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A qPCR-based method for the detection and quantification of the peach powdery mildew (*Podosphaera pannosa*) in epidemiological studies.

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1 ABSTRACT

2	A qPCR-based method was developed to detect and quantify Podosphaera pannosa, the main
3	causal agent of peach powdery mildew. A primer pair was designed to target part of the ITS
4	region of the fungal ribosomal DNA, which proved to be highly specific and sensitive. A
5	minimum of 2.81 pg μL^{-1} of <i>P. pannosa</i> DNA and 6 conidia mL ⁻¹ in artificially-prepared conidia
6	suspensions were found to be the limit of detection. Moreover, a quantification of conidia
7	placed on plastic tapes commonly used in volumetric air samplers was performed. Regression
8	equations on conidia quantification obtained either from aqueous conidia suspensions or
9	conidia placed on plastic tapes were similar. The protocol was further validated in field
10	conditions by estimating the number of <i>P. pannosa</i> conidia obtained with an air sampler, by
11	both microscopic and molecular quantification. Both techniques detected simultaneously the
12	peaks of conidia production during a 4-month sampling period, and a significant correlation (r
13	= 0.772) was observed between both quantification methods. Additionally, the molecular
14	method was applied to detect latent fungal inoculum in different plant parts of peach trees.
15	The pathogen was detected mainly on the bark of affected twigs, and to a lesser extent, in
16	foliar buds. The method developed here can be applied in the study of <i>P. pannosa</i>
17	epidemiology and can help in improving the management of this pathogen through its early
18	detection and quantification.
19	
20	KEYWORDS

21 aerobiology, epidemiology, molecular technique, powdery mildew, *Prunus persica*

22

23 INTRODUCTION

The ascomycete *Podosphaera pannosa* (Wallr.) de Bary is one of the causal agents of powdery mildew that occurs on the *Prunus* and *Rosa* genera of Rosaceae (Farr and Rossman 26 2019; Takamatsu et al. 2010). Other powdery mildew species are rarely found on peach, such

27 as P. clandestina, P. leucotricha, and P. tridactyla (Farr and Rossman 2019). However, P. 28 pannosa is widely recognized as the main causal agent of the peach powdery mildew (PPM). 29 Podosphaera species infect green parts of the tree, e.g. fruits, leaves, buds, and twigs (Grove 30 1995; Ogawa and English 1991), where a distinguishable white-greyish mycelium develops on 31 the surface of the affected part. Severe infections of P. pannosa on fruit make them 32 unacceptable to industry, thus causing significant economic losses. This species has been 33 reported from over 40 peach-growing countries in the world (Amano 1986; Farr and Rossman 34 2019). The fungus overwinters in peach as dormant mycelium in latent buds (Ogawa and 35 English 1991; Toma et al. 1998; Weinhold 1961; Yarwood 1957), and the ascocarps 36 (chasmothecia) are usually found in the mycelium infecting twigs and leaves (Butt 1978). 37 Primary PPM infections occur in spring, when primary inoculum is available under favourable 38 weather conditions. However, precise experimental data on the environmental conditions 39 needed for primary PPM infections are scarce (Toma et al. 1998; Weinhold 1961). Air-40 dispersed conidia released from primary-established colonies are responsible for secondary 41 infections that extend over the vegetative growing season of peach tree (Grove 1995; Jarvis et 42 al. 2002). In general, PPM spreads rapidly in seasons when a relatively cold and humid spring is 43 followed by a dry summer (Toma et al. 1998). Previous studies reported the optimal 44 temperature and relative humidity (RH) for pathogen development to be at approximately 45 21 °C and 70-95 % RH, respectively (Grove 1995; Toma et al. 1998). Regarding the infection of 46 P. pannosa on Rosa, Longrée (1939) described similar optimal conditions for infection (21 °C 47 and between 75-99 % RH). The control of PPM can be achieved efficiently through periodical 48 applications of foliar fungicides (Grove 1995; Hollomon and Wheeler 2002; Ogawa and English 49 1991), which usually starts at petals fall or the beginning of fruit set (Grove 1995; Reuveni 50 2001). These fungicide applications are done on a calendar basis (Ogawa and English 1991) 51 since epidemiological models on PPM infection risk are scarce. Recently, a decision support 52 system to initiate fungicide applications programs has been proposed (Marimon et al. 2020).

53	Rapid and reliable detection and quantification of <i>P. pannosa</i> in biological samples might
54	contribute to a better understanding of its life cycle and therefore to improve its management.
55	The detection of airborne inoculum of powdery mildews has been made traditionally through
56	air-sampling devices combined with microscopical observations (Cao et al. 2015; Grove 1991).
57	However, this method is time-consuming and non-specific for the identification and
58	quantification of airborne plant pathogens (Dung et al. 2018; Falacy et al. 2007). Otherwise,
59	coupling spore traps with DNA-based assays is faster, more specific and sensitive, and a
60	reliable alternative to the conventional detection of airborne plant pathogens through
61	microscopical observations (Kunjeti et al. 2016), including powdery mildews (Falacy et al. 2007;
62	Thiessen et al. 2016).
63	The main objective of the current study was to develop a real-time qPCR assay for
64	detection and quantification of <i>P. pannosa</i> in biological samples, including the design of a
65	species-specific primer pair. In addition, two further practical applications were conducted in
66	peach orchards to detect and quantify (i) the airborne inoculum of P. pannosa in spore traps,
67	and (ii) the primary inoculum of <i>P. pannosa</i> in host plant material. The protocol reported here
68	could be used in future applied studies, e.g. those including the need for a rapid and accurate
69	detection and quantification of <i>P. pannosa</i> .

71 MATERIALS AND METHODS

72 Experimental orchards

Three experimental peach and nectarine orchards owned by IRTA and located in Catalonia, Spain, were used in this study (Alcarràs, 41°36′33″N, 0°26′45″E; Cabrils, 41°31′7″N, 2°22′34″E; and Mollerussa, 41°37′8″N, 0°52′2″E). The orchard located in Alcarràs was an 'Autumn free' nectarine orchard, whereas orchards in Cabrils and Mollerussa were planted with 'Early Gold' peach and 'Texas' almond interspecific progenies that are known to be susceptible to PPM (Donoso et al. 2016). These orchards were managed using cultural practices, such as pruning, soil management and nutrient supply, according to the guidelines of
 Spanish Integrated Production Management practices (MAPA 2002). No fungicide treatments
 were applied during the experimental period (spring to summer) to allow natural infections of
 P. pannosa, which were known to occur in the orchards.

83 Plant material

84 Specificity and sensitivity tests. In order to obtain conidia suspensions of P. pannosa,

85 symptomatic peach fruits and leaves were collected in summer 2017 in the Mollerussa

86 orchard. Samples were stored in a portable cooler and taken to the laboratory for further

87 processing. All field samples were processed in the laboratory within 48 h after collection. For

the specificity experiment, fresh leaves of apple and plum trees infected with powdery mildew

89 (one sample each) were obtained and treated similarly as the peach samples to get conidia

90 suspensions. Additional herbarium material used in this experiment, consisting of six powdery

91 mildew species phylogenetically close to *P. pannosa* and occurring on various hosts, was kindly

92 provided by Dr Josep Girbal (Universitat Autònoma de Barcelona, Bellaterra, Spain) as follows:

93 three samples of Podosphaera aphanis, collected on Alchemilla alpina, Alchemilla vulgaris, and

94 Potentilla reptans, respectively; one sample of P. clandestina from Crataegus monogyna; one

95 sample of *P. fusca* from *Cucurbita pepo*, and two from *Cucumis sativus*; six samples of *P*.

96 leucotricha from Malus domestica; two samples of P. macularis from Humulus lupulus, and five

97 of *P. tridactyla* from *Prunus cerasifera*.

98 Latent mycelium detection. Five trees per each experimental orchard located in Alcarràs and 99 Mollerussa, and three trees from the orchard located in Cabrils were used. At the end of 100 summer 2016, eight sight-heighted branches (1.3 to 1.9 m above ground level) preferably 101 showing PPM symptoms were selected and marked in each tree. The apical part of each 102 branch (about 40 cm) was covered with a plastic mesh to retain leaves from falling, and the 103 mesh was tied to prevent its accidental opening. In February 2017, all selected branches were

104 collected and kept at 4 °C until further processing.

105 Fungal material

106 Powdery mildew conidia were collected from the symptomatic plant parts by repeatedly

107 washing away the plant infected surface with 1.5 mL of sterile 5% Chelex-100 (Bio-Rad,

- 108 Hercules, CA, USA) aqueous suspension. Each sample volume was collected separately in 1.9
- 109 mL Eppendorf tubes and conidia concentration was measured using a Neubauer
- 110 haemocytometer. Samples were stored at 4°C for DNA extraction.

111 DNA extraction

- 112 *Conidia suspensions*. DNA was extracted from conidia suspensions using the short protocol
- 113 from the E.Z.N.A. Plant DNA Kit (Omega Bio-tek, Norcross, GA, USA), with modifications
- described by Zúñiga et al. (2018) as follows: 0.15 g of 500-750 μm glass beads (Acros Organics,
- 115 Geel, Belgium) were added to 700 μ L of the extraction buffer in each sample, and the samples
- 116 were vortexed for 15 min at 50 Hz. DNA quality and concentration were checked and
- 117 measured with a Nanodrop 2000 spectrophotometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific). DNA samples
- 118 were stored at -20 °C until further use.
- 119 Spore trap samples. DNA was extracted from the air-exposed plastic tapes used in the spore-
- 120 trapping device (see below) by following the short protocol of the E.Z.N.A. Plant DNA Kit
- 121 (Omega Bio-tek). Extraction, and DNA quantity and quality checking were conducted as
- 122 described above and DNA was stored at -20 °C until further use.
- 123 Plant tissues. Before DNA extraction, all fresh peach samples (i.e. leaf and flower buds, leaves,
- 124 and bark from twigs) were oven-dried at 35 °C until constant weight. Herbarium samples were
- 125 processed for DNA extraction with no previous oven-drying. Fungal DNA was extracted from
- 126 those plant tissues using the E.Z.N.A. Plant DNA Kit (Omega Bio-tek), following the dried plant
- 127 samples protocol and the sample homogenization step with glass beads. DNA checking was
- also conducted as earlier described and DNA was stored at -20 °C until further use.
- 129 Primer design

130	Primers were designed to target the Internal Transcribed Spacer (ITS) in the ribosomal
131	DNA region. Two representative ITS sequences of <i>P. pannosa</i> samples, namely 'Ppan53' and
132	'Ppan92', were obtained in this study (Table 1). These sequences were selected from a
133	previous screening analysis involving 31 P. pannosa samples obtained from P. persica and Rosa
134	(Luque, unpublished). Sequences were included in a matrix together with 29 additional
135	sequences retrieved from GenBank (Table 1), as follows: 4 from <i>P. pannosa</i> ; 10 from
136	phylogenetically closer species such as P. aphanis (n = 3), P. clandestina (n = 4), and P. spiraeae
137	(n = 3); and 15 sequences from other <i>Podosphaera</i> species, namely <i>P. fusca</i> (n = 5), <i>P</i> .
138	<i>tridactyla</i> (n = 8) and <i>P. leucotricha</i> (n = 2). The identical sequences were grouped by
139	Sequencher software 5.0 (Gene Codes Corp., Ann Arbor, Michigan), using the Assemble
140	algorithm with the 100% Minimum Match parameter. Sequences were aligned using ClustalW
141	(Thompson et al., 1994) with default settings and posterior manual adjustments were made
142	when necessary. Regions with polymorphisms and suitable for specific primer design were
143	identified, and later analysed with the PrimerQuest tool (IDT, URL:
144	https://eu.idtdna.com/PrimerQuest/Home/Index) using the default parameters. The primer
145	pair PpanITS1-F/PpanITS1-R was obtained.
146	qPCR conditions
147	Optimal qPCR conditions were set up as follows: for a final volume of 20 μL each
148	reaction, products and concentrations were 10 μ L SYBR Premix Ex Taq [™] TliRNase H Plus
149	(Takara), 0.4 μL of each specific forward and reverse primers (at 10 μM), 5 μL of template DNA
150	and HPLC-grade deionized water to reach the final volume. qPCR was carried out on a Rotor-
151	Gene Q 5plex thermal cycler (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany) with the following temperature and

- timing profile: an initial denaturation at 95 °C for 30 s, followed by 40 cycles at 95 °C for 5 s
- and 60 °C for 30 s. After the final amplification cycle, the temperature was held at 72 °C for
- 154 90s. The melting curve analysis was performed raising the temperature from 72 °C to 95 °C,
- increasing 1 °C every 5 s with continuous measurement of fluorescence at 510 nm wavelength.

156 All reactions were run in triplicate and using genomic DNA extracted from *P. pannosa* conidia

157 suspensions as positive controls, and negative controls with no DNA template.

158 Analytical specificity and sensitivity tests

159 The primer pair specificity was checked in silico and in vitro. In silico, specificity for the 160 primer pair PpanITS1-F/PpanITS1-R was evaluated with the Primer-BLAST tool 161 (htpps://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/tools/primer-blast/). In vitro, specificity was tested by 162 analysing gPCR amplifications of 28 DNA samples obtained from six Podosphaera species other 163 than *P. pannosa* and occurring on several Rosaceae and non-Rosaceae species, which included 164 20 samples from the earlier described herbarium material, and fresh samples of P. leucotricha 165 (n = 5, from apple), and *P. tridactyla* (n = 3, from plum), both collected at IRTA Cabrils facilities. 166 Identity of the fungi that were different from P. pannosa was confirmed by sequencing their 167 rDNA ITS region using the forward primer ITS1F (Gardes and Bruns, 1993) and the reverse 168 primer ITS4 (White et al., 1990) using the methods described by Luque et al. (2005). All qPCR 169 reactions involved in the specificity test were carried out in triplicate and included negative 170 and positive (Ppan53) controls of *P. pannosa*.

171 The primer pair sensitivity was evaluated according to the protocols described by 172 Armbruster and Pry (2008). Two independent DNA samples (DNA 1 and DNA 2) and three 173 independent conidia suspensions (CS 1, CS 2 and CS 3) were prepared and used in the 174 experiments. The DNA samples were obtained from conidia suspensions and later serially-175 diluted, whereas the CS samples were serially-diluted before DNA extraction. In both cases, 176 DNA was extracted from the resulting conidia suspensions using the method described above. 177 The measured DNA concentrations for DNA 1 and DNA 2 samples were (mean ± std. error) 25.4 178 \pm 3.8 ng μ L⁻¹ and 33.9 \pm 4.6 ng DNA μ L⁻¹, respectively. Ten-fold dilutions series down to 10⁻⁵ 179 were prepared and subsequently used in the qPCR assays. For each CS sample, amounts of conidia were determined from four measurements with five pseudoreplicates using a 180 181 haemocytometer. Initial conidia concentrations for CS1 to CS3 samples were $5.87 \pm 0.212 \times 10^5$

182	conidia mL ⁻¹ , 3.13 \pm 0.136 \times 10 ⁵ conidia mL ⁻¹ , and 8.06 \pm 0.274 \times 10 ⁵ conidia mL ⁻¹ , respectively.
183	For each suspension, ten-fold dilution series down to 10 ⁻⁵ were prepared. The DNA from each
184	dilution point was extracted as described earlier. All DNA samples were amplified with the
185	primer pair designed in this study and using the qPCR conditions described above, and by
186	additionally including 0.4 μL of ROX Reference Dye in each reaction. All qPCR reactions were
187	performed using a StepOne™ Real-Time PCR System thermal cycler (Life Technologies,
188	Carlsbad, CA, USA). Three technical replicates were run for each biological sample, and three
189	replicates of deionized water template were included in each reaction plate as negative
190	controls. After each qPCR, a melting curve was performed to verify the targeted amplification
191	product. A homogeneous melting peak at 88°C indicated that the amplified targeted ITS1
192	region was specific for <i>P. pannosa</i> . For each DNA and CS samples, a standard curve was
193	calculated by plotting the quantification cycle values (C_q) against the logarithm of the DNA or
194	conidia concentration at each dilution point. The amplification efficiency (AE), intercept, slope,
195	and determination coefficient (r^2) were calculated for each standard curve obtained in this
196	study. Then, the limit of blank (LOB), limit of detection (LOD), and limit of quantification (LOQ)
197	were calculated according to the EP17 guideline of the Clinical and Laboratory Standards
198	institute (Armbruster and Pry 2008).
199	Validation of the specific qPCR primer pair PpanITS1-F/PpanITS1-R

200 *Case 1: Detection of* P. pannosa *airborne inoculum in spore traps*

Starting from a conidia suspension (CS 4) containing $7.47 \pm 0.45 \times 10^4$ conidia mL⁻¹, two independent 10-fold dilution series were prepared until 10^{-5} of the initial concentration, with three replicates per dilution. For the first dilution series, DNA for each dilution and replicates was extracted as described earlier. Regarding the second dilution series, 500 µL from each dilution and replicate was placed on a Melinex (TEKRA, New Berlin, WI, USA) polyester plastic strip (19 x 48 mm) previously treated with silicone solution (Lanzoni, Bologna, Italy) on one side. Plastic strips were dried overnight in a laminar airflow cabinet at room temperature.

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Finally, DNA was extracted and amplified according to the protocol described in this study.
Three technical replicates were run per sample. Standard curves for each of two replicates
were obtained and used in further quantification of *P. pannosa* conidia trapped on plastic
tapes.

212 In a subsequent experiment, daily airborne conidia of *P. pannosa* were tracked in the 213 peach orchard located in Mollerussa using a Hirst-type, 7-day recording volumetric spore 214 sampler VPPS 2000 (Lanzoni). The spore sampler was placed from 6 April to 10 July 2018 in the 215 vicinity of trees that had shown PPM infections in previous years. Sampler orifice was located 216 0.5 m above ground level and the volumetric ratio adjusted at 10 L air min⁻¹. Plastic tapes 217 treated with the silicon solution were replaced weekly and taken to the laboratory for 218 subsequent processing. Exposed tapes were cut into seven 48-mm pieces, each one 219 corresponding to 1-day period. Each daily fragment was further cut longitudinally into two 220 equal-sized segments: one half-part was used for microscopic observation whereas the other 221 half was used for the qPCR analysis. For microscopic observation, samples were processed as 222 proposed by the Spanish Aerobiological Network (REA) (Galán et al. 2007): each daily fragment 223 was stained with acid lactofuchsin and mounted on a glass slide. Microscope samples were 224 examined using a microscope (model Eclipse E400, Nikon Corporation, Toquio, Japan) at 250x 225 and only conidia that were morphologically compatible with *P. pannosa* were considered, i.e. 226 conidia containing fibrosin refractive bodies (Braun et al. 2002), and measuring 12-15 x 20-27 227 μ m (Horst and Cloyd 2007). Final number of conidia per day was estimated from the examined 228 surface (about 45% of the total strip surface) and expressed as conidia m⁻³. For qPCR 229 quantification, daily samples were cut into six equally-sized pieces and put into a 1.5 mL 230 Eppendorf tube. DNA was extracted and amplified according to the protocols described in this 231 study. Additionally, a positive control from CS 4 (dilution 10^{-2}) was included in the qPCR plate. 232 The quantification of conidia for each daily sample was calculated using the standard curve 233 obtained from the CS 4 suspension placed on a plastic tape. Samples matching at least one of

234 the following criteria were excluded from further conidia quantification: i) Only one technical 235 replicate with acceptable values of C_q ($C_q < 35$ cycles) and melting temperature ($T_m = 88$ °C), *ii*) 236 replicates with a mean T_m highly different from 88 °C, and *iii*) replicates with acceptable C_a and 237 T_m values but showing a standard deviation (SD) higher than 0.5 between technical replicates. 238 Cases i) and ii) resulted in a negative quantification (zero) whereas case iii) resulted in an 239 undetermined value (missing). Quantification of trapped conidia using qPCR was expressed in 240 conidia m⁻³ after proper conversion factors were applied on the values obtained from the 241 standard curve analysis. Conversion factors considered were: i) the volumetric ratio of sampler 242 (10 L air min⁻¹), *ii*) the final volume of DNA extracted from daily samples (100 μ L), and *iii*) the 243 equation of the standard curve obtained from the CS 4 conidial suspension placed on a plastic 244 tape.

245 *Case 2: Detection of the primary inoculum of* P. pannosa *in host plant material*

246 Three biological replicates of different peach plant parts (leaves, leaf buds, floral buds 247 and twig barks) were detached from each collected branch. Samples were carefully examined 248 using a stereomicroscope (10×) to detect symptoms and signs compatible with P. pannosa 249 infections. When those compatible structures were detected, an optical microscope was used 250 to ascertain the presence of mycelium and chasmothecia, and a sample (about 12 mg) was 251 taken for DNA extraction and further qPCR amplification. Sample weights according to sample 252 origins were as follows: 11.97 ± 0.19 mg for leaves, 12.07 ± 0.23 mg for foliar buds, $12.43 \pm$ 253 0.22 mg for floral buds, and 11.52 ± 0.16 mg for twig barks. Samples were separately put into 254 1.5 mL Eppendorf tubes and DNA extraction and qPCR quantification were done according to 255 the methods described in this study. Three technical replicates per biological sample were run 256 and two types of negative controls were used: DNA from in vitro, no symptomatic P. persica 257 leaves and deionized water template. The quantification of DNA for each sample was 258 calculated using the DNA 1 solution.

259 Statistical analyses

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260 Output data corresponding to the fitted qPCR standard curves equations, including 261 intercept, slope, r^2 and AE, were obtained from the software of the thermal cyclers used in this 262 study. Further statistical analyses were performed using the stats package included in R (R 263 Core Team 2019). The analysis of covariance was used to compare the regression equation 264 slopes of the standard curves when appropriate. Lineal modelling including correlation and 265 regression analyses was used to study the relationship between the amounts of trapped 266 conidia in aerobiological samples estimated through either the microscopical or qPCR 267 approaches. Statistical significance in all analyses was declared at α < 0.05. Values of mean ± 268 standard error of the mean are reported when appropriate.

- 269
- 270 **RESULTS**

271 Primer design

272 The design of *P. pannosa* specific primers was performed through the alignment of the

273 ITS region of 31 unique sequences of powdery mildew fungi (Table 1). Several nucleotide

274 polymorphisms were detected among species at two polymorphic regions that allowed the

275 design of forward and reverse primers at those sites. The forward and reverse primers were

276 named PpanITS1-F and PpanITS1-R, respectively, and amplified a region of 155 bp at the ITS 1

277 region. The amplified product showed a melting temperature at 88 °C. Sequences for the

278 PpanITS1-F and PpanITS1-R primers were 5'-CCACCCGTGTGAACTGAATT-3' and 5'-

279 CCGTTGTTGAAAGTTTTACTTATTAAGTT-3', respectively.

280 Specificity and sensitivity of the primer pair PpanITS1-F/PpanITS1-R

281 Specificity tests were performed using the primer pair PpanITS1-F/PpanITS1-R for the

amplification of several *Podosphaera* species. Only DNA from a known *P. pannosa* positive

283 control (Ppan53) were amplified with the specific primers, showing a single peak around 88°C

in the melting curve analysis. No amplification was observed for other non-*P. pannosa*

285 samples.

286	P. pannosa was detected and quantified in two independent DNA samples (DNA 1 and
287	DNA 2) obtained from <i>P. pannosa</i> conidia. A clear linear relationship was obtained between
288	the $C_{\rm q}$ values and the logarithm of DNA concentrations (Fig. 1a). Parameters for the standard
289	curves for DNA 1 and DNA 2 are described in Table 2. Both equations (Fig. 1a) had significant
290	slopes ($P < 0.001$) of similar gradient ($P = 0.56$). Three independent conidia suspensions were
291	also quantified using qPCR (Fig. 1b). The standard regression curve parameters for conidia
292	suspensions CS 1, CS 2 and CS 3 are described in Table 2. Slopes for the equations of the three
293	conidia suspensions did not show significant differences among them ($P = 0.72$). After these
294	experiments, an arbitrary LOD was established at 2.81 \pm 0.49 pg DNA $\mu L^{\text{-1}}$ and 6 \pm 2 conidia mL^{}
295	¹ . Estimated LOB values, as described by Armbruster and Pry (2008), are not reported for all
296	the above qPCR assays since they were lower than LOD values in all cases. Mean C_{q}
297	corresponding to LOB was established at 35 cycles for all the reactions performed in this study.
298	Validation of the specific primer pair PpanITS1-F/PpanITS1-R
299	Case 1: Detection of P. pannosa airborne inoculum in spore traps
300	Ten-fold dilution series from suspension CS 4, with and without placing on spore-
301	trapping tapes, were successfully detected until 10 ⁻³ dilution. The standard regression curve
302	parameters for both types of samples are described in Table 2. Slopes for both standard curves
303	did not show significant differences ($P = 0.29$) (Fig. 1c). Regarding the detection of P . pannosa
304	in periodical air samplings, 12 daily samples were discarded (10 samples with technical
305	replicates showing SD > 0.5, and two samples with lesser than two acceptable technical
306	replicate each), and 32 daily samples were negative, from a total of N = 96. The fungus was
307	successfully detected and quantified from April to July 2018 (Fig. 2). Propagules of <i>P. pannosa</i>
308	were firstly detected at the beginning of the third sampling week, corresponding to mid-April.
309	Thereafter, abundance of airborne conidia was fluctuating throughout the season, with
310	spontaneous peaks, and achieved the seasonal maximum (14.5 conidia m ⁻³ from microscope
311	observations and 21.0 conidia m ⁻³ from qPCR analysis) by mid-July. Both estimation methods,

312 either by microscope observation or qPCR analyses, followed a similar time pattern in conidia 313 detection (Fig. 2). Furthermore, a linear regression equation (P < 0.001, $r^2 = 0.5957$) was 314 adjusted between the microscopic and qPCR variables (Fig. 3), with the following parameters: y 315 = 0.766 + 0.508x, where y = conidia quantified through microscopical observation, and x = 316 conidia quantified through qPCR. From the regression equation, lower levels of conidia were 317 observed (about 50 %) through microscope as compared to qPCR quantification. 318 Case 2: Detection of the primary inoculum of P. pannosa in host plant material 319 Detection and quantification tests done with samples of leaves, twigs, and foliar and 320 floral buds were performed using the detection threshold C_{α} LOD = 30.79, as determined in the 321 analytical sensitivity test. Trees in orchards located in Alcarràs and Cabrils did not show any 322 visual symptom of PPM infection in 2017. Furthermore, none of samples collected in those 323 orchards showed positive qPCR detections of *P. pannosa* (data not shown). Regarding the 324 samples collected in Mollerussa, the pathogen was not detected from dried leaf and floral bud 325 tissues (Table 3). In contrast, leaf buds showed to be infected with the pathogen on average in 326 42.5 % cases (range: 25 to 75 %), although this finding could not be confirmed through visual 327 examination as no distinguishable fungal structures could be detected under the 328 stereomicroscope. Mean DNA concentration of PPM in sampled leaf bud tissues ranged from 0.02 to 3.90 ng g⁻¹ dried tissue. All twig samples from the orchard located in Mollerussa 329 330 showed clear PPM symptoms. Examined samples showed one to seven visible lesions with 331 symptoms, 0.6 to 216 mm in length, and with the presence of chasmothecia in 60% of samples 332 (84 out of 140 total examined lesions). Mean DNA concentration of PPM in sampled twig tissues ranged from 37.74 to 96.27 ng g⁻¹ dried tissue, about 50 times greater than in foliar bud 333 334 tissues.

335

336 DISCUSSION

337 A gPCR-based protocol was developed for the specific detection and quantification of P. 338 pannosa in biological samples. A specific primer pair, named PpanITS1-F/PpanITS1-R, was 339 designed and successfully validated using both artificially-prepared (e.g. conidia suspensions) 340 and environmental samples (e.g. spore-trapping tapes from a volumetric air sampler, and 341 different plant tissues). To the best of our knowledge, this is the first time that a molecular 342 qPCR-based tool for the detection and quantification of *P. pannosa* was developed. The primer 343 pair targeting the ITS region designed in this study proved to be highly specific, as indicated by 344 the positive detection of *P. pannosa* DNA and the negative amplification of DNA from other 345 Podosphaera species, either from Rosaceae hosts (P. aphanis, P. clandestina, P. leucotricha, 346 and P. tridactyla) or non-Rosaceae hosts (P. fusca, and P. macularis). The ITS region has been 347 shown to be appropriate for studying genetic variation at species level in powdery mildew 348 fungi belonging to the genus *Podosphaera* (Ito and Takamatsu 2010). Thus, few nucleotide 349 differences in the ITS sequences could be associated with Prunus specialization within the 350 Podosphaera tridactyla complex (Cunnington et al. 2005). Moreover, Leus et al. (2006) showed 351 that one single nucleotide difference in the ITS sequences of *P. pannosa* isolates distinguished 352 different host-specific groups on Rosa and Prunus species. 353 Regarding the detection thresholds obtained in this study, they were set at 2.81 ± 0.49 354 pg DNA μ L⁻¹and 6 ± 2 conidia mL⁻¹. Previous studies on the detection threshold for other

powdery mildew species have been reported elsewhere. Falacy et al. (2007) reported 10

356 conidia as the detection threshold for the grapevine powdery mildew, *Erysiphe necator*, in a

357 single PCR reaction mixture. Sholberg et al. (2005) reported that 20 to 30 conidia of *P*.

358 *leucotricha*, the apple powdery mildew, could be detected using a DNA macroarray. The

results obtained in this study are therefore comparable to those of previous studies based ondifferent analysis techniques.

361 The detection and quantification of airborne *P. pannosa* conidia using a volumetric air 362 sampler coupled with the qPCR method was successfully performed. When compared with the

363 microscopic observation of trapped conidia on plastic tapes, the molecular technique was able 364 to determine the period when *P. pannosa* conidia are present in the air, as similarly done with 365 microscope examination. In addition, the qPCR method was successfully used to obtain a 366 reliable quantification of airborne conidia, as shown by the high correlation between the 367 quantifications conducted through microscope and molecular approaches. Furthermore, 368 molecular detection using specific primers allowed us to overcome some important limitations 369 which are not uncommon in the microscope examination of aerobiological samples: i) the 370 required time of handling and posterior microscope observation of samples (Dung et al. 2018), 371 ii) the morphological similarity of conidia from different powdery mildew species (Braun 1987), 372 which makes difficult species differentiation and therefore demands trained skills to analysts, 373 and *iii*) the inaccurate identification due to co-location of overlapping structures that can 374 disfigure spore morphology (Mahaffee and Stoll 2016). Thus, the present study reports on a 375 rapid and reliable detection and quantification method for PPM airborne propagules. We 376 additionally hypothesize that low quantifications based on visual identifications, as compared 377 to molecular quantifications, may be due to i) the occassional large amounts of particles (dust, 378 pollens, other fungal spores...) present in the trapping tape which could have interfered with 379 the microscopic identification of P. pannosa conidia, and ii) an eventual degradation of P. 380 pannosa conidia, thus making difficult the morphological identification of the species. 381 The detection and quantification of pathogen overwintering structures in different plant 382 tissues was also studied. Chasmothecia of Podosphaera species perennate in winter as fruiting 383 bodies immersed in the mycelium attached to the host (Jarvis et al. 2002). In P. clandestina, on 384 sweet cherry, chasmothecia survive on senescent leaves, on fallen leaves on the orchard floor 385 and in tree bark crevices (Grove, 1991). In the case of *P. pannosa*, Ogawa and English (1991) 386 reported the formation of chasmothecia on twigs and stems, most frequently around the 387 thorns on rose. In the case of peach infections, several authors suggested that the fungus 388 overwinters as mycelium deep within the buds, from where infected shoots arise after the

389 spring budburst (Yarwood 1957; Weinhold 1961). However, to date, no molecular detection of 390 PPM in overwintering structures had been described. In our study, the use of the specific 391 primer pair PpanITS1-F/PpanITS1-R confirmed that the pathogen is mostly present on the 392 surface of twigs, where mycelium and chasmothecia were also clearly detected by visual 393 examinations. Besides twigs, P. pannosa was detected in lower concentrations in foliar bud 394 tissues, where the pathogen mycelium was previously detected using a stereomicroscope 395 (Weinhold 1961). Conversely to what we expected, no positive detection of *P. pannosa* from 396 autumn leaves was confirmed. In that scenario, first spring infections could be developed 397 either from airborne ascospores released from chasmothecia present on twigs and shoots, or 398 from latent mycelium inside bud tissues.

In recent years, the study of epidemiology of air-borne pathogens has increasingly been based on the pathogen detection and quantification by molecular-based techniques, which helped to answer complex questions regarding the biology of tree fruit pathogens (Michailides et al. 2005). The methodology developed in our study can be applied in the study of the PPM epidemiology, and therefore it can help in improving the management of this disease through the early detection and quantification of the pathogen.

405

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546 **TABLES**

547 **Table 1** GenBank accession numbers of sequences used to design a specific primer pair for the

548 detection and quantification of *Podosphaera pannosa*

Fungal taxa	Sample	Host	Country	GenBank
	designation			ITS ^a
Podosphaera aphanis	S_Italy3	Fragaria sp.	Italy	GU942447
Podosphaera aphanis	R_Eng_Kent2	<i>Rubus</i> sp.	UK	GU942461
Podosphaera aphanis	R_Sco1b	<i>Rubus</i> sp.	UK	GU942462
Podosphaera clandestina	MUMH 1868	Crataegus sp.	Argentina	AB525932
Podosphaera clandestina	30111	Phlox drummondii	Italy	HQ844621
Podosphaera clandestina	P-G	Prunus avium	Belgium	DQ139434
Podosphaera clandestina	BC-1	Prunus serotina	Mexico	KJ158161
Podosphaera fusca	Unknown	Cucurbita pepo	USA	AF011321
Podosphaera fusca	SqPI-1	Eupatorium fortunei	China	JX546297
Podosphaera fusca	MAY1	Euryops pectinatus	Spain	EU424056
Podosphaera fusca	UC1512289	Taraxacum officinale	USA	AF011320
Podosphaera fusca	PF001	Trichosanthes kirilowii	South Korea	HQ683746
Podosphaera leucotricha	MUMH 468	Malus domestica	Japan	AB027231
Podosphaera leucotricha	N4-08	Prunus persica	Serbia	HM579839
Podosphaera pannosa	Ppan53	Prunus persica	Spain	MN796128
Podosphaera pannosa	R-A	<i>Rosa</i> sp.	Belgium	DQ139410
Podosphaera pannosa	R-D	<i>Rosa</i> sp.	Belgium	DQ139430
Podosphaera pannosa	Ppan92	<i>Rosa</i> sp.	Spain	MN796129
Podosphaera pannosa	UCB	<i>Rosa</i> sp.	USA	AF011322
Podosphaera pannosa	UC1512288	<i>Rosa</i> sp.	USA	AF011323
Podosphaera spiraeae	TPU-1825	Spiraea cantoniensis	Japan	AB026143
Podosphaera spiraeae	HMQAU 13013	Spiraea japonica	China	KF500426
Podosphaera spiraeae	TPU-1877	Spiraea thunbergii	Japan	AB026153
Podosphaera tridactyla	MUMH 247	Photinia beauverdiana	Japan	AB026147
Podosphaera tridactyla	VPRI 19864	Prunus armeniaca	Australia	AY833657
Podosphaera tridactyla	UC1512290	Prunus armeniaca	USA	AF011318
Podosphaera tridactyla	VPRI 19238	Prunus cerasifera	Australia	AY833656
Podosphaera tridactyla	VPRI 22157	Prunus laurocerasus	Switzerland	AY833654
Podosphaera tridactyla	P-S	Prunus lusitanica	Belgium	DQ139435
Podosphaera tridactyla	VPRI 22158	Prunus lusitanica	Switzerland	AY833655
Podosphaera tridactyla	KUS-F26292	Prunus salicina	South Korea	JQ517296

549

^a: Accession numbers obtained in this study are shown in italics.

Standard curve name	Intercept	Slope	r ²	Efficiency (%)	LODª	Cq LOD ^b	LOQ ^c	Cq LOQ ^d
DNA 1	23.548	-3.346	0.998	98.99	2.31	31.78	6.86	30.79
DNA 2	22.844	-3.387	0.987	97.35	3.29	30.38	8.94	29.78
CS 1	37.023	-3.363	0.992	98.30	5.30	35.89	9.57	34.51
CS 2	36.253	-3.383	0.990	97.52	2.90	34.68	7.58	33.28
CS 3	35.361	-3.318	0.992	100.00	10.50	31.98	16.65	31.31
CS 4	35.683	-3.248	0.995	103.17	6.90	32.94	17.21	31.66
CS 4 tape	35.370	-3.119	0.958	109.22	7.20	32.69	40.57	30.35

550 **Table 2** Parameters for the standard curves obtained in this study

551 LOD and LOQ parameters expressed as pg DNA μL⁻¹ for DNA 1 and DNA 2 samples, and as

552 conidia mL⁻¹ for conidia suspensions (CS). ^a: LOD, Limit of detection. ^b: Cq LOD, Quantification

553 cycle at LOD. ^c: LOQ, Limit of quantification. ^d: Cq LOQ, Quantification cycle at LOQ.

555 **Table 3** Detection and quantification of *Podosphaera pannosa* in different plant tissues (N =8

556 per tree) collected in a peach orchard located in Mollerussa, Spain

Plant part	Tree	No. Positive detections ^a	C _q ^b	Fungal DNA biomass (ng·g ⁻¹ dry tissue)
	1	2	29.06 ± 0.13	0.02
	2	3	22.19 ± 0.50	2.11
Leaf bud	3	4	21.30 ± 2.80	3.90
	4	6	23.08 ± 3.24	1.15
	5	2	25.94 ± 2.39	0.16
	1	0	> C _q LOD ^c	n.d. ^d
	2	0	> C _q LOD	n.d.
Floral bud	3	0	> C _q LOD	n.d.
	4	0	> C _q LOD	n.d.
	5	0	> Cq LOD	n.d.
	1	8	17.18 ± 1.75	69.36
	2	8	18.07 ± 1.26	37.74
Twig	3	8	17.62 ± 2.62	51.37
	4	8	16.71 ± 2.63	96.27
	5	8	18.05 ± 1.56	38.15
	1	0	> Cq LOD	n.d.
	2	0	> C _q LOD	n.d.
Leaf	3	0	> Cq LOD	n.d.
	4	0	> Cq LOD	n.d.
	5	0	> Cq LOD	n.d.

⁵⁵⁷ ^a: Number of samples with positive detection of *P. pannosa*. ^b: C_q, Quantification cycle,

558 expressed as mean ± std. err. ^c: C_q LOD, C_q of sample greater than C_q determined for the limit

559 of detection (LOD). ^d: n.d., not determined.

560	FIGURE CAPTIONS
561	
562	Fig. 1 Standard regression curves obtained from qPCR assays involving 10-fold serial
563	dilutions from a) DNA extracted from conidia suspensions, DNA 1 and DNA 2; b) conidia
564	suspensions CS 1, CS 2 and CS 3; c) conidia suspension CS 4 either placed or not on a spore-
565	trapping tape
566	
567	Fig. 2 Daily values of airborne conidia trapped using a volumetric spore sampler (conidia
568	m ⁻³), estimated either from microscopic examination (solid line) or qPCR quantification
569	(dashed line). Time expressed as week number of the year and month
570	
571	Fig. 3 Correlation between the estimated amounts of conidia (conidia m ⁻³) obtained
572	through qPCR quantification (x) and microscopy examination (y) of airborne conidia trapped in
573	a peach orchard (Mollerussa, Catalonia, Spain) in the period April to July 2018 (N = 96 days)
574	







Date (week number and month)

580



