

Songklanakarin J. Sci. Technol. 41 (2), 383-388, Mar. – Apr. 2019



Original Article

Inheritance of pericarp pigment on crossing between black rice and white rice

Kristamtini^{1*}, Taryono², Panjisakti Basunanda², and Rudi Hari Murti²

¹ Assessment Institute for Agricultural Technology Yogyakarta, Sleman, Yogyakarta, 55584 Indonesia

² Faculty of Agriculture, Gadjah Mada University, Bulaksumur, Yogyakarta, 55281 Indonesia

Received: 22 December 2016; Revised: 12 November 2017; Accepted: 24 November 2017

Abstract

This research studied the genetic parameters of the pigment characters of rice. The experiments were conducted in two stages: establishment of base population through crossing between black rice with white rice and F_{1s} were grown in the green house and F_2 seeds in the field. Analysis of the suitability of segregation ratio calculated with the chi squared formula and the degree of dominance could be seen from the comparison between the dominant predictive value [h] and the additive predictive value [d] were carried out with SAS 9.2 software. The results showed that the character of purple pigment was controlled by two mutually complementary dominant genes with recessive epistasis (9:3:4) which follow the model of additive×additive ([m][d][i] and dominant×dominant ([m][d][1]) interaction. The action of black/purple pigment gene of rice was perfect dominance which was directed to the parent with purple pericarp pigment (black rice).

Keywords: pericarp pigment, inheritance, black rice, white rice

1. Introduction

Most of the rice consumed is white rice, although there are many cultivars of rice including those containing color pigments, such as red and black. The name of the rice is associated with the color/pigment (black, red or purple) formed by deposits of anthocyanin in the pericarp layer, seed coat (seed coat) or aleurone layer (Chaudhary, 2003). Colored rice has potential as a source of antioxidants and viable as a source of functional food (Yawadio *et al.*, 2007). Black rice has high anthocyanin content in the pericarp layer, which gives a dark purple pigment (Ryu *et al.*, 1998; Takashi *et al.*, 2001). Anthocyanins act as antioxidants that can clean up cholesterol in the blood, prevents anemia, potentially increasing the body's resistance to disease, improve liver cell

*Corresponding author Email address: krisniur@yahoo.co.id damage (hepatitis and chirrosis), prevent impaired kidney function, prevent cancer/tumor, slow the aging (antiaging) (Harmanto, 2008), as well as to prevent narrowing of the arteries (atherosclerosis) and heart vessel disease (cardiovascular) (Ling *et al.*, 2001; Ling *et al.*, 2002). Black rice also contains protein, vitamins, and minerals higher than white rice (Suzuki *et al.*, 2004). Black rice is rich in the element iron (Fe), zinc (Zn), manganese (Mn) and phosphorus (P). The range of content of these elements is quite high depending on the variety, location and different soil types (Liu *et al.*, 1995; Qiu *et al.*, 1993; Zhang, 2000).

Local black rice has advantages, but also has drawbacks of perennial nature, tall plants, low production potential and unacceptable taste. Research towards the formation of black rice cultivars with superior properties of high productivity, early maturity, low plant habitus, high anthocyanin content and good taste in Indonesia is in slow progress. Research and inheritance of pigment pericarp of black rice abroad was conducted by Hsieh and Chang (1964); Mingwei *et al.* (1995); Sahu *et al.* (2011); Wang and Qingyao (2007) and Rahman *et al.* (2013). The pattern of inheritance of pigment rice with local black rice from Indonesia has not been known. Therefore, research towards the establishment of rice cultivars black rice superior needs to be done. This study was conducted to determine the pattern of inheritance of pigment in a cross between black rice of local Indonesian with white rice of superior variety.

2. Materials and Methods

Study of inheritance patterns of rice pigment using five population is parent P_1 = black rice of Magelang hairless (code S), Cempo ireng (code C) and parent P_2 = white rice of Situbagendit (code G) and Inpari 6 (code I), F_1 population (P_1 / P_2), F_2 (F_1 selfing) and F_3 (F_2 selfing). Evaluation of pericarp pigment of the rice is done on each individual rice plants. Rice pericarp pigment of each population morphology observed with partial peeling grains. Rice pigment observation based scoring colors as shown in Table 1.

Table 1. Score of pigment rice.

Trait	Score	Characteristic properties	
Black	1	the percentage of black pigment in a single grain of rice ≥ 50 %; referred to as Black = B	
Medium black	2	the percentage of black pigment in a single grain of rice < 50 % ; referred to as Medium Black = MB	
Red	3	the percentage of red pigment in a single grain of rice 100 %, referred to as $\text{Red} = \text{R}$	
White	4	the percentage of white pigment in a single grain of rice 100 %, referred to as White = W	

2.1 Data Analysis

2.1.1 Testing of rice pigment inheritance

The data observations of seed pericarp pigment based on the scoring yields from F_2 and F_3 generation populations of plants were analyzed using chi-square analysis (Singh and Chaudhary, 1979).

$$n \quad (Oi-Ei)^2$$
$$\chi^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} - \sum_{Ei}^{\infty} - \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} E_i$$

Description: Oi = number of phenotypes to i based on observations; Ei = the amount of the expected phenotype; n = the number of classes.

Value of χ^2 be compared with value table of χ^2 on appropriate degree of freedom. If the value of statistical χ^2 is smaller than the value of χ^2 , then the frequency distribution of F₂ population is in accordance with ratio expected.

2.1.2 Estimation of gene action and genetic parameters

a. Homogeneity analysis of P₁, P₂ and F₁ population was Barlett test. Barlett test was conducted in order to determine homogeneity of variance of population generations. Homogeneity analysis is done with the help of SAS V9.2 software.

b. Determined the adequacy of additive-dominant model with Joint scaling test method (Mather and Jinks, 1982), with a prediction: Ho = follow the additive dominant model; Ha = not follow the additive-dominant model (following the epistasis model), if reject Ho, then considered to follow the epistasis model.

If following the additive-dominant model, then the estimate of the genetic component is done by the method of least weighted square method = w), with weights is an example and inverse variance (Rowe and Alexander, 1980), the genetic parameters are: [m], [d], and [h], with [m] = intercept, [d] = total effect of additive, and [h] = total effect of dominant.

If the additive-dominant models are not fulfilled, then the estimation of genetic parameters is done with six genetic parameters according to Mather and Jinks (1982), with the average population in five generations that is a combination of six genetic parameters, namely:

		_					_	$\langle \rangle$
P1		(1	1	0	1	0	0	m
P2		1	-1	0	1	0	0	m d
F1	=	1	0	1	0	0	1	h
F2		1	0	0,5	0	0	0,25	į
F3		1	0	0,25	0	0	0,625	j
		\subset						[i]
Y	=			С				М

with [m] = intercept; [i] = additive-additive interaction; [d] = total effect of additive; [j] = interaction of additive-dominant and dominant-additive; [h] = total effect of dominant; [l] = dominant-dominant interaction; Y = average of generation; C = genetic model that depend on a M parameter which will allegedly; M = genetic parameters were estimated by the least squares consisting of [m], [d], [h], [i] [j], and [l].

Estimation analysis of genetic parameter was performed using SAS V.9.2 software with Proc. GLM on scoring pigment data from generation population of P_1 , P_2 , F_1 , F_2 and F_3 .

2.1.3 The degree of dominance

The degree of dominance can be seen from the comparison between the dominant predictive value [h] with the additive predictive value [d] (Mather & Jinks, 1982). Criteria for the degree of dominance by Petr and Frey (1966) that if the value of the degree of dominance in the range of 0 and 1 indicates the trait is controlled by a dominant gene is not perfect, if the value of the degree of dominance in the range of -1 and 0 indicating the trait is controlled by a negative dominant gene with not perfect. If the value of the degree of dominance, if the degree of dominance is worth 1 or -1 indicates the character is a dominance gene controlled perfectly and if the degree of dominance is less than -1 or more than 1 indicate the character is a controlled by gene action of over dominance.

3. Results and Discussion

3.1 Testing of rice pigment inheritance

Testing of the rice pigment and pattern of inheritance of genetic parameters testing performed on three cross combinations between black rice with white rice: black rice of Magelang hairless (S/black) × Situbagendit (G/white); Cempo ireng (C/black) × Situbagendit (G/white) and Cempo ireng (C/black) × Inpari 6 (I/white). Rice pigment inheritance estimated using P₁, P₂, F₁, F₂ and F₃ population

In Table 2 it appears that the diversity of score pigment two parents (P₁ and P₂) and the third cross F₁ (S × G; C × G, and C × I) was not significantly (Pr = 0.4579; Pr = 0.9404; Pr = 0.9981). This shows the third population is homogenous population with a mean different. The mean pigment score of F₁ (pigment score = 1.0254 and 1.0412) is similar to the black rice of S and C cultivar as P1 parent (pigment score = of 1.0462 and 1.0500) lower than the mean scores of white rice of G and I cultivar as P₂ parents (pigment score of 4.0346 and 4.0462). This means of the two parents pigment, based on different pigment score with value of low score pigment was dominant than value of high pigment score. F₂ plants will be segregate shown by value of variance greater than the value of the two parents and F₁ (Bartlett test Pr = 0.0001; Table 2).

The observation of the pigment of F_2 rice plant population (630 individual plants of S×G, 920 individual plants of C×G and 472 individual plants of C×I) and the plant population F_3 (3,527 individual plants of S×G, 3942 individual plants of C×G and 2,588 individual plants of C×I) were grouped into four groups, namely: Black (B); Medium Black (MB); Red (R) and White (W) (Table 3).

 medium black) and the remaining ¹/₄ of the population was not black rice (red and white). Results sorting of one locus model with 3:1 ratio in the F₂ and F₃ populations of S×G; C×G and C×I crossing can be accepted at the level of 0.05 (Table 3, except F₃ C×G and C×I). These results are consistent with Rahman *et al* (2013) that the cross of Kewha black rice and Kumgangbyeo white rice provide segregation in F₂ and F₃ generation with ratio of 3 black: 1 white so black pigment dominant over white pericarp.

Crosses using two different parents with F1 is similar to one of the parents may also occur under two loci model with two alleles per locus and the results of chi-square analysis (S×G, C×G and C×I crossing) showed irregularities ratio of 9:3:3:1 both in F_2 and F_3 populations (Table 3). Therefore, the analysis continued by sorting into two groups and three groups. The analysis of F₂ population that is linear with F₃ population is the sorting of three groups: 9:3:4 or recessive epistasis on S×G, C×G, and C×I crossing (Table 3). Recessive epistasis occurs when the recessive allele in a gene cover or reduce the expression phenotypes alleles in other genes. This is in accordance with Acquaah (2007) and Hartl (2009), that the cross using two different parents with F_1 is similar to one of the parents may also occur under two loci model with two alleles per locus for the gene action was complements with 9: 7 ratio; or duplicate genes with ratio 15:1; or additive genes with a ratio of 9:6:1; or dominant epistasis with a ratio of 12:3:1; or recessive epistasis with a ratio of 9:3:4; or suppression dominant with the ratio 13:3.

3.2 Estimation of gene action and genetic parameters

Analysis of the average generation using P_1 , P_2 , F_1 , F_2 and F_3 generation populations are conducted to determine the behavior of the rice pigment. Results of the average generation analysis at S×G; C×G and C×I crossing showed

Table 2. The mean and variance of scores pigment in populations P_1 , P_2 , F_1 and F_2 on $S \times G$; $C \times G$ and $C \times I$ crossing.

Generation _	Crossing				
	$\mathbf{S}\times\mathbf{G}$	$\mathbf{C} imes \mathbf{G}$	$\mathbf{C} imes \mathbf{I}$		
${f P_1} {ar X} \ \sigma^2$	1.0460	1.0500	1.0462		
	0.0066	0.0058	0.0066		
$P_2 = \overline{X} = \sigma^2$	4.0340	4.0462	4.0462		
	0.0056	0.0066	0.0066		
$F_1 = \overline{\overline{X}} = \sigma^2$	1.0254	1.0412	1.0412		
	0.0043	0.0065	0.0065		
$F_2 = \overline{X} = \sigma^2$	1.7809	1.9772	1.9788		
	1.1379	1.5914	1.5749		
$F_3 = \overline{X} = \sigma^2$	1.7116	2.1110	1.5858		
	0.9682	1.9618	0.9826		
Mean and variance test					
Но		Pr			
$\mu_{P1} = \mu_{P2} = \mu_{F1}$ $\mu_{P1} = \mu_{P2}$ $\mu_{F1} = \mu_{P1}$ $\mu_{F1} = \mu_{P2}$ $\mu_{F1} = \mu_{MP}$ $\sigma_{2P1}^{2} = \sigma_{P2}^{2} = \sigma_{F1}^{2}$	< 0.0001	< 0.0001	< 0.0001		
	< 0.0001	< 0.0001	< 0.0001		
	0.2373	0.6464	0.7987		
	< 0.0001	< 0.0001	< 0.0001		
	< 0.0001	< 0.0001	< 0.0001		
	0.4579	0.9404	0.9981		
σ^2_{F2}	0.0001	0.0001	0.0001		

G .	F ₂ Ge	neration	F ₃ Generation		
Crossing	Observed	χ2	Observed	χ2	
S x G	$B = 365 MB = 95 R = 103 W = 67 \Sigma = 630$	Monogenic 3 : 1 (1.43 ^{ns}) Digenic 9:3:3:1 (26.16 [*]) 9 : 7 (2.878 ^{ns}) 13:3 (2.229 ^{ns}) 9:3:4 (5.838 ^{ns})	$B = 2140 MB = 489 R = 676 W = 222 \Sigma = 3527$	Monogenic 3 : 1 (0.424 ^{ns}) Digenic 9:3:3:1 (57.51 [*]) 12:3:1 (1.343 ^{ns}) 9:6:1 (3.033 ^{ns}) 9:3:4 (3.092 ^{ns}) 13:3 (0.429 ^{ns}) 15:1 (0.005 ^{ns})	
C x G	$B = 503MB$ $MB=174$ $R = 4$ $W = 239$ $\Sigma = 920$	Monogenic 3 : 1 (1.057 ^{ns}) Digenic 9:3:3:1 (737.92 [*]) 9 : 7 (0.866 ^{ns}) 9:3:4 (1.154 ^{ns})	$B=2304 \\ MB = 966 \\ R = 6 \\ W = 666 \\ \sum = 3942$	Monogenic 3 : 1 (132.54*) Digenic 9:3:3:1 (1514.9*) 9:6:1 (1.600 ^{ns}) 9:3:4 (2.972 ^{ns})	
C x I	B = 256 MB = 90 R = 6 W = 120 $\Sigma = 472$	Monogenic 3 : 1 (0.816 ^{ns}) Digenic 9:3:3:1 (354.91 [*]) 9 : 7 (0.697 ^{ns}) 9:3:4 (0.907 ^{ns})	$\begin{array}{l} B = 1716 \\ MB = 543 \\ R = 14 \\ W = 315 \\ \Sigma = 2588 \end{array}$	Monogenic 3 : 1 (207.7*) Digenic 9:3:3:1 (656.3*) 9 : 7 (2.299 ^{ns}) 9:3:4 (3.194 ^{ns})	

Table 3. Results of chi- squared analysis of F2 and F3 populations at SxG; CxG and CxI crossing.

Note: * = significant at α = 5%, meaning that the ratio of hope was rejected, ns = not significant at α = 5%, meaning that the ratio of hope received; B = Black; MB = Medium Black; R = Red; and W = White.

that the behavior of rice pigment characters can be explained by using additive-dominance model. However, the gene action of additive-dominance at two loci with two alleles per locus model both in F₂ and F₃ population are deviate from 9:3:3:1 ratio (Table 3). Therefore, the test continued to interactions locus (epistasis) for black color rice character using mean analysis generation. Results of mean analysis generation at S×G; C×G and C×I crossing showed that the behavior of pigment rice can be explained using additive-dominant model with additives-additives and dominant-dominant interaction with three genetic component, m [d] [i] and m [d] [l] (Table 4). Singh and Chaudhary (1979) states that the role of these genetic components can be tested by comparing t statistical with t table as on the individual scale test. The value of additive genetic components and additive -additive and dominant-dominant interaction is significant at 5% and 10% level

Value of dominant genetic component [h] and dominant × dominant [1] interaction have the same sign (ie negative). This suggests a recessive epistasis gene action in accordance with the results of chi-square analysis with a ratio of 9:3:4 (recessive epistasis) in the F2 and F3 generation (Table 3). Mather and Jinks (1982), said that when the dominant genetic component [h] and the dominant × dominant interaction has a value with the same sign then indicates a complementary gene action or recessive epistasis. Negative values at the genetic component dominance [h] and the interaction of dominant×dominant [1] (Table 4) shows that these components tend to be more directed to parent who have on average lower, in this case leads to the parent by black pigment rice (score of black pigment rice = 1, the pigment of the lowest scores). In accordance with Arif et al. (2012), if component dominant × dominant genetic parameter is negative, then the components are more likely to lead to parent who have an average value lower.

Results of chi-squared analysis on F_2 and F_3 populations and based on the analysis of the mean generation that inheritance of rice pigment character (black) at S×G; C×G and C×I crossing is controlled by two pairs of genes to influence recessive epistasis ratio of 9:3:4, with photos chronologically from crosses presented in Appendix Figure 1 (S×G crossing), Figure 2 (C×G crossing) and Figure 3 (C×I crossing).

Grouping pigment in chi-square analysis in 9: 3: 4 ratio (9B: 3 MB: 4 instead of black), with pigment instead of black consists of two groups of pigments are brown rice and white rice. This is due to a recessive epistasis effect on anthocyanin biosynthesis process. Allegedly, during the process of anthocyanin biosynthesis inhibition encoding the enzyme chalcone Syntase (CHS), or overexpression (over encoding) of dihydroflavonol reductase gene (DHFR) on a portion of the plant so that the recessive allele at the gene expression phenotypes cover or reduce the alleles in second genes. According Gutterson (1995) and Tanaka et al. (1998), with the approach of inhibition (silencing) and excess encoding gene (overexpression) in the phenylpropanoid pathway that produces anthocyanins can be done to produce the flower color on purpose, as stated by Gutterson et al. (1994) on the formation of white chrysanthemums done by inhibiting the gene encoding chalcone syntase (CHS) and Tanaka et al. (1995) on the formation of the red-brick petunia flowers by enhancing the encoding (overexpression) of dihydroflavonol reductase gene (DHFR).

Based on the above results, Pb and Pp genes were dominant to encourage the formation of anthocyanin expressed as black of rice, while pb and pp genes in homo zygous state inhibit the formation of anthocyanins so that

386

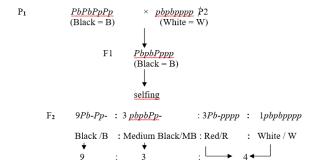
	Crossing of $S \times G$	Crossing of $\mathbf{C} \times \mathbf{G}$	Crossing of $\mathbf{C} \times \mathbf{I}$
β	Predictive value	Predictive value	Predictive value
m	$2.428 \pm 0.166^{**}$	$2.54 \pm 0.037^{**}$	$2.43 \pm 0.202^{**}$
[d]	$-1.504 \pm 0.185^{**}$	$-1.498 \pm 0.039^{**}$	$-1.500 \pm 0.22^{**}$
[h]	$-1.429 \pm 0.236^{**}$	$-1.499 \pm 0.056^{**}$	$-1.424 \pm 0.306^{**}$
F stat	54.28 **	1031.3 **	34.08 **
$R^{2}(\%)$	98.19	99.90	97.15
m	$1.208 \pm 0.217^{**}$	$1.298 \pm 0.318^{*}$	$1.199 \pm 0.189^{**}$
[d]	$-1.494 \pm 0.297^{**}$	$-1.498 \pm 0.355^{*}$	$-1.500 \pm 0.211^{**}$
[i]	$1.332 \pm 0.367^{*}$	$1.249 \pm 0.476^{*}$	$1.346 \pm 0.291^{**}$
F stat	20.73 **	11.85*	33.71**
$R^{2}(\%)$	95.40	92.22	97.12
m	$2.320 \pm 0.245^{**}$	$2.479 \pm 0.099^{**}$	$2.366 \pm 0.271^{**}$
[d]	$-1.513 \pm 0.291^{**}$	$-1.494 \pm 0.110^{**}$	$-1.500 \pm 0.311^{**}$
[1]	$-1.307 \pm 0.354^{*}$	$-1.444 \pm 0.153^{*}$	$-1.309 \pm 0.417^{*}$
F stat	21.39 **	130.49 **	16.56 **
$R^{2}(\%)$	95.53	99.22	94.30

Table 4. Test the suitability of additive-dominant model of S×G; C×G and C×I crossing for black pigment rice.

Note: * = significant α = 5 %; ** = significant α = 10 %; β = genetic parameter estimators; [m] = intercept = mean generation effect; [d] = additive effect; [h]= dominant effect; [i] = additive - additive interaction; [l] = dominant-dominant interaction; R^2 = coefficient of determination.

white of rice. Based on the possibility of S×G; C×G, and C×I crossing in Figure 1, *Pb* genes responsible for the distribution/spread of anthocyanin and *Pp* genes controlling of anthocyanin synthesis. Individual plants having *Pb-Pp* genotype to produce of large anthocyanins was expressed as black rice pericarp. Plants with *pbpbPp*- genotype to produce of low anthocyanins number because it has a pbpb genotype was expressed as medium black the pericarp. Furthermore, plants with red and white pericarp not produce anthocyanins (no purple) because the plant has ppp recessive gene. Wang and Qingyao (2007) and Wang et al. (2009) say that the *Pb* genes responsible for the accumulation of brown pericarp pigment and black rice pericarp requires *Pp* gene.

Research results of Rahman *et al.* (2013), at crossing of black rice 'Heugnambyeo' (*PbPbPpPp*) with three varieties of white rice 'Hwayongbyeo', 'Ishikari' and 'Iipombyoo' (*pbpbpppp*) give segregation in the ratio 9 black: 3 brown: 4 white; sianidin -3-O-glycoside content higher in black seeds / dark purple (*Pb-PpPp*) of the medium black / medium purple pigment (*Pb-Pppp*). Seeds with red pericarp (*Pb-pppp*) or white pericarp (*pbpbpppp*) are an expression of the absence sianidin-3-O-glucoside. These results indicate that the level of sianidin-3-O-glucoside, which is one type of anthocyanins which are contained in black rice, is determined by the copy number of *Pp* alleles.





4. Conclusions

The character of purple pigment at the crossing between black and white rice was controlled by two mutually complementary dominant genes with recessive epistasis (ratio 9:3:4) which follow the model of additive×additive ([m][d][i] and dominant×dominant ([m][d][1]) interaction. The action of the gene for the black pigment of rice was perfect dominance which was directed to the parent with purple pericarp pigment (black rice).

References

- Acquaah, G. (2007). *Principles of Plant Genetics and Breeding*. Milton, Australia: Blackwell Publishing.
- Arif, A., Sujiprihati, S., & dan Syukur, M. (2012). Estimation of genetic parameters on some quantitative traits in a cross between curly chili with chili (*Capsicum* annuum L.) Jurnal Agronomi Indonesia, 40 (2), 119-124.
- Chaudhary, R. C. (2003). Speciality rices of the world: Effect of WTIO and IPR on its production trend and marketing. *Food, Agriculture and Environment, 1* (2), 34-41.
- Gutterson, N., Napoli, N., Lemieux, C., Morgan, A., Firoozabady, E., & Robinson, K. E. P. (1994). Modification of flower color in florist's chrysanthemum. Production of white-flowering variety through molecular genetics. *Biotechnology*, 12, 268-271.
- Gutterson, N. (1995). Anthocyanin biosynthetic genes and their application to flower color modification through sense suppression. *HortScience*, 30, 964-966.
- Hartl, D. L., & Jones, W. J. (2009). Genetics: Principles and analysis (4th ed.). Burlington, MA: Jones and Bartlett.

- Harmanto, A. (2008, September 26). Organic rice varieties by color. Retrieved from http://aghribisnis-ganesha. com.p.146 (Indonesia Language).
- Hsieh, S. C, & Chang, T. M. (1964). Genic analysis in rice IV. Genes for purple pericarp and other characters. *Japan Journal of Breeding*, 14,141-149.
- Ling, W. H., Cheng, Q. X., Ma, J., & Wang, T. (2001). Red and black rice decrease artherosclerotic plaque formation and increase antioxidant status in rabbits. *Journal of Nutrition*, 131, 1421-1426.
- Ling, W. H., Wang, L. L., & Ma, J. (2002). Supplementation of black rice outer layer fraction to rabbits decreases the atherosclerotic plaque formation and increases antioxidant status. *Journal of Nutrition*, 132, 20-26.
- Liu, X. H., Sun, C. Q., & Wang, X. K. (1995). Studies on the content of four elements Fe, Zn, Ca, and Se in rice various area of China. Acta Agriciculture University Pekinensis, 21(3),138-142.
- Mather, K., & Jinks, J. L. (1982). *Biometrical genetics*. (3rd ed.). Great Britain. Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.
- Mingwei, Z., Zhongming, P., & Yunqi, X. (1995). Genetic effect analysis on pigment content in pericarp of black rice grain. *Chines Journal of Rice Sciene*, 9(3),149-155.
- Petr, F. C., & Frey, K. C. (1966). Genotypic correlation dominans and heritability of quantitative character in oats. *Crop Science*, 6,259-262.
- Qiu, L. C., Pan, J., & Dan, B. W. (1993). The mineral nutrient component and characteristics of color and white brown rice. *Chinese Journal of Rice Science*, 7(2),95-100.
- Rahman, Md. M., Lee, K. E., Matin, M. N., Lee, D. S., Yun, J. S., Kim, J. B., & Kang, S. G. (2013). The genetic constitutions of complementary genes *Pp* and *Pb* determine the purple color variation in pericarps with cyanidin 3-O-glucoside depositions in black rice. *Journal of Plant Biology*, 56,24-31.
- Rowe, K. E., & Alexander, W. L. (1980). Computations for estimating the genetic parameters in joint-scaling test. *Crop Science*, 20,109-110.
- Ryu, S. N., Park, S. Z., & Ho, C. T. (1998). High performances liquid chromatographic determination of anthocyanin pigments in some varieties of black rice. *Journal Food and Drug Analysis*, 6,1710-1715.

- Sahu, G. R., Sarawgi, A. K., Sharma, B., & Parikh, M. (2011). Inheritance of anthocyanin pigmentation in rice. *Journal of Rice Research*, 3(1),19-23.
- Singh, R. K., & Chaudhary, B. D. (1979). *Biometrical method in quantitative genetics analysis*. New Delhi, India: Kalyani.
- Suzuki, M., Kimur, T., Yamagishi, K., Shinmoto, H., & Yamaki, K. (2004). Comparison of mineral contents in 8 cultivars of pigmented brown rice. *Nippon Shokuhin Kagaku Kogaku Kaishi*, 51(58), 424-427.
- Takashi, I., Bing, X., Yoichi, Y., Masaharu, N., & Tetsuya, K. (2001). Antioxidant activity of anthocyanin extract from purple black rice. *Journal of Medicinal Food*, 4, 211-218.
- Tanaka, Y., Fukai, Y., Fukuchi-Mizutani, M., Holton, T. A., Higgens, E., & Kusumi, T. (1995). Molecular cloning and characterization of Rosa hybrida dihydroflavonol 4-reductase gene. *Plant Cell Physiology*, 36,1023-1031.
- Tanaka, Y., Tsuda, S., & Kusumi, T. (1998). Metabolic engineering to modify flower color. *Plant Cell Physiology*, 39,1119-1126.
- Wang, G. W., He, Y. Q., Xu, C. G., & Zhang, Q. (2005). Identification and confirmation of three neutral alleles conferring wide compatibility in intersubspecific hybrids of rice (*Oryza sativa L.*) using near-isogenic lines. *Theory of Applied Genetetics*, 111, 702-710.
- Wang, C & Shu, Q. (2007). Fine mapping and candidate gene analysis of purple pericarp gene Pb in rice (Oryza sativa L). Chinese Science Bulletin, 124,132-140.
- Wang, X., Ji, Z., Cai, J., Ma, L., Li, X., Yang, C. (2009). Construction of near isogenic lines for pericarp color and evaluation on their near isogenicity in rice. *Rice Science*, 16,261-266.
- Yawadio, R., Sanimori, S., & Morita, N. (2007). Identification of phenolic compounds isolated from pigmented rices and their aldose redustase inhibitory activities. *Journal of Food Chemistry*, 101(4),1616-1625.
- Zhang, M. W., (2000). Specialty rice and its processing techniques. Beijing, China: China Light Industry Press.