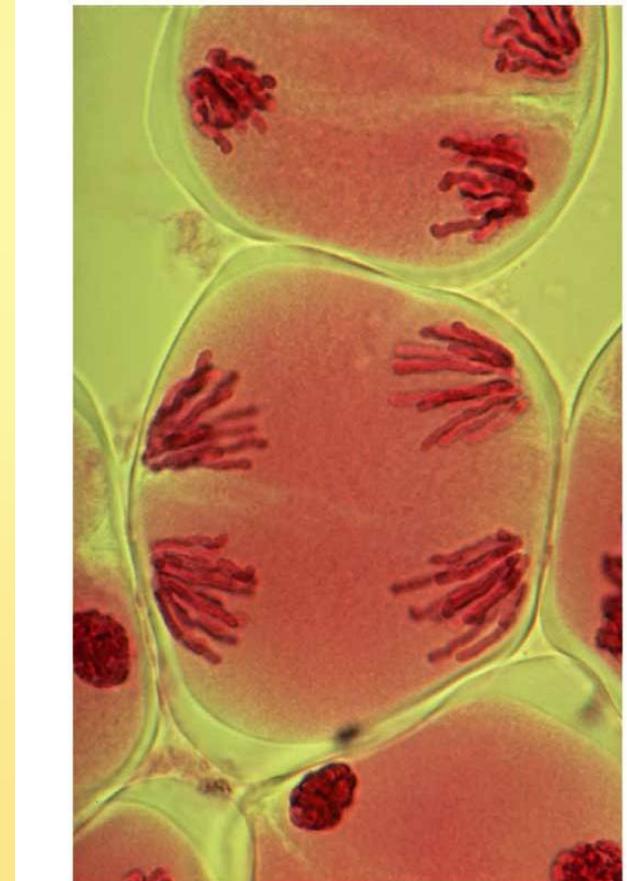


‘Green’ biotechnology

- Introduction
- DNA, Chromosomes, Genomes
- Plant Transformation
- **Modern Plant Breeding**
- Plant tissue culture
- Molecular Marker



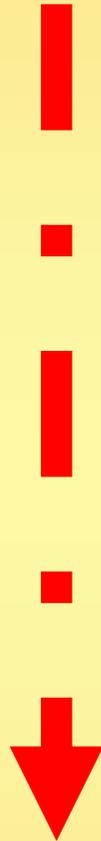
Plant breeding:

**the science of improving the
heredity of plants for the benefit of
humankind**



The transition from wild plant to a cultivated plant started early in the history of mankind

Wild form



Cultivated form



Where Crops were Domesticated

- Five areas where crops were domesticated independently are:
- Southwest Asia (Middle East):
 - wheat, pea, olive



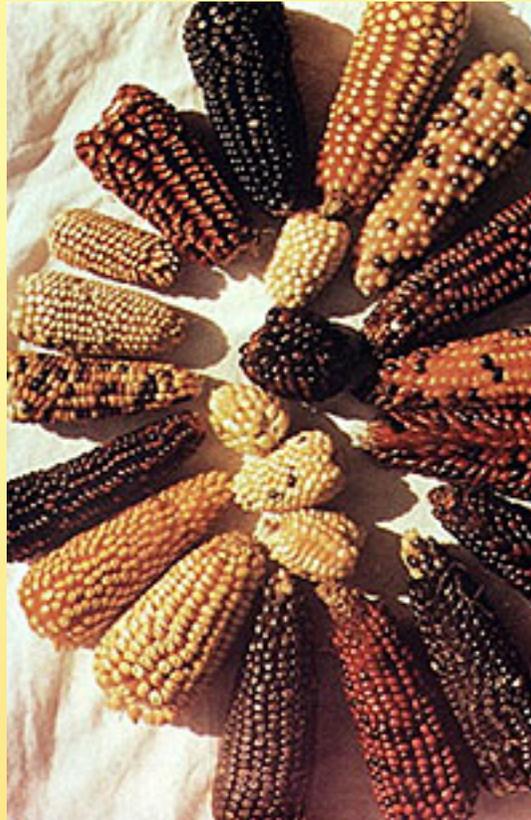
Where Crops were Domesticated

- China: Rice, Millet



Where Crops were Domesticated

- Mesoamerica: corn, beans, squash



Where Crops were Domesticated

- Andes: potato

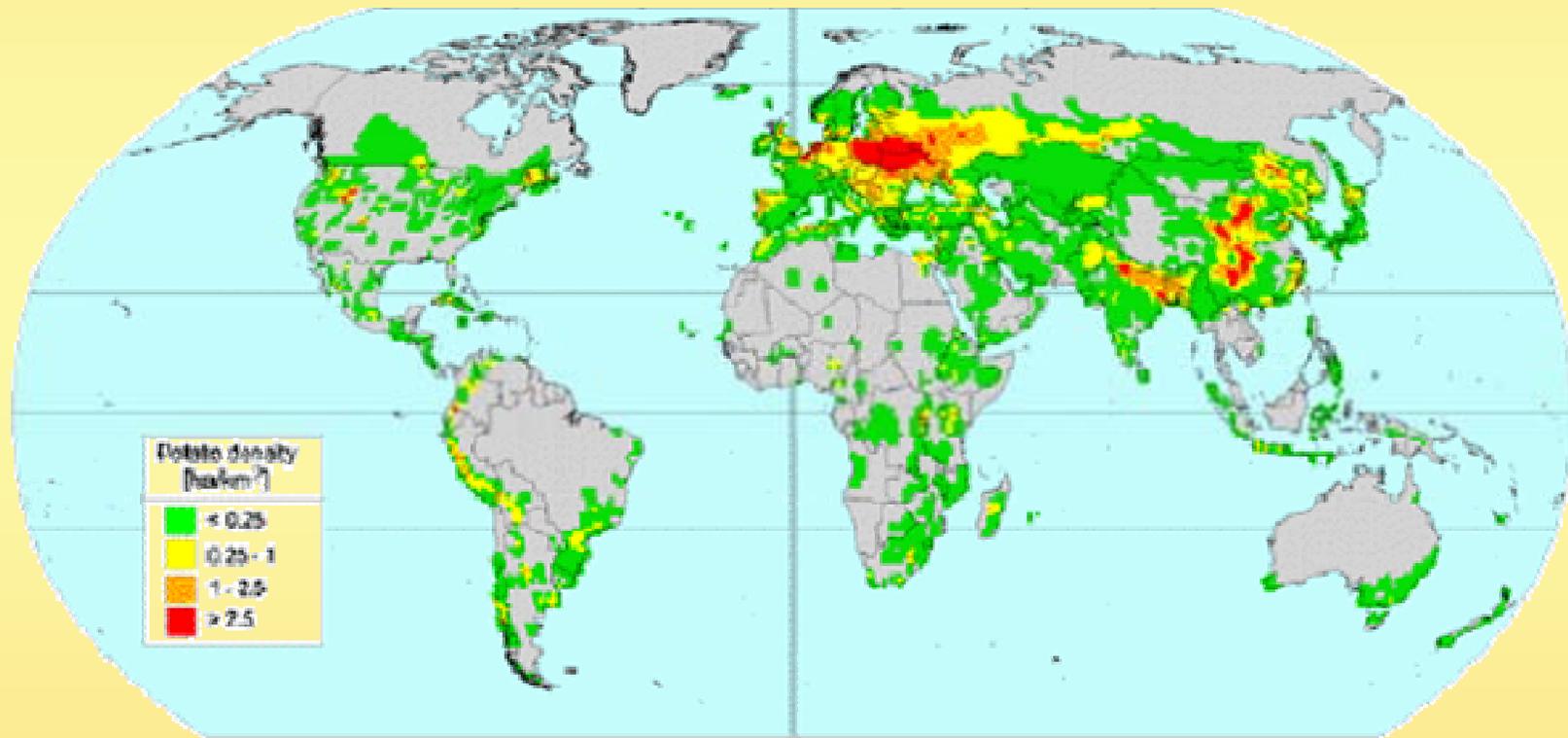


Where Crops were Domesticated

- America: sunflower



Often areas of most intense production are not where domestic crops originated.



Global Potato Production

Wild plant *versus* cultivated plant



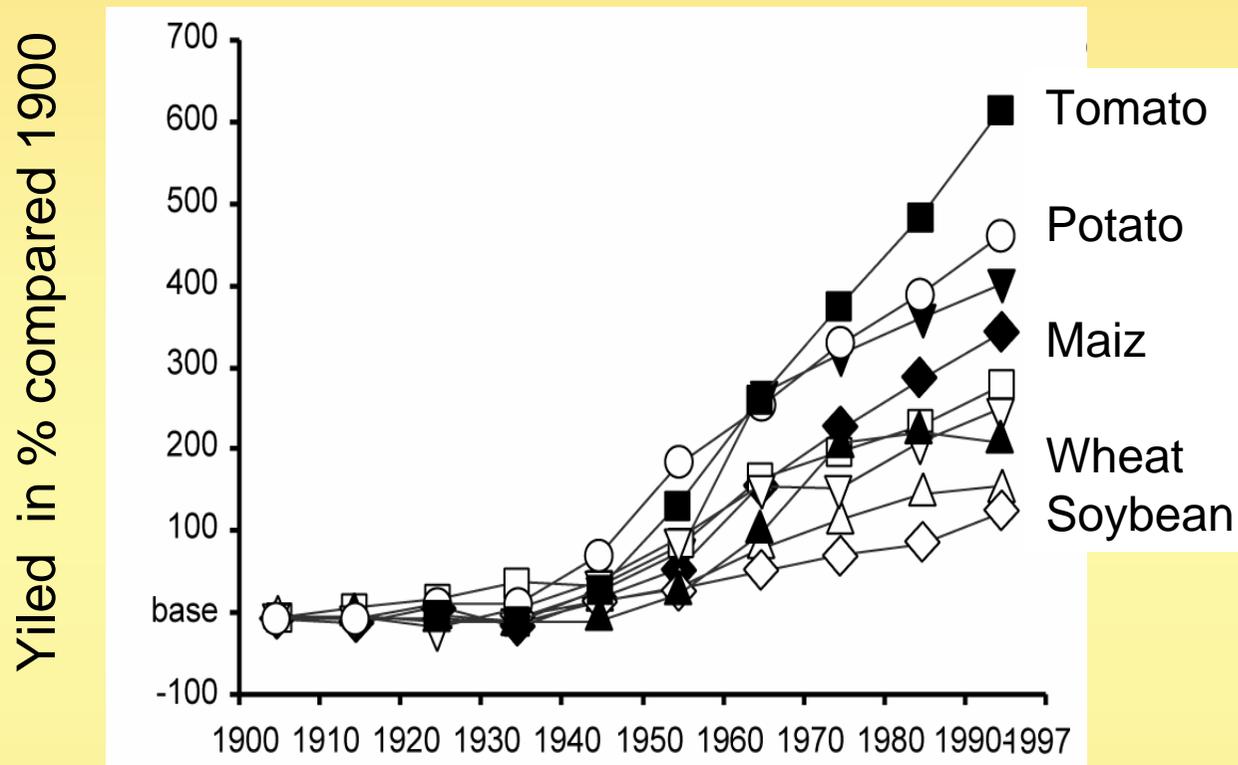
T. monococcum

T. aestivum

Difference in:

- yield
- content
- germination synchronity
- maturation
- resistance

Development of yield (example USA, 1900-1997)



Due to:

more favorable cultural conditions (soil nutrients, water supply, pest control) and improved genetic potential of cultivars (plant breeding 20 – 30%)

Breeding objectives

- Yield
- Resistance to lodging (bending or breaking over of plants before harvest) and shattering (fall out of seeds before harvest)
- Winter hardiness (to survive winter stress)
- Heat and drought resistance
- Soil stress
- Resistance to plant pathogens
- Resistance to insect pests
- Product quality

Highlights of plant breeding

- 1865 Mendelian genetic principles
- 1923 first hybrid corn
- 1960 ,Green Revolution‘
 - breeding, plant management (fertilization, pest control..)
- 1983 first transgenetic plants

Plant Breeding: the process of selectively mating plants

- A basic type of plant breeding is Selection.
- Selection is when plants with desirable traits are chosen from a population and then reproduced.

Selection breeding

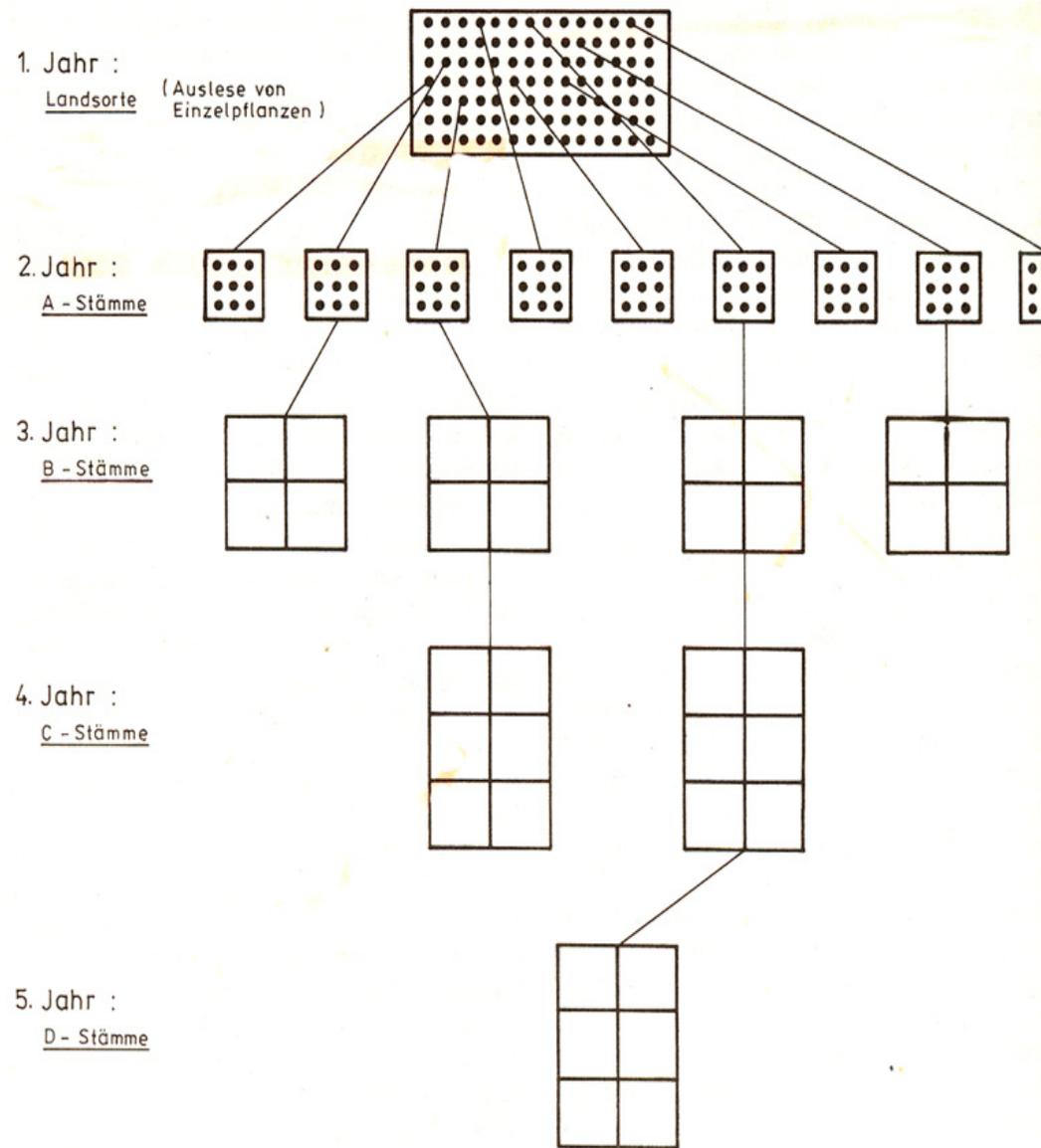
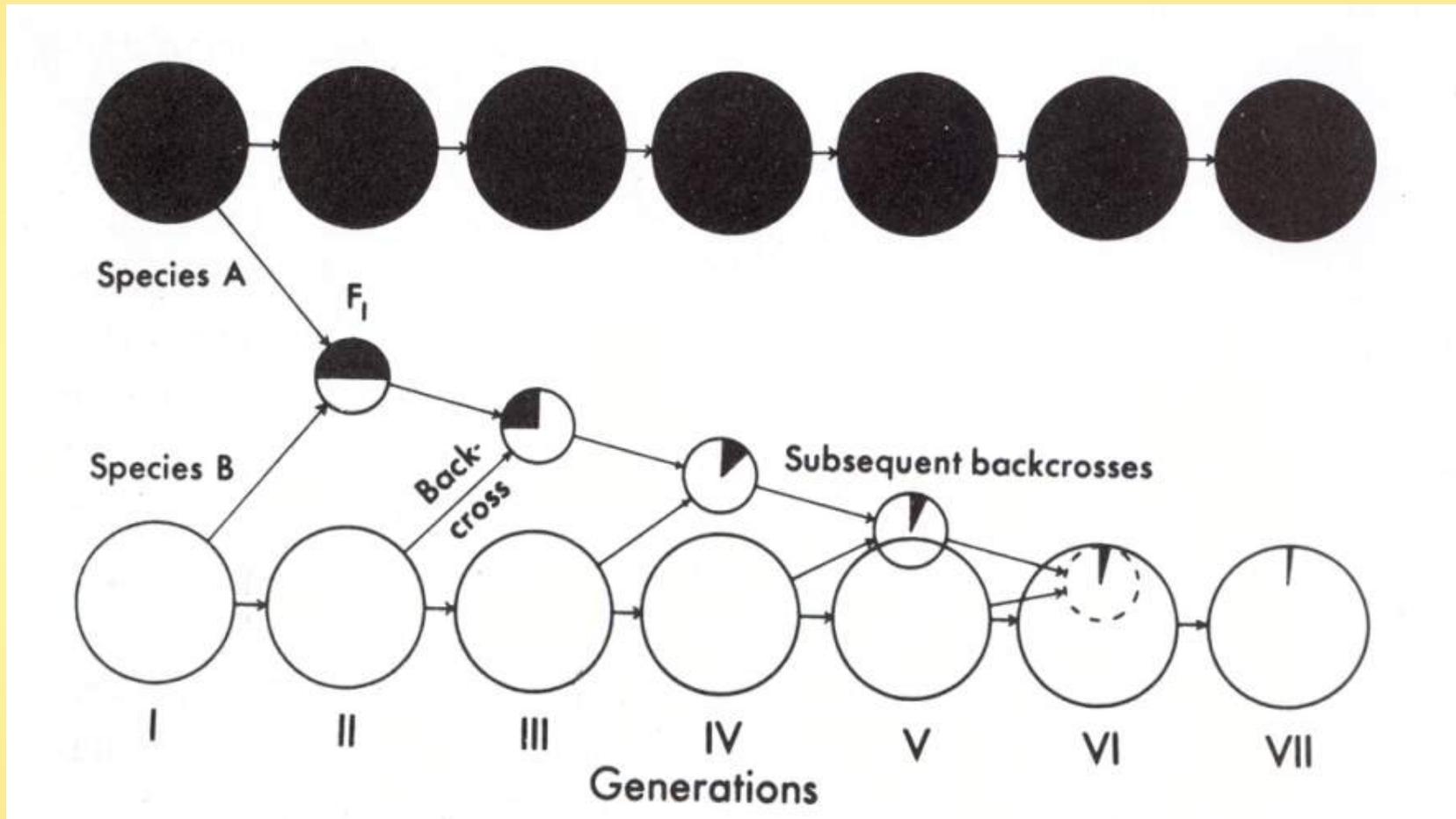


Abb. 4/1
Individualauslese bei einer Selbstbefruchter-Kulturpflanzenart
Punktierte Parzellen: Einzelpflanzenanbau

Introgression breeding

- Important for transferring genetic material from one species to the other
- Some might be adaptively important
- Some might be neutral genes

Introgression breeding



Briggs & Walters, Plant variation and evolution. 1997.

Modern breeding methods

examples:

- Mutation breeding
- Breeding of polyploids
- Generation of haploids

Mutation breeding

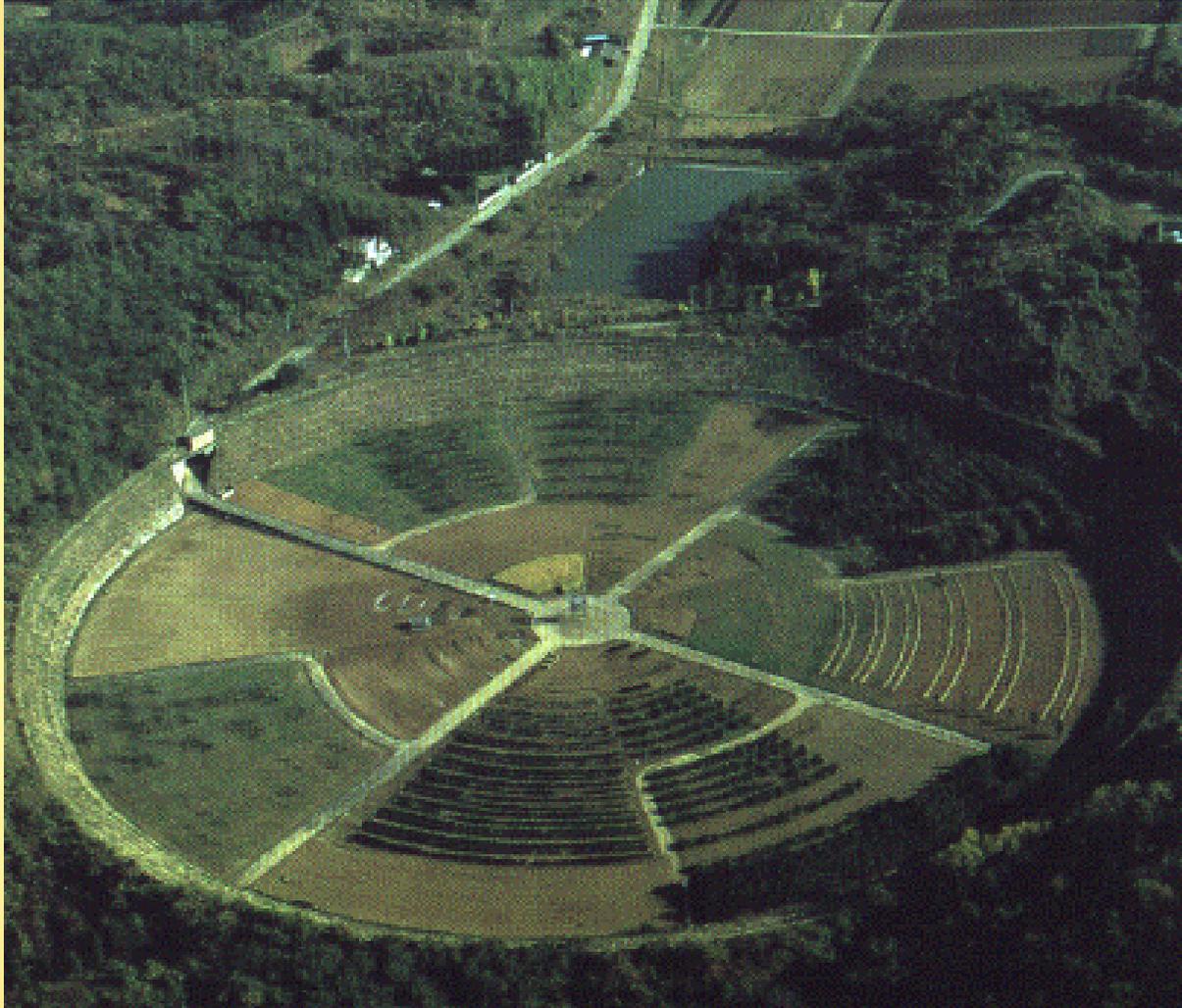
- 1927: Muller produced mutations in fruit flies using x-rays
 - 1928: Stadler produced mutations in barley
 - Mutation breeding became a bandwagon for about 10 years
- (first claim to “replace breeders”)

Inducing Mutations

- Physical Mutagens (irradiation)
 - Neutrons, Alpha rays
 - Densely ionizing (“Cannon balls”), mostly chromosome aberrations
 - Gamma, Beta, X-rays
 - Sparsely ionizing (“Bullets”), chromosome aberrations & point mutations
 - UV radiation
 - Non-ionizing, cause point mutations (if any), low penetrating
- Chemical Mutagens (carcinogens)
 - Many different chemicals
 - Most are highly toxic, usually result in point mutations
- Callus Growth in Tissue Culture
 - Somaclonal variation
 - Can screen large number of individual cells
 - Chromosomal aberrations, point mutations
 - Also: Uncover genetic variation in source plant



Mutation Breeding



The gamma field is a circular field of 100m radius with 88.8TBq Co-60 source at the center.



Gamma Greenhouse for chronic irradiation of sub-tropical plants. Cs137 source (4.81TBq, 130 Ci) is used in the octagonal greenhouse with 7 m radius at the Institute of Radiation Breeding, NIAR, Ibaragi, Japan.

Asian pear improved by radiation breeding



**“Nijusseiki”
susceptible to
black
spot
disease**



**“Gold Nijusseiki”
resistant to black
spot disease.**



Institute of Radiation
Breeding
Ibaraki-ken, JAPAN
<http://www.irb.affrc.go.jp/>

Mutation breeding

- Today there are three groups of breeders:
 - Mutation breeding is useless, we can accomplish the same thing with conventional methods,
 - Mutation breeding will produce a breakthrough given enough effort,
 - Mutation breeding is a tool, useful to meet specific objectives

Breeding of Polyploids

- * Produced by:-
 - a) doubling of chromosomes in 1 species
(autopolyploidy)
 - b) doubling after hybridization of 2 species
(allopolyploidy)

- * Common in plants (80% of species) - many commercially important examples.

- * Rarer in animals (some fishes, flatworms, shrimp, amphibians). Triploid oysters (sterile)

Polyploids

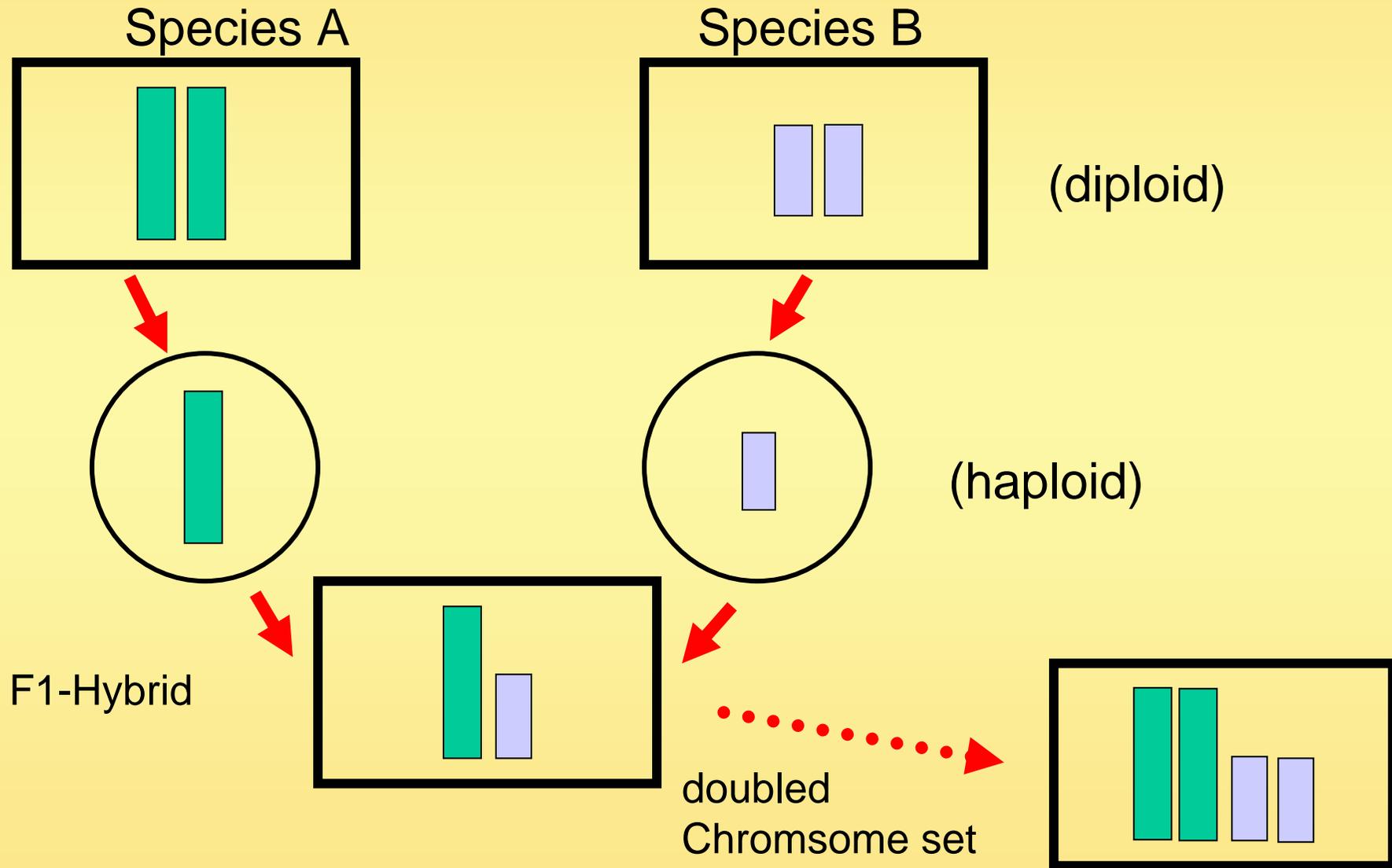
Autopolyploids

- between genetically very similar plants
- parents the same species
- chromosomes homologous
- at meiosis quadrivalents

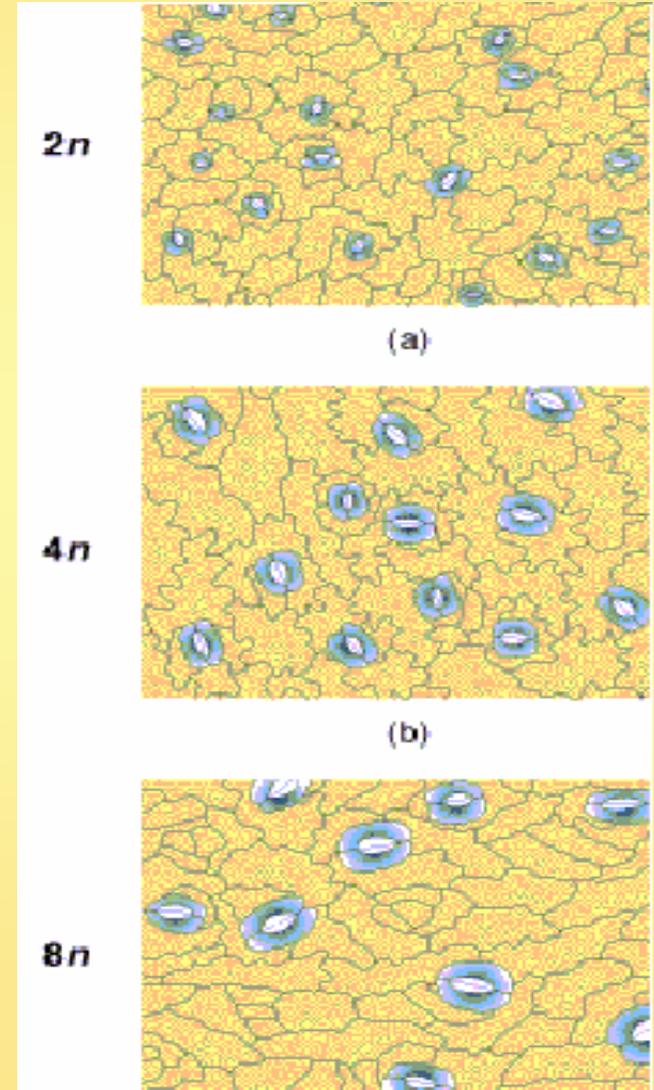
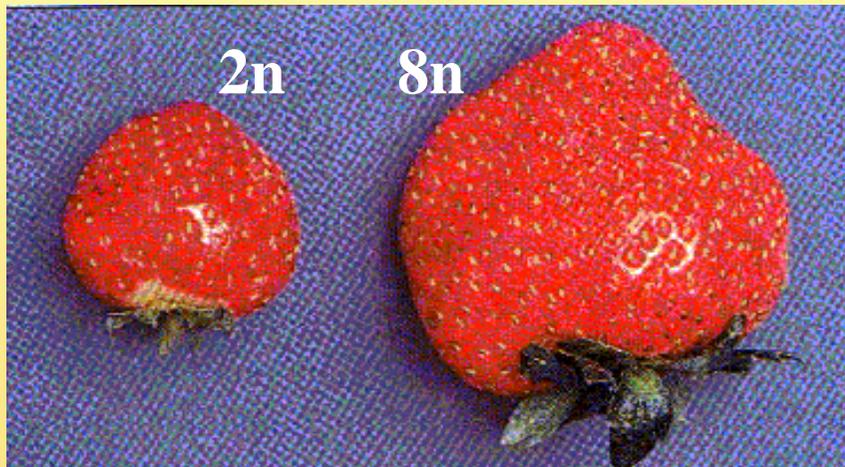
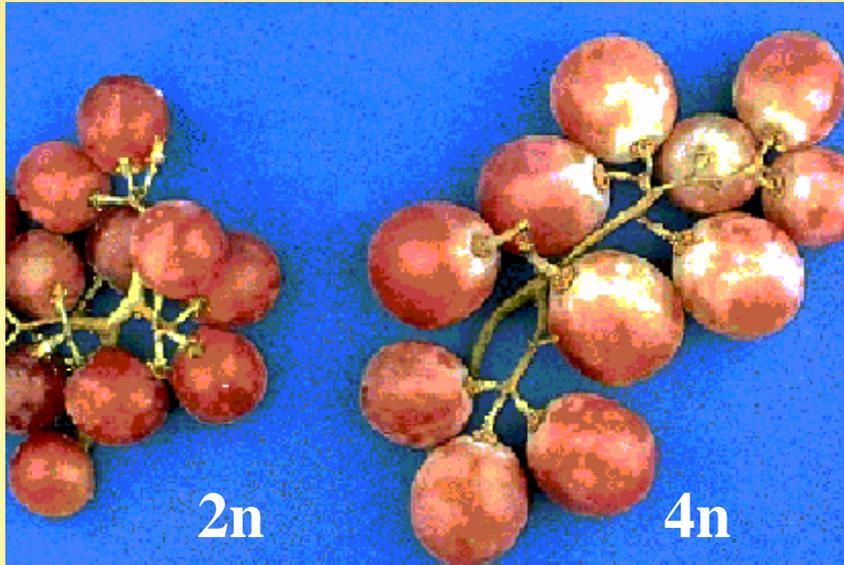
Allopolyploids

- between genetically dissimilar plants
- parents different species
- chromosomes not homologous
- at meiosis bivalents

Allopolyploidy - doubling after hybridization of 2 species

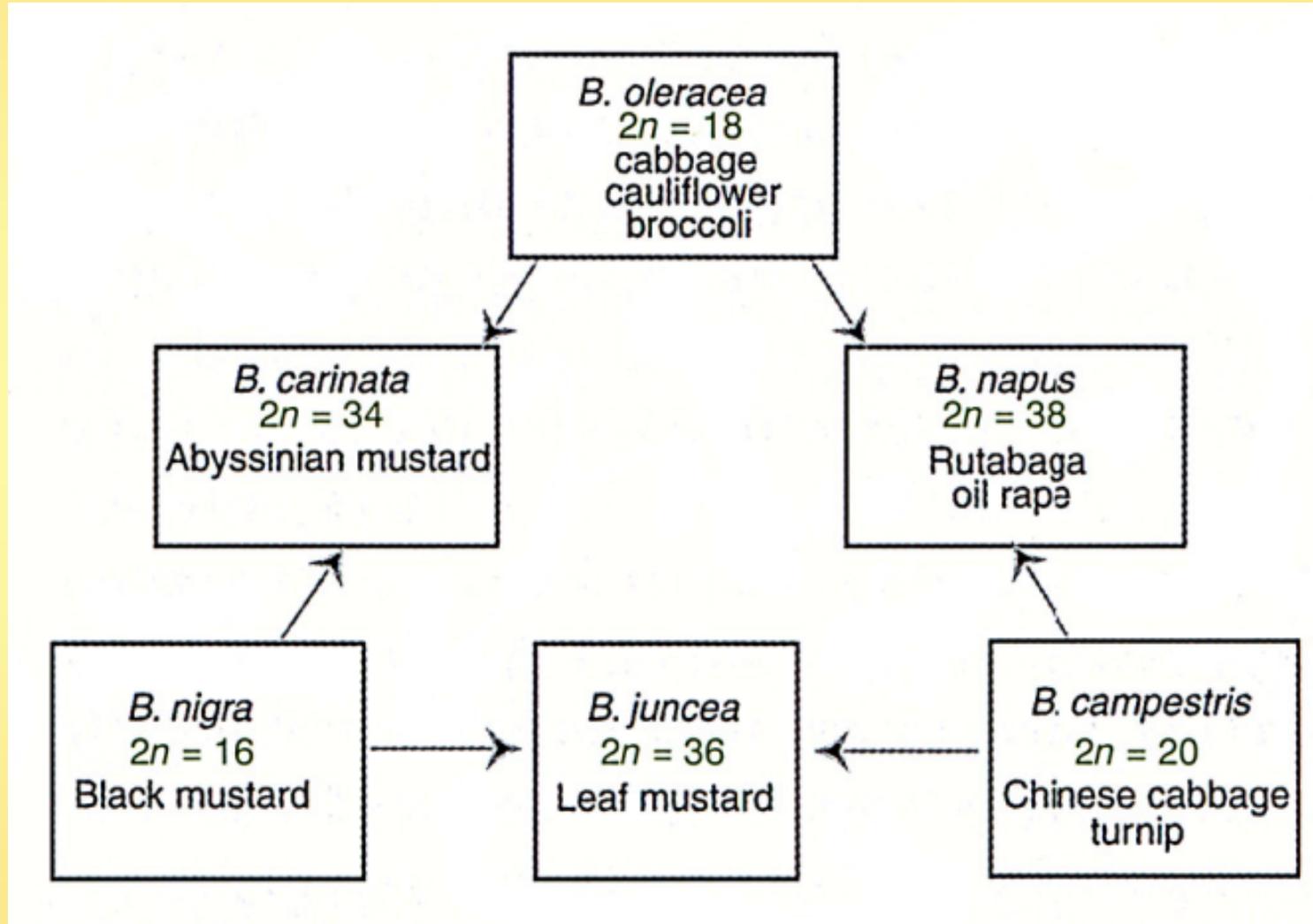


Polyploidy typically increases cell size which results in larger tissues.



Stomatal cells in tobacco

Allopolyploidy in *Brassica*



Somatic Allopolyploidization

**Diploid Protoplast
of Species A.**

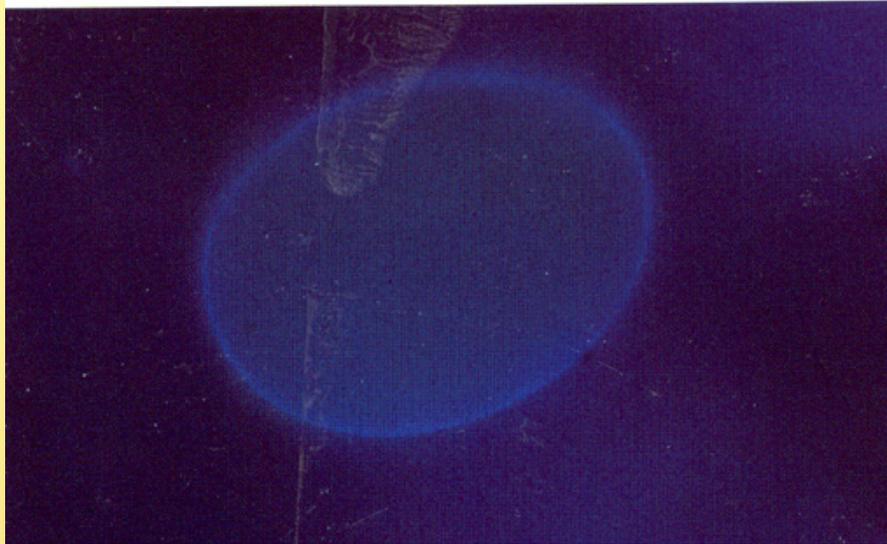
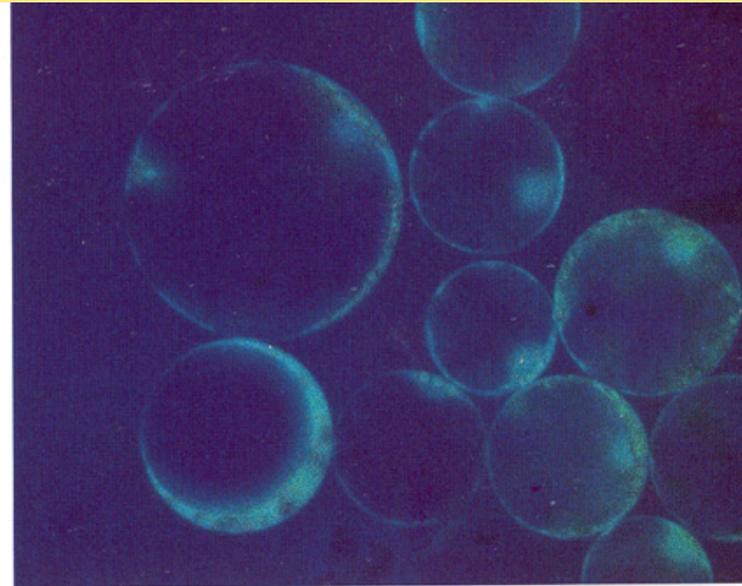
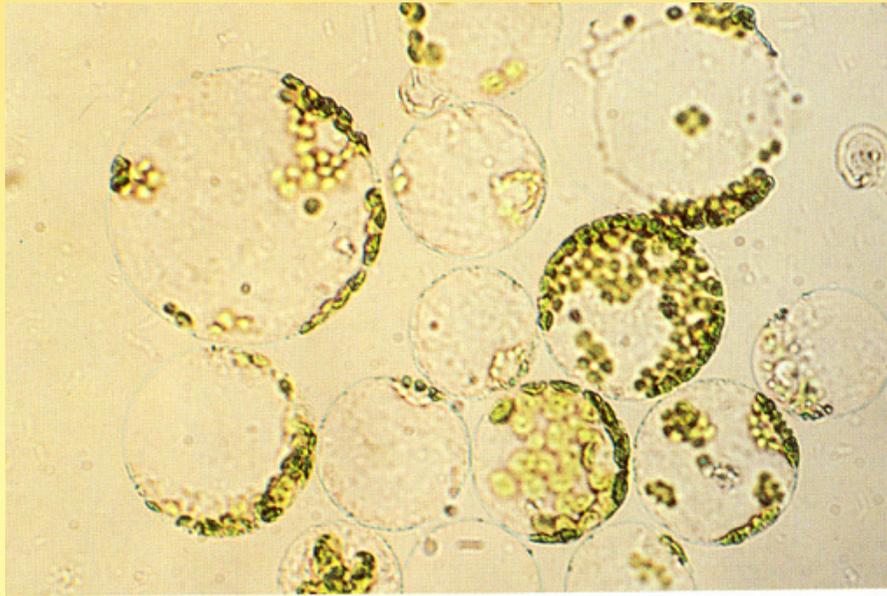
**Diploid Protoplast
of Species B.**

Use polyethylene glycol to
mediate fusion

**Hybrid
Tetraploid Cell**

**Grow up to
Tetraploid plant.**

Single protoplasts



Protoplasts after fusion

Possible changes taking place between the component genomes following allopolyploidization

- gain and loss of coding or uncoding DNA
- structural rearrangements at the chromosome level
- changes in gene expression - gene silencing or activation

Haploid plants

Haploid - gametic number of chromosomes

- A. Reduce time for variety development, e.g. 10 to 6 years or less
- B. Homozygous recombinant line can be developed in one generation instead of after numerous backcross generations
- C. Selection for recessive traits in recombinant lines is more efficient since these are not masked by the effects of dominant alleles

Agricultural applications for haploids - Rapid generation of homozygous genotypes after chromosome doubling

Processes Leading to Production of Haploid Plants

Androgenesis – haploid plant derived from male gamete,
most common method *in vitro*

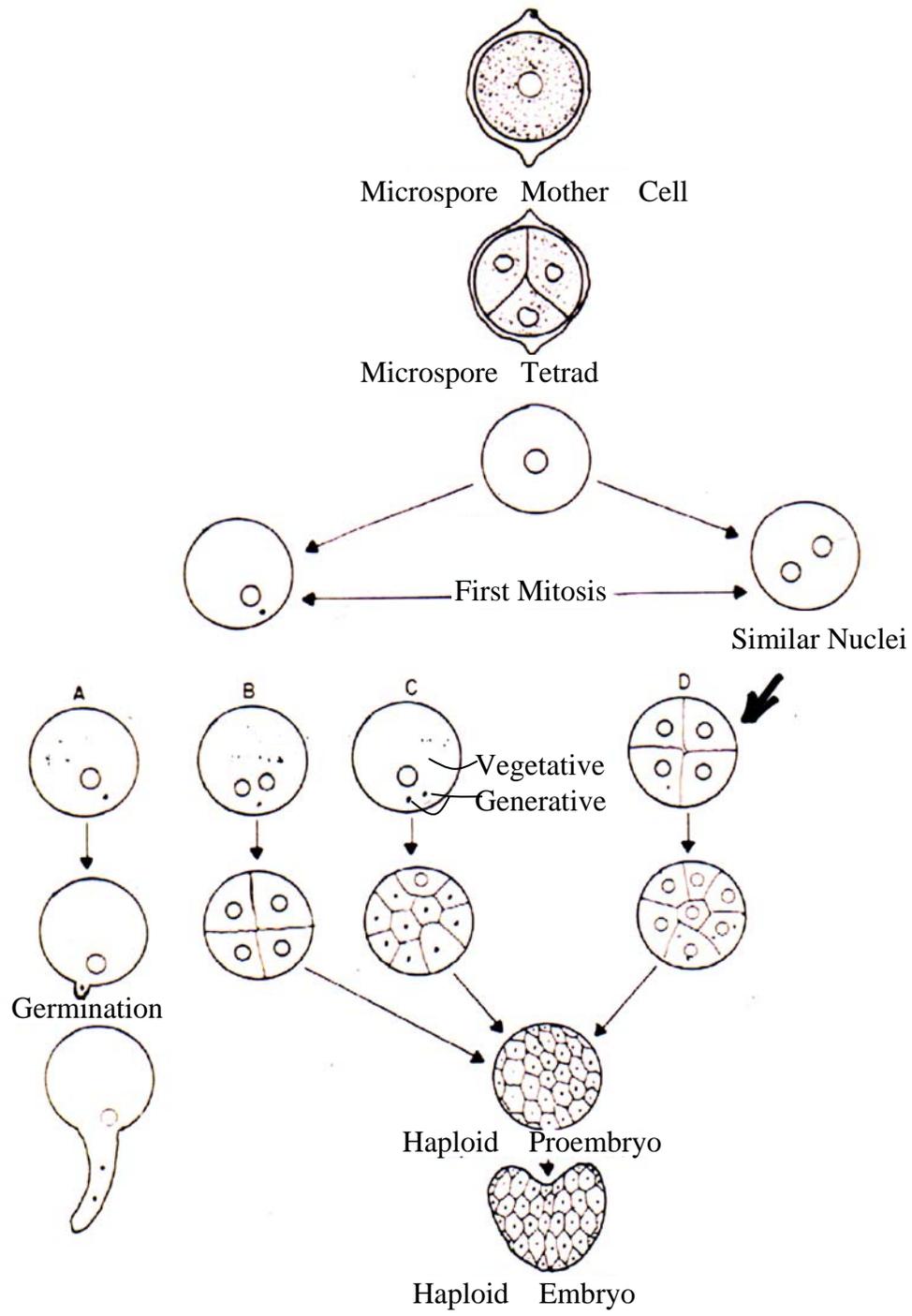
Parthenogenesis - from unfertilized egg

Chromosome elimination - chromosome
elimination in somatic cells, most common method used
with plant breeding

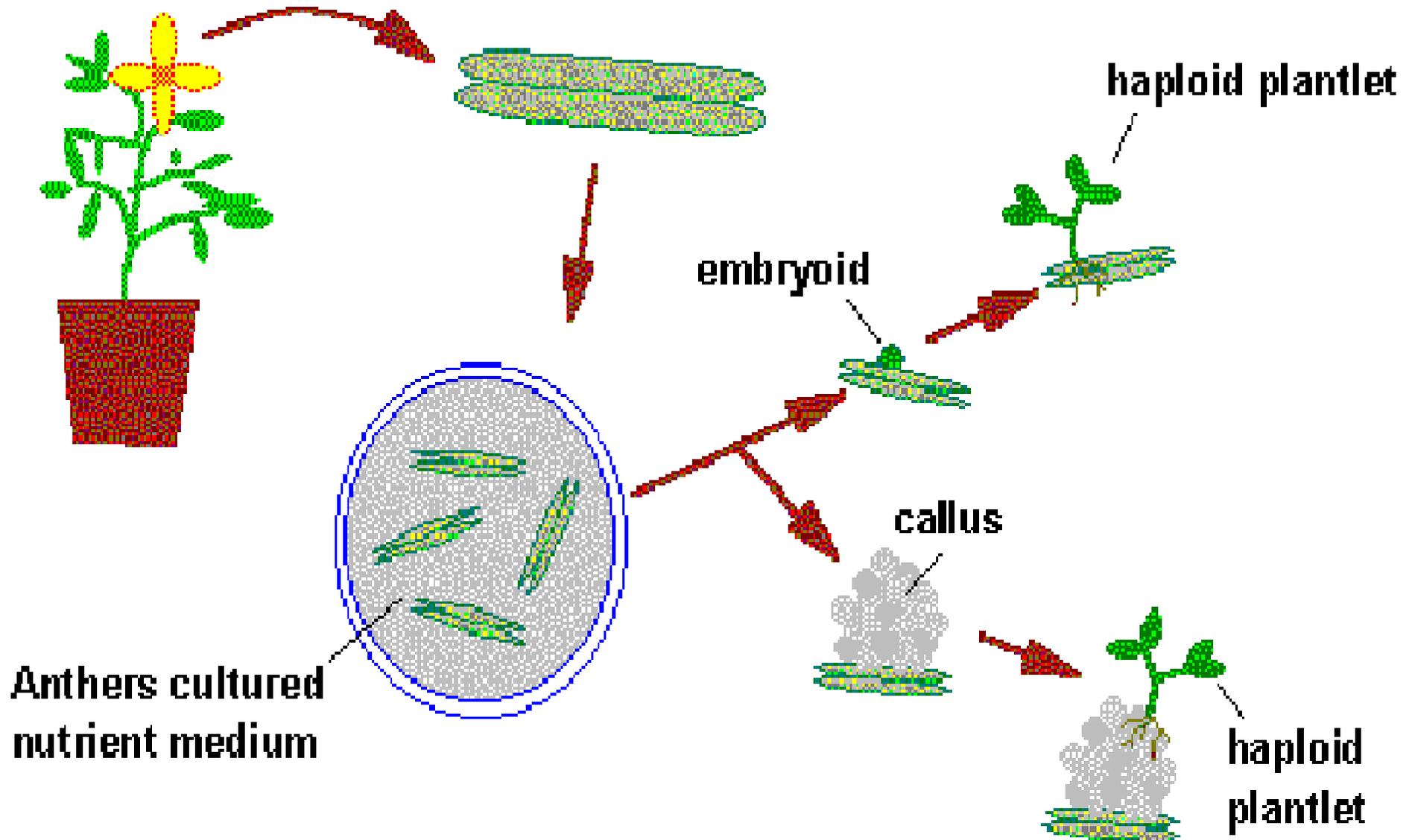
Production of Haploids through Anther and Microspore *In Vitro* Culture

Anther and microspore (pollen) culture - haploid plants are derived from microspores (pollen) cultured individually or in anthers

Background – micro-sporogenesis and micro-gametogenesis leading to pollen development



Features of Anther/Microspore Culture



Anther/Microspore Culture Factors

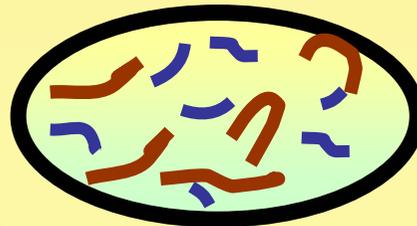
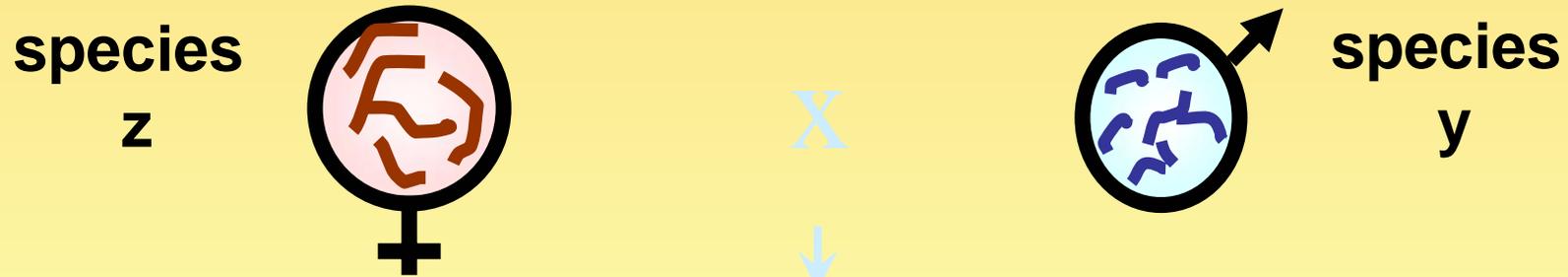
- Genotype
 - As with all tissue culture techniques
- Growth of mother plant
 - Usually requires optimum growing conditions
- Correct stage of pollen development
 - Need to be able to switch pollen development from gametogenesis to embryogenesis
- Pretreatment of anthers
 - Cold or heat have both been effective

Production Haploids through Chromosome Elimination and Embryo Rescue

Production of haploids by chromosome elimination - There are numerous examples, primarily achieved by wide crosses and embryo culture

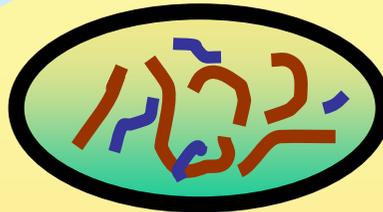
eg.: oat, wheat, barley, potato

Generation of haploids by wide crosses



zygote (hybrid phase)

Elimination of paternal chromosomes



haploid embryo



fertile doubled haploid (induced chromosome doubling)

Monoploid Production of Barley (*H. vulgare*)

Day 0 - emasculation

Day 2 - pollination with *H. bulbosum* pollen

Day 3 (to 5) - 40% of the embryonic cells are haploid, endosperm abortion occurs, GA₃ treatment enhances retention of florets

Day 11 - 94% of the embryonic cells are haploid

Day 14 (to 16) - embryos are dissected and cultured in the dark at 18 to 22 C, embryos develop *in vitro*

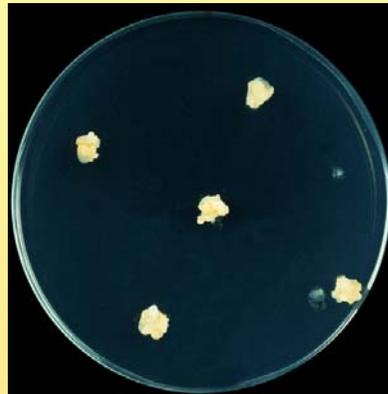
Day 22 (to 28) - embryos are transferred to light for seedling development

Embryo rescue

15 days



30 days



50 days

80 days

How does the elimination of chromosomes occur?

Mitosis-dependent elimination

- parent-specific centromere defects
- asynchrony of mitotic cycle times
- results in formation of micronuclei

Crosses



female

male

wheat

(Triticum aestivum)

x

pearl millet

(Pennisetum glaucum)

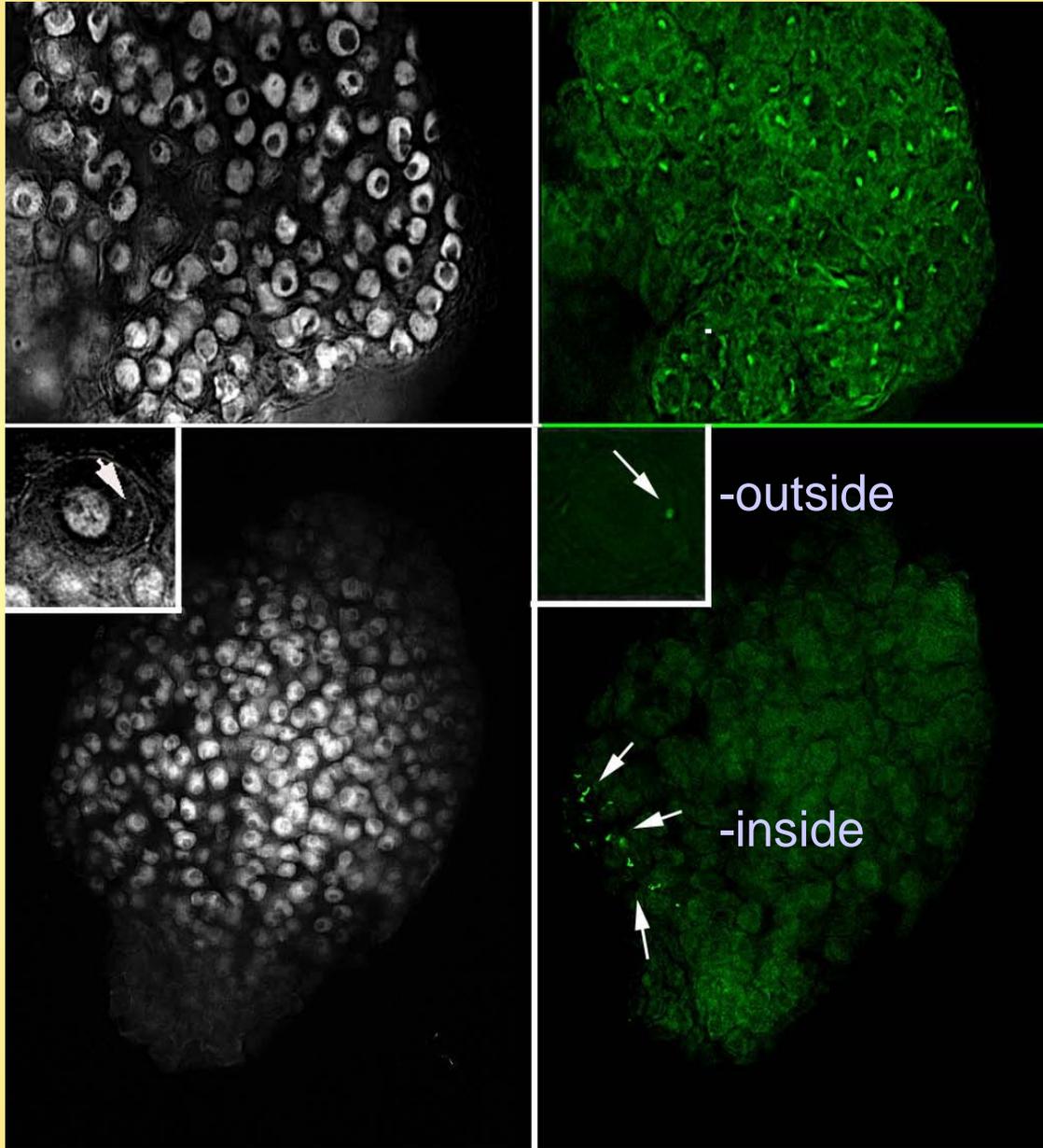
barley

(Hordeum vulgare)

x

wild barley

(H. bulbosum)



Number and location of pearl millet-positive cells varied between embryos at the same stage

DAPI

pearl millet-signals

whole mount genomic *in situ* hybridization (GISH) on 6 day old embryos

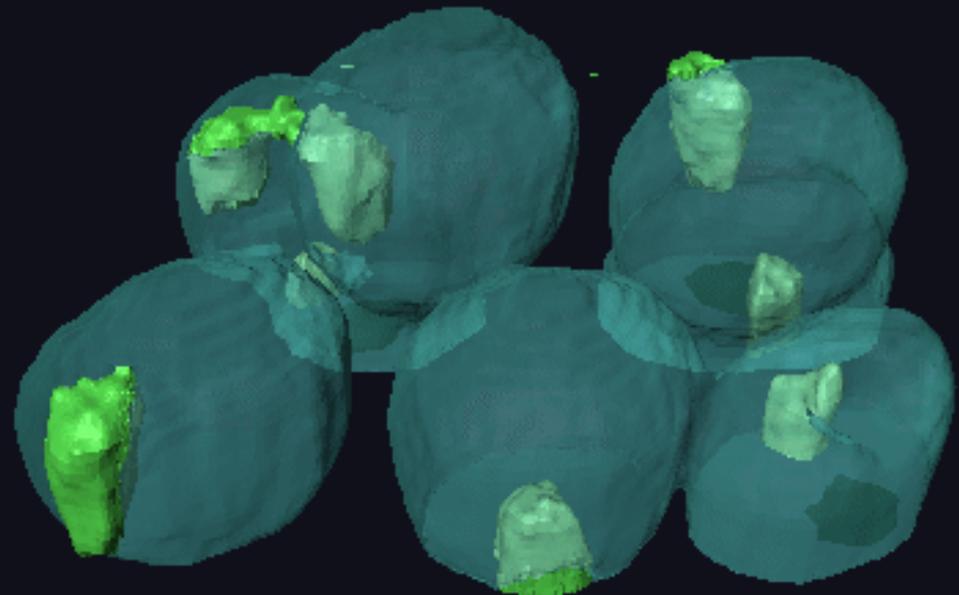
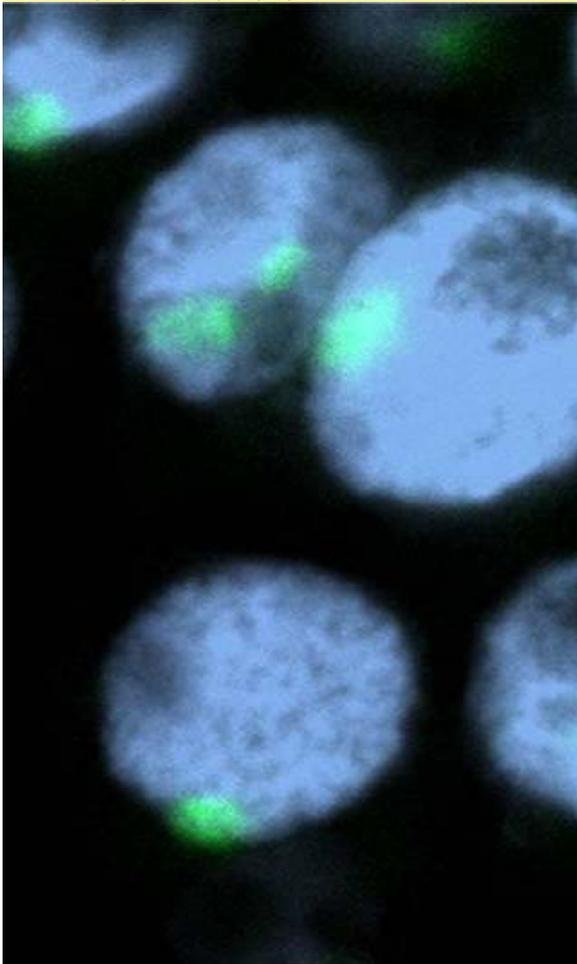
Pearl millet chromatin occupies a distinct interphase territory

GISH

pearl millet - green

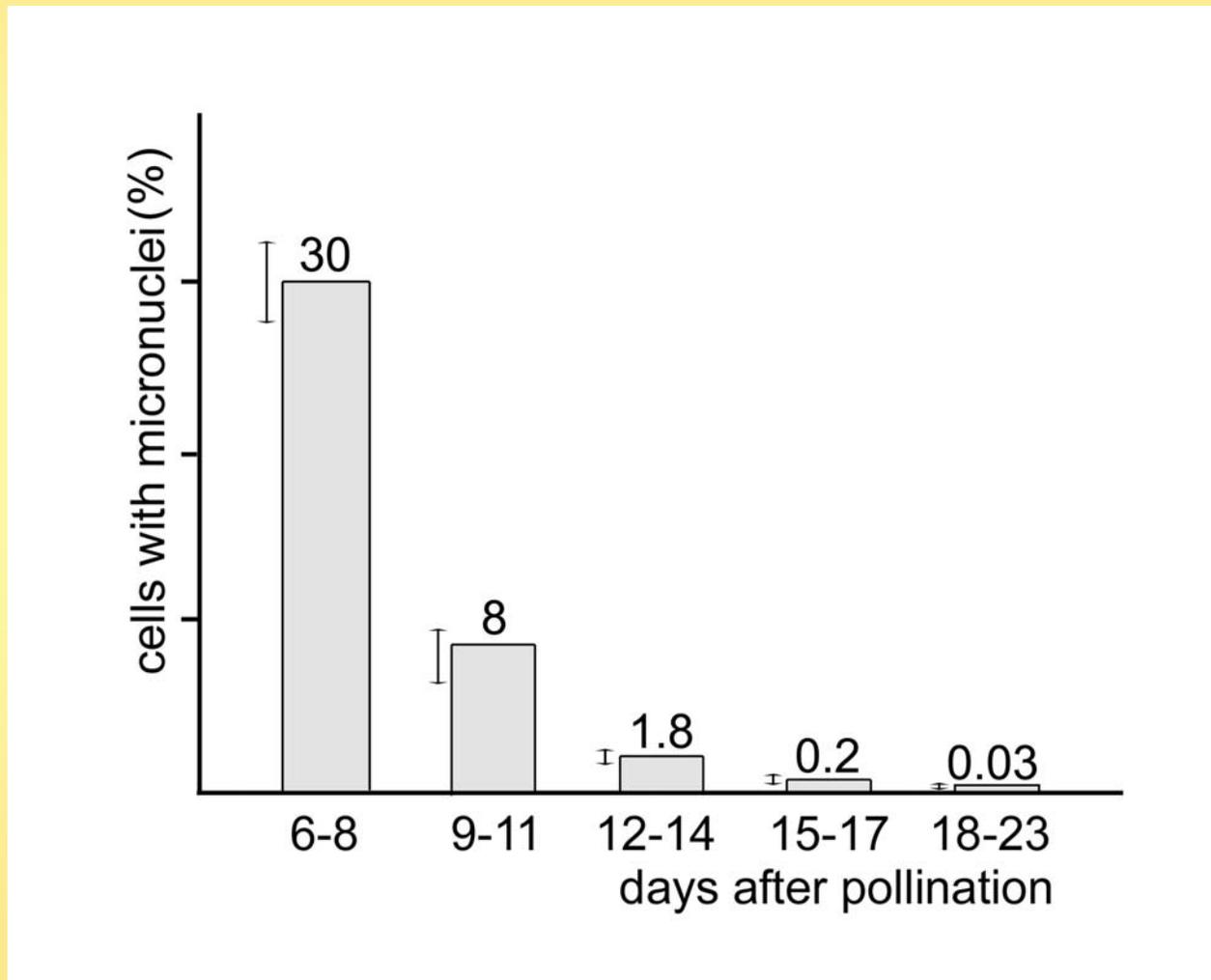
wheat - blue

- mainly at the periphery



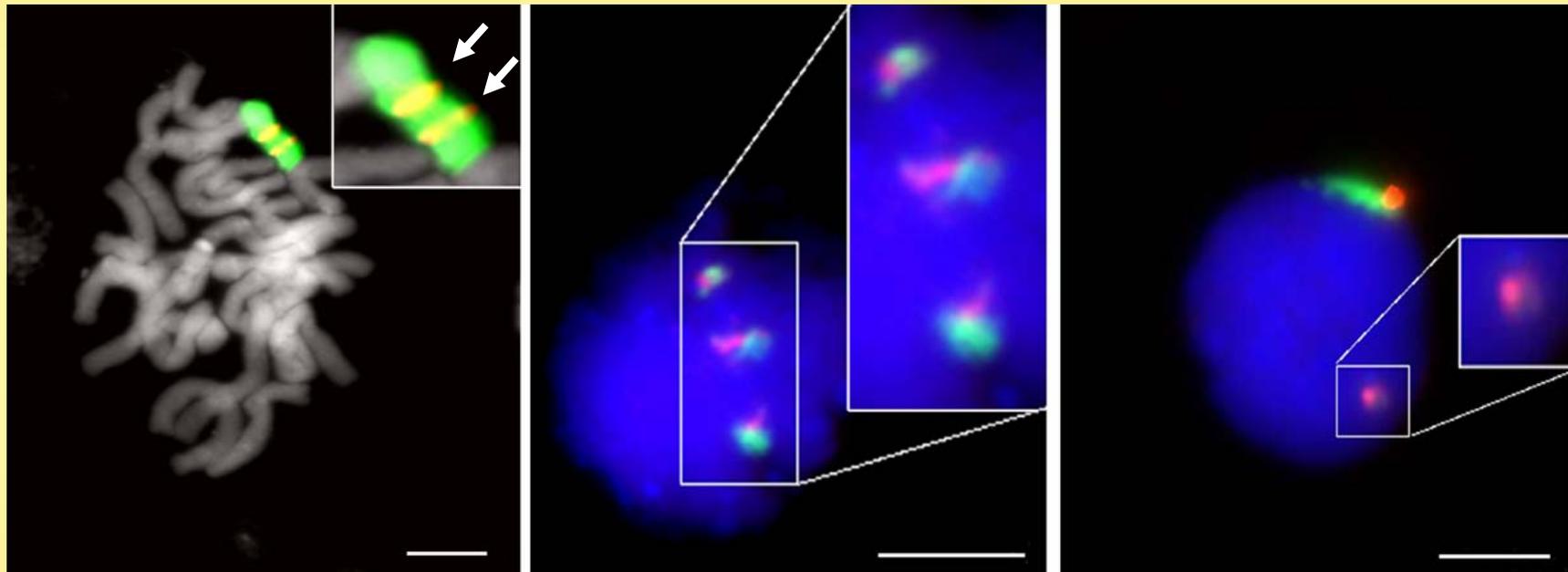
3D-reconstruction

Elimination of pearl millet chromatin is sequential



Cells containing micronuclei

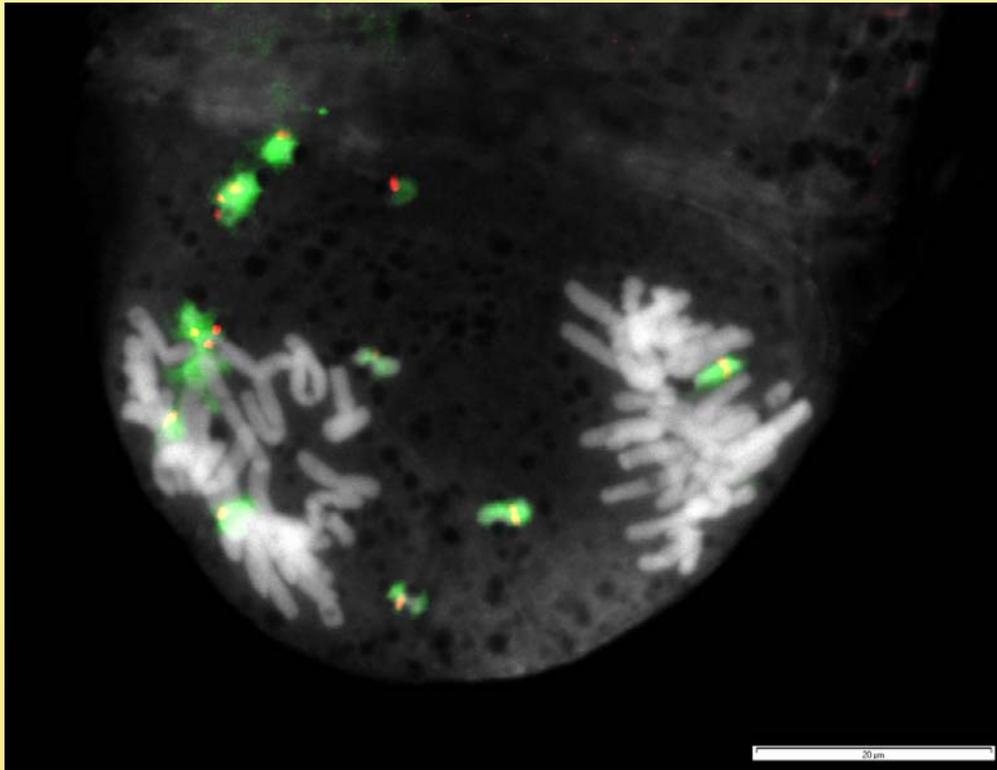
Pearl millet chromosomes – structurally rearranged and size reduced



red - pearl millet centromere
green - pearl millet genomic DNA

Loss of paternal chromosomes during mitosis

- parent-specific centromere defects
- asynchrony of mitotic cycle times

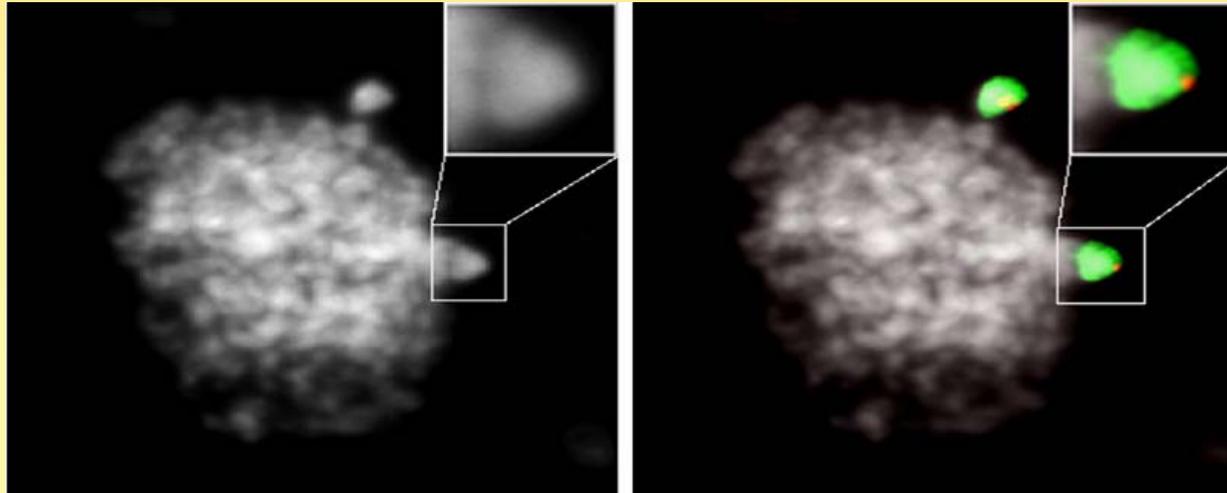


wheat x pearl millet

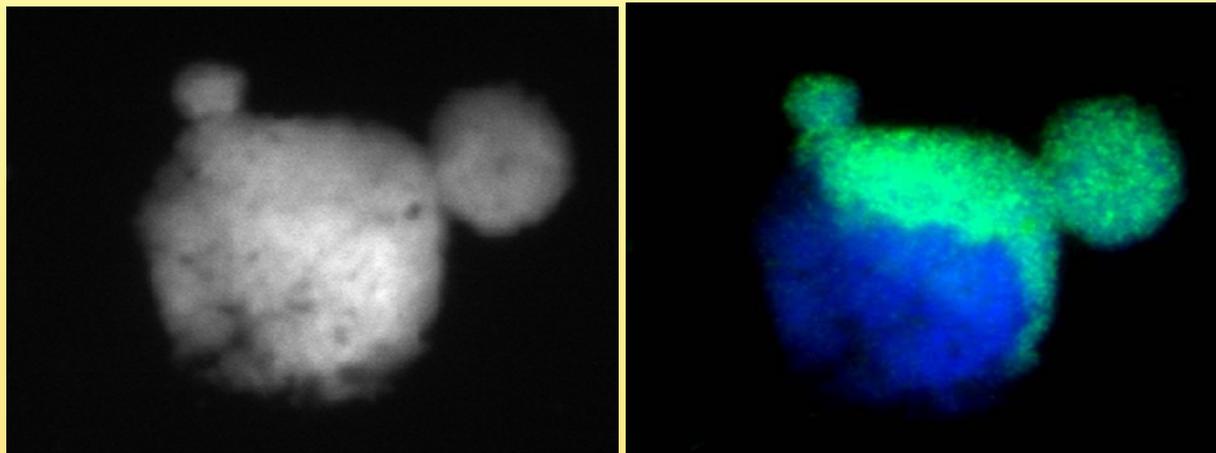


barley x *H. bulbosum*

'Budding' – mitosis-independent formation of micronuclei

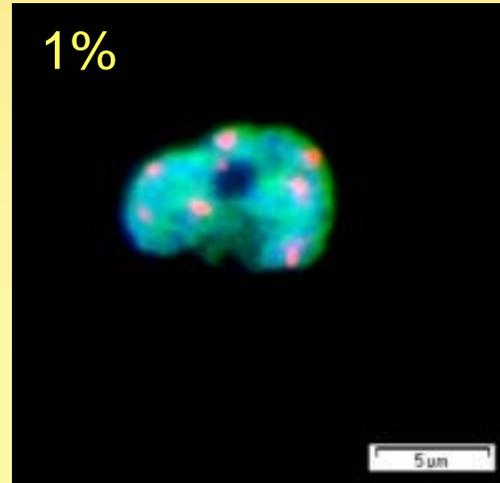
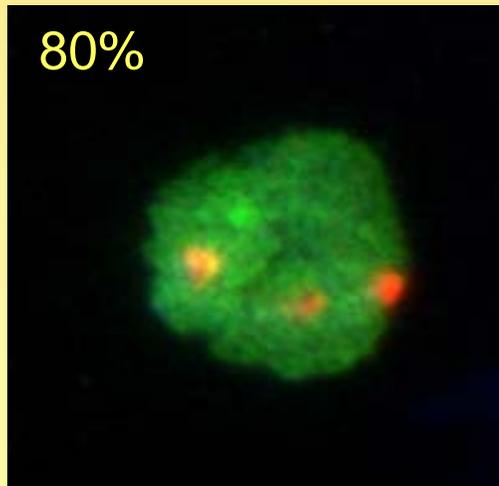


wheat x pearl millet



barley x *H. bulbosum*

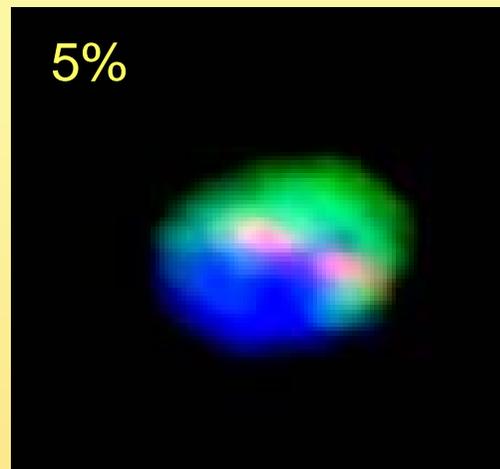
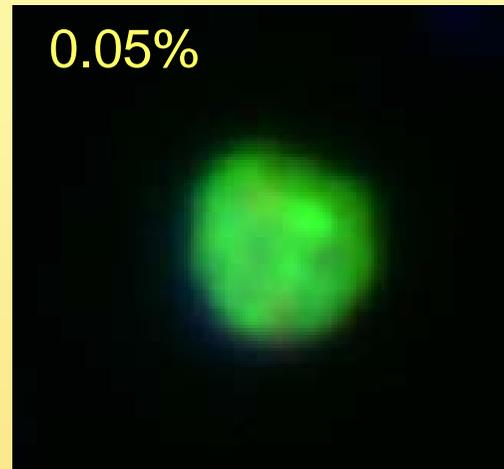
Composition of micronuclei varies



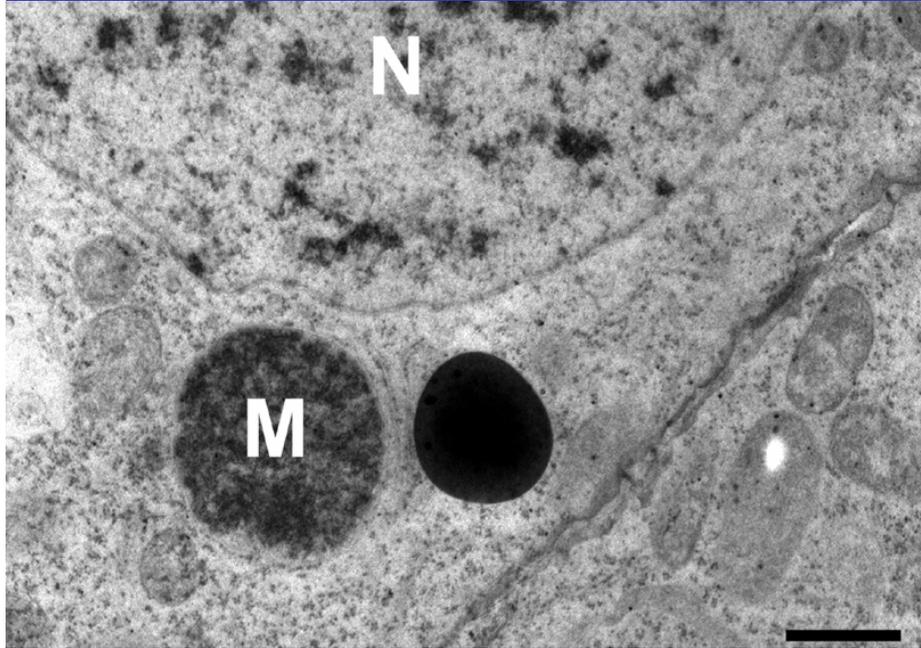
blue - wheat DNA

green - pearl millet DNA

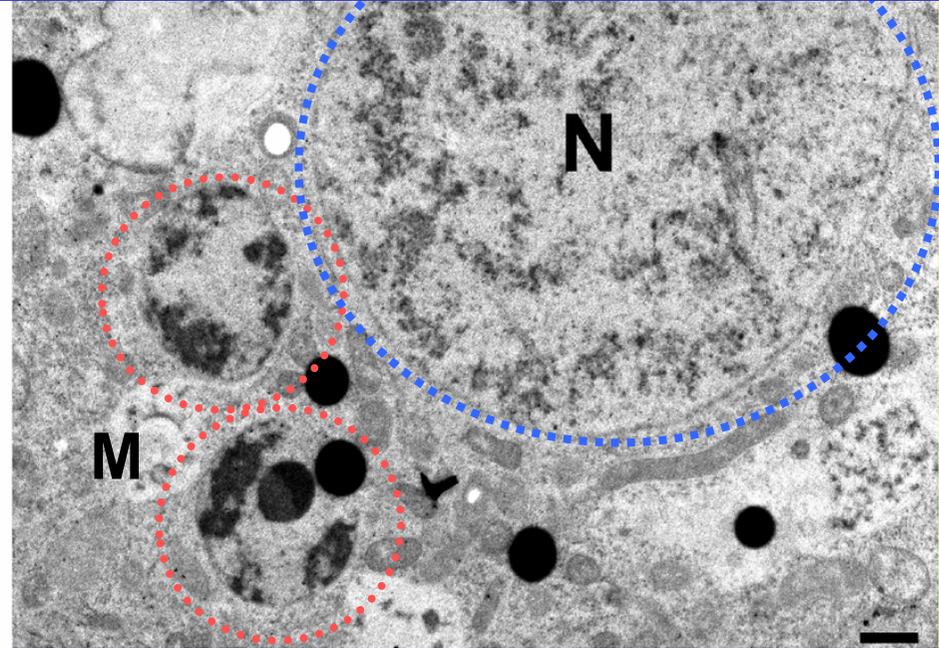
red - pearl millet centromere



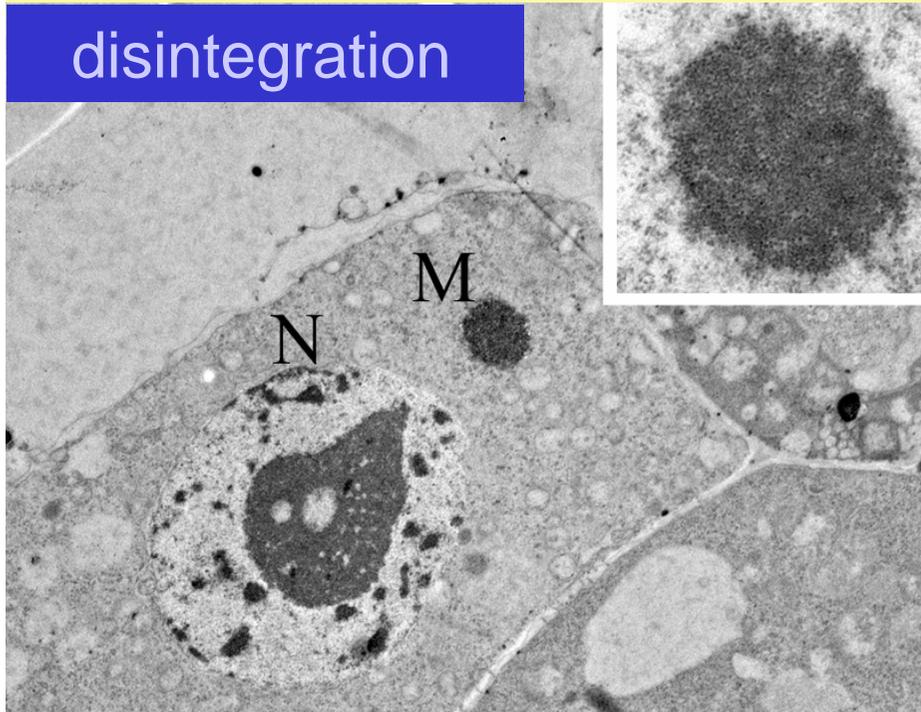
complete



partial heterochromatinization

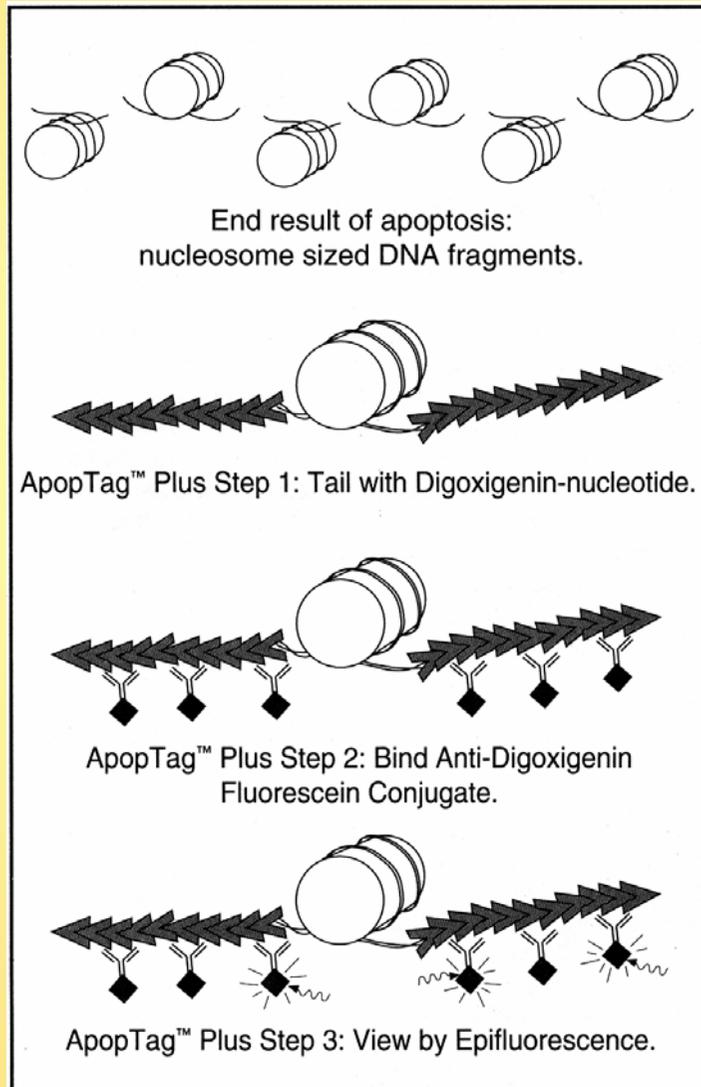


disintegration



**Chromatin structure
differs between both
types nuclei**

TUNEL assay - *in situ* detection of DNA fragmentation



TdT adds nucleotides (digoxigenin-labeled) to the free 3' OH ends of DNA fragments

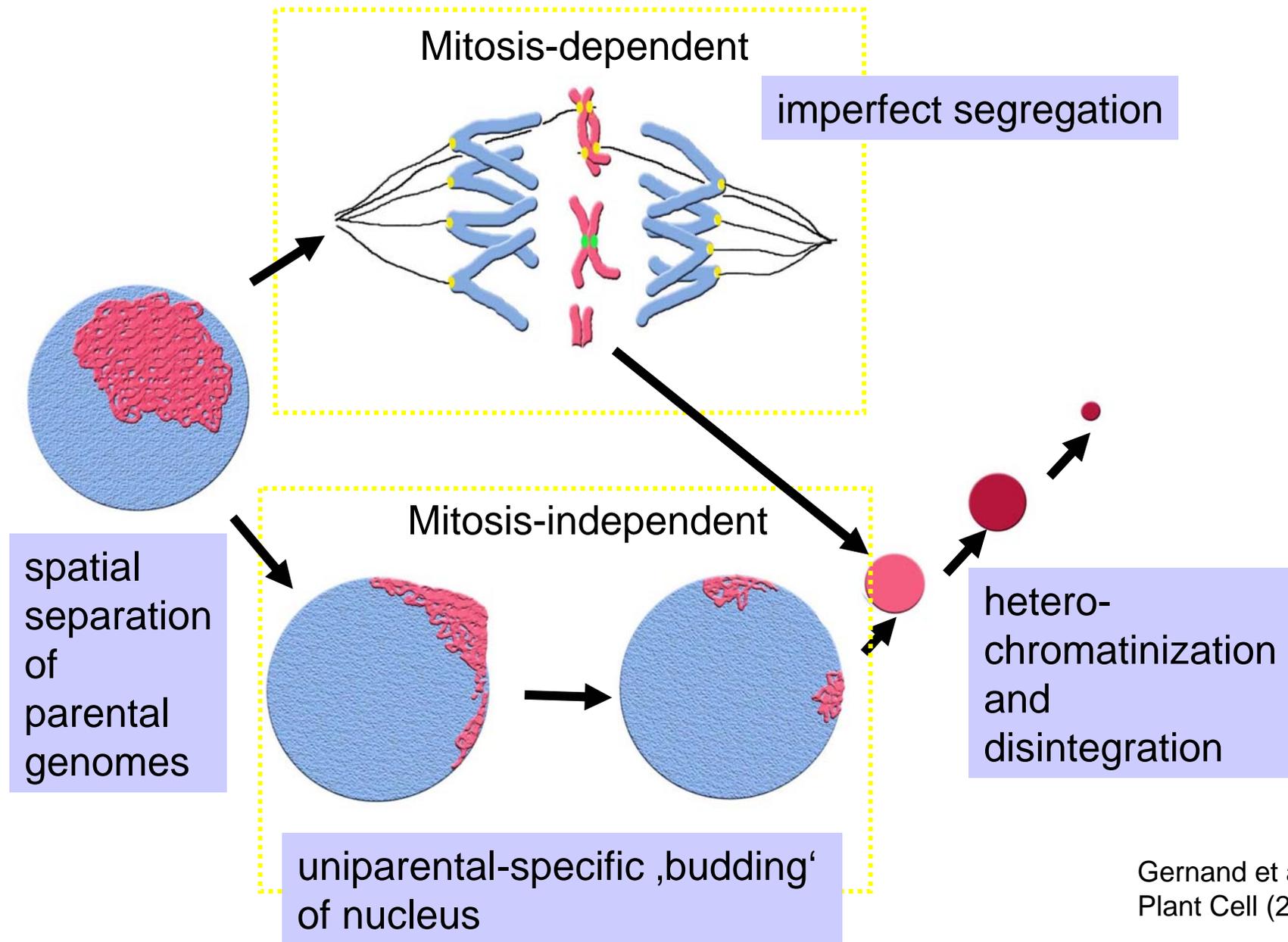
Labeled nucleotides - detected by anti-DIG antibodies

detection by microscopy

Fragmentation of micronucleated DNA – the final step of uniparental genome elimination



Proposed mechanism of uniparental genome elimination



Modern breeding

Mutation breeding

Breeding of polyploids

Generation of haploids