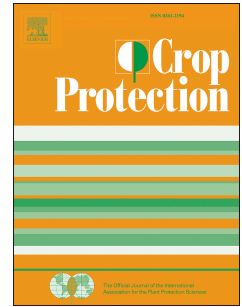


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Early detection of Ascochyta blight (*Ascochyta rabiei*) of chickpea by traditional PCR

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1 Early detection of *Ascochyta* blight (*Ascochyta rabiei*) of chickpea by traditional PCR

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13 **Keywords:** *Ascochyta rabiei*, molecular diagnostic, *Ascochyta blight*, chickpea

14

## 15 Abstract

16 *Ascochyta* blight is the major disease affecting chickpea (*Cicer arietinum*) around the

17 world. Since the first report of *Ascochyta rabiei*'s isolation in Argentina in 2012, the

18 pathogen has caused severe economic losses in crop production; so, the detection and

19 rapid identification of the pathogen in early stages is key for the management of the

20 disease. In this work, a traditional PCR procedure for detection of *A. rabiei* directly from

21 plant tissues has been described based on beta-tubulin gene. The TP-6/TP-9 specific

22 primers designed, amplified only a single PCR band of 770 bp from *A. rabiei*. The

23 specificity of the primers was checked using 12 isolates of *A. rabiei* and DNA from 10 other

24 different fungi including common pathogens of chickpea as *Alternaria alternata*, *Botrytis*

25 *cinerea*, *Sclerotinia sclerotiorum* and *Phoma medicaginis* that cause similar symptoms.

26 The detection sensitivity with primers was  $2 \times 10^4$  ng.µl<sup>-1</sup> genomic DNA. In inoculated plant

27 material, PCR amplification gave a band of the expected size and no amplification was  
28 observed when DNA was from healthy and uninoculated plants. The results suggested  
29 that the assay detected the pathogen more rapidly and accurately than standard isolation  
30 methods. The PCR-based method developed here can simplify both plant disease  
31 diagnosis, and pathogen monitoring in an early phase, as well as aid in effective  
32 management practices that avoid the disease advance and minimize losses.

33

## 34 **1. Introduction**

35 Chickpea (*Cicer arietinum* L.) is one of the most important food legumes around the world  
36 and is a prominent source of protein principally in central Asia and Africa (Gan et al., 2006;  
37 Harveson et al., 2011; Kanouni et al., 2011). Its cultivation area is currently approximately  
38 11.5 million ha, primarily in developing countries (Chen et al., 2016). Argentina leads  
39 South American chickpea production, being considered a leader in the international market  
40 of chickpea producers (Garzon, 2013; Calzada and Treboux, 2019). In Córdoba province,  
41 chickpea production contributes with more than 50 % for exports. The cultivated area and  
42 its production is constantly increasing with a production of 139000 tonnes in the 2016/17  
43 season (Carreras et al., 2016; BCC 2017).

44 One of the most devastating chickpea fungal diseases and economically important  
45 throughout the world is the *Ascochyta* blight (Nene, 1982; Nene et al., 1991; Shahid et al.,  
46 2008) caused by *Ascochyta rabiei* (Pass.) Labr. [teleomorph: *Didymella rabiei*  
47 (Kovacheski) von Arx (synonym: *Mycosphaerella rabiei* Kovacheski)], class  
48 Dothideomycetes, order Pleosporales, family Didymellaceae (Akamatsuet al., 2012).  
49 *Ascochyta* blight affects the leaves, stems and pods of the plants producing lesions, and  
50 shoot breakage (Pande *et al.*, 2005). In wet and cool weather conditions, blight disease  
51 can develop rapidly, with the initial spore germination occurring in single leaves of the  
52 chickpea plant and quickly spreads across all chickpea plants and even to the whole crop

53 (Chen et al., 2016; Manjunatha et al., 2018). Once infection has been established within  
54 the field, asexual spores cause secondary spread of the disease (Wiese et al., 1995).  
55 Dissemination and development of Ascochyta blight disease can occur through splash and  
56 airborne conidia and/or ascospores as well as by commercial distribution of plant material  
57 or seeds (Tivoli et al., 2006). The disease significantly reduces chickpea seed yield and  
58 quality. The yield losses for susceptible cultivars can reach 100 % when environmental  
59 conditions favor the pathogen (Shahid et al., 2008). In Argentina, the first report of  
60 *Ascochyta rabiei* causing Ascochyta blight in chickpea was in 2011. This phenomenon  
61 caused losses that reached 100 % in some lots (Viotti et al., 2012). The symptoms are  
62 easily detectable in an advanced stage of the disease, however, in the initial phase of  
63 infection, they may be taken for other pathogens (*Alternaria alternata.*, *Phoma*  
64 *medicaginis*, *Botrytis cinerea*) and even masked as abiotic damage such as frost or  
65 phytotoxicity (Chen et al., 2011). Traditional methods of isolation and identification of *A.*  
66 *rabiei* are time-consuming, consequently limits management options. Therefore,  
67 development of effective management practices depends on the rapid detection and  
68 precise identification of the pathogen in early stages (Taylor et al., 2007). Polymerase  
69 chain reaction (PCR) techniques offer advantages over traditional plant disease diagnosis  
70 because organisms do not need to be cultured prior detection by PCR. This technique,  
71 apart from being sensitive and fast, provides a powerful tool for disease management.  
72 (White et al., 1990; Atkins and Clark 2004; Taylor et al., 2007). The aim of this research  
73 was to develop an early diagnostic method by traditional PCR with specific primers for  
74 amplification of *A. rabiei* DNA in infected chickpea tissues in order to detect Ascochyta  
75 blight in early stages, and be able to take management decisions so as to prevent the  
76 spread of the disease.

77

## 78 **2. Materials and Methods**

## 79 2.1. Plant and Fungal Material

80 Isolates of *Ascochyta rabiei* used in this study were obtained from harvested seed and  
81 naturally infected chickpea plants (cv. Kiara) from Córdoba province in 2017 season. The  
82 seeds were washed under tap water, and incubated on agar plate supplemented with 0.15  
83 g L<sup>-1</sup> of streptomycin sulphate at 21 °C under 12 h alternation of white/black (UV-400 nm)  
84 light (Navarro Martinez, 1992; Khan et al 1999). Developed pycnidia on seed tegument  
85 were transferred to plates contained chickpea seed meal agar (CSMDA) (chickpea meal 40  
86 g, dextrose 20 g, agar 20 g, distilled water 1L) supplemented with 0.15 g L<sup>-1</sup> of  
87 streptomycin sulphate and incubated at 21 °C with a 12/12 h fluorescent light/dark cycle.  
88 Leaves and stems that showed *Ascochyta* blight symptoms were surface sterilized with 70  
89 % ethanol 1 min, 0.5 % NaClO 1 min and washed three times with sterile water. Samples  
90 were cut aseptically in pieces of 5 mm and placed on Petri dishes CSMDA supplemented  
91 with 0.15 g L<sup>-1</sup> of streptomycin sulphate and incubated as described above (Azizpour and  
92 Rouhrazi, 2014). Isolates identified as *A. rabiei* by morphologic and microscopic  
93 characteristic (Basandrai et al., 2005) were subcultured in CSMDA and single-spored  
94 cultures were obtained and stored in glycerol 20 % at -20°C until used. For greenhouse  
95 trials, Facultad de Ciencias Agrarias (Universidad Nacional de Córdoba, Argentina)  
96 provided seeds of chickpea cv. Chañarito S-156, which has known susceptibility.

97

## 98 2.2. DNA extraction

99 Fungal DNA extractions were performed according to the manufacturer's protocol of Easy  
100 pure Genomic DNA kit (Transgene Biotech, Beijing, China). DNA of symptomatic leaves  
101 and stems of plants collected from fields and infected plants of greenhouse was extracted  
102 following the CTAB protocol with modifications (Doyle and Doyle 1990; Conforto et al.,

103 2013). Frozen plant tissues were crushed in liquid nitrogen, placed in sterile 1.5 ml  
104 microcentrifuge tubes and 500 µl 2 % CTAB supplemented with of 0.2 % of β–mercapto  
105 ethanol was added just before use. Tubes were vortexed and incubated at 65 °C for 20  
106 min. One volume of chloroform:isoamyl alcohol (24:1) was added to each tube, which were  
107 then centrifuged for 15 min at 13000 g at room temperature. The aqueous phase was  
108 transferred to a new tube and the chloroform extraction was repeated. Then 0.7 vol. of  
109 cold (-20°C) isopropanol was added and incubated at -20°C for 1 h. Tubes were  
110 centrifuged for 30 min at 13000 g at 4°C. DNA was precipitated by the addition of 500 µl  
111 70 % ethanol at room temperature. After centrifugation, the supernatant was discarded;  
112 the pellet was washed with 1 ml of 70 % ethanol, and dried at room temperature. DNA was  
113 resuspended in 50 µl of distilled water. DNA quality was assessed with electrophoresis in 1  
114 % agarose gel, stained with GelRed™ (Biotium, CA, USA), quantified  
115 spectrophotometrically (NanoDrop ND-1000 V3.5; NanoDrop Technologies, USA) and  
116 stored at -20 °C.

117

### 118 2.3. PCR amplification and primers design

119 Isolates of *A. rabiei* were identified by using the universal primers ITS1 (5'-  
120 TCCGTAGGTGAACCTGCGG-3') (Gardes and Bruns 1993) – ITS4 (5'-  
121 TCCTCCGCTTATTGATATGC-3') (White et al., 1990). PCR reaction mixture contained 0.5  
122 U GoTaq® DNA polymerase and 5x buffer (Promega, USA), 0.25 µM of each primer, 0.25  
123 µM dNTP, and 2 µl DNA (300 pg) in a final volume of 25 µl. PCR conditions were as  
124 follow: initial denaturation at 94 °C for 5 m, followed by 32 cycles at 94 °C for 45 s, 58 °C  
125 for 45 s and 72 °C for 45 s, with a final extension at 72 °C for 10 min. PCR products were  
126 separated by 1.5 % agarose gel electrophoresis and stained with GelRed™ (Biotium, CA,  
127 USA). The PCR product obtained was purified via Wizard® columns (Promega, USA) and  
128 sent to SICVyA (Unidad Genómica, Instituto de Biotecnología-INTA, Argentina) for

129 sequencing. Analysis of the obtained sequences were performed by using Pregap4 and  
130 Mega6 software and compared with the GenBank database using the BLASTN algorithm  
131 (Altschul et al., 1990) in BLAST search program (<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/BLAST>).  
132 Sequences of *Ascochyta rabiei* specific primers were designed, based on the existing  
133 sequences in GenBank for *Didymella rabiei* isolate AR628 beta-tubulin (KM244529.1) and  
134 *Didymella rabiei* strain ATCC 76502 MAT1-1-1 (MAT1-1-1) (DQ341313.1) using Primer 3  
135 software (Untergasser et al., 2012; <http://primer3.ut.ee/>). The primers sequences were  
136 checked by BLAST analysis and PCR amplification for their specificity.

137

#### 138 2.4. Primer specificity and sensitivity test

139 A first screening of specificity was determined via PCR using the DNA extracted from  
140 *Phoma medicaginis*. The primers that did not amplify *P. medicaginis* DNA, were selected  
141 and evaluated with DNA of 10 other different fungi including common pathogens of  
142 chickpea (*Fusarium oxysporum*., *Colletotrichum acutatum*., *Phytophthora megasperma*,  
143 *Phoma medicaginis*., *Botrytis cinerea*, *Thecaphora frezii*, *Alternaria alternata*., *Phomopsis*  
144 *longicolla*, *Macrophomina phaseolina* and *Valsa ceratosperma*) available in our laboratory.  
145 The experiment was carried out twice.

146 Sensitivity of the primers selected was determined using a dilution series of DNA (2 to 2e-  
147 8 ng.µl<sup>-1</sup>) of *A. rabiei* as DNA templates for PCR amplification. PCR reaction mixture  
148 contained 0.5 U GoTaq® DNA polymerase and 5x buffer (Promega, USA), 0.25 µM of  
149 each primer, 0.25 µM dNTP, and 2 µl DNA (300 pg) in a final volume of 25 µl. PCR  
150 conditions were as follows: initial denaturation at 95 °C for 5 min, followed by 37 cycles at  
151 95 °C for 1 min, 55 °C for 1 min and 72 °C for 1 min, with a final extension at 72 °C for 5  
152 min. PCR products were separated by 1.5 % agarose gel electrophoresis and stained with  
153 GelRed™ (Biotium, CA, USA).

154

155 *2.5. PCR amplification from diseased plant tissue in greenhouse assay and field*

156 To determine if the designed primers were able to detect *A. rabiei* in infected plants, total  
157 DNA extraction was carried out from chickpea plants artificially infected in the greenhouse  
158 and from plants with symptoms collected from the field. For the artificial infection, two-  
159 week-old plants of susceptible chickpea cultivar (cv Chañarito) were inoculated with *A.*  
160 *rabiei* OS-8 using a hand atomizer according to Pande et al., (2011). The fungal culture  
161 grown on CSMDA medium incubated for 7 days at 20±1°C with a 12-h photoperiod was  
162 flooded with sterile distilled water (SDW) and spores were scraped with a sterile Drigalsky  
163 spatula. Then the spores were filtered through sterile gauze to remove mycelial fragments  
164 and the concentration of the spore suspension was adjusted to 1 x 10<sup>5</sup> spore mL<sup>-1</sup> with  
165 water. The inoculated plants were covered with transparent polythene sheet and high  
166 relative humidity was maintained up to 100 % by humidifiers for 48 hs after inoculation.  
167 After 14 days of incubation, the symptomatic plants were harvested and stored to -20 °C  
168 for the detection of the pathogen. DNA was extracted from: 1) symptomatic leaves mixed  
169 with healthy plant material; 2) necrotic diseased tissue (stem and leaves); 3) a single leaf  
170 with a single symptomatic spot; 4) a healthy leaf of a diseased plant and as a negative  
171 control, (NC) plant tissue from uninoculated plants.

172 Plants naturally infested with suspicious early symptoms were collected during 2017 and  
173 2018 seasons from commercial lots of 14 different locations of the producing area of  
174 Córdoba province. Fields were monitored every 15 days throughout the crop cycle to  
175 confirm if the disease was present. DNA extraction and PCR were performed as described  
176 above using the *A. rabiei* specific primers chosen for detecting *A. rabiei* in vegetal tissue.  
177 Asymptomatic plants were used as negative control.

178

179 *2.6. Sequence data analysis*



180 The obtained fragments with TP6-F/TP9-R specific primers of *A. rabiei* OS-8 colony, a  
181 symptomatic plant artificially infected of greenhouse assay and another of field randomly  
182 chosen, were purified via Wizard® columns (Promega, USA) and were sent to SICVyA  
183 (Unidad Genómica, Instituto de Biotecnología-INTA, Argentina) for sequencing using TP6-  
184 F/TP9-R primers. Analysis of the sequences obtained were performed using the BLASTN  
185 algorithm (Altschul et al., 1990) and compared with the GenBank database using the  
186 BLAST search program (<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/BLAST>). The consensus sequences  
187 were assembled using the Staden program package (Staden et al., 2000), and deposited  
188 in the GenBank (NCBI/EMBL) database.

189

### 190 **3. Results**

#### 191 *3.1. Fungal isolation and primers design*

192 Twelve isolates of *A. rabiei* with different morphological characteristics obtained from  
193 different field sites were selected. The results of the sequence analysis of the ITS region  
194 are shown in Table 1.

195 A total of seven potential *A. rabiei* specific primers were designed from beta-tubulin gene  
196 and five from MAT1-1-1 gene of *Didymella rabiei* and synthesized (Table 2).

197

#### 198 *3.2. Specificity*

199 Sixteen primer combinations were tested in a first screening for specificity with DNA of *A.*  
200 *rabiei* and *P. medicaginis* because both are closely related (Chen et al., 2015). The results  
201 of this specificity test are summarized in Table 3. Healthy and uninoculated plant tissue  
202 DNA was used as a negative control, showing that except for TP7-F/TP9-R and MT2-  
203 F/MT6-R, the tested primers did not amplify plant tissue. All tested primers amplified *A.*  
204 *rabiei* except for TP1-F/TP4-R which did not show an amplification product. Four primer  
205 combinations showed no amplification with either *Phoma* DNA or plant DNA. Two of them

206 corresponded to the beta-tubulin gene (TP6F/TP1R and TP6F/TP9R) and two to the  
207 mating type gene (MT2-F/MT4-R and MT8-F/MT6-R). These primers were tested with 10  
208 other different fungi. Universal primers ITS1 and ITS4 were used as amplification positive  
209 control (Table 4). DNA of all genera tested showed no amplification product with the primer  
210 combination TP6-F/TP9-R (Table 4); so, it was checked with the DNA of all isolates of *A.*  
211 *rabiei* obtained from field. The pairs of primers TP6-F/TP9-R was able to amplify a unique  
212 DNA fragment of approximately 770 bp (Fig. 1) from all *A. rabiei* isolates tested. DNA of  
213 *Phoma medicaginis* was used as negative control. All fungal DNA tested gave a positive  
214 PCR reaction using ITS universal primers ITS1 and ITS4 (Table 4, Fig 1).

215

### 216 3.3. Sensitivity

217 Sensitivity of the method was evaluated using DNA extracted from a pure culture of *A.*  
218 *rabiei* OS-8 using primers combination TP6-F/TP9-R. The results of this study revealed  
219 that TP6-F/TP9-R primers were able to detect  $2 \times 10^{-4}$  ng. $\mu\text{l}^{-1}$  of *A. rabiei* genomic DNA  
220 diluted in sterile water (Fig. 2).

221

### 222 3.4. PCR amplification from diseased plant tissue in greenhouse assay

223 Fourteen days after inoculation, all infected plants showed symptoms on leaf and stem.  
224 PCR amplification of DNA extracted from all the artificially infested plants gave an  
225 amplification band of the expected size using primers combination TP6-F/TP9-R. No  
226 amplification was observed when DNA of healthy and uninoculated plants was used as a  
227 template for the amplification (Fig. 3). The presence of *A. rabiei* in the diseased plants was  
228 confirmed by isolating the fungi from the tissue to a pure culture.

229

### 230 3.5. Detection of *A. rabiei* in symptomatic plants of field

231 Fifty sites, 40 in 2017 and 10 in 2018 season, were monitored. A total of 105 samples with  
232 suspicious symptoms of *A. rabiei* were analyzed by PCR using TP6-F/TP9-R primers. In  
233 the sites where the PCR analysis was positive, it was possible to confirm the presence of  
234 the disease from the appearance of the typical symptoms in the pods at the end of the  
235 crop cycle. In contrast, in the sites where *A. rabiei* was not detected, the presence of  
236 these symptoms was not observed. In the 2017 season, 70 % of the sites analyzed for the  
237 early detection of *A. rabiei* using the molecular method tested positive, while in 2018 it was  
238 detected in only 10 % of the lots (Fig. 4).

239

### 240 3.6. Sequence data analysis

241 The results of the sequence analysis from PCR product of *A. rabiei* OS-8 DNA, a  
242 greenhouse assay symptomatic plants and a randomly picked positive field sample,  
243 confirmed that the fragments obtained with TP6-F/TP9-R specific primers correspond to  
244 the beta-tubulin gene of *Dydimella rabiei* isolate AR628 (genbank accession: KM244529)  
245 (data not shown). Those sequences were deposited in genbank (NCBI) with accession  
246 number MN244700, MN244701 and MN244699 respectively.

247

## 248 4. Discussion

249 Ascochyta Blight of chickpea is one of the most important diseases of the crop principally  
250 in cold and wet regions. An effective disease management depends among others on the  
251 rapid detection and precise identification of the pathogen. Field diagnosis of the disease is  
252 currently based on symptoms such as leaf, stem or pod lesions with, or without, pycnidial  
253 formation (Reddy 1993; Manjunatha et al., 2018). However, these methods require a lot of  
254 time and have not always been adequate due to the superposition of morphological  
255 characters; and phenotypic variation, both among related species as well as under  
256 different environmental conditions (Taylor et al., 2007). For these reasons a fast detection

257 by molecular methods is necessary. This helps to quickly manage the disease before  
258 pathogen severe dispersal occurs. Phan et al., (2002) developed an efficient PCR–RFLP  
259 method for detecting *A. rabiei* infection in chickpea seed that could be used to assess  
260 samples of seed prior to distribution and planting. Bayraktar et al. (2016) described a real-  
261 time PCR procedure for the detection and quantification of *A. rabiei* directly from plant  
262 tissues based on genetic variability of EF gene. In addition, the assay was used to monitor  
263 the progression of pathogen infection in infected plant material for efficient selection of  
264 resistant breeding material in an early stage of infection as an alternative to the visual  
265 disease assessment. However, it is an expensive method to apply massively. Although  
266 there are works that describe molecular methods to detect *A. rabiei*, they do not focus on  
267 disease diagnosis in the field, with natural infection and in presence of fungi causing  
268 similar symptoms. In this work, we propose a simple method, since it needs a single  
269 reaction of traditional PCR, and no use of restriction enzymes nor in vitro fungus isolation.  
270 It is a quick and inexpensive diagnosis, suitable for field scouting of Ascochyta blight.

271 In fungal diagnosis based on molecular methods it is well described that ITS region is the  
272 main DNA target (Atkins and Clark 2004). Nevertheless, other genes are being more  
273 widely studied, in particular the beta-tubulin gene (Fraaije et al., 1999, Hirischet et al., 2000),  
274 and mating type genes (Dyer et al., 2001, Foster et al., 2002). In the literature there are  
275 several examples where they have developed specific primers based on these genes  
276 (McCartney et al., 2003). This work describes the development of a rapid, sensitive, and  
277 effective molecular method to detect *A. rabiei* of symptomatic plant tissues in early stages  
278 of the disease by traditional PCR based on the specific primers designed from the  
279 *Didymella rabiei* beta-tubulin and MAT1-1-1 gene.

280 A suitable diagnostic assay needs to be both sensitive and specific in order to avoid cross-  
281 reactions with other fungi (Atkins and Clark 2004). The present study demonstrates that  
282 primers designed of beta-tubulin gene TP6-F and TP9-R resulted in a product of

283 approximately 770 bp with all 12 isolates of *A. rabiei* and not amplify *P. medicaginis* which  
284 is the most similar specie, nor another 10 different fungi genera that may be present in the  
285 chickpea crop. The sensitivity of PCR assays is an important concern in the molecular  
286 detection of plant pathogens in field plants. The results demonstrated that the PCR assay  
287 could be used to detect the pathogen in plant tissue with a single symptomatic spot or at a  
288 level of  $2 \times 10^{-4}$  ng. $\mu\text{l}^{-1}$  of DNA. As regards field monitoring to detect *A. rabiei* in suspicious  
289 early symptoms, in the 2018 season less commercial fields than in the 2017 were  
290 evaluated. It was due to the fact that in the 2018 season, the environmental conditions  
291 were not favorable for the development of the disease, so that suspicious symptoms were  
292 observed only in a few sites. This was also reflected in a lower incidence of the disease in  
293 the samples analyzed (10 %) as regards the 2017 season (70 %) (Fig. 4). With the method  
294 developed in the present work, the pathogen can be detected in early symptoms (not  
295 typical symptoms). In that moment these could be taken by those caused by other  
296 pathogens present in our production area (Scandolo et al., 2018) or by abiotic stresses.  
297 Early symptoms are the most difficult to identify but are also the most important.  
298 Intervention with fungicides at the seedling stage is key to limit disease development for  
299 the entire season and early Ascochyta blight prevention and management (Doken-  
300 Bouchard et al., 2010). The detection of *A. rabiei* in the chickpea crop determines the  
301 management strategy. If *A. rabiei* is not present, foliar applications of fungicides are not  
302 carried out (Sillon and Viotti, 2014).

303 In summary, through this study a highly sensitive and specific PCR diagnostic assay was  
304 developed to detect *A. rabiei* in chickpea plants from field compared with the traditional  
305 culture isolation method and does not require complicated preparation of samples. A rapid  
306 detection of *A. rabiei*, plays an important role in epidemic tracking of Ascochyta blight,  
307 especially since it is a fast spreading disease. It could also be used to scout and prevent  
308 the development of this pathogen at early stages of disease. This is a critical phase to get

309 an effective integral management, keep plant diseases below economically damaging  
310 levels and reduce the important yield losses that it produces.

311

### 312 **Declaration of competing interest**

313 The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal  
314 relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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469

#### 470 **Figure legends**

471 **Figure 1:** Agarose gels with the PCR reaction products of different *A. rabiei* isolates and  
472 *Phoma medicaginis*. using specific primers designed for *A. rabiei* TP6-F/TP9-R (A);  
473 and universal primers ITS1/ITS4 as a positive control (B). 1) RCA; 2) RCB; 3)  
474 RCC,4) RCD; 5) ARK9; 6) TYCM1; 7) MRM1; 8) FCAM1; 9) OS-1;10) OS-8; 11)  
475 OS-15; 12) OS-16; 13) *Phoma medicaginis*.; NC) negative control; PC) positive  
476 control; M) molecular marker.

477

478 **Figure 2:** Sensitivity PCR test with specific primers TP6-F/TP9-R designed in this study  
479 using different concentrations of DNA. The purified DNA of *A. rabiei* OS-8 was  
480 used as a template. Lanes 2-10: DNA dilutions from 2 ng to  $2 \times 10^{-8}$  ng  
481 respectively. M: 100 bp DNA ladder

482

483 **Figure 3:** PCR amplification from artificially infected plants with *A. rabiei* OS-8 using  
484 specific primers TP6-F/TP9-R. Line 1: DNA extracted from symptomatic leaves  
485 mixed with healthy plant material; Line 2: necrotic diseased tissue (stem and  
486 leaves); Line 3: a single leaf with a single symptomatic spot; Line 4: a healthy leaf  
487 of a diseased plant; NC: plant tissue from uninoculated plants as negative control;  
488 M: 100 bp DNA ladder.

489  
490 **Figure 4:** Detection of *A. rabiei* by molecular diagnostic method in field plants with  
491 suspicious symptoms in 2017 and 2018 seasons.

**Table 1:** *A. rabiei* isolates identification by ITS rDNA region analysis

<b>Isolate</b>	<b>Location</b>	<b>GenBank number</b>
RCA	Rayo Cortado	MT835113
RCB	Rayo Cortado	MT835114
RCC	Rayo Cortado	MT835115
RCD	Rayo Cortado	MT835116
ARK9	Jesus Maria	MT835119
TYCM1	Cañada de Luque	MT835117
MRM1	Jesus Maria	MT835108
FCAM1	Capilla de los Remedios	MT835107
OS1	Rio Cuarto	MT835109
OS8	Rio Cuarto	MT835110
OS15	Rio Cuarto	MT835111
OS16	Rio Cuarto	MT835112

**Table 2.** List of specific primers design to *A. rabiei*

<b><i>Didymella rabiei</i> isolate AR628 beta-tubulin gene (KM244529.1)</b>						
<b>Forward primer</b>	<b>Sequence (5'–3')</b>	<b>Length</b>	<b>Start</b>	<b>Stop</b>	<b>Tm</b>	<b>GC%</b>
TP1-F	GCCTTACAACGCCACTCTCT	20	384	403	60.04	55.00
TP3-F	TGCCGTCCTCGTCGATTTAG	20	27	46	59.90	55.00
TP6-F	GTGCCGTCCTCGTCGATTTA	20	26	45	60.18	55.00
TP7-F	GAGTTCCTGACCGCATGAT	20	313	332	59.82	55.00
<b>Reverse primer</b>						
TP1-R	GGTCAGAGGAGCGAAACCAA	20	663	644	59.97	55.00
TP2-R	CAAGTGAGGTAGCGACCGTT	20	779	760	60.04	55.00
TP4-R	CTGGTCACCGATACGCTTGA	20	993	974	59.83	55.00
TP9-R	ACGGAAGTAGGCAGAGCAAG	20	795	776	59.75	55.00
<b><i>Didymella rabiei</i> strain ATCC 76502 MAT1-1-1 (MAT1-1-1) gene (DQ341313.1)</b>						
<b>Forward primer</b>	<b>Sequence (5'–3')</b>	<b>Length</b>	<b>Start</b>	<b>Stop</b>	<b>Tm</b>	<b>GC%</b>
MT2-F	CATCCGCGATCAGATAGGCA	20	147	166	59.76	55.00
MT3-F	CCTTGAGCGTTACGGATGGA	20	240	259	59.83	55.00
MT8-F	CCGTCATCCGCGATCAGATA	20	143	162	59.48	55.00
<b>Reverse primer</b>						
MT4-R	AAGGCGGCCATTGTGAGTAG	20	528	509	60.39	55.00
MT6-R	AGAGCTTGCGAGTGGAGTTT	20	510	491	59.61	50.00

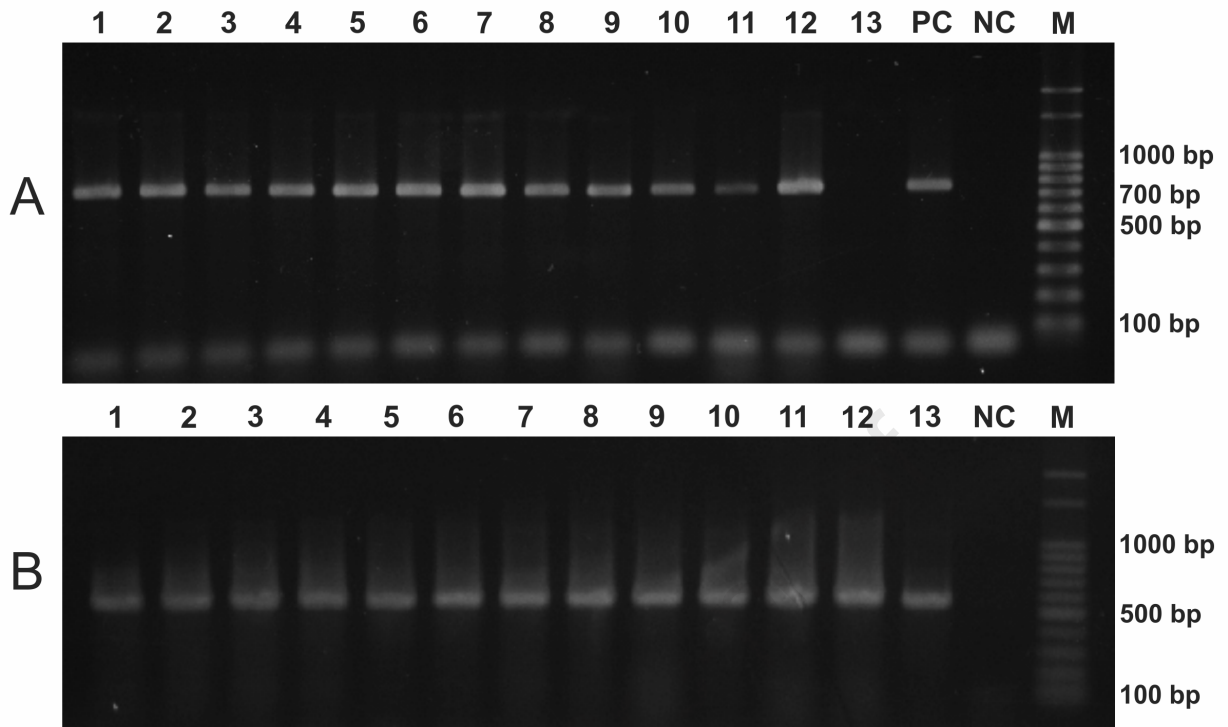
**Table 3.** Result of PCR amplification with different primers design for *Ascochyta rabiei* with DNA of *A. rabiei*, *Phoma* sp. and plant tissue.

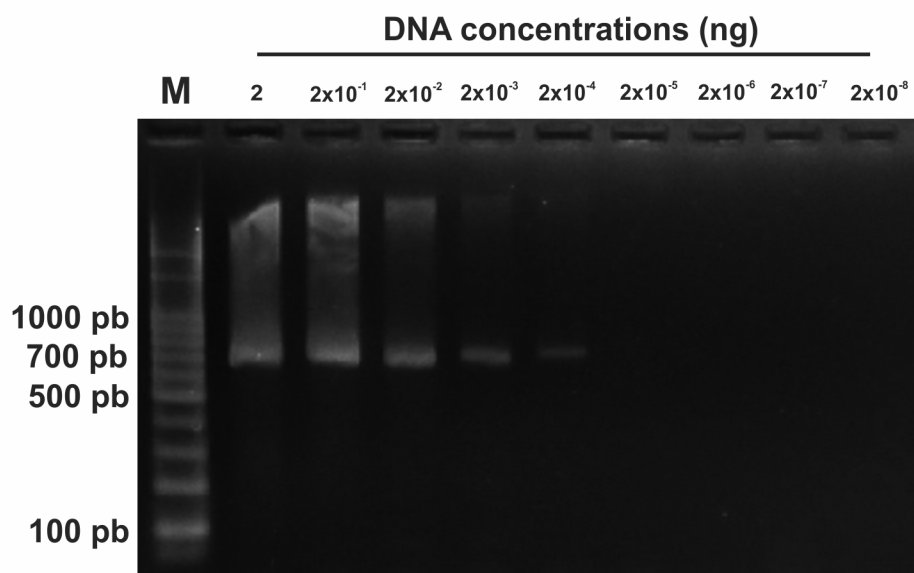
Primers Combination	Amplicon (pb)	PCR amplification		
		<i>A. rabiei</i> OS-8	<i>Phoma</i> sp.	Plant tissue
TP1-F/TP4-R	613	-	-	-
TP3-F/TP1-R	636	+	+	-
TP6-F/TP1-R	637	+	-	-
TP7-F/TP1-R	350	+	+	-
TP3-F/TP2-R	752	+	+	-
TP3-F/TP9-R	768	+	+	-
TP6-F/TP2-R	753	+	+	-
TP6-F/TP9-R	769	+	-	-
TP7-F/TP9-R	482	+	+	+
TP7-F/TP2-R	466	+	+	-
MT2-F/MT4-R	381	+	-	-
MT2-F/MT6-R	363	+	-	+
MT3-F/MT4-R	288	+	+	-
MT3-F/MT6-R	270	+	+	-
MT8-F/MT4-R	306	+	+	-
MT8-F/MT6-R	367	+	-	-

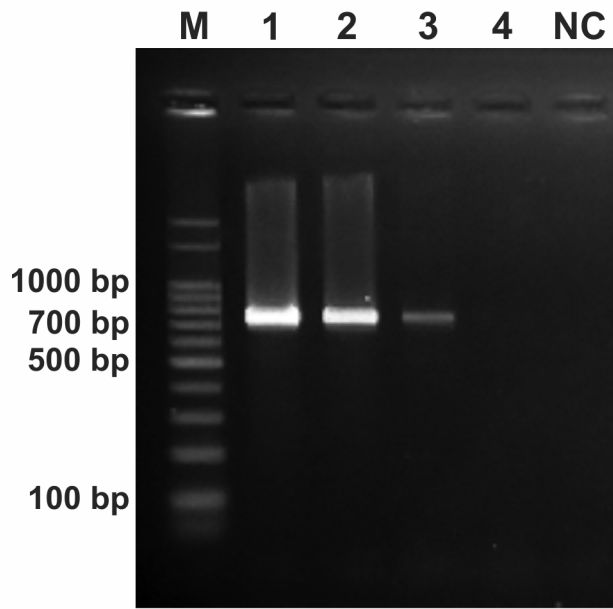


**Table 4.** Result of PCR amplification of specificity test with specific primers selected for *Ascochyta rabiei* using DNA of different pathogens as template.

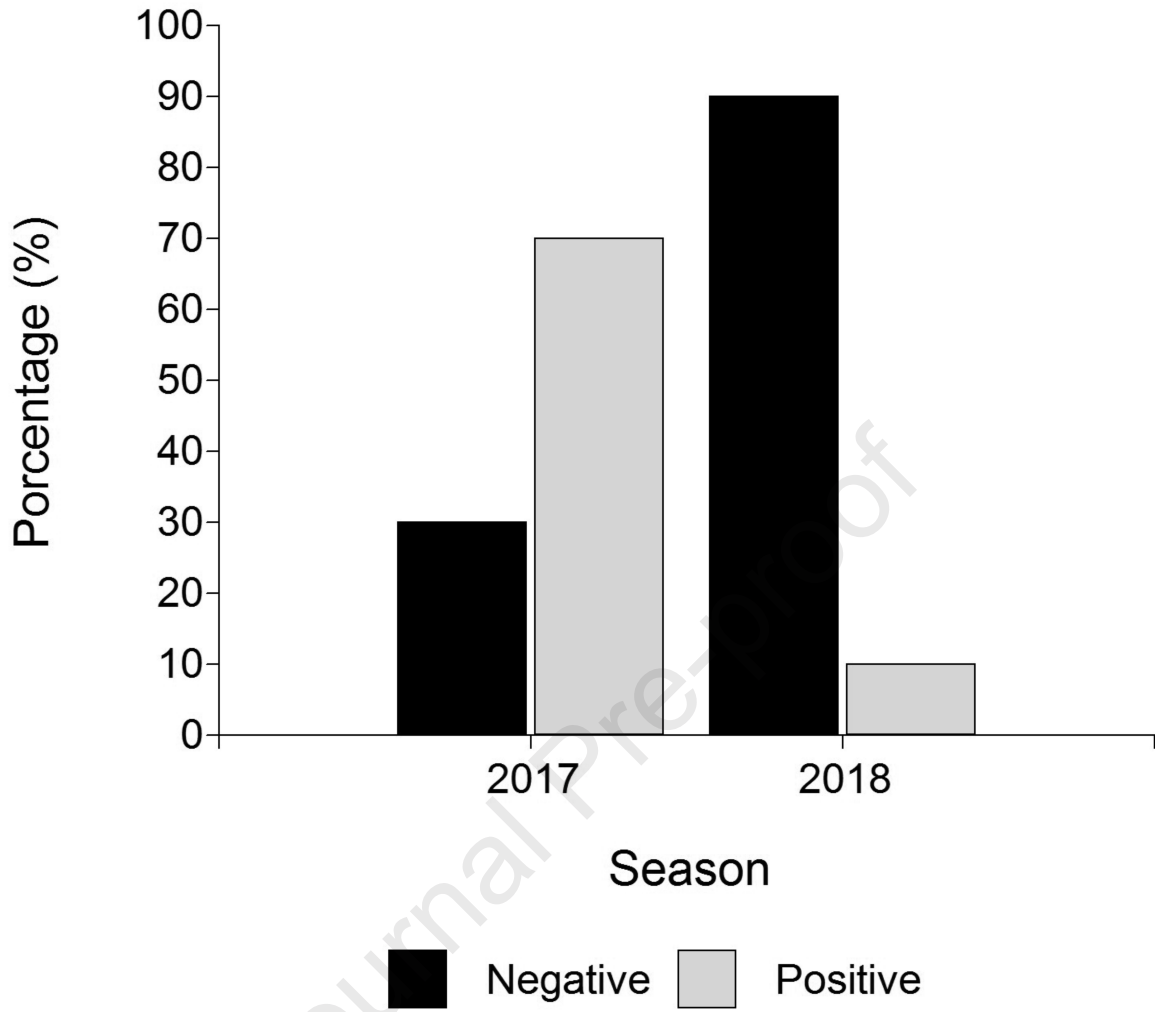
Tested fungal DNA	Primers Combination				
	ITS-1/ ITS4	TP6-F/ TP1-R	TP6-F/ TP9-R	MT2-F/ MT4-R	MT8-F/ MT6-R
<i>Ascochyta rabiei</i> OS-8	+	+	+	+	+
<i>Fusarium oxysporum</i>	+	-	-	-	+
<i>Colletotrichum acutatum</i>	+	-	-	+	+
<i>Phytophthora megasperma</i>	+	-	-	+	-
<i>Phoma medicagini</i>	+	-	-	-	-
<i>Botrytis cinerea</i>	+	-	-	-	+
<i>Techaphora frezii</i>	+	-	-	-	+
<i>Alternaria alternata</i>	+	-	-	-	-
<i>Phomopsis longicolla</i>	+	-	-	-	-
<i>Macrophomina phaseolina</i>	+	-	-	-	-
<i>Valsa ceratosperma</i>	+	+	-	-	-







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## Highlights

- A rapid, sensitive, and effective molecular method to detect *A. rabiei* of symptomatic plant tissues in early stages of the disease was developed.
- *A. rabiei* specific primers were designed from beta-tubulin gene.
- Field samples with incipient symptoms of Ascochyta blight of 50 sites were monitored and analyzed for the early detection of *A. rabiei* using the molecular method developed.

**Declaration of interests**

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

The authors declare the following financial interests/personal relationships which may be considered as potential competing interests:

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