

Plant Protection and Pathology Research

http://www.journals.zu.edu.eg/journalDisplay.aspx?Journalld=1&queryType=Master



MOLECULAR DETECTION AND CONTROLLING OF SEED-BORNE Colletotrichum spp. IN COMMON BEAN AND SOYBEAN

Mahmoud E. Sewedy^{1*}, M.M. Atia², M.A Zayed² and M.I. Ghonim¹

- 1. Plant Pathol. Res. Inst., Agric. Res. Cent., Giza, Egypt
- 2. Plant Pathol. Dept., Fac. Agric., Zagazig Univ., Egypt

Received: 18/08/2019; Accepted: 08/09/2019

ABSTRACT: Seed-borne fungi cause several diseases of common bean (*Phaseolus vulgaris* L.) and soybean (Glycine max L.). The survey of seed-borne fungi of common bean and soybean was carried out on three Egyptian Governorates (Behera, Dakahlia, and Ismailia) in Egypt. Nineteen fungal species comprising therteen genera were isolated from the collected common bean and soybean seed samples, using standard blotter i,e. Alternaria alternata, Alternaria spp., Aspergillus niger, Aspergillus ochraceous, Aspergillus flavus, Botryodiplodia sp., Cladosporium sp., Colletotrichum lindemuthianum, Colletotrichum dematium, Fusarium solani, Fusarium moniliforme, Fusarum oxysporum, Macrophomina phaseolina, Myrothecium sp., Penicillium spp, Rhizoctonia solani, Stemphylium spp., Trichoderma spp. and Trichothecium sp. Pathogenicity tests proved that C. lindemuthianum and C. dematium were pathogenic to common bean and soybean. Polymerase chain reaction (PCR) has many beneficial characteristics that make it highly applicable for detecting *Colletotrichum* spp. of seeds. PCR diagnosis method and DNA extraction considered one of the most important steps and purity of DNA template for successful PCR assay. For the PCR amplification of C. lindemuthianum and C. dematium, two primers ClF4 and ClF5, stander blotter, agar plate, and deep freezing method were used as seed healthy testing methods. Stander blotter was proved the past and quickly method to detect seed-born of C. lindemuthianum and C. dematium. Trichoderma harzianum reduced linear growth for C. lindemuthianum and C. dematium followed by Trichoderma viride and Bacillus subtilis recording (3.3 cm and 3.9 cm, respectively) followed by Pseudomonas floursence that display a high linear growth (7.4 cm). On the other hand, fungicide Aetro 30% (Iprodione + Tebuconazole) recorded the least linear growth (0.9 cm) for C. lindemuthianum and C. dematium compared with negative control recorded (9.0 cm in diameter). Thymus plant extract caused the lowest liner growth (3.7 cm). Plant extract concentrations caused a significant reduction in the growth of C. lindemuthianum and C. dematium. The highest concentration (1.5 %) gave less fungal growth while the lowest one (0.5%) showed the highest fungal growth compared with negative control.

Key words: Common and soybean, *Colletotrichum lindemuthianum* and *Colletotrichum dematium*, PCR, fungicides, bio-agent and plant extract.

INTRODUCTION

Seeds are the most important for crop production. Pathogen free seed is urgently needed for desired plant populations and good harvest. Several plant pathogens were seedborne, which cause enormous crop losses (Dawson and Bateman, 2001; Islam, et al.

2009). Anthracnose has caused serious reductions in the yield of legume crops in many parts of the world, resulting in yield losses as high as 95% (Chen, *et al.* 2007).

Colletotrichum lindemuthianum (Sacc. and Magnus) Briosi and Cavara caused bean anthracnose and consider as a serious seedborne disease of common beans. This pathogen

is distributed worldwide and causes devastating losses in fields planted with infected seeds. Seed infections can also reduce seed quality and result in the introduction of the disease into new areas or new races into new geographic regions (Chen *et al.*, 2007).

Adegbite and Amusa (2008) reported that, members of the genus Colletotrichum have been reported to cause two major diseases in cowpea. These are anthracnose and brown blotch. These diseases are very destructive due to the susceptibility of many cowpea lines to them. Wrather et al. (2003) isolated Phythium sp., Phytophthora sojaes, Rhizoctonia Macrophomina Fusarium sp, phaseolina, Sclerotium rolfsii, Diaporthe sojae Colletotrichum truncatum from soybean seeds. (Shovan et al., 2008; Wrather and Koenning, 2009) collected a total of 33 soybean seed samples from different locations, representing three cultivars and 16 genotypes for detection of the seed borne-fungi of soybean. They detected ten fungi including nine genera i.e. Alternaria alternata, Aspergillus flavus, Aspergillus niger, Colletotrichum Cheatomium globosum, luanata, dematium, Curvularia *Fusarium* oxysporum, M. phaseolina, Penicillium sp. and Rhizopus stolonifer. Farzana, (2012) recorded 124 seed-borne fungal infections on four varieties of soybean, six fungi were identified as F. oxysporum, A. flavus, A. niger, C. truncatum, Rhizopus stolonifer and Penicillium sp.

The blotter and the agar plate methods are two important procedures traditionally applied in routine seed health test for seed-borne fungi detection (Warham, 1990; Youssef, et al. 2018). Those traditional diagnostic methods seem to have serious disadvantages such as time-consuming and lack of accuracy (Khiyami, et al. 2014). The failure to adequately identify and detect plant pathogens using conventional morphological techniques has led to the development of nucleic acid-based molecular approaches.

Immune-diagnostic tools can also be successfully employed for differential diagnosis and disease surveillance of seed-borne pathogens of quarantine importance. Ghoneem, et al. (2019) reported that, soybean seeds were found to have a wide diversity of associated fungi. A collection of thirty-one fungal species comprising nineteen genera were isolated from the collected

soybean seed samples, following standard blotter (SB) and agar plate (AP) methods. No differences were observed between the SB (17 genera and 29 species) and AP (18 genera and 28 species) techniques regarding the frequency of the recovered seed-borne fungi.

Polymerase chain reaction (PCR) developed for rapid detection and identification of plant pathogens, but it has not completely replaced traditional cultural and phenotypic tests practiced for the detection of major seed-borne pathogens. In a PCR diagnostic studies, the development of PCR primers is one of the most important steps. Primers are specific to various phytopathogenic fungi. These approaches include using species-specific genes or DNA regions to design PCR primers (Chen et al., 2007; Mohamed, 2007; Zhonghua and Michailides, 2007; Awad et al., 2019). After the evaluation of several methods, DNA extracted one most suitable method described by Dellaporta et al. (1983) in short and quick detection of different pathogens.

Fungicides have a toxic effect on public health and environment balance and produce fungicides resistant of strain pathogens. Moreover, it causes several problems such as cancer and causes chromosomal abnormalities.

Therefore, biological control of plant pathogens and plant extracts are becoming an important component of plant disease management practices (**Riad** et al., 2013). In this respect, *Trichoderma* spp., *Bacillus subtilis* and *Pseudomonas floursence* represent interesting way in controlling fungal diseases within an environmentally friendly integrated crop protection system through enhancing the resistance of the plant to the pathogen.

Some plant extracts also showed promising results in the control of bean anthracnose of common beans(Vinale et al., 2008). Neem seed extract effectively inhibited both germinations of conidia and mycelial growth of C. lindemuthianum El-Mougy et al. (2007) studied the effects of twenty powdered spicy plants and their extracts against F. solani and R. solani. They observed high significant inhibitory effect different fungal growth for radial concentrations of carnation, cinnamon, garlic and thyme. Meanwhile, fennel, marjoram and chamomile showed a low inhibitory effect on the tested fungi. Abd El-Kader et al. (2012) carnation, caraway, that, thyme, peppermint, and geranium essential oils have been found to have inhibitory effects against the mycelial growth of F. solani, R. solani, S. rolfsii and M. phaseolina under in vitro conditions. Complete inhibition of fungal growth was observed with the use of carnation (4%) and geranium oils. Hassanein, (2013) showed that, sclerotial formation of M. phaseolina and R. solani was significantly inhibited by any of the extracts of clove, cumin, henna, and garlic compared with that of the control and was not affected by the black cumin extract. The clove extract concentrations completely inhibited mycelial growth of all the tested fungi, followed by garlic extract R. solani, F. semitectum and F. oxysporum were the least affected fungi using the same extract.

The present investigation aimed to detect and identify *C. linemuthinum* and *C. dematum* isolated from common bean and soybean seeds by traditional methods of seed health testing and molecular methods (PCR-based technique using internal transcribed spacer region [ITS region]). In consequently control approaches including plant extracts, biological agents and chemical fungicides were investigated.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Survey Of Some Legume Seed-Borne Pathogens

Seed samples of common bean and soybean cultivars were collected from different areas at three Governorates *i,e,* Ismailia, Dakahlia, and Behera, Egypt in 2016 and 2017 growing seasons. Samples were then carried out in sterilized paper bags and transferred directly to the Laboratory, of Seed Pathology Research Department, Plant Pathology Research Institute, (ARC), according to the rules of the International Seed Testing Association (ISTA, 2015). All samples were kept in a refrigerator at 5 $\mathring{\text{C}}$ until using.

Detection And Isolation Of Some Legume Seed-Borne Pathogens In Egypt

The standard blotter method (SBM) technique recommended by (ISTA, 2015), was

used for detection of seed-borne fungi. Four hundred seeds of each sample were directly plated on three moistened blotter in Petri dishes (9 cm in diameter) at the rate of 10 seeds per dish. The dishes were incubated for 7 days at 25+2 °C for 12hr., under alternating cycles of white fluorescent light and darkness. Frequency percentages of the counted fungi were calculated and tabulated. In this experiment, visual methods using: Stereoscopic microscope (6-50 X magnification) was used to detect seed-borne fungi and study their habit characteristic. The compound microscope was used to confirm the identification.

The developed fungi were carefully transferred onto (PDA) medium. Isolated and purified using the hyphal tip and/or single-spore technique (**Dhingra, and Sinclair, 1973**). The purified cultures were incubated on PDA slant medium for 7days at 28°C then stored in a refrigerator at 5°C, identification was carried out as mentioned by **Booth (1985), Barnett and Hunter (1998).**

The detected seed-borne fungi were identified according to Common Wealth Mycological Institute Description Sheets, Danish Government Institute of Seed Pathology Publication, and Research work of **Tadja** *et al.* (2009). Identification was kindly confirmed by Taxonomy Dep. Plant Pathology Res. Inst., (ARC), Giza, Egypt.

Pathogenicity Tests

Pathogenicity tests of the isolated fungi was done on common bean (Sonate cv.) and soybean (Clark ev.). Inoculum of C. lindemuthianum and C. dematium were prepared by growing each fungus individually on autoclaved sorghum: sand: water (2:1:2 V/V/V) medium in glass bottles for 21 days at 25±2 Č according to Ghoneem et. al. (2019). Soil infestation was achieved by mixing inoculum lindemuthianum and C. dematium with the sterilized soil at 5% of soil weight (fungal growth 50 g/kg soil W/W), in clay pot (25 cm diam) and watered regularly for five days before planting. Pathogen free autoclaved sorghum medium was added to sterilized soil) in pots to serve as control. Common bean cv. Sonata and soybean cv. clark seeds were surface sterilized by immersing in sodium hypochlorite 1% for three min, then washed with sterilized water to get rid of excess poisonous and sown at the rate

of 10 seeds/pot. Five replicates were used/each treatment. Percentages of pre- post-emergency damping-off and healthy survival plant were calculated at 15, 30 and 45 days post planting, respectively, according to **Abd El-Wahab**, (2011) as follows:-

Pre-emergence damping-off (%) =

| No. of non-emerged seedlings | - 3 7 100 |
|----------------------------------|------------------|
| No. of planted seeds | X 100 |
| Post-emergence damping-off (%) = | |
| No. of dead seedlings | - X 100 |
| No. of planted seeds | - A 100 |
| Healthy survivals (%) = | |
| No. of healthy seedlings | - V 100 |
| No. of planted seeds | - X 100 |

Seed Health Testing Methods

Seed health testing techniques recommended by the (ISTA, 2015) namely, standard blotter method (SBM), agar plate method (APM) and deep-freezing method (DFM) were used for the detection of seed-borne fungi. Each of the collected seed samples of common bean and soybean were surface sterilized using 1% aqueous sodium hypochlorite solution (NaOCl) for five minutes then rinsed by sterilized tap water three times and left to dry. Detection and isolation of seed-borne fungi associated with the seeds were then carried out by (ISTA, 2015). Random 400 common bean and soybean seeds examined with a blotter, deep freezing and agar plate methods.

Standard blotter method (SBM)

Four hundred seeds from each sample were directly plated on three moistened blotter papers properly soaked in sterilized water in Petri dishes (9 Cm. in diameter) at the rate of five seeds per dish seeds equidistantly under aseptic conditions in 80 replicates each for common bean and at the rate of 10 seeds per dish in 40 replicates for soybean seeds. The dishes were incubated for 7 days at 25+2°C for 12 hr., under alternating cycles of white fluorescent light and darkness according to the rules of **ISTA**, (2015).

Deep freezing method (DFM)

This method was modified from the blotter method (Neergaard, 1979). In this method,

seeds were placed in petri dishes to be examined as in the (SBM). Dishes were then incubated in a controlled environment room at 25±2°C under the alternating cycle of 12hr., cool light and 12hr darkness for 2 days, then 1day at -20°C (deep freezing) and finally 4 days at 25±2°C of 12/12 hr., light/darkness cycle.

Agar plate method

In the agar plate method, 20 ml of potato dextrose agar (PDA) was poured in a glass Petri plate. After cooling, seeds were placed in petri dishes containing (PDA) media and incubated and examined as mentioned above in the standard blotter method.

Identification by Molecular Method

DNA extraction of *Colletotrichum* spp. by Dellaporta buffer

DNA extraction from cultures

According to **Dellaporta** *et. al.* (1983), pure cultures of *C. lindemuthianum* and *C. dematium* were used individually and carefully frozen in liquid N2 and ground to a fine powder in a mortar and pestle. The powder was directly transferred to a 1.5ml microfuge tube, and supplement to the end Dellaporta technique. Finally the pellet was air-dried for 1hr., then suspended in 50μ l dH₂O. The extracted DNA was then ready for PCR.

DNA extraction from common bean and soybean seeds

The artificial infected and uninfected seeds with C. lindemuthianum and C. dematium were surface-sterilized in 70% ethanol for 30 sce. and washed three times in sterilized distilled water. The seeds were dried on sterilized filter paper, and batches of healthy and diseased seed were separately ground into a fine powder through crushing using a Warring blender and coffee grinder at maximum speed (Chen et al., 2007). Samples were frozen in liquid N2 and ground to a fine powder in a mortar and pestle. The powder was transferred to a 1.5ml microfuge using a modified Dellaporta extraction method (Dellaporta et al., 1983). also DNA was extracted from cultures of C. lindemuthianum and C. dematium. (Awad et al., 2019).

PCR primers

To develop a tool to identify fungi and classify them according to their phylogenetic

group, the advantage of the sequence diversity of the intragenic spacer regions of fungi was considered. Three PCR primers were shown to amplify three fungi. Each of these primer pairs was specific for each fungus, and they did not produce PCR products of the correct size from any other fungi group. Primers used not produced PCR amplification products in the accurate size of healthy plant DNA. These primers could serve as actual for identifying particular fungi in field samples according to **Drori** et al. (2013). For the amplification of C. lindemuthianum and C. dematium, using the primers combined with the reverse primer ITS4 (⁵TCCTCCGCTTATTGATATGC³),two forward primers CIF4 (5'TCCCCCTGCCC CGCTCG3') and CIF5 (5'CGCCGGAGGAAA ACCCAAC3') (Sreenivasaprasad *et al.*, 1996; Chen et al., 2007).

PCR amplification

Each PCR tube contained the following reaction mixture volumes 25 μl consisted of 2.5 μl 10× PCR buffer, 2.5 μl of Mg+cl2, 0.3 μl of dNTPs, 0.5 μl of each forward and reverse primer, 0.4 μl of Taq DNA polymerase and 3 μl of sample DNA. PCR has performed in a Bio-Rad DNA engine Peltier thermal cycler. The PCR program was optimized and consisted of initial denaturation at 95°C for 5 min, followed by 30 cycles at 94°C for 30 sec consisted of denaturation, at 50°C annealing temperature for 45 sec, 1 min at 72°C for primer extension, and final extension with 1 cycle of 5 min at 72°C.

Following amplification, the PCR products were separated on a 1% Agarose gel in $1 \times$ TBE buffer at 120 V for 1hr., and visualized by staining with ethidium bromide (10 μ l/ml) (Sambrook, *et al.*, 1989) then, photographed under UV light using Gel-Documentation System (GELDOC 2000, Bio-Rad, USA). The size of the fragment is determined using the 100bp DNA ladder molecular weight markers.

Controlling Assessment

Biological control

Effect of some bioagents on the growth of *Colletotrichum* spp. *in vitro*

Under laboratory conditions four bioagents i.e., Trichoderma harzianum, Trichoderma

viride, Pseudomonas floursence and Bacillus subtilis isolated previously from seeds, were used to evaluate their antagonistic effect against C. linemuthinum and C. dematum (Ghoneem et al., 2019). PDA was used for T. harzianum and T. viride and nutrient agar medium was used for P. floursence and B. subtilis. To detect the antagonistic effect, discs (5 mm in diameter) were taken from 7 days old culture of different bio-agents and plated inside of PDA on Petri dishes, on the other hand equal discs 5 mm in diameter, were taken from 7 days old culture of C. linemuthinum and C. dematum and plated in opposite side of PDA Petri dishes. Plates with a fungus alone were served as the control treatment. 1000 ppm from (Iprodione 20% + Tebuconazole 10%) solution was added to flasks PDA medium then flows into Petri dishes and left to solid, then discs (5 mm in diameter) were taken from 7 days old culture of different pathogens and plated inside PDA Petri dishes and served as positive control treatment. Five plates were used for each treatment then incubated untile mycelium growth of control treatment covered the surface of the plate, linear growth of fungi were recorded and percentage of reduction in each treatment was calculated as follows:

Reduction (%) =
$$\frac{G_1 - G_2}{G_1} \times 100$$

Whereas:

G1 = Fungal linear growth of the control (mm)

G2=Fungal linear growth of the treatment (mm)

Effect of some plant extracts on the growth of *Colletotrichum* spp. *in vitro*

Three medicinal and aromatic plants were evaluated for their effect on fungal radial growth of the pathogenic fungi *in vitro* according to the method mentioned by **El-Mougy** *et al.* (2007). Plant materials obtained from the Medicinal and Aromatic Plant Pathology Research Department, Plant Pathol. Res. Inst., ARC, Egypt. Plant materials (thymus, clove and garlic) were washed with distilled water and air-dried. The dried plant materials were then finely ground to a fine powder. Fifty grams of each dried plant powder was homogenized by laboratory blender for 10 min in ethanol (96 %) and distilled water

(20: 80, V/V), then incubated in a dark bottle of glass for 72 hr., for tissue maceration. The extracts were filtered through thin cheese cloth sheets. The final extracts were collected separately in other dark glass bottles and exposed to 60°C in a water bath for 15 min for ethanol evaporation and sterilized using Seitz's filter. Then stored in a refrigerator at 5°C until used according to **Hassanein** (2013).

Extracts were added to sterilize PDA flasks before solidifying to obtain the proposed concentrations of 0.5%, 1% and 1.5%. The amended medium was poured into 9 cm diameter Petri dishes, and another set of extract free PDA medium was used as the negative control treatment. Discs (5 mm in diameter) were taken from 7 days old culture of lindemuthianum and C. dematium were plated in the center of treated and untreated PDA Petri dishes.1000 ppm from Aetro 30% Fungicide solution was added to flasks PDA medium then flows into Petri dishes and left to solid, then discs (5 mm in diameter) were taken from 7 days old culture of different pathogens and plated in the center of PDA Petri dishes and served as positive control. Five plates were used for each treatment then incubated for when mycelial growth of control treatment covered the surface of the plate.

Measurements of colonies were taken using the control plates as a reference **Zedan** *et al.* (2011) and the percentage of reduction in each treatment was calculated as previously mentioned.

Greenhouse Experiments

Effect of fungicide, plant extracts and bioagents materials on *Colletotrichum lindemuthianum* and *Colletotrichum dematium*

In greenhouse experiments, pots (25-cm-diam.) filled with soil (1 sand : 2 clay, *W/W*) were used for common and soybean planting. The formaline sterilized pots were infested with a *C. lindemuthianum* and cultivated with common bean (Sonate cv.) and/or infected with *C. dematium* and cultivated with soybean (Clark cv.) each alone. Soil in pots were then continously irrigated for one week to allaw the infection and spread of tested fungs. Seeds of common bean (Sonate cv.) and soybean (Clark cv.) were sterilized as mentioned above then some in infected soil.

A set of five replicates were used for each fungicide and the plant extracts i.e. clove, thymus and garlic extracts at 1.5 % according to **Hassanein** (2013). The fungal spores of T. harzianum and T. virid were gently scraped from 7 day old cultures grown on PD liquid medium. Bacterial suspension of P. florescence and B. subtilis were collected from 3 days-old culture grown on nutrient broth medium according to Sallam et. al. (1978) and Kamel (2017). Spore or cell suspension T. harzianum and T. virid, adjusted to with sterilized water to be 3×10^4 cfu/ml and cell suspension of concentration P. florescence was 1×10^7 cells/ml and B. subtilis. The tested bio-agents were supplemented in sodium carboxymethyl cellulose (CMC)1% solution were subsequently added individually to one hundred grams of common bean and soybean seeds during coating process by a shaker for 10 min, at 130 rpm according to Abd El-Wahab (2011) and Youssef et. al. (2018). Subsequently, the seeds were air- dried on filter paper for 1 hour in a laminar flow hood and stored in refrigerator at 5°C until required. Then they were sown at the rate of 10 seeds /pot, Five replicates used /each treatment. The fungicide Atero 30% at 3 g / kg seeds were used to compare its inhibitory effect with alternative materials. Seeds were soaked in the fungicides or in water only as control for 20 minutes and planted in the infested soil. Data were recorded as survivals plants at 30 days post planting according to Hassanein (2013).

Statistical Analyses

Data were analyzed using analysis of variance (ANOVA), and the means were compared by the least significant differences (LSD) at $P \ge 0.05$ described by **Snedecor and Cochran** (1980) using COSTAS software v 6.3. The significant mean differences between treatment means were separated by Duncan's Multiple Range Test (**Duncan**, 1955).

RESULTS AND DISSCUSION

Isolation and Identification of Common Bean and Soybean Associated Fungi

Common bean and soybean seeds were found to have a wide diversity of associated fungi. A collection of nineteen fungal species comprising thirteen genera were isolated from the collected soybean seed samples, using standard blotter (SB) method. The frequency percentage of seedborne fungi of soybean and common bean seeds were shown in Tables 1 and 2. The isolated fungi were Alternaria alternata, Alternaria sp., Aspergillus niger, Aspergillus ochraceous, Aspergillus flavus, Botryodiplodia, Cladosporium sp., Colletotrichum lindemuthianum, colletotrichum dematium, Fusarium solani, Fusarium moniliforme, Fusarum oxysporum, Macrophomina phaseolina, Myrothecum sp., Penicillium spp., Rhizoctonia solani, Sclerotium batatecola, Stemphylium spp., Trichoderma spp. and Trichothecum sp. The highest average of incidence was recorded by Cladosporium sp. being (49.7%), where the least was of Myrothecum sp. (3.0%). On the other hand, the average of incidence of Behera, Dakahlia and Ismailia Governorates were 24.3, 16.5 and 21.3% in season 2016 and 26.5, 43.9 and 36.4% in 2017 season, respectively. Frequency percentage for Colletotrichum spp. (C. lindemuthianum and C. dematium) was recorded in, Behera, Dakahlia and Ismailia being 2.1, 0.0 and 0.0 in season of 2016 and 2.4, 0.32 and 0.8 in 2017 season.

Results in Table 2 indicate, the average of common bean seed-borne fungi in 2016 – 2017 growing seasons. Were Alternaria alternata, Alternaria sp., Aspergillus niger, Aspergillus ochraceous, Aspergillus flavus, Botrydiplodia sp., Cladosporium sp., Colletotrichum spp., Fusarium solani, Fusarium moniliforme, Fusarum oxysporum, Macrophomina phaseolina, Myrothecum sp., Penicillium spp., Rhizoctonia solani, Stemphylium spp., Trichoderma spp. and *Trichothecum* sp. The highest incidence average of the isolated fungi was of Cladosporium sp. being 49.6% where the least was of Myrothecum sp. being 2.8%. However, the incidence average of the different Egyptian Governorates i,e, Behera, Dakhlia and Ismailia (38.9, 23.3 and 34.9) in 2016 season and (43.7, 27.5 and 38.9) in 2017 season, respectively. The heighest frequency (%) for Colletotrichum spp. (C. lindemuthianum and C. dematium) was recorded i,e, Behera, Dakhlia and Ismailia governorates were (2.5, 0.0 and 0.0) in 2016 season and 2.8, 0.5 and 0.7 in 2017 season, respectively.

Pathogenicity Tests

Pathogenicity tests

Pathogenicity tests proved that, Colletotrichum lindemuthianum and Colletotrichum dematium

species were pathogenic to common bean and soybean with different values (Table 3). The tested fungi significantly caused high percentage of pre-emergence damping-off to common bean and soybean compared with the control. Colletotrichum lindemuthianum recorded the highest percentage of pre- emergence dampingoff for common bean (26%), while, C. dematium recorded the highest % (38%) on soybean and common bean (25.8). C. lindemuthianum showed the heighest % of post-emergence on common bean (20%). but C. dematium recorded 13.9% and 13.5%, respectively. Similar results were previously reported by Infantin et al. (2006), Mazen et al. (2008), Gomaa (2010), Abd El-Wahab (2011) and Kamel (2017).

Seed Healthy Testing Methods

Several detection methods have been developed over the years for various seed borne pathogens. Results in Table 4 indicate that, the blotter test being the common but not efficient method of detecting seed borne fungal pathogens in seeds. According to rules of ISTA the method involves plating of 400 seeds on some layers of moistened filter paper. The average of incidence of fungi as shown revealed the highest incidence of *Cladosporium* sp. (20.3%) but the least was of *Colletotrichum* spp. (1.9%). On the other hand, the incidence average by methods i.e., stander blotter, agar plate and deep freezing method (30.1, 19.9 and 4.7%) in common bean and 45.2, 28.4and 6.6% in soybean seeds, respectively. Incidence (%) for Colletotrichum spp. recorded by tested methods i.e. stander blotter, agar plate and deep freezing method were 2.3, 1.5 and 1.2% in common bean and 4.2, 2.1 and 2.4% in soybean seeds, respectively. Current results proved that traditional seed health tests could not be enough to depend on their results since they display markedly varied results. These results are in harmony with those obtained by Mathur and Cunfer (1993) who pointed out the importance of adequate plant quarantine, correct diagnosis of symptoms and/or methods of detection and isolation of such dangerous pathogen which could be transferred through seeds. Therefore, most countries have to examine seed samples carefully and/or have to treat seeds with fungicides. In contrary Khiyami et al. (2014) discussed the common disadvantage of the traditional diagonstic methods is that they are time consuming and lack accuracy.

Table 1. Incidence and frequency percentage of seed-borne fungi associated with soybeans seeds collected from different Governorates in Egypt

| Isolated fungi | 2016 | | | | | | | 20 | 17 | | | Mean | |
|-------------------------------|------|-----------------|------|------|------|------|------|------|-------|----------|------|------|------|
| <u> </u> | Beh | Behera Dakahlia | | Isma | ilia | Beh | era | Daka | ahlia | Ismailia | | | |
| | In | F | In | F | In | F | In | F | In | F | In | F | • |
| Alternaria alternata | 34.2 | 7.8 | 11.1 | 3.7 | 30.2 | 7.9 | 36.4 | 7.6 | 32.1 | 7.7 | 13.8 | 4.0 | 26.3 |
| Alternaria sp. | 8.9 | 2.0 | 6.8 | 2.3 | 11.9 | 3.1 | 11.1 | 2.3 | 13.8 | 3.3 | 9.5 | 2.7 | 10.3 |
| Aspergillus niger | 39.1 | 8.9 | 9.5 | 3.2 | 40.1 | 10.5 | 41.3 | 8.7 | 42 | 10.1 | 12.2 | 3.5 | 30.7 |
| Aspergillus ochraceous | 20.7 | 4.7 | 10 | 3.4 | 21.7 | 5.7 | 22.9 | 4.8 | 23.6 | 5.7 | 12.7 | 3.7 | 18.6 |
| Aspergillus flavus | 27.5 | 6.3 | 7.9 | 2.7 | 19.9 | 5.2 | 29.7 | 6.2 | 21.8 | 5.2 | 10.6 | 3.1 | 19.6 |
| Betryodiplodia | 19.1 | 4.4 | 19.1 | 6.4 | 19.1 | 5.0 | 21.3 | 4.5 | 21 | 5.0 | 21.8 | 6.3 | 20.2 |
| Cladosporium sp. | 48.6 | 11.1 | 48.6 | 16.4 | 48.6 | 12.7 | 50.8 | 10.6 | 50.5 | 12.1 | 51.3 | 14.8 | 49.7 |
| Colletotrichum lindemathianum | 4.3 | 1.0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 5.3 | 1.1 | 0.52 | 0.12 | 1.4 | 0.43 | 1.92 |
| Colletotrichum dematium | 4.9 | 1.1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 6.1 | 1.3 | 0.43 | 0.2 | 1.3 | 0.40 | 2.13 |
| Fusarium solani. | 30.2 | 6.9 | 30.2 | 10.2 | 11.1 | 2.9 | 32.4 | 6.8 | 13 | 3.1 | 32.9 | 9.5 | 25.0 |
| Fusarium moniliforme | 34.2 | 7.8 | 1.1 | 0.4 | 34.2 | 8.9 | 36.4 | 7.6 | 36.1 | 8.7 | 3.8 | 1.1 | 24.3 |
| Fusarum oxysporum | 39.1 | 8.9 | 61.1 | 20.6 | 37.1 | 9.7 | 41.3 | 8.7 | 39 | 9.4 | 63.8 | 18.5 | 46.9 |
| Penicillium spp | 14.6 | 3.3 | 10.2 | 3.4 | 16.2 | 4.2 | 16.8 | 3.5 | 18.1 | 4.3 | 12.9 | 3.7 | 14.8 |
| Myrothecum sp. | 1.3 | 0.3 | 1.3 | 0.4 | 3 | 0.8 | 3.5 | 0.7 | 4.9 | 1.2 | 4 | 1.2 | 3.0 |
| Rhizoctonia solani | 27.6 | 6.3 | 17.6 | 5.9 | 27.6 | 7.2 | 29.8 | 6.2 | 29.5 | 7.1 | 20.3 | 5.9 | 25.4 |
| Sclerotium batatecola | 25.3 | 5.8 | 11.1 | 3.7 | 21.7 | 5.7 | 27.5 | 5.8 | 23.6 | 5.7 | 13.8 | 4.0 | 20.5 |
| Stemphylim spp. | 12.7 | 2.9 | 10.3 | 3.5 | 9.3 | 2.4 | 14.9 | 3.1 | 11.2 | 2.7 | 13 | 3.8 | 11.9 |
| Trichoderma spp. | 27.6 | 6.3 | 17.6 | 5.9 | 13.6 | 3.6 | 29.8 | 6.2 | 15.5 | 3.7 | 20.3 | 5.9 | 20.7 |
| Trichothecum sp. | 17.6 | 4.0 | 23.6 | 7.9 | 17.6 | 4.6 | 19.8 | 4.2 | 19.5 | 4.7 | 26.3 | 7.6 | 20.7 |
| Mean | 24 | .3 | 16 | .5 | 21 | .3 | 26 | .5 | 43 | .9 | 36 | .4 | |

F.= Frequency (%) = (No. of infected samples) / (Total No. of tested samples) $\times 100$ In.= incidence Mean of sample infection = (Σ fungus incidence in all examined samples) / (Total No. of examined samples).

Table 2. Incidence and frequency percentage of seed-borne fungi associated with common bean seeds collected from different Governorates in Egypt

| Isolated fungi | | | 20 | 16 | | | | | 20 | 17 | | | Mean |
|-------------------------------|------|------|------|-------|------|-------|------|------|------|-------|------|-------|------|
| | Beh | era | Daka | ahlia | Isma | ailia | Beh | era | Dak | ahlia | Isma | ailia | • |
| | In | F | In | F | In | F | In | F | In | F | In | F | |
| Alternaria alternata | 34.2 | 9.3 | 11.1 | 5.0 | 30.2 | 9.1 | 36.5 | 8.8 | 12.9 | 4.9 | 31.9 | 8.6 | 26.1 |
| Alternaria sp. | 8.9 | 2.4 | 6.8 | 3.1 | 11.9 | 3.6 | 11.2 | 2.7 | 8.6 | 3.3 | 13.6 | 3.7 | 10.2 |
| Aspergillus niger | 39.1 | 10.6 | 9.5 | 4.3 | 40.1 | 12.1 | 41.4 | 10.0 | 11.3 | 4.3 | 41.8 | 11.3 | 30.5 |
| Aspergillus ochraceous | 20.7 | 5.6 | 10 | 4.5 | 21.7 | 6.5 | 23 | 5.5 | 11.8 | 4.5 | 23.4 | 6.3 | 18.4 |
| Aspergillus flavus | 27.5 | 7.4 | 7.9 | 3.6 | 19.9 | 6.0 | 29.8 | 7.2 | 9.7 | 3.7 | 21.6 | 5.8 | 19.4 |
| Botrydiplodia sp. | 19.1 | 5.2 | 19.1 | 8.6 | 19.1 | 5.8 | 21.4 | 5.1 | 20.9 | 8.0 | 20.8 | 5.6 | 20.1 |
| Cladosporium sp. | 48.6 | 13.2 | 48.6 | 22.0 | 48.6 | 14.6 | 50.9 | 12.2 | 50.4 | 19.3 | 50.3 | 13.6 | 49.6 |
| Colletotrichum lindemathianum | 4.5 | 1.23 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 5.6 | 1.3 | 0.50 | 0.3 | 1.6 | 0.4 | 2.03 |
| Colletotrichum dematium | 4.7 | 1.27 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 5.8 | 1.5 | 0.45 | 0.2 | 1.1 | 0.3 | 2 |
| Fusarium solani. | 13.5 | 3.7 | 8.6 | 3.9 | 8.8 | 2.7 | 22.5 | 5.4 | 20 | 7.6 | 18.8 | 5.1 | 15.4 |
| Fusarium moniliforme | 5.5 | 1.5 | 2.9 | 1.3 | 5.9 | 1.8 | 6.5 | 1.6 | 2.9 | 1.1 | 5.9 | 1.6 | 4.9 |
| Fusarum oxysporum | 29.7 | 8.0 | 24.9 | 11.3 | 26.8 | 8.1 | 31.4 | 7.6 | 26.9 | 10.3 | 28.8 | 7.8 | 28.1 |
| Macrophomina phaseolina | 14.6 | 4.0 | 10.2 | 4.6 | 16.2 | 4.9 | 16.9 | 4.1 | 12 | 4.6 | 17.9 | 4.8 | 14.6 |
| Myrothecum sp. | 1.3 | 0.4 | 1.3 | 0.6 | 3 | 0.9 | 3.6 | 0.9 | 3.1 | 1.2 | 4.7 | 1.3 | 2.8 |
| Penicillium spp. | 27.6 | 7.5 | 17.6 | 8.0 | 27.6 | 8.3 | 29.9 | 7.2 | 19.4 | 7.4 | 29.3 | 7.9 | 25.2 |
| Rhizoctonia solani | 25.3 | 6.8 | 11.1 | 5.0 | 21.7 | 6.5 | 27.6 | 6.6 | 12.9 | 4.9 | 23.4 | 6.3 | 20.3 |
| Stemphylim spp. | 12.7 | 3.4 | 10.3 | 4.7 | 9.3 | 2.8 | 15 | 3.6 | 12.1 | 4.6 | 11 | 3.0 | 11.7 |
| Trichoderma spp. | 27.6 | 7.5 | 17.6 | 8.0 | 13.6 | 4.1 | 29.9 | 7.2 | 19.4 | 7.4 | 15.3 | 4.1 | 20.6 |
| Trichothecum sp. | 4.3 | 1.2 | 3.7 | 1.7 | 7.6 | 2.3 | 6.6 | 1.6 | 5.5 | 2.1 | 9.3 | 2.5 | 6.2 |
| Mean | 38 | 3.9 | 23 | .3 | 34 | .9 | 43 | .7 | 27 | 7.5 | 38 | .9 | |

F.= Frequency (%) = (No. of infected samples) / (Total No. of tested samples) $\times 100$ In.= incidence Mean of sample infection = (Σ fungus incidence in all examined samples) / (Total No. of examined samples).

Table 3. Pathogenicity test of *Colletotrichum lindemuthianum* and *Colletotrichum dematium* with common bean and soybean plant

| Fungi | C | Common | bean | | Soybean | | | | |
|-------------------------------|---------------|----------------|-----------|----------|---------------|----------------|-----------|----------|--|
| | Pre-emergence | Post-emergence | Survivals | Root rot | Pre-emergence | Post-emergence | Survivals | Root rot | |
| Colletotrichum lindemuthianum | 26 a | 20 a | 54 a | 5.5 | 22.4a | 11.6a | 66.0a | 4 | |
| Colletotrichum dematium | 25.8a | 13.9b | 61.3b | 2 | 38 b | 13.5a | 48.5b | 3 | |
| Control | 0.0 b | 0.0 c | 100 c | 0.0 | 0.0 c | 0.0 b | 100c | 0.0 | |
| LSD at - 0.05 | 2.12 | 1.47 | 2.06 | | 2.01 | 3.18 | 3.92 | | |
| Coefficient of variation | 6.44 | 5.61 | 2.06 | | 5.70 | 13.98 | 3.90 | | |

Identification of *Colletotrichum* spp. Using Internal Transcribed Spacer Region (ITS region)

Fig. 1 shows typical PCR amplification of common bean and soybean seeds infected with the pathogenic fungus *C. lindemuthianum* and *C. dematium*, even a minimum amount of DNA template was amplified by the used primers pair ITS4 and CIF5 that migrated in agarose gel electrophoresis. Lanes 3 and 4 resulted in approximately 593bp two band fragments of *C. dematium* generated with the ITS4 primer and CIF5. However lanes 1 and 2 resulted in approximately 461bp other two bands fragments of *C. lindemuthianum* generated with the ITS4 primer and CIF5 while negative control represents (lane 5).

Fig. 2 shows typical PCR amplification of common bean and soybean seeds infected with the pathogenic fungus Colletotrichum sp. even a minimum amount of DNA template was amplified by the used primer pairs ITS4 and CIF4 migrated agarose and in gel electrophoresis, Lanes 1 and 2 resulted in approximately 461bp two band fragment of Colletotrichum lindemuthianum generated with the ITS4 primer and CIF4. However lanes 3 and 4 resulted no Colletotrichum dematium bands

generated with the ITS4 primer and CIF4 while negative control represents (lane 5).

Chen et al. (2007) mentioned that, the insufficient detection of plant pathogens using conventional culture-based morphological methods has led to the development of nucleic acid-based molecular approaches. Modification extraction methods and DNA amplification may enhance sensitivity and specificity of PCR product plus increasing the usage of DNA in variable modern techniques. Species-specific PCR, using ITS region of rDNA, has been widely advocated for rapid identification of C. lindemuthianum and C. dematium and for differentiating closely related fungal species (Freeman et al., 2000; Schiller et al., 2006). According to Serra et al. (2011), study in the analysis of the ITS sequence of ribosomal DNA for C. lindemuthianum and C. dematium, all isolates amplified with the ITS4, The amplicon sizes of ITS region in this study were in line with the results of other authors worked different species who on Colletotrichum. For instance, Lima et al. (2013) recorded the sequences of the ITS region of Colletotrichum isolates ranged from 484 to 598 bp. On the other hand, Photita et al. (2005) reported that the ITS region of Colletotrichum spp. which they studied varied from 581 to 620 bp.

Sewedy, et al.

Table 4. Incidence percentage of isolated fungi using different methods of common bean and soybean seeds

| Isolated fungi | (| Comm | on bea | n | | | Soybea | ın | |
|-------------------------|------|------|--------|------|------|------|--------|------|-------|
| | SBM | AP | DFM | Mean | SBM | AP | DFM | Mean | Mean* |
| Alternaria alternata | 18.5 | 7.5 | 4.5 | 10.2 | 26.3 | 11.4 | 4.6 | 10.7 | 10.4 |
| Alternaria spp. | 12.2 | 4.1 | 2.3 | 6.2 | 10.3 | 4.6 | 2.6 | 4.4 | 5.3 |
| Aspergillus niger | 19.0 | 10.1 | 3.3 | 10.8 | 30.7 | 19.2 | 4.2 | 13.8 | 12.3 |
| Aspergillus ochraceous | 13.4 | 8.1 | 2.8 | 8.1 | 18.6 | 11.7 | 4.8 | 8.8 | 8.5 |
| Aspergillus flavus | 13.8 | 10.0 | 1.4 | 8.4 | 19.6 | 13.5 | 2.1 | 9.0 | 8.7 |
| Botryodiplodia sp. | 20.2 | 17.8 | 2.4 | 13.4 | 20.2 | 19.5 | 1.8 | 10.8 | 12.1 |
| Cladosporium sp. | 44.6 | 18.9 | 3.2 | 22.2 | 49.7 | 19.7 | 2.1 | 18.3 | 20.3 |
| Colletotrichum sp. | 2.3 | 1.5 | 1.2 | 1.7 | 4.2 | 2.1 | 2.4 | 2.1 | 1.9 |
| Fusarium solani. | 14.8 | 8.0 | 1.7 | 8.1 | 25.0 | 16.7 | 2.1 | 11.3 | 9.7 |
| Fusarium moniliforme | 4.5 | 3.8 | 0.8 | 3.0 | 24.3 | 9.5 | 1.5 | 9.0 | 6.0 |
| Fusarium oxysporum | 25.4 | 14.1 | 2.5 | 14.0 | 46.9 | 28.7 | 5.4 | 20.8 | 17.4 |
| Macrophomina phaseolina | 15.9 | 18.1 | 3.4 | 12.5 | 27.0 | 15.0 | 3.6 | 11.6 | 12.0 |
| Myrothecium sp. | 4.3 | 3.2 | 0.7 | 2.7 | 25.4 | 19.7 | 6.5 | 13.1 | 7.9 |
| Penicillium spp. | 21.7 | 15.2 | 5.7 | 14.2 | 20.5 | 24.3 | 4.5 | 12.8 | 13.5 |
| Rhizoctonia solani | 16.3 | 22.0 | 3.2 | 13.8 | 27.0 | 15.0 | 3.6 | 11.6 | 12.7 |
| Stemphylium spp. | 16.0 | 10.2 | 2.0 | 9.4 | 11.9 | 3.8 | 1.1 | 4.2 | 6.8 |
| Trichoderma spp. | 15.1 | 12.5 | 3.0 | 10.2 | 20.7 | 18.1 | 5.5 | 11.3 | 10.7 |
| Trichothecium sp. | 8.1 | 4.2 | 0.5 | 4.3 | 20.7 | 17.7 | 3.9 | 10.9 | 7.6 |
| Mean | 30.1 | 19.9 | 4.7 | | 45.2 | 28.4 | 6.6 | j | |

Incidence (%) = (No. of infected samples in 2016+2017).

Mean of sample infection = $(\Sigma \text{ fungus incidence in all examined samples})$ / (Total No. of examined samples). SBM = Standard blotter method. AP = Agar plate method. DFM = Deep freezing method.

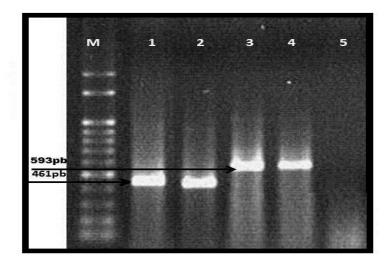


Fig. 1. Agarose gel (1%) electrophoresis pattern of amplified ITS-PCR for common bean seed pathogenic fungi *Colletotrichum lindemuthianum*. Lane M= Genomic DNA marker VC100pb fractionated (100, 200, 300, 400, 500, 600,700, 800, 900, 1000, 1100 and 1200 bp); lane 1 – *Colletotrichum lindemuthianum* DNA template extracted from pure culture; lane 2 – Infected common bean seeds with *Colletotrichum lindemuthianum* DNA template extracted; lane 3 – *Colletotrichum dematium* DNA template extracted from pure culture; lane 4 – infected soybean seeds with *Colletotrichum dematium* DNA template extracted, Lane 5-PCR negative control (sterile distilled water).

Zagazig J. Agric. Res., Vol. 46 No. (6A) 2019

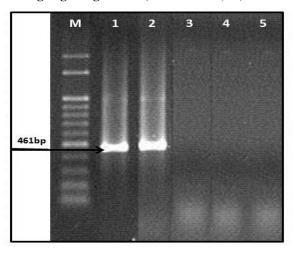


Fig. 2. Agarose gel (1%) electrophoresis pattern of amplified ITS-PCR for common bean seed pathogenic fungi *Colletotrichum lindemuthianum*. Lan M= Genomic DNA marker VC100pb fractionated (100, 200, 300, 400, 500, 600,700, 800, 900, 1000, 1100 and 1200 bp); lane 1-*Colletotrichum lindemuthianum* DNA template extracted from a pure culture; lane 2-Infected common bean seeds with *Colletotrichum lindemuthianum* DNA template extracted; lane 3-*Colletotrichum dematium* DNA template extracted from a pure culture; Lane 4-Infected soybean seeds with *Colletotrichum dematium* DNA template extracted; Lane 5-PCR negative control (sterile distilled water) finely *Colletotrichum lindemuthianum* from common bean seed and *Colletotrichum dematium* from soybean seed

Control Studies

Effect of bioagents on the growth of Colletotrichum spp. in vitro

Isolates of Trichoderma viride, Trichoderma harzianum, Bacillus subtilis and Pseudomonas floursence were used as biocontrol against for C. lindemuthianum and C. dematium. Results in Table 5 showed that, all examined bioagents exhibit different degrees of antagonism to the growth of tested fungi. Results also indicated that T. harzianum revealed the least linear growth (2.9 cm) for the tested fungi followed by T. viride and B. subtilis being 3.3, 3.9 cm, respectively. While P. floursence display the lowest reduction percent of linear growth reduction percent (7.4 cm). On the other hand, fungicide Aetro 30% (Iprodione 20% Tebuconazole 10%) recorded the least reduction liner growth (0.9 cm) for both pathogens tested compared with negative control which recorded 9.0 cm in diameter. Some investigators explained the mode of action of Trichoderma spp. against many pathogenic fungi as due to metabolites produced in the medium, which has fungi-static effect on other fungi, who revealed

that *Trichoderma* spp. activity against other pathogenic fungi was due to the production of certain antimicrobial such as tricholin, which inhibit the mycelial growth when spread in the medium. There were three modes of the action expressed by the bio-control agent *Trichoderma* spp. was recognized to produces number of antibiotics, *i.e.* trichodermin, trichodermol A and harzianolide. These compounds are responsible for the inhibition of most fungal phytopathogens (El-Abbasi *et al.*, 2003), (Nawar 2007) and (Abd El-Wahab, 2011).

Effect of plant extracts on the growth of some selected seed-borne fungi of dry bean and soybean *in vitro*

All tested plant extracts such as clove, thymus, and garlic had a significant reduction in the growth of *C. lind* and *C. dematum* (Table 6). Thymus extract caused the lowest liner growth (3.7 cm) followed by clove and garlic extracts (4.2 and 5.8 cm, respectively). Plant extract concentrations caused a significant reduction in the growth of tested fungi. The high concentration (1.5%) gave less fungal growth (3.3 cm). While the lowest one (0.5%) gave the

Sewedy, et al.

Table 5. Effect of biocontrol agent on linear growth and efficacy of *Colletotrichum linemuthianum* and *Colletotrichum dematium*

| Bioagents (A) | | Mean (A) | | | |
|----------------------------------|-----|---------------|------|--------------|-----|
| | C. | linemuthianum | C. d | ematium | |
| | L.G | \mathbf{E} | L.G | \mathbf{E} | |
| Trichoderma harzianum | 3.1 | 65.6 | 2.7 | 70.0 | 2.9 |
| Trichoderma viride | 3.9 | 56.7 | 2.8 | 68.9 | 3.3 |
| Bacillus subtilis | 4.0 | 55.6 | 3.9 | 56.7 | 3.9 |
| Pseudomonas floursence | 7.4 | 17.8 | 7.4 | 17.8 | 7.4 |
| Iprodione 20% + Tebuconazole 10% | 1.2 | 86.7 | 0.7 | 92.2 | 0.9 |
| Control | 9.0 | 0.0 | 9.0 | 0.0 | 9.0 |
| Mean (B) | 4.7 | 7 | | 4.4 | |

Coefficient of Variation = 5.914

Critical Difference Values

| - | LSD 5% | LSD 1% |
|------------------|--------|--------|
| Factor A | 0.326 | 0.444 |
| Factor B | 0.188 | 0.256 |
| Treatments/(AxB) | 0.462 | 0.627 |

Table 6. Effect of plant extracts on linear growth and efficacy (cm) of *Colletotrichum linemuthianum* and *Colletotrichum dematium*

| Plant extract | Concentration ppm (B) | | Fungi | (C) | | Mean | Mean |
|----------------------|-----------------------|-----------|---------|----------|--------|---------------|------------|
| (A) | _ | C. linemu | thianum | C. de | matium | – (AB) | (A) |
| | _ | LG | E | LG | E | | |
| | 0.5% | 8.2 | 8.9 | 5.7 | 36.7 | 6.9 | |
| Garlic | 1% | 7.5 | 16.7 | 5.1 | 43.3 | 6.3 | |
| | 1.5% | 7.3 | 18.9 | 4.6 | 48.9 | 5.9 | 5.8 |
| Iprodione 20% + Tebu | uconazole 10% | 1.2 | 86.7 | 0.7 | 92.2 | 0.9 | |
| Control | | 9.0 | 0.0 | 9.0 | 0.0 | 9.0 | |
| Mean (AC) | | 6. | 6 | | 5.0 | | |
| | 0.5% | 5.3 | 41.1 | 3.4 | 62.2 | 4.4 | |
| Clove | 1% | 4.6 | 48.9 | 2.6 | 71.1 | 3.6 | |
| | 1.5% | 3.9 | 56.7 | 2.3 | 74.4 | 3.1 | 4.2 |
| Iprodione 20% + Tebu | uconazole 10% | 1.2 | 86.7 | 0.7 | 92.2 | 0.9 | |
| Control | | 9.0 | 0.0 | 9.0 | 0.0 | 9.0 | |
| Mean (AC) | | 4. | 8 | (| 3.6 | | |
| | 0.5% | 5.2 | 42.2 | 3.8 | 57.8 | 4.5 | |
| Thymus | 1% | 3.9 | 56.7 | 3.0 | 66.7 | 3.4 | |
| v | 1.5% | 0.8 | 91.1 | 0.8 | 91.1 | 0.8 | 3.7 |
| Iprodione 20% + Tebu | uconazole 10% | 1.2 | 86.7 | 0.7 | 92.2 | 0.9 | |
| Control | | 9.0 | 0.0 | 9.0 | 0.0 | 9.0 | |
| Mean (AC) | | 4. | 0 | <i>.</i> | 3.4 | Mea | n (B) |
| | 0.5% | 6. | 2 | 4 | 4.3 | 5 | .3 |
| Over all means | 1% | 5. | 3 | <i>.</i> | 3.6 | 4 | .4 |
| (BC) | 1.5% | 4. | 0 | , | 2.6 | 3 | .3 |
| Iprodione 20% + Tebu | uconazole 10% | 1. | 2 | (| 0.7 | 0 | .9 |
| Control | | 9. | 0 | 9 | 9.0 | 9 | .0 |
| Mean (C) | | 5. | 1 | 4 | 4.0 | | |

Control (+) =Effect of Aetro 30% (Iprodione 20% + Tebuconazole 10%) at (1000 ppm) on linear growth (cm). Control (-) =Linear growth (cm) of pathogens.

Coefficient of Variation = 4.8

| Critical Difference Values - | LSD 5% | LSD 1% |
|------------------------------|--------|--------|
| Factor – A | 0.115 | 0.153 |
| Factor – B | 0.149 | 0.198 |
| Factor – C | 0.094 | 0.125 |
| A x B | 0.257 | 0.342 |
| AxC | 0.163 | 0.217 |
| ВхС | 0.210 | 0.280 |
| AxBxC | 0.364 | 0.484 |

highest fungal growth (5.3 cm). On the other hand, fungicide Aetro 30% (Iprodione 20% + Tebuconazole 10%) recorded the lowest liner growth (0.9 cm) for the pathogens compared with control which recorded 9.0 cm in diameter. Generally, clove, thymus, and garlic extracts have an inhibition effect on *C. lindemuthianum* and *C, dematium*. The application of the crude extracts would probably show better antifungal activities.

Results of the effectiveness of the present extracts on the inhibition of mycelial growth are, to somewhat, similar to those reported by Halawa (2004), Hassanin et al. (2007) and El-Mougy et al. (2007). Also, the obtained results concerning the increase in the inhibitory effect of each extract by increasing its concentration coincide with El-Habaa et al. (2002) and **Shafie** (2004). On the other hand, these extracts contain fungicidal or might fungistatic substances, causing inhibition to the formation of fungal spores and the sclerotial formation and their germination as well as preventing the formation of reproductive of the fungal organs. These results are, to somewhat, similar to those reported by Ahmed and Sultana (1984) who stated that garlic and cloves extract inhibited spore germination and mycelial growth of some

important fungal pathogens of jute such as *M. phaseolina* and *C. corchari*. The mode of action of the active substances in extracts of medicinal and aromatic plants was interpreted by many scientists. **Zambonelli** *et al.* (1996) and Wilson *et al.* (1997) mentioned that these antifungal substances have high capabilities to damage the structure and function of the enzymatic bioactivity (Hassanin, 2013).

Greenhouse Exeperements

Effect of fungicide, plant extracts and bioagents materials on disease incidence (%), after planting in soil infested with Colletotrichum lindemuthianum and Colletotrichum dematium in vivo

The effect of plant extracts, bio-agents and fungicides were applied as seed treatments, on disease incidence 30 days post planting in soil artificially infested with *C. lindemuthianum and C. dematium*. Results in Table 7 indicate that, percentages of disease incidence decreased, with all tested treatment. Atero 30% was the most effective followed by *T. harzianum*, *B. subtilis*, *T. viride*, thymus extract, clove extract, *P. floursence* and garlic extract (1.5%), respectively. On the other hand,

Table 7. Effect of different seed treatments on disease incidence (%), 30days post planting in soil infested with *Colletotrichum lindemuthianum* on common bean and *Colletotrichum dematium* on soybean under greenhouse conditions

| Treatment | Colletotrichum lindemuthianum | | Colletotrichum dematium | | Mean | | |
|------------------------|----------------------------------|-----------------------|----------------------------|-----------------------------|------|-----------------------|--|
| | Survivals (%) | Disease incidence (%) | | Disease incidence (%) | | Disease incidence (%) | |
| Trichoderma harzianum | 90.1 | 9.9 | 93.3 | 6.7 | 91.7 | 8.3 | |
| Trichoderma viride | 85.0 | 15.0 | 86.0 | 14.0 | 85.5 | 14.5 | |
| Bacillus subtilis | 89.0 | 11.0 | 87.5 | 12.5 | 88.3 | 11.7 | |
| Pseudomonas floursence | 78.5 | 21.5 | 76.5 | 23.5 | 77.5 | 22.5 | |
| Garlic | 73.3 | 26.7 | 71.7 | 28.3 | 72.5 | 27.5 | |
| Clove | 78.3 | 21.7 | 83.5 | 16.5 | 80.9 | 19.1 | |
| Thymus | 83.0 | 17.0 | 83.0 | 16.0 | 83.5 | 16.5 | |
| Atero 30% | 93.7 | 6.3 | 94.9 | 5.1 | 94.3 | 5.7 | |
| Control (negative) | 100 | 0.0 | 100 | 0.0 | 100 | 0 | |
| Control (posative) | 54.0 | 46.0 | 48.0 | 52.0 | 51 | 49.0 | |
| Mean (B) | 84.5 | 15.5 | 84.9 | 15.1 | 84.7 | 15.3 | |
| LSD 5% | 6.7 | 724 | 7.3 | 351 | | | |

Atero 30%, T. harzianum, B. subtilis, T. viride, and thymus extract were effect disease incidence on all tested fungi. Atero 30% was the most effective treatment compared with all treatment which gave highly effect on disease incidence of C. lindemuthianum and C. dematium (6.3 and 5.7%, respectively) followed by T. harzianum (9.9 and 6.7%, respectively), B. subtilis, T. viride and thymus extract. Moreover, garlic extract gave the lowest effective one on C. lindemuthianum and C. dematium (26.7% and 28.3%), respectively. Compared with negative and positive control. Results of the effectiveness treatments of the present extracts and fungicide on the inhibition of mycelial growth are, to somewhat, similar to those reported by Zeilinger and Omann (2007), Shovan et al. (2008), Abd El-Wahab (2011), Gveroska and Ziberoski (2012), Hassanin (2013), Mohamed et al. (2013-b), Yousef et al. (2016) and Ghoneem et al. (2019).

REFERENCES

- Abd El-Kader, M., N. El-Mougy and S. Lashin (2012). Essential oils and *Trichodrma harzianum* as an integrated control measure against faba bean root-rot pathogens. J. Plant Prot. Res., 51(3): 306-313.
- Abd El-Wahab, H.A.A. (2011). Studies on the Pathogenic Fungi Associated Broad Bean Seeds in Egypt. Ph.D. Thesis, Fac. Agric., Suez Canal Univ., Egypt. 117.
- Adegbite, A.A. and A.N. Amusa (2008). The major economic field diseases of cowpea in the humid agro-ecologies of South-Western Nigeria. Afr. J. Biotech., 7(25): 4705-4712.
- Ahmed, N. and K. Sultana (1984). Fungitoxic effect of garlic on treatment of jute seed. Bangaldesh J. Bot., 13(2): 130 136.
- Awad, M. A., I.H. El-Abbasi, T. Shoala, Sahar A. Youssef, D.M. Shaheen and G. A. Amer (2019). PCR and nanotechnology unraveling detection problems of the seed-borne pathogen *Cephalosporium maydis* the cause agent of late wilt disease in maize. Int. J. Nanotechnol. Allied Sci., 3(2): 2019-2021.
- Barnett, H.L. and B.B. Hunter (1998). Illustrated Genera of Imperfect Fungi. Fourth edition, APS Press, USA.

- Booth, C. (1985). The Genus Fusarium. Common Wealth Mycological Institute, Kew. Surrey, England, 237 Pp.
- Chen, Y.-Y., R. L. Conner, C. L. Gillard, G. Boland, C. Babcock, K.-F. Chang, S. F. Hwang and P. M. Balasubramanian (2007). A specific and sensitive method for the detection of *Colletotrichum lindemuthianum* in dry bean tissue. Plant Dis., 91: 1271-1276.
- Dawson, W. A. and G. L. Bateman (2001). Fungal communities on roots of wheat and barley and effects of seed treatments containing fluquinconazole applied to control take-all. Plant Pathology, 2: 50 -58.
- Dellaporta, S. L., J. Wood and J. B. Hicks (1983). A Plant DNA Mini preparation: Version II. Plant Mol. Biol. Rep., 1: 19-21.
- Dhingra, O.D. and J. B. Sinclair (1973). Location of *Macrophomina phaseolina* on soybean plants related to culture characteristics and virulence. Phytopathol., 63: 934-936.
- Drori, R., A. Sharon, D. Goldberg, O. Rabin Ovitz; M. Levy and O. Degani (2013). Molecular diagnosis for *Harpophora maydis* the cause of maize late wilt in Israel. Phytopathology Mediterranean, 52 (1): 16-29.
- Duncn, D.B. (1955). Multiple Range and Multiple f-Test. Biometrics, 11:1-42.
- El-Abbasi, I.H., A.A. El-Wakil and M.M. Satour (2003). Studies of the bioagent *Trichoderma* in Egypt: 1. *In vitro* determination of antagonistic potential of *Trichoderma harzianum* against some plant pathogenic fungi. Egypt. J. Phytopathol., 31 (1-2): 59-73
- El-Habaa, G. M., M.S. Felaifel, A. M. Zahra and R.E. Abdel-Ghany (2002). *In vitro* evaluation of some fungicides, commercial biocontrol formulations and natural plant extracts on peanut root rot pathogens. Egypt. J. Agric. Res., 80 (3): 1017–1030.
- El-Mougy, N.S., N.G. El-Gamal and M. Abdel-Kader (2007). Control of wilt and root-rot incidence in *Phaseolus vulgaris* by some

- plant volatile compounds. J. Plant Protection Research, 47 (3): 255-265.
- Farzana, Y. (2012). Health and Quality of Soybean Seeds and Their Management by Plant Extracts. Thesis of Ph.D., Department of Plant Pathology, Bengland, Agricultural University.
- Freeman, S., E. Shabi and T. Katan (2000). Characterization of *Colletotrichum acutatum* causing anthracnose of anemone (*Anemone coronaria* L.). Appl. and Environ. Microbio., 66: 5267-5272.
- Ghoneem, K. M., G. M. Abdel-Fattah and Noha M. El-Dadamony (2019). Mycolytic activity of *Trichoderma viride* against *Macrophomina phaseolina* associated with soybean seeds. Vol. 41. No 1.
- Gomaa, F.H. (2010). Studies on *Vicia faba* Root Rot. M. Sc Thesis, Plant Pathology, Faculty of Agriculture, Alex. Univ., Egypt, 75:119.
- Gveroska, B. and J. Ziberoski (2012). *Trichoderma* harzianum as a biocontrol agent against Alternaria alternata on tobacco. Appl Innov Technol. 7(2): 67–76.
- Halawa, A. E. A. (2004). Pathological Studies on Some Soil-borne Fungi Attacking Some of Ornamental trees in Egypt. M.Sc. Thesis, Fac. Agric., Zagazig Univ., 90pp.
- Hassanein, M. M. H (2013). Pathological studies on root rot and wilt of black cumin (*Nigella sativa* L.) and their management in Egypt. Ph. D. Thesis Agric. Bot.- Plant Pathol., Fac. Agric., El-Azhar Univ., Cairo, 99.
- Hassanien, A.M., A.M. El-Garhy and G.A. Mekhemar (2007). Symbiotic nitrogen fixation process in faba bean and chickpea as affected by biological and chemical control of root-rot. J. Agric. Sci. Mansoura Univ., 31:963-980.
- Infantin, A., M. Kharrat, L. Riccioni, C.J. Coyne, K. McPhee, J. Niklaus and N.J. Grunwald (2006). Screening techniques and sources of resistance to root diseases in cool season food legumes. Euphytica, 147: 201-221.

- Islam S.M.M., M. M. I. Masum and M. G. A. Fakir (2009). Prevalence of seed-borne fungi in sorghum of different locations of Bangladesh. Scientific Research and Essay. 4 (3): 175-179.
- ISTA (2015). International Seed Testing Association. Annual Meeting 2015, Montevideo, Uruguay. ISTA News Bulletin No. 148.
- Kamel, H. M. (2017). Genetical Approaches for Studying Biological Agents Against Legumes Seed-borne Fungi. Ph. D. Thesis Genetics, Fac. Agric., Zagazig Univ. Egypt; 94 pp.
- Khiyami, M. A., H. Almoammar, Y. M. Awad, M. A. Alghuthaymi and K.A. Abd- Elsalam (2014). Plant pathogen nano diagnostic techniques: forthcoming changes? Biotechnol. and Biotechnol. Equipmen, 28 (5): 775-785.
- Lima, N.B., M.V. Batista, M.A. De Moraisjr, M. A. Barbosa, S.J. Michereff, K.D. Hyde and M.P. Câmara (2013). Five *Colletotrichum* species are responsible for mango anthracnose in northeastern Brazil. Fungal Diversity, 1-14.
- Mathur, S. B. and B. M. Cunfer (1993). Seed-borne Diseases and Seed Health Testing of Wheat. J ordbrugsforlaget, Frederiksberg, Denmark.168 pp.
- Mazen, M. M., Nadia H. El-Batanony, M. M. Abd El-Monium and O. N. Massoud (2008). Rhizobial cultural filtrates of *Rhizobium* spp. and arbuscular mycorrhiza (AM) fungi are potential biological control agents against faba bean root rot fungal diseases under field conditions. Global J. Biotechnol. and Biochem., 3(1): 32-41. 181.
- Mohammed, A., A. Ayalew and N. Dechassa (2013-b). Effect of Integrated management of Bean Anthracnose (*Colletotrichum lindemuthianum* Sacc. and Magn.) through soil solarization and fungicide applications on epidemics of the disease and seed health in Hararghe Highlands, Ethiopia. J. Plant Pathol. Microb., 4: 182.
- Mohamed, H. A. (2007). Biochemical and Pathological Studies on Important Crops in New Reclaimed Lands. Ph.D. Thesis, Fac. Agric., Cairo Univ. Egypt, 181.

- Nawar, S.L. (2007). Chitosan and three *Trichoderma* spp. to control *Fusarium* crown and roor-rot tomato in Jeddah, Kingdom Saudia Arabia. Egypt. J. Phytopathol., 1: 45-58.
- Neergaard, P. (1979). Seed Pathology, Vol.1 and 2.The Macmillan Press Ltd., London and Basingstoke.1191 pp.
- Photita, W.; P. W. Taylor; R. Ford; K. D. Hyde and S. Lumyong (2005). Morphological and molecular characterization of *Colletotrichum* species from herbaceous plants in Thailand. Fungal Diversity, 18: 117-133.
- Riad S.R., M.M. El-Mohamedy, F. Abdel-Kader, Abd-El-Kareem and N.S. El-Mougy (2013). Inhibitory effect of antagonistic bioagents and chitosan on the growth of tomato root rot pathogens *In vitro*. J. Agric. Technol., 9 (6):1521-1533. 170.
- Sallam, A.A., A.A. Abdel Rasik and H. Rushdi (1978). Antagonistic effect of Bacillus subtilis aginst Cephalosporium maydis. Egyption J. phytopatho., 10,97-105.
- Sambrook, J., E.F. Fritsch and T. Maniatis (1989). Molecular Cloning: A Laboratory Manual, 2nd Ed. New York Cold spring Harper Laboratory.
- Schiller, M., M. Lübeck, T. Sundelin, L. F. C. Meléndez, S. Danielsen, D. F. Jensen and K. M. Ordeñana (2006). Two subpopulations of *Colletotrichum acutatum* are responsible for anthracnose in strawberry and leather leaf fern in Costa Rica. European J. Plant Pathology, 116: 107-118.
- Serra, I.M.R.D.S., M. Menezes, R.S.B. Coelho, G.M.G. Ferraz, A.V.V. Montarroyos and L.S.S. Martins (2011). Molecular Analysis in the differentiation of *Colletotrichum gloeosporioides* isolates from the cashew and mango trees. Brazilian Archives of Biology and Technology, 54: 1099-1108.
- Shafie, R.M.S. A. (2004). Studies on the activity of some medicinal and aromatic plant extracts in controlling soil-borne diseases affecting sunflower. M. Sc. Thesis, Fac. Agric., Cairo Univ., Egypt, 107.
- Shovan, L.R., M.K.A. Bhuniyan, J.A. Begun and Z. Pervez (2008). *In vitro* control of *Colletotichum dematium* causing anthracnose

- of soybean by fungicides, plant extracts and *Trichoderma haziarum*. Int. J. Sustain. Crop Prod., 3 (3): 10-17.
- Snedecor, G.W. and W.G. Cochran (1980). Statistical Methods. 7th Ed. Iowa State Univ. Press, Iowa, USA.
- Sreenivasaprasad, S., P.R. Mills and A.E. Brown (1992). Detection and differentiation of *Colletotrichum gloeosporioides* isolates using PCR. FEMS Microbiol. Lett., 98:137-144
- Tadja, A., M. Youcef Benkada, M. Rickauer, S.
 B. Bendahmane and M. Benkhelifa (2009).
 Characterization of Ascochyta as Pathological Species of Pea (Pisum sativum L.) at the North- West of Algeria. J. Agron., 8 (3): 100-106.
- Vinale, F., K. Sivasithamparam, E.L. Ghisalberti, R. Marra, S.L. Woo and M. Loito (2008). *Trichoderma*-plant pathogen interactions. Soil Biol. Biochem., 40: 1-10.
- Warham, E. J. (1990). Effect of *Tilletia indica* infection on viability, germination and vigor of wheat seed. Pl. Dis., 74: 130-132.
- Wilson, C.L., J. M. Solar, A. El-Ghaouth and M. E. Wisniewski (1997). Rapid evaluation of plant extracts and essential oils for antifungal activity against *Botrytis cinerea*. Plant Dis., 81: 204 210.
- Wrather, J.A. and S.R. Koenning (2009). Effects of diseases on soybean yields in the United States 1996 to 2007. Online. Plant Health Progress doi: 10.1094/PHP-2009-0401- 01-RS.
- Wrather, J.A., S.R. Koenning and T.R. Anderson (2003). Effect of diseases on soybean yields in the United States and Ontario (1999-2002). Online. Plant Health Progress doi: 10.1094/PHP-2003-0325-01-RV.
- Yousef, S.A.M., H.H.A. El-Sharkawy and H.A. Metwally (2016). Use of beneficial microorganisms to minimize the recommended rates of macronutrients to control cucumber damping off. Egypt. J. Phytopathol., 44 (2): 17-34.
- Youssef, M. A. A., A. Z. Aly, M. R. A. Tohamy and M. I. Ghonim (2018). Studies on Fungi Associated With Pea Seeds and Their Effect

- on Germination and Some Seed Characters. Zagazig J. Agric. Res., 45 (4): 1291-1308.
- Zambonelli, A., A. Bianchi and A. Albasini (1996). Effect of essential oils on phytopathogenic fungi *in vitro*. Phytopathol., 86: 491 494.
- Zedan, A. M.; Y. A. Arab; S. A. El-Morsy and M. M. H. Hassanein (2011). Pathological studies on root rot and wilt of black cumin (*Nigella sativa* L.) and their management in Egypt. Egypt. J. Appl. Sci., 26 (4): 273.
- Zeilinger, S. and M. Omann (2007). *Trichoderma* Biocontrol Signal Transduction Pathways Involved in Host Sensing and Mycoparasitism. Gene Regul. Syst. Biol., 1 227-234.
- Zhonghua, M. and T.J. Michailides (2007). Approaches for eliminating PCR inhibitors and designing PCR primers for the detection of phytopathogenic fungi. Crop Prot., 26: 145-161.

الكشف الجزيئى و مكافحة أنواع الفطر .Colletotrichum spp المحمول ببذور الفاصوليا وفول الصويا

محمود السيد سويدى ' _ محمود محمد عطية ' _ محمد امين زايد ' _ مجدى ابراهيم غنيم ' المعهد بحوث أمراض النباتات _ مركز البحوث الزراعية _ الجيزة _ مصر

٢- كلية الزراعة – جامعة الزقازيق – مصر

أستخدمت معاملات مختلفة للبذور كبدائل للمبيدات الكيماوية لمقاومة الأمراض الفطرية المحمولة ببذور بعض التقاوي البقولية (الفاصوليا وفول الصويا) حيث تم حصر الفطريات المحمولة على بذورها في ثلاث محافظات مختلفة في مصروهي البحيرة، الدقهلية، الإسماعيلية. تم عزل ١٩ نوعا فطريا تنتمي الى ١٣ جنس باستخدام طريقة أوراق الترشيح المبللة (Standard blotter) وكانت الفطريات المعزولة كالتالي: Alternaria alternata, Alternaria spp., Aspergillus niger, Aspergillus ochraceous, Aspergillus flavus, Botryodiplodia sp., Cladosporium sp., Colletotrichum spp., Fusarium solani, Fusarium moniliforme, Fusarum oxysporum, Macrophomina phaseolina, Myrothecium sp., Penicillium spp, Rhizoctonia "Trichoderma spp. and Trichothecium sp. solani, Stemphylium spp. وباجراء إختبار القدرة المرضية وجد ان عزلات الفطر (.Colletotrichum spp.) كانت ممرضة للفاصوليا وفول الصويا . ووجد أن إختبار تفاعل البلمرة المتسلسل (PCR) المستخدم في الكشف و التشخيص لفطر C. lindemuthianum and C. dematium المحمول ببذور الفاصوليا وُفول الْصويا علىٰ التّوالي أحد الطرق الهامة والسريعة والأكثر دقة في التعريف والتشخيص المستخدمة بالبحث عن طريق التشخيص الجزيئيي للفطر و لإجراء تفاعل البلمرة يلزم استخدام ثلاث بادئات وهما ITS4, CIF4 and CIF5 مع استخلاص للحمض النووي DNA بصورة نقية، وأجريت اختبارات الطرق القياسية لصحة وسلامة البذور المستخدمة وهي (طريقة اوراق الترشيح المبللة، طريقة أطباق الأجار وطريقة التجميد) وجد أن طريقة أوراق الترشيح المبللة هي الأفضل والأسرع بينهم في الكشف عن وجود الفطريات المحمولة على البذور، وثبط فطر Trichoderma harzianum النمو الطولى لعزلات فطر C. lindemuthianum and C. dematium سجل ٢,٩ سم لكلتا العزلتين ويليه فطر Trichoderma viride ثم بكتيريا Bacillus subtilis حيث سجل كلا منهم (٣,٣سم و٣,٩ سم)على التوالي بينما كانت بكتيريا Pseudomonas floursence الأقل في التأثير على النمو الطولي (٧,٤ سم) بالمقارنة بالمبيد الفطري أيترو ٣٠% حيث سجل أقل نمو طولي ٩٠,٩ سم للفطريات C. lindemuthianum and C. dematium وكذلك سجل المستخلص النباتي لنبات الزعتر أقل نمو طولي ٣,٧ سم وسجل مستخلصي القرنفل والثوم ٤,٢ سم و٨,٥ سم على التوالي ، وأوضحت التركيزات المختلفة للمستخلصات النباتية اختزال في النمو الطولي لعز لات فطر (C. lindemuthianum and C. dematium) حيث سجل التركيز ٥٠٠% أقل نمو طولي ٣٠٣سم بينما التركيزين ١%، ٥٠٠% سجلا نمو طولي ٤,٤سم ، ٣,٥ سم على النوالي وعلى الجانب الآخر أعطى المبيد الفطري أيترو ٣٠% الذي يحتوي على المواد الفعالة وهي (Iprodione + Tebuconazole) أقل نمو طولي ٩٠٠ سم للفطريات (Iprodione + Tebuconazole) مقارنة بالكنترول ٩سم

المحكمــون:

۱ ـ د. محمد صلاح الدین عبدالعزیز فلیفل ۲ ـ أ.د. أحمـــد زكــــى علــى علـــى