

Applications of Biotechnology in the Nursery Stock Industry®

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INTRODUCTION

This paper summarizes developments in plant biotechnology as applied to the nursery stock sector and reviews progress in developing methods to facilitate the production of new cultivars of nursery stock by embryo rescue, somatic embryogenesis, polyploidy, and genetic modification.

EMBRYO CULTURE AND SOMATIC EMBRYOGENESIS

The germination of seeds, which have complex requirements for breaking dormancy can be accelerated by excising the embryos from seeds and culturing them in vitro. Where seeds are scarce it may also be useful to germinate embryos in vitro to obtain seedlings more quickly (Meynet et al., 1994).

Embryos, which are not fully mature in the seeds, have the capacity to produce multiple secondary embryos in vitro. These can be matured in vitro and germinated as normal seedlings. The process of somatic embryogenesis is possible for a range of ornamentals and is a feasible way to vegetatively propagate plants on a large scale including: *Camellia* sp. (San Jose and Vieitez, 1993); *Cercis canadensis* (Geneve and Kester, 1990); *Cornus florida* (Trigiano et al., 1998), *Ilex aquifolium* (Hu et al., 1978); *Magnolia* sp. (Merkle and Watson-Pauley 1994; Merkle, 1997); *Paulownia tomentosa* (Radojevic, 1979); *Aesculus hippocastanum* (Kiss et al., 1992); *Paeonia albiflora* (Kim et al., 1996a); *Feijoa sellowiana* (Vesco and Guerra 2001), and *Liriodendron* sp. (Merkle, 1997). In general, somatic embryogenesis is only possible by using immature or newly mature embryos as the starting tissue. Therefore, it is necessary to know the phenotype of the seed material before starting.

Somatic embryogenesis is very useful for producing plants, from scarce seed sources such as the yellow flowered *Magnolia cordata* (Merkle and Watson Pauley, 1994), and for bulking up large numbers of plants of conifer species derived from the seed material of high-yielding selected crosses.

Wide crosses often fail because the embryos abort before they are mature enough to germinate normally. Embryo rescue can make it possible to obtain hybrid plants by culturing the hybrid embryos to maturity in vitro. In such cases, the hybrid embryos can be proliferated via somatic embryogenesis, leading to a build up of stocks of scarce materials such as hybrids of *Liriodendron tulipifera* × *L. chinense* (Merkle, 1997). The method has also been developed for holly (Mattis et al., 1995) and rose (Marchant et al., 1993). Hybrids of scented *Cyclamen purpurascens* with *C. persicum* were produced by hybrid embryo rescue and progeny were scented (Ishizaka and Uematsu, 1995). Similarly, hybrids of scented *Viburnum carlesii* × *V. lantana* have been possible through embryo rescue (Hoch et al., 1995). New colours and plant forms are possible from crosses of the orange coloured *Ornithogalum dubium* with the white flowered *O. thyrsoides* when embryo rescue produced viable hybrids (Griesbach et al., 1993). New types of alstromeria have been produced by embryo rescue of *A. ligtu* hybrids × *A. pelegrina* (Ishikawa et al., 1997)

and also in *Zantedeschia* (Yao and Cohen, 1996) and *Limonium* (Morgan et al., 1998). Interspecific hybridisation was facilitated in *Helianthus* sp. and may lead to new garden cultivars (Espinasse et al., 1991).

POLYPLOIDY

Plants with extra sets of chromosomes can be produced by culturing buds in vitro with colchicine. Polyploid plants have larger cells, resulting in plants with larger leaves and flowers. Polyploidisation has been achieved effectively in vitro for rose (Ma et al., 2001), lilac (Rose et al., 2001) buddleia (Rose et al., 2000), salvia (Gao et al., 1996), and agapanthus (Nakano et al., 2003). Polyploid plants may have desirable characters for commercialisation. Alternatively they can be employed as parents in crosses with species, which are polyploid in nature. In the case of lilac, hybrids of *S. vulgaris* × *S. pinnatifolia* were sterile, but fertile hybrids may be possible following polyploidisation of the hybrid, leading to lilac selections with large flowers and pinnate leaves (Rose et al., 2001). In some polyploid crosses of *Hibiscus syriacus*, such as diploid crossed with tetraploid, embryo rescue has been used to obtain viable progeny (Kim et al., 1996b).

GENETIC MODIFICATION

In 2003, 68 million ha of genetically modified (GM) crops were grown globally, mainly maize, soybean, and cotton (FAO, 2004). The modified genes conferred resistance to insects and herbicides and benefited the crop grower. The next generation of GM plants will be targeted at adding value for the consumer so that public acceptance and profitability will be increased. For the nursery and flower industries, the genes of interest will be those conferring novel characters such as new flower colours, fragrance, early or retarded flowering, extended shelf-life, and disease resistance.

Classical plant breeding has well-known limitations. Some of these can be overcome using genetic modification technology, for example to introduce individual genes or gene groups into plants. This technology is now well advanced for trees (Halpin and Boergan, 2003). Genetic modification has been demonstrated in principle for a wide range of ornamentals, including azaleas (Mertens et al., 2000); roses (Marchant et al., 1998); agapanthus, muscari, lily (Suzuki and Nakano, 2002); lavender (Nebaur et al., 2000); and gentians (Hosokawa et al., 2000). Useful genes, which have been successfully transferred include crown gall resistance to apple (Viss et al., 2003) and Basta resistance to pear rootstocks (Lebedev et al., 2002). Genetic modifications for virus resistance has been proven for almond (Raquel et al., 2002) as well as for resistance to plum pox and sharka in plums (Ravelonandro et al., 2000; Scorza et al., 2001) respectively.

Increased protection against pathogens such as *Xanthomonas* and mildew has been demonstrated in transgenic pelargonium (Renou et al., 2000) and roses (Li et al., 2003). Recent work on genetic modification of *Forsythia* has resulted in a novel bronze-orange petal colour by transferring two genes affecting pigment synthesis, one for anthocyanidin synthase from *Mathiola incana* and the other, the gene for dihydro-4- flavonol reductase from *Antirrhinum major*; only the expression of both genes resulted in a change in flower colour (Rosati et al., 2003). Flower longevity has been extended in *Torenia* by modification with genes which block ethylene production (Aida, 1998). Blocking the expression of pigment synthesis genes has resulted in *Eustoma* flowers with altered pigmentation (see, Davies and Schwinn,

1997), and roses with a reduced intensity in flower colour (Courtney-Gutterson, 1994). Genes coding for fragrance compounds have been transferred from *Clarkia* to carnation but did not lead to detectable scent improvement (Lavy et al., 2002). Carnations have been transformed with pigment genes from petunia resulting in blue-pigmented flowers. In addition, the same company, (Suntory Ltd.), announced the world's first "blue" rose by genetic modification with a gene from viola.

Future developments and applications in plant biotechnology will be in the use of molecular markers. These markers are expected to serve as indicators of physiological responses in breeding lines and will help the breeder to select combinations of desirable traits. For ornamental nursery stock, markers for freezing tolerance have been reported in subjects such as rhododendron (Lim et al., 1999).

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