

Principles and Methods of Parental Selection

Aim of the module

At the end of the module, we should be able to:

- discuss the importance of parental selection in a pre-breeding programme; and
- describe the main methods for making parental selection based on genotypic and phenotypic information

Introduction

- Selection for traits in breeding relies largely on:
 - the availability of heritable variation, and
 - the ability to select upon it
- Success of a pre-breeding program assumes that:
 - a trait donor or source introduces genetic variability into a breeding population and
 - trait variability is expressed in the new background, hence genetic advance
- Not all breeding programs strive to produce parents
- Not always correct to assume that a good variety will be a good parent in crosses

Importance of selecting parents

- The judicious choice of parents to be used in crossing is
 - A prerequisite for an efficient breeding program and
 - Needed to sustain genetic progress
- Breeding programs require appropriate progenitors
 - that can be crossed and
 - Which will produce progenies with the desirable characteristics

Choice of parents

Two main types of criteria are adopted:

- Phenotypic
 - Characteristics of the parents such as agronomic and morphological traits, disease reaction and flowering behaviour, and
- Genotypic
 - Performance of the parents as reflected in progeny derived from them or by knowledge of genetic constitution.
- Parents must have good parental value or positive “combining ability”.

Parental value

- A feature of the genetic constitution of a donor for desired, heritable traits
 - Complex traits are often comprised of several characteristics,
 - defining those that contribute reliably to variation is prerequisite to successful parental selection
- Evaluation that accounts for environmental effects is key to defining the genetic components of complex traits.
 - Just as the ability to distinguish among progeny that vary for these traits.
 - Accurate evaluation of progeny is the most effective means to identify superior progenitors
- Performance of progenies is dependent on features of both parents in a cross

Genetic composition of trait donors

- Genetic composition is critical to developing parental lines with potential to transmit high levels or frequencies of a characteristic to their progeny
 - Even simply-inherited characteristics are transmitted to progeny as a series of gametes with representative haplotypes from the donor and recipient germplasm.
 - Linkage among genes influences desirable and undesirable characteristics.
 - The special case of polyploids -- the “plex” level or intragenic constitution of alleles
- Recipient germplasm must possess desirable productivity, protection or utilization traits
 - especially when the donor is from wild or un-adapted germplasm

Combining Ability

- High performance, wide adaptability, disease resistance and yield stability are the major features taken into account for choosing parental genotypes
 - But, selecting parental lines based only on target traits is often insufficient to guarantee the presence of superior genotypes in the progeny
 - Because genetic gains that may occur in progenies of parents selected only on phenotypic attributes may be random and non-repeatable.

Combining Ability

For quantitatively inherited characteristics, two important concepts:

- General combining ability (GCA), i.e. the average performance of parents in crosses; and
- Specific combining ability (SCA), i.e. the deviation of individual crosses from the average of the crosses
- Are used extensively in crop improvement,
 - including pre-breeding,
 - to assure the realization of breeding objectives through the efficient exploitation of available genetic variability.

GCA and SCA

- Determinations of GCA permit the identification of genetically superior parental materials to be included in hybridization programs
- Studies of combining ability also permit the identification of superior hybrids through the use of parents with high SCA
- The genetic analyses determining combining ability further enable breeders to estimate certain genetic effects and parameters for quantitative traits in source populations for pre-breeding such as:
 - trait variance, co-variance,
 - correlations among traits,
 - the relative importance of additive and dominance variation, heritability

GCA and SCA

- If more of a specific trait, such as yield, is wanted
 - progeny from a parent with a positive estimate of GCA would be expected to be better for that particular trait than would progeny from a parent with a neutral or negative estimate of GCA.
- Conversely, if less of a trait were wanted, such as proportion of progeny with disease,
 - progeny from a parent with a negative estimate of GCA would be expected to be better than would progeny from a parent with a neutral or positive estimate of GCA.
- If SCA predominates,
 - then specific combinations of parents would have to be evaluated to find progeny with the desired characteristic, and considerably more testing would be required.
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Mating Designs

- The term 'mating design' refers to the mating of parents
 - in one or another systematic plan of crosses
 - to determine genetic parameters and/or parental value.
- Diallel and North Carolina design II mating schemes are two examples of systematic matings that breeders use to
 - identify superior progenitors, and
 - determine genotypic components of variance which help to understand the structure of genetic variability

Diallel design

- A set of crosses produced involving “n” lines in all possible combinations
 - The best way to determine the combining ability of parents
 - The analysis of such crosses is known as diallel analysis.
- The analysis of diallels
 - provides information on GCA and SCA of parents and their crosses, and
 - enables us to see if the reciprocal cross gives equivalent results or if there is maternal effect
- Families obtained from $m_{\text{♀}} \times n_{\text{♂}}$ diallel crosses are studied in a two factorial experiment

Methods of Diallel Designs

Method I: Assuming 5 parents for diallel crosses, we will have 25 crosses

Scheme 1. Diallel method 1						
		Males				
		1	2	3	4	5
Females	1	√	√	√	√	√
	2	√	√	√	√	√
	3	√	√	√	√	√
	4	√	√	√	√	√
	5	√	√	√	√	√

Methods of Diallel Designs

Method II: Assuming 5 parents for diallel crosses, we will have 25 crosses

Scheme 1. Diallel method 1						
		Males				
		1	2	3	4	5
Females	1	√	√	√	√	√
	2	√	√	√	√	√
	3	√	√	√	√	√
	4	√	√	√	√	√
	5	√	√	√	√	√

Methods of Diallel Designs

Method III: Concerns F1's and reciprocals. Assuming 5 parents, we will have 20 crosses

Scheme 3. Diallel method 3						
		Males				
		1	2	3	4	5
Females	1		√	√	√	√
	2	√		√	√	√
	3	√	√		√	√
	4	√	√	√		√
	5	√	√	√	√	

Methods of Diallel Designs

Method IV: Concerns only F1's. Assuming 5 parents, we will have 10 crosses if reciprocals and selfings are ignored

Scheme 4. Diallel method 4						
		Males				
		1	2	3	4	5
Females	1		√	√	√	√
	2			√	√	√
	3				√	√
	4					√
	5					

Methods of Diallel Designs

Diallel series of crosses grown in replicated trials

- For 10 to 12 parents , RCBD should suffice
- Depending on the crop, enough seed for replicated trials will be reached in one to two years,
- Incomplete block designs should be considered if
 - the number of crosses is large and
 - the environmental variability among experimental units is great
- Despite its wide use, the disadvantages:
 - some hybrids may be difficult to obtain.
 - the workload involved in the evaluations, especially with high number of parents when analysis may become unfeasible

Partial Diallel

- Diallel cross analysis involving a set of “n” parents in all possible combinations becomes unmanageable as the number of lines (n) increases.
- On the other hand if only a small number of parents are tested, the estimates of combining ability tend to have a large sampling error.
- These difficulties led to the development of the concept of sampling of crosses produced by large numbers of parents without affecting the efficiency of the diallel technique.
- In a normal diallel, each line is involved in $(n - 1)$ crosses.
- Concept of the partial diallel design, only a random sample of crosses, say of the size of 's', is analyzed where 's' is less than $n-1$.

Partial Diallel

		Males							
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Females	1				√	√	√		
	2					√	√	√	
	3						√	√	√
	4							√	√
	5								√
	6								
	7								
	8								

Line x tester design

- Provides information about the GCA and SCA of parents,
- is helpful in estimating various types of gene effects.
- All of these 'l' lines are crossed to each of 't' testers and thus l x t full-sib progenies are produced.
- These progenies along with or without parents, i.e., testers and lines, are then tested in a replicated trial
- For example, if there are 3 testers and 7 lines, we have $7 \times 3 = 21$ crosses
- For evaluation, the 21 crosses along with 10 parents, i.e., 7 lines and 3 testers, for a total of 31 entries, might be tested in a RCBD with 4 replications.

Line x tester design

Scheme 7. Line x Tester				
		Testers		
		1	2	3
Lines	1	√	√	√
	2	√	√	√
	3	√	√	√
	4	√	√	√
	5	√	√	√
	6	√	√	√
	7	√	√	√

Design II

- The genetic information is similar to that obtained with diallel analysis.
- Different sets of parents are used as males and females.
- If a set of 8 parents is included in the design II, 16 crosses will be obtained

Scheme 6. Design II					
		Males			
		5	6	7	8
Females	1	√	√	√	√
	2	√	√	√	√
	3	√	√	√	√
	4	√	√	√	√

Design II

- In this design both paternal and maternal half-sibs are produced.
- From an F1 population, n_1 males and n_2 females are randomly selected and each male is crossed to each of the females.
- The expectations in the analysis of variance of males and females for design II are equivalent to GCA,
- And the male x female source is equivalent to SCA of the diallel analysis.
- Because we have two sets of parents in design II, we have two independent estimates of GCA.