# The Role of Tissue Culture and Novel Genetic Technologies in Crop Improvement



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#### PROCEEDINGS

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Julie L. F. Ketchum Oluf L. Gamborg (Editors)

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## PROBLEMS AND PROSPECTS FOR GRAIN LEGUME BREEDING

Y. L. Nene, J. P. Moss, and C. L. L. Gowda

#### ABSTRACT

Grain legumes are an important source of nutrition, and contribute a substantial part of dietary protein in many parts of the world. Groundnut (<u>Arachis hypogaea</u> L.) is also an important source of edible oil.

There are large differences in yield per unit area, even ten-fold increases, between different locations, and between experimental plots and farmer's fields. Reduced yields are due to a range of factors, primarily climatic, edaphic and biotic. Among the major yield reducers are pests and diseases, drought, and adverse soil conditions.

In addition to breeding for yield <u>per se</u>, breeders have incorporated resistances to pests and diseases and other yield constraints. However, the primary gene pool that is easily accessible to the breeder lacks many of the characters needed.

A range of techniques need to be applied to grain legumes to overcome these constraints. Embryo rescue may be sufficient where the gene can be found in close relatives, but in many cases more sophisticated techniques are needed.

The priorities in breeding efforts for different crops will be discussed.

#### INTRODUCTION

Grain legumes are an important source of nutrition, and contribute a substantial part of dietary protein in many parts of the world. They are grown on a wide range of soil types and under varying conditions from cool temperate zones to humid tropics. Some are widely distributed; others, such as mungbean (<u>Vigna radiata</u> L. Wilczek) are more localized but still occupy an important position. Groundnut and soybean (<u>Glycine max</u> L. Merr) are also important sources of edible oil.

Grain legumes are important crops of developing countries (Table 1); in many cases they are essential to the nutrition of the population and the economy of the country.

legumes, 1986.								
	World	Dev'd Countries	Dev'g Countries	Africa	N\C America	South America	Asia	
Beans, Dry <sup>1</sup> Chickpeas	26.2 10.5	2.1 0.1	24.1 10.3	2.6 0.4	3.1 0.2	6.2 <0.1	12.9 9.7	
Pigeonpea <sup>2</sup> Groundnuts <sup>1</sup>	4.1 19.7	0.1 0.9	4.0 18.8	0.5	<0.1 0.8	<0.1	3.5 13.1	
Pulses, Total-	68.4	12.4	56.0	10.9	3.9	6.7	35.7	

Table 1. Areas (million ha) Under cultivation of selected important grain legumes, 1986.

1 From FAO Production Yearbook, 1986.

From International Pigeonpea Newsletter 5:10-14.

Areas of production are defined by both edapho-climatic and socioeconomic factors, and within these areas, production in each crop has been limited by a number of constraints. These can be classified broadly into biotic, such as pests and diseases, and abiotic, such as inclement soil and climatic conditions, and drought. In addition, there are constraints on availability of inputs (Table 2). Although there have been concerted international and national efforts to overcome these constraints, much remains to be done.

Table 2.	National and International Activities in Grain Legume Improvement
Const	caints
Mana	igement
	Pests, diseases, soil conditions, drought
	Government policies/Infrastructure
	Lack of inputs, marketing facilities
Improv	vement Efforts
Inte	ernational Efforts
	Consultative Group on International Agricultural Research
	ICRISAT : Groundnut, Chickpea, Pigeonpea
	CIAT : Dry beans ( <u>Phaseolus</u> )
*	IITA : Cowpea, Soybean
	ICARDA : Faba beans, Lentils, Chickpea
Nati	onal Efforts
	Developed countries
	Rapid dissemination and use of new technologies
	Improved management
	Developing countries
	Lack of inputs
	Aware of new technology, but:
••	Extension services inadequate
	Management often suboptimal

Recent advances in biotechnology have opened up new vistas for crop scientists and offer new hope to the farmer. This paper outlines the major constraints to production of some grain legumes, and suggests how these may be addressed. Groundnut, beans (mostly <u>Phaseolus</u>), chickpea (<u>Cicer arietinum</u> L.) and pigeonpea (<u>Cajanus cajan</u> L. Millsp.) are important in Asia, and groundnut, beans, and cowpeas (<u>Vigna unquiculata</u> L. Walp) are important in Africa (Table 1). Their importance has been recognized by the Consultative Group on International Agricultural Research (CGIAR) by their inclusion in the mandate of one or more international agricultural research institutes.

There are some excellent books on grain legumes and pests and diseases (Summerfield and Bunting 1980, Summerfield and Roberts 1985) and on tropical legume pathology (Allen 1983); it is not our intention to give a complete review of the subject, but to highlight some of the outstanding problems.

#### CONSTRAINTS TO PRODUCTION

### Biotic Stresses

Grain legumes are attacked by a wide range of fungal, bacterial and viral diseases, and a host of insect and other pests. Some of these are distributed throughout the whole growing area of the crop, while others are restricted to certain continents ( $\underline{e},\underline{q}$ , Groundnut Rosette Virus to Africa) or are only of local significance.

**Fungal diseases.** High levels of resistance to ascochyta blight, (<u>Ascochyta rabiei</u> Pass. Lab.), or botrytis gray mold (<u>Botrytis cinerea</u> Pers., ex Pers.) are not available in cultivated chickpeas. The levels of resistance available are about 5 on a 1-9 scale (l=resistant, 9=susceptible), and the recovery of such resistance in the progenies is low. A few related <u>Cicer</u> species have slightly higher levels of resistance (2 or 3 rating); however, these do not cross with chickpea, and embryo rescue may be needed to produce hybrids from these crosses.

Cowpea grown in the humid forest belt of West Africa is attacked by a wide range of diseases, including cercospora leafspot (<u>Cercospora canescens</u>), powdery mildew (<u>Erysiphe polygoni</u>), fusarium wilt (<u>Fusarium oxysporum</u>), fusarium root rot (<u>Fusarium solani</u>), ascochyta blight (<u>Ascochyta phaseolorum</u>), phytophthora stem rot (<u>Phytophthora vignae</u> and <u>Phytophtora cactorum</u>), and verticillium wilt (<u>Verticillium albo-atrum</u>), for which resistances are available. There is no reported resistance, however, to anthracnose (<u>Colletotrichum lindemuthianum</u>), pythium stem rot (<u>Pythium aphanidermatum</u>), web blight (<u>Rhizoctonia solani</u>), and brown rust (<u>Uromyces appendiculatus</u>), which are major causes of crop loss (Singh and Allen 1980).

Wild relatives of common bean (<u>Phaseolus vulgaris</u>) are good sources of resistance to fungal diseases. Resistance to anthracnose (<u>Colletotrichum</u> <u>lindemuthianum</u> (Sacc. and Magn., Bri. and Cav.), rust (<u>Uromyces phaseoli</u> (Pers. Wint.) and angular leafspot (<u>Phaeoisariopsis griseola</u> Sacc., Ferraris), has been identified in scarlet runner (<u>P. coccineus</u>), (CIAT 1987), but as numerous races of these pathogens exist, further work is needed to introduce stable resistance into <u>P. vulgaris</u>. <u>Phaseolus coccineus</u> is also resistant to ascochyta blight (<u>Ascochyta phaseolorum</u> Sacc.) and beanfly (<u>Ophiomyia phaseoli</u> Tryon.). Tepary bean (<u>P. acutifolius</u>) is resistant to common bacterial blight (Xanthomonas phaseoli), (CIAT 1988) and leaf hoppers (<u>Empoasca kraemeri</u>). Early leaf spot, caused by <u>Cercospora arachidicola</u> and late leaf spot caused by <u>Phaeoisariopsis personata</u>, result in extensive defoliation in groundnuts and subsequent yield losses. Although there is some resistance in <u>A. hypogaea</u>, the best sources of resistance are the wild species. <u>Arachis</u> <u>cardenasii</u> is resistant to late leaf spot, and many lines have been produced incorporating this resistance. Resistance to early leaf spot has been identified in species of section <u>Erectoides</u> (ICRISAT 1987) which have not been crossed with <u>A. hypogaea</u>.

Resistance to groundnut rust, caused by <u>Puccinia arachidis</u>, has been identified in the cultivated germplasm. There are indications that a different gene is involved in the resistance that has also been reported in the wild species (Singh <u>et al</u>. 1984), and use of this could lead to improved stability of resistance. Germplasm with resistance from wild species have been produced at ICRISAT (Moss et al. 1988).

**Bacterial diseases.** Bacterial diseases have not been given high priority in many breeding programs, as bacterial infections do not frequently cause epidemics; however, yield losses can be as high as 40% (Allen 1983) and bacterial diseases are often difficult to control. Some resistance is available—such as to bacterial leaf spot and stem canker (<u>Xanthomonas</u> <u>cajani</u>)—in accessions of pigeonpea from Africa. Disease incidence often depends on presence of damage to the plant, either by insect or mechanical means, after which the bacteria invade the plant and multiply rapidly. Only a few genera of bacteria cause crop losses, and some species infect a wide range of legumes. Selection of resistance may be possible in cell cultures. A gene, with action similar to that of the viral coat protein gene, could be isolated and used, though there does not seem to be an urgent need at present.

Viral diseases. Viruses have a well-established reputation for devastating legume crops, as there is a wide range of virus diseases whose effects range from minimal yield loss to total destruction of the crop. The true picture is often confounded by difficulties of identification.

**Peanut Stripe Virus** has received much attention in the last few years. **Previously of restricted distribution**, it has spread to many countries, and is both seed-borne and aphid (<u>Aphis craccivora</u> Koch) transmitted. Extensive field screening of the germplasm has so far failed to find resistance in <u>A</u>. <u>hypogaea</u>, but resistance has been reported in <u>A</u>. <u>diogoi</u>, <u>A</u>. <u>helodes</u> and other wild species (Culver <u>et al</u>. 1987).

Virus diseases of cowpea are very important. Reported yield losses can be as high as 80% for cowpea severe mosaic. Sunn-hemp mosaic and cowpea banding mosaic can each result in losses of 40% or above (Singh and Allen, 1980). There are no reports of resistance to these viruses.

**Pests.** Moderate levels of resistance have been found in pigeonpea against pod borer (<u>Helicoverpa</u> <u>armigera</u> Hubner) and pod fly (<u>Melanagromyza</u> <u>obstusa</u> Malloch). These resistances are being incorporated into breeding lines. Moderate levels of resistance are available in chickpea for pod borer (<u>Helicoverpa</u>); however, <u>Helicoverpa</u> remains a major problem for both chickpea and pigeonpea, and a higher degree of resistance is needed to stabilize production. The pod borer (<u>Maruca testulalis</u>), is the major world wide pest of cowpea. (Singh and Allen 1980, Steele <u>et al</u>. 1985). Some wild cowpeas and related species are resistant to pod borer <u>Maruca</u> (Singh, pers comm.).

Leaf hoppers (<u>Empoasca</u> spp.), bruchids (<u>Zabrotes subfasciatus</u> and <u>Acanthoscelides obtectus</u>), and whitefly (<u>Bemisia tabaci</u>) are pests of beans worldwide. Whitefly is more important as a vector of bean golden mosaic virus than in its role of yield reducer. Bean pod weevil (<u>Apion godmani</u>) is important in Latin America, and bean fly is the worst pest of beans in Africa. Resistance to beanfly has been identified in <u>P. coccineus</u> (CIAT 1987), and to leaf hoppers in <u>P. acutifolius</u> (CIAT 1988). Resistance to bruchids has been found in wild forms of <u>P. vulgaris</u> (CIAT 1988).

# Abiotic Stresses

Many of the resource-poor farmers of the world who rely on grain legumes as their major source of protein grow them on soils which are low in nitrogen and phosphate, in areas which are subject to drought. Crops grown on acid soils are adversely affected by aluminum or manganese toxicity. This is particularly true for teans. Cowpea is grown under the same conditions as the major crops with which it is co-cultivated, which tend to be in the low input, rainfed systems of subsistence farming. Many of the cowpeas grown therefore suffer from low fertility levels and low moisture availability.

Soil salinity is increasingly important where chickpea and pigeonpea are grown. Cultivated germplasm does not have appreciable levels of resistance, but a moderate level of tolerance to salinity has been found in <u>Atylosia</u> <u>albicans</u> and <u>A. platycarpa</u>, and needs to be transferred to pigeonpea. Possibilities exist for single cell selection in suspension cultures.

Drought is especially limiting in groundnut production. The plants are susceptible to drought at flowering and at pod filling. The effect of end of season drought has been reduced by breeding short-duration varieties, but there is still a need to breed shorter duration varieties to fit crop rotations. A similar approach is applicable to chickpea which is grown on residual moisture.

Temperature extremes are another threat to which tolerance is needed. Cold tolerance would be valuable in chickpea when grown as a winter crop, and <u>Cicer microphyllum</u> has been identified as a source of resistance.

#### RECOMMENDATIONS

Wild species of many legumes are good sources of resistance. The first priority, therefore, is to screen the wild germplasm to identify desirable traits. Techniques of hormone treatment to prevent pod abortion and maintain ovule growth, and techniques of ovule and embryo rescue are widely applicable; however techniques, timings, concentrations, and media used are specific to each crop and need further attention.

Use of wide crosses in legumes is problematic as resulting hybrids have many undesirable features. Many generations of backcrossing are needed to regain the adaptability of the cultivated parent. The use of vectors containing resistance genes from wild species to transform adapted cultivars overcomes these problems, and opens up the possibility of transferring these genes into completely unrelated genera.

Some solutions may have wide applicability in legumes, such as the use of the Bt and similar genes for insect resistance, and the use of gene coding for viral coat proteins to provide virus resistance. These genes have wide applicability, and should be transferred to legumes when the techniques for plant regeneration have been developed. Major thrusts are called for in these fields, both to transfer available genes to grain legumes, and to search for other genes.

Although biotechnology holds promise for the legume breeder, many of the grain legumes are not easy to regenerate from callus or single cells, and this aspect should receive attention. Much basic work is needed before the full potential of the germplasm, and the new techniques to utilize the available variation, can be realized.

Selection in cell suspension cultures shows promise for improving a number of traits. This technique could be applied for salinity tolerance and for disease resistance where no suitable source can be found in the existing germplasm.

There are a number of techniques which assist the legume breeder in crop improvement. The application of anther culture to generate haploids is one such technique. Isolation of the gene for resistance and subsequent development of probes for gene detection and vectors for asexual transfer would be beneficial in breeding efforts. Asexual transformation has the advantage of introducing a desirable gene without disturbing the adaptation of the recipient cultivar.

#### CONCLUSIONS

Biotechnology adds a new phase to the ongoing process of crop improvement in grain legumes. Some goals have been achieved by conventional means, and there are a number of adapted lines with resistance to certain pests and diseases which are, or shortly will be, contributing to increased yields. Much remains to be done, however--especially in the field of pest and disease resistance---to improve and stabilize yields of these important crops.

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