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Genetic parameters of yield component and yield in M1 rice (*Oryza sativa* L.) generation irradiated with gamma-ray

Abstract. High-yielding varieties are the primary determinant of the success of increasing Indonesia's rice production. Plant breeding for new high-yielding varieties is possible through mutation induction and selecting desired traits. The effectiveness and efficiency of selection require comprehensive genetic parameters. This study aimed to study the genetic diversity, heritability, genetic advance, and relationship between yield components and yield in the M1 generation of mutant rice irradiated with gamma ray. This research used a factorial randomized complete block design, involving gamma irradiation doses of 100 Gy, 150 Gy, and 200 Gy, as the first factor; and the second factor was the rice genotype: UnsoedBDBP, UnsoedBDIU, UnsoedBPIU, UnsoedIUBD, and UnsoedIBP. Each treatment was repeated three times. Results showed that traits with broad genetic variation were tiller number plant⁻¹, grain number panicle⁻¹, and grain yield plant⁻¹. High heritability and genetic advance values were found in plant height, grain number panicle⁻¹, and yield plant⁻¹, indicating that improvement in these traits can be achieved simply through selection methods. Panicle number plant⁻¹ and filled grain percentage panicle⁻¹ showed a unidirectional relationship and directly affected high values on yield plant⁻¹. Therefore, these traits can be considered selection indicators for breeding high-yielding mutant rice.

Keywords: Genetic parameter · Grain yield · Mutation induction · Rice · Selection.

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Introduction

Rice provides an essential dietary component for roughly fifty percent of the world (Singh et al. 2022). On a worldwide scale, it is noteworthy that Indonesia is the third-largest producer of rice (Connor et al. 2021) and the fourth-largest rice consumer (USDA 2023). Rice is considered a basic meal in Indonesia, and it is consumed by over 80% of Indonesia's population and contributes 62.1% to the overall energy intake (Nafisah et al. 2020; Syahri & Somantri 2016). Rice is the primary source of income for many farming households, amounting to approximately 18 million (Haryanto et al. 2011). Furthermore, rice shortages in the domestic market or high rice prices cause political instability (Rosyada et al. 2022). Hence, the Indonesian government must uphold rice production and provide a steady supply to maintain stability in food security.

National rice production amounted to 54.75 million tons (~31.54 million tons of milled rice) in 2022 and 53.98 million tons (~31.10 million tons of milled rice) in 2023 (BPS 2024). These data show that national milled rice production has decreased. Furthermore, with the increase in population, rice consumption will continue to increase. In 2050, Indonesia's population is projected to reach approximately 322 million (Ansari et al. 2023). If the demand for rice is 127.70 kg per capita (Arifin et al. 2019) then Indonesia needs 41.2 million tons of milled rice. Hence, national rice production must be increased.

The Indonesian government strives to meet domestic rice needs by increasing production using high-yielding rice varieties. High-yielding varieties significantly augment rice production in Indonesia (Riyanto et al., 2021). High-yielding varieties significantly contribute 56% to the overall growth in national rice production. Furthermore, when these varieties are paired with effective water and fertilizer management practices, their contribution can be further enhanced, reaching up to 75% (Syahri & Somantri 2016). To increase rice production, plant breeding programs to produce high-yielding varieties are very important (Wang et al. 2021).

Mutation induction is one of the supporting tools for developing new varieties (Hernández-Soto et al. 2021) and has produced approximately 3222 mutant varieties (Laskar et

al., 2018). Mutation induction is regarded as an alternate method for enhancing genetic diversity, serving as a valuable source of germplasm for plant improvements (Brock, 1971). The purpose of mutation induction is to produce genetic diversity so that it is possible to select plants with desired traits (Muhammad et al., 2021).

Gamma irradiation is a commonly employed physical mutagen to induce mutations (Pérez-Jiménez et al. 2020; Riviello-Flores et al. 2022). Gamma irradiation possesses significant cell and tissue penetration capabilities, which can induce alterations in DNA (Katiyar et al. 2022), resulting in genetic diversity among individuals because DNA controls the phenotype in living organisms (Ishak 2023). Mutation induction using gamma irradiation has proven to change plants' morphological and biochemical characteristics (Saragih et al. 2021). Research that has been conducted shows that gamma irradiation can increase plant yields (Kato et al. 2020).

Selecting mutants with desired traits is the next step in producing new varieties in mutation breeding (Sao et al. 2022). Effective and efficient selection requires comprehensive genetic information for the desired traits. Genetic parameters, including genetic diversity, heritability, and genetic advance, provide significant indicators for choosing the method of selection of desirable traits that might lead to superior mutant development (Sofian et al. 2019). Genetic diversity, heritability, and genetic advance analysis provide valuable insights into the potential benefits that could be achieved in future generations through selective breeding to enhance a certain feature under study (Mahantashivayogayya et al. 2016).

Successful new variety development necessitates a comprehensive knowledge of the genetic diversity of yield components and yields across different genotypes (Oladosu et al. 2014). Mutagenesis can increase genetic diversity. If a trait has wide genetic diversity, the diversity of traits among individuals in the population will also be high, and selection will be easier to obtain the desired traits (Kurniawati et al. 2019). Hence, genetic diversity estimation of yield components and yield among different genotypes holds important value in the strategic development of mutant breeding programs.

The coefficient variability value describes genetic diversity (Choudhary et al. 2018), which

can be categorized into two distinct measures, i.e., the phenotypic coefficient of variation (PCV) and the genotypic coefficient of variation (GCV) (Faysal et al. 2022; Sadimantara et al. 2021). PCV refers to the extent of trait variation observed among different genotypes and is subject to the combined influence of both genetic and environmental factors. Meanwhile, GCV is trait variability between genotypes only influenced by genetic factors (Patel et al. 2021). In selection, traits that have GCV higher than PCV are more desirable.

The environmental impact encompasses both heritable and non-heritable traits estimated by heritability values (Mahantashivayogayya et al. 2016). The estimated heritability value provides insight into the degree to which genetic or environmental factors affect a trait, thus facilitating an evaluation of the degree to which the trait is inherited by future generations (Kartahadimaja et al. 2021). The estimation of the heritability value of a trait is of great significance in the selection of desirable traits. During the initial stages of plant genetic improvement, the development of efficient breeding programs for quantitative traits necessitated the acquisition of dependable estimates of heritability (Chakravarti et al. 2014).

The estimation of selection progress can be more accurately determined by using both heritability estimates and genetic advances instead of relying solely on heritability estimates. Therefore, the primary considerations for plant breeders when developing plant improvement methods are the heritability value and the genetic advance value of desirable traits (Tiwari et al. 2019). Heritability indicates the degree to which genotypic selection can be effective, with its basis often being the phenotypic performance of individuals (Shah et al. 2018). Genetic advance is the disparity between the genotype average value of a selected population and the genotype average value of the initial population from which the genotype was selected (Adhikari et al. 2018). Genetic advance provides information about acquiring expected genetic progress from selecting superior individuals (Anbanandan & Eswaran 2018).

The grain yield is the primary criterion in rice plant breeding for improving new high-yielding varieties. However, grain yield is controlled by polygenic genes and is significantly impacted by environmental factors,

hence rendering directly selecting for this feature ineffective (Riadi et al. 2018). Hence, to improve the effectiveness of selection, it is crucial to possess comprehensive knowledge regarding each trait that contributes to rice yield throughout the development of high-yielding varieties (Ata-Ul-Karim et al. 2022).

Correlation and path analysis determine the yield component's contribution to yield. Establishing correlation is essential for developing appropriate selection strategies to enhance genetic improvement in yield (Okasa et al. 2021). Correlation is a method of statistics utilized to quantify the magnitude and orientation of associations between traits (Khomphet et al. 2022; Tsagaye et al. 2022). Nonetheless, correlation analysis provides inconclusive data on how each yield component feature directly or indirectly influences grain yield (Kumari & Parmar 2020). Consequently, it cannot predict selection success (Chavan et al. 2020).

Path analysis is an approach to statistics that partitions the correlation coefficient of yield components and yield into direct and indirect effects. This method is a foundation for identifying and selecting enhanced grain yield (Ashraf et al. 2020; Dewey & Lu 1959). Path analysis coefficients thoroughly comprehend the relevance of various yield components' direct and indirect effects on grain yield (Ratna et al. 2015). Path analysis coefficients assist plant breeders in identifying yield components that might be chosen to enhance grain yield (Muthuramu & Ragavan 2020). Utilizing correlation and path analysis in conjunction provides a more comprehensive understanding of the causal relationship between two distinct traits (Premkumar et al. 2015), making it easier to develop selection methods to increase grain yield in mutant rice. This study aimed to study the genetic diversity, heritability, genetic advance, and relationship between yield components and yield in M_1 generation of mutant rice.

Materials and Methods

Experimental location. The greenhouse of the Faculty of Agriculture, Jenderal Soedirman University, Banyumas, Indonesia, served as the site of experiments. The experimental site was

located at coordinates 7°24'28.7"S and 109°15'13.3"N, 110 meters above sea level.

Experimental materials. A gamma-ray irradiated M₁ generation mutant of rice was used as plant material for present work. Rice seeds collected at Plant Breeding and Biotechnology Laboratories were treated with gamma radiation using the facility in the National Nuclear Energy Agency of Indonesia (BATAN). The gamma-irradiated genotypes were UnsoedBDBP, UnsoedBDIU, UnsoedBPIU, UnsoedIUBD, and UnsoedIBP. After drying to a water content of 12%, the rice seeds from each genotype were put into a ⁶⁰Co gamma source with an irradiation rate of 510 Gy.h⁻¹. Subsequently, the seedlings underwent 100 Gy, 150 Gy, and 200 Gy of gamma radiation.

Experimental design. This research is a factorial experiment. The first factor was gamma irradiation doses of 100 Gy, 150 Gy, and 200 Gy. The second factor is the rice genotype: UnsoedBDBP, UnsoedBDIU, UnsoedBPIU, UnsoedIUBD, and UnsoedIBP. This research used a randomized complete block design. Each treatment was repeated three times.

Plant cultivation. M₁ generation of mutant rice seeds were grown in germination trays for 2 weeks. Two-week-old seedlings were placed in 35 cm x 40 cm polybags filled with 8 kg of soil. Two rice seedlings are placed in each polybag. Basic fertilizer was applied 10 days before transplanting at 1.21g P₂O₅ per polybag and 0.90g K₂O per polybag. Nitrogen fertilizer at 8.72 g per polybag was applied two and four weeks after planting. Rice plants are maintained according to recommendations for rice cultivation, and plant protection is established until the plants are harvested.

Data collection. Each plant was used as a sample in data collection. The yield component and yield recorded were plant height, tiller number plant⁻¹, panicle number plant⁻¹, heading

date, maturity, panicle length, grain number panicle⁻¹, filled grain percentage panicle⁻¹, 1000-grain weight, and grain yield plant⁻¹.

Statistical analysis

Genetic diversity, heritability, and genetic advance. Phenotypic, genotypic, and environmental variance were estimated using analysis of variance as presented in Table 1 (Johnson et al. 1955).

$$\sigma_e^2 = M1$$

$$\dots\dots\dots (1)$$

$$\sigma_{dg}^2 = \sigma_e^2 + r\sigma_{dg}^2 = \frac{M2-M1}{r}$$

$$\dots\dots\dots (2)$$

$$\sigma_g^2 = \sigma_e^2 + r\sigma_{dg}^2 + rd\sigma_g^2 = \frac{M3-M1}{rd}$$

$$\dots\dots\dots (3)$$

$$\sigma_p^2 = \sigma_g^2 + \frac{\sigma_{dg}^2}{d} + \frac{\sigma_e^2}{rd}$$

$$\dots\dots\dots (4)$$

where σ_e^2 is environmental variance, σ_{dg}^2 is irradiation dose x genotype variance, σ_g^2 is genotypic variance, and σ_p^2 is phenotypic variance.

The following formula for PCV and GCV estimation was developed using Singh and Chaudhary (1979) approach:

$$PCV = \frac{\sqrt{\sigma_p^2}}{\bar{x}} \times 100\%$$

$$GCV = \frac{\sqrt{\sigma_g^2}}{\bar{x}} \times 100\%$$

where σ_p^2 represents the phenotypic variance, σ_g^2 represents the genotypic variance, and \bar{x} represents the population mean value. PCV and GCV were categorized as high if the value exceeded 20%, moderate if the value was between 10% and 20%, and low if the value was below 10% (Sivasubramanian & Menon 1973).

Table 1. Model Analysis of Variant of Irradiation Dose, Genotype, and Irradiation Dose X Genotype Interaction for Yield and Yield Component in M₁ Generation Mutant Rice

Source of variation	Degree of freedom	Sum square	Mean Square	Variance component
Block	r-1	SSr	M5	
Irradiation dose (D)	d-1	SSd	M4	$\sigma_e^2 + r\sigma_{dg}^2 + rg\sigma_d^2$
Genotype (G)	g-1	SSg	M3	$\sigma_e^2 + r\sigma_{dg}^2 + rd\sigma_g^2$
D x G interaction	(d-1) (g-1)	SSdg	M2	$\sigma_e^2 + r\sigma_{dg}^2$
Error	(r-1) (ab-1)	SSe	M1	σ_e^2
Total	rdg-1			

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Table 2. Coefficient of variance, phenotypic coefficient of variation, genotypic coefficient of variation, broad sense heritability, and genetic advance of yield and yield component traits in M₁ generation mutant rice.

Traits	σ_p^2	σ_g^2	σ_e^2	PCV	GCV	h_{bs}^2 (%)	GA (%)
PH	166.47	142.26	12.28	12.18	11.26	85.46	18.32
TN	51.39	22.33	28.52	31.50	20.77	43.45	24.09
PN	17.37	3.31	12.62	22.38	9.77	19.06	7.51
HD	8.28	6.79	1.45	5.39	4.88	81.92	7.77
MD	29.68	15.34	12.44	5.18	3.72	51.70	4.71
PL	3.00	1.11	1.29	6.83	4.15	36.99	4.44
GN	1109.61	821.95	247.95	25.51	21.95	74.08	33.26
FGP	36.87	4.27	15.72	7.33	2.49	11.58	1.49
TGW	7.66	0.70	5.96	10.86	3.27	9.07	1.73
GYP	42.24	31.92	1.88	23.64	20.55	75.57	31.44

Note: PH = plant height, TN = tiller number plant⁻¹, PN = panicle number plant⁻¹, HD = heading date, MD = maturity date, PL = panicle length, GN = grain number panicle⁻¹, FGP = filled grain percentage panicle⁻¹, TGW = 1000-grain weight, GYP = grain yield plant⁻¹, σ_p^2 = phenotypic variance, σ_g^2 = genotypic variance, σ_e^2 = environmental variance, h_{bs}^2 = broad sense heritability, PCV = phenotypic coefficient of variation, GCV = genotypic coefficient of variation, and GA = genetic advance.

PCV values of tiller number plant⁻¹ (31.50%), panicle number plant⁻¹ (22.38%), grain number panicle⁻¹ (25.51%), and grain yield plant⁻¹ (23.64%) were categorized as high. Plant height exhibited a moderate PCV (12.18%), as did the 1000-grain weight (10.86%). Low PCV values were indicated by heading date (5.39%), maturity date (5.18%), panicle length (6.83%), and filled grain percentage panicle⁻¹ (7.33%) (Table 2).

GCV value for the yield component and yield ranged from 2.49% for filled grain percentage panicle⁻¹ to 21.95% for grain number panicle⁻¹. The highest GCV values were obtained for tiller number plant⁻¹ (20.77%), grain number panicle⁻¹ (21.95%), and grain yield plant⁻¹ (20.55%). GCV value for plant height was moderate (11.26%). Apart from these traits, the GCV value was categorized as low.

Phenotypic and genetic variations were associated with environmental and genetic effects on trait expression. The observation of greater phenotypic variation than genetic variation suggested that the environment had a significant impact on how a trait is expressed (Ritonga et al. 2018; Tiwari et al. 2019). This investigation revealed that the phenotypic variance was higher than the genetic variance (Table 2). This implied that environmental factors play a role in influencing both the expression of the yield component and yield, in addition to genetic factors.

PCV demonstrated how environment and genetics affect a plant trait's performance (Faysal et al. 2022; Govinatharaj et al. 2018). GCV only showed genetic effects on plant trait performance. A PCV value greater than GCV reflected that environmental factors influenced a trait's appearance (Sudeepthi et al. 2020). This study showed that PCV values were higher than GCV values (Table 2). It indicated that environmental factors influence the yield and yield performance of M₁ generation mutant rice.

The comparative value between PCV and GCV described how environmental factors impact trait expression (Adhikari et al. 2018; Faysal et al. 2022). A significant genetic influence on trait expression and a limited environmental influence were reflected in the lower difference between PCV and GCV (Chozin et al. 2017; Kishore et al. 2015). This study showed plant height, heading date, maturity date, grain number panicle⁻¹, and grain yield plant⁻¹ had PCV values almost the same as GCV values (Table 2). These findings indicated that genetic factors predominately determine the performance of these traits rather than environmental factors.

PCV and GCV measured genetic diversity within a population (Chavan et al. 2020). The study revealed elevated PCV and GCV values, specifically for tiller number plant⁻¹, grain number panicle⁻¹, and grain yield plant⁻¹. Selection traits with high PCV and GCV values

could be a successful strategy. Additionally, the phenotypic appearance of a plant could serve as a reliable indicator of potential genotype selection (Singh, et al. 2011). Furthermore, the high values of PCV and GCV for tiller number plant⁻¹, grain number panicle⁻¹, and grain yield plant⁻¹ indicated a broad range of genetic diversity. Populations with broad genetic diversity provided freedom in selection to develop a new variety with the desired trait (Kanaka et al. 2023; Rani et al. 2023). Consequently, there would be freedom in the selection of tiller number plant⁻¹, grain number panicle⁻¹, and grain yield plant⁻¹.

The heritability values ranged from 9.07% for 1000-grain weight to 85.46% for plant height (Table 2). Heritability for plant height (85.46%), heading date (81.92%), maturity date (51.70%), grain number plant⁻¹ (74.08%), and grain yield plant⁻¹ (75.57%) was high. Furthermore, moderate heritability was shown by panicle length (36.99%), and low heritability was obtained by panicle number plant⁻¹ (19.06%), filled grain percentage panicle⁻¹ (11.58%) and 1000-grain weight (9.07 %).

Genetic advances in this study were between 1.49% in filled grain percentage panicle⁻¹ and 33.26% in grain number panicle⁻¹ (Table 2). Highly valuable genetic advances were obtained in plant height (18.32%), tiller number plant⁻¹ (24.09%), grain number panicle⁻¹ (33.26%), and grain yield plant⁻¹ (31.44%). Other yield component traits indicated a low genetic advance.

Heritability estimation found that plant height, heading date, maturity date, grain number panicle⁻¹, and grain yield plant⁻¹ had high values, and other traits had moderate or low heritability values. Heritability estimation referred to the contribution of genetic components to observed trait variation (Chozin et al. 2017). Genetic factors were the primary controllers of traits with high heritability. simple selection methods can improve these features (Raghavendra and Hittalmani 2016). Therefore, genetic factors significantly impacted plant height, heading date, maturity date, grain number panicle⁻¹, and grain yield plant⁻¹, while environmental factors had a minor influence, as previously discussed.

There was not necessarily a relationship between high heritability and high genetic advantage. Therefore, selecting a trait based on heritability and genetic advance was preferable

(Shah et al. 2018; Sundaram et al. 2019). Heritability and genetic advance with high values suggested that additive genes had a greater role in controlling these traits (Dragov et al. 2022; Mandal et al. 2023). This could be used as a guide for choosing an effective selection method for a trait in segregated populations and producing true genotypes in the next generation (Chozin et al. 2017; Govintharaj et al. 2018). Plant height, grain number panicle⁻¹, and grain yield plant⁻¹ exhibited high values of heritability and genetic advance in this study, meaning these traits can be improved simply with selection methods. The heading date and maturity date showed high heritability but low genetic advance, suggesting that these traits are influenced by non-additive gene action (Adhikari et al. 2018; Ashe et al. 2023; Islam et al. 2015). Hence, selection for these traits might not be unfavorable (Singh, A. G. et al. 2021).

Correlation and path analysis among yield components and yield. Table 3 displayed the correlation coefficients between yield components and yield. Grain yield plant⁻¹ showed a positive correlation with plant height (0.47%), panicle length (0.50%), grain number panicle⁻¹ (0.45%), and filled grain percentage panicle⁻¹ (0.49%). Apart from these traits, there was no correlation with grain yield plant⁻¹.

The correlation among various yield components was demonstrated in Table 3. Specifically, the 1000-grain weight was found to have a positive correlation with tiller number plant⁻¹ (0.32), panicle number plant⁻¹ (0.32), and filled grain percentage panicle⁻¹ (0.38). However, there was a negative correlation between the 1000-grain weight and grain number panicle⁻¹ (-0.46). The grain number panicle⁻¹ positively correlated with plant height (0.63) and panicle length (0.36). Nevertheless, there was an important negative correlation between grain number panicle⁻¹ and tiller number plant⁻¹. The panicle length exhibited a positive correlation with plant height (0.64) and a negative correlation with tiller number plant⁻¹ (-0.34). The maturity date was positively correlated with the heading date (0.70). However, it was negatively associated with tiller number plant⁻¹ (-0.35) and panicle number plant⁻¹ (-0.34). The data revealed a negative connection between tiller number plant⁻¹ (-0.47) and panicle number plant⁻¹ (-0.37) with the heading date. An analysis revealed a strong positive connection (0.80) between tiller number plant⁻¹ and panicle number plant⁻¹.

Conversely, there was a negative correlation of -0.46 between the tiller number plant⁻¹ and plant height.

Path analysis was utilized to disentangle the correlation coefficient of the yield component and yield into direct and indirect effects, as shown in Table 4. The panicle number plant⁻¹ (0.57), grain-filled percentage panicle⁻¹ (0.48), panicle length (0.34), and grain number panicle⁻¹ (0.21) were the yield components that have an impact on the grain yield of plant⁻¹. These characteristics exhibited a clear and beneficial impact on the amount of grain yield plant⁻¹. Other yield components had direct positive or direct negative effects with small values on the grain yield plant⁻¹, including plant height (0.03), tiller number plant⁻¹ (-0.35), 1000-grain weight (-0.24), heading date (-0.13), and maturity date (-0.03). Data further showed the traits that had a direct effect with path analysis coefficient values that were the same or higher

than correlation coefficient values, namely panicle number plant⁻¹ and filled grain percentage plant⁻¹.

Correlation analysis could identify the direction and degree of the relationship among different traits, such as yield components and yield (Balla & Ibrahim 2017; Prakash et al. 2018). The correlation coefficient, which spanned from +1 (positive) to -1 (negative), indicated how symmetrically related the two variables were (Table 3). A positive correlation coefficient indicated that an increase in the value of one variable was accompanied by an increase in the other variable's value. The negative correlation coefficient indicated that as one variable's value rises, the value of another variable falls (Schober & Schwarte 2018). The study found that plant height, panicle length, grain number panicle⁻¹s, and filled grain percentage panicle⁻¹ s all had positive correlation coefficient values or a linear relationship with grain yield plant⁻¹.

Table 3. Correlation coefficient of yield components and yield of M₁ generation mutant rice.

	PH	TN	PN	DF	DM	PL	GN	FGP	TGW	GYP
PH	1	-0.46 *	-0.27	0.17	0.19	0.64 *	0.63 *	0.10	-0.28	0.47 *
TN		1	0.80 *	-0.47 *	-0.35 *	-0.34 *	-0.50 *	0.13	0.32 *	-0.07
PN			1	-0.37 *	-0.34 *	-0.28	-0.22	0.23	0.32 *	0.23
HD				1	0.70 *	-0.03	0.20	0.19	-0.01	-0.07
MD					1	-0.17	0.29	-0.04	-0.06	-0.19
PL						1	0.36 *	0.14	-0.12	0.50 *
GN							1	-0.06	-0.46 *	0.45 *
FGP								1	0.38 *	0.49 *
TGW									1	-0.13
GYP										1

Note: PH = plant height, TN = tiller number plant⁻¹, PN = panicle number plant⁻¹, HD = heading date, MD = maturity date, PL = panicle length, GN = grain number panicle⁻¹, FGP = filled grain percentage panicle⁻¹, TGW = 1000-grain weight, GYP = grain yield plant⁻¹.

Table 4. Path analysis coefficients of yield components and yields of M₁ generation mutant rice.

	Direct effect	Indirect effect								Total effect
		PH	TN	PN	DF	DM	PL	GN	FGP	TGW
PH	0.03		0.16	-0.15	-0.02	-0.01	0.22	0.13	0.05	0.07
TN	-0.35	-0.01		0.45	0.06	0.01	-0.12	-0.11	0.06	-0.08
PN	0.57	-0.01	-0.28		0.05	0.01	-0.10	-0.05	0.11	-0.08
HD	-0.13	0.00	0.16	-0.21		-0.02	-0.01	0.04	0.09	0.00
MD	-0.03	0.01	0.12	-0.19	-0.09		-0.06	0.06	-0.02	0.01
PL	0.34	0.02	0.12	-0.16	0.00	0.00		0.08	0.07	0.03
GN	0.21	0.02	0.17	-0.13	-0.03	-0.01	0.12		-0.03	0.11
FGP	0.48	0.00	-0.05	0.13	-0.03	0.00	0.05	-0.01		-0.09
TGW	-0.24	-0.01	-0.11	0.18	0.00	0.00	-0.04	-0.10	0.18	

Note: PH = plant height, TN = tiller number plant⁻¹, PN = panicle number plant⁻¹, HD = heading date, MD = maturity date, PL = panicle length, GN = grain number panicle⁻¹, FGP = filled grain percentage panicle⁻¹, TGW = 1000-grain weight, GYP = grain yield plant⁻¹.

The trait selection with a unidirectional relationship could guarantee an increase in both traits (Muthuramu & Ragavan 2020) so that selection was done simultaneously (Archana et al. 2018). This means that selection for plant height, panicle length, grain number panicle⁻¹, and filled grain percentage panicle⁻¹ increased grain yield plant⁻¹. However, the selection of plant height needs to be limited because the selection of short plants will reduce grain yield in plant⁻¹. The finding matched the investigation carried out by Riyanto et al. (2021), Jangala et al. (2022), and Thuy et al. (2023).

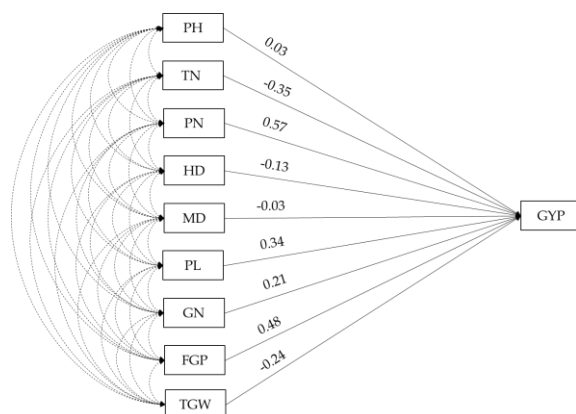


Figure 1. The direct and indirect effects of yield components on yield of M₁ generation mutant rice.

Note: PH = plant height, TN = tiller number plant⁻¹, PN = panicle number plant⁻¹, HD = heading date, MD = maturity date, PL = panicle length, GN = grain number panicle⁻¹, FGP = filled grain percentage panicle⁻¹, TGW = 1000-grain weight, GYP = grain yield plant⁻¹.

The degree and direction of the association between the two characteristics could be determined using the correlation coefficient (Balla & Ibrahim 2017). However, the correlation coefficient could not describe a causal relationship between two variables (Ata-Ul-Karim et al., 2022; Geleta et al., 2019). Path analysis is a method used to elucidate the causal relationship between two traits (Patil & Sahu 2009) and explain one trait's direct or indirect effect against another (Faot et al. 2019; Mulualet et al. 2018). This research found that panicle number plant⁻¹, filled grain percentage panicle⁻¹, panicle length, and grain number panicle⁻¹ had a direct and positive effect on yield plant⁻¹ (Table 4 and Figure 1), as reported by Huang et al. (2011) and Jangala et al. (2022). This

indicated that grain yield plant⁻¹ is significantly influenced by these attributes.

When correlation analysis and path analysis were combined, it enabled a more comprehensive comprehension of the cause-and-effect relationships between various pairs of traits (Premkumar et al. 2016). Plant yield could be increased by selecting traits that have a favorable correlation and have a direct positive effect on grain yield plant⁻¹ (Muthuramu & Ragavan 2020). This was shown by the panicle number plant⁻¹ and the grain-filled percentage plant⁻¹. Based on the correlation coefficient and path coefficient, it was known that these two traits possessed potential as selection indicators for enhancing rice production through mutation induction. The panicle number plant⁻¹ as an indicator of selection had been documented (Riyanto et al. 2021; Sudeepthi et al. 2020).

Conclusion

Traits with broad genetic variation were tiller number plant⁻¹, grain number panicle⁻¹, and grain yield plant⁻¹. High heritability and genetic advance values were found in plant height, grain number panicle⁻¹, and yield plant⁻¹, indicating that improvement for these traits can be simply with selection methods. Panicle number plant⁻¹ and filled grain percentage panicle⁻¹ showed a unidirectional relationship and had a direct effect, with high values on yield plant⁻¹. Therefore, these traits can be considered selection indications for breeding high-yielding mutant rice.

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