Barley disease screening: a multiplex digital droplet PCR approach for the detection of *Ramularia collo-cygni, Rhynchosporium graminicola* and *Pyrenophora teres*

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ABSTRACT

Barley is the most widely grown cereal crop in Ireland and faces substantial yield loss annually due to airborne, seed-borne, and soil-borne pathogens. The most prevalent and destructive of these include ramularia leaf spot, barley leaf scald and net blotch, caused by *Ramularia collo-cygni, Rhynchosporium graminicola* and *Pyrenophora teres* respectively. Infected seeds are considered as the major source of inoculum for these diseases. The absence of varietal resistance for these fungal pathogens suggests the need for better disease management strategies. Accurate pathogen detection is one of the most widely accepted disease management strategies. To facilitate such detections in complex samples, such as seed, we demonstrate two digital droplet PCR (ddPCR) assays, with the initial assay capable of detecting *R. graminicola*, *R.collo-cygni* and *P. teres*. For those identified as positive for *P. teres* samples, a form-specific assay was designed to distinguish between the two economically significant forms of *P. teres* ; *P. teres f. maculata* (Ptm; spot form of net blotch) and *P. teres f. teres* (Ptt; net form of net blotch). The assay offers sensitive and specific pathogen detection from barley seeds up to pico moles/µl level. Limits of detection for *R. graminicola, R. collo-cygni* and *P. teres* in the triplex assay were calculated as 1.67 cp/µl, 1.06 cp/µl and 4.21 cp/µl respectively. For form-specific assay, limits of detection were calculated as 1.44 cp/µl for Ptt and 0.82 cp/µl for Ptm assay. Finally, the efficacy of the assay was demonstrated by screening a collection of historical barley seeds.

1 | INTRODUCTION

After wheat and corn, barley is the 3rd most widely produced cereal crop in Europe, making up almost 20% of the total cereals produced (European Union Crop Production, 2024). Due to the combination of agronomic and climatic factors, the potential for high yields and favourable end-markets, barley accounts for approximately 70% of all cereals produced in Ireland (CSO, 2023). Unfortunately, as with all crops, barley can succumb to a spectrum of diseases that if left unchecked can seriously impact potential yields, both quantitatively and qualitatively. Most notable amongst these are the fungal foliar diseases ramularia leaf spot (RLS) caused by *Ramularia collo-cygni,* barley scald caused by *Rhynchosporium graminicola,* and the spot and net forms of net blotch (SFNB and NFNB), caused by *Pyrenophora teres f. maculata* (Ptm) and *P. teres f. teres* (Ptt), respectively (Huss et al. 1992;Avrova & Knogge, 2012; Liu et al., 2011)*.*

As is the case with all plant diseases and pests, limiting initial inoculum/pest sources is critical to achieving sustainable control and is the principal tactic of integrated pest management (Barzman et al. 2015). For *R. collo-cygni*, *R. graminicola* and *P. teres* trash and stubble from the previous season's crops, volunteers and infected seed, all act as potential sources of initial inoculum. For *R. graminciola* and *P. teres,* it has been previously demonstrated that seed-borne infection represents a significant means of disease transmission and can directly impact disease levels and subsequent impacts on barley yields (Fountaine et al. 2010; Hysing & Wiik, 2013). For *R. collo-cygni*, whilst the pathogen can be readily detected in seed, and it has been demonstrated that it can grow from the seed into the developing seedling, the importance of seed-borne infection in the aetiology of RLS remains to be determined (Havis et al. 2014).

Traditionally seed has been tested for the presence of pathogens using culture dependent

techniques, whereby the test seeds are cultured on a selective growth media and subsequent

microbial growth is examined morphologically and/or microscopically to confirm the

contaminating species (Hiddink et al. 2023). However, there is a major disadvantage of

culture-dependent assays which is that they are restricted to those pathogens that can be

easily grown in culture and have a relatively fast growth rate. Of the three major barley

pathogens identified above, it is only possible to routinely identify *P. teres* through culture-

dependent assays as both *R. graminicola* and *R. collo-cygni* are relatively slow growing and

are outcompeted by other fungi (pathogenic or non-pathogenic) present in barley seed.

Identification of *P. teres* in culture can also be difficult as it can be mistaken for *P. graminea*,

which exhibits a similar morphology in culture (Liu et al. 2011). Similarly, it is not possible to

distinguish between Ptm and Ptt when grown in culture or by using osmotic or blotter tests

(Brodal, 1997). More recently developed detection methods that rely on detection of nucleic

acids (either DNA or RNA) have improved specificity compared to culture-based detection

methods. They also allow a wider range of pathogens to be detected, whilst simultaneously

reducing costs and run time (Elnifro Elfath et al. 2000).

Seed samples are unfortunately often complex matrixes, which can inhibit or impair DNA

based reactions and assay sensitivities (Lu et al. 2020), in particular those such as quantitative

polymerase chain reaction (qPCR) on which quantification is based on comparable efficiencies

of reactions required between the test sample and samples/standards of a known DNA

concentration (Hindson et al. 2013). Digital droplet PCR (ddPCR, also referred to as digital PCR

(dPCR) or crystal digital PCR (cdPCR) depending on the platform used) is a third generation of

PCR in which the starting DNA sample is partitioned through the use of microfluidics into

thousands of samples which subsequently undergo PCR reactions. By coupling partitioning

and PCR with fluorescent dye based DNA probes it is possible to use endpoint analysis to

confirm the presence or absence of the targeted DNA in partitioned samples (Mao et al.

2019). Through the use of Poisson's Law, which estimates the proportion of droplets

containing the target DNA, it is then possible to determine the total copies of the target DNA

in the starting sample (Quan et al. 2018). As quantification is based on an end point reaction

ddPCR is not sensitive to PCR inhibitors while qPCR is strongly influenced by the efficiencies

of the reaction (Basu, 2017). Therefore, ddPCR allows for the accurate and sensitive

quantification of specific DNA targets, even in complex matrices, making it an ideal platform

for the detection of pathogens in cereal seeds.

Different PCR based methods have been developed for each of the commonly occurring

barley pathogens, with qPCR assays available for both *P. teres* and *R. graminicola* (Leisova et

al. 2006); Fountaine et al. 2007), and a dPCR based method for detection of *R. collo-cygni*

recently published by Knight et al. (2022). To exploit the multi-spectral capacity of the Stilla

3-colour Nacia® ddPCR system, which allows simultaneous detection of the fluorescence

emitted from three spectrally different fluorophores, here we combine the *R. graminicola* and

R. collo-cygni assays of Fountaine et al. (2007) and Knight et al. (2022), with a *P. teres* probe

based assay to provide a triplex ddPCR assay to simultaneously detect and quantify the

presence of the three pathogens from historical barley seed samples. For the samples

positive for *P. teres*, a further form-specific ddPCR assay was designed to detect and

differentiate between the spot and net form of *P. teres.*

2 | MATERIALS AND METHODS

A multistage process of assay design, optimisation and application was developed and is

outlined in Figure 1.

2.1 | Fungal strains and DNA extraction

All fungal cultures used in the study (Supplementary Table 1) were acquired from the phytopathological collection in Teagasc, Oak Park, Co. Carlow. DNA was extracted from these cultures following freeze drying (for 24 hours) and homogenisation (with Retsch Mixer Mill MM 400 at a frequency of 20 Hz for 5 minutes) using a Qiagen DNeasy Plant Mini kit (Qiagen, Germany), following the manufacturer's instructions. Extracted DNA was quantified using Invitrogen™ Qubit™ Fluorometer with a Qubit™ 1X dsDNA BR Assay (Invitrogen, US).   For some of the cultures (See Supplementary Table 1: Isolates utilized in the study), only DNA was provided and the depositor confirmed presence of fungal DNA with PCR.

2.2 | Assay designs and initial optimization

For the initial ddPCR triplex assay to detect and distinguish between the three target fungal pathogens, the published fluorescence probe based assays for the detection of *R. collo-cygni* (Knight et al. 2022) and *R. secalis* (Fountaine et al. 2007) were selected. The *R. secalis* probe length was one base pair shorter than the original probe described by Fountaine et al. (2007). A separate set of primers and probe to detect *P. teres* was designed using Primer 3Plus (https://www.primer3plus.com/index.html) based on the Internal Transcribed Spacer (ITS) region of *P. teres* (OM471876.1). To further distinguish between Ptm and Ptt primers were deployed from Poudel et al. (2017) while probes were designed using Ptm and Ptt mRNA sequences from the same (accession numbers Ptm: KX909562.1 and Ptt: KX909556.1). However, for Ptm detection, a new reverse primer was designed using the same sequence in order to reduce the amplicon length for optimal qPCR efficiency (Van Holm et al. 2021) Online tool; PrimerQuest™ (Integrated DNA Technologies) was deployed for primer and probe designing.   tripl Primers and probes were ordered from Integrated DNA Technologies

(Europe). Details of all primers and probes are summarized in Table 1. Initial primer and probe

optimisation, including identifying annealing temperatures, was conducted using routine PCR

and visualised using agarose gel electrophoresis.

2.3 | ddPCR optimisation

Following these initial validation steps, the assays were transferred to ddPCR system (naica®

Crystal Digital PCR 3 colour system, Stilla Technologies, France). ddPCR using the naica®

Crystal Digital PCR 3 colour is separated into four stages: 1) the reaction mixture (primers,

probes, DNA of the pathogen and host and ultrapure water) is partitioned into nano-sized

droplets on a chip (up to 17k on a Ruby chip or 30k on a Sapphire chip), 2) partitioned samples

undergo up to 40 PCR cycles, 3) once the PCR is complete a scan of the chip is taken under

different wavelengths (corresponding to the excitation of the FAM, HEX and Cy5 dyes) is

undertaken, and 4) scanned chips are analysed to identify droplets with the target DNA

amplified based on presence or absence of the specified molecular probe-associated

fluorescence. In the present study all reactions were conducted using the Ruby Chip (up-to

17k droplets per chamber) and 5X naica® multiplex PCR MIX (Stilla Technologies, France) and

only reactions with >10k analysable droplets were included.

An initial series of reactions were performed to optimize concentrations of primers and

probes required to differentiate between positive and negative droplets. Reaction mixtures

were prepared in accordance with the guidelines provided by Stilla Technologies, consisting

of 1 µl of Buffer A, 0.2 µl of Buffer B (both Buffer A and Buffer B were supplied as part of the

5X naica® multiplex PCR MIX), 0.25 µl each of the primers (0.05 µM final concentration), 0.15

µl of each probe (0.06 µM final concentration), 0.85 µl of barley DNA (17 ng/µl), 1 µl of original

pathogen DNA was used as a template (0.1 ng/µl) and nuclease free water (Fisher Scientific,

UK) was added to reach a final volume of 5 µl. All PCR reactions were performed in triplicates

and in the presence of pathogen-free barley DNA as a matrix; extracted from two-week barley

seedlings (variety: RGT Planet, Goldcrop Ltd, Ireland) grown under controlled conditions

(16 h of light, 8 h of dark, at 20 and 16 °C). Thermal cycling conditions for both assays are as

follows; partition at 25°C followed by 95°C for 3 minutes, then 5 cycles of 95°C for 10 seconds

followed by 66°C for 30 seconds, and then 35 cycles at 95°C for 10 second and 64°C for 15

second. A compensation matrix was designed according to the guidelines provided by Stilla

Technologies, to normalize the fluorescence overlap and spill over.

2.4 | Determining Limits of Blank (LoB) and Limits of Detection (LoD)

Limit of blank (LoB) and Limit of detection (LoD) for the assays were calculated in multiplex

fashion and in accordance with the guidelines provided by Stilla Technologies. LoB can be

defined as the maximum target concentration expected in the blank sample with a probability

$PLoB = 1 - \alpha$ (typically $1 - \alpha = 95\%$ where $\alpha = 5\%$ of false positives), where α is the probability

of making a false positive decision in a real blank sample (no DNA of any target except the

background/barley DNA). Whereas, LoD is defined as the minimum concentration, a non-

zero, statistically significant value, that can be detected with a probability of $1 - \beta$ (typically 1

$- \beta = 95\%$ where $\beta = 5\%$ of false negatives), β is the probability making a false negative decision

in a real positive sample.

To determine the LoB, 30 blank (negative for the target for which LoB is being performed)

reaction replications were performed for each target. To calculate LoD, ten-fold serial

dilutions of a known target DNA concentration was performed and a non-zero, statistically

significant concentration detected by the assay, designated as low-level sample, was

calculated. Afterwards, five independent low-level samples were prepared and six reaction

replications of each were performed. Based on the copy per microliter (cp/µl) measured by

the fluorescence detector, LoD and LoB was calculated by using the online tool provided by

Stilla Technologies (https://www.stillatechnologies.com/digital-pcr/statistical-tools/limit-

detection/).

2.5 | Linear dynamic range of the assay

To calculate the relationship between the expected and measured quantities of each of the

target pathogen DNA, linear dynamic range of the assay was calculated. To achieve this, a 10-

fold dilution series (0.01–0.00001 ng/µl) of each pathogen DNA (*R. collo-cygni*, *R. graminicola*

and *P. teres*) was prepared and tested individually whilst keeping a constant DNA

concentration of the other two pathogens (0.1 ng/µl) in the reaction mixture. The log10

values of concentration against copy number/µl (cp/ µl) were plotted and correlation was

calculated in Microsoft Excel.

2.6| Specificity of the assays

Specificity of triplex and form-specific assays was performed by challenging the system with

a number of barley pathogens/barley microflora including *Botrytis cinerea (Bc)*,

Parastagonospora nodorum (Pn), Alternaria alternate (Aa), Fusarium graminearum (Fg),

Microdochium nivale (Mn) and *Fusarium culmorum (Fc)* accessions that are stored as part of

the Phytopathological collection in Teagasc, Oak Park, Co. Carlow. Additionally, specificity of

the form-specific was also verified against *R. collo-cygni* and *R. graminicola* in a singleplex

reaction. Each of the pathogen DNA was tested in an individual ddPCR reaction.

2.7 | Detection of pathogens in seed and leaf samples

To validate the reliability of the assays (triplex and form-specific assay) for naturally infected

barley samples, historical winter (35 samples) and spring (32 samples) barley seed DNA from

2016–2018, with variable susceptibility to leaf blotches, were evaluated using the assays. The

details of seed DNA extraction is described in Mulhare et al. (2021). Any droplet population

above LoD of the respective assay was considered positive. Samples positive for *P. teres* were

further tested by the form specific assay to confirm *P. teres* form.

Volunteers from the previous season crop are one of the sources of inoculum for RLS, barley

leaf scald and net blotch. Efficacy of the triplex assay was also assessed in wheat volunteers

from barley field with visual symptoms of RLS (Teagasc wheat trials in Knockbeg, Ireland

(2023)). Leaves were freeze dried and DNA was extracted as described above. Extracted DNA

(1 µl) was used as a template in the reaction mixture described in section 2.3.

3 | Results

3.1 | Assay design and optimization

For the detection of *R. collo-cygni* and *R. graminicola*, primers and probes were deployed

from published assays targeting translation elongation factor 1-alpha gene and Cytochrome

b genes respectively (Fountaine et al. 2007; Knight et al. 2022). However, for *P. teres* detection

and to distinguish between both Ptt and Ptm it was necessary to design novel fluorescent

probes (Table 1). The initial triplex assay was specific for the three pathogens, with no

fluorescence overlap observed between the different probes-pathogen combinations (Figure

2A). In triplex assay, we observed 5044 cp/µl and 10210 cp/µl for *R. graminicola* and *P. teres,*

for *R. collo-cygni and P. teres* 156.4 and 10993 cp/µl and for *R. graminicola, R. collo-cygni*

sample 5600 and 164.4 cp/µl respectively. *teres* form specific assay there was no fluorescence

overlap between the probe-pathogen combination, demonstrating specificity of the assay.

We observed 112.8 cp/µl in FAM channel and 7086 cp/µl in Cy5 channel in Ptt sample, 576.6

cp/µl in HEX and 20267 cp/µl in Cy5 channel in Ptm sample, for both forms we observed 186.5

cp/µl in FAM, 501.3 cp/µl in HEX and 26113 cp/µl in Cy5 channel (Figure 2B). For *R.*

graminicola, R. collo-cygni and P. teres the LoB were calculated to be 0.68, 0, and 1.34 cp/µl

respectively. For the *P. teres* form-specific assay and LoB of 0 cp/μl was calculated for both

Ptt and Ptm. Limits of detection (LoD) for *R. graminicola, R. collo-cygni* and *P. teres* in the

triplex assay were calculated as 1.67 cp/μl, 1.06 cp/μl and 4.21 cp/μl respectively.

Additionally, LoD was calculated as 1.44 cp/μl for Ptt assay and 0.82 cp/μl for Ptm assay. No

positive droplets, irrespective of probe, were detected in negative control (barley DNA only)

(Figure 2A & B).

3.2 | Linear dynamic range of the assay

To determine the accuracy of the assay, the linear dynamic range of the assay was ascertained

by correlating the projected DNA copies of each target in a sample and copy numbers

detected. For each probe-pathogen combination R^2 values of >0.99 were calculated. Linear

dynamic range of the assay also indicated the lower limit of detection of the assay, which is

0.00001 ng/μl (Figure 3). The linear dynamic range of the *P. teres* form specific assay was not

determined as it was specifically designed to distinguish between forms following initial

detection of *P. teres* using the triplex assay. Details of cp/μl for linear range is provided in

Supplementary information (Linear dynamic range.xlsx).

3.3 | Specificity of the assay

Considering the potential application of our assays, for screening seeds and leaf samples from

the field, specificity of both the assays was investigated against a range of fungi that may be

found on or in barley seeds and leaves. No positive droplets were detected in any of the

fluorescent channels for any of the fungi tested, indicating that the assays are highly specific

(Figure 4A & B).

3.4 | Detection of barley pathogens in wheat

Wheat leaf DNA was also tested for the presence of *R. collo-cygni.* The assay showed a 469.7

cp/μl in sample 9, 4546 cp/μl and 1557 cp/μl in sample 11 and 13 respectively of *R. collo-cygni*

DNA from symptomatic wheat leaves. However, wheat samples displayed positive droplets for the presence of *R. graminicola and P. teres* DNA in the samples (Figure 5). In order to rule out the *P. tritici-repentis* cross reactivity with the triplex assay, we performed the form-specific assay and we observed, 0.86 to 1.18 cp/µl of Ptt across two samples (Supplementary Figure 2).

3.5 | Detection of *R. collo-cygni*, *R. graminicola* and *P. teres* in barley seed samples

To determine the application of assays to test the presence of pathogens in naturally infected barley DNA samples, previously extracted from seeds of winter and spring barley from 2016 (Kildea et al. 2024) were tested. Only samples exhibiting cp/µl equal to or above the limits of detection, as identified above, were deemed positive for the respective pathogens. Of the 35 winter barley samples tested, 16 samples were positive for *R. collo-cygni*, two samples were positive for *R. graminicola,* while 19 were positive for *P. teres.* For the 32 spring barley samples, 15 were positive for *R. graminicola*, 25 samples were positive for *R. collo-cygni,* and 25 positive for *P. teres*. Nine of the spring and winter barley samples that were found to be positive for *P. teres* were tested to determine the form determination. None of the samples tested positive for the presence of *P. teres f. maculata*. In the case of winter barley, eight out of nine samples were positive for *P. teres f. maculata* and two samples were positive for *P. teres f. teres* as well as *P. teres f. maculata* (Supporting information seed testing data).

4 | Discussion

Clean seeds are undeniably important for healthy crops and this is reliant on early detection of specific disease agents, which can further facilitate the execution of IPM based disease control strategies (Dussart et al. 2020; Tsedaley, 2015). The ddPCR assays described offer a specific, reliable and sensitive means of detecting and quantifying three of the most economically important barley pathogens in a single reaction. The end point nature of the

digital PCR assay makes it ideal for detecting the different pathogens in complex plant

materials, such as seeds (Liu et al. 2011).

To validate the efficacy of our assays and investigate the prevalence of *R. collo-cygni, R.*

graminicola and *P. teres* in field samples, we screened a selection of historical barley seed

samples collected from 2016 to 2018 and wheat leaves sampled from volunteer wheat plants

in a winter barley field in 2023. Unsurprisingly, the barley seed samples were contaminated

with variable levels of the three pathogens, with a proportion coinfected with all three

pathogens. All three pathogens were detected in the winter wheat leaves, the latter result is

unsurprising given the fact that the leaves tested were collected from wheat volunteers

collected from a winter barley field. Whilst *R. collo-cygni* has previously been reported in

wheat in Ireland (Zia et al. unpublished), the detection of *R. secalis* and *P. teres* in the sample

may simply reflect the presence of both pathogens on the wheat leaf surface rather than

colonisation of the leaf tissue. This highlights a potential limitation of the assays. As they are

based on the detection of DNA of the respective pathogens, they cannot determine if the

detected pathogen was actively colonising the plant tissue, or if the pathogen detected was

even viable. However, it is important to note that these limitations are not restricted to the

assays developed and described in this paper but are a drawback of all DNA-based detection

methods (Ficetola et al. 2015). It is therefore critical that any positive detections are assessed

in the context of detection (host) and the potential risk(s) posed by the pathogen. As

mentioned previously it is more likely that the positive detections for *R. graminciola* and *P.*

teres from the wheat volunteers are consequential to levels of both diseases in the

surrounding barley crop. However, it is worth highlighting that in addition to *R. collo-cygni*

being noted as able to colonise wheat, Ptt has been reported as causing disease on wheat in

Hungary (Tóth et al. 2008), Russia (Mikhailova et al. 2010) and most recently in Brazil (Garozi

et al. 2020). Further analysis of wheat grains and/or a wider wheat disease survey is

warranted to determine if either pathogen is more widespread in wheat crops.

Those barley seed samples that presented positive for *P. teres* were subsequently tested to

determine what form of *P. teres* was present. Amongst the spring barley samples tested only

Ptt was present. For the winter barley seed samples both Ptt and Ptm were detected, with a

number of samples positive for both. All samples with detectable levels of Ptm, irrespective

of the presence of Ptt, were from the cultivar KWS Tower, which had by the late 2010s

become highly susceptible to *P. teres*, and in particular Ptm (Recommendation list in

supplementary information and author's unpublished data). Positive detection of both Ptt

and Ptm could indicate of a potential Ptt/Ptm hybrid, however based upon the number of

droplets positive for both in the test samples this appears unlikely. The presence of markers

for both forms does suggest that hybrids may arise, with recent reductions in fungicide

sensitivity and efficacy in Western Australia associated with such a hybrid (Mair et al. 2020;

Turo et al. 2021).

It is worth noting that within the multi-pathogen assay the region targeted for *P. teres* was

ITS region, whilst in the form specific assay we targeted the Ptt form-specific region PttQ5

mRNA sequence and the Ptm form-specific region PtmQ11 mRNA sequence. The copy

number for ITS in different fungi can vary considerably (Lofgren et al. 2019) and the copy

number of PtmQ11 and PttQ5 are unknown in *P. teres.* As a number of samples that tested

positive for *P. teres* in the multi-pathogen assay, were neither positive for either Ptt or Ptm

suggests PtmQ11 and PttQ5 have a lower copy number compared to ITS region in *P. teres.*

Therefore, ~ 15 cp/µl of *P. teres* sequence are required to confirm the presence of Ptt or Ptm

from the samples, as observed in the case of historical seed samples. Moreover, high droplet

population in *P. teres* ITS could potentially be the consequence of similarity between *P.teres*

and *P. graminea* ITS regions (Supplementary Figure 1), therefore, we suggest further

exploration of the historical seed samples.

As infected seeds are a likely source for the introduction of new pathogens and resistance

/virulence mechanisms across the globe, including the three pathogens discussed, early

detection and subsequent management in seed stocks will help minimise their spread (Stam

et al. 2019). Therefore, molecular seed screening for pathogen levels and identification of the

presence of fungicide resistance or virulence alleles should be a regular practice prior to seed

transportation. This ddPCR assay can be an efficient tool for regular seed screening.

Furthermore, establishment of pathogen threshold levels by deploying ddPCR, coupled with

the rejection of seeds with high pathogen levels, can minimize the risk of future outbreaks.

Seed is only one of the sources of these diseases, however prevention is the key to

suppression.

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Conflict of interest declaration

None declared.

Data availability statement

The data that support the findings of this study are available on reasonable request from the

corresponding author.

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List of Figures

Figure 1

Summarized workflow of the digital droplet PCR assay (Created with BioRender.com)

Figure 2

Digital droplet PCR assay, pathogen detected are indicated on x-axis and coloured horizontal
line is indicating the threshold for the assay. Grey droplet population below the threshold
line is negative droplets. Fluorescence intensity is indicated as relative fluorescence units
(RFU)(A) Triplex assay for the detection of *R. graminicola*, *R collo-cygni* (cp/µl) and *P. teres*
(cp/µl) (B) Form-specific assay for the detection of forms of *P. teres*, FAM channel detects *P.*
teres f. teres while HEX channel is to detect *P. teres f. maculata*. *P. teres* ITS assay was the
control (labelled with Cy5).

Figure 3

Linearity of the triplex assay for the detection of (A) *P. teres* (Internal transcribed Spacer
(ITS) gene), (B) *R. graminicola* (Cytochrome b (Cyt b) gene) and (C) *R. collo-cygni*
(Transcription elongation factor (tef) gene).

Figure 4

Specificity of the multiplex assays (A) Triplex assay for the detection of *R. collo-cygni*, R.
graminicola and *P. teres* challenged with a number of barley pathogens (B) *P. teres* form-
specific assay exposed to various barley pathogens.

Figure 5

Detection of *R. collo-cygni*, *R. graminicola* and *P. teres* from wheat leaf DNA (sample 9, 11
and 13) collected from wheat volunteers in the barley field, sample 16 and 32 indicate
positive and negative controls for the triplex assay. Droplet population in FAM and Cy5
channel indicate the possible cross contamination of the wheat leaves with *R. graminicola*
and *P. teres* spores from the barley.

Figure 1

FAM Channel specific for *R. graminicola*
HEX Channel specific for *R. collo-cygni*
Cy5 Channel specific for *P. teres*

FAM Channel specific for *P. teres f. teres*
HEX Channel specific for *P. teres f.maculata*
Cy5 Channel specific for *P. teres* (both forms)

A

FAM Channel specific for *R. graminicola*
HEX Channel specific for *R. collo-cygni*
Cy5 Channel specific for *P. teres*

B

FAM Channel specific for *P. teres f. teres*
HEX Channel specific for *P. teres f.maculata*
Cy5 Channel Specific for *P. teres* (both forms)

FAM Channel specific for *R. commune*

HEX Channel specific for *R. collo-cygni*

Cy5 Channel specific for *P. teres*

Seed DNA extraction

Sample preparation and loading on PCR chip

ddPCR, fluorescence data acquisition and analysis demonstrating pathogen DNA copy/copies in each channel

Table 1

List of primers and probes deployed in this study

Pathogen	Primer/Probe	Sequences (5' to 3')	Product size (bp)	Target gene
P. teres (Current study)	Pyr_123 F[*]	TTCGAGCGTCATTTGTACCC	123	Internal transcribed spacer region
	Pyr_123 R[**]	CAAATAATGTGCTGCGCTCC		
	Pyr_123_P*** Cy5[a]	5Cy5/AAAACATTG/TAO/GCAGCC GGCCT/3IAbRQSp		
R. collo-cygni (Knight et al. 2022)	Rcc_88_tef1-α_F	AGCCTAGCTGGCCACATGG	88	Transcription elongation factor
	Rcc_88_tef1-α_R	TGGGTGAGGTTGTCAGCATTT		
	Rcc_88_tef1-α_Pc HEX[b]	5HEX/ACATGCCGT/ZEN/CCAAAT TTCCTCTACCATC /3IABkFQ		
R. graminicola Fountaine et al. 2007)	Rsrtpcr1f	ATGTGCTTCCTTATGGACAGATGT	125	Cytochrome b
	Rsrtpcr1r	ATTATTAACAGAAAAACCCCCTCA GAT		
	Rsrtpcr1-Probe FAM[c]	56-FAM/TATG+AG+GTGCC+AC+AG/ 3IABkFQ		
P. teres f. teres (modified from Poudel et al. 2017)	Ptt_173_F	GCATTGTCTAGCACTCGTCG	173	PttQ5 mRNA
	Ptt_173_R	CGCGGACTCAGAAGACATTG		
	Ptt_173_P FAM	56-FAM/CCTTCCGGT/ZEN/CAACAGT GGCTGTTA/3IABkFQ		
P. teres f. maculata (Modified from Poudel et al. 2017)	Ptm_108_F	GATTAGACCATTACCACACTAGCG	108	PtmQ11 mRNA sequence
	Ptm_108_R	CGAGCAGTTCACGTTGTTCT		
	Ptm_108_P HEX	5HEX/TCGAGATTG/ZEN/CACACA GAACAAGGC/3IABkFQ		

*Forward primer
** Reverse primer
*** Probe sequence
a: Cyanine5 labelled probe, double quenched with TAO internal quencher, Iowa Black® RQ
b: Hexachlorofluorescein labelled probe, double quenched with ZEN internal quencher, Iowa Black FQ
c: 6-Carboxyfluorescein labelled probe, with 3' Iowa Black® FQ, + indicate locked nucleic acid (LNA) oligonucleotides