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**Pathogenicity of *Phytophthora chamaehyphon*: a new player in Kiwifruit Vine Decline Syndrome of *Actinidia chinensis* var. *deliciosa* (A. Chev.) A. Chev. 'Hayward' in Italy**

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(Article begins on next page)

1 **Pathogenicity of *Phytophthium chamaehyphon*: a new player in Kiwifruit Vine Decline**  
2 **Syndrome of *Actinidia chinensis* var. *deliciosa* (A. Chev.) A. Chev. ‘Hayward’ in Italy**

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## 15 **Abstract**

16 Kiwifruit Vine Decline Syndrome (KVDS) is a serious soil-borne disease that degrades the fine roots  
17 of both *Actinidia chinensis* var. *deliciosa* and var. *chinensis*. The disease seems to be the result of an  
18 interaction between several soil-borne pathogens, mostly oomycetes, and waterlogging. This work  
19 investigates the pathogenicity of the oomycete *Phytophthium chamaehyphon* recently isolated from  
20 roots of diseased plants. Pathogenicity was tested in 6-month-old and 1-year-old plants that after  
21 inoculation were flooded up to three times to induce symptom appearance. Leaf wilting and root rot  
22 typical of KVDS was observed in all the plants inoculated with *P. chamaehyphon* strain KD-15  
23 (PCHA) and in all the positive controls potted in a mix of peat and soils collected in KVDS-affected  
24 orchards, while negative controls remained symptomless. Disease development on 6-months-old  
25 plants was characterized by unusual degradation of the not-lignified collar, occurring even in absence  
26 of flooding. Conversely, on 1-year-old plants, symptoms faithfully reproduced KVDS dynamics  
27 observed in orchard. This work confirmed the pathogenicity of *P. chamaehyphon* and raised new  
28 questions about the actual role of waterlogging in KVDS etiology.

29

30 **Keywords:** Kiwifruit Vine Decline Syndrome, oomycetes, waterlogging, pathogenicity test, root  
31 rot, collar rot

32

33 Italy is one of the major kiwifruit producer worldwide, satisfying by itself over 15% of the global  
34 market demand (FAOSTAT, 2020). A new disease known as Kiwifruit Vine Decline Syndrome  
35 (KVDS) has been reported in Italy since 2012 and currently affects 25% (6,160 ha) of Italian kiwifruit  
36 production area (Tacconi et al. 2020). KVDS mainly attacks the softer root tissues (fine roots) causing  
37 sudden and fast wilting of the canopy, usually visible after the first heat waves occur in late-spring  
38 and early-summer (June-August) (Tacconi et al. 2015; Savian et al. 2020a, b; Bardi 2020). KVDS  
39 etiology has not been fully clarified, but it seems the result of an interaction between waterlogging  
40 and soil-borne pathogens (Savian et al. 2020a). In particular, oomycetes (*Phytophthium* and

41 *Phytophthora* genera) seem to play a major role in KVDS (Savian et al. 2020a; Donati et al. 2020;  
42 Prencipe et al. 2020), however, also fungi (genus *Desarmillaria*) and bacteria (genus *Clostridium*)  
43 have been associated with the disease (Donati et al. 2020; Spigaglia et al. 2020).

44 The role of the interaction between soil-borne pathogens and waterlogging in the development of  
45 KVDS was demonstrated using soils from infected orchards of Friuli Venetia Giulia (FVG, NE Italy;  
46 Savian et al. 2020a). Two species, belonging to *Phytophthora* genus, were isolated and emerged as  
47 potential pathogens: *Phytophthora vexans* and *Phytophthora chamaehyphom*. Pathogenicity of *P.*  
48 *vexans* on kiwifruit vine and its association to KVDS was previously demonstrated by Prencipe et al.  
49 (2020), while the fulfillment of Koch's postulates for *P. chamaehyphom* was not determined and is  
50 the focus of the present work.

51 *P. chamaehyphom* was also isolated in Piedmont (NW Italy) from kiwifruit vines showing typical  
52 KVDS symptoms, in the framework of an extensive field monitoring of 18 orchards during 2016-  
53 2019 seasons. Root sampling and isolation were performed according to Prencipe et al. (2020). One  
54 representative isolate, grown on V8 agar, was observed morphologically according to de Cock et al.  
55 (2015). Colonies showed typical mycelia of a *Pythium* species, and older cultures showed sub-globose  
56 sporangia, ( $20.19 \pm 0.36 \mu\text{m}$ ), containing circular shaped zoospores (9–10  $\mu\text{m}$ ). DNA was extracted  
57 from isolates using Omega E.Z.N.A. Fungal DNA Mini Kit (VWR, USA), according to  
58 manufacturer's instructions. Species identification was confirmed by sequencing ITS region using  
59 primers ITS1/ITS4 (White et al. 1990), cytochrome oxidase I region (COI) using  
60 FM85mod/OomCOILevup primers (Robideau et al. 2011), and the large subunit (LSU) rDNA using  
61 NL1/NL4 primers (Baten et al. 2014). Sequences obtained from field isolate shared 99% identity for  
62 ITS region and 100% identity for LSU and COI with *P. chamaehyphom* isolates from Savian et al.  
63 2020a.

64 *P. chamaehyphom* strain KD-15 from FVG (ITS region sequence under the accession number  
65 MN535819; Savian et al. 2020a), further identified based on sequencing the LSU and COI regions  
66 (accession numbers MW431329 and MW430118), was selected for the pathogenicity test.

67 Pathogenicity was tested twice on 1-year-old (trial 1) and 6-month-old (trial 2) *Actinidia chinensis*  
68 var. *deliciosa* (A. Chev) A. Chev. ‘Hayward’ plants potted in sterilized perlite-peat mixture (1:2  
69 volumetric ratio). The oomycete was prepared according to Prencipe et al. (2020), growing *P.*  
70 *chamaehyphon* (PCHA) on wheat and hemp seeds for 7 days, and mixing the inoculum to the soil at  
71 a rate of 6 g/liter. Negative controls (NC) were inoculated with 6 g/l of autoclaved seed mixture, while  
72 positive controls (PC) pots were filled with infected soil and sterile peat to a volumetric proportion  
73 of 1:1. Infected soils were collected in June 2019, close to symptomatic roots from three orchards of  
74 Pordenone province (FVG, NE Italy) clearly affected by KVDS. Each thesis included 6 plants in trial  
75 1 and 12 plants in trial 2, potted on 6- and 3-liter vases, respectively. Both trials were kept in a  
76 greenhouse at 28±5°C. After transplanting, water content was maintained proximal to field capacity  
77 for 3 weeks for trial 1 and 4 weeks for trial 2, before applying three rounds of flooding and drainage  
78 to induce symptoms (Savian et al. 2020a). Wilting appearance was recorded after 25, 35, and 50 days  
79 post inoculation (dpi) in trial 1 and every 2-3 days in trial 2. To fulfil Koch’s postulates, re-isolations  
80 were performed from PCHA symptomatic plants and the isolates were molecularly identified by  
81 amplification and sequencing of the ITS region.

82 Typical wilting symptoms occurred in plants of PC and PCHA of both trials, while all NC plants  
83 remained symptomless until the end of the experiment (58 dpi).

84 On plants of trial 1, the disease progression was similar to that observed in the field, with wilting  
85 appearing only after waterlogging when the fine roots were heavily compromised. Wilting appeared  
86 after the third flooding cycle (50 dpi) where PCHA plants showed 68% symptomatic leaves, while  
87 PC plants showed 77% of symptomatic leaves (Figure 1). Re-isolation from PCHA plants fulfilled  
88 Koch’s postulate confirming the pathogenicity of *P. chamaehyphon*.

89 In trial 2 with younger plants, the symptoms evolution was much faster than in trial 1, probably  
90 because the infection took place in the non-lignified plant collar, causing a faster dieback. For this  
91 reason, not all the flooding cycles were applied to induce the disease (Figure 2). Wilting on PCHA  
92 plants appeared right after the end of the first flooding (30 dpi), and rapidly evolved to complete plant

93 decline for 92% of the plants (Figure 2). The disease progression in PC thesis was even faster: the  
94 plants started to wilt at 17 dpi, and one week before the first flooding cycle (24 dpi) 75% of the plants  
95 were dead, while the remaining ones died shortly after the first flooding application (Figure 2). Re-  
96 isolation from PCHA plants confirmed the Koch's postulate and the pathogenicity of *P.*  
97 *chamaehyphon* as observed for 1 year-old inoculated plants.

98 To the best of our knowledge, this is the first report of pathogenicity of *P. chamaehyphon* on kiwifruit.  
99 *Phytopythium* is a newly established genus including species formerly classified as *Pythium* species.  
100 This genus can inhabit both water and soil, and requires free water for the zoospore movement and  
101 for the initiation of the infection, as many other oomycetes (de Cock et al. 2015). Previously other  
102 oomycetes have been associated to KVDS: *Phytopythium vexans* (Prencipe et al. 2020), *Phytopythium*  
103 *helicoides* (Donati et al. 2020), *Phytophthora infestans* (Donati et al. 2020), *Phytophthora*  
104 *citrophthora* and *Phytophthora cryptogea* (Tacconi et al. 2015). It may be speculated that KVDS is  
105 enhanced if several pathogenic species are simultaneously infecting the roots, since the speed of  
106 symptom appearance and the disease incidence were higher in PC treatments compare to PCHA. Co-  
107 occurrence of *P. chamaehyphon* strain KD-15 and *Phytopythium vexans* was indeed observed in  
108 Savian et al. (2020) with a frequency of 55%. However, although the concept of a "pathobiome"  
109 associated with KVDS is well accepted (Savian et al. 2020a; Donati et al. 2020; Prencipe et al. 2020;  
110 Spigaglia et al. 2020), we do not fully know yet the composition of the KVDS microbial community  
111 and the interactions occurring between these pathogens.

112 Our findings confirm some preliminary indications suggesting that pathogens aggressiveness is  
113 enhanced when waterlogging is applied (Savian et al. 2020a). Indeed, the application of the flooding  
114 cycle accelerated the disease development in both PC and PCHA plants, while those in NC remain  
115 symptomless (Figure 1). However, the high mortality rate of 6-month-old plants, observed before  
116 waterlogging application (24 dpi) in PC plants, permits to hypothesize that KVDS might develop not  
117 only during/after flooding, but also at soil water content proximal to field capacity. Furthermore, the  
118 sudden appearance of symptoms on 6-month-old PCHA plants, right after the first day of flooding,

119 indicates that the infection had started before the flooding application. Previously, Donati et al. (2020)  
120 already showed that the disease could be observed also in plants maintained at 70% of the estimated  
121 field capacity, without flooding. Moreover, in the study of Savian et al. (2020a), the leaf/root ratio of  
122 plants in unsterile soil without flooding was found more unbalanced than that of plants in sterile soil  
123 with flooding. KVDS being active even at soil water content proximal to field capacity could explain  
124 the reason why agronomical practices so far implemented to control the disease (tensiometer-driven  
125 irrigation and raised beds) were only able to delay the appearance of the disease after replanting  
126 (Tacconi et al. 2019). These results raise new questions on the effective role of root oxygen depletion  
127 and consequently of strictly anaerobic microorganisms on the onset of the disease.

128 The symptoms on 1-year-old plants, normally used as propagation material, faithfully reflected the  
129 disease development in orchard (Tacconi et al. 2015), while the uncommon rotting of the collar  
130 observed on 6-month-old plants was not observed previously, but it is in accordance with KVDS  
131 development, that usually degrades non-lignified tissues such as fine roots (Savian et al. 2020a).  
132 Considering these results, plants with lignified collar should be preferred for pathogenicity tests  
133 related to KVDS. In case only younger plants are available, modifications on the timing and duration  
134 of flooding should be taken into consideration in order to control the symptom appearance.

135 In conclusion, this work clearly demonstrated the pathogenicity of *P. chamaehyphon* and provided  
136 indication regarding the planting material to conduct KVDS-related tests. Furthermore, knowing that  
137 KVDS can develop also at soil water content proximal or inferior to field capacity may have a  
138 significant impact on both disease etiology and management strategies.

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Figure 1. Kiwifruit Vine Decline Syndrome (KVDS) symptoms observed during the pathogenicity test. Negative control (NC) plants inoculated with sterile seed mixture are in a) and d); plants infected with *P. chamaeohyphon* strain KD-15 (PCHA) are in b) and e); Positive control (PC) plants inoculated with soil collected from KVDS affected orchards are in c) and f). Wilting symptoms are shown for: 1-year-old plants at the end of the experiment in a-c); 6-month-old plants at 24, 28-31 and 45 dpi in d-f). On the right, the roots of 6-month-old plants at the end of the experiment are shown: g) healthy roots of NC plants; h-k) symptoms on the roots of PCHA and PC plants. h-i) typical symptoms of KVDS on feeding roots, red circles in i) indicate the areas selected for re-isolation. j-k) atypical rots observed on the collar.

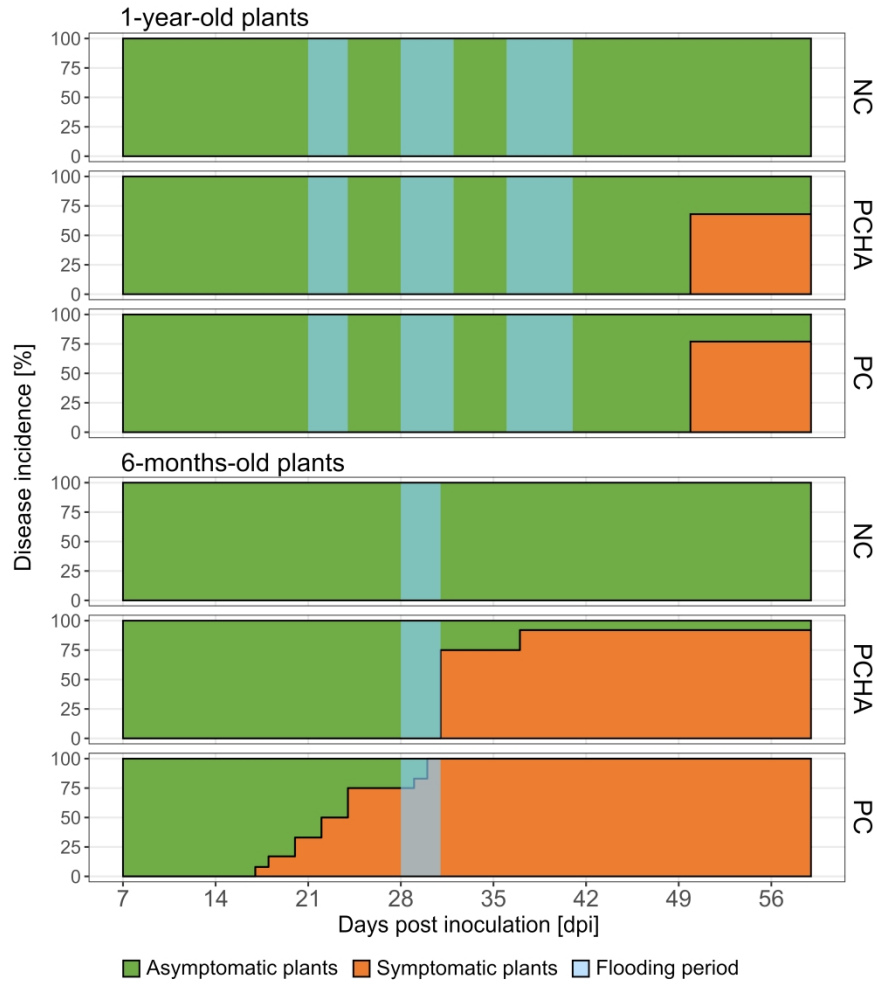


Figure 2. Percentage of plants with Kiwifruit Vine Decline Syndrome (KVDS) symptoms (disease incidence) during the pathogenicity test in 1-year-old and 6-month-old plants. Plants with KVDS symptoms are colored in orange while asymptomatic plants are in green. Shaded area indicates the application and duration of the flooding periods. NC, plants inoculated with sterile seed mixture; PCHA, plants inoculated with *P. chamae*hyphon strain KD-15; PC, plants potted on soil collected from KVDS affected orchards.