid content (Ungricht et al., 1998). The major group of alkaloids found in this plant is the tropane alkaloids. Despite the toxicity of the tropanes, they are considered medicinally significant, when used correctly and in small amounts. It was found that Mandragora's roots contain alkaloids such as atropine, scopolamine and hyoscyamine. These chemicals cause anesthetization, loss of senses and relax muscle tension which is probably the reason for the name 'crazy apple' and other names of the plant (Grover, 1965; Hanus et al., 2005). These toxic chemicals are only found in the roots, seeds and unripe fruit, whereas there is no danger in the pulp of the mature fruit (Ungricht et al., 1998). Recently, more than eighty substances were identified from all parts of this plant in different species of the genus Mandragora (Hanus et al., 2005).

In addition, the ripe fruit contains many volatile chemicals that are responsible for its special smell. The fruit's odor is very special and smelled from afar. The chemical components of the fruit's aroma were examined and it was found that the ripe fruit contains many volatile chemicals, including various esters (also found in apples, guavas, mangos, papaya and passion fruit), γ-lactones (in small amounts but contribute significantly to the smell of *Mandragora*) and sulfur-containing chemicals (also found in onion, garlic and cabbage) (Grover, 1965; Fleisher and Fleisher, 1992; Fleisher and Fleisher, 1994; Hanus *et al.*, 2005; Hanus *et al.*, 2006).

2.2.2. The biology of Mandragora

In Israel, the *Mandragora*'s leaves dry up during the summer and the perennial root is dormant. Sprouting of young leaves (Figure 2a) starts from October, flowering (Figure 2b) lasts from December till February and the fruits (Figure 2c) begin to appear in March. In *Mandragora*, there is a preference for out-breeding through protogyny (a state in hermaphroditic flowers that is characterized by development of female organs or maturation of their products before the appearance of the corresponding male product, thus inhibiting self-fertilization), but it can also self fertilize. The fruit is tomato-like, (Figure 2d) two to four centimeters in diameter,

containing soft pulp and firm seeds. When the fruit ripens, it changes its color to yellow-orange and secretes a strong sweet smell, which is slightly reminiscent of melon. The smell attracts mammals that eat the fruit and disperse the seeds. The fruit's aroma and taste are very special and unique (Bernhardt and Dafni, 2000).

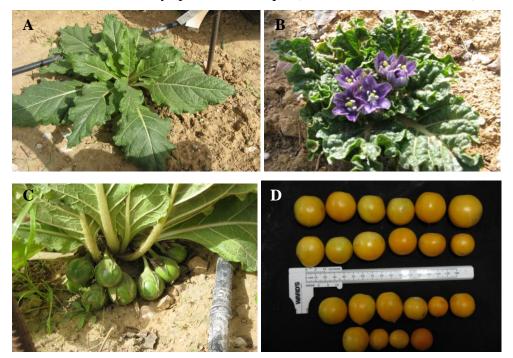


Figure 2: *Mandragora* plants from Israel: A- sprouting; B- flowering; C- unripe fruits on the plant; D- mature fruits.

Mandragora (Figure 3) is found at one location on the border between Turkmenistan and Iran, and is also distributed throughout Syria, Lebanon, Israel, Cyprus, Turkey (only on the shore line), Greece, Italy, Morocco and Spain. Other locations are in Tibet and China (Ungricht *et al.*, 1998). In Israel, *Mandragora* is found from Mount Hermon, Golan Heights, the upper Galilee, Samarian and Judean Mountains, through the coastal plain to the northern Negev, which is the southern limit of *Mandragora* in this area.



Figure 3: A map of *Mandragora* distribution (after Ungricht et al., 1998)

2.2.3. The taxonomy of *Mandragora*

The long history of mythology and medicinal use of *Mandragora* and the variable morphology and phenology have created confused classification in *Mandragora*.

Ancient cultures distinguished between two species of the Mediterranean plants, the female mandrake (autumn flowering) and male mandrake (spring flowering). Linnaeus (Linnaeus, 1753) combined these two variants as one species, called *M. officinarum*. After Linnaeus further subdivisions of the genus (Figure 4) were made, into a few vernal and autumnal species (Ungricht *et al.*, 1998). Since 1950, there were again only two groups- *M. officinarum* L. (vernal) and *M.* autumnalis Bertol. (autumnal) (Hawkes and Edmonds, 1972; Hawkes *et al.*, 1972; Hawkes, 1972; Jackson and Berry, 1979). However, two groups with different flowering periods should have seasonal isolation and could hardly interbreed. In fact, there are no clear-cut clusters in the flowering time of these groups, so in the latest classification only one species of Mediterranean *Mandragora* is recognized (Ungricht *et al.*, 1998).

Classification type	Vernal species	Autumnal species
1 VERNAL, 1 AUTUMN.	AL TAXON	
Sprengel (1825)	M. vernalis Bertol.	M. autumnalis Bertol.
1 VERNAL, 2 AUTUMN	AL TAXA	
Bertoloni (1835),	M. vernalis Bertol.	M. officinarum L.
Dunal (1852)		M. microcarpa Bertol.
2 VERNAL, 2 AUTUMN	AL TAXA	
Heldreich (1886)	M. vernalis Bertol.	M. autumnalis Spreng
	M. haussknechtii Heldr.	M. microcarpa Bertol.
3 VERNAL, 2 AUTUMN	AL TAXA	
Vierhapper (1915)	M. mas Garsault	M. autumnalis Bertol.
-	M. hispanica Vierh.	M. foemina Garsault
	M. haussknechtii Heldr.	

Figure 4: The increased taxonomic subdivision of the Mediterranean *Mandragora*, adapted from Ungricht et al. (1998).

The Sino-Himalayan plants (Central and East Asian), *M. caulescens* C.B. Clarke (Figure 5), were split into four subspecies, differentiated on the basis of corolla color, calyx and corolla lengths and overall plant size (Grierson and Long, 1978). Additionally, the subspecies *M. chinghaiensis* K.Z. Kuang and A.M. Lu from Qinghai and Xizang provinces in Tibet was described (Kuang and Lu, 1978) (Figure 6).

However, the Sino-Himalayan and Mediterranean plants vary in the size, shape and color of their flowers and leaves within local populations and even individuals, so the subdivision within these groups according to these morphometric parameters is not clear (Ungricht *et al.*, 1998).

The Turkemenian plant (from Turkmenistan and Iran), *M. turcomanica* Mizg. is a larger and geographically isolated plant (restricted to southwestern Kopet Dag on the Turkmenistan-Iranian border) and therefore was accepted as a distinct species (Mizgireva, 1978; Ungricht *et al.*, 1998).

The current taxonomy of the genus *Mandragora*, based on morphometric analysis of herbarium specimens, phenology, habitat and distribution (Table 1), includes only three recognized species: *M. turcomanica* Mizg. from central Asia/Iran, *M. officinarum* L. from the Mediterranean and *M. caulescens* C.B. Clarke from the Sino-Himalayan region (Ungricht *et al.*, 1998; Akhani and Ghorbani, 2003).

Mandragora species are described by Ungricht *et al.* (1998) as perennial herbs with very long stout tap-roots (the tap-root is the perennating organ) and pedicellate actinomorphic flowers born in leaf axils. The flower has five calyx lobes that enlarge in fruit, five corolla lobes and five stamens. The fruit is a fleshy berry, strongly aromatic, with many seeds.

- 1. *Mandragora officinarum* L. is stem-less and has elliptic leaves in a rosette (max. 45 cm long). The pedicels are variable (max. 15 cm long) and the campanulate corolla is 12-65 cm long, greenish white to pale blue or violet. The fruit is 5-40 mm in diameter, globular to ellipsoid, glossy yellow to orange when ripe. Flowering is from September to April, fruiting is from November to June and the plant is dormant during the summer until autumn rains begin. The distribution is circum Mediterranean.
- 2. Mandragora turcomanica Mizg. is stem-less and has broadly elliptical or ovate leaves in a rosette (90 × 60 cm). The pedicels are 2-3 cm long and the campanulate corolla is 20-25 cm long, violet or purple with three narrow white stripes at its base. The fruit is 40-60 mm in diameter, glossy yellow to orange when ripe. Flowering is from October to March, fruiting is until June and the plant is dormant during the summer until autumn rains begin. Distribution is in small populations in a restricted area in Turkmenistan and possibly in Iran as well.

3. *Mandragora caulescens* C.B. Clarke has a stem, max 60 cm long (Figure 5) with oblanceolate or spatulate leaves arranged in a cluster on the top stem (max. 30 cm). The pedicels are 5-10 cm long and the corolla is 5-30 cm long campanulate to cup-shaped and colored yellow to purple. The fruit is 10-25 mm in diameter, globular, pale greenish white to greenish yellow. Flowering is from April to September, fruiting is from August to October and the plant is dormant during the winter when the area may be covered by ice. Distribution is in the Sino-Himalayan region.

Table 1: Summary of the comparison between the three species of *Mandragora* (based on Ungricht *et al.*, 1998 and Akhani and Ghorbani, 2003).

Species	M. officinarum I	M. turcomanica	M. caulescens C.B.	
Character	M. officinarum L.	Mizg.	Clarke	
Stem	Stem-less	Stem-less	Present, max 60 cm	
Leaves	Leaves Rosette (max. 45 cm)		Cluster on stem top (max. 30 cm)	
Flower Pedicel	Variable, max 15 cm	2-3 cm	5-10 cm	
Corolla length	12-65 cm	20-25 cm	5-30 cm	
Corolla color Greenish white to pale blue or violet		three narrow white Yellow to pu stripes at base		
Fruit diameter	5-40 mm	40-60 mm	10-25 mm	
Flowering September to April period		October to March	April to September	
Fruiting period	November to June	Until June	August to October	
Dormancy period	Summer	Summer	Winter	
Distribution	Mediterranean	Irano -Turanian	Sino-Himalayan	



Figure 5: *Mandragora caulescens* from Tibet (photos by Hang Sun (A) and Tu Tieyao (B)).



Figure 6: *Mandragora chinghaiensis* from Tibet (photo by Tu Tieyao).

2.2.4. Polyploidy in *Mandragora*

Polyploidy is widely acknowledged as a major mechanism of adaptation and speciation in plant evolution (Ramsey and Schemske, 1998). It is estimated that over 70% of flowering plants are polyploid (Hilu, 1993; Ma *et al.*, 2004; Mable, 2004). By having a different number of alleles at a locus, polyploid species often display new traits and genetic variability that differ from their diploid ancestors in overall gene expression levels (Ramsey and Schemske, 1998; Ojiewo *et al.*, 2007).

Most domesticated crops are polyploids, allowing the development of desirable agricultural traits and compatibility to plant domestication (Eckardt, 2004). Polyploidy leads to an increase in plant organ size, in most cases, and sometimes also in fruit size, and leads to the development of new features (Singh and Wafai, 1984; Eckardt, 2004). It can be explained by the fact that increase in nuclear ploidy has been associated with an increase in cell volume, and as a result the whole organ is larger (Hilu, 1993).

It is hard to determine the number of chromosomes and the ploidy level of the Mandragora, because its chromosomes are small and numerous (Figure 7). There are remarkable differences between the chromosome numbers and ploidy level in different studies, from 24 chromosomes for a ploidy level of 4x to 96 chromosomes for a ploidy level of 16x (Smith, 1927; Tu $et\ al.$, 2005) (Table 2). Mandragora was suggested to have $x = 12\ (2x,\ 4x,\ 7x\ and\ 8x)$ by previous studies (Olmstead and Palmer, 1992; Badr $et\ al.$, 1997; Olmstead $et\ al.$, 1999), but because odd-number polyploids are sexually unstable and cannot normally comprise entire natural populations, Tu and colleagues (Tu $et\ al.$, 2005) suggested the chromosome base number of x = 6 for these taxa, making $Mandragora\ 4x$, 8x, 14x and 16x (Table 2).

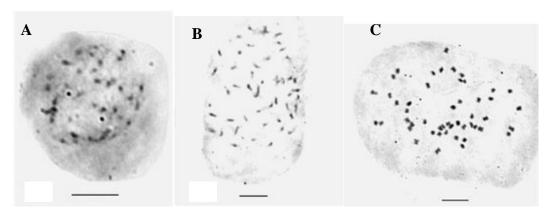


Figure 7: *Mandragora* cytology: A- Interphase nuclei of smooth-faced round prochromosomes of M. *caulescens*. B- Mitotic prophases of proximal type of M. *caulescens*. C- Mitotic metaphases of M. *caulescens*, 2n = 48. Scale bars $= 5 \mu m$ (adapted from Tu *et al.*, 2005).

Table 2: Summary of the previously reported *Mandragora* chromosome number (adapted from Tu *et al.*, 2005).

Taxon	2n/ base no./	Karyotype	Locality	Data source
	ploidy level	formula (n)		
M. caulescens	48/6/8x	?	Hengduan Mountains	Tu et al., 2005
M. autumnalis	84/6/14x	?	Mediterranean region	Hawkes, 1972
	96/6/16x	?	Europe (Slovakia)	Murin, 1978
	24/6/4x	?	Europe (Italy)	Lentini et al., 1988

2.3. Chloroplast DNA and Internal Transcribed Spacer (ITS)

Chloroplast DNA (cpDNA) is a haploid circular molecule (155 kb in *Nicotiana tabaccum*), which is highly conserved in size and structure, with low mutation and recombination rates, and thus makes a good tool to study genetic variation of closely related species (Grivet *et al.*, 2001; Shaw *et al.*, 2005; Heinze, 2007). It usually possesses two long inverted repeats (IR) which separate a large single copy region (LSC) from a small single copy region (SSC). As cpDNA is maternally inherited, the geographical distribution of cpDNA variants is largely dependent on the species migration.

However, despite these advantages of cpDNA, in order to reconstruct phylogeny and avoid potential bias due to maternal inheritance, there is a need to compare chloroplast DNA sequences to nuclear ribosomal DNA (nrDNA) sequences (Rieseberg and Soltis, 1991; Sang *et al.*, 1997; Xu *et al.*, 2010).

The internal transcribed spacer (ITS) region of 18S-26S nrDNA has proven to be very useful for phylogenetic studies in many angiosperm families. The need for phylogenetic markers from the nuclear genome, to complement the rapidly growing body of cpDNA data, makes the ITS region a particularly valuable resource for plant systematists (Baldwin, 1992; Baldwin *et al.*, 1995; Wen and Zimmer, 1996; Sang *et al.*, 1997; Wen and Shi, 1999; Alvarez and Wendel, 2003; Bohs, 2007), and thus it was employed in this study.

3. Research hypothesis and objectives

I hypothesized that *Mandragora* of different geographic origins have different ploidy level and possess sufficient variation in fruit size and weight for successful domestication. In addition, I hypothesized that the current genus taxonomy is outdated and needs to be revised.

The three specific goals of the research were as follows:

- 1. Characterization of the phenotypic variance of *Mandragora* and different crosses trials as initial step towards *Mandragora* domestication.
- 2. Assessment of ploidy level and its association with distribution range.
- 3. Species delimitation and revision of the current taxonomy of genus *Mandragora*.

4. Materials and Methods

4.1. Plants

Sergei Volis' lab has a collection of *Mandragora* from Israel and abroad. All plants (Israeli and foreign accessions) were grown in the greenhouse, Bergman Campus, Ben-Gurion University of the Negev, Beer Sheva (Figure 8). The accession name, country, province and geographic coordinates of sampling locations are listed in Table 3 and Table 4.



Figure 8: *Mandragora* plants in Bergman Campus, Ben-Gurion University of the Negev, Beer Sheva grown in the greenhouse.

The source of most of the plants were from vegetative origin, one plant from each clone, except for Cyprus that had three plants from the same clone, and the Iranian plant that originated from seed.

Table 3: Accession name, region and geographic coordinates of samples from Israel, *M. officinarum* (according to Ungricht *et al.*, 1998). The last four columns detail the analyses conducted.

Accession name	Region	Geographic coordinates	Cross- breeding	AFLP	cpDNA	ITS
M-j-sh1	Golan	33°16′N 35°46′E	-	V	V	V
M-j-sh2	Golan	ditto	_	V	_	_
Mevo Hama2/07	Golan	32°44′N 35°39′E	V	V	_	_
Mevo Hama4/07	Golan	ditto	V	V	_	<u> </u>
Mevo Hama5/07	Golan	ditto	V	_	_	_
Mevo Hama7/07	Golan	ditto	V	-	_	_
Mevo Hama8/07	Golan	ditto	V	V	_	_
Mevo Hama11/07	Golan	ditto	V	_	_	_
Am1/99	Galilee	32°55′N 35°31′E	V	V	_	_
Am1/01	Galilee	ditto	V	_	_	_
Am3/01	Galilee	ditto	V	V	_	_
Am4/01	Galilee	ditto	V	V	_	_
Avel	Galilee	33°15′N 35°34′E		V	_	_
Karmiel	Galilee	32°54′N 35°17′E	_	V	_	_
Yiftah1/08	Galilee	33°8′N 35°33′E	_	V	_	_
NDX 13/05	Galilee	32°2′N 35°25′E	V	V	_	_
NDX 26/05	Galilee	ditto	v	-	_	_
NDX 27/05	Galilee	ditto	V	V	_	_
NDX 28/05	Galilee	ditto	V	V	_	_
NDX 30/05	Galilee	ditto	V	-	_	_
R-P1/00	Galilee	32°57′N 35°32′E	V	-	_	_
R-P3/00	Galilee	ditto	V	-	_	_
R-P8/00	Galilee	ditto	V	-	_	_
R-P12/00	Galilee	ditto	V	-	_	_
R-P28/00	Galilee	ditto	V	_	_	_
R-P33/00	Galilee	ditto	V	V	_	_
R-P43/00	Galilee	ditto	V	-	_	_
R-P49/00	Galilee	ditto	V	V	_	_
R-P53/00	Galilee	ditto	V	V	_	_
R-P16/99	Galilee	ditto	V	-	_	_
Dalt1/06	Galilee	33°0′N 35°31′E	V	_	_	_
Dalt3/06	Galilee	ditto	V	V	_	_
Dalt4/06	Galilee	ditto	V	-	_	_
Dalt5/06	Galilee	ditto	V	V	_	_
Givat More2/08	Galilee	32°36′N 35°21′E	-	V	-	-
Yaqum2/08	Galilee	32°14′N 34°50′E	-	V	_	_
Lapidim1/06	Gilboa	32°31′N 35°23′E	_	V	_	_
Lapidim2/06	Gilboa	ditto	_	V	_	_
Bark1/06	Gilboa	32°30′N 35°23′E	V	V	_	_
Bark2/06	Gilboa	ditto	-	V	_	_
Gilboa1/05	Gilboa	32°26′N 35°24′E	V	V	_	_
Mazleg3	Judean Mountains	31°44′N 35°4′E	-	V	_	_
Mazleg3/06	Judean Mountains	ditto	V	V	_	_
Mazleg4/06	Judean Mountains	ditto	V	V	_	_
Hadasah4/06	Judean Mountains	31°43′N 35°5′E	V	V	_	_
Hadasah7/06	Judean Mountains	ditto	V	V	_	-
Bar Giora	Judean Mountains	31°43′N 35°4′E	V	V	_	_
BG2000	Shefela	31°35′N 34°53′E	V	V	_	_
Luz1/02	Shefela	31°40′N 34°53′E	V	V	-	-
Ed21/02	Sileteta	21 TO IN 24 22 E	_	*		

Luz5/02	Shefela	ditto	V	-	-	-
Luz6/02	Shefela	ditto	V	-	-	-
Luz7/02	Shefela	ditto	V	-	-	-
Luz8/02	Shefela	ditto	V	-	-	-
Luz9/02	Shefela	ditto	V	-	-	-
Luz10/02	Shefela	ditto	V	-	-	-
Luz11s/02	Shefela	ditto	V	V	-	-
Zaf1/99	Shefela	31°37′N 34°55′E	-	V	-	-
Pura4/04	Northern Negev	31°29′N 34°46′E	V	V	-	-
Pura5/04	Northern Negev	ditto	V	V	-	-
Pura1/06	Northern Negev	ditto	V	V	V	V
Keram1/04	Northern Negev	31°20′N 34°54′E	V	V	-	-
Keram2/04	Northern Negev	ditto	V	V	-	-
Keram4/04	Northern Negev	ditto	V	-	-	-
Keram5/04	Northern Negev	ditto	V	-	-	-
Lah1/02	Northern Negev	31°21′N 34°50′E	V	-	-	-
Lah4/02	Northern Negev	ditto	V	-	-	-
Lah9/02	Northern Negev	ditto	V	-	-	-
Lah13/02	Northern Negev	ditto	V	V	-	-
Lah15/02	Northern Negev	ditto	V	V	-	-
Lah16/02	Northern Negev	ditto	V	V	-	-
Meit1/04	Northern Negev	31°19′N 34°55′E	V	V	-	-
Meit1/05	Northern Negev	ditto	-	V	-	-
Meit1/08	Northern Negev	ditto	V	-	-	-
Meit4/08	Northern Negev	ditto	V	-	-	-
Meit5/08	Northern Negev	ditto	V	-	-	-
Meit6/08	Northern Negev	ditto	V	-	-	-
Yatir1/04	Northern Negev	31°20′N 34°58′E	V	V	-	-
Yatir2/04	Northern Negev	ditto	V	-	-	-
Yatir3/04	Northern Negev	ditto	V	-	-	-
Yatir4/04	Northern Negev	ditto	V	-	-	-
Yatir 5/04	Northern Negev	ditto	V	-	-	-
Yatir 6/04	Northern Negev	ditto	V	-	-	-
Yatir 7/04	Northern Negev	ditto	V	-	-	-
Yatir9/04	Northern Negev	ditto	V	V	-	-
Yatir10/04	Northern Negev	ditto	V	-	-	-
Yatir 12/04	Northern Negev	ditto	V	-	-	-
Yatir2/05	Northern Negev	ditto	V	-	-	-
Yatir3/05	Northern Negev	ditto	V	-	-	-
Tane1/04	Northern Negev	31°21′N 34°57′E	V	V	-	-
Livne2/8	Northern Negev	31°21′N 35°4′E	V	V	-	-
Livne9/08	Northern Negev	ditto	V	V	-	-

Table 4: Current taxonomy according to Kuang and Lu (1978) and Ungricht *et al.* (1998), accession name, country and remarks (source of material, collection place, province or geographic coordinates) of samples of non-Israeli origin. The last four columns detail the analyses conducted.

Current taxonomy	Accession name	Country	Remarks	Cross- breeding	AFLP	cpDNA	ITS
M. turcomanica	Mt7-1	Turkmenistan		V	V	-	-
M. turcomanica	Mt10-2	Turkmenistan		V	V	V	V
M. turcomanica	Mt11-2	Turkmenistan		V	V	-	-
M. turcomanica	Mt12	Turkmenistan			V	-	-
M. turcomanica	Mt13-1	Turkmenistan			V	-	-
M. turcomanica	Mt14	Turkmenistan			V	-	-
M. turcomanica	Mt18-4	Turkmenistan			V	-	-
M. turcomanica	Mt20	Turkmenistan		V	V	-	-
M. turcomanica	Tur99	Turkmenistan		V	V	V	V
M. turcomanica	Iran	Iran		V	V	V	V
M. officinarum	Turkey1	Turkey	within 10 km from Antalia	V	V	V	V
M. officinarum	Turkey2	Turkey	Ditto	-	-	V	V
M. officinarum	Cyprus1	Cyprus		V	V	V	V
M. officinarum	Cyprus2	Cyprus		V	-	-	-
M. officinarum	Paros	Greece		-	V	V	V
M. officinarum	Crete	Greece		-	V	V	-
M. officinarum	Italy2008	Italy		-	V	V	V
M. officinarum	Sevillia1/08	Spain	Alcala de Guadaira 37°20'N 5°52'W	V	V	V	V
M. officinarum	Sevillia2/08	Spain	ditto	V	V	-	-
M. officinarum	Sevil1a2	Spain	ditto	-	V	-	-
M. officinarum	Sevil1a3	Spain	ditto	-	V	-	-
M. officinarum	Sevil1a4	Spain	ditto	-	V	-	-
M. officinarum	Sevil1a5	Spain	ditto	-	V	-	-
M. officinarum	Sevil1a6	Spain	ditto	-	V	-	-
M. officinarum	Morocco	Morocco		V	V	-	-
M. officinarum	Meknes	Morocco	between Boufakrane and Mrirt 33°39N 5°26′W	-	V	-	-
M. officinarum	Meknes65-1	Morocco	ditto	-	V	-	-
M. officinarum	Meknes65-3	Morocco	ditto	-	V	-	-
M. officinarum	Meknes65-4	Morocco	ditto	-	V	-	-
M. officinarum	Meknes66-1p1	Morocco	ditto	-	V	-	-
M. officinarum	Meknes66-2p2	Morocco	ditto	-	V	-	-
M. officinarum	Meknes66-3p1	Morocco	ditto	-	V	-	-
M. officinarum	Meknes1/08	Morocco	ditto	V	V	V	V
M. officinarum	Meknes2/08	Morocco	ditto	V	V	-	-
M. chinghaiensis	Tu153	Tibet	Qinghai province 34°22'N 100°27'E	-	-	V	-
M. chinghaiensis	Mc31534	Tibet	Xizang province 31°18'N 97°57'E	-	-	V	V
M. chinghaiensis	Tu521-1	Tibet	Qinghai province 34°27 'N 100°12' E	-	V	V	V

M. chinghaiensis	Tu521-2	Tibet	Qinghai province 34°27 'N 100°12' E		V	-	-
M. caulescens	YueMC1	Tibet	Yunnan province	-	V	-	-
M. caulescens	YueMC5	Tibet	Yunnan province	-	V	-	-
M. caulescens	Yue13	Tibet	Yunnan province	-	-	V	V
M. caulescens	MS6	Tibet	Xizang province	-	V	-	-
M. caulescens	Ms9	Tibet	Xizang province	-	-	V	V
M. caulescens	Ms10	Tibet	Xizang province	-	-	V	V
M. caulescens	MS11	Tibet	Xizang province	-	V	-	-
M. caulescens	MS13	Tibet	Xizang province	-	V	-	-
M. caulescens	MG202-1	Tibet	Yunnan province	-	-	V	V
M. caulescens	MG202-2	Tibet	Yunnan province	-	V	-	-
M. caulescens	MG202-3	Tibet	Yunnan province	-	V	-	-
M. caulescens	MG202-4	Tibet	Yunnan province	-	V	-	-
M. caulescens	MG47-1	Tibet	Yunnan province	-	V	-	-
M. caulescens	MG47-2	Tibet	Yunnan province	-	V	-	-
M. caulescens	MZ 7	Tibet	Yunnan province	-	V	-	-
M. caulescens	MZ8	Tibet	Yunnan province	-	-	V	V
M. caulescens	MZ11	Tibet	Yunnan province	-	V	-	-
M. caulescens	MZ14	Tibet	Yunnan province	-	V	-	-
M. caulescens	MJ5	Tibet	Sichuan province	-	-	V	V
M. caulescens	MJ15	Tibet	Sichuan province	-	V	-	-
M. caulescens	MD7	Tibet	Yunnan province	-	-	V	V
M. caulescens	MD15	Tibet	Yunnan province	-	V	-	-
M. caulescens	MD16	Tibet	Yunnan province	-	V	-	-
M. caulescens	ZhoaMC2	Tibet	Yunnan province	-	V	-	-
M. caulescens	ZhoaMC5	Tibet	Yunnan province	-	V	-	-

4.2. Methods

4.2.1. Self and cross-pollination experiment

Controlled pollinations were performed between accessions from different regions, the same region, the same population or by selfing to test for presence of reproductive isolation and self-incompatibility. Besides, a variety of crosses were needed to create a genetically diverse background, which will serve as the basis for selection in the future.

4.2.2. Morphological measurements

All reproducing plants were measured for flower, fruit and seed morphology. Fruit measurements included diameter, length and weight. Flowers were measured for corolla lobe width and length, sepal width and length, style and stigma length, filament and anther length and length of the flower stalk. Fruit weight was measured on a digital scale. Measurements of seed size and surface structure were conducted by SEM (Scanning Electron Microscope, JSM 5610 LV) and under a binocular.

4.2.3. Florescence-activated cell sorting (FACS)

Florescence-activated cell sorting (FACS) was used for estimation of DNA content per nucleus on the basis of relative fluorescence intensity. The method involves preparation of aqueous suspensions of intact nuclei whose DNA is stained using a DNA fluorochrome, propidium iodide (PI) (Dolezel and Bartos, 2005). The method allows measuring relative ploidy level by comparison of the DNA content of a studied plant individual using a reference standard plant, whose genome size is known. An ideal DNA reference standard should have a genome size close to the target species. Garden pea (*Pisum sativum*) appears to be the most suitable candidate. The current estimate of its 2C-value is 9.09 pg DNA (Dolezel *et al.*, 1992), which is in the middle of the known range of genome sizes in plants. The pea plants are easy to grow and multiply and a high quality nuclei suspension is easily prepared from their leaves. Therefore, I used *Pisum sativum* cv. Citrad as a standard (Dolezel *et al.*, 1998; Dolezel and Bartos, 2005) and also Tobacco (*Nicotiana tabacum* Samsson, 10.4pg DNA).

Every plant was tested at least twice in the Flow Cytometer (BD Biosciences, Franklin Lakes, NJ). Preparation of suspensions of intact nuclei for estimation of absolute DNA amounts was according to the method of Galbraith *et al.* (1983) with several modifications. In this procedure, the nuclei are released into a nuclei isolation buffer by mechanical homogenization of a small amount (about 100 mg) of fresh plant tissue. The composition of the isolation buffer is critical to facilitate the release of nuclei free of cytoplasm and in sufficient quantities, maintain the integrity of isolated nuclei, protect their DNA against endonucleases, and facilitate DNA staining (Dolezel *et al.*, 1998).

The nuclei isolation buffer that was used contained 0.2M Sucrose, 10mM MES, 2.5mM EDTA, 10mM NaCl, 10mM KCl, 0.15% Triton X-100, 0.1mM Spermine and 2.5mM DTT (all materials from Sigma-Aldrich, Rehovot Israel). The tubes with the buffer and the homogenized leaves were placed in ice and shaken for 30 to 50 minutes. Afterwards, samples were filtered through a nylon mesh of 150 microns and then centrifuged for 10 minutes at 550 g, at 4°C. The upper supernatant was carefully decanted and the pellet was dissolved in 0.5 ml buffer and kept in ice till the next day. Before inserting the sample to the FACS machine, another filtration through a nylon mesh of 50 microns was performed and 10 μl of PI (2 mg/ml, Sigma-Aldrich) were

added. Each sample was tested twice, once alone and the second time with the standard inside. The results were obtained using a Becton Dickinson FACSVantage SE machine equipped with an air-cooled argon-ion laser tuned to 180mw and operating at 488 nm with a 585/42-nm band-pass filter (BD Biosciences, Franklin Lakes, NJ). The results were processed using BD CellQuestTM pro V. 5.1.1. software.

The sample 2C DNA content was calculated by sample G1 peak mean divided by standard G1 peak mean multiplied by standard 2C DNA content (pg DNA) (Dolezel and Bartos, 2005).

4.2.4. DNA extraction

DNA was extracted from leaf tissue using either the DNeasy Plant Mini Kit (Qiagen, Valencia, CA) or the CTAB method (Doyle and Doyle, 1987). For the CTAB method, 150 mg of fresh or frozen leaf was homogenized with liquid nitrogen, then 500 μ l of 2xCTAB buffers + β mercaptoethanol (1:1:0.2) was added and samples were incubated at 60°C for 45 to 90 minutes. 500 µl 5M potassium acetate (KAcO, 5M, pH 4.8) was added, samples were mixed gently for 10 min and put in ice for 20 minutes. Afterwards the tubes were centrifuged for 20 minutes at 18,000 g. The supernatant was transferred to a new eppendorf tube and 1.5 volume of phenol: chloroform: isoamyl alcohol (25:24:1) was added, samples were mixed gently for 5 min and centrifuged again for 5 minutes at 18,000 g. The aqueous phase was transferred to a fresh tube with cold (-20°C) isopropanol, Mixed gently to precipitate DNA, incubated at -20°C for 1 hour and then centrifuged again at 18,000 g for 10 minutes. The supernatant was decanted and the pellet (DNA) was washed twice with 400 μl ice cold ethanol (70% and 96%) and centrifuged at 18,000 g for 2 minutes. The pellet was dried, dissolved in 100µl water and then incubated for 0.5-1 hour at 37°C and stored at -20°C. The quality and quantity of genomic DNA was accurately measured by NanoDrop spectrophotometer-1000 (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Wilmington, DE).

4.2.5. Fluorescent Amplified Fragment Length Polymorphism (AFLP)

fAFLP (Fluorescent Amplified Fragment Length Polymorphism) is a mapping technique used to visualize polymorphisms in genomic DNA. The AFLP system combines the restriction fragment length polymorphism (RFLP) technique and the

polymerase chain reaction (PCR) to generate a large number of amplified restriction fragments from genomic DNA. When separated by electrophoresis, the samples yield unique band or peak patterns that, when visualized by fluorescence-based fragment analysis, can be used for polymorphism detection. In this research, AFLP for 106 samples was used for analyzing genetic differences between collected accessions for taxonomic inferences.

The original protocol of (Vos *et al.*, 1995) was followed with some modifications. After each step, the PCR product was checked on 2% agarose gel. The adaptors and primers that were used are listed in Table 5.

- 1. **Restriction/Ligation reaction** (R/L) For each sample reaction: 1.0μl 10 ^X T4 DNA Ligase buffer, 1.0μl 0.5M NaCl, 1.0μl 10 mg/ml BSA, 1.0μl *Mse*I adaptor pair, 1.0μl *EcoR*I adaptor pair, 0.12μl *Mse*I (10,000 u/ml) , 0.5μl *EcoR*I (20,000 u/ml), 0.3μl T4 DNA Ligase (400,000 u/ml) (all from New England Biolabs, Ipswich, MA), 1.08μl DDW and 3μl genomic DNA (concentration of DNA- till 300 ng/μl), at a total volume of 10μl. Samples were mixed well, microcentrifuged for several seconds, and incubated at 37°C for 2.5h.
- 2. **Preselective amplification** –Each sample reaction contained: 2.0μl 10 ^x TAQ DNA polymerase buffer, 2.0μl 20 mM MgSO₄, 1.6μl 2.5mM dNTPs, 0.2μl TAQ DNA polymerase (5 U/μl), 8.2μl DDW, 1.0μl MseI 50 pmol/μl Preselective primer, 1.0μl EcoRI 10 pmol/μl Preselective primer and 4.0μl of diluted (10 fold) R/L product. Samples were mixed well and microcentrifuged for a few seconds. The PCR conditions were as follows: 20 cycles of 30 s denaturation at 94°C, 1 min annealing at 56°C and 1 min extension at 72°C.
- 3. **Selective amplification** Each reaction sample (*2 colors) contained: 2.0μl 10 ^x TAQ DNA polymerase buffer, 2.0μl 20 mM MgSO₄, 1.6μl 2.5mM DNTP's, 0.2μl TAQ DNA polymerase (5 u/μl), 1.0μl MseI selective primer (5 mM) (1 out of 8 primers), 1.0μl EcoRI (1 mM) (1 out of 2 fluorescently labeled selective primers FAM / VIC), 9.2μl DDW and 3.0μl of diluted (10 fold) preselective amplification reaction product. Samples were mixed well and microcentrifuged for a few seconds. The PCR conditions were as follows: One cycle at 94°C for 2 min, 65°C for 30 s and 72°C for 2 min. One cycle at 94°C for 30 s; 64°C (annealing) for 30 s, and 72°C for 2 min. Then, the annealing temperature was lowered each cycle by

- 1°C during 9 cycles (touch down), followed by 27 cycles at 94°C for 30 s, 56°C for 30 s and 72°C for 2 min.
- 4. ROX To prepare samples for running gene scan on 3130xl GENETIC ANALYSER, for each sample reaction 0.3μl GS-500 ROX-labeled size standard, 7.5 μl formamide and 2.2μl (2*1.1 for each colour) selective PCR product (Ma et al., 2004) were mixed.

After tracking using the GeneScan analysis software (PE Applied Biosystems, Foster City, California), fAFLP lanes were saved as individual sample files. For each extracted sample lane, fragment sizing was performed by generating a sizing curve based on the predefined electrophoretic fragment distribution of the internal size standard GS-500 and scored 0 or 1. For numerical analysis, data intervals were delineated between the 50- and 500-bp bands of the internal size standard (Huys and Swings, 1999).

Table 5: List of the adaptors and primers used for fAFLP.

Primer name	Sequence		
EcoRI adapters	CTC GTA GAC TGC GTA CC		
	AAT TGG TAC GCA GTC TAC		
MseI adapters	GAC GAT GAG TCC TGA G		
	TAC TCA GGA CTC AT		
EcoRI	GAC TGC GTA CCA ATT C NNN		
EcoRI pre selective primer	NNN=A		
EcoRI selective primers	NNN=		
(florescent labeled)	E_ACT (FAM), E_AGC (VIC).		
MseI	GAT GAG TCC TGA GTA A NNN		
MseI pre selective primer	NNN=C		
MseI selective primers	NNN=		
	(SAP2)M_CTT, (SAP3)M_CAG, (SAP7)M_CAA, (SAP8)M_CAC		

4.2.6. AFLP data analysis

AFLP analysis was performed using two programs: *STRUCTURE* and *BAPS*. Every vertical colored bar corresponds to an individual and different colors are different clusters. *K* is the number of clusters. For each value of *K*, there is an estimation for each individual of the most likely cluster assignment. The admixture image shows for each individual the proportion of genome estimated to have ancestry in a particular cluster. The proportions are shown as colored segments of a vertical bar where the color determines the origin of a segment and the proportion of a particular color in the vertical bar corresponds to the proportion of the genome estimated to be represented by that source.

The *STRUCTURE* software implements a model-based clustering method for inferring population structure using genotype data consisting of unlinked markers. Individuals in the sample are assigned to *K* populations (where *K* may be unknown) and distinct genetic populations are identified (Evanno et al., 2005). The basic algorithm of *STRUCTURE* was described by Pritchard et al. (2000) and extensions to the method were published by Falush et al. (2003), Falush et al. (2007) and by Hubisz et al. (2009). The Admixture Model was used with 106 individuals and 646 loci. The length of Burnin Period (how long to run the simulation before collecting data to minimize the effect of the starting configuration) was 100000 and the number of Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) Reps after Burnin (how long to run the simulation after burnin to get accurate parameter estimates) was 500000. The range of tested *K* values ranged from 2 to the number of regions (10).

BAPS 5 (Bayesian Analysis of Population Structure) is a program for Bayesian inference of the genetic structure in a population (Corander and Marttinen, 2006). BAPS 5 treats both the allele frequencies of the molecular markers and the number of genetically diverged groups in population as random variables. Admixture analysis was done based on mixture clustering of individuals with maximum number of *K* between 2 to 10, with 100 iterations for each *K*.

The data were also analyzed via Principal Coordinates Analysis (PCA) performed with *GenAlEx* 6.3 software (Peakall and Smouse, 2006) and cluster analysis via *Primer6* software (Clarke, 1993). Hierarchical agglomerative clustering used simple matching similarity index and Single linkage (nearest-neighbor) clustering algorithm. The similarity profile (SIMPROF) test was used on each node to assess the statistical

significance of the dendrogram. SIMPROF calculates a mean profile by randomizing each variable's values and re-calculating the profile. The pi statistic is calculated as the deviation of the actual resemblance profile of the resemblance matrix with the mean profile. This is compared with the deviation of further randomly-generated profiles to test for significance. In the dendrogram, significant branches ($p \le 0.05$) were drawn in black and insignificant branches were drawn in red.

4.2.7. Chloroplast DNA fragment sequencing

Chloroplast DNA (cpDNA) sequences are routinely used in plant molecular systematic, phylogeographic and population genetic studies. Eight plastid markers were used for phylogenetic inferences, the atpB gene (encoding CF1 ATPase betasubunit gene), the ndhF gene (encoding a subunit of the chloroplast NADH dehydrogenase), the rps16-trnK intergenic spacer, the rbcL gene (encoding the large subunit of the photosynthesis enzyme rubisco), the trnC-psbM region, the (trnF-trnV) region, the trnL-trnF intergenic spacer and the trnH-psbA intergenic spacer. The sequences of chloroplast genes or spacers showing nucleotide sequence polymorphism, have been widely used for inferring phylogeny and phylogeography in plants (Gielly and Taberlet, 1994; Bohs and Olmstead, 1997; Chiang et al., 1998; Grivet et al., 2001; Shaw and Small, 2004; Shaw et al., 2005; Petit and Vendramin, 2007; Shaw et al., 2007; Melotto-Passarin et al., 2008; Tu et al., 2008). Usually the phylogenetic information provided by one chloroplast genetic marker does not have enough power to separate close taxa, especially at low taxonomic levels. For this reason, in order to improve the resolution of phylogenetic analysis, we need to increase the number of markers (Melotto-Passarin et al., 2008).

The analysis included 22 samples covering the whole known genus range, including Mediterranean, Central Asian and Sino-Himalayan locations. All new sequences obtained in this study were submitted to GenBank (Table 8).

Primers for ndhF, trnH-psbA, rps16-trnK, trnC-psbM, atpB, trnL-trnF and trnF-trnV (FV) followed Dumolin-Lapegue *et al.* (1997), Shaw and Small (2005) and Shaw *et al.* (2007). Internal primers were designed using the software Primer3 version 0.4.0 (http://frodo.wi.mit.edu/primer3/input.htm). The primer sequences are given in Table 6.

Table 6: List of the primers, their length and sequence that were used for cpDNA and ITS sequencing.

Region name	Primer name	Primer sequence
(length in bp)		
FV	trnF	CTC GTG TCA CCA GTT CAA AT
(3358)	FV_966R	GAG AAT AGA GGA TGG TGT GGA T
	FV_870F	CCA AAC CCA GAA AAC AGA CG
	FV_1902R	CCA ACA GCC CAA AAT TCA GT
	FV_1549F	GTG GGC AAC CTG GCA AAT A
	FV_2470R	CTA AAT AGT TAT GGA TGA CTT GAC
	FV_2100F	AAT TAC GGA TAC ACC CAA TAC G
	FV_3245R	CAA ACC AAC CTT TCG TCA TT
	FV_2915F	GTG TTG TGC TTC GCT AGG TC
	trnV	CCG AGA AGG TCT ACG GTT CG
trnC-psbM	trnC	CCA GTT CAA ATC CGG GTG TC
(1850)	TRNC_1011R	GTA AGA GGC CGT TGA TTG GA
	TRNC_938F	AGG AAG AGG ATC CCA GGA AA
	2039R	TTT TCT ACT TAT CAT TTA CG
rbcL-accD	26F	GTG CAC CAC AAA CAG AGA CTA AAG C
(1392)	RBCL_892R	TTG CTA ATA CCC GGA AGT GG
	RBCL_626F	AAG CAC AGG CTG AAA CAG GT
	60123R	TGA GTT CTT TCT CCT TTA TCC TTC
rpS16-trnK	rps16x2F2	AAA GTG GGT TTT TAT GAT CC
(668)	trnKx1	TTA AAA GCC GAG TAC TCT ACC
atpB	56292F	TCA GTA CAC TAA GAT TTA AGG TCA T
(1091)	57472R	TGC TCG GAG AAC CTG TTG ATA A
psbA	trnH(GUG)	CGC GCA TGG TGG ATT CAC AAT CC
(503)	psbA	GTT ATG CAT GAA CGT AAT GCT C
trnL-trnF	trnL5(UAA)F	CGA AAT CGG TAG ACG CTA CG
(950)	trnF(GAA)	ATT TGA ACT GGT GAC ACG AG

ndhF	NDHF_1F	CCT ATG TTA ATAGGAGCGGGACT
(1999)	NDHF_970R	CGC TTC GAT AAG ACC CCA TA
	NDHF_780F	TCG GCT TCT TCC TCT TTT CA
	NDHF_2110R	CCC CCT ACT ATA TTT GAT ACC TTC TCC
ITS	ITS4	TCC TCC GCT TAT TGA TAT GC
(692)	ITS5	GGA AGT AAA AGT CGT AAC AAG G

PCR was performed using either Eppendorf or MJ Research thermal cyclers in 50 μl volumes. For each sample reaction: 5.0μl 10 x TAQ DNA polymerase buffer, 5.0μl 20 mM MgSO4 (except for trnC-psbM- 40mM), 4μl 2.5mM dNTP's, 2.5μl primer 1 (forward) 10mM, 2.5μl primer 2 (reverse) 10mM, 0.5μl TAQ DNA polymerase (5 u/μl), 28μl sterilized distilled water and 2.5μl DNA (~50 ng/μl) were mixed (Tu *et al.*, 2008).

For the regions rps16-trnK, atpB, rbcL-accD, ndhF and trnC-psbM the PCR conditions followed Shaw *et al.*, 2007 and Dillon *et al.*, 2009: template DNA denaturation at 95°c for 3 min, 35 cycles of denaturation at 94°c for 30 sec, primer annealing at 50°c for 1 min and primer extension at 72°c for 2 min, followed by a final extension step of 72°c for 10 min.

For psbA region the reaction conditions followed Shaw *et al.*, 2005: template DNA denaturation at 80° c for 5 min, 30 cycles of denaturation at 94° c for 30 sec, primer annealing at 50° c for 30 sec and primer extension at 72° c for 1 min, followed by a final extension step of 72° c for 5 min.

For trnL-trnF region the reaction conditions followed Shaw and Small, 2004: template DNA denaturation at 80° c for 5 min, 35 cycles of denaturation at 94° c for 1 min, primer annealing at 50° c for 1 min and primer extension at 72° c for 2 min, followed by a final extension step of 72° c for 5 min.

For FV region the reaction conditions followed Demesure *et al.*, 1995 and Dumolin-Lapegue *et al.*, 1997: template DNA denaturation at 94°c for 4 min, 30 cycles of denaturation at 94°c for 45 sec, primer annealing at 57.5°c for 45 sec and primer extension at 72°c for 4 min, followed by a final extension step of 72°c for 10 min.

PCR products were visualized on 1% agarose gel with 100bp ladder before being purified with either the MSB® Spin PCRapace Kit (Invitek) or illustraTM ExoStar kit

(USB). The cycle sequencing reactions were conducted in 10 μl volumes which contained 0.25 μl BigDye (Rhenium) 3.1, 0.5 μl primers, 2.0 μl purified PCR products (60-70 ng) and 1.75 μl sequencing buffer (Rhenium). The reaction conditions were 95°c for 2 min, 30 cycles of 96 °c for 30 sec, 50°c for 15 sec and 60 °c for 4 min, ending with 4°c. The sequencing reactions were run on an ABI 3730 automated sequencer (Applied Biosystems, Ben-Gurion University of the Negev Beer Sheva Israel).

4.2.8. Internal Transcribed Spacer (ITS) sequencing

The ITS primer sequences are given in Table 6.

6 and the materials for the PCR reaction are as described above for cpDNA sequencing. For ITS region the reaction conditions followed White *et al.* (1990): template DNA denaturation at 94°c for 4 min, 33 cycles of denaturation at 94°c for 1 min, primer annealing at 57°c for 1 min and primer extension at 72°c for 1 min, followed by a final extension step of 72°c for 10 min.

4.2.9. Phylogenetic analysis based on cpDNA and ITS sequences

Sequencher 4.10.1 (Gene Codes Corporation, 2005) was used to evaluate chromatograms for base confirmation and to edit contiguous sequences. Sequences were aligned with ClustalX. Phylogenetic and molecular evolutionary analyses were conducted using MEGA version 5 (Tamura *et al.*, 2011). The phylogeny reconstruction based on the combined sequence matrix was performed using Maximum likelihood (ML), Neighbor Joining (NJ) and Maximum Parsimony (MP). The bootstrap percentages (Felsenstein, 1985) for confidences of the internal nodes were obtained with 1000 replicates. The analysis involved 22 nucleotide sequences representing the whole known genus range, including Mediterranean, Central Asian and Sino-Himalayan locations. All positions containing gaps and missing data were eliminated. The bootstrap values lower than 50% are not shown.

Maximum-likelihood (ML) is a method of estimating the parameters of a statistical model for the inference of phylogeny. It evaluates a hypothesis about evolutionary history in terms of the probability that the proposed model would give rise to the observed data set. The method searches for the tree with the highest probability or likelihood. In MEGA, the test for best model of maximum likelihood was: Tamura 3 parameter model (T92) for the atpB, FV, psbA, trnC-psbM, trnL-trnF

and ITS regions; Hasegawa-Kishino-Yano model (HKY) for ndhF region; Jukes-Cantor model (JC) for rbcL-accD region; and Hasegawa-Kishino-Yano model (HKY) for rpS16-trnK region. The trees were condensed with 50% cut-off value. The percentage of trees in which the associated taxa clustered together is shown next to the branches.

Neighbor joining (NJ) is a clustering method for creation of phenetic trees (those that classify organisms based on overall similarity, regardless of their phylogeny or evolutionary relation). The algorithm requires knowledge of the distance between each pair of sequences to form the tree. The evolutionary distances were computed using the p-distance method and are in units of the number of base differences per site.

Maximum Parsimony (MP) is a non-parametric statistical method for estimating phylogenies. Under parsimony, the preferred phylogenetic tree is the tree that requires the least evolutionary change to explain the observed data. The MP tree has the most favorable score and therefore is taken as the best estimate of the phylogenetic relationships of the tested taxa. The percentage of replicate trees in which the associated taxa clustered together in the bootstrap test (1000 replicates) is shown next to the branches.

5. Results

5.1. Self pollination and cross-breeding

Mandragora plants from the living collection maintained at the Bergman Campus were self-pollinated (Figure 9) or cross-pollinated with pollen of other *Mandragora* plants of different country origin or with pollen of *Mandragora* plants from different regions within the country (Table 7). As can be seen in Figure 9, the following percentages of self pollinations were successful: 49% of plants from Israel, 25% of plants from Turkmenistan, 50% of plants from Iran, 41% of plants from Morocco, 75% of plants from Spain, 29% of plants from Cyprus and 38% of self-pollinations of plants from Turkey.

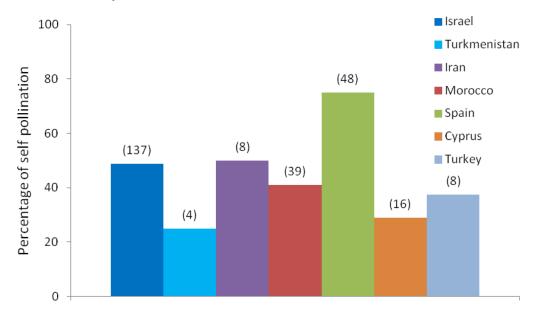


Figure 9: Percentage of successful self-pollination in *Mandragora* plants of different country origin. Number of pollinations is in parentheses.

Crosses between plants from Morocco to plants from Spain and vice versa resulted in the highest percentages of cross-pollination: 97% and 63%, respectively. Crosses between plants from different regions within Israel, from different regions within Morocco or from different regions within Spain succeeded in 27%, 79% and 80% of cases, respectively. We did not have different regions within plants of other country origin so crosses of different regions within them were not performed. There was only a short overlap in flowering time between plants from Israel and from Spain (Figure 12) so only few crosses between them were performed, and none succeeded.

There was no overlap in flowering time at all between plants from Morocco and Spain to plants from Turkmenistan and Iran so crosses between them were not performed (Figure 12). *Mandragora* plant from Iran flowered for the first time in January 2011, so only few crosses were performed with it.

Table 7: Percentage of successful cross-pollination in *Mandragora* plants of different country origin or from different regions within the country. The number of pollinations is in parentheses. An asterisk denotes crosses that were not performed.

\$ 9	Israel	Turkmenistan	Iran	Morocco	Spain	Cyprus	Turkey
Israel	27%	18%	*	33%	0%	0%	4%
	(476)	(22)	·	(18)	(4)	(46)	(26)
Turkmenistan	43%	*	40%	*	*	0%	0%
	(7)	·	(5)			(1)	(3)
Iron	*	*	*	*	*	33	*
Iran		·	·			(3)	
Morogoo	67%	*	*	79%	97%	*	*
Morocco	(12)		•	(28)	(29)	·	·
Spain	0%	*	*	63%	80%	*	*
	(1)			(16)	(15)		·
Cyprus	19%	100%	*	*	*	*	33%
	(36)	(1)					(3)
Turkey	67%	0%	*	*	*	67%	*
	(3)	(2)				(3)	

5.2. Morphology and phenology

5.2.1. Flower

Nine parameters of flower morphology were measured (Figure 10): corolla lobe width and length, sepal width and length, style and stigma length, filament and anther length and flower stalk length (Figure 11). The flower stalk length was very variable within and among plants of different origin. Flowers from Cyprus and Turkey were similar in all traits and smaller than flowers from other countries. Flowers from Morocco and Spain were similar in all traits except for style length. The corolla lobe (width and length) of flowers from Morocco and Spain was the largest, and from Cyprus and Turkey was the smallest. For corolla lobe width, flowers from Israel, Turkmenistan and Iran were similar and differed significantly from flowers of other origin – larger than flowers from Cyprus and Turkey and smaller than flowers from Morocco and Spain. Other flower parameters did not differ among different country origin.

5.2.2. Flowering time

For each flowering plant, the onset of flowering was recorded during the years 2007-2012 and distribution of flowering events per country origin is presented in Figure 12. The plants from Morocco and Spain usually flowered around October, while all other *Mandragora* plants – Israel, Turkmenistan, Iran, Cyprus and Turkey – flowered later, from December to February.



Figure 10: *Mandragora* flowers of different country origin: A- Morocco, B- Spain, C- Turkey, D- Cyprus, E- Israel, F- Iran and G- Turkmenistan.

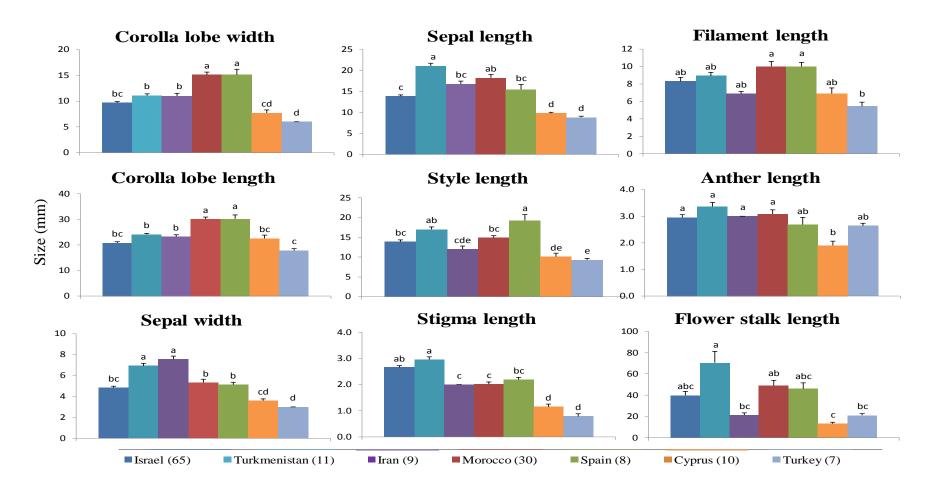


Figure 11: Different parameters of Mandragora flower morphology in mm $\pm SE$. Letters denote the results of Tukey-Kramer test. The number of flowers measured is in parentheses.

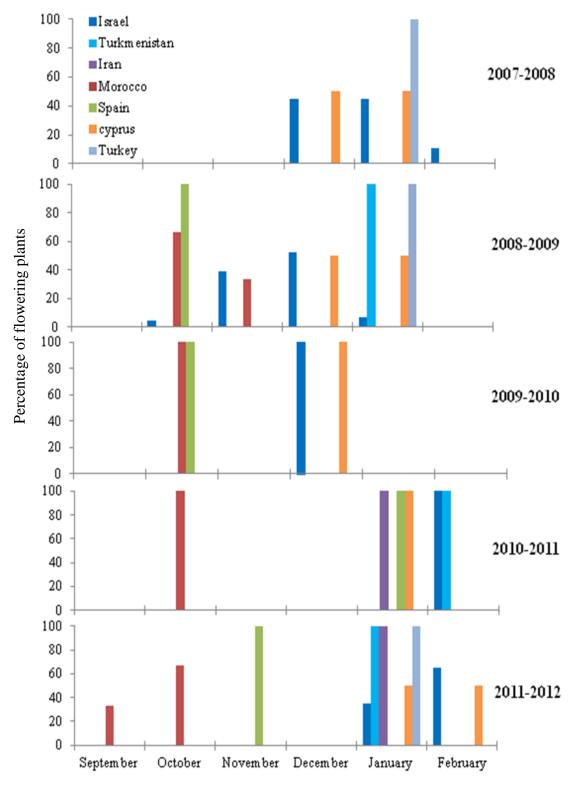


Figure 12: Flowering time frequency distribution for plants of different origin during five years of observation.

5.2.3. Fruit

Fruits of plants from Israel, Turkmenistan and Iran were much larger and heavier than those from Morocco, Spain, Cyprus and Turkey (Figure 13 and Figure 14, ±SE). Fruits of *Mandragora* plants from Israel, Turkmenistan and Iran were in average 27.5±0.5, 29±0 and 26.4±2.4 mm long and weighed 11.7±0.4, 12.6±0 and 7.8±2.5 gram, respectively, while fruits of plants from Morocco, Spain, Cyprus and Turkey were in average 19.8±0.6, 15.9±0.6, 16.2±1.8 and 11.2±0.2 mm long and weighed 2.5±0.2, 2.1±0.2, 1.7±0.4 and 0.7±0 gram, respectively.

The range of minimum to maximum values of fruits of plants from Israel, Turkmenistan and Iran were 6 to 46, 29 to 29 and 23 to 33.5 mm long and 1 to 39, 12.6 to 12.6 and 3.5 to 15.1 gram weight, respectively. On the other hand, the range of minimum to maximum values of fruits of plants from Morocco, Spain, Cyprus and Turkey were 11 to 31, 8 to 25, 11 to 20 and 11 to 11.5 mm long and 0.2 to 5, 0.1 to 6, 0.6 to 2.6 and 0.65 to 0.8 gram weight, respectively.

Furthermore, fruits of plants from Israel, Turkmenistan and Iran were rather globular while those from Morocco, Spain, Cyprus and Turkey were ellipsoid (the length of the fruit was larger than its width) (Figure 15 and Figure 16). One fruit of Turkmenistan origin (Figure 16 D) was very large (55 mm in diameter), but it was collected from a plant grown in field in Sde Boqer and therefore cannot be compared directly to the other fruits.

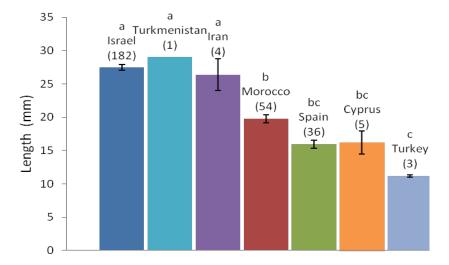


Figure 13: Fruit size (length in mm \pm SE) of *Mandragora* plants of different country origin. Letters denote the results of Tukey-Kramer test. The number of fruits measured is in parentheses.

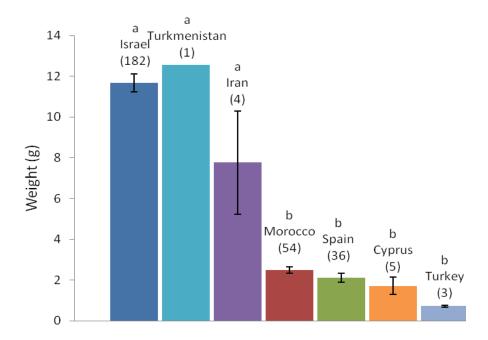


Figure 14: Fruit weight (in grams $\pm SE$) of *Mandragora* plants of different country origin. Letters denote the results of Tukey-Kramer test. The number of fruits weighed is in parentheses.

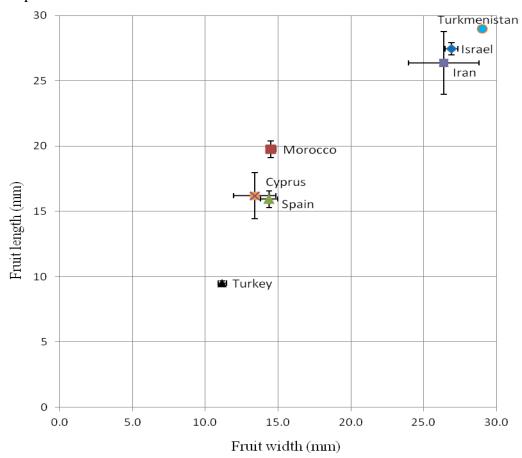


Figure 15: Fruit shape (fruit width versus length in mm \pm SE) of *Mandragora* plants of different country origin.



Figure 16: Fruits of *Mandragora* plants of different country origin: A- Morocco, B-Spain, C-Israel and D-Turkmenistan.

5.2.4. Seeds

Seeds of *Mandragora* of different country origin were examined under the binocular (Figure 17 and Figure 18). The seeds from Turkmenistan, Israel and Iran are 5-6 mm long and distinctly larger than seeds from Morocco, Spain, Greece, Cyprus and Turkey that are 3-3.5 mm long, and much larger than seeds from Tibet (2 mm long) (Figure 17 and Figure 18). Additionally, three seeds of plants from Israel, Cyprus and Tibet were examined by SEM (Figure 19). The seed of Tibetan origin differed in its external surface morphology from the seeds of plants from Israel and Cyprus.

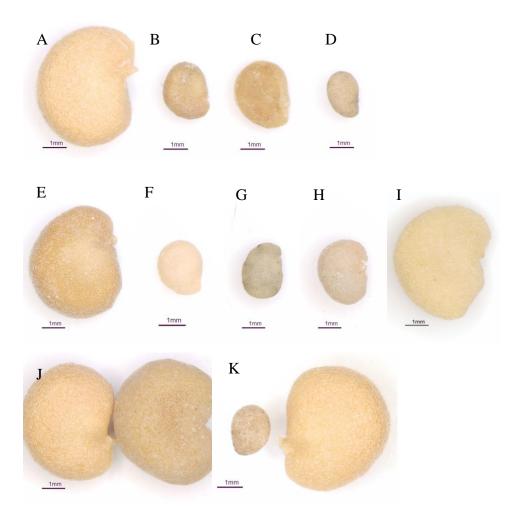


Figure 17: *Mandragora* seeds of different country origin examined under the binocular: A- Turkmenistan, B- Greece, C- Turkey, D-Tibet, E- Israel, F- Cyprus, G-Morocco, H- Spain, I- Iran, J- Israel and Turkmenistan, K- Tibet and Israel.

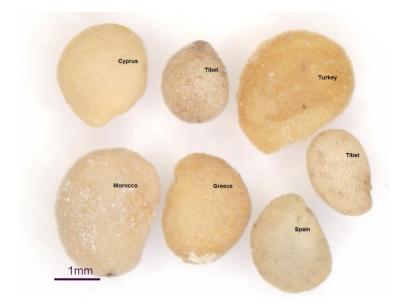


Figure 18: Mandragora seeds of different country origin.

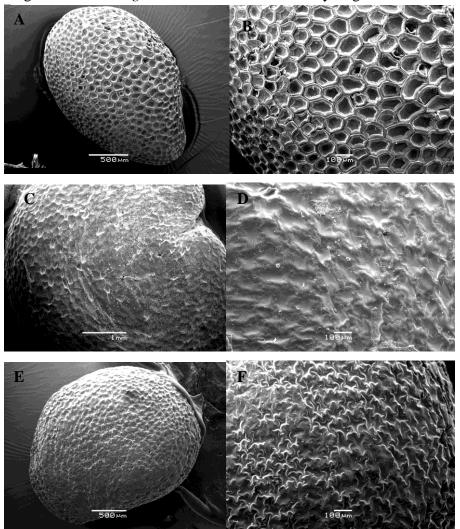


Figure 19: *Mandragora* seeds of different country origin examined in the SEM: A-B Tibet; C-D Israel; E-F Cyprus. Magnifications: A- 45x, B- 100x; C- 25x, D- 100x; E- 40x, F- 100x.

5.3. Florescence-Activated Cell Sorting (FACS)

The DNA content of plants collected in different regions of Israel or Turkmenistan was about 6.5 pg. The DNA content of plants from Morocco, Spain, Cyprus, Turkey and Italy was significantly lower (4.6-4.8 pg) (Figure 20). The Iranian plant had a DNA content of 5.7 pg that did not differ significantly from these two groups. However, the latter results were obtained from a single plant and should be treated with caution.

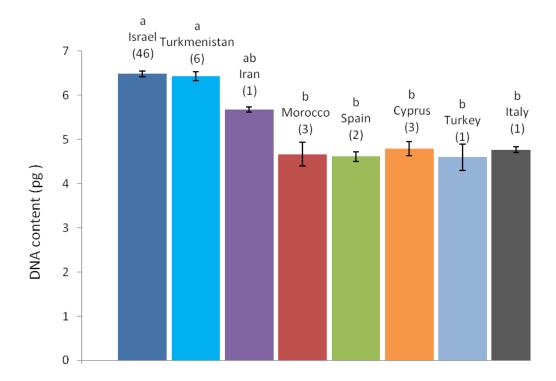
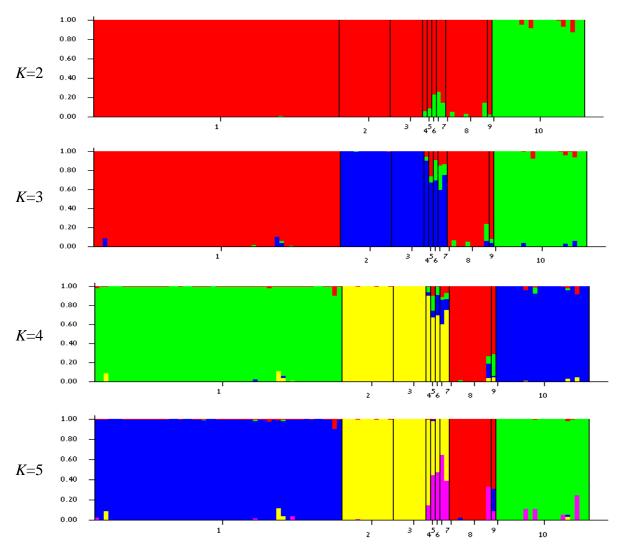


Figure 20: FACS analysis of *Mandragora* of different geographic origins (in pg DNA ±SE). Letters denote the results of Tukey-Kramer test. The number of plants tested is in parentheses.

5.4. Amplified Fragment Length Polymorphism (AFLP)

According to STRUCTURE software (Figure 21), when the number of clusters (K) = 2, plants from Israel, Turkmenistan, Iran and Europe formed one cluster and Tibetan plants formed the other one. When K=3, plants from Israel, Turkmenistan and Iran comprised one cluster, all European plants comprised the second cluster and Tibetan plants the third cluster. When K=4, Israeli plants were clustered separately from plants from Turkmenistan and Iran. When K=5, there was internal division within Europe such that plants from Morocco, Spain and Italy formed one group and plants from Cyprus, Turkey and Greece formed another group. When K=6, Iranian Mandragora was clustered with few groups: Turkmenistan, Israel and also to one of the accessions from Turkmenistan that form a different cluster. Further increase in the number of clusters determined had not changed the observed clustering, only another subdivision within Israeli, Tibetan and European plants.



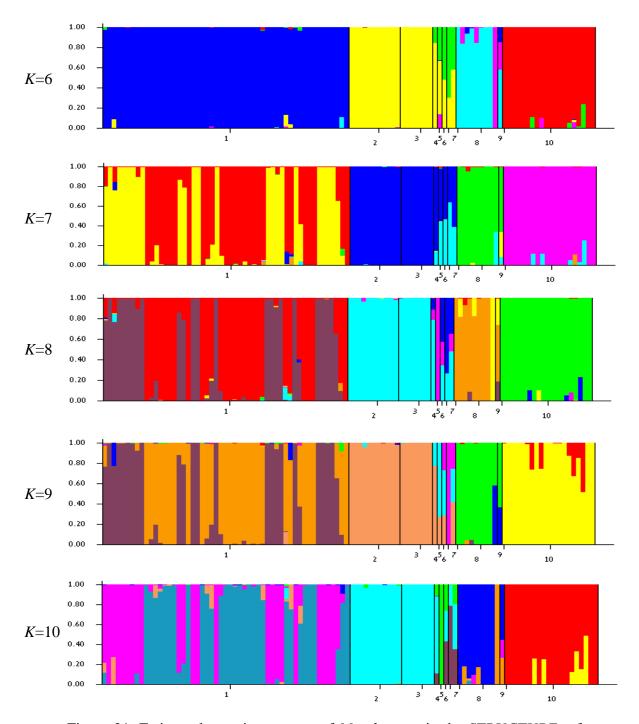


Figure 21: Estimated genetic structure of *Mandragora* in the *STRUCTURE* software. Each individual is represented by a thin vertical line, which is partitioned into *K* colored segments that represent the individual's estimated membership fractions in *K* clusters. Black lines separate individuals of different country of origin. Countries are labeled below the figure: 1=Israel, 2= Morocco, 3=Spain, 4=Italy, 5=Cyprus, 6=Turkey, 7= Greece, 8=Turkmenistan, 9= Iran, 10= Tibet.

According to BAPS software (Figure 22), when K=2, Israeli plants were clustered with plants from Turkmenistan and Iran, and European samples were clustered with Tibetan plants. When K=3, Israeli plants were clustered with plants from Turkmenistan and Iran, while European and Tibetan plants were separated. When K=4, plants from Turkmenistan and Iran were separated from Israeli plants. When K=5 there were five groups: the first group included Israeli plants; the second group included plants from Morocco, Spain and Italy; the third group included plants from Cyprus, Turkey and Greece (Paros and Crete); the forth group included plants from Turkmenistan and Iran; and the last group included Tibetan plants. Iranian plant was clustered with plants from Turkmenistan and also with Israeli plants. The difference between BAPS and STRUCTURE was in K=6 and above, in which BAPS determined the true number of clusters to be 6, with internal division in Israeli population.

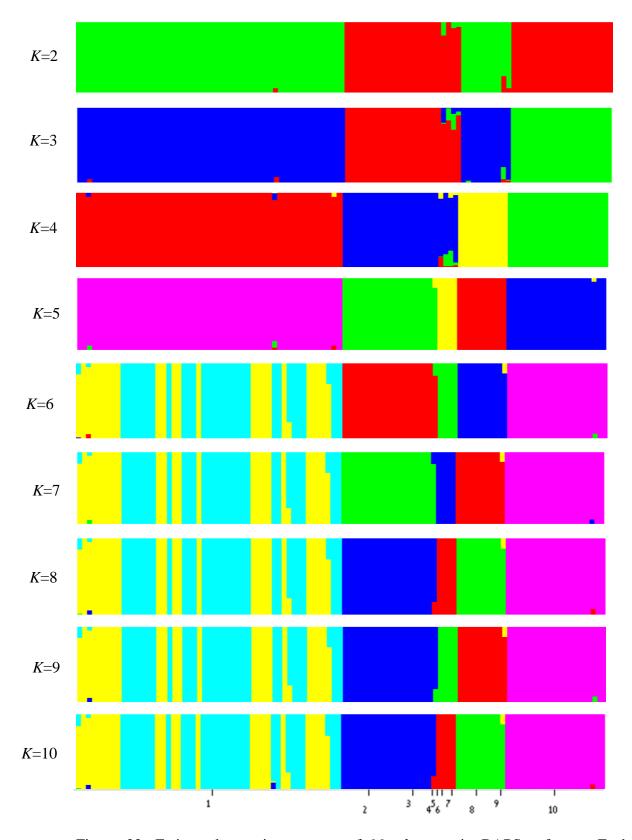


Figure 22: Estimated genetic structure of Mandragora in BAPS software. Each individual is represented by a thin vertical line, which is partitioned into K colored segments that represent the individual's estimated membership fractions in K clusters. Countries are labeled below the figure: 1=Israel, 2= Morocco, 3=Spain, 4=Italy, 5=Cyprus, 6=Turkey, 7= Greece, 8=Turkmenistan, 9= Iran, 10= Tibet.

Principal Coordinates Analysis (PCA) produced similar results (Figure 23). Plants from Israel, Turkmenistan and Iran were clustered together, all European populations were clustered together and Tibetan plants were separated from the others.

Cluster analysis (Figure 24) revealed three major clades. The clade including Israel, Turkmenistan and Iran was a sister to the European clade, and Tibetan plants were clustered alone from all other plants.

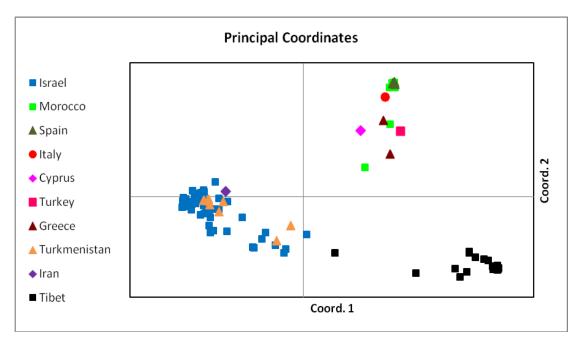


Figure 23: Principal Coordinates Analysis of *Mandragora* in *GenAlEx* software.

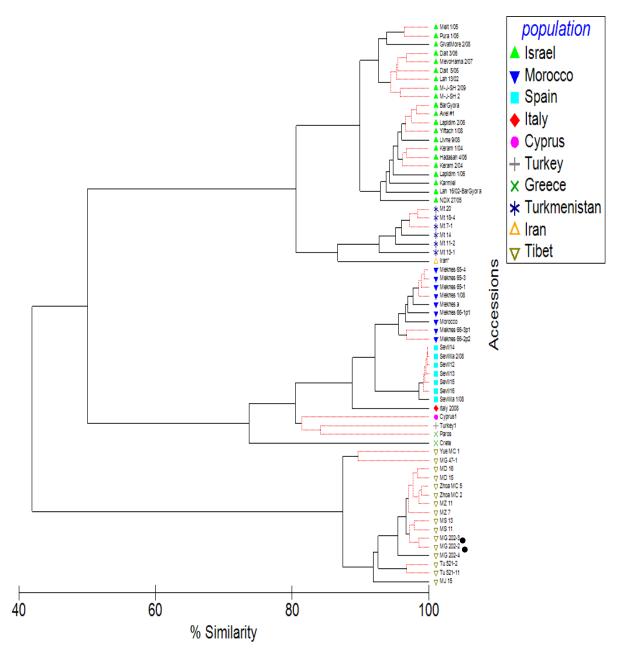


Figure 24: Hierarchical clustering of *Mandragora* of different country origin in *PRIMER6*. Significant branches ($p \le 0.05$) in the phylogenetic tree were drawn in black and insignificant branches were drawn in red. Circles denote *M. chinghaiensis*.

5.5. Internal Transcribed Spacer (ITS) sequencing

I continued sequencing of Mandragora samples that had been started by Tu Tieyao. All new sequences obtained in this study were submitted to GenBank (Table 8). The nucleotide polymorphism in the ITS sequence is shown in Table 10 (in the Appendix) and summarized in Table 9. There were 50 nucleotide changes in the ITS sequence, 47 of them were informative, with no indels in the sequence. Neighbor Joining and Maximum Likelihood produced trees of identical topology (Figure 25). Plants from Israel, Turkmenistan and Iran were clustered together as a subclade within a clade including all European populations; and Tibetan plants were a very distinct separate clade. The European clade was subdivided into three sub-clades: the first group included plants from Morocco, Spain and Italy, the second group plants from Turkey and the third group plants from Cyprus and Paros. Plants from Turkey, Cyprus and Paros were closer to the clade of plants from Israel, Turkmenistan and Iran. However, bootstrap support for this clade subdivision, in contrast to 100% support of major clade division, was low (Figure 25). The Tibetan clade too was subdivided into two groups corresponding to two recognized species - M. chinghaiensis and M. caulescens.

Table 8: List of GeneBank accession numbers of ITS and cpDNA sequences. Sequences submitted by Tu Tieyao are in bold.

							•		
Sample' origin	ITS	atpB	trnL-trnF	rbcL-accD	trnH-psbA	ndhF	trnC-psbM	FV	rpS16-trnK
Israel (Golan)	JX067493	HQ215968	JX067472	HQ216129	HQ216169	HQ216096	HQ216053	JX067512	HQ216008
Israel (Negev)	JX067494	JX067445	JX067473	JX067456	JX067403	JX067432	JX067421	JX067513	JX090171
Turkmenistan	JX067495	HQ215978	JX067471	HQ216139	HQ216177	HQ216104	HQ216063	JX067514	HQ216018
Iran	JX067490	JX067444	JX067470	JX067455	JX067400	JX067431	JX067420	JX067511	JX067415
Turkey1	JX067483	HQ215977	JX067466	HQ216138	HQ216176	HQ216103	HQ216062	JX067503	HQ216017.
Turkey2	JX067484	HQ215974	X	HQ216135	HQ216173	HQ216100	HQ216059	JX067504	HQ216014
Cyprus	JX067485	JX067443	JX067469	JX067454	JX067411	JX067430	JX067419	JX067505	JX090170
Paros	JX067486	JX067441	JX067464	JX067452	JX067412	JX067428	JX067417	JX067506	JX067414
Crete	X	JX067440	X	JX067451	JX067401	JX067427	JX067416	JX067507	JX067413
Italy	JX067487	HQ215975	JX067468	HQ216136	HQ216174	HQ216101	HQ216060	JX067508	HQ216015
Spain	JX067488	JX067442	JX067465	JX067453	JX067402	JX067429	JX067418	JX067509	JX090169
Morocco	JX067489	HQ215976	JX067467	HQ216137	HQ216175	HQ216102	HQ216061	JX067510	HQ216016
M. ching. Qinghai 1	X	HQ215973	X	HQ216134	HQ216172	HQ216099	HQ216058	X	HQ216013
M. ching. Qinghai 2	JX067491	JX067446	JX067474	JX067462	JX067404	JX067438	JX067422	JX067515	JX090172
M. ching. Xizang MC	JX067492	HQ215972	JX067475	HQ216133	JX067405	JX067439	HQ216057	JX067516	HQ216012
M. caul. Xizang MS1	JX067496	HQ215969	JX067476	HQ216130	HQ216170	HQ216097	HQ216054	JX067517	HQ216009
M. caul. Xizang MS2	JX067497	HQ215970	JX067477	HQ216131	JX067409	JX067436	HQ216055	JX067518	HQ216010
M. caul. Yunnan Yue	JX067499	HQ215971	JX067479	HQ216132	HQ216171	HQ216098	HQ216056	JX067520	HQ216011
M. caul. Yunnan MG	JX067498	JX067450	JX067478	JX067461	JX067410	JX067437	JX067426	JX067519	JX090173
M. caul. Yunnan MZ	JX067500	JX067448	JX067480	JX067458	JX067407	JX067434	JX067424	JX067521	JX090174
M. caul. Yunnan MD	JX067502	JX067449	JX067482	JX067459	JX067408	JX067435	JX067425	JX067523	JX090176
M. caul. Sichuan MJ	JX067501	JX067447	JX067481	JX067457	JX067406	JX067433	JX067423	JX067522	JX090175
X - samples that failed to	sequence								

X - samples that failed to sequence

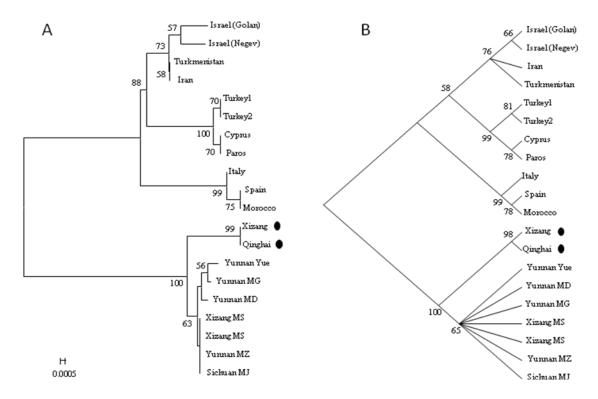


Figure 25: The NJ tree and the ML tree inferred from the ITS data: A- Evolutionary relationships of taxa by Neighbor Joining method; B- Molecular Phylogenetic analysis by Maximum Likelihood method. Circles denote *M. chinghaiensis*. Bootstrap values from 1000 replicates are shown next to the branches. Scale bar indicates an evolutionary distance of 0.0005 nucleotide substitution per position in the sequence.

5.6. Chloroplast DNA sequencing

I continued sequencing of *Mandragora* samples that had been started by Tu Tieyao. All new sequences obtained in this study were submitted to GenBank (Table 8). The total length of the combined chloroplast DNA (cpDNA) sequences covered 11811 bp. The sequence nucleotide polymorphism is given in Table 11 (in the Appendix) and summarized in Table 9. Overall, there were 135 nucleotide changes in the cpDNA sequences, all of them informative, and 32 indels. Eleven indels were specific for Tibet and one for Israel. Six indels were present in Tibetan and Israeli plants but not in Europeans; four indels were present in Israelis and Europeans, but not in Tibetan plants; and two indels were shared by Europeans and Tibetans, but not Israelis. One indel was missing only in Morocco, Spain and Italy.

The Neighbor Joining and Maximum Likelihood trees of every cpDNA region separately are shown in Figure 26 through Figure 33. Plants from Israel were closely related to plants from Turkmenistan and Iran, and were clustered together as a subclade within a clade including all European plants as another subclade; while Tibetan plants constituted a very distinct separate clade. Only in rpS16-trnK region plants from Israel, Turkmenistan and Iran were clustered together with all European plants (Figure 33).

For three cp regions (trnL-trnF, trnC-psbM and Fv) European plants were subdivided into two groups (Figure 27, Figure 31 and Figure 32). The first group included plants from Morocco, Spain and Italy and the second group included the other Europe samples. Besides, for the ndhF region the European samples were subdivided into three groups, the first one including Morocco, Spain and Italy, the second one Turkey, and the third one Cyprus, Paros and Crete (Figure 30).

In addition, for five cp regions Tibetan plants had an internal division. For atpB region (Figure 26) one group included plants from Yunnan (MZ and MD) and Sichuan province (MJ) and the second group included the remainder Tibetan plants. For ndhF region (Figure 30), the first group included *M. chinghaiensis*; the second group included plants from Yunnan province (MZ, MD and MG); and the third group included the remainder Tibetan plants. For trnC-psbM region (Figure 31) one group included plants from Xizang (MS); the second group included *M. chinghaiensis* and plants from Yunnan (MG and Yue); and the third group included plants from Yunnan

(MZ and MD) and Sichuan (MJ). For FV region (Figure 32) one group included a sample from Xizang (MS) and the second group included the remainder Tibetan plants. For rpS16-trnK region (Figure 33) one group included plants from Yunnan (MD) and Sichuan (MJ); the second group - plants from Yunnan (Yue and MZ) and Xizang (MS); and the third group included the remainder Tibetan plants.

The Neighbor Joining, Maximum Likelihood and Maximum Parsimony trees of combined cpDNA regions are shown in Figure 34 and Figure 35. There were three main clusters in all the trees produced. The first cluster included plants from Israel, Turkmenistan and Iran. The second cluster comprised European plants subdivided into three groups: the first group included plants from Morocco, Spain and Italy, the second group included plants from Turkey, and the third group included plants from Cyprus, Paros and Crete. The third cluster included Tibetan plants with an internal subdivision - the first group included *M. chinghaiensis*; the second group included Tibetan plants from Xizang province (MS); the third group included the remainder Tibetan plants.

Table 9: Summary of the phylogenetic information in *Mandragora* from ITS and cpDNA regions.

Region	Number of	Number of	Percentage	Number	Number of	Percentage
	variable	informative	informative	of indels	informative	informative
	sites	sites ^a	sites ^b		indels a	indels b
ITS	50	47	94	0	0	0
atpB	8	8	100	0	0	0
trnL-trnF	7	7	100	3	3	100
rbcL-accD	4	4	100	0	0	0
trnH-psbA	22	22	100	9	9	100
ndhF	32	32	100	1	1	100
trnC-psbM	17	17	100	4	4	100
FV	34	34	100	11	11	100
rpS16-trnK	11	11	100	4	4	100
Total	135	135	100	32	32	100
cpDNA						
Total	185	182	98	32	32	100

^a At a phylogenetically informative site, a nucleotide substitution or indel is shared by two or more species.

^b Percentage of phylogenetically informative sites among the total number of variable sites or indels.

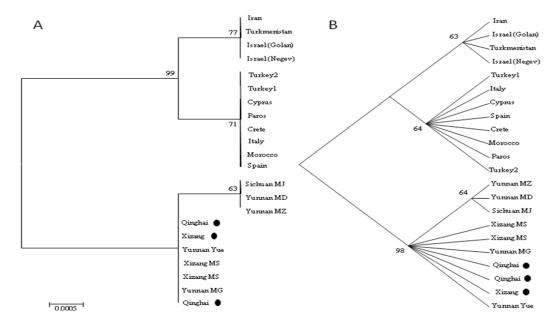


Figure 26: The NJ tree and the ML tree inferred from the atpB data: A- Evolutionary relationships of taxa by Neighbor Joining method; B- Molecular Phylogenetic analysis by Maximum Likelihood method. Circles denote *M. chinghaiensis*. Bootstrap values from 1000 replicates are shown next to the branches. Scale bar indicates an evolutionary distance of 0.0005 nucleotide substitution per position in the sequence.

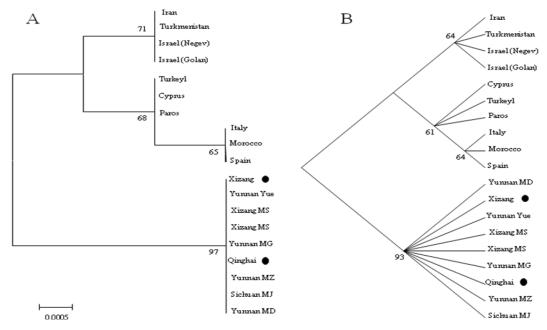


Figure 27: The NJ tree and the ML tree inferred from the trnL-trnF data: A-Evolutionary relationships of taxa by Neighbor Joining method; B- Molecular Phylogenetic analysis by Maximum Likelihood method. Circles denote *M. chinghaiensis*. Bootstrap values from 1000 replicates are shown next to the branches. Scale bar indicates an evolutionary distance of 0.0005 nucleotide substitution per position in the sequence.

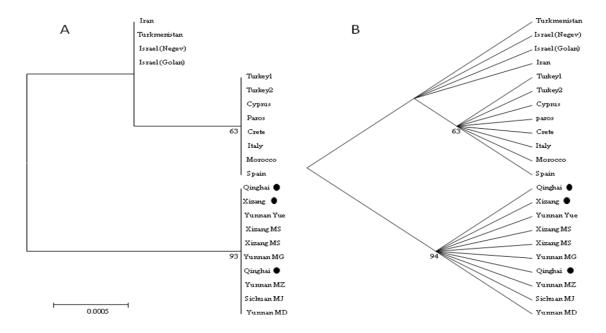


Figure 28: The NJ tree and the ML tree inferred from the rbcL-accD data: A-Evolutionary relationships of taxa by Neighbor Joining method; B- Molecular Phylogenetic analysis by Maximum Likelihood method. Circles denote *M. chinghaiensis*. Bootstrap values from 1000 replicates are shown next to the branches. Scale bar indicates an evolutionary distance of 0.0005 nucleotide substitution per position in the sequence.

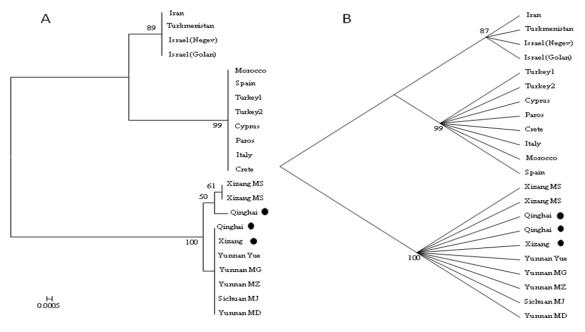


Figure 29: The NJ tree and the ML tree inferred from the trnH-psbA data: A-Evolutionary relationships of taxa by Neighbor Joining method; B- Molecular Phylogenetic analysis by Maximum Likelihood method. Circles denote *M. chinghaiensis*. Bootstrap values from 1000 replicates are shown next to the branches. Scale bar indicates an evolutionary distance of 0.0005 nucleotide substitution per position in the sequence.

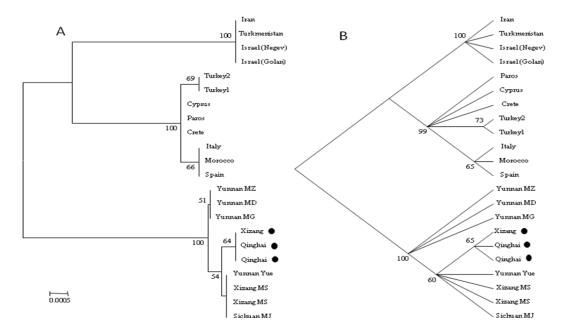


Figure 30: The NJ tree and the ML tree inferred from the ndhF data: A- Evolutionary relationships of taxa by Neighbor Joining method; B- Molecular Phylogenetic analysis by Maximum Likelihood method. Circles denote *M. chinghaiensis*. Bootstrap values from 1000 replicates are shown next to the branches. Scale bar indicates an evolutionary distance of 0.0005 nucleotide substitution per position in the sequence.

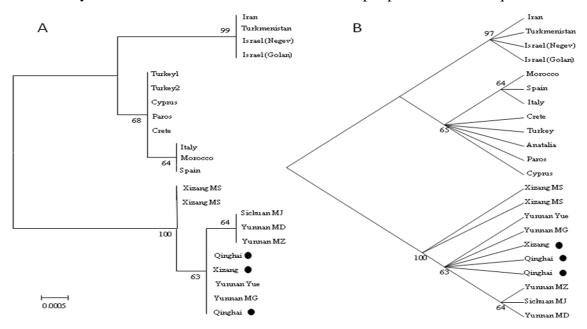


Figure 31: The NJ tree and the ML tree inferred from the trnC-psbM data: A-Evolutionary relationships of taxa by Neighbor Joining method; B- Molecular Phylogenetic analysis by Maximum Likelihood method. Circles denote *M. chinghaiensis*. Bootstrap values from 1000 replicates are shown next to the branches. Scale bar indicates an evolutionary distance of 0.0005 nucleotide substitution per position in the sequence.

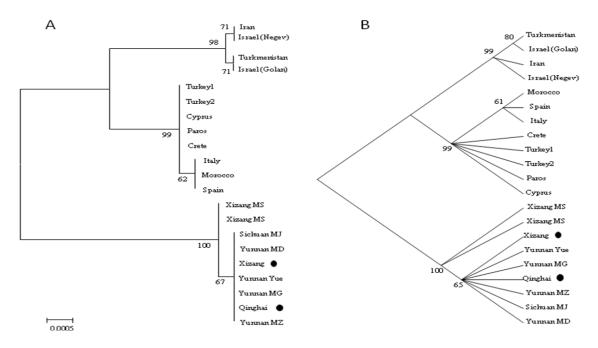


Figure 32: The NJ tree and the ML tree inferred from the FV data: A- Evolutionary relationships of taxa by Neighbor Joining method; B- Molecular Phylogenetic analysis by Maximum Likelihood method. Circles denote *M. chinghaiensis*. Bootstrap values from 1000 replicates are shown next to the branches. Scale bar indicates an evolutionary distance of 0.0005 nucleotide substitution per position in the sequence.

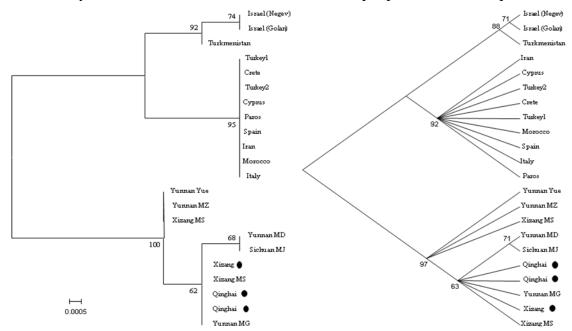


Figure 33: The NJ tree and the ML tree inferred from the rpS16-trnK data: A-Evolutionary relationships of taxa by Neighbor Joining method; B- Molecular Phylogenetic analysis by Maximum Likelihood method. Circles denote *M. chinghaiensis*. Bootstrap values from 1000 replicates are shown next to the branches. Scale bar indicates an evolutionary distance of 0.0005 nucleotide substitution per position in the sequence.

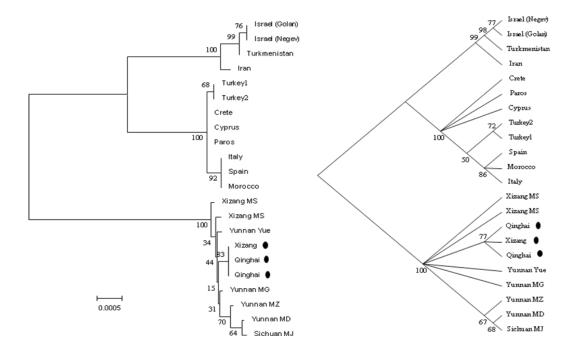


Figure 34: The NJ tree and the ML tree inferred from the combined cpDNA data: A-Evolutionary relationships of taxa by Neighbor Joining method; B- Molecular Phylogenetic analysis by Maximum Likelihood method. Circles denote *M. chinghaiensis*. Bootstrap values from 1000 replicates are shown next to the branches. Scale bar indicates an evolutionary distance of 0.0005 nucleotide substitution per position in the sequence.

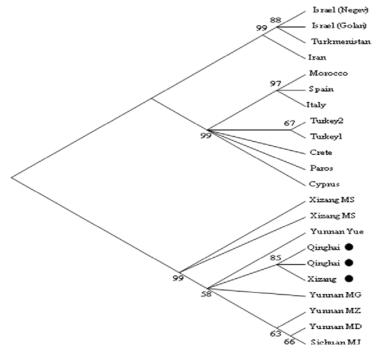


Figure 35: The Maximum Parsimony tree inferred from the combined cpDNA data. Circles denote *M. chinghaiensis*. Bootstrap values from 1000 replicates are shown next to the branches.

6. Discussion

The long history of mythology and medicinal use of the *Mandragora* and the variable morphology and phenology have created confused classification of *Mandragora*. According to the identification of Ungricht *et al.* (1998) and Akhani and Ghorbani (2003) the current taxonomy of the genus *Mandragora* (Solanaceae) includes three recognized species: the first species is *M. turcomanica* Mizg. from Turkmenistan and Iran region; the second species is *M. officinarum* L. from the Mediterranean (Europe and Israel) region; and the third species is *M. caulescens* C.B. Clark from Tibet region (*M. chinghaiensis* and *M. caulescens* are plants from Tibet that were merged into one species in this taxonomy). This taxonomy was based on morphometric analysis of herbarium specimens, phenology, habitat and distribution.

The working hypothesis of this work was that *Mandragora* of different geographic origin have different ploidy level and that the current genus taxonomy is out-dated and needs to be revised. Another hypothesis was that different *Mandragora* plants possess sufficient variation in fruit size and taste for successful domestication. In this study I investigated in detail the phylogeny and taxonomy of the genus *Mandragora* and revised it based on morphometrics (fruit, seed and flower morphology), FACS, AFLP and sequencing of cpDNA and ITS.

6.1. Morphology and FACS

Mandragora plants of different geographic origin were successfully self-pollinated so it seems that there is no self incompatibility and all plants can be self-pollinated with a different percentage of fruit setting. However the percentage of fruit set was not high, probably because the plant has protogyny (Bernhardt and Dafni, 2000). Additionally, the *Mandragora* plants were successfully cross-pollinated with pollen of plants of different country origin and the results show that there is no reproductive isolation and nearly all plants can be cross-pollinated.

In order to estimate the domestication potential of *Mandragora* fruits the maximum values were given. Fruits from crosses of Israeli or Turkmenian accessions produced bigger fruits, and one fruit of Turkmenistan origin that was collected from a plant grown in the field in Sde Boqer (Figure 16 D) was very large (55 mm in diameter). This can indicate that *Mandragora* fruits can reach this size and have potential for domestication. Beside large fruit size, *Mandragora* plants from Israel

have good taste and therefore crosses of Israeli accessions with even larger Turkmenian plants are most suitable for domestication.

The flower traits that were measured and the distribution of flowering onset were variable among years and origins and further examination and comparison of flowers from Tibet (*M. chinghaiensis* and *M. caulescens*) and other flowers from the rest Europe (Italy, Paros and Crete) should be done in order to complete this work.

According to the fruit and seed morphology results there are three *Mandragora* groups. The first group includes plants from Israel, Turkmenistan and Iran that have heavier, larger and globular fruit with the largest seed; the second group includes plants from Europe that have smaller, lightweight and ellipsoid fruit with medium size seed; and the third group includes plants from Tibet, with the smallest seed and different seed coat morphology.

According to the literature, Tibetan fruit is medium size (10-25 mm in diameter), relative to other *Mandragora* fruits origins, and globular. Tibetan plants have a stem (Figure 5 and Figure 6) (*M. chinghaiensis* has shorter stem than *M. caulescens* - Figure 6) and their leaves are arranged in a cluster on the top stem, in contrast to other *Mandragora* plants that are stem-less (Table 1). The Tibetan *Mandragora* flowering period lasts from April to September and fruiting is from August to October, in contrast to other *Mandragora* origins that flower from September-October to March-April and set fruit till June. Besides this, Tibetan *Mandragora* is dormant during winter, while plants of non-Tibetan origin are dormant during summer (Ungricht *et al.*, 1998).

Additionally, Tibetan plants inhabit high-elevation cold meadow steppes and desert steppes at around 4000 m, whose climate is dramatically different from the Mediterranean climate in the European part of *Mandragora* range including Israel (altitude below 1000 m) and arid continental climate of Turkmenistan (altitude about 1000 m) (Ungricht *et al.*, 1998).

These results match and expand the previous work of Tu *et al.* (2010) who showed that *Mandragora* plants from Israel and Turkmenistan are clustered together as a subclade close to plants from Turkey, Morocco and Italy cluster as another subclade (Figure 37). The separation of Tibet from the other origins corresponds to the current taxonomy of Ungricht *et al.* (1998).

The seed morphology agrees with Zhang et al. (2005) (Figure 36) who described Mandragora seeds as 'ovoid, ellipsoid or reniform' and distinguished between the seeds of Himalayan mountain plants: M. chinghaiensis (from Xining, China) and M. caulescens (from Xizang, Tibet) to the seeds of Mediterranean origin: M. officinarum (probably from Israel) and M. autumnalis (from Crete) according to the seed coat morphology. They characterized M. chinghaiensis (Figure 36: 13, 14) and M. caulescens (Figure 36: 63) as small seeds (2.6–2.8 x 1.6–1.8 mm), having polygonal isodiametric testal cells with long and straight lateral cell walls, while M. officinarum (Figure 36: 61) and *M. autumnalis* (Figure 36: 62) were characterized as larger seeds (3.0-6.5 x 2-5 mm) having isodiametric spermoderm cells, with slightly curved lateral walls. However, they emphasized that M. officinarum seeds were especially large (4–6.5 x 4–5.5 mm) than M. autumnalis but did not separate these two groups, probably because their seed coat morphology appeared similar to each other. In contrast to the latter conclusion, I think that consistent difference in size of seeds between Israeli and west-Mediterranean samples, especially when combined with other results presented in this work; suggest a taxonomic separation of these two groups.

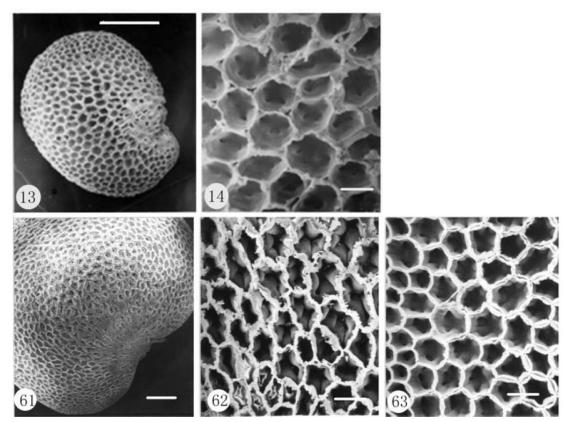


Figure 36: SEM observation of *Mandragora* in the literature: 13, 14 - *M. chinghaiensis*; 61 - *M. officinarum*; 62 - *M. autumnalis*; 63 - *M. caulescens*. Scale bar: 13, 61= 420 μ m; 14, 62, 63= 60 μ m. (Adapted from Zhang *et al.*, 2005).

66

According to FACS analysis, it seems that *Mandragora* plants from Israel, Turkmenistan and Iran have higher ploidy level and represent a different taxonomic group than *Mandragora* plants from Morocco, Spain, Cyprus, Turkey and Italy. However, we still do not know the ploidy level or chromosome number in the samples analyzed. Additionally, FACS analysis of plants from Tibet is needed.

The FACS results agree with the data on fruit and seed morphology, suggesting that plants from Israel, Turkmenistan and Iran differ from plants from Europe, and refute the current classification of Ungricht *et al.* (1998) and Akhani and Ghorbani (2003). The results also support the hypothesis that higher ploidy level is associated with larger fruit size (Singh and Wafai, 1984; Eckardt, 2004). It can be explained by the fact that increase in nuclear DNA has been associated with an increase in cell volume, and as a result the whole organ is larger (Hilu, 1993).

6.2. Molecular variation

The use of eight cpDNA sequence regions and an ITS sequence region that produced over 12,500 bp of sequence, 182 informative sites and 32 indels, in addition to AFLP analysis, provides a level of tree resolution and clade support confidence unmatched by single or two-sequence studies.

Three major clusters were recognized according to AFLP, ITS and cpDNA sequencing. The first cluster consisted of plants from Israel, Turkmenistan and Iran. The second cluster comprised plants from Europe. The third cluster included plants from Tibet.

These results agree with fruit and seed morphology and FACS that distinguish *Mandragora* plants from Israel, Turkmenistan and Iran from European plants. This division matches and provides further details to the previous work of Tu *et al.* (2010) who showed that plants from Israel and Turkmenistan were clustered together as a subclade within a clade including European plants from Turkey, Morocco and Italy as another subclade and Tibetan plants were a distinct separate clade (Figure 37).

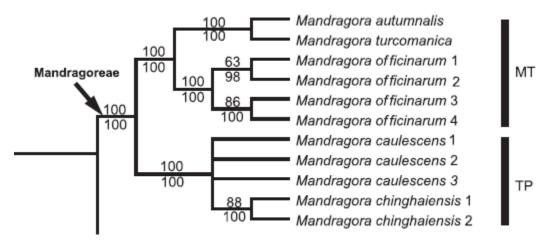


Figure 37: Maximum Parsimony tree of *Mandragora* based on the combined sequence data of six plastid markers, adapted from Tu *et al.*, 2010. *M. autumnalis* = Israel (Golan); *M. turcomanica* = Turkmenistan; *M. officinarum* 1, 2 = Turkey, 3 = Italy and 4 = Morocco. TP= Tibetan Plateau area; MP=Mediterranean-Turanian area. (adapted from Tu *et al.* (2010)

The AFLP, ITS and cpDNA results also suggest that western Mediterranean range represents two groups: one includes Morocco, Spain and Italy and the other Turkey, Cyprus, Paros and Crete. This supports and expands previous work of Tu *et al.* (2010) that differentiate Turkey from Morocco and Italy (Figure 37).

Eleven nucleotides regions that were found only in Tibetan *Mandragora* indicate the long evolutionary distance of Tibetan *Mandragora* from the congeners (Tajima and Nei, 1984). Tu *et al.* (2010) suggested that the global environmental changes in Eurasia caused by the uplift of the Tibetan plateau in the Tertiary were responsible for early separation of the Tibetan clade (Figure 37).

Kuang and Lu (1978) and Tu et al. (2010) divided Mandragora plants from Tibet into M. chinghaiensis and M. caulescens (Figure 37). They characterized M. caulescens as an herb with elongate stems 50-60 cm long (Figure 5) that grows in forests or shrublands on the mountains of the southeastern Tibetan plateau; whereas M. chinghaiensis has rosette leaves and short stems (Figure 6) and is found in the meadow steppes of the inner platform. Ungricht et al. (1998) merged these two groups together considering differences to be within the range of variability of each taxon. In this study, the ITS and ndhF sequences (Figure 30) supported the diversion of these two Tibetan Mandragora groups, but not the other cpDNA sequences. More information on Tibetan Mandragora is needed for distinguishing between M. chinghaiensis and M. caulescens.

6.3. Concluding remarks

According to the morphometric data (fruit and seed), FACS and three classes of molecular markers (AFLP, cpDNA and ITS), *Mandragora* plants can be classified as belonging to three groups. One group includes plants from Israel, Turkmenistan and Iran, which are characterized by globular and large fruit, with large seed and high DNA content. The second group includes plants from Cyprus, Turkey, Italy, Spain and Morocco, which are characterized by ellipsoid and small fruit, small seed and lower DNA content. Tibetan plants are the third group with very small seed and very distinct ecology and morphology.

Therefore, the recognition of *M. turcomanica* as a separate species (Akhani and Ghorbani, 2003) and of *M. officinarum* as one species including plants from Europe and Israel (Ungricht *et al.*, 1998) are no longer satisfactory. It follows from the new results, that *M. caulescens* is a highly separated clade from *M. officinarum - M. turcomanica*, while *M. turcomanica* is not a separate species but a relict population or human introduced *M. officinarum* from Israel. Additionally, *M. officinarum* must be split into two different species – one with a range including Israel and probably adjacent Jordan, Lebanon and Syria; and another one having western Mediterranean distribution.

7. Appendix

Table 10: The nucleotide polymorphism in the ITS sequence. The first row is the reference sequence. Dots denote the same nucleotide as the reference sequence and dashes indicate gaps. *M. ching.* and *M. caul.* are abbreviations of *M. chinghaiensis* and *M. caulescens*, respectively.

polymorphic sites:	ITS	692l	р																								-		- ,
Sample' origin	48	49	65	72	81	88	91	111	132	140	143	152	189	192	194	200	204	206	222	233	240	273	283	287	405	411	430	436	439
Israel (Golan)	С	A	A	Т	A	С	G	С	G	A	T	A	A	A	G	G	A	G	A	A	С	A	С	G	G	G	G	С	G
Israel (Negev)																									A				
Turkmenistan													C																
Iran													C																
Turkey1										G			C					A		G	T				A				A
Turkey2										G			C					A		G	T				A				A
Cyprus										G			C					C		G	T				A				A
Paros										G			C					C		G	T				A				A
Italy				C									C		A	A	G			G						A			
Spain				C		T							C		A	A	G			G						A			
Morocco				C		T							C		A	A	G			G						A			
M. ching. Xizang 2	Т	G	G		G		A	T	A		A	G	C	G					C	G		G	T	A			T	A	
M. ching. Qinghai MC	Т	G	G		G		A	T	A		A	G	C	G					C	G		G	T	A			T	A	
M. caul. Xizang MS1	Т	G	G		G			T			A	G	C	G					C	G		G	T	A			T	A	
M. caul. Xizang MS2	Т	G	G		G			T			A	G	C	G					C	G		G	T	A			T	A	
M. caul. Yunnan Yue	Т	G	G		G			T			A	G	C	G	A				C	G		G	T	A			T	A	
M. caul. Yunnan MG	Т	G	G		G			T			A	G	C	G					C	G		G	T	A			Т	A	
M. caul. Yunnan MZ	Т	G	G		G			T			A	G	C	G					C	G		G	T	A			Т	A	
M. caul. Yunnan MD	Т	G	G		G			T			A	G	C	G	A				С	G		G	T	A			T	A	
M. caul. Sichuan MJ	Т	G	G		G			T			A	G	C	G					С	G		G	T	A			T	A	

polymorphic sites:	ITS	cont.																			
Sample' origin	440	445	455	457	458	459	461	497	508	526	527	528	529	540	542	547	573	576	598	630	644
Israel (Golan)	С	С	G	G	С	G	G	С	-	G	G	G	G	A	A	A	A	G	G	G	G
Israel (Negev)		G		A									C								
Turkmenistan				A									C								
Iran				A									C								
Turkey1				A				T					C	G							
Turkey2				A				T					C	G							
Cyprus				A				T					C	G							
Paros				A				T					C	G							
Italy				A	G		A						C	G							A
Spain				A			A						C	G							A
Morocco				A			A						C	G							A
M. ching. Qinghai 2	T		Α	A					G	A	C	A	C	G	G	T	G	A	A		
M. ching. Xizang MC	T		Α	A					G	A	C	A	C	G	G	T	G	A	A		
M. caul. Xizang MS1			Α	A		T			G	A	C		C	G	G	T	G	A	A		
M. caul. Xizang MS2			Α	A		T			G	A	C		C	G	G	T	G	A	A		
M. caul. Yunnan Yue			Α	A		T			G	A	C		C	G	G	T	G	A	A	A	
M. caul. Yunnan MG			Α	A		T			G	A	C		C	G	G	T	G	A	A	A	
M. caul. Yunnan MZ			A	A		T			G	A	C		C	G	G	T	G	A	A		
M. caul. Yunnan MD			A	A		T			G	A	C		C	G	G	T	G	A	A		
M. caul. Sichuan MJ			A	A		T			G	A	C		C	G	G	T	G	A	A		

Table 11: The nucleotide polymorphism of the cpDNA sequence. The first row is the reference sequence. Dots denote the same nucleotide as the reference sequence and dashes indicate gaps. *M. ching.* and *M. caul.* are abbreviations of *M. chinghaiensis* and *M. caulescens*, respectively. Empty rows are regions that failed to sequence.

polymorphic sites:	atp	B 109	1bp						trnL	trnF 950bp									rbcl	L accD	1392	bp
Sample' origin	35	78	120	30 6	47 7	60 9	89 1	1029	13 9	317-318	351-373	43 8	47 6	52 1	60 3	61 3	61 5	70 9	87	71 1	74 7	1018
Israel (Golan)	С	A	С	A	С	G	A	G	A	-	-	A	С	A	С	T	С	Т	A	A	T	С
Israel (Negev)								G														
Turkmenistan								G														
Iran								G														
Turkey 1				T				A						C		C				C		
Turkey 2				T				A												C		
Cyprus				T				A						C		C		•		C		
Paros				T				A						C		C				C		
Crete				T				A												C		
Italy				T				A						C		C		G		C		
Spain				T				A		•				C		C		G		C		
Morocco				T				A		•				C		C		G		C		
M. ching. Qinghai 1	Т	G			T	A	C	A											G		C	A
M. ching. Qinghai 2	Т	G			T	A	C	A	-	TT	TTCTCCATTGAAGAAAGAATCGA	G	Т	C	G		A		G		C	A
M. ching. Xizang MC	Т	G			T	A	C	A	-	TT	TTCTCCATTGAAGAAAGAATCGA	G	Т	C	G		A		G		C	A
M. caul. Xizang MS1	Т	G			T	A	C	A	-	TT	TTCTCCATTGAAGAAAGAATCGA	G	Т	C	G		A		G		C	A
M. caul. Xizang MS2	Т	G			Т	A	С	A	-	TT	TTCTCCATTGAAGAAAGAATCGA	G	Т	C	G		A		G		C	A
M. caul. Yunnan Yue	Т	G			Т	A	С	A	-	TT	TTCTCCATTGAAGAAAGAATCGA	G	Т	С	G		A		G		C	A
M. caul. Yunnan MG	Т	G			T	A	С	A	-	TT	TTCTCCATTGAAGAAAGAATCGA	G	T	С	G		A		G		C	A
M. caul. Yunnan MZ	Т	G	A		T	A	С	A	-	TT	TTCTCCATTGAAGAAAGAATCGA	G	T	С	G		A		G		C	A
M. caul. Yunnan MD	Т	G	A		T	A	C	A	-	TT	TTCTCCATTGAAGAAAGAATCGA	G	T	C	G		A		G		C	A
M. caul. Sichuan MJ	Т	G	Α		Т	A	С	A	_	TT	TTCTCCATTGAAGAAAGAATCGA	G	Т	С	G		A		G		С	A

polymorphic sites:	trn	H psbA 503	3bp																				
Sample' origin	23	131-134	135-139	141	142	179-181	189-194	246	268	277	283	301	311	317	318	321	343-344	345	346	347-350	352	353	359
Israel (Golan)	Т	CTTT	TTATT	A	T	TTT	-	С	A	G	T	G	С	С	Т	Т	AA	-	-	-	A	G	Т
Israel (Negev)																							
Turkmenistan																							
Iran																							
Turkey1		-	-			-		T			G			A			-				С	T	
Turkey2		-	-			-		T			G			A			-				С	T	
Cyprus		-	-			-		T			G			A			-				С	T	
Paros		-	-			-		T			G			A			-				С	T	
Crete		-	-			-		T			G			A			-				С	T	
Italy		-	-			-		T			G			A			A				С	T	
Spain		-	-			-		T			G			A			-				C	T	
Morocco		-	-			-		T			G			A			-				С	T	
M. ching. Qinghai 1			-	T	A		AGATAT	T	T	T		A	T		C	С		A		GAAA		A	G
M. ching. Qinghai 2	G		-	T	A		AGATAT	T	T	T		Α	Т		C	C		A		GAAA		Α	G
M. ching. Xizang MC			-	T	A		AGATAT	Т	Т	T		A	Т		С	C		A	A	GAAA		A	G
M. caul. Xizang MS1	G		-	T	A			T	T	T			Т		C	C				GAAA		Α	G
M. caul. Xizang MS2	G		-	T	A			T	T	T			T		C	С				GAAA		A	G
M. caul. Yunnan Yue			-	T	A	TT	AGATAT	T	T	T		Α	Т		C	C		A	A	GAAA		Α	G
M. caul. Yunnan MG			-	T	A			Т	Т	T		A	Т		С	C		A		GAAA		A	G
M. caul. Yunnan MZ			-	T	A		AGATAT	T	Т	T		A	T		C	C		A	A	GAAA		A	G
M. caul. Yunnan MD			-	Т	A		AGATAT	Т	Т	T		A	Т		C	C		A		GAAA		A	G
M. caul. Sichuan MJ			-	Т	A	TT	AGATAT	Т	Т	Т		Α	Т		С	С		A		GAAA		A	G
	1																						

polymorphic sites:	trnH psbA c	ont.								ndhF	7 1999b	p											
Sample' origin	375-379	380-401	418	426	436	448	454	480	490	210	262	372	411	412	453	477	546	562	616	813	900	946	1118
Israel (Golan)	TCTTT	-	G	С	T	Т	A	A	-	G	С	G	G	A	T	A	A	С	С	T	T	С	T
Israel (Negev)																							
Turkmenistan																							
Iran																							
Turkey1	-							G			A		A	C		G	G			C		T	
Turkey2	-							G			A		A	C		G	G			C		T	
Cyprus	-							G			A		A	C		G	G			C		T	
Paros	-							G			A		A	C		G	G			C		T	
Crete	-							G			A		A	C		G	G			C		T	
Italy	-							G		С	A		A	C		G	G			C		T	
Spain	-							G		С	A		A	C		G	G			C		T	
Morocco	-							G		С	A		A	C		G	G			C		T	
M. ching. Qinghai 1		GAAATAATAATAGAATATCATT	T	A	C	G	C		G		A	T		C	A		G	A	G	C	C		C
M. ching. Qinghai 2		GAAATAATAATAGAATATCATT	T	A	C	G	C		G		A	T		C	A		G	A	G	C	C		C
M. ching. Xizang MC		GAAATAATAATAGAATATCATT	T	A	C	G	C		G		A	T		C	A		G	A	G	C	C		C
M. caul. Xizang MS1		GAAATAATAATAGAATATCATT	T	A	C	G	C		G		A	T		C	A		G	A	G	C	C		C
M. caul. Xizang MS2		GAAATAATAATAGAATATCATT	T	A	C	G	C		G		A	T		C	A		G	A	G	C	C		C
M. caul. Yunnan Yue		GAAATAATAATAGAATATCATT	T	A	C	G	C		G		A	T		C	A		G	A	G	C	C		C
M. caul. Yunnan MG		GAAATAATAATAGAATATCATT	T	A	C	G	C		G		A	T		C	A		G	A	G	C	C		C
M. caul. Yunnan MZ		GAAATAATAATAGAATATCATT	T	A	C	G	C		G		A	T		C	A		G	A	G	C	C		C
M. caul. Yunnan MD		GAAATAATAATAGAATATCATT	T	A	C	G	C		G		A	T		C	A		G	A	G	C	C		C
M. caul. Sichuan MJ		GAAATAATAATAGAATATCATT	T	A	C	G	C		G		A	T		C	A		G	A	G	C	C		C

polymorphic sites:	ndhF	cont.																	
Sample' origin	1118	1134	1194	1207	1239	1255	1314	1334	1434	1448-1453	1460	1585	1644	1680	1752	1891	1902	1962	1980
Israel (Golan)	T	С	T	A	A	G	A	A	T	TTTTTT	С	T	G	С	T	A	A	T	T
Israel (Negev)										•									
Turkmenistan										•									
Iran										•									
Turkey1		A	C	C	C		G			•	A	T	A		G	C			
Turkey2		A	C	C	C		G			•	A	T	A		G	C			
Cyprus		A	C	C	C		G			•		T	A		G	C			
Paros		A	C	C	C		G					T	A		G	C			
Crete		A	C	C	C		G			ė		T	A		G	C			
Italy		A	C	C	C		G			•		T	A		G	C			
Spain		A	C	C	C		G			•		T	A		G	C			
Morocco		A	C	C	C		G					T	A		G	C			
M. ching. Qinghai 1	C		C	C	C	A	G	C	C	-		G		T		C	G	G	G
M. ching. Qinghai 2	C		C	C	C	A	G	C	C	-		G		T		C	G	G	G
M. ching. Xizang MC	C		C	C	C	A	G	C	C	-		G		T		C	G	G	G
M. caul. Xizang MS1	C		C	C	C	A	G	C	C	-		G		T		C	G	G	A
M. caul. Xizang MS2	C		C	C	C	A	G	C	C	-		G		T		C	G	G	A
M. caul. Yunnan Yue	C		C	C	C	A	G	C	C	-		G		T		C	G	G	A
M. caul. Yunnan MG	С		C	C	C	A	G	A	C	-		G		T		C	G	G	A
M. caul. Yunnan MZ	С		C	C	C	A	G	A	C	-		G		T		C	G	G	A
M. caul. Yunnan MD	С		C	C	C	A	G	A	C	-		G		T		C	G	G	A
M. caul. Sichuan MJ	С		С	С	С	A	G	C	С	-		G		T		С	G	G	A

polymorphic sites:	trnC psbM 1850bp																				
Sample' origin	16-34	97	109	219	226	410	425	518	605	894	962	1006	1077	1200	1229	1264	1337-1342	1353	1361	1374	1825
Israel (Golan)	TGTTGATATAACCCGCCGA	G	T	A	G	С	T	G	T	T	С	T	A	С	T	A	ACTTCT	A	-	G	С
Israel (Negev)						•					-			•							
Turkmenistan						•					-			•							
Iran						•					-			•							
Turkey1	-	C			T					C	T								A	A	
Turkey2	-	C			T					C	T								A	A	
Cyprus	-	C			T				•	C	T								A	A	
Paros	-	C			T				•	C	T		•			•			A	A	
Crete	-	C			T			•	•	C	T		•			•			A	A	
Italy	-	C			T					C	T		G						A	A	
Spain	-	C			T					C	T		G						A	A	
Morocco	-	C			T					C	T		G						A	A	
M. ching. Qinghai 1			-	T	T	T	C	T	A	C	T	С		T	C		-	C		A	A
M. ching. Qinghai 2			-	T	T	T	C	T	A	C	T	С		T	C		-	C		A	A
M. ching. Xizang MC			-	T	T	T	C	T	A	C	T	С		T	C		-	C		A	A
M. caul. Xizang MS1			-	T	T	T	C	T		C	T	С		T	C		-	C		A	A
M. caul. Xizang MS2			-	T	T	T	C	T		C	T	C		T	C		-	C		A	A
M. caul. Yunnan Yue			-	T	T	T	C	T	A	C	T	С		T	C		-	C		A	A
M. caul. Yunnan MG			-	T	T	T	С	T	A	C	T	C		T	С		-	C		A	A
M. caul. Yunnan MZ			-	T	T	T	С	T	A	C	T	C		T	С	С	-	C		A	A
M. caul. Yunnan MD			-	T	T	T	С	T	A	C	T	C		T	С	C	-	C		A	A
M. caul. Sichuan MJ			-	T	T	T	С	T	A	C	T	C		T	С	С	-	С		A	A

polymorphic sites:	FV	335	8bp																				
Sample' origin	27	34	35	106	170-175	201-203	274	295	505	559	597	623-627	656	777	915	1422	1426	1934	2234	2473-2480	2574	2584	2596-2600
Israel (Golan)	T	A	A	G	AAAGAA	-	A	T	G	С	T	AGAAC	T	A	С	С	T	A	A	ATACTTAT	G	С	-
Israel (Negev)																							
Turkmenistan																							
Iran																							
Turkey1		C	G					C				-			T		C	G				G	TTATC
Turkey2		C	G					C				-			T		C	G				G	TTATC
Cyprus		C	G					C				-			T		C	G				G	TTATC
Paros		C	G					C				-			T		C	G				G	TTATC
Crete		C	G					C				-			T		C	G				G	TTATC
Italy		C	G					C				-			T		C	G				G	TTATC
Spain		C	G					C				-			T		C	G				G	TTATC
Morocco		C	G					C				-			T		C	G				G	TTATC
M. ching. Qinghai 2	A	C	G	A	-	TTT	G	C	Α	T	G		G	G	T	Α			C	-	C	G	TTATC
M. ching. Xizang MC	A	C	G	A	-	TT	G	C	Α	T	G		G	G	T	Α			C	-	C	G	TTATC
M. caul. Xizang MS1	A	C	G		-	TT	G	C	Α	T	G		G	G	T	Α			C	-	C	G	TTATC
M. caul. Xizang MS2	A	C	G		-	TTT	G	C	Α	T	G		G	G	T	Α			C	-	C	G	TTATC
M. caul. Yunnan Yue	A	C	G	A	-	TTT	G	C	Α	T	G		G	G	T	Α			C	-	C	G	TTATC
M. caul. Yunnan MG	A	C	G	A	-	TT	G	C	Α	T	G		G	G	T	Α			C	-	C	G	TTATC
M. caul. Yunnan MZ	A	C	G	A	-	TTT	G	C	Α	T	G		G	G	T	Α			C	-	C	G	TTATC
M. caul. Yunnan MD	A	C	G	A	-	TTT	G	C	A	T	G		G	G	T	A			C	-	C	G	TTATC
M. caul. Sichuan MJ	A	C	G	A	-	TTT	G	C	A	T	G		G	G	T	A			C	-	C	G	TTATC

polymorphic sites:	FV cont.																				
Sample' origin	2622-2627	2639	2644	2693-2695	2712	2720	2763	2781	2788	2799	2800-2809	2810-2815	2876	2877	2941	3010	3014	3070	3252	3344	3348-3352
Israel (Golan)	-	A	T	-	G	С	G	T	T	-	-	-	G	G	A	T	С	G	G	A	TTATA
Israel (Negev)			G																		
Turkmenistan																					
Iran			G																		
Turkey1			G		A			G		A	ATTATTATTT			T	C					C	
Turkey2			G		A			G		A	ATTATTATTT			T	C					C	
Cyprus			G		A			G		A	ATTATTATTT			T	C					C	
Paros			G		A			G		A	ATTATTATTT			T	C					C	
Crete			G		A			G		A	ATTATTATTT			T	C					C	
Italy		T	G		A			G		A	ATTATTATTT			T	C				-	C	-
Spain		T	G		A			G		A	ATTATTATTT			T	C					C	-
Morocco		T	G		A	-		G		A	ATTATTATTT			T	C				-	C	-
M. ching. Qinghai 2	TTAGAA			TTT	A	T	A		C	C	ATTATAATTT	AATATT	A	-	C	C	T	T	T	C	
M. ching. Xizang MC	TTAGAA			TT	A	T	A		C	C	ATTATAATTT	AATATT	A	-	C	C	T	T	T	C	
M. caul. Xizang MS1	TTAGAA			T	A	T	A		C	C	ATTATAATTT	AATATT	A	-	C	C	T	T	T	C	
M. caul. Xizang MS2	TTAGAA			T	A	T	A		C	C	ATTATAATTT	AATATT	A	-	C	C	T	T	T	C	
M. caul. Yunnan Yue	TTAGAA			TTT	A	T	Α		C	C	ATTATAATTT	AATATT	A		C	C	T	T	T	C	
M. caul. Yunnan MG	TTAGAA			TT	A	T	Α		C	C	ATTATAATTT	AATATT	A		C	C	T	T	T	C	
M. caul. Yunnan MZ	TTAGAA			TTT	A	T	A		C	C	ATTATAATTT	AATATT	A		C	C	T	T	T	C	
M. caul. Yunnan MD	TTAGAA			TTT	A	T	A		C	C	ATTATAATTT	AATATT	A		C	C	T	T	T	C	
M. caul. Sichuan MJ	TTAGAA			TTT	A	T	A		C	C	ATTATAATTT	AATATT	A		C	C	T	T	T	C	

polymorphic sites:		rpS1	6 trnF	668b	p																	
Sample' origin	214	308	334	338	339	340	372	380	381	382-384	385	386	387	388	432-433	487	512	522-549	568	574	590	591
Israel (Golan)	Т	T	С	T	T	A	С	T	A	-	-	-	A	-	TT	T	A	-	T	G	A	G
Israel (Negev)					•					•												
Turkmenistan										•									G			
Iran			A		G	G				ė					-	G			G			
Turkey1			A		G	G		-		•					-	G			G			
Turkey2			A		G	G		-		•					-	G			G			
Cyprus			A		G	G				•					-	G			G			
Paros			A		G	G				•					-	G			G			
Crete			A		G	G				•					-	G			G			
Italy			A		G	G				•					-	G			G			
Spain			A		G	G				•					-	G			G			
Morocco			A		G	G				•					-	G			G			
M. ching. Qinghai 1	G	C	A	G	C	A	T		T	TTT	T			T			C	AATGAAGTGGATCTATTTCGTTTTATTT	G	T		T
M. ching. Qinghai 2	G	C	A	G	C	A	T		T	TTT	T			T			C	AATGAAGTGGATCTATTTCGTTTTATTT	G	T		T
M. ching. Xizang MC	G	C	A	G	C	A	T		T	TTT	T			T			C	AATGAAGTGGATCTATTTCGTTTTATTT	G	T		T
M. caul. Xizang MS1	G	C	A	G	C	A	T		T	-	A	T			-		C	AATGAAGTGGATCTATTTCGTTTTATTT	G	T		T
M. caul. Xizang MS2	G	C	A	G	C	A	T		T	-	A	Т			-			AATGAAGTGGATCTATTTCGTTTTATTT	G	T		T
M. caul. Yunnan Yue	G	C	A	G	C	A	T		T	TTT	A	Т			T			AATGAAGTGGATCTATTTCGTTTTATTT	G	T		T
M. caul. Yunnan MG	G	C	A	G	C	A	T		T	T	A	Т			T		C	AATGAAGTGGATCTATTTCGTTTTATTT	G	T		T
M. caul. Yunnan MZ	G	C	A	G	C	A	T		T	TTT	A	Т			T			AATGAAGTGGATCTATTTCGTTTTATTT	G	T		T
M. caul. Yunnan MD	G	C	A	G	С	A	T		T	-	_	-	-	-	T		С	AATGAAGTGGATCTATTTCGTTTTATTT	G	T	T	T
M. caul. Sichuan MJ	G	C	A	G	C	A	T		T	TT	A	T	-	T	T		С	AATGAAGTGGATCTATTTCGTTTTATTT	G	T	T	T

8. Literature Cited

Akhani H, Ghorbani AB. 2003. *Mandragora turcomanica* (Solanaceae) in Iran: a new distribution record for an endangered species. *Systematics and Biodiversity* 1: 177-180.

Alvarez I, Wendel JF. 2003. Ribosomal ITS sequences and plant phylogenetic inference. *Molecular phylogenetics and evolution* **29**: 417-434.

Badr A, Khalifa S, Aboel Atta A, Abou El Enain M. 1997. Chromosomal criteria and taxonomic relationships in the Solanaceae. *Cytologia (Japan)* 62: 103-113.

Baldwin BG, Sanderson MJ, Porter JM, Wojciechowski MF, Campbell CS, Donoghue MJ. 1995. The ITS region of nuclear ribosomal DNA: a valuable source of evidence on angiosperm phylogeny. *Annals of the Missouri Botanical Garden* 82: 247-277.

Baldwin BG. 1992. Phylogenetic utility of the internal transcribed spacers of nuclear ribosomal DNA in plants: an example from the Compositae. *Molecular phylogenetics and evolution* **1**: 3-16.

Bernhardt P, Dafni A. 2000. Breeding system and pollination biology of *Mandragora officinarum* L.(Solanaceae) in northern Israel. *The Scandinavian Association for Pollination Ecology honours Knut Faegri. Series* **29**: 215-224.

Berry MI, Jackson BP. 1976. European mandrake (*Mandragora officinarum* and *M. autumnalis*). The structure of the rhizome and root. *Planta Medica* **30**: 281-290.

Bohs L. 2007. Phylogeny of the Cyphomandra clade of the genus Solanum (Solanaceae) based on ITS sequence data. *Taxon* **56**: 1012-1026.

Bohs L, Olmstead RG. 1997. Phylogenetic relationships in Solanum (Solanaceae) based on ndhF sequences. *Systematic Botany* **22**: 5-17.

Carter AJ. 2003. Myths and mandrakes. *Journal of the Royal Society of Medicine* **96**: 144-147.

Chiang TY, Schaal BA, Peng CI. 1998. Universal primers for amplification and sequencing a noncoding spacer between the atpB and rbcL genes of chloroplast DNA. *Botanical Bulletin of Academia Sinica* **39:** 245-250.

Clarke KR. 1993. Non-parametric multivariate analyses of changes in community structure. *Australian Journal of Ecology* 18: 117-143.

Corander J, Marttinen P. 2006. Bayesian identification of admixture events using multilocus molecular markers. *Molecular ecology* **15**: 2833-2843.

Demesure B, Sodzi N, Petit RJ. 1995. A set of universal primers for amplification of polymorphic non-coding regions of mitochondrial and chloroplast DNA in plants. *Molecular ecology* **4**: 129-134.

Dillon MO, Tu T, Xie L, Quipuscoa Silvestre V, Wen J. 2009. Biogeographic diversification in Nolana (Solanaceae), a ubiquitous member of the Atacama and Peruvian Deserts along the western coast of South America. *Journal of Systematics and Evolution* **47**: 457-476.

Dolezel J, Bartos J. 2005. Plant DNA flow cytometry and estimation of nuclear genome size. *Annals of botany* **95**: 99-110.

Dolezel J, Greilhuber J, Lucretti S, et al. 1998. Plant genome size estimation by flow cytometry: inter-laboratory comparison. *Annals of botany* **82**: 17-26.

Dolezel J, Sgorbati S, Lucretti S. 1992. Comparison of three DNA fluorochromes for flow cytometric estimation of nuclear DNA content in plants. *Physiologia Plantarum* **85**: 625-631.

Doyle JJ, Doyle JL. 1987. A rapid DNA isolation procedure for small quantities of fresh leaf tissue. *Phytochemical bulletin* **19**: 11-15.

Dumolin-Lapegue S, Pemonge MH, Petit R. 1997. An enlarged set of consensus primers for the study of organelle DNA in plants. *Molecular ecology* **6**: 393-397.

Eckardt NA. 2004. Two genomes are better than one: widespread paleopolyploidy in plants and evolutionary effects. *The Plant Cell* **16**: 1647-1649.

Evanno G, Regnaut S, Goudet J. 2005. Detecting the number of clusters of individuals using the software STRUCTURE: a simulation study. *Molecular ecology* **14**: 2611-2620.

Falush D, Stephens M, Pritchard JK. 2007. Inference of population structure using multilocus genotype data: dominant markers and null alleles. *Molecular Ecology Notes* **7**: 574-578.

Falush D, Stephens M, Pritchard JK. 2003. Inference of population structure using multilocus genotype data: linked loci and correlated allele frequencies. *Genetics* **164**: 1567-1587.

Fleisher A, Fleisher Z. 1994. The fragrance of Biblical mandrake. *Economic Botany* **48**: 243-251.

Fleisher Z, Fleisher A. 1992. The odoriferous principles of mandrake, *Mandragora officinarum* L. Aromatic plants of the Holy Land and the Sinai. Part IX. *Journal of Essential Oil Research* **4**: 187-188.

Galbraith DW, Harkins KR, Maddox JM, Ayres NM, Sharma DP, Firoozabady E. 1983. Rapid Flow Cytometric Analysis of the Cell Cycle in Intact Plant Tissues. *Science* 220: 1049-1051.

Gielly L, Taberlet P. 1994. The use of chloroplast DNA to resolve plant phylogenies: noncoding versus rbcL sequences. *Molecular biology and evolution* **11**: 769-777.

Grierson AJC, Long DG. 1978. Notes relating to the flora of Bhutan: 1. *Notes of the Royal Botanic Garden, Edinburgh* **36**: 139-150.

Grivet D, Heinze B, Vendramin GG, Petit RJ. 2001. Genome walking with consensus primers: application to the large single copy region of chloroplast DNA. *Molecular Ecology Notes* **1**: 345-349.

Grover N. 1965. Man and plants against pain. Economic Botany 19: 99-112.

Hanus LO, Dembitsky VM, Moussaieff A. 2006. Comparative study of volatile compounds in the fresh fruits of *Mandragora autumnalis*. *Acta Chromatographica* **17**: 151-160.

Hanus LO, Rezanka T, Spizek J, Dembitsky VM. 2005. Substances isolated from *Mandragora* species. *Phytochemistry* **66**: 2408-2417.

Hawkes JG. 1972. Solanum L. Flora Europaea 3: 199-200.

Hawkes JG, Edmonds JM. 1972. Solanum L. Flora Europaea 3: 197-199.

Hawkes JG, Lester RN, Nee M. 1972. Solanaceae. Flora Europaea 2: 194–200.

Heinze B. 2007. A database of PCR primers for the chloroplast genomes of higher plants. *Plant methods* **3**: 4-11.

Hilu KW. 1993. Polyploidy and the evolution of domesticated plants. *American journal of botany* **80**: 1494-1499.

Hubisz MJ, Falush D, Stephens M, Pritchard JK. 2009. Inferring weak population structure with the assistance of sample group information. *Molecular Ecology Resources* **9**: 1322-1332.

Huys G, Swings J. 1999. Evaluation of a fluorescent amplified fragment length polymorphism (FAFLP) methodology for the genotypic discrimination of Aeromonas taxa. *FEMS microbiology letters* **177**: 83-92.

Jackson BP, Berry MI. 1979. *Mandragora*-taxonomy and chemistry of the European species. In: *Hawkes JG, Lester RN, Skelding AD ed (s).The biology and taxonomy of the Solanaceae. London, Academic Press for the Linnean Society* **39**: 505-512.

Lentini F, Romano S, Raimondo FM. 1988. Numeri cromosomici per la flora Italiana. *Informatore Bonatico Italiano* **20:** 637–646.

Linnaeus C. 1753. Species plantarum. *Laurentius Salvius, Stockholm* **2**: 561–1200.

Ma XF, Fang P, Gustafson JP. 2004. Polyploidization-induced genome variation in *triticale*. *Genome* 47: 839-848.

Mable BK. 2004. Polyploidy and self-compatibility: is there an association? *New Phytologist* **162**: 803-811.

Melotto-Passarin DM, Berger IJ, Dressano K, et al. 2008. Phylogenetic relationships in Solanaceae and related species based on cpDNA sequence from plastid trnE-trnT region. *Crop Breeding and Applied Biotechnology* 8: 85-95.

Mizgireva OF. 1978. *Mandragora* turkmenskaya (*Mandragora* turkcomanica Mizgir). *Izvestiya Akademii Nauk Turkmenskoi SSR Seriya Biologicheskikh Nauk* **4**: 54-55.

Moldenke HN, Moldenke AL. 1952. Plants of the bible. Waltham, Mass. Chronica Botanica Co. 328pp.

Murin A. 1978. Index of chromosome numbers of the Slovakian flora, part 6. *Acta Facultatia Rerum Naturalium Universitatia Comenianae Botanica* **26:** 1–42.

Ojiewo CO, Murakami K, Masinde PW, Agong SG. 2007. Polyploidy breeding of African nightshade (Solanum section Solanum). *International Journal of Plant Breeding* **1**: 10-21.

Olmstead RG, Sweere JA, Spangler RE, Bohs L, Palmer J. 1999. Phylogeny and provisional classification of the Solanaceae based on chloroplast DNA. Pp. 111-137. In: *Solanaceae IV, Advances in Biology and Utilization*. Nee M, Symon DE, Jessup JP, Hawkes JG, eds. Royal Botanic Gardens, Kew.

Olmstead RG, Palmer JD. 1992. A chloroplast DNA phylogeny of the Solanaceae: subfamilial relationships and character evolution. *Annals of the Missouri Botanical Garden* **79**: 346-360.

- **Peakall R, Smouse PE. 2006.** GENALEX 6: genetic analysis in Excel. Population genetic software for teaching and research. *Molecular Ecology Notes* 6: 288-295.
- **Petit RJ, Vendramin GG. 2007.** Plant phylogeography based on organelle genes: an introduction. Pp. 23-97. In: *Phylogeography of southern European refugia—Evolutionary perspectives on the origins and conservation of European biodiversity.*
- **Pritchard JK, Stephens M, Donnelly P. 2000.** Inference of population structure using multilocus genotype data. *Genetics* **155**: 945-959.
- **Ramsey J, Schemske DW. 1998.** Pathways, mechanisms, and rates of polyploid formation in flowering plants. *Annual Review of Ecology and Systematics* **29**: 467-501.
- **Randolph CB. 1905.** The *Mandragora* of the Ancients in Folk-lore and Medicine. *Proceedings of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences* **40**: 487-537.
- **Rieseberg LH, Soltis DE. 1991.** Phylogenetic consequences of cytoplasmic gene flow in plants. *Evolutionary Trends in Plants* **5**: 65-84.
- **Sang T, Crawford DJ, Stuessy TF. 1997.** Chloroplast DNA phylogeny, reticulate evolution, and biogeography of Paeonia (Paeoniaceae). *American Journal of Botany* **84**: 1120-1120.
- **Shaw J, Lickey EB, Schilling EE, Small RL. 2007.** Comparison of whole chloroplast genome sequences to choose noncoding regions for phylogenetic studies in angiosperms: the tortoise and the hare III. *American Journal of Botany* **94**: 275-288.
- Shaw J, Lickey EB, Beck JT, Farmer SB, Liu W, Miller J, Siripun KC, Winder CT, Schilling EE, Small RL. 2005. The tortoise and the hare II: relative utility of 21 noncoding chloroplast DNA sequences for phylogenetic analysis. *American Journal of Botany* 92: 142-166.
- **Shaw J, Small RL. 2005.** Chloroplast DNA phylogeny and phylogeography of the North American plums (Prunus subgenus Prunus section Prunocerasus, Rosaceae). *American Journal of Botany* **92**: 2011-2030.
- **Shaw J, Small RL. 2004.** Addressing the" hardest puzzle in American pomology:" phylogeny of Prunus sect. Prunocerasus (Rosaceae) based on seven noncoding chloroplast DNA regions. *American Journal of Botany* **91**: 985-996.
- **Singh R, Wafai BA. 1984.** Intravarietal polyploidy in the apple (Malus pumilaMill.) cultivar Hazratbali. *Euphytica* **33**: 209-214.

- **Smith HB. 1927.** Chromosome counts in the varieties of Solanum Tuberosum and allied wild species. *Genetics* **12**: 84-92.
- **Tajima F, Nei M. 1984.** Estimation of evolutionary distance between nucleotide sequences. *Molecular biology and evolution* **1**: 269-285.
- **Tamura K, Peterson D, Peterson N, Stecher G, Nei M, Kumar S. 2011.** MEGA5: molecular evolutionary genetics analysis using maximum likelihood, evolutionary distance, and maximum parsimony methods. *Molecular biology and evolution* **28**: 2731-2739.
- Thompson CJS. 1934. The Mystic Mandrake. Rider and Co. London
- **Tu T, Volis S, Dillon MO, Sun H, Wen J. 2010.** Dispersals of Hyoscyameae and Mandragoreae (Solanaceae) from the New World to Eurasia in the early Miocene and their biogeographic diversification within Eurasia. *Molecular phylogenetics and evolution* **57**: 1226-1237.
- **Tu T, Dillon MO, Sun H, Wen J. 2008.** Phylogeny of Nolana (Solanaceae) of the Atacama and Peruvian deserts inferred from sequences of four plastid markers and the nuclear LEAFY second intron. *Molecular phylogenetics and evolution* **49**: 561-573.
- **Tu T, Sun H, Gu Z, Yue J. 2005.** Cytological studies on the Sino-Himalayan endemic Anisodus and four related genera from the tribe Hyoscyameae (Solanaceae) and their systematic and evolutionary implications. *Botanical Journal of the Linnean Society* **147**: 457-468.
- **Ungricht S, Knapp S, Press JR. 1998.** A revision of the genus *Mandragora* (Solanaceae). *Bulletin of The Natural History Museum, Botany* **28**: 17-40.
- Vos P, Hogers R, Bleeker M, et al. 1995. AFLP: a new technique for DNA fingerprinting. *Nucleic Acids Research*, 23: 4407-4414.
- Wen J, Shi S. 1999. A phylogenetic and biogeographic study of Hamamelis (Hamamelidaceae), an eastern Asian and eastern North American disjunct genus. *Biochemical systematics and ecology* 27: 55-66.
- **Wen J, Zimmer EA. 1996.** Phylogeny and Biogeography of Panax L. (the Ginseng Genus, Araliaceae): Inferences from ITS Sequences of Nuclear Ribosomal DNA. *Molecular phylogenetics and evolution* **6**: 167-177.
- White TJ, Bruns T, Lee S, Taylor J. 1990. Amplification and direct sequencing of fungal ribosomal RNA genes for phylogenetics. pp. 315-322. In: *PCR protocols a guide to methods and applications*, Innis MA, Gelfand DH, Sninsky JJ, White TJ, eds. Academic Press.

Xu X, Walters C, Antolin MF, et al. 2010. Phylogeny and biogeography of the eastern Asian-North American disjunct wild-rice genus (Zizania L., Poaceae). *Molecular phylogenetics and evolution* **55**: 1008-1017.

Zhang ZY, Yang DZ, Lu AM, Knapp S. 2005. Seed morphology of the tribe Hyoscyameae (Solanaceae). *Taxon* **54**: 71-83.

9. תקציר

מטרת מחקר זה היתה לבחון מחדש את הקשרים הפילוגנטיים בין מינים שונים של הסוג דודא ITS את, בהתבסס על ריצוף שמונה אזורים בדנ"א הכלורופלסטי, ריצוף אזור (Mandragora). בדנ"א הגרעיני, AFLP ומדדים מורפולוגיים שונים (פרחים, פירות וזרעים). בנוסף, איפיון השונות הפנוטיפית והכלאות עצמיות וחיצוניות נעשו כצעד ראשון בתהליך ביות פרי הדודא, FACS- שימש להערכת רמת הפלואידיה של הדודא וזיקתה לתפוצה הגיאוגרפית של הצמח.

על פי הנתונים המורפולוגיים (פירות וזרעים) ואנליזת FACS, צמחי הדודא יכולים להתחלק לשלוש קבוצות. הקבוצה הראשונה כוללת צמחי דודא מישראל, טורקמניסטן ואירן, אשר מאופיינים בפירות גדולים ועגולים, בעלי זרעים גדולים ותכולת דנ"א גדולה. הקבוצה השניה כוללת צמחים מאירופה (קפריסין, טורקיה, איטליה, מרוקו וספרד) המאופיינים בפירות קטנים, מאורכים ודמויי אליפסה עם זרעים בגודל בינוני ותכולת דנ"א קטנה. צמחי הדודא מטיבט הם הקבוצה השלישית ולהם זרעים קטנים מאד ומורפולוגיה שונה של השכבה החיצונית של הזרע. התוצאות של AFLP ושל ריצוף דנ"א כלורופלסטי ו-ITS קרובות מאוד ומראות הבדלים גדולים יותר בין צמחי דודא מאירופה לישראל מאשר בין צמחי דודא מישראל לטורקמניסטן ואירן. מכאן יש להסיק כי בניגוד למסקנות המחקרים הקודמים בנושא (Akhani and Ghorbani, 2003 אינו מין מיד כמו שחשבו בעבר. בנוסף, הזיהוי של M. officinarum, (Akhani and Ghorbani, 2003 ממצאי העבודה המוצגים כאן, ונראה שהוא קרוב מאוד לצמחים הישראלים.

מילות מפתח

דודא, טקסונומיה, סיסטמטיקה, פילוגיאוגרפיה, פילוגנטיקה, ביות.

דודאים: פילוגנטיקה וביות

מחקר לשם מילוי חלקי של הדרישות לקבלת תואר "דוקטור לפילוסופיה"

מאת

קרן פוגל

הוגש לסינאט אוניברסיטת בן גוריון בנגב

תמוז תשע"ב

באר שבע

דודאים: פילוגנטיקה וביות

לפילוסופיה"	״דוקטור	לת תואר	ישות לקב	של הדר	לוי חלקי	לשם מי	מחקר

מאת

קרן פוגל

הוגש לסינאט אוניברסיטת בן גוריון בנגב

	אישור המנחה
	אישור המנחה
קדמים ע"ש קרייטמן	אישור דיקן בית הספר ללימודי מחקר מתי
2012 1111	m 11 errrr m + 444 m

באר שבע

העבודה נעשתה בהדרכת

ד"ר סרגיי ווליס

וד"ר חליל קשקוש

במחלקה למדעי החיים

בפקולטה למדעי הטבע

הצהרת תלמיד המחקר עם הגשת עבודת הדוקטור לשיפוט

אני החתום מטה מצהיר/ה בזאת: (אנא סמן):	
חיברתי את חיבורי בעצמי, להוציא עזרת ההדר	שקיבלתי מאת מנחה/ים.
החומר המדעי הנכלל בעבודה זו הינו פרי מחקר <u>מחקר</u> .	תקופת היותי תלמיד/ת
בעבודה נכלל חומר מחקרי שהוא פרי שיתוף עכ הנהוגה בעבודה ניסיונית. לפי כך מצורפת בזאת הצה למחקר, שאושרה על ידם ומוגשת בהסכמתם.	,
שם התלמיד/ה	חתימה