

# 1 **Spray-induced gene silencing as a potential tool to control** 2 **potato late blight disease**

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16

17 **Abstract**

18 *Phytophthora infestans* causes late blight disease on potato and tomato and is currently  
19 controlled by resistant cultivars or intensive fungicide spraying. Here, we investigated an alternative  
20 means for late blight control by spraying potato leaves with double-stranded RNAs (dsRNA) that target  
21 *P. infestans* genes that are essential for infection. Through confocal microscopy, we show that the  
22 sporangia of *P. infestans* expressing Green Fluorescent Protein (GFP) can take up *in vitro* synthesized  
23 dsRNAs homologous to GFP directly from their surroundings, including leaves, which leads to the  
24 reduced relative expression of *GFP*. We further demonstrate the potential of spray induced gene  
25 silencing (SIGS) in controlling potato late blight disease by targeting developmentally important genes  
26 in *P. infestans* such as guanine-nucleotide binding (G) protein  $\beta$ -subunit (*PiGPB1*), haustorial membrane  
27 protein (*PiHmp1*), cutinase (*PiCut3*), and endo-1,3(4)- $\beta$ -glucanase (*PiEndo3*). Our results demonstrate  
28 that SIGS can be potentially used to mitigate potato late blight; however, the degree of disease control  
29 is dependent on the selection of the target genes.

30

31 Despite causing devastating late blight disease on tomato and potato worldwide, there are few  
32 alternatives to plant resistance or chemical control for the plant pathogenic oomycete,  
33 *Phytophthora infestans* (Kamoun et al., 2015). Given that *P. infestans* is a fast-growing, highly  
34 adaptable filamentous pathogen, traditional breeding for resistance has not proved durable in  
35 the field (Leesutthiphonchai et al., 2018; Whisson et al., 2016). One of the most effective  
36 control methods available for late blight control is intensive fungicide spraying, costing billions  
37 of dollars to potato and tomato growers annually, and raises serious environmental concerns.  
38 Moreover, *P. infestans* has overcome resistance to some of the fungicides in use (Schepers et  
39 al., 2018). Many countries have increased the stringency of regulations governing approval of  
40 agrochemicals, potentially limiting the selection of effective fungicides available. There is thus  
41 an urgent need to develop alternative means for pathogen control.

42 RNA interference (RNAi) is a conserved cellular defence mechanism mediated by  
43 double-stranded RNA (dsRNA) regulating protein expression through targeted destruction or  
44 modulation of mRNAs (Ghildiyal & Zamore, 2009; Hannon, 2002; Huang et al., 2019; Malone  
45 & Hannon, 2009), or modification of chromatin (Van Wolfswinkel & Ketting, 2010). While  
46 RNAi is a fundamental cellular defence mechanism against invading pathogens, introducing *in*  
47 *vitro* synthesized dsRNAs or producing the molecules *in planta* exploits this natural cellular  
48 reaction as a crop management strategy (Huang et al., 2019) and is a promising new method for  
49 controlling plant diseases.

50 Plant transgene-derived artificial small RNAs (sRNAs) can induce gene silencing in  
51 some insect pests, nematodes, fungi and oomycetes, a phenomenon called host-induced gene  
52 silencing (HIGS) (Jahan et al., 2015; Nowara et al., 2010). However, the limitation associated  
53 with HIGS is the requirement for the generation of transgenic crop plants, which is a significant  
54 concern to consumers and its public acceptance is problematic in many countries. Moreover,  
55 HIGS is restricted to plants with established transformation methods, thus limiting the number  
56 of crop plants where this strategy can be applied. However, this limitation can be overcome by  
57 exogenous application of dsRNAs or sRNAs targeting pathogen genes essential for disease  
58 development. Recent studies have shown that spraying dsRNAs and sRNAs that target essential  
59 pathogen genes on plant surfaces can confer efficient and sustainable crop protection (Cai et  
60 al., 2018; Koch et al., 2016; Weiberg et al., 2013). Also called spray-induced gene silencing  
61 (SIGS), this strategy of disease control is more environmentally friendly as it leaves no  
62 chemical residues in crops and inhibits only the target organisms due to sequence specificity.

63 This study aims to evaluate the potential for RNAi-based spray technologies to control  
64 late blight disease in a sustainable and environmentally benign way. As a first step to ascertain

65 whether *P. infestans* sporangia can take up dsRNA directly from their surroundings, we treated  
66 sporangia of *P. infestans* expressing Green Fluorescent Protein (GFP- *P. infestans*) with *in vitro*  
67 synthesized dsRNAs homologous to GFP (dsRNA<sup>GFP</sup>). A 436 bp dsRNA fragment derived  
68 from the *GFP* gene was labelled by incorporating Cyanine 3-UTP (Enzo Life Sciences, Inc.)  
69 into *in vitro* synthesis (Cy3-dsRNA<sup>GFP</sup>) using the MEGAscript RNAi Kit (Invitrogen). After  
70 exposure to Cy3-dsRNA<sup>GFP</sup> for 24 hours, followed by washing with nuclease-free water to  
71 remove non-specific fluorescence, GFP-*P. infestans* sporangia were imaged using an LSM 880  
72 confocal microscope (Zeiss Microscopy GmbH, Germany). As a control, we used dsRNA  
73 synthesized using the control template provided in the MEGAscript Kit. The analysis revealed  
74 that the GFP fluorescence was significantly reduced or disappeared in the majority of sporangia  
75 compared to the control dsRNA (Cy3-dsRNA<sup>Ct</sup>) treatment (Fig. 1a). Furthermore, the sporangia  
76 which exhibited reduced GFP fluorescence also exhibited Cy3 fluorescence. These results  
77 suggest that the dsRNA was effectively introduced into the *P. infestans* sporangia and dsRNAs  
78 maintain their RNAi activity by silencing the target gene. We then tested if *P. infestans* can  
79 take up dsRNA sprayed on potato leaves in a detached leaf assay (DLA). Potato leaves (cultivar  
80 Bintje) were locally sprayed on defined areas on the leaves with 20 ng  $\mu\text{L}^{-1}$  Cy3-dsRNA<sup>Ct</sup> using  
81 an atomizer. Twenty-four hours post spray application, leaves were drop-inoculated with 10  
82  $\mu\text{L}$  of GFP-*P. infestans* sporangia ( $5 \times 10^4$  spores  $\text{mL}^{-1}$ ) and incubated in a climate-controlled  
83 chamber (22 °C daytime and 20 °C night-time temperature; 16h photoperiod). Five days post-  
84 inoculation (dpi), ~4-5 mm diameter leaf samples from the infected part of the leaf were  
85 mounted in aniline blue solution (0.1 % aniline blue in Phosphate buffered saline (PBS), pH 7)  
86 and incubated in the dark until imaged by confocal microscopy. This demonstrated co-  
87 localization of GFP and Cy3-dsRNA<sup>Ct</sup> in *P. infestans* hyphae (Fig. 1b) and sporangium (Fig.  
88 1c) indicating uptake of dsRNA<sup>Ct</sup> by GFP-*P. infestans*. Aniline blue staining demonstrated that  
89  $\beta$ -1,3-glucan localization in sporangia was distinct from the co-localized Cy3-dsRNA<sup>Ct</sup> and  
90 GFP (Fig. 1c). Uptake of dsRNA by fungal spores from the surrounding environment,  
91 including leaves, has been previously observed in several fungal pathosystems (Koch et al.,  
92 2016; Wang et al., 2016; Weiberg et al., 2013). Oomycetes, though evolutionarily different  
93 from fungi, may act similarly in the uptake of dsRNA from the external environment. However,  
94 the exact mechanism of sRNA and dsRNA uptake is yet to be determined.

95 Having established that sporangia can take up dsRNA from the surrounding  
96 environment, we next tested if the uptake of dsRNA sprayed on host potato leaves in a DLA  
97 can silence the target *P. infestans* gene. Potato leaves were locally sprayed with either 20 ng  
98  $\mu\text{L}^{-1}$  dsRNA<sup>GFP</sup>, Cy3-dsRNA<sup>Ct</sup> or water as mock treatment. One day post spraying, the leaves

99 were drop-inoculated with GFP-*P. infestans* sporangia (10  $\mu$ l of  $5 \times 10^4$  spores ml<sup>-1</sup>). Leaves  
100 were imaged at 5 dpi in a ChemiDoc MP imaging system (BioRad Laboratories, Inc.) using  
101 predefined settings of Alexa488 and Cy3 for visualizing GFP and Cy3 fluorescence,  
102 respectively. In line with the experiments on sporangia, the GFP fluorescence in leaves sprayed  
103 with dsRNA<sup>GFP</sup> was reduced compared to Cy3-dsRNA<sup>Ct</sup> and mock-treated leaves (Fig. 2a).  
104 Quantification of relative accumulation of GFP protein using immunoblot analysis with anti-  
105 GFP-HRP antibody (GF28R, Invitrogen) confirmed the observed reduction in GFP  
106 fluorescence (Fig. 2b). Real-time quantitative PCR (qRT-PCR) analysis revealed that the  
107 relative expression of *GFP* normalized to *PiActin* (NCBI P22131) was reduced by half in  
108 dsRNA<sup>GFP</sup> compared to mock and dsRNA<sup>Ct</sup> treated leaves (Fig. 2c). Notably, the relative  
109 expression of *P. infestans* actin (*PiActin*) normalized to potato actin (*StActin* NCBI  
110 XM\_006345899) remained unchanged (Fig. 2d). Taken together, these results demonstrate  
111 target-specific dsRNA mediated gene silencing.

112 To explore the potential of SIGS as a tool to control potato late blight disease, we  
113 targeted a variety of *P. infestans* genes reported to be essential for pathogenesis, expressed at  
114 different stages of the infection cycle, and an agrochemical target. These genes included,  
115 guanine-nucleotide binding (G) protein  $\beta$ -subunit (*PiGPB1*; PITG\_06376; XP\_002998508),  
116 oxysterol binding protein (*PiOSBP*; PITG\_10462; XP\_002902250), haustorial membrane  
117 protein (*PiHmp1*; PITG\_00375; XP\_002908980), cutinase (*PiCut3*; PITG\_12361;  
118 XM\_002900240), and endo-1,3(4)- $\beta$ -glucanase (*PiEndo3*; PITG\_13567; XP\_002899770).

119 *PiGPB1* is associated with signal transduction during pathogenesis and is reported to be  
120 critical for proper sporangial development (Latijnhouwers & Govers, 2003). Through HIGS, it  
121 was previously demonstrated that targeting *PiGPB1* resulted in severe disease reduction,  
122 especially during the transition from biotrophic to the necrotrophic stage (Jahan et al., 2015).  
123 Oxysterol binding protein (*PiOSBP*) is the target of the oxathiapiprolin, a recent agrochemical  
124 effective against *Phytophthora* sp. (Miao et al., 2016; Miao et al., 2018; Pasteris et al., 2016).  
125 Although the exact function of OSBP is not clearly established, in other eukaryotes it is  
126 suggested to play a role in membrane-mediated lipid transport and intercellular distribution of  
127 lipid molecules (Raychaudhuri & Prinz, 2010).

128 Penetration and colonization of host tissue is paramount for successful infection by *P.*  
129 *infestans*. Penetration of the outer tissue primarily comprising cutin and  $\beta$ -1,4-glucans requires  
130 action of degradative enzymes including carbohydrate esterases (CE) such as cutinases and  
131 glycoside hydrolases (GH) such as endo- or exoglucanases, together known as carbohydrate-  
132 active enzymes or CAZymes (Brouwer et al., 2014; Ospina-Giraldo et al., 2010b). Here, we

133 targeted two genes encoding such degradative proteins, *P. infestans* endo-1,3(4)- $\beta$ -glucanase  
134 (PiEndo3) and *P. infestans* cutinase (PiCut3), both of which exhibit elevated transcript levels  
135 in germinating cysts (Ah-Fong et al., 2017) and thus present at the time of host tissue invasion.  
136 PiEndo3 is a GH family 81 enzyme (FungiDB; <https://fungidb.org/fungidb/app/>) with potential  
137 activity on cellulose and 1,3- $\beta$ -glucans, both of which may be found in *P. infestans* and plants  
138 (e.g. callose in plants). PiCut3 belongs to CE family 5 (Ospina-Giraldo et al., 2010b) but the  
139 precise importance of PiCut3 in *P. infestans* pathogenicity has not been determined. The high  
140 expression of *PiCut3* during the initial stages of infection (Ospina-Giraldo et al., 2010b)  
141 suggests a role in the degradation of cutin at the outermost pathogen-plant barrier. Following  
142 penetration, the membrane-associated and infection-induced PiHmp1 protein plays a critical  
143 role in the intercellular progression and host colonization of *P. infestans* (Avrova et al., 2008).  
144 Hmp1 is considered to be necessary for haustorium formation (Avrova et al., 2008), biotrophic  
145 pathogen structures which extend into host cells for delivery of defence suppressing effector  
146 proteins (Boevink et al., 2011; Kagda et al., 2020).

147 To investigate the effect of targeted dsRNA treatments on development of *P. infestans*,  
148 detached potato leaves were sprayed with 500  $\mu$ l of 20 ng  $\mu$ L<sup>-1</sup> dsRNA<sup>Ci/GFP</sup> as controls, or  
149 dsRNA specific to the individual target genes outlined above. At 24h post spraying the leaves  
150 were drop-inoculated (10  $\mu$ l of 5 $\times$ 10<sup>4</sup> spores ml<sup>-1</sup>) of *P. infestans* isolate 88069. At 5 dpi, trypan  
151 blue staining of the inoculated leaves was carried out to determine the progression of *P.*  
152 *infestans*. Briefly, leaves were incubated in the trypan blue staining solution (Koch &  
153 Slusarenko, 1990) for 30 min, followed by a single wash with 100 % ethanol and overnight  
154 incubation in 100 % ethanol at room temperature (Fernández-Bautista et al., 2016). Leaves were  
155 then carefully transferred to a 20 % glycerol solution and were imaged using a scanner (Epson  
156 V850Pro). Although normal disease progression was observed in the mock and dsRNA<sup>Ci/GFP</sup>  
157 treated leaves, *P. infestans* development was severely inhibited in the dsRNA<sup>PiGPB1</sup>,  
158 dsRNA<sup>PiEndo3</sup>, dsRNA<sup>PiCut3</sup> and dsRNA<sup>PiHmp1</sup> treated leaves (Fig. 3a) but not in the dsRNA<sup>PiOSBP</sup>  
159 sprayed leaves. Quantification of the area of infection sites using ImageJ revealed that the mean  
160 area of infection sites in the mock and control were 2.2 and 2.4 cm<sup>2</sup>, respectively. The mean  
161 area of infection sites in the dsRNA treated samples ranged from 0.6 to 1.24 cm<sup>2</sup> indicating an  
162 apparent reduction in the area of infection in the DLAs (Fig. 3b). As no significant reduction in  
163 *P. infestans* growth was observed in the dsRNA<sup>PiOSBP</sup> treated leaves (mean area of infection  
164 2.69 cm<sup>2</sup>), the DLAs were limited to two replications for dsRNA<sup>PiOSBP</sup> treatment, while DLAs  
165 for each of the other targets were repeated at least five times with six leaves in each experiment  
166 (n = ~30; n = 15 for dsRNA<sup>PiOSBP</sup>). To confirm that the observed inhibition of disease

167 progression was due to dsRNA mediated gene silencing, the relative gene expression of the  
168 target genes in the infected dsRNA treated leaves was quantified using qRT-PCR. Total RNA  
169 was extracted from 5 dpi dsRNA treated leaves (Qiagen RNeasy Plant total RNA extraction  
170 kit) followed by DNase treatment (Turbo DNA-free kit, Ambion) and cDNA synthesis (qScript  
171 SuperMix, Quantabio). Undiluted cDNA (1  $\mu$ L) was used as a template for qRT-PCR  
172 (DyNAmo Flash SYBR Green kit, Thermo Scientific). The target gene transcript levels were  
173 normalized to the expression of reference gene *PiActin* (Vetukuri et al., 2011). Compared to  
174 the dsRNA<sup>Ct</sup> treated samples, a 2.5-, 1-, 1.5-, and a 2-fold decrease was observed in *PiGPB1*,  
175 *PiHmp*, *PiCut3* and *PiEndo3* transcript levels in each of the respective treatments, suggesting  
176 that the observed reduction in the *P. infestans* disease progression is indeed a result of dsRNA  
177 mediated targeted gene silencing (Fig. 3c).

178 Prior studies that have noted that the formation of sporangia during 36-48 hours post-  
179 infection is critical for the disease progression and transition from biotrophic to necrotrophic  
180 phase (Judelson & Blanco, 2005). To investigate if SIGS mediated inhibition of disease  
181 progression was also associated with defects in sporulation, we carried out a microscopic  
182 examination of disease lesions (Leica MDG41 stereo microscope). Our analysis revealed that  
183 treatment with dsRNA<sup>PiGPB1</sup> resulted in severe sporulation inhibition (Fig. 4a-b, f) compared to  
184 the dsRNA<sup>Ct</sup> treatment. This agrees with Jahan et al. (2015) and Latijnhouwers & Govers  
185 (2003) who demonstrated the formation of fewer and deformed sporangia through silencing in  
186 hp-PiGPB1 transgenic plants and transcriptional silencing in *P. infestans* stable transformants,  
187 respectively. Also, in agreement with those studies, treatment with dsRNA<sup>PiGPB1</sup> did not appear  
188 to disrupt the germination of the sporangia or mycelial progression, as mycelia could be seen  
189 emerging from stomata (Fig. 4b).

190 As expected, silencing genes encoding CAZymes and Hmp1 did not result in severe  
191 inhibition of sporulation (Fig. 4c). However, the number of sporangia observed was  
192 significantly lower in the leaves treated with dsRNA<sup>PiEndo3</sup> and dsRNA<sup>PiCut3</sup> (Fig. 4d - f)  
193 suggesting that the lower sporangial count could be as a result of reduced disease progression  
194 rather than a direct effect on the sporangial development.

195 *P. infestans* cell walls contain both cellulose and 1,3- $\beta$ -glucan, which may be substrates  
196 for PiEndo3, potentially leading to remodeling of the wall. However, our findings do not  
197 indicate any direct effect of *PiEndo3* on the growth and development of *P. infestans*, thus it is  
198 likely that this enzyme acts on plant polysaccharides, and decreased disease progression can be  
199 attributed to the silencing of *PiEndo3* expression. Further analysis focused on more detailed  
200 phenotyping might be valuable in unravelling the functions of this and other *P. infestans*

201 glucanases. Interestingly, treatment with dsRNA<sup>PiCut3</sup> resulted in a smaller and aberrant  
202 mycelial phenotype (Fig. 4d, inset), probably owing to erratic penetration, causing nutrient  
203 starvation. This is consistent with the expected role of cutinase in facilitating host penetration  
204 by *Phytophthora* species by breaking down cutin and enabling plant cell wall disintegration  
205 (Ospina-Giraldo et al., 2010a; Zerillo et al., 2013).

206 Although disease progression was significantly lower in the dsRNA<sup>PiHmp1</sup> treated leaves,  
207 the number of sporangia per cm<sup>2</sup> was not reduced (Fig. 4c, f). These results corroborate Avrova  
208 et al. (2008) who showed that dsRNA-mediated transient silencing of *PiHmp1* produced a  
209 similar number of sporangia compared to the control when grown in agar culture, even though  
210 the infection was suppressed compared to the control non-homologous dsRNA-treated lines.

211 Our observations show that not all sporangia take up the dsRNA to levels detectable  
212 using conjugated Cy3 dye. Hence, optimizing formulation of dsRNA to facilitate dsRNA  
213 uptake will be crucial to successfully use SIGS for disease control (San Miguel & Scott, 2016;  
214 Yan et al., 2020). It is also possible that spray-applied dsRNAs can enter *P. infestans* as spores  
215 germinate on the leaf surface; this is evidenced here (Fig. 1b, c) where Cy3 labelled dsRNA  
216 can be seen labelling pathogen hyphae. A further question arises regards the nature of the  
217 dsRNAs taken up by *P. infestans*. That is, it remains to be determined if *P. infestans* takes up  
218 the long dsRNA molecules, or whether the gene silencing is indirect, with dsRNAs first entering  
219 plant cells where they are processed into siRNAs prior to entry into *P. infestans*. However, it  
220 has been shown that long dsRNAs can enter *P. infestans* protoplasts derived from hyphae  
221 (Whisson et al., 2005), so at least some of the spray-applied dsRNAs are likely to enter *P.*  
222 *infestans* directly.

223 Although dsRNA mediated SIGS has been reported in other pathogens (Cai et al., 2018;  
224 Koch et al., 2016; Weiberg et al., 2013), it is yet to be proven if this gene silencing is as a result  
225 of plant RNAi machinery or the pathogen RNAi mechanism. Our analysis using CLSM showed  
226 uptake of Cy3-dsRNA in the *P. infestans* mycelium and sporangia indicates that the site of  
227 dsRNA processing for RNA silencing is located in the pathogen (Fig. 1b, c). Further analysis  
228 including sRNA sequencing from the dsRNA sprayed leaves, could prove if the plant RNA  
229 silencing machinery is processing the sprayed dsRNAs. Our findings while preliminary,  
230 provide a proof of concept for SIGS applications to control potato late blight and other  
231 *Phytophthora* diseases. This also has implications for the development of potential alternative  
232 reverse genetic tools in challenging organisms like *P. infestans*.

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243

## 244 DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT

245 All gene sequences used in this study have been obtained from NCBI GenBank; accession  
246 numbers are given in the text of the article. Primers used in this study are available as  
247 supplementary material.

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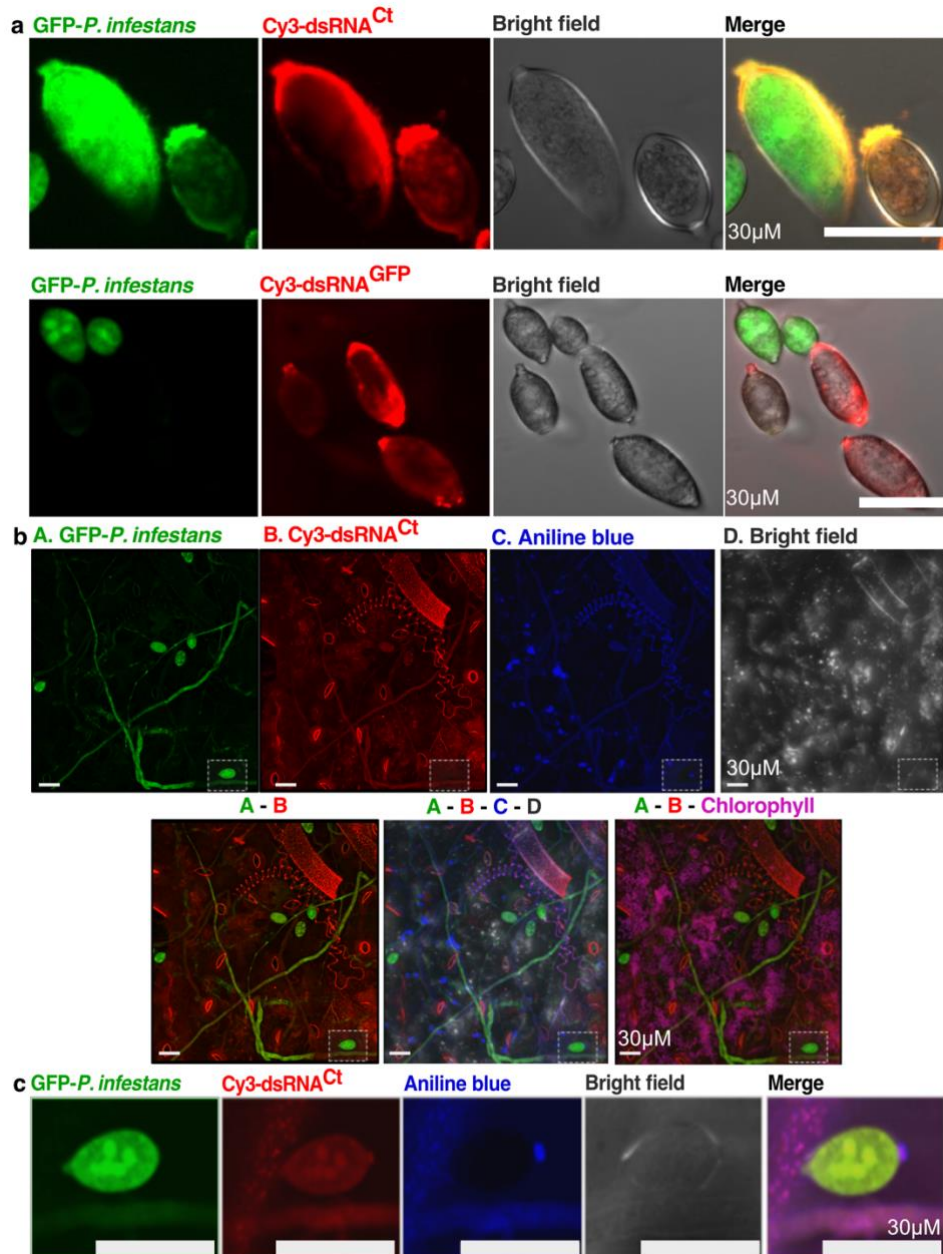
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350 **Figure 1. dsRNA induced gene silencing and uptake of dsRNA by *P. infestans* sporangia.**

351 **a.** Representative confocal microscopy images showing colocalization of GFP and Cy3 in

352 dsRNA<sup>Ct</sup> treated GFP-*P. infestans* sporangia (upper panel) while reduced GFP accumulation in

353 the GFP-*P. infestans* sporangia that took up dsRNA<sup>GFP</sup> (lower panel). Sporangia were imaged

354 24-hour post-treatment with dsRNA. **b.** Representative confocal microscopy images show

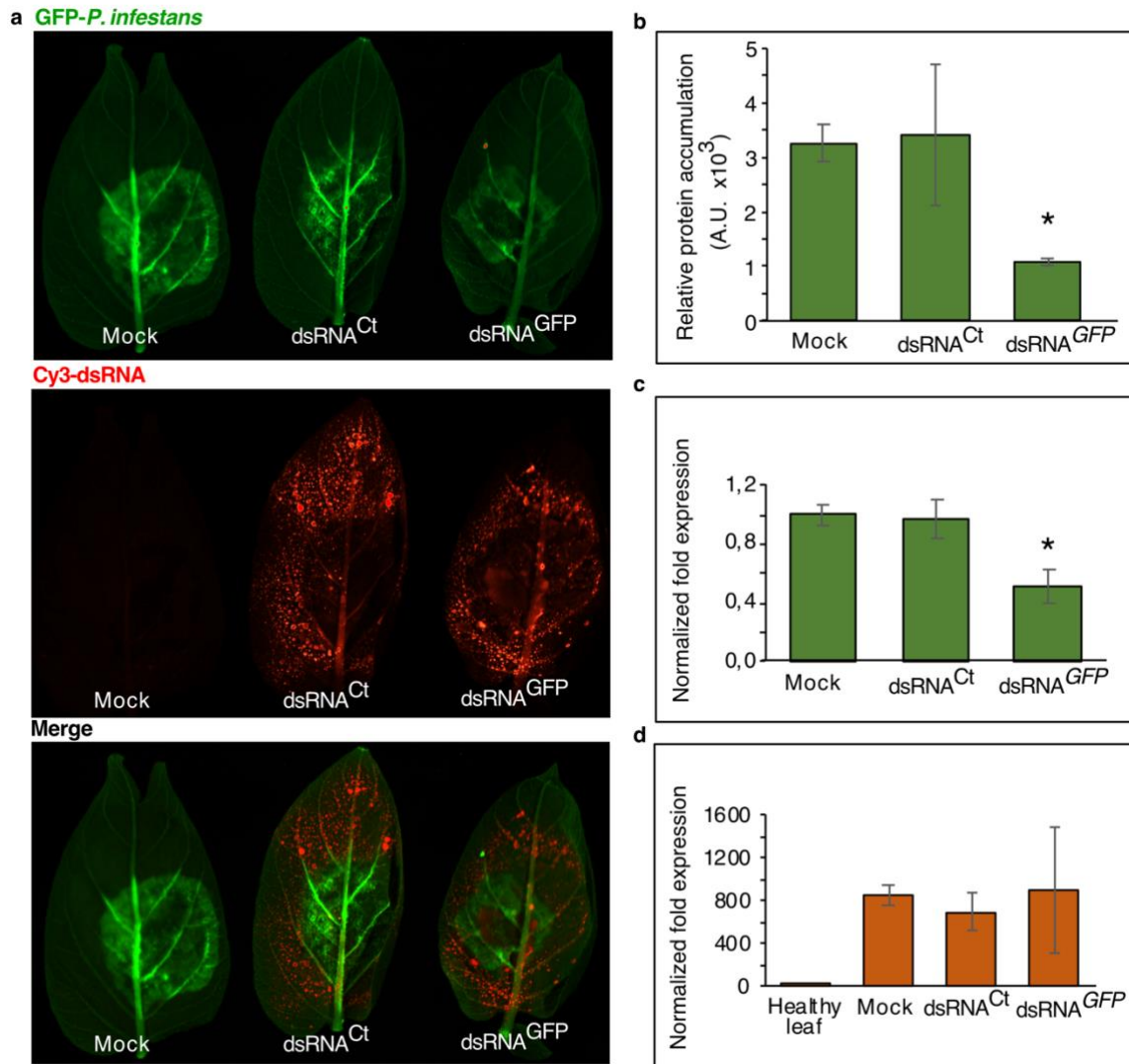
355 accumulation of Cy3-dsRNA in the hyphae and sporangia of *P. infestans*, trichome, stomatal

356 guard cells and epidermal cells of potato leaf. Images were taken with wavelengths

357 corresponding to GFP, Cy3, and aniline blue stain. **c.** Zoomed images of the highlighted region

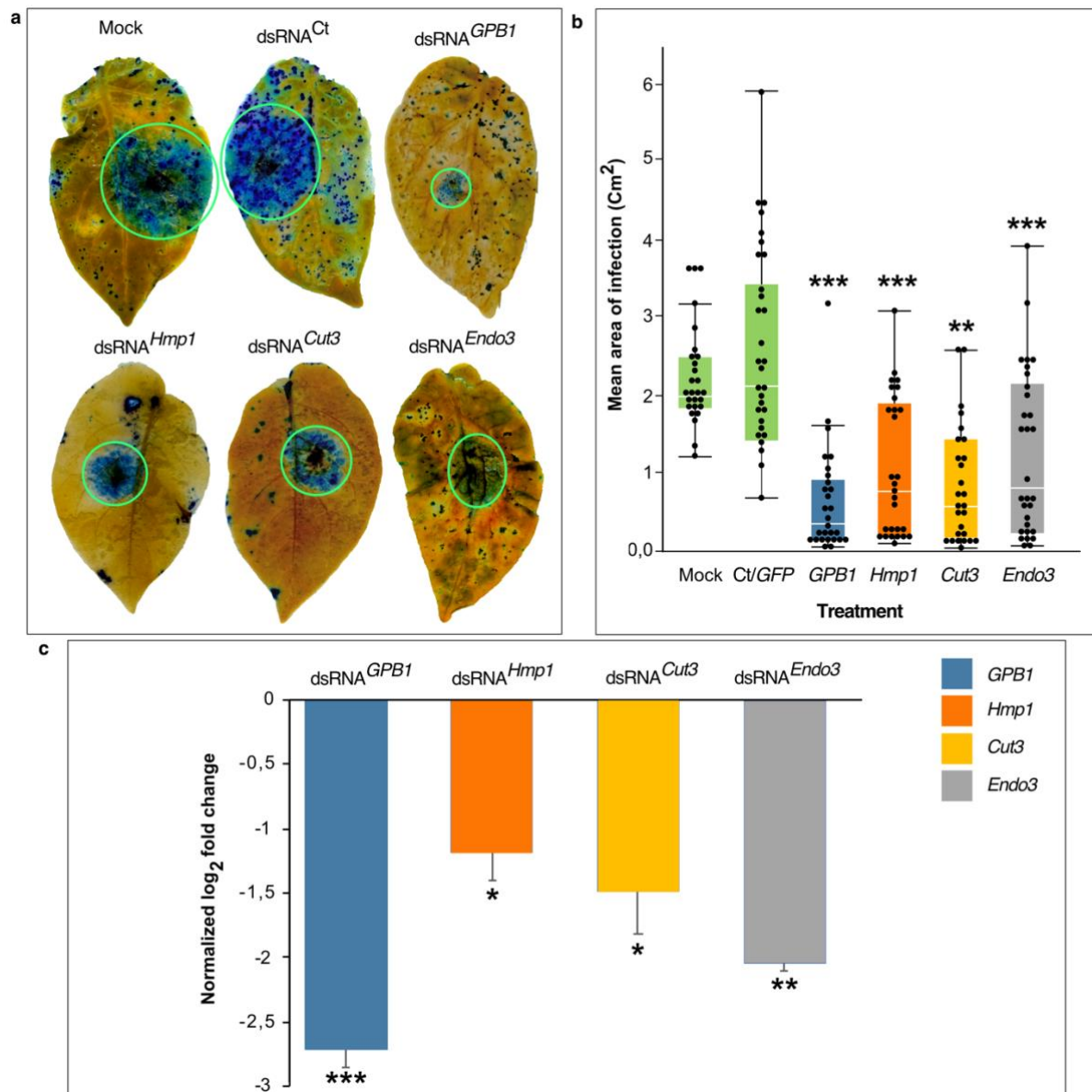
358 in b, showing accumulation of Cy3-dsRNA in the sporangium. Images were taken five dpi of

359 GFP-*P. infestans* on potato leaves.



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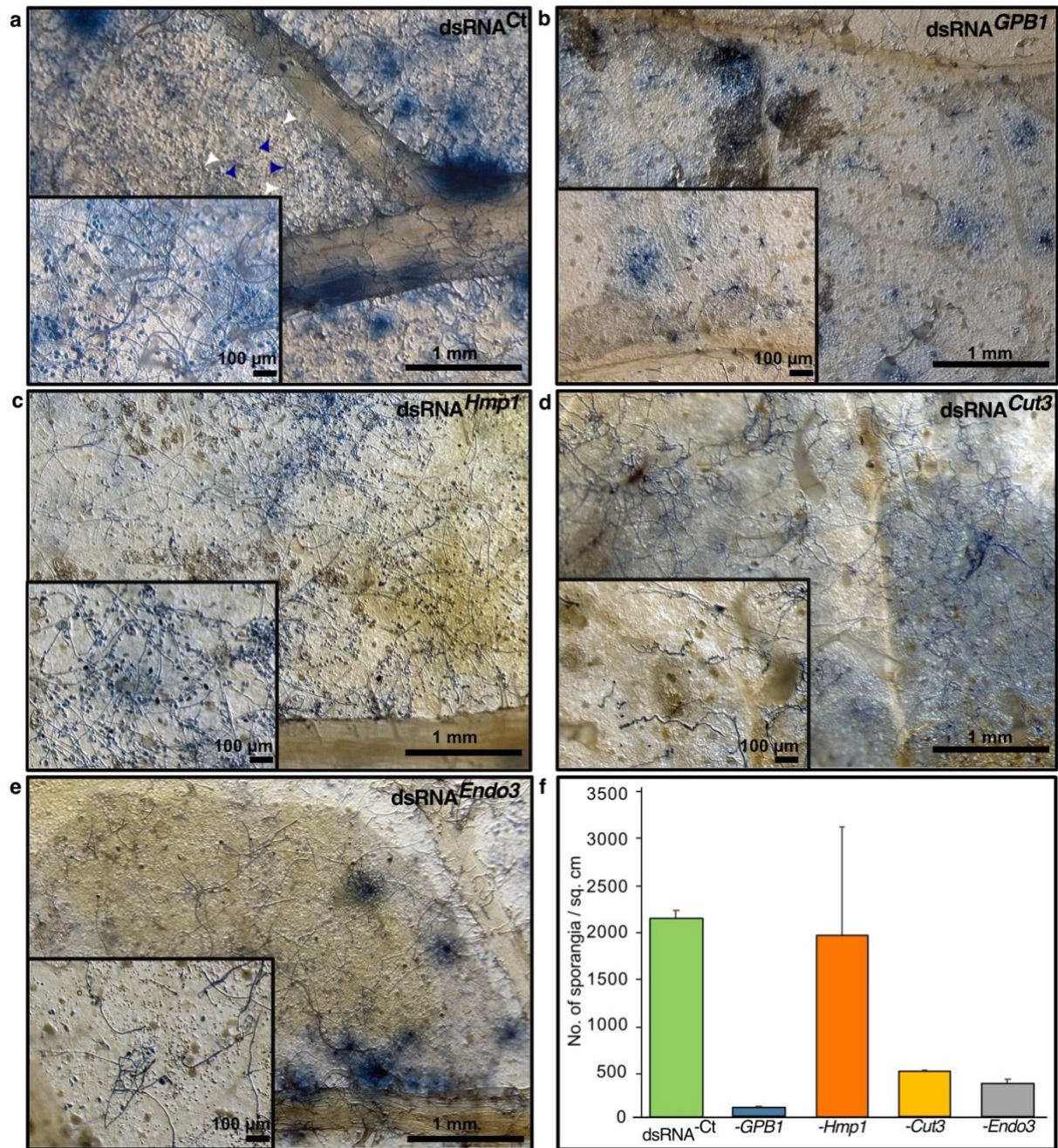
361 **Figure 2. dsRNA spray mediated GFP gene silencing in *GFP-P. infestans* in detached**  
 362 **potato leaves. a.** Representative images showing GFP accumulation on leaves sprayed with  
 363 either water (mock treatment), Cy3-dsRNA<sup>Ct</sup> or Cy3-dsRNA<sup>GFP</sup>. Approximately 10 µg of  
 364 dsRNA was sprayed on each leaf, left for 24 hours to dry, followed by inoculation with GFP-  
 365 *P. infestans*. Leaves were imaged 5 dpi using Bio-Rad ChemiDoc at respective wavelengths for  
 366 GFP and Cy3. **b.** Immunoblotting with anti-GFP-HRP antibody showing reduced GFP protein  
 367 levels in dsRNA<sup>GFP</sup> treated sample compared to mock treatment or dsRNA<sup>Ct</sup>. **c - d.** qRT-PCR  
 368 analysis showing the downregulation of *GFP* expression in dsRNA<sup>GFP</sup> treated samples  
 369 compared to mock treatment or dsRNA<sup>Ct</sup> (c). In contrast, the expression of *PiActin* is relatively  
 370 unchanged (d), indicating the specificity of dsRNA<sup>GFP</sup> mediated silencing. Asterisks indicate  
 371 statistically significant difference relative to mock treatment control; \*P < 0.01; Student's t-test.



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373 **Figure 3. Effect of SIGS on *P. infestans* disease progression.** **a.** Representative pictures of  
 374 trypan blue stained potato leaves showing *P. infestans* 88069 disease progression at 5 dpi on  
 375 leaves sprayed with water (mock treatment), dsRNA<sup>Ct</sup>, dsRNA<sup>PiGPB1</sup>, dsRNA<sup>PiEndo3</sup>,  
 376 dsRNA<sup>PiCut3</sup> or dsRNA<sup>PiHmp1</sup>. **b.** Box plot showing the quantification of area of disease  
 377 progression for each dsRNA sprayed (n = 30). **c.** qRT-PCR analysis showing the relative gene  
 378 expression of each target upon treatment with respective dsRNA. The Cq values of target genes  
 379 were normalized to the Cq values of *PiActin*. \*\*\*P < 0.0001, \*\*P < 0.001, \*P < 0.01; Control,  
 380 Dunnet's test.

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383 **Figure 4: Effect of SIGS on *P. infestans* morphology.** a-e. Representative stereo microscope  
384 images showing the effect of respective dsRNAs on the *P. infestans* morphology on detached  
385 potato leaves. Leaves were stained with trypan blue followed by imaging on a Leica  
386 stereomicroscope with 3.2x objective. Images in the inset were taken with 12x objective. f.  
387 Average number of sporangia per cm<sup>2</sup> of infection. Sporangia were counted manually from the  
388 images taken using the 12x objective. The graph represents mean sporangia count from three  
389 images taken from individual leaves.