

Botany and Breeding of Tomato to Obtain Genotypes Resistant to Bacterial Wilt

ABSTRACT

Bacterial wilt is a disease that is of global importance because it is difficult to control and often compromises the whole crop. The use of resistant varieties is the main form of control of this disease. The objective of this work was to carry out a literature review with the main factors related to the botany and breeding of tomato to obtain genotypes resistant to bacterial wilt. It was found different information related to the genetic control of tomato resistance in relation to the number of genes and their interaction due to the high genetic diversity within the *Ralstonia solanacearum* species complex, which is the cause of bacterial wilt. The high host-pathogen interaction reflects on different breeding strategies depending on the environment and the source of resistance used.

10
11
12
13
14

Keywords: *Solanum lycopersicum*; *Ralstonia* spp.; inheritance; plant breeding.

1. INTRODUCTION

15
16
17
18
19

The tomato has as its center of origin the Andean region that covers part of Chile, Colombia, Ecuador, Bolivia and Peru [1]. In Mexico it was the place where its domestication by indigenous tribes took place, integrating to the Aztec culture [2]. The introduction of this culture in Brazil occurred in the late century XIX by European immigrants [3].

20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29

The botanical classification of the tomato underwent several modifications over time. In the middle of century XVI the first botanists they classified as *Solanum pomiferum*. Tournefort in 1694 named it as *Lycopersicon*, a century later Linnaeus (1753) termed the genre again as *Solanum*. Miller classified this vegetable twice as *Lycopersicon* (1754) and *Lycopersicon esculentum* (1768) [4]. After morphological and molecular studies the tomato was re-assigned to the genus *Solanum*. Currently, its taxonomic classification is as follows: Magnoliophyta division, Magnoliopsida class, Solanales order, Solanaceae family, *Solanum lycopersicum* species. In addition to the cultivated species *S. lycopersicum* there are twelve other wild species [5, 6].

30
31
32
33
34
35

The tomato is a dicotyledonous, herbaceous, with flexible hairy stem and soft when young, becoming fibrous and angular with the passage of time. The leaves measure 11 to 32 cm in length and are composed of an odd number of leaflets. They are alternated and petiolate, of oval to oblong form. It is a plant of habit of indeterminate or determined growth, depending on the cultivar [7].

36
37
38
39
40

The root system is composed of main root, secondary and adventitious. The main or pivotal root can reach 5 m depth, depending on soil type and genotype. Secondaries are stimulated when the main and adventitious root undergo stress in transplant. In general, 70% of the root system is in the first 20 cm of the soil surface [1, 8].

41 It is an autogamous species, with a natural crossing percentage in general, lower than 5%
42 [9]. The flowers are small, with a diameter varying from 1.5 to 2 cm. Are hermaphrodites with
43 cleistogamy, corolla and yellow stamens small size. They have five sepals, five wide
44 lanceolate petals and six anthers. Each plant can have 20 simple or branched
45 inflorescences, with four to eight flowers each. The anthers are welded forming a cone that
46 surrounds the stigma. The anthesis occurs in two flowers at a time in each inflorescence [9,
47 10].

48
49 The fruits are fleshy, succulent berries, with size and mass differentiated according to the
50 cultivar, being bilocular, trilocular or plurilocular [7, 11]. They consist of film, pulp, placenta
51 and seeds. Their colors may vary from yellow to red-orange, depending on the lycopene / β -
52 carotene ratio [12]. The fruit is of the climacteric type and can complete the maturation after
53 the harvest and, usually develops in the period of seven to nine weeks after fertilization of
54 the ovum [13].

55
56 The seeds are small, oval, of gray cream color, possessing 2 to 3 mm in diameter [14]. The
57 type of cultivar greatly influences the number of seeds, having some more than 200 per fruit.
58 For germination the optimum temperature is between 18 to 24 °C, under conditions of
59 temperature outside the ideal, germination delay and reduction in emergency uniformity may
60 occur [15]. The vegetative phase of the tomato is very short, as flowering and fruiting occur
61 along with vegetative growth [15].

62
63 **The tomato is cultivated and commercially exploited annually** [8]. This culture adapts to a
64 wide variation of latitude, cultivation methods, types of soil and temperatures [1]. Most
65 cultivars have a cycle of 95 to 125 days. However, the cultivation period depends on climatic
66 conditions, soil fertility, irrigation intensity, pest / disease attack and planting season [11].
67 Despite adapting well to various cropping situations, the ideal for culture is a cool, dry
68 climate, with temperatures between 20 °C to 25 °C per day and 11 °C to 18 °C per night.
69 Temperatures above 35 °C hinder the development of the plant and fruiting by providing
70 abortion of flowers and falling of new fruits [8].

71

72 **2. BACTERIAL WILT IN TOMATO**

73

74 **The cultivated tomato (*Solanum lycopersicum*) has a narrow genetic base, which makes a**
75 **species more susceptible to biotic stresses. Thus, it is interesting that as cultivars show**
76 **resistance to the greatest number of pests and possible diseases, especially as difficult to**
77 **control, such as: fusion wilt, stemphylium stain, bacterial wilt, vertical wilt, turns head,**
78 **geminivirosis, meloidoginose and bacterial wilt [11]. The various wild species of tomato are**
79 **of great importance for breeding, serving as a germplasm bank with multiple characteristics.**
80 ***S. pimpinellifolium* is an important source of resistance to bacterial wilt [16].**

81

82 The first classification of the causative agents of bacterial wilt was as *Bacillus solanacearum*
83 by [17]. Over time, the following nomenclatures were adopted: *Bacterium solanacearum* [18],
84 *Pseudomonas solanacearum* [17, 19], *Phytomonas solanacearum* [17, 20], *Burkholderia*
85 *solanacearum* [17, 21] and *Ralstonia solanacearum* [17, 22]. According to [23], *R.*
86 *solanacearum* is considered a complex of species divided into phylotypes (4), sequevars
87 (59) [24], clades (8) [25] and clones [23].

88

89 From the phylogenetic analysis of the partial sequence of the endoglucanase gene and the
90 ITS region, DNA-DNA hybridization, biochemical, cultural and physiological characteristics
91 [26] proposed the taxonomic reclassification of the *R. solanacearum* complex in three
92 independent species and subspecies. *Ralstonia pseudosolanacearum* consists of isolates
93 belonging to phylotypes I and III, originating in Asia and Africa, respectively. *R.*

94 *solanacearum* by phylotype II isolates (IIA and IIB), originated in the American continent and
95 that probably possess two subspecies. The isolates of phylotype IV originated from Indonesia
96 were reclassified into three subspecies of *R. syzigii*, where *R. syzigii* subsp. *indonesiensis*
97 grouped the wilt-causing isolates of Ralstonia in Solanaceae, *R. syzigii* subsp. *syzigii* the
98 isolates previously denominated of *R. syzigii* and as *R. syzigii* subsp. *celebesensis* of blood
99 disease bacterium [26].

100
101 The species of the *R. solanacearum* complex are gram negative, their format is straight rods
102 or slightly curved, with approximately 0.5-1.0 x 1.5-4.0 µm. Are non-sporogenic, mobile
103 through one or more polar flagella and aerobic. Its growth occurs in temperature between 25
104 and 35 °C [27]. These bacteria inhabit the soil and invade the root system by means of
105 wounds, multiplies rapidly within the xylem and hereby is distributed throughout the plant.
106 The result of colonization is the obstruction of the vessels by the accumulation of
107 exopolysaccharides, blocking the translocation of water and nutrients. The main symptoms
108 are darkening of the xylem vessels and sudden wilt with no change in green coloration. The
109 darkening of the vessels is due to the transport of substances resulting from the oxidation of
110 phenols, resulting in melanin. It is worth mentioning that depending on the combination of
111 several factors the disease can appear in any stage of development of the tomato [28, 29,
112 30].

113
114 As for most phyto-bacteria, controlling bacterial wilt is very difficult. Therefore, it is
115 recommended to make the integrated management, since the use of isolated measures is
116 not efficient to avoid losses. Among the isolated measures, chemical control has low
117 efficiency and is extremely damaging to the environment [31]. Some recommended control
118 measures are: soil water management in order to avoid waterlogging; to avoid injuries
119 caused by nematodes, insects or agricultural implements; avoid moving soil from disease
120 outbreaks to other areas; elimination of diseased, infected and invasive volunteers from the
121 Solanaceae family; perform crop rotation for at least one year with grasses; grafting on
122 resistant grafts and the use of resistant cultivars [32, 33].

123
124 In Brazil and in the State of Pernambuco, the species *R. pseudosolanacearum* and *R.*
125 *solanacearum* [24, 34] have been reported so far. It is believed that *R. solanacearum* has
126 Brazil as the center of origin and diversity, while *R. pseudosolanacearum* was introduced
127 from Asia. The disease is present in all mesoregions of the State of Pernambuco, causing
128 great damage to the tomato crop of the State [35]. Thus, it is clear the importance of the
129 breeding of plants aiming the resistance to bacterial wilt in an attempt to mitigate the
130 damages caused by this disease in the tomato crop.

131 3. PLANT BREEDING FOR RESISTANCE TO BACTERIAL WILT

132
133
134 The use of resistant cultivars is the most efficient way to control bacterial wilt in tomato
135 plants per it presents low cost, low impact on the environment and easy adoption by the
136 producer. This disease can cause 100% harm. [36, 37].

137
138 To become the plant breeding aiming the efficiency of bacterial wilt resistance, it is
139 necessary to emphasize that in Brazil the *R. solanacearum* complex presents a great
140 genetic diversity. This is composed by 13 sequovares of Solanaceae (I-17, I-18, IIA-41, IIA-
141 50, IIA-58, IIA-59, IIB-2, IIB-25, IIB-28, IIB-54, IIB-55, IIB-56 and IIB -57). These four
142 sequelae occur in the tomato crop: I-18, IIA-41, IIA-50 and IIB-54 [24, 34, 38, 39].

143
144 In the State of Pernambuco (Agreste and Forest Zone) were detected sequovares the I-17
145 and I-18 which correspond to *R. pseudosolanacearum*, IIA-58 and IIA-59 representing *R.*
146 *solanacearum* [24]. According to [39] in the semi-arid of Pernambuco are present the

147 sequevares I-17 and I-18 of *R. pseudosolanacearum*, and sequevares IIa-50, IIa-58 and IIa-
148 59 *R. solanacearum*. According to the same author, *R. pseudosolanacearum* is prevalent in
149 Agreste and *R. solanacearum* in the São Francisco and Sertão mesoregions.
150

151 Survey work on complex species *R. solanacearum* in a given region is of paramount
152 importance for the improvement of tomato aiming at resistance to bacterial wilt. It is
153 necessary to conduct programs based on the prevalent species and using local isolates to
154 represent the situation in the screening stages from the inoculation of the pathogen [40].
155

156 In addition to understanding the diversity of the *R. solanacearum* complex, it is necessary to
157 identify the sources that can be used in the development of resistant cultivars. In the
158 literature, there are studies that identify sources of resistance in tomato germplasm [41, 42].
159 Among these there are some accessions of *Solanum pimpinelifolium* and even of the
160 cultivated species *Solanum lycopersicum* [43]. In the literature there are reports mainly of the
161 following resistant cultivars Saturn, Venus, Caraiba, Hawaii 7996, Hawaii 7997, Hawaii 7998,
162 Yoshimatsu, Drica and CRA-66. The cultivar Hawaii 7996 is considered international
163 standard of resistance to bacterial wilt, being used in several studies in an attempt to
164 understand the genetic mechanism of resistance [9].
165

166 At the molecular level, QTLs were found on chromosomes 6 and 4, which together represent
167 56% of the resistance [44]. Recent work using the Hawaii 7996 source of resistance
168 identified **quantitative trait loci** (QTLs) on chromosomes 12 (Bwr-12) and 6 (Bwr-6). The
169 presence of QTL Bwr-6 represents a challenge for plant breeding, because it is in
170 association with small fruits or that can crack when they are ripe, and with susceptibility to
171 the galls nematodes (*Meloidogyne* spp.) and begomovirus [37, 45].
172

173 According to [46] obtaining a stable cultivar is very difficult, due to the resistance of the *R.*
174 *solanacearum* complex species to be specific to the locality. With the cultivation of these
175 cultivars, it is necessary to carry out studies aiming at an integrated control, reducing the
176 selection pressure to avoid the rapid supplanting of the resistance [47]. [48] evaluated 35
177 sources of resistance to bacterial wilt in 11 countries and observed for most sources different
178 levels of disease incidence. The local specificity may be related to the dependence of
179 environmental conditions, mainly in relation to temperature and humidity, as well as the
180 pathogen diversity in each country [49].
181

182 According to [40] there are some fundamental points as strategies for breeding aiming at
183 resistance to bacterial wilt. i) the cultivars developed must be resistant and with desirable
184 agronomic characteristics; ii) the cultivars grown must withstand local isolates and iii) most of
185 the cultivars developed have the genetic control of the polygenic resistance, making it
186 difficult to transfer the alleles.
187

188 In Brazil, the cultivar Yoshimatsu was developed by **National Institute of Amazonian**
189 **Research (INPA)**, which shows high resistance to bacterial wilt. This cultivar allows the
190 extraction of resistant and fruit-quality lines to meet market requirements [9, 31]. The genetic
191 control mechanism in the Yoshimatsu cultivar needs to be studied, since most of the work
192 was done with other sources.
193

194 **4. STUDY OF GENETIC CONTROL OF RESISTANCE TO BACTERIAL WILT**

195

196
197 At 35 years after the rediscovery of Mendel's laws, in an attempt to understand the genetic
198 control of the characters in progenies, there was a division of schools. In the first, called
199 Mendelian school, it was only believed that the distribution of the characters was discreet. In

200 the second school, called biometrics, it was argued that most of the characters had
201 continuous distribution. In fact, what defines the type of distribution is the number of genes
202 and the environmental effect, being able to meet the assumptions of the two schools [50].
203

204 The study of genetic control is extremely important in the development of disease resistant
205 cultivars, there are two forms of resistance that are related to inheritance. Vertical resistance
206 is conferred by one or more genes (monogenic or oligogenic), with expression of genes of
207 greater effect, presenting resistance to specific breeds and usually revealing little stability.
208 The horizontal resistance is uniform, conditioned by several genes (polygenic) of small
209 effect, nonspecific race, usually durable, there is no differential interaction between the
210 pathogen races and the host cultivars [37].
211

212 Resistance to monogenic genetic control diseases facilitates the production of resistant
213 cultivars mainly using the backcrossing method which is suitable for transferring one or a few
214 genes. However, in many cases the resistance is polygenic and strongly influenced by
215 environmental factors, making obtaining more laborious cultivars [51].
216

217 [One of the steps to carry out the study of genetic control, consists in the use of homozygous
218 parents or endogamous lines that present contrasting expressions in relation to what one
219 wishes to study. These individuals provide the identification of the variability involved in the
220 segregating generations evaluated. Several generations can be used for this purpose, with
221 inheritance studies being more common with the parents and the F1 and F2 generations. To
222 improve the understanding of phenotypic proportions, the use of backcrosses is indicated
223 [52].
224

225 With the generations, an experiment should be carried out evaluating the character in which
226 one wants to understand the inheritance. In the case of resistance to bacterial wilt, it is
227 necessary to evaluate the generations submitted to the *R. solanacearum* complex species,
228 which can be infested soil [53], by artificial inoculation [31] or using the two previously cited
229 methods together [54]. In possession of the data is carried out a study of the phenotypic
230 proportions observed from the comparison with the expected phenotypic proportions,
231 according to a segregation pattern. This pattern, according to [55] is tested as follows: first a
232 hypothesis of monogenic inheritance is established, which if not appropriate, should be
233 adjusted to digenic inheritance and so on up to the polygenic model.
234

235 One way to test the phenotypic proportions in segregating generations is by means of the
236 non-parametric chi-square test (χ^2). In this test, based on the observed and expected
237 frequencies, the calculated chi-squared value is obtained which is compared with the
238 tabulated value. If a monogenic inheritance hypothesis is tested and the chi-square test is
239 significant, the result indicates that it should be discarded, because the deviations of
240 frequencies observed in relation to the expected frequencies were not due to chance [56,
241 55].
242

243 From the point of view of monogenic inheritance, through a cross in which individuals are
244 contrasting, two phenotypic classes are observed if the interaction is of complete or lethal
245 dominance; and three classes in the interaction with absence of dominance or co-
246 dominance. Considering digenic inheritance, four classes are observed if the interaction is of
247 complete dominance for the two genes with the classical phenotypic ratio of 9:3:3:1. In the
248 interaction of absence of dominance for the two genes in generation F2 we have nine
249 genotypic classes in the proportion 1:2:1:2:4:2:1:2:1 [52]. It is important to emphasize that
250 the number of classes increases with the increase in the number of genes, thus having a
251 diverse phenotypic classification that is highly influenced by the environmental component
252 [57]. The breeder must be very careful in selection when dealing with quantitative

253 inheritance, because part of the manifested variability is due to the environment, and is not
254 inheritable [58].

255

256 Considering polygenic or quantitative inheritance, the genes that make up this genetic
257 control are divided into two classes. The first is called major-effect or Mendelian genes, and
258 the second of genes of smaller effects or modifiers, also denominated of polygenes [59].
259 Higher-effect genes are responsible for significant phenotypic changes. The lower-effect
260 genes have little influence on expression if considered individually, but when they are in
261 large numbers they produce significant phenotypic changes [52].

262

263 It is important to test the model that explains the genetic control. First, the dominant additive
264 model is tested, if it is not appropriate, the model is tested with epistasis. Considering a
265 model without epistasis, the evaluation can be performed by the scale test (set), proposed
266 by Cavalli in 1952 reported by [59], in which starting from the segregating generations it is
267 recommended to estimate the mean components by the least squares method. To facilitate
268 the resolution of the systems there are some recommended applications such as MAPGEM
269 [60] and GENES [61].

270

271 In an inheritance study it is important to perform the estimation of the components of mean,
272 in which the parameters m , a and d , which represent the average of the parents are
273 obtained, the additive gene effects, and the non-additive gene effects (dominance),
274 respectively. From these, one can obtain the average degree of dominance ($GMD = [d] / [a]$),
275 which helps in analyzing the predominant interaction between each pair of alleles, which
276 ranges from absence of dominance (0), partial dominance (between 0 and 1), complete
277 dominance (1) and overdominance (greater than 1) [52].

278

279 In relation to the bacterial wilt of the tomato, there are several reports regarding the genetic
280 control of resistance. This decreases the efficiency of breeding programs in the development
281 of resistant cultivars and with acceptable agronomic attributes. The different results can be
282 explained by different methodologies in conducting the genetic control study, sources of
283 resistance, isolated from the different species of *R. solanacearum* complex, environments
284 and finally the interaction between all these fundamental points [40, 62].

285

286 The literature shows that the response of the different cultivars is more quantitative than
287 qualitative [49]. there are many studies reporting from monogenic inheritance [63] to
288 polygenic [64, 65]. Another great difference is observed in relation to the dominance and
289 interaction between the genes [31, 53, 66]. The main results of some inheritance studies can
290 be observed in table 1.

291

292 **Table 1. Relationship between researchers, sources of resistance and the main**
293 **results obtained in the genetic control of resistance to bacterial wilt in tomato.**

Sources of resistance	Main results of genetic control	Researchers
PI27080	Oligogenic with recessive action	[67]
Saturn e Vênus	Oligogenic with partial dominance	[68]
Vênus, VC-4 e H7741	Polygenic with additive effects	[69]
VC-48, VC-9, VC-11 e VC-8	Oligogenic or polygenic with partial dominance and epistasis	[70]
CRA-66 e IHR663123	Genes with recessive action and a dominant gene	[71]
Sem identificação	Polygenic with additive effects	[64]
Hawaii 7998	Monogenic dominant	[72]
Hawaii 7998	Polygenic	[65]

Hawaii 7997	Genes with recessive action	[73]
CL-32-d-01-19GS	Monogenic with partial dominance	[74]
Híbridos de Hawaii 7998	Partial dominance	[75]
Hawaii 7996	Monogenic dominant	[63]
D-9 e Hawaii 7998	Partially recessive with partial dominance towards susceptibility	[66]
Hawaii 7998, Caraíba e Yoshimatsu	Gene block with dominance and with additive effects	[54]
Hawaii 7998, Rotam-4 e Yoshimatsu	Oligogenic or polygenic with partial dominance and with additive effect	[31]
Drica	Oligogenic or polygenic with partial dominance	[53]
Hawaii 7998	Monogenic recessive	[76]
Hawaii 7998, BT-18 e TBL-4	More than one gene with additive effect and dominance	[77]

294

295

In the literature some studies are available with the genetic analysis of resistance using molecular markers mainly in the cultivar Hawaii 7996. Depending on the isolate and the evaluated cultivars, there are different QTLs [44, 78, 79]. In this way, it can be inferred that the genetic control of resistance is quite variable.

298

299

In some studies it is reported inheritance of recessive resistance, having binding of these resistance genes to small-sized fruits or what they crack [66, 67, 73] observed that the association of resistance to bacterial wilt and small fruit is not constant, having in their works satisfactory results in the selection of progenies that combine favorable alleles for these characteristics.

305

306

To increase efficiency in assessing potential of populations, based on the means and variances it is possible to estimate the genetic parameters which are fundamental to breeders in establishing effective selection strategies [80, 81].

309

310

In the F2:3 generation it is already possible to select resistant homozygous progenies which may give rise to lines for future obtaining resistant cultivars besides identifying susceptible and segregating progenies. With the evaluation of progenies F2:3 it is possible to carry out the confirmation of the inheritance study, especially in the quantification of possible larger genes [52, 82].

315

316

Most of the genetic control studies of resistance to bacterial wilt were carried out with foreign cultivars. Therefore it is necessary to carry out the study of genetic control using resistant national cultivars such as Gina, C-38-D, Compacto-6 and Yoshimatsu [83]. Among these, Yoshimatsu deserves special mention for its high resistance [9].

320

321

According to [84], the change in the resistance pattern and the methodology used modifies the result of the inheritance study. In addition, it is believed that genetic controls for species alone may differ. Knowledge of inheritance can improve the efficiency of breeding programs, since individual isolates of these species vary with respect to epidemiology.

325

5. CONCLUSION

326

327

It is of great importance knowledge of botany and morphology of tomato genotypes to identify disease resistant.

328

329

330

331 It was found different information related to the genetic control of tomato resistance in
332 relation to the number of genes and their interaction due to the high genetic diversity within
333 the *Ralstonia Solanacearum* species complex.
334

335 The high host x pathogen interaction reflects on different breeding strategies depending on
336 the environment and the source of resistance used.
337

338 **COMPETING INTERESTS**

339
340 Authors have declared that no competing interests exist.
341

342 **REFERENCES**

343
344
345 1. Alvarenga MAR. Tomato: field production, greenhouse and hydroponics. 2th ed. Lavras:
346 UFLA; 2013. English.

347
348 2. Peralta IE, Spooner DM. History, origin and early cultivation of tomato (Solanaceae) In:
349 Razdan MK, Mattoo AK. editors. Genetic improvement of solanaceous crops. 2th ed. Enfield:
350 Science Publishers; 2007. English.

351
352 3. Harvey M, Quilley S, Beynon H. Exploring the tomato: transformations of nature, society
353 and economy. Cheltenham: Edward Elgar; 2002. English.

354
355 4. Peralta IE, Knapp S, Spooner DM. Nomenclature for wild and cultivated tomatoes. Rep. of
356 Tom. Gen. Coop. 2006;56:6-12. English.

357
358 5. Carneiro MS, Vieira MLC. Genetic maps in plants. *Bragantia*, 2002;61(2): 89-100. English.

359
360 6. Brickell CD, Baum BR, Hetterscheid WLA, Leslie AC, McNeill J, Trehane P, et al.
361 International code of nomenclature of cultivated plants. *Acta Hort.* 2004;647:1-123.
362 English.

363
364 7. Figueira FAR. New Manual of Olericultura: modern agro-technology in the production and
365 commercialization of vegetables. 3th ed. Viçosa: UFV; 2012. English.

366
367 8. Puiatti M, Balbino JMS, Fonseca MJO, Ronchi CP. Physiology of tomato development. In:
368 INCAPER, editors. Tomato. Vitória: INCAPER; 2010. English.

369
370 9. Nick C, Silva DJH. Tomato breeding. In: Nick C, Borém A, editors. Breeding vegetables.
371 Viçosa: UFV; 2016. English.

372
373 10. Silva JBC, Giordano LB. World and national production. In: Silva JBC, Giordano LB,
374 editors. Tomato for industrial processing. Brasília: Embrapa Vegetables; 2000. English.

375
376 11. Camargo FP, Alves HS, Camargo Filho WP, Vilela NJ. Production chain of industrial
377 tomatoes in Brazil: review of 1990, regional production and prospects. *Econ. Inf.*
378 2006;36(11):7-20. English.

379
380 12. Botella-Paiva P, Rodriguez-Concepcion M. Carotenoid biotechnology in plants for
381 nutritionally improved foods. *Phys. Plant.* 2006;126:369-381. English.
382

- 383 13. Carmo CAS, Caliman LF. Climate, planting season and cultivating. In: INCAPER,
384 editors. Tomato. Vitória: INCAPER; 2010. English.
385
- 386 14. Bradford KJ, Chen F, Cooley MB, Dahal P, Downie B, Fukunaga KK, et al. Physiology of
387 tomato development Yang H, Yim KO Gene expression prior to radicle emergence in
388 imbibed tomato seeds. In: Black M, Bradford KJ, Vazquez-Ramos, editors. Seed Biology:
389 Advances and Applications. New York: CAB International; 2000. English.
390
- 391 15. Kinet JM, Peet MM. Tomato. In: Wien HC, editors. The physiology of vegetables crops.
392 New York: CAB International; 1997. English.
393
- 394 16. Maluf WR. Tomato genetic improvement tool. Lavras: UFLA; 2000. English.
395
- 396 17. Smith EF. A bacterial disease of tomato, pepper, eggplant and Irish potato (*Bacillus*
397 *solanacearum* nov. sp.). United States Department of Agriculture: Division of Vegetable
398 Physiology and Pathology. 1896;12:1-28. English.
399
- 400 18. Chester FD. Report of the mycologist: bacteriological work. Del. Agric. Exp. Stn. Bull.
401 1898;10:47-137. English.
402
- 403 19. Smith EF. Bacteria in relation to plant disease. Washington: Carnegie Institution; 1914.
404 English.
405
- 406 20. Bergey DH. Manual of systematic bacteriology: the Proteobacteria. 1th ed. New York:
407 Springer-Verlag; 1923. English.
408
- 409 21. Yabuuchi E, Kosaro Y, Oyizu H, Yano I, Hotta H, Hashimoto Y, et al. Proposal of
410 *Burkholderia* gen. nov. and transfer of seven species of the genus *Pseudomonas* homology
411 group II to the new genus, with the type species *Burkholderia cepacia* (Palleroni and
412 Holmes, 1981) comb. nov. Microb. and Imm. 1992;36(12):1251-1275. English.
413
- 414 22. Yabuuchi E, Kosako Y, Oyaizu H, Yano I, Hotta H, Hashimoto Y, et al. Transfer of two
415 *Burkholderia* and an *Alcaligenes* species to *R.* gen. nov. – Proposal of *R. pickettii* (Ralston,
416 Palleroni and Doudoroff, 1973) com. nov., *R. solanacearum* (Smith, 1896) comb. nov. and *R.*
417 *eutropha* (Davis, 1969) comb. nov. Microb. and Imm. 1995;39(11):897-904. English.
418
- 419 23. Fegan M, Prior P. How complex is the *Ralstonia solanacearum* species complex. In:
420 Allen C, Prior C, Hayward AC, editors. Bacterial wilt disease and the *Ralstonia*
421 *solanacearum* species complex. 2th ed. Saint Paul: APS Press; 2005. English.
422
- 423 24. Silva JR. Diversity of isolates of *R. solanacearum* from the North and Northeast regions
424 of Brazil. Recife, Rural Federal University of Pernambuco; 2014. English.
425
- 426 25. Wicker E, Lefeuvre P, Cambiaire JC, Poussier S, Prior P. Contrasting recombination
427 patterns and demographic histories of the plant pathogen *R. solanacearum* inferred from
428 MLSA. Inter. Soc. for Microb. Ecol. Jour. 2012;6(5):961-974. English.
429
- 430 26. Safni I, Cleenwerck I, De-Vos P, Fegan M, Sly L, Kappler U. Polyphasic taxonomic
431 revision of the *R. solanacearum* species complex: proposal to emend the descriptions of *R.*
432 *solanacearum* and *R. syzygii* and reclassify current *R. syzygii* strains as *R. syzygii* subsp.
433 *syzygii*, *R. solanacearum* phylotype IV strains as *R. syzygii* subsp. *indonesiensis* subsp.
434 nov., banana blood disease bacterium strains as *R. syzygii* subsp. *celebesensis* subsp. nov.

435 and *R. solanacearum* phlotypes I and III strains as *R. pseudosolanacearum* sp. nov. Inter.
436 Jour. of Syst. and Evol. Microb. 2014;64(9):3087-103. English.
437
438 27. Agrios GN. Plant pathology. 5th ed. San Diego: Elsevier; 2005. English.
439
440 28. Liu HL, Zhang SP, Schell MA, Denny TP. Pyramiding, unmarked deletions in *R.*
441 *solanacearum* shows that secreted proteins in addition to plant cell-wall degrading enzymes
442 contribute to virulence. Mol. Plant-Microb. Inter. 2005;18(12):1296-1305. English.
443
444 29. Hikichi Y, Yoshimochi T, Tsujimoto S, Shinohara R, Nakaho K, Kanda A, et al. Global
445 regulation of pathogenicity mechanism of *R. solanacearum*. Plant Biot. 2007;24(1):149-154.
446 English.
447
448 30. Amorim L, Rezende MAJ, Bergamin Filho A. Manual of phytopathology: principles and
449 concepts. 1th ed. Agronomic Ceres: Ouro Fino; 2011. English.
450
451 31. Oliveira WF, Giordano LB, Lopes CA. Inheritance of resistance in tomato to wilted
452 bacterial. Fitop. Bras. 1999;24:49-53. English.
453
454 32. Lopes CA, Quezado-Soares AM. Diseases caused by bacteria in tomato. In: Zambolim
455 L, Vale FXR, Costa H, editors. Control of plant diseases: vegetables. Viçosa: UFV; 2000.
456 English.
457
458 33. Lopes CA, Mendonça JL. Enxertia in tomato for control of bacterial wilted. Brasília:
459 EMBRAPA; 2014. English.
460
461 34. Santiago TR, Lopes CA, Caetano-Anolles G, Mizubuti ESG. Phylotype and sequevar
462 variability of *R. solanacearum* in Brazil, an ancient centre of diversity of the pathogen. Plant
463 Pathol. 2016;66:383-392. English.
464
465 35. Mariano RLR, Melo RAG, Holanda VT, Cabral GB, Silva MSSG. Survey of the
466 phyto-bacterioses of the state of Pernambuco in the 1987-1988 biennium. Braz. Phyto.
467 1989;14(2):158-169. English.
468
469 36. Filgueira FAR. Solanaceae: modern agro-technology in tomato, potato, pepper, eggplant
470 and jiló production. Lavras: UFLA; 2003. English.
471
472 37. Lopes CA, Boiteux LS. Breeding for resistance to bacterial diseases. In: Fritse-Neto R,
473 Borém A, editors. Plant breeding for biotic stress conditions. Viçosa: UFV; 2012. English.
474
475 38. Rodrigues LMR, Destefano SAL, Silva MJ, Costa GGL, Maringoni AC. Characterization
476 of *R. solanacearum* from Brazil using molecular methods and pathogenicity tests. Jour. of
477 Plant Pathol. 2012;94(3):505-516. English.
478
479 39. Albuquerque GMR. Resistance to bacterial wilt in tomato: diversity of *Ralstonia spp.* in
480 Pernambuco, selection of wild accesses and genetic characterization of resistance. Recife,
481 Rural Federal University of Pernambuco; 2017. English.
482
483 40. Huet G. Breeding for resistances to *R. solanacearum*. Mini review article. In: Allen C,
484 Prior P, Hayward AC, editors. Bacterial wilt disease and the *R. solanacearum* species
485 complex. 2th ed. Saint Paul: APS Press; 2014. English.
486

- 487 41. Egashira H, Kuwashima A, Imanishi S, Ishiguro H, Fukushima K, Kaya T. Screening of
488 wild accessions resistant to gray mold (*Botrytis cinerea* Pers.) in *Lycopersicon*. *Acta Phys.*
489 *Plant.* 2000;22:324-326. English.
490
- 491 42. Pico B, Sifres A, Elia M, Diez MJ, Nuez F. Searching for new resistance sources to
492 tomato yellow leaf curl virus within a highly variable wild *Lycopersicon* genetic pool. *Acta*
493 *Phys. Plant.* 2000;22:344-350. English.
494
- 495 43. Scott JW, Wang JF, Hanson P. Breeding tomatoes for resistance to bacterial wilt, a
496 global view. *Acta Hortic.* 2005;695:161-168. English.
497
- 498 44. Thoquet PJ, Olivier C, Sperisen P, Rogowsky H, Laterrot H, Grimsley N. Quantitative
499 trait loci determining resistance to bacterial wilt in tomato cultivar Hawaii7996. *Mol. Plant-*
500 *Mic. Int.* 1996;9(9):826-836. English.
501
- 502 45. Yuliar YAN, Toyota K. Recent trends in control methods for bacterial wilt diseases
503 caused by *R. solanacearum*. *Microb. Envir.* 2015;30:1-11. English.
504
- 505 46. Hanson PM, Wang JF, Licardo O, Hanudin SYM, Hartman GL, Lin YC. Variable reaction
506 of tomato lines to bacterial wilt evaluated at several locations in Southeast Asia. *Hortsc.*
507 1996;31:143-146. English.
508
- 509 47. Lopez MM, Biosca EG. Potato bacterial wilt management: new prospects for an old
510 problem. In: Allen C, Prior P, Hayward AC, editors. *Bacterial Wilt Disease and the R.*
511 *solanacearum* Species Complex. Saint Paul: APS Press; 2005. English.
512
- 513 48. Wang JF, Hanson P, Barnes JA. Worldwide evaluation of an international set of
514 resistance sources to bacterial wilt in tomato. In: Prior P, Allen C, Elphinstone J, editors.
515 *Bacterial Wilt Disease. Molecular and Ecological Aspects.* Berlin: Springer-Verlag; 1998.
516 English.
517
- 518 49. Prior P, Steva H, Cadet P. Aggressiveness of strains of *Pseudomonas solanacearum*
519 from the French West Indies (Martinique and Guadeloupe) on tomato. *Plant Dis.*
520 1990;74:962-965. English.
521
- 522 50. Camargo LEA. Genetic analysis of resistance and pathogenicity. In: Bergamin Filho A,
523 Kimati H, Amorim L, editors. *Manual of phytopathology: Principles and concepts.* São Paulo:
524 *Agronômica Ceres;* 1995. English.
525
- 526 51. Borém A, Miranda GV. *Plant breeding.* 6th ed. Viçosa: UFV; 2013. English.
527
- 528 52. Ramalho APR, Abreu AFB, Santos JB, Nunes JAR. Applications of quantitative genetics
529 in the improvement of autogamous plants. Lavras: UFLA; 2012. English.
530
- 531 53. Lima Neto AFL, Silveira MA, Souza RM, Nogueira SR, André CMG. Inheritance of
532 bacterial wilt resistance in tomato plants cropped in naturally infested soils of the state of
533 Tocantins. *Crop Breed. and Appl. Biot.* 2002;2(1): 2002. English.
534
- 535 54. Menezes D. Genetic Analysis of a Diallelic Crossing in Tomatoes (*Lycopersicon*
536 *esculentum* Mill). Recife, Rural Federal University of Pernambuco; 1998. English.
537
- 538 55. Viana JMS, Cruz CD, Barros EG. *Genetics: Fundamentals.* Viçosa: UFV; 2012. English.
539

- 540 56. Siegel S, Castellan Júnior NJ. Nonparametric Statistics for Behavioral Sciences. São
541 Paulo: Artmed-Bookman; 2008. English.
- 542
- 543 57. Allard RW. Principles of plant breeding. 2th ed. New York: John Willey e Sons; 1999.
544 English.
- 545
- 546 58. Falconer DS. Introduction to quantitative genetics. Viçosa: UFV; 1987. English.
- 547
- 548 59. Mather K, Jinks JL. Biometrical genetics. 3th ed. Cambridge: University Press; 1982.
549 English.
- 550
- 551 60. Ferreira DF, Zambalde AL. Simplification of the analysis of some special techniques of
552 agricultural experimentation in Mapgen and related software. In: Congress of the Brazilian
553 society of informatics applied to agriculture and agroindustry. Belo Horizonte: Annals; 1997.
554 English.
- 555
- 556 61. Cruz CD. GENES - A software package for analysis in experimental statistics and
557 quantitative genetics. Acta Sci. 2013; 35(3): 271-276. English.
- 558
- 559 62. Persley GJ, Batugal P, Gaparin D, Vander PZ. Sumary odf discussion and
560 recommendations. Bacterial Wilt Disease in Asia and the South Pacifc. ACIAR. 1985;13:7-
561 13. English.
- 562
- 563 63. Grimault V, Prior P, Anais GA. A monogenic dominant resistance of tomato to bacterial
564 wilt in Hawaii 7998 is associated with plant colonization by *Pseudomonas solanacearum*.
565 Jour. of Phyt. 1995;143:349-352. English.
- 566
- 567 64. Ferrer ZA. The nature of resistance in a tomato tolerant to *Pseudomonas solanacearum*.
568 Phytopathology. 1984;74:1014. English.
- 569
- 570 65. Hayward AC. Biology and Epidemiology of Bacterial Wilt Caused by *Pseudomonas*
571 *solanacearum*. Ann. Rev. of Phyt. 1991;29:65-87. English.
- 572
- 573 66. Monma S, Sakata Y, Matsunaga H. Inheritance and selection efficiency of bacterial wilt
574 resistance in tomato. JARQ. 1997;31:195-204. English.
- 575
- 576 67. Acosta JC, Gilbert JC, Quinon VL. Heritability of bacterial wilt resistance in tomato. Proc.
577 of Amer. Soc. for Hort. Sc. 1964;84:455-462. English.
- 578
- 579 68. Digat B, Derieux MA. Study of the varietal resistance of tomato to bacterial wilt II. The
580 practical value of F1 hybrids ans their contribution to the genetic basis of resistance. In:
581 Proceedings of the annual meeting caribbean food crops society. Mayaguez: Augustine;
582 1968. English.
- 583
- 584 69. Graham KM, Yap TC. Studies on bacterial wilt. I. Inheritance of resistance to
585 *Pseudomonas solanacearum* in Tomato. Mal. Agr. Res. 1976;5:1-8. English.
- 586
- 587 70. Mew TW, Ho WC. Varietal resistance to bacterial wilt in tomato. Plant Dis. 1976;60:264-
588 268. English.
- 589
- 590 71. Tikoo SK, Anand N, Ramkrishna. Presence of two independet genetic systems for
591 resistance to bacterial wilt (*Pseudomonas solanacearum*) in tomato. Int. gen. cong.
592 1983;15:12-23. English.

- 593
594 72. Scott JW, Somodi GC, Jones JB. Bacterial spot resistance is not associated to bacterial
595 wilt resistance in tomato. Proc. of the Flor. St. Hort. Soc. 1988;101:390-392. English.
596
- 597 73. Somodi GC, Jones JB, Scoot JW. Comparison of inoculation techniques for screening
598 tomato genotypes for bacterial wilt resistance. Bacterial Wilt. ACIAR. 1992;45:120-123.
599 English.
600
- 601 74. Peter KV, Gopalakrishnam TR, Rajan S, Kumar PGS. Breeding for resistance to
602 bacterial wilt in tomato, eggplant and pepper. Bacterial Wilt. ACIAR. 1992;45:183-190.
603 English.
604
- 605 75. Scott JW, Somodi GC, Jones JB. Testing tomato genotypes and breeding for resistance
606 to bacterial wilt in Florida. In: Hartman GL, Hayward AC, editors. Bacterial wilt. Canberra:
607 ACIAR; 1993. English.
608
- 609 76. Thakur AK, Kohli UK, Kumar M. Inheritance of resistance to bacterial wilt in tomato
610 (*Lycopersicon esculentum* Mill.). Ind. Jour. of Gen. and Plant Breed. 2004;64(1):79-80.
611 English.
612
- 613 77. Sharma KC, Sharma LK. Genetic studies of bacterial wilt resistance in tomato crosses
614 under mid-hill conditions of Himachal Pradesh. Jour. of Hil. Agr. 2015;6(1):136-137. English.
615
- 616 78. Danesh D, Aarons S, McGill GE, Young ND. Genetic dissection of oligogenic resistance
617 to bacterial wilt in tomato. Mol. Plant-Mic. Int. 1994;7:464-471. English.
618
- 619 79. Mangin B, Thoquet P, Olivier J, Grimsley NH. Temporal and multiple quantitative trait loci
620 analyses of resistance to bacterial wilt in tomato permit the resolution of linked loci.
621 Genetics. 1999;151:1165-1172. English.
622
- 623 80. Cruz CD. Principles of quantitative genetics. Viçosa: UFV; 2012. English.
624
- 625 81. Cruz CD, Carneiro PCS, Regazzi AJ. Biometric models applied to genetic breeding. 3th
626 ed. Viçosa: UFV; 2014. English.
627
- 628 82. Fiorini CVA, Gomes LAA, Libânio RA, Maluf WR, Campos VP, Licursi V, et al.
629 Identification of progenies F2:3 of homozygous lettuce resistant to gnats nematodes. Hort.
630 Bras. 2007;25:509-513. English.
631
- 632 83. Makishima N, Miranda JEC. Cultivation of Tomato (*Lycopersicon esculentum* Mill.).
633 Brasília: EMBRAPA Vegetable; 1992. English.
634
- 635 84. Monma S, Sakata Y. Inheritance of resistance to bacterial wilt in tomato. Bacterial Wilt.
636 ACIAR. 1992;45:149-153. English.