Review paper

Development of eggplant varietal resistance to insects and diseases via plant breeding

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Abstract: Eggplant plantings are constantly attacked by a number of serious pests (e.g. the fruit and shoot borer, the Colorado potato beetle, soil-borne fungi). In spite of the heavy losses they may cause, breeding for resistance in this crop has been very limited because of lack of desirable traits in the eggplant genome or sexual incompatibility with resistant, wild related species. The present paper reviews the source of resistant genes available in both eggplant gene pool and wild *Solanum* relatives. Considering the genetic determinism of resistant traits, the possible strategies for eggplant breeding are discussed with emphasis on approaches based on the integration of classical breeding methods (crosses and selection) with biotechnological ones (anther culture, genetic transformation, protoplast fusion and marker-assisted selection).

1. Introduction

Solanum melongena L. (2n = 24) is also known as eggplant, aubergine, brinjal or Guinea squash. It is mainly cultivated in tropical Asian and Mediterranean countries. The annual worldwide production of eggplant was about 9 million metric tons in 1995 and it has increased in the last fifteen years by about 2.5 million metric tons (FAO, 1995). The largest producer is China with 60% of total world production followed by Turkey, India, Japan and Mediterranean countries such as Egypt, Italy, Spain, etc. Eggplant is an important and popular vegetable in the diet of the inhabitants of these countries.

Most of the produce is freshly marketed but the use of frozen pre-cooked eggplant is spreading, mainly in developed countries. The fruits and leaves display other medicinal uses. Eggplant is a slow-growing perennial solanaceous crop in tropical countries, while in temperate zones it behaves as an annual. However, its growing season can be extended under protected cultivation. The plant grows to a height of 50 to 150 cm and bears fruits of very different size, shape and skin colour. It is a dayneutral plant and it starts flowering at the 6th to 10th leaf stage lasting for a long period. It is considered an autogamous species, however the frequency of natural cross-pollination is estimated to vary from 0.2 to 48%.

Eggplant breeding is mainly focused on F_1 hybrid cultivars, which nearly replace the open pollinated varieties, particularly in intensive growing areas. The major objectives of breeding are the development of highquality and pest-resistant varieties. In the countries where intensive and successive cropping is practised, the main goal of breeding programs is to develop varieties resistant to soil-born diseases (Verticillium and Fusarium wilt, bacterial wilt and nematode infections). Eggplant plantings are severely damaged also by insects (e.g. Leucinodes orbonalis Guenee, Leptinotarsa decemlineata - Say -, Trialeurodes vaporariorum - Westw -), mites and fruit rot. Since eggplant is highly responsive to in vitro manipulation (Hinata, 1986), biotechnological approaches as in vitro doubled-haploids production (Rotino, 1996), culture and fusion of protoplasts (Sihachakr et al., 1994), and genetic transformation (Rotino and Gleddie, 1990) may well help to solve several of its agronomic problems.

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2. Breeding for resistance and crop improvement

Resistance source within eggplant germplasm

The breeding procedures usually followed are: pedigree, backcross, bulk methods, recurrent selection and single seed descent (Kalloo, 1993).

In spite of the huge morphological variability, there is a lack of resistance traits in the Solanum melongena gene pool. Thus, the release of eggplant cultivars resistant or tolerant to the main diseases and pests has been very limited. A certain degree of genetic variability related to resistance to several pests has been found and germplasm was reported as a suitable source (Table 1). Nevertheless, most of this genetic material gave unsatisfactory or contrasting results when employed in breeding programs.

Several reasons, such as resistance restricted to a specific pathogen strain(s) or isolate(s), polygenic and complex resistance traits, and unreliable tests for assessing the resistance may explain the relatively poor results gathered so far. Nevertheless, efforts have permitted tolerance improvement to some diseases (e.g. even in the absence of an effective resistance trait, lines showing a reasonable field tolerance to Verticillium spp. have been selected).

With regard to insects resistance, studies have been carried out by Indian scientists to exploit genetic variation aimed at the selection of genotypes with improved tolerance or resistance to the fruit and shoot borer, L. orbonalis (Dahnkhar and Sharma, 1986) which is the most destructive pest in Asia. Many field screenings of different genotypes infested by this insect made it possible to correlate some plant characters with improved tolerance to this pest.

Morphological traits that have been associated with increased tolerance to insect attack are tightly arranged seeds in the mesocarp (Lal, 1991), more lignified and compact hypodermal sclerenchyma, and broader and more compact vascular bundles (Isahaque, 1984). Plant chemicals potentially involved in tolerance to this pyralid were also identified: lower sugar and protein content (Isahaque, 1984), and higher level of peroxidase and polyphenoloxidase and higher level of glycoalkaloids (Bajaj et al., 1989). The latter are well-known compounds involved also in resistance to L. decemlineata in several solanaceae (Flanders et al., 1992).

However, Tewari and Moorthy (1985) reported that the variation in tolerance, under field conditions among different genotypes, was lost in artificial infestation with a high pest population density and all genotypes were equally susceptible. The tolerance seemed inherited as a polygenic trait with a high additive effect supported by more than one recessive gene (Dahnkhar et al., 1977; 1980).

A partial resistance to T. vaporariorum based on antibiosis and antixenosis was also noted among seven eggplant genotypes in greenhouse and laboratory tests, the differences in hairiness and colour among genotypes had no relation to the resistance (Malausa et al., 1988).

In germplasm field screenings, variation was noted also in relation to the response to natural infestations of jassid (Amrasca biguttula - Ishida -) (Khaire and Lawande, 1986). Unlike the previous case, the presence of trichomes was considered to be associated with increased levels of resistance (Schreiner, 1990) while other morphological characters such as leaf lamina and midrib thickness were positively correlated with the insect infestation (Subbaratnam et al., 1983).

Trichomes are also involved in resistance to insects in potato and other wild Solanum species. The combined action of mechanical obstruction and the production of phenolic compounds (Avé and Tingey, 1986) and sucrose esters of carboxylic acids (Neal et al., 1990) sensibly reduce attack by aphids, leafhoppers, flea beetles and Colorado Potato Beetle (Flanders et al., 1992).

A certain degree of variation in the susceptibility to

Pest	Source	Reference	
Insects			
Jassid (Amrasca biguttula)	S488-2; S34; S258 'Manjari Gota'	Pawar et al., 1987	
	Green-fruited local populations	Schereiner 1990	
Aphis gossypii	AC 49A	Sambandam and Chelliah. 1983	
Glasshouse whitefly	'Shinkuro'	Malausa <i>et al.</i> , 1988	
(Trialeurodes vaporariorum)			
Shoot and fruit borer	F ₃ progenies S. melongena x S. incanum	Rao, 1981	
(Leucinodes orbonalis)			
	'Pusa Purple Cluster' AM 62	Nathani, 1983	
	SM 17-4	Singh and Sidhu, 1988	
<u>Diseases</u>			
F. oxysporum and Phomopsis vexans	F_A plants S. melongena x S. indicum	Rao and Kumar, 1980	
Fusarium wilt	K 61, K 7, Ghana Local	Abdullaeva and Shifman, 1988	
Verticillium dahliae	PI 1649, PI 174362	Lockwood and Markarian, 1961	
Verticillium albo-atrum	'Florida Market', 'Hanis Hybrid 7763'	O'Brien, 1983	
Cercospora solani	UdupiGulla, GO-3	Madalageri et al., 1988	
Pseudomonas solanacearum	SM6-1, PPC, ARU2C	Sheela et al., 1984	
	SM 6-1, SP, SM 6-7, SP	Ushamani and Peter, 1987	
<u>Nematodes</u>			
M. incognita race 1 and 2	'Gulla'	Ravichandra et al., 1988	

the Coleopteran *L. decemlineata* (Fiume, 1987) and *Epilachna vigintioctopunctata* F. (Sambadan *et al.*, 1976; Raju *et al.*, 1987) was reported for some eggplant accessions.

Partial resistance to *Tetranychus cinnabarinus* (Boisduval) based on antibiosis, was found to be positively correlated with the density of leaf hairs (Misra *et al.*, 1990) or to an antixenosis mechanism (Schalk *et al.*, 1975).

Resistance source in wild species and distant hybridization

Many attempts have been made to introgress resistance genes displayed by wild *Solanum* species by means of sexual hybridization (Kalloo, 1993). The first step in a program aimed at the introgression of useful traits from wild relatives into the eggplant gene pool is their evaluation for disease and pest resistance. The second step is selecting and fixing useful resistance levels in segregating progenies. In addition, different accessions of the wild species may give different results with respect to resistance to the same pathogen.

Several Solanaceous species have been identified as possible sources of resistance to the main pests of eggplant (Table 2), however the genetics of the resistance is not completely known. Source of resistance to the most serious soil-born diseases (Verticillium, Fusarium and nematodes) have been identified in S. sisymbrifolium and S. torvum. S. khasianum was found resistant to the shoot and fruit borer (L. orbonalis).

In spite of numerous studies and the huge work undertaken by some research groups, the contribution of wild relatives to eggplant breeding has been, so far, very limited. Principal reasons for the unsatisfactory results obtained may be concerned with a certain confusion in taxonomic classification within the *Solanum* genus that makes a reasonable prediction of the suitable wild species to be employed for crossing very difficult for breeders (Daunay and Lester, 1988; Daunay *et al.*, 1995).

Table 2 - Wild solanum species reported as resistant to the main pests of eggplant

Pest	Source	Reference
Insects		
Shoot and fruit borer	S. integrifolium, S. sisymbrifolium	Chelliah and Srinivasan, 1983
(Leucinodes orbonalis)	S. xantocarpon, S. khasianum	Khan et al., 1978
· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	S. hispidum	Sharma et al., 1980
Glasshouse whitefly (Trialeurodes vaporariorum)		Malausa <i>et al.</i> , 1988
Aphis gossypii	S. sisymbriofolium, S. mammosum	Sambandam and Chelliah, 1983
Colorado Potato Beetle	S. pinnatisectum, S. polyadenium, S. jamesii, S.	Flanders <i>et al.</i> , 1992
(Leptinotarsa decemlineata)	trifidum, S. capsici-baccatum, S. tarijense, S.	111111111111111111111111111111111111111
(chacoense, S. berthaultii, S. chompatophilum	
Mites		
Two-spotted spider mite	S. macrocarpon	Schaff et al., 1982
(Tetranychus urticae)	S. integrifolium	Dikii and Voronina, 1985
Carmine spidermite	S. mammosum	Schalk et al., 1975
(T. cinnaborinus)	S. pseudocapsicum	
	S. sisymbrifolium	
Diseases	- v	
Fusarium wilt	S. indicum, S. integrifolium, S. incanum	Yamakawa and Mochizuki, 1979
	S. sisymbrifolium	Cappelli et al., 1995
Verticillium dahliae	S. torvum, S. caripense, S. persicum, S.	Sakata <i>et al.</i> , 1989
	scabrun	
	S. sodomaeum	Anonymous, 1979
	S. sisymbrifolium, S. torvum	Alconero et al., 1988
Verticillium dahaliae, V. albo-atrum	S. sisymbrifolium	Fassuliotis and Dukes, 1972
Phomopsis fruit rot (P. vexans)	S. gilo, S. intergrifolium	Ahmad, 1987
Cercospora solani	S. macrocarpon	Madalageri, 1988
Bacterial wilt (Pseudomonas solanacearum)	S. integrifolium, S. torvum,	Yamakawa, 1982;
· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	S. integrifolium	Sheela et al., 1984
Nematodes		·····, ····, ····
Meloidogyne incognita	S. sisymbrifolium	Fassuliotis, 1973
	S. khasianum, S. torvum	,
	S. toxicarium	Ali et al., 1992
	S. sisymbrifolium, S. torvum	Di Vito <i>et al.</i> , 1992
Meloidogyne incognita, M. arenaria	S. torvum, S. sisymbrifolium	Daunay and Dalmasso, 1985
Meloidogyne incognita, M. javanica	S. sisymbrifolium	Fassuliotis and Dukes, 1972
Meloidogyne spp.	S. torvum, S. aethiopicum	Hébert, 1985
M. javanica	S. torvum	Di Vito <i>et al.</i> , 1992
M. hapla	S. sisymbriofolium	Di Vito <i>et al.</i> , 1992
·		2 100 0. un, 1772
Phytoplasmas	S. hispidum	Rao, 1980
Little leaf	S. integrifolium	Khan et al., 1978
Virus	S. hispidum	Rao, 1980
Eggplant mosaic virus	o. nopuun	Na0, 1700

Successful distant hybridization between S. melongena and wild relatives are reported in Table 3. Most of the interspecific hybrids obtained were sterile or not crossable with eggplant, thus this material was useless to start a breeding program. Nishio et al. (1984) classified 11 Solanum spp. into three groups on the basis of their interspecific compatibility: 1. S. melongena, S. incanum, S. macrocarpon; 2. S. integrifolium, S. gilo, S. nodiflorum; 3. S. indicum, S. mammosum, S. torvum, S. sisymbrifolium, S. toxicarium. Crosses are possible only within and between the first and second groups.

The INRA at Monfavet (France) started a project to evaluate the crossability of a collection of wild relatives in order to steer breeders towards the use of genetic variability within the species crossable with eggplant. The strategy of this work is reversed compared to previous approaches about distant hybridization in eggplant, in fact the evaluation for resistance to pathogens is restricted to the wild species crossable with eggplant. By using this procedure 15 interspecific hybrids have been obtained among 21 solanum tested so far (Daunay et al., 1995).

In Japan, where grafting is a normal practice for most eggplant cultivation, intensive resistance breeding is carried out to confer multiple resistance in the rootstocks (Yamakawa, 1982). Wild relatives (*S. integrifolium*, *S. torvum*, etc.) or selected fertile sexual or somatic interspecific hybrids are employed as rootstock. Grafting on suitable rootstock is also developing in the Mediterranean countries under protected cultivation.

3. Biotechnological approaches

Incorporation of doubled-haploid in breeding for disease resistance

Eggplant anther culture technique is currently incorporated in commercial breeding programs in France, Italy and other countries. Compared to successive self-

ing, the main advantage of anther culture is that it saves time in obtaining pure lines. Two years after anther culture it is possible to include eggplant doubled-haploid (DH) lines in field trials, which represents less than half the time required by sexual reproduction. Antherderived DH lines may be released as self-pollinated cultivars or used as parents of F1 hybrids. For breeding purposes a large number of homozygous plants is needed and it is important that DH lines be a representative sample of the genetic variation obtained from the sexual recombination of donor plant. Other factors that have to be taken into account are the heterozygosity level of the anther donor (F1, F2 or advanced selected progenies) and the genetic inheritance of the desirable traits. Genetic variation has been observed among DH lines derived from both inbred cultivar and heterozygous donors (Rotino, 1996).

Although good recombinant DH lines may be recovered from F_1 hybrids, it has to be considered that most of the DH lines do not present useful characters for practical breeding. Therefore, it is advisable to apply anther culture technique in a segregating plant population previously selected for disease resistance and other agronomic traits. In these plants, there is a higher probability of finding favourable gene combinations since the parental chromosomes have already undergone at least two recombination cycles.

Production of DH lines can be effectively applied when a relatively small number of genes are involved in the resistance trait or when the desirable alleles are recessive and not closely linked. A very useful application of anther culture technique is to extract DH lines from advanced cycles of a recurrent selection scheme. Resistance to insects seems to be partial and its inheritance polygenic; the use of anther culture could thus significantly improve the selection efficacy because it may allow to fix favourable gene combinations at the homozygous level.

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S. melongena x S. indicum	F_4 progeny obtained	Rao and Kumar, 1980
S. sodomeum x S. melongena	Fertile F ₁	Tudor and Tomescu, 1995
S. melongena x S. macrocarpon	Partially fertile F_1 s	Schaff et al., 1982
	Sterile F,	Rajasekaran, 1961
S. melongena x S. khasianum	F_1 obtained by embryo rescue	Sharma <i>et al.</i> , 1980
	F_2 obtained	- · ·
S. aethiopicum x S. melongena	F_1 obtained by embryo	Ano <i>et al.</i> , 1991
5. demopreum x 5. merongena	culture	
S. melongena x S. insanum	F, obtained	Ali and Fujieda, 1990
S. melongena x S. gilo	F, obtained	Ali and Fujieda, 1990
s. melongena x s. guo	Sterile F,	Nasrallah and Hopp, 1963
	1	Kirti and Rao, 1982
S. integrifolium x S. melongena	Sterile F _i s	
	F ₁ obtained	Ali and Fujieda, 1990
S. gilo x S. melongena	Sterile F ₁ s	Omidiji, 1981; Rao and Baksh, 1981
S. melongena x S. hispidum	Sterile F ₁ s	Rao, 1980
S. melongena x S. torvum	Sterile F,s	McCammon and Honma, 1983
S. melongena x S. insanum / S. incanum / S.	Functional seeds	Rao, 1979
integrifolium / S. gilo		

Somatic hybridization

Protoplast fusion and somatic hybrids regeneration has been attempted in an effort to overcome sexual barriers between eggplant and its wild relatives. From the first successful production of somatic hybrids between eggplant and *S. sisymbrifolium* (Gleddie *et al.*, 1986), several other somatic interspecific hybrids have been obtained. Out of 13 successful protoplast fusion experiments, somatic hybrid plants were regenerated in 11 cases but fertile hybrid plants were obtained only in combination with three wild species (Table 4). The useful resistance traits to *Pseudomonas*, spider mites, *Fusarium* and *Verticillium* derived from wild species were maintained in the regenerated somatic hybrids. Moreover, further information about backcrosses with eggplant are limited.

This technique permits the obtainment of somatic hybrids in which recombination of both nuclear and cytoplasmic DNA occurs, thus it represents a powerful tool to enlarge the genetic variability in eggplant. An improvement of the somatic hybrids regeneration efficiency and the use of better selection schemes may allow the regeneration of a large number of symmetric and asymmetric somatic hybrids which should give a higher probability to find backcrossable plants. In addition, anther culture of somatic hybrids can be a suitable tool to bring back to the diploid status the amphidiploid hybrids or their backcrosses with eggplant.

Genetic transformation

Protocols for introducing foreign agronomically useful genes into the eggplant genome via Agrobacterium tumefaciens are available (Rotino and Gleddie, 1990). *Bacillus thuringiensis* wild type genes active against L. decemlineata were obtained but the low expression level of the transgene did not permit satisfactory insect control (Rotino et al., 1992; Chen et al., 1995). Recently transgenic eggplant resistant to Colorado Potato Beetle have been obtained using mutagenized Bt cryIII genes (Arpaia et al., 1997b; Hamilton et al., 1997). Anti-lepidopteran Bt genes cryI and cryII could then be used to verify the sensitivity of the fruit and shoot borer to the toxin and its possible control in the field. Other primary gene products (e.g. proteinase inhibitors, lectins) which are toxic to insects may be employed alone or in various combination.

The availability of engineered resistant eggplant based on a single dominant gene, will pose the problem of durability of resistance obtained by genetic manipula-

Table 4 - Results of somatic hybridization between eggplant and solanum spp.

Fusion partners	Results of fusions	Hybrid characteristics	Reference
S. melongena cv.	26 somatic hybrid plants; Aneuploids close to 48	Sterile. Mites and root-knot nematode resis	Gleddie et al., 1986
Imperial Black Beauty + S. sisymbrifolium	Aneupioids close to 48	nematode resis	
S. melongena cv.	83 somatic hybrid plants;	Sterile	Sihachakr et al., 1988
Dourga + S. khasianum	Most tetraploids (48)	Sterne	
2 cuiga · Si musiamin	and few aneuploids (46-48)		
S. <i>melongena</i> cv. Black	10 somatic hybrid plants;	Sterile Verticillium, resist.	Guri and Sink, 1988a
Beauty + S. torvum	Tetraploids and aneuploids	Spider mites	
	(46-48)	partially resist.	
S. melongena cv. Black	2 somatic hybrid plants	Sterile. Atrazine resist.	Guri and Sink, 1988b
Beauty + S. nigrum			
S. melongena cv.	19 somatic hybrid plants;	Sterile, Verticillium	Sihachakr et al., 1989a
Dourga + S. torvum	Most tetraploids (46-48)	filtrate and nematode resist	
S. melongena cv.	1 somatic hybrid plant	Sterile. Atrazine resist.	Sihachakr <i>et al.</i> , 1989b
Dourga + S. nigrum	Aneuploid		
S. melongena cv.	16 somatic hybrid plants;	Fertile. Offsprings	Kameya et al., 1990
Shironasu + S. intergrifolium	Tetraploid	Pseudomonas resist.	
S. melongena cv.	Green shoots from	-	Toki <i>et al.</i> , 1990
Shironasu + Nicotiana	2 somatic hybrid colonies		
tabacum (chlorophyll-			
deficient, streptomycin			
and kanamycin-resistant	• • • • • • • • •		G 1 1 1001
S. melongena cv Black	2 hybrid calli with	-	Guri et al., 1991
Beauty + (sexual hybrid	leaf-like primordia		
tomato x Lycopersicon pennellii)			Deveres et al. 1002
S. melongena cv.	35 somatic hyvrid plants	Fertile. Pseudomonas and	Daunay et al., 1993
Dourga + S. aethiopicum	32 tetraploids,	Fusarium resist.	
	1 hexaploid,		
S. melongena cv.	2 mixoploids	Fertile, Pseudomonas resist.	Asao et al., 1994
S. melongena CV. Senryou + S. sanitwongsei	1 somatic hybrid plants Tetraploids	renne. rseudomonus tesist.	Asau ei ui., 1994
S. melongena cv	4 somatic hybrid plants	Sterile	Liu et al., 1995
Black Beauty + sexual cross	4 somatic hybrid plants 45-60 chromosome	361116	$\square u \in u_{i}, 1775$
L. esculentum and L. pennellii	45-00 Chi Ohiosoffic		
Solanum melongena	More than 100 hybrid	Fertile. Backcrossed.	Rotino et al., 1995
breeding lines + S. integrifolium	plants. Mostly tetraploid	Fusarium resist.	

tion. Resistance to CryIIIA toxin in laboratory strain of L. decemlineata was inducted by continuing exposure to the toxin (Whalon *et al.*, 1993) and the presence of resistance alleles in relatively high frequencies for some beetle populations in the field has been reported (Whalon and Rahardja, personal communication).

Resistance management is an effort to prevent or delay adaptation in insects, thus it should be considered as the management of a genetic resource represented by the insect susceptibility genes or alleles. Computer simulations have been widely used to investigate the possible outcome of an insect-host coevolution under different levels of selection pressure (Gould, 1986; Mallet and Porter, 1992; Alstad and Andow, 1995). The results are also different in dependence of the host and insect ecology and genetics. A specific model is also available to investigate the most relevant features of the Colorado Potato Beetle-eggplant interactions (Arpaia et al., 1996). Indications retrieved by the latter model indicate that a mixed planting of transgenic and non transgenic clones could allow the preservation of a longlasting efficacy of the germplasm.

Therefore, methods of resistance preservation should be incorporated within the philosophy of Integrated Pest Management (IPM). These methods fit well with the IPM goal of implementing strategies to hold pest population below density that could cause economic injury by using natural, biological and cultural tools as first line to control pests and diseases. Field observations have also indicated that in some cases a synergistic action of Bttransgenic plants and natural enemies is possible and will make it to maintain a longlasting efficacy of the resistant lines (Arpaia *et al.*, 1997a).

Within the IPM context, the strategies proposed for better management of plant resistance genes are: i) diversification of mortality source; ii) reduction of selection pressure for each mortality mechanism; iii) refuges or immigration to supply susceptible individuals; iv) estimation and/or prediction of progress toward insect resistance (McGaughey and Whalon, 1992). Extensive field studies are certainly needed to support the indications retrieved by simulation models in order to better target the field deployment of insect-resistant transgenic eggplants.

Engineering insect resistance based on secondary compounds involved in the resistance (e.g. glycoalkaloids) will be more difficult because a more complex biochemical pathway should be known and altered.

Marker-assisted selection

Molecular markers can be used to facilitate the localization of genomic traits that show continuous variation in expression and are more complex than simple mendelian characters in inheritance (quantitative trait loci or QTLs). Unfortunately, the development in eggplant of Marker-Assisted Selection is far from becoming a reality since, at the present, it lacks a genetic map. Allozyme and Random amplified polymorphic DNA variation in eggplant was recently reported (Karihaloo

and Gottlieb, 1995; Karihaloo et al., 1995). RAPD and allozyme analyses were performed on 52 accessions, comprising 27 cultivars of Solanum melongena and 25 lines of the related weedy form "insanum". The results show a very high degree of similarity between the accessions tested (I=0.947 by RAPD analysis); overall, the "insanum" accessions were more diverse than those of S. melongena (Karihaloo et al., 1995). These preliminary results indicate a low degree of polymorphism in eggplant by using the above mentioned markers. In the near future, considering the advantage from the synthenic relationship with the well-studied Solanaceous species potato and tomato, it could be possibile to obtain genetic information on segregating (F_2 , Recombinant Inbred Lines or DH) populations by using markers such as RFLP. AFLP and microsatellites.

Molecular markers were recently used to locate genes for resistance to L. decemlineata in hybrid Solanum tuberosum x Solanum berthaultii potato progenies (Yencho et al., 1996). Two and three QTLs influencing resistance were identified in reciprocal backcrosses with S. berthaultii and potato, respectively. These QTLs generally coincided with the loci associated with glandular trichomes, confirming their role in the mechanism of resistance. However, a constant association of QTL on chromosome 1 not linked with trichomes was noted, suggesting that other factors were contributing to insect resistance in those progenies.

4. Perspectives

Breeding for resistance in eggplant has received limited research efforts, considering the heavy losses that pests may cause to the cultivation of this crop. Moreover, the possibility of pest adaptation to resistance genes should bring a re-orientation of breeding for pest resistance.

The crucial point for development of a durable crop protection strategy is the interdisciplinary cooperation between breeders, entomologists, plant pathologists and agronomists. Field evaluation of breeding materials has to be performed taking into consideration the entire agroecosystem, trying to reduce to a minimum chemical interference.

Exploitation of resistance genes

Searching for partial resistance within the eggplant gene pool may be particularly important, as evidenced by the genetic variation observed that is involved with the response to major pests. In addition, established biotechnological techniques, mainly based on tissue culture and gene transfer, can enlarge the availability of resistance genes from wild relatives or unrelated organisms.

The availability of a genetic map to start markerassisted selection also in eggplant would be an important effort to identify QTLs conferring tolerance/resistance to the major diseases (*Verticillium* and *Fusarium* wilt, bacterial wilt and nematode infections).

Finally, the improvement of techniques to obtain fertile somatic interspecific hybrids should enable the use of genes derived from wild species (and maintained in the regenerated somatic hybrids), increasing the quota of recovery in backcross populations.

Development of efficient and reliable test procedures to assess the resistance

Plant resistance to insects is often expressed in terms of its negative effects on individual development and/or population biology. If a first screening may be performed, for simplicity and economy, on a single criterion (e.g. mortality), more comprehensive surveys are needed to assess the cumulative impact on insect populations. Parameters such as fertility and fecundity, or adverse impact on insect behaviour should be included in the investigations. Collection of all the data necessary for life tables or population growth curves may be justified, too. Investigations should also include the effects of infestations on plants on a progressive larger scale (plant tissues, organs, single plants, greenhouse and field trials). The ultimate goal of insect resistance is obviously crop yield and quality, which should then represent the final characters to examine at in field experiments.

Collect field data to validate simulation models and predict insect population growth

This will be a helpful instrument both during the selection of the most effective genotypes in specific plant-insect interaction and in field trials to address the study by looking at the entire agroecosystem in a way that will eventually optimize the germplasm resources and place them in an appropriate IPM perspective.

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