

Abstract:

 Eggplant (Solanum melongena L.) yield is highly sensitive to N fertilization, the excessive use of which is responsible for environmental and human health damage. Lowering N input together with 42 the selection of improved Nitrogen-Use-Efficiency (NUE) genotypes, more able to uptake, utilize, and remobilize N available in soils, can be challenging to maintain high crop yields in a sustainable agriculture. The aim of this study was to explore the natural variation among eggplant accessions 45 from different origins, in response to Low (LN) and High (HN) Nitrate (NO3-) supply, to identify NUE‐contrasting genotypes and their NUE‐related traits, in hydroponic and greenhouse pot 47 experiments. Two eggplants, AM222 and AM22, were identified as N-use efficient and inefficient respectively, in hydroponic, and these results were confirmed in a pot experiment, when crop yield was also evaluated. Overall, our results indicated the key role of Nutilization component (NUtE) to confer high NUE. The remobilization of N from leaves to fruits may be a strategy to enhance NUtE, suggesting glutamate synthase as a key enzyme. Further, omics technologies will be used for focusing 52 on C-N metabolism interacting networks. The availability of RILs from two other selected NUE– contrasting genotypes will allow us to detect major genes/quantitative trait loci related to NUE.

 Keywords: Nitrogen Uptake Efficiency (NUpE); Nitrogen Utilization Efficiency (NUtE); root morphology; plasticity; heritability; nitrogen balance index (NBI).

1. Introduction

 Nitrogen (N) is a major limiting factor for plant growth and productivity in both natural and agricultural environments, being an essential component of proteins, secondary metabolites, and nucleic acids (Brady 1999). As a result, over the past decades, N fertilization has increased more than 63 20–fold, in excess compared to crop requirement (35%) (Glass 2003; Shen et al. 2003; Good et al. 2004; Sarasketa et al. 2014; Wang et al. 2014), causing massive environment and human health damages (Good and Beatty 2011). Lowering N fertilizer input together with the selection of genotypes more capable to uptake, utilize, and remobilize N available in soil (McAllister et al. 2012), could be an important challenge on plant nutrition research (Hirel et al. 2007) and pivotal to sustain high crop yields reducing environmental, economic, and health costs (Good et al. 2004; Sebilo et al. 2013). Nitrogen Use Efficiency (NUE), generally referred to as "grain yield production per unit of N available in soils" (Moll et al. 1982), is a complex genetic trait influenced by several environmental factors. As a rule, NUE has two main components: Nitrogen Uptake Efficiency (NUpE), which describes the ability of a plant to take up N from soil, and Nitrogen Utilization Efficiency (NUtE), which indicates the ability of a plant to convert in grain the assimilated/remobilized N (Good et al. 2004; Xu et al. 2012). Among N forms present in soil solutions, nitrate (NO3‐) is the primary N‐ source in aerobic soils, distributed unevenly both in space and time (Crawford 1995; Miller and Cramer 2004; Sorgonà et al. 2011), whose uptake by roots is the first step for N metabolism in plant. However, the root ability to use NO3‐ efficiently depends on morphological and physiological features underlying a complex genetic control (Lynch 1995; Sorgonà et al. 2006; Ruffel et al. 2011). In particular, an efficient NO3‐ uptake, especially at low concentrations in soils, depends on root length and surface area, required to exploit a larger total soil volume, together with a higher number of nitrate transporters per unit of root surface (Lawlor and Cornic 2002). Plants have developed three 82 NO3- uptake systems, a low-affinity transport system (LATS) and two high-affinity transport systems, a constitutive (cHATS) and an inducible (iHATS) (Forde and Clarkson 1999; Forde 2000; 84 Glass et al. 2002). LATS is constitutively expressed, operating at high external NO3- concentrations

85 (>1 mM), and its uptake activity is linear depending on the external NO3- level (Glass 2009). 86 Conversely, both the HATS operate at low NO3- concentrations (<0.5 mM), however, while cHATS is active in plants never provided with NO3‐ having a greater affinity for this anion, the iHATS is 88 induced by NO3- supply (Glass et al. 2002; Glass 2009). NUpE performance is associated with root 89 growth and ability to increase NO3- uptake rates, thus several strategies to improve root traits were 90 developed (Lynch 2007; Smith and De Smet 2012; Gregory et al. 2013). However, since NO3- concentration in soils is often at low millimolar ranges (Miller et al. 2007), the selection for a more efficient HATS system could be of a particular importance for plant nutrient uptake. Several reports showed that NRT2.1 expression, A member of NRT2 nitrate transporter family, is highly 94 synchronized with iHATS regulation in different plant species (Filleur and Daniel-Vedele 1999; Fraisier et al. 2000; Orsel et al. 2006; Cai et al., 2008; Sorgonà et al. 2011). Another member of the HATS, displaying the same pattern of NRT2.1 and belonging to NAR2 family (annotated also as NRT3 according to Léran et al. 2014), was identified in different plant species (Tong et al. 2005; 98 Okamoto et al. 2006; Orsel et al. 2006). In Arabidopsis, a co-expression of both NRT2.1 and NAR2.1 highly sustains the activation of the HATS (Okamoto et al. 2006; Orsel et al. 2006).

100 Once NO3- has been absorbed, it is reduced to ammonium, through nitrate and nitrite reductase (NR and NiR, respectively), in leaves or roots, and then assimilated into amino acids through glutamine synthetase/glutamate synthase (GS/GOGAT) enzymes and successively remobilized, used and/or stored in vacuolar system (McAllister et al. 2012). These activities contribute to the NUtE physiological component in crops (Kant et al. 2011; Xu et al. 2012). Eggplant (Solanum melongena L.) is the third most important Solanaceous vegetable crop (Barchi et al. 2011), cultivated and consumed worldwide, especially in India and China (Hazra et al. 2003). Despite the relevance and complexity of plant NUE, essential for the development of a sustainable agriculture, limited information on genetic variation for this trait is available for eggplant, whose productivity is highly sensitive to N fertilizer (Pal et al. 2002). Several studies on model and crop species highlighted a large natural variation for quantitative traits such as root morphology, nitrogen uptake and

 assimilation, related to both genetic control and environmental adaptation (Walch‐Liu et al. 2008; Chardon et al. 2010, 2012; De Pessemier et al. 2013). Beyond the dissection of the phenotypic 113 variability, these genetic resources could represent a pivotal tool for selecting high-NUE genotypes (Bi et al. 2007; Coque et al. 2008; Chardon et al. 2010; Han et al. 2015a). The aim of this study was to investigate the natural variation for NUE‐related traits in several eggplant accessions from different geographic origins, grown for 18 days in a hydroponic system under low and high NO3‐ levels, to identify contrasting NUE genotypes through a morphological, physiological, and molecular approach. Root morphology and plant biomass (root and shoot dry weight) were measured and considering the two physiological components, N‐uptake efficiency (NUpE) and N‐utilization 120 efficiency (NUtE), NUE was calculated. Afterwards, four NUE-contrasting eggplants, selected in hydroponic system, were grown in soil pots under greenhouse till fruit harvests to confirm their 122 different N-use efficiency.

2. Results

2.1.Growth chamber experiments

2.1.1. Eggplant natural variation in response to nitrate

 Eggplant biomass, in terms of SDW and RDW, among 19 eggplant accessions in response to low (0.5 127 mM, LN) and high (10 mM, HN) NO3- supplies, was firstly investigated. For each trait, biplot graphs showed the average values of each accession obtained at LN (plotted along the vertical axis) compared to those at HN (plotted along the horizontal axis) levels (Figure 1). The biplot analyses 130 allowed us to understand which trait was mostly involved in response to NO3- supply. Indeed, the genetic variation among genotypes was explained by their distribution along the diagonal bisector of biplots, while the distance from the bisector indicated the adaptive response to the anion of each genotype. RDW showed a higher coefficient of variation (CV) compared to SDW (0.44 vs 0.37) depending on both N supply (especially at LN) and genotype (Figure 1). In particular, RDW showed a higher average (0.012 g) at LN compared to HN (0.0026 g), on the contrary, SDW average was higher (0.067 g) at HN (Table S1). The deviation from the bisector of genotypes for RDW appeared

 to be more variable at LN (from 0.004 to 0.025 g), while it was more marked at HN (from 0.02 to 0.13) for SDW parameter (Figure 1; Table S1). The high variability highlighted in RDW suggested investigating more deeply on the other root morphological parameters (Figure 2). In general, the traits associated to root length had higher values under LN supply. For example, TRL (0.49 CV) and LRL (0.54 CV) showed the higher variation compared to the others, due to both N supply and genotype (Figure 2). A similar trend was observed in RLR, LRN, and SRL, which showed lower CV values (0.41, 0.33, and 0.35, respectively). Conversely, both RMR and RTD were strongly influenced by both LN and HN supplies, respectively (Figure 2). Finally, RF showed a low variability due to both N supplies (mainly at high HN) and genotype (Figure 2). Among the physiological traits, NUpE showed the highest coefficient of variation (CV = 0.47), while NUE and NUtE exhibited a lower CV, highlighting a similar distribution along the bisector, and their scarce response to nitrate supply compared to NUpE (Figure 3). In addition, NUpE average was significantly higher at HN respect to LN (4.12 vs 3.02 mg N) (Table S1). NUE average was 0.011 (g SDW N%−1) at LN, ranging from 0.0043 to 0.019, while at HN, no significant differences were recorded (0.010). A similar trend was observed for NUtE, which exhibited average values of 0.0011 and 0.0010 (g SDW2 mg N−1) at LN 152 and HN, respectively (Table S1). Overall, the accessions showed highly significant ($P < 0.0001$) differences in all the traits at both nitrate supply, except NUE and RTD (Table S1).

2.1.2. Global ANOVA, plasticity, genetic variation and heritability

 To determine the percentage of explained variance due to genetic, environment and their interaction, global ANOVA was performed for all the traits under both N supplies (Figure 4). The genotype resulted in the higher cause of variation, reaching values overcoming 50% in RF, NUtE, and SDW, while the lowest values were found in root traits (RLR, RMR, and SRL) (Figure 4). The eggplant collection showed a high level of plasticity (PL) for many traits, ranging from 0.382 to 0.807 (Table 1). RMR, SRL, LRL exhibited the highest PL values, while the lowest ones were observed in RF, followed by NUtE and SDW. Conversely, broad sense heritability (h2 B) ranged from 0.376 to 0.771

and 0.242 to 0.791 at LN and HN, respectively (Table 1). At LN, the highest values of h2 B were

 detected in TRL, LRL, RF, and NUtE; by contrast, RLR, RMR, and SRL exhibited the lowest ones. Lowest h2B values for the same traits were also observed at HN, while NUpE and NUtE showed high h2B values and RF maintained the highest one (Table 1). Finally, the plastic heritability (h2PL), was calculated according to Scheiner and Lyman (1989) and showed a range from 0.085 (NUtE) to 0.227 (RTD) (Table 1).

-
- 2.1.3. Trait correlation and cluster analysis

170 Pearson's correlation analysis among morpho-physiological traits was carried out at LN and HN (Table 2). At LN supply, NUE resulted highly correlated with NutE (0.9723) and NUpE (0.6201) components together with LRN (0.8396) and SDW (0.6267); NUpE exhibited correlation coefficients 173 > 0.7 with SDW and RDW but also with TRL, LRL, and LRN, while NUtE showed the highest values of correlation for LRN (0.7954) (Table 2). At HN, NUE and its components showed the highest correlation with SDW (0.9564, 0.8091, and 0.8610, respectively), TRL and LRL (Table 2). Further, an ascendant hierarchical cluster analysis was performed to identify contrasting NUE‐genotypes 177 taking into account all the morpho-physiological traits. Three clusters were defined by using Ward's method (Ward 1963) (Figure 5). Cluster 1 contained the accessions AM22, AM194, 67‐3, and AM151, showing the lowest SDW at HN compared to cluster 3 (Figure S1; Table S1). Interestingly, at LN, these genotypes exhibited a marked reduction for several root traits, such as TRL, LRL, and NLR, as well as for NUE and its components, compared to the other clusters (Figure S1; Table S2). Cluster 2, including eight accessions, exhibited intermediate values for NUE and its components as well as for several root traits (Figures 5, S1; Table S1). Additionally, cluster 3, composed by seven accessions, including AM222 and AM241, was characterized by the highest SDW and RDW values, NUE and its components and root traits such as TRL, LRL, NLR, and RLR, particularly at LN (Figure S1; Table S1). The N‐use efficient contrasting genotypes were selected, considering at least one representative genotype from clusters 1 and 3, which showed the highest phenotypic diversity. In 188 particular, in cluster 3, characterized by accessions with similar high NUE, AM222 was chosen as N-

 efficient genotype for its highest values in root traits such as TRL and LRL compared to AM241 (Table S1). Among the genotypes included in cluster 1, AM22 was chosen as the N‐inefficient for its lowest values in NUE and for its different geographic origin respect to AM222 (Table S1). Finally, 67‐3 (cluster 1) and 305E40 (cluster 3) accessions were also selected for NUE‐contrasting performance and because they are parents of a RIL segregant population recently developed from a F2 population (Toppino et al. 2016). Moreover, the genotype 67‐3 was also sequenced (Rotino et al. 2014; http://www.eggplantgenome.org/). The genotype 67‐3 showed a rather similar phenotype to AM22, while 305E40 showed a root morphology similar to AM222.

2.1.4. Enzyme activities

 The activity of close related NUtE enzymes NR, GS, and GOGAT were determined in roots and shoots of the selected genotypes, at both LN and HN levels (Figure 6). At HN, all the accessions 200 showed a higher NR activity in shoots without significant differences among them; while, at LN, 67– 3 exhibited a significant higher activity compared to the others and to its own activity at the HN level (Figure 6A). Conversely, in roots, NR activity was influenced only by nitrate supply in all the accessions (Figure 6B). Different responses for GS activity were observed in shoots, among genotypes (Figure 6C, D). In particular, at LN, 67‐3, and AM222 showed a significant higher GS activity compared to the others, whereas AM22 and 305E40 showed a significant higher activity at HN (Figure 6C). In roots, AM222 exhibited a strong GS activity at HN, while it was higher in 67‐3 at LN; AM22 and 305E40 did not show any difference between N levels (Figure 6D). Finally, in both plant tissues, GOGAT activity pointed out a higher activity in all the accessions at HN, showing the higher activity in 305E40 shoots. No difference was evident among the accessions at LN (Figure 6E, F).

 2.1.5. Expression analysis of candidate genes for nitrate uptake and assimilation in eggplant 212 Gene expression data were analyzed by two-way ANOVA (Table S3). Distinct patterns of nitrate transport and N metabolism key genes were observed in both roots and shoots in NUE contrasting eggplants (Figure 7). In roots, the transcription levels of N uptake and assimilation related genes

215 underlined different responses of genotypes to LN and HN. In particular, at LN, 67-3 showed a different gene expression pattern compared to AM22, AM222, and 305E40, with a significant higher transcript level of SmCLCa, SmGS2, SmNR, and SmNiR (Figure 7A). Furthermore, AM222 displayed a distinguishable pattern due to higher expression of SmNRT2.1, SmNRT3.1, SmGS1, and SmGOGAT, compared to AM22 and 305E40 (Figure 7A). At HN, 67‐3 confirmed its different 220 behavior compared to the others, due to the higher and lower expression levels of SmCLCa and SmNRT1.1, SmNRT2.1, SmNRT3.1, respectively. AM222 exhibited a high expression level of SmGS1 and SmGOGAT, while AM22 showed a marked expression of SmNRT1.1, SmNRT3.2, SmNR, and SmNiR genes (Figure 7A). In shoots, at LN, AM22 was characterized by the lowest expression level in all the genes (Figure 7B). By contrast, 67‐3 showed a significant higher expression of SmNR, SmNiR, SmGS2, and SmCLCa; while SmGOGAT and SmGS1 expressions were higher in AM222 and 305E40, respectively (Figure 7B). Interestingly, considering the shoots at HN, 67‐3 and AM22 were grouped in the same cluster as a consequence of a higher expression level in all the genes. In addition, SmCLCa appeared significantly higher expressed in AM22 respect to the other genotypes (Figure 7B). Remarkably, AM222 showed a higher expression of both SmGS1 and 230 SmGOGAT compared to AM22 and 67-3 (Figure 7B).

2.2.Greenhouse pot experiment

2.2.1. Biomass and yield production

 AM22, 67‐3, AM222, and 305E40 eggplant genotypes were grown in a greenhouse pots experiment until berries reached commercial ripening. Genotypes exhibited different responses to HN and LN levels in terms of biomass production. Fruit, leaf and stem dry weights (FDW, LDW, and SDW, respectively) showed a significant increase in all the genotypes grown at HN compared to LN (Figure 8; Table S2). At HN, AM222, 67‐3, and 305E40 exhibited similar performances for FDW, but significantly higher than AM22. However, AM22 appeared more sensitive to nitrate, increasing its FDW by six‐fold from LN to HN treatment (Figure 8A). By contrast, AM22 displayed the highest LDW value at HN, whereas no significant differences were observed among the other accessions.

 Interestingly, no differences among accessions were observed at LN (Figure 8B). Finally, 305E40 showed the highest SDW compared to the other accessions at HN, while at LN no significant differences were observed (Figure 8C).

2.2.2. Nitrogen content

 The N content in fruits, leaves and stems was significantly increased in all the accessions at HN compared to LN treatment. In detail, AM222 showed the higher fruit N content at HN compared to the other accessions, which in contrast, did not exhibit significant differences among them (Figure 9A). At LN, a similar trend was observed among genotypes. Interestingly, a significant difference 249 was evident between AM22, the N-inefficient genotype, having a lower N content than AM222, the N‐efficient one (Figure 9A). By contrast, AM22 showed a significant higher leaf N content at HN, whereas at LN the accessions did not show any significant differences (Figure 9B). Moreover, 305E40 showed the highest stem N content at HN, while at LN no differences among accessions were exhibited (Figure 9C).

2.2.3. Nitrogen balance index

 Leaf chlorophyll content index, estimated with the DUALEX instrument, was higher at HN compared to LN, regardless genotypes, which did not significantly differ among them (Figure 10A). Conversely, flavonoids content index in leaf epidermal showed an inverse trend, resulting higher at LN (Figure 10B). Therefore, Nitrogen Balance Index (NBI) showed a similar pattern to the chlorophyll index (Figure 10C). Correlations between Genotype x N‐level, C and N leaf contents highlighted significant values between chlorophyll and N content (r = 0.85, P < 0.008), flavonoids and N content (r = −0.74, 261 P < 0.04) as well as NBI and N content ($r = 0.80$, P < 0.02). Significant correlations resulted also for 262 chlorophyll, flavonoids and NBI related to the leaf N/C ratio, r = 0.85, (P < 0.008), r = −0.75, (P < 263 0.04) and $r = 0.81$ (P < 0.02), respectively. Although not significantly different, chlorophyll content index at HN tended to be lower in 67‐3 and AM222 genotypes, while NBI was significantly lower in 265 67-3 compared to the other genotypes. At LN, flavonoid content index was significantly lower in AM222 compared to 305E40 (Figure 10C).

2.2.4. Nitrate use efficiency in pot experiment

 NUE calculation confirmed significant differences among contrasting genotypes, as already observed in the hydroponic experiment. At LN, AM222 was characterized by a significant highest NUE compared to the other accessions, whereas, at HN, AM22 showed the lowest NUE compared to AM222, 67‐3, and 305E40, among which differences were not detected (Figure 11A). Thus, at LN, 272 AM22 together with 305E40 confirmed their N-use inefficiency; at HN, only AM22 showed the 273 lowest performance compared to the other genotypes. Furthermore, at LN, AM222, and 67-3 pointed out significant higher NUtE compared to AM22 and 305E40, while, at HN, no differences among the accessions were evident (Figure 11B). Finally, NUpE was strongly dependent on nitrate level, being highest at HN in all the genotypes. As a rule, no significant differences among the genotypes within each N level were observed (Figure 11C).

3. Discussion

 Eggplant yield is toughly related to N fertilizer input, but to date the adaptive plant responses to N‐ limited fertilization are still poorly understood and disregarded to genetic mechanisms underlying a complex trait like NUE. Given the spatial and temporal soil heterogeneity for nutrients, a significant amount of genetic variation and phenotypic plasticity for NUE appeared not so unexpected (Byers 2005; Han et al. 2015b) and consequently needs to be explored. Therefore, to improve NUE in crops became pivotal to estimate the genetic variability related to this complex trait. Further, to select for high NUE two more key issues should be addressed: i) to operate at limited N supply; (ii) to detect flag traits highly correlated to yield and NUE. In this paper, for the first time, the genetic variation in response to nitrate supply was assessed in eggplant (Solanum melongena L.). A comprehensive framework, through a morphophysiological and molecular approach, was carried out, highlighting the differences in N‐use efficiency (NUE) among genotypes. Nineteen eggplants, with different geographical origin and morphological features, were grown under low (LN) and high nitrate (HN) levels in hydroponic system. Morphological and physiological traits were analyzed allowing us to identify NUE contrasting eggplant accessions in response to LN and HN supply. Finally, the selected genotypes were grown in greenhouse pots experiment up to berries ripening and harvesting, analyzing NUE and some related traits to confirm hydroponic data and NUE‐contrasting genotypes. In the last 295 decades, NUE-related traits were isolated and mapped by Quantitative Trait Loci (QTL) analysis (Xu et al. 2012). Thus, 67‐3 and 305‐E40 accessions were included in our collection, being the parents of a RIL segregant population already available, which may be employed in future experiments for isolating molecular markers linked to QTL of NUE interest. In addition, the line 67‐3 was subjected to genome sequencing by the "Italian Eggplant Consortium".

3.1.Characterization of eggplants in hydroponic system

 Biomass allocation (SDW and RDW) among accessions showed a more marked variability in root 303 than shoot (CV 0.44 vs. 0.37), suggesting a different adaptive NO3- dependent response in root traits. These results confirmed the role of nitrate as either nutrient or signal also in eggplant root development, as previously reported in other species (Crawford 1995; Zhang and Forde 2000; De Pessemier et al. 2013). As root system is devoted to nutrient exploration and acquisition from soils (Lynch 2013; Li et al. 2015; Mu et al. 2015), mainly in starved conditions, morphological root traits were investigated. Contrasting response for root traits could depend on nutrient availability in soil and source allocation between roots and shoots (Ikram et al. 2012). Thus, the selection for high "root foraging" may represent a key point or flag trait to breed eggplants for higher NUE, based on the correlation between N uptake and QTLs for root morphological traits (Coque et al. 2008). Undeniably, eggplant roots exhibited a marked plasticity (phenotypic variation), mainly in lateral root length (LRL) and their number (LRN), characterized by higher coefficient of variation (CV), compared to other traits, mainly at LN. Indeed, root growth increased along with lateral root branching to improve the supplying ability of the root system at N starved condition (Ikram et al. 2012). Among physiological traits, NUtE was more influenced by genotype than NUE and NUpE. According to these results, NUtE was recently demonstrated more determinant than NUpE in NUE features in tomato (Abenavoli et al. 2016; Lupini et al. 2017), representing a useful trait to improve

 the utilization efficiency in Solanaceae. Therefore, it is noteworthy that the ability to utilize nitrate (NUtE) showed a significant phenotypic variation due to the genetic variance, underlined a rather high heritability (Table 1). Conversely, NUE appeared poor affected by the nutrient conditions (N level) as already reported in other species, such as Arabidopsis and maize (Bertin and Gallais 2001; Coque et al. 2008; Chardon et al. 2010). Through the hierarchical clustering, the pair of Nuse efficient/inefficient genotypes AM222/AM22 based on their different origin (Turkey vs. China), genetic distance (Cericola et al. 2013) and their extreme contrasting root traits, were selected. In particular, AM222 exhibited high NUE, Lateral Root Length (LRL) as well as RLR and LRN, while AM22 showed low NUE and its components (NUpE and NUtE), associated with a reduced root system, low TNA and high root mass ratio. Further, other two contrasting lines, 305E40 and 67‐3, parents of an already available RIL population, with a similar behavior to AM222 and AM22, respectively, were also included. Thus, the selected four genotypes were further analyzed for different N metabolism enzymes as well as gene expressions. Differential gene expression levels among the contrasting genotypes on the nitrate transporters SmNPF6.3 and SmNRT2.1 involved in root formation and acquisition (Garnet et al. 2009), confirmed the role of root system to confer N‐use efficiency (Figure 7). Indeed, root size plays a critical role in nutrient uptake in tomato (Abenavoli et al. 2016; Lupini et al. 2017), maize (Li et al. 2015) and rapeseed (Wang et al. 2017). In eggplants, the N‐key gene expression and enzyme activities highlighted a strong correlation with N‐efficiency. In particular, the efficient genotype (AM222) showed favorable features related to NUpE (transporter gene expressions) and NUtE (enzyme activities). Indeed, the efficient genotype AM222 showed a marked higher expression of genes belonging to the high affinity transport, SmNRT2.1 together with SmNAR2.1 (also named NRT3.1; Léran et al. 2014), which encodes a protein partner needed for transporting nitrate (Quesada et al. 1994; Okamoto et al. 2006; Orsel et al. 2006; Lupini et al. 2016). In Arabidopsis, AtNAR2.1 and AtNRT2.1 resulted partner in HATS activity (Orsel et al. 2006; Okamoto et al. 2006) and Yong et al. (2010) later demonstrated the specific role of AtNAR2.1. Recently, the pivotal role of NAR2 for HATS activity was confirmed by an improved yield and NUE

 in transgenic rice harboring the construct OsNAR2.1:OsNRT2.1 where OsNAR2.1 promoter was able to enhance OsNRT2.1 expression level, compared to its native promoter (Chen et al. 2017). In 347 eggplants, for the first time, a co-functionality of SmNRT3.1 (=SmNAR2.1) together with SmNRT2.1 was highlighted, according to gene expressions. Indeed, SmNRT3.1 was co‐expressed with SmNRT2.1, and both genes were more expressed in AM222 when compared to the other accessions, resulting in a consistent increasing of shoot biomass (SDW; Table S1). Interestingly, the functionality of SmNRT3.2 (another member of NRT3 gene family), which was upregulated at HN 352 vet remaining unclear. Focusing on NUtE, our result indicated that AM222 (together with 67-3) was also characterized by higher GS enzyme activity at N‐limiting condition, as well as SmGS2 transcript level in shoots. Functional genomics and QTL approaches have already showed a correlation between GS enzyme activity and N use efficiency (Bernard and Habash 2009). Moreover, the variation of GS (either GS1 or GS2) expression, as well as the enzyme activity were demonstrated to affect nitrate metabolism and NUE in several plants (Eckes et al. 1989; Miao et al. 1991; Fei et al. 2003; Brauer et al. 2011). However, further genomics studies may be useful to identify allelic variation or transcription factor to better understand the primary role of GS in NUtE.

3.2.Plasticity, genetic variation and heritability

 Since the beginning of last century, Wright (1931) suggested that, within a population, individual phenotypicplasticity could be "perhaps the chief object of selection". More recently, the increasing attention to plant plasticity responses to complex environments was paid for deeper understanding 364 the residual quote of genetic variability $(G \times E)$ in plasticity useful for selection, as complementary to genetic heritability (e.g., Hedrick 1986; Schlichting 1986). Thus, the development of methods for quantifying he genetic component of phenotypic plasticity became a precious key‐point. Scheiner and Lyman (1989) indicated phenotypic plasticity and its heritability calculation, considering their variation among populations and environments. Knowing the features of a specific trait, it was important to make a prediction about population response to selection (selection gain that is direct function of heritability) or to environmental variation (plant plasticity and its genetic component).

 Here we reported broad sense heritability, plasticity and its genetic component related to shoot and root dry weights, root traits as well as N‐use efficiency and its components (Table 1). Interestingly, 373 our results underlined a high $G \times E$ interaction of target traits. By contrast, Han et al. (2015b) recording a limited G \times E interaction, obtained a weak selection gain. Frequently, high differences between h2 estimated at different conditions (here LN and HN) indicated traits with lower heritability and higher plasticity and vice versa. These contrasting features were already discussed between plasticity and its heritability (Scheiner and Lyman 1989), leaving out the huge amount of genetic variability that is considered here. Among traits, root mass ratio (RMR), root length ratio (RLR) and specific root length (SRL) showed the highest values of plasticity (PL). By contrast, root fineness (RF) and NUtE showed h2B values >0.7 together with the lowest PL values. Interestingly, traits with 381 higher plasticity showed frequently high plastic heritability, which being due to a high $G \times N$ variance underlined an interesting residual quote of genetic variability useful for selection (Table 1). Furthermore, it is noteworthy that total root length (TRL), lateral root length (LRL), RF and NUtE, exhibiting h2B values >0.6, appeared significantly correlated with NUpE and NUE (Table 2). These results agreed with the statement that root system architecture (RSA) is related to plant ability to uptake N from soils and might affect NUpE (Foulkes et al. 2009). Although RSA was a target trait involved in NUpE/ NUE in model plant and crops (Zhang and Forde 1998; Garnett et al. 2009), the manipulation of RSA‐related genes affecting N‐uptake and NUE in crops remain a challenge (McAllister et al. 2012). As alternative, the sole upregulation of key N‐transporters encoding genes would increase NUpE, as stated by Heidlebaugh et al. (2008).

3.3.Greenhouse experiment

 The four selected eggplant accessions were grown in plastic pots in a greenhouse until yield production to calculate the agronomic NUE. First, the optimization of nitrogen (N) fertilization rate was deeply studied to avoid overfertilization, together with the monitoring of plant N status (Tremblay et al. 2012). Several strategies based on plant sensor diagnostic were proposed to define 396 nondestructive methods. Fluorescence-based technologies provide new N status indicators by using direct measurements (chlorophyll and flavonoids) or its derived index (NBI; Cartelat et al. 2005). NBI in eggplant genotypes at different N supply was monitored by DUALEX, and at the same time, C and N were analyzed by destructive method. Although a perfect correlation between DUALEX 400 indexes and leaf C and N contents (C-N analyzer) were found, no significant differences at each N level (LN and HN) among genotypes were highlighted. However, AM222 showed the highest NBI at both N levels (Figure 10C), indicating the best N status compared to the others. Based on N fruit content, NUE and NUtE component, AM222 and AM22 were confirmed as NUE efficient and inefficient genotypes, respectively. Unexpectedly, similar performance to AM222 was observed in 67‐3 that, in contrast with the hydroponic experiment, can be considered as N‐use efficient genotype compared to 305E40 that appeared as N‐use inefficient. The variations observed in fruit production among accessions may be due to a different source-sink balance, determined by different N translocation and remobilization, which strongly affected NUtE. Differences in NUpE were nitrate dosage‐dependent, regardless genotypes. By contrast, genotypic variations were displayed for NUtE, where AM222 appeared more efficient to utilize N, compared to the others. NUtE is highly related to N remobilization ability, and leaves are the organ more active for this physiological process (Masclaux‐Daubresse et al. 2010). Our results displayed a lower N leaves content in the efficient 413 genotype AM222, thereby indicating a high N-utilization and re-mobilization efficiency, compared to the others. By contrast, a high N allocation in leaves and stem of AM22 and 305E40, respectively, which confirmed their N‐use inefficiency (Figures 9, 11). Furthermore, the inefficient genotype AM22 showed a significant higher leaf dry weight (LDW), while AM222 produced a limited vegetative biomass (leaf and stem) addressing the resources to the fruits (Figure 8). Our results confirmed that differences in the nitrogen remobilization during the life cycle among the accessions might explain NUE different performances, mainly at N‐limiting condition. Different enzymes involved in N‐translocation and remobilization could determine the differences in NUtE observed in 421 both experiments. QTL analysis in maize revealed a co-segregation between GS genes and physiological traits related to productivity (Hirel et al. 2001), and more recently a linkage between

 NUE and GS/GOGAT was reported in wheat (Quraishi et al. 2011). AM222 exhibited higher GS activity and genes related expression, which might be responsible for high NUtE, confirming the results obtained in hydroponic system. Thus, NUtE, fruit dry weight and GS could be considered the best flag traits to identify rapidly high NUE eggplant genotypes, as observed in AM222. In 427 conclusion, two NUE-contrasting genotypes (AM222/AM22) were selected in growth chamber/hydroponic experiment considering simple key traits, confirmed in greenhouse pots experiment by crop yield. Noteworthy, hydroponic 305E40 accession showed a higher NUE and 430 NUE-related traits values, such as SDW, TRL, LRL, LRN, and NUtE, while these results appeared reversed in the greenhouse experiment, where 67‐3 showed NUE performances similar to AM222, 432 considered a high NUE genotype in both experiments. Based on NUE-contrasting performances, RILs might be phenotyped and genotyped to detect molecular markers (such as SSR and SNP) linked 434 to major genes/QTL related to RSA and NUE. Interestingly, a high heritability (h2B) and $G \times E$ interaction of target traits, such as LRL, RF and NUtE, were observed that may avoid a weak selection gain. Moreover, the greenhouse pots experiment demonstrated that the remobilization of N stored from leaves to the fruits could be the key to enhancing NUE in eggplant. Then, molecular and physiological mechanisms indicated GS as a key enzyme influencing NUE, mainly its NutE component. Further omics studies (transcriptomic and metabolomics) focused on C‐N metabolism networks may pave the way towards the selection of more resilient eggplant with regard to N‐ requirement.

- **4. Material and Methods**
- 4.1.Plant material

 Nineteen eggplant (Solanum melongena L.) accessions were selected from a large germplasm collection (Table S4, Cericola et al. 2013) which included genotypes of different geographic origin from Mediterranean Basin (Turkey (5), Italy (3), Spain (1)) and Asia (Thailand (4), China (2), India (2)), and a wide variability for fruit size, shape, color and plant growth habit. Furthermore, two breeding lines were included (67‐3 and 305E40), parents (male and female, respectively) of a segregant population already established and characterized as F2 (Toppino et al. 2016), which nowadays become a recombinant inbred lines (RIL) population.

4.2.Hydroponic system growth conditions

 Seeds, surface sterilized with 5% (v/v) NaClO for 15 minutes and rinsed with deionized water, were then germinated in Petri dishes (Ø 90 mm) on filter paper with 0.1 mM CaSO4. After 10 days, seedlings with fully expanded cotyledons, were selected by uniform size and transferred in hydroponic tanks (4 L, ten seedlings for tank) containing 2.5mM K2SO4, 2mM MgSO4, 1mM KH2PO4, 46 μM H3BO3, 9μM MnCl2 , 0.76μM ZnSO4, 0.32μM CuSO4, 0.11μM Na2 MoO4, and 20μM Fe‐EDTA. Nitrate was added to solution as Ca(NO3)2 at 0.5mM (low nitrate, LN) or 10mM (high nitrate, HN) concentrations. Furthermore, in order to balance Ca2+, 4.75mM CaSO4 were 459 added in the LN solution. Then, the growing units were transferred to a growth chamber at 24° C, 65% relative humidity and 14 h photoperiod with 350 μmol m2 s−1 light intensity for 18 days. The nutrient solution was renewed every three days and the pH was adjusted to 5.8with 1 N KOH.

4.3.Morphological root analysis

 Five plants (28 days old) for each genotype, exposed to LN and HN for 18 days, were collected and divided into shoots and roots. Roots were dipped in 0.1% (w/v) toluidine blue (Sigma Aldrich, #89160) for 5min and then scanned at 300 dpi resolution (WinRhizo STD 1600, Instruments Règent Inc., Quebec, Canada) to determine primary (PRL; cm), lateral (LRL; cm) and total root length (TRL; cm), and volume (cm3) using WinRhizo Pro System v. 2002a software (Lupini et al. 2016, 2017). Lateral root number (LRN, #) was manually counted as reported by Lupini et al. (2014). Shoots and roots were then dried at 72°C for 48 h to determine their dry weight (SDW and RDW, respectively, 470 g). Based on the above measurements, Root length ratio (RLR, root length/whole dry weight, cm g-471 1), root mass ratio (RMR, root dry weight/whole dry weight, g g-1), specific root length (SRL, root length/root dry weight, cm g‐1), root fineness (RF, root length/root volume, cm cm‐3), and root tissue density (RTD, root dry weight/root volume, g cm‐3) were also calculated (Lupini et al. 2016, 2017).

4.4.Nitrogen concentration and Nitrogen Use Efficiency

 Total nitrogen content (Nc, mg N) was determined by combustion method through a LECO‐CNS‐ 1000 analyzer (LECO Instruments Ltd., Mississauga, ON, Canada) as reported by Lupini et al. 477 (2017). Nitrogen Use Efficiency (NUE, SDW N%-1, where N% is the g N (100 g DW)-1) (Chardon et al. 2010) and Nitrogen Utilization Efficiency (NUtE, SDW2 Nc‐1) (Siddiqi and Glass 1981) were calculated. Nitrogen Uptake Efficiency (NUpE) was also estimated as total (shoot+root) dry weight (TDW) x N concentration (g N g TDW‐1) (Chardon et al. 2010). The mean is the average value of five plants.

4.5.Enzyme activities

 Enzyme activities of related‐nitrogen metabolism (Nitrate Reductase, NR; Glutamine Synthetase, GS; and Glutamine Oxoglutarate Aminotransferase, GOGAT) were assayed on root and shoot of the selected genotypes grown at both N levels. Nitrate reductase (NR) enzyme was extracted using 50mM MOPS‐KOH buffer (pH 7.8) containing PVP 0.5% (w/v), 5mM NaF, 1 μM Na2MoO4, 10μM FAD, 1 μM leupeptin, 2 mMβ‐mercaptoethanol, 5mM EDTA. Then, the homogenate was centrifuged at 14,000 rpm for 5 min at 4°C, and the supernatant was immediately incubated at 30°C for 35 min in a solution containing 50mM MOPS‐KOH buffer (pH 7.6), supplemented with 5mM NaF, 10mM KNO3, 155 μM NADH, and 5mM EDTA. After, the reaction was stopped with 5.8mM sulfanilamide 491 and 0.8 mM N-naphthyl-ethylene-diamine-dichloride (NNED). The absorbance was measured at 540 nm (Foyer et al. 1998). Glutamine synthetase (GS) enzyme was extracted using 25mM Tris‐HCl buffer (pH 7.6), 1mM MgCl2, 1 mM EDTA‐Na2, 14mM β‐mercaptoethanol and PVP 1% (w/v), and the activity was measured according to Debouba et al. (2007), using hydroxylamine as substrate (Wallsgrove et al. 1979). Finally, GOGAT activity was measured by the decrease in absorbance at 340 nm of the NADH oxidation according to Groat and Vance (1982). All procedures of enzymes extraction were carried out at 4°C. Total soluble protein was estimated using bovine serum albumin as standard, according to Bradford (1976). The measurement of absorbance was performed using a UV‐Vis spectrophotometer (Perkin Elmer Lambda 35, Walthman, MA, USA). Enzyme activities were performed with eight biological replicates and each replicate was apool of three plants.

4.6.RNA isolation and qRT-PCR

 Shoots and roots of selected genotypes (28 days old), grown in hydroponic and exposed to LN and HN for 18 days, were collected (three independent biological replicates for each sample) and immediately frozen in liquid nitrogen. Total RNA was extracted from 100mg of eggplant roots and shoots using "RNeasy Plant Mini Kit" (Qiagen) according to the technical bulletin. RNA was subjected to DNase treatment using the "Precision DNase Kit" (Primer Design) and then reverse transcribed into cDNA with "QuantiTect Reverse Transcription Kit" (Qiagen) following the manufacturer's protocol. Gene expression was analyzed using quantitative realtime polymerase chain 510 reaction (qRT-PCR), which was performed with a Rotor-Gene RG-6000 thermal cycler (Corbett Research). To amplify the gene fragments, cDNA template diluted 1:10 was used in a 15 μL reaction 512 with 7.5 ul of SYBR Green (IQTM Supermix Master Bio-Rad) and 0.5–1.2 uM of gene-specific 513 primer listed in Table S5. The amplification reactions were carried out as follows: 95°C for 5 min, 514 followed by incubation for 15 s at 95°C and denaturation for 15 s at 95°C, annealing for 60 s at 59°C for 40 cycles, followed by elongation at 72°C for 20 s. Specificity of amplification was assessed by melt curves analyzed for the presence of a single peak. The analysis was done on three biological replicates and in technical triplicate. A relative standard curve for each gene was generated using a 518 two-fold serial dilution of pooled cDNA (obtained mixing equal proportion of all cDNA samples) using the Rotor gene software (Q‐Rex Software version 1.0, QIAGEN). PCR efficiency of primer pairs was optimized to be in the range 92%–100% with R2 values of 0.996. The DNA sequences of 521 candidate NUE-related genes were kindly provided by the Italian Eggplant Genome Consortium (Rotino et al. 2014). Adenine phosphoribosyl transferase (SmAPRT) and Glyceraldehyde 3‐ phosphate dehydrogenase (SmGAPDH) from eggplant were used as reference genes (Gantasala et al. 2013; Barbierato et al. 2017). The relative quantification of each gene in different samples was performed using the geometric averaging method (geNorm) (Vandesompele et al. 2002). Gene expression heatmap was obtained by using gplots Rpackage version 3.5.0 (Warnes et al. 2005).

4.7.Eggplant yield and Nitrogen Use Efficiency under greenhouse condition

 The performance of four NUE‐contrasting eggplant accessions was evaluated in greenhouse experiment at the CREA‐Center for Genomics and Bioinformatics Research in Montanaso Lombardo 530 (45° 20′N, 9° 26′E, Italy) from 15th June to 26th October 2017. The AM22, AM222, 67-3, and 531 305E40 accessions were sown in a 54-hole tray filled with peat (Technic N° 3, from Free peat B.V. Sluiskade NZ 79/80 Vriezenveen, Holland). Plantlets, at the third leaves, were transplanted in plastic pots (13 L) containing 7 kg of sterilized soil: peat: perlite (1:1:1, v:v:v) mixture. The soil was a 534 medium-silty soil collected at the experimental CREA center, and perlite was Agrilit[®] (Perlite Italiana srl, Corsico, Milano, Italy). Beyond N concentration in soil that was 1.39%, after 28 days 0 536 and 0 kg ha-1 of calcium nitrate were added (LN and HN treatment, respectively), dissolved in 537 irrigation water, split in six sub-applications taking care to maintain the field capacity. Two additional fertilization with liquid Specialfos from Alfe srl (Pomponesco, MN, Italy), which contains 30% P and 20% K as potassium phosphonate and potassium phosphite was performed by using 1mL/pot dissolved in 500mL of water, after 69 and 116 days. Fruits were harvested when they reached the commercial ripeness stage; 15 harvests were performed and number, fresh and dry weight determined. At the end of the pot experiment (120 days), leaves and stems were separately collected to determine fresh and dry weight as well as nitrogen content as reported above. NUE and its components were calculated as Yield (Dry fruit weight)/Nitrogen supply – Ns (NUE), Nitrogen content/Nitrogen supply (NUpE) and Yield/N content (NUtE), according to Moll et al. (1982).

4.8.Nitrogen Balance Index

 A DUALEX instrument (Force A, Orsay, France) was used for the determination of index values for leaf chlorophyll and epidermal flavonoid contents (Goulas et al. 2004; Cartelat et al. 2005). The same 549 day for each plant (at first fruit cluster when the first fruit has reached typical size – BBCH-scale 71– 701; Feller et al. 1995), measurements were taken on the central parts of the last fully developed leaf avoiding major veins, abaxially and adaxially. The chlorophyll index used subsequently was based on the measurement on the adaxial leaf surface, the flavonoid index was calculated as the sum of the index values from measurements on the abaxial and adaxial surface. After the DUALEX reading, a sample from leaf surrounding the measurement site was extracted with a borer, immediately transferred to liquid nitrogen and later on used for determination of C and N contents. The values of leaf chlorophyll index were linearly correlated with leaf chlorophyll content (Cerovic et al. 2012). The ratio of chlorophyll to flavonoid index values was defined as nitrogen balance index (NBI), an indicator of C/N allocation by Cartelat et al. (2005), following the theory that flavonoid synthesis increases when the use of carbon assimilates for growing new organs was limited by nitrogen availability.

4.9.Statistical analysis

 The hydroponic experiments were set up in a completely randomized design with at least five replications. All data were checked for normality (Kolmogorov–Smirnov test) and tested for 564 homogeneity of variance (Leven median test). The data were analyzed by two-way ANOVA (genotype and nitrate as main factors), and means were separated by Tukey's honest significant difference (HSD) test (P<0.05). In addition, hierarchical classification of accessions was carried out according to the Ward's method (Ward 1963). The coefficient of variation for each parameter was estimated as the ratio of standard deviation to the mean of the whole collection. Statistical analysis was employed using Systat software (Systat Software Inc., Chicago, IL, USA). Phenotypic plasticity (PL), defined as the change in phenotype caused by the environment variation (Bradshaw, 1965), was 571 calculated as the plastic variance (σ 2PL), which is the sum of the environment and genotype-572 environment interaction variances: $σ2E+σ2G \times E$. On the other hand, plasticity (pl) is a quote of 573 phenotypic variance (σ2P), calculated as $σ2p1 = σ2PL/σ2P$ (Scheiner and Lyman 1989). Finally, the 574 heritable component of the plastic variation due to the genotype-environment interaction (h2PL), was estimated as σ2G x E/σ2P (Scheiner and Lyman 1989). The "'lmer"' function of the lme4 package (Bates et al. 2013) in Rv.2.15.1 (Development Core Team R, Vienna, Austria, 2012) was employed 577 and fit a REML-based analysis of variance (ANOVA) model: Phenotype = Genotype + N level + 578 Genotype-by-N Level + Residuals, where N level (low or high) was treated as a fixed effect, and 579 Genotype and Genotype-by-N level were treated as random effects (Corbeil and Searle 1976). 580 Conversely, trait broad sense heritability (h2B) was calculated as σ 2G/ σ 2P, where σ 2G is the genetic variance component (attributable to variation among genotypes), while σ2P is the total phenotypic variance, as previously defined. The same function in R, as reported above, was used to fit a REML based ANOVA model: Phenotype = Genotype + Residuals, where Genotype was treated as a random effect. Greenhouse pot experiment was set up as completely randomized blocks with six replicates 585 for each accession and N-treatment. After checking for normality and homogeneity of variance, the data were analyzed by two‐way ANOVA (genotype and nitrate as main factors), and means separated 587 by Tukey's HSD test ($P < 0.05$). Data of relative gene expression were analyzed by two-way ANOVA based on three biological replicates for each treatment by using R software version 3.5.0.

-
-

 Acknowledgements: We acknowledge the technical help of Filippo Salamone and Fadda Stefano for carrying out the greenhouse experiment. We should also thank Prof. Antonio Gelsomino for 593 performing N content analyses through a LECO-CNS-1000 analyzer (LECO Instruments Ltd., Mississauga, ON). We acknowledge funding from the PhD course "Scienze, tecnologie e biotecnologie per la sostenibilità" and the Department AGRARIA at Università Mediterranea di Reggio Calabria for supporting A.M. research activity

 Author contributions: M.R.A., G.L.R., and F.S. framed the research; A.M. and A.L. carried out the hydroponic experiments and the statistical analyses at the University of Reggio Calabria; A.M., L.B., M.S., and L.T. carried out the research activity in the lab and greenhouse at CREA – Montanaso Lombardo (LO); F.B. and F.R. carried out NBI analysis; G.L.R. provided genotypes for all the experiments; M.R.A. and A.M. drafted the manuscript; all the authors critically discussed the results and contributed to the manuscript; M.R.A., G.L.R., and F.S. supervised the final revision of the manuscript.

Conflicts of Interest: The authors declare no conflict of interest.

References

- Abenavoli MR, Longo C, Lupini A, Miller AJ, Araniti F, Mercati F, Princi MP, Sunseri F (2016) Phenotyping two tomato genotypes with different nitrogen use efficiency. Plant Physiol Biochem 107: 21–32
- Barbierato V, Sala T, Rinaldi P, Bassolino L, Barchi L, Rotino GL, Toppino L (2017) A spiking strategy facilitates housekeeping selection for RT‐qPCR analysis under different biotic stresses in eggplant. Protoplasma 254: 2215–2223
- Barchi L, Lanteri S, Portis E, Acquadro A, Valè G, Toppino L, Rotino GL (2011) Identification of SNP and SSR markers in eggplant using RAD tag sequencing. BMC Genomics 12: 304. http://cran.r‐
- project.org/web/packages/lme4/index.htm
- Bates D, Maechler M, Bolker B (2013) lme4: Linear mixed‐effects models using S4 classes. R package version 0.999999‐2
- Bernard SM, Habash DZ (2009) The importance of cytosolic glutamine synthetase in nitrogen assimilation and recycling. New Phytol 182: 608–620
- Bertin P, Gallais A (2001) Physiological and genetic basis of nitrogen use efficiency in maize: II. QTL detection and coincidences. Maydica 46: 53–68
- Bi YM, Wang RL, Zhu T, Rothstein SJ (2007) Global transcription profiling reveals differential responses to chronic nitrogen stress and putative nitrogen regulatory components in Arabidopsis. BMC Genomics 8: 281
- Bradford MM (1976) A rapid and sensitive method for the quantitative determination of microgram quantities of protein utilizing the principle of protein‐dye binding. Anal Biochem 72: 248–254
- Bradshaw AD (1965) Evolutionary significance of phenotypic plasticity in plants. Adv Genet 13: 115–155
- Brady NC (1999) The Nature and Properties of Soils. 9th edn. Macmillan Publishing Company, New York.
- Brauer EK, Rochon A, Bi YM, Bozzo GG, Rothstein SJ, Shelp BJ (2011) Reappraisal of nitrogen use efficiency in rice overexpressing glutamine synthetase1. Physiol Plant 141:361–372
- Byers DL (2005) Evolution in heterogeneous environments and the potential of maintenance of genetic variation in traits of adaptive significance. Genetica 123: 107–124
- Cai C, Wang JY, Zhu YG, Shen QR, Li B, Tong YP, Li ZS (2008) Gene structure and expression of the high‐affinity nitrate transport system in rice roots. J Integr Plant Biol 50: 443–451
- Cartelat A, Cerovic ZG, Goulas Y, Meyer S, Lelarge C, Prioul JL, Barbottin L, Jeuffroy MH, Gate
- P, Agati G, Moya I (2005) Optically assessed contents of leaf polyphenolics and chlorophyll as
- indicators of nitrogen deficiency in wheat (Triticum aestivum L.). Field Crop Res 91: 35–49
- Cericola F, Portis E, Toppino L, Barchi L, Acciarri N, Ciriaci T, Sala T, Rotino GL, Lanteri S
- (2013) The population structure and diversity of eggplant from Asia and the Mediterranean Basin.
- PLoS ONE 8: e73702
- Cerovic ZG, Masdoumier G, Ghozlen NB, Latouche G (2012) A new optical leaf‐clip meter for
- simultaneous non‐destructive assessment of leaf chlorophyll and epidermal flavonoids. Physiol Plant 146: 251–260
- Chardon F, Barthélémy J, Daniel‐Vedele F, Masclaux‐Daubresse C (2010) Natural variation of nitrate uptake and nitrogen use efficiency in Arabidopsis thaliana cultivated with limiting and ample nitrogen supply. J Exp Bot 61: 2293–2302
- Chardon F, Noël V, Masclaux‐Daubresse C (2012) Exploring NUE in crops and in Arabidopsis ideotype to improve yield and seed quality. J Exp Bot 63: 3401–3412
- Chen J, Fan X, Qian K, Zhang Y, Song M, Liu Y, Xu G, Fan X (2017) pOsNAR2.1:OsNAR2.1
- expression enhances nitrogen uptake efficiency and grain yield in transgenic rice plants. Plant
- Biotechnol J 15: 1273–1283
- Coque M, Martin A, Veyrieras JB, Hirel B, Gallais A (2008) Genetic variation for N‐remobilization and post‐silking N‐uptake in a set of maize recombinant inbred lines. 3. QTL detection and coincidences. Theor Appl Genet 117: 729–747
- Corbeil RR, Searle SR (1976) Restricted maximum likelihood (REML) estimation of variance components in the mixed model. Technometrics 18: 31–38
- Crawford NM (1995) Nitrate: Nutrient and signal for plant growth. Plant Cell 7: 859–868
- De Pessemier J, Chardon F, Juraniec M, Delaplace P, Hermans C (2013) Natural variation of the root morphological response to nitrate supply in Arabidopsis thaliana. Mech Dev 130: 45–53
- Debouba M, Maâroufi‐Dghimi H, Suzuki A, Ghorbel MH, Gouia H (2007) Changes in growth and activity of enzymes involved in nitrate reduction and ammonium assimilation in tomato seedlings in response to NaCl stress. Ann Bot 99: 1143–1151
- Eckes P, Schmitt P, Daub W, Wengenmayer F (1989) Overproduction of alfalfa glutamine synthetase in transgenic tobacco plants. Mol Genet Genomics 217: 263–268
- Fei H, Chaillou S, Hirel B, Mahon JD, Vessey JK (2003) Overexpression of a soybean cytosolic glutamine synthetase gene linked to organ‐specific promoters in pea plants grown in different concentrations of nitrate. Planta 216: 467–474
- Feller C, Bleiholder H, Buhr L, Hack L, Hess M, Klose R, Meier U, Strauss R, van den Boom T,
- Weber E (1995) Phänologische Entwicklungsstadien von Gemüse. II. Fruchtgemüse und
- Hülsenfrüchte. Nachrichtenblatt des Deutschen Pflanzenschutzdienstes 47: 217–232
- Filleur S, Daniel‐Vedele F (1999) Expression analysis of a high‐affinity nitrate transporter isolated from Arabidopsis thaliana by differential display. Planta 207: 461–469
- Forde BG, Clarkson DT (1999) Nitrate and ammonium nutrition of plants: Physiological and molecular perspectives. Adv Bot Res 30: 1–90
- Forde BG (2000) Nitrate transporters in plants: Structure, function and regulation. Biochim Biophys Acta 1465: 219–235
- Foulkes MJ, Hawkesford MJ, Barraclough PB, Holdswoth MJ, Kerr S, Kightley S, Shewry PR
- (2009) Identifying traits to improve the nitrogen economy of wheat: Recent advances and future prospects. Field Crops Res 114: 329–342
- Foyer CH, Valadier M, Migge A, Becker TW (1998) Drought–induced effects on nitrate reductase activity and mRNA and on coordination of nitrogen and carbon in maize leaves. Plant Physiol 117: 283–292
- Fraisier V, Gojon A, Tillard P, Daniel‐Vedele F (2000) Constitutive expression of a putative high‐ affinity nitrate transporter in Nicotiana plumbaginifolia: Evidence for post‐transcriptional regulation by a reduced nitrogen source. Plant J 23: 489–496
- Gantasala NP, Papolu PK, Thakur PK, Kamaraju D, Sreevathsa R, Rao U (2013) Selection and validation of reference genes for quantitative gene expression studies by real‐time PCR in eggplant (Solanum melongena L.). BMC Res Notes 6: 312–322
- Garnett T, Conn V, Kaiser BN (2009) Root based approaches to improving nitrogen use efficiency in plants. Plant Cell Environ 32: 1272–1283
- Glass ADM (2003) Nitrogen Use Efficiency of crop plants: Physiological constraints upon nitrogen absorption. Crit Rev Plant Sci 22: 453–470
- Glass ADM (2009) Nitrate uptake by plant roots. Botany 87: 659–667
- Glass ADM, Britto DT, Kaiser BN, Kinghorn JR, Kronzucker HJ, Kumar A, Okamoto M, Rawat S, Siddiqi MY, Unkles SE, Vidmar JJ (2002) The regulation of nitrate and ammonium transport
- systems in plants. J Exp Bot 53: 855–864
- Good AG, Beatty PH (2011) Fertilizing nature: A tragedy of excess in the commons. PLoS Biol 9: e1001124
- Good AG, Shrawat AK, Muench DG (2004) Can less yield more? Is reducing nutrient input into the environment compatible with maintaining crop production? Trends Plant Sci 9: 597–605
- Goulas Y, Cerovic ZG, Cartelat A, Moya I (2004) Dualex: A new instrument for field measurements of epidermal ultraviolet absorbance by chlorophyll fluorescence. Appl Optics 43: 4488–4496
- Gregory PJ, Atkinson CJ, Bengough AG, Else MA, Fernández‐Fernández F, Harrison RJ, Schmidt S (2013) Contributions of roots and rootstocks to sustainable intensified crop production. J Exp Bot
- 64: 1209–1222
- Groat RG, Vance CP (1982) Root and nodule enzymes of ammonia assimilation in two plant‐
- conditioned symbolically ineffective genotypes of alfalfa (Medicago sativa L.). Plant Physiol 69:
- 614–618
- Han YL, Liao Q, Yu Y, Song HX, Liu Q, Rong X, Gu J, Lepo JE, Guan C, Zhang Z (2015a) Nitrate
- reutilization mechanisms in the tonoplast of two Brassica napus genotypes with different nitrogen use efficiency. Acta Physiol Plant 37: 42
	- Han YL, Liu Q, Gu JD, Gong JM, Guan CY, Lepo JE, Rong X, Song H, Zhang Z (2015b) V‐
	- ATPase and V‐PPase at the Tonoplast affect NO3‐ content in Brassica napus by controlling
	- distribution of NO3‐ between the cytoplasm andvacuole. J Plant Growth Regul 34: 22–34
- Hazra P, Rout A, Roy U, Nath S, Roy T (2003) Characterization of brinjal (Solanum melongena L.) germplasm.Veg Sci 30: 145–149
- Hedrick PW (1986) Genetic polymorphism in heterogeneous environments: A decade later. Annu Rev Ecol Syst 17: 535–566
- Heidlebaugh NM, Trethewey BR, Jukanti AK, Parrott DL, Martin JM, Fischer AM (2008) Effects
- 724 of a barley (Hordeum vulgare L.) chromosome 6 grain protein content locus on whole-plant
- nitrogen reallocation under two different fertilization regimes. Funct Plant Biol 35: 619–632
- Hirel B, Bertin P, Quillere I, Bourdoncle W, Attagnant C, Dellay C, Gouy A, Cadiou S, Retalliau C,
- Falque M, Gallais A (2001) Towards a better understanding of the genetic and physiological basis
- for nitrogen use efficiency in maize. Plant Physiol 125: 1258–1270
- Hirel B, Le Gouis J, Ney B, Gallais A (2007) The challenge of improving nitrogen use efficiency in
- crop plants: Towards a more central role for genetic variability and quantitative genetics within integrated approaches. J Exp Bot 58:2369–2387
- Ikram S, Bedu M, Daniel‐Vedele F, Chaillou S, Chardon F (2012) Natural variation of Arabidopsis response to nitrogen availability. J Exp Bot 63: 91–105
- Kant S, Bi YM, Rothstein SJ (2011) Understanding plant response to nitrogen limitation for the improvement of crop Nitrogen Use Efficiency. J Exp Bot 62: 1499–1509
- Lawlor DW, Cornic G (2002) Photosynthetic carbon assimilation and associated metabolism in relation to water deficits in higher plants. Plant Cell Environ 25: 275–294
- Léran S, Varala K, Boyer JC, Chiurazzi M, Crawford N, Daniel‐Vedele F, David L, Dickstein R,
- Fernandez E, Forde B,Gassmann W, Geiger D, Gojon A, Gong JM, Halkier BA,Harris JM, Hedrich
- R, Limami AM, Rentsch D, Seo M, TsayJF, Zhang M, Coruzzi G, Lacombe B (2014) A unified
- nomenclatureof NITRATE TRANSPORTER 1/PEPTIDE TRANSPORTER family members in
- plants. Trends Plant Sci 19: 5–9
- Li PC, Chen FJ, Cai HG, Liu JC, Pan QC, Liu Z, Gu R, Mi G,Zhang F, Yuan L (2015) A genetic
- relationship betweennitrogen use efficiency and seedling root traits in maize as revealed by QTL analysis. J Exp Bot 66:3175–3188
- Lupini A, Araniti F, Sunseri F, Abenavoli MR (2014) Coumarininteracts with auxin polar transport to modify rootsystem architecture in Arabidopsis thaliana. PlantGrowth Regul 74: 23–31
- Lupini A, Mercati F, Araniti F, Miller AJ, Sunseri F, AbenavoliMR (2016) NAR2.1/NRT2.1
- 749 functional interaction with NO3- and H+ fluxes in high-affinity nitrate transport in maize root regions. Plant Physiol Bioch 102: 107–114
- Lupini A, Princi MP, Araniti F, Miller AJ, Sunseri F, Abenavoli MR (2017) Physiological and
- molecular responses in tomato under different forms of N nutrition. J Plant Physiol 216: 17–25
- Lynch JP (1995) Root architecture and plant productivity. Plant Physiol 109: 7–13
- Lynch JP (2007) Roots of the second green revolution. Aust J Bot 55: 493–512
- Lynch JP (2013) Steep, cheap and deep: An ideotype to optimize water and N acquisition by maize
- root systems. Ann Bot‐London 112: 347–357
- Masclaux‐Daubresse C, Daniel‐Vedele F, Dechorgnat J, Chardon F, Gaufichon L, Suzuki A (2010)
- Nitrogen uptake, assimilation and remobilization in plants: Challenges for sustainable and
- productive agriculture. Ann Bot 105: 1141–1157
- McAllister CH, Beatty PH, Good AG (2012) Engineering nitrogen use efficient crop plants: The current status. Plant Biotechnol J 10: 1011–1025
- Miao GH, Hirel B, Marsolier MC, Redge RW, Verma DPS (1991) Ammonia‐regulated expression
- of a soybean gene encoding cytosolic glutamine synthetase in transgenic Lotus corniculatus. Plant
- Cell 3: 11–22
- Miller AJ, Cramer MD (2004) Root nitrogen acquisition and assimilation. Plant Soil 274: 1–36
- Miller ND, Parks BM, Spalding EP (2007) Computer‐vision analysis of seedling responses to light and gravity. Plant J 52: 374–381
- Moll RH, Kamprath EJ, Jackson WA (1982) Analysis and interpretation of factors which contribute to efficiency to nitrogen utilization. Agronomy J 74: 562–564
- Mu XH, Chen FJ, Wu QP, Chen QW, Wang JF, Yuan LX, Mi G (2015) Genetic improvement of root growth increases maize yield via enhanced post‐silking nitrogen uptake.Eur J Agron 63: 55–61
- Okamoto M, Kumar A, Li W, Wang Y, Siddiqi MY, Crawford NM, Glass ADM (2006) High‐ affinity nitrate transport in roots of Arabidopsis depends on expression of the NAR2‐like gene
- AtNRT3.1. Plant Physiol 140: 1036–1046
- Orsel M, Chopin F, Leleu O, Smith SJ, Krapp A, Daniel‐Vedele F, Miller AJ (2006)
- Characterization of a two‐component high‐affinity nitrate uptake system in Arabidopsis. Physiology and protein–protein interaction. Plant Physiol 142:1304–1317
- Pal S, Saimbhi MS, Bal SS (2002) Effect of nitrogen and phosphorus levels on growth and yield of brinjal hybrid (Solanum melongena L.). J Veg Sci 29: 90–91
- Quesada A, Galván A, Fernández E (1994) Identification of nitrate transporters in Chlamydomonas reinhardtii. Plant J 5:407–419
- Quraishi UM, Abrouk M, Murat F, Pont C, Foucrier S, Desmaizieres G, Confolent C, Riviere N,
- Charmet G, Paux E, Murigneux A, Guerreiro L, Lafarge S, Le Gouis J, Feuillet C, Salse J (2011)
- Cross‐genome map‐based dissection of a nitrogen use efficiency ortho‐meta QTL in bread wheat
- unravels concerted cereal genome evolution. Plant J 65: 745–756
- Rotino GL, Lanteri S, Sala T, Toppino L, Acquadro A, Barchi L, Portis E, Rinaldi R, Scaglione D,
- Dal Molin A, Minio A, Ferrarini A, Tononi P, Zamperin G, Fantini E, Pietrella M, Giuliano G,
- Delledonne M (2014) An Eggplant (Solanum melongena L.). High Quality Genome Draft. The
- Plant & Animal Genome XXII Conference, 11–15 January 2014, San Diego, CA, USA
- Ruffel S, Krouk G, Ristova D, Shasha D, Birnbaum KD, Coruzzi GM (2011) Nitrogen economics
- of root foraging: Transitive closure of the nitrate–cytokinin relay and distinct systemic signaling for
- N supply vs. demand. Proc NatlAcad Sci USA 108: 18524–18529
- Sarasketa A, Begona González‐Moro M, González‐Murua C, Marino D (2014) Exploring
- ammonium tolerance in a large panel of Arabidopsis thaliana natural accessions. J Exp Bot 65:
- 6023–6033
- Scheiner SM, Lyman RF (1989) The genetics of phenotypic plasticity I. Heritability. J Evol Biol 2: 95–107
- Schlichting CD (1986) The evolution of phenotypic plasticity in plants. Annu Rev Ecol Syst 17: 667–693
- 800 Sebilo M, Mayer B, Nicolardot B, Pinay G, Mariotti A (2013) Long-term fate of nitrate fertilizer in agricultural soils.Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 110: 18185–18189
- Shen QR, Ran W, Cao ZH (2003) Mechanisms of nitrite accumulation occurring in soil nitrification. Chemosphere 50: 747–753
- Siddiqi MY, Glass ADM (1981) Utilization index: A modified approach to the estimation and comparison of nutrient utilization efficiency in plants. J Plant Nutr 4: 289–302
- Smith S, De Smet I (2012) Root system architecture: Insights from Arabidopsis and cereal crops. Philos Trans R Soc Lond B Biol Sci 367: 1441–1452
- Sorgonà A, Abenavoli MR, Gringeri GP, Cacco G (2006) A comparison of nitrogen use efficiency definitions in Citrus rootstocks. Sci Hort 109: 389–393
- 810 Sorgonà A, Lupini A, Abenavoli MR (2011) Nitrate use-efficiency: A morphological analysis of the 811 above- and below-ground functional traits in two citrus rootstocks. Global J Plant Ecophysiol 1: 26– 37
- 813 Tong Y, Zhou JJ, Li Z, Miller AJ (2005) A two-component high affinity nitrate uptake system in barley. Plant J 41: 442–450
- Toppino L, Barchi L, Lo Scalzo R, Palazzolo E, Francese G, Fibiani M, D'Alessandro A, Papa V,
- Laudicina VA, Sabatino L, Pulcini L, Sala T, Acciarri N, Portis E, Lanteri S, Mennella G, Rotino
- GL (2016) Mapping quantitative trait loci affecting biochemical and morphological fruit properties
- in eggplant (Solanum melongena L.). Front Plant Sci 7: 256
- Tremblay N, Wang Z, Cerovic ZG (2012) Sensing crop nitrogen status with fluorescence indicators. Agron Sustain Dev 32: 451–464
- Vandesompele J, De Preter K, Pattyn F, Poppe B, Van Roy N, De Paepe A, Speleman F (2002)
- 822 Accurate normalization of real-time quantitative RT-PCR data by geometric averaging of multiple internal control genes. Genome Biol 3: 0034.1–0034.11
- 824 Walch-Liu P, Forde BG (2008) Nitrate signaling mediated by the NRT1.1 nitrate transporter antagonises L‐glutamate induced changes in root architecture. Plant J 54: 820–828
- Wallsgrove RM, Lea PJ, Miflin BJ (1979) Distribution of the enzymes of nitrogen assimilation within the pea leaf cell. Plant Physiol 63: 232–236
- Wang Q, Kohlen W, Rossmann S, Vernoux T, Theres K (2014) Auxin depletion from the leaf axil
- conditions competence for axillary meristem formation in Arabidopsis and tomato. Plant Cell 26: 2068–2079
- Wang X, Chen Y, Thomas CL, Ding G, Xu P, Shi D, Grandke F, Jin K, Cai H, Xu F, Yi B,
- Broadley MR, Shi L (2017) Genetic variants associated with the root system architecture of oilseed
- rape (Brassica napus L.) under contrasting phosphate supply. DNA Res 24: 407–417
- Ward JH, Jr (1963) Hierarchical grouping to optimize an objective function. J Am Stat Assoc 58: 236–244
- Warnes G, Bolker B, Bonebakker L, Gentleman R, Huber W, Liaw A, Lumley T, Machler M,
- Magnusson A, Moller S (2005) gplots: Various R programming tools for plotting data. R package version 3. https://rdrr.io/cran/gplots/
- Wright S (1931) Evolution in mendelian populations. Genetics 16: 97–159
- Xu G, Fan X, Miller AJ (2012) Plant nitrogen assimilation and use efficiency. Annu Rev Plant Biol 63: 153–182
-
-
-
-
-

847 **I** Heritability was calculated as $\sigma^2 \sigma^2 \sigma^2$, where $\sigma^2 \sigma^2$ is the genetic variance component (attributable to variation 848 among landraces), while σ^2 _P is the total phenotypic variance.

849 2 Heritability for each trait were calculated at LN and HN; the first should be utilized for a further selection at limited N availability. limited N availability.

851 3 Plasticity was calculated as $\sigma_{PL}^2/\sigma_{PL}^2$, where σ_{PL}^2 is the plastic variance defined by $\sigma_{E+}^2 \sigma_{GxE}^2$, which are the 852 environmental and genotype-environment interaction variances, respectively (Scheiner and Lyman, 1989).

853 4The heritable component of the plastic variation (h² _{PL}) was finally calculated as σ^2 _{G x E}/ σ^2 _P (Scheiner and 854 Lyman, 1989).

857 *Bold values indicated significance at p<0.05*

859 **Tables Legends**

- **Table 1**. Heritability (broad sense, h^2 _B) of each trait calculated at LN and HN; plasticity (PL) and 861 plastic heritability (h^2 _{PL}) were also estimated taking in to account G x N interaction.
- 862 **Table 2**. Pearson's correlation between traits calculated at LN and HN.

Figure 3.

Traits

Figure 5.

Figure 7.

885 **Figure 8.**

 $67 - 3$ AM222

Accession

Accession

Figure legends

- **Figure 1**. Variation in shoot and root dry weight of 19 eggplant accessions exposed to 0.5 and 10mM 897 nitrate for 18 days. CV= coefficient of variation.
- **Figure 2.** Root morphology traits of 19 eggplant accessions exposed to 0.5 and 10mM nitrate for 18
- days. TRL, total root length; PRL, primary root length; LRL, lateral root length; NRL, number of
- lateral roots; RLR, root length ratio; RMR, root mass ratio; SRL, specific root length; RF, root
- 901 fineness; RTD, root tissue density. $CV = coefficient$ of variation.
- **Figure 3.** Nitrate use efficiency (A, NUE), Uptake Efficiency (B, NUpE) and Utilization Efficiency (C, NUtE) of 19 eggplant accessions exposed to 0.5 and 10mM nitrate for 18 days.
- **Figure 4.** Global ANOVA for biomass, root morphology and NUE definition traits of the eggplant accessions exposed to 0.5 and 10mM nitrate for 18 days. Different grid indicates effect of the genotype (accession), nitrate and their interaction as percentage of the observed variation.
- **Figure 5.** Clustering of the eggplant accessions based on biomass, root morphology and NUE definition traits exposed to 0.5 and 10mM nitrate for 18 days.
- **Figure 6.** Nitrate reductase (NR), glutamine synthetase (GS) and glutamate synthase (GOGAT)
- activities in shoot (A, C and E, respectively) and root (B, D and F, respectively) of the eggplant
- 911 accessions exposed to 0.5 and 10mM nitrate for 18 days. The values are mean \pm SE (n = 8). Different
- 912 letters indicate means that differ significantly, according to Tukey's HSD test at $P < 0.05$.
- **Figure 7.** Heatmap of N-related gene expression in root (A) and shoot of the eggplant accessions exposed to 0.5 and 10mM nitrate for 18 days.
- **Figure 8.** Fruit (A), leaf (B) and stem dry weight (C) of the eggplant accessions grown in pots and 916 exposed to low (LN) or high (HN) nitrate. The values are mean \pm SE (n = 6). Different letters indicate 917 means that differ significantly, according to Tukey's HSD test at $P < 0.05$.
- **Figure 9.** Fruit (A), leaf (B) and stem N content (C) of the eggplant accessions grown in pots and
- 919 exposed to low (LN) or high (HN) nitrate. The values are mean \pm SE (n = 6). Different letters indicate
- 920 means that differ significantly, according to Tukey's HSD test at $P < 0.05$.

- 926 (C, NUpE) of the eggplant accessions grown in pots and exposed to low (LN) or high (HN) nitrate.
- 927 The values are mean \pm SE (n = 6). Different letters indicate means that differ significantly, according
- 928 to Tukey's HSD test at $P < 0.05$.
- 929 **Figure S1.** Performance of three groups of *Solanum melongena* for all the traits under evaluation.