

For. Path. 40 (2010) 87–95 © 2009 Blackwell Verlag GmbH

# Detection of *Chalara fraxinea* in common ash (*Fraxinus excelsior*) using real time PCR

By A. CHANDELIER<sup>1</sup>, F. ANDRÉ and F. LAURENT

Walloon Agricultural Research Centre, Department Biocontrol and Plant Genetic Resources, Rue de Liroux, 4; B-5030 Gembloux, Belgium. <sup>1</sup>E-mail: chandelier@cra.wallonie.be (for correspondence)

#### Summary

A real time PCR assay was developed for the detection of *Chalara fraxinea* in common ash. PCR primers and Taqman probes, based on the internal transcribed spacer region of the multi-copy gene rDNA, were tested for specificity and sensitivity. The primers amplified an 81 bp fragment for *C. fraxinea* but did not amplify DNA from other *Chalara* species or from other fungi isolated from ash, whether pathogenic or saprophytic. The limit of detection was 5 pg of genomic DNA per PCR. Moreover, naturally-infected samples were correctly diagnosed. A procedure for DNA extraction from woody tissues using an electric drill yielded DNA of an appropriate quality for real time PCR. This molecular method could be useful for routine analysis of this emergent pathogen and for epidemiological studies.

# 1 Introduction

A few years ago, a new fungus was reported as the cause of Fraxinus excelsior dieback in Poland. It was described as a new species Chalara fraxinea T. Kowalski sp. nov. (KOWALSKI 2006). Its teleomorph was identified as Hymenoscyphus albidus, a fungal species widespread in Europe (KOWALSKI and HOLDENRIEDER 2009b). The pathogenicity of this fungus was demonstrated recently (KOWALSKI and HOLDENRIEDER 2009a). Both young plants and adult trees are killed, irrespective of location and regeneration methods. The pathogen induces wilting, leaf necrosis, premature leaf-shedding, stem necrosis and wood discoloration leading to decline of the trees (CHANDELIER 2008; KOWALSKI and HOLDENRIEDER 2008). Since its first identification, this emerging disease has increasingly been observed on common ash in other European countries, notably in Germany (SCHUMACHER et al. 2007), Sweden (BAKYS et al. 2009a,b), Denmark (THOMSEN et al. 2007), Austria (Cech 2006; HALMSCHLAGER and KIRISITS 2008), Norway (TALGØ et al. 2008), Czech Republic (JANKOVSKY et al. 2008), Hungary (SZABÓ 2008), Lithuania (LYGIS et al. 2005) and Slovenia (OGRIS et al. 2009). In 2008, the fungus was also reported in France (B. Marçais, personal communication). Due to suspicion that C. fraxinea is an alien organism and because of its potentially economic and ecological impacts, the European Plant Protection Organization has put this pathogen on its pathogen alert list (EPPO 2007).

Currently, the detection of the pathogen rests on its isolation on malt extract agar (KOWALSKI 2006). However, the probability of detection is unpredictable with some types of tissues, and gives rise to false negative results due to the slow growth of the pathogen (BAKYS et al. 2009a). Furthermore, the production of phialophores and conidia takes several weeks making time-consuming the identification at the species level (KOWALSKI 2006). A molecular method (PCR and T-RFLP) has already been proposed for the detection of *C. fraxinea* directly from plant tissues (BAKYS et al. 2009a). However, this method is not adapted to high throughput analyses. In contrast, real time PCR has provided a valuable approach for rapid

Received: 7.1.2009; accepted: 20.4.2009; editor: S. Woodward

detection of plant pathogens (ATALLAH et al. 2007; HAYDEN et al. 2006; VAN GENT-PELZER et al. 2007). This method utilizes fluorescence to detect the presence of amplification products as the reaction occurs. It offers significant advantages over conventional PCR, notably in terms of sample handling. Moreover, as the reactions are conducted in a 'closed-tube' system, the risk of false positive results due to carry-over contamination is significantly reduced. For this reason, a real time PCR method for the detection of *C. fraxinea* from different plant tissues has been developed in a context of routine application.

# 2 Material and methods

### 2.1 Isolation of fungi and plant material

Field sampling was done in August–October 2008 on ash showing symptoms of crown dieback in Belgium (Wallonia, five trees in three sites) and in France (Département des Vosges, 10 trees in five sites). In both countries, branches with dieback symptoms (maximum diameter of branches = 1.5 cm) were collected and analysed within 48 h. Pieces of plant tissues (woody material without bark, bark or leaf pieces) were disinfected in 10 times diluted commercial bleach (20 s), rinsed three times in sterile water, cut into pieces of approximately 5 mm<sup>2</sup> in size and placed on 2% malt extract agar (MEA, Difco, Becton-Dickinson, Le Pont de Claix, France) supplemented with 100 mg/l streptomycin sulphate (Sigma-Aldrich GmbH, Steinhem, Germany). Petri dishes were incubated at room temperature in the dark for 4–5 weeks. Isolates were subcultured to 2% MEA. For long term storage, isolates were maintained on 2% MEA at 2–8°C under oil. Isolates which were collected from ash in the framework of this study (n = 16), reference *Chalara* species from the Central Bureau voor Schimmelcultures collection (The Netherlands) as well as other fungi used in this study are listed in Table 1.

Plant tissues (shoot and leaves) from healthy trees (Belgium) and from trees infected with *C. fraxinea* (France) were stored at  $-20^{\circ}$ C for real time PCR assays.

#### 2.2 DNA extraction

DNA was extracted from mycelium or plant material after grinding the tissues in liquid nitrogen. Sampled plant material was put into 1.5 ml centrifuge tubes with 250  $\mu$ l lysis buffer (Tris–HCl pH8.0,100 mm; EDTA 20 mm; NaCl 1.4 m; CTAB 2%; PVP K-30 2%) and 40  $\mu$ l Proteinase K (1 mg/ml). The tubes were placed for 2 h at 55°C with occasional swirling and then centrifuged for 2 min at 6000 g. The supernatant was transferred into a fresh tube and DNA extraction carried out with the High Pure Template Preparation Kit (Roche Diagnostic GmbH, Mannheim, Germany) according to the manufacturer's instructions. A clean up of DNA was performed by centrifugation of the DNA extract through a column containing polyvinylpyrrolidone (PVPP) suspension (10% in Tris–HCl 10 mM, pH 7.5). DNA samples were stored at –20°C. DNA concentration was estimated with a spectrophotometer at 260 nm. A grinding method for wood material was also tested. The inner part of wood displaying necrosis was sampled by drilling (diameter of drill bit = 3 mm) with a rechargeable cordless drill. The sawdust was placed into a 1.5 ml tube (~100 mg) and submitted to the DNA extraction without further grinding. The drill bit was rinsed in water, and soaked in 95% ethanol to avoid cross-contamination between samples (JASALAVICH et al. 2000).

#### 2.3 ITS sequencing

The ITS region was amplified by PCR with primers ITS1 and ITS4 (Table 2) as described by WHITE et al. (1990) from DNA extracted from pure culture of all isolates collected from

c		$\mathbf{\Omega}$
5	c	u
C	٦	7
		~

Strain Collection								
no.	Species	Original host	Year	Country	(code)	$C_{t}^{1}$		
3838	Alternaria alternata	Fraxinus excelsior	2008	Belgium	CRAW	>40		
3814	Chalara aurea	na	1977	The Netherlands	CBS (63477)	>40		
3816	Chalara constricta	Decaying wood	1975	Belgium	CBS (24876)	>40		
3817	Chalara fraxinea	Fraxinus excelsior	2006	Poland	CBS (122507)	18.36		
3819	Chalara fraxinea	Fraxinus excelsior	2006	Poland	CBS (122504)	17.22		
3820	Chalara fraxinea	Fraxinus excelsior	2006	Poland	CBS (122506)	18.00		
3834	Chalara fraxinea	Fraxinus excelsior	2008	France	CRAW	20.55		
3835	Chalara fraxinea	Fraxinus excelsior	2008	France	CRAW	20.00		
3836	Chalara fraxinea	Fraxinus excelsior	2008	France	CRAW	19.65		
3815	Chalara ovoida	Quercus petraea	1987	Germany	CBS (13688)	>40		
3840	Diplodia sp.	Vitis vinifera	2007	Belgium	CRAW	>40		
3831	Epicoccum nigrum	Fraxinus excelsior	2008	Belgium	CRAW	>40		
3821	Fusarium lateritium	Fraxinus excelsior	2008	Belgium	CRAW	>40		
3832	Fusarium lateritium	Fraxinus excelsior	2008	Belgium	CRAW	>40		
3828	Fusarium lateritium	Fraxinus excelsior	2008	Belgium	CRAW	>40		
3839	Penicillium sp.	Fraxinus excelsior	2008	Belgium	CRAW	>40		
3822	Peniophora sp.	Fraxinus excelsior	2008	Belgium	CRAW	>40		
3833	Peniophora sp.	Fraxinus excelsior	2008	France	CRAW	39.29		
2401	Pestalotiopsis sp.	Picea abies	2003	Belgium	CRAW	>40		
3825	Phoma exigua	Fraxinus excelsior	2001	Belgium	CRAW	>40		
3826	Phoma exigua	Fraxinus excelsior	2008	Belgium	CRAW	>40		
2307	Phoma exigua	Fraxinus excelsior	2008	Belgium	CRAW	>40		
3829	Phoma sp.	Fraxinus excelsior	2008	Belgium	CRAW	>40		
3823	Phytophthora citrophthora	Buxus	2008	Belgium	CRAW	>40		
3827	Trichoderma viride	Fraxinus excelsior	2008	Belgium	CRAW	>40		
2188	Verticillium dahliae	Fraxinus excelsior	1999	Belgium	CRAW	>40		
na, not available: CBS. Central Bureau voor Schimmelcultures. Fungal Biodiversity Centre –								
Utrecht (The Netherlands); CRAW, Walloon Agricultural Research Centre, Gembloux								
(Belgium) – our collection.								
<sup>1</sup> C <sub>t</sub> -values established at a threshold of 0.5 (real time PCR with probes Cf-F, Cf-R and Cf-S).								

Table 1. List of fungal strains and their origin.

Table 2. Sequence of primers and Taqman probe used in this study.

Probe name	Туре	Sequence
ITS-1 <sup>1</sup> ITS-4 <sup>1</sup> Cf-F Cf-R Cf-S <sup>1</sup> WHITE et al. 19	Primer Primer Primer Primer Taqman probe 1990.	5'-TCCGTAGGTGAACCTGCG G-3' 5'-TCCTCCGCTTATTGATATGC-3' 5'-CCCTTGTGTATATTATATTGTTGCTTTAGC-3' 5'-GGGTCCTCTAGCAGGCACAGT-3' 6-FAM – 5'-TCTGGGCGTCGGCCTCGG-3' – BHQ-1

ash and listed in Table 1. Amplifications were performed in 25  $\mu$ l reactions containing 2  $\mu$ l DNA extract, 1 × Platinum *Taq* DNA polymerase buffer (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, California, USA), 1 mM MgCl<sub>2</sub>, 0.2 mM each dNTP, 0.4  $\mu$ M primers and one unit of Platinum *Taq* DNA polymerase (Invitrogen). Amplification was carried out in a GeneAmp PCR System 9700. The amplification program for ITS1-ITS4 primers was as follows: initial denaturation step at 94°C for 3 min, and 40 cycles at 94°C for 30 s, 50°C for 40 s, 72°C for 1 min followed by final extension at 72°C for 10 min. The PCR products were sequenced with the BigDye Terminator v1.1 cycle sequencing kit (Applied Biosystems, Foster City,

California, USA) using the Genetic Analyser 3100 (Applied Biosystems) at the FYSA Unit, University of Louvain-La-Neuve (Belgium). The GenBank database (BENSON et al. 2008) was used to define the identity of the sequences.

# 2.4 Primers design and real time PCR conditions

The ITS sequence from C. fraxinea (Genbank FJ228176) was compared to the ITS sequences from closely related species available in the Genbank/EMBL nucleotides databases, using the multiple sequence alignment program Clustalw2 (http://www.ebi. ac.uk/Tools/Clustalw2). Primers and probe were selected using the Primer Express software v1.0 from Applied Biosystems. The specificity of the designed primers was tested by searching for homologous sequences in the Genbank/EMBL nucleotide sequence databases using the Blast program (http://blast.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Blast.cgi). For the real time PCR assay, an aliquot of 5  $\mu$ l of DNA was included in each 20  $\mu$ l PCR reaction [1 × reaction buffer (qPCR Core Kit, Eurogentec, Liege, Belgium)]; 5 mм MgCl<sub>2</sub>; 0.2 mм dNTPs; 0.25 µM each PCR primer (Cf-F and Cf-R; Invitrogen, Carlsbad, California, USA); 0.25 μM TaqMan probe (Cf-S; dual-labelled probe, 5'FAM/3'BHQ-1, Eurogentec) (Table 2) and 0.75 unit of HotGoldStar Taq DNA polymerase (qPCR Core Kit, Eurogentec). A test was also performed with the same primers and probe concentrations with a ready-to-use master mix (qPCR MasterMix, Eurogentec). Amplifications were done in an ABI Prism 7000 Sequence Detection System (Applied Biosystem) using the following conditions: 10 min at 95°C and 40 cycles of 95°C for 15 s, 59°C for 1 min. The rhodamine derivation Rox<sup>TM</sup> present in the PCR buffer (passive reference dye) was used as a passive reference to normalize the signal. The threshold cycle  $(C_t)$  corresponds to the cycle at which fluorescent signal exceeds the background.  $C_t$ -values were estimated at a threshold value of 0.5 in all cases (baseline start and end cycles, 2-15). A negative water control was included with each PCR run. A DNA sample extracted from a pure culture of C. fraxinea (strain 3817, Table 1) was also used as a positive control to monitor the performance of the PCR. Statistical analyses (ANOVA) were performed with the Minitab<sup>TM</sup> statistical software package (version 13.20, Minitab Company, Paris, France).

# 2.5 Real time PCR performance characteristics

The PCR efficiency was estimated by running PCR on serial dilutions of *C. fraxinea* total DNA (from 5000 pg to 0.5 pg) diluted in total DNA from healthy plant (spiking assay). The limit of detection corresponded to the smallest DNA concentration for which all the positive samples were detected, distinguishable from a zero result. In order to check for the absence of inhibitory effects in the PCR reaction, the same test was conducted in a purified reference DNA matrix (salmon sperm DNA, Promega, Madison, Wisconsin, USA), this DNA being used as blocking agent to avoid non-specific interaction of target DNA with the plastic PCR tubes.

#### 3 Results

#### 3.1 Fungal isolation

The fungi which were isolated from declining ash were Alternaria alternata, Epicoccum nigrum, Fusarium lateritium, Peniophora sp., Phoma exigua, Phoma sp. and Trichoderma viride. Chalara fraxinea was not isolated from trees sampled in Belgium. In contrast, the pathogen was isolated from three wood materials from two sites in France (Table 1).

#### 3.2 Design of primers and test specificity

The size of the PCR fragment obtained with primers ITS1 and ITS4 from *C. fraxinea* (isolate 3817) was around 550 bp. The sequence was aligned with ITS sequences from other *C. fraxinea* strains and from closely related species available in the Genbank/EMBL databases. The primers Cf-F, Cf-R and the Taqman probe Cf-S were selected in polymorphic areas (Fig. 1). These probes amplified an 81 bp fragment for the six strains of *C. fraxinea* isolated from Poland (three strains) and France (three strains) ( $C_t$ -values < 25), but did not yield any signal from any other isolates used in this study ( $C_t$ -values > 39) (Table 1). A PCR with the primers ITS1-ITS4 carried out on all the isolates listed in Table 1 confirmed the quality of the DNA extracted for real time PCR (data not shown). A Genbank/EMBL search did not reveal any perfect matches to the primer and Taqman probe sequences except to *C. fraxinea* from Norway (accession number EU848544), Sweden (accession number EU852352) and Lithuania (accession number AY787704). The ITS-1 sequence of the isolate from Poland (isolate 3817, Table 1) perfectly matched the sequence of the *C. fraxinea* isolates from other countries (data not shown).

Hbicolor	-CATTAAAGA	ATCGCCCC	STTTTTTG	AAATGO	GTTCTA	ATTCCC	AAACCG	TGTATAC	CATAC
Hvraolstadiae	-CATTAAAGA	AT-GCCCC	STTTTTCG	AAACGO	GTTCTA	ATTCCC	AAACCG	TGTATA	CATAC
Halbidus	-CATTACAGA	GTTCCTO	GCCCTC	ACGO	GTAGA	ACCCC	AC-CCT	TGTGTA?	TATTA
Cfraxinea		TCCTO	GCCCTC	ACGO	GTAGA	ACCCC	AC-CCT	TGTGTAT	TATTA
Hscuttella	ACAGA	GTTCCTO	GCCCTC	ACGO	GTAGA	ACCCC	AC-CCT	TGTATAT	ΓΑΑΤΑ
Hcaudatus	TACAGA	GTTCCTO	GCCCTC	ACGO	GTAGA	ACCCC	AC-CCT	TGTGTA?	TACTA
Cpopuli	TCGA	GT-TTTTAA	ACTCTT	AAACCA	ATATGTO	GAACAT	AC-C	7	TTTTC
Cfagacearum	TCATTACTGA	GT-TTTCA#	ACTCTTTA	AAACCA	ATTTGTO	GAACAT	AC-CAT	TTTTTTT?	ITCTC
	Cf-F		*	*	Cf-S	* *	* *	Cf-F	R
					010			011	<u> </u>
Hbicolor	CTTTGTTGCT	TTGGCAGG-	CCGCC	TTTTA	GCGTC	GCTCC	GGCTGA	C-TGCGC	CCTGC
Hvraolstadiae	CTTTGTTGCT	TTGGCGGG-	CCGCC	TTC-GO	GCGTT	GGCTCC	GGCTGA	T-TGCGC	CCCGC
Halbidus	TATTGTTGCT	TTAGCAGG-	TCGCC	CTCTG	GCGTC	GCCTC	GGCTGA	C-TGTGC	CCTGC
Cfraxinea	TATTGTTGCT	TTAGCAGG-	TCGCC	CICIGO	GCGTC	GCCTC	GGCTGA	C-TGTGC	CCTGC
Hscuttella	TATTGTTGCT	TTGGCAGG-	CCGCC	-TCACO	GCGTC	GCTCA	CGCTGG	CTCGTG	CCTGC
Hcaudatus	TATTGTTGCT	TTAGCAGG-	CCGCC	-TTTG0	GCGTC	GCTCA	CGCTGA	C-CGTGC	CCTGC
Cpopuli	TAGCTGCT	TTGGCAGG-	C	CTTTCC	GGGG	TC	TGCCAG	T-AGCA1	ITTAA
Cfagacearum	TAATACTGCT?	TTGGCAGGG	GACTTCTT	TCTTCZ	AGGGGA	IGTTTC:	TGCCAG	T-AGTAI	ITTAC
	****	** ** **			* *		**	*	
Hbicolor	CAGAGGACCC	-AAACTCG-	TTTGTTT	AGTGAI	GTCTG	AGTACT	ATATAA	TAGTT	A
Hvraolstadiae	CAGAGGACCC	-AAACTCG-	TTTGTTT	AGTGAI	GTCTG	AGTACC	ATATAA	TAGTTT-	A
Halbidus	TAGAGGACCC	TAAATTTT-	GAAATAC	AGTGT	CGTCTGA	AGTACT	ATTTAA	TAGTT	A
Cfraxinea	TAGAGGACCC	TAAATTTT-	GAAATAC	AGTGT	CGTCTG	AGTACT	ATTTAA	TAGTT	A
Hscuttella	CAGAGGACCC?	TAAACTCT-	GAAATAC	AGTGT	CGTCTG	AGTACT	ATTTAA	TAGTT	A
Hcaudatus	TAGAGGACCC	TAAACTCT-	GAAATAC	AGTGT	CGTCTG	AGTACT	ATTCAA	TAGTT	A
Cpopuli	AAACTCTTTA	TA-TTTCT#	ATAGAATT	ATTCAI	TGCTG	AGTGGC	ATTAAC	TAAATAA	AGTTA
Cfagacearum	AAACTCTTTT?	TAATTTCTA	AGAGAATT	ATTCAT	TGCTG	AGTTGC	ATTTAA	CAAAATA	AGTTA
	*	* *		* *	****	***	** *	*	*

*Fig. 1.* ITS sequence alignment using the CLUSTALW2 program and localization of the primers Cf-F, Cf-R and the Taqman probe Cf-S (boxes). The arrows indicate the position of the forward and reverse primers. Asterisk indicates a consensus nucleotide. The Genbank numbers of the species used in the analysis are AJ292203 (*Hymenoscyphus bicolor*), AJ292200 (*H. vraolstadiae*), FJ597977 (*H. albidus*), FJ228176 (*Chalara fraxinea*), AY789432 (*H. scuttella*), AY348579 (*H. caudatus*), AY423551 (*C. populi*) and FJ347031 (*Ceratocystis fagacearum*).

#### 3.3 Detection limit

Total DNA from *C. fraxinea* was serially diluted with plant DNA to yield concentrations ranging from 5000 to 0.5 pg/PCR. The limit of detection was 5 pg of target DNA.

#### A. Chandelier, F. André and F. Laurent

Standard curve showed a linear correlation between input DNA and cycle threshold ( $C_t$ -values) with determination coefficient of 0.98 (Fig. 2a). Total DNA from *C. fraxinea* was also serially diluted with salmon sperm DNA used as reference DNA matrix. As shown in Fig. 2b, no difference was observed between both experiments (p = 0.875). Moreover, *C. fraxinea* was detected in leaves and wood from naturally-infected samples exhibiting symptoms of the disease, but not from healthy material. In contrast, the isolation was successful only from wood material, and not in all cases. The purification of DNA extracts (PVPP treatment) did not increase the test sensitivity. PCR performed on DNA extracted from wood material using the drill system yielded  $C_t$ -values which were similar to, or lower than those obtained with the classical extraction procedure (Table 3).

#### 3.4 Test reproducibility

The test was conducted with two different PCR kits on three samples with different levels of infection and on two separate runs, with three replicates in each run. The ANOVA revealed significant differences between kits (p < 0.05), the core kit being slightly more efficient than the PCR Master Mix. However, from a practical point of view, the pathogen was detected in the three samples tested regardless of the kit used, even for the sample with a concentration of *C. fraxinea* DNA close to the detection limit ( $C_t$ -values around 35, Fig. 3).



Fig. 2. Detection limit, standard curve and determination coefficient (a) and comparison between plant DNA and salmon sperm DNA used as DNA matrix for the reaction (b). Total DNA from Chalara fraxinea was serially diluted in plant DNA or salmon sperm DNA to yield final concentrations ranging from 0.5 pg to 5000 pg/PCR (three replicates, DNA extracted from mycelium of strain 3817). The  $C_t$ -values were determined at a threshold of 0.5.

					Real time PCR $(C_t^{1})$		
No.	Origin	Country	Tissue	Isolation	No PVPP	PVPP	Drill <sup>2</sup>
1	Plombières	France	Leaf	_	22.26	22.74	nd
2	Plombières	France	Bark	_	35.52	35.06	nd
3	Corbenay	France	Leaf	_	28.22	29.24	nd
4	Corbenay	France	Wood	_	28.16	29.06	nd
5	Saint-Loup sur	France	Wood	+	32.72	32.91	26.39
	Semouze						
6	Ainvelle (site 1)	France	Wood	+	24.31	24.23	nd
7	Ainvelle (site 2)	France	Wood	+	22.49	23.17	21.45
8	Ainvelle (site 2)	France	Leaf	-	22.47	22.6	nd
9	Mersuay (site 1)	France	Wood	-	22.63	24.29	28.01
10	Mersuay (site 2)	France	Wood	-	29.83	30.58	28.02
11	Floreffe (site $1$ ) <sup>3</sup>	Belgium	Wood	nd	>40	nd	>40
12	Floreffe (site $2$ ) <sup>3</sup>	Belgium	Leaf	nd	>40	nd	nd
+, isolation of the pathogen; –, pathogen not detected; nd, not done. ${}^{1}C_{t}$ -values established at a threshold of 0.5.							

*Table 3.* Detection of *Chalara fraxinea* from necrotic tissues of dieback affected *Fraxinus excelsior* by isolation and by real time PCR on three types of DNA extracts. DNAs from healthy trees were used as the negative controls.

<sup>2</sup>No purification of DNA with polyvinylpyrrolidone (PVPP treatment).

<sup>3</sup>Healthy trees.



*Fig. 3.* Comparison between two PCR kits (PCR Core Kit and PCR Master Mix) for the detection of *Chalara fraxinea* in three naturally-infected samples with different inoculum concentrations (mean of six replicates). The  $C_t$ -values were determined at a threshold of 0.5.

# 4 Discussion

In this study, a real time PCR test was developed to detect *C. fraxinea* from plant tissues infected by the pathogen. Such a test is a valuable tool in diagnostic laboratories as ash dieback might be caused by other fungi and the reliable identification of the causal agent is a prerequisite to propose control measures.

In order to evaluate the test specificity, PCR was conducted on DNA extracted from fungi isolated from declining trees. Most of the fungal species which were identified had already been mentioned in other studies (BAKYS et al. 2009b; PRZYBYL 2002 and VASILIAUSKAS and STENLID 1998). None of these fungi were detected with the selected primers and probe. Moreover, as the sexual stage of *C. fraxinea* is a species belonging to the

genus *Hymenoscyphus* (KOWALSKI and HOLDENRIEDER 2009b), multiple sequences alignments were carried out with several *Hymenoscyphus* species. Among the species considered, *H. caudatus*, a saprophytic species on decaying broadleaves trees, displayed a high sequence homology with *C. fraxinea*. The primers and probe were therefore selected in a region which was polymorphic between both species.

As some plant samples infected by the pathogen looked highly degraded, a purification of DNA extracts was evaluated. It did not increase the test sensitivity. Moreover, the detection limit was similar in a neutral matrix (commercial solution of salmon sperm DNA) and in DNA extracted from healthy trees. These results suggest that the method used to extract DNA does not introduce an inhibitory effect in the PCR.

By using the molecular method on infected material, results were obtained within one working day. The use of a drill for wood material further reduces the time required for sample preparation. In contrast, the fungus could be isolated after 5 weeks of incubation on MEA medium amended with antibiotic. The isolation data were inconsistent with the results of molecular analysis as only three samples out of the ten positive samples were detected. This low isolation rate could result from an inappropriate method for surface sterilization of samples. It could also be linked to the kind of plant tissue put onto the medium (leaf, bark or wood) as shown by BAKYS et al. 2009a. In our case, the isolates were obtained only from wood material displaying discoloration.

Due to the recent identification of *C. fraxinea* as the main cause of ash dieback in Europe, many questions remain regarding the epidemiology of the disease. In this context, the molecular test developed could be used to estimate the ascospore density in a contamination site at different periods of the year using an airborne spore trap system as already mentioned for other pathogens (Luo et al. 2007) or to monitor the pathogen colonization in inoculated trees to evaluate the resistance to the disease, as proposed for other fungal pathogens of forest species (HIETALA et al. 2003).

# Acknowledgements

The authors wish to thank C. Husson and B. Marçais from the Institut National de la Recherche Agronomique (INRA, Nancy, France) for providing plant material infected by *Chalara fraxinea*, and S. Woodward for linguistic corrections. They are also grateful to the Walloon Region (DGARNE, Direction des Ressources forestières) for funding this research and to V. Planchon (CRAW) for the statistical analysis of the data.

## References

- ATALLAH, Z. K.; BAE, J.; JANSKY, D. I.; ROUSE, D. I.; STEVENSON, W. R., 2007: Multiplex real-time quantitative PCR to detect and quantify *Verticillium dahliae* colonization in potato lines that differ in response to *Verticillium* wilt. Phytopathology 97, 865–872.
- BAKYS, R.; VASAITIS, R.; BARKLUND, P.; IHRMARK, K.; STENLID, J., 2009a: Investigations concerning the role of *Chalara fraxinea* in declining *Fraxinus excelsior*. Plant Pathol. 58, 284–292.
- BAKYS, R.; VASAITIS, R.; BARKLUND, P.; THOMSEN, I. M.; STENLID, J., 2009b: Occurrence and pathogenicity of fungi in necrotic and non-symptomatic shoots of declining common ash (*Fraxinus excelsior*) in Sweden. Eur. J. For. Res. **128**, 51–60.
- BENSON, D. A.; KARSCH-MIZRACHI, I.; LIPMAN, D. J.; OSTELL, J.; WHEELER, D. L., 2008: Genbank. Nucleic Acids Res. 36, D25–D30.
- СЕСН, Т. L., 2006: Eschenschäden in Österreich [Ash dieback and premature leaf shedding in Austria]. FS-aktuell **37**, 18–20.

CHANDELIER, A., 2008: Le frêne, une essence menacée en Europe? Silva Belg. 115, 28-31.

- EPPO, 2007: Chalara fraxinea, Ash Dieback. http://www.eppo.org/QUARANTINE/Alert\_List/ fungi/Chalara\_fraxinea.htm [updated on May 05, 2009].
- HALMSCHLAGER, E.; KIRISITS, T., 2008: First report of the ash dieback pathogen *Chalara fraxinea* on *Fraxinus excelsior* in Austria. Plant Pathol. 57, pp. 1177–1177.

- HAYDEN, K.; IVORS, K.; WILKINSON, C.; GARBELOTTO, M., 2006: TaqMan chemistry for *Phytophhtora ramorum* detection and quantification, with a comparison of diagnostic methods. Phytopathology **96**, 846–854.
- HIETALA, A. M.; EIKENES, M.; KVAALEN, H.; SOLHEIM, H.; FOSSDAL, C. G., 2003: Multiplex real-time PCR for monitoring *Heterobasidion annosum* colonisation in Norway spruce clones that differ in disease resistance. Appl. Environ. Microbiol. 69, 4413–4420.
- JANKOVSKY, L.; PALOVČĬKOVÁ, D.; DVOŘÁK, M., 2008: Alien disease of woody plants in the Czech Republic. FS-aktuell 44, 32–34.
- JASALAVICH, C. A.; OSTROFSKY, A.; JELLISON, J., 2000: Detection and identification of decay fungi in spruce wood by restriction fragment length polymorphism analysis of amplified genes encoding rRNA. Appl. Environ. Microbiol. **66**, 4725–4734.
- KOWALSKI, T., 2006: Chalara fraxinea sp. nov. associated with dieback of ash (Fraxinus excelsior) in Poland. For. Pathol. 36, 264–270.
- KOWALSKI, T.; HOLDENRIEDER, O., 2008: Eine neue Pilzkrankheit an Esche in Europa. Schweiz. Z. Forstw. 159, 45–50.
- KOWALSKI, T.; HOLDENRIEDER, O., 2009a: Pathogenicity of Chalara fraxinea. For. Pathol. 39, 1-7.
- KOWALSKI, T.; HOLDENRIEDER, O., 2009b: The teleomorph of *Chalara fraxinea*, the causal agent of ash dieback. For. Pathol. (in press, DOI: 10.1111/j.1439-0329.2008.00589.x).
- LUO, Y.; MA, Z.; REYES, H. C.; MORGAN, D., 2007: Quantification of airborne spores of *Monilinia fructicola* in stone fruits orchards of California using real-time PCR. Eur. J. Plant Pathol. 118, 145– 154.
- LYGIS, V.; VASILIAUSKAS, R.; LARSSON, K. H.; STENLID, J., 2005: Wood inhabiting fungi in stems of *Fraxinus excelsior* in declining ash stands of northern Lithuania, with particular reference to *Armillaria cepistipes*. Scand. J. For. Res. 20, 337–346.
- OGRIS, N.; HAUPTMAN, T.; JURC, D., 2009: *Chalara fraxinea* causing common ash dieback newly reported in Slovenia. New Disease Reports. http://www.bspp.org.uk/publications/new-disease-reports/, Vol. 19, Feb. 2009 to Aug. 2009.
- PRZYBYL, K., 2002: Fungi associated with necrotic apical parts of *Fraxinus excelsior* shoots. For. Pathol. 32, 387–394.
- SCHUMACHER, J.; WULF, A.; LEONHARD, S., 2007: Erster Nachweis von Chalara fraxinea T. Kowalski sp. nov. in Deutschland – ein Verursacher neuartiger Schäden an Eschen. [First record of Chalara fraxinea T. Kowalski sp. nov. in Germany – a new agent of ash decline]. Nachrichtenbl. Deut. Pflanzenschutzd. 59, 121–123.
- SZABÓ, I., 2008: First report of *Chalara fraxinea* affecting common ash in Hungary. New Disease Reports. http://www.bspp.org.uk/publications/new\_disease-reports/, Vol. 18, Aug. 2008 to Jan. 2009.
- TALGØ, V.; SLØRSTAD, T.; SLETTEN, A.; STENSVAND, A., 2008: Soppen som ein meiner fører til askeskotsjuke i store delar av Europa er no funnen i Østfold. Bioforsk. Tema., 3, 1–5. Nr. 20 2008.
- THOMSEN, I. M.; SKOVSGAARD, J. P.; BARKLUND, P.; VASAITIS, R., 2007: Svampesygdom er årsag til toptørre i ask [A fungal disease is the cause of dieback of ash]. Skoven 5, 234–236.
- VAN GENT-PELZER, M. E. P.; VAN BROUWERSHAVEN, I. R.; KOX, F. F.; BONANTS, P. J. M., 2007: A Taqman PCR method for routine diagnosis of the quarantine fungus *Guignardia citricarpa* on citrus fruit. J. Phytopathol. 155, 357–363.
- VASILIAUSKAS, R.; STENLID, J., 1998: Discoloration following bark stripping wounds on *Fraxinus* excelsior. Eur. J. For. Pathol. 28, 383–390.
- WHITE, T. J.; BRUNS, T.; LEE, S.; TAYLOR, J., 1990: Amplification and direct sequencing of fungal ribosomal RNA genes for phylogenetics. In: PCR Protocols: A guide to Methods and Applications. Ed. by INNIS, M. A.; GELFAND, D. H.; SNINSKY, J. J.; WHITE, T. J. San Diego: Academic Press, pp. 315–322.